

Microfluidic-Engineered Preparation of Poly-L-lactic Acid Porous Microspheres as Cell Scaffolds

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Regenerative medicine has emerged as a promising field to address tissue damage and organ failure, with porous microspheres playing a crucial role as cell carriers in tissue engineering applications. However, conventional fabrication methods often result in heterogeneous size distributions and poorly controlled pore structures, limiting their effectiveness. This study leverages microfluidic technology to overcome these challenges and develop uniform poly (L-lactic acid) (PLLA) porous microspheres. We comprehensively evaluate their physical and biological properties, including morphology, size distribution, pore structure, and biocompatibility. Through long-term culture experiments, we investigated the microspheres' capacity to support cell growth and proliferation, demonstrating their effectiveness as cell scaffolds. Our research provides valuable insights into the potential of microfluidic-produced PLLA porous microspheres and its further translational medicine.

Keywords: tissue engineering, porous microspheres, microfluidic, PLLA, cell scaffolds.

1. INTRODUCTION

Regenerative medicine has emerged as a groundbreaking field in modern healthcare, offering promising solutions to address the growing challenges of tissue damage, organ failure, and degenerative diseases [1, 2]. The core of regenerative medicine is tissue engineering, which aims to restore, maintain, or enhance tissue function by combining cells and biomaterials [3]. Central to the success of tissue engineering strategies is the development of appropriate scaffolds that provide a suitable microenvironment for cell growth, proliferation, and differentiation [4–6].

Porous microspheres have gained significant attention among various scaffold designs due to their unique advantages in tissue engineering applications, mainly as cell carriers [7–9]. These three-dimensional structures have several benefits, including their high surface-to-volume ratio, and improved cell attachment and proliferation, which makes them very attractive for minimally invasive cell delivery therapies [10–12]. The porous nature of these microspheres provides an ideal environment for cell adhesion and growth, while their spherical shape allows for uniform cell distribution and easy handling [7, 9, 13]. Moreover, porous microspheres promote cell-to-cell interactions and the formation of three-dimensional tissue-like structures, which are crucial for many tissue engineering applications [7, 8]. Poly (L-lactic acid) (PLLA) has emerged as a promising candidate for optimal materials to fabricate these porous microspheres. PLLA is a

biocompatible polymer with excellent mechanical properties and processability, making it highly suitable for various tissue engineering applications [14, 15]. Its versatility allows for the creation of porous microspheres with controlled physical properties to meet the requirements of multiple cell types and tissue engineering strategies [16, 17]. Additionally, they are widely employed as a source of chirality for self-organizing low molar mass [18–20] and macromolecular systems [21–23], thus demonstrating their broader significance and versatility across various scientific and industrial areas.

Conventional methods for preparing porous microspheres, such as emulsion solvent evaporation and phase separation, often result in heterogeneous size distributions and poorly controlled pore structures [7, 24]. These limitations can significantly impact the performance of microspheres in biological applications, where uniform size and pore structure are crucial for consistent cell behavior and distribution [25]. To overcome these challenges, microfluidic technology has emerged as a promising approach for particle production. This technology offers precise particle size and morphology control, improved reproducibility, and reduced batch-to-batch variations [24, 26, 27]. These advantages make microfluidic approaches particularly attractive for producing PLLA porous microspheres with tailored properties for tissue engineering applications.

This study uses microfluidic technology to develop uniform PLLA porous microspheres and comprehensively evaluate their potential as cell scaffolds and delivery

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vehicles. Our approach includes a thorough characterization of the microspheres' physical and biological properties, such as morphology, size distribution, pore structure and biocompatibility. We examine the microspheres' capacity to promote cell growth and proliferation through extended culture studies, proving their efficacy as cell scaffolds. This comprehensive evaluation aims to provide valuable insights into the potential of these microfluidic-produced microspheres for various applications in tissue engineering and regenerative medicine.

2. EXPERIMENTAL

To prepare PLLA porous microspheres, we constructed a microfluidic platform using an 18G/25G coaxial needle. A 1 % PVA solution was used for both the continuous phase and the collection solution. We dissolved PLLA (2.5 %, w/v) in dichloromethane and 0.1 g ammonium bicarbonate in 10 ml aqueous solution. The PLLA and ammonium bicarbonate were mixed in a 3:1 ratio and homogenized in the dispersed phase at 5000 rpm for 2 min. The flow rate of the dispersed phase was set at 0.1 mL/min and the continuous phase at 2 mL/min. Shearing on a microfluidic platform formed Homogeneous droplets, and mechanical stirring evaporated the solvent overnight. Ammonium bicarbonate decomposed to form a pore structure. After washing and lyophilization, we obtained porous microspheres (Fig. 1), and they were named PLLA PMs.

We used a stereomicroscope (NSZ-608T, China) and an optical microscope (Leica, Germany) to observe the shape of the microspheres. The particle size of the microspheres was then measured based on the microscope imaging results ($n = 100$). We subsequently observed the morphology of the microspheres using SEM (Zeiss, USA) and measured their pore size. To assess the cytotoxicity, the microspheres were sterilized by UV light for 2 h and subsequently immersed in α MEM (Cytiva, China) containing serum and antibiotics for

24 hours. The extract was filtered and subsequently diluted to create six concentration gradients, with concentrations of 4, 2.5, 1, 0.5, 0.25, and 0.125 mg/mL, respectively. MC3T3-E1 cells were seeded in 96-well plates, and the medium was replaced with microsphere extract after 24 hours. The cells were incubated for another 24 hours. After adding the CCK-8 solution (Beyotime, China), we measured the absorbance at 450 nm to assess cell viability after 1 h of incubation.

We sterilized PLLA PMs with alcohol and co-cultured them with MC3T3-E1 cells in anti-adhesion treated well plates. The solution was replaced every two days, and the live and dead cell dyes were introduced after 3, 5, and 10 days of incubation. We observe the cell viability using confocal microscopy (Nikon, Japan) after a PBS wash, with green indicating live cells and red indicating dead cells.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We prepared PLLA PMs by combining the microfluidic technique with solvent volatilization. The microfluidic technique made droplets that were about 500 μ m in diameter and had a very uniform size and shape because they had excellent monodispersity and spherical structure as seen under Stereomicroscope (Fig. 2 a). The microscope images further confirmed the homogeneity of the microspheres (Fig. 2 b). Also revealed that the microspheres possessed a certain degree of light transmittance, which implied the possible existence of a porous structure within them. SEM images provided a high-resolution view of the microsphere surface structure (Fig. 2 c), demonstrating the uniformly distributed porous structure. These pores vary in size and form a honeycomb-like surface morphology. When using porous microspheres as cell carriers, the particle size plays a crucial role. A reduction in particle size increases the microsphere's surface area-to-volume ratio, facilitating cell-to-microsphere contact and material exchange.

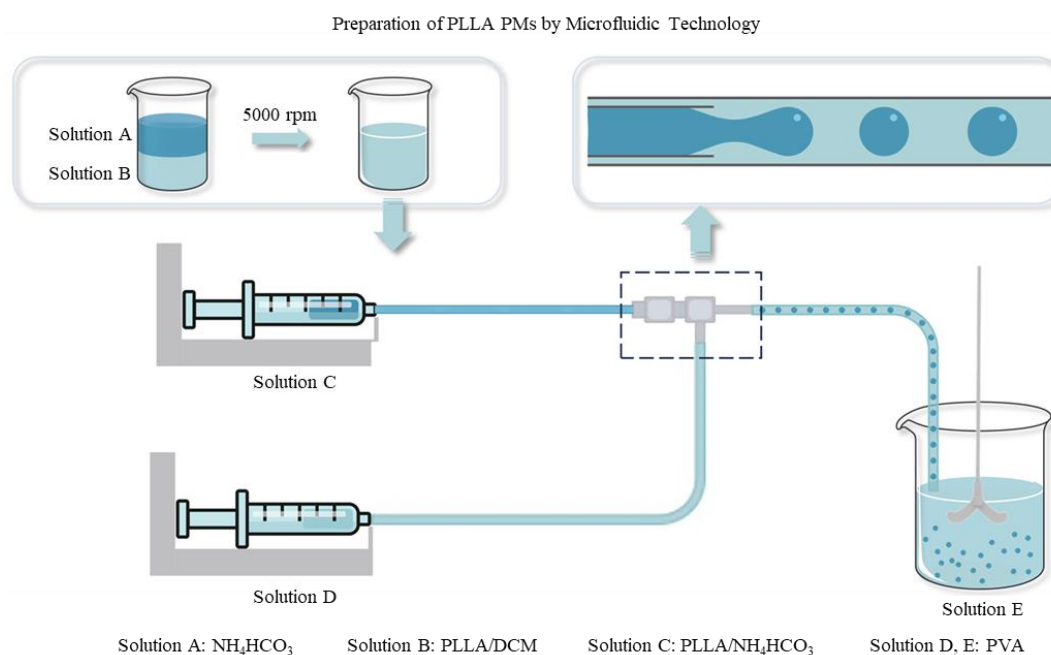


Fig. 1. Schematic illustration for the preparation of PLLA PM

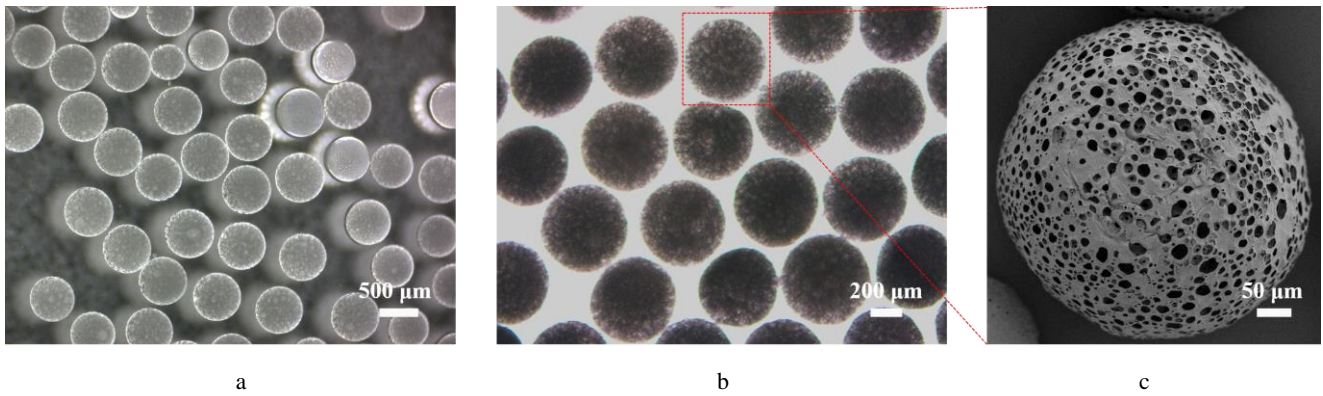


Fig. 2. PLLA PMs images: a – stereoscopic; b – optical microscopy; c – SEM

However, a tiny particle size may increase the risk of cellular phagocytosis. In contrast, large particle size is more conducive to maintaining the growth of cell populations and forming larger tissue structures [28]. The particle size measurements showed that the porous microspheres were predominantly distributed between 400 and 550 μm , with an average size of 469.61 μm . Compared to conventional microsphere preparation methods, microfluidic technology produces microspheres with a more uniform size distribution. Additionally, pore size significantly influences various cellular processes, including adhesion, proliferation, migration, and the transport of nutrients and metabolic waste [29]. Porous microspheres with the appropriate pore size are critical for promoting cell migration and growth as a cell culture carrier [30]. The pore size measurements indicated that the microsphere pores were predominantly distributed between 10 and 40 μm , with an average pore size of 18.04 μm (Fig. 3 b). This range is sufficient to meet the requirements for cell migration, nutrient transport, and gas exchange within the pores.

Ideal biomaterials should demonstrate excellent biocompatibility. We used the CCK-8 assay to assess cell viability by measuring cell metabolic activity and determining whether the prepared PLLA PMs meet this

essential criterion. MC3T3-E1 cells were treated with six different concentrations of PLLA PMs extracts, and the cytotoxicity of the materials at these concentrations was evaluated (Fig. 4).

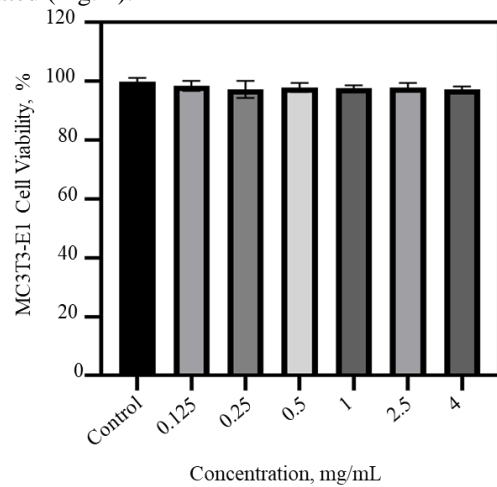


Fig. 4. Cell viability of MC3T3-E1 on PLLA PMs at various concentrations (CCK-8 assay)

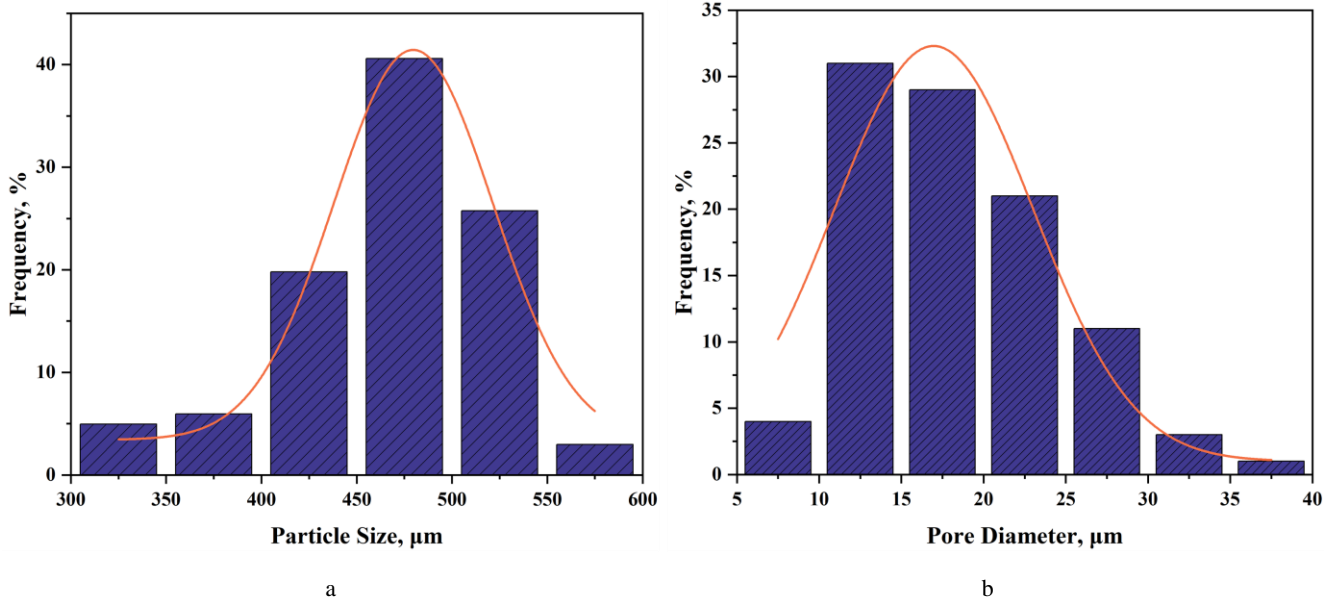


Fig. 3. Distribution of PLLA PMs: a – particle size; b – pore size

According to the microscopic imaging results (Fig. 5 a), on day 3 of co-culture, the cells were mostly present as single cells on the microspheres, with very few clustered aggregates. The microspheres also tended to be monodisperse, suggesting that the PMs provide a favorable attachment site for the cells and promote initial cell adhesion. On day 5, the cells formed clusters and interconnected with the microspheres. On day 10, most of the cells had attached to the microspheres in clusters, forming a densely connected cell-material composite. The live-dead staining revealed that most of the cells adhered to the surface of the microspheres on day 3 of the co-culture (Fig. 5 b, c). Initially, we observed fewer cells in the interior of the microspheres. However, as the co-culture period progressed, the number of cells increased, eventually covering the whole surface of the microspheres by day 10. Almost no PI (propidium iodide)-labeled dead cells were visible, and the green fluorescence indicated that most of the cells were alive. This shows that the porous microspheres, served as suitable three-dimensional porous scaffolds, are biocompatible and could provide an alternative microenvironment for cell growth. Besides, PLLA PMs can promote the initial adhesion and proliferation of cells and support the formation of a stable three-dimensional network structure. Meanwhile, PLLA PMs exhibited excellent biocompatibility and maintained high cell viability and low mortality.

4. CONCLUSIONS

In this study, we prepared uniform PLLA PMs using microfluidic technology and comprehensively evaluated their potential as cell scaffolds and delivery vehicles. We confirmed the superiority of these microspheres for tissue engineering applications through in-depth characterization of their physical and biological properties, including morphology, particle size distribution, pore structure, and biocompatibility. Long-term culture experiments further demonstrate the ability of microspheres to support cell growth and proliferation. This study provides an alternative insight into regenerative medicine and offers new opportunities to address health challenges such as tissue damage, organ failure, and degenerative diseases.

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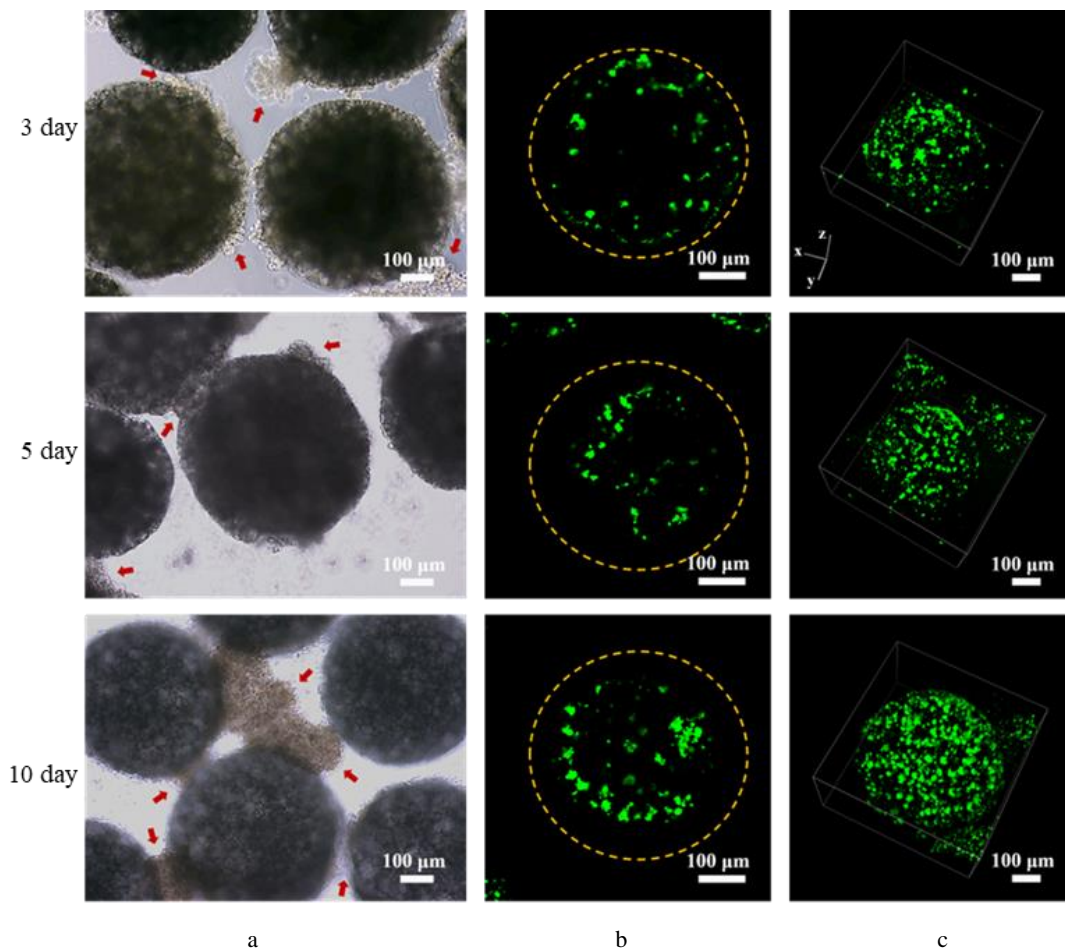


Fig. 5. PLLA PMs and MC3T3-E1 cells co-culture: a—microscopic images at 3, 5, and 10 days; b—live-dead staining; c—3D confocal microscopy

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