

1 Chitosan/glycosaminoglycan scaffolds for skin reparation

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28 ABSTRACT

29 Burns and chronic wounds, often related to chronic diseases (as diabetes and cancer), are challenging  
30 lesions, difficult to heal. The prompt and full reconstitution of a functional skin is at the basis of the  
31 development of biopolymer-based scaffolds, representing a 3D substrate mimicking the dermal extracellular  
32 matrix. Aim of the work was to develop scaffolds intended for skin regeneration, according to: fabrication by  
33 electrospinning from aqueous polysaccharide solutions; prompt and easy treatment to obtain scaffolds  
34 insoluble in aqueous fluids; best performance in supporting wound healing. Three formulations were tested,  
35 based on chitosan (CH) and pullulan (P), associated with glycosaminoglycans (chondroitin sulfate - CS or  
36 hyaluronic acid – HA). A multidisciplinary approach has been used: chemico-physical characterization and  
37 preclinical evaluation allowed to obtain integrated information. This supports that CS gives distinctive  
38 properties and optimal features to the scaffold structure for promoting cell proliferation leading tissue  
39 reparation towards a complete skin restore.

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41 Keywords: electrospinning, chitosan, glycosaminoglycans, chronic wound and burn healing, in vitro and in  
42 vivo models

43

## 44 1. INTRODUCTION

45 Millions of people in the world suffer from chronic skin lesions. These are challenging and are affected by an  
46 intrinsic inability to heal. Cellular and molecular abnormalities occurring at wound bed, including phenotypic  
47 aberrations and perturbations of ECM microenvironment, significantly alter the normal recovery phases,  
48 leading to a possible impairment of the healing path and finally to non-healing wounds. Moreover, among  
49 skin wounds, burns require special attention because often prone to infections and to abnormal scarring  
50 (Mafazzal Jahromi et al., 2018).

51 Because of the crucial barrier role of the skin, chronic wounds (including venous leg ulcers, diabetic foot  
52 ulcers, arterial insufficiency and pressure ulcers) and burns impose substantial morbidity and mortality. They  
53 deeply affect the quality of life of patients, with high economic burden (Stejskalova, Almquist, 2017).

54 Wound healing can be enhanced by tissue engineering: in particular, the use of scaffolds promotes the  
55 formation of a defined biomimetic environment surrounding cells to allow cell-cell specific interactions  
56 (Goldberg, Langer, Jia, 2012). The structure and morphology of the ECM of skin dermis can be easily  
57 resembled by nanofibrous structures, reported as ideal constructs to enhance cell adhesion and proliferation  
58 (Liu et al., 2017). Uniform and continuous nanofibers are easily obtained by means of electrospinning as a  
59 simple, flexible and versatile method.

60 Given these premises, the aim of this work was the development of electrospun nanofibrous scaffolds based  
61 on glycosaminoglycans, either chondroitin sulfate (CS) or hyaluronic acid (HA), and chitosan (CH), to  
62 enhance cutaneous wound healing of chronic lesions and burns.

63 Glycosaminoglycans (GAGs) have been selected as important components of ECM and play a crucial role in  
64 different stages of skin tissue regeneration and maturation. In particular CS, a structural component of ECM  
65 (Oliveira, Reis, 2011) is able to interact with positively charged bioactive molecules, in particular growth  
66 factors (GF) and is reported as effective enhancer of cell proliferation (Sandri et al., 2012; Sandri et al., 2015;  
67 Sandri et al., 2016; Saporito et al., 2018). Analogously, HA plays pivotal roles in regulating proliferation,  
68 migration, cell differentiation and angiogenesis (Kin et al., 2017).

69 Moreover CH has been selected as enabling polymer characterized by bioadhesion, biocompatibility,  
70 biodegradability, antimicrobial activity, and wound healing properties (Liu et al., 2018).

71 However polysaccharides, in general, and CH, in particular, are hardly spinnable and CH nanofibers are  
72 usually obtained starting from organic solution (i.e. trifluoacetic acid and hexa-fluoro isopropanol) that could  
73 leave highly toxic traces or by blending chitosan with easily spinnable synthetic polymers (as poly(ethylene  
74 oxide) or poly(vinyl alcohol) (Qasim et al., 2018).

75 In the present work, CH was associated to pullulan (P), an easily spinnable polysaccharide having numerous  
 76 food, pharmaceutical and biomedical application (Singh et al., 2017). The preparation was robust with a one  
 77 step process and easy to set up. An aqueous/acetic acid medium was used to avoid toxic residues and to  
 78 allow the electrospinning of polymers having opposite charges (CH cationic and GAG anionic). Moreover,  
 79 citric acid (CA) was used as crosslinker and a thermal treatment was applied to render the scaffold insoluble  
 80 in aqueous environment. A multidisciplinary approach, involving chemico-physical and preclinical evaluation,  
 81 has been used to characterize the scaffolds.

82

## 83 2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

### 84 2.1 Materials

85 Chitosan (CH) (charge density - positive = 0.006 mol/g), Chondroitin sodium sulfate (CS) (charge density -  
 86 negative = 0.002 mol/g), Hyaluronic Acid (HA) (charge density - negative = 0.0013 mol/g) Pullulan (P) and  
 87 citric acid (CA) (charge density - negative = 0.014 mol/g) were used (details summarized in supplementary  
 88 information (SI), Fig. S1).

### 89 2.2. Methods

#### 90 2.2.1. Preparation of polymeric blends and characterizations

91 All the polymeric blends were based on P, CH and CA, as such or containing CS or HA. P solution was  
 92 prepared in distilled water and CS or HA were added to P, thus preparing three different solutions: P; P/CS  
 93 P/HA. CH was hydrated in acetic acid (90% v/v) and citric acid was added. Three different polymeric blends  
 94 were prepared by mixing each P, P/CS, and P/HA with CH solution at 1:1 weight ratio. The following blends  
 95 were prepared (w/w): CH, CH/CS and CH/HA. The role of acetic acid was fundamental to reduce blend  
 96 surface tension and allow their electrospinning. The blends composition is reported in Table 1.

97

98 Table 1: composition (% w/w) of polymeric blends used to be electrospun for scaffolds construction. In the  
 99 brackets the relative charge density per each component is reported.

% w/w	P	CH	CA	CS	HA	Water/acetic acid
CH	10	2.5 (+0.0015)	2.5 (-0.01)	--	--	55/45
CH/CS	10	2.5 (+0.0015)	2.5 (-0.01)	0.5 (-0.001)	--	55/45
CH/HA	10	2.5 (+0.0015)	2.5 (-0.01)	--	0.5 (-0.00065)	55/45

100

#### 101 2.2.2. Physical properties of polymeric blends

102 The viscosity of CH, CH/CS and CH/HA blends was assessed by a rotational rheometer (Rheostress 600,  
103 Haake, Enco, I), in the cone-plate configuration (C35/1: diameter= 35mm; cone angle= 1°), rest time = 3 min,  
104 shear rate = 100 s<sup>-1</sup>, T=25°C,

105 The surface tension of the blends was measured at T=32°C with a tensiometer (DY-300, Kyowa, J)  
106 (measurement range 0-100 mN/m) and their electrical conductivity was determined by a conductometer  
107 (FiveGoTM - Mettler Toledo, I).

108

### 109 2.2.3 Preparation of electrospun scaffolds

110 Scaffolds were obtained from the CH, CH/CS and CH/HA blends using an electrospinning apparatus (STKIT-  
111 40, Linari Engineering, I), equipped with a high-voltage power supply (Razel R99-E 40, kV), a 10 ml syringe  
112 with 21G needle (0.8x20 mm), and a conductive static collector, covered by an aluminum foil. The following  
113 parameters were used:  $\Delta V$  (voltage) = 21 kV (CH) or 15 kV (CH/CS and CH/HA), needle-to-collector  
114 distance = 20 cm (CH) or 15 cm (CH/CS and CH/HA), polymeric solution flux = 0.4 ml/h, spinning time = 1 h.  
115 The obtained CH, CH/CS and CH/HA scaffolds were then crosslinked by heating at 150°C for 1 h. This  
116 process is also reported as able to dry sterilize the products (Kupiec et al., 2000).

117

#### 118 2.2.3.1. Scaffold chemico-physical characterization

119 Scaffold morphology was analyzed by means of SEM (Tescan, Mira3XMU, CISRIC, University of Pavia) after  
120 graphite sputtering. The scaffolds were analyzed before and after the crosslinking procedure and after 1-  
121 week of hydration in distilled water. Nanofiber diameters were determined by an image analysis software  
122 (Image J, ICY, Institute Pasteur, F).

123 FT-IR analysis was carried out by means of Infrared Imaging Microscope (Nicolet iN10 MX, Thermo  
124 Scientific). The infrared spectra were acquired in the range 4000-500 cm<sup>-1</sup> (tested area 10-20  $\mu\text{m}^2$ ).

125

#### 126 2.2.3.2. Structural characterization

127 X-ray scattering experiments were performed at the high-brilliance ID02 beamline at ESRF (Grenoble,  
128 France) in the q-ranges  $0.007 \leq q \leq 5 \text{ nm}^{-1}$  (SAXS, mesoscale structure determination) and  $15\text{-}30 \text{ nm}^{-1}$   
129 (WAXS, local lengthscale organization). Small pieces ( $\sim 1 \text{ cm}^2$ ) were cut from the different scaffolds, both  
130 before and after crosslinking. Cuts of the crosslinked membranes were dipped in distilled water or NaCl 156  
131 mM solution 24 h before measurement. Both dry and wet samples were loaded in plastic capillaries 2 mm

132 thick (KI-beam, ENKI) and placed in front of the X-ray beam (Fig. S2a in SI). During data reduction, cell  
133 contributions were subtracted from the measured spectra.

134

#### 135 2.2.3.3 Calorimetry.

136 Small portions of different dry membranes (ranging 7-8 mg) either crosslinked or not, were adapted to  
137 calibrated aluminum crucibles, then weighted. Crucibles were put into a solid state calorimeter (DSC131,  
138 Setaram, FR), under nitrogen atmosphere, then submitted to subsequent temperature heating/cooling scans  
139 at 2 °C/min or 10 °C/min scan rate in the temperature range 30-180°C, to test for process reversibility and  
140 reproducibility. For the non-crosslinked samples, the first heating scan was limited to 150°C, then followed by  
141 1h-isothermal equilibration at 150°C, similarly to the crosslinking protocol. Samples were equilibrated for 30  
142 min at the extreme temperatures in between the subsequent scans. The background contribution of void  
143 crucible was measured for subtraction and calibration.

144

#### 145 2.2.3.4. Surface zeta potential

146 The apparent zeta potential ( $\zeta$ ) of each scaffold was determined from the measurement of the streaming  
147 potential. Also, the streaming current was measured to estimate the extent of scaffold swelling affecting the  
148 overall conductivity (see SI). Streaming potential measurements were performed with SurPASS™ 3 (Anton  
149 Paar GmbH, Austria) using the clamping cell (Walker et al., 2002). The scaffolds (17x17 mm<sup>2</sup>, active area  
150 10x10 mm<sup>2</sup>) were mounted dry opposite to a reference surface (Figure S3a, SI).

151 10 mM KCl aqueous solution was used as the streaming solvent and its pH was scanned in the range 2.5-9,  
152 to determine the isoelectric point (iep) and the  $\zeta$  at physiological pH.

153 The  $\zeta$  was calculated from streaming potential and streaming current measurements using the equations by  
154 Helmholtz and von Smoluchowski (Luxbacher, 2014), as detailed in the SI. The contribution of the reference  
155 material to the  $\zeta$  of the scaffolds was estimated as negligible and the pH dependence of the  $\zeta$  for these rigid,  
156 non-porous, non-conductive materials is shown in SI (Fig. S3b).

157

#### 158 2.2.3.5. Mechanical properties

159 Dried or hydrated scaffolds were subjected to tensile measurements by means of a TA.XT plus apparatus  
160 (Stable Microsystems, ENCO, Italy), as briefly described in SI (Saporito et al., 2018a). The ratio between the  
161 increase in the distance of the two grips at scaffold breaking and the initial one was then expressed in terms  
162 of percent elongation of the scaffold, namely,  $E\% = 100 \times (L_{fin} - L_{in}) / L_{in}$ .

163

#### 164 2.2.3.6. In vitro cells adhesion and proliferation assay

165 Adhesion and proliferation assays were carried out using two cell lines: fibroblasts (normal human dermal  
166 fibroblasts (NHDF from juvenile foreskin, PromoCell, WVR, Italy) and endothelial cells from human umbilical  
167 vein (HUVEC, Lonza, Italy), as briefly described in SI (Saporito et al., 2018a).

168 Scaffolds were cut to have a final area of 0.36 cm<sup>2</sup> (0.7 cm diameter) to cover the bottom of a 96 well-plate  
169 and both cell types were seeded onto each scaffold at 10<sup>5</sup> cells/cm<sup>2</sup> seeding density and grown for 3 and 6  
170 days. Cells grown in standard conditions were considered as control (GM). After 3 or 6 days of growth, MTT  
171 assay (as briefly described in SI (Sandri et al., 2017)), SEM and CLSM analysis (as briefly described in SI  
172 (Saporito et al., 2018a)) were performed.

173

#### 174 2.2.3.7. In vivo wound healing efficacy in murine burn/excisional model

175 All animal experiments were carried out in full compliance with the standard international ethical guidelines  
176 (European Communities Council Directive 86/609/EEC) approved by Italian Health Ministry (D.L. 116/92).

177 The protocol is briefly reported in SI (Sandri et al., 2017). CH, CH/CS or CH/HA scaffolds having 4 mm  
178 diameter as the lesions were applied and wetted with 20 µl of saline solution (0.9 g/l). Size of wounded area  
179 and the histology of biopsies were performed, as briefly described in SI (Sandri et al., 2017).

180

#### 181 2.2.3.8. Statistical analysis

182 Statistical differences were evaluated by means of a non-parametric test: Mann Whitney (Wilcoxon) W test,  
183 (Statgraphics Centurion XV, Statistical Graphics Corporation, MD, USA). Differences were considered  
184 significant at p<0.05.

185

### 186 3. Results and discussion

#### 187 3.1. Physical properties of polymeric blends

188 The addition of CH-CA, alone and with CS or HA, significantly increased (~ one order of magnitude) the  
189 viscosity of the solution as compared to pure P, as expected for molecular complexation. Then, the viscosity  
190 values of the various blends are similar (within 3%), the smallest being that of CH/CS, compatible with a  
191 more pronounced charge unbalance due to CS. The values of surface tension are almost similar for all  
192 blends, the one of CH/CS being the lowest, again compatible with a more pronounced overall charge.  
193 Accordingly, conductivity decreases in the series CH/CS>CH>CH/HA, with an overall span of ~20%. In fact

194 conductivity is directly related to the particle concentration and mobility in the solution. Unbalanced particle  
195 charge density generally increases with the conductivity, influencing fiber diameter during electrospinning  
196 (Huan et al., 2015). Table S1 (SI) reports the viscosity, surface tension and conductivity of the polymeric  
197 blends used to prepare the scaffolds.

198

### 199 3.2. Scaffold chemico-physical and structural characterization

200 Different physico-chemical techniques were applied to assess the morphology and structure of the scaffolds  
201 on different lengthscales. Besides the characterization of the final membranes, the effect of crosslinking was  
202 addressed. In fact, while non-crosslinked membranes readily dissolve in contact with water, crosslinking  
203 made them stable against solubilization. Moreover, the extent of scaffold stability was inspected by delayed  
204 testing, as detailed in the following.

205

#### 206 3.2.1. Fiber morphology

207 Figure 1 reports SEM microphotographs of nanofibrous scaffolds 1) immediately after preparation (not  
208 crosslinked, NC, left), 2) after cross-linking (center) and 3) dried after 6 days immersion in water (right).

209 For all the compositions, nanofibers show regular shape and smooth surface and the cross-linking process  
210 does not change their morphology. The regular and smooth appearance of nanofibers is preserved upon 6-  
211 days hydration, although they show up to be stuck to each other.

212 The fibers cross section seems not to be altered upon crosslinking, being in the range of 500 nm in diameter,  
213 nor they break in shorter tracts. In the CH scaffold the nanofibers are slightly thinner. Hydration causes a  
214 slight swelling of the nanofibers, more evident in the CH scaffold and negligible in CH/CS. The wet fibers  
215 morphology suggests that water penetration within the structure is not prevented for any of the compositions,  
216 but that especially the CH/CS scaffold is more resistant against the fiber swelling deformation.

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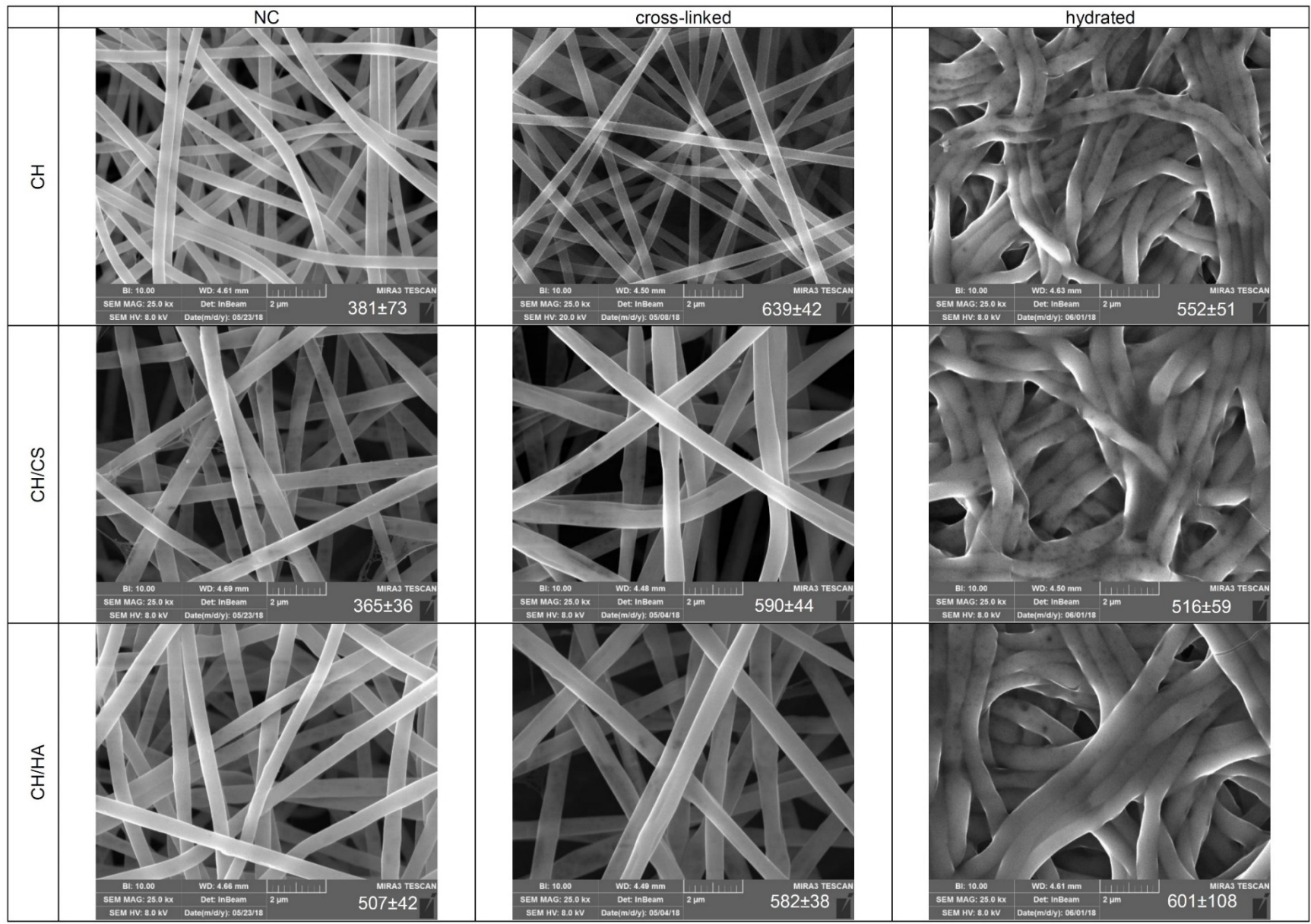


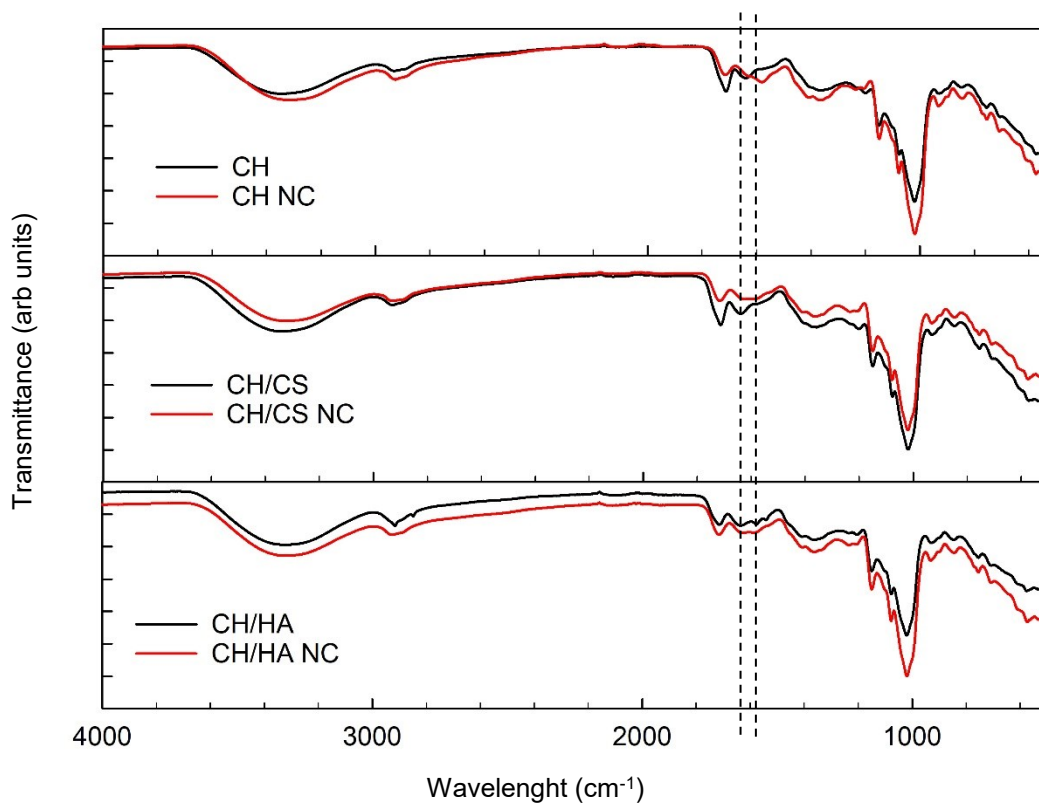
FIGURE 1: SEM microphotographs of scaffolds immediately after preparation (not crosslinked, NC), after cross-linking and after 6 days hydration in water. In each image the diameters (nm) are reported (mean values±sd; n=100) (Mann-Whitney – Wilcoxon: CH= NC vs hydrated: p=0.002; cross-linked vs hydrated: p=0.005; CH/HA: cross-linked vs hydrated: p=0.037; cross-linked: CH vs CH/CS: p=0.005; CH vs CH/HA: p=0.001; CH/CS vs CH/HA: p=0.018; hydrated: CH vs CH/CS: p=0.017; CH vs CH/HA: p=0.039)

241 Since, during the electrospinning and the subsequent crosslinking process, acetic acid volatilizes, it is  
242 conceivable that anionic and cationic moieties could interact during this phase. Considering that CS is an  
243 acid stronger than HA (pKa CS: 1.5-2; HA: 2.87), a tighter and stronger anionic/cationic interaction between  
244 CS and CH could be at the basis of this behavior, although, in all systems, P forms mass-predominant  
245 neutral matrix in a network formed by the interacting charged components with a clear excess of negative  
246 charges (Table 1). It is conceivable that CH and CS or HA interacted forming polyelectrolyte complexes  
247 (PEC) (Saporito et al., 2018b) and PEC could also occur, mediated by the CA macroion as crosslinker, since  
248 CH polycation and CA multivalent macro-anion are present in the same weight fraction. The tuning  
249 contribution coming from either HA or CS polyanions, present in lower amount in the corresponding  
250 scaffolds, causes significant differences in swelling behavior.

251

### 252 3.2.2. FTIR characterization.

253 Figure 2 reports the FTIR profiles of the three scaffolds before and after crosslinking, giving a fiber local  
254 response to crosslinking. Overall, the spectra are in agreement with current literature where the specific peak  
255 assignment can be found (Harish Prashanth, Kittur and Tharanathan, 2002; Feng, Liu, Zhao and Hu, 2012).  
256 As for CH scaffold, a significative effect following crosslinking is present in the region around  $1640\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  
257 typical of the Amide I band, that could be related to covalent bonds occurring between chitosan aminogroups  
258 and carboxylic moieties of citric acid. For the two scaffolds CH/CS and CH/HA, differences are less marked  
259 and only slight variations could be seen, again, in the region of Amide I band, suggesting that the presence  
260 of anionic groups from CS (sulfate) and HA (carboxylic) and polymer steric hindrance could tune covalent  
261 bond formation between CH and CA.



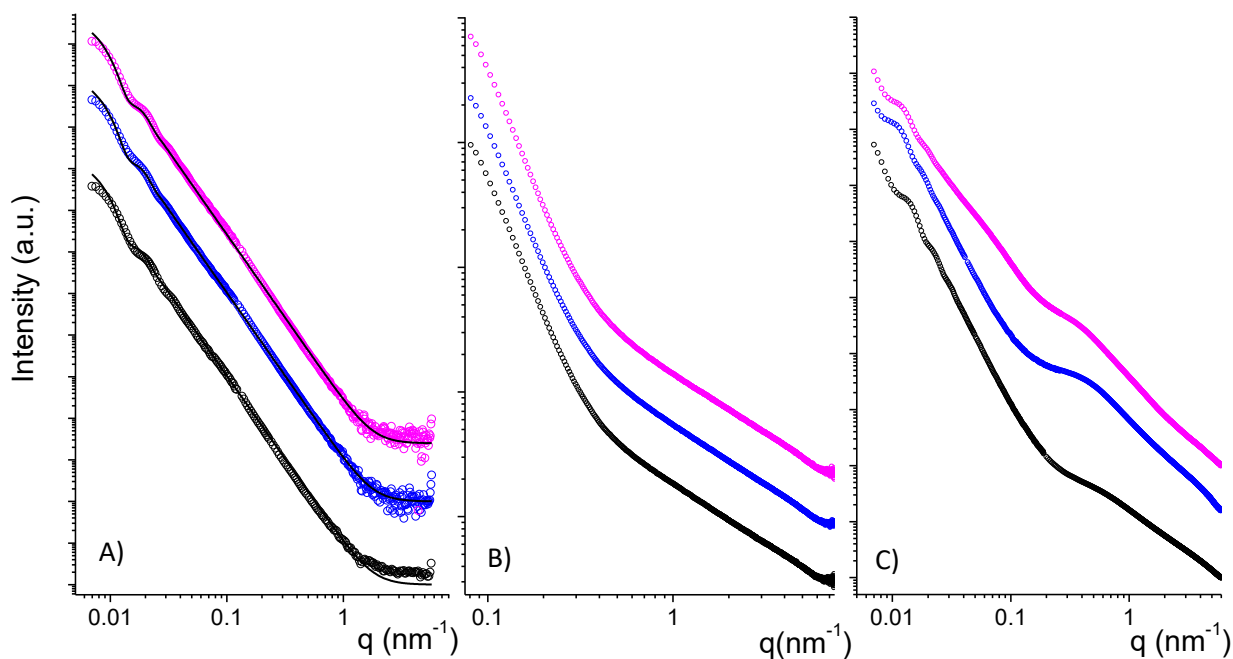
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263 FIGURE 2: FTIR profiles for CH, CH/CS and CH/HA scaffolds, not crosslinked (NC) and crosslinked. A vertical  
 264 dashed line is drawn in the region of the Amide I band.

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### 266 3.2.3. Structural characterization

267 X-ray scattering measurements allow to access the structural features of the membranes from the  
 268 mesoscale (SAXS, up to hundreds of nm) to the local arrangement (WAXS, down to tenth of nm), thus  
 269 integrating the SEM morphological observation in revealing intra-fiber and inter-fiber structure, whether  
 270 structural modification follow crosslinking, and hydration and aging effects. WAXS spectra in dry state does  
 271 not display any feature for any of the membranes in any condition, thus showing that the electrospun blend  
 272 fibers are not built by stacking or piling of elements but by randomly arranged complexed polymer chains.  
 273 The SAXS spectra ( $I(q)$  versus  $q$ ) are plotted in Figure 3 (A) in the whole SAXS range, vertically shifted for  
 274 better visibility.



275

276 FIGURE 3. A) SAXS spectra of the dry crosslinked membranes (top violet: CH/CS; centre blue: CH/HA; bottom  
 277 black: CH). The fitting curves are shown. The ( $q^{-4}$ )-slope is observed over more than two decades. B) SAXS  
 278 spectra of the crosslinked membranes after 24h immersion in DDH<sub>2</sub>O, in the  $q$ -range corresponding to the  
 279  $d < 100$  nm lengthscale (top: CH/CS; centre: CH/HA; bottom: CH). The transition from the low- $q$  slope ( $q^{-4}$ , see  
 280 left panel) and the  $q^{-1}$  regime is clearly visible. C) SAXS spectra of the crosslinked membranes after 4-months  
 281 aging in DDH<sub>2</sub>O, in the same  $q$ -range of left panel (top: CH/CS; centre: CH/HA; bottom: CH). Spectra are  
 282 shifted for better visibility.

283

284 The spectra are very similar and can be fitted with the form factor of uniform infinitely long cylinders  
 285 (Pedersen, 1997) with moderate polydispersity (15%-20%), with average cross size of  $\sim 500$  nm, compatible  
 286 with the SEM observations, accounting for the variability of sample preparations. An interesting feature is  
 287 that a ( $q^{-4}$ )-slope is observed for all membranes over a large  $q$ -range, covering the micro-to-nanoscale,  
 288 typical of objects with smooth surface. Spectra from the non-crosslinked membranes are very similar to their  
 289 crosslinked analogs, indicating similar size and surface smoothness of the nanofibers (Figure S2b in SI).  
 290 SAXS measurements were also performed on wet scaffolds, after 24 h immersion in distilled water. No  
 291 difference is detected upon salt addition. All spectra show a clear deviation from the steep decay starting at  $q$   
 292  $\sim 3 \times 10^{-1} \text{ nm}^{-1}$ , corresponding to a typical distance of  $\sim 20$  nm, as shown in Figure 3 (B). The slope in this  
 293 second regime is that of ( $q^{-1}$ ), revealing the presence of additional structures on much smaller lengthscales  
 294 than the fiber cross-section, with elongated shape. Those structures are conceivably polymer chains  
 295 protruding and stretching out from the fibers surface.  
 296 SAXS measurements were then repeated on the same membranes after 4-months aging in wet  
 297 environment, to check for membrane structure evolution, reported in Fig. 3 (C). The three scaffolds

298 underwent different processes: the structure of the naked CH scaffold is preserved on both the long-range  
299 and the local length-scales. The slight swelling of the fiber cross-size (~20%) indicated that hydration  
300 occurred, as expected upon membrane immersion into aqueous medium, still the fibers do not unwrap or  
301 disentangle or loose polymer chains. The CH/HA scaffold, instead, undergoes some structure alterations, as  
302 evident from the rise of a clear shoulder in the high-q region of the spectrum, the low-q region being  
303 unchanged and very similar to that of the naked CH scaffold. The shoulder could be reproduced by adding a  
304 contribution coming from gaussian chains with gyration radius of 4 nm (see Fig.S2C in SI). This suggests  
305 that, upon aging, longer HA chains portions (~10 monomers) protrude from the main structure, assuming a  
306 coiled conformation. The deepest aging structural modification occurs in the CH/CS scaffold, (Fig. 3, C) that  
307 displays changes in all the q-range. The appearance of the high-q shoulder is paralleled by a reduction of the  
308 low-q slope from  $q^{-4}$  to  $q^{-2.8}$ , typical for a fractal structure. This is related to a more pronounced surface  
309 roughening of the fibers. It seems that fibers might lose more easily some CS chains (shorter and highly  
310 charged than HA and CH) probably wrapped and not intimately woven within the fibers.

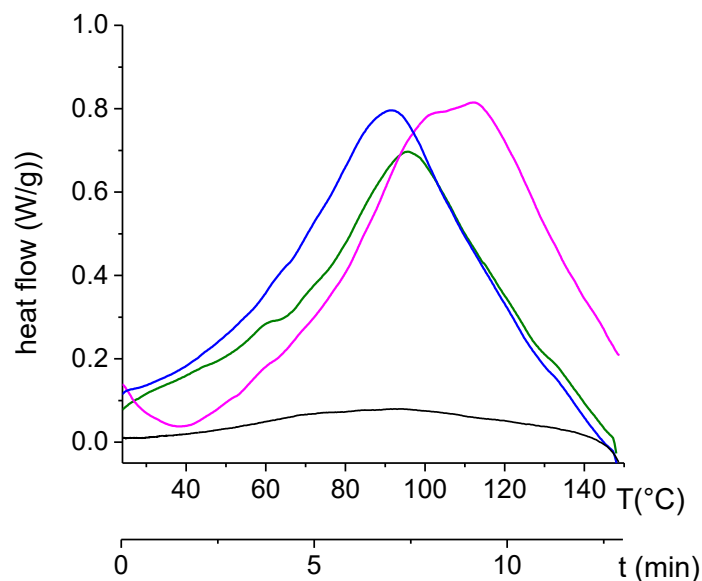
311 No differences could be highlighted after scaffold hydration in NaCl 156 mM.

312

#### 313 3.2.4. Calorimetry

314 Calorimetry measurements were performed on non-crosslinked and crosslinked dry scaffolds, simulating the  
315 cross-linking process by suddenly raising the temperature of the non-crosslinked electrospun scaffolds from  
316 room up to 150°C, followed by 1-hour annealing.

317 The DSC profiles obtained with a high scan-rate (10°C/min) on non-crosslinked samples are shown in Figure  
318 4. All profiles display the water-release endothermic peak (Yamaguci et al., 2001) completing below the  
319 annealing temperature. The corresponding enthalpies, normalized by the sample mass to give the water-  
320 holding capacity, are 244 J/g (CH), 299 J/g (CH/CS) and 279 J/g (CH/HA). The subsequent cooling to room  
321 temperature and the repeated cycles are relative to annealed scaffolds in DSC-crosslinking simulated  
322 protocol. No exothermic peak in the cooling scans is detected in the investigated range (Fig. 4) and no  
323 water-release peak is observed in the following heating scans. Rather, the water-release peak is again  
324 observed in the first DSC heating scan performed on the same samples after some delay (two weeks, two  
325 and four months), showing that the scaffolds recover their hydration level in time.



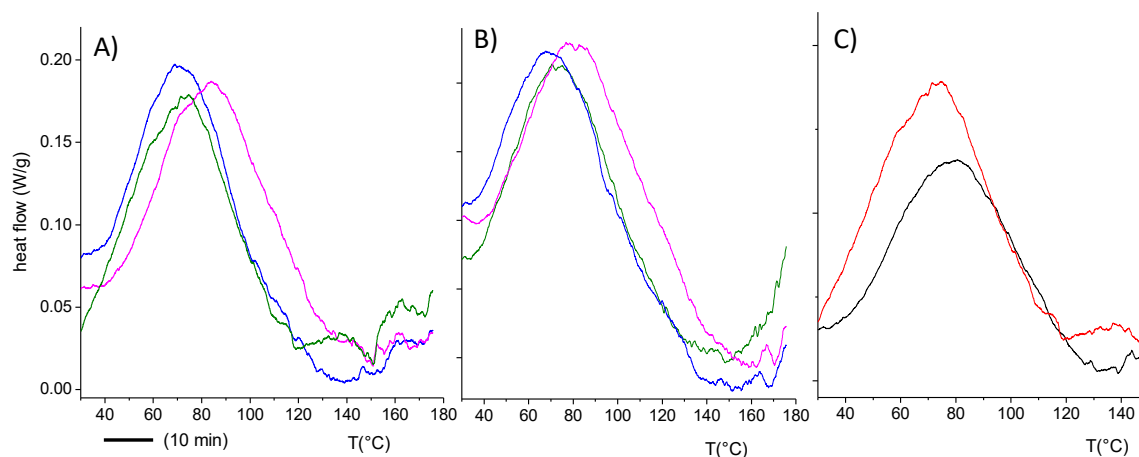
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327 FIGURE 4. DSC-crosslinking simulation on different scaffolds with a fast (10°C/min) heating from room  
 328 temperature to 150°C, of the CH (green) CH/HA (blue) and CH/CS (violet) scaffolds. In black a representative  
 329 of a cooling scan. Below the temperature axis, the time axis is drawn.

330

331 Similar peaks are present in the calorigrams of the constituent materials, disappearing on closely  
 332 subsequent scans and reappearing upon exposure to ambient humidity, indicating their relation to hydration.  
 333 Moreover (Fig S3a in SI) the relative positions of the water-release peaks of the different scaffolds reflect the  
 334 ones of their components.

335 DSC profiles of the originally-crosslinked membranes, performed at a lower scan rate of 2°C/min, are  
 336 reported in Fig.5 (A). Again, the water-release peak can be clearly observed in the first heating, while it is  
 337 never found in the following runs within the same experiment, as before, indicating the water-holding  
 338 capacity is preserved upon crosslinking. Moreover, DSC profiles of DSC-simulated crosslinked samples  
 339 (Fig.4, after two weeks), performed with the lower scan-rate of 2°C/min and shown in Fig.5 B for direct  
 340 comparison, are very similar to those in left panel, stemming for good reproducibility over different samples  
 341 and basic features of crosslinking. In general, the crosslinking procedure results in a downshift of the water-  
 342 release temperature by ~5°C, as shown in Fig.5 C for the CH matrix, and in a higher water-holding capacity.  
 343 Interestingly, a DSC-crosslinking simulation experiment performed after four months from electrospinning  
 344 (Figure S3b in SI), shows that CH/CS scaffold evolution occurs also in the non-crosslinked state, as it was  
 345 detected by SAXS in its crosslinked-hydrated state. The structural evolution is parallel to a modification of  
 346 embedded water activity. This shows as a typical feature of the blend, which might be exploited if shorter-  
 347 time membrane degradation is needed.



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349 FIGURE 5. A) DSC of the crosslinked scaffolds, with a 2°C/min heating scan. The time scale is reported, color  
 350 code as in Fig. 4. B) DSC of the DSC-simulated crosslinked scaffolds, after two weeks, with a 2°C/min heating  
 351 scan. C) DSC of non-crosslinked (black) and crosslinked (red) CH scaffold.

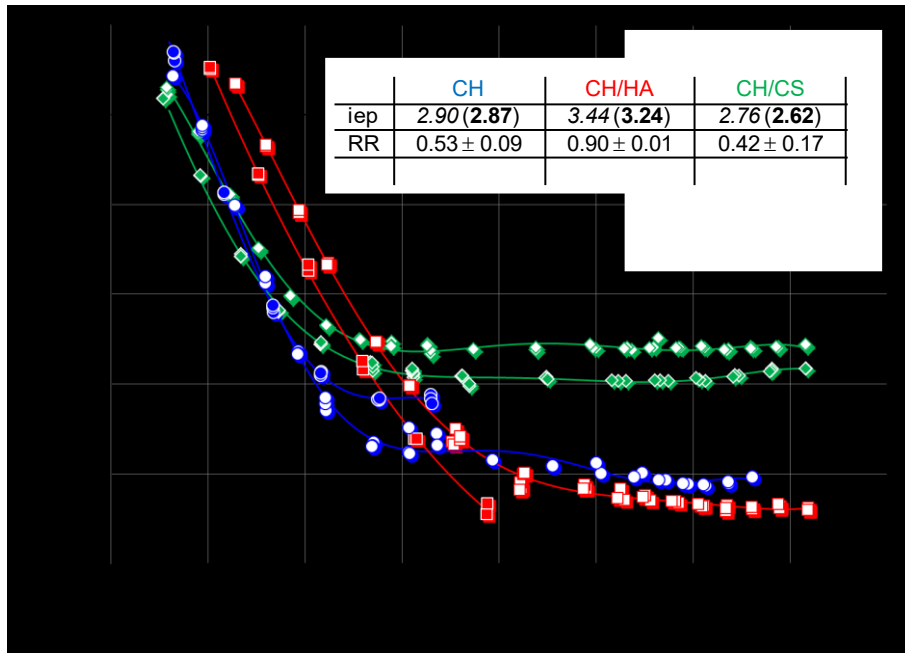
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### 353 3.2.5. Surface zeta potentials

354 Figure 6 shows the pH dependence of the  $\zeta$  for the cross-linked scaffolds. The reference material is either  
 355 PVDF or a silicon wafer with a SiO<sub>2</sub> top layer as indicated in the legend. The isoelectric points (iep) of the  
 356 scaffolds are given in the inset.

357 The evolution of the apparent  $\zeta$  with the pH of the aqueous 0.01 mol/l KCl solution show similar trends for CH  
 358 and CH/CS scaffolds (iep at pH  $2.7 \pm 0.1$  and at pH 2.9, respectively) and a plateau above pH 5, showing the  
 359 substantial effect of CA in the CH scaffold. Nonetheless, the measured plateau values of  $\zeta$  are significantly  
 360 different for CH and CH/CS ( $\zeta = -17.2 \pm 2.0$  mV;  $\zeta = -13.8 \pm 0.9$  mV, respectively), indicating that their  
 361 electric behavior at the scaffold-water interface is not the same.





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FIGURE 6: zeta potential vs pH profiles obtained for cross-linked CH (blue), CH/CS (green) and CH/HA (red) scaffolds. In the inset, the isoelectric points (iep) of scaffolds with the two reference materials, PVDF (*italics*, full symbols) and SiO<sub>2</sub> (**bold**, void symbols) and the ratio RR between measured and expected Ohm resistances in the flow channel. The PVDF and SiO<sub>2</sub> iep are 4.02 and 3.59, respectively (SI).

369 The CH/HA scaffold displays a markedly different pH-dependence of  $\zeta$ , with an iep at higher pH (pH<sub>iep</sub> 3.3 ±  
370 0.1) and a less pronounced  $\zeta$ -plateau, and only at pH > 7.5, a steady value of  $\zeta = -22$  mV is reached.  
371 Merging the information about the iep and the magnitude of the  $\zeta$  in the plateau region, the three scaffolds  
372 could be differentiated in terms of the surface and interfacial charge. All the three scaffolds have negative  
373 zeta potential in physiological fluids, stemming for a non-negligible impact of CA 1:1 in weight ratio to  
374 chitosan, otherwise expected to show a much higher iep. However the different behavior of the three  
375 scaffolds, considering iep and  $\zeta$  at plateau regions, could be related to the strong interaction between CS  
376 and the amino groups of CH that could compete with CH-CA interaction, while the interaction between CH  
377 and HA is conceivably weaker considering the lower acidity of the carboxylic groups of HA as compared to  
378 the sulfate groups of CS. Combined measurement of streaming potential and streaming current (detailed in  
379 SI) allowed estimating the ratio (RR, Fig 6, inset) of the effective and electrolyte resistances (RR). CH and  
380 CH/CS scaffolds are characterized by similar low values of RR (0.53 ± 0.09 and 0.42 ± 0.17, respectively),  
381 which indicate a significant effect of swelling. The RR value close to unity (0.90 ± 0.01) for CH/HA suggests  
382 that this shows a smaller swelling propensity. The apparently contrasting information about the swelling  
383 propensity of the different scaffolds as determined by microscopy, SAXS and  $\zeta$ , shows that swelling occurred



384 at different scales. In fact, it appears that in the CH/HA scaffold swelling is sustained by single fibers, while in  
385 the CH and CH/CS, it is due to dilatation of the scaffold mesh.

386

### 387 3.2.6. Mechanical properties

388 Both dry and hydrated cross-linked scaffolds were tested for tensile strength TS (N/cm<sup>2</sup>) and elongation (E%)  
389 at break point (Fig. S5, SI). All scaffolds display higher TS and lower E% in dry rather than wet state (both  
390 parameters, by roughly one order of magnitude). When dry, CH/CS TS value is roughly half than for CH and  
391 CH/HA, with similar elongation. In the hydrated state, this feature is more evident, as, although showing  
392 similar values of force at break, CH/CS scaffold shows significantly higher values for E%, roughly doubling its  
393 length before breaking, about 20% higher than the CH scaffold and twice that of CH/HA. Then, the presence  
394 of CS conceivably improves the ability of the scaffold to be deformed without breaking.

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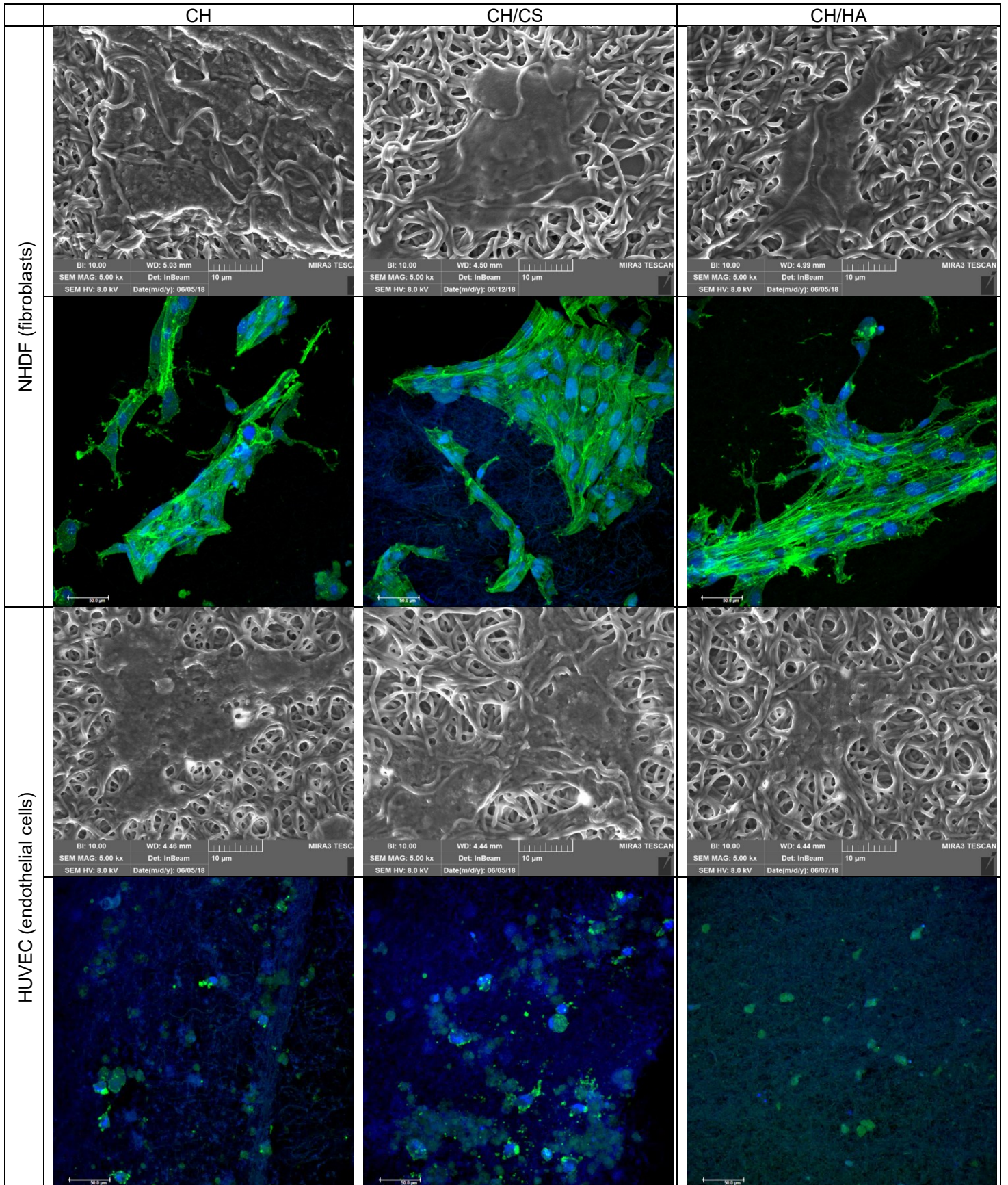
### 396 3.3. Biopharmaceutical characterizations

#### 397 3.3.1. In vitro cell adhesion and proliferation assay: fibroblasts and endothelial cells

398 In Figure S6 cytotoxicity results are shown and fibroblasts and HUVEC viability (optical density, OD)  
399 evaluated for cells grown onto CH, CH/CS and CH/HA scaffolds and in standard conditions (GM, cells grown  
400 directly on plastic well bottom was considered as standard growth) for 3 and 6 days is reported (SI).  
401 Independently of the cell type there is an increase in cell population grown onto scaffolds from 3 to 6 days to  
402 indicate that the scaffolds support the cell growth along time without impairing their proliferation and no  
403 difference between GM and scaffolds could be evidenced.

404 While after 6 days fibroblasts proliferate much more onto CH/CS scaffolds while CH scaffolds is  
405 characterized by lower cell proliferation than GM. In the case of HUVEC, scaffolds allow a cell growth like  
406 GM: CH/HA determined a cell growth higher than those of the other scaffolds and CH/CS showed a slightly  
407 lower cell proliferation with respect to CH/HA.

408 Figure 7 reports SEM and CLSM of fibroblasts (a) and HUVEC (b) grown onto scaffolds for 6 days (the 3  
409 days growth is shown in Fig. S7). These analyses confirm the proliferation results (viability). SEM  
410 microphotographs evidence that cells grow in an intimate contact with the scaffold structure and the  
411 nanofibers appear integrated in the cell substrates at subconfluency. CLSM put in evidence that fibroblasts  
412 grown onto the scaffolds are characterized by normal fusiform shapes and aligned cytoskeletons while  
413 HUVEC cells present polygonal shape. CH and CH/CS scaffolds seem to better allow cell adhesion and  
414 proliferation showing greater number of cells.



415 FIGURE 7: SEM and CLSM (in blue the nuclei and in green the cytoskeleton) microphotographs of  
 416 fibroblasts (NHDF) and endothelial cells (HUVEC) grown onto CH (left), CH/CS (centre) and CH/HA (right)  
 417 scaffolds for 6 days.

418 3.3.2. In vivo wound healing efficacy in rat model

419 Figure 8 shows lesion area vs time of treatments and the histology in correspondence of the lesions after 18  
420 days of treatment with CH, CH/CS and CH/HA scaffolds in an in vivo murine burn/excisional model. Intact  
421 skin (positive reference) and skin section in correspondence to the lesion after 18 days of treatment with  
422 saline solution (negative reference) are also reported.

423 Lesions treated with CH/CS, CH and CH/HA are in a more advanced stage of wound healing as compared to  
424 samples treated with saline solution (Fig. 8 B), in which there is a large part of skin surface without  
425 epithelium. Furthermore, in saline-treated lesions, the underlying connective tissue is still affected by an  
426 abundant inflammatory infiltrate, with numerous dilated vessels, while collagen fibers are dispersed and not  
427 yet organized. All the scaffolds can improve the skin recovery as compared to the reference although there  
428 are differences in scaffold performance. CH/CS appears to be the best performing of the three (Fig. 8 D).  
429 The epidermal layer appears fully restored, thick and well organized in several cell layers, and shows a fair  
430 degree of keratinization (cornification). Inflammatory infiltrate is almost completely absent, as well as  
431 abnormally dilated vessels. A fine network of collagen fibers is restored at the dermo-epidermal junction and  
432 the bundles of collagen fibers in the dermis has a normal size.

433 CH scaffold (Fig. 8 C) shows full restoration of the epidermal layer, thick and fairly keratinized. Bundles of  
434 collagen fibers of normal size are restored at the wound edges. But the dermis in the injured area is still  
435 rather infiltrated by inflammatory cells with several dilated vessels. Finally, also the CH/HA scaffold (Fig. 8  
436 E) displays a suboptimal performance with the epidermal layer not fully restored, and necrotic material  
437 detectable over the lesion. The dermis in the injured area is infiltrated by several inflammatory cells with  
438 dilated vessels.

439 In all cases the histologic analysis does not show any residues of the scaffolds. This could be probably due  
440 to enzymatic degradation caused by lysozyme, which chitosan is a substrate of. In fact lysozyme is normally  
441 secreted by white cells recruited in the lesion bed during the inflammatory phase of the healing process.

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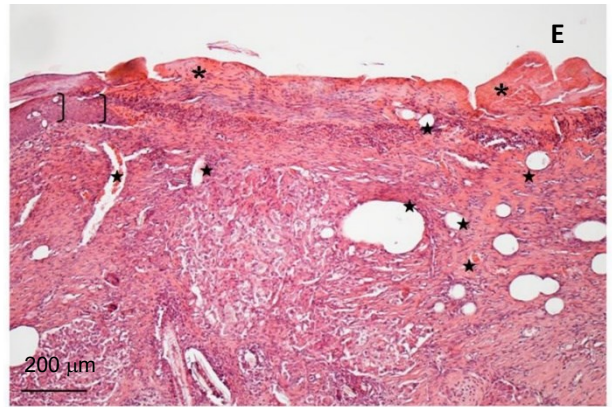
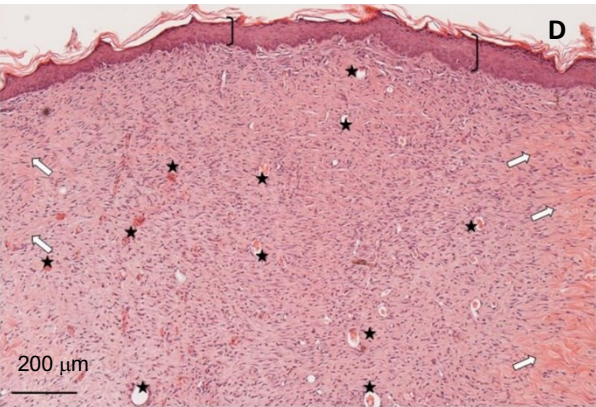
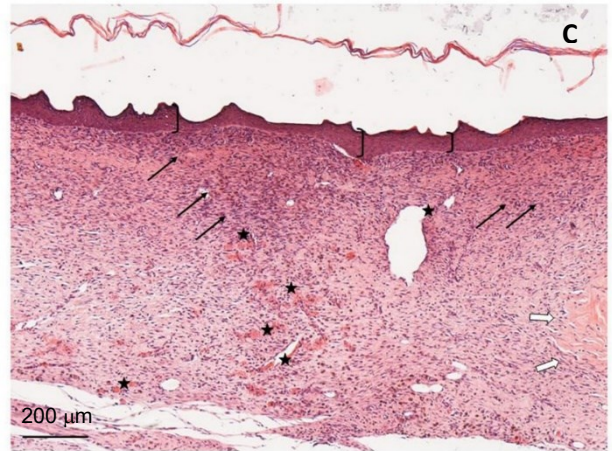
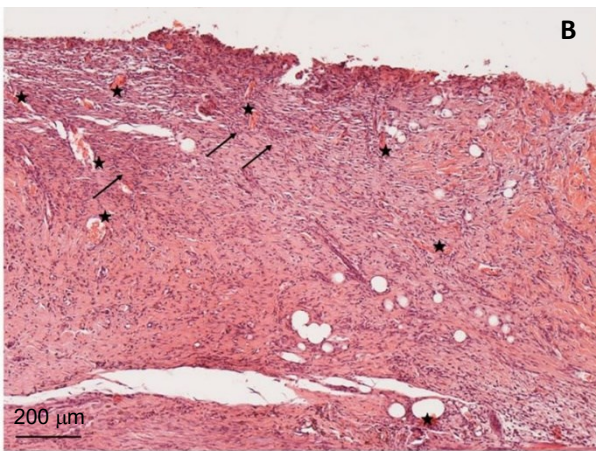
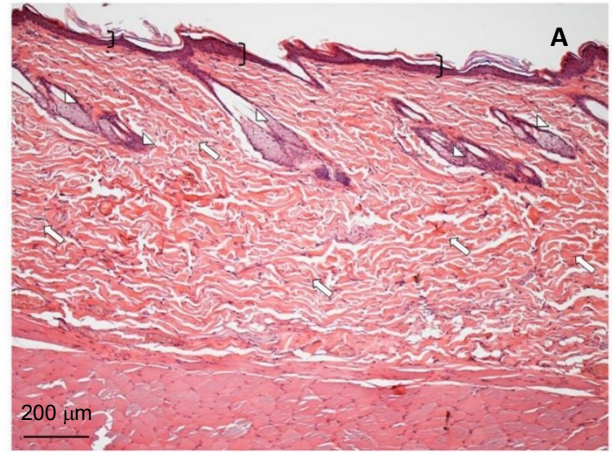
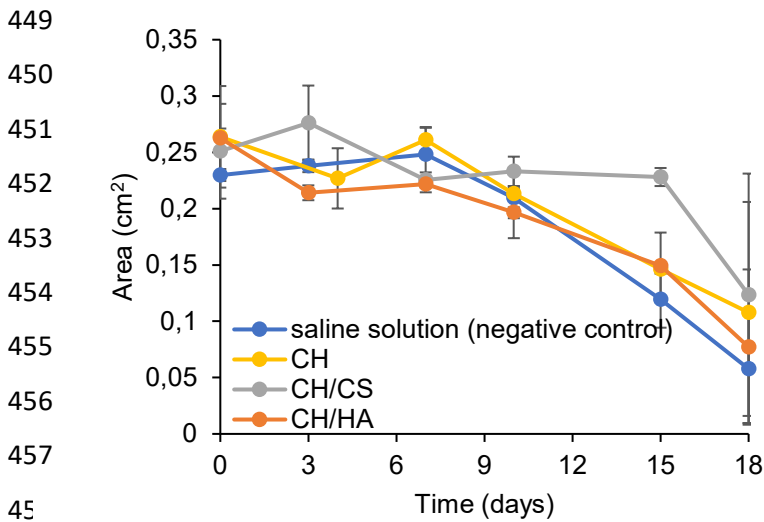
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FIGURE 8: lesion area vs time obtained during the treatments using CH, CH/CS and CH/HA scaffolds in an in vivo murine burn/excisional model (mean values $\pm$ sd; n=3) and H&E sections of A) intact skin; B) lesion treated with CH scaffold; C) lesion treated with CH/CS scaffold; D) lesion treated with CH/HA scaffold; E) V lesion treated with saline solution as negative control (scale bars are 200  $\mu$ m).

485 Conclusions

486 Electrospinning was successfully used to prepare scaffolds for reparation of critical skin lesions, like burns.  
487 The developed process allowed to obtain nanofibrous membranes entirely based on polysaccharides,  
488 starting from aqueous polymer blends. Polymers with opposite charges (CH, cationic, and CS or HA, anionic)  
489 could be simultaneously electrospun with P as matrix-forming polysaccharide. CA, present in the polymer  
490 blends, was added as cross-linking agent and activated by heating.

491 The nanofibers show regular shape and smooth surface, preserved upon the cross-linking process. The  
492 resistance of scaffolds to solubilization in aqueous fluids seems attributable to two phenomena occurring at  
493 crosslinking heat treatment: the creation of amide bonds (mainly in the CH scaffold, while hindered by the  
494 formation of PEC in CH/CS and CH/HA scaffolds) and felting, occurring when water is released from the  
495 electrospun scaffold, resulting in local physical multi-entanglement between fibers, that could not be released  
496 by simple hydration. Nonetheless, the water holding capacity of the scaffolds is preserved, and conceivably  
497 increased, by crosslinking,

498 CH/CS scaffold shows the best performance in allowing the skin healing in vivo (murine burn/excisional  
499 model) and correspondingly, it evidences the best proliferation properties in vitro (fibroblasts and HUVEC).

500 The physico-chemical analysis suggests that the CH/CS scaffold offers more adaptability in terms of swelling  
501 and fiber roughening once hydrated, thus conceivably allowing for optimal cell adhesion and migration,  
502 moreover profiting from the CS protrusion/release from the fibers. In addition, the macroscopic feature of a  
503 pronounced deformability pointed at the CH/CS scaffold as a good protective cover for non-flat or irregular  
504 surfaces.

505

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509

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513

514 Data availability

515 The raw and processed data required to reproduce these findings cannot be shared at this time as part of an  
516 ongoing study. In the SI supplementary findings support the results obtained.

517

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