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Amphiphilic beads as depots for sustained drug release integrated into fibrillar scaffolds

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ABSTRACT

Native extracellular matrix (ECM) is a complex fibrous structure loaded with bioactive cues that affects the sur- 23 rounding cells. A promising strategy to mimicking native tissue architecture for tissue engineering applications is 24 to engineer fibrous scaffolds using electrospinning. By loading appropriate bioactive cues within these fibrous 25 scaffolds, various cellular functions such as cell adhesion, proliferation and differentiation can be regulated. 26 Here, we report on the encapsulation and sustained release of model hydrophobic drug (dexamethasone 27 (Dex)) within beaded fibrillar scaffold of poly(ethylene oxide terephthalate)-poly(butylene terephthalate) 28 (PEOT/PBT), a polyether-ester multiblock copolymer to direct differentiation of human mesenchymal stem 29 cells (hMSCs). The amphiphilic beads act as depots for sustained drug release that is integrated into the fibrillar 30 scaffolds. The entrapment of Dex within the beaded structure results in sustained release of drug over the period 31 of 28 days. This is mainly attributed to the diffusion driven release of Dex from the amphiphilic electrospun scaffolds. In vitro results indicate that hMSCs cultured on Dex containing beaded fibrillar scaffolds exhibit an increase 33 in osteogenic differentiation potential, as evidenced by increased alkaline phosphatase (ALP) activity, compared 34 to the direct infusion of Dex in a culture medium. The formation of a mineralized matrix is also significantly 35 enhanced due to the controlled Dex release from the fibrous scaffolds. This approach can be used to engineer 36 scaffolds with appropriate chemical cues to direct tissue regeneration. 37

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43 1. Introduction

Native extracellular matrix (ECM) is a complex fibrous structure that 44 provides physical, chemical, and mechanical cues to direct cellular 4546processes [1–5]. A promising strategy to mimicking native tissue architecture is to engineer fibrous scaffolds using electrospinning (ESP) tech-47 niques [6]. By incorporating appropriate topographical or therapeutic/ 48 49 bioactive cues within the fibrous scaffolds, various cellular processes can be controlled to facilitate the formation of musculoskeletal tissues 50[7–9]. For example, these fibrous scaffolds could find applications as 5152bone fillers, in non-load bearing defects such as skull defects, or as

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jconrel.2014.04.035 0168-3659/© 2014 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved. bone membranes such as in the case of periosteum regeneration 53 [7–9]. Electrospun scaffolds composed of hydroxyapatite/chitosan 54 have shown to promote new bone regeneration *in vivo* by activating 55 integrin and BMP/Smad signaling pathway [10]. Fibrous membranes 56 composed of gelatin/polycaprolactone have shown to promote 57 *in vitro* and *in vivo* cartilage tissue regeneration [11]. In a similar study, 58 fibrous scaffolds made from poly(L-lactide-co- ϵ -caprolactone)/collagen 59 (P(LLA-CL)/Col) stimulate differentiation of tendon-derived stem cells 60 when subjected to mechanical stimulation [12].

Even when load bearing applications are considered, electrospun 62 scaffolds can be used in combination with, for example, rapid 63 prototyped scaffolds with mechanical properties matching those of 64 bone [13]. In this respect, the electrospun scaffolds can be useful to 65 deliver biological factors that can augment the regenerative process. 66 Silk fibroin based electrospun scaffolds loaded with bone morphogenet- 67 ic protein 2 (BMP-2) have shown to promote mineralized matrix forma- 68 tion *in vitro* due to release of BMP-2 [14]. The surface of electrospun 69 fibrous can be functionalized to load appropriate bioactive moieties to 70

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71control cell fate [15–17]. To obtain a 3D porous network, a range of 72techniques such as use of porogenic materials or water-soluble agents within the polymer solution prior to the electrospinning are proposed 73 74 [18]. After subjecting the electrospun scaffolds loaded with porogenic materials or water-soluble agents to water, the desired porosity 7576can be achieved [18]. Another technique to enhance the porosity of 77 electrospun scaffolds includes laser ablation [19]. This technique allows 78incorporation of micromachined pores with predetermined dimension 79and location to improve the cellular infiltration.

80 A range of hydrophobic or hydrophilic therapeutic agents can be incorporated within electrospun fibers by blending them with the 81 polymer solution prior to electrospinning [20–23]. The entrapped ther-82 apeutic/bioactive molecules can be released in vitro and in vivo as part of 83 84 the volumetric or surface matrix or as a soluble factor in a sustained and controlled manner to control cellular behaviors. For example, bioactive 85 agents such as bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs) [24,25], dexa-86 methasone [26,27], hydroxyapatite [28,29], calcium phosphate [30] 87 and silicate nanoparticles [31–33] are incorporated within polymeric 88 scaffolds to induce osteogenic differentiation of stem cells. The release 89 rate of these bioactive moieties can be modified by altering the fiber 90 91 morphology, degradation rate, hydrophilicity of polymer and drug load-92ing [9,23,34,35].

93 Dexamethasone (Dex) is a synthetic member of the glucocorticoid class of steroid drugs and is used in the treatment of severe inflammato-94 ry diseases [36]. Dex has a concentration-dependent stimulatory effect 95on the differentiation of human mesenchymal stem cells (hMSCs) [37, 96 38]. For example, hMSCs treated with Dex show increased levels of alka-97 98 line phosphatase (ALP) activity, which is an early marker for osteogenic differentiation [39]. Furthermore, Dex is also known to enhance matrix 99 mineralization of hMSCs in combination with β-glycerolphosphate and 100 ascorbic acid [40]. Although the exact mode of action by which Dex 101 102functions is unidentified, it is known that it enters the cell where it 103 binds to specific regulatory proteins thereby activating the transcription of osteoblast-specific genes [26]. Although Dex is known to have a 104 prolonged effect on ALP expression and matrix mineralization even 105after only a few days of exposure [41], continuous treatment of hMSCs 106 107 with Dex results in the most efficient induction of differentiation and 108 subsequent matrix mineralization [42].

To control the release of Dex, various strategies such as encapsulation 109(or entrapped/attached) within poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid (PLGA) 110 microspheres [43], carbon nanotubes [44,45], poly(amidoamine) 111 112 (PAMAM) dendrimer nanoparticles [46] and hyperbranched polyester hydrogels [47] have been reported. However, limited research has been 113 focused on controlled delivery of Dex from electrospun scaffolds 114 [48–51]. Martins et al. showed an increase in ALP expression and matrix 115 mineralization of hMSCs on electrospun polycaprolactone (PCL)/Dex 116 117 meshes in a basal medium containing β -glycerophosphate compared to the unloaded meshes in an osteogenic medium [48,51]. This study 118 demonstrated that controlled release of Dex is an improvement over 119normal dexamethasone-in-medium culture conditions [48,51]. Howev-120 er, due to crystalline nature of PCL, the sustained release of Dex over 121 122 long periods of time was not observed and a plateau phase was reached 123 within 4–5 days. This might be due to the formation of Dex aggregates within the PCL scaffolds over time that results in limited release 124125of entrapped drug. Moreover, the amount of Dex required to induce osteogenic differentiation was not compatible with the standard concen-126127tration used in the established osteogenic differentiation protocols. At the same time, it was shown that high concentrations of Dex could 128impair cell proliferation and trigger the upregulation of adipogenesis in 129 parallel with the osteogenesis (in vitro) [52]. Therefore, it is important 130to tune Dex release rate from any carrier-device according to the strict 131 requirements to obtain an efficient osteogenesis, followed by a robust 132mineralization. 133

134Recently, Nguyen et al. fabricated Dex loaded poly(L-lactic acid)135(PLLA) nanofibrous scaffolds [49]. They also observed that the release136of Dex from these electrospun fibers induces differentiation of hMSCs

over a period of 3 weeks. In a similar approach, Vacanti *et al.* entrapped137Dex within electrospun fibers of PLLA and PCL [50]. Entrapped Dex re-138leases from PCL scaffolds within 24 h, whereas from PLLA a sustained139delivery for longer time frame was observed. They also demonstrated140that the localized *in vivo* delivery of Dex evoked a less severe inflamma-141tory response when compared with only PCL or PLLA fibers.142

Although, encapsulation of Dex in hydrophobic polymers such 143 as PCL and PLLA is described, to our knowledge the release of Dex 144 from amphiphilic polymers has not been reported. Amphiphilic block 145 polymers with tailored physical and chemical properties have shown 146 a controlled release profile and linear degradation characteristics that 147 can be used for a range of tissue engineering applications [34,53,54]. 148 We hypothesize that entrapping Dex within bead-like depots in an 149 amphiphilic fibrillar scaffold will result in a sustained release profile 150 over longer duration. Among amphiphilic copolymers, random block 151 copolymers of poly(ethylene oxide) terephthalate and poly(butylene 152 terephthalate) (PEOT/PBT) have been extensively investigated due to 153 their bioactive characteristics [34,55,56]. By varying the molecular 154 weight and polymer composition, a wide range of PEOT/PBT copolymer 155 with the desired mechanical strength, hydration property, degradation 156 profiles and biological characteristics can be obtained [57]. The PEOT/ 157 PBT copolymers are biodegradable and have been proposed for 158 osteochondral tissue engineering [58-60]. 3D scaffolds from PEOT/PBT 159 were fabricated by using 3D fiber deposition (3DF) and electrospinning 160 (ESP) and showed to enhance cartilage tissue formation [61]. Due to the 161 amphiphilic nature of PEOT/PBT, it is predicted that hydrophobic drugs 162 (such as Dex) can be entrapped within the polymeric structure and 163 sustained release profiles from the fibrillar structure can be obtained. 164 It is envisioned that such scaffold design can be used for a range of 165 musculoskeletal tissues engineering applications that require control 166 release of hydrophobic drugs to promote tissue regeneration. 167

In this study, electrospun scaffolds of PEOT/PBT containing different 168 loadings of Dex were prepared. The surface morphologies of these fibers 169 were examined by scanning electron microscopy (SEM). The entrapment of Dex and *in vitro* release kinetics were investigated using 171 spectroscopic and chromatography techniques. The ability of the Dex 172 loaded fibers for controlling hMSC adhesion, proliferation and differentiation on electrospun fibers was also investigated. We hypothesize 174 that hMSCs cultured on Dex releasing scaffolds will show enhanced 175 osteogenic differentiation compared to the direct infusion of Dex in a 176 medium. The proposed approach for directing cellular function by the 177 sustained release of a hydrophobic drug from amphiphilic fibrous 178 scaffolds can be used to engineer a range of biomimetic scaffold for 179 controlled drug delivery and regenerative medicine applications. 180

2. Experimental

2.1. Fabrication of PEOT/PBT electrospun scaffolds

PEOT/PBT was obtained from PolyVation B.V. (Groningen, The 183 Netherlands). The composition used in this study was 1000PEOT70PBT30 184 where, 1000 is the molecular weight in g/mol of the starting poly(ethyl- 185 ene glycol) (PEG) blocks used in the copolymerization, while 70 and 30 186 are the weight ratios of the PEOT and PBT blocks, respectively. PEOT is a 187 hydrophilic polymer that imparts elastomeric properties, whereas PBT 188 is a thermoplastic crystalline polymer and imparts stiffness to the copol- 189 ymeric network. The fibrous scaffolds were fabricated by ESP. First, PEOT/ 190 PBT (20% w/v) was dissolved in a 9:1 ratio of anhydrous chloroform and 191 ethanol. ESP was carried out at 12.5 kV (Glassman High Voltage, INC) 192 using a 21G blunt needle and a flow rate of 2 mL/h. The collector was a 193 circular plate (diameter 6.5 cm) made of aluminum and maintained at 194 a constant distance of 18 cm from the needle. The electrospun scaffolds 195 were dried overnight in vacuum to remove the residual solvent. For the 196 preparation of the Dex loaded PEOT/PBT scaffolds, the drug was dissolved 197 in ethanol ($10 \times$ the desired final concentration) and then dissolved in 9 198

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