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14. ABSTRACT

Bone tissue naturally regenerates itself upon injuries like a broken bone. However, when the size of the injury exceeds a threshold value this capability is lost and the injury is referred to as a critical size defect. When this occurs in a war fighter it requires the use of implant technology to either help maintain functionality or induce healing to return the individual to their natural state. However, there are a number of drawbacks to the existing technologies used for injury repair. These include slow healing times, scar tissue formation, and the possibility that the implant will be rejected by the body. Therefore there is interest in the development of new materials to foster the recovery of injured war fighters. The proposed work is focused on the development of such a material and it is targeted towards the segmental bone defect topic area in the FY14 PRMRP.

In addition to cells, bone tissue is primarily composed of a calcium phosphate mineral referred to as hydroxyapatite, collagen, and other proteins which hold the first two components together. Many researchers have attempted to develop implant materials composed of hydroxyapatite, collagen, and/or polymers with many formulations, but no one has been able to fully recreate the properties of natural bone. It is believed that one major missing component in the existing research is the lack of the other naturally occurring proteins, which are referred to as the SIBLING (small integrin binding, N-linked glycoproteins) family of proteins. It is believed that these proteins play a key role in natural bone because they are only found in hard tissues like bone and teeth, and all of the family members contain hydroxyapatite, collagen, and cell binding domains. In the proposed work, for the first time the SIBLING family of proteins will be combined with a new polymer material and their role in facilitating cell recruitment, proliferation, and bone production will be examined. The new polymer substrate is an important variable because it prevents the adsorption of proteins except under special conditions which will be used to attach the SIBLING proteins. This will allow for the impact of the SIBLING proteins to be isolated from the complex environment associated with biological systems.

The long term application for this research is to develop an off the shelf implant technology that can be used by surgeons to improve the healing of patients and war fighters who have critical size defects in their bone tissue due to injury or disease. The results that will be obtained during the completion of the proposed studies will be used to guide the development of a new implant technology that will be proposed for future testing in the body. Ultimately, this technology will help improve the recovery time and functionality of people with significant injuries to their bone tissues.

15. SUBJECT TERMS

Polyampholyte hydrogels; SIBLING proteins; Primary Synoviocytes; Bone marrow derived connective tissue progenitor cells.

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1. Introduction

This report follows two years of work on the project “Development of a Novel Segmental Bone Defect Construct” and it summarizes the accomplishments over the last project year (1 October 2016 – 30 September 2017). In this work a novel bone tissue engineering scaffold material is being developed to address current limitations of bone replacement scaffolds by combining a multi-functional polyampholyte polymer scaffold with a SIBLING protein biological cue. The first phase of this work has been to develop polyampholyte hydrogels with a range of mechanical properties by simply changing the underlying composition of the hydrogel. The second phase of this work will be to isolate the effects of the SIBLING proteins on the adhesion of MC3T3-E1 osteoblast cells. The third phase of this work will be to determine the role of the SIBLING protein that promotes the highest cell adhesion in the second phase on the proliferation, differentiation, and biological activity of both primary synoviocytes and bone marrow derived connective tissue progenitor cells. During the majority of this annual reporting period the project was placed on hold, while the contract was transferred from the University of Missouri to the University of Idaho. Work began again on the project when the transfer was completed, on 13 July, 2017.

2. Keywords

Polyampholyte hydrogels; SIBLING proteins; Primary Synoviocytes; Bone marrow derived connective tissue progenitor cells.

3. Accomplishments

Major Task 1 (All Subtasks): During this reporting period work has been initiated in Major Task 1 with a new graduate student at the University of Idaho (Site #1). Over this reporting period this student has been brought up to speed on the focus of the project and the student has successfully completed training in hydrogel synthesis and protein conjugation procedures. Polyampholyte hydrogels composed of equimolar concentrations of [2-(acryloyloxy) ethyl] trimethyl ammonium chloride (TMA) and 2-carboxyethyl acrylate (CAA) have been synthesized with a triethylene glycol dimethacrylate (TEGDMA) cross-linker, using ammonium persulfate (APS) and sodium metabisulfate (SMS) chemical initiators and free radical polymerization. The nonfouling properties of these hydrogels were verified by qualitatively assessing the nonspecific adsorption of fluorescein isothiocyanate labeled bovine serum albumin (FITC-BSA) using fluorescence microscopy. Additionally, FITC-BSA was directly conjugated to the TMA:CAA hydrogels using N-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)-N'-ethylcarbodiimide hydrochloride / N-hydroxysuccinimide (EDC/NHS) chemistry. This was also verified qualitatively using fluorescence microscopy. These procedures are currently being used to conjugate the desired SIBLING proteins to the TMA:CAA hydrogels in on-going efforts. Additionally, the MC3T3-E1 subclone 14 osteoblast-like cell line has been purchased and their culture has been initiated. Cell passages 5-10 will be used for cell adhesion and proliferation studies to SIBLING proteins covalently attached to the hydrogel described above, once passage 5 is reached.

Work to be accomplished at Site #2 under the direction of Dr. Chunlin Qin has also been accomplished and SIBLING proteins have been isolated and purified for use at Site #1 for the completion of Major Task 1. Site #2 has provided osteopontin (OPN), bone sialoprotein (BSP),

dentin phosphoprotein (DPP), dentin sialoprotein (DSP), N-terminal dentin matrix protein 1 (N-DMP1), and C-terminal dentin matrix protein 1 (C-DMP1) to Site #1. Overall, efforts to complete Subtasks 1 and 2 are on-going and they are on schedule to be accomplished by the end of the 2017 calendar year per the revised project timeline.

Major Task 2 (All Subtasks): No work has been completed in Major Task 2.

Major Task 3: During this reporting period, no additional work has been completed in Major Task 3. Over the project lifetime, the project team has successfully completed Major Task #3 in the approved Statement of Work as documented in previous reports.

Milestones Achieved: The Statement of Work milestone for Major Task 3 was “Develop range of polyampholyte hydrogel platforms for cellular testing” and polyampholyte hydrogels with fracture strengths ranging from ~50-400 kPa have been synthesized. Therefore Major Task 3 has been accomplished and the results have been documented in more detail previously. The results have also been published as documented.

Major Task 4 (All Subtasks): No work has been completed in Major Task 4.

4. Impact

During this reporting period, the project team has prepared and submitted an invited review manuscript for publication in *Gels*. This manuscript was prepared as part of the training efforts for the new graduate student on the project team to provide a broader background in the use of polyampholyte hydrogels in tissue engineering.

5. Changes/Problems

The original project timeline has been modified as part of the transfer of this contract from the University of Missouri to the University of Idaho. This transfer process halted activity on the project from the dates of 31 May 2016 to 13 July 2017. However, the project is on schedule with the current, revised project scope of work.

6. Products

The products obtained during this reporting period are one submitted manuscript, included as Appendix 1 and detailed above, and one oral presentation at the 2016 American Institute of Chemical Engineers Annual Meeting which took place in November 2016. Travel for the presentation was funded by outside sources, as the presentation took place during the contract transfer time period. However, funding from this contract was acknowledged as it supported the completion of the research efforts.

Over the lifetime of this project, there have been a total of two submitted/accepted/published manuscripts and one oral presentation at a professional conference.

7. Participants & Other Collaborating Organizations

Name: Dr. Matthew Bernards
Project Role: PI
Nearest person month worked: 2
Contribution to project: As PI, Dr. Bernards has supervised all project activities and participated in the preparation of the manuscript that was produced during this reporting period.

Name: Dr. Ferris Pfeiffer
Project Role: Co-I
Nearest person month worked: 1
Contribution to project: Dr. Pfeiffer supervised the completion of the hydrogel mechanical compression testing in the first year of work on this project.

Name: Dr. Aaron Stoker
Project Role: Co-I
Nearest person month worked: 1
Contribution to project: Dr. Stoker has initiated work to isolate primary synoviocytes and primary bone marrow derived connective tissue progenitor cells from canines. This work is on-going.

Name: Dr. Chunlin Qin
Project Role: Co-I
Nearest person month worked: 1
Contribution to project: Dr. Qin supervised efforts to isolate SIBLING proteins from rat incisors and long bones. This work has been successful and is on-going in support of the project needs.

Name: Dr. Hua Zhang
Project Role: Postdoctoral Research Associate
Nearest person month worked: 1
Contribution to project: Hua worked under the guidance of Dr. Qin to isolate and purify SIBLING proteins. This work has been successful and is on-going in support of the project needs.

Name: Stephanie Haag
Project Role: Graduate Research Assistant
Nearest person month worked: 3
Contribution to project: Stephanie joined the project team upon the completion of the project transfer to the University of Idaho. Stephanie has completed synthesis and characterization of TMA:CAA hydrogels as described under Major Task #1. Her research efforts in support of this task are on-going.

Name: Marcos Barcellona
Project Role: Undergraduate Research Assistant
Nearest person month worked: 1
Contribution to project: Marcos completed the synthesis of multiple polyampholyte hydrogels for mechanical testing in the first year of work on this project. Marcos was supported with other funding for his work on this project.

Name: Siyu Cao
Project Role: Graduate Research Assistant
Nearest person month worked: 1
Contribution to project: Siyu completed the nonfouling and protein conjugation measurements for multiple polyampholyte hydrogels in the first year of work on this project. Siyu was supported with other funding for her work on this project.

Name: Nicole Walden
Project Role: Undergraduate Research Assistant
Nearest person month worked: 1
Contribution to project: Nicole worked under the supervision of Dr. Stoker on the isolation of cells for use in this project during the first year of work on this project.

8. Special Reporting Requirements

An updated project Quad Chart can be seen on the next page.

Development of Novel Segmental Bone Defect Construct

W81XWH-15-1-0664



PI: Dr. Matthew Bernards

Org: University of Idaho / University of Missouri

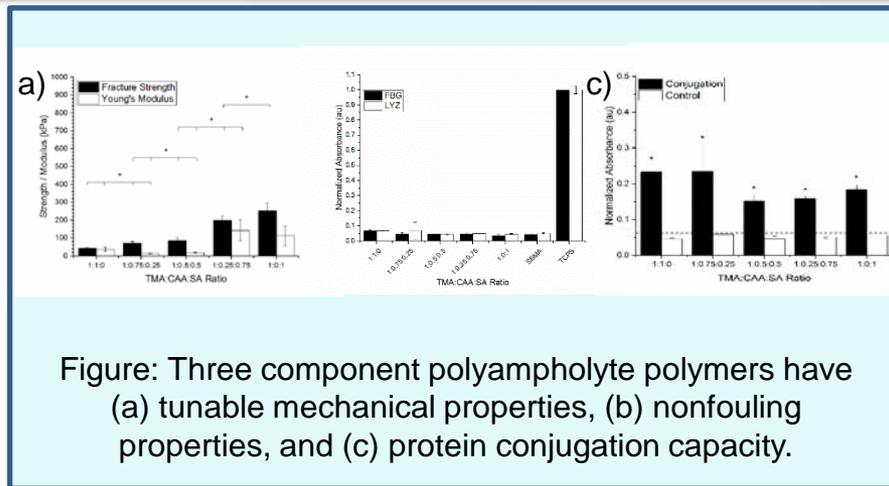
Award Amount: \$284,397

Study/Product Aim(s)

- Elucidate the role of the SIBLING proteins on the adhesion, proliferation, and differentiation of both primary synoviocytes and bone marrow derived connective tissue progenitor cells.
- Determine the influence of the underlying polyampholyte polymer on the cellular adhesion, proliferation, and differentiation of both primary synoviocytes and bone marrow derived connective tissue progenitor cells.

Approach

It is hypothesized that one or more of the SIBLING proteins is responsible for recruiting cells for bone tissue repair and regeneration and their use in a tissue engineering scaffold will induce a natural, expedited wound healing response for segmental bone defects. Therefore the impact of these proteins will be individually determined using a multi-functional nonfouling polyampholyte polymer scaffold.



Accomplishment: It has been demonstrated that three component polyampholyte polymer hydrogels have tunable mechanical properties, while retaining their nonfouling and protein conjugation capacities for a range of cross-linker densities.

Timeline and Cost

Activities	CY	15	17	18
Attach SIBLING Proteins		█		
Determine SIBLING Roles			█	
Modify Hydrogel Characteristics			█	
Determine Hydrogel Roles				█
Estimated Budget (\$K)		\$46.1	\$92.6	\$145.6

There was a project break between CY15 and CY17 to transfer the project from the University of Missouri to the University of Idaho.

Updated: 09/30/2017

Goals/Milestones

Completed Goals

- Modify hydrogel chemistry and cross-linker density to tune mechanical properties
- Verify nonfouling and protein conjugation capacity of hydrogels

CY17 Goals – Attach SIBLING proteins to hydrogels and determine key SIBLING protein roles and influence of polyampholyte chemistry

- Quantify conjugation to polyampholyte hydrogels
- Test adhesion of cells to SIBLING proteins
- Track proliferation of cells following adhesion

CY18 Goal – Determine impact of hydrogel chemistry on cells

- Characterize differentiation of cells
- Characterize cell penetration into hydrogels
- Characterize differentiation as a function of hydrogel chemistry
- Characterize cell penetration as a function of hydrogel chemistry

Budget Expenditure to Date

Projected Expenditure: \$96,361
Actual Expenditure: \$77,253

9. Appendices

Attached is a copy of the new manuscript that has been accepted for publication as part of this project.

1 *Review*

2 **Polyampholyte Hydrogels in Biomedical** 3 **Applications**

4 **Stephanie L. Haag¹ and Matthew T. Bernards^{1*}**

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7 Academic Editor: name

8 Received: date; Accepted: date; Published: date

9 **Abstract:** Polyampholytes are a class of polymers made up of positively and negatively charged
10 monomer subunits. Polyampholytes offer a unique tunable set of properties driven by the
11 interactions between the charged monomer subunits. Some tunable properties of polyampholytes
12 include mechanical properties, nonfouling characteristics, swelling due to changes in pH or salt
13 concentration, and drug delivery capability. These characteristics lend themselves to multiple
14 biomedical applications and this review paper will summarize applications of polyampholyte
15 polymers demonstrated over the last five years in tissue engineering, cryopreservation and drug
16 delivery.

17 **Keywords:** Polyampholyte Hydrogels; Nonfouling; Multi-Functional

18 **1. Introduction**

19 A significant amount of research is being done with polyampholyte polymers in the biomedical
20 community. Polyampholytes are polymeric systems comprised of both positively and negatively
21 charged monomer subunits. Through the selection of monomers, one can build a polyampholyte with
22 desired properties, tuned to specific biomedical applications. Our previous work evaluated much of
23 the relevant literature prior to 2013 [1, 2], so this paper is focused on advances over the past five years.
24 We will first give a brief review of general polyampholyte characteristics with references to more
25 thorough summaries, a discussion of the tunability of these systems, and an evaluation of recent
26 findings using polyampholytes in tissue engineering, cryopreservation applications, and drug
27 delivery.

28 **2. General Polyampholyte Characteristics**

29 A detailed explanation of the synthesis and properties of polyampholytes is beyond the scope
30 of this paper because this level of information has been provided by others [3-6]. However, we will
31 give a brief overview of the general characteristics that make polyampholytes attractive for
32 biomedical applications. As mentioned above, polyampholytes contain both anionic and cationic
33 functional groups. The strengths of these functional groups are often divided into four categories.
34 The four subclasses of polyampholytes include: both weak anionic and cationic groups, weak anionic
35 and strong cationic groups, strong anionic and weak cationic groups, and lastly both strong anionic
36 and cationic groups. Table 1 shows the most commonly used monomers based on a survey of the
37 recent literature. It should be noted that Table 1 is focused on summarizing organic monomer
38 subunits. There is also a range of literature focused on naturally occurring materials that have been
39 modified to include charged functional groups like chitosan [7, 8].

40 Based on the selection of the underlying functional groups, polyampholytes have a tunable
41 isoelectric point (IEP). The IEP occurs at the pH level when a polyampholyte is overall neutrally
42 charged. The IEP is also the state at which a polyampholyte will have the most compact conformation
43 due to electrostatic attractions between the balanced, oppositely charged functional groups. As pH
44 increases or decreases from the IEP, the overall charge of the polyampholyte will move further from

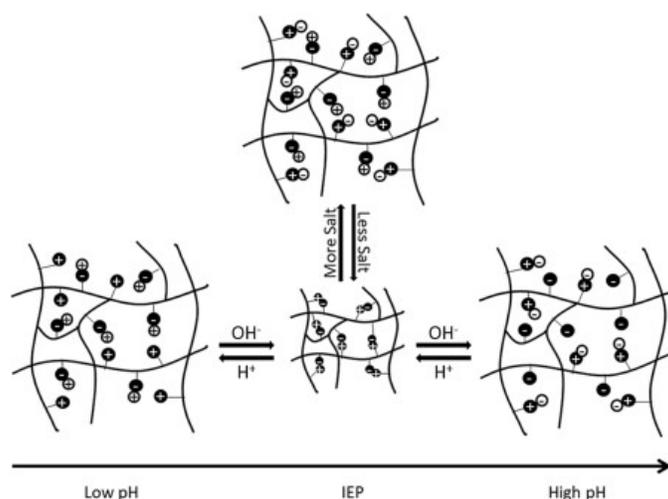
45 **Table 1. Common Monomers Used in Polyampholyte Hydrogels.**

Chemical name	Acronym	Monomer formula	Strength of functional group
Acrylamide	AM	$\text{CH}_2=\text{CHCONH}_2$	Weak cation
<i>N</i> -[3-(Dimethylamino)propyl] acrylamide	DMA PAA	$\text{CH}_2=\text{CHCONH}(\text{CH}_2)_3\text{N}(\text{CH}_3)_2$	Weak cation
2-(Dimethylamino)ethyl methacrylate	DMAEM	$\text{CH}_2=\text{C}(\text{CH}_3)\text{COOCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{N}(\text{CH}_3)_2$	Weak cation
2-(Diethylamino)ethyl methacrylate	DEAEM	$\text{CH}_2=\text{C}(\text{CH}_3)\text{CO}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{N}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_2$	Weak cation
[2-(Methacryloyloxy) ethyl] trimethylammonium chloride	TM	$\text{CH}_2=\text{C}(\text{CH}_3)\text{CO}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{N}(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{Cl}$	Strong cation
2-(Acryloyloxy ethyl) trimethyl ammonium chloride	TMA	$\text{CH}_2=\text{CHCO}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{N}(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{Cl}$	Strong cation
[3-(Methacryloylamino)propyl] trimethylammonium chloride	MAPTAC	$\text{CH}_2=\text{C}(\text{CH}_3)\text{CONH}(\text{CH}_2)_3\text{N}(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{Cl}$	Strong cation
2-Carboxyethyl acrylate	CAA	$\text{CH}_2=\text{CHCO}_2(\text{CH}_2)_2\text{CO}_2\text{H}$	Weak anion
Methacrylic acid	MAA	$\text{CH}_2=\text{C}(\text{CH}_3)\text{COOH}$	Weak anion
Acrylic acid	AA	$\text{CH}_2=\text{CHCOOH}$	Weak anion
Carboxylated poly-L-lysine	COOH-PLL	$\text{NH}_2(\text{CH}_2)_4\text{CHNH}_2\text{COOH}$	Weak anion
3-Sulfopropyl methacrylate potassium salt	SA	$\text{H}_2\text{C}=\text{C}(\text{CH}_3)\text{CO}_2(\text{CH}_2)_3\text{SO}_3\text{K}$	Strong anion
2-Sulfoethyl methacrylate	SE	$\text{H}_2\text{C}=\text{C}(\text{CH}_3)\text{CO}_2(\text{CH}_2)_2\text{SO}_3\text{H}$	Strong anion

46 neutral, causing electrostatic repulsive forces between like-charged regions to increase and expand
 47 the polyampholyte. Similarly, when salt ions are present, the ions disrupt the electrostatic interactions
 48 between oppositely charged regions of the subunits. This also causes the polyampholyte to swell as
 49 depicted schematically in Figure 1 [1]. The extent of swelling from pH or salt is ultimately dependent
 50 on the composition and architecture of the polymer [1, 6]. However, manipulation of these unique
 51 electrostatic interactions and system responses has spurred investigation into using these materials
 52 in biomedical applications as detailed throughout the rest of this review.

54 Another important general feature of overall charge neutral polyampholyte polymers is their
 55 natural nonfouling properties. It has been widely demonstrated [9-12] and reviewed previously [1,
 56 2] that this native resistance to nonspecific protein adsorption is the result of the formation of a strong
 57 hydration layer due to interactions between the naturally occurring dipole distribution in water and
 58 the charged regions of the underlying polyampholyte substrate. This is important because it is
 59 believed that this nonfouling property will lead to a reduced foreign body response in the *in vivo*
 60 environment, as seen with related zwitterionic systems. Furthermore, as demonstrated throughout
 61 the remainder of this review, pH changes can be used to modify the net neutral charge of
 62 polyampholyte systems, adding in a responsive component to the utilization of these polymers in
 63 biomedical applications.

64



65 Figure 1. Schematic showing the impact that changes in pH and salt concentrations have on
 66 electrostatic interactions within a polyampholyte hydrogel. This figure is reprinted from
 67 Ref. [1] with permission. Copyright 2013, Wiley Periodicals, Inc.

68 3. Mechanical Properties

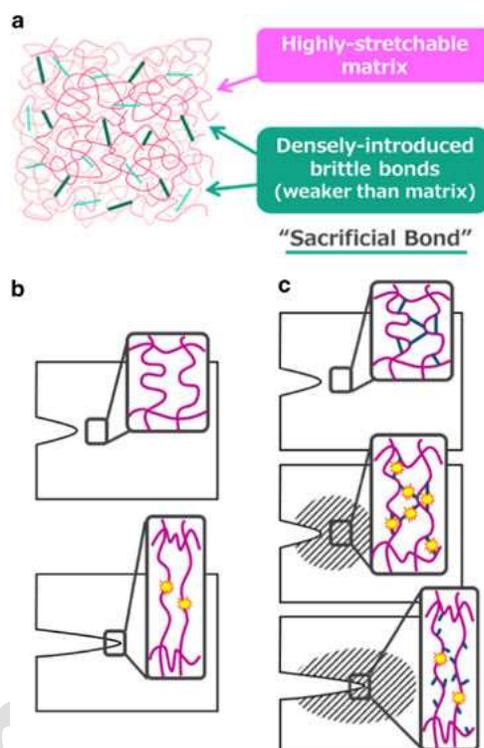
69 The composition dependent tunability of polyampholyte systems also provides a unique
 70 approach for addressing one of the significant challenges with using polymeric materials in
 71 biomedical applications, the ability to easily control the mechanical properties of the biomaterial. To
 72 facilitate better tissue regeneration and integration, it is important for an implanted biomaterial to
 73 mimic the native properties of the tissues it is supplanting [13, 14]. There is, of course, great variability
 74 in the mechanical properties of tissues, as properties range from soft and flexible (skin) to strong with
 75 the ability to absorb impact forces (bone). In addition, biomaterials must also have a high water
 76 content, to maintain their biocompatibility and the ability for cells to penetrate into the material.

77 Our group demonstrated the easy tunability of polyampholyte hydrogels utilizing various ratios
 78 of monomers in three component hydrogels consisting of positively charged 2-(acryl-oyloxy)ethyl
 79 trimethylammonium chloride (TMA) and varying mixtures of negatively charged 2-carboxyethyl
 80 acrylate (CAA) and 3-sulfopropyl methacrylate (SA) monomers [15]. Furthermore, the cross-linker
 81 density was also used as a mechanism for further tuning the mechanical properties. It was
 82 demonstrated that both the density of the cross-linker as well as the ratio of monomers in the
 83 hydrogel altered the fracture strength and Young's Modulus. At cross-linker densities of 1x and 2x
 84 (1:0.076 and 1:0.152 monomer:cross-linker ratios), the mechanical properties were dependent upon
 85 the exact combination of monomer subunits, while at a 4x cross-linker density, the cross-linker
 86 became the controlling factor. However, this study clearly demonstrated the easily tuned mechanical
 87 properties of polyampholyte systems with low cross-linker densities. In a similar fashion, Jian and
 88 Matsumura were able to controllably tune the mechanical properties of their nanocomposite
 89 hydrogel designed with carboxylated poly-L-lysine (COOH-PLL) and synthetic clay laponite XLG by
 90 changing the laponite concentration (composition dependence) or the density of the polyethylene
 91 glycol with N-hydroxy succinimide ester (PEG-NHS) cross-linker [16]. Changing the crosslinker
 92 density or monomer concentration are also common tuning mechanisms for mechanical properties
 93 [17-21].

94 A great deal of both theoretical and experimental study has been conducted to better understand
 95 the fracture mechanisms of polyampholyte gels, for use in guiding the design of stronger or more
 96 tunable systems [22]. Above a critical loading stress, moderately chemically cross-linked hydrogels
 97 resisted creep flow, while physically cross-linked and lightly chemically cross-linked hydrogels
 98 experience creep rupture. However, at large stresses creep behavior indicated that both physically
 99 and chemically cross-linked hydrogels undergo bond breaking mechanisms. These results confirm
 100 that chemical bonds are stronger than physical bonds, therefore, chemically cross-linked systems

101 show an improvement over systems with only ionic bonds [23]. However, the incorporation of
 102 physical cross-links has positively influenced fracture behavior of viscoelastic hydrogels through
 103 reduced deformation rate [24] and crack blunting [25].

104 Due to the beneficial features of both chemical and physical cross-links, recent studies have
 105 approached the development of mechanically strong hydrogels by combining the two mechanisms
 106 in an approach referred to as the sacrificial bond principle [13, 19, 26-31]. The sacrificial bond
 107 principle is based on the formation of a highly stretchable base matrix, with a high density of brittle
 108 sacrificial bonds that are weaker than the base matrix. During stress, the brittle bonds break before
 109 the stretchable base matrix, leading to improved mechanical performance. Figure 2 shows a
 110 schematic of possible fracture processes with and without sacrificial bonds present [26].



111 Figure 2. (a) General structure of a tough gel based on the sacrificial bond principle consisting
 112 of a highly stretchable matrix with a high density of brittle bonds. (b) Possible fracture
 113 processes of a single network gel. (c) Possible fracture processes of a sacrificial bond gel. The
 114 brittle bonds are widely ruptured prior to the macroscopic crack propagation around the
 115 crack tip (shadowed zone). This figure is reprinted from Ref. [26] with permission. Copyright
 116 2017, The Society of Polymer Science, Japan.

117 These sacrificial bonds can be covalent bonds, hydrogen bonds, ionic bonds, or hydrophobic
 118 interactions depending on the polymer matrix. They can also be incorporated into the base matrix
 119 with multiple approaches including double network gels, ionically linked gels, metal ion chelation,
 120 and composite gels [26, 32]. The resulting hydrogels from all of these approaches show great
 121 mechanical strength, energy dissipation, and force dispersion to slow down fracture and crack
 122 propagation [19]. In just one representative example, the use of a double network hydrogel
 123 composed of poly(2-acrylamido-2-methylpropanesulfonic acid) and poly(acrylamide) was shown to
 124 improve the compressive fracture stress from 0.4-0.8 MPa to 17.2 MPa [33].

125 With double-network hydrogels showing irreversible deformation, however, efforts started on
 126 the use of other types of bonds that could be reversible and self-healing. Some work has been done
 127 using electrostatic interactions and hydrophobic interactions. The mechanical properties are
 128 extremely dependent on pH, as the interactions that hold the structure together can be weak or strong

129 depending on the charged state of the monomers. Furthermore, the material will also swell and
130 collapse with changes in pH [27, 28]. One study added partially quaternized poly(4-vinylpyridine)
131 into an elastic hydrogel, thereby introducing electrostatic, hydrophobic, and hydrogen bonding
132 interactions to better dissipate energy. This resulted in an increase in fracture energy from 44 J/m² to
133 1000 J/m² [29].

134 In polyampholytes, it is common to take advantage of the electrostatic interactions as a
135 secondary sacrificial bond to toughen materials via the presence of oppositely charged functional
136 groups distributed throughout the system. Strong electrostatic interactions act as permanent cross-
137 links and weaker interactions reversibly break and re-form which dissipates energy and toughens
138 the gels [13, 31]. These bonds can also occur via both inter- and intra-chain interactions.
139 Polyampholytes and polyion-complex hydrogels (PIC) both contain oppositely charged functional
140 groups and have potential as tough, self-healing gels. PICs are formed from electrostatic interactions
141 between oppositely charged polyelectrolyte polymers upon mixing. Polyampholytes form the
142 toughest hydrogels around zero net charge, where PIC systems can form tough gels at weakly off-
143 balanced charge compositions. PICs are typically tougher than polyampholytes when they have the
144 same monomer compositions due to the fact that PIC hydrogels form at lower concentrations than
145 polyampholytes [30].

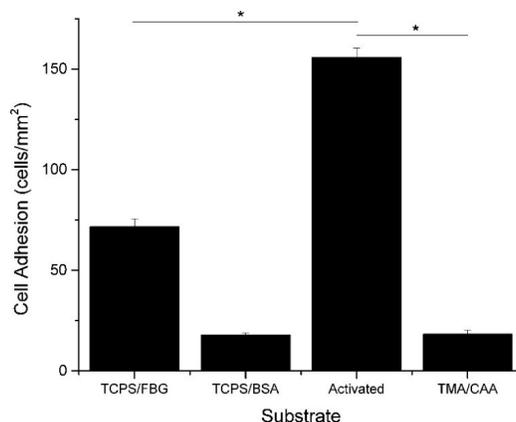
146 Additional approaches have also been used to improve the mechanical properties of hydrogels
147 based on ionic bonding. In one example, the removal of co-ions prior to gelation was shown to
148 facilitate improved ionic bond formation [34]. In another study, Cui *et al.* developed a method
149 referred to as pre-stretching, where hydrogels are prepared and then stretched. This stretching helps
150 align the chains parallel to each other, as opposed to the original random alignment. When the chains
151 are parallel, stronger ionic bonds form, which in turn strengthens the overall polyampholyte
152 hydrogel [35]. Fang *et al.* explored a similar approach to attain a tough and stretchable hydrogel by
153 altering the structure of the material [36]. Starting with a protein-based hydrogel, they forced the
154 unfolding of the globular domains. The subsequent collapse and aggregation of the unfolded material
155 allows for physical intertwining and linking through electrostatic interactions. The resulting
156 hydrogels have the unusual properties of a negative swelling ratio, high stretchability, and
157 toughness.

158 Byette *et al.* took inspiration from the mechanisms used by mussels to attach to wet surfaces as
159 an approach to toughen polyampholyte materials [37]. Mussels use byssus, a protein-based material,
160 to secure themselves to solid surfaces. Byssus shows a self-healing ability combined with strength
161 partially due to metal ions forming sacrificial bonds with the amino acid subunits. Byette *et al.* created
162 a hydrogel from byssus protein hydrolyzate and treated it with Ca²⁺ or Fe³⁺. The films with Fe³⁺
163 showed the greatest increase in strength and toughness. A similar approach was used by Huang *et al.*
164 who made a semi-interpenetrating polymer network composed of carboxymethyl chitosan
165 (CMCH), acrylamide, and maleic acid with carboxylic-Fe³⁺ interactions serving as ionic sacrificial
166 bonds [38]. By changing the ratio of maleic acid and the concentration of Fe³⁺, the best hydrogels
167 showed a tensile stress of 1.44 MPa. Additionally, the CMCH provided the gels with antibacterial
168 characteristics against *Staphylococcus aureus* and Gram-negative *Escherichia coli*.

169 4. Tissue Engineering Applications

170 Polyampholyte hydrogels are an attractive option for tissue engineering due to the general
171 characteristics described above. In addition to their tunable, responsive, and nonfouling properties,
172 they also have a high moisture holding capacity, which is generally associated with biocompatibility.
173 Our group has demonstrated multi-functional polyampholyte hydrogels for tissue engineering using
174 TMA and CAA monomer subunits [39]. These gels show excellent resistance to nonspecific protein
175 adsorption including negatively charged fibrinogen (FBG) and positively charged lysozyme (LYZ),
176 and they prevent the short-term adhesion of MC3T3-E1 cells [40]. The elimination of nonspecific cell
177 adhesion is intended to reduce the occurrence of the foreign body response in the *in vivo* environment,
178 but it is not desirable for facilitating tissue regeneration through the implanted scaffold. However,
179 the multi-functional capabilities of the polyampholyte hydrogel platform demonstrated in this work

180 provides an easy mechanism for incorporating cell adhesive biological cues. The pH responsive
181 nature of the CAA monomer can be taken advantage of with the use of N-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)-
182 N'-ethylcarbodiimide hydrochloride / N-hydroxysuccinimide (EDC/NHS) bioconjugation chemistry
183 to covalently attach bioactive signaling molecules. This was used to attach FBG, which subsequently
184 facilitated MC3T3-E1 cell adhesion to the hydrogel as demonstrated in Figure 3 [40]. Furthermore,
185 the background hydrogel (locations without conjugated FBG) was tested and verified that it retained
186 the native nonfouling properties away from the conjugated proteins, upon return to neutral pH [40].
187 It is believed that the incorporation of tissue specific biological cues will facilitate targeted cell
188 adhesion and interrogation interactions. This multi-functional capability is not limited to just
189 TMA/CAA polyampholyte hydrogels either. Three component polymers using equimolar
190 combinations of positively charged TMA and varying combinations of negatively charged CAA and
191 SA monomers have also shown the same nonfouling properties and pH dependent protein
192 conjugation capabilities regardless of the underlying charge balanced composition [15]. This
193 combination of nonfouling properties, protein conjugation capability, and tunable cell adhesion
194 suggests polyampholyte hydrogels have excellent potential for applications as tissue engineering
195 scaffolds.



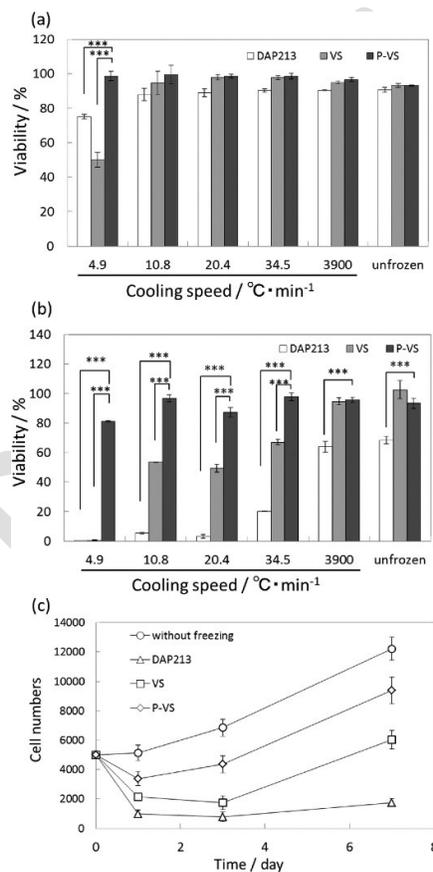
196 Figure 3. Average number of MC3T3-E1 cells (cells/mm²) that adhered to tissue culture
197 polystyrene (TCPS) and TMA/CAA hydrogels with or without adsorbed or conjugated
198 proteins. This figure is reprinted from Ref. [40] with permission. Copyright 2013, American
199 Chemical Society.

200 Advances in the application of polyampholyte hydrogels for tissue engineering are not limited
201 to our efforts. For example, Jian and Matsumura developed a nanocomposite hydrogel using
202 COOH-PLL and synthetic clay laponite XLG that showed promise as a tissue engineering scaffold
203 due to its controlled release profiles, good mechanical properties, and cell adhesion capability [16].
204 These gels were cytocompatible and had adjustable degradation properties. Furthermore, cell
205 adhesion was tunable by controlling the hydrogel formulation. When the polymer chains were
206 covalently cross-linked with PEG-NHS, it hid some of the laponite surface and reduced cell adhesion.
207 Alternatively, when the hydrogels were only physically cross-linked (no PEG-NHS), there was more
208 exposed laponite surface area, leading to enhanced cell attachment.

209 5. Cryopreservation Applications

210 Another important aspect of tissue engineering is the preservation of cells over long-term
211 scenarios. This is most generally done using cryopreservation in a liquid nitrogen cell freezer. In
212 order to prevent cell death, a cryoprotective agent (CPA) is typically added to the cell solution prior
213 to freezing. One of the most commonly used CPAs is dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), but it shows high
214 cytotoxicity and needs to be removed quickly after thawing. DMSO has also been seen to influence
215 the differentiation of many cell types. The need for a new and more effective CPA has driven research
216 into the use of polyampholytes for cryopreservation.

217 Matsumura *et al.* demonstrated the use of COOH-PLL as a new polyampholyte CPA for human
 218 bone marrow derived mesenchymal stem cells (hBMSCs) [41]. They found that the polyampholyte
 219 CPA did not penetrate the cell wall, but instead provided protection by attaching to the membrane.
 220 When the ratio of carboxylation was within the range of 0.5-0.8, there was >90% cell viability upon
 221 seeding after being frozen for 24 months, with no significant differences compared to cells frozen in
 222 the presence of DMSO. The hBMSCs also showed better retention of their properties inherent before
 223 freezing such as differentiation potential, as compared to samples with DMSO as the CPA. COOH-
 224 PLL was further tested as a CPA during fast and slow vitrification of two-dimensional cell constructs.
 225 Figures 4 a-b below, show the cell viability directly after warming and after one day of culture. It can
 226 be clearly seen that there are no significant differences in the cell viability immediately after thawing
 227 in the presence of COOH-PLL (denoted as P-VS), DMSO (denoted as DAP213), or no CPA (denoted
 228 as VS). After both one day of culture and over longer time periods, the proliferation curves (Figure
 229 4c) show a distinct improvement when the cells were frozen with the polyampholyte CPA as
 230 compared to either DMSO or no CPA. Through these studies it was concluded that the use of a
 231 polyampholyte CPA significantly improved the viability of hBMSCs while maintaining
 232 differentiation capacity, making it promising for the long-term storage of tissue engineered
 233 constructs [41, 42].



234 Figure 4. Quantitative viability results of MSCs after slow and fast vitrification with various
 235 VSs and different cooling speeds (a) immediately after warming and (b) after 1 day of culture.
 236 (c) Cell proliferation curves after slow vitrification at a cooling rate of 10.8 °C/min with
 237 various VSs (**p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001). This figure reprinted from Ref [42] with permission. Copyright
 238 2016, American Chemical Society.

239 Based on the positive results seen with COOH-PLL, other polyampholytes have also been
 240 investigated as CPAs. These studies were to both expand the formulation range of CPAs, as well as
 241 to better understand how polyampholytes protect the cell membrane during freezing. In one

242 example, 2-(dimethylamino) ethyl methacrylate (DMAEMA) and methacrylic acid (MAA) were
243 copolymerized in various ratios [43]. In addition, hydrophobic groups in the form of n-butyl
244 methacrylate (Bu-MA) and N-octyl methacrylate (Oc-MA) were introduced into the polymer
245 backbone at 2-10% mole percent of the total monomer amount. This range of polyampholyte
246 chemistries were tested, and at an overall solution polymer concentration of 10%, with 5% consisting
247 of Bu-MA or Oc-MA, significantly increased cell viability was seen following freezing. By testing this
248 range of polyampholyte compositions, it was determined that the cryoprotective properties are
249 strongly correlated with hydrophobicity. This approach has also been adapted to the closely related
250 zwitterionic polymers 3-((3-acrylamidopropyl) dimethylammonio)-propane-1-sulfonate and 2-((2-
251 methacryloyloxy)ethyl)-dimethylammonium)acetate [44]. The cryoprotective capabilities of the
252 zwitterionic species were compared to poly(MAA-DMAEMA) and they did not show comparable
253 cell viability, providing further insight into the mechanism of preservation. Through these studies, it
254 was concluded that the cryoprotective property results from strong interactions between the
255 polyampholyte CPA and the cell membrane, which are greatly aided by limited hydrophobic
256 interactions [43, 44].

257 Cell sheets and constructs have added complexity for successful cryopreservation. A dextran-
258 based polyampholyte hydrogel was developed to encapsulate cell constructs prior to
259 cryopreservation and it has shown promise for tissue engineering applications in preliminary studies
260 [45]. Another variation on the use of COOH-PLL CPAs was explored by Jian and Matsumura. Cells
261 were cryopreserved with 7.5-20% COOH-PLL solutions. After thawing, nanosilicates were injected,
262 turning the solution into a thixotropic hydrogel. Cell viability was excellent, remaining >90% for all
263 tested polyampholyte concentrations. This unique gel system was proposed for direct cell injection
264 for site specific cell delivery and tissue repair without the need to wash out the cryoprotective agent
265 [46]. Furthermore, the thermoresponsiveness of this class of polyampholyte materials and their
266 demonstrated biocompatibility make them promising for other biomaterial and drug delivery
267 applications [47].

268 6. Drug Delivery Applications

269 Due to the naturally occurring responsive nature of polyampholyte polymers addressed earlier,
270 they have gained increasing interest for drug delivery applications. The cryoprotective properties of
271 some polyampholyte formulations, discussed above, have been taken a step further by Ahmed *et al.*
272 as a novel approach to deliver proteins into cells [48]. Proteins were adsorbed on/into nanoparticles
273 made from hydrophobically modified polyampholytes synthesized by the succinylation of ϵ -poly-L-
274 lysine with dodecyl succinic anhydride and succinic anhydride. L929 cells were then frozen with the
275 protein loaded nanoparticles as a CPA. The high affinity between the cell membrane and the
276 hydrophobic subunits of the nanoparticles caused the protein-loaded nanoparticles to condense on
277 the peripheral cell membrane during freezing. The adsorbed protein and nanoparticles were found
278 to be internalized after thawing via endocytosis during culture, thereby delivering the protein
279 payload. However, there was a critical concentration above which these nanoparticle delivery
280 systems became cytotoxic. The Matsumura group also adapted this approach to polyampholyte-
281 modified liposomes in additional protein delivery studies, demonstrating its adaptability for protein
282 delivery in immunotherapy applications [49].

283 At the same time, much of the recent work in polyampholyte mediated drug delivery takes
284 advantage of the pH responsive behavior of polyampholyte systems. For example, chitosan based
285 polyampholytes have recently been shown to have potential in protein delivery applications, as they
286 have exhibited the ability to adsorb and desorb bovine serum albumin (BSA) in a pH dependent
287 manner [7, 8]. However, a combination of design characteristics is required to optimize drug delivery
288 that include biocompatibility, multifunctionality, and responsiveness to the microenvironment.
289 Nanogels have been investigated for use as delivery systems and have shown tremendous promise
290 due to the ability to control drug release, provide the drug protection from degradation, and target
291 specific tissues. Some of the loading and drug release methods include covalent conjugation,
292 passive/diffusion based, or through environmental stimuli such as pH [50].

Our group previously investigated the fundamental release characteristics of polyampholyte hydrogels composed of equimolar ratios of TMA and CAA using neutral caffeine, positively charged methylene blue, and negatively charged metanil yellow [51]. These species were selected as methylene blue and metanil yellow have nearly identical molecular weights, thereby eliminating this variable when comparing the release kinetics, while caffeine is approximately one half the size of the other species to allow for a characterization of the influence of size. Hydrogels were synthesized in the presence of the drug analogues, and then the release characteristics were monitored as a function of cross-linker density, pH, and ionic concentration. The release of the smaller, neutral caffeine molecule was shown to be mediated by diffusion alone, although this release was tunable based on environmental stimuli induced swelling of the polyampholyte hydrogels. Conversely, the release of the charged molecules was strongly dependent on electrostatic interactions throughout the system, which could be modified through the environmental cues of pH and ionic strength. Figure 5 shows a schematic of the relative drug release levels from the TMA/CAA hydrogel. Importantly, it was also demonstrated that following the release of the various drug molecules, it was verified that the TMA/CAA platforms retained their native nonfouling characteristics. Therefore, this platform shows great potential for long-term biomolecule delivery.

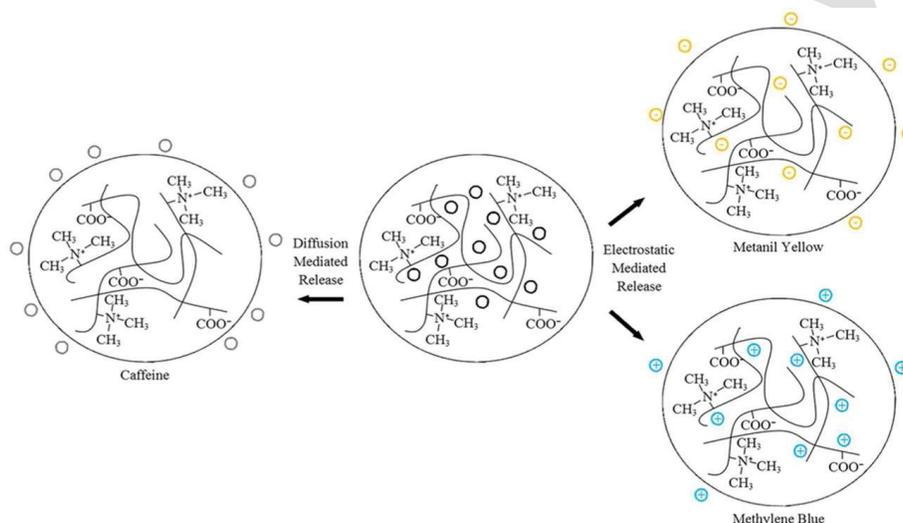


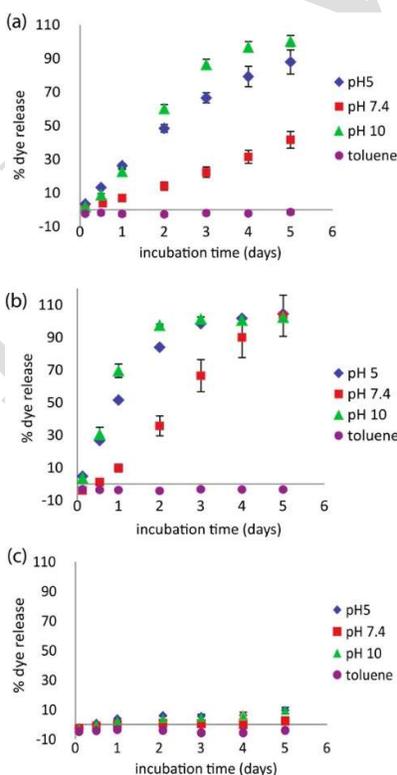
Figure 5. Schematic depicting the release of caffeine, metanil yellow and methylene blue from TMA/CAA gels. This figure is reprinted from Ref [51] with permission. Copyright 2015, American Chemical Society.

Kudaibergenov *et al.* also used a variety of guest molecules to characterize the adsorption and release from a macroporous amphoteric cryogel composed of N,N-dimethylaminoethyl methacrylate and methacrylic acid with a N,N'-methylenebisacrylamide cross-linker [52]. The guest species tested included methylene blue, methyl orange, sodium dodecylbenzene sulfonate (SDBS) and lysozyme. Lysozyme and methylene blue were adsorbed at pH 9.5 and SDBS and methyl orange were adsorbed at pH 7.5. Similar to the work by Barcellona *et al.*, the binding interactions between the cryogel and the guest molecules was driven by electrostatic forces. However, at the IEP of pH 7.1, the amphoteric cryogel allowed for the release of 93-98% of the absorbed species. The conclusions drawn by both Barcellona *et al.* and Kudaibergenov *et al.* are also supported by simulation based studies that concluded that electrostatic interactions play the most significant role in mediating drug release from polyampholyte systems [53].

A variety of specific drug species have also been used to test drug delivery from assorted polyampholyte mediums. Mishra *et al.* used poly 3-[(methacryloylamino) propyl trimethylammonium chloride-co-methacrylic acid] (PMAPTACMAAc) copolymers with various concentrations of monomers and loaded indomethacin (IND) [54]. IND is a nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug that is used for the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis, ankylosing spondylitis, and

328 osteoarthritis, to name a few. The hydrogel composition played a large role in the sustained release
329 of IND, and PMAPTACMMAC-5 led to the highest percentage of IND release. This formulation
330 released 75% of the entrapped IND within 8 hours and 82% after 12 hours. Other hydrogel
331 formulations showed release percentages ranging from ~44 to 77% after 12 hours. The release was
332 primarily diffusion based and it followed non-Fickian release kinetics. Although diffusion is often
333 effective for drug delivery, a controlled release response can provide a more targeted delivery.
334 Salicylic acid was used as a model drug in a polyampholyte composed of casein and poly(N-
335 isopropylacrylamide) and the release was affected by temperature, pH, and crosslinker density [55].
336 This led Cao *et al.* to conclude this delivery vehicle was appropriate for orally administered drug
337 delivery. Finally, Sankar *et al.* demonstrated the pH sensitive release of promethazine hydrochloride
338 from polyampholyte hydrogels containing carbon nanotubes [56]. These nanotubes were
339 incorporated into the hydrogel as an approach to reinforce the mechanical properties of this delivery
340 system, without impacting the drug delivery capabilities.

341 Investigators have also begun incorporating polyampholytes into multicomponent systems to
342 enhance performance or offer additional benefits. For example, Wang *et al.* examined a
343 polyampholyte hydrogel release system based on pyromellitic diester diacid chloride (PDDC)
344 combined with combinations of diethylenetriamine (DETA) and triazine [57]. This polyampholyte
345 system showed a pH dependent release capability that overcome previous issues seen with related
346 encapsulants formed with terephthaloyl chloride (TC) in place of PDDC. This new microcapsule
347 formulation showed high loading capacity, and steady, controlled release at pH 7.4. It also
348 demonstrated accelerated release at both pH 5 and pH 10, as shown in Figure 6. The release
349 characteristics were also tunable by varying the ratio of DETA to triazine, indicating the ability to
350 refine this microcapsule formulation for tunable release rate applications.



351 Figure 6. Release profiles of coumarin 1 dye under different solvent conditions for PDDC
352 capsules with (a) 3:1 triazine:DETA and (b) 1:1 triazine:DETA. (c) Control experiments: 1:1
353 triazine:DETA with TC. This figure is reprinted from Ref [57] with permission. Copyright
354 2017, American Chemical Society.

Others has also incorporated polyampholyte polymers into their drug delivery vehicles to add pH responsive release characteristics. For example, Schulze *et al.* saw potential in lamellar liquid crystalline systems, but the structure did not react to environmental stimuli such as pH. When the polyampholyte poly(N,N'-diallyl-N,N'-dimethyl-almaleamic carboxylate) (PaH) was integrated into a lamellar liquid crystalline system of sodium dodecyl sulfate, decanol, and water, it was found that release from the new structure could be tuned by varying the pH or temperature. This suggests it has promise as a new structural material for drug delivery systems [58]. In another example, papacetamol, an analgesic drug, was released from a polyampholyte hydrogel matrix composed of laponite, polyacrylamide and poly(3-acrylamidopropyl) trimethylammonium chloride. Drug release was tested as a function of environmental changes in pH and ionic strength, and in the presence of an electric field. Without an electric field, papacetamol was only released at pH 1.1, but with the application of an electric field, sustained drug release occurred at other pH values [59]. Finally, Ali *et al.* created a novel polymer containing residues of alendronic acid, that showed pH sensitive responses that were proposed to be used as a drug delivery system [60].

Asayama *et al.* also incorporated a polyampholyte polymer, carboxymethyl poly (1-vinylimidazole) (CM-PVIm), into an existing system. CM-PVIm was used to coat poly(ethylenimine)/DNA (PEI/DNA) complexes, to reduce nonspecific protein adsorption to this delivery platform. The results demonstrated this coating did not significantly reduce gene transfection or cell viability. Therefore, the authors concluded that CM-PVIm is an effective coating for improved circulation of gene therapy agents [61].

Another application of adding polyampholytes to drug delivery vehicles is based on their strong water holding capacity. Polyampholyte acrylic latexes were incorporated into drug tablet coatings to minimize the amount of water removed from the drugs during the tablet drying step [62]. During the optimization of this approach, Ladika *et al.* focused on finding a polymer solution with similar viscosity to the industry standard, that contained a much higher concentration of solids. Typical tablet coatings on the market today range from 4-10 wt% solids and the new polyampholyte acrylic latexes showed a range of 37-39 wt% solids. Three types of latexes were explored: weak acid/strong base latexes, strong acid/weak base latexes, and combinations of anionic and cationic latexes. Latex formulations for all three combinations were determined that had viscosities similar to current coating solutions, had higher solids composition, and were pH-tunable to enable targeted delivery of active pharmaceutical ingredients.

7. Future Directions

Throughout this review many exciting advancements applying polyampholyte hydrogels to biomedical applications were highlighted. However, despite this progress and the clearly demonstrated capabilities of polyampholytes, these materials have not yet been investigated in the *in vivo* environment in depth. This is the critical next step in the continued development of these materials, and our group is pursuing these efforts in the application of polyampholyte hydrogels for bone tissue engineering. Additionally, while the tunability and responsive properties of polyampholytes have been widely demonstrated, the ease of tuning polyampholyte materials for targeted applications of these capabilities must also be further pursued.

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