Polycontinuous geometries for inverse lipid phases with more than two aqueous network domains

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Inverse bicontinuous cubic phases with two aqueous network domains separated by a smooth bilayer are firmly established as equilibrium phases in lipid/water systems. The purpose of this article is to highlight the generalisations of these bicontinuous geometries to polycontinuous geometries, which could be realised as lipid mesophases with three or more network-like aqueous domains separated by a branched bilayer. An analysis of structural homogeneity in terms of bilayer width variations reveals that ordered polycontinuous geometries are likely candidates for lipid mesophase structures, with similar chain packing characteristics to the inverse micellar phases (that once were believed not to exist due to high packing frustration). The average molecular shape required by global geometry to form these multi-network phases is quantified by the surfactant shape parameter, \( vl(al) \); we find that it adopts values close to those of the known lipid phases. We specifically analyse the 3etc(187 193) structure of hexagonal symmetry \( P6_3/mcm \) with three aqueous domains, the 3dia(24 220) structure of cubic symmetry \( I43d \) composed of three distorted diamond networks, the cubic chiral 4sr(24 208) with cubic symmetry \( P4_32 \) and the achiral 4sr(5 133) structure of symmetry \( P4_3/mbc \), each consisting of four intergrown undistorted copies of the srs net (the same net as in the QG\( I \) gyroid phase). Structural homogeneity is analysed by a medial surface approach assuming that the head-group interfaces are constant mean curvature surfaces. To facilitate future experimental identification, we provide simulated SAXS scattering patterns that, for the 4sr(24 208) and 3dia(24 220) structures, bear remarkable similarity to those of bicontinuous QG\( I \)-gyroid and QD\( I \)-diamond phases, with comparable lattice parameters and only a single peak that cannot be indexed to the well-established structures. While polycontinuous lipid phases have, to date, not been reported, the likelihood of their formation is further indicated by the reported observation of a solid tricontinuous mesoporous silicate structure, termed IBN-9, which formed in the presence of surfactants [Han et al., Nat. Chem., 2009, 1, 123].

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1 Introduction

The existence of bicontinuous cubic phases in lipid systems is now widely accepted, based on studies in the 1960s through to the 1990s.1–7 Of particular interest are the inverse (or type II) bicontinuous cubic phases Q\textsubscript{G}II (of cubic symmetry Ia\textoverline{3}d), Q\textsubscript{D}II (Pn\textoverline{3}m) and Q\textsubscript{P}II (Im\textoverline{3}m), where the spatial structure is a lipid bilayer draped on a triply-periodic minimal surface; the aqueous domain consists of two network-like components, separated by the bilayer, see Fig. 2. While a large range of triply-periodic minimal surfaces of various topology and symmetry exist, only three cubic examples are ubiquitously found in lipid self-assembly and related systems, such as copolymers; these are the (G)yroid,8 the (D)iamond9 and the (P)rimitive9 surfaces that lend their structure to the Q\textsubscript{G}II, Q\textsubscript{D}II and Q\textsubscript{P}II lipid phases. The geometry described by a minimal surface is termed bicontinuous if the surface divides space into two interpenetrating network-like sub-volumes, each of which is a single connected component (i.e., mathematically, continuous), in contrast to, for example, the aqueous domains in inverse discrete micellar mesophases of cubic and hexagonal symmetries that consist of many disconnected globules.10 The geometry of the network-like aqueous domains is conveniently characterised by the centred skeletal graph or net, see Fig. 2.

The second characteristic feature of the inverse bicontinuous phases is the fact that they form smooth and homogeneous manifold surfaces with a very small degree of spatial variation in terms of surface curvatures11,12 and also channel diameters13,14—properties that relate to the free energies of the self-assembled systems through the concepts of bending rigidity, packing frustration and chain stretching.15–17

This article explores a class of multi-network or polycontinuous geometries that share the network-like nature of the aqueous domains with the established bicontinuous cases, but not the global manifold-like smoothness of the bilayer. While the bicontinuous phases contain two aqueous network-like compartments, these multi-network mesophase geometries (as yet unobserved in experimental lipid systems) have three, four or more network-like aqueous domains. For example, the so-called 3etc(187 193) structure, shown in Fig. 1 and 3, consists of three intergrown identical etc networks.

Even for the polycontinuous geometries studied here, the head-group surface (that is, the interface separating the hydrophobic bilayer from the aqueous domains) is a smooth surface; in the remainder of this article it is modelled by a constant mean curvature (CMC) surface,19 as is commonly assumed for cubic bicontinuous lipid systems.20

However, in contrast to the manifold-like head-group surface, the bilayer mid-surface (which does not represent a physical interface) cannot be a smooth surface everywhere but rather must have triple lines along which three patches meet; these triple lines necessarily arise from the fact that the surface separates three or more network-like domains. In the bicontinuous cubic phases, the bilayer mid-surface is a globally manifold-like smooth surface, in fact it is generally treated as the triply-periodic minimal surface itself. In the multi-network phases, the bilayer mid-surface can be modelled as a branched minimal surface, consisting of smooth minimal surface patches (locally corresponding to interfaces between two of the aqueous domains) with three of them meeting along triple-lines (corresponding to points in the bilayer that are equidistant to three aqueous domains). For the case of tetracontinuous structures, four triple-lines can meet at vertices equidistant to all four domains.

Fig. 1(c) shows the branched bilayer mid-surface of the 3etc(187 193) mesophase geometry; in that case, the triple-lines are straight lines along the crystallographic c-axis coincident with some of the three-fold symmetry axes. Fig. 4 shows a different example of a three-network structure, called 3dia(24 220) and composed of three interthreaded diamond networks (the same as the net of the Q\textsubscript{D}II phase, only slightly

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distorted since one dimension is compressed by a factor of $\sqrt{2}$). The triple-lines in this case are arranged in the $I$-rod packing\textsuperscript{24} of symmetry $Ia\overline{3}d$.

These branched surfaces have been termed multi- or poly-continuous,\textsuperscript{25–28} in analogy to the term bicontinuous\textsuperscript{25–28} for surfaces that divide space into two network-like compartments. More specifically, the term tricontinuous is used for a system with three interpenetrating nets and tetracontinuous for a surface that separates four interpenetrating nets.

Here, we refer to the different surface geometries by names that contain the number of interthreaded nets and the name of the net; in parentheses, we provide, first, the coloured symmetry group of the structure (applicable if all nets are distinct) and, second, the uncoloured symmetry group of the structure (applicable if the interthreaded nets are identical, as is the case for the mesophases proposed in this article). Symmetry groups are specified by their numbers as listed in ref. 21. This scheme is similar to the names used in ref. 29, with the addition of the uncolored symmetry
**Fig. 2** Geometry of the conventional $Ia\overline{3}d$ inverse bicontinuous Q$\Gamma_2$ phase, based on the 2$srs$($230$ $214$) nets: (a) two aqueous domains, given by CMC surfaces centred on two (enantio-meric) $srs$ nets, are separated by a lipid bilayer. (b) The medial surface representing the mid-surface of the bilayer is the same as the minimal $H = 0$ gyroid surface of symmetry $Ia\overline{3}d$, within numerical accuracy. For clarity, the CMC surfaces bounding the two aqueous domains are displayed with different colours; in the mesophases described here the aqueous domains are indistinguishable.

**Fig. 3** The 3$etc$($187$ $193$) geometry of hexagonal symmetry with three intertwined aqueous domains. The aqueous domains are bound by CMC surfaces and the mid-surface of the bilayer has (vertical) branch lines along which three patches meet (right). For clarity, the CMC surfaces bounding the three aqueous domains are displayed with different colours; in the mesophases described here the aqueous domains are indistinguishable. This geometry (with $a = 8.84$ nm and $c = 8.43$ nm) has been asserted as the spatial structure of the IBN-9 mesoporous silicate.*

**Fig. 4** The 3$dia$($24$ $220$) geometry consisting of three distorted diamond (dia) nets. For clarity, the CMC surfaces bounding the three aqueous domains are displayed with different colours; in the mesophases described here the aqueous domains are indistinguishable.
Table 1  Naming convention of polycontinuous geometries. “Coloured” is the symmetry group of the structure if the different network domains are of a different colour or if they are chemically distinct. (Note that the symmetry group C2 of the achiral 4srs(5 133) structure is the same as I2.) “Uncoloured” is the symmetry group of the structure if the network domains are identical (in colour, chemical composition, etc)—this latter group is hence the space group relevant for the self-assembly described in this article, where the networks represent identical aqueous domains. Space group numbers refer to the International Tables of Crystallography, and the Reticular Chemistry Structure Resource for the name of this structure in the RCSR database. Symmetries of the cubic geometries 2srs(214 230), 2dia(227 224) and 2pcu(221 229) underlying the inverse bicontinuous QII, QDII and QPII phases are provided for reference.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coloured</th>
<th>a, b, c</th>
<th>Uncoloured</th>
<th>a, b, c</th>
<th>RCSR</th>
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<td>4srs(24 208)</td>
<td>I2,2,2,1 no. 24 orthorhombic</td>
<td>a = b = c</td>
<td>P432 no. 208 cubic</td>
<td>srs-c4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4srs(5 133)</td>
<td>C2 no. 5 monoclinic</td>
<td>a = b = c = 90°</td>
<td>P432/nbc no. 133 tetragonal</td>
<td>srs-c4*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3etc(187 193)</td>
<td>P6m2 no. 187 hexagonal</td>
<td>c = 0.954 a = \sqrt{3}</td>
<td>P63/mcm no. 193 hexagonal</td>
<td>etc-c3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3dia(24 220)</td>
<td>I2,2,2,1 no. 24 orthorhombic</td>
<td>a = b = c = 1</td>
<td>I43d no. 220 cubic</td>
<td>dia-c3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2srs(214 230) QII</td>
<td>I4,32 no. 214 cubic</td>
<td>a = b = c = 1</td>
<td>1a3d no. 230 cubic</td>
<td>srs-c2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2dia(227 224) QIII</td>
<td>Fd3m no. 227 cubic</td>
<td>a = b = c = 1</td>
<td>Pn3m no. 224 cubic</td>
<td>dia-c2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2pcu(221 229) QIV</td>
<td>Pn3m no. 221 cubic</td>
<td>a = b = c = 1</td>
<td>Im3m no. 229 cubic</td>
<td>pcu-c2</td>
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</table>
group. Table 1 summarises the names and symmetries of the polycontinuous structures studied here.

Even from a purely geometric perspective, our understanding of polycontinuous surfaces is still in its infancy. One of the first examples of a tricontinuous surface is the global extension of Elser’s cubic Archimedean screw, a branched surface separating three channels each of which is represented by the srs net (the same net as in the Q_II-gyroid phase). Other examples were proposed by Schoen ("integral vari-folds") and by Hyde and co-workers. If a branched minimal surface is the result of area minimisation, it satisfies Plateau’s laws (facets meet at 120° angles along triple-lines, and triple-lines meet at tetrahedral angles at four-fold vertices) and can be interpreted as dry liquid foams with infinite cells. (Note that below we do not derive the branched surfaces from an area minimisation principle, but rather as the centred mid-plane between network domains bound by CMC surfaces, in contrast to the construction of ref. 29. Whether these two different constructions lead to the same branched surface (and if so, for which values of h_0) is an interesting question for future research.)

Both topologically and geometrically, many aspects of polycontinuous surfaces are closely related to the intergrowth of periodic networks. Just as the bicontinuous gyroid is the interface between two intergrown srs nets, all polycontinuous surfaces can be interpreted as the dividing interface between multiple intergrown periodic nets. The intergrowth of nets was addressed (albeit not comprehensively) by Wells, who was, for example, aware of the possibility to interthread four srs nets; a number of multiply intergrown nets (that are of relevance for metal–organic frameworks) are described in the Reticular Chemistry Structure Resource database. A promising systematic approach for the enumeration of multiply-intergrown nets of arbitrary complexity is the projection of forests (packings of unconnected trees) in the hyperbolic plane onto triply-periodic minimal surfaces.

Experimental or simulated realisations of polycontinuous geometries are being explored in a few distinct systems with important differences: Hyde et al. have proposed tricontinuous surfaces as a natural candidate for the self-assembly of star-shaped molecules with three mutually immiscible arms in a radial arrangement, such as mikto-arm star copolymers and star polyphiles. By microphase separation, the three immiscible components self-assemble into three distinct nano-domains. The molecular centres of such molecules are located on the branch lines where these three domains meet (the triple lines discussed above) and the interface between these domains can be regarded as a branched surface. Many different structures formed by such tri-arm stars have been reported based on experiments and simulations. However, to date, there are only hints towards the existence of such branched surfaces.

Fig. 5 The chiral 4srs(24 208) geometry consisting of four same-handed srs networks (the same network as that of the well-known Q_II-gyroid phase). For clarity, the CMC surfaces bounding the four aqueous domains are displayed with different colours; in the mesophases described here the aqueous domains are indistinguishable.
of tricontinuous structures, in which each of the domains forms a single connected network.\textsuperscript{34,41}

Importantly, in these instances, the existence of three distinct compartments or domains directly reflects the molecular architecture with three immiscible parts. While the three domains may be geometrically the same, each of them represents a chemically distinct molecular component. This is in contrast to the hypothetical systems proposed in this article, where all aqueous domains are identical and the lipid molecules are amphiphilic, with only two (and not three) immiscible moieties, one polar and one hydrophobic.

A “tricontinuous” $Im3m$ thermotropic liquid crystal phase has also been reported, based on three intergrown networks.\textsuperscript{42} This phase is more closely related to the structures proposed in this article in that the constituent molecules consist of two immiscible parts only; the hydrocarbon tails fill the matrix between three networks (two of which are identical) formed by the aromatic domains. The dissimilar network is intergrown between the two identical networks, such that the surface between these is not branched. Therefore, this structure is not tricontinuous in the strict sense of our terminology.\textsuperscript{29} The theoretical possibility of polycontinuous metal organic frameworks has been mentioned in ref. 88

The experimental realisation of a tricontinuous system that is most closely related to the predictions of this article is the tricontinuous mesoporous silicate IBN-9 with hexagonal symmetry reported by Han \textit{et al.}\textsuperscript{18,43–45} This material has been reported to contain three hollow channels following the nets of the 3etc(187 193) structure (see Fig. 3) with a solid “matrix” of amorphous silicate forming a periodic branched sheet, with a unit cell size $a = 8.9$ nm and $c = 8.4$ nm. IBN-9 was synthesised according to methods developed for mesoporous silicates under alkaline conditions, that is, the self-assembly of surfactant molecules in an aqueous solution (of ammonia) in the presence of tetraethoxysilane (TEOS) as a silica source, heated to 50 °C for 24h, then calcined at 550 °C.\textsuperscript{43} While the earliest work\textsuperscript{43} used a custom-designed cationic surfactant (denoted S2–C14), the structure has now been replicated with the more conventional surfactant, cetyl trimethylammonium bromide (CTAB).\textsuperscript{44}

With the noteworthy exception of the tricontinuous mesoporous material IBN-9, all mesoporous inorganic phases formed in the presence of amphiphilic molecules adopt mesostructures that are very similar to known liquid crystalline mesophases. It is likely that the new tricontinuous material also has a liquid crystalline counterpart with the same mesostructure, though no example has been reported to date. If existent, it is very likely that IBN-9’s liquid crystalline counterpart is a direct (type I) phase, see Fig. 7. For two other mesoporous silicate geometries,\textsuperscript{46,47} MCM-48 (with an amorphous silica sheet draped onto the gyroid TPMS\textsuperscript{48}) and MCM-41 (cylindrical hollow tubes in amorphous silica), it has been reported\textsuperscript{49} that the silica “fills” the aqueous domains; MCM-48 is templated from a type-I (or direct) surfactant phase QG with hydrophobic network domains separated by a water-filled matrix (as observed in a similar surfactant system\textsuperscript{49}). In analogy, one may expect IBN-9 to be templated from a type-I 3etc(187 193) phase. If this is indeed the case, the analysis below—for the likelihood of the formation of inverse (type II) polycontinuous cases—is only of indirect relevance to the formation of IBN-9.

Much of the phase behaviour and many of the adopted spatial structures can be rationalised by purely geometric considerations;\textsuperscript{51–55} in particular, the phase sequence observed with changes in experimental parameters. In a nutshell, one reduces the self-assembly process to a geometric packing problem of identical particles. The particle shape is largely quantified by the surfactant packing parameter, $s' = v_m / \left( a_{nl} l_m \right)$, where $a_{nl}$ is the effective head-group area, $v_m$ is the volume and $l_m$ is the length of the (fluctuating) lipid tail,\textsuperscript{51–55} with an implicit assumption that particles are monodisperse in volume (or size). The actual chemical parameters, such as salt concentration, temperature, etc. tune the molecular shape, which is the effective variable that determines the resulting self-assembled spatial structure. For example,
an increased salt concentration leads to a reduction of the effective head-group area for charged surfactants, as repulsive electrostatic interactions between the polar head-groups are more strongly screened.

Through a theorem known as Steiner’s theorem, which states that the volume in the normal direction from a surface patch, up to a distance \( l \), is a polynomial in \( l \) with the surface curvatures as the coefficients, the surfactant shape parameter relates to surface curvatures (see also eqn (5)) and, hence, to the wide field of Helfrich functionals and preferred curvature energies.\(^{15,51–56}\)

The idea underlying the calculation of free energies of the self-assembly process is simple: how favourable a spatial structure is for the self-assembly of lipids of a given shape depends on how similar the space available to each molecule is to the shape of the molecule itself. This principle is elucidated by the following construction: for a given spatial configuration of lipid molecules—in equilibrium or not—the hydrophobic domain is tessellated into small volume elements (“volumes”), each of which corresponds to the region of space associated with a particular lipid molecule. This could be achieved, for example, by a Voronoi construction. The self-assembly process then favours spatial structures with minimal deviations of the shape of the molecule from the shape of the volume available to that molecule. Two factors contribute to this:

First, the average shape of all volume elements should match the molecular shape. This leads to the conclusion that molecules with \( s' = 1 \) should form flat lamellar structures, with \( s' = 1/3 \) for spherical micelles, \( s' = 1/2 \) for cylindrical columns and those with \( s' > 1 \) form inverse structures.

Second, variations of the shape of the volume elements at different points in the adopted spatial structure are possible; while the shapes of the volume elements are the same at all points for direct micellar and columnar phases (with lipids pointing inwards), variations necessarily occur for inverse micellar and columnar phases and for both direct and inverse bicontinuous phases. Therefore, even though the average shape of the volume elements may match the molecular shape, the agreement between molecular shape and the shape of the volume elements varies from molecule to molecule. This phenomenon has become known as frustration or (lack of) homogeneity, with bending frustration denoting the variations of curvature throughout the structure and stretching frustration denoting the variations in the length of the volume elements (or bilayer half-width).\(^{11,12,14,16,20,54,57–60}\)

This geometric approach of preferred shape is explored in this article, with respect to the formation of inverse polycontinuous mesophases with more than two network-like aqueous compartments. Specifically, with respect to packing and chain stretching, it is easy to leap to the conclusion that the branched nature of the lipid bilayer introduces a large degree of chain stretching and effectively prevents these phases from forming. However, this brings up the analogy of the inverse cubic and inverse hexagonal micellar phases, which also exhibit bilayer branching. These branched inverse micellar phases are now part of the standard phase diagram of lipid self-assembly.\(^{10,61,89,90}\)

In this article, we analyse hypothetical polycontinuous geometries as candidate structures for lipid self-assembly under the following assumptions: the self-assembled system consists of three or four identical network-like aqueous domains, termed \( K \), centred on periodic intertwined (or interthreaded) networks. The aqueous domains are bound by surfaces, \( S \), of a constant mean curvature (CMC) with the same topology and symmetry as the underlying network; \( h_0 \) denotes the value of the mean curvature. The aqueous domains are separated by a hydrophobic matrix, \( K \) (the complement \( E^3 \setminus K \) of \( K \)), representing the branched lipid bilayer, with lipid head-groups sitting on the surface \( S \) and lipid tails pointing into the matrix domain.

We analyse the \( 3\text{etc}(187\ 193) \) geometry of hexagonal \( P6/mcm \) symmetry (cf. Fig. 3), the chiral \( 4\text{sr}(24\ 208) \) geometry of cubic \( P4_32 \) symmetry (cf. Fig. 5) consisting of four same-handed \( \text{sr} \) nets, the achiral \( 4\text{sr}(5\ 133) \) geometry of four intertwined \( \text{sr} \) nets, two right-handed and two left-handed, of tetragonal symmetry...
42\(/nbc\) with \(c/a = 1/\sqrt{2}\) (cf. Fig. 6) and the 3dia(24 220) geometry of three distorted diamond networks of cubic symmetry \(I4_3d\) (cf. Fig. 4).

Table 1 summarises the symmetry groups of these polycontinuous geometries (coloured and uncoloured groups) and Table 2 provides maximal bilayer volume fractions for these polycontinuous geometries.

2 Structural homogeneity and surfactant shape parameter

The conclusions of this article are based on an analysis of structural homogeneity, quantified by the degree of variation of both local bilayer width and local shape variation. We identify the spatially-varying half-width \(d(p)\) of the (branched) bilayer at points \(p\) on \(S\) as well as the local volume element \(dK(p)\) that represents the section, or “volume element”, of the bilayer that is associated with a small surface patch \(dS(p)\) at point \(p\) on the head-group surface \(S\); \(dS(p)\) can be considered to represent a single molecular head-group, see Fig. 8.

The construction of both the local volume elements \(dK(p)\) and the measurement of the bilayer half-width \(d(p)\) is conceptually simple (see Fig. 8) and draws on the medial surface (or axis) construction\(^{13,14,60,62,64}\) (see also ref. 64 and 65). Consider
Table 2 Structural data for the polycontinuous space partitions. \(H_{\text{min}}\) is a rough approximation of the minimal mean curvature, \(h_0\), for which the CMC network domains are non-overlapping. \(\phi_{\text{min}}^m\) is the corresponding volume fraction of the branched lipid bilayer (matrix domain) and represents the smallest bilayer volume fraction that is possible for the respective geometries. The value of the parameter \(a\) provides the overall structural length that does not enter the results of Fig. 9 to 12, but is necessary when specifying \(H_{\text{min}}\). \(c\) and \(a\) refer to the values of the uncoloured space groups that are relevant to lipid self-assembly with identical channels. For the \(4srs\) (5 133) and \(4srs\) (24 208) structures, the values of \(H_{\text{min}}\) and \(\phi_{\text{min}}^m\) correspond to the mean curvature, where the CMC surfaces bounding the four network domains have a contact point; the value is the same for both structures as the first contact point (that develops when decreasing \(h_0\) below \(H_{\text{min}}\)) is a contact point between a pair of same-handed networks, which are present in both structures (i.e., the branched bilayer has a point of vanishing thickness, for \(h_0 = h_{\text{min}}\). The minimal bilayer half-width \(d_{\text{min}}(h) = \min_{p \in S} \Delta(p)\) is, for \(h \rightarrow h_{\text{min}}\) and \(h > h_{\text{min}}\), a function that smoothly decreases to \(d_{\text{min}}(h_{\text{min}}) = 0\) for these \(srs\) geometries. For the \(3\text{etc}(187 193)\) structure, this is different because of the discontinuous behaviour as a function of \(h_0\) discussed in Fig. 17. At \(h_0 = h_{\text{min}}\), the bilayer jumps from having finite width everywhere to an overlapping configuration. A configuration in which the \(\text{etc}\) network domains do not overlap but have singular mutual contact points—as is the case for the \(4srs\) (5 133) and \(4srs\) (24 208) structures at \(h_{\text{min}}\)—does not exist. The cubic inverse micellar \(Fd\beta m\) phase is modelled with a ratio of 1.273 for the two sphere radii \(r_1\) and \(r_2\), consistent with data from ref. 10.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Name</th>
<th>Uncoloured</th>
<th>(a, c)</th>
<th>(H_{\text{min}})</th>
<th>(\phi_{\text{min}}^m)</th>
<th>Figure</th>
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<td>(Q_{32})</td>
<td>(Ia3d)</td>
<td>(a = 1)</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
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<td>(P6_3/mcm)</td>
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<td>(0.38 \pm 0.05)</td>
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<td>(a = 1)</td>
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<td>unknown</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
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<td>(P4_2/hnc)</td>
<td>(a = 1/\sqrt{2}, c = 1/2)</td>
<td>(2.5 \pm 0.1)</td>
<td>(0.30 \pm 0.01)</td>
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<td>(a = 0.5)</td>
<td>(2.5 \pm 0.1)</td>
<td>(0.30 \pm 0.01)</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Q_{227})</td>
<td>(Fd\beta m)</td>
<td>(a = 1)</td>
<td>(r_1 = 0.17), (c = \sqrt{8}/3 \approx 1.633)</td>
<td>(0.33 \pm 0.01)</td>
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<td>(H_{24}^{\text{III}})</td>
<td>(P6_3/mmc)</td>
<td>(a = 1), (c = \sqrt{8}/3 \approx 1.633)</td>
<td>(r_2 = 0.22), (1/(1/2))</td>
<td>1 - (\frac{\pi}{\sqrt{18}} \approx 0.26)</td>
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<tr>
<td>(H_{II})</td>
<td>(p6m)</td>
<td>(a = 1)</td>
<td>(1/2)</td>
<td>1 - (\frac{\sqrt{3}\pi}{6} \approx 0.10)</td>
<td>—</td>
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</table>

The body \(K\) that represents the branched lipid bilayer and that is bound by the CMC interfacial surfaces. The medial surface, \(MS(K)\), is the centred mid-surface (sometimes called backbone) of \(K\) with the defining feature that any point, \(q\), on the medial surface is equidistant to (at least) two closest points, \(p_1\) and \(p_2\), on the bounding surface, \(S\). For all of the multiply interthreaded CMC network structures considered here, the definition of the MS can be further simplified. For these structures, the bounding surface, \(S_i\) of \(K\) evidently consists of separate CMC surfaces, \(S_i\) with \(i = 1, 2, 3\) (tricontinuous) or \(i = 1, 2, 3, 4\) (tetrachaincontinuous), corresponding to the three or four network-like aqueous domains. In these cases, the points, \(p_1\) and \(p_2\), are always on two different surfaces, \(S_j\) (bounding different aqueous domains), i.e. \(p_1 \in S_i\) and \(p_2 \in S_j\) with \(i \neq j\). The MS thus correctly represents the bilayer mid-surface equidistant from the different aqueous domains.
The medial surface construction provides a concise definition of the bilayer mid-surface, which is in agreement with intuition for the self-assembly geometries that have been experimentally realised: for inverse hexagonal cylinder phases, H\textsubscript{II}, the MS represents the hexagonal honeycomb structure that separates the different cylindrical aqueous compartments, see e.g. Fig. 3 in ref. 20 and Fig. 8. Similarly, for the \textit{Fd3m} inverted micellar phases in binary systems, the MS traces the polyhedral cells between the water-filled micelles (see Fig. 9 in ref. 10) and is analogous for the hexagonal inverse micellar phase of hexagonal symmetry \textit{P6}/\textit{mmc} (space group 194), described by Shearman \textit{et al.} and here denoted \textit{H}\textsubscript{II}\textsubscript{66}.\textsuperscript{4,6} For the inverse bicontinuous phases \textit{Q}\textsubscript{II}, \textit{Q}\textsubscript{I} and \textit{Q}\textsubscript{I} based on Schwarz’ and Schoen’s gyroid, primitive and diamond minimal surfaces,\textsuperscript{8,9,67} the medial surface is very close (and possibly coincides exactly) with the minimal surface,\textsuperscript{2} see Fig. 2 and Fig. 1 in ref. 20. For the type-I hexagonal \textit{H}_1, micellar and lamellar lipid phases, the MS are simply the cylinder rotation axes, the micellar centre points and the bilayer half-plane (when approximating the head-group interfacial surface by CMC surfaces, \textit{i.e.}, by cylinders, spheres or planes).

The MS construction immediately provides a definition of the point-wise bilayer width at point \( p \) on the head-group surface \( S \) as the distance, \( d(p) \), from \( p \) to its corresponding point, \( ms(p) \), on the MS. As \( ms(p) \) is strictly in the surface normal direction,\textsuperscript{13} the distance \( d(p) \) and the MS point \( ms(p) \) can be expressed by a max-min principle: for a given point, \( p \in S \), the corresponding MS point, \( ms(p) \), is the maximally distant point in the direction of the surface normal, \( N(p) \), from \( p \) that is still closer to \( p \) than it is to any other point \( p' \in S \), with \( p' \neq p \) (the surface normal \( N(p) \) is assumed to point into the hydrophobic domain). Therefore, one obtains

\[
ms(p) = p + d(p)N(p) \tag{1}
\]

with the medial surface distance function, \( d(p) \), given by

\[
d(p) = \max\{r \in \mathbb{R}^3 | D(p + rN(p), p) \leq D(p + rN(p), p') \forall p' \in S \}, \tag{2}
\]

with the Euclidean distance \( D(p,p') \) between two points \( p,p' \in \mathbb{R}^3 \). One may consider the MS transform as moving point \( p \) along \( N(p) \) to \( p + rN(p) \) by a value \( r > 0 \). For small \( r \) it is evident that \( p \) is the closest surface point on \( S \) to the translated point \( p + rN(p) \); however, for a finite \( r \), a different point \( p' \in S \) becomes the closest surface point to \( p + rN(p) \); the value of \( r \) at which this happens defines \( d(p) \) and the MS point \( ms(p) \).

Below, the function \( d(p) \) is used to quantify averages and variances of bilayer width. Through the relation of “chain stretching contributions” to the self-assembly free energy, this analysis allows for predictions of the likelihood of self-assembled experimental observation of these polycontinuous lipid structures. Chain stretching contributions are, however, only one part of energetic description. Of equal importance are “bending contributions” that relate to curvature inhomogeneities and, through the celebrated molecular shape parameter, to molecular shape. To analyse bending contributions, we construct a local volume that allows the analysis of a structural equivalent of the molecular shape parameter \( \chi \).

The guiding idea behind the definition of a volume element \( dK \) associated with a given surface patch \( dS \) is to associate each point in the bilayer \( K \) with its closest point on the interface surface, see Fig. 8. All those points in (the branched bilayer)

\[\dagger\] Note the distinct difference to the use of the medial surface construction in ref. 13, 14, 60, 62 and 63. Here, we determine the MS of the branched bilayer bound by the CMC surfaces representing the head-group interface; in this situation the MS is inside the branched bilayer and corresponds, or is at least close, to the branched minimal surface. In ref. 13, 14, 60, 62 and 63, the MS of the bicontinuous minimal surfaces is computed and the MS is a two-dimensional skeleton close to the nets or skeletal graphs centered in the aqueous domains.
that are closer to the surface patch $dS$ than to any other parts of the surface form the volume $dK$ associated with $dS$. If the medial surface transform $ms(p)$ is known for all points $p$ in $S$, the volume $dK$ associated with a surface patch $dS$ is easily evaluated as

$$dK = \{p + rN(p) | p \in dS \text{ and } 0 \leq r \leq ms(p)\}. \quad (3)$$

This equation states that the volume $dK$ associated with surface patch $dS$ is given by all points between those of $dS$ and their corresponding points on the medial surface.

In the following, we use the notation $dS(p)$ to denote the surface patch that contains point $p \in dS$ and assume that $dS(p)$ is a small surface patch. Similarly $dV(p)$ denotes the volume element associated with $dS(p)$.

In the context of lipid self-assembly, the surface patch $dS$ represents the patch of the interface surface that is occupied by the head-group of a particular lipid molecule and the volume $dK$ is the space occupied by the hydrophobic chains.

We hence define the structural shape parameter, $s(p)$, as a property of the adopted or assumed spatial geometry, which—for equilibrium configurations—should relate to the similarly defined surfactant packing parameter $s'$, which characterises the molecular shape, see above. The structural shape parameter is the dimensionless measure

$$s(p) = \frac{v(p)}{a(p)d(p)} \quad (4)$$

with $a(p)$ the surface area of the surface patch $dS(p)$, $v(p)$ the volume of the associated volume element $dK(p)$ and $d(p)$ its length as measured by the medial surface distance. (When applying eqn (4) to a large patch $dS$ with significant variation of $d(x)$ over the points $x \in dS(p)$, the average $d(p) = \int_{dS(p)} dA / \int_{dS} dA$ should be used instead of $d(p)$.)

The bilayer half-width $d(p)$ and the structural shape parameter $s(p)$ are complementary with regards to the geometric characteristics they describe. The value $s(p)$ relates to the curvature properties of the interface, but is independent of the size

![Fig. 8](image_url)
of the volume element. To see the relationship to curvature properties, consider the equation that relates surface curvatures to the volume swept by parallel surfaces to a given surface patch $dS$ up to distance $r$ (known as the Steiner formula in integral geometry). A parallel surface of the patch $dS$ is the surface obtained by translation of all surface points of the patch in surface normal direction by a fixed distance $r$, $dS(r) = \{ x + rN(x) | x \in dS \}$. The region of space swept by parallel surfaces $dS(r)$ as $r$ is increased from $0$ to $r$ has volume $v(r) = r a(p) + r^2 \alpha(p) H + r^3 \alpha(p) G / 3$ if $r < \min \{ k_1(p), k_2(p) \}$ with the mean and Gauss curvature $H(p) = \int_{dS(p)} H dA$ and $G(p) = \int_{dS(p)} G dA$ averaged over all points of $dS(p)$. Assuming that the surface patch $dS(p)$ is so small that variations of the mean curvature $H$, the Gauss curvature $G$ and the medial surface distance $d$ over its points are negligible (that is, $H(p) = H(p), G(p) = G(p)$ and $d(p) = d(p)$) the Steiner formula provides a relation between the structural shape parameter and the curvature properties of the head-group interface (see chapter 4 in ref. 51)

$$s(p) := \frac{v(p)}{a(p)d(p)} = 1 + H(p)d(p) + \frac{G(p)}{3}d(p)^2$$

While $d(p)$ has the dimension $[m]$ of a length, the parameter $s(p)$ is dimensionless, of unit $[1]$; $s(p)$ is hence insensitive to the linear size or volume of the volume element. This insensitivity to size is important for two reasons in the context of lipid self-assembly: first, $s(p)$ will not change with the overall length scale of the system, that is, it is independent of the lattice parameter $a$ as a change in $a$ only leads to a change of length scale for all volume elements. Second, $s(p)$ can adopt identical or similar values for two volume elements at different points $p_1$ and $p_2$ in the structure if the surface at $p_2$ is flatter (with smaller curvature values) and, simultaneously, has larger $d(p)$. In that case, the volume elements at $p_1$ and $p_2$ can be of very similar shape, and hence have similar structural shape parameter $s(p_1) \approx s(p_2)$, while having very different volumes $v(p_1) \neq v(p_2)$.

For the analysis of self-assembly structures, one is not interested in spatially resolved values of $s(p)$ or $d(p)$, but rather in average values and the degree of variation throughout the spatial structure. These are quantified by moments of the distributions of $d(p)$

$$\langle d \rangle = \frac{1}{A} \int_S d(p) dA,$$

and of $s(p)$

$$\langle s \rangle = \frac{1}{A} \int_S s(p) dA,$$

where $S$ is assumed to be a translational unit cell of the structure and $A$ the surface area of $S$.

In this article, we invoke a relationship between the molecular shape described by the surfactant packing parameter $s = v_m / (a_m d_m)$ and the structural packing parameter $s$: an ensemble of identical molecules best accommodates a geometric shape $S$, whose average structural shape parameter $\langle s \rangle$ is close to the molecular packing parameter $s$ (global constraint) and whose variations $\{ s - \langle s \rangle \}$ throughout the structure are smallest (structural homogeneity favoured by the identical shape of the constituent molecules). However, because of the size insensitivity of $s$ it is

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The validity of this formula for a sphere of radius $R$ is easily verified by expanding the total volume $v(r_p) = v(r) - 4\pi/3(R + r)^3$ and noting that the mean curvature of a sphere with radius $R$ and outwards pointing normals is the positive constant $H = 1/R > 0$; and similarly for a cylinder.
important to equally consider a further shape descriptor that is sensitive to overall size: the bilayer half-width \(d(p)\) measured by the medial surface construction is a suitable measure of the linear size of the volume elements.

This motivates the choice of \(\langle s \rangle\) as a measure of the average shape of the "molecular" tiles, with \(\Delta s := \sqrt{\langle s^2 \rangle - \langle s \rangle^2}\) and \(\Delta d := \sqrt{\langle (d - \langle d \rangle)^2 \rangle}\) as a measure of structural homogeneity. Below the geometric properties of the hypothetical multilayer geometries and the known lipid phases will be compared in terms of these measures.

3 Average molecular shape of polycontinuous lipid phases

Fig. 9 and 10 show the mean curvature, \(h_0(A/V_{BL})\), normalised to a constant surface-to-volume ratio and the average structural shape parameter \(\langle s \rangle\) as a function of the bilayer volume fraction \(\phi_{BL}\). These average shape characteristics relate to the typical molecular shape that is globally (i.e., on average) commensurate with the different candidate geometries.

Data are provided as a function of the bilayer volume fraction \(\phi_{BL} = V_{BL}/V\), where \(V_{BL}\) is the volume of the bilayer in a given space of total volume \(V\) (which is the sum of \(V = V_{BL} + V_{AQ}\), if \(V_{AQ}\) is the combined volume of all aqueous domains).

The mean curvature is analysed comparing the different candidate geometries for length scales such that the ratio of total bilayer volume \(V_{BL}\) to surface area \(A\) is 1, see Fig. 2. As the mean curvature \(h_0\) (which for all geometries analysed in this article is a constant, except for the \(Fd3m\) inverse micellar \(Q_{II}^{227}\) phase with two distinct micellar radii) decreases with increasing width of the aqueous domains, the monotonous increase of \(h_0(A/V_{BL})\) with increasing \(\phi_{BL}\) is expected and is observed as a common feature of all geometry types.

![Fig. 9](image-url) Mean curvature of the head-group interface as a function of the bilayer volume fraction \(\phi_{BL}\), evaluated for length scales \(a\) such that \(V_{BL}/A = 1\) is constant. \(V_{BL}\) is the total volume of the bilayer (such that \(V_{BL}/(V_{BL} + V_{AQ}) = \phi_{BL}\) is the bilayer volume fraction with \(V_{AQ}\) the combined volume of all aqueous domains), \(A\) the surface area of the head-group interface and \(h_0\) its (constant) mean curvature. For \(H_{II}\) and the hexagonal inverse micellar phase \(H_{II}^{194}\), the lines are the analytic curves of eqn (22) and (9), all other lines are guides for the eye. Ratios \(c/a\) of the lattice parameters for the \(etc(187 193)\) and \(4srs(5 133)\) structures refer to the uncolored space groups.
For a fixed bilayer volume fraction, \( f_{BL} \), chosen in the interval \([0.3,0.65]\) relevant for lipid self-assembly, Fig. 9 shows that the normalised mean curvature is lowest for the bicontinuous \( Q_{G}^{II} \) phase, highest for the inverse micellar phases \( Q_{II}^{194} \) and \( H_{II}^{194} \) and the columnar phase \( H_{II}^{II} \) takes intermediate values, in line with expectations. The \( Fd\bar{3}m \) inverse micellar phase \( Q_{II}^{227} \) is here modelled by 8 large and 16 small spherical micelles per unit cell; the ratio of the large to the small radius is assumed to be 1.273, as estimated in ref. 10.) The polycontinuous cases are all intermediate to the bicontinuous cases and the columnar cylinders and, within the accuracy of our numerical analysis, all have the same value of the normalised mean curvature (with the exception of the achiral \( 4srs(5 133) \) structure at high values of \( f_{BL} \)).

Fig. 10 shows the average structural shape parameter \( \langle s \rangle \) indicating the molecular shape required to form the geometries. Note that for the \( 4srs(5 133) \) and the \( 4srs(24 208) \) geometries, the data for very low \( f_{BL} \) corresponds to configurations where the CMC domains are almost in contact, see also Fig. 17. Ratios \( c/a \) of the lattice parameters for the \( etc(187 193) \) and \( 4srs(5 133) \) structures refer to the uncolored space groups.

For a fixed bilayer volume fraction, \( f_{BL} \), chosen in the interval \([0.3,0.65]\) relevant for lipid self-assembly, Fig. 9 shows that the normalised mean curvature is lowest for the bicontinuous \( Q_{II}^{G} \) phase, highest for the inverse micellar phases \( Q_{II}^{227} \) and \( H_{II}^{194} \) and the columnar phase \( H_{II}^{II} \) takes intermediate values, in line with expectations. The polycontinuous cases are all intermediate to the bicontinuous cases and the columnar cylinders and, within the accuracy of our numerical analysis, all have the same value of the normalised mean curvature (with the exception of the achiral \( 4srs(5 133) \) structure at high values of \( f_{BL} \)).

Fig. 10 shows the average structural shape parameter \( \langle s \rangle \) (see eqn (7)) as a function of bilayer volume fraction. \( \langle s \rangle \) characterises the average shape, but in contrast to the normalised mean curvature it incorporates the bilayer width. At fixed intermediate \( f_{BL} \), \( \langle s \rangle \) is smallest for the inverse bicontinuous gyroid \( Q_{II}^{G} \) phase and largest for the inverse micellar phase with the columnar hexagonal phase again at intermediate values, in line with previous analyses (see, for example, Fig. 4.11 in ref. 51). The values for the polycontinuous cases now differ for the different structures. For lipid volume fractions above 40%—presumably of most relevance to lipid self-assembly—the \( 3etc(187 193) \) and the chiral \( 4srs(24 208) \) structures are again intermediate to the bicontinuous \( Q_{II}^{G} \) and the inverse cylinders \( H_{II} \). Interestingly, some polycontinuous structures (\( 3etc(187 193) \) with \( f_{BL} < 0.4 \), the single instance of the \( 3dia(24 220) \) structure analysed here with \( f_{BL} \approx 0.4 \) and the achiral \( 4srs(5 133) \) structure) can have smaller values of \( \langle s \rangle \) than the bicontinuous gyroid case. All geometries show a monotonic increase of \( \langle s \rangle \) with increasing lipid bilayer volume fraction \( f_{BL} \).

The conclusion to be drawn from Fig. 9 and 10 is that at least in terms of the average molecular shape the polycontinuous phases, in particular \( 3etc(187 193) \) and \( 4srs(24 208) \), should be commensurate with existing molecular shapes, because their average shape measured by \( \langle s \rangle \) and \( h_{y}(A/V_{BL}) \) is intermediate to two cases (\( H_{II} \) and \( Q_{II}^{G} \)) that are experimentally realised.
4 Homogeneity and packing frustration

The second determinant of phase formation, in addition to the commensurability of the molecular shape and the average geometric properties discussed above, is the structural homogeneity and its implications for bending and stretching frustration. Assuming that the average geometry matches the molecular shape, the variations throughout the structure will determine the degree of frustration—necessarily present for all inverse mesophase structures including cylinders and micelles. We here discuss homogeneity and packing frustration for the polycontinuous structures, by an analysis of variances of the bilayer half-width $d$ and of the structural packing parameter $s$. Fig. 11 and 12 show the relative variances of $s$ and $d$, as defined in eqn (6) and (7).

Fig. 11 shows variations $\Delta d$ of the bilayer half-width $d(p)$, measured by the medial surface distance from the head-group interface to the bilayer mid-surface. As the bilayer width is a quantity of dimension $[m]$, it is here shown relative to the average $\langle d \rangle$. Expectantly, the variations of the bilayer width are minimal for the bicontinuous gyroid geometry, where the bilayer is a smooth unbranched sheet. The small degree of variation is a signature of the modelling of the head-group surface as a CMC surface rather than a parallel surface to the TPMS; for the bicontinuous gyroid, these variations are approximately independent of the bilayer volume fraction $\phi_{BL}$. The variations for the inverse cylindrical $H_{II}$ phase are smaller than those of the inverse cubic micellar $Q_{II}^{227}$ phase and than the hexagonally close-packed inverse micellar phase $H_{II}^{194}$; for these geometries, the relative variations $\Delta d/\langle d \rangle$ become smaller with larger bilayer volume fractions.

The values of $\Delta d/\langle d \rangle$ for the polycontinuous cases are, for all $\phi_{BL}$, larger than those of the columnar $H_{II}$ and the bicontinuous $Q_{II}^{6}$ phase. The width variations of the chiral $4srs(24\ 208)$ structure are, for all $\phi_{BL}$, slightly above those of the inverse hexagonal micellar phase $H_{II}^{194}$. The achiral $4srs(5\ 133)$ structure is intermediate to the inverse micellar phases, $H_{II}^{194}$ and $Q_{II}^{227}$. The $3etc(187\ 193)$ structure (with the same $c/a = 0.954$ as the IBN-9 phase) has large variations $\Delta d/\langle d \rangle$ for low $\phi_{BL}$ similar to the inverse micellar $H_{II}^{194}$ phase that, however, decrease more rapidly with increasing $\phi_{BL}$ than for the other geometries; for large $\phi_{BL} \approx 70\%$, the variations are comparable to the $H_{II}$ and the bicontinuous gyroid geometry.

Fig. 11 shows variations $\Delta d$ of the bilayer half-width $d(p)$, measured by the medial surface distance from the head-group interface to the bilayer mid-surface. As the bilayer width is a quantity of dimension $[m]$, it is here shown relative to the average $\langle d \rangle$. Expectantly, the variations of the bilayer width are minimal for the bicontinuous gyroid geometry, where the bilayer is a smooth unbranched sheet. The small degree of variation is a signature of the modelling of the head-group surface as a CMC surface rather than a parallel surface to the TPMS; for the bicontinuous gyroid, these variations are approximately independent of the bilayer volume fraction $\phi_{BL}$. The variations for the inverse cylindrical $H_{II}$ phase are smaller than those of the inverse cubic micellar $Q_{II}^{227}$ phase and than the hexagonally close-packed inverse micellar phase $H_{II}^{194}$; for these geometries, the relative variations $\Delta d/\langle d \rangle$ become smaller with larger bilayer volume fractions.

The values of $\Delta d/\langle d \rangle$ for the polycontinuous cases are, for all $\phi_{BL}$, larger than those of the columnar $H_{II}$ and the bicontinuous $Q_{II}^{6}$ phase. The width variations of the chiral $4srs(24\ 208)$ structure are, for all $\phi_{BL}$, slightly above those of the inverse hexagonal micellar phase $H_{II}^{194}$. The achiral $4srs(5\ 133)$ structure is intermediate to the inverse micellar phases, $H_{II}^{194}$ and $Q_{II}^{227}$. The $3etc(187\ 193)$ structure (with the same $c/a = 0.954$ as the IBN-9 phase) has large variations $\Delta d/\langle d \rangle$ for low $\phi_{BL}$ similar to the inverse micellar $H_{II}^{194}$ phase that, however, decrease more rapidly with increasing $\phi_{BL}$ than for the other geometries; for large $\phi_{BL} \approx 70\%$, the variations are comparable to the $H_{II}$ and the bicontinuous gyroid geometry.

![Fig. 11](image-url) Relative spatial variations $\Delta d/\langle d \rangle$ of lipid bilayer half-width $d$ throughout the bilayer. The curves for HCP inverse micelles and for the $H_{II}$ phase are the analytic solutions of eqn (14) and (33); all other lines are guides for the eye only. Ratios $c/a$ of the lattice parameters for the $etc(187\ 193)$ and $4srs(5\ 133)$ structures refer to the uncolored space groups.
In terms of bilayer width variations, the inverse polycontinuous geometries are hence fairly inhomogeneous compared to the inverse bicontinuous gyroid phase. Nevertheless, their spatial homogeneity with respect to $d$ is similar or smaller than the inverse micellar H$_{194}^{II}$ phase. Similar to the inverse micellar H$_{194}^{II}$ phase, that (despite its high degree of packing frustration) has been found, one would probably expect the polycontinuous examples to form for large bilayer volume fractions $f_{BL}$, i.e., for molecules with long chains relative to their head-group area and small head-group area or low water content.

In terms of the structural shape parameter, $s$, Fig. 12 clearly demonstrates that both the inverse bicontinuous and the inverse polycontinuous structures are far more heterogeneous than the inverse hexagonal H$_{II}^{H}$ or the hexagonal inverse micellar H$_{194}^{II}$ phase, with larger values of $\Delta s$; the cubic inverse micellar phase Q$_{II}^{II}$ is more heterogeneous than the polycontinuous structures, owing to the two distinct curvatures of the two types of micelles. While $\Delta s$ of the polycontinuous 4srs(5 133), 3etc(187 193) and 3dia(24 220) is significantly larger than for the bicontinuous Q$_{II}^{II}$ phase, the value for the cubic and chiral 4srs(24 208) is very similar to that of the bicontinuous Q$_{II}^{II}$ gyroid phase, for a large range of bilayer volume fractions, in particular around $f_{BL} \approx 40\%$.

The structural shape parameter $s(p)$ is a more complex shape measure than the simple bilayer (half-)width $d(p)$. It combines aspects of the surface curvatures $H(p)$ and $G(p)$ with $d(p)$, see eqn (5). If the curvature properties are constant (as is the case for the approximation of H$_{II}$ and H$_{194}^{II}$, where the head-group surface is modelled as cylinders and spheres), averages and variances of the parameters $s$ and $d$ are closely related. For the hexagonal cylinders with constant mean curvature $H(p) = H \neq 0$ and vanishing Gauss curvature $G(p) = 0$ for all points on the cylinder head-group surface, eqn (5) immediately yields $\langle s \rangle = 1 - H(d)$, $\langle s^2 \rangle = 1 - H(d) + H^2(d^2)$ and $(\Delta s)^2 = (\langle d^2 \rangle - \langle d \rangle^2) \times 4H$. This identity is evidently also seen in eqn (12), (14), (18) and (20) for the analytic expressions for $\Delta d$ and $\Delta s$. For the hexagonal inverse micelles, where the Gauss and mean curvatures

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**Fig. 12** Spatial variations $\Delta s$ of structural shape parameter $s$ throughout the bilayer. For the hexagonal inverse micellar phase, we only show the analytic solution given by eqn (35) and not computational data that deviates significantly (by a factor of approximately 2) from the analytic curve. The origin of this deviation is the difficulty of measuring $\Delta s$, which incorporates fourth moments $\langle d^4 \rangle$ of the distribution of bilayer width. This provides a caution for the accuracy of the data for other geometries. However, we have verified that the results presented are consistent when representing the geometries by triangulations of different resolution.
\[ G(p) = G = 1/R^2 \text{ and } H(p) = H = 1/R \] are spatially constant \((R \text{ is the cylinder or sphere radius)},\) combining eqn (5), (6) and (7) yields expressions for the average and variance of \(s\) explicitly as a function of the moments of \(d:\)

\[ \langle s \rangle = 1 + H\langle d \rangle + G/3\langle d^2 \rangle \text{ and } \langle s^2 \rangle = 1 + 2H\langle d \rangle + (H^2 + 2G/3)\langle d^2 \rangle + 2HG\langle d^3 \rangle + G^2/6\langle d^4 \rangle. \]

(The appearance of higher moments of \(d\) in this formula for \(\langle s^2 \rangle\) is consistent with the noise sensitivities of the numerical computations, see caption of Fig. 12.) For surfaces with variations of curvatures—including all bicontinuous and polycontinuous surfaces—the moments of \(s\) are not only a function of the moments of \(d\), but include moments of the distributions of Gauss curvatures \(G\) and, unless \(H = \text{const}\) (as is the case for all structures discussed here), of \(H\).

Importantly, \(s\) and its averages and higher moments are dimensionless and scale-invariant. Hence \(\Delta s\) is not sensitive to spatial variations of the size of the local volume elements, in contrast to \(\Delta d/\langle d \rangle\). Assuming the molecules to be largely incompressible, a volume constraint appears to be required. In that sense, it seems likely that variations in size of the local volume elements, partially covered by \(\Delta d\) but not by \(\Delta s\), may be a primary requirement, with variations of \(s\) a second-order effect to favour equal shape amongst the elements with equal volume.

For the structures with cubic symmetry, i.e. \(4\text{rs}(24 208)\) and \(3\text{dia}(24 220)\), the sole free parameter is the lipid volume fraction \(\phi_{BL}\). The overall length scale, given by the lattice parameter \(a\), does not affect the data in the form presented here. For the tetragonal \(4\text{rs}(5 133)\) and the hexagonal \(3\text{etc}(187 193)\) structure, the crystallographic \(cla\) ratio is a further free parameter that needs exploration when searching for the optimal structure.

![Fig. 13 Homogeneity and average shape of the tricontinuous 3etc(187 193) structure as a function of the crystallographic cla ratio (in the uncolored symmetry group P63/mcm); the bilayer volume fraction of 40% is close to that observed in the experimental mesoporous IBN-9 phase, which has \(cla = 8.84/8.43 \approx 0.95\). The minimum of the parabola fitted to the data for \(\Delta d/\langle d \rangle\) for \(\phi_{BL} = 66\%\) is at \(z = 0.87\). The average bilayer half-width \(\langle d \rangle\) of dimension \([m]\) is for a system with \(a = 1\). Polynomials of degree two are fitted to the data as a guide for the eyes.](image-url)
Fig. 13 shows data for average shape and spatial homogeneity for the 3etc(187 193) structure as a function of the hexagonal c/a ratio, for two different bilayer volume fractions. The key observation is that, for both $\phi_{BL} \approx 40\%$ and $\phi_{BL} \approx 66\%$, the average shape is largely independent of the c/a ratio, both in terms of $h_d$ and $h_s$. Further, it also appears that variations of the shape of dK($p$) quantified by $D_s/h_s$ are largely constant. However, the variations in relative bilayer (half-) width $D_d/h_d$ change significantly with c/a. At $\phi_{BL} \approx 40\%$ the variations clearly favour smaller c/a ratios. At $\phi_{BL} \approx 66\%$, the situation is different and $D_d/h_d$ has the most homogeneous member with a c/a ratio of approximately 0.87. Given that all other relevant measures appear to be almost independent of c/a, one would expect a lipid inverse 3etc(187 193) phase to have lattice ratios c/a $\approx 0.87$ (with regards to the uncolored space group $P6_3/mcm$).

It is interesting to note that c/a = 0.87 is only approximately 10\% smaller than the c/a ratio of the mesoporous IBN-9 silicate, c/a = 84.3/88.4 $\approx$ 0.95. This agreement would be a strong indication of the relevance of our homogeneity analysis for the self-assembly of polycontinuous phases if two conditions were met: (a) the lipid precursor phase of IBN-9 is indeed an inverse phase (which is not likely to be the case, see section 1); and (b) that the lipid volume fraction of this precursor phase was significantly higher ($\approx 66\%$) than the solid volume fraction of the resulting IBN-9 (which is $\approx 40\%$)\textsuperscript{43}. While this is unlikely to be the case, this result still provides an expectation value for c/a for a hypothetical inverse 3etc(187 193) phase.

In ref. 63, the observation was made that the most homogeneous member of a (to-date hypothetical) bicontinuous hexagonal mesophase based on Schwarz's H surface is isotropic in terms of (a) the Doi–Ohta interface tensor, and (b) in terms of the elastic moduli of a bilayer sheet that was assumed to be homogeneous and linear-elastic.\textsuperscript{63} This has inspired the analogous analysis, of structural isotropy of the 3etc(187 193) structure, see Fig. 7. In contrast to the hypothetical bicontinuous H mesophase of ref. 63, no correlation between the most homogeneous member for the $\phi_{BL} \approx 40\%$ structures at c/a $\approx 0.87$ and structural isotropy was found. Further, treating the branched linear bilayer of the 3etc(187 193) structure as a homogeneous linear–elastic sheet (using the finite element methods of ref. 71–73), the structures showed, for all c/a, an elastic tensor with a clear signature of hexagonal symmetry that, in contrast to Schwarz's hexagonal surface,\textsuperscript{63} does not exhibit any unexpected degeneracies of the eigenvalues of the Mehrabadi matrix.

Fig. 14 Anisotropy of the surface orientation of the 3etc(187 193) geometry as function of the c/a ratio (in the uncolored symmetry group $P6_3/mcm$), for $\phi_{BL} \approx 66\%$ and $\phi_{BL} \approx 40\%$. II($w$) = tr($w$)/2 is the second invariant of the interface tensor $w_{ij} = (1/A) \int (n_i n_j - \delta_{ij}/3) dA$, where A is the surface area of S and $n_i$ the i-th component of the surface normal.\textsuperscript{63,70} A value II($w$) = 0 indicates isotropy and values >0 are deviations from isotropy. The measure II($w$) is the same as analysed in ref. 63; however, when comparing absolute values, note that the values for II($w$) shown in Fig. 3 (top) of ref. 63 are incorrect and too large by a constant factor of 10.

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5 Simulated SAXS patterns

Small angle X-ray scattering is by far the most common experimental method for structure assignment of self-assembled lipid-containing phases. We therefore provide SAXS powder scattering patterns (azimuthal-averaged radial scattering intensities) for the hypothetical tetracontinuous $4srs(5133)$ and $4srs(24208)$ structures and the tricontinuous $3dia(24220)$ structure. Interestingly, for the latter two cases, the scattering patterns bear remarkable resemblance to swollen $QG_{II}$-gyroid and $QD_{II}$-diamond structures—pointing to the possibility of experimental misidentification. Our simulation method (the same as the one described in ref. 37 and 63, see appendix A) is based on fast Fourier transform of voxelised representations; it is validated by demonstrating good agreement between the simulated $3etc(187193)$ structure and the experimental scattering pattern for the IBN-9 mesoporous silicate phase reported in ref. 43.

Fig. 15 (a) shows the simulated scattering pattern of the $3etc(187193)$ structure close to the experimental parameters for the $3etc(187193)$ silica structure observed by Han et al.\textsuperscript{43} The red curve represents the scattering pattern of the ideal highly ordered $3etc(187193)$ structure based on the idealised CMC-surfaces (i.e., perfectly periodic and with all symmetries of the $P6_{3}/mcm$ space group), computed at a highly resolved discretization. Most of the allowed $hkl$ reflections of the uncoloured space group $P6_{3}/mcm$ (No. 193 in ref. 21) are present (grey lines in the background) and resolved in the $q$-range of this high resolution voxel-based simulation. Peak overlap start does not start before about $q = 3$ nm$^{-1}$. Decreasing the spatial resolution of the model structures brings the simulated scattering pattern, represented by the blue curve in Fig. 15 (left), closer to the experimentally observed powder XRD pattern in Fig. 1b of ref. 43; several of the peaks can no longer be resolved individually. There is good agreement between these two scattering patterns, and thus our simulation corroborates their reported structure. There are three main differences:

First, asymmetric peak broadening at low $q$-values is observed in the experimental data set, which we assume stems from the beam profile of their instrument, and which we have not accounted for in the simulation.

![Fig. 15](image)

**Fig. 15** (a) Simulated scattering pattern of the $3etc(187193)$ structure close to the experimentally observed conditions: the lattice parameters are $a = 8.84$ nm, $c = 8.43$ nm, and the aqueous channel domains take up a volume of 59% (i.e., $\phi_{BL} = 41\%$). The red curve demonstrates data for the ideal, strictly periodic model at high spatial resolution and the blue curve a simulation of lower resolution. The grey lines depict all allowed $hkl$ values. (b) Simulated SAXS patterns for different volume fractions $\phi_{BL}$ of the lipids. Interestingly, the intensity of the (010) peak or the ratio between the (110) and (002) reflection are so sensitive to $\phi_{BL}$ that they may well serve as an independent measure for $\phi_{BL}$. 

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Second, our simulation suggests that the experimentally indexed (120) peak has in fact very low intensity at this channel volume fraction, and is more likely to be the more intense, very close (121) reflection. However, this difference is subtle and may also stem from the fact that our simulations are based on ideal CMC surfaces of structures with homogeneous wall densities rather than the real surfaces investigated experimentally.

Third, the first peak (010) was not observed experimentally. However, its calculated $q$-value of 0.821 nm$^{-1}$ (or a 2$\theta$ value of 1.15° when using CuK$_{\alpha}$) is very close to the low $q$-limit of a conventional diffractometer.

Fig. 15 (b) shows the simulated scattering pattern of the 3etc(187 193) structure at different lipid volume fractions $\phi_{BL}$ (corresponding to varying wall thicknesses). As expected, the reflections remain at the same $q$-position, as the symmetry and unit cell size remain unchanged. Their intensities, however, change significantly; this stems from changes in the form factor, that is, from the scattering of local domains in the structure. It is interesting that for example the intensity of the (010) peak, or the ratio between the (110) and (002), is so sensitive to the channel thickness, that they may well serve as an independent measure for it.

Fig. 16 shows the simulated scattering pattern for the three different model structures 4srs(24 208), 4srs(5 133), and 3dia(24 220), each at two different lipid volume fractions $\phi_{BL}$. As in the case of the 3etc(187 193) structure discussed above, the intensities of the $hkl$ reflections vary significantly with the bilayer volume fraction.

The scattering patterns and $hkl$ indices of the 4srs(24 208) and the 4srs(5 133) structure appear to be very different at first sight. If the peaks were indexed according to the coloured instead of uncoloured symmetry (see Table 1), it would be more obvious that at equal channel size most of the peaks in these two structures come to lie at identical $q$-positions. The main difference between these two structures are the intensities of the peaks, and the fact that the 4srs(5 133) has additional peaks due to symmetry lowering from cubic to tetragonal. These additional peaks of the 4srs(5 133) structure are the (211), (212) and (321), marked in red in Fig. 16 (b).

It is interesting to note that the scattering pattern of the 4srs(24 208) structure bears resemblance to that of a conventional bicontinuous cubic diamond structure QD$II$, frequently experimentally observed in soft matter and also as the AMS-10 mesoporous silica structure. The only feature present in the 4srs(24 208) pattern that would unambiguously rule out its identification as the pattern of a conventional diamond structure is the (210) reflection, marked in red in Fig. 16 (a). This reflection is forbidden for the conventional diamond structure (symmetry $Pn\bar{3}m$, see Table 1).

Fig. 16 Simulated scattering pattern at two different volume fractions of (a) the chiral 4srs(24 208) structure (space group $P4_32$ with $a = 5$ nm), (b) the achiral 4srs(5 133) structure (space group $P4/jnbc$ with $a = 10/\sqrt{2}$ nm and $c = 5$ nm) and (c) the 3dia(24 220) structure (space group $I43d$ with $a = 10$ nm). The lattice parameters were chosen such that their uncoloured unit cells have the same cubic box of size 10 nm.
However, it may also have low intensity or be absent for the 4\textit{srs}(24 208) structure, particularly at low lipid volume fractions $\phi_{BL}$.

The case is similar for the scattering pattern of the 3\textit{dia}(24 220) structure depicted in Fig. 16 (c). Most $hkl$ reflections and roughly also the intensities are in agreement with the conventional bicontinuous cubic gyroid $Q_{II}^6$, 2\textit{srs}(214 230) symmetry $Ia\overline{3}d$. The only $hkl$ reflection (which may or may not be of significant intensity in the 3\textit{dia}(24 220) pattern) that distinguishes the 3\textit{dia}(24 220) structure from the conventional gyroid structure is the (310) peak (marked in red), which is forbidden for the space group $Ia\overline{3}d$.

We even expect the lattice parameters of these two polycristalline geometries—mis-interpreted as bicontinuous cubic phases—to differ only slightly from typical values for the bicontinuous $Q_{II}^6$ and $Q_{II}^6$ phases: based on the same water content and normalised to constant area/volume, the apparent lattice parameter of a 3\textit{dia}(24 220), mis-interpreted as $Q_{II}^6$, and a 4\textit{srs}(24 208), mis-interpreted as $Q_{II}^6$, would only be enlarged by $\approx 30\%$. An estimate based on the same water content and normalised bilayer thickness would only make them appear $\approx 30\%$ and $\approx 10\%$ larger, respectively.

The apparent lattice parameter would be even further reduced if the phases contained less water. This is not unlikely, if we consider that the polycristalline structures have significantly smaller variations of bilayer width at smaller water content (Fig. 11).

**Concluding remarks**

The polymorphism of lipids and related soft matter systems has continuously witnessed the emergence of ever new spatial structures, all formed by spontaneous self-assembly of suitably designed molecules. First came micelles in water, then the neat and middle phases (lamellar and hexagonal phases), then Luzzati’s srs rod structure $Q_{I}$,\textsuperscript{77} then inverse bicontinuous phases including $Q_{II}$ (ref. 5), $Q_{II}^6$ and $Q_{II}^6$, then inverse micellar cubic phases,\textsuperscript{66} then inverse hexagonal micellar phases and inverse ribbon phases.\textsuperscript{61,91} While some of these geometries were identified without prior knowledge or expectation of a geometric model (such as Luzzati’s initial findings of $Q_{I}$),\textsuperscript{77} in many instances an awareness of the structural model was crucial for its identification in the experimental system.

The purpose of this article is to raise awareness of the geometric possibility of a new class of network-like mesophase geometries (of type II), termed polycristalline. These consist of three or more aqueous network-like domains separated by a lipid bilayer that is branched, similarly to the inverse hexagonal or inverse micellar phases. We have here discussed specifically the tricontinuous 3\textit{ete}(187 193) and 3\textit{dia}(24 220) geometries and the tetracontinuous 4\textit{srs}(24 208) and 4\textit{srs}(5 133) geometries. This choice does, however, by no means imply that other structures with three or more interthreaded networks are not equally or more suited.

For example, the tricontinuous structure families 3\textit{pcu}(160 162), 3\textit{qtz}(145 180) and 3\textit{dia}(109 141) with varying $c/a$ ratio (that have been suggested as geometries for star-shaped molecules with mutually immiscible arms\textsuperscript{29}), or the tricontinuous 3\textit{hcb}(10 192) and octacontinuous 8\textit{srs}(1 211) structure (that emerge from projections of hyperbolic forests onto periodic minimal surfaces\textsuperscript{25,26,28,32}) are relevant. There are more examples, many of which—in addition to the structures discussed above—are also listed by the Reticular Chemistry Structure Resource\textsuperscript{22} (www.rcsr.anu.edu.au): the tricontinuous family (with varying $c/a$ ratio) of the eta-c3 and ttw-c3 ($P6_22$), the tetracontinuous dia-c4 ($P4/nmm$), eta-c4 ($P6_22$), qtz-c4 ($P6_22$) and pcu-c4 ($P4_32$) and the hexacontinuous dia-c6 ($P4_2/nmm$), qtz-c6 ($P6_22$).

It appears highly unlikely that these polycristalline phases be found in the well-studied phase diagrams of simple lipids in binary mixtures with water. However, we have argued here that both in terms of typical shape (Fig. 9 and
10) and packing frustration and homogeneity (Fig. 11 and 12) the difference between the molecular geometries that are likely to form the polycontinuous cases and existing molecular architectures are small; hence, there is no fundamental geometric reason that should prevent the formation of these phases in systems that are similar to existing lipids. Therefore, we suggest to search for systems where these phases form, by clever chemical design of the surfactant molecules themselves or of other system parameters (molecular polydispersity, addition of oil, proteins, silica precursor, solvents or co-surfactants). Some guidance for this design process may come from the experimental observation of the 3ete(187 193) structure in mesoporous silicates, in particular also based on the simple CTAB surfactant.

This article has addressed the formation energetics of reverse (type-II) phases, where variations of the local branched bilayer shape relate to stretching and bending. Our focus on reverse phases should by no means exclude the possibility of polycontinuous direct phases (of type I) with hydrophobic network domains separated by an aqueous matrix. A geometric analysis in terms of \( s \) and \( d \) of the equivalent direct structures is straight-forward, but its relevance to the self-assembly mechanism less immediate. For example, an analysis that evaluates the variations of the packing parameter only of the hydrophobic domain provides no insight into why Luzzati’s \( Q_G \) phase—consisting in two hydrophobic network-like \( srs \) domains—can form, but not a phase consisting of a single hydrophobic \( srs \) network. Similarly, as long as three or four identical copies of a hydrophobic network domain can be intergrown without overlap and as long as interactions across the aqueous matrix are neglected, the simple geometric packing analysis of this article cannot distinguish between a phase based on 1, 2, 3 or 4 hydrophobic domains. However, if entropy or other forces favour the formation of a homogeneous shape of the aqueous matrix, the analysis of this article is relevant also to the corresponding direct (type I) phases.

Several of the known polycontinuous geometries are spatially chiral. Out of the geometries discussed here only the 4srs(24 208) is chiral, consisting of four equal-handed \( srs \) nets, but several other chiral polycontinuous geometries are known, such as the 3qtz(145 180) family, 8srs(1 211) and, in fact, also all interthreaded geometries based on the chiral \( eta, qtz \) and \( twt \)-nets mentioned above. The homogeneity of the 4srs(24 208) in terms of the molecular shape parameter \( \Delta s \) is very close to the bicontinuous \( Q_II \) phase and in terms of the bilayer width variations only slightly higher than the \( H_{194}^I \). Considering these geometric constraints, it is conceivable that a self-assembly process could be designed that favours the formation of the 4srs(24 208); the result would be a chiral structure with potentially striking optical properties including discrimination between light of different circular polarisation. How the molecular geometry needs to be adapted to yield this result, and whether this necessarily involves chiral constituent molecules, is a question for future analysis, most likely by simulation.

The polycontinuous geometries described here, some of an innately beautiful visual appearance, should provide chemistry with inspirational design ideas for self-assembly. Surely, the assertion attributed to the Greek playwright Euripides (≈ 400 BC) that “Mighty is geometry; joined with art, resistless.” equally applies to the combination of geometry and chemistry.

\footnote{A single \( srs \) phase (of chiral symmetry \( I4\overline{3}2 \)) has been observed in some hard biological systems, such as the porous chitin structure in the wing-scales of some butterfly species, where it is presumably templated from a biological cubic membrane (of achiral symmetry \( Ia\overline{3}d \) at a length scale of approximately \( a = 300-350 \) nm, which is significantly larger than in lipid systems, and in inorganic replicas thereof. Neither in a synthetic liquid crystalline lipid/water system nor in a biological cubic membrane has a single \( srs \) phase yet been observed.}
A Numerical methods

Constant mean curvature surfaces by surface evolver

Triangulated approximations of constant mean curvature (CMC) surfaces that are used here as models for the head-group surfaces bounding the aqueous network-like domains are obtained by Surface Evolver, this program performs iterative minimisation of surface forms with respect to different surface functionals, by gradient methods applied to triangulated surface representations.

The CMC network domains used for the srs based geometries (i.e., for 4srs(24 208), 4srs(5 133) and the bicontinuous gyroid 2srs(214)) are obtained by the method described in ref. 19. The initial triangulation is a periodic body consisting of 96 triangular facets that is topologically equivalent to a CMC body around a single srs net within the primitive unit cell (with lattice vectors (1,0,0), (0,1,0) and (1/2,1/2,1/2), implemented using Surface Evolver’s TORUS model; each of the four network vertices is represented by a body of 24 triangular facets with four “open” rectangular facets along which it connects to the adjacent vertices; the vertices and edges of this initial configuration fulfil all symmetries of the space group I4;32 of the single srs network. Through a sequence of steps of the conjugate gradient and Hessian methods interspersed with mesh refinement, the shape of the body is evolved to minimise the discrete version of the functional $E[S] = \int_S (H(x) - h_0)^2 dA$ with $h_0$ the desired mean curvature value, the point-wise mean curvature $H(x)$ is discretized using the Surface Evolver method star_normal_sq_mean_curvature using linear elements. Remeshing steps consist in refinement of the triangulation ($r$ in Surface Evolver; division of each edge into two edges and each triangle into four smaller ones), equiangulation ($u$; topological transition between two adjacent triangles to reach more even triangle angles), vertex averaging ($V$; replacement of vertex coordinates with average coordinates of the first shell neighbourhood) and removal of short edges ($t$; with a cut-off chosen relative to average edge length). Symmetries are not explicitly constrained during the evolution towards constant mean curvature. However, the symmetries of the initial triangulation are found to be maintained, giving CMC surfaces with the desired I4;32 symmetry. The 4srs(24 208), 4srs(5 133) and Q II data in Fig. 9 to 12 are calculated from triangulations with approximately 24 500 triangles per primitive unit cell per the single srs CMC body.

The CMC surfaces bounding the aqueous domains of the 3etc(187 193) structures are obtained by the setup demonstrated in Fig. 17. A surface patch bound by mirror planes is minimised with respect to the same functional $E[S]$ as above, with an additional symmetry constraint (symmetry_group “rotate”) to ensure the perpendicular two-fold rotation symmetry (blue line in Fig. 17). The sequence of steps used for this minimisation is similar to those described for the srs CMC surfaces (in addition, we have observed improved convergence if a few initial conjugate gradient steps are applied to the coarse patch with the surface area functional $A[S] = \int_S dA$ rather than $E[S]$ as the functional to minimise). Note the discontinuous dependence of the resulting surface shape as a function of the mean curvature value $h_0$ discussed in Fig. 17; whether this discontinuity corresponds to a bifurcation with two solutions to the problem (such as is observed for the CMC Gyroid surfaces in ref. 19 for high enough values of $h_0$) is to be addressed by future studies. The structural data for 3etc(187 193) phases in Fig. 9 to 14 is based on triangulations with 1500 to 6500 points for the patch shown in Fig. 17.

Data for the 3dia(24 220) structures in this article is preliminary, in that a proper convergence analysis of the structure has not been performed and in that we only investigated one value of $\phi_{BL}$. The surface triangulation is obtained by the method described in ref. 29, by minimising the area $A[S]$ subject to a volume constraint. An equivalent approach to that used for srs and etc structures is equally possible.
Bilayer mid-surfaces by medial surface construction

Medial surfaces are computed by a Voronoi-based algorithm, first described by Amenta et al. and adapted specifically to minimal surface geometries in ref. 13 and 14. This algorithm takes a triangulation of the surface $S$ by $n$ vertices $x_i$ connected by triangles as input ($i = 1, ..., n$), computes the Voronoi cells of all vertices $x_i$ of the triangulation, and approximates the medial surface point $m(x_i)$ as the so-called pole; the pole is that vertex $y_i$ of the set of vertices $\{y_i\}$ of the Voronoi cell of $x_i$ that maximises the distance $(y_i - x_i) \cdot N(x_i)$ to $x_i$ where $N(x_i)$ is the surface normal at vertex $x_i$ and $\cdot$ the scalar product. Medial surface algorithms of this type are plagued by noise-sensitivity in places where $d(p) \approx 1/\kappa(p)$, where $1/\kappa(p)$ is the reciprocal of one of the principal curvatures and where simultaneously $\kappa(p) > 0$ (i.e. curvature towards the normal). For the cases studied in this article—inverse polycontinuous phases—the bilayer “width” $2d(p)$ is typically much smaller than the interface’s curvatures, hence largely alleviating these noise sensitivity issues.

Simulated SAXS scattering patterns

Simulated small angle scattering (SAXS) patterns of the predicted polycontinuous phases are determined with the voxel-based Fourier method described in ref. 37. Simulated SAXS scattering patterns...
and 63, based on the principles described in ref. 86 and 87. The following description is adapted from ref. 63. Our analysis is based on a voxelized representation of the branched bilayer. A two-phase scattering model is used where constant scattering length density values $\rho_{BL}$ and $\rho_{AQ}$ are assigned to the branched bilayer and its complement (the aqueous labyrinth-like compartments), respectively. For the case of the hexagonal mesophases based on the $\text{3etc}(187, 193)$ structure, the bilayer is discretized on a rectangular grid of size $\sqrt{3}a \times a \times c$. This grid represents a translational (but not primitive) unit cell of the hexagonal space group (lattice vectors are $[100]$, $[-110]$ and $[001]$). The X-ray scattering density of the points inside the bilayer is $\rho_{BL}$; for the remaining grid points representing the aqueous domains $\rho = \rho_{AQ}$. We can, without loss of generality, assume that the mean scattering density is 0, as deviations from this will only contribute to the scattering curve at $q = 0$ (forward scattering). For a two-phase system, linearity of the Fourier transform therefore implies that both the absolute values $\rho_{AQ}$ and $\rho_{BL}$ and also their ratio $\rho_{AQ}/\rho_{BL}$ only affect the intensities of the scattering function by a constant factor, and do not alter the peak locations or relative intensities. The numerical value is therefore irrelevant for our analysis. From the voxelized representations of the mesophase SAXS scattering curves are determined by fast Fourier transform (FFT) using an approach which is based on that presented in Schmidt–Rohr (see ref. 87). Using the FFT to compute the Fourier transform, we inherently assume that the computational grid is a rectangular lattice. This leads to some complications with respect to our discretization: by discretizing a structure with hexagonal symmetries, we invariably introduce discretization errors. These errors do not obey the symmetries of the original structure, but are rather forced onto the rectangular grid used for the computations. As a result they lead to additional peaks corresponding to symmetries of the computational grid.

To break the symmetries of the discretization, we introduce random permutations of $\rho_{BL}$ and $\rho_{AQ}$ for the voxels that lie at the interface between the aqueous channels and the bilayer. On the one hand, this ensures that an error which is present in one cell does not persist periodically across the computational domain, and therefore does not contribute additional peaks in the resolved spectra. On the other hand, this emulates random imperfections/roughness at the interface between the aqueous channels and the bilayer. As a consequence, simulations using model structures with a higher spatial resolution (high number of voxels) will represent scattering from a structure which has less imperfections, and therefore is relatively smoother than those of a lower spatial resolution.

B Expressions for $\Delta s$ and $\Delta d$ for $H_{11}$ and $H_{11}^{194}$

All geometric properties of the inverse hexagonal columnar and the hexagonal close-packed inverse micellar phase $H_{11}^{194}$ can be expressed analytically. We provide expressions of the scaled mean curvature $H/(AV)$, the medial surface distance $d$ and the shape parameter $s$, respectively. The angle dependence, the mean value and the weighted standard deviation of $d$ and $s$ are calculated and compared with the numerically found values in Fig. 10, 12 and 11.

Hexagonal cylinder packings $H_{11}$

The asymmetric unit of the hexagonal cylinder phase with lattice constant $a$ and sphere radius $r$ is a triangular prism of length with height $L$ along the cylinder axes, see Fig. 18. The base triangle is rectangular with catheti of length $a/2$ and $a/\sqrt{6}$, corresponding to the angle $\pi/6$ at the centre of the sphere. The volume fraction of the aqueous network domain (i.e., inside of the cylinders) is given by:

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\[ f_{\text{AQ}} = \frac{V_{\text{cyl}}}{V_{\text{asy}}} = \frac{\pi}{12} \frac{r^2}{a^2 \tan \left( \frac{\pi}{6} \right)} = \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{3}} \frac{r^2}{a^2} \] (8)

with \( \phi_{\text{BL}} = 1 - \phi_{\text{AQ}} \). The mean curvature of the cylinder is given by \( H = (2r)^{-1} \). The surface area of the cylinder surface inside the asymmetric unit patch is given by \( A = \pi r L / 6 \) and the volume of the part of the asymmetric unit occupied by the matrix domain by \( V = V_{\text{asy}} - V_{\text{cyl}} \). Hence, the scaled mean curvature can be expressed in terms of the volume fraction \( \phi_{\text{AQ}} \):

\[ \frac{HV}{A} = \frac{1 - \phi_{\text{AQ}}}{4\phi_{\text{AQ}}} \] (9)

The medial surface distance is expressed in terms of the polar angle \( \alpha \) (cf. Fig. 18):

\[ d(\alpha) = \frac{a}{2 \cos \alpha} - r \] (10)

Averages of a function \( f(\alpha) \) in the asymmetric unit are given by:

\[ \langle f(\alpha) \rangle = \frac{6}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\pi/6} d\alpha \ f(\alpha) \] (11)

The average medial surface distance and its weighted standard deviation are hence given by:

\[ \langle d \rangle = \frac{a}{2} \left( \frac{1}{\cos \alpha} \right) - r = \frac{a}{2} \left( \frac{3\ln 3}{\pi} - 3^{(1/4)} 2^{(1/2)} \pi^{(-1/2)} \sqrt{\phi_{\text{AQ}}} \right) \] (12)

\[ \Delta d = \frac{a}{2} \sqrt{\langle \cos^{-2} \alpha \rangle - \langle \cos^{-1} \alpha \rangle^2} \] (13)

\[ \frac{\Delta d}{\langle d \rangle} = \frac{\sqrt{\langle \cos^{-2} \alpha \rangle - \langle \cos^{-1} \alpha \rangle^2}}{\sqrt{\frac{3\ln 3}{\pi} - 3^{(1/4)} 2^{(1/2)} \pi^{(-1/2)} \sqrt{\phi_{\text{AQ}}}}} = \frac{\sqrt{2\sqrt{3\pi} - (3\ln 3)^2}}{3\ln 3 - \left( 2\pi^{(1/2)} 3^{(1/4)} \right) \sqrt{\phi_{\text{AQ}}}} \] (14)
The shape parameter is defined as the quotient of the infinitesimal matrix domain volume $\delta V(\alpha)$ and the product of the infinitesimal surface area $\delta A(\alpha)$ and the medial surface distance $d$. We obtain

$$\delta A(\alpha) = Lr \delta \alpha$$

$$\delta V(\alpha) = \delta V_{\text{asy}} - \delta V_{\text{cyl}} = L \frac{\delta \alpha}{2} \left[ \left( \frac{a}{2 \cos \alpha} \right)^2 - r^2 \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow s(\alpha) = \frac{\delta V}{\delta A} d = \frac{1}{2r} \left( \frac{a}{2 \cos \alpha} + r \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ 1 + \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2 \sqrt{3}}} \frac{1}{\phi_{AQ}} \right]$$

with the average and the standard deviation:

$$\langle s \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \left[ 1 + \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2 \sqrt{3}}} \frac{1}{\phi_{AQ}} \right] = \frac{1}{2} \left[ 1 + \frac{3 \ln 3}{\sqrt{2 \pi} \sqrt{3}} \frac{1}{\phi_{AQ}} \right]$$

$$\Delta s = \frac{a}{r} \sqrt{\langle \cos^{-2} \alpha \rangle - \langle \cos^{-1} \alpha \rangle^2} = H \Delta d$$

$$\frac{\Delta s}{\langle s \rangle} = \sqrt{\langle \cos^{-2}(\alpha) \rangle - \langle \cos^{-1}(\alpha) \rangle^2} = \sqrt{\frac{2 \pi - 3 \sqrt{3} \ln^2(3)}{2 \pi \sqrt{\phi_{AQ} + (3/4) \ln 3}}$$

**Hexagonally close-packed micellar phase H_{194}**

The calculation for the hexagonally close-packed micellar phase H_{194} is identical to that for a cubic FCC close-pack structure (which, however, has not been realised as an inverse lipid phase), since these structures share identical nearest-neighbour micelle geometries. We here present the calculation for the FCC structure.

The FCC sphere packing with cubic lattice parameter $a$ and sphere radius $r$ is illustrated in Fig. 19. The asymmetric unit cell is a pyramid with a right-angled triangle as base, with its vertices at $a/4 \cdot (2,0,0)$, $a/4 \cdot (1,1,0)$, $a/4 \cdot (1,1,1)$, and the apex in the sphere centre (origin). The volume fraction of the network domain (i.e., the inside of the spheres) is given by

$$\phi_{AQ} = V_{\text{sph}} / V_{\text{asy}} = \frac{\pi}{3} \frac{r^3}{16 \cdot 12} = \frac{\pi}{3} \left( \frac{r}{a} \right)^3$$

The mean curvature is $1/r$ and the part of the surface area of the sphere that is within the asymmetric unit patch is $A = \pi r^2 / 12$, yielding the scaled mean curvature for the matrix domain:

$$\frac{H}{A/V} = \frac{1 - \phi_{AQ}}{3 \phi_{AQ}}$$
with the volume of the asymmetric unit that is occupied by the matrix domain \( V = V_{asy} - V_{cyl} \). In the Cartesian system where \( \langle 110 \rangle \) becomes zenith, the corner coordinates (for simplicity normalised by \( 4/a \)) of the triangle transform like

\[
\begin{align*}
(1, 1, -1) & \rightarrow (0, 1, \sqrt{2}) \\
(1, 1, 0) & \rightarrow (0, 0, \sqrt{2}) \\
(2, 0, 0) & \rightarrow (\sqrt{2}, 0, \sqrt{2})
\end{align*}
\]

(23)

The triangle can be parametrised in terms of the solid angle \( \Omega = (\vartheta, \varphi) \) in the new coordinate system with the angles \( \vartheta \) and \( \varphi \) defined by \( r = \rho(\sin \vartheta \cos \varphi, \sin \vartheta \sin \varphi, \cos \varphi) \):

\[
\begin{align*}
0 \leq \varphi \leq \frac{\pi}{2} \\
0 \leq \vartheta \leq \arctan \left( \frac{1}{\cos \varphi + \sqrt{2} \sin \varphi} \right) := \vartheta_{\max}(\varphi)
\end{align*}
\]

(24)

The average value of a function \( f(\Omega) \) is obtained via:

\[
\langle f(\Omega) \rangle = \frac{12}{\pi} \int_0^{\vartheta_{\max}(\varphi)} d\varphi \int_0^{\vartheta_{\max}(\varphi)} d\vartheta \sin \vartheta \int f(\Omega) = \frac{12}{\pi} \int_0^{\vartheta_{\max}(\varphi)} d\varphi \int_{\cos(\vartheta_{\max}(\varphi))}^{\vartheta_{\max}(\varphi)} du f(u, \varphi)
\]

(25)

with the substitution \( \cos(\vartheta) = u \) in the last identity.

The distance of a point on the medial surface to the origin of the corresponding sphere is determined by taking use of the fact that the \( z \)-coordinate is constant within the asymmetric surface patch:

\[
\rho(\Omega) = \frac{a}{\sqrt{8 \cos \vartheta}}
\]

(26)

Medial surface distance, local surface area and local matrix domain volume can be expressed in terms of \( \rho(\Omega) \):

\[
d(\Omega) = \rho(\Omega) - r \\
\delta A(\Omega) = r^2 \cdot \delta \Omega = \text{const.}
\]

(27)
\[ \delta V(\Omega) = \frac{\delta \Omega}{3} (\rho^3(\Omega) - r^3) \]  

(29)

Substituting \( f(\phi_{AQ}) := \sqrt{8} \left( \frac{3}{16\pi} \right)^{(1/3)} \phi_{AQ}^{(1/3)} \) and using a partial fraction expansion, the shape parameter is decomposed into exponents of \( u = \cos(\theta) \):

\[
s(u) = \frac{\rho^3(u) - r^3}{3r^2(\rho(u) - r)} = \frac{1}{3f^2} \frac{u^3 - f^3}{u^3 - f^3} = \frac{1}{3} \left\{ 1 + (fu)^{-3} + (fu)^{-2} \right\}
\]  

(30)

Using the abbreviation \( c_n = 1/u^n \), we derive the average and standard deviation of the medial surface distance \( d \)

\[
\langle d \rangle = \frac{a}{\sqrt{8}} (c_1 - f(\phi_{AQ}))
\]  

(31)

\[
\Delta d = \frac{a}{\sqrt{8}} \sqrt{c_2 - c_1^2}
\]  

(32)

\[
\frac{\Delta d}{\langle d \rangle} = \frac{\sqrt{c_2 - c_1^2}}{c_1 - f(\phi_{AQ})}
\]  

(33)

as well as the average and the standard deviation of the shape parameter \( s \)

\[
\langle s \rangle = \frac{1}{3} \left\{ 1 + \frac{c_1}{f} + \frac{c_2}{f^2} \right\}
\]  

(34)

\[
\Delta s = \frac{1}{3} \sqrt{\frac{c_2 - c_1^2}{f^2} + \frac{2c_3 - c_1c_2}{f^3} + \frac{c_4 - c_2^2}{f^4}}
\]  

(35)

\[
\frac{\Delta s}{\langle s \rangle} = \frac{\sqrt{\frac{c_2 - c_1^2}{f^2} + \frac{2c_3 - c_1c_2}{f^3} + \frac{c_4 - c_2^2}{f^4}}}{1 + \frac{c_1}{f} + \frac{c_2}{f^2}}
\]  

(36)

with \( f := f(\phi_{AQ}) \). To obtain the numerical values of \( c_n \), the integral defined in eqn (25) has to be solved. While the inner integral over \( u \) is straight forward, the outer integral over \( \phi \) is calculated numerically with Simpson’s rule and \( 10^6 \) nodes in the interval \((0, \pi/2)\). The first eight digits of the numerical values of the constants are

\[
f(\phi_{AQ}) = 1.1053389 \times (\phi_{AQ})^{1/3},
\]  

(37)

\[
c_1 = 1.1004937,
\]  

(38)

\[
c_2 = 1.2163364,
\]  

(39)

\[
c_3 = 1.3503394,
\]  

(40)

\[
c_4 = 1.5060711.
\]  

(41)
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