Fibrin-filled scaffolds for bone-tissue engineering: An *in vivo* study

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Abstract: Recently, fibrin sealants that typically contain supra physiological concentrations of fibrinogen and thrombin have been investigated as matrices to facilitate the delivery of cells within biodegradable scaffolds for tissue engineering applications. It is well known from *in vitro* experiments that the thrombin concentration present during fibrin polymerization influences the structural properties of fibrin, and these can affect cell invasion. This study was conducted to determine whether the structural properties of fibrin can affect bony wound healing *in vivo*. Drill hole defects were created in the distal femurs of 20 rats. Four experimental groups were used: nontreated defects, scaffolds alone, and scaffolds filled with fibrin polymerized with either a low thrombin concentration [fibrin(low T)] or a high thrombin concentration [fibrin(high T)]. The area of bone formed at 2, 5, and 11 days after implantation was determined histomorphometrically. After 5 days, scaffolds filled with fibrin(high T) were infiltrated with less bone than empty scaffolds (p < 0.05), but no statistical difference was found between the empty scaffolds and the scaffolds filled with fibrin(low T). After 11 days, both fibrin-filled scaffolds significantly delayed bony wound healing (p < 0.004). Reducing sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis analysis of the two fibrin formulations showed no difference in γ-γ crosslink formation. This work demonstrates that fibrin sealants in their present state are not ideal for enhancing bone-tissue invasion into scaffolds, and that the structural properties of fibrin matrices may be an important design parameter for maximizing host tissue invasion during wound healing. © 2004 Wiley Periodicals, Inc.

**Key words:** biodegradable polymer; composite; matrix structure; thrombin concentration; wound healing

INTRODUCTION

Within the past three decades, there has been great interest in using fibrin sealants (FSs) to clinically augment skeletal wound healing by combining them with autologous and allogenic bone grafts,1,2 antibiotics,3 and hydroxyapatite particles.4 FSs are prepared from plasma pooled from a large number of human donors and typically contain 10–20 times the physiological concentration of fibrinogen and high concentrations of thrombin, in addition to additives such as factor XIII to crosslink the fibrin and aprotinin to decrease the rate of degradation. They have been demonstrated in animal models to accelerate neovascularization5 and to help improve the surgical handling properties of graft materials such as demineralized bone powder,6 bioactive glass,7 hydroxyapatite,8 and coral granules.9 In addition, FSs have been demonstrated to be effective delivery vehicles for bioactive agents such as transforming growth factor-β-110 and transforming growth factor-β-related bone morphogenetic proteins.11

Recently, FSs have been investigated as matrices to facilitate the delivery of cells for tissue engineering applications.10,12–18 For some of these cell delivery strategies, the fibrin and cells are combined with biodegradable scaffolds,10,12,16,18 which is especially useful in scaffolds that do not permit cell adhesion.17 Although FSs may be useful as delivery vehicles for cells, and given that fibrin releases chemotactic agents when it forms and degrades,19–21 the affects of FS on bony wound healing have not been consistent5,22–26
and their role in wound healing is not fully understood. 

In addition to the variability in fibrin compositions used in vivo, the properties of the fibrin that are relevant to host tissue invasion have generally been ignored. Most FSs are supplied with only one formulation, which is primarily designed to stop bleeding and provide adhesive properties. Yet, FSs are being investigated to enhance wound healing of various tissues without modifying the matrix to suit the intended application. The majority of FSs contain a high thrombin concentration, which results in a network of thin short fibers and small pores. Thin fibers and small pores have been shown to significantly reduce cell migration in vitro compared with fibrin gels with thick fibers and larger pores, thus, it is important to consider that not all polymerized fibrin formulations are equally cell invasive. To gain insight into the role of fibrin architecture in vivo, we compared the bony wound healing achieved using FS formed with thin fibers and small pores to FS formed with thick fibers and large pores. To help immobilize the FS within the in vivo defect site, we combined it with highly interconnecting, macroporous, biodegradable poly(lactide-co-glycolide) (PLGA) scaffolds. We hypothesized that PLGA scaffolds filled with FS having thick fibrin strands and large pores, that is, formed with a low thrombin concentration, would facilitate more rapid bony wound healing than scaffolds filled with FS having thin fibrin strands and small pores, that is, formed with a high thrombin concentration.

To test our hypothesis, we implanted fibrin-filled scaffolds into small drill hole defects in the distal femur of rats. This model, which we have previously demonstrated to be useful for testing scaffolds for bone-tissue-engineering applications, was chosen because of its relative simplicity. The results from the fibrin-filled scaffold groups were compared with defects containing empty scaffolds and unfilled defect controls. Furthermore, the degree of fibrin crosslinking was characterized by reducing sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) analysis because thrombin activates coagulation factor XIII which catalyzes covalent crosslink formation in fibrin clots, and this can affect cell invasion.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Scaffold fabrication**

Composite PLGA 75:25 scaffolds containing calcium phosphate (CaP) were produced by modifying a previously described technology. Briefly, an equimolar mixture of dicalcium and tetracalcium phosphate was reacted to form hydroxyapatite, and this was crushed into small particles and sieved. Particles less than 45 μm were dispersed with glucose crystals having 0.85- to 1.18-mm dimensions in a solution of 11.5% (w/v) PLGA (inherent viscosity of 1.13 dL/g), in dimethylsulfoxide. The ratio of CaP/PLGA was 2:1 (wt/wt). The sugar/polymer/CaP mixture was placed in a Teflon® fluorinated ethylene propylene-coated aluminum foil mold, allowed to set at −20°C, and then placed into water at room temperature. Scaffolds were cut into cylindrical shapes using methods previously published.

**Filling scaffolds with FS**

The FS Tisseel® VH (Baxter Biosciences, Canada) is supplied in Canada with two different thrombin concentrations (220 or 1.75 NIH U/mL) and each of these was used resulting in fibrin(high T)- and fibrin(low T)-filled scaffolds, respectively. After reconstitution and mixing of all the supplied reagents (at 37°C), FS consisted of: 35–55 mg/mL fibrinogen, 1.75 or 220 NIH U/mL thrombin, 5–25 U/mL factor XIII, and 1500 KIU/mL bovine aprotinin.

After the precut scaffolds were wetted in 70% EtOH and rinsed in ddH2O three times, 15 μL of fibrinogen-containing solution was added to the scaffolds followed by 15 μL of the thrombin-containing solution. These solutions were quickly mixed in the scaffold and the resulting fibrin was allowed to gel in an incubator for 1 h. Fibrin-filled scaffolds were selected for in vivo implantation based on the presence of fibrin at the margins of all scaffold surfaces, as observed using a dissecting microscope. Filling the scaffolds with fibrin caused approximately a 20% increase in scaffold diameter. The selected fibrin-filled scaffolds in addition to the empty scaffolds were placed into an aprotinin (1500 KIU/mL, Sigma Chemical Company) α-minimal essential medium solution and incubated for 12 h. All scaffolds were filled with Tisseel® FS from the same lot number.

**Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)**

SEM was used to confirm that the thrombin concentration affected fibrin structural properties as previously demonstrated and that the PLGA-CaP scaffolds were filled with fibrin. Fibrin-filled scaffolds were rinsed twice with 0.1M sodium cacodylate buffer (pH 7.4, 37°C) and fixed for 30 min in Karnovsky’s fixative at 4°C. After rinsing with cacodylate buffer three times, the fibrin-filled scaffolds were dehydrated in graded alcohol solutions, freeze fractured, and then critical point dried from CO2. The samples were then sputter-coated with platinum (~10 nm) and examined by a scanning electron microscope at 10 kV (Hitachi 2500).

**Electrophoresis**

FSs were processed for reducing conditions by SDS-PAGE on 4–12% NuPAGE BisTris gels (Invitrogen, Burlington,
Ontario). In brief, 20-μL fibrin gels were produced by combining 10 μL of fibrinogen with 10 μL of thrombin at 37°C. The reaction was stopped either immediately, after 30 min, or after 12 h by the addition of 4 mM ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (three times). The matrices were incubated with 500 μL of solubilizing buffer (8M urea, 2% SDS, 40 mM dithiothreitol, 2 mM ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid) at 100°C for 10 min and then 25 μL of each extract was used for separation on reducing SDS-PAGE. The fibrinogen-containing solution (10 μL) served as a negative control for γ-γ crosslinking. This experiment was performed two times with individual packages of FS from the same lot number.

In vivo model

Bone defects were made in the distal femora to accommodate fibrin-filled scaffolds using a dental drill (2.3 mm in diameter) with copious saline irrigation. The cylindrical scaffolds (2.6 mm in diameter × 3.45 mm in height) were implanted into the bone defects in the mid-diaphysis of both the right and left femora of 20 adult (4-month-old) male Brown Norway rats. The interstices of empty scaffolds were, upon implantation, filled with blood, which clotted and maintained them in situ. The rats were inbred for at least 10 generations and can be considered homozygous for virtually all loci. The maintenance and use of animals were in accordance with the Canadian Council of Animal Care Guidelines. A sample size of three or four was used for each group, and rats were randomized to treatment groups according to Table I. The femora were subsequently fixed in formalin for 48 h, decalcified, dehydrated, and embedded in low-melting-point paraffin. The paraffin blocks were sectioned perpendicular to the long axis of each scaffold using a hard tissue Spencer 820 microtome. After sectioning through almost the first half of each block, 12–16 sections were obtained from three areas that were each at least 120 μm apart. This ensured that sections were obtained from the middle of all defects. Sections were stained with either toluidine blue to identify general structures or a Masson’s trichrome to identify the collagen component of bone. Some sections were stained with a picro-sirius red (PSR) stain and observed with polarizing filters to detect birefringence from the collagen.

Histomorphometry

Representative sections, as illustrated in the figures with their absolute field widths, were selected from each of the three areas in the middle of the defect and enlarged to ×70 magnification on a computer screen to undertake histomorphometry using Image Pro Plus 4.1 (Media Cybernetics, Silver Spring, MD). This computer program was used to identify bone tissue by its blue staining (Masson’s trichrome). The selected area was then visually confirmed as bone by its morphological similarity to trabecular bone adjacent to the defect site and by visually confirming the presence of osteocytes. Residual FS appeared light gray because of a lack of appreciable staining. Areas occupied by the scaffold were identified by their bright white appearance and by the presence of irregularly distributed cells within the scaffold micropores. Clusters of blood cells were identified by their bright red or red-brown appearance at low magnification whereas individual red blood cells were identified at a higher magnification. Sections acquired from three separate areas within the center of the defect were used to calculate an average parametric value for each femur. Averages were obtained from three sections, from each of the three areas in the middle of each defect to obtain individual values, and this was repeated for three or four samples (n = 3 or 4 as in Table I). Histomorphometric calculations were performed according to Equations (1) to (4):

\[
\text{% Available Area Occupied by Bone} = \frac{\text{Area}_{\text{Bone}}}{\text{Area}_{\text{Defect}} - \text{Area}_{\text{Scaffold}}} \quad (1)
\]

\[
\text{% Available Area Occupied by High Concentrations of Blood Cells} = \frac{\text{Area}_{\text{BloodCells}}}{\text{Area}_{\text{Defect}} - \text{Area}_{\text{Scaffold}}} \quad (2)
\]

\[
\text{Sealant} = \frac{\text{Area}_{\text{Fibrin}}}{\text{Area}_{\text{Defect}} - \text{Area}_{\text{Scaffold}}} \quad (3)
\]

\[
\text{% Area Occupied by The Scaffold} = \frac{\text{Area}_{\text{Scaffold}}}{\text{Area}_{\text{Defect}}} \quad (4)
\]

Statistical analysis

All measurements were collected from triplicate sections from either three or four defects per experimental group and expressed as means ± standard deviation. For multiple comparisons, analysis of variance was performed with the
Tukey test, and the Student $t$ test was used to make pairwise comparisons at significance levels of 95%.

RESULTS

SEM

Freeze-fractured fibrin-filled scaffolds were examined by SEM (Fig. 1). Fibrin(low T) was observed to have larger pores ($\approx 2 \mu m$) and thicker fibrin strands (each visible strand comprised multiple fibrin fibers) [Fig. 1(A)] than fibrin(high T) which had smaller pores ($\approx 0.5 \mu m$) and thinner fibrin strands [Fig. 1(B)]. SEM was also used to confirm that PLGA scaffolds [Fig. 1(C)] were completely filled with FS [Fig. 1(D)], before the in vivo work. The scaffolds had a high degree of interconnecting macroporosity with pore sizes ranging from 0.85 to 1.18 mm in diameter. When filled with fibrin, it became difficult to distinguish between the scaffold and the fibrin [Fig. 1(D)] which is likely due to sample preparation.
Histology

After 2 days in vivo, the untreated defects [Fig. 2(A)] were filled with clotted blood. Empty scaffolds contained a lower concentration of blood clot within the scaffold pores compared with the bulk area of the untreated defects [Fig. 2(B)]. An inflammatory response was observed in regions at the scaffold interface as evidenced by the presence of a dense population of neutrophils that were identified by their highly lobed mononuclei. Histology confirmed that the FS completely filled the scaffold pores for both fibrin-filled scaffold groups and this limited the space occupied by the blood clot to margins in the defect site [Fig. 2(C,D)]. An inflammatory response was also observed in both fibrin-filled scaffold groups, although this response was restricted to the edges of the defect. As expected, the presence of FS within the scaffold pores significantly limited the immediate interaction of cells with the scaffold. In defects containing scaffolds filled with fibrin(low T), mononuclear cells were observed migrating from the periphery of the defect through the fibrin [Fig. 2(C)]. In contrast to the scaffolds filled with fibrin(low T), mononuclear cells did not penetrate as far into defects containing scaffolds filled with fibrin(high T) [Fig. 2(D)]; cells migrated further along the scaffold fibrin interface than into the fibrin [Fig. 2(D), inset].

After 5 days in vivo, blood clot remained in the center of untreated defects (not shown). An acute inflammatory response was evident in multiple areas juxtaposed to the scaffold surface, for all scaffold-containing groups, and was also evident juxtaposed to areas containing residual FS. Multinucleated giant cells were observed in regions at the scaffold interface for all scaffold-containing groups. Bone was observed infiltrating from the periphery of the defects in all groups, although there was considerably less identifi-
able reparative bone in the scaffolds filled with fibrin-(high T). This fibrin-filled scaffold group contained a greater amount of residual FS. In both fibrin-filled scaffold groups, cells were clearly identified invading deep into the defects, occupying areas once filled with fibrin (not shown).

To more clearly identify the collagen component of bone, sections were stained with PSR which enhances the natural birefringent properties of collagen under polarized light and allows identification of very thin fibrils that are not detectable in normal microscopy.37 Comparison of the two fibrin-filled scaffold groups after 5 days in vivo with polarized light (Fig. 3) indicated that scaffolds filled with fibrin(high T) contained fine collagen fibers near the periphery of the defect that were a distinct green color.38 These fibers were disordered in contrast to the invading trabecular bone which was observed in the scaffolds filled with fibrin-(low T). Cortical bone and new and old trabecular bone displayed a high level of birefringence and were either bright yellow, orange, or red, which is characteristic of organized bundles of collagen fibers.

After 11 days in vivo (Fig. 4), bone was clearly observed throughout the untreated defects [Fig. 4(A)] and throughout the pores of the empty scaffolds [Fig. 4(B)]. Although the acute inflammatory response observed at days 2 and 5 had subsided, multinucleated giant cells were still present at the scaffold surface for all scaffold-containing groups [Fig. 4(B), inset]. Negligible amounts of FS were detected within scaffolds filled with fibrin(low T) whereas small areas remained defects containing scaffolds with fibrin(high T) (not shown). Although similar amounts of bone were observed within the fibrin-filled scaffold groups [Fig. 4(C,D)], no bone was observed at the center of these defects.

**Electrophoresis**

Reducing SDS-PAGE analysis of the Tisseel® FS (Fig. 5) revealed that the fibrinogen control (lane 1) contained peaks for Aα, Bβ, and γ-monomers, yet no γ-dimers. When the fibrin polymerization reaction was stopped after 2 min, fibrin(low T) (lane 2) contained fewer γ-dimers and more γ-monomers than fibrin(high T) (lane 3). After 30 min of polymerization, the γ-dimer peak for fibrin(low T) (lane 4) increased whereas the γ-monomers decreased; for fibrin(high T) (lane 5), all of the γ chains were converted to γ-dimers. Although the γ-dimer peak for fibrin(low T) (lane 4) had increased, γ-monomers remained. After a 12-h incubation, most of the γ-monomers were crosslinked into γ-dimers for both fibrin(low T) (lane 6) and fibrin-(high T) (lane 7) and most of the Aα chains had been ligated.

**Histomorphometric analysis**

After 5 days in vivo, less bone had infiltrated the scaffolds containing fibrin(high T) than the empty scaffold group (p < 0.05) and the scaffolds filled with fibrin(low T) (p < 0.08) (Fig. 6). This correlated with the remodeling of the FS observed between the 2- and 5-day time points (p < 0.06). Specifically, 62% of the defect area, which was filled with fibrin(low T) on day 2 had been replaced with new connective tissue and cells by day 5 compared with only 34% for the scaffolds filled with fibrin(high T). There was no statistical difference in the quantity of reparative bone found at 5 days between untreated defects, empty scaffolds, and defects containing scaffolds filled with fibrin(low T).
Although all groups had a significant increase in bone infiltration between days 5 and 11 (Fig. 6), the empty defect and empty scaffold groups contained more reparative bone at day 11 compared with both fibrin-filled scaffold groups (p < 0.004).

The area of blood clot that filled the defect was quantified by measuring the percent area occupied by clusters of blood cells. The untreated defects filled with more blood (33 ± 7%) than the empty scaffolds (11 ± 1%), the scaffolds filled with fibrin(low T) (3 ± 1%), and the scaffolds filled with fibrin(high T) (5 ± 2%) as evidenced after 2 days in vivo (p < 0.001). After 5 days, all groups had significantly less clusters of blood cells, although the untreated defects contained significantly more clusters than the other groups (p < 0.04). Over the 11-day time period in vivo, the scaffold did not appear to degrade.

**DISCUSSION**

We determined that the structural properties of FSs influence the early in vivo wound-healing response. Specifically, bone-tissue invasion was more rapid during the first 5 days of healing within scaffolds filled with fibrin(low T) (8.1% of available area occupied by bone) (Figs. 3 and 6) compared with scaffolds filled with fibrin(high T) (2.2% of available area occupied by bone); this correlated with an increased rate of FS remodeling for the scaffolds filled with fibrin(low T) (62% reduction in defect area occupied by fibrin) compared with the scaffolds filled with fibrin(high T) (34% reduction in defect area occupied by fibrin). We detected more disorganized thin collagen fibrils within scaffolds filled with fibrin(high T) compared with scaffolds filled with fibrin(low T) at 5 days by taking advantage of collagen’s birefringent properties using PSR-stained sections viewed under polarized light (Fig. 3). This immature matrix was remodeled into bone by 11 days in vivo [Fig. 4(D)]. Although it is difficult to determine whether the loosely organized collagen matrix observed after 5 days was immature bone or fibrous tissue, it is evident that scaffolds filled with fibrin(high T) experienced delayed bony wound healing.
formulations may have resulted from different degrees of fibrin crosslinking mediated by factor XIIIa, which requires thrombin for its activation. Because factor XIIIa covalently links \( \alpha \)-antiplasmin to fibrin and this renders the clot less resistant to plasmin degradation, a highly crosslinked fibrin clot may impede cell invasion by reducing the ability of cells to degrade the fibrin. Moreover, it has been demonstrated that plasmin activity is an absolute requirement for fibroblasts to migrate into fibrin gels. To investigate whether the differences observed between the two fibrin formulations could be explained by different degrees of fibrin crosslinking, reducing SDS-PAGE analysis was performed. After 12 h of polymerization, both fibrin formulations were highly crosslinked as evidenced by a significant reduction in \( \alpha \)- and \( \gamma \)-monomers and by the formation of \( \gamma \)-\( \gamma \) dimmer peaks (Fig. 5). This suggests that the degree of fibrin crosslinking was not responsible for the observed \( \text{in vivo} \) differences. The variation in the fibrin structural properties between low T and high T groups likely influenced the \( \text{in vivo} \) response. Specifically, the larger pores in the fibrin(low T) samples likely permitted deeper penetration of cell processes versus the smaller pores in fibrin(high T). This, in turn, decreased the dependency on cell-mediated proteolysis of fibrin for penetration. Although not studied here, cell invasion may also be enhanced in matrices with larger pores due to facilitated diffusion of nutrients and of proteolysis factors such as tissue plasminogen activator, urokinase, and plasmin. Shorter and thicker fibrin strands [as obtained with fibrin(low T)] may concentrate ligands and facilitate increased receptor-ligand avidity, which may also enhance cell migration.

After 11 days, a similar amount of reparative bone was observed between the two fibrin-filled scaffold groups; however, much less bone occupied these defects compared with untreated defects and empty scaffolds \((p < 0.004)\) (Figs. 4 and 6). It is possible that the supraphysiological concentration of fibrinogen (35–55 mg/mL) used for this study impeded cell invasion into the defects causing delayed bony wound healing given that the degree of neutrophil, macrophage, and fibroblast invasion into fibrin becomes significantly impeded above a fibrinogen concentration of 1–3 mg/mL. Furthermore, it has been demonstrated \( \text{in vitro} \) for other cell types, such as neurons, that increasing the fibrinogen concentration above 5 mg/mL significantly reduces invasion. Optimization of the fibrinogen concentration is likely necessary to achieve rapid cell infiltration and bone invasion throughout fibrin-filled scaffolds. In addition, the presence of aprotinin, which is a common additive in FS formulations, blocks the conversion of plasminogen to plasmin and blocks the active site of plasmin; this may reduce cellular invasion and subsequently delay wound healing.

It is possible that blocking the formation of a blood
clot which contains many growth factors released from platelets, contributed to the lack of reparative bone found in scaffolds filled with FS at 11 days. However, Lutolf et al.\textsuperscript{47} (2003) recently demonstrated that rat cranial critical-sized defects filled with a preformed poly(ethylene glycol)-based hydrogel matrix, which blocks blood clot formation, were completely infiltrated by cells and subsequently remodeled into bony tissue within 5 weeks. The mesh size in their synthetic gels was determined to be between 30–50 nm, which likely prevented blood cells from becoming entrapped in the defect site. Although not explicitly described, their experiment demonstrates the efficacy of a bone-healing strategy that involves filling a defect with a cell-invasive matrix, which blocks blood clot from becoming entrapped within the defect. In addition, they found that less bone invaded synthetic matrices of higher crosslink density. Similarly in our study, it is possible that the high crosslink density of both fibrin formulations (Fig. 5) significantly reduced bone invasion into the defects.

Commercially available FSs in their present state seem to be nonideal for bony wound-healing applications. Given that bone invasion at the early time point was affected by the fibrin structural properties, we believe the properties of FS can, and should, be tailored for their intended applications. Although no perfect matrix for filling scaffolds exists, one can elucidate the properties of an ideal pore-filling matrix by varying parameters such as crosslink density, fiber size, and pore size and studying the associated responses \textit{in vivo}.

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