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Structure-property relationships of novel phosphonate-functionalized networks and gels of poly(β -amino esters)

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ARTICLEINFO	A B S T R A C T
Keywords:	pH sensitivity, biodegradability and high biocompatibility make poly(β-amino esters) (PBAEs) important bio-
Poly(β-amino esters)	materials with many potential applications including drug and gene delivery and tissue engineering, where their
Biodegradable polymer	degradation should be tuned to match tissue regeneration rates. Therefore, we synthesize novel phosphonate-
Phosphonate	functionalized PBAE macromers, and copolymerize them with polyethylene glycol diacrylate (PEGDA) to pro-
Mechanical properties	duce PBAE networks and gels. Degradation and mechanical properties of gels can be tuned by the chemical

structure of phosphonate-functionalized macromer precursors. By changing the structure of the PBAE macromers, gels with tunable degradations of 5-97% in 2 days are obtained. Swelling of gels before/after degradation is studied, correlating with the PBAE identity. Uniaxial compression tests reveal that the extent of decrease of the gel cross-link density during degradation is much pronounced with increasing amount and hydrophilicity of the PBAE macromers. Degradation products of the gels have no significant cytotoxicity on NIH 3T3 mouse embryonic fibroblast cells.

1. Introduction

Photopolymerizable biodegradable materials have been used in a wide range of biomedical applications such as tissue engineering and drug delivery because of their advantages of in vivo curing and no requirement of removal surgery [1–5]. Synthetic polymers have been utilized due to their adjustable chemical, physical and biological properties such as hydrophobicity, surface charge, degradation, porosity, mechanical properties and cell adhesion behavior [6,7].

Poly(β-amino ester)s (PBAEs) are an important class of biodegradable synthetic polymers which are being investigated as gene [8-15] and drug [16-21] delivery vehicles and tissue engineering scaffolds [22-34] due to their pH sensitivities, biodegradabilities and high biocompatibilities. They are easily prepared by Michael addition of difunctional amines to commercial diacrylates under mild conditions and are degradable to diols, $bis(\beta-aminoacids)$, and poly(acrylic acid)chains under physiological conditions by cleavage of ester linkages due to hydrolysis. Acrylate terminated PBAEs can be easily prepared using acrylate/amine molar ratios > 1 and can be photopolymerized into degradable networks. To illustrate, a combinatorial approach was used to synthesize PBAE gels with a wide range of degradation times and mechanical properties for tissue engineering applications [22]. The effects of macromer structure and molecular weight on network properties such as degradation rate, mechanical properties and cell interactions were investigated [23,24]. The influence of macromer branching investigated by adding a trifunctional monomer showed a dose dependent improvement in network properties such as compressive modulus, tensile modulus and T_g [25]. Some PBAE macromers were electrospun into scaffolds with diverse properties [26,27]. Fast degrading PBAE gels were used as porogens in a slower degrading PBAE matrix to generate scaffolds for tissue growth [29]. Trigger-responsive PBAE hydrogels with acid sensitive and reduction responsive diacrylates were utilized for protein encapsulation [30].

Although properties such as the chemical structure of PBAE macromer, its molecular weight, branching etc. allow customization of network properties, the gels still undergo degradation and lose their mechanical properties too fast for most biomedical applications. One way to match the gels' properties to a desired application is to prepare their copolymers or composites. For example, PBAE macromers were used as crosslinkers for the synthesis of 2-hydroxyethyl methacrylate

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(HEMA) and N-vinylpyrrolidone (NVP) hydrogels to enhance the hydrogels' swelling and degradation properties [31]. Semi-degradable polymer networks, copolymers of PBAE macromers and methyl methacrylate, were prepared to control and enhance mechanical properties during degradation [32,33]. It was shown that as the low T_g component degrades, the T_g of the network and hence its modulus increases to give materials with tailorable toughness. Calcium sulfate/PBAE biodegradable hydrogel composites were developed to help vertical bone regeneration by preventing soft tissue infiltration [34].

Phosphorous-based materials have been widely used in the biomedical field due to their biodegradable, hemocompatible and protein resistant nature [35]. Incorporation of phosphorous containing groups to polymeric networks extends their application areas due to their strong interaction with hydroxyapatite-based tissue [36-39] and enhances their cell adhesion, [40-45] swelling and thermal properties. Recently, we have reported the effect of the phosphonate and bisphosphonate group on PBAE network properties [46-48]. Phosphonatefunctionalized PBAE macromers were synthesized through reaction of various diacrylates and a primary phosphonate-functionalized amine (diethyl 2-aminoethylphosphonate). It was found that their gels, except polyethylene glycol diacrylate (PEGDA)-based ones, support the attachment of a larger number of SaOS-2 cells than nonphosphonated ones [46]. Bisphosphonate-functionalized PBAE gels with different chemistries exhibited similar degradation behavior, indicating that the hydrophilic nature of the bisphosphonate functional groups dominates all the other effects and leads to the high mass loss. These macromers were used as crosslinkers for the synthesis of HEMA hydrogels, conferring small and customizable degradation rates upon them [47].

Although PEGDA hydrogels are one of the most widely studied biomaterials due to their biocompatibility and bioinertness, they have very slow degradation in vivo and hence are unsuitable for long-term implant applications. Therefore, it is desirable to adjust their degradation by functionalization to match tissue regeneration rates. In this study, we have synthesized novel phosphonate-functionalized PBAE macromers through Michael addition of a new difunctional phosphonated secondary amine and three different diacrylates with various hydrophilic/hydrophobic properties. The macromers were then copolymerized with PEGDA, to form gels with tunable degradation and mechanical properties. We focus on the effect of the chemical structure of PBAE macromers on gel properties such as swelling and degradation. Moreover, for the first time in the literature, we have also studied the mechanical properties of the gels as a function of the type and the amount of the macromers. As will be seen below, we were able to tune the degradation rate of gels and their cross-link density by changing the amount and hydrophilicity of PBAE macromers, to match those desired for tissue engineering applications.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

4,9-dioxa-1,12-dodecanediamine, diethyl vinylphosphonate, 1,6hexanediol diacrylate (HDDA), poly(ethylene glycol) diacrylate (PEGDA, $M_p = 575 \text{ Da}$), 1,6-hexanediol ethoxylate diacrylate (HDEDA), 1,8-diazabicyclo [5.4.0] undec-7-ene (DBU) and 2,2-dimethoxy-2-phenylacetophenone (DMPA) were commercially available from Aldrich Chemical Co. and were used as received. Roswell Park Memorial Institute (RPMI) 1640 medium (with L-glutamine and 25 mM HEPES), penicillin/streptomycin (pen-strep) and trypsin-EDTA were purchased from Multicell, Wisent Inc. (Canada). Fetal bovine serum (FBS) was obtained from Capricorn Scientific GmbH (Germany). Thiazolyl blue tetrazolium bromide (MTT) and phosphate buffered saline (PBS) tablets were provided by Biomatik Corp. (Canada). The 96well plates were purchased from Nest Biotechnology Co. Ltd. (China). NIH 3T3 mouse embryonic fibroblast cells were a kind gift of Dr. Halil Kavakli (Department of Molecular Biology and Genetics, Koc University, Istanbul, Turkey).

2.2. Methods

¹H, ¹³C and ³¹P NMR spectra were measured with a Varian Gemini 400 spectrometer using deuterated chloroform (CDCl₃) or methanol (MeOD) as solvent. Chemical shifts (δ) were reported as ppm downfield from tetramethylsilane (TMS) as an internal standard. Coupling constants (*J*) were given in hertz (Hz). IR spectra were obtained on a Thermo Scientific Nicolet 6700 FTIR spectrometer in the range of 4000–650 cm⁻¹. Potentiometric titrations were carried out using a WTW Inolab 720 pH meter and WTW SenTix 41 epoxy pH electrode at room temperature. Glass transition temperatures (T_g) of the macromers and gels were determined by using a differential scanning calorimeter (DSC, TA Instruments, Q100). The samples were analyzed at a heating rate of 10 °C/min and in a temperature range of -90 to 200 °C. Degradation studies were done using a VWR Incubating Mini Shaker operating at 37 °C and 200 rpm.

2.3. Synthesis of tetraethyl (7,12-dioxa-3,16-diazaoctadecane-1,18-diyl) bis(phosphonate) (PA)

2.3.1. Method 1

4,9-dioxa-1,12-dodecanediamine (0.5 g, 0.52 mL, 2.45 mmol) and diethyl vinylphosphonate (0.84 g, 0.79 mL, 5.15 mmol) were mixed at room temperature for two days. The mixture was washed with hexane to remove unreacted diethyl vinylphosphonate and the pure product was obtained as colorless liquid in 85% yield.

2.3.2. Method 2

4,9-dioxa-1,12-dodecanediamine (0.5 g, 0.52 mL, 2.45 mmol) and diethyl vinylphosphonate (0.80 g, 0.75 mL, 4.89 mmol) were mixed in water (1.5 mL) at 85 °C for 45 min. After removal of water, the mixture was washed with hexane to remove unreacted starting materials and the pure product was obtained as colorless liquid in 74% yield.

¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃, δ): 1.31 (t, ³J_{HH} = 8 Hz, 12H, CH₃), 1.60 (m, 4H, CH₂-CH₂-NH), 1.74 (quint, ³J_{HH} = 8 Hz, 4H, CH₂), 1.94 (m, 4H, CH₂-P = O), 2.68 (t, ³J_{HH} = 8 Hz, 4H, CH₂-NH) 2.88 (m, 4H, CH₂-CH₂-P = O), 3.40 (t, ³J_{HH} = 8 Hz, 4H, CH₂-O), 3.45 (t, ³J_{HH} = 4 Hz, 4H, CH₂-O), 4.09 (m, 8H, CH₂-O-P = O) ppm. ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃, δ): 16.35, 16.41 (d, CH₃), 25.68, 27.07 (d, CH₂-P = O), 26.30 (CH₂), 29.93 (CH₂-CH₂-NH), 43.23, 43.25 (d, NH-CH₂-CH₂-P = O), 46.86 (CH₂-NH), 61.51, 61.58 (d, CH₂-O-P = O), 69.09 (CH₂-O), 70.63 (CH₂-O) ppm. ³¹P NMR (162 MHz, CDCl₃, δ): 30.47 ppm. FTIR (ATR): 3503 (N-H), 2935 (C-H), 1236 (P = O), 1022, 954 (P-O) cm⁻¹.

2.4. Synthesis of PBAE macromers

2.4.1. Method 1

The diacrylates (PEGDA, HDEDA or HDDA) and PA were mixed at a molar ratio of 1.1:1, 1.2:1 and 1.3:1 in 10 mL vials at room temperature for 4 days while stirring. If the stirring was stopped due to an increase in viscosity, a very small amount of dichloromethane (DCM) was added to the mixture and removed under reduced pressure after the reactions. The macromers were obtained as colorless viscous liquids in 78–85% yield after washing with petroleum ether (HDEDA and HDDA-based ones) or diethyl ether (PEGDA-based ones) to remove unreacted diacrylates, PA or monoaddition products; and dried under reduced pressure.

2.4.2. Method 2

PA (0.5 g, 0.94 mmol) and DBU (0.14 g, 0.14 mL, 0.94 mmol) were mixed in MeOH (1 mL). Then PEGDA (0.65 g, 0.58 mL, 1.13 mmol) was added and the mixture was stirred at room temperature for 12 h. After removal of MeOH, the residue was washed with diethyl ether to remove unreacted diacrylates, PA or monoaddition products; and dried under

reduced pressure to give the product in 32-35%.

2.5. pK_b measurements

The pK_b values of the macromers were determined by titration method. 50 mg of macromer was dissolved in deionized water to give a final concentration of 1.0 mg/mL. The pH of the macromer solutions was set to pH 2.0 using 2 M HCl and titrated to pH 11 with 0.1 M NaOH solution. The pH of solutions was measured after each addition using a pH meter (WTW Inolab pH 720) at room temperature. The pK_b value was determined from the inflection point of the titration curve which responds to the pH value where 50% of protonated amine groups are neutralized.

2.6. Synthesis of PBAE gels

A 10% (w/v) DMPA solution in DCM was added to a macromer-PEGDA mixture (80:20 or 50:50 w% PEGDA:macromer) to give a final concentration of 1 w% DMPA. After the removal of the solvent in a vacuum oven, the mixture was placed into a vial and polymerized in a photoreactor containing 12 Philips TL 8 W BLB lamps, exposing it to UV light (365 nm) for 30 min. For comparison, the macromers alone were also polymerized under the same conditions. The polymer samples thus formed were weighed and immersed in ethanol for approximately 12 h to remove unreacted components. After drying in a vacuum oven until constant weight, the samples were weighed again (final mass). The gel fraction W_{g} , that is, the fraction of insoluble polymer, was calculated from the initial and final mass of the gel specimens.

2.7. Swelling studies

Swelling studies were conducted by immersing dry gel samples (45 \pm 15 mg) into PBS (pH 7.4) solution at 37 °C. The samples were removed from the solution at pre-determined time intervals, blotted on filter paper and the swollen weight was measured. The increase in the weight of the samples was recorded as a function of time until equilibrium was reached. The degree of swelling (*Q*) was calculated using the equation:

$$Q = \frac{Ws - Wd}{Wd} \times 100 \tag{1}$$

where W_s and W_d refer to the weight of swollen and dry samples respectively. The average data obtained from triplicate measurements were reported. The standard deviations were less than 5.2%.

2.8. Degradation studies

In vitro degradation of the gel samples as prepared above $(45 \pm 15 \text{ mg}, \text{initial mass})$ were carried out in PBS (pH 7.4) solution at 37 °C on a temperature-controlled orbital shaker constantly agitated at 200 rpm. At various time (2 days, 1, 2 and 4 weeks) points, three samples were removed, lyophilized and weighed (final mass). The mass loss was calculated from the initial and final mass values.

2.9. Mechanical analysis

Mechanical properties of PBAE gels in equilibrium with PBS solution were determined through uniaxial compression measurements on a Zwick Roell test machine using a 500 N load cell in a thermostated room at 23 ± 2 °C. The cylindrical gel samples were cut into cubic samples with dimensions $3 \times 4 \times 4$ mm. Before the tests, a complete contact between the gel specimen and the metal plate was provided by applying an initial compressive force of 0.01 N. The tests were carried out at a constant cross-head speed of 1 mm min⁻¹. Compressive stress is presented by its nominal value σ_{nom} , which is the force per cross-sectional area of the undeformed gel specimen, while strain is given by ε

which is the change in the specimen length with respect to its initial length. Young's modulus E of the hydrogels was calculated from the slope of stress–strain curves between 10 and 15% compressions. For reproducibility, at least three samples were measured for each gel and the results were averaged.

2.10. In vitro cytotoxicity assay

NIH 3T3 cells were used to evaluate the cytotoxicity of the degradation products of the prepared gels. The cells were cultured in RPMI 1640 complete medium supplemented with 10% (v/v) FBS and 1% (v/v) pen-strep in 5% CO₂-humidified incubator at 37 $^{\circ}$ C and passaged every 2-3 days. For the cytotoxicity assay, the cells were seeded at a density of 10⁴ cells/well in RPMI 1640 complete medium into 96well plates and incubated at 37 °C in 5% CO2 atmosphere until 60-80% confluency. Then, the degradation products of the hydrogels in different concentrations ranging between 10 and 200 µg/mL were introduced into the wells. After 24 h further incubation, the cell viability was assessed using MTT colorimetric assay by the addition of $50\,\mu\text{L}$ of MTT solution (5 mg/mL in PBS) into each well with $150 \,\mu\text{L}$ of culture medium and incubated for 4 more hours. The purple formazan crystals formed as a result of mitochondrial activity in viable cells were dissolved with ethanol:DMSO (1:1 v/v) mixture. Each sample's absorbance at 600 nm with a reference reading at 630 nm was recorded using a BioTek ELX800 microplate reader (BioTek Instruments Inc., Winooski, VT, USA). Cells which were not exposed to degradation products of gels were used as controls. 100% viability was assumed for the control cells; hence the relative cell viability was calculated from Eq. (2):

$$Cell \ viability(\%) = \frac{Absorbance_{sample}}{Absorbance_{control}} \times 100 \qquad (n = 4)$$
(2)

2.11. Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis of the degradation products was conducted by using nonparametric Kruskall–Wallis one-way analysis of variance followed by multiple Dunn's comparison test of GraphPad Prism 6 software package (GraphPad Software, Inc., USA). All measurements were expressed as mean values \pm standard deviation (SD). p < 0.05 was accepted as statistically significant difference (*n* = 5).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Synthesis of phosphonate-functionalized diamine and PBAE macromers

A novel phosphonate-functionalized secondary diamine (PA) was synthesized via solvent-free aza-Michael reaction between 4,9-dioxa-1,12-dodecane diamine and diethyl vinylphosphonate (Fig. 1). The molar ratio of the diamine to diethyl vinylphosphonate was fixed at 1:2.1 to fully end-modify the amine and reaction was conducted at room temperature for two days (method 1). The product was obtained as a colorless viscous liquid in high yields (85%). However, shortening the reaction to 45 min at 85 °C using water as solvent also produced good results (method 2), similar to Refs. [49–51]. It was reported that water activates the aza-Michael addition between amines and diethyl vinylphosphonates by both hydrogen bonding between water and phosphonate group and water and the amine [49]. PA is highly soluble in polar (water, ethanol) and weakly polar solvents (chloroform, diethyl ether), but insoluble in non-polar organic solvents (hexane) (Table 1).

The structure of PA was confirmed by ${}^{1}\text{H}$ -, ${}^{13}\text{C}$ - and ${}^{31}\text{P}$ NMR and FTIR spectroscopy. For example, ${}^{1}\text{H}$ NMR spectrum of the amine shows the characteristic peaks of methyl protons at 1.31 ppm, methylene protons adjacent to phosphorus at 1.94 ppm and methylene protons adjacent to nitrogen at 2.68 and 2.88 ppm (Fig. 2). The small shoulders of peaks at 1.94 and 2.88 ppm are probably due to the small amount of



Fig. 1. Synthesis of PA and PBAE macromers M1, M2, and, M3 derived from HDDA, HDEDA, and PEGDA, respectively.

Table 1Solubilities of PA and the synthesized macromers.

Amine/ Macromer	CHCl ₃	H_2O	Petroleum ether	Diethyl Ether	Hexane	Ethanol
PA	+	+	+	+	_	+
M1	+	-	-	-	-	+
M2	+	+/-	-	-	-	+
M3	+	+	-	-	-	+

diadduct (6%) formation resulting from a slight excess of diethyl vinylphosphonate (2.1 mol) used compared to 4,9-dioxa-1,12-dodecane diamine (1 mol). This side product, which is a tertiary amine, was not isolated since it will not undergo reaction with diacrylates used for PBAE synthesis. The ¹³C NMR spectrum of PA showed a doublet at 25.68, 27.07 ppm due to the carbon attached to phosphorus. The FTIR spectra of PA showed absorption peaks of NH, P=O and P–O at 3503, 1236, 1022 and 954 cm⁻¹.

Three PBAE macromers with different backbone structures were synthesized (Method 1 in experimental section; later method 2 [52] was applied to shorten the reaction time, but results from here on refer to macromers produced using method 1) from the step-growth polymerization of three diacrylates (HDDA, HDEDA and PEGDA) and PA to evaluate how chemical alterations affect final properties of the resultant networks (Fig. 1). The diacrylate:PA molar ratios were used as 1.1:1, 1.2:1 and 1.3:1 in order to obtain macromers with different molecular weights (Table 2). In the following, the macromers derived from HDDA, HDEDA and PEGDA are abbreviated as M1, M2, and M3, respectively. The hydrophilicity of the macromers increases in the order of M1 < M2 < M3. Their water-solubilities are highly dependent on the diacrylate they were synthesized from, e.g., M3 is soluble, M1 is not soluble, and M2 is slightly soluble, as expected from the order of their hydrophilicities (Table 1).

The structures of PBAE macromers were confirmed using ¹H NMR spectroscopy (Fig. 2). The peaks at 5.8–6.5 demonstrate the maintenance of the acrylate terminal groups, and the average number of repeat units (n) of the macromers was calculated via comparison of the areas of the acrylate protons (labeled as k and m at 5.8–6.5 ppm) to phosphonate ester (labeled as b at 1.3 ppm or f, h at 3.4 ppm) protons, and was found as 5.0 ($M_n \sim 6300$), 8.5 ($M_n \sim 7000$) and 4.6 ($M_n \sim 4400$) for M3, M1 and M2 macromers respectively, prepared at 1.2:1 diacrylate:PA ratio. These molecular weights were higher than those obtained for their bisphosphonated analogues because of lower steric hindrance of the PA [47]. FTIR spectra of the macromers show peaks at around 1020 and 950 cm⁻¹ corresponding to the P–O stretching vibrations of phosphonate groups (Fig. 3).

The solubility of PBAEs depends on solution pH due to tertiary amines in their structures. The abundance of these amine groups also give PBAEs high buffer capacity. Therefore, PBAEs can be used as pHresponsive biodegradable polymers with tunable pH transition point for drug and gene delivery carriers. Their pH sensitivity can be modified by changing the diacrylates and the amines [53,54]. In order to investigate the effect of PBAEs' structure on their pH sensitivities acid-base titration method was used (Fig. 4). All the studied polymers exhibited pH buffering capacities with slightly different buffering regions. The pK_b values of M1, M2 and M3 macromers with the lowest, medium, and highest hydrophilicity, respectively, were found to be 5.5, 5.7 and 6.1, indicating effect of hydrophilicity on the pKb values. The electron donating alkyl groups lead to high electron density on the nitrogen atom and hence decrease pKb, however oxygen atoms on HDEDA and PEGDA-based macromers are electron withdrawing, hence partially cancel the effect of alkyl groups. Similar behavior was observed by Song et al. [54].

PBAEs have low (sub-ambient) T_g due to their highly flexible structures resulting from the long ethylene glycol or alkyl chains in their backbones and lack of rigid side groups [33]. The T_g 's of macromers were found to be -56, -59 and -60 °C for M3, M2 and M1 macromers (Table 2).

3.2. Synthesis of PBAE networks

The mechanical properties of biodegradable polymers usually deteriorate in parallel with the biodegradation after the polymer is implanted in the body; hence their use in load-bearing applications is problematic. To address this problem, novel biodegradable polymer designs are investigated where the degradation rate can be tuned by minor modifications of structure. For example, Safranski et al. investigated thermo-mechanical properties of semi-degradable poly(β amino ester)-*co*-methyl methacrylate networks under simulated physiological conditions [33]. These networks showed improved mechanical properties during degradation.

The PBAE macromers synthesized in this work can be used to prepare gels with different hydrophilicities and hence, different degradation and loss profiles affecting their mechanical properties. These macromers can also control the hydrophilic/hydrophobic properties of gels they are incorporated into. To investigate these features, copolymers of the synthesized PBAE macromers with PEGDA were prepared by free radical polymerization under UV light using DMPA as photoinitiator. For comparison, the reactions were also conducted in the absence of the PEGDA cross-linker. In the following, the gel compositions were designated as xl-Mi-w, where Mi denotes type of the macromer (i = 1, 2, or 3 for HDDA, HDEDA, and PEGDA, respectively), w is





Table 2 PA:diacrylate ratios, number of repeat units (n), number average molecular weights (M_n) and T_g of the macromers.

Macromer	PA:diacrylate ratio	n ^a	M_n^{a}	T _g (°C)
M1	1:1.1	9.2	7500	-
M1	1:1.2	8.5	6960	-60
M2	1:1.2	4.6	4360	- 59
M3	1:1.1	7.1	8700	-
M3	1:1.2	5.0	6280	- 56
M3	1:1.3	4.1	5250	-

^a calculated from ¹H NMR spectra.

the weight fraction of PEGDA in the comonomer feed (Table 3). For instance, xl-M1-0.80 presents the gel formed from HDDA macromer in the presence of 80 w% PEGDA, while xl-M1-0 denotes the gel obtained by homopolymerization of HDDA macromer (M1). After removal of unreacted macromers in ethanol, the gel fractions W_g were obtained as 53–98%. FTIR analysis of the gel networks confirmed the presence of P=O and P–O peaks at 1244, 1024 and 952 cm⁻¹ (Fig. 3). Glass transition temperatures T_g of PBAE networks with w \leq 0.50 were around -50 °C, similar to those of the macromers they were synthesized from (Table 3). The networks with a higher PEGDA content, i.e., at w = 0.80 showed increased T_g (ca. -20 °C) due to higher crosslink density resulting from the lower molecular weight of PEGDA (M_n = 570 Da). However, the networks with 50% PEGDA showed two



Fig. 3. FTIR spectra of M3, xl-M3-0 and xl-M3-0.8.

 T_g values (-28 and $-52\ ^\circ C$ for xl-M1-0.50; -50 and $-40\ ^\circ C$ for xl-M3-0.50) (Table 3). This behavior is interpreted as due to block copolymer structure and the two T_g values correspond to the respective ones of PBAE and PEGDA, showing the heterogeneity of the components.

3.3. Swelling of networks

The gel networks were swollen in PBS (pH 7.4) to observe the influence of macromer molecular weight, amount and hydrophilicity of the macromer on their swelling behavior before and after degradation



Fig. 4. Titration curves of M1, M2 and M3 macromers derived from HDDA, HDEDA and PEGDA, respectively.

Table 3 Gel compositions, gel fraction W_e, degree of swelling O, and T_e values.

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	Network	W _g (%)	Q (%)	T _g (°C)
	xl-M1-0	64.5 ± 2.6	-	-53
	xl-M1-0 *	53 ± 4.2	-	-
	xl-M1-0.50	93.2 ± 0.1	38.8 ± 3.3	-52, -28
	xl-M1-0.80	91 ± 2.2	31.3 ± 4.0	-21
	xl-M2-0	65.9 ± 3.1	-	-
	xl-M2-0 *	79.8 ± 2.4	-	-
	xl-M2-0.50	66.8 ± 2.5	34.5 ± 2.0	-
	xl-M2-0.80	86.2 ± 1.1	28.6 ± 2.1	-24
	xl-M3-0	81.3 ± 4.8	-	-51
	xl-M3-0 *	95.6 ± 1.3	-	-
	xl-M3-0.50	91.0 ± 1.0	51.6 ± 3.0	-50, -40
	xl-M3-0.80	97.8 ± 0.3	31.4 ± 0.6	-20

 $\ast\,$ In the synthesis of macromers, diacrylate: amine molar ratio was used as 1.1:1.



Fig. 5. Swelling percentages (Q) of the gels before and after degradation for 2 weeks.

(Fig. 5). Before degradation, swelling degrees were low (28.6–51.6%) because both the macromer and PEGDA components of the networks are crosslinkers. Moreover, the amount of the macromer does not influence the swelling percentages except xl-M3-0.50. The presence of HDEDA vs. HDDA in the backbone of the PBAE macromer was found to not make an important difference in swelling; indicating that the hydrophilicities of the phosphonate-functionalities and PEGDA determine the swelling. However, when PEGDA-based PBAE macromer is used, the increased amount of PEGDA does make a difference, leading to the exception of xl-M3-0.50. This assertion is confirmed by the data of networks with 20 w% PBAE macromers (w = 0.80), where the swelling percentages were found to be similar to those of the 50% (w = 0.5)

samples, the M3 sample showing only slightly higher swelling, since it acquires slightly higher amount of PEGDA with respect to M1 and M2 samples.

The degradation of the gels over time have been monitored by the time-dependent swelling measurements. After degradation in PBS for 2 weeks, the swelling degree of degraded gels increased compared to those of non-degraded ones with the same composition (Fig. 5). While xl-M3-0.50 gel swelled 51.6% initially, after 2 weeks of degradation its swelling percentage was found to be about 143.7%. The swelling of the degraded gels increases with an increase in both PBAE content and its hydrophilicity, which also determines degradation rate of the gels. An explanation is that degradation destroys the integrity of the hydrogel and enhances the penetration of water into the gel. This explanation was checked using mechanical tests conducted on virgin and degraded gels, as will be discussed later.

3.4. Degradation of networks

Tissue-engineering scaffolds should both guide the proliferating cells to form new tissue, and disappear when their job is completed. Therefore, the degradation rate of the scaffold should be tuned such that it turns slowly into a porous matrix into which molecules can diffuse, cells enter, adhere, proliferate and interconnect; and breaks apart at the appropriate time. Hence it is important to investigate degradation behavior of any new candidates for tissue-scaffold materials.

Fig. 6 shows degradation of the PBAE gels in PBS (pH 7.4) at 37 °C. The dependence of degradation rate on PBAE structure is clearly evident. The gels formed from more hydrophobic PBAE macromer degrade slower; degradation rates were found to increase in the following order: xl-M1 < xl-M2 < xl-M3, in accord with the order of the increase of hydrophilicity. For example, xl-M3 and xl-M1 gels degraded 80% and 15%, respectively, within 2 days. The degradation of xl-M2 gels was completed in 6 days, and xl-M3 gels in 3 days. The more hydrophobic xl-M1 network has lower water uptake and undergoes slower cleavage of ester linkages compared to the other gels. Therefore, this trend was also consistent with the swelling behavior (after 2 weeks), which is an indirect method for measurement of degradation. It was also observed that the gels formed using low molecular weight PBAE macromers of the corresponding chemical structure have significantly lower degradation rate, e.g., the lower molecular weight xl-M3 gel prepared at a PA:diacrylate ratio of 1:1.2 had less degradation (80.4%) than the higher molecular weight one, 96.7%, formed at a ratio of 1:1.1. This behavior is due to more hydrolyzable linkages in the macromer and low crosslinking density.

In order to tune degradation properties of PEGDA gels, as discussed in the introduction section, PBAE macromers were copolymerized with PEGDA at different ratios. By changing the structure (hydrophilic/hydrophobic properties and molecular weight) of the macromers, gels with mass losses ranging from 12.0% to 47.9% in 2 weeks were obtained (Fig. 6). The mass losses of gels obtained from M1 macromer with the highest hydrophobicity showed significant acceleration after 2 days. We conjecture that the water uptake for these was initially slow due to their hydrophobicity, but became faster with increased diffusion of water due to formation of the first pores, which in turn accelerated the degradation. However, the hydrophilic character of oxygen containing macromers M2 and M3 enhances their water uptake resulting in fast degradation from the beginning. For example, the mass loss of xl-M1-08 reached 26% starting from 2.5% and xl-M3-0.8 reached 32% starting from 8%; in 4 weeks.

The surface morphologies of the networks were examined at various degradation percentages by SEM (Fig. 7). The SEM images showed a smooth surface before degradation, which became porous and rough after degradation. The xl-M3-0 network prepared without PEGDA comonomer after 80% degradation showed a sponge-like appearance with interconnected pores. However, the copolymer network xl-M3-0.80 with 15% degradation showed smaller pore size. These observations



Fig. 6. The mass loss of PBAE gels and PEGDA-PBAE copolymers in 2 days, 1 week and 2 weeks in PBS.

demonstrate that porosity of the networks upon degradation can be controlled by changing the PBAE content and structure.

In order to determine degradation mechanism of the networks, NMR and FTIR spectra of the degradation products of two of the PBAE networks, xl-M3-0 and xl-M2-0, were investigated after full degradation in water. FTIR spectrum of the degradation products of xl-M3-0 showed (i) formation of a peak at 3481 cm⁻¹ (due to OH groups), (ii) broadening and decreasing intensity of C=O peak and formation of a new broad peak at 1594 cm⁻¹ (due to formation of COOH groups) (Fig. S1). ¹H NMR spectrum of the same sample indicated that the integral of the peak at 4.25 ppm due to the methylene protons adjacent to the ester (COOCH₂) is decreasing and a new peak at 3.6 ppm, due to the methylene protons adjacent to hydroxyl group (HOCH₂) is increasing. According to these results, we can say that networks degrade via hydrolysis of the multiple ester groups on the backbone into small molecule diols, bis(β -amino acids) and poly(acrylic acid) kinetic chains as reported in the literature [22,25,55].

3.5. Mechanical properties of PBAE gels

Mechanical properties of the gels in their equilibrium swollen states were investigated by uniaxial compression tests. Fig. 8a shows stressstrain curves of the gels prepared at PEGDA weight fractions *w* of 0.80 (solid curves) and 0.50 (dashed curves). At w = 0.80, the gels sustain $25 \pm 2\%$ compressions under around 6 MPa stresses, with a maximum fracture stress of 7.4 \pm 0.8 MPa observed for xl-M2 gel. Decreasing the weight fraction *w* from 0.80 to 0.50 slightly increases the fracture strain while fracture stress decreases to 4 \pm 1 MPa indicating that incorporation of a larger amount of macromer into the gel network deteriorates their ultimate mechanical properties. Fig. 8b presenting



Fig. 7. SEM images of networks: xl-M3-0 before (A) and after 80% degradation (B); xl-M3-0.80 before (C) and after 15% degradation (D).



Fig. 8. (a) Stress-strain curves of the gels at w = 0.80 (solid curves) and 0.50 (dashed curves). (b) Young's moduli E of the gels formed at w = 0.80 (dark red) and 0.50 (dark yellow) (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)



Fig. 9. (a) Typical stress-strain curves of virgin and 2 weeks-degraded xl-M3 and xl-M1 gels formed from PEGDA and HDDA, respectively. w = 0.50. (b) The modulus E of gels at various degradation times.

Young's moduli *E* of the gels reveals that, at w = 0.80, *E* is independent of the type of the macromer and remains at 27 MPa. The moduli of the hydrogels 2- to 3-fold decrease upon increasing the amount of macromer and the largest decrease was observed in xl-M2 gels.

Mechanical tests were also conducted on the gel specimens subjected to various degradation times up to 4 weeks. Typical stress-strain curves of virgin and 2 weeks-degraded xl-M3 and xl-M1 gels at w = 0.50 are shown in Fig. 9a while Fig. 9b compares their moduli at various degradation times. The tests revealed that the strain at break remains almost unchanged during the course of degradation up to 2 weeks while both the fracture stress and the modulus decrease. This decrease was significant at w = 0.50 indicating that increasing amount of macromer also increases the degradation rate of the gels. Moreover, the more hydrophobic xl-M1 gel degraded slightly slower than the less hydrophobic xl-M3 gel which is in accord with the previous results.

Because both the degree of swelling *Q* of the hydrogels and their moduli *E* change during degradation, a direct evidence of the change in the network structure can be obtained from their effective cross-link densities $v_{\rm e}$. According to the theory of rubber elasticity, Young's modulus *E* of an affine network is related to its cross-link density $v_{\rm e}$ by [56,57]

$$E = 3v_e RT (v_2)^{1/3} (v_2^0)^{2/3}$$
(3)

where v_2^0 and v_2 are the volume fractions of cross-linked polymer just after the gel preparation and at the state of the measurements, respectively, *R* and *T* are in their usual meanings. Although the gels were prepared under solvent-free condition, the presence of unreacted



Fig. 10. The cross-link density v_e of the hydrogels (a) and the fraction of degraded network chains, $1 - v_e/v_{e,o}$, (b) both plotted against the degradation time. Empty symbols: w = 0.5, filled symbols: w = 0.8.



Fig. 11. The effect of degradation products on cell viability of NIH 3T3 mouse embryonic fibroblast cells. Cells were treated with different concentrations of the products for 24 h. The cell viability test was performed by MTT assay (\pm SD; n = 5; p < 0.05 compared with all concentrations).

macromers after gelation acting as a diluent leads to a decrease of v_2^0 below unity. For the following calculations, we estimated v_2^0 as equal to the gel fraction W_g . Moreover, v_2 was calculated from the degree of swelling Q as:

$$v_2 = (1 + Qd_2/d_1)^{-1} \tag{4}$$

where d_1 is the density of water (1 g mL^{-1}) and d_2 is the polymer density measured as 0.82 g mL^{-1} . By substituting *Q* and *E* values into Eqns. (3) and (4), we estimated the cross-link density v_e of the gels at various times. Fig. 10a shows the variation of v_e of xl-M1 and xl-M3 gels with the degradation time. The fraction of degraded network chains calculated as $1 - v_e / v_{e,o}$, where $v_{e,o}$ is the initial cross-link density at time = 0, is shown in Fig. 10b. During the first two weeks, the crosslink density of the gels with w = 0.80 does not change much (filled symbols), and even remains unchanged for the M1 gel with the highest hydrophobicity. In contrast, v_e of the gels with w = 0.50 rapidly decreases while the fraction of degraded network chain increases. After 2 weeks, around 20 and 30% of the network chains contributing to the gel elasticity are lost in xl-M1 and xl-M3 gels, respectively. These results show the significant effect of both the type and the amount of the macromers on the degradability of the gels.

3.6. In vitro cytotoxicity of polymer degradation products

The cytotoxicity measurement is an important step to determine the biocompatibility of a material for biomedical applications. The cytotoxicity of the degradation products of PBAE gels was investigated on NIH 3T3 cells using MTT cell metabolic activity assay (Fig. 11). Following ISO standard 10993–5 [58], the cells in RPMI-1640 culturing medium was used to evaluate if there is a cytotoxic response to degradation products. Cells cultured under normal conditions without any material were used as a control. There was no significant difference between toxicities (cell viability > 80%) of PBAE degradation products at any concentrations against NIH 3T3. These values were also found not to be significantly different than those of control, indicating the synthesized PBAE gels as non-toxic materials.

4. Conclusions

We demonstrated that novel phosphonate-functionalized secondary diamines with different spacers can be easily synthesized by Michael addition reaction and can be used for the synthesis of novel phosphonate-functionalized PBAEs. It was observed that by changing the PBAE structure it is possible to obtain homo- and copolymeric gels of different swelling, degradation and mechanical properties. Swelling percentages of PEGDA gels before degradation were independent of the PBAE crosslinker identity but after degradation increased with an increase in PBAE crosslinker content and was dependent on the type of crosslinker. The degradation rates of PBAE gels were controlled by the hydrophilicity (M1 < M2 < M3) and molecular weight of the PBAE

macromer. Their degradabilities are about two to ten times higher than that of PEGDA gels containing 20 and 50 wt% of PBAEs in two days. Mechanical tests reveal that PBAE gels prepared at a PEGDA weight fraction of 0.80 sustain 25 \pm 2% compressions under around 6 MPa stresses. Decreasing PEGDA weight fraction slightly increases the fracture strain while fracture stress decreases to 4 \pm 1 MPa indicating that incorporation of a larger amount of macromer into the gel network deteriorates their ultimate mechanical properties. The results also show that the extent of decrease of the gel cross-link density during degradation correlates strongly and positively with increasing amount and hydrophilicity of the PBAE macromers. The cytotoxicity study of the degradation products on NIH 3T3 mouse embryonic fibroblast cells supports the biocompatibility of these materials for biomedical applications. Overall, these three PBAE macromers and their homo- and copolymers show promise to be used as scaffolds for tissue engineering applications.

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Appendix

FTIR spectra of PA, M3, xl-M3-0 (before degradation) and xl-M3-0 (after 2 days of degradation in water).

The raw/processed data required to reproduce these findings cannot be shared at this time due to technical or time limitations.

Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eurpolymj.2019.01.052.

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