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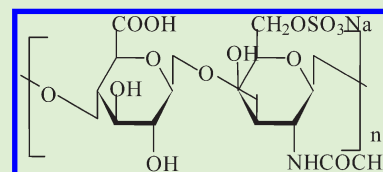
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Biopolymer-Based Hydrogels As Scaffolds for Tissue Engineering Applications: A Review

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ABSTRACT: Hydrogels are physically or chemically cross-linked polymer networks that are able to absorb large amounts of water. They can be classified into different categories depending on various parameters including the preparation method, the charge, and the mechanical and structural characteristics. The present review aims to give an overview of hydrogels based on natural polymers and their various applications in the field of tissue engineering. In a first part, relevant parameters describing different hydrogel properties and the strategies applied to finetune these characteristics will be described. In a second part, an important class of biopolymers that possess thermosensitive properties (UCST or LCST behavior) will be discussed. Another part of the review will be devoted to the application of cryogels. Finally, the most relevant biopolymer-based hydrogel systems, the different methods of preparation, as well as an in depth overview of the applications in the field of tissue engineering will be given.



1. INTRODUCTION

The application of hydrogels dates back to 1960, when Wichterle and Lim introduced the use of hydrophilic networks of cross-linked poly(2-hydroxyethyl methacrylate) (pHEMA, Figure 1) as soft contact lens material.¹ During the last few decades, hydrogels have gained increasing interest, as indicated by the increasing number of papers on hydrogel-based materials published from 1995 up to now (Figure 2). A large variety of definitions exists for hydrogels. The most frequently referred definition is the one given by Peppas.² According to his definition, hydrogels are water-swollen, cross-linked polymeric structures containing (1) covalent bonds produced by the reaction of one or more comonomers, (2) physical cross-links due to chain entanglements, (3) association bonds including hydrogen bonds or strong van der Waals interactions between chains, or (4) crystallites bringing together two or more macromolecular chains.

Hydrogels can be classified into different categories depending on various parameters including the preparation method, the overall charge, and the mechanical and structural characteristics. On the basis of the preparation method, homopolymer and copolymer hydrogels can be distinguished. Alternatively, hydrogels can also be classified as neutral, anionic, or cationic depending on the charges of the building blocks. Finally, classification can be made according to the physical structure: amorphous, semicrystalline, hydrogen-bonded, supramolecular, or hydrocolloidal.

Hydrogels are extremely suitable for a variety of applications in the pharmaceutical and medical industry. Because they are capable of retaining large amounts of water and because of their soft and rubbery consistence, they closely resemble living tissues. Moreover, their high water content also contributes to their excellent biocompatibility, as already indicated by Ovsianikov et al.³ They have already demonstrated the potential of porous gelatin-based hydrogels produced using two-photon polymerization to be applied as carriers for mesenchymal stem cells. In addition, upon applying osteogenic stimulation, the seeded cells

differentiated into the anticipated lineage. Hydrogels also show minimal tendency to adsorb proteins from body fluids because of their low interfacial tension.⁴ However, it should be noted that natural polymers including collagen, gelatin, glycosaminoglycans, and derivatives thereof often possess a high affinity for proteins present in serum. For example, Van Vlierberghe et al. have shown that (methacrylamide-modified) gelatin shows a high affinity for fibronectin.⁵ The manuscript describes the results of complementary assays including radiolabeling, surface plasmon resonance, and quartz crystal microbalance to study the interaction between gelatin and fibronectin. Interestingly, this property offers potential for materials with specific protein affinity to be applied as scaffolds for tissue engineering applications. Research has already indicated that cell attachment preferentially occurs where (ECM) proteins have been surface-deposited. Furthermore, drugs can be incorporated into the matrices and can be released subsequently according to various release profiles depending on the hydrogel properties. Hydrogels can thus function as excellent drug delivery vehicles. Peppas et al. have already described the application of (chitosan-based) hydrogels for pharmaceutical applications in several excellent reviews.^{6,7} The present review aims to give an overview of hydrogels based on natural polymers and their various applications in regenerative medicine, more specifically, in the field of tissue engineering. In a first part, relevant parameters describing hydrogel properties and the strategies applied to finetune these characteristics will be described. Next, the most relevant biopolymer-based hydrogel systems, the different methods of preparation, as well as an in-depth overview of the applications in the field of tissue engineering will be given.

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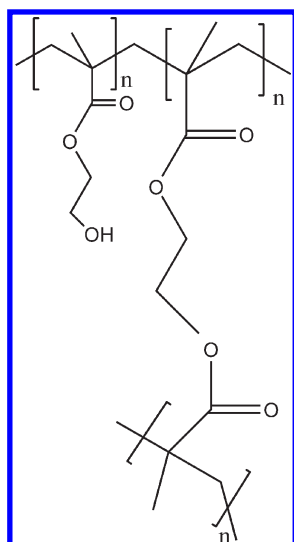


Figure 1. Structure of cross-linked poly(2-hydroxyethyl methacrylate).

A complete description of all existing natural hydrogels is beyond the scope of this Review. The focus of this Review is on the most recent developments during the past decade.

2. HYDROGEL NETWORK PROPERTIES

The suitability of hydrogels as biomedical materials and their performance in a particular application depend to a large extent on their bulk structure. The most important parameters used to characterize the network structure of hydrogels include: (1) the molecular weight of the polymer chains between two neighboring cross-links (M_c), (2) the corresponding mesh size (ξ), and (3) the effective network density (ν_e). These parameters are inter-related and can be determined by applying the equilibrium-swelling theory and the rubber-elasticity theory. For an in depth description of both theories, the authors refer to some excellent reviews.^{8–12}

Recently, an interesting alternative to characterize cross-linked hydrogel networks has been presented.¹³ High-resolution magic-angle spinning (HR-MAS) NMR spectroscopy enables to both characterize and quantify any unreacted cross-linkable moieties present in a chemically cross-linked, swollen hydrogel network. This technique has been applied for the first time to quantify unreacted methacrylamide moieties in a chemically cross-linked gelatin hydrogel. Because HR-MAS NMR spectroscopy is a fast, accurate, straightforward, and nondestructive technique, we anticipate that it will be applied more frequently in the future to study the hydrogel network properties.

3. TEMPERATURE-INDUCED HYDROGEL FORMATION

As previously mentioned, hydrogels are cross-linked 3-D networks containing covalent bonds, physical cross-links, hydrogen bonds, strong van der Waals interactions, and crystallite associations. Very often, combinations of the previously mentioned associations are involved in hydrogel formation. This will be further outlined in the description of the various biopolymers that have already been applied in tissue engineering applications. (See Section 5.) Interestingly, a large number of these biopolymers possess the property to self-structure upon temperature variation. Two different types of temperature-sensitive materials can be distinguished: upper critical solution temperature (UCST) and lower critical

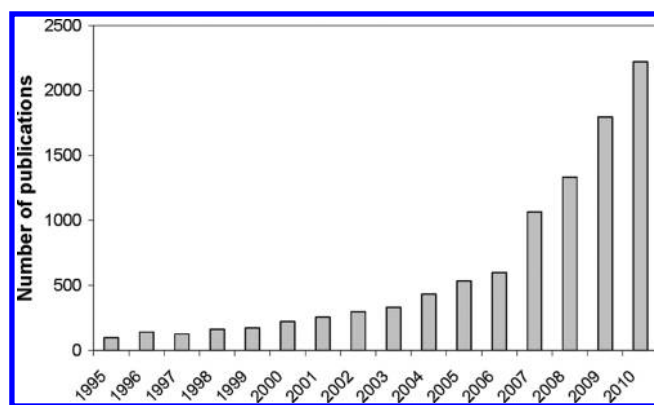


Figure 2. Overview of the number of publications concerning hydrogels during the last 16 years.

solution temperature (LCST) materials. Both types of systems possess an interesting potential for biomedical applications because materials that gel or dissolve *in situ* can be developed, depending on the exact UCST or LCST. Because of the impact of temperature-sensitive hydrogels, a description on the theoretical background of UCST and LCST behavior will be given.

3.1. Upper Critical Solution Temperature. The gelation of many biopolymers is induced by the reversible temperature-sensitive formation of intermolecular hydrogen bonds. This thermoreversible process is characteristic for gelatin (i.e., partially hydrolyzed collagen) and certain polysaccharides including agarose, amylose, amylopectin, and carrageenan.¹⁴ The nucleation and growth of the helical aggregates is driven by the formation of double (for polysaccharides) or triple helices (for gelatin).

A number of synthetic polymers are also capable of forming physical hydrogels via hydrogen bonding. Examples include polyethylene oxide and polyvinylalcohol.¹⁵ An alternative system based on hydrogen-bond-mediated self-assembly was reported by Salem et al.¹⁶ In that paper, microparticles of lactic acid/ethylene oxide copolymers were modified using biotin. The addition of an aqueous solution of avidin led to cross-linking by molecular interaction between the biotin-modified synthetic polymer and the multiple binding sites on avidin. This methodology was applied for the fabrication of cell carriers.

3.2. Lower Critical Solution Temperature. A second class of temperature-sensitive materials includes the LCST systems. At low temperatures, a homogeneous solution is obtained. Upon heating, aggregation of the hydrophobic groups occurs, inducing phase separation and hydrogel formation. The endothermal gelation is driven by an entropy change. In contrast with the increase in order during the aggregation of the hydrophobic segments, the entropy increases during the hydrogel formation. This is due to the large amount of water molecules released by the hydrophobic part of the polymer.¹⁷ Gelation thus occurs spontaneously upon heating because the entropy ($T\Delta S$) compensates for the unfavorable enthalpy (ΔH).

Examples of such systems include graft copolymers composed of a polyacetal backbone with pendant poly(ethylene glycol) side chains, linear poly(*N*-isopropylacrylamide-*co*-butylmethacrylate-*co*-acrylic acid) terpolymers, and poly(*N*-isopropylacrylamide-*co*-methacrylic acid).^{18–20}

Gehrke et al. selected chemically cross-linked hydrogels based on methylcellulose (MC), HPMC, hydroxypropylcellulose, and carboxymethylcellulose for drug release applications.²¹ These

Table 1. Application Fields of Cryogels with Their Respective Building Blocks^a

type of polymer	application	reference
gelatin, poly(acrylamide), agarose, poly(2-hydroxyethyl methacrylate), dextrane, chitosan	cell carrier	35, 38, 41
carbon particles	biosensor	42
poly(acrylamide)	chromatography	22
galactomannan, xanthan, starch	food	23, 43–45
poly(acrylamide), gelatin	drug release	46–49

^a For more specific information regarding cryogels, the authors wish to refer to some excellent reviews.^{22,27,50}

cellulose derivatives show LCST behavior, which makes them particularly interesting to be applied as drug delivery vehicles.

4. CRYO-INDUCED HYDROGEL FORMATION

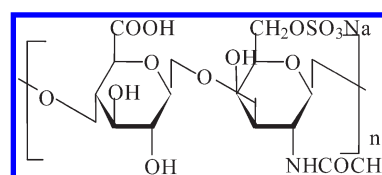
In addition to hydrogel formation at ambient temperature, hydrogels can also be synthesized by applying a cryogenic treatment. Lozinsky et al. have referred to porous hydrogels produced using a cryogenic treatment using the term “cryogels”.²² Interestingly, the phenomenon of cryogelation decreases both the critical monomer/polymer concentration and the reaction time required for gelation. Cryotropic gelation (aka cryogelation) is a specific type of gelation taking place upon cryogenic treatment of gel-forming systems. A requirement for the processes resulting in the formation of cryogels is crystallization of the bulk of the low-molecular-weight liquid present in the initial system.²² Because of the crystallization of the pure solvent, the total volume of the nonfrozen liquid microphase (NFLMP) is lower than the initial reaction volume. Consequently, the concentration of polymer or monomer in the NFLMP is significantly higher than the initial concentration. The polymer gel phase can be formed during one of the stages of cryogenic treatment: during freezing of the initial system, during storage of the samples in the frozen state, or during thawing of the frozen specimens.^{22–26} The result of the above-mentioned process is a so-called “cryogel” (i.e., porous scaffold composed of the hydrogel starting material).²² For a detailed description of the term “cryogel” and its specific applications, we refer to some excellent reviews from Lozinsky et al.^{22,27}

Recently, the structuring of different polymers by cryogenic treatment has attracted much of attention. For a thiol-containing poly(acryl amide) derivative, the conditions to obtain an insoluble gel after freezing-thawing were optimized. The gel retained the shape of the cryo-mold, whereas the polymer solution at room temperature remained liquid.²⁸ Both the reaction rate and yield to transform macromolecular thiols into the corresponding disulfides were increased by freeze–thawing of aqueous solutions of thiol-containing polymers in the presence of oxidants.²⁹

The processes of cryo-induced association and aggregation of β -glucans resulted in the formation of soft or hard matter depending on the amount of applied freeze–thaw cycles.³⁰

Multiple freezing cycles influenced the structure of poly(vinyl alcohol) (PVA) hydrogels in such a way that secondary crystallites were superimposed on primary crystallites, which were formed after the first temperature cycle. This resulted in materials with improved mechanical properties.³¹

More recently, the process of cryogelation for the production of porous materials has been widely applied.^{32–34} Gelatin cryogels were prepared as cell carriers for a panel of human cells.^{35,36} A well-defined “curtain-like” pore architecture was induced by

**Figure 3.** Chemical structure of chondroitin sulfate C.

applying a cryogenic treatment on scaffolds containing both gelatin and chondroitin sulfate.³⁷ Agarose cryogel sponges were evaluated as scaffolds for culturing both isolated pancreatic islets and insulinoma cells.³⁸ Blends of PVA and different biological macromolecules, including hyaluronic acid, dextran, and gelatin were used to produce bioartificial hydrogels functioning as potential tissue engineering scaffolds.³⁹ Macroporous gels, based on agarose, poly(acrylamide), or polymethacrylates were patented as separation media for application within the field of chromatography.⁴⁰ An overview of the most recent applications of cryogels is given in Table 1.

5. BIOPOLYMER-BASED HYDROGEL SYSTEMS

From the above overview of materials showing temperature- and cryo-induced gelation, the relevance of biopolymers in the field of tissue engineering was already clearly demonstrated. (See Sections 3 and 4.) In what follows, an overview of the most frequently applied polysaccharides and proteins for regenerative medicine, the different hydrogel preparation methods applied, as well as their applications will be given.

5.1. Polysaccharide Hydrogels. **5.1.1. Chondroitin Sulfate.** Chondroitin sulfate (CS) is a glycosaminoglycan composed of alternating units of *N*-acetyl-D-galactosamine and D-glucuronic acid. (See Figure 3.) It possesses excellent biocharacteristics including the binding and modulation of certain growth factors.

Because natural CS is readily water-soluble, chemical cross-linking of CS is required for in vitro or in vivo hydrogel application. In literature, a variety of methods was already described for cross-linking CS. Kirker et al. have prepared biocompatible hydrogel films using the adipic dihydrazide derivative of chondroitin sulfate (CS-ADH), in which a pendant hydrazide functionality generated a gel using a small molecule or a macromolecular cross-linker (e.g., poly(ethylene glycol)-propiondialdehyde, PEG-dialdehyde, Figure 4).⁵¹ The most frequently applied cross-linking reagents include a combination of 1-ethyl-3-(3-dimethyl aminopropyl)carbodiimide (EDC) and *N*-hydroxysuccinimide (NHS).⁵² The cross-linking reaction has often been performed in the presence of collagen (Figure 5)⁵³ or other amine-containing reagents (e.g., 1,12-diaminododecane).⁵⁴ However, cross-linking using EDC often resulted in (partial) matrix collapse in aqueous media. This could be (partially) prevented by performing the

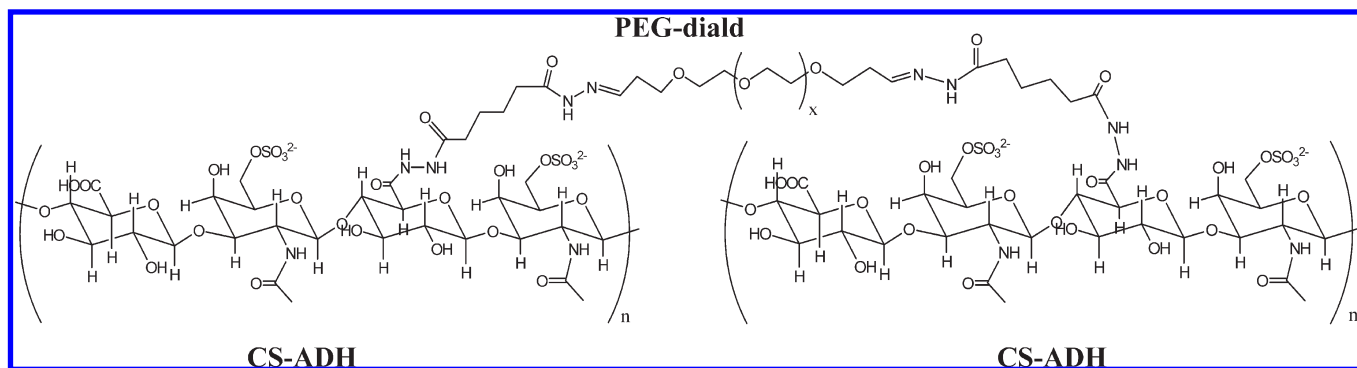


Figure 4. CS hydrogel cross-linking chemistry.

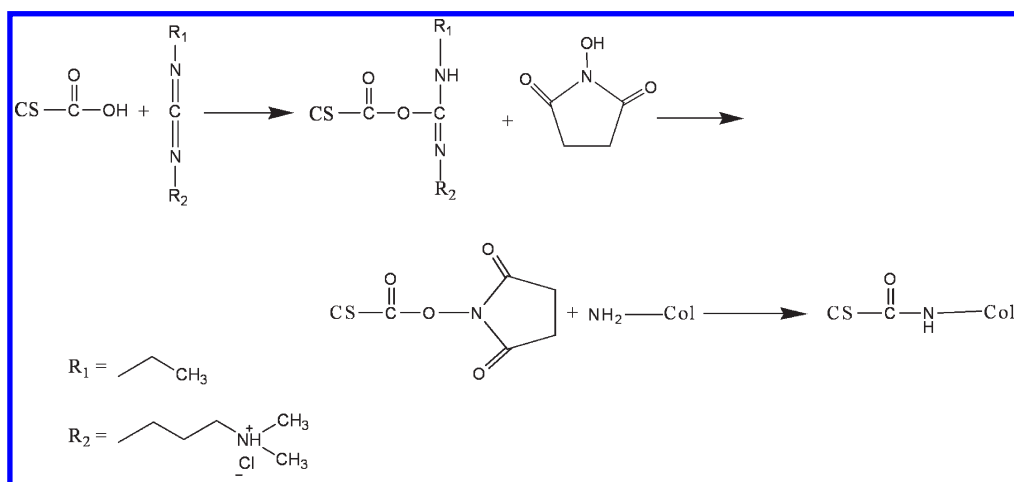


Figure 5. Cross-linking of CS and collagen using EDC and NHS.

cross-linking step in the presence of ethanol.⁵⁵ Alternatively, CS was functionalized with thiol groups by EDC-mediated condensation with a disulfide-containing hydrazide, followed by dithiothreitol reduction. In a subsequent step, thiol-modified CS was cross-linked using poly(ethylene glycol) diacrylate.⁵⁶ Li et al. have utilized glycidyl methacrylate (GMA) in a heterogeneous reaction in aqueous medium regardless of GMA's potential side-reaction with water. Two reactions, including a rapid transesterification and a slow irreversible epoxide ring-opening took place simultaneously. (See Figure 6.)⁵⁷

CS-based hydrogels have previously found widespread application in the field of tissue engineering. Hydrogels composed of gelatin and CS were applied as controlled release systems for antibacterial proteins. Incorporation of CS in cross-linked gelatin gels significantly increased the protein loading capacity of the gels and extended the release time.⁵⁸ Alternatively, gelatin-CS-hyaluronan tricopolymer scaffolds were selected to mimic natural cartilage.^{59,60} It was observed that the presence of CS promoted the secretion of proteoglycan and type II collagen.⁶⁰ Bilayer gelatin-CS-hyaluronan biomatrices have also been studied for wound treatment. The results showed that in addition to a permanent coverage with histologically normal and adequately differentiated epithelial tissue, a well-defined dermal-epidermal junction and a collagen network in the dermis were present. As a result, the skin substitute had a positive effect on the promotion of the wound healing process and could be used to assist the regeneration of full-thickness skin defects.^{61,62} Another application

of the tricopolymer scaffold included the regeneration of the human nucleus pulposus.⁶³ Furthermore, both microcarriers and membranes, composed of CS and gelatin, were prepared in view of different therapeutic strategies.^{64–70}

A nonexhaustive overview ranked alphabetically by application, is given in Table 2.

5.1.2. Hyaluronic Acid. Hyaluronic acid (i.e., hyaluronan, HA) is a nonsulphated glycosaminoglycan, composed of alternating units of D-glucuronic acid and D-N-acetylglucosamine, linked together via alternating β -1,4 and β -1,3 glycosidic bonds (Figure 7).^{71,72} HA is one of the major components of the extracellular matrix of skin, cartilage, and the vitreous humor.^{56,73} The first hyaluronan-based biomedical product (Healon) was developed in the 1970s and is FDA approved for the use in eye surgery (e.g., corneal transplantation).⁷⁴ At present, the most often used commercially available HA-based product is HYAFF (i.e., benzyl ester of HA).^{75,76} The product exists with varying esterification degrees, and various research groups have already reported on their differences in mechanical properties and biological response.⁷⁵ However, at research level, a widely applied strategy to cross-link chemically HA was and still is the polymerization of methacrylate-functionalized HA.^{77–82} In combination with collagen to form semi-interpenetrating networks (semi-IPNs), endothelial cell attachment was already realized within microfluidic channels aiming at blood vessel formation.⁷⁷ In addition, the semi-IPNs were suitable to enable fibroblast^{78,83} and chondrocyte encapsulation⁸⁴ and subsequent proliferation.

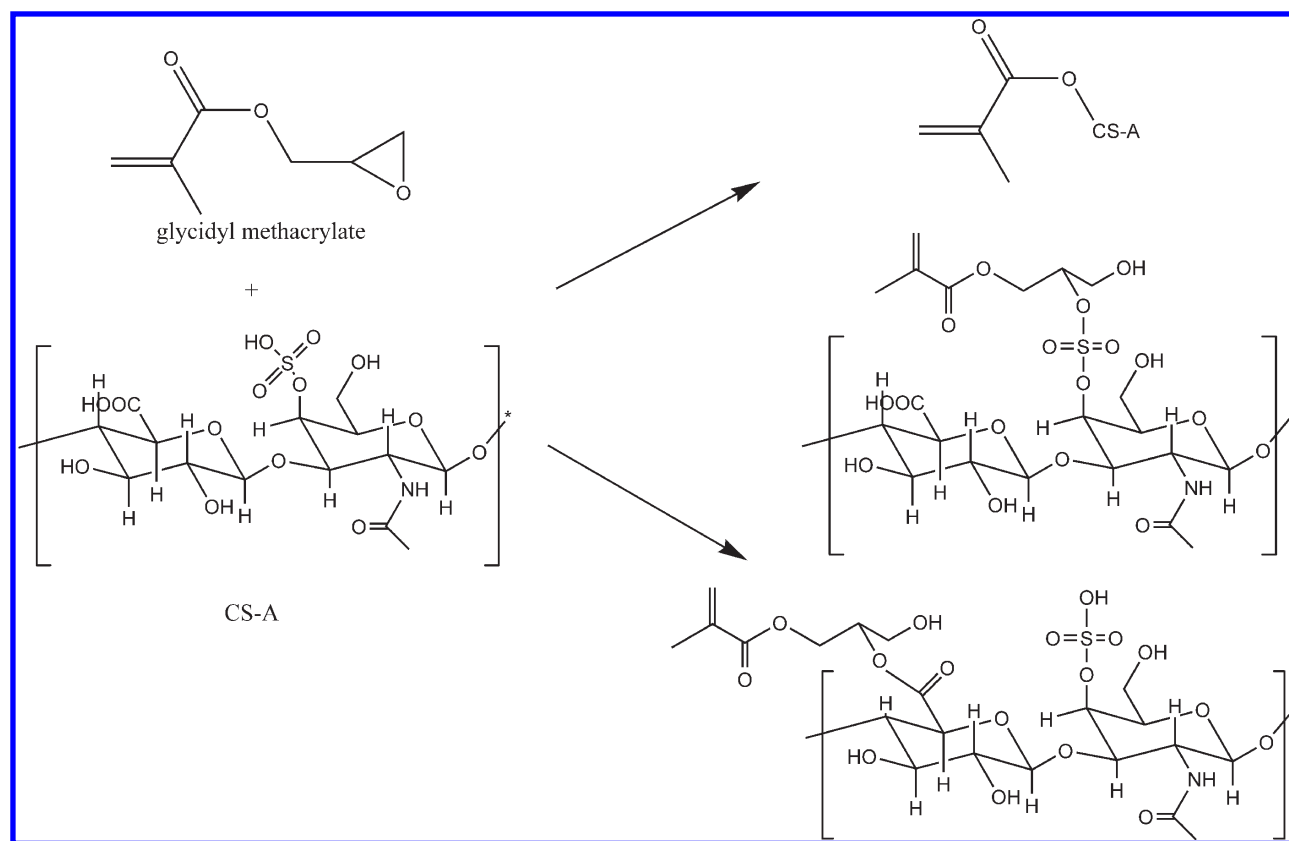


Figure 6. Reaction mechanism of CS and glycidyl methacrylate.

Table 2. Overview of Biomedical Applications of Chondroitin Sulfate

type of chondroitin sulfate	application
gelatin/chondroitin-6-sulfate/hyaluronan, methacrylate- and aldehyde-modified chondroitin sulfate, chondroitin sulfate/chitosan/dermatan sulfate, poly(L-lactide)-g-chondroitin sulfate, poly(ethylene glycol)/chondroitin sulfate	cartilage
EDC cross-linked chondroitin sulfate/collagen/elastin, EDC cross-linked chondroitin sulfate/collagen, thiolated chondroitin sulfate/hyaluronan/gelatin	general tissue engineering application
chondroitin sulfate/collagen	heart
gelatin/chondroitin-6-sulfate/hyaluronan, glutaraldehyde cross-linked gelatin/chondroitin-6-sulfate	intervertebral disk
chondroitin sulfate/heparin/collagen	liver
chondroitin sulfate/collagen	lung
EDC cross-linked chondroitin-6-sulfate/gelatin/hyaluronan	skin
chitosan/chondroitin sulfate, chondroitin sulfate/Pluronic F127 nanogel, chondroitin sulfate spheres	drug release

HA has also been combined with alginate⁸⁵ and poly-L-lysine^{86–88} to develop scaffolds for a variety of tissue engineering applications including nerve regeneration.⁸⁹ More recently, composite scaffolds were also prepared starting from complementary chemical functionalities. Tan et al. reported on the development of a new class of biocompatible and biodegradable composite hydrogels derived from water-soluble chitosan and oxidized hyaluronic acid without the addition of a chemical cross-linking agent. The gelation was attributed to the Schiff base reaction between amino and aldehyde groups of polysaccharide derivatives including *N*-succinyl-chitosan and aldehyde-modified hyaluronic acid.⁹⁰ In addition, that research group has also elaborated a novel strategy to synthesize aminated hyaluronic acid-g-poly

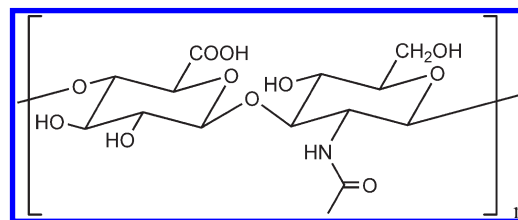


Figure 7. Chemical structure of hyaluronic acid.

(*N*-isopropylacrylamide) (AHA-g-PNIPAAm).⁹¹ AHA prepared by grafting adipic dihydrazide to the HA backbone was coupled

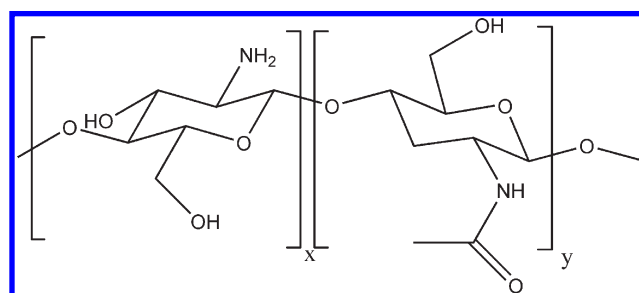
Table 3. Overview of Biomedical Applications of Hyaluronic Acid

type of hyaluronic acid	application
ester-containing hyaluronic acid	adipose tissue
amine/aldehyde-containing hyaluronic acid, hyaluronic acid/poly(vinylalcohol), MMP-sensitive hyaluronic acid	bone
hyaluronic acid/collagen I, hyaluronan/gelatin/chondroitin-6-sulfate, adipic dihydrazide-modified collagen/hyaluronic acid, fibrin/hyaluronic acid, chitosan/hyaluronic acid, chitosan/hyaluronic acid, carrageenan/fibrin/hyaluronic acid	cartilage
thiolated hyaluronan/poly(ethyleneglycol) diacrylate, hyaluronic acid/gelatin gradient, poly(<i>N</i> -isopropylacrylamide)/hyaluronic acid, hyaluronic acid/pendant L-benzoyl-cysteine, methacrylated hyaluronic acid, collagen/hyaluronan/chitosan, collagen/hyaluronic acid, silk fibroin/hyaluronan	general
acryl-modified hyaluronic acid/poly(ethylene glycol) acryl	gene therapy
ester-containing hyaluronan/butyric and retinoic acid, methacrylated hyaluronan, divinylsulfone cross-linked hyaluronan	heart
benzyl esters of hyaluronic acid, hyaluronan/gelatin/chondroitin-6-sulfate	intervertebral disk
benzyl esters of hyaluronic acid	liver
hyaluronic acid	muscle
photo-cross-linked hyaluronic acid, collagen/hyaluronic acid, fibroin/hyaluronic acid, antibody-modified hyaluronic acid, hyaluronic acid/polylysine	nerve
hyaluronic acid derivatives, carbodiimide-cross-linked hyaluronic acid	ophthalmology
benzyl esters of hyaluronic acid, hyaluronan-gelatin, EDC cross-linked hyaluronan/chondroitin-6-sulfate/gelatin, adipic dihydrazide derivatives of hyaluronic acid/PEG-propiondialdehyde, hyaluronic acid/chitosan/gelatin	skin
thiol-modified hyaluronic acid	spinal cord
methacrylated hyaluronic acid	vascular tissue

to carboxylic end-capped PNIPAAm (PNIPAAm-COOH) produced via radical polymerization using 4,4'-azobis(4-cyanovaleic acid) as an initiator.⁹¹ Horn et al. combined thiol-modified HA with acrylate-functionalized PEG to create hydrogels suitable for spinal cord repair using Michael's addition.⁹² When targeting hard tissue engineering including cartilage repair, the mechanical properties of the above-mentioned material were insufficient. Therefore, various research groups studied the possibility to develop HA-based composites possessing synthetic polymers including poly lactic-glycolic acid (PLGA)⁹³ and poly(propylene fumarate).⁸⁴ Because proteins (e.g., gelatin,^{94,95} fibrin,⁹⁶ fibroin,⁹⁷ collagen^{98,99}) are often part of these composites, EDC is in most studies applied to realize chemical cross-linking.^{61,62,94,95,99} HA has also been modified with moieties including RGD peptide or galactose targeting, respectively increased or specific cell attachment for hepatocytes.¹⁰⁰ More recently, MMP-sensitive HA-based scaffolds have been developed to finetune the material degradation to the time needed for new tissue formation. In general, cross-linkers are selected possessing MMP-cleavable peptides to mimic the remodeling characteristics of natural extracellular matrices by cell-derived MMPs.¹⁰¹ In addition to porous HA-based scaffolds, nanofibers and microbeads have also already been developed starting from glycosaminoglycans using electrospinning¹⁰² and phase separation,¹⁰³ respectively. Finally, HA has also been combined with stem cells to function as injectable material for tissue augmentation purposes.¹⁰⁴

In Table 3, an overview is given of various hyaluronic acid derivatives and their respective biomedical applications.

5.1.3. Chitosan. Chitosan is the partial deacetylated derivative of chitin, which is obtained from the shells of crabs and shrimp (Figure 8). This biocompatible, cationic polymer dissolves in water up to a pH of 6.2. An increased basicity results in a gel-like precipitation of the hydrated polymer by neutralization of the amine groups. The pH-responsiveness can be extended to a pH-dependent, thermoresponsive system (i.e., LCST-characterized

**Figure 8.** Structure of chitosan.

system) by adding polyol salts including β -glycerophosphate (GP). These formulations dissolve at neutral pH and ambient temperature. Upon heating to body temperature, gelation occurs. It was observed that both the stability at room temperature and the gelation time increase with decreasing deacetylation degree.¹⁰⁵

The solubility at ambient temperature and pH 7 is induced by the hydration of the chitosan chain, promoted by the GP. Upon heating to body temperature, the bound water is partially released inducing chain interactions and subsequent gelation. Various interactions are involved in the gelation mechanism:

- 1 electrostatic attractions between chitosan ammonium groups and the GP phosphate group,
- 2 hydrogen bonds between chitosan chains, due to the decreased electrostatic repulsion after neutralization of the ammonium groups by GP,
- 3 chitosan–chitosan hydrophobic interactions.

Chitosan microspheres have already been prepared by adding a chitosan solution drop-by-drop in a sodium tripolyphosphate solution.¹⁰⁶ Next, the microspheres were transferred in a mold, followed by sintering to develop chitosan matrices suitable for bone tissue engineering applications. To develop scaffolds with a channel-like pore morphology, Bagnaninchi et al. have already reported on the potential of freeze-drying in the presence of a

Table 4. Overview of Biomedical Applications of Chitosan

type of chitosan	application
glutaraldehyde-cross-linked collagen/chitosan	adipose tissue
freeze-dried chitosan/gelatin, electrospun collagen/chitosan nanofiber	blood vessel
sintered chitosan microspheres, poly(ϵ -caprolactone)/poly(vinylalcohol)/chitosan, chitosan/fibroin/hydroxyapatite, β -TCP/chitosan, β -FGF-loaded hydroxyapatite/chitosan, polycaprolactone/chitosan, chitosan/alginate multilayer scaffold, chitosan/gelatin, titania/chitosan composite, photo-cross-linkable chitosan, chitosan/collagen, ceramic nanoparticles/chitosan, chitosan/polyethylene glycol dimethacrylate/ <i>N,N</i> -dimethylacrylamide, silk/chitosan, nanohydroxyapatite/chitosan/carboxymethyl cellulose	bone
chitosan beads, EDC-cross-linked collagen/chitosan/GAG, chitosan/poly(butylene succinate), CS/dermatan sulfate/chitosan, chitosan/hyaluronic acid, chitosan/hyaluronic acid, chitosan/polyester-based, insulin-loaded chitosan, chitosan/gelatin, alginate/chitosan, chitosan/gelatin/hyaluronan, chitosan/Pluronic, polyethylene oxide/chitosan, glutaraldehyde/oxidized dextran/chitosan	cartilage
hydroxypropyl chitosan/gelatin	corneal stroma
chitosan/starch, hydroxyapatite/chitosan, chitosan/soy protein/TEOS, collagen/hyaluronan/chitosan, genipin-cross-linked chitosan, thiolated chitosan, electrosprayed chitosan microbeads, chitosan/poly(vinyl alcohol), poly(caprolactone)/chitosan, chitosan/collagen, nanofibrous PLLA/chitosan fibers, disulfide cross-linked chitosan, chitosan/poly-L-lysine, chitosan/gelatin, chitosan-graft- β -cyclodextrin, calcium phosphate/chitosan, carboxymethyl chitosan-graft-D-glucuronic acid, chitosan/PEG/gelatin, chitosan-g-lactic acid, chitosan/phospholipid	general tissue engineering applications
chitosan/glycerophosphate, chitosan/glycerophosphate/hydroxyethylcellulose	intervertebral disk
collagen/chitosan, silk fibroin/chitosan/heparin, chitosan/gelatin	liver
alginate dialdehyde cross-linked chitosan/calcium polyphosphate	meniscus
poly(lysine)-functionalized chitosan, polypyrrole/chitosan, PLGA/chitosan/HA, chitosan/polyglycolic acid	nerve
chitosan/gelatin/glycerol phosphate	nucleus pulposus
DTBP-cross-linked chitosan, gold colloid/chitosan, collagen/chitosan, bFGF/chitosan, β -glycerol phosphate/collagen/chitosan	skin
chitosan-based hyaluronan, chitosan microchannel	tendon

series of pore-forming needles possessing a diameter of 50 μm .¹⁰⁷ The potential of the scaffolds developed was already demonstrated for tendon tissue engineering.¹⁰⁷ However, matrices possessing elongated channels could also find some potential in the field of nerve regeneration. Crompton et al. have modified chitosan with poly-D-lysine via azidoaniline photocoupling.¹⁰⁸ The results indicated that cortical cell survival was improved for poly-D-lysine modifications up to 0.1%. When exceeding this number, neurite outgrowth was hindered significantly.¹⁰⁸ Jiao et al. have reported on the development of chitosan/polyglycolic acid nerve grafts for axon regeneration.¹⁰⁹

Alternative techniques to develop porous scaffolds are supercritical fluid technology^{110,111} and stereolithography.¹¹² Choi et al. have developed chitosan inverse opal scaffolds due to their unique uniform pore size and regular 3-D interconnectivity.¹¹³ PCL microspheres were selected as template, followed by fabrication of a cubic close-packed lattice. Finally, the PCL template was dissolved selectively.¹¹³ The scaffolds showed potential to be applied for bone tissue engineering. He et al. have developed composite scaffolds of chitosan and gelatin for liver tissue engineering by combining stereolithography and freeze-drying.¹¹⁴

Chitosan-based scaffolds and nanofibers have also already been applied for bone regeneration, either as such¹¹⁵ or as part of composites with synthetic polymers including poly(L-lactic acid), poly(butylene-succinate),¹¹⁶ or ceramics including hydroxyapatite.^{117–130} When targeting skin tissue, engineering ECM constituents such as collagen are often included in chitosan-based scaffolds.^{131–133} In addition to collagen^{134,135} (and derivatives thereof^{41,121,136,137}), synthetic polymers including poly(ethylene

glycol)^{138,139} and Pluronic^{140,141} have also already been combined with chitosan when aiming at tissue regeneration.

In the presence of glycosaminoglycans¹⁴² (i.e., dermatan sulfate, CS,¹⁴³ or hyaluronic acid^{90,103,134,144}), EDC is often applied as a cross-linking agent. The matrices developed enable the adhesion and subsequent proliferation of chondrocytes¹⁴⁵ and hepatocytes.¹⁰⁰

In the latter case, galactose moieties were first coupled to hyaluronic acid using ethylene diamine to target specifically hepatocytes.¹⁰⁰ She et al. also evaluated composite scaffolds of chitosan and silk fibroin for liver tissue engineering.^{146–148} In addition, growth factors^{149–152} including bFGF, BMP-2, BMP-6, and peptides (e.g., RGD)¹⁴⁰ have already been combined with chitosan to upregulate the cell-interactive properties.

A commonly applied approach to cross-link chitosan-based scaffolds is the use of glutaraldehyde.^{127,153–155} In addition, oxidized dextran has also been already selected as cross-linker.¹⁵³

In contrast with photocurable chitosans, which are cross-linked irreversibly, thiolated chitosans have also been developed. In that case, the cross-linking occurs via air oxidation of the thiols forming disulfide linkages.¹⁵⁶

Recently, injectable chitosan-based hydrogels have also gained increasing interest because of their potential applications in the field of tissue engineering.¹⁵⁷ De Souza et al. have reported on the in vivo biocompatibility of blends consisting of chitosan, phospholipids, and lauric aldehyde or lauric chloride.¹⁵⁷ Alternatively, enzymatic cross-linking using horseradish peroxidase and H_2O_2 has also been applied to obtain injectable chitosan hydrogels.¹⁵⁸

In Table 4, an overview of the various biomedical applications of chitosan is given.

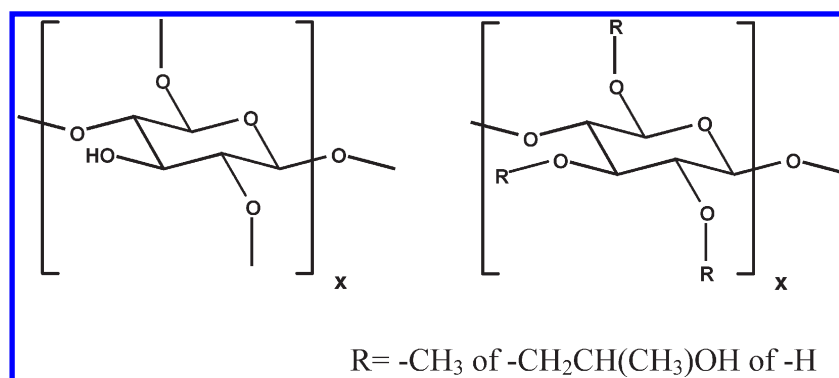


Figure 9. Structure of methylcellulose (left part) and hydroxypropylmethylcellulose (right part).

Table 5. Overview of Biomedical Applications of Cellulose Derivatives

type of cellulose	application
Ca ²⁺ -activated cellulose, cellulose/lactide, bacterial cellulose, nanohydroxyapatite/bacterial cellulose	bone
cellulose/collagen, injectable cellulose	cartilage
bacterial cellulose	cornea
various cellulose-based hydrogels	general
cellulose acetate and regenerated cellulose	heart
bacterial cellulose	muscle
cellulosic hydrogels	nerve
carboxymethylcellulose	nucleus pulposus
bacterial cellulose	vascular

5.1.4. Cellulose Derivatives. In contrast with most other biopolymers, gelation of various cellulose derivatives including MC and hydroxypropylmethylcellulose (HPMC) (Figure 9) occurs upon heating.¹⁵⁹ The LCST values of MC and HPMC are, respectively, situated between 40 and 50 °C and 75–90 °C. Because the transition temperature of both polymers is above 37 °C, both physical and chemical methods have been applied to decrease the LCST values: addition of NaCl or decrease in the hydroxypropyl degree.¹⁵⁹

The gelation of both MC and HPMC is mainly induced by intermolecular, hydrophobic interactions of the methoxy side groups. Consequently, the macromolecules are fully hydrated at low temperatures. Upon heating, gradual dehydration occurs, resulting in a viscosity increase. Near the transition temperature, polymer–polymer interactions are dominant and result in the formation of a polymer network.¹⁶⁰ These polymers were evaluated for tissue engineering applications by Tate et al.¹⁶¹ From the results, it was demonstrated that MC is a promising candidate material to be applied as brain cell support. The potential advantages of MC scaffolding in the brain were numerous, including the treatment of multiple-site injuries and irregular defects. Bacterial cellulose has also been reported on for tissue engineering applications by various research groups.^{162–165} However, bacterial cellulose is not enzymatically degradable in vivo. Therefore, Li et al. have developed 2,3-dialdehyde-modified bacterial cellulose via periodate oxidation.¹⁶⁶ Verma et al. further modified this cellulose derivative with hydrazine yielding 2,3-dihydrazone.¹⁶⁷

In combination with hydroxyapatite, cellulose shows potential to be applied for bone tissue engineering.^{123,168–171} Cellulose is

often combined with proteins (e.g., gelatin),¹⁷² polysaccharides (e.g., chitosan), or both.^{123,173,174}

An overview of the most recent biomedical applications of a selected number of cellulose derivatives is given in Table 5.

5.1.5. Alginate. Alginate is a brown-algae-derived polysaccharide composed of β -D-mannuronic acid and α -L-guluronic acid units.¹⁷⁵ The molecular weight can vary between 10 and 1000 kDa depending on the source and production process. Upon adding multivalent cations, an alginate solution rapidly forms an ionotropical gel what makes it extremely interesting to be applied in the biomedical field.^{176,177} To enable in vivo injection of a Ca²⁺-cross-linked alginate hydrogel, the cross-linking rate should be reduced. Interestingly, polyols have already been applied to slow down the hydrogel formation. It has been anticipated that the polyols hinder the immediate complexation of Ca²⁺ by alginate. In addition, this formulation containing polyols to reduce the hydrogel formation rate has even been filed as a patent. Alginate has been proven to be mucoadhesive, biocompatible, and nonimmunogenic.¹⁷⁸ An overview of the most recent biomedical applications of alginates is given in Table 6. Alginate is often processed into microcarriers for cell encapsulation.¹⁷⁹ Although alginate does not possess cell-interactive properties, as such, several authors have overcome this issue by coupling cell-interactive peptides (e.g., RGD) or growth factors (e.g., VEGF)¹⁸⁰ to the alginate backbone.¹⁷⁶ In addition, alginate-based semi-interpenetrating polymer networks have been prepared possessing stimuli-responsive behavior. Wang et al. have developed a pH-sensitive superabsorbent hydrogel composed of sodium alginate-g-poly(sodium acrylate) and polyvinylpyrrolidone by free-radical solution polymerization using ammonium persulfate as initiator and *N,N*-methylene-bis-acrylamide as cross-linker.¹⁸¹ Thermosensitive hydrogels were prepared by Zhao et al. via in situ copolymerization of *N*-isopropylacrylamide with poly(ethylene glycol)-*co*-poly(ϵ -caprolactone) in the presence of sodium alginate by UV irradiation technology.¹⁸² Electroresponsive behavior has been induced by grafting poly(acrylic acid) to sodium alginate using ammonium persulfate as initiator and *N,N'*-methylene-bis-acrylamide as cross-linker.¹⁸³

When aiming at bone tissue engineering, alginate is often combined with calcium phosphates.^{184–186} In addition, proteins including gelatin are also often included in alginate-based scaffolds to improve the cell-interactive properties.^{184,187–190}

In addition to stereolithography¹⁹¹ and freeze-drying,¹⁹² porous alginate-based scaffolds have also been developed by stacking successively alginate gel layers for cell encapsulation

Table 6. Overview of Biomedical Applications of Alginate

type of polymer	application
alginate/elastin/PEG, angiogenic factors/alginate	blood vessel
alginate microbeads, alginate/gelatin/hydroxyapatite, oxidized alginate/gelatin/tricalcium phosphate, chitosan/alginate, alginate/poly (lactic-co-glycolic acid)/calcium phosphate, collagen/alginate/nanohydroxyapatite	bone
sodium alginate, chitosan/alginate, gelatin/alginate	bone marrow
alginate/fibrin, agarose/alginate/gelatin, chitosan/alginate/hyaluronate, PLGA/alginate, transforming growth factor- β (1) loaded alginate	cartilage
alginate, alginate- <i>cis</i> -aconityl-daunomycin, calcium alginate/silk fibroin, hyaluronic acid/alginate, PLGA/Ca-alginate	drug delivery
alginate, alginate/polyvinyl alcohol, laminated alginate, carbon nanotube/alginate, iron-cross-linked alginate, alginate/poly(L-lysine)-hyaluronic acid, alginate/chitosan, copper-capillary alginate	general
injectable alginate, gelatin/alginate	heart
alginate/chitosan	ligament
macroporous alginate, alginate/galactosylated chitosan, sodium alginate	liver
chitosan/calcium polyphosphate	meniscus
photo-cross-linked alginate	nucleus pulposus
gelatin/alginate	skin
alginate	spinal cord
alginate/chitosan	tendon

and poly-L-lysine-hyaluronic acid multilayer films functioning as reservoirs for bioactive molecules.⁸⁹

5.2. Protein Hydrogels. *5.2.1. Collagen.* Collagen is the major protein of the ECM. As summarized in Table 7, at least 12 types of collagen exist in various tissues.^{193–201} Types I, II, and III are the most abundant and form fibrils of similar structure. Type IV collagen forms a 2D reticulum and is a major component of the basal lamina.

In general, porous collagen-based scaffolds are produced using freeze-drying techniques or stereolithography methods. In addition, Kim et al. have developed a cryogenic direct-plotting system to fabricate 3-D collagen matrices.²⁰²

When aiming at bone tissue regeneration, porous collagen scaffolds are often combined with calcium phosphates.^{203–209} Many researchers have also already reported on composite scaffolds both with synthetic polymers^{210,211} including poly(lactic acid),^{212–214} poly(glycolic acid),^{213–215} or poly(caprolactone) as well as (modified) glycosaminoglycans^{207,216–220} such as (photo-cross-linkable) hyaluronic acid⁹⁸ forming semi-IPNs.^{78,83}

Specific scaffold geometries including cylindrical tubes have also been developed for blood vessel regeneration. Boccafroschi et al. assembled both collagen and vascular cells onto a rotating cylinder.²²¹ In addition to microporous scaffolds, collagen-based nanofibers have already been developed using electrospinning.^{222–229} Moreover, collagen microbeads were also already applied for adipogenic differentiation of stem cells.²³⁰ In most reports, carbodiimide is applied as cross-linking agent.^{222,231–233} In addition, aldehydes,¹⁵⁵ a dehydrothermal treatment, or natural cross-linkers (e.g., genipin) have also been applied to cross-link collagen as such or in the presence of glycosaminoglycans.²¹⁸

To improve further the cell-interactive properties of collagen-based matrices, specific peptides, growth factors^{151,234} (e.g., BMP-2),²³⁵ or both have already been incorporated. Duan et al. have applied the 2-polypropyleneimine octaamine dendrimer in the presence of EDC as cross-linker for collagen scaffolds.²³⁶ In addition, these dendrimers have been modified with YIGSR peptides.²³⁶ Lee et al. incorporated VEGF in bioprinted composite scaffolds possessing fibrin for neural tissue engineering.²³⁷ More recently, recombinant human-like collagen

Table 7. Overview of the Different Collagen Types, Localized in Various Tissues

collagen type	localization
I	skin, tendon, bone
II	cartilage, vitreous humor
III	skin, muscle, frequently associated with type I
IV	all basal lamina
V	most interstitial tissue, associated with type I
VI	most interstitial tissue, associated with type I
VII	epithelia
VIII	some endothelial cells
IX	cartilage, associated with type II
X	hypertrophic and mineralizing cartilage
XI	cartilage
XII	cartilage, associated with type I and III

was also developed and applied for safety issues (e.g., risk related to BSE infection).^{135,238,239}

In Table 8, an overview of collagen-based materials and their applications is shown.

5.2.2. Gelatin. Gelatin is a biopolymer derived from collagen by hydrolytic degradation. Because of its unique functionality, gelatin is used in a wide variety of applications, ranging from food-related over pharmaceutical and photographic to technical products. However, gelatin has also been frequently applied as a material for biomedical applications. Because gelatin has a sol–gel transition temperature around 30 °C, gelatin should be cross-linked chemically to avoid dissolution at body temperature. Because gelatin is composed of a large variety of side chains, a wide variety of chemical modification methods, introducing cross-linkable groups, have been proposed.^{240,241} The choice of potential reagents is limited to water-stable ones because gelatin only dissolves in water and in a number of alcohols. In most cases, bifunctional reagents including glutaraldehyde,²⁴² diisocyanates,^{243,244} carbodiimides,²⁴⁵ genipin,^{246–248} polyepoxy-compounds,²⁴⁹ and acyl azides²⁵⁰ have been applied. When gelatin

Table 8. Overview of Biomedical Applications of Collagen-Based Materials

type of collagen	application
glutaraldehyde-cross-linked collagen/chitosan, bFGF/collagen, collagen microbeads	adipose tissue
compressed collagen	bladder
collagen/cell assembly, p(DLLA-co-TMC)/collagen, collagen-chitosan nanofiber, PLGA microsphere/collagen, fibroin/collagen, TMC/DNA-containing collagen, collagen/citric acid derivative, polylactide/silk fibroin/gelatin	blood vessel
collagen/nanohydroxyapatite, dense collagen, polyvinyl alcohol/collagen/hydroxyapatite, collagen microspheres, collagen/nanotube, collagen I/PLGA- β -TCP, collagen fiber/PLA, collagen/glycosaminoglycan, nano-HA/collagen/PLLA, collagen/OP-1, PCL/collagen, RhBMP-2 microspheres/chitosan/collagen, adenovirus vectors/collagen/chitosan	bone
collagen/chitosan/GAG, adipic dihydrazide-modified collagen/hyaluronic acid, PLGA/collagen, micronized collagen	cartilage
sponges, type II collagen, collagen propeptides, type II collagen/chondroitin sulfate/hyaluronan, collagen/HA/chondroitin sulfate	
dendrimer-cross-linked collagen, hydroxypropyl chitosan/gelatin	cornea
CO(3)Ap-collagen	dental
photo-cross-linked collagen, EDC-cross-linked electrospun collagen, poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid)/collagen, PHBV/collagen, collagen/hyaluronan/chitosan, collagen/hyaluronic acid, TPU/collagen, collagen/glycosaminoglycan, poly(lactic acid-co-caprolactone)/collagen, stromal cell-derived factor 1 α -loaded heparinized collagen, collagen/hyaluronan/chitosan, gelatin/alginate	general
type I collagen, collagen/GAG	heart
type I and II collagen/GAG	intervertebral disk
collagen/silk	ligament
poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid)/collagen, collagen/chitosan/heparin	liver
cross-linked atelocollagen	muscle
collagen/microchannels, collagen/hyaluronic acid, collagen/heparan sulfate	nerve
collagen II/hyaluronan/chondroitin-6-sulfate, collagen	nucleus pulposus
UV-cross-linked collagen	ophthalmology
PLGA/collagen	pancreas
compressed collagen, cross-linked collagen/chondroitin sulfate/hyaluronic acid, β -glycerol phosphate/collagen/chitosan, collagen/elastin, electrospun collagen/PCL, poly[(D,L-lactide)-co-glycolide]/collagen	skin
collagen	urological

is combined with sugars (e.g., agarose), 1,1-carbonyldiimidazole can be applied as cross-linker.²⁵¹ Gelatin derivatization occurs mostly via the amine groups of lysine and hydroxylysine.²⁵² The guanidinium group of arginine is protonated under mild basic conditions, which excludes this group from nucleophilic reaction. The imidazole group of histidine can react but leads to the formation of unstable products.²⁵³ Methacrylamide-modified gelatin can be cross-linked in the presence of a photoinitiator upon applying UV irradiation.^{254–260} Van Den Bulcke et al. modified the primary amines of gelatin with methacrylamide moieties using methacrylic anhydride. The subsequent chemical cross-linking occurred upon UV irradiation in the presence of a UV-active photoinitiator Irgacure 2959.²⁶¹ The obtained hydrogels appeared to be very promising to be applied for wound treatment. Van Vlierberghe et al. selected methacrylamide-modified gelatin as starting material to produce porous scaffolds for tissue regeneration purposes. The gelatin-based cell carriers were prepared by applying a cryogenic treatment, followed by lyophilization.^{5,254,262} The cryogels developed supported the attachment and growth of a large variety of human cells including fibroblasts, endothelial cells, glial cells, osteoblasts, and epithelial cells.³⁵ In addition, porous scaffolds were developed based on combinations of methacrylamide-modified gelatin and methacrylate-modified CS.³⁷ Alternatively, redox initiators also enable the polymerization of gelatins possessing methacrylamide moieties. Another possibility to obtain chemically cross-linked hydrogels includes high-energy irradiation, such as ebeam and gamma-rays. The major advantages of high-energy irradiation include a reagent- and solvent-free reaction and the simultaneous cross-linking and sterilization. The latter is

particularly interesting in view of future applications because the production process is drastically shortened by performing cross-linking and sterilization simultaneously.

Hu et al. reported on the enzymatic cross-linking of gelatin-hydroxypropionic acid.²⁶³ Moreover, the obtained material was processed into hollow fibers for general tissue engineering applications using a novel fiber spinning method.²⁶³ Sakai et al. utilized peroxidase-mediated cross-linking of incorporated phenolic hydroxyl groups.²⁶⁴ Gelatin can also be processed using other techniques including electrospinning^{265–272} and stereolithography.^{112,273–275} Because gelatin is derived from collagen, it is often combined with GAGs,^{61,62,144,276,277} calcium phosphates,^{278–282} or both when targeting the regeneration of specific tissues. Moreover, gelatin has also been part of composites with synthetic polymers including poly(L-lactic acid),²⁸³ polyurethanes,²⁸⁴ and PCL.²⁷⁰ Boudet et al. achieved chemical cross-linking using a thermosensitive reactive copolymer based on *N*-isopropylacrylamide.²⁸⁵ The copolymer consisted of acrylic acid units that formed amide bonds with the amino groups of gelatin in the presence of a water-soluble carbodiimide. By setting the temperature above or below the LCST, it was possible to finetune the reactivity of the system and control the gelation process.

For the production of porous gelatin-based scaffolds for tissue engineering purposes, freeze-drying and phase separation techniques are often applied.^{255,286,287}

A few examples, illustrating the potential of gelatin-based materials, are summarized below. Co-release of basic fibroblast growth factor, insulin, and insulin-like growth factor I from styrenated gelatin-based microspheres promoted *de novo*

Table 9. Overview of Biomedical Applications of Gelatin-Based Materials

type of gelatin	application
gelatin sponge	adipose tissue
gelatin/poly(ϵ -caprolactone) nanofibers, VEGF immobilized gelatin, polyethylene-glycol diacrylate/gelatin, chitosan/gelatin, gelatin/PET nanofibers, gelatin/PES fibers, gelatin/PTFE	blood vessel
hydroxyapatite chitosan/gelatin, gelatin/poly(α -hydroxy acids), glutaraldehyde cross-linked gelatin, hydroxyapatite/gelatin, β -tricalcium phosphate/gelatin, gelatin/poly(ϵ -caprolactone) nanofibers, gelatin microcarriers/polyester, micro- and nanohydroxyapatite/chitosan/gelatin, rhBMP-2-loaded gelatin/nanohydroxyapatite/fibrin, poly[(L-lactide)-co-(ϵ -caprolactone)]/gelatin, gelatin-based photopolymers	bone
gelatin/chondroitin-6-sulfate/hyaluronan, plasmid DNA/chitosan/gelatin, gelatin microparticle/OPF, gelatin microparticle/poly(D,L-lactide- ϵ -caprolactone), TGF- β 1-loaded gelatin, ceramic/gelatin, esterified hyaluronan/gelatin, gelatin/chitosan/hyaluronan	cartilage
transglutaminase cross-linked gelatin, proanthocyanidin cross-linked chitosan/gelatin, gelatin/poly(D,L-lactide), gelatin fibers, PHBHx/gelatin, PVA/gelatin, PNIPAM/gelatin, gelatin- and fibronectin-coated PE multilayer nanofilms, gelatin/montmorillonite/cellulose, chitosan/PEG/gelatin, gelatin/hydroxyphenylpropionic acid, gelatin microparticles, gelatin/chitosan cryogels, genipin-cross-linked PCL/gelatin nanofibers, silk sericin/gelatin, α -chitin/gelatin, agarose/gelatin cryogel, hyaluronan/gelatin	general
gelatin/polyurethane, photo-cross-linked gelatin, alginate/gelatin	heart
gelatin/chondroitin-6-sulfate/hyaluronan, gelatin, glutaraldehyde cross-linked gelatin/chondroitin-6-sulfate	intervertebral disk
gelatin/silk fibroin	ligament
cross-linked sodium alginate/gelatin, chitosan/gelatin	liver
gelatin/PCL nanofibers	muscle
photo cross-linkable gelatin, gelatin/hydroxyphenylpropionic acid	nerve
chitosan/gelatin/glycerol phosphate	nucleus pulposus
gelatin/agarose	pancreas
glutaraldehyde cross-linked gelatin	skin

formation of adipose tissue.²⁸⁸ Poly(*N*-isopropylacrylamide)-grafted gelatin has been used in cardiac tissue engineering applications.²⁸⁹ A variety of other applications in the field of tissue engineering are summarized in Table 9.^{290–293}

5.2.3. Elastin. Elastin forms the greater part of elastic, thus mechanically active tissues including tendon, blood vessels, and elastic cartilage.²⁹⁴ A commercially available dermal substitute (i.e., Matrigel) composed of elastin and collagen has already been evaluated and described frequently in literature.^{295,296} Because of its extensive covalent cross-linking, only a few research groups have applied native elastin as cell carriers for tissue engineering applications.²⁹⁷ Therefore, Rodriguez-Cabello et al. have developed a promising alternative being recombinant elastin.^{298–303} These repetitive polypeptides are composed of VPGXG penta-peptide sequences, where X can be every natural amino acid except for proline.²⁹⁹ Interestingly, recombinant elastin shows thermoresponsive LCST behavior. Below the transition temperature, the polymer remains soluble, whereas above this critical temperature, the hydrophobic chains self-assemble into a more ordered structure. Poly(VPAVG) is the recombinant elastin resembling native elastin to the highest extent. Above its transition temperature, poly(VPAVG) forms micelles. Therefore, the materials are very promising to be applied for drug delivery purposes.^{304,305} Annabi et al. have developed porous scaffolds starting from hexamethylene diisocyanate cross-linked α -elastin using high pressure CO₂. The obtained pore size was influenced by varying the pressure applied.³⁰⁶ Elastin has also been processed into nanofibers using electrospinning, either as such or in the presence of collagen or gelatin.^{228,271,307–309} To obtain homogeneous and continuous fibers, small PEO quantities had to be added. The produced fibers were cross-linked using EDC/

NHS.³⁰⁹ In addition, elastin-like polymers show excellent biocompatibility because they resemble natural elastin and their degradation products are native amino acids.²⁹⁹ For enhancement of its cell-interactive properties, peptide sequences including RGD³⁰⁰ and growth factors such as bFGF³¹⁰ have already been combined with elastin. Table 10 shows an overview of elastin-based constructs applied for tissue engineering applications.

5.2.4. Fibroin. Silk fibroin is a natural protein synthesized by the silkworm *Bombyx mori*.³¹¹ Its primary structure mainly consists of glycine, alanine, and serine.¹⁷⁸ The protein can be processed into films,^{312–314} nanofibers,^{267,268,315–317} scaffolds,¹⁴⁷ membranes,³¹⁸ gels,^{319,320} and powders,^{321,322} which renders it extremely suitable to be applied in a large variety of applications in the field of biomaterials and drug delivery.¹⁷⁸ Fan et al. have developed porous gelatin-based hybrid scaffolds³²³ for ligament tissue engineering.²⁸⁷ In addition to composite scaffolds with other proteins (e.g., collagen),^{225,238,324,325} fibroin has also been combined with GAGs including hyaluronan.^{97,326} Aqueous solutions of fibroin and hyaluronan were freeze-dried to induce porosity and incubated subsequently in methanol to induce water insolubility of silk fibroin. The scaffolds developed were suitable to support mesenchymal stem cell adhesion.³²⁶ In addition to freeze-drying,^{327–329} leaching out of porogens can also be applied to render fibroin scaffolds porous. Makaya et al. evaluated the effect of porogens including salt and sucrose on the final scaffold properties.³³⁰ For the production of scaffolds with a homogeneous pore size and geometry, stereolithography was already applied starting from silk fibroin.³³¹ In addition, fibroin-based microtubes have already been developed by incubating stainless steel tubes in fibroin solutions containing low amounts of PEO.³³² The latter enabled us to control the microporosity of

Table 10. Overview of Biomedical Applications of Elastin-Based Materials

type of polymer	application
collagen/elastin, alginate/elastin/PEG, collagen/elastin/PCL, copper nonparasitic/elastin, bFGF/elastin, polydioxanone/elastin/collagen, poliglecaprone/PCL/elastin/gelatin, polyglyconate/elastin	blood vessel
BMP-containing elastin	bone
hexamethylene diisocyanate-cross-linked α -elastin, recombinant elastin, tropo-elastin, collagen/elastin, collagen/elastin/chitosan/poly(lactic acid), poly(lactide-co-glycolide)/gelatin/elastin	general
elastin-like proteins	nerve
recombinant elastin	ocular
collagen/elastin	skin

Table 11. Overview of Biomedical Applications of Fibroin-Based Materials

type of polymer	application
nonmulberry and mulberry silk gland fibroin	adipose tissue
fibroin, collagen/fibroin, polylactide/silk fibroin-gelatin, fibroin modified-polyhydroxyalkanoate	blood vessel
silk fibroin/chitosan/PLLA, chitosan/fibroin-hydroxyapatite, nonmulberry silk gland fibroin, nonmulberry and mulberry silk gland fibroin	bone
silk fibroin modified porous poly(ϵ -caprolactone), plasma-treated fibroin	cartilage
alginate/fibroin, silk fibroin/gelatin	drug delivery
gelatin/silk fibroin, hyaluronan/silk fibroin, chitosan/silk fibroin, fibroin/recombinant human-like collagen, antheraea assama silk fibroin, nanohydroxyapatite/fibroin, silk fibroin-modified PHBHHx, polylactide/silk fibroin-gelatin	general
gelatin/silk fibroin	ligament
fibroin/recombinant human-like collagen, PLLA/fibroin, chitosan/silk fibroin, chitosan/silk fibroin/heparin	liver
antheraea pernyi silk fibroin	tendon

the processed tubes. An overview of the most recent tissue-engineered constructs using fibroin-based scaffolds is highlighted in Table 11. Different surface modifications including plasma treatment have been applied to fibroin-based materials to implement specific properties.³³³ Vepari et al. have grafted poly(ethylene glycol) onto silk fibroin films using cyanuric chloride poly(ethylene glycol) to induce antiadhesive and antithrombotic properties. Wenk et al. applied sulfonated silk fibroin to control binding, delivery, and potency of FGF-2.³³⁴ Several research groups finetuned the cell adhesion behavior of silk-based materials using lactose surface modification.^{335–337} When aiming at bone tissue engineering, fibroin scaffolds were modified with hydroxyapatite.^{338,339}

6. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE PROSPECTS

The current Review clearly shows that a variety of biopolymers, including polysaccharides and proteins, are a very versatile class of materials that have found widespread application in the field of regenerative medicine. Interestingly, a large number of these biopolymers possess thermoresponsive solubility behavior. This opens perspectives to develop systems that gel or dissolve at body temperature. Polymers that do not possess this property can still be applied to develop hydrogel materials by functionalizing them with cross-linkable groups.

The high number of research groups working in the field of hydrogel development and characterization clearly illustrates that hydrogels are ideal candidate materials to be applied in the field of tissue engineering. In the future, materials that mimic better the natural extracellular matrix in terms of composition, structural characteristics, and mechanical properties will be developed. We anticipate that the ideal tissue engineering

scaffold will combine the mechanical tailoring possibilities of synthetic polymers with the biomimetic properties of natural materials. To mimic the extracellular matrix to a great extent, various biopolymers including glycosaminoglycans and proteins including collagen and elastin will need to be combined in one ideal matrix. However, to ensure reproducibility and avoid certain risks related to the use of natural materials, material scientists will be obliged to apply selectively recombinant proteins and so on.

In addition, the optimal scaffold architecture will undoubtedly combine the microstructure to be obtained with stereolithography techniques with the nanoroughness, which can be realized using electrospinning. At present, a large number of devices already exists to realize only one of the above-mentioned prerequisites. However, merging different processing techniques into one multifunctional device to finetune all morphological parameters both on the macroscale as well as on a micro- and nanolevel will become a major, even essential, challenge. Moreover, in view of the interdisciplinary character of tissue engineering, a close collaboration between various research disciplines including, among others, materials science, polymer chemistry, cell biology, medicine, and pharmacy will be essential to develop finally the ideal tissue engineering scaffold. In addition, this interdisciplinary approach will undoubtedly offer new possibilities in this direction.

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