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Self-crosslinked fibrous collagen/chitosan blends: processing, properties evaluation and monitoring of degradation by bi-fluorescence imaging

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Abstract

Porous collagen/chitosan scaffolds with different Collagen:Chitosan (Coll:Ch) ratios were prepared 16 by freeze-drying followed by self-crosslinking via dehydrothermal treatment (DHT) and characterized as 17 biomaterials for tissue engineering. Cy7 and Cy5.5 fluorochromes were covalently grafted to collagen and 18 chitosan, respectively. Thus, it was possible, using optical fluorescence imaging of the two fluorochromes, 19 to simultaneously track their in vivo biodegradation, in a blend scaffold form. The fluorescence signal 20 evolution, due to the bioresorption, corroborated with histological analysis. In vitro cytocompatibility of 21 Coll:Ch blend scaffolds were evaluated with standardized tests. In addition, the scaffolds showed a highly 22 interconnected porous structure. Extent of crosslinking was analyzed by convergent analysis using 23 thermogravimetry, Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy and PBS uptake. The variations observed with 24 these techniques indicate strong interactions between collagen and chitosan (covalent and hydrogen bonds) 25 promoted by the DHT. The mechanical properties were characterized to elucidate the impact of the different 26 processing steps in the sample preparation (DHT, neutralization and sterilization by β -irradiation) and 27 showed a robust processing scheme with low impact of Coll:Ch composition ratio. 28

29 Keywords: collagen:chitosan scaffolds; dehydrothermal treatment; bi-fluorescence imaging;

30 **1. Introduction**

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Polymer blending is a classical strategy to combine the original properties of different polymer components or develop new materials with synergistic properties. Such properties may result from

intermacromolecular interactions which in turn impact the macromolecular mobility and the microstructure 33 at different scales [1, 2]. Natural polymer blends are widely envisioned for biomedical applications due to 34 the biological properties of their individual components. They also exhibit several specific advantages, such 35 as their availability from renewable sources, or the easiness of chemical modifications to adapt their 36 properties [3, 4]. Collagen and chitosan are widely used or studied as biomaterials [1, 5]. Their 37 complementary properties may be exploited to design biopolymer blends with finely tuned properties. Both 38 biopolymers are non-cytotoxic, biodegradable, weakly antigenic in comparison with other proteins such as 39 40 albumin [3, 4] or other polysaccharides such as alginates or cellulose [6].

Collagens have been found in applications as scaffolds in tissue engineering and regenerative 41 medicine [7-9]. Collagens of different types are commonly found in bone, skin, tendon, cartilage and other 42 connective tissues. Structurally, type I collagen is comprised of left-handed, three parallel polypeptide 43 chains coiled around each other to form a right-handed triple helix conformation [10]. These tropocollagen 44 45 trimers hierarchically associate to form nanofibrils and microfibrils. Collagen contains acidic and basic amino acid residues, such as glycine, proline, hydroxyproline and lysine; it may be either positively or 46 negatively charged depending on the environmental conditions (pH). Collagen can be easily modified, 47 crosslinked and can be blended/associated with other polymers, such as cellulose, fucoidan, poly(l-lactide-48 co-ɛ-caprolactone) and poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-co-3-hydroxyvalerate), in a variety of physical forms like 49 fibers, films and nanofibrous scaffolds [8, 9, 11, 12]. Chitosans constitute a family of linear copolymers of 50 D-glucosamine and N-acetyl-D-glucosamine with β (1 \rightarrow 4) glycosidic linkages. They are usually prepared 51 by N-deacetylation of chitin under alkaline conditions [13]. The molar fraction of N-acetylated units, *i.e.* the 52 degree of N-acetylation (DA), is a structural parameter impacting charge density, hydrophilicity, solubility 53 in aqueous acidic media [14] and crystallinity in the neutralized state [15]. Chitosans with higher DA exhibit 54 faster biodegradation rates partly due to enzymatic degradation [16, 17]. Additionally, chitosan has both 55 reactive amino and hydroxyl groups that can be used for crosslinking and/or chemical modifications [18]. 56

57 Collagen and chitosan have already been blended in a variety of biocomposites or biomaterials,
58 including porous matrices. They have been developed for various biomedical purposes, such as controlled

delivery of therapeutic agents, skin regeneration, bone tissue engineering and cell culture [19-22]. It is well 59 60 known that untreated collagen presents a fast biodegradation rate and low mechanical strength, which are the main limitations for the use of this material. However, it was previously evidenced that the addition of 61 chitosan significantly interacts with the nanofibrillar structure of collagen, leading to a reinforcement of the 62 fibrillary network by crosslinking (physical or covalent) and an increases of the pore size of the scaffolds (in 63 the freeze dried form) [4, 23-25]. Collagen/chitosan physical interactions are due to electrostatic interactions 64 and hydrogen bonding [17, 26]. In addition to the physical blend preparation, self-crosslinking the blend is 65 an effective method to modify the biodegradation rate and to optimize the mechanical properties. This 66 process can be performed by a dehydrothermal treatment (DHT) that allows preserving the biocompatibility 67 of collagen and chitosan without adding any cytotoxic crosslinkers [27]. DHT is a physical treatment that 68 consists in heating collagen above 90 °C under vacuum to promote water desorption. This process results in 69 the formation of crosslinks through a condensation reaction between amino and carboxyl groups, yielding 70 amide bonds. It can also occur by esterification through the reaction between carbonyl and hydroxyl groups. 71 72 These reactions can occur internally in collagen and/or between collagen and chitosan in the case of blends [28, 29]. 73

In the development of *in vivo* resorbable biomaterials, the evaluation of the inflammatory response 74 and of the biodegradation is of primary importance. The resorption kinetics should ideally correspond to the 75 reconstruction of a new tissue in place of the implant. If the degradation is too fast, the support for tissue 76 growth will not be efficient, whereas a too slow degradation can result in fibrosis [26, 30, 31]. Inflammation, 77 78 biodegradation and tissue reconstruction are classically studied by various histological methods. However, they may require large animal cohorts to obtain a longitudinal following and statistical significance. 79 Recently, advances in biomedical imaging have permitted in vivo tracking of material over time in a non-80 invasive manner, with the combined use of imaging technics, such as Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) 81 [32], X-ray computed tomography (CT) [33] and fluorescence imaging [34]. Such tools cast new light on the 82 biomaterials degradation and their interactions with surrounding cells and tissues; they also give precious 83 information regarding the biodistribution of degraded products. Fluorescence imaging presents great 84

advantages in small animal studies: it enables high sensitivity, non-invasiveness (it is a non-ionizing 85 technique), long-term observations and semi-quantitative measurements [35-38]. To this aim, fluorescent 86 probe molecules (e.g., fluorescein or protoporphyrin) need to be covalently immobilized in biomaterials [34, 87 39, 40]. The impact of such chemical modification needs to be evaluated even if a small quantity of 88 fluorophores is grafted. Ma et al. prepared porous materials using both collagen and chitosan, labelled with 89 rhodamine and crosslinked with glutaraldehyde to observe the infiltration and proliferation of human 90 fibroblasts in vitro. They simultaneously observed by fluorescence the distribution of collagen:chitosan 91 blend using rhodamine labelled collagen and fluorescein labelled chitosan. They could observe the 92 infiltration of fibroblasts and characterize the distribution of collagen and chitosan in the scaffold [4]. The 93 simultaneous observation of biodegradation of different collagen:chitosan blends in vivo using fluorescence 94 imaging can yield precious informations of collagen and chitosan behaviors during the resorption process. In 95 this work, we prepared collagen:chitosan blends using covalently labelled polymers with different 96 fluorochromes, namely N-hydroxysuccinimide (NHS) modified cyanines Cy7-NHS ($\lambda_{exc}/\lambda_{em}$ 747/800 nm) 97 98 and Cy5.5-NHS ($\lambda_{exc}/\lambda_{em}$ 675/720 nm) for collagen and chitosan, respectively. These fluorochromes are suitable for in vivo near-infrared (NIR) imaging experiments and are able to label amino groups in 99 100 biomaterials. The degradation of the material can be tracked through the calculation of fluorescence intensity in situ and can be used to optimize the material blending and self-crosslinking [34]. 101

The aim of the present work is to study the effect of composition and self-crosslinking method 102 (DHT) on the key biomaterial properties, comprising the in vivo resorption of scaffolds obtained with 103 different collagen:chitosan (Coll:Ch) composition ratios, in a final freeze dried form. Three compositions, 104 namely Coll:Ch at the ratio 3:1, 2:1 and 1:1 (w/w) and two chitosans with different DAs, Ch80 (DA \cong 16 %) 105 and Ch95 (DA \cong 3 %) were selected. Consequently, a range of physico-chemical and biological behaviors 106 were obtained and characterized: micronrange porous morphology, thermal degradation, swelling, 107 108 mechanical properties, cytocompatibility and *in vivo* biodegradation rate, using non-invasive fluorescence imaging. To strengthen the interest of labelled materials for the estimation of biodegradation rates, we 109 verified that fluorescent labelling had no impact on the physicochemical and biological behaviors of the 110

111 collagen:chitosan blends. Therefore, labelled and unlabelled materials were studied *in vivo* (mouse model)112 and compared by means of histological analyses.

113 **2.** Materials and methods

114 2.1. Materials

Fibrous collagen from pig tendons (type I collagen) was supplied by Biom'up (St. Priest, FR) and it 115 was extracted in acidic conditions. In brief, tendons were cut into small pieces and processed with several 116 acetone baths for fat removal. Subsequently, the tendons were processed with several baths in hydrochloric 117 acid (HCl) in order to solubilize the collagen fibers. After, a viral inactivation was performed in 1 M NaOH 118 as per World Health Organization requirements. Then, collagen fibers were precipitated in NaCl saline 119 solution and air dried. GMP chitosans were bought, from Heppe Medical Gmbh as Heppe 80/100 (Ch80) 120 and Heppe 95/100 (Ch95), produced from snow crabs (Chinoecetes opilio). Cy5.5-NHS ester (M_W 1376 121 g/mol, $\lambda_{exc}/\lambda_{em}$ 675/694 nm) and Cy7-NHS ester (M_W 818 g/mol, $\lambda_{exc}/\lambda_{em}$ 747/776 nm) were purchased from 122 GE Healthcare and separately dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide to obtain 1 mg/mL stock solutions. 123

124 2.2. Methods

125 2.2.1. Chitosan processing and characterization

126 **2.2.1.1.** Filtration of chitosan

127 Chitosans samples, Ch80 and Ch95 were dissolved at 0.5% (w/v) in a stoichiometric amount of aqueous 128 acetic acid (AcOH) and the resulting solutions were successively filtered on membranes (Millipore) of 129 decreasing porosity: 3, 1.2, 0.8 and 0.45 μ m. Then, the polymers were precipitated with aqueous ammonia 130 (28%) until pH 9–10. After repeated washings with deionized water (until pH \cong 6), the neutral precipitates 131 were freeze-dried. This step was performed to remove insoluble particles (impurities) from raw chitosan. 132 Chitosans were then characterized and used in our study.

133 2.2.1.2. Characterization of chitosan

- 134 The DA was determined by ¹H NMR spectroscopy (Brucker Avance III, 400 MHz) at 25 °C according to the
- Hirai *et al.* method [41]. The samples were prepared by dissolving 8 mg of chitosan in 1 mL of D_2O and 5 μ l
- of HCl (37 %). The mass average molar mass M_w and the dispersity (D) were measured by size exclusion

| 137 | chromatography (2500 and 6000 PW TSK gel columns from Tosohaas) coupled on-line with a differential |
|-----|--|
| 138 | refractometer (Wyatt Optilab T-rEx) and a multiangle laser light scattering detector (Wyatt Dawn EOS) |
| 139 | operating at $\lambda = 633$ nm. A degassed 0.2 M acetic acid/0.15 M ammonium acetate buffer with a pH 4.5 was |
| 140 | used as eluent. Chitosan acetate buffer solutions at the concentration of 1 mg/mL of chitosan were prepared |
| 141 | and analyzed. The flow rate was maintained at 0.5 mL/min. The refractive index increments (dn/dc) for the |
| 142 | two chitosans were determined according to a previous works [42]. The chitosan characterization results are |
| 143 | shown in Table 1. |

144 Table 1

| Samples | DA (%) from | d <i>n</i> /d <i>c</i> | $\mathbf{M}\mathbf{w}$ | Mn | Ð |
|---------|----------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|-----|
| | NMR | (mL/g) | (g/mol) | (g/mol) | |
| Ch80 | 16.3 ± 0.5 | 0.185 | 1.58 x 10 ⁵ | 9.62 x 10 ⁴ | 1.6 |
| Ch95 | 2.9 ± 0.5 | 0.196 | 1.42 x 10 ⁵ | 9.76 x 10 ⁴ | 1.5 |

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147 2.2.2. Synthesis and characterization of labelled chitosan and collagen

1. 0.1

Chitosan (Ch95) was dissolved in AcOH aqueous solution (0.1 M) to reach a concentration of 1 148 mg/mL. Cy5.5-NHS was then added dropwise and the reaction was left to proceed under magnetic stirring 149 for 12 h at 20°C. The glass bottle was wrapped in an aluminum foil to prevent photodegradation of the dye. 150 40 mL of NaOH 1 M were subsequently added to precipitate the labelled chitosan. Then, chitosan was split 151 into 50 mL Falcon conical tubes (Corning) and washed 3 times with NaOH 1M by centrifuging the 152 suspension and removing the supernatant. The chitosan precipitate was dialyzed against AcOH 0.1 M (pH 153 around 6-7) to remove unbound dyes by using Vivacell 100 (Sartorius Stedim Biotech, Germany) 154 centrifugal filter device with a molecular weight cut-off (MWCO) of 5 kDa and a polyethersulfone 155 membrane (centrifugation parameters: 2,000 rpm, 20°C). The absorbance of washing water was checked at 156 675 nm (Varian Cary UV-Vis spectrophotometer 50 scans run by Cary Win UV version 3.00 software) to 157 confirm that all the free dye had been removed from the sample. Then, chitosan was precipitated by addition 158 of NaOH 1 M, washed with deionized water and centrifuged (until $pH \cong 6$). Finally, the precipitated chitosan 159 was resuspended in 20 mL deionized water, frozen (12 h) and freeze-dried (48 h). 160

Collagen was dissolved in AcOH aqueous solution (0.1 M) to reach a concentration of 0.25% w/v. 161 The pH was checked and adjusted to a value around 3 by addition of HCl aqueous solution (0.1 M). Cy7-162 NHS was then added dropwise and the reaction was left to proceed under magnetic stirring for 12 h at room 163 temperature. The amount of added dye was calculated to functionalize a small amount (about 5 %) of the 164 free amines exposed by collagen (lysine, 3.5 % in mass of collagen). The collagen was protected with 165 aluminum foil to prevent photodegradation of the dye. 11 g of NaCl (final concentration 2 M) were 166 subsequently added to precipitate the labelled collagen. The aqueous suspension was then stirred for 20 min. 167 The sample was then split into 50 mL Falcon conical tubes and centrifuged. The supernatant was discarded 168 and the sample was washed in deionized water and centrifuged. The labelled collagen was then dialyzed 169 against AcOH (0.1 M) (pH around 6-7) using Vivacell 100 (Sartorius Stedim Biotech, Germany) centrifugal 170 filter device with a MWCO of 5 kDa as previously described. Here, the washing water absorbance was 171 checked at 747 nm to confirm that all the free dye had been removed from the sample. Then, the collagen 172 was precipitated again with NaCl and washed with deionized water with intermediary centrifugations (6 173 times). Finally, the precipitated collagen was resuspended in 30 mL deionized water, frozen (12 h) and 174 freeze-dried (48 h). 175

The quantification of fluorochrome attached on chitosan and collagen was performed using a Varian 176 Cary UV-Vis spectrophotometer 50 scan run by Cary Win UV version 3.00 software. First, it was verified 177 that neither unmodified chitosan nor unmodified collagen dissolved in AcOH exhibited significant 178 absorption between 600 and 800 nm. To quantify Cy5.5 in modified chitosan (Ch95), reference solutions 179 were prepared by mixing the appropriate volume of Cy5.5 mother solution (1 mg/mL in DMSO) with AcOH 180 0.1 M aqueous solution to reach cytochrome concentrations ranging from 0 to 0.067 mg/mL and free 181 chitosan in concentration similar to the analyzed sample. Absorbance was measured at 675 nm in triplicate 182 to establish a calibration curve showing absorbance vs. concentration. Cy5.5-chitosan sample was 183 characterized by dissolving 13.6 mg chitosan-Cy5.5 in 2 mL AcOH 0.1 M. It exhibited an absorbance of 184 1.38 corresponding to a Cy5.5 concentration of 8.36x10⁻³ mg/mL (see SM-Fig. 1 (A)), thus a molar ratio of 185 6142:1, Ch:Cy5.5, corresponding to the grafting of 0.016 % of amino groups of chitosan. 186

For the quantification of Cy7 covalently bound on collagen the absorbance was measured at 747 nm 187 in triplicate. Again, standard solutions were prepared by mixing the appropriate volume of Cy7 mother 188 solution (1 mg/mL in DMSO) with AcOH aqueous solution (0.1 M) to reach cytochrome concentrations 189 ranging from 0 to 0.053 mg/mL and free collagen in concentration similar to the analyzed sample. 190 Absorbance was measured at 747 nm in triplicate to establish a calibration curve showing absorbance vs. 191 concentration. 11.1 mg of collagen-Cy7 were dissolved in 2 mL of AcOH 0.1 M aqueous solution. It 192 exhibited an absorbance of 0.85 corresponding to a Cv7 concentration of 2.38x10⁻² mg/mL (see SM-Fig. 193 1(B)), thus a molar ratio of 39.14:1, Lysine:Cy7, respectively. This ratio corresponds to the grafting of 2.55 194 % of the free amino groups (lysine) of collagen. 195

196 2.2.3. Preparation of freeze-dried samples

Freeze-dried samples were prepared from the mix of aqueous acidic solutions of collagen (Coll) and 197 chitosan (Ch) using a fixed mass concentration of 1% (w/w) for both solutions. The acid used to solubilize 198 199 chitosan (pH \cong 4.5) and to adjust the pH of collagen solution (pH \cong 3) was HCl. Blend solutions were prepared with various Coll:Ch mass ratios (3:1, 2:1 and 1:1). The solutions were stirred using a conventional 200 magnetic stirrer for 3 h, at room temperature. Then, the solutions were centrifuged (to remove the bubbles). 201 6 g of solution were then poured in Teflon dishes (diameter of 5 cm), frozen (12 h) and freeze-dried (72 h). 202 Last, the freeze-dried samples were submitted to the DHT, at 120 °C for 24 h under static vacuum (dynamic 203 vacuum was performed during the 1st hour). Subsequently, the samples were neutralized by immersion in 204 PBS solution (pH = 7.3) for 1.5 h and washed with deinized water until pH \cong 6. Then the washed samples 205 were frozen (12 h) and freeze-dried again (72 h). This protocol was also used to prepare samples with 206 labelled chitosan and collagen alone. Before all biological tests 'in vitro' and 'in vivo', the samples were 207 sterilized by β -irradiation (at a dose close to 25 kGy) (IOISOS, Dagneux, France). 208

209 2.2.4. Collagen:chitosan blends characterization

210 **2.2.4.1**. Scanning electron microscopy

The microstructure of Coll:Ch, Coll and Ch freeze-dried samples was observed with a field emission gun SEM (FEI Quanta 250). The sections were observed in the low vacuum mode using an acceleration voltage of 10 kV to avoid charge effects. The surfaces were observed in the high vacuum mode using an
acceleration voltage of 2 kV.

215 **2.2.4.2**. *Swelling of samples*

The swelling was measured after immersion of the neutralized samples in phosphate-buffer saline solution (PBS, pH = 7.3). After determined incubation times, starting at 3 min, the samples were gently drained by putting them between two sheets of absorbing paper and weighted. The swelling was deduced from the masses of the sample using the following equation (1):

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$$Swelling (\%) = \frac{(m - m_0)}{m_0} \times 100$$
(1)

where *m* is the mass of the blend after immersion in PBS and m_0 is the mass of the blend before immersion. Samples of 1 cm² were studied for each system (n = 4) and the results are an average swelling (%) varying with immersion time.

224 2.2.4.3. Thermal characterization

Thermogravimetric analyses were performed using TA Instruments TGA-Q500 at a heating rate of 10 °C.min⁻¹, under inert atmosphere. We also obtained the derivative curves for all analyzed samples. The characteristic temperatures at maximum decomposition rate of the investigated samples were determined. The derivative curves were further processed by the deconvolution using Gauss functions (Origin software, OriginLab Corporation). The peaks were numbered according to increasing temperatures.

230 2.2.4.4. FT-IR spectroscopy

Infrared spectra were recorded on a Thermo Scientific Nicolet iS-10 FTIR spectrometer, equipped with a diamond ATR accessory. In all cases, IR spectra were recorded by accumulation of 200 scans using the ATR accessory, with a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹. The samples were analyzed in their original form of scaffolds, in the case of Coll:Ch blends, and pressed material, in the case of raw chitosans and collagen. For the blends, five spectra were collected at different points to evaluate the homogeneity of the samples and averages of these spectra are used for the analyses shown below.

237 **2.2.4.5.** *Mechanical properties*

The tensile properties of the freeze-dried Coll:Ch blends were investigated by using a Testing Machine 238 (SHIMADZU AgX 10kN). The specimens were cut into rectangular slabs in a size of 4×40 mm with a 239 sample effective gauge length of about 20 mm. Four specimens were tested for each group of freeze-dried 240 samples. The loading rate was set as 0.1 mm/s. Force-displacement curves were converted to normalized 241 force/nominal deformation, by dividing the applied force load by the lineic density of the sample ($\rho_L = m/L$, 242 where m is the mass of sample in g and L the total length in mm). From this nominal stress/strain curve, we 243 244 determined the apparent elastic modulus (corresponding to the slope of the initial linear portion of the stressstrain curve) and apparent stress at rupture, σ_R *i.e.* the maximum tensile stress before rupture. Nominal 245 deformation at rupture, ε_R , was defined as $\Delta L_R/L_0$, where ΔL_R is the elongation at rupture and L_0 is the initial 246 length. 247

248 **2.2.4.6.** In vitro cytotoxicity of collagen:chitosan scaffolds

According to ISO 10993-5 standard, two techniques were used to evaluate the cytotoxicity of 249 released products generated by collagen, chitosans and collagen; chitosan blends: (i) evaluating cell viability 250 (neutral red assay (NR) by the rapid uptake of a dye into the lysosomes of viable cells) [43] and (ii) 251 quantifying cell metabolic activity (tetrazolium dye MTT test) by formazan crystals generation [44]. Prior to 252 these two tests, American Type Culture Collection (ATCC) mouse fibroblastic cell lines were cultivated 253 following the provider's recommendations. Briefly, cell monolayer was grown to near confluence in flat 254 bottom microtiter plates and then were exposed to test (samples) or control articles indirectly by fluid 255 extracts during at least 24 h (n = 6). The absorbance was read with a spectrophotometer (540 nm). Three 256 independent experiments were repeated. Cell viability and metabolic activity were expressed in percentage 257 of non-treated cells representing the maximum cell viability or metabolic activity (value 100%). The 258 positive (Latex) and negative (PTFE) cytotoxicity controls had validated the reactivity of the tested cells. 259

260 2.2.5. In vivo evaluation of labelled and unlabelled collagen: chitosan scaffolds

261 **2.2.5.1.** In vivo implantation and fluorescence imaging

All animal experiments were performed in accordance with national animal care guidelines (EC directive 2010/63/UE, French decree n° 2013–118), this study was submitted to the ethical committee N°18

(Vet-Agro Sup - Ecole Nationale Vétérinaire de Lyon) and to the MESR (Ministère de l'Enseignement
Supérieur et de la Recherche) and received a favorable opinion of the ethical committee on 12/15/2015
(project N° 1556V2) and of the MESR on 01/06/2016 (project N° 201511271427576).

The in vivo evaluation of Coll, Ch and Coll:Ch scaffolds was performed using 7 weeks old 267 immunocompetent female hairless SKH1-hrhr (Crl:SKH1-hr) mice, purchased from Charles River (France) 268 and acclimated 1 week before experimentation. The use of this hairless mouse strain optimizes the 269 transdermal detection sensitivity of the fluorescence from the sample. Experiments were performed in a 270 Biosafety level 2 animal unit and laboratory (ABSL-2); and animals were housed collectively on sawdust 271 (Toplite-Select Fine, Safe) in standard filtered cages inside a controlled ventilated rack (XJ Mouse rack, 272 Allentown USA) under a 12 h day/night cycle with free access to tap water and food *ad libidum* (A04 diet, 273 Safe). During all the experimentation, mice were monitored at least once a day and all events were recorded. 274 In this study, 24 SKH1 mice were divided into 4 groups. The first group was implanted with labelled 275 Coll-Cy7, the second with labelled Ch95-Cy5.5, the third group was implanted with unlabelled Coll:Ch95 276 (1:1) and the last one was implanted with labelled Coll-Cv7:Ch95-Cv.5.5 (1:1). The unlabelled Coll:Ch95 277 was used as a reference to assess the impact of the fluorochromes bonded on the samples by histological 278 analyses. Each mouse (6 per group) was subcutaneously double implanted. All implants were cut as squares 279 with an area of 0.25 cm². They were hydrated in a 0.9 % NaCl solution during 5 min before implantation. 280 During implantation, the animals were anesthetized with a mix of 2 % isoflurane (Aerrane, Baxter, USA) in 281 oxygen and both implantation sites were prepared by application of chlorhexidine followed by a 282 subcutaneous injection of buprenorphin (BUPRECARE 0.3 mg/mL, AXIENCE) at 0.05 mg/kg. A small 283 incision of about 1 cm was performed on the left and the right side in the dorsal midline of the mice 284 followed by a subcutaneous dissection below the *panniculus carnosus* to create a pocket on each side of the 285 midline into which each implant was placed. The skin was closed by running sutures with Prolene 5/0 (at 286 least 2 sutures) and the area was disinfected by application of an antiseptic solution. Post-surgery 287 observations were performed during two days, including wound and animal behavior verifications. 288

In order to follow the degradation of the samples by transdermal fluorescence imaging, the data acquisitions were performed on samples labelled by the fluorochromes Cy7 and/or Cy5.5 using a Perkin Elmer IVIS Spectrum optical imaging system at different times post implantation, *i.e.* at D0, D02, D05, D07, D09, D13, D16, D20, D23 and D28. In standard experiments the chosen couples of wavelengths were first 675 nm (excitation) / 720 nm (emission) – specific to Cy5.5 (chitosan labelling) and then, about 3 seconds later, 745 nm (excitation) / 800 nm (emission) – specific to Cy7 (collagen labelling). During the fluorescence imaging experiments, the animals were maintained under anesthesia with a mix of isoflurane and oxygen as a carrier gas, in ventral decubitus position.

The objective of the fluorescence monitoring is to assess the degradation of collagen and chitosan during 28 days. The expected result is a decrease of the fluorescence signal linked to the degradation of the considered component. To this end, fluorescence intensity quantification was performed in a region of interest (ROI) which was delineated around the implantation site (see Figure 1), but using the same ROI size and shape for all measurements. The data were recorded using the "Living Image" software version 4.4 (IVIS Imaging Systems) yielding, after calibration, the total radiance efficiency ([photons/s/cm²/sr] / [μ W/ cm²]) thus accounting for the incident power density.

The data treatment required to subtract the fluorescence background. It was estimated thanks to the measurement performed on a region of interest (ROI) delimited in a site without fluorescent implant. An averaged background level was calculated and the background level was then subtracted to each fluorescence value. The data were normalized to the fluorescence at D00 (t = 0) following Equation 2:

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$$F_{c,n}(t) = \frac{F(t) - F_{bck}}{F(t=0) - F_{bck}}$$
(2)

where $F_{c,n}(t)$ is the background-corrected normalized fluorescence, F(t) is the raw fluorescence integrated over the ROI at time t, F_{bck} is the background fluorescence, and F(t = 0) is the raw fluorescence integrated in the ROI at day 0.

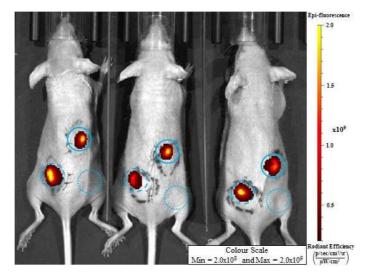


Figure 1 - Example of a fluorescence image obtained with IVIS imaging system. Full circles are ROIs delineated around the right implantation sites. Dashed circles are ROIs delineated around the left implantation sites. Dotted circles are the chosen ROIs for the estimation of the background fluorescence. Tattoos were performed to identify the implantation sites and possible implant migration.

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318 2.2.5.2. Euthanasia and sampling

Animals were euthanized after the last fluorescence acquisition on D07 and D28 by a cervical dislocation under anesthesia (mix of isoflurane and oxygen). At D07, implant sampling was performed on 12 mice and at D28 on the other 12 mice. To this end, mice were anesthetized with isoflurane (1-2%) and oxygen as a carrier gas and then placed in dorsal recumbency. Then implants were surgically removed with skin (the diameter of explanted area was a total at least of 1.5 cm²). Biopsy tissue was placed in buffered formaldehyde 4% (Q Path®-VWR-FOR0020AF59001) and further processed for histological analyses.

325 2.2.5.3. Histological analyses

326 Samples from the explanted collagen (Coll), chitosan (Ch95) and Coll:Ch95 (unlabelled and labelled

with their fluorophores) were fixed in 4% formalin, embedded in paraffin and cut into 6-µm sections stained

- 328 with hemalun-erythrosine-saffran (HES) to evaluate tissue inflammatory reaction and sample resorption.
- 329 3. Results and discussion
- **330 3.1. Microstructure and physico-chemical characterization of scaffolds**

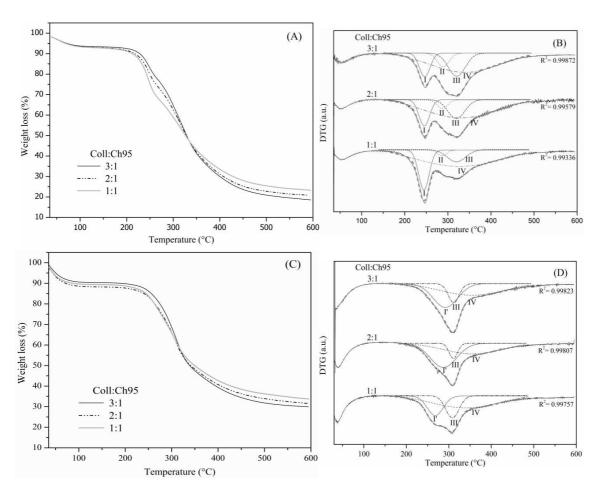
331 3.1.1. Collagen:chitosan interactions and evaluation of DHT efficacy

The weight loss occurring during thermal degradation of collagen was described to occur in three stages: the first one is assigned to the loss of water (~105 °C); the second one is related to a first thermal degradation of the polymer chains (320 °C); and the third stage is attributed to the carbonization of the residual polymer material (370 °C) (see SM-Fig. 2) [45]. Chitosans Ch80 and Ch95 present the first maximum of weight loss at 110 °C which is due to evaporation of water loosely bound to the polymer; the thermal degradation events occurring in the range 200-300 °C are attributed to further dehydration, deacetylation and depolymerization of chitosan; the subsequent weight loss, above 300 °C, corresponds to the residual decomposition reactions (see SM-Fig. 2) [46, 47].

The Coll:Ch blends were analyzed before and after the application of DHT to evaluate the 340 crosslinking effect on the thermal behavior of the samples. The thermograms and derivative curves are 341 shown in Figure 2 (A) and (B), respectively, for the Coll:Ch95 blends without treatment, at the ratios 3:1,2:1 342 and 1:1. The TGA curves result from the presence of collagen and chitosan: the degradation event at lower 343 344 temperature (~240 °C) corresponds to the degradation of chitosan and the ones located in the higher temperature range (320 -370 °C) to the degradation of collagen. The residual masses were 18.6, 20.8 and 345 23.3 %, corresponding to the ratio Coll:Ch95, 3:1, 2:1 and 1:1, respectively. The degradation processes are 346 347 complex, but the deconvolution of the derivatives curves was satisfactory with the presence of 4 peaks that can be attributed to the degradations of collagen and chitosan (Fig 2 (B)). In particular, an increase of the 348 chitosan degradation temperature (I) could be detected, in which the first weight loss shifted from 230 °C 349 (pure chitosan) to 247 °C (in Coll:Ch blend). Another degradation process (II) in Ch95 was shifted from 250 350 °C to 284 °C. The two other peaks (namely III and IV) are due to the degradation of collagen: (III) remained 351 the same in the blend and in the pure collagen at 320 °C while process (IV) decreased from 370 °C to 355 352 °C. Such changes in the degradation temperature of collagen and chitosan within the blends can be attributed 353 to interactions between the polymers. However, a real change in the polymer degradation mechanisms could 354 not be evidenced. Accordingly, it was possible to see an evolution in the peak intensities with composition 355 in the blends (see Fig. 2 (B)). 356

Figure 2 (C) and (D) show the thermograms and their derivative curves for Coll:Ch95 blends, for the ratios 3:1, 2:1, 1:1, that underwent the DHT. The residual masses increased after the DHT and varied with the composition ratio, from 29.9 to 31.6 and 33.7 %, corresponding to the Coll:Ch95 ratios, 3:1, 2:1 and 1:1, respectively. These increases in residual mass values suggest a change in the degradation mechanism after

the DHT. The deconvolutions of the derivative curves show three main degradations between 160 °C and 361 500 °C (Fig 2 (D)). The degradation profile of Coll:Ch95 blends changed probably due to the DHT that 362 induced the formation of covalent bonds (amide) between collagen and chitosan. The first degradation 363 maximum (I') may be attributed to the degradation of Ch95. A decrease of this degradation temperature was 364 observed with the increase of Ch95 content in the blends, from 292.6 to 288.8 and 268.8 °C, for Coll:Ch95 365 ratios, 3:1, 2:1 and 1:1, respectively. The second and third degradation maximums (III and IV) can be 366 correlated predominantly to the collagen degradation. These two temperatures decrease with decreasing of 367 collagen content in the blends, from 320 (III) and 370 °C (IV) to 310 and 360 °C. These results can be 368 369 attributed to the high degree of interactions between collagen and chitosan after the DHT.



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Figure 2 – TGA analysis and derivative curves of the Coll:Ch95 samples without treatment (A) and (B) and
 after the DHT (C) and (D). The derivative curves were analyzed by OriginLab software and the
 deconvolution of these curves are shown in (C) and (D).

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The TGA analysis was able to detect that the DHT induces strong interactions (covalent bonds)between collagen and chitosan. Others analysis will be described below to quantify and observe the new

behaviors of the samples after the DHT. The same thermal behavior was observed for the Coll:Ch80samples series (see supporting material, SM-Fig 3).

379 FTIR spectra of the collagen (fibrous lyophilizate), chitosans (powders) (Ch80 and Ch95 raw material) and the Coll:Ch blends are shown in Figure 3, for different ratios (3B and 3D) and preparation 380 steps (3A and 3C): uncross-linked (without treatment), cross-linked (XL, i.e. after DHT) and neutralized 381 (Neu) samples (see section 'Preparation of freeze-dried samples' above and SM-Table 1 in the Supporting 382 Material, which gives the characteristics absorption bands of collagen and chitosan). FTIR spectra of 383 chitosans (Ch80 and Ch95) present some differences in the range 1680-1480 cm⁻¹ due to different DA. In 384 this range, characteristic absorption bands related to the carbonyl group (C=O) of the secondary amide group 385 (1641 cm⁻¹) and the absorption band of the primary amino group -NH₂ (1590 cm⁻¹) can be observed. As 386 expected, the absorption band of the amino group at 1590 cm⁻¹ is more intense for Ch95 (DA \cong 3 %) than for 387 Ch80 (DA \cong 16 %) (see Figure 3A and 3C) [48, 49]. The main characteristic absorption bands of collagen 388 are present at 1653, 1538 and 1240 cm⁻¹ from amide I, II and III. The absorption band at 1653 cm⁻¹ for 389 amide I arises from C=O stretching vibrations and amide II absorption band at 1538 cm⁻¹ is generally a 390 combination of N-H bending and C-N stretching vibrations. In addition, the absorption band located at 1240 391 cm⁻¹ is attributed to amide III absorption band for C-N stretching and N-H in-plane bending from amide 392 linkages [50, 51]. Additionally, other absorption bands were observed such as the CH₂ asymmetric bending 393 at 1450 cm⁻¹ which is a useful internal reference, since its wavenumber and intensity have been reported to 394 be invariant with denaturation and harsh dehydration [52, 53]. Accordingly, in spite of the different 395 processing conditions screened in this study, no significant change in the intensity or shift for this absorption 396 band was observed. 397

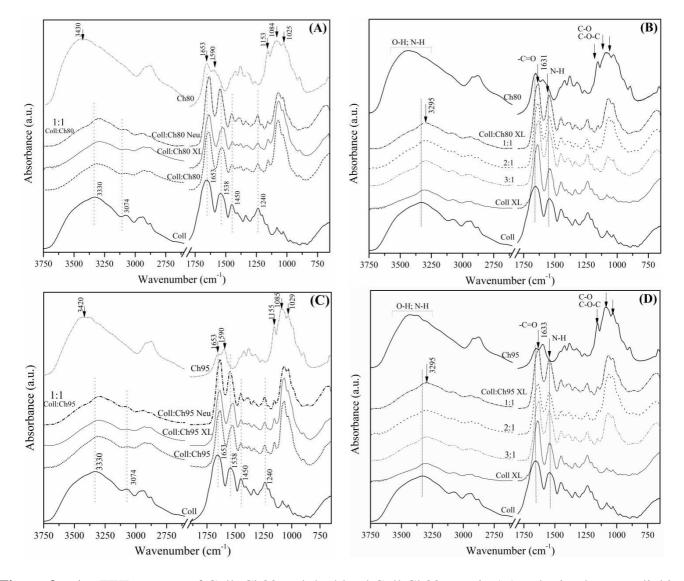
In the Coll:Ch blends (Ch80 or Ch95), the spectra are characterized by the presence of the absorption bands of the pure components, with intensities approximately proportional to the mass fraction of each component, as can be observed in Figure 3B and 3D. It is possible to identify the presence of collagen due to the strong absorptions bands at 1653 and 1538 cm⁻¹, while the absorption bands that are specific to chitosan are located at 1085 and 1029 cm⁻¹. Despite the characteristic identification of collagen and chitosan in the spectra of the blends, the detailed interpretation of the obtained results is difficult because of the complexity

of their chemical structures and the overlapping of their characteristic absorption bands. The spectra of 404 blends are not a simple superposition of the spectra of the separated components due to the presence of 405 interactions between the two polymers by the formation inter and intra-macromolecular hydrogen bonds 406 (before the DHT) and also the formation of covalent bonds resulting from crosslinking (after the DHT). In 407 Figure 3, the absorptions bands centered at 3330 (O-H and N-H stretching) and at 1653 cm⁻¹ (amide I, C=O 408 stretching) shift to 3295 and 1638 cm⁻¹, this shift can be considered as a spectroscopic signature of collagen-409 chitosan interactions. The shifts of the absorption band at 1538 cm⁻¹, corresponding to amide II, N-H 410 bending and C-N stretching vibrations, are as significant as for amide I. The shifts in the absorption bands 411 listed above occurred for both blends, Coll:Ch80 and Coll:Ch95, and their shifts values are similar for the 412 different Coll:Ch ratios. 413

In addition to the shifts in the absorption bands, the evolution of their intensities can be observed. In 414 the range 3500-3200 cm⁻¹, the decrease of the intensity of the absorption bands between the separated 415 components and the blends could be due to a lower content of free H₂O, as well as, amino and hydroxyl 416 groups due to crosslinking. The absorption band at 1538 cm⁻¹ (amide II) is expected to be proportional to the 417 amount of -NH₂ in collagen. In the blend, it is proportional to the amino groups of both collagen and 418 chitosan. The DHT induces the formation of amide linkages and consequently induces a decrease in the 419 intensity of absorption band of amide II. In order to characterize amide group formation, we investigated the 420 relative intensity ratio ($r = I_{1538}/I_{1450}$) of the absorption bands at 1538 and 1450 cm⁻¹ (invariant) [29, 54]. 421 Since we did not find evidence of ester bond formation (from the absence of absorption bands above 1690 422 cm⁻¹), it can be concluded that the DHT induced only the formation of amide bonds. Table 2 displays the 423 evolution of values of r. The extent of crosslinking was calculated from the relative decrease of this ratio 424 (the sample without treatment was assumed as 0 % of crosslinking). The extent of crosslinking was between 425 6 and 9 % in the Coll:Ch blends after the DHT. The freeze-dried collagen sample presented the percentage 426 of 16.55 %. Such crosslinking helps to improve the mechanical properties of the blends and limits the 427 swelling of the scaffolds in the freeze-dried form. 428

The ratio between the relative intensity of collagen amide III absorption band, at 1240 cm⁻¹, and the intensity of the absorption band at 1450 cm⁻¹, $r' = I_{1240}/I_{1450}$, has been used to indicate if the triple-helical structure of collagen was preserved after the sample preparation [50, 55]. Plepis *et al.* described that a relative intensity of these absorptions bands close to 1.0 is indicative of a preserved collagen triple-helix structure. Such ratio was used for the characterization of gelatin, exhibiting a ratio of 0.59 in the same processing conditions [50]. The values of r' are shown in Table 2. They indicate that the collagen triple helix structure was maintained ($r'\sim$ 1.0) after the blend formation and the sample treatments (DHT and neutralization).

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Figure 3 – A - FTIR spectra of Coll, Ch80 and the blend Coll:Ch80 at ratio 1:1 submitted to crosslinking DHT (XL) and neutralization (Neu) processes; B - FTIR spectra of Coll, Coll XL, Ch80 and the blend
Coll:Ch80 XL at the ratios 1:1, 2:1 and 3:1; C - FTIR spectra of Coll, Ch95 and the blend Col:Ch95 at ratio
1:1 crosslinking - DHT (XL) and neutralization (Neu) processes; D - FTIR spectra of Coll, Coll XL, Ch95 and the blend Coll:Ch95 XL at the ratios 1:1, 2:1 and 3:1. (See detailed table with absorption bands of Coll and Ch at the SM-Table 1).

445

446

447 Table 2

Estimation of the extent of crosslinking by the ratio $I_{1538}/I_{1455}(r)$ and verification of the preservation of collagen triple helix structure by the ratio $I_{1240}/I_{1450}(r')$ in collagen and Coll:Ch samples:

| | Ratio between the intensities of the absorptions band at 1538 and 1450 cm ⁻¹ and estimation of the crosslinking efficiency | | | | | Ratio between the intensities of the absorptions band at 1240 and 1450 cm ⁻¹ | | |
|---------------|--|-------------------|---------------------------|------|---------------------------|---|-----------------|------|
| Samples | r | | crosslinking ^x | r | crosslinking ^x | <i>r</i> ' | | |
| | Without treat. | After DHT (XL) | (%) in XL samples | Neu | (%) in Neu samples | Without treat. | After DHT XL | Neu |
| Coll(fiber) | 1.27 | - | - | - | - | 0.89 | - | - |
| Coll * | 1.45 | 1.21 | 16.55 | 1.22 | 15.86 | 1.00 | 1.01 | 0.98 |
| Coll:Ch80 3:1 | 1.30 | 1.19 | 8.46 | 1.24 | 4.94 | 1.01 | 0.99 | 0.99 |
| Coll:Ch80 2:1 | 1.25 | 1.17 | 6.40 | 1.19 | 4.95 | 1.01 | 1.00 | 0.98 |
| Coll:Ch80 1:1 | 1.23 | 1.16 | 6.66 | 1.17 | 5.03 | 1.00 | 0.99 | 0.98 |
| Coll:Ch95 3:1 | 1.25 | 1.16 | 7.20 | 1.15 | 7.38 | 1.00 | 0.99 | 0.99 |
| Coll:Ch95 2:1 | 1.27 | 1.20 | 5.51 | 1.17 | 8.19 | 0.98 | 0.98 | 0.98 |
| Coll:Ch95 1:1 | 1.30 | 1.20 | 7.69 | 1.17 | 11.21 | 0.98 | 0.97 | 0.97 |

450 *Coll – collagen freeze-dried sample

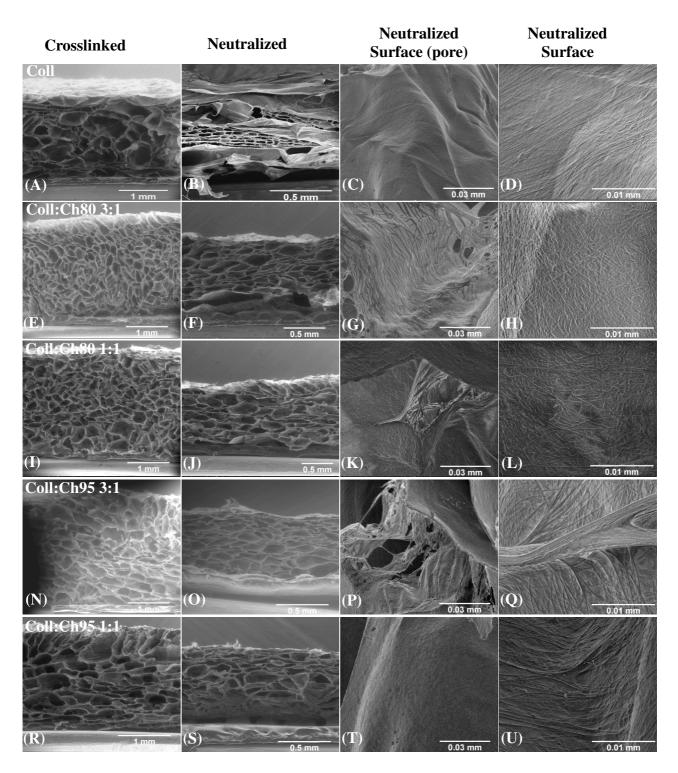
451 ^xextent of crosslinking = $(r|_{\text{whithout DHT}} - r|_{\text{after DHT}})/r|_{\text{whithout DHT}}$

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453 **3.1.2. Morphology of freeze-dried scaffolds**

The microstructure of porous freeze-dried scaffolds potentially has a direct influence on cell 454 migration, attachment, proliferation and function [4, 56]. The cross-sections of the freeze-dried samples are 455 shown in Figure 4. They reveal the classical interconnected porous structure of samples obtained after the 456 freeze-drying process, resulting from the formation of ice crystals constraining the polymer in 457 intercrystalline spaces to form pore walls. The collagen/chitosan blends resulted in a more homogeneous 458 porous structure with a narrower size distribution of the pores in comparison with the freeze-dried pure 459 collagen sample. The pore size was estimated in the direction perpendicular to the plane of the membranes. 460 In the collagen samples, the distribution of pore size is bimodal, with average sizes close to 300 µm and 75 461 μm. In the Coll:Ch blends, the average pore sizes are ranging between 115 and 200 μm, as reported in Table 462 3. The neutralization process (i.e. swelling in PBS during 1.5 h, washing and freeze-drying) caused an 463 overall decrease in the thickness as can be observed in Figure 4 and Table 3. The initial sample thicknesses 464 were ranging between 2.0 and 2.5 mm; after the neutralization process, this value was reduced three-fold 465 (see Table 3). The pore sizes (in the direction perpendicular to the membrane plane) also decreased after the 466 neutralization process and the variation of the aspect ratio of the pores is directly linked to the thickness 467 evolution ratio (see Table 3 and Figure 4). In spite of the thickness decrease and the evolution of the pore 468 aspect ratio, a significant porous structure was maintained at supra-cellular scale, suggesting the suitability 469 of this biomaterial structure for biomedical applications, such as: suturable material for wound healing, 470

exudates absorption, hemostasis, adherence prevention, matrices for cell colonization and proliferation and
tissue reconstruction. The SEM images of external surfaces display a fibrous material morphology, with
collagen fibrils oriented in the plane of the membrane (see Figure 4 –C, K, P, T). This fibrous morphology is
also apparent in the pore walls, especially at high collagen content.



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Figure 4 – SEM images of the samples after the DHT (crosslinked) and neutralization process: Coll (A, B,
C, and D), Coll:Ch80 3:1 (E, F, G and H), Coll:Ch80 1:1 (I, J, K and L), Coll:Ch95 3:1 (N, O, P and Q) and
Coll:Ch95 1:1 (R, S, T and U).

479

480 Table 3

481 Thickness and pore size of samples after the DHT and neutralization process:

| Samples | Thickness (mm) | Thickness ratio (XL/Neu) | Pore size (µm) | Pore size ratio (XL/Neu) | |
|-------------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|--|
| Coll XL | 2.04 ± 0.04 | 2.75 | 300.34±89.02/75.00±20.51* | 2.22* | |
| Coll Neu | 0.74 ± 0.06 | 2.15 | 33.75±7.51* | 2.22 | |
| Coll:Ch80 3:1 XL | 2.33±0.07 | 2.61 | 207.02±55.40 | 2.51 | |
| Coll:Ch80 3:1 Neu | 0.89 ± 0.02 | 2.61 | 82.41±27.43 | 2.51 | |
| Coll:Ch80 2:1 XL | 2.94±0.07 | 3.19 | 149.88±50.61 | 1.29 | |
| Coll:Ch80 2:1 Neu | 0.92 ± 0.22 | 5.19 | 116.60 ± 40.00 | 1.29 | |
| Coll:Ch80 1:1 XL | 2.52±0.02 | 2.49 | 154.94±41.42 | 1.14 | |
| Coll:Ch80 1:1 Neu | 1.01±0.10 | 2.49 | 135.71±42.14 | 1.14 | |
| Coll:Ch95 3:1 XL | 2.75±0.13 | 4.75 | 169.42±56.86 | 2.47 | |
| Coll:Ch95 3:1 Neu | 0.58 ± 0.02 | 4.75 | 68.70±15.59 | 2.47 | |
| Coll:Ch95 2:1 XL | 1.86±0.10 | 2.86 | 121.55±34.91 | 1.284 | |
| Coll:Ch95 2:1 Neu | 0.65 ± 0.07 | 2.80 | 94.69±36.78 | 1.204 | |
| Coll:Ch95 1:1 XL | 1:Ch95 1:1 XL 1.91±0.05 2.98 | | 190.82±71.38 | 2.82 | |
| Coll:Ch95 1:1 Neu | 0.64±0.03 | 2.90 | 67.58±30.36 | 2.02 | |

*Bimodal pore distribution in Coll XL sample. In Coll Neu samples only the small pores were studied, the larger pores collapsed
see Figure 3B. The relative evolution of the pore size was calculated using the size evolution of the small pores, perpendicular to
the plane of the membrane.

486 **3.1.3.** Swelling of samples after the crosslinking process

Rehydration of freeze-dried collagen scaffolds are often required intraoperatively to soften the 487 material, prevent tissue dehydration by material contact and to favor cellular integration. Before the DHT, 488 the Coll:Ch blend samples were not stable in the rehydration solution, thus crosslinking was required. After 489 DHT (120 °C for 24 h under static vacuum), the samples became stable in aqueous medium and could be 490 neutralized. Finally, freeze-dried scaffolds were then submitted to the PBS uptake test, consisting in PBS 491 immersion for at least 3 days, the results are shown in Figure 5. The scaffolds reached the maximum of PBS 492 absorption after approximately 2-3 h of immersion; 75 % of the total mass uptake occurred after 3 min, 493 which is compatible with surgical practice. The plateau uptake increased with the collagen content. 494 Nevertheless, Coll sample exhibited an uptake similar to the one of the blends, and the behavior of blends 495 could not be fully explained invoking a higher hydrophilicity of collagen vs chitosan. In both Coll:Ch80 and 496 Coll:Ch95 systems, the rate of absorption after 3 min was higher for the samples with higher porous faction 497 (*i.e.*, higher apparent thickness). Thus, as the pore size increased, the PBS solution was absorbed faster. As 498 result, Coll:Ch blends showed a PBS uptake closely related to their porous structure and also their extent of 499 crosslinking. For example, Coll:Ch95 1:1 sample, which presents relatively closed structure and a higher 500 501 extent of crosslinking, absorbed significantly less PBS than the other systems. The results for blends processed with Ch80 showed similar uptake levels, in relation with the extents of crosslinking that were very close. Ch95 being more hydrophobic than Ch80 in the neutralized state [15], the different hydrophilicity of the two studied chitosans had a secondary influence on the PBS uptake results: 1:1 blends richer in chitosan exhibited a more hydrophobic character with Coll:Ch95 1:1 absorbing less PBS than Coll:Ch80 1:1.

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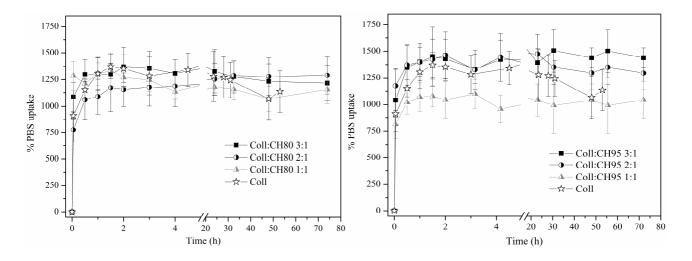




Figure 5 – PBS uptake (% w/w) of samples submitted to crosslinking (DHT) and neutralization processes.

510 **3.1.4. Investigation of the mechanical properties**

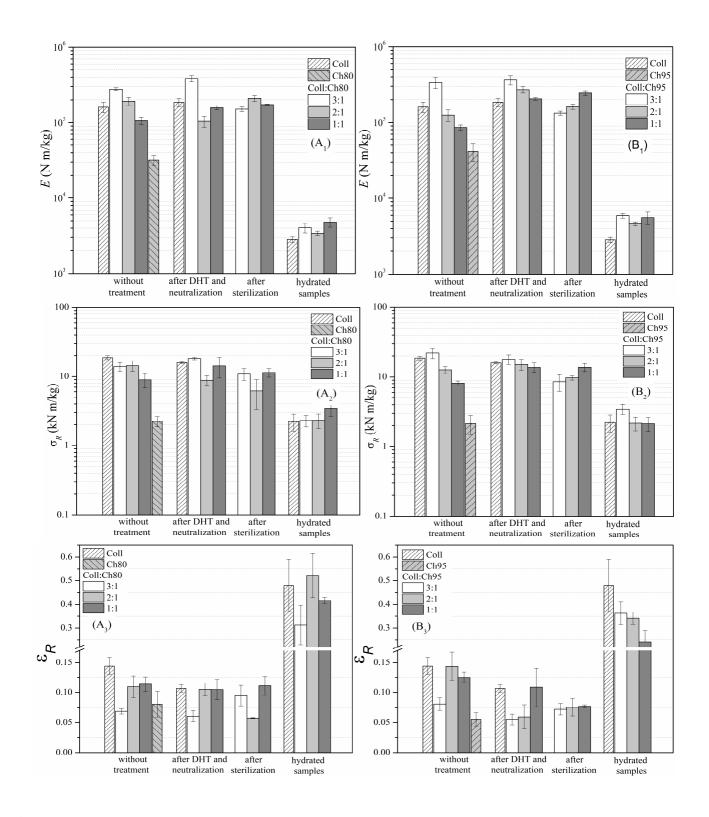
The application as scaffolds requires mechanical properties according to specific tissue and implantation site, as well as to specific surgical procedures. The effect of the fabrication process on the mechanical properties of the Coll, Ch and Coll:Ch blends (n = 4) was analyzed at different steps of their processing. Thus, the impact of the sterilization by β -irradiation was also analyzed. We finally investigated the effect of hydration, simulating the real conditions of implantation. Again, in this analysis, pure chitosan hydrochloride freeze-dried samples could not be investigated after neutralization since they are soluble in PBS solution.

The typical stress-strain curve of a selected sample is shown in the supporting material (see SM-Fig. 4). The mechanical behavior (Young's modulus *E*, apparent stress at break σ_R and nominal deformation at break ε_R) of collagen, chitosans (Ch80 and Ch95) and Coll:Ch blends are shown in Figure 6. Figure 6 (A₁) and (B₁) display Young's moduli of samples at different steps of their fabrication process. The impact of composition is clearly evidenced in freeze-dried samples, chitosan acting as a binder for collagen fibrils (both before and after DHT). However, the values of the modulus of Coll:Ch blends, *Ec*, stay above the
Voigt law (upper bound for the prediction of elastic modulus of two-phase composites), as written in
Equation 3:

$$Ec \ge \varphi_{Coll} * E_{Coll} + (1 - \varphi_{Coll}) * E_{Ch}$$
 Eq. 3

where φ_{Coll} is the collagen volume fraction, E_{Coll} and E_{Ch} the individual modulus of collagen and chitosan 527 respectively. This result suggests a synergetic effect originating from the coupling of two components. In 528 addition to form a matrix around collagen fibrils, both Ch80 and Ch95 could play a role in an interfibrillar 529 bonding, thus contributing to a more efficient collagen fibril network. B-irradiation sterilization did not 530 drastically decrease the Young's modulus of blended samples, as shown in Figure $6A_1$ and $6B_1$. As 531 expected, a strong reduction of the Young's moduli was observed after the rehydration process (3 min in 532 PBS). Water acts as a plasticizer for both collagen and chitosan, although the presence of chitosan limited 533 the decrease of the elastic modulus. 534

The evolution with processing and composition of the apparent stress at rupture (σ_R) is shown in 535 Figure 6A₂ and 6B₂. Coll:Ch80 and Coll:Ch95 blends present similar values of σ_R . Pure chitosan samples 536 are the most fragile, and pure collagen exhibits the highest strengths. Here again, the performance of the 537 blends are close or even higher than the prediction of the Voigt model (*i.e.* parallel mechanical coupling for 538 the prediction of rupture stress of a two phase composite). This is indicative of chitosan/collagen 539 interactions, in particular for the crosslinked systems after DHT. The nominal deformation at rupture (ϵ_R) of 540 freeze-dried, crosslinked and sterilized collagen, chitosans and blend samples (Coll:Ch80 and Coll:Ch95) 541 were similar, as can be observed in Figure 6A₃ and 6B₃. After hydration, collagen and Coll:Ch blends kept 542 high $\varepsilon_{\rm R}$ values, as a result of water plasticization. As a general trend, this mechanical analysis validated the 543 processing of the blends, including the sterilization step. The mechanical properties of the blends are 544 favorably impacted by collagen-chitosan interactions, although part of the synergistic properties (e.g. 545 observed for Coll:Ch 3:1 blends) are lost after sterilization, possibly due to a degradation of both 546 547 components and/or their interaction state.



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Figure 6 - Mechanical analysis by tensile tests of pure and blended samples, before and after being submitted to different treatments. *E* is the Young's modulus and is shown in A₁ and B₁, σ_R is the apparent stress at rupture and is shown in A₂ and B₂ and ε_R is the nominal deformation at rupture and is shown in A₃ and B₃.

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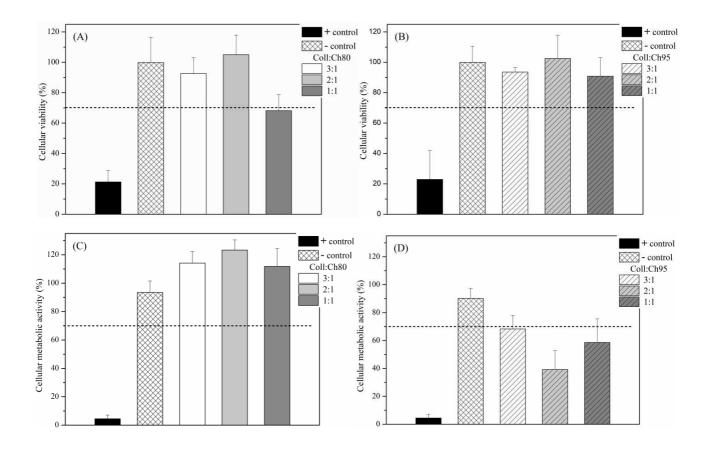
554 In the first section of this work, the evaluation of the properties of self-crosslinked collagen-chitosan 555 blends validated the preparation process of rehydratable freeze-dried scaffolds exhibiting sufficient mechanical properties in the hydrated state for intraoperative handling and suturing. In fact, Coll:Ch composition ratio had a modest impact on the final mechanical properties. In the second section, we studied and compared the biological properties (*in vitro* and *in vivo*) of the blends and integrated this comparative evaluation in the choice of the best collagen/chitosan association for the design of a resorbable implant. These biomaterial evaluations consisted in the cytotoxicity determination, the resorption kinetics and histological analyses for the local scale resorption process, cellular infiltration and inflammatory response.

562 **3.2.** *In vitro* cytotoxicity

Figure 7 displays cellular viability (7A and 7B) and cellular metabolic activity (7C and 7D) of the 563 final Coll:Ch blends. Regarding the ISO 10993-5 standard, the threshold below which a biomaterial is 564 cytotoxic is 70% (dashed line in Figure 7). The positive and negative controls showed that the assays were 565 validated. For Coll:Ch80 samples, the cell survival was above 70% for the ratios 3:1 and 2:1, but not for the 566 ratio 1:1. On the other hand, the metabolic activity was higher than 70% for all Coll:Ch80 ratios, showing 567 that the cells survived with Coll:Ch80 at the ratio 1:1 and that the extracted vehicles were healthy, as shown 568 in the Figure 7C. For Coll:Ch95, the survival rate was above 70% for all Coll:Ch95 ratios, as shown in the 569 Figure 7 B. However, the metabolic activity of the surviving cells was lower than 70 % (see Figure 7D). We 570 conclude that the cytotoxicity profile of Coll:Ch80 materials was more favorable and the cytotoxicity results 571 of Coll:Ch95 samples were contradictory. Thus, only the metabolic activity seemed to be impacted by the 572 DA of chitosan. The Coll:Ch ratio did not significantly change the cytotoxicity nor the metabolic activity. 573

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575



576

Figure 7 - Extract cytotoxicity of Coll:Ch scaffolds. Cellular viability was assessed by Neutral Red test
(NR) (7A and 7B) and cellular metabolic activity assessed by MTT test (7C and 7D) to evaluate the survival
and metabolic activity of fibroblast mouse's cell lines, respectively.

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581 **3.3.** *In vivo* evaluation of resorption of collagen:chitosan scaffolds

582 **3.3.1.** Fluorescence imaging and preliminary quantification of scaffold degradation by fluorescence

Before implantation, sample fluorescence was evaluated in vitro to verify that the signal would be 583 sufficient to allow an in vivo follow-up. The preliminary results can be observed in SM-Fig 5. The 584 585 fluorescence signals emitted by all the implants (for labelled collagen and chitosan) were much higher than the background level $(3.9 \times 10^8 \text{ [p/s]/[}\mu\text{W/cm}^2\text{]})$. The fluorescence emitted by the Coll-Cy7 sample was, on 586 average, of $4.2 \times 10^9 \pm 2.8 \times 10^8 \text{ [p/s]/[}\mu\text{W/cm^2]}$. In the blend Coll-Cy7:Ch95-Cy5.5, at the ratio 1:1, the 587 fluorescence signal corresponding to Coll-Cy7 was twice lower than the Coll-Cy7 alone showing a 588 fluorescence value of $2.4 \times 10^9 \pm 1.5 \times 10^9 \text{ [p/s]/[}\mu\text{W/cm^2]}$. The fluorescence signal emitted by the Ch95-Cy5.5 589 was $2.3 \times 10^{10} \pm 2.5 \times 10^{9} \text{ [p/s]/[}\mu\text{W/cm^2]}$. Moreover, fluorescence signal from Ch95-Cy5.5 in the blend Coll-590 Cy7:Ch95-Cy5.5 (1:1) was 20 times lower than the signal emitted by Ch95-Cy5.5 alone $(1.1 \times 10^9 \pm 9.5 \times 10^8)$ 591

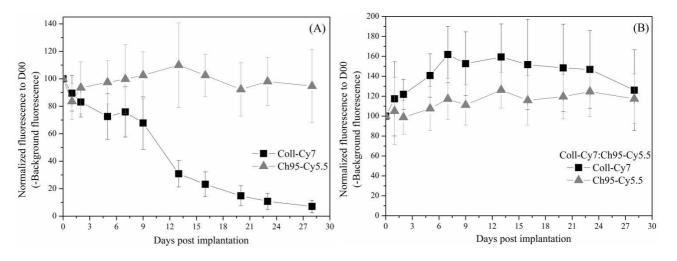
592 $[p/s]/[\mu W/cm^2]$. These results show that, for the blend Coll-Cy7:Ch95-Cy5.5 (1:1), there is a significant 593 absorption effect of the fluorescence emitted by both fluorochromes.

594 Since significant variations were observed between samples of the same groups, and between 595 samples of different groups, a normalization of the fluorescence level was necessary to obtain reliable *in* 596 *vivo* results, also reducing the potential impact of the initial implant size and fluorescence heterogeneities. 597 For all samples, the fluorescence signals at each time point were normalized by the signal obtained initially 598 on the first day of implantation (see Equation (2)).

599 **3.3.2.** Assessment of resorption kinetics *in vivo*

The samples were implanted in mice. Figure 8A displays the evolution of fluorescence in the 600 samples composed only by labelled collagen or labelled chitosan; it compares collagen modified by 601 fluorochrome Cy7 (fluorescence imaging at $\lambda_{exc}/\lambda_{emi}$ 745/800 nm) and chitosan (Ch95) modified by the 602 fluorochrome Cy5.5 (fluorescence imaging at $\lambda_{exc}/\lambda_{emi}$ 675/720 nm). Fluorescence monitoring under the skin 603 was performed at different time points from D00 to D28. For the Coll-Cy7 sample, a decrease of the mean 604 fluorescence signal was observed from D00 until D28. Seven days after the implantation, the fluorescence 605 decrease was of about 30%, indicating a fast resorption of collagen. At the end of the study (D28), 606 fluorescence was still visible with a level of about 10% of the initial fluorescence level, indicating the 607 presence of residual Coll-Cy7 in the implanted site. This fluorescence decrease was in agreement with the 608 histological analyses performed at D07 and D28 which showed a clear degradation of the collagen sample 609 (see below). In the chitosan sample (Ch95:Cy5.5), a fluorescence decrease was observed at D1, possibly 610 resulting from the degradation of the resorbable suture used to fix the samples. During all the follow-up, the 611 fluorescence level of the Ch95-Cy5.5 sample remains close to 100% suggesting that chitosan resorption 612 occurred very slowly in these conditions, in accordance with the histological observation (see below). These 613 data highlight the different behaviors between collagen and chitosan, in which a sample containing only 614 collagen presented a continuous degradation, while the samples containing only chitosan at DA ~3 % 615 remained stable after 28 days, as a result of a much slower resorption. 616

617





622

Figure 8 – Fluorescence evolution from D0 to D28 of the alone components Coll-Cy7 and Ch95-Cy5.5 (A).
Fluorescence evolution of Coll-Cy7:Ch95-Cy5.5 blend, at the ratio 1:1, showing the signal corresponding to Coll-Cy7 and Ch95-Cy5.5 (B).

623 Coll-Cy7:Ch95-Cy5.5, at the ratio 1:1, was studied using linear spectral un-mixing facility [57] of the Perkin Elmer IVIS spectrum optical imaging system. Thus, the follow-up of each component was 624 performed separately. However, the wavelengths of each component may not be completely separated, 625 resulting in a follow-up that was less sensitive than with each component alone. Fluorescence kinetics of the 626 627 Coll-Cy7:Ch95-Cy5.5 sample is showed in Figure 8 (B), in which the detection of each component was performed using its specific wavelength. Chitosan modified by the Cy5.5 fluorochrome in the Coll-628 Cy7:Ch95-Cy5.5 blend presented a similar pattern when compared with Ch95-Cy5.5 sample (Fig. 8A). 629 Indeed, only a small variation from D00 to D28 was observed at similar fluorescence levels (near 110%). 630 The variability is more important in these conditions than when Ch95-Cy5.5 was analyzed separately. The 631 collagen fluorescence kinetics in the Coll-Cy7:Ch95-Cy5.5 blend presented an increase from D00 to D06 632 (100% to 160%) followed by a decrease until the end of the study at D28. These samples were also studied 633 by histological analysis to confirm the fluorescence results. Thus, the resorption kinetics of both components 634 of the Coll:Ch blend appeared to be mainly controlled by chitosan. In the sample preparation, chitosan 635 solution embeds the fibrils and the scaffold processing would result in hiding the collagen, coated by 636 chitosan. Then, the degradation of collagen would be conditioned by an anterior degradation of chitosan. 637

As mentioned before, the concomitant Coll-Cy7 and Ch95-Cy5.5 follow-up, in the Coll-Cy7:Ch95Cy5.5 blend, showed an initial increase in the fluorescence signal between D00 and D06 (see Figure 8B).

This behavior was not expected, and at first, we supposed that it could be explained by an optical interaction 640 between the Cy7 (collagen) and the Cy5.5 (chitosan) fluorochromes, through: (i) an attenuation effect at 641 D00 which would reduce the fluorescence level and would induce a bias in the quantification of 642 fluorescence in the early stages of implantation. Then, rehydration and/or a partial resorption would reduce 643 this attenuation effect, inducing an increase of the fluorescence signal; (ii) a self-excitation between Coll-644 Cv7 and Ch95-Cv5.5. The standard procedure involved an excitation at 675 nm and emission at 720 nm of 645 Cy5.5 fluorochromes (Ch95-Cy5.5) followed shortly by an excitation at 745 nm and emission at 800 nm of 646 Cy7 fluorochromes from Coll-Cy7. In these conditions, a side excitation of Cy7 by Cy5.5 emission would 647 possibly impact the detection of the Coll-Cy7 leading to an overestimation of the collagen contribution. 648 Then to avoid this artefact, the delay between Cy7 and Cy5.5 signal acquisition should be increased and/or 649 the first fluorescence imaging should be performed on Cy7 first and then on Cy5.5. These specific 650 experiments were performed and the results are shown in supporting material (SM-Table 2 and SM-Table 651 3). The main conclusion is that the fluorescence signal from one fluorochrome does not influence the 652 emission signal from the other one. They presented almost constant emission values after the tests with the 653 three different conditions. Then, we first tested if a difference in the fluorescence emission for both 654 fluorochrome (Cv7 and Cv5.5) could be measured for samples analyzed in hydrated (5 min in saline 655 solution) and dried state. Dried samples exhibited higher fluorescence intensity values in comparison with 656 hydrated samples by 28.2 % for Cy5.5 emission and 51.4 % for Cy7 (see SM Table 2 and 3, respectively). 657 As seen before in the PBS uptake section, when samples were hydrated, their mass increased at least 8.5 658 times due to the absorption of aqueous saline solution (see Figure 5). Such water uptake induces a decrease 659 660 of the fluorescence signal. In vivo, if hydration is responsible for the evolution of fluorescence, then it can be concluded that the hydration level decreases in the implant, as a result of draining out a part of the imbibing 661 saline solution by the surrounding tissues. This effect could induce an increase of fluorescence signal, until 662 the sample reaches the equilibrium with the body fluids (at day 7 according to the Figure 9 (B)). 663 Subsequently, a small decrease of the fluorescence signal could be observed, which could be more closely 664 related to the degradation of the sample. Such effect was more apparent when analyzed by the emission of 665 fluorochrome Cy7 bonded to collagen (decrease from 160% to 130%, see Figure 8 (B)). 666

The same phenomenon was observed in the case of Ch95:Cy5.5 alone, which exhibits a fluorescence profile comparable to that of the Coll-Cy7:Ch95-Cy5.5 blend. However, the Coll-Cy7 samples were quickly degraded and only the clear decrease of fluorescence signal could be observed. The evaluation of resorption kinetics deduced here is supported by the histological analyses and the results are described below.

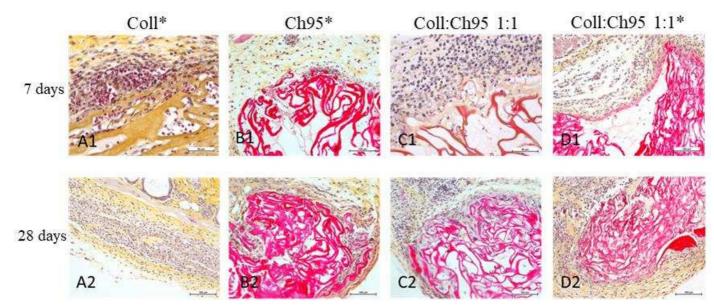
671 **3.3.3.** Histological analysis

Figure 9 shows the histological analysis of samples: Coll-Cv7, Ch95-Cv5.5, Coll:Ch95 blend 672 (unlabelled, at the ratio 1:1) and Coll-Cy7:Ch95-Cy5.5 at the ratio 1:1 at D07 and D28. In Coll-Cy7 implant, 673 a yellow staining appears clearly at D07 follow-up: it corresponds to the collagen from the biomaterial, 674 which was surrounded and infiltrated by inflammatory cells from the periphery (Fig.9 A1). This 675 inflammatory reaction is typical for Coll samples in the early stages. Figure 9 B1 shows a slight 676 inflammatory reaction in the Ch95 samples, mostly due to mononuclear cells. In these samples cell 677 infiltrations were quite limited in the biomaterial that exhibited a lamellar shape after fixation at D07 follow-678 up; this lamellar shape corresponds to the cuts of porous freeze-dried Ch95 sample described in Figure 4. 679 The unlabelled biomaterial Coll:Ch95 (ratio 1:1) induced an inflammatory reaction with mononuclear cells 680 (see Fig 9 C1) comparable with the labelled biomaterial Coll-Cy7:Ch95-Cy5.5 (ratio 1:1) (see Fig.9 D1). In 681 both cases, with unlabelled and labelled Coll:Ch95 (Fig 9 C1 and D1), the biomaterials presented a porous 682 structure partly invaded by cells at D07 follow-up. 683

At D28, the collagen sample apparently totally disappeared and the inflammatory reaction was resolved as expected in this model (see Fig.9 A2). In the Ch95 samples, a slight inflammatory reaction remained and the biomaterial was still present with its porous structure, as can be observed in Figure 9 B2. The unlabelled Coll:Ch95 (ratio 1:1) presented a low resorption and induced an inflammatory reaction comparable to that of D07 (see Fig.9 C2). Similar observations can be made for the labelled biomaterial, Coll-Cy7:Ch95-Cy5.5 (ratio 1:1) (see Fig.9 D2).

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691 *Coll modified by Cy7; *Ch95 modified by Cy5.5;

*Coll modified by Cy7 blended with Ch95 modified by Cy5.5 at the ratio 1:1.

Figure 9 – Histological sections, showing inflammatory reaction to subcutaneously implanted biomaterials
in mouse after 7 days (pictures A1 to D1) and 28 days (A2 to D2).

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The histological analysis corroborated the fluorescence imaging analysis showing that collagen samples presented a high resorption at D28 whereas Ch95 and Coll:Ch95 samples presented a small resorption at the end of the study, with a limited cell infiltration and a considerable inflammatory response. In addition, labelling the polymers with the fluorochromes induced neither a modification in the inflammatory response nor a change in the resorption of the samples. These results evidence the possibility to use small quantities of fluorochromes in implantable devices without affecting the biological properties of the material.

703 **4 - Conclusions**

Scaffolds of collagen/chitosan blends for application as biomaterials were successfully prepared by the freeze-drying of mixed aqueous solution, followed by self-crosslinking via dehydrothermal treatment (DHT). Stable in aqueous solutions, these blends were characterized by several physico-chemical and structural investigation techniques: the collagen:chitosan blends formed an open structure with pore sizes compatible with cell internalization. The mechanical properties of the dry and rehydrated scaffolds are wellsuited for handling and surgical procedures. Regarding the biological evaluation, the scaffolds have been shown to be non cytotoxic *in vitro*. Their biodegradation *in vivo* could be followed by simultaneous optical fluorescence imaging of two fluorochromes. The collagen resorption could be profoundly changed by the blend formation with chitosan. In the composition range investigated, chitosan imposed the bioresorption rate of the implanted blends (mouse model).

Since collagen and chitosan are strongly interacting in the DHT-crosslinked systems, the cellular responses can not be easily predicted, since they are not a weighted average of the contribution of each component. Nevertheless these physico-chemical and biological blend property evaluations can be used to prepare a series of biomaterials with collagen:chitosan composition that will present a tunable resorption

time, increasing the possibilities of applications.

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