



ChemTech

## International Journal of ChemTech Research

CODEN (USA): IJCRGG, ISSN: 0974-4290, ISSN(Online):2455-9555  
Vol.10 No.10, pp 400-417, 2017

# A review on biomaterial scaffolds for advanced devices, drug delivery and therapy

Deekshitha H.M., D. V. Gowda\*, N. Vishal Gupta, Rohit R. Bhosale

Department of Pharmaceutics, JSS College of Pharmacy, Sri Shivarathreeshwara Nagara, Mysore, Jagadguru Sri Shivarathreeshwara University, JSS Medical Institutions Campus, Sri Shivarathreeshwara Nagara, Mysore – 570015, Karnataka, India.

**Abstract :** Injectable matrices and depots is the subject of research in the field of drug delivery. To ease the growth of the tissue and to give structural support and release of bioactive molecules cells etc involves classical tissue engineering which consists of matrix or scaffold. Notable crossover should be seen between injectable materials as both tissue engineering and drug delivery benefits the application of injectable materials because of the less invasiveness. The processing technique employed in both drug delivery and tissue engineering is reviewed and outlined and also methods of injectable material in drug delivery employed for application of scaffolds for tissue engineering is also described. In the field of tissue engineering, collagen as biomaterial is getting reactivated presently. Cellular response are stimulated by delivery of protein and cellular growth, which is targeted by biotechnological application. The information about collagen dosage forms for drug delivery is summarized and reviewed and it is the purpose of the article.

**Keywords :** Biomaterials; Drug delivery; Devices; Injectable; Scaffolds Tissue engineering.

## 1.Introduction

Biomaterials can be obtained either from nature or synthesized in laboratory through various chemical ways with the help of metallic elements, ceramic polymers or composite materials. For a medical application, they are generally employed and hence it consists entire biomedical device which replaces a natural property. Such property probably relatively passive, which is used for a heart valve, or probably bioactive with hydroxy-apatite coated hip implants . Biomaterials can be used daily in dental use, operation, and delivery of drug. For instance, device with impregnated products of pharmaceutical could be inserted inside the body, extended release of a drug upon longer time period is allowed. Biomaterial can be an, xenograft, allograft or autograft which is employed as a transplant material<sup>1</sup>.Biomaterials should be compatible with the body, before a product is allowed to release to the market and employed in setting of clinical, frequent issues of biocompatibility must be resolved.

The behaviour of biomaterial in different conditions like both physical and chemical depends on biocompatibility. Without specifying how or where the material is to be applied the term can refer to particular function of material. For instance, in a given organism a material can show less or no immune response , and can or cannot be able to combine with specific tissue or type of cell. The uncertainty of the term shows the elevating growth of accounts into biomaterials behaviour with the body of human and slowly how the behaviour checks the success of clinical of a medical device (example, hip replacement or pacemaker ).Current devices of

medical and implants are usually made of multi material so it is not always be enough to discuss regarding the biocompatibility of a particular material<sup>2</sup>.

Non- living materials are of variety ad are used to treat wound and disease. Commonly sutures and tooth fillings are the examples. A synthetic biomaterial is employed for replacement of a living system or to functionalize in close touch with living tissue. Biomaterial to be "a pharmacologically and systemically inactive substance which is designed to implant inside or inserting with systems of living."Defined by The Clemson University Advisory Board for Biomaterials. Bone matrix or tooth enamel is a biological material which is generated by system of biologics. As the skin is the barrier to the external condition, duplicate things like hearing aid and artificial limbs are not considered as biomaterials which are in touch with the skin. The usage of biomaterials, are shown in **Table 1** which consists body parts are replaced that is lost property because of the disease or trauma, in healing, to enhance the function, and to correct abnormalities it is helpful. The biomaterials usage have helped markedly by the advancement in most areas of medicine. As instance, compared to earlier the arrival of antibiotics and infections accounts less danger, therefore chronic disease understands a higher importance. Further, advancement of surgical technique has allowed utilization of material in ways that were not allowed before. Materials in the body are performed which can be seen from various ideal assumptions. Firstly, take biomaterials which cause problem and need to be solved, as shown in **Table 1**. Secondly, take the level of tissue on body, an level of organ **Table 2**, or a level of system **Table 3**.

**Table 1: Applications of biomaterials** <sup>3</sup>.

Problem site	Example
substitution of diseased or destructive part machine	Kidney dialysis, duplicate hip joint
Helps in curing	Plates and screws of bone, Sutures
Enhance property	contact lens, pacemaker
Proper irregularity of function	spinal rod
Proper issue of cosmetic	Augmentation of chin
Help in diagnosing	Catheters and Probes
Help in treating	Drains and catheters

**Table 2: Biomaterials used in organs** <sup>4</sup>.

Organs	Examples
Bladder	Catheters
Ear	Contact lens, eye lens replacement
Lung	Oxygenator machine
Kidney	Kidney dialysis machine
Bone	Bone plate
Heart	Cardiac pacemaker ,artificial heart valve

**Table 3: Biomaterials used in the system of body** <sup>5</sup>.

Systems	Examples
Reproductive system	Mammoplasty Augmentation, replacements other cosmetics
Urinary	Kidney dialysis machine , catheters
Nervous	Cardiac pacemaker
Circulatory system	Artificial heart valves and blood vessels
Respiratory system	Oxygenator machine
Muscular	Suture
Digestive	Sutures
Endocrine	Microencapsulated pancreatic islet cells
Skeletal	Bone plate, total joint replacement

It should be evidence for the assumptions that new application of biomaterials consists functions of structure, even in the organs and systems that are not primarily liaison in nature or simple functions or electrical functions. Complexity of chemical functions like in liver and also complex electrical or electrochemical functions for example brain and sensory organs cannot be performed by biomaterial. For the purpose of fullness<sup>6</sup>.

## 2. Characters of Collagen

Collagen gives the main protein structure accounts for nearly 40% for all the protein body of vertebrate. Almost 80% protein of extracellular in bones and tendons and above 60% of collagen present in skin<sup>7</sup>. Tissue such as connective obtains important characters like mechanical strength and blood clotting factor through universal sclera collagen of protein and arrangement architecturally.<sup>8,9</sup> mostly in mammals scaffolding to cornea, the spectrum ranges for collagenous material. Therefore, in the body the different type of connective tissue is compared for definite feature of biologics of various collagen types. Collagen have peculiar configuration of triple helix which have 3 polypeptide subunits called as a chain which are in common. These collagen is made up of definite genetic molecules. Presently 13 types is separated whose length, size, and nature of non-helical parts are different. In higher order animals, mainly type 1 collagen is present mostly found in the skin, bone and tendon where the transmittance of maximum force takes place. The type 1 collagen is a three chain compound in which two are identical, called as  $\alpha 1(I)$  and another  $\alpha 2(I)$  containing various amino acids which rarely gives trimer built of 3 $\alpha 1(I)$  chains. Second type collagens are fundamentally different for cartilage of hyaline and the subunit of  $\alpha 1(II)$  is a homogenous to  $\alpha 1(I)$ . Third type (III) is seen in less quantity approximately 10% in association with first (I) type. Hence, third type can be less contaminant of first type collagen prepared by skin. Blood vessels are rich with type III collagen<sup>7</sup>. In addition, blood vessels mainly contain type III. A type of collagen I, II and III has high homologous sequence which is species independent<sup>10</sup>. In the basement of membrane, highly specialized as loose fibrillar in the form of type IV collagen. Author have referred the relevant literature of connective tissue for other interstitial collagen types which exhibit in small quantities and are related with the structure of biologics<sup>11, 12</sup>. By polymerization step, physicochemical characters are shown for considerable extent measured by the steps of polymerization. In contrast, the particular amino acid sequence of collagen and also structure and size which are basic quantities of biomaterial for medicinal products. The knowledge about structure and chemistry is required to study the characters and effects attained by potential changes. Therefore, discussion will be restricted to first type collagen.

### 2.1. Type I: Collagen

#### 2.1.1. Structure arranged sequentially

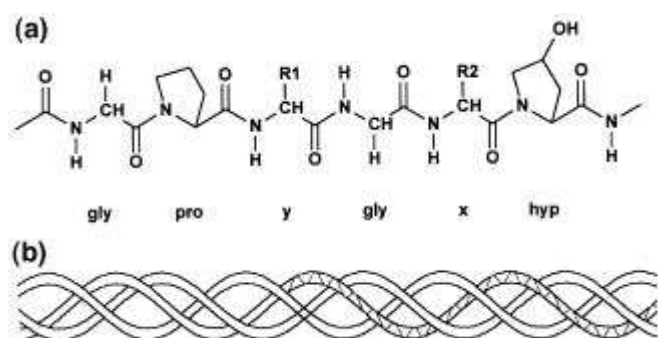
In the commercial interest of gelatin, glue and leather analytical work was carried on the chemistry of collagen. Almost 1000 amino acids were present in polypeptides chains. The **Table 4**<sup>13</sup> gives the components of the  $\alpha 1(I)$  and  $\alpha 2(I)$  chains present in the calf-skin. Minor differences are present between the collagen and different vertebral species<sup>14</sup> triple-helix creating sequence contains amino acids which are arranged peculiarly. The smallest side group of glycine repeats the sequence which cause close package by chains in the helix which gives less space in the core for residues. In **figure 1a** it is shown that non glycine positions in repeated unit Gly-X-Y are inhabited by proline of 45% of the non glycine which is present in the X-position and in the Y-position 4-hydroxyproline. From post-translational hydroxylation hydroxyproline is extracted which is carried by prolylhydroxylase<sup>15</sup>. Approximately 20% is present in the amino acid of collagen and gives routes to measure degradable collagen products which have proteins. Hydroxylysine is formed from lysine as similar to the hydroxyproline from proline. Enzymatic hydroxylation by the enzyme lysyl hydroxylase in the EPR. The attachment of sugar components is due to the formation of hydroxylysyl. Imino acids (nearly 20% of residues) triple helix gets stabilized. The chains are stiffened and form hydrogen bonds which limits the rotation because of the alicyclic nature<sup>17</sup>. with less than 1% of carbohydrate has glycoprotein in collagen type I.

**Table 4: Composition of chain and collagen distributed in body<sup>18</sup>.**

Type of collagen	Composition of chain	Distributed in tissue
I	$(\alpha 1(I))_2\alpha 2(I)$ , trimer $(\alpha 1(I))_3$	Large vessels, tendon, bone, cornea, fibrocartilage
II	$(\alpha 1(II))_3$	Vitreous, nucleus pulposus, hyaline
III	$(\alpha 1(III))_3$	Uterine wall, heart valve, gingiva
IV	$(\alpha 1(IV))_2\alpha 2(IV)$	Membranes of basement
V	$\alpha 1(V)\alpha 2(V)(3(V)$ or $(\alpha 1(V))_2\alpha 2(V)$ or $(\alpha 1(V))_3$	Cornea, membranes of placenta, bone, vessels, cartilage
VI	$\alpha 1(VI)\alpha 2(VI)\alpha 3(VI)$	membrane of descemet, skin, nucleus pulposus, muscle of heart
VII	$(\alpha 1(VII))_3$	Skin, placenta, lung, cartilage, cornea
VIII	$\alpha 1(VIII) \alpha 2(VIII)$ organization of helix chain unknown	Derived by endothelial cells, membrane of descemet
IX	$\alpha 1(IX)\alpha 2(IX)\alpha 3(IX)$	Cartilage
X	$(\alpha 1(X))_3$	Hypertrophic and mineral rich cartilage
XI	$1\alpha 2\alpha 3\alpha_1$ or $\alpha 1(XI)\alpha 2(XI)\alpha 3(XI)$	Cartilage, intervertebral disc, vitreous humour
XII	$(\alpha 1(XII))_3$	Embryo tendon of chicken, bovine ligament
XIII	unknown	Cetal skin, bone, intestinal mucosa

### 2.1.2. Advanced structures

In **Figure 1a**, Levels of order in collagen is observed and demonstrated. In **figure 1b** it is shown that chains attaches to make helices with left hand having 3.31 residues for one turn and a pitch of 0.86nm identified by X-ray determination.<sup>19,20</sup>



**Figure 1. Collagen type I showing chemical structure, (a)**

**Sequence of primary amino acid, (b) ancillary left handed helix.<sup>19,20</sup>**

High mobility in electrical field and viscosity increases due to the maximal dimensions of ratio<sup>21</sup>. The aggregation of molecules of collagen through genesis of fibrils into microfibrils which have 4 to 8 molecules of collagen traces. Depending on the type of tissue and developmental stage the fibrils will reach from 10 to 500 nano meter<sup>22</sup>.

### 2.1.3. Naturally occurring crosslinks

Inter and intra molecular cross-links are developed by addition of chemical and physical stability. Primarily, the developments of crosslinks are facilitated by oxidation of lysyl while fibril formation<sup>23</sup>. The

triple-helices systematic packages provide strength and flexibility to the collagen fibres. The activity of enzyme is restricting to the non-helical telo-peptide sections and results the change of particular hydroxylysyl and lysyl residues to the parallel aldehydes and hydroxyl allysine. The aldehydes can extemporaneously react while the association of fibrils. The condensation of two aldehydes results formation of intra-molecular between 2 a-chains in the same molecule of non-helical section<sup>23,24</sup>. Usually, the inter-molecular crosslink form between the collagen molecule of telo-peptide region and the helical region. These connections among two various molecules of tropocollagen shows the formation of aldimine (dihydroxylateddehydrolysinonorleucine (D-HLNL)) hydroxylysine and lysine represents among e-amino group aldehyde residues<sup>25</sup>. The residues of lysine, hydroxylysine, and histidine is shows cross link of inter bi-functional chains are continues to forming poly-functional crosslinks by multiple condensation<sup>26</sup>. From aldol condensation reaction, the important two residual products create with histidine and from condensation reaction of hydroxyl-lysine with dehydro-di-hydroxyls. The pathobiological processes are important to form residues of hydroxylysine and glycated lysine, and these are the groups of crosslinks it derived from the form of enzymatic crosslinks. Reiser analysed the recent status with importance on structure, collagen molecule location, pathophysiology of collagen crosslinks<sup>27</sup>. The collagens are used in medical devices; it provide following important reasons such as crosslinking and specific self-aggregation, it can form unusual stability and strength of fibers<sup>28</sup>.

## 2.2. Separating and purifying the collagen

The mammalian tissues contain collagen in all over body, this collagen normally used as starting material to formulate implants, new drug delivery systems or wound gauzes. The human placenta is a source, it provide various types of collagens such as bovine, sheep collagen and porcine<sup>29</sup>, in current study shows that source of Marine<sup>30, 31, 32</sup>, and monoclonal human collagen is prepared by using transgenic animals<sup>33</sup>. In the formulation of surgical suture, the gut alternative mucosa is utilized which gives by autologous collagen material<sup>35</sup>. Dissolution of collagen is based on the existence of covalent crosslinks among type I molecules from tissue provide the major obstacle. In organic solvents this Collagens are not soluble. Slightly soluble in water and these collagen results only a very small fraction of total collagen and the amount of dissolution is based on animal age and type of tissue extracted. In some specific tissues like young animals skin, shows sufficiently less crosslinking it easy to develop a few percent in a suitable condition. Additionally, collagen molecules are present within a fibrillar aggregates can be separated and transported into aqueous solution.

## 2.3. Solubilisation of collagen in neutral salt

The preparation of collagen solubility method currently used solvents are dil. acetic acid or neutral salt solution (2 MNaCl). Neutral salt *W. Friess / European Journal of Pharmaceutics and Biopharmaceutics 45 (1998) 113–136* 117<sup>36</sup>solutions are extracted from recently synthesized and negligibly crosslinked molecules of collagen is present in the tissue. Alignment of the collagen derived by certainly modifies are follows like shaking rate, volume of extractant to tissue ratio, and temperature changes<sup>37</sup>. The derivative product is purified by centrifugation, dialysis, and precipitation. Many of tissues have small or no salt-extractable collagen. To inhibit peptidyllysyl oxidase the animals are fed with b-aminopropionitrile for research purpose but this method not suitable for large scale commercial production.

## 2.4. Collagen soluble in acid

The comparative study of acid and neutral solvent collagen solubility method shows that, the dilute acidic solvents are more effective than neutral salt solutions. Examples of dilute acidic solvents are hydrochloric acid pH 2–3 or citrate buffer, and 0.5 M acetic acid. The intermolecular crosslinks of the aldimine type are dissociated by the dilute acids and the repulsive repelling charges on the triple-helices lead to swelling of fibrillar structures<sup>38</sup>. The keto-imine bonds are containing less labile crosslink so those dilute acid solvent will not separate. Therefore, the collagens are extracted from tissues containing greater percentages of keto-imine bonds, such as cartilage, and bone. In order to acid extract collagen, generally, tissue is ground in the cold, washed with neutral saline to remove soluble proteins and polysaccharides, and the collagen extracted with a low ionic strength, acidic solution.

The tissue collagen is solubilized with dilute acid or salt solutions nearly 2%. These collagen molecules can be reconstituted into large fibrils with similar properties as native fibrils by adjusting the pH or temperature of the solution<sup>30</sup>. The remaining 98 percentage is mentioned as insoluble collagens, these are leading collagen

material is not completely insoluble and it can be further disintegrated without major damage to the triple-helical structures. The strong alkali or enzymes are the most common methods to split dissolve at primary acid insoluble structures and separate additional crosslinks.

### 2.5. Collagentreated with enzyme and alkali

Connective tissue is treated with aqueous sodium hydroxide(10%) and sodium sulfate(10%)containing basic hydroxide and basic sulfate for 48 hours to solubilize the collagen<sup>39,40</sup>. Thus, saponification is done for collagen with fat which is insoluble. Resulting collagen is dependent on the concentration of alkali and treatment of time for the size and molecular weight of collagen<sup>40</sup>. The local triple-helical characteristics and swelling of the collagen is controlled by the alkali sulfate. Asparagine is converted to aspartic acid and glutamine to glutamic acid in the presence of isoelectric point the resulted material is placed towards the lower pH as similar to gelatin. Collagen triple-helix being resistant to enzymes like proteases like pronase O, nearly below 20°C is compared with the extraction of acid as advantage<sup>30</sup>. Solubilized molecules remains attached to some crosslinks<sup>4</sup>. Under proper conditions the helices remains intact hence the polymers chains are sectioned. The mild immune response is influenced by removing the predeterminant antigenic which is present in the helical protein sections of telocollagen<sup>42,43</sup>. Pepsin at a 1:10 weight ratio of enzyme to dry weight tissue in dilute organic acid (0.5 M acetic acid) provides an propitious medium in which collagen can be swollen and solubilized<sup>44</sup>. The solubilisation and purification of collagen is done by precipitation after adjusting pH or by adjusting the temperature<sup>45</sup>. Monomer solution contains variable proportion of collagen. To obtain true monomeric its difficult but not impossible<sup>44</sup>. Collagen which are solubilized by pepsin contains more amount of polymer than the collagen obtained from the salt or acid<sup>30</sup>. For the storage collagen is frozen or lyophilized.

### 2.6. Collagen which is insoluble

Mechanical destruction at acidic pH and usage of mild denaturation crosslinked collagen can obtained by dispersing and disintegrating as opalescent using fine fibrillary suspension. By the process of proteolysis and rinsing constituents of tissue is removed where the collagen remains unaffected to proteolysis other than the collagenous material<sup>42,45,46</sup>. In the further process chemical modification is done like addition of succinic group<sup>47</sup>, acetyl group<sup>48,49</sup>, methyl group<sup>50</sup> or connected to other polymers.

### 2.7. Uses of collagen

The speciality of the collagen as biomaterial is it stays widely that being natural entity which have less immunogenic rather than foreign matter<sup>30</sup>. Collagen are organized as many forms like sponges, powders, sheets, fleeces, parenteral which are used in medicinal practice<sup>42,51,52</sup>. More, trials have conducted to employ these kind of systems for delivery of drug in a variety of application like ophthalmic, burn dressing, treatment of tumour, and tissue engineering.

## 3. Injectable Scaffolds

The scaffolds are employed as space filling in tissue and cell and to show therapeutic delivery is described in the traditional tissue engineering. Materials used for injectable holds good for the application of tissue engineering as they give some benefits against prefabricated scaffolds for certain signs. The process of less invasive injections causes the decline in the discomfort and complications for patient which is achieved by the elimination of surgical interventions. And also the filling of uneven damage is possible because the injectable scaffolds gives the ability to attain the shape of the hollow where they are placed. Scaffolds can made to solution form and administered through injections which have the problems like adhesion to cell and delivery of bioactive molecules.

In order to consider the material for tissue engineering it should fulfil certain properties though the need of scaffold is more. Biocompatibility of the material is must. Biocompatibility applies to the material as well as which undergo leaching and also for degrading products<sup>53</sup> the solidification should occur in low conditions because it is regularly used for sensitive compounds and cells. Porosity is the other criteria to design the tissue engineering scaffold. Scaffold containing hollow space should network in order to allow the growth of tissue and nutritional diffusion and cells having waste products. The main variables such as pore size and interconnectivity<sup>54</sup>. Scaffold should also take part in the guiding to the cell for proliferation, division of tissue

and development of tissue. ECM is capable of giving proper signals due to the proper adhesion, division and development of tissues by the addition of growth factors.

#### 4. Delivery of Drug

##### 4.1. Delivery of drug based on polymer

Delivery of drug has appeared all new in past 25 years which is of materials- based. Delivery of drug is safe and effective has influence from system which are polymer- based. The oldest advances, for example, was a patch of nitroglycerin used in the treatment of angina pectoris. The patch got approval in the beginning 1980s, polymer system which is thin consisting of nitroglycerin. Drug is delivered which is kept on the skin for 24-hours. These kind of systems are employed also for the longer period of drug delivery. In 1991 in U.S had approved a norplant which is contraceptives and now nearly 50 countries use this norplant throughout the world. Norplant have a tube like structure made up of silicone rubber which is of match stick size. The drug is released out of the device for 2000 days or 5 years and it is eliminated. During 1980, CDD systems were virtually did not exist. But now over 100 million people use polymer based delivery.<sup>55</sup>

##### 4.2. Drug delivery through microchips

John Santini, started making the chip for his project purpose and then he started for his PhD thesis. Santini could develop a chip having the prototype with minute wells where drug was inserted. The chip gave the mass possible delivery. The wells had different drugs in well or same drug with different doses. The wells were closed using gold. The gold was dissolved by applying 1V of electricity with the treatment of the chloride ion. The idea behind this mechanism is the dissolution of gold was done whenever necessary by opening the specific well. Fortunately gold does not possess any toxic element. Santini created first chip whose size was of US dime. The dime sized chip had 34 wells on both the sides which is shown in the **figure 2a** where the holes are white in colour and **figure 2b** showing black holes which release the different or at different doses. Other than silicone and gold chips are made of different materials. Presently through telemetry chips are controlled remotely where the trials are conducted on animals. The chip works similar to the garage doors through remote control one of the well is opened. Santini's and his group members remotely stimulate well and release of drug from chip many times reproducibly over six months.

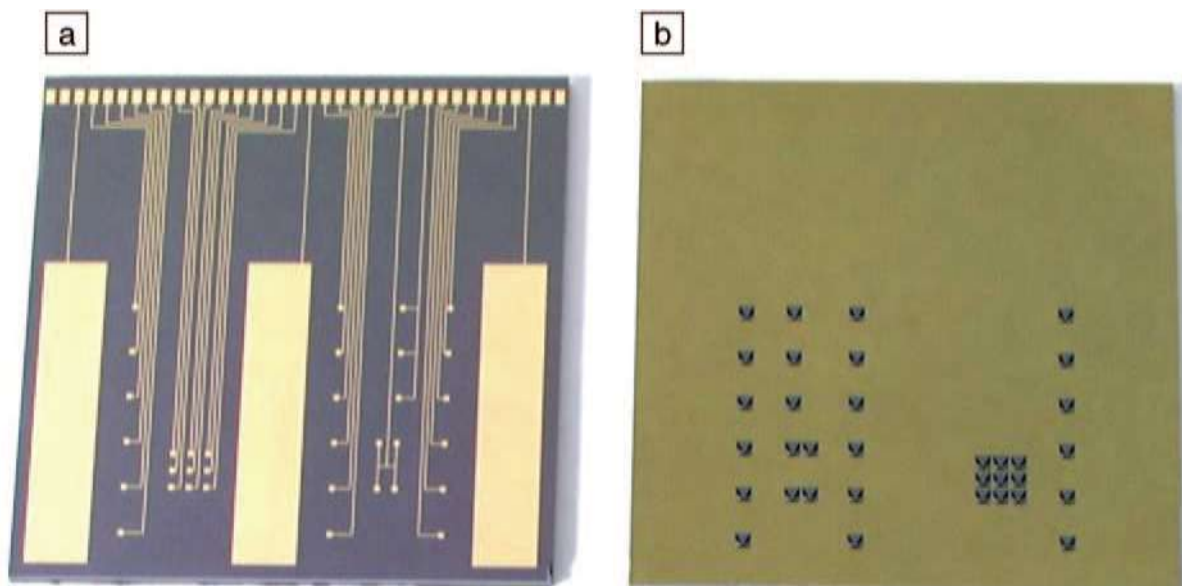
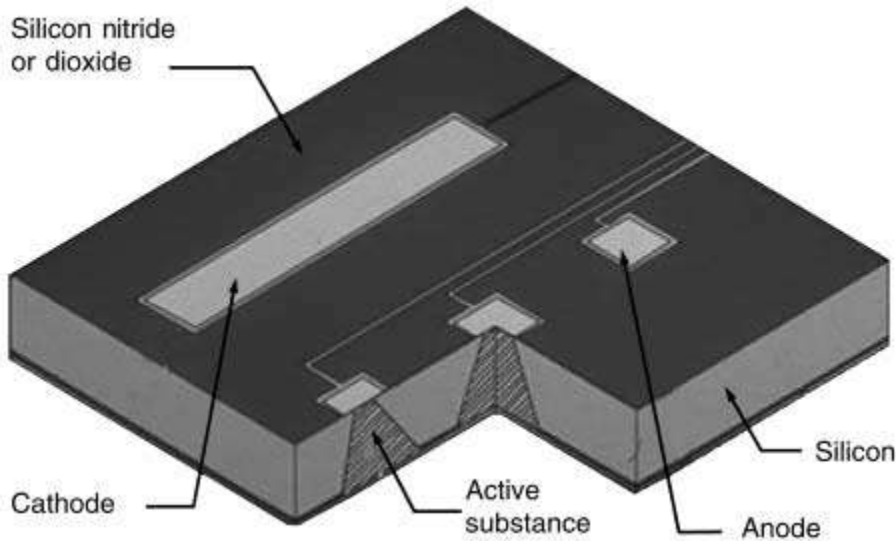


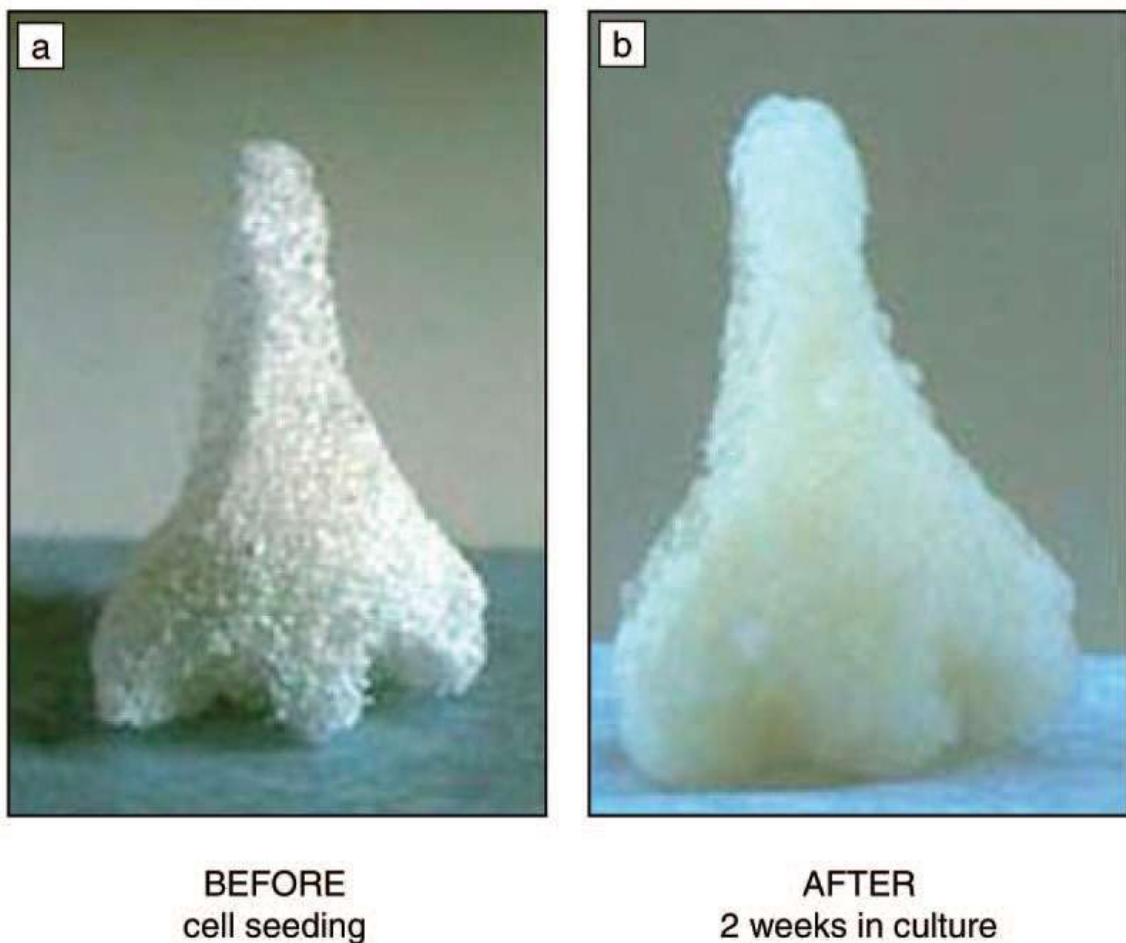
Figure 2. Top(a) and bottom(b) view of a microchip delivering drug.<sup>60</sup>



**Figure 3: Prototype of microchip delivering drug.**<sup>61</sup>

They hope, in few years it should be incorporated even in humans. Someday this device can be used as wrist watch or blackberry which is accessed by the doctor or patient modified when needed. The idea can be achievable not too distant future, the ideas which are more like biosensors and microprocessors are fixed to the chip to measure the level of glucose and give feedback to the chip in order to release the drug in the body.

### 5. Shape-Changing Devices for Non Painful Therapy



**Figure4:Tissue engineering in cartilage: for a human nose, scaffold of polymer.**<sup>62</sup>



In a surgery, it usually includes penetration of medical devices in body, which is an unkind familiarity. In previously explained example regarding the nose, the patient may think if it included the surgery to insert a new one. A progressive expanse of medicine, known as the “minimally invasive surgery”, in certain surgeries, have removed the emotional and medical trauma. Many years ago, before the improvement in such types of surgeries, removing a gall bladder was considered to be a major operation, which usually included an incision quite large, recovery period of a week in a hospital and almost three months of healing at home. In the present scenario, the gall bladder surgery by minimal invasive technique comprises of creating a small cut, insertion of medical devices, drawing out the organ, and performing the entire operation with the aid of a screen of a television. This helps the patient to get out of the hospital within 24 hours and also to work in a weeks’ time. The accomplishment of such a method, introduced a thought can the medicinal devices which are bulky, can be implanted by these small incisions.? Which kind-off sounds like fiction, but by the aid of materials, it can be brought to life. Most of the devices which are implanted in the human body, are basically made of polymers usually thin, in the form of a string, outside the body but transform into a bulky shape within the body.<sup>55-61</sup>

## 6. Common Approaches and Tissue-Specific Concerns

It was first established in the 1980s, and ever since it has gradually evolved into a exciting and multidisciplinary approach targeting to manufacture living substitutes to reinstate, switch or redevelop flawed tissue<sup>63,64</sup> some of the common tissue developing triad are growth-stimulating signals, scaffolds, cells and are considered to be the chief machineries of tissues engineering. Polymeric biomaterials are classically used to make scaffolds, which help structurally in the attachment of the cell and simultaneously in the development of the tissue. Nevertheless, investigators frequently come across a varied array of selections after selecting scaffolds intended for tissue engineering. Henceforth, in this article, it is reviewing the purposes of scaffold, the various methods in scaffolding, also specific tissue contemplations for scaffolding.

## 7. Similar Roles of Extracellular Matrix and Scaffolds

All the normal cells in the tissues of a human, Other than erythrocytes, are dependent on a support and reside in ECM. Various kinds of extracellular matrix are present in the tissues which usually have extra machineries more than two, and machineries specific to the tissues. Viewers were directed towards thorough evaluations for sorts of extracellular matrixes.<sup>64,65,66</sup> and components specific to tissues<sup>67,68,69</sup> Extracellular matrix’s roles in the tissues, is usually categorized in five classes **Table 5**. First, extracellular matrix provide physical assistance and bodily setting to the cells present in the target tissue to connect, develop, move and reply to indications. Next, extracellular matrix delivers the tissue its physical and consequently motorized possessions, like that of stiffness and pliability which is united along with that of tissue roles. Next, extracellular matrix will energetically provide cues which are bioactive, to the cells for their regulation of their actions.<sup>70, 71,72</sup>Next, extracellular matrix can be a pool of growing factors and induce its activities biologically<sup>73</sup>.Next, extracellular matrix provides a bodily surrounding which is degradable which permits remodelling and also neovascularization in reply to developing, biological and patho-logical experiments while tissue energetic methods viz. homeostasis ,wound healing, and also morphogenesis, respectively.

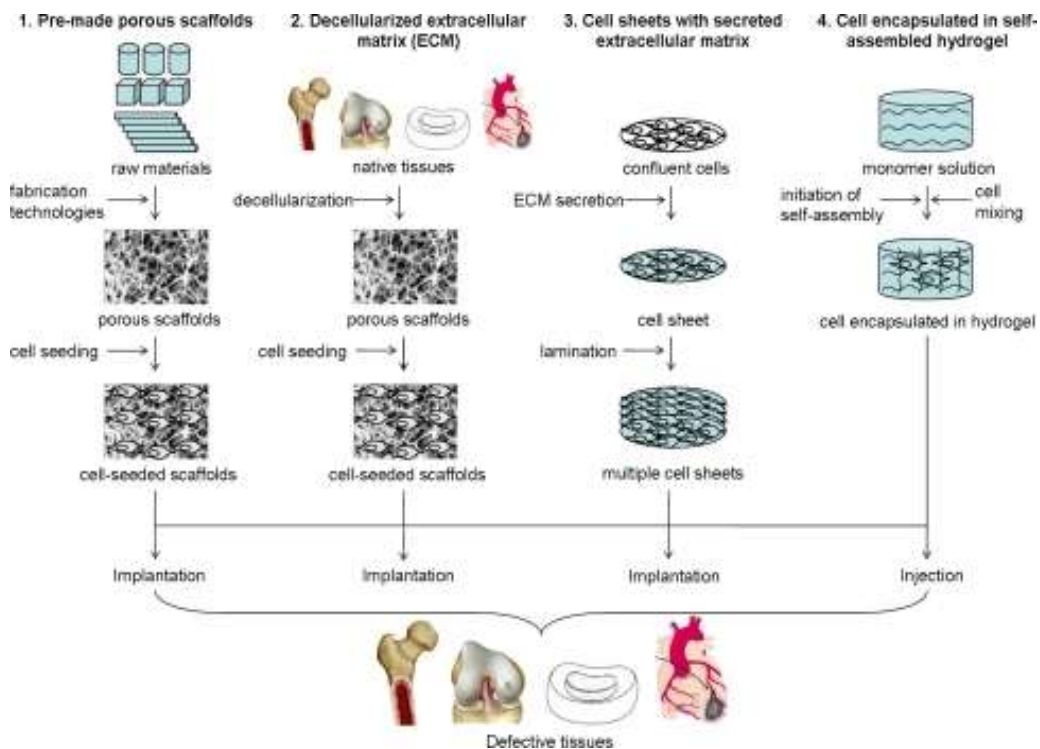
**Table 5: Scaffolds present in engineered tissues and roles of extracellular matrix in local tissues.**<sup>74</sup>

<b>Roles of extracellular matrix in local tissues</b>	<b>Similar roles of scaffolds in the engineered tissues</b>	<b>Biological features, mechanical features, and Architectural features of scaffolds</b>
It will provide support structurally to the cell to stay.	It will provide support structurally for exogenously given cells to assign, produce, transfer and distinguish in vivo and in vitro	Biological materials with sites for binding for the cells; permeable construction which is inter connected for the cell relocation and for nutrients dispersal; impermanent confrontation to biological degradation upon embedment.

It will Contribute for motorized property, of the tissue	Delivers the form and motorized constancy for the tissue flaw and give the inflexibility and toughness to the concocted tissues	Biological materials along with the satisfactory mechanical property, satisfying empty spaces of the flaws and shamming of an indigenous tissues
It will provide biologically active cues, to the cells to reply to its microsurrundings	Interrelates along with the cells dynamically to aid actions like cell growth and cell division.	Some of the biological factors like cell-adhering sites for binding; formed cues like as surface structure study
Will be the pool of factor for growth and induces their actions	It will be serving as an vehicle for delivery and as a pool for exogenously factor for growth stimulation.	Micro size forms and also various matrix factors having biologically active mediators in scaffolds.
It will provide a elastic bodily surrundings to permit makeover in reply to tissue active progressions like, wound health-giving	It will provide a hollowtome for vascular formation and fresh tissue development through remodelling	The Permeable micro size forms for the metabolite and nutrients dispersal; background scheme with manageable deprivation mechanism and proportion; biological materials along with their tarnished produces with adequate compatibility of the tissues.

### 8. Scaffolding Approaches in the Tissue Engineering

Among the many advances past 20 years, four of the chief approaches in scaffolding for engineering a tissue, has been established. **Figure 4.** Focusing on the working principle, and characteristics of the four methods, will be really informative prior debating the specific tissue concerns. **Table 6 .**



**Figure 4: Methods for scaffolding in tissue engineering<sup>74</sup>**

**Table 6: In tissue engineering features of the different scaffolding approaches** <sup>74</sup>

<b>Approach for scaffolding</b>	<b>Porous scaffolds which are made previously for cell seeding</b>	<b>Decellularized ECM for cell seeding</b>	<b>Confluent cells with ECM secretion</b>	<b>Self-assembled hydrogel having encapsulated cell</b>
Raw materials	Synthesized or naturally obtained biomaterials	Xenogenic tissues or allogenic	Cells	Biomaterials which are natural or synthesized assembled to hydrogels
Technology of processing and fabricating	Porogens are incorporated in solid materials, fabrication is solid free by using non-woven or woven fibres	Technology for decellularization	Confluent cells with ECM secretion	Self-assembly is initiated by process like pH and temperature.
Combining with cells	Seeding	Seeding	Cells present before secretion of ECM	Presence of cells before self-assembly
Transfer to host tissues	Embedding	Embedding	Embedding	Injecting
Benefits	Most expanded choices for materials; exact strategy for microstructure and construction	Most nature-simulating scaffolds in terms of structure and mechanical characters	Cell-secreted ECM is biocompatible	Injectable, is the fast and simple single step process; close cell and material connections
Drawbacks	Tedious cell seeding process; irregular spreading of cells	Irregular scattering of cells, hard to retain all ECM, immunogenicity upon partial decellularization	Essential many laminations	Soft arrangements
Favoured application	soft and hard tissues; load-bearing tissues	High ECM content in the tissues. Tissues bearing load	Tissues with great cellularity, epithelial tissues, endothelial tissues, thin layer tissues	Soft tissues

## 9. Scaffolding in the Disc of Vertebral in Tissues Engineering.

Scaffolding approach can be selected for tissue engineering by its application-specificity. Here the Intervertebral disc has been chosen as a demonstrating example. Ample of trials is been done for searching the bio-therapeutics for the disc degradation of various seriousness<sup>75, 76</sup>. The viewers were paved to magnificent reviews, on the structural and the functional relationship also the aspects of pathophysiology of IVD<sup>77, 78, 79</sup> and magnificent remarks on the potential bio-therapies which included various factor of growth, tissue and cell engineering approaches<sup>81-84</sup>. Existing approaches for scaffolding which existed for the regeneration of disc and their non-sufficiency, the idiosyncratic consideration of the intervertebral disc and directions of future scaffolding in the IVD tissue engineering will be reviewed **Table 7**.

**Table 7: The scaffolding methods that already Exist and In IVD tissue engineering, the future directions, insufficiencies**<sup>74</sup>

Degeneration of disc and their stages	The Existent methods in scaffolding	The Inefficiencies	The future directions Proposals
pre degeneration	(approach 4 <sup>th</sup> ) cells in Injecting without and with the hydrogel carriers	Low viability and engraftment	viscosity Improved and extrusion and to reduce leakage carriers are stiffened; to prevent the leakage and extrusion bio-gel or welding techniques
Mid-stage degeneration	(1 <sup>st</sup> approach ) Implanting of cell-seed on porous scaffolds (2 <sup>nd</sup> approach ) Implanting cell-seeds on decellularized ECM. (4 <sup>th</sup> approach ) Injecting cells along with hydrogel carriers to prevent the loss on matrix	Deficiency of in vivo models; implants extruded after loading	Leakage is prevented by fusing or gluing and also to enhance the properties of mechanical. without disturbing viability of cells.
Delayed degeneration	(2 <sup>nd</sup> Approach ) Allogenic entire disc for whole disc spare; Constructing boundary between numerous tissue components	Height and hydration is conserved ; degeneration of allograft for extended time; deficiency of remodelling cells	To maintain composition of matrix technology are used; for replacing stable annulus improvisation of mechanical properties of scaffolds; combined method for IVD scaffolding; engineering of stable tissue boundaries

## 10. Modification of injectable scaffolds

Keeping these prerequisites in note, one can adapt an injectable material that have been used with success, applied for the delivery of the drug to a tissue engineering scaffold.

### 10.1. Solidifying

In the tissue engineering, the injectable can be used employed as a vehicle for cell delivery. in vivo the solidification will proceed, and it will be doing so in such a way that will be useful for both of the encapsulated cells and to the surrounding tissues. In the priorly explained technique of segregation of phase or exchange of solvent, wherein a solvent which is organic, initially a polymer will be dissolved and in the body, it will precipitate because its not soluble in the physiologic fluids, mostly aqueous, seen a few criticism for the tissue engineering usage because the solvents used in the methods which are organic, do show injurious effects to

compounds which are labile and also cells<sup>85</sup>. Predominantly, solvents which are organic must be not used because of their harmful affects. Photochemically and/or thermally and/or crosslinking methods or activated polymerization is prepared for the mild and quick procedures on solidification, also, even though cyto compatibility worries live for increase amounts of the crosslinking agents and the initiators, in solutions which are aqueous, such techniques are more preferable rather than those consisting of the solvents that are organic. an additional solution for the protection of the cells, during the process of crosslinking is done by encapsulating into microcapsules, temporarily and then release<sup>86,87,88</sup>. Some polymers are environmentally sensitive and hence may be used to provide the gelation at the pH and the temperature of body physiology and it can be gained by an injection, in a suitable frame of time.

## 10.2. Porosity

In the process of solidification, in situ, porous network may be gained by employing techniques such as that of particulate leaching<sup>91</sup> and gas foaming<sup>89,90</sup>. It's been observed that atomization leads to the formation of the microspheres which are porous and which may be employed as an injectable carrier of cells<sup>92</sup>. However the porosity may be increased gradually by the breaking up of microparticles which are incorporated, which do act as porogens<sup>93,94</sup>. Such methods may cause porosity, along with the usage of the nanoparticles and microparticles as an porogen, scaffolds which are injectable may be produced wherein the particles serve like that of material in bulk. Added point of this method is that it can permit a crossover which can be direct of the delivery of the drug and it's applications which is used by using injectable particles into the histose-engineering applications. Salem.et.al.<sup>95</sup> had been using nano/microscale PLA-PEG particles which were biotinylated and it was then, for the hard connective tissue i.e. the bone, tissue engineering applications, injected them with a cell suspension. These particles which were biotinylated had been cross-linked with the help of avidin which later produced a scaffold in which the osteoblast cells were entrapped. Xia et al.<sup>96</sup> had been using nanoparticles such as PNIPAAm and PAA, to identically produce an nanoparticle gel which was bonded and which was evident on the crosslinking physically, above the temperature of gelation of particles. Launch of a model drug, i.e., dextran held in void spaces of network but weren't inside these particles and was handled by differing the particle sizes range. A scheme as such evident on a particle solution that is injectable, that gels physically at body temperature or near body temperature can also be employed to form an scaffold which is an injectable, for tissue engineering.

## 10.3. Function of biological system

Functionalization of the polymers along with that of bioactive peptide sequences or proteins to promote host implant integration, survival and cellular adhesion<sup>97</sup>. In the peptide sequence of RGD, that's existing in the matrix proteins present in the extracellular space, such as fibronectin, fibrin and vitronectin<sup>98</sup>, potentiates the adhesion of cells, and it have been thus a usual alteration of the polymers<sup>99</sup>. also some of the other sequences of the peptide<sup>100</sup> and proteins<sup>101</sup> is been also employed for such use. Also another point of an polymer, which is injectable molecules that are bioactive like that of the differentiation and growth factors shall be mix with scaffold and then been injected to body.

## 10.4. Approaches to improve mechanical properties of injectable scaffolds

There are two distinct methods to develop scaffold injectable material, with enhanced mechanical property. The former involves the enhancement of the synthetic method, for example, the chemical composition of the particle describe its mechanical strength. Such as, taking an instance of a hydrogel, the cohesive forces which are strong, among them, chiefly the polymer chains which are hydrophilic are gained, while the lipophilic centres are added<sup>102</sup>. Moreover this artificial method influences or modifies the mechanical characteristics. Cross linking of polymeric chains usually forms a stagnant network. A few of the important factors includes cross linking reactions, an ingredient that causes cross linking and also the density resulted by the cross linking<sup>103,104</sup>. Some of the Functional groups, permit to crosslink, may be incorporated to the polymer which show thermogelling property, which in turn increases its strength<sup>105-108</sup>. In the latter method, reinforcement of the polymer along with particle like polymeric microspheres<sup>89</sup>, nanotubes made of carbon<sup>109</sup>, and ceramic materials<sup>110,111</sup>.

### 10.5. Biodegradation of the polymers

In tissue engineering, biodegradation is an important factor like as in that of drug delivery systems. Until the growing tissue can handle itself, it requires scaffold for maintenance of its mechanical and structural strength for longer duration of time. By altering the structure of the chemical, the bio-degradation rate is adapted by reforming its chemical conformation.. The degradation pace is affected by the extensive cross-linking, and also because of the existence of foreign matter in matrix of the polymer like gelatin micro particles<sup>93</sup>, ceramics<sup>103</sup>, etc.

### 11. Conclusion

In the engineered tissues, scaffolds, partially resembles ECM of the indigenous tissues. Not surprisingly, its functions must resemble ECM of targeted tissue. Among the four chief approaches in scaffolding, in past many decades, such as implant a cell seeded previously prepared scaffold having pores, implant a cell seeded allograft which is decellularized, implant a cell sheet which is laminated which secrete ECM and inject cell capsulated and self-organised hydrogel. Every outlook has their own strengths and weaknesses and every approach has its preferred applications in engineering a tissue. Planning of engineering a tissue which is complex like that of IVD, the scaffolding outlooks can be referred to as guideline, also it may be employed in varying associations. Furthermore, the review of specific tissues in comparison to the injury level, the diverse tissue components, idiosyncratic relationship between structure and its functions and interface in In-vitro diagnostic device require exceptional notice. Extensive investigations toward the injectable lie around the fields such as tissue engineering and drug delivery systems. Principle for the development of injectable is similar among the fields. The drug delivery system consists of three basic principles in engineering a tissue.to permit the cross-over between the drug delivery to tissue engineering, many factors are observed. In contrast, noting down these important parts, aim to trace them, must be held forth. Since these domains of injectable, progress toward the therapeutic use, will definitely lead to massive cross-over in methodology, resulting in safe and better systems in tissue engineering as well as in drug delivery, in the treatment of diseases in humans.

### 12. References

1. Whang Kyumin , K Thomas, Golds Tick; A biodegradable polymer scaffold for delivery of osteotropic factors 21(2000) pp 2545-2551
2. R. Langer, J.P. Vacanti, Tissue engineering, Science 260 (1993) 920e926
3. Park J, Lakes RS. 2007 Biomaterials: an introduction. Second edition,pp 1Springer Science & Business Media;
4. Park J, Lakes RS. 2007 Biomaterials: an introduction. Second edition, pp 2 Springer Science & Business Media;
5. Park J, Lakes RS. 2007 Biomaterials: an introduction. Second edition, pp 3 Springer Science & Business Media;
6. WDietmarHumacher, scaffolds in tissue engineering bone and cartilage. Elsevier Singapore 21(2000)pp 2529-2543
7. Piez KA. Collagen. Encyclopedia of Polymer Science. 1985;3:699-727.
8. Barnes MJ. The collagen-platelet interaction. Collagen in health and disease. 1982;179.
9. Nimni ME, Harkness RD. Collagen Vol I: Biochemistry.
10. Piez KA, Reddi AH. Extracellular matrix biochemistry. Elsevier; 1984.
11. Kucharz EJ. Biosynthesis of collagen. InThe Collagens: Biochemistry and Pathophysiology 1992 (pp. 31-53). Springer Berlin Heidelberg.
12. E.J. Miller, K.A. Piez, A.H. Reddi (Eds.), Chemistry of collagens and their distribution Extracellular in: Matrix Biochemistry, Elsevier, New York, 1984, pp. 41–82.
13. M.O. Othman, W. Quassem, A.P. Shahalam, The mechanical properties of catgut in holding and bonding fractured bone, Med. Eng. Phys. 18 (1996) 584–590.
14. B. Guyuron, C.A. Vaughan, A comparison of absorbable and nonabsorbable suture materials for skin repair, Plast. Reconst. Surg. 89 (1992) 234–236.
15. Kucharz EJ. Degradation. InThe Collagens: Biochemistry and Pathophysiology 1992 (pp. . 34–39). Springer Berlin Heidelberg.

16. Woessner JF. The determination of hydroxyproline in tissue and protein samples containing small proportions of this imino acid. *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.* 1961 May ;93(2):440-7.
17. Piez KA, Reddi AH. *Extracellular matrix biochemistry.* Elsevier; 1984.
18. Kucharz EJ. Biosynthesis of collagen. In *The Collagens: Biochemistry and Pathophysiology* Springer Berlin Heidelberg 1992 (pp. 31-53).
19. Kucharz EJ. Biosynthesis of collagen. In *The Collagens: Biochemistry and Pathophysiology* Springer Berlin Heidelberg 1992 (pp. 7-29)..
20. B. Brodsky, S. Tanaka, E.F. Eikenberry, X-ray diffraction as a tool for studying collagen structure, in: M.E. Nimni (Ed.), *Collagen Vol. I – Biochemistry*, CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL, 1988, pp. 95-112.
21. C. Gunkel, collagen microparticle – Characterization and methodology,
22. Ph.D. Thesis, University of Marburg, Germany, 1994.
23. Nimni ME, Harkness RD. *Collagen Vol I: Biochemistry.* CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL, 1988, pp. 1-79.
24. Yamauchi M. *Collagen: The major matrix molecule in mineralized tissues.* CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL; 1995.
25. Reiser K, McCormick RJ, Rucker RB. Enzymatic and nonenzymatic cross-linking of collagen and elastin *FASEB J.* 6 (1992) 2439-2449.
26. Reiser K, McCormick RJ, Rucker RB. Enzymatic and nonenzymatic cross-linking of collagen and elastin. *The FASEB Journal.* 1992 (7).
27. Graham L, Gallop PM. Covalent protein crosslinks: general detection, quantitation, and characterization via modification with diphenylborinic acid. *Anal. Biochem.* 1994.
28. Reiser K, McCormick RJ, Rucker RB. Enzymatic and nonenzymatic cross-linking of collagen and elastin. *The FASEB J.* 6 (1992) 2439-2449.
29. Palokangas H, Kovanen V, Duncan R, Robins SP. Age-related changes in the concentration of hydroxypyridinium crosslinks in functionally different skeletal muscles. *Matrix* 12 (1992) 291-296.
30. Spira M, Liu B, Xu Z, Harrell R, Chahadeh H. Human amnion collagen for soft tissue augmentation—biochemical characterizations and animal observations. *J. Biomed. Mater. Res.* 28 (1994) 91-96.
31. Piez KA, Reddi AH. *Extracellular matrix biochemistry.* Elsevier; 1984. pp. 1-40.
32. Palefsky H, Pharriss BB, Chu G, inventors; Collagen Corporation, assignee. Composition of low type III content human placental collagen. US patent 5,428,022. 1992.
33. Kimura S, Takema Y, Kubota M. Octopus skin collagen. Isolation and characterization of collagen comprising two distinct alpha chains. *J. Biol. Chem.* 256 (1981) 13230-13234.
34. Berg RA. Human collagen or pro-collagen production from milk produced by non-human mammal transformed with appropriate expression system provides homogeneous product for therapeutic use. PCT WO. 1994;94:16570.
35. DeVore DP, Kelman CD, Fagien S, Casson P. Autologen: autologous, injectable dermal collagen. *Principles and practice of ophthalmic plastic and reconstructive surgery.* 1996;1:670-75.
36. Benicewicz BC, Hopper PK. Review: Polymers for Absorbable Surgical Sutures—Part I. *J. Bioact. Compat. Polym.* 5 (1990) 453-472.
37. Fielding AM. Preparation of neutral salt soluble collagen. *The methodology of connective tissue research.* 1976; pp. 9-12.
38. Albu MG, Titorencu I, Ghica MV. Collagen-based drug delivery systems for tissue engineering. *Biomaterials Applications for Nanomedicine.* 2011;17:333-58.
39. Furthmayr H. *Immunochemistry of the extracellular matrix.* CRC; 1982, pp. 32-39.
40. Cioca G, inventor; Seton Company, assignee. Process for preparing macromolecular biologically active collagen. US patent 4,279,812. 1981.
41. Roreger M, inventor; Lohmann & Rauscher GmbH & Co., Kg, assignee. Collagen preparation for the controlled release of active substances. US patent 6,761,908. 2004.
42. Miller EJ. *Chemistry of the collagens and their distribution.* *Extracellular matrix biochemistry.* 1984; pp. 41-82
43. Chvapil M, Kronenthal RL, Van Winkle W. Medical and surgical applications of collagen. *Int Rev Connect Tissue Res.* 1973, pp. 1-61.
44. Knapp TR, Luck E, Daniels JR. Behavior of solubilized collagen as a bioimplant. *J. Surg. Res.* 23 (1977) 96-105.
45. Piez KA. *Collagen.* *Encyclopedia of Polymer Science.* 1985; pp. 699-727..
46. Li ST. *Biologic biomaterials.* In *The Biomedical Engineering Handbook, Second Edition. 2 Volume Set* 1999, CRC Press.

47. Deyl Z, Adam M. Preparation of insoluble collagen, in: D.A. Hall (Ed.), *The Methodology of Connective Tissue Research*, Joynson–Bruvvers, Oxford, 1976, pp. 1–8.
48. Singh MP, Stefko J, Lumpkin JA, Rosenblatt J. The effect of electrostatic charge interactions on release rates of gentamicin from collagen matrices. *Pharm. Res.* 12 (1995) 1205–1210.
49. Srivastava S, Gorham SD, Courtney JM. The attachment and growth of an established cell line on collagen, chemically modified collagen, and collagen composite surfaces. *Biomaterials.* 11 (1990) 162–168
50. Srivastava S, Gorham SD, French DA, Shivas AA, Courtney JM. In vivo evaluation and comparison of collagen, acetylated collagen and collagen/glycosaminoglycan composite films and sponges as candidate biomaterials. *Biomaterials.* 11 (1990) 155–161.
51. Wang CL, Miyata T, Weksler B, Rubin AL, Stenzel KH. Collagen-induced platelet aggregation and release. I Effects of side-chain modifications and role of arginyl residues. *Biochem. Biophys. Acta* 544 (1978) 555–567.
52. S.D. Gorham, Collagen, in: D. Byrom (Ed.), *Biomaterials*, Stockton Press, New York, 1991, pp. 55–122
53. Van Wachem PB, Van Luyn MJ, Ponte da Costa ML. Myoblast seeding in a collagen matrix evaluated in vitro. *J. Biomed. Mat. Res.* 30 (1996) 353–360
54. Okano T, Matsuda T. Tissue engineered skeletal muscle: preparation of highly dense, highly oriented hybrid muscular tissues. *Cell transplantation.* 1998;7(1):71-82.
55. Sabolinski ML, Alvarez O, Auletta M, Mulder G, Parenteau NL. Cultured skin as a ‘smart material’ for healing wounds: experience in venous ulcers. *Biomaterials.* 17 (1996) 311–320.
56. Vacanti JP, Atala A, Mooney DJ, Langer RS, inventors; MIT assignee. Breast tissue engineering. USpatent 5,716,404. 1998.
57. Lazarou J, Pomeranz BH, Corey PN. Incidence of adverse drug reactions in hospitalized patients: a meta-analysis of prospective studies. *Jama.* 1998 ;279(15):1200-5.
58. Langer R, Folkman J. Polymers for the sustained release of proteins and other macromolecules. *Nature* 263 (1976) p. 797.
59. Lendlein A, Langer R. Biodegradable, elastic shape-memory polymers for potential biomedical applications. *Science.* 2002 ;296(5573):1673-6.
60. Lendlein A, Jiang H, Jünger O, Langer R. Light-induced shape-memory polymers. *Nature.* 2005;434(7035):879-82.
61. Sefton MV, Brown LR, Langer RS. Ethylene-vinyl acetate copolymer microspheres for controlled release of macromolecules. *Journal of pharmaceutical sciences.* 1984 ;73(12):1859-61.
62. Santini JT, Cima MJ, Langer R. A controlled-release microchip. *Nature.* 1999;397(6717):335-8.
63. Karp JM, Langer R. Development and therapeutic applications of advanced biomaterials. *CurrOpinBiotechnol.* 2007;18(5):454–459
64. Langer R, Tirrell DA. Designing materials for biology and medicine. *Nature.* 2004 1;428(6982):487-92.doi: 10.1038/nature02388
65. Badylak SF. Xenogeneic extracellular matrix as a scaffold for tissue reconstruction. *Transplant immunology.* 2004 ;12(3):367-77.doi: 10.1016/j.trim.2003.12.016.
66. Piez KA. History of extracellular matrix: a personal view. *Matrix biol.* 1997;16(3):85-92.doi: 10.1016/S0945-053X(97)90037-8.
67. Robert L. Matrix biology: past, present and future. *Pathol Biol.* 2001;49(4):279-83.
68. Bissell DM, Choun MO. The role of extracellular matrix in normal liver. *Scand J Gastroenterol.* 1988 ;23(sup151):1-7.doi: 10.3109/00365528809095908
69. Poole AR, Kojima T, Yasuda T, Mwale F, Kobayashi M, Laverty S. Composition and structure of articular cartilage: a template for tissue repair. *ClinOrthopRelat Res.* 2001;391(Supp):S26–S33. doi: 10.1097/00003086-200110001-00004
70. Uitto J, Olsen DR, Fazio MJ. Extracellular matrix of the skin: 50 years of progress. *J Invest Dermatol.* 1989;92(4 Suppl):61S–77S. doi: 10.1111/1523-1747.ep13075039.
71. Hersel U, Dahmen C, Kessler H. RGD modified polymers: biomaterials for stimulated cell adhesion and beyond. *Biomaterials.* 2003;24(24):4385-415.doi: 10.1016/S0142-9612(03)00343-0.
72. Chew SY, Mi R, Hoke A, Leong KW. The effect of the alignment of electrospun fibrous scaffolds on Schwann cell maturation. *Biomaterials.* 2008 ;29(6):653-61.
73. Yim EK, Reano RM, Pang SW, Yee AF, Chen CS, Leong KW. Nanopattern-induced changes in morphology and motility of smooth muscle cells. *Biomaterials.* 2005 ;26(26):5405-13.



74. Schönherr E, Hausser HJ. Extracellular matrix and cytokines: a functional unit. *Journal of Immunology Research*. 2000;7(2-4):89-101.
75. Chan BP, Leong KW. Scaffolding in tissue engineering: general approaches and tissue-specific considerations. *European spine journal*. 2008 ;17(4):467-79.
76. Sebastine IM, Williams DJ. Current developments in tissue engineering of nucleus pulposus for the treatment of intervertebral disc degeneration. . *ConfProc IEEE Eng Med Biol Soc*. 2007;2007:6401–6406.
77. Ho G, Leung VY, Cheung KM, Chan D. Effect of severity of intervertebral disc injury on mesenchymal stem cell-based regeneration. *Connective tissue Res*. 2008; 49(1):15-21.doi: 10.1080/03008200701818595.
78. Adams MA, Roughley PJ. What is intervertebral disc degeneration, and what causes it?. *Spine*. 2006 ;31(18):2151-61.
79. Bibby SR, Jones DA, Lee RB, Yu J, Urban JP. The pathophysiology of the intervertebral disc. *Joint Bone Spine*. 2001 ;68(6):537-42.doi: 10.1016/S1297-319X(01)00332-3.
80. Walker MH, Anderson DG. Molecular basis of intervertebral disc degeneration. *The Spine J*. 2004;4(6):S158-66.. doi: 10.1016/j.spinee.2004.07.010.
81. Alini M, Roughley PJ, Antoniou J, Stoll T, Aebi M. A biological approach to treating disc degeneration: not for today, but maybe for tomorrow. *Eur Spine J*. 2002;11(Suppl 2):S215–S220.
82. Anderson DG, Risbud MV, Shapiro IM, Vaccaro AR, Albert TJ. Cell-based therapy for disc repair. *J*. 2005;5(6 Suppl):297S–303S. doi: 10.1016/j.spinee.2005.02.019.
83. Evans C. Potential biologic therapies for the intervertebral disc. *J Bone Joint Surg Am*. 2006 ;88(suppl 2):95-8.doi: 10.2106/JBJS.E.01328
84. Gruber HE, Hanley Jr EN. Biologic strategies for the therapy of intervertebral disc degeneration. *Expert OpinBiolTher*. 2003;3(8):1209–1214. doi: 10.1517/14712598.3.8.1209
85. Paesold G, Nerlich AG, Boos N. Biological treatment strategies for disc degeneration: potentials and shortcomings. *Eur Spine J*. 2007;16(4):447–468. doi: 10.1007/s00586-006-0220-y.
86. Ruel-Gariepy E, Leroux JC. In situ-forming hydrogels—review of temperature-sensitive systems. *Eur. J. Pharm. Biopharm*. 58 (2004) 409–426.
87. Payne, R.G., McGonigle, J.S., Yaszemski, M.J., Yasko, A.W. and Mikos, A.G., 2002. Development of an injectable, in situ crosslinkable, degradable polymeric carrier for osteogenic cell populations. Part 2. Viability of encapsulated marrow stromal osteoblasts cultured on crosslinking poly (propylene fumarate). *Biomaterials*, 23(2002), pp.4373-4380.
88. Payne RG, McGonigle JS, Yaszemski MJ, Yasko AW, Mikos AG. Development of an injectable, in situ crosslinkable, degradable polymeric carrier for osteogenic cell populations. Part 3. Proliferation and differentiation of encapsulated marrow stromal osteoblasts cultured on crosslinking poly (propylene fumarate). *Biomaterials*. 2002 Nov 30;23(22):4381-7.
89. Payne RG, Yaszemski MJ, Yasko AW, Mikos AG. Development of an injectable, in situ crosslinkable, degradable polymeric carrier for osteogenic cell populations. Part 1. Encapsulation of marrow stromal osteoblasts in surface crosslinked gelatin microparticles. *Biomaterials*. 2002 ;23(22):4359-71.
90. Kempen DH, Lu L, Kim C, Zhu X, Dhert WJ, Currier BL, Yaszemski MJ. Controlled drug release from a novel injectable biodegradable microsphere/scaffold composite based on poly (propylene fumarate). *J. Biomed. Mater. Res. A* 77 (2006) 103–111.
91. Behravesh E, Jo S, Zygourakis K, Mikos AG. Synthesis of in situ cross-linkable macroporous biodegradable poly (propylene fumarate-co-ethylene glycol) hydrogels. *Biomacromolecules*. 2002;3(2):374-81.
92. Peter SJ, Miller ST, Zhu G, Yasko AW, Mikos AG. In vivo degradation of a poly (propylene fumarate)/ $\beta$ -tricalcium phosphate injectable composite scaffold. *J. Biomed. Mater. Res*. 41 (1998) 1–7.
93. Senuma Y, Franceschin S, Hilborn JG, Tissieres P, Bisson I, Frey P. Bioresorbable microspheres by spinning disk atomization as injectable cell carrier: from preparation to in vitro evaluation. *Biomaterials*. 2000 ;21(11):1135-44.
94. Holland TA, Tessmar JK, Tabata Y, Mikos AG. Transforming growth factor- $\beta$ 1 release from oligo (poly (ethylene glycol) fumarate) hydrogels in conditions that model the cartilage wound healing environment. *J. Control. Release* 94 (2004) 101–114.
95. Shastri VP, Hildgen P, Langer R. In situ pore formation in a polymer matrix by differential polymer degradation. *Biomaterials*. 2003;24(18):3133-7.

96. Salem AK, Rose FR, Oreffo RO, Yang X, Davies MC, Mitchell JR, Roberts CJ, Stolnik-Trenkic S, Tendler SJ, Williams PM, Shakesheff KM. Porous polymer and cell composites that self-assemble in situ. *Adv. Mater.* 2003;15(3):210-3.
97. Xia X, Hu Z, Marquez M. Physically bonded nanoparticle networks: a novel drug delivery system. *J. Control. Release* 2005;103(1):21-30.
98. Lutolf MP, Hubbell JA. Synthetic biomaterials as instructive extracellular microenvironments for morphogenesis in tissue engineering. *Nat. Biotechnol.* 2005 ;23(1):47-55.
99. Ruoslahti E, Pierschbacher MD. Arg-Gly-Asp: a versatile cell recognition signal. *Cell.* 1986;44(4):517-8.
100. Hersel U, Dahmen C, Kessler H. RGD modified polymers: biomaterials for stimulated cell adhesion and beyond. *Biomaterials.* 2003;24(24):4385-4415.
101. Masuko T, Iwasaki N, Yamane S, Funakoshi T, Majima T, Minami A, Ohsuga N, Ohta T, Nishimura SI. Chitosan–RGDSGGC conjugate as a scaffold material for musculoskeletal tissue engineering. *Biomaterials.* 2005;26 :5339-47.
102. Stabenfeldt SE, García AJ, LaPlaca MC. Thermoreversible laminin-functionalized hydrogel for neural tissue engineering. *J. Biomed. Mater. Res. A* 77A (2006) 718–725.
103. Shung AK, Behravesh E, Jo S, Mikos AG. Crosslinking characteristics of and cell adhesion to an injectable poly (propylene fumarate-co-ethylene glycol) hydrogel using a water-soluble crosslinking system. *Tissue engineering.* 2003;9(2):243-54.
104. Timmer MD, Ambrose CG, Mikos AG. In vitro degradation of polymeric networks of poly (propylene fumarate) and the crosslinking macromer poly (propylene fumarate)-diacrylate. *Biomaterials.* 2003;24(4):571-7.
105. Timmer MD, Ambrose CG, Mikos AG. Evaluation of thermal-and photo-crosslinked biodegradable poly (propylene fumarate)-based networks. *Journal of Biomedical Materials Research Part A.* 2003;66(4):811-8.
106. Cellesi F, Tirelli N, Hubbell JA. Materials for cell encapsulation via a new tandem approach combining reverse thermal gelation and covalent crosslinking. *Macromol. Chem. Phys.* 203 (2002) 1466–1472.
107. Sosnik A, Cohn D, Román JS, Abraham GA. Crosslinkable PEO-PPO-PEO-based reverse thermo-responsive gels as potentially injectable materials. *J. Biomater. Sci., Polym. Ed.* 14 (2003) 227–239.
108. Sosnik A, Cohn D. Ethoxysilane-capped PEO–PPO–PEO triblocks: a new family of reverse thermo-responsive polymers. *Biomaterials.* 2004 ;25(14):2851-8.
109. Cohn D, Sosnik A, Garty S. Smart hydrogels for in situ generated implants. *Biomacromolecules.* 2005;6(3):1168-75.
110. Shi X, Hudson JL, Spicer PP, Tour JM, Krishnamoorti R, Mikos AG. Injectable nanocomposites of single-walled carbon nanotubes and biodegradable polymers for bone tissue engineering. *Biomacromolecules.* 2006 ;7(7):2237-42.
111. Frazier DD, Lathi VK, Gerhart TN, Hayes WC. Ex vivo degradation of a poly (propylene glycol-fumarate) biodegradable particulate composite bone cement. *Journal of Biomedical Materials Research Part A.* 1997 ;35(3):383-9.
112. He S, Yaszemski MJ, Yasko AW, Engel PS, Mikos AG. Injectable biodegradable polymer composites based on poly (propylene fumarate) crosslinked with poly (ethylene glycol)-dimethacrylate. *Biomaterials.* 2000;21(23):2389-94.

\*\*\*\*\*