



## Synthesis and characterization of divinyl-fumarate Poly- $\epsilon$ -caprolactone for scaffolds with controlled architectures

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| Complete List of Authors:     | Ronca, Alfredo; Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche, Institute for Polymers, Composites and Biomaterials<br>Ronca, Sara; Loughborough University, Department of Materials<br>Forte, Giuseppe; Loughborough University, Department of Materials<br>Zeppetelli, Stefania; National Research Council of Italy, Institute of Polymers, Composites and Biomaterials<br>Gloria, Antonio; Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche, Institute for Polymers, Composites and Biomaterials<br>De Santis, Roberto ; Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche, Institute for Polymers, Composites and Biomaterials<br>Ambrosio, Luigi; Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche, Department of Chemical Sciences and Materials Technologies |
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## Synthesis and characterization of divinyl-fumarate Poly- $\epsilon$ -caprolactone for scaffolds with controlled architectures.

A. Ronca<sup>1</sup>, S. Ronca<sup>2</sup>, G. Forte<sup>2</sup>, S. Zeppetelli<sup>1</sup>, A. Gloria<sup>1</sup>, R. De Santis<sup>1</sup> and L. Ambrosio<sup>1,3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Institute for Polymers, Composites and Biomaterials - National Research Council of Italy, Mostra d'Oltremare Pad.20, Viale J.F. Kennedy 54, 80125 Napoli, Italy.

<sup>2</sup> Department of Materials, Holywell Park, Loughborough University, Leicestershire, UK, LE11 3TU

<sup>3</sup> Department of Chemical Science and Materials Technology – National Research Council of Italy, P.le Aldo Moro, 7 - 00185 Roma, Italy.

**Abstract.** A vinyl-terminated Polycaprolactone has been developed for tissue engineering applications using a one-step synthesis and functionalization method based on Ring Opening Polymerization (ROP) of  $\epsilon$ -caprolactone, with Hydroxyl Ethyl Vinyl Ether (HEVE) acting both as the initiator of ROP and as photo-curable functional group. The proposed method employs a catalyst based on Al, instead of the most popular Tin(II) 2-ethylhexanoate, to reduce the cytotoxicity. Following the synthesis of the vinyl-terminated polycaprolactone, its reaction with Fumaryl Chloride (FuCl) results in a divinyl-fumarate polycaprolactone (VPCLF). The obtained polymers were thoroughly characterized using Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR) and gel permeation chromatography (GPC) techniques. The polymer has been successfully employed, in combination with N-vinyl Pyrrolidone (NVP), to fabricate films and computer-designed porous scaffolds by micro-stereolithography ( $\mu$ -SL) with Gyroid and Diamond architectures. Characterization of the networks indicated the influence of NVP content on the network properties. Human Mesenchymal Stem Cells (hMSCs) adhered and spread onto VPCLF/NVP networks showing good biological properties and no cytotoxic effect.

**Keywords:** Photocrosslinkable polymer, Polycaprolactone fumarate, biocompatibility, stereolithography, cell-material interactions, mathematically defined scaffold.

### 1. Introduction

Tissue engineering can provide a way to regenerate damaged tissue (Park et al., 2012; Guarino et al., 2012 a; Catauro et al., 2007). One of the most important considerations in tissue engineering is the scaffold used to provide support to the cells and to regulate cell biology and development into complex three-dimensional (3D) structures (Dhariwala et al., 2004, Ronca et al., 2013; Gloria et al., 2009). RP, also known as Solid Freeform Fabrication, is a group of techniques that creates 3D objects through repetitive deposition and processing of material layers using computer-controlled equipment (Yeong et al., 2004; De Santis et al., 2013; De Santis et al., 2011). Rapid prototyping

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4 technologies and computer-aided design (CAD) enable the precise control over pore  
5 geometry and the design of 3D structures for the preparation of tissue engineering  
6 scaffolds (Eloma et al., 2013; Guarino et al., 2012 b). Among the rapid prototyping  
7 techniques, stereolithography represent the most versatile method providing the highest  
8 precision and accuracy (Ronca et al., 2012). The key principle of stereolithography is  
9 the spatially controlled solidification of a photo-polymerizable resin. Using a computer-  
10 controlled laser beam or digital light projection, and a computer-driven support  
11 platform, 3D object can be manufactured in a layer-by-layer manner (Melchels et al.,  
12 209; Sun et al., 2005). By projecting a two-dimensional pixel-pattern through a  
13 transparent plate, a complete layer of resin can be cured at once according to complex  
14 plane pattern. (Pham et al., 1998;. Most of the available resin are based on low-  
15 molecular weight, acrylate monomers (Ronca et al., 2013; Eloma et al., 2013, Melchels  
16 et al., 2010). These materials are predominantly glassy, rigid and brittle. Only few  
17 resins have been described that allow the preparation of elastomeric objects by  
18 stereolithography (Bens et al., 2007). The functionalization of aliphatic polyesters, such  
19 as Polyglycolide (PGA), Polylactide (PLA), Poly ( $\epsilon$ -caprolactone) (PCL), with  
20 unsaturated groups and subsequent Ultraviolet (UV) crosslinking has been introduced to  
21 overcome this limitation (Grijpma et al., 2005; Sawhney et al., 1993). Photo-curable  
22 functional groups, such as methacrylate have been used most often as unsaturated group  
23 attached on precursor oligomers (Liow et al., 2009; Storey et al., 1993). However, the  
24 diffusion of unpolymerized methacrylates is one of the most important factors causing  
25 irritation in tissues (Yoshii et al., 1997; De Santis et al., 2010). Many studies have found  
26 that substances leached out from acrylic resin can cause, inflammation, or even an  
27 allergic reaction (Jorge et al., 2003; Kedjarune et al., 1999). To overcome these  
28 problems, we are investigating an alternative divinyl-fumarate PCL expected to have a  
29 lower level of toxicity and skin sensitization as compared to acrylate (Blyler et al.,  
30 1999). Synthesis and vinyl functionalization can be achieved in one step, by using ring  
31 opening polymerization (ROP). Hydroxyethyl Vinyl Ether (HEVE) was employed to  
32 play the role of the ROP initiator, and to introduce a photo-curable vinyl functional  
33 group (Lioe et al., 2009). A subsequent reaction with fumaric acid allows the  
34 introduction of a fumarate group, in order to have a tri-functional macromer suitable for  
35 UV curing (Grijpma et al., 2005). The most common initiator for ROP of  $\epsilon$ -CL is  
36 Stannous Octanoate  $\text{Sn}(\text{Oct})_2$ . Although very efficient, its cytotoxicity has recently  
37 caused deep concern about biosafety of the materials synthesized from it and used for  
38 implantation purpose (Albertsson et al., 2000; Kricheldorf et al., 2000). In this work, a  
39 Sn-free catalyst based on Al has been used in the polymerization of CL achieving more  
40 than 95% monomer conversion at room temperature (Akatsuka et al., 1995). In addition  
41 to chemical-physical characterization, in vitro cytotoxicity and biocompatibility of the  
42 crosslinked materials in direct contact with human mesenchymal stem cells (hMSCs)  
43 were also studied, to validate the potential utility of this innovative tri-functional  
44 polymer in tissue engineering applications.  
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## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Materials

All manipulations of both air and moisture sensitive compounds were performed under a protective atmosphere (nitrogen or argon) using Schlenck techniques or in a glove box.  $\epsilon$ -Caprolactone ( $\epsilon$ -CL) was purchased from Aldrich and further dried before use by 4Å molecular sieves. Dichloromethane dry was purchased from Aldrich and used as received. The Al catalyst was prepared by reacting Trimethylaluminum (10% weight solution in toluene) with 2 equivalents of 2,6-ditert-butyl-4-methylphenol (both reagents purchased from Aldrich). N-Methyl-2-Pyrrolidone (NMP) and N-Vinyl-Pyrrolidone (NVP) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (The Netherlands) and employed without further purification. The UV photoinitiator Lucirin TPO-L (ethyl-2,4,6-trimethyl-benzoylphenylphosphinate) was a gift from BASF, Germany.

### 2.2. Synthesis of divinyl fumarate

A Sn-free catalyst based on Al has been used in the polymerization of  $\epsilon$ -CL at room temperature, similarly to the procedure described by Liow et al., with the modification of the initiator used. Here the 2-Hydroxyethyl Vinyl Ether (HEVE) as photocurable initiator has been used (Liow et al., 2009). The polymerization reaction was performed in a Schlenk tube under a nitrogen atmosphere, at room temperature overnight under magnetic stirring, then quenched by addition of methanol. The precipitated PCL was filtered out, washed with further methanol and dried in a vacuum oven overnight at 40°C. After the synthesis of the vinyl-terminated PCL (VPCL,  $M_w=1.5$  kDa), the polymer was reacted with fumaryl chloride, resulting in a divinyl-fumarate polycaprolactone. As showed in Figure 1 the chains contain three photocrosslinkable vinyl units: two at the ends and one in the middle of the chain. By adjusting the  $\epsilon$ -CL to HEVE ratio, the number average molecular weight  $M_n$  of the vinyl precursor could be easily controlled to achieve a range between 2000 and 5000 g/mol. Three different molecular weights (namely as VPCLA, VPCLB and VPCLC) and one divinyl fumarate polycaprolactone (VPCLF) were achieved as reported in Table 1. Lower molar weight PCL (1.5kDa, VPCLC) was used for the fumarate reaction, this choice was driven by the requirement of a low viscosity suitable for the stereolithographic process.

### 2.3. Characterization of divinyl-fumarate polycaprolactone macromers

**2.3.1. Gel permeation chromatography (GPC).** The synthesized VPCLX (where X represent A, B and C) and VPCLF macromers were characterized with respect to molecular weight and molecular weight distribution by Gel Permeation Chromatography (GPC) in THF solution (1mg/ml) at room temperature using a GPC/SEC (Agilent Technologies 1260 Infinity).

**2.3.2. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR).** Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy (Nicolet 5700, FTIR spectrometer ) was implemented to identify

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4 the functional groups of VPCLX. KBr disks was realized using 2 mg of polymer  
5 powder compacted with 200 mg of KBr in a hydraulic press. Spectra were recorded in  
6 the 400–4000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  region (4  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  resolution, averaging 64 scans).  
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10 *2.3.3. Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC).* Thermal properties were evaluated by  
11 Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC – TA Instrument Q1000). The specimens (8-10  
12 mg) were heated from 30°C to 80°C at 10°C/min, cooled from 80°C to -80°C at  
13 10°C/min and then re-heated up to 80°C at 10°C/min. Melting temperatures were  
14 calculated from the second heating scan and reported in Table 1.  
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17 *2.3.4. Photodifferential scanning calorimeter (pDSC).* Q1000 (TA Instruments Waters  
18 LLC, New Castle, DE, USA) was used to investigate the kinetics of  
19 photopolymerization of functional group present in VPCLX and VPCLF. Pulverized  
20 VPCLX and VPCLF were dissolved in two solvents; non-photoreactive NMP and  
21 photoreactive NVP respectively. The UV light source was a 200 W high pressure  
22 mercury lamp, providing a wavelength spectrum range of 250–650 nm. Prior to the UV  
23 exposure samples were subjected to 5 minute isothermal treatment at 60°C. A nitrogen  
24 flux of 50  $\text{cm}^3/\text{min}$  assured homogeneity of temperature distribution in the measuring  
25 cell. Photocurable polymer (3±1 mg) were placed in open aluminum pans and they were  
26 exposed to UV light intensity of 50  $\text{mW}/\text{cm}^2$  for 15 minutes at constant temperature of  
27 60°C.  
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#### 31 *2.4. Photo-crosslinking of divinyl-fumarate macromers*

32 The reactivity of divinyl-fumarate macromers is significantly lower if compared to  
33 acrylate-functionalized oligomers, and N-Vinyl Pyrrolidone (NVP) is usually used as a  
34 crosslinking agent (Dome et al., 1991; He et al., 2001]. Networks were formed from  
35 VPCLF by UV irradiation (365 nm) and a biocompatible initiator (Lucirin TPO).  
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37 The NVP content was varied from 30 to 50 wt % and the influence of NVP on the  
38 network was evaluated. Briefly 5wt% of Lucirin TPO (relative to macromers) was  
39 dissolved in the desired amount of NVP by magnetic stirring and then the VPCLC-F  
40 macromers were added to the solution. The mixture was placed in an oven at 50-60 °C  
41 in order to completely dissolve the macromers. The reactive solution was poured in a  
42 Teflon mold and irradiated by UV light for 30 min at a distance of 5 cm. Diluent,  
43 unreacted macromers, t and photoinitiator were extracted from the crosslinked network  
44 using water and a 3:1 (vol/vol) mixture of isopropanol and acetone. The films were then  
45 dried in oven at 60°C for 1 day under vacuum.  
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#### 50 *2.5. Gel content and water uptake*

51 Gel content studies were performed using Tetrahydrofuran (THF). To determine the gel  
52 content of the prepared networks, VPCLF/NVP disk specimens ( $\Phi=6\text{mm}$ ,  $h=2\text{mm}$ )  
53 were weighed ( $m_0$ ), they were placed into 50 ml THF for 2 days and then dried and  
54 weighed again ( $m_1$ ). The gel content was defined as:  
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$$Gel\ content = \left(\frac{m_1}{m_0}\right) \times 100 \quad (1)$$

For water uptake measurements, specimens of extracted networks (n=4) were weighed ( $m_d$ ) and equilibrated in distilled water for 1 day at 37°C. The samples were removed from the water, blotted dry, and weighed again ( $m_s$ ). The water uptake was calculated using the following equation:

$$Water\ uptake = \frac{(m_s - m_d)}{m_d} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

## 2.6. Biological characterization

**2.6.1. hMSC expansion, seeding and culture.** Biological assays were carried out using human mesenchymal stem cells line (hMSCs, LONZA, Milano, Italy). hMSCs were cultured in 75 cm<sup>2</sup> cell culture flask in Eagle's alpha Minimum Essential Medium ( $\alpha$ -MEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), antibiotic solution (streptomycin 100 mg/mL and penicillin 100 U/mL, Sigma Chem), and 2 mM L-glutamine. hMSCs from passages 4 through 6 passage were incubated at 37°C with 5% CO<sub>2</sub> and 95% air. VPCLF/NVP disk specimens ( $\Phi$ =6mm, h=2mm) were cut from photocrosslinked films and were prepared for cell seeding by first soaking in 70% ethanol (1h) and then 1% antibiotic/antimycotic in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) (2h), and pre-wetting in medium (2h).  $15 \times 10^4$  cells, re-suspended in 50  $\mu$ l of medium, were statically seeded onto the scaffold. After seeding, the scaffolds were placed in 48-well culture plates (1 scaffold per well) and, incubated for 2 h in a humidified atmosphere (37 °C, 5% CO<sub>2</sub>). After the initial 2 h for cell attachment to the pre-wetted scaffolds 1.5 ml of cell culture medium was added. Scaffolds were maintained in culture for 2 day. Successively, the materials were rinsed twice with PBS, culture medium and unattached cells were removed. The remaining cells were then fixed using formalin (4% formaldehyde in water) for 15 min and then washed with PBS. The samples were stained with hematoxylin and washed twice in distilled water. Cell morphology spreading pattern interaction of hMSC onto VPCLF/NVP specimens were evaluated by confocal laser scanning microscopy (LSM 510, Carl Zeiss).

**2.6.2. Alamar blue assay.** Cell viability and proliferation were evaluated by the Alamar blue assay. Such technique is based on a redox reaction that occurs in the cytosol of the cells and quantifies the redox indicator which changed to a fluorescent product in response to the chemical reduction by mitochondrial enzymes such as flavin mononucleotide dehydrogenase, flavin adenine dinucleotide dehydrogenase, and nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide dehydrogenase. Furthermore a redox phenomenon gave a quantitative indication of metabolic activity of live cells. The cell-scaffold constructs were removed from the culture plates at days 1,7,10 and 14, rinsed with PBS

(HyClone, UK) and placed in 48-well culture plates. 1mL of alamar blue diluted 1:10 in phenol red-free medium was added to each well and incubated for a further 4 h at 37°C, 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. Successively, 200µL of this solution was transferred into a 96 well plate for the colorimetric analysis. Wells without any cells were used to correct any background interference from the redox indicator. The optical density was measured with a spectrophotometer (Victor X3, PerkinElmer, Massachusetts, USA) at wavelengths of 540 and 600 nm. The number of viable cells is correlated with the level of dye reduction and it is expressed as “percentage of reduction” (%AB reduction), according to the manufacturer’s protocol. Moreover, the number of viable cells on the 2D support was determined by comparing the absorbance at different culture times with a calibration curve obtained by correlating known cell numbers in the 24-well culture plates with the corresponding absorbance values. The culture medium was changed every two days.

### 2.7. Mathematically defined scaffolds

Stereolithography is a layer-by-layer fabrication method. Complex structures can be built by illuminating sequential layers of a polymerizable resin using digital pixel masks or arrays of mirrors. Lucirn TPO-L photo-initiator (5 wt%) and Orasol Orange G dye (0.1 wt%) were added to a solution containing 50 wt% VPCLF and 50 wt% NVP. This resin was used to prepare porous structures by stereolithography with a commercially available set-up (Perfactory Mini Multilens, EnvisionTec). In order to design a suitable scaffold for tissue engineering our approach was to use the family of Triply Periodic Minimal Surfaces (TMPS) as pore morphology. This advanced approach consists on designing sophisticated 3D porous structures using the periodicity of trigonometric equations. The idea was to try to simulate the complex design of models frequently encountered in the nature such as minimal surface architecture (Melchels et al., 2010). In addition, TMPS based scaffolds offer high porosity and pore interconnection that might be beneficial for tissue regeneration independently of the scaffold complexity (Yoo et al., 2011; Rajagopalan et al., 2006). K3DSurf software (<http://k3dsurf.sourceforge.net>) was employed to generate CAD-files describing the surfaces of Gyroid (G) and Diamond (D) architectures (Gandy et al., 2000; Gandy et al., 1999). The following trigonometric functions with boundary conditions  $x, y = [-6\pi, 6\pi]$  and  $z = [-3\pi, 3\pi]$  were used:

$$G: \cos(x) \cdot \sin(y) + \cos(y) \cdot \sin(z) + \cos(z) \cdot \sin(x) = C \quad (3)$$

$$D: \sin(x) \cdot \sin(y) \cdot \sin(z) + \sin(x) \cdot \cos(y) \cdot \cos(z) + \cos(x) \cdot \sin(y) \cdot \cos(z) + \cos(x) \cdot \cos(y) \cdot \cos(z) = C \quad (4)$$

To develop porous structures with a porosity of approximately 50-60%, offset values (C) of 0.5 and 0.2 are required for Gyroid and Diamond architectures, respectively. Then, all CAD files were converted to STL files and sliced into 2D sections, each

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4 having 25 $\mu$ m layer thickness, through the Envisiontec Perfactory RP 2.0 software. At  
5 the end of the fabrication process uncured resin were removed with Acetone and the  
6 scaffolds were postcured in oven at 90°C for 24h under vacuum.  
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### 8 9 *2.8. Morphological characterization of scaffolds*

10 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was performed to obtain qualitative information  
11 related to the morphology and pore characteristics of the manufactured VPCLF/NVP  
12 structures. The specimens were gold sputtered and observed with a FEI QUANTA 200  
13 FEG scanning electron microscope. As nondestructive structural analysis, micro-  
14 computed tomography ( $\mu$ -CT) was performed using a SkyScan 1172 micro-CT scanner  
15 (Bruker) at 5.45  $\mu$ m resolution. Scaffolds were mounted on a rotary stage and were  
16 scanned at an X-ray tube voltage of 59 kV, a current of 167  $\mu$ A and a rotation angle of  
17 180°. A two-dimensional (2D) detector records projections of the sample for different  
18 angular positions. For the present study 1187 projections within an angular range of 180  
19 were taken. The exposure time was 200 ms per projection. The images were recorded on  
20 a 2048 2048 CCD detector, with the pixel size set to 5.45  $\mu$ m. The 3D structure was  
21 finally reconstructed using a filtered back-projection algorithm. A volume of interest  
22 was reconstructed for each sample; a single voxel of the reconstructed image had a size  
23 of 5.45 x 5.45 x 5.45  $\mu$ m<sup>3</sup>. SkyScan CT-analyzer biomedical image software were used  
24 to generate 3D images to show the distribution of phases.  
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## 30 **3. Results and discussions**

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32 In this work we synthesized a tri-functional photocrosslinkable PCL by using HEVE in  
33 the presence of a novel Sn-free catalyst based on Al. The resulting divinyl-fumarate  
34 PCL network was characterized by its molar weights, functional end groups and  
35 transition temperatures, using several techniques including GPC, NMR, FTIR, DSC and  
36 *p*DSC.  
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### 39 *3.1. Synthesis of divinyl fumarate PCL*

40 The polymerization of  $\epsilon$ -caprolactone with the methylaluminum bis(2,6 ditertbutyl-4-  
41 methylphenolate) system proceeded smoothly at room temperature to give a polyester  
42 showing a reasonably narrow molecular weight distribution (MWD). To enable  
43 photocuring of PCL, a monofunctional vinyl ether was incorporated into each PCL  
44 chain. The resulting polymers, isolated by pouring the polymerization mixture into  
45 MeOH/H<sub>2</sub>O solution (50/50 vol/vol), had an  $M_w/M_n$  ratio that varied from 1.31 for the  
46 VPCLA to the 1.48 of the VPCLB. Also the  $M_n$  measurements closely matched the  
47 theoretical values ( $M_{n,theo}$ ) as it is shown in Table 1. PCL with a range of molecular  
48 weight ranging from 1.5 - 6 kDa were successfully synthesized but only the lower molar  
49 weight PCL (1.5kDa, VPCLC) was used for the following fumarate reaction. Low  
50 molar weight vinyl-PCL was reacted with fumaryl chloride to obtain a tri-functional  
51 photocurable polycaprolactone. The FTIR spectra of VPCL before and after the reaction  
52 with fumaryl chloride are shown in Figure 2. The absorption bands with peaks  
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4 positioned at 2947 and 2866  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , a common feature of VPCL and VPCLF spectra, are  
5 due to the stretching of the methylene groups ( $\text{CH}_2$ ) of PCL. The absorption band at  
6 1730  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  is due to the carbonyl ( $\text{C}=\text{O}$ ) vibration of PCL and fumarate. This band is  
7 stronger in the VPCLF spectrum because the carbonyl groups of PCL, as well as those  
8 of fumaryl chloride, contribute to the absorption band. The weak absorption bands with  
9 peak positions at 1240 and 1367  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  are due to the C-H rocking vibration of the di-  
10 substituted fumarate group while the peak at 1646  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  is due to  $\text{C}=\text{C}$  stretching. A  
11 relatively strong absorption band with the peak positioned at 1171  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , evident in  
12 VPCLA and VPCLF spectra, is due to asymmetric coupled vibrations of  $\text{C}-\text{C}(=\text{O})-\text{O}$   
13 and  $\text{O}-\text{C}-\text{C}$  groups of VPCL. The melting temperatures ( $T_m$ ) of the macromers were  
14 determined by DSC and are presented in Figure 3. DSC analysis shows the dependence  
15 of the melting temperature  $T_g$  as a function of average molecular weight of the  
16 macromers. The melting temperature increases progressively by increasing molecular  
17 weight. Between  $M_n=2300$  Da and  $M_n=6800$  Da the melting temperature rises from  
18 50.84°C to 53.61°C.

### 23 24 3.2. Photocrosslinking of VPCLF macromers

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26 Photocuring of the VPCL and VPCLF has been performed using two sets of samples by  
27 dissolving macromers in NMP (non-reactive solvent) and NVP (reactive solvent)  
28 respectively, in presence of a biocompatible UV photo-initiator (Lucirin TPO). Upon  
29 UV exposure, polymerization of double bonds leads to formation of linearly grafted  
30 PCL. The use of NVP as a crosslinking agent significantly increases the cross-linking  
31 rates as it is possible to see from PCA analysis (Table 2). Low reactivity of the system  
32 is further confirmed by long induction time and low rate coefficients ( $k$ ), as compared to  
33 the NVP system. High reactivity of the VPCL/NVP system is further corroborated by  
34 the lower induction time and higher rate coefficient ( $k$ ), as it is showed in Table 2.  
35 Application of reactive diluent was necessary due to the significantly lower reactivity of  
36 synthesized VPCL and VPCLF in comparison with acrylate-functionalized ones. Up to  
37 now NVP is preferable to the other small monomers (like acrylic or methacrylic acid)  
38 due to the more solubility and biocompatibility of the monomers and degradation  
39 products of the system.

### 44 45 3.3. Characterization of VPCLF/NVP network

46 Although VPCLF has the capability of being crosslinked, its polymerization reaction is  
47 very slow and results in a putty-like material after 20 min of irradiation. This behavior  
48 is probably due to the lack of enough double bonds or steric hindrance of fumarate  
49 double bonds along the VPCLF backbone, which restricts the movement of macro  
50 radicals leading to a decrease in maximum double bond conversion. Adding NVP may  
51 facilitate the crosslinking reaction, since NVP bridges adjacent VPCLF chains. Using  
52 UV irradiation (365 nm) and a biocompatible photo-initiator such as Lucirin TPO,  
53 networks were formed from VPCLF macromers and NVP. The network properties were  
54 assessed by varying the NVP content from 30 to 50 wt %. After curing for 20 min, the  
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4 gel content of the networks was above 85% in all samples. The NVP-containing VPCLF  
5 networks absorb significantly more water as it is possible to notice from Figure 4. As a  
6 consequence of the hydrophilic character of NVP, the water uptake increases by  
7 increasing the NVP content.  
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#### 10 *3.4. Cell Adhesion to VPCLF/NVP Networks*

11 To assess the suitability of these networks for cell culturing and tissue engineering,  
12 initial cell adhesion experiments were performed. The cellular attachment is the first  
13 step in evaluating the biocompatibility of hMSC onto the VPCLF material. Figure 5  
14 illustrates the confocal images of hMSCs cellular onto crosslinked material after 1 day  
15 of cell culture. Tissue culture polystyrene (TCPS) was used as a positive control (Ctr). It  
16 is worth noting that the hMSCs cells adhered well to the VPCLF/NVP networks,  
17 presenting a spread morphology and this representative morphology is a positive sign  
18 that cells have a good biocompatibility and affinity for the VPCLF/NVP materials. Even  
19 though it seems that the cells had a slightly higher tendency to aggregate on the  
20 networks with the highest NVP contents, the results indicate good cell adhesion for all  
21 the range of VPCLF/NVP networks investigated. Cell proliferation is assessed by  
22 alamar blue as shown in Figure 6. For all materials, confluency was reached within 14  
23 days. Our results demonstrated that the materials appeared not to be cytotoxic neither  
24 show a negative response to cell adhesion. This confirms that VPCLF/NVP films are  
25 suitable substrates for cell culturing.  
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#### 31 *3.5. Mathematically defined scaffolds*

32 The photochemical and biological features of the developed networks encourage their  
33 application in the field of tissue engineering. Accordingly, we studied the possibility of  
34 developing porous structures from VPCLF/NVP 50/50 formulations by  
35 stereolithography. The VPCLF/NVP resins (also containing 5 wt% Lucirin-TPO, and  
36 0.1 wt% Orange Orasol G) were first analyzed with respect to their photocuring  
37 behavior in the stereolithography apparatus. We developed porous VPCLF/NVP  
38 network scaffolds with mathematically defined architectures characterized by high pore  
39 interconnectivity and specific surface area and they are presented Figure 7. Such  
40 features make it an appropriate structures for tissue engineering, since it favors cell-  
41 seeding at high densities, also allowing homogeneous cell distribution and flow of  
42 nutrients throughout the scaffold. Structural parameters such as porosities, pore sizes  
43 and specific surface areas can be evaluated from  $\mu$ CT data. The designed architectural  
44 features are preserved and porosity is almost unaffected by the fabrication process as it  
45 is possible to notice from Table 3. Early literature suggests a minimum recommended  
46 pore size for a scaffold of 100  $\mu$ m, but recent studies have shown better osteogenesis for  
47 implants with pores size higher than 300  $\mu$ m (Karageorgiou et al., 2005; Hulbert et al.,  
48 1970). Relatively larger pores favor direct osteogenesis, since they allow vascularization  
49 and high oxygenation, while smaller pores result in osteochondral ossification, although  
50 the type of bone ingrowth depends on the biomaterial and the geometry of the pores  
51 (Kuboki et al., 2001; Ayers et al., 1999). The porous structures were analyzed by micro-  
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4 computed tomography ( $\mu$ CT) and results were reported in Figure 8. As a result of the  
5 regularity of the design and the precision of the employed building technique, the  
6 histogram shows a narrow pore size distribution for both architectures. The average  
7 pore size was 400  $\mu$ m for the Diamond and 710  $\mu$ m for the Gyroid. From the  $\mu$ CT data a  
8 porosity of 64% and 58% was determined for Gyroid and Diamond structure  
9 respectively, while the porosity of the designed architectures was 66% for the Gyroid  
10 and 59% for the Diamond. These results clearly show the suitability of the proposed  
11 materials to create porous structures with narrow pore size distributions and high pore  
12 interconnectivities by stereolithography.  
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#### 16 17 **4. Conclusions**

18 In this article a novel approach to synthesize a divinyl fumarate Polycaprolactone that  
19 can be used to manufacture tissue engineering scaffolds by stereolithography has been  
20 investigated. A non-toxic, Al-based catalyst was used for the polymerization of CL, to  
21 avoid the use of potentially cytotoxic Sn (Oct)<sub>2</sub>. Hydroxyethyl Vinyl Ether (HEVE) was  
22 employed as ROP initiator to introduce a photo-curable vinyl functional group at the  
23 beginning of the chain, while fumaric acid was added to the PCL oligomer to obtain a  
24 tri-functional UV curable resin. Photopolymerization kinetic of the resulting materials  
25 (with and without fumaric group) was studied in both NMP and NVP solution using  
26 Lucirin TPO as radical photoinitiator. The best results were obtained when using a  
27 reactive solvent, such as NVP. The resins were successfully employed to build complex  
28 3D structures based on Gyroid and Diamond architectures, with high interconnectivity  
29 and porosity. The versatility provided by stereolithography technique will allow the  
30 fabrication of implants with different porosities, pore sizes and morphology that can  
31 mimic the complex architecture of tissue-specific sites. Human Mesenchymal Stem  
32 Cells, seeded on scaffolds prepared from VPCLF/NVP resin, were spread on the surface  
33 after 24 h and formed a confluent cell layer. Results suggest that VPCLF/NVP  
34 macromers is potentially useful as a cross-linkable material for tissue regeneration.  
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## Tables

**Table 1: molecular mass and Glass transition temperatures of Vinyl-PCL and divinyl fumarate PCL**

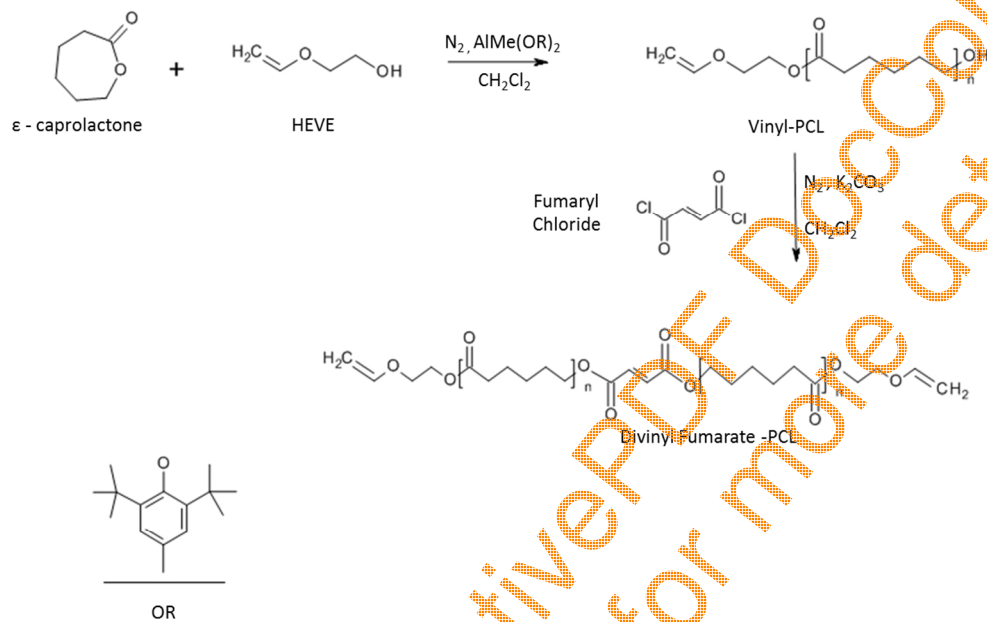
| Sample | Ratio               |                   | $M_n$ (Theor) | GPC         |     | DSC               |
|--------|---------------------|-------------------|---------------|-------------|-----|-------------------|
|        | $\epsilon$ -CL/HEVE | $\epsilon$ -CL/Al |               | $M_n$ (GPC) | PDI | $T_m$             |
| VPCL A | 50/1                | 50/0.3            | 6000 Da       | 6800* Da    | 1.3 | 53.5 <sup>#</sup> |
| VPCL B | 25/1                | 25/0.3            | 3000 Da       | 3900* Da    | 1.5 | 52.4 <sup>#</sup> |
| VPCL C | 12.5/1              | 12.5/0.3          | 1500 Da       | 2400* Da    | 1.3 | 50.8 <sup>#</sup> |
| VPCL F | -                   | -                 | 3000 Da       | 4400* Da    | 1.9 | 52.6 <sup>#</sup> |

\*  $\pm 6\%$  from calibration<sup>#</sup>  $\pm 0.05^\circ\text{C}$  from calibration**Table 2: Kinetic parameters for the photopolymerization of vinyl-PCL and divinyl fumarate PCL in NMP and NVP solution with 5 wt% Lucirin TPO.**

| Sample | Enthalpy (J/g) |                 | Peak maximum (s) |                 | Reacted at peak (%) |                  |
|--------|----------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|---------------------|------------------|
|        | NMP            | NVP             | NMP              | NVP             | NMP                 | NVP              |
| VPCL A | 7.2 $\pm$ 1.3  | 204.7 $\pm$ 2.1 | 0.58 $\pm$ 0.02  | 0.27 $\pm$ 0.02 | 21.30 $\pm$ 3.75    | 29.21 $\pm$ 5.30 |
| VPCL B | 10.1 $\pm$ 2.1 | 207.8 $\pm$ 4.0 | 0.55 $\pm$ 0.03  | 0.28 $\pm$ 0.02 | 14.14 $\pm$ 2.56    | 33.76 $\pm$ 1.41 |
| VPCL C | 9.4 $\pm$ 1.7  | 180.3 $\pm$ 3.6 | 0.53 $\pm$ 0.02  | 0.34 $\pm$ 0.04 | 18.33 $\pm$ 3.89    | 32.30 $\pm$ 2.98 |
| VPCL F | 15.7 $\pm$ 1.5 | 208.1 $\pm$ 9.5 | 0.43 $\pm$ 0.02  | 0.25 $\pm$ 0.02 | 16.94 $\pm$ 5.43    | 25.55 $\pm$ 3.88 |

**Table 3: Results from  $\mu$ CT: comparison of structural parameters of the developed porous structures.**

| Sample  |       | Porosity         | Specific surface area | Average pore size |
|---------|-------|------------------|-----------------------|-------------------|
|         |       | (%)              | ( $\text{mm}^{-1}$ )  | ( $\mu\text{m}$ ) |
| Gyroid  | Built | 64.39 $\pm$ 1.45 | 9.06 $\pm$ 1.2        | 710 $\pm$ 21      |
|         | CAD   | 66.75            | 8.13                  | -                 |
| Diamond | Built | 58.45 $\pm$ 1.54 | 9.40 $\pm$ 1.4        | 400 $\pm$ 18      |
|         | CAD   | 59.13            | 7.09                  | -                 |



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Figure 1: General reaction scheme of the  $\epsilon$ -caprolactone using HEVE as transfer agent and successive reaction with fumaryl chloride  
105x66mm (300 x 300 DPI)



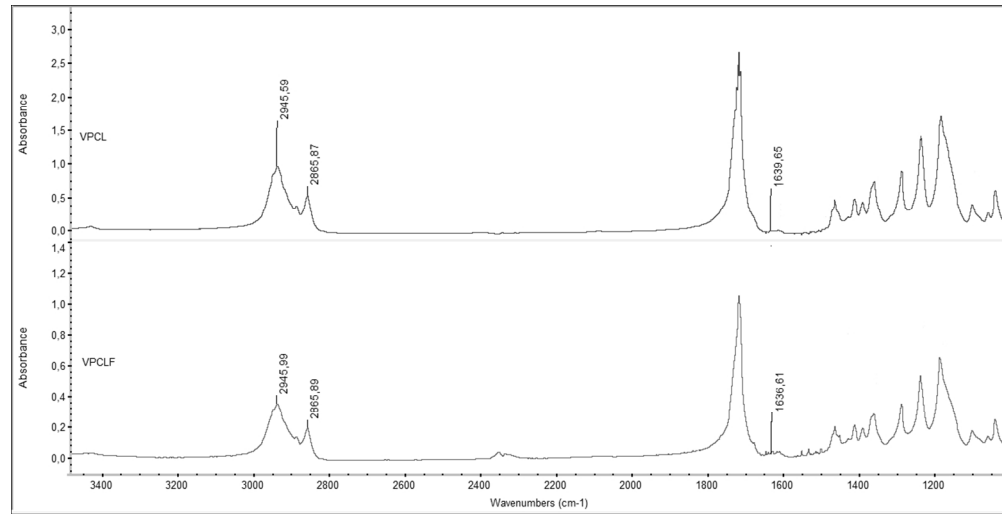


Figure 2: FTIR spectra of VPCL and VPCLF  
107x54mm (300 x 300 DPI)

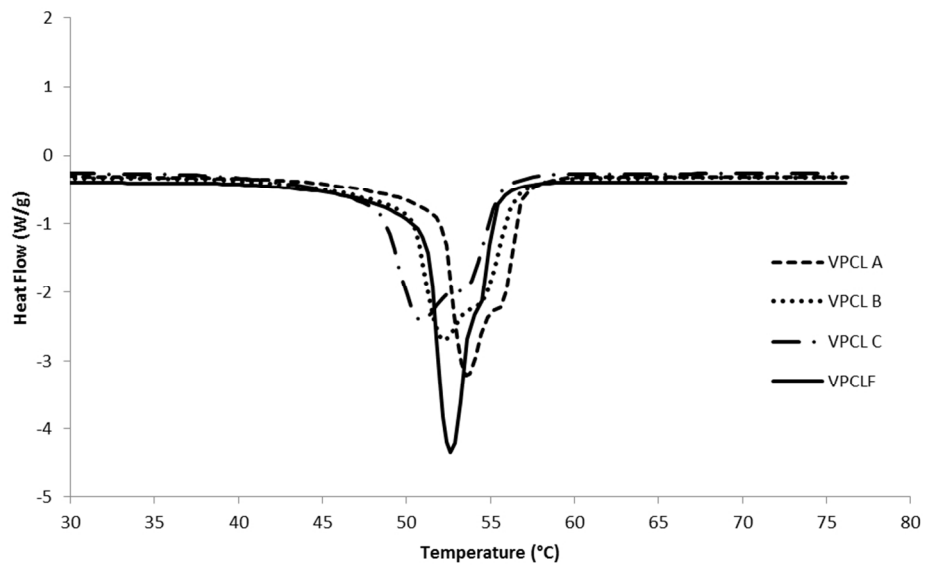


Figure 3: DSC thermograms of VPCL and VPCLF macromers  
91x53mm (300 x 300 DPI)

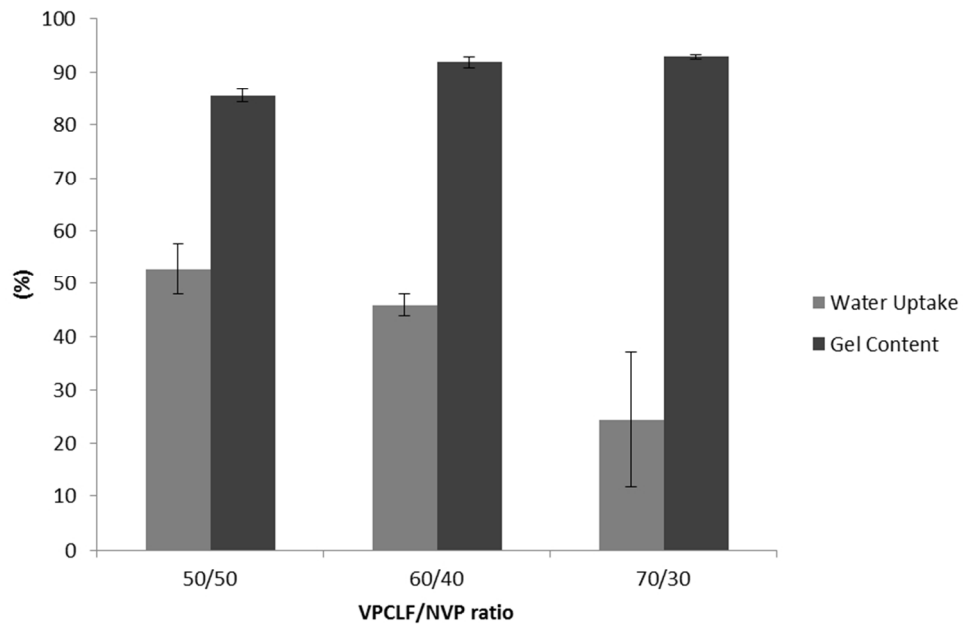


Figure 4: Water uptake and gel content for crosslinked sample at different VPCLF/NVP ratio  
78x51mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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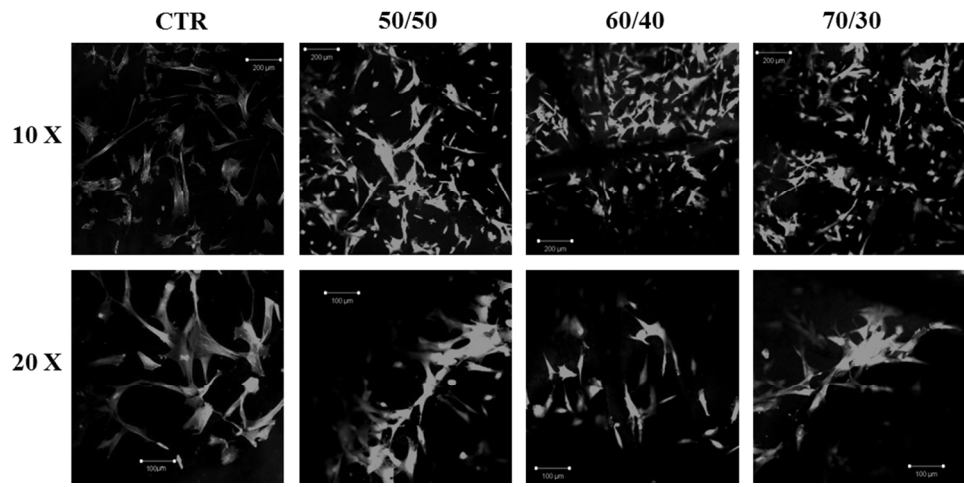


Figure 4: Confocal images of hMSCs adhesion and cell material-interaction on VPCLF/NVP rounded sample and tissue culture polystyrene (CTR) after culturing for 24 h 97x46mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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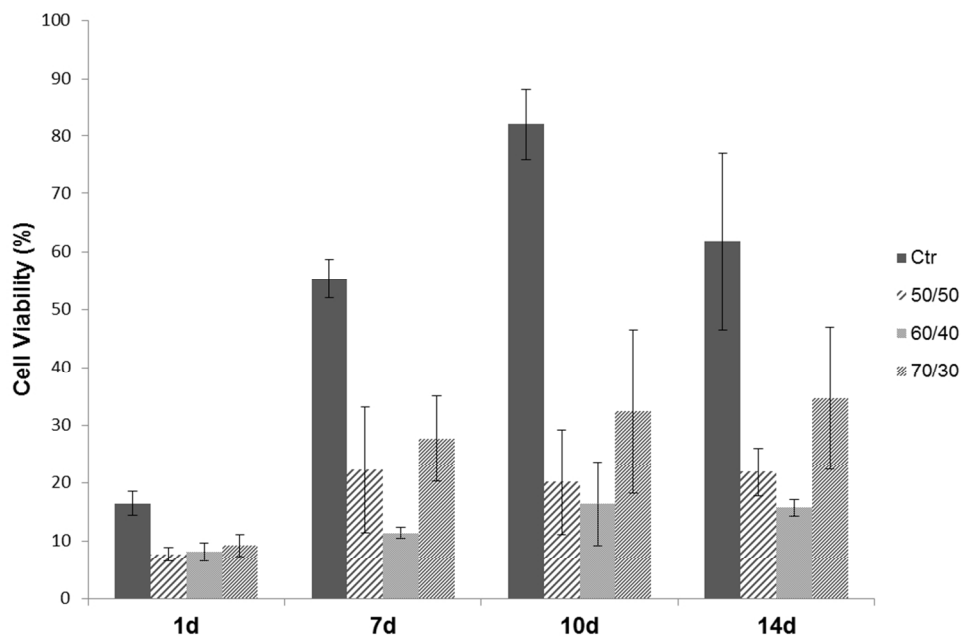


Figure 6: Viability of hMSCs on VPLCF/NVP specimens (Alamar Blue assay). Control: tissue culture polystyrene (negative control). 92x59mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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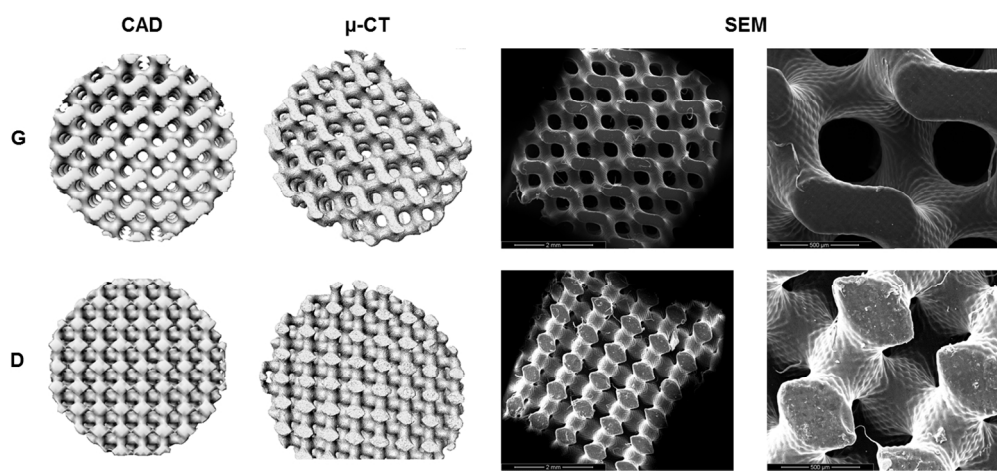


Figure 7: SEM analysis on structures obtained by stereolithography from VPCLF/NVP resin: images of porous structures with Gyroid (G) and Diamond (D) primitive pore network architecture  
124x57mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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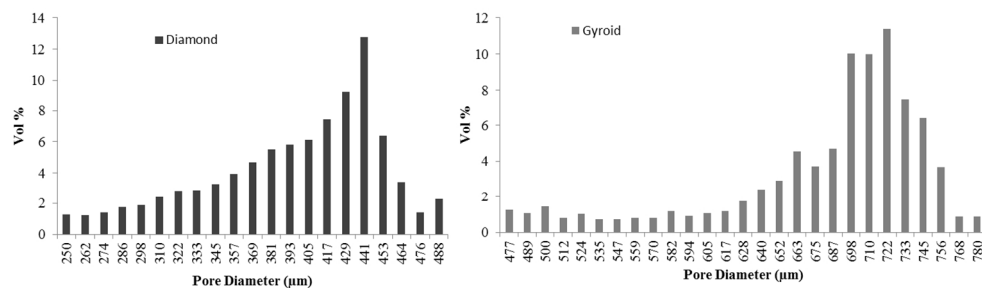


Figure 8: Pore size distribution for Diamond and Gyroid built structures  
125x35mm (300 x 300 DPI)