

This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. This Accepted Manuscript will be replaced by the edited, formatted and paginated article as soon as this is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the **Information for Authors**.

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard <u>Terms & Conditions</u> and the <u>Ethical guidelines</u> still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.



www.rsc.org/advances

1	Antibacterial and hemostatic performance of chitosan-organic	
2	rectorite/alginate composite sponge	
3		
4	Honghui Zhang ^{a,1} , Xiaoxing Lv ^{a,1} , Xinping Zhang ^{b,1} , Hongjun Wang ^c , Hongbing	
5	Deng ^d , Yuejun Li ^a , Xiaoli Xu ^a , Rong Huang ^{a, **} , Xueyong Li ^{a,*}	
6		
7	^a Department of Plastic Surgery, Tangdu Hospital, Fourth Military Medical University,	
8	Xi'an 710038, China	
9	^b Department of General Surgery, the General Hospital of Shenyang Military,	
10	Shenyang 110015, China	
11	^c Department of Chemistry, Chemical Biology and Biomedical Engineering, Stevens	
12	Institute of Technology, Hoboken, NJ 07030, USA	
13	^d School of Resource and Environmental Science, Wuhan University, Wuhan 430079,	1
14	China	
15	* Corresponding author. Department of Plastic Surgery, Tangdu Hospital, Fourth	
16	Military Medical University, Xi'an, Shaan Xi, 710038, China.	
17	Tel: +86 29 84777440; Fax: +86 29 84777440	
18	E-mail address: lixueyong641123@163.com	
19	** Corresponding author. Department of Plastic Surgery, Tangdu Hospital, Fourth	
20	Military Medical University, Xi'an, Shaan Xi, 710038, China.	(
21	Tel: +86 29 84777440; Fax: +86 29 84777440	
22	E-mail address: 19881208huang@163.com	
23	¹ co-first author with the same contribution to this work.	

1 Abstract

2 This study reported the preparation and properties of chitosan (CS)-organic rectorite (OREC)/sodium alginate (SA) composite sponge. The novel sponge was 3 fabricated by solution intercalation and chemical cross-linking techniques. The 4 structure and composition of CS/SA and CS-OREC/SA composite sponges were 5 6 characterized by FE-SEM, FT-IR, XRD and EDX. The results showed that the 7 polyelectrolyte with a highly cross-linked structure and uniform pore distribution could be obtained by mixing CS and SA with or without the addition of OREC into 8 9 them. Besides, the low cytotoxicity and excellent antibacterial efficacy of prepared 10 CS/SA and CS-OREC/SA sponges were demonstrated by MTT assay and antibacterial assay. Moreover, the results of the hemostatic test on ear-artery, ear-vein and liver 11 12 injury of rabbit showed that the addition of OREC into the CS/SA composite sponge significantly improved the hemostatic efficiency of as-prepared sponge without 13 compromising the biocompatibility and antibacterial property of CS. This study 14 indicated that the CS-OREC/SA composite sponge had the potential to be potent 15 hemostat for controlling wound infection and bleeding in medical fields. 16

17

18 Keywords: chitosan; organic rectorite; sodium alginate; antibacterial; hemostatic
19 efficacy

Page 3 of 30

1 1. Introduction

In recent years, uncontrolled bleeding is recognized as the leading cause of prehospital trauma deaths in combat settings ^{1,2} and the second leading cause of death in civilian trauma ³. Considering the severity of wartime injuries and associated hemorrhagic deaths, early and effective hemorrhage control of hemorrhage by applying hemostatic agents is of considerable significance to save more lives. On this condition, the profound importance of hemorrhage control has prompted a surge of development of novel hemostatic agents toward this goal.

Over the past decades, considerable efforts have been devoted to the development 9 10 of hemostatic agents that can control hemorrhage and promote patients' own blood clotting to achieve hemostasis. Though some encouraging results are achieved, there 11 12 are disadvantages of the commercial hemostatic agents that can not be neglected. The most commonly used hemostatic agents include absorbable gelatin sponges 13 (Gelsponge), bovine-derived microfibrillar collagen (Avitene), and oxidized 14 regenerated cellulose (Surgicel) which is often combined with bovine thrombin. The 15 16 efficacy of these agents may vary significantly and has not been assessed by vigorous clinical trials, some of them are reported to complicate tissue healing by forming a 17 nidus for infection and abscess formation in severe hemorrhage⁴. Besides, the 18 HemCon chitosan (CS) dressing and the QuikClot zeolite are being used routinely in 19 the battlefield ^{5, 6}. However, the application of QuikClot is strictly limited because it 20 generates heat that can cause burn injuries, and it has been found that neither 21 QuikClot nor HemCon has survival benefit over gauze in more extreme animal 22

models of hemorrhage ^{7, 8}. Thus how to design and fabricate an ideal hemostatic
dressing that can control bleeding is a very important and challenging issue.

Of note, the growing incidence of infection by antibiotic-resistant bacteria strains in 3 combat trauma wounds is another challenging issue for caregivers. Though broad 4 spectrum antibiotics has been implicated in the selection of resistant pathogens, 5 antibiotic prophylaxis is still the standard of care since it may be difficult to get early 6 surgical debridement to reduce wound bacteria bioburden under combat conditions⁹. 7 To solve this problem, alternatives to antibiotics should be used to manage wound 8 infection. Ionic silver, an active agent against a wide range of pathogens including 9 multi-drug resistant strain¹⁰, is investigated by many researchers as first line 10 intervention to stop the progress of infection that can lead to septicemia and death, 11 12 Zhong et al reported the quaternized carboxymethyl chitosan (QCMC)/sodium alginate (SA) composite sponge with Ag NP-loaded quaternized carboxymethyl 13 chitosan/organic rectorite (QCORAg) nanocomposite which showed excellent 14 antibacterial and hemostatic properties ¹¹. Besides, Shin-Yeu Ong *et al* prepared 15 16 silver-loaded CS dressing by incorporating a procoagulant (polyphosphate) with potent hemostatic and antimicrobial properties ¹². However, Poon et al examined the 17 effects of silver on keratinocytes and fibroblasts in another in vitro study with 18 applying silver nitrate solution. They demonstrated that silver was toxic to skin cells, 19 fibroblasts and keratinocytes as well as to bacteria ^{13, 14}. 20

In view of the dual challenges of bleeding and contamination in combat wounds, the ideal hemostatic agent should possess the ability to rapidly stop large-vessel

RSC Advances

arterial and venous bleeding even when applied through a pool of blood with	
bactericidal activity associated with durability and stability at various temperatures	
and humidities. More importantly, it should be harmless to both the wounded	
individual and the one giving aid ^{15, 16} . From this point of view, we conceived a	
CS-based dressing with improved hemostatic and antimicrobial properties. As we	
know, CS is an attractive biomaterial for wound care because of its biocompatibility,	
non-toxicity ¹⁷ , biodegradability ¹⁸ and intrinsic hemostatic ¹⁹⁻²¹ and antimicrobial	
properties ^{22, 23} . Besides, SA wound dressings with excellent biocompatibility,	
promotion of wound healing and hemostatic function, are widely used in biomedical	
applications ^{24, 25} . However, CS's antimicrobial action is limited against certain	
species of bacteria and in non-acidic pH environments ²⁶ . Among all the adjuvant	
bacteriostatic agent, organic rectorite (OREC), modified from REC, which is a kind of	
layered silicate, exhibits larger interlayer distance ²⁷ , better separable layer thickness	I
and larger aspect ratio than montmorillonite (MMT) ²⁸ . Besides, the European Food	
Safety Authority (EFSA) reported that bentonite (dioctahedral montmorillonite),	
another kind of layered silicate, was safe as a food additive ²⁹ . The tunable interlayer	
distance of OREC could obviously affect the efficiency of its application, such as	
adsorption ability ³⁰ and bacteria inhibition ³¹ . In our previous reports, it was	
interesting to note that with the addition of OREC, the bacterial inhibition ability of	I
other antibacterial agents could be remarkably enhanced ²³ . Hence, we hypothesized	(
that the addition of OREC to CS can lead to a more potent hemostat with improved	(
antimicrobial efficiency.	

1	This paper reported the preparation of a novel intercalated CS-OREC/SA composite
2	sponge with excellent hemostatic efficacy via solution intercalation, cross-linking and
3	freeze-drying techniques. The morphology and compositions of the prepared CS/SA
4	and CS-OREC/SA sponges were investigated by FE-SEM, FT-IR, XRD and EDX
5	analysis. Besides, the biocompatibility of the prepared samples was compared by
6	MTT assay. Moreover, the CS-OREC/SA composite sponge was then compared with
7	CS/SA in disk diffusion test against two common wound pathogens, the
8	Gram-negative bacteria E. coli and Gram-positive bacteria S. aureus in vitro.
9	Furthermore, the hemostatic efficacy of CS-OREC/SA composite sponge was
10	systematically demonstrated by auricular artery, marginal auricular vein and liver
11	injury models.

l	2. Ex	oerime	ntal
---	-------	--------	------

2 2.1. Materials

3 2.1. Materials

Chitosan (CS, $M_W = 2.1 \times 10^5$ Da, DD= 92%) was provided by Yuhuan Ocean 4 Biochemical Co. (Taizhou, China). Sodium alginate (SA, $Mw = 2.5 \times 10^5$ kDa) was 5 supplied by Aladdin Chemical Reagent Co., China. Calcium rectorite (Ca²⁺-REC) was 6 obtained from Hubei Mingliu Inc. Co. (Wuhan, China). Cetyltrimethyl ammonium 7 bromide (CTAB) was supplied by Xinrui Science and Technology Inc. Co. (Wuhan, 8 China). All other chemicals were of analytical grade and used as received. Purified 9 10 water was prepared by a system consisting of three units (active charcoal, ion exchanger, and reverse osmosis) connected in series to an ELGA water purification 11 12 system (PURELAB ultra, UK). All aqueous solutions were prepared with purified water (electrical resistivity = $18.2 \text{ M}\Omega \cdot \text{cm}$). 13

Organic rectorite (OREC) and intercalated CS-OREC composites with the mass ratio of 100/1 were synthesized according to the previous reports ^{32, 33}. Briefly, the OREC was prepared by a cation exchange between Ca²⁺-rectorite galleries and CTAB in an aqueous solution as described previously ³⁴. CS-OREC solution with the total concentration of 2% were obtained by adding CS solution dropwise and slowly into OREC suspensions at 60°C under gentle agitation for 12 h ³⁵.

20 2.2. Preparation of CS-OREC/SA composite sponges

CS and SA were dissolved in 2% acetic acid solution and purified water to get 2%
CS solution and 2% SA solution (w/v), respectively. The above two solutions were

fully mixed and stirred in a volume ratio of 3:1 (SA: CS), then the composites with CS-OREC mentioned above and SA were obtained after the same treatment and 2 homogenized to obtain the CS-OREC/SA. After being deaerated under vacuum to 3 remove entrapped airbubbles, the blends were injected into a home-made mould (10 4 cm×10 cm×2 cm) and lyophilized at -40°C. Then the dried samples were soaked in 5 CaCl₂ solution for 2h, which was followed by washing with distilled water and 6 7 lyophilizing again. The composite sponges were obtained and designated as CS/SA and CS-OREC/SA. 8 9 2.3. Characterization The microstructure and composition of as-prepared samples were analyzed using 10 field emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM) and energy-dispersive X-ray 11 12 (EDX) spectroscopy (FE-SEM, JSM-6700F, JEOL, Japan). The surface and cross-section of the samples were sputter coated with gold prior to SEM analysis. 13 Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectra were recorded by a Nicolet FT-IR 5700 14 spectrophotometer (Nicolet, Madison, USA) with 64 times of scans and the resolution 15 of 4 cm⁻¹, and all the samples were dried before FT-IR experiment. The X-ray 16 diffraction (XRD) was evaluated using diffractometer type D/max-Ra (Rigaku Co., 17 Japan) with Cu target and Ka radiation (λ = 0.154 nm) at 40 kV and 50 mA at room 18

temperature. The scanning rate was 0.5°/min and the scanning scope of 20 was 1-10° 19 and $5-60^{\circ}$ in a fixed time mode. 20

21 2.4. Cytotoxicity assay

1

22 The prepared sponges were firstly cut into round disks (Diameter =6 mm),

transferred to the 96-well culture plates and sterilized by ethylene oxide gas, followed
by incubating in DMEM medium at 37°C. They were then placed in the refrigerator
for 24h, after the incubation period the so-called extracts were obtained and degermed
by 0.22 µm filter prior to the following experiments.

5 The cytotoxicity of the CS/SA and CS-OREC/SA sponges to NHDFs was measured by MTT method ³⁶. A total of 1×10^4 NHDFs were seeded in 96-well microtiter plates 6 and incubated in 200 µL Dulbecco modified eagle medium (DMEM) supplemented 7 with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1% penicillin/streptomycin. The culture 8 9 medium were then removed and replaced with the extraction mentioned above and 10 incubated for 24h, 72h and 120h, respectively. After that, the cells were washed gently with phosphate buffered saline (PBS) for three times, MTT (25 µL) was added into 11 12 each well at 37°C for 4h, then DMSO (150 µL) was added to dissolve the MTT formazan purple crystals. Finally, the absorbance of the solution was measured at 490 13 nm by an enzyme linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) Reader (MODEL550, 14 15 Bio-Rad, USA).

16 2.5. Inhibition of bacterial activity

The method used for studying the bacterial inhibition activity of nanofibrous mats was reported previously ^{22, 37}. Gram-negative E. coli and Gram-positive Staphylococcus aureus (S. aureus) were selected as representative bacteria and cultivated in culture medium in an incubator. The antibacterial activities of CS/SA and CS-OREC/SA composite sponges were determined according to the disk diffusion method. The prepared specimens were sterilized under an ultraviolet

radiation lamp for 30 min and then cut in disks with the diameter of 20 mm, 50 uL diluted levitation bacterial with a concentration of 10^5 - 10^6 cfu/mL were inoculated into the agar culture medium uniformly. After that, the disks were placed on the surface of the agar medium at 37°C for 24h. The inhibition zones were measured with a tolerance of 1 mm. Each sample was repeated three times.

6 2.6. Evaluation of Hemostatic Effect

The male New Zealand White rabbits (wt 3-4 kg) of 4 months old were considered 7 to characterize the hemostatic effect of CS/SA and CS-OREC/SA composite sponges. 8 9 The experimental protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee for Animal Experimentation of the Fourth Military Medical University (TDLL-2014038, June 10 2014), which also met the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals of the 11 12 National Institutes of Health. The surgery was performed under anesthesia, and all efforts were made to minimize suffering. Experimental materials were sterilized by 13 gamma ray (18 kGy). 14

For the ear artery injury and vein injury, the site of middle auricular artery and 15 marginal auricular vein of rabbits were clipped and prepared after the anesthesia of 16 17 intraperitoneal, respectively. Subsequently, it was bleed by transverse cut of the vessel using a scalpel blade. As the blood started flowing out from the wound, a piece of 18 conventional sterile gauze was used to absorb the blood immediately. After 10 s of 19 20 bleeding, the samples were placed at the wound and pressed lightly. The testing procedure was replicated five times for each material, and then calculated the mean 21 22 hemostatic time and mean blood weight.

To establish liver injury model, rabbits were anesthetized and through abdomen section, liver was exposed. The wound was induced by an intersectional cut (0.5×0.5 cm) using a scalpel on the left medial lobe of liver. After 10 s of bleeding, the samples were put on the wounds and pressed lightly. The test procedure was replicated five times for each material, the bleeding times were recorded and the mean hemostatic times were calculated ³⁸.

7 2.7. Statistics analysis

8 The values were expressed as means±standard deviation (SD). Whenever 9 appropriate, two-tailed Student's t-test was used to discern the statistical difference 10 between groups. A probability value (p) of less than 0.05 (*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01 or 11 ***p < 0.001) was considered to be statistically significant.

3. Results and Dicussion

2 3.1. Characterization of CS-OREC/SA sponge

Figure 1 shows the FE-SEM images of both the surface and cross-section of the 3 CS/SA and CS-OREC/SA sponges at two different magnifications. Dense pores with 4 large size and uniform distribution were observed from the images of the surface of 5 CS/SA (Figure 1 A). SA is an anionic polysaccharide, while the amino group of CS is 6 positively charged. Their mixture produced a polyelectrolyte composite ³⁹ and then 7 porous sponges with three-dimensional structure were obtained through lyophilization. 8 9 As shown in Figure 1C, the interconnected 3D porous structure and uniformity of the sponge was retained after the introduction of OREC, however, some other significant 10 changes occurred with respect to pore size and morphology. The mean pore size 11 12 increased from 100 µm for CS/SA to 135 µm for CS-OREC/SA. Interestingly, the cross-section morphologies of the CS/SA and CS-OREC/SA sponges are shown in 13 Figure 1B and D. Sheet-like structure appeared in CS/SA together with condensed 14 walls which were different from the surface morphology (Figure 1B). No big 15 difference between the two sponges was observed except for the appearance of several 16 fibers between adjacent pores after the intercalation of OREC (Figure 1D). 17

It is known that the microstructure including the pore size and its distribution has prominent influence on cell intrusion, proliferation and function in tissue engineering. The results indicated that the morphology difference is mainly caused by the CS-OREC intercalation and cross-linking process. The introduction of OREC might induce the fibers to be combined again to form sheets, leading to the fusion of some



1 smaller pores to generate larger ones.

Fig. 1. FE-SEM images of surface (A) and cross-sectional (B) morphology of CS/SA
sponge and surface (C) and cross-sectional (D) morphology of CS-OREC/SA sponge.

5

2

Figure 2 presents the FT-IR spectra and WAXRD patterns of bulk materials and 6 7 resultant CS/SA and CS-OREC/SA composite samples. As shown in Figure 2A, the characteristic absorption peaks of CS were found at 3434 cm⁻¹, 1656 cm⁻¹ and 1596 8 cm⁻¹, commonly ascribed to the N-H bonded to O-H vibration, amide I and amide II, 9 respectively ²². In the FT-IR spectrum of SA, a peak observed at 1616 cm⁻¹ was 10 attributed to the vibration of the C=O group, while the peak at 1419 cm^{-1} was related 11 to symmetric and asymmetric stretching of the carboxylate group. The band at 1029 12 cm⁻¹ was attributed to the stretching of the C-O-C bond ⁴⁰. OREC had the dominant 13 peaks around 467 and 546 cm⁻¹, representing Si-O bending vibration. Besides, it had 14

characteristic adsorption peaks appearing at 2917 cm⁻¹ and 2850 cm⁻¹ which belong to
 -CH₂- and -CH₃ stretching vibrations ^{23, 32}.

In the spectrum of the CS-OREC nanocomposites, the peak at 3642 cm⁻¹ 3 disappeared which indicated that the -OH of OREC had reacted with CS. Besides, the 4 N-H and O-H vibrations at 3434 cm⁻¹ in CS shifted to lower frequency (3411 cm⁻¹). 5 This fact revealed that -NH₂ and -OH groups of CS formed hydrogen bonds with the 6 7 -OH group of OREC. Another reason might be a strong hydrogen bonding interaction between CS molecules and inside CS molecules when constrained into the gallery of 8 OREC layers ³⁴. As compared to the spectra of pure CS, the frequency of vibration 9 bands at 1596 cm⁻¹ which corresponded to the deformation vibration of the protonated 10 amine group, were shifted towards lower frequency value of 1564 cm⁻¹ in CS-OREC 11 12 composites. This shift appeared as a result of the electrostatic interaction between amine groups and the negatively charged sites in the clay structure, and was consistent 13 with result in previous report ³¹. Besides, in the spectrum of CS/SA, the reaction of 14 the carboxylic groups of alginate (ALG) with the amine groups of CS to form an 15 anionic complex was already known⁴¹. Hence changes were expected in the 16 absorption bands of these groups after complexation. As can be seen, the symmetrical 17 stretching of COO- groups shifted to 1415 cm⁻¹, which revealed that the carboxylic 18 groups of ALG had interacted with CS. As observed in Figure 2A-f, the peak at 3642 19 cm⁻¹ disappeared which indicated that the -OH of OREC had reacted with CS or ALG. 20 The dominant peaks of OREC at 489 cm^{-1} verified the successful deposition of OREC 21 22 after solution intercalation.

1	The WAXRD patterns of bulk materials and resultant composite sponges are
2	presented in Figure 2B, the crystal peak of CS near 20.24° (Fig. 2B-a) was clearly
3	observed while the diffraction of OREC consisted of 7.33°, 8.65°, 11.56°, 20.1°,
4	27.50°, 29.65° and 35.58° (Fig. 2B-b). However, the crystal peak of OREC near 20.1°,
5	27.50°, 29.65° and 35.58° disappeared in CS-OREC composite, replacing by two
6	stronger peak around 8.76° and 11.72°(Fig. 2B-c) which evidenced the successful
7	deposition of OREC. Besides, new crystal peaks appeared at 18.78° and 23.56°
8	verified the strong interaction of CS and OREC which resulted in the restriction of
9	molecular movement of CS chains and destruction of crystallinity of CS. Moreover,
10	SA appeared major crystal peaks around 13.74° and 21.88° (Fig. 2B-b), after the
11	formation of CS/SA composites, the peaks appeared at 13.4° due to the incorporation
12	of SA. Of note, new crystal peaks appeared at 18.54° and 23.3° which was also found
13	in CS-OREC/SA. Interestingly, compared to the major peaks appeared at 20.1°,
14	27.50°, 29.65° and 35.58° of pure OREC, these of CS-OREC/SA gradually
15	disappeared. The characteristic diffraction peaks of CS-OREC/SA appeared at 8.68°,
16	11.56°, 18.38° and 23.44° which confirmed the existence of OREC, CS and SA, but
17	the diffraction heights at 8.68° and 11.90° were significantly reduced while the
18	crystalline peak at 23.44° became wider. It was evident that the addition of OREC
19	greatly changed the crystallinity of CS and SA. This fact confirmed the strong
20	interaction between CS, SA and OREC as well, thus resulted in the restriction of
21	molecular movement of CS and SA chains. This data suggested a lower crystallinity
22	of CS and SA and improved miscibility of the prepared composite sponges.



Fig. 2. FT-IR spectra (A) and WAXRD pattern (B) of (a) CS, (b) SA, (c) OREC, (d)
CS-OREC, (e) CS/SA composite sponge and (f) CS-OREC/SA composite sponge.

1

4

5 Figure 3 shows the composition analysis results of the CS/SA and CS-OREC/SA composite samples by EDX analysis together with the SAXRD patterns and of OREC 6 and CS-OREC/SA composite sponge. EDX spectra suggested the contents of Si and 7 8 Al in CS-OREC/SA sponge (Figure 3B) were 4.84% and 5.91% while none of them were detected in CS/SA sponge (Figure 3A), respectively. It was well recognized that 9 Al and Si were characteristic elements of OREC. As for the immobilized ability of 10 OREC into various scaffolds, it has been reported that the contents of Si and Al are 11 1.97% and 1.44% in (HTCC-OREC/SA)_{10.5} film-coated nanofibrous mats ²⁷. Herein, 12 the detection of Si and Al was attributed to the successful intercalation of OREC into 13 the CS and SA chains which was in accordance with the FE-SEM observation (Figure 14 1C). Hence, one can deduce from the above results that the composite sponges can act 15 as excellent host for OREC due to the porous structure and uniform distribution of 16 polymers. Moreover, SAXRD was employed to investigate the building of 17 predesigned intercalated architecture in composite sponge (Figure 3C). OREC 18

1 exhibited $2\theta=1.88^{\circ}$ and the interlayer distance was 4.69 nm, calculated by the Braggs 2 equation of $n\lambda=2d \sin\theta$. In comparison with OREC, the peak of CS-OREC/SA 3 intercalation composition shifted towards lower angle ($2\theta=1.49^{\circ}$) and the interlayer 4 distance was enlarged to 5.92 nm. The fact revealed that the CS and SA chains 5 inserted into the intergallery of OREC.





8 SAXRD pattern of OREC and CS-OREC composite.

9

6

10

11 *3.2. Cell viability test*

To monitor cell adhesion and viability on different substrates, the number of cells
was determined by using the colorimetric MTT assay. Figure 4 summarized the cell

1	viability on CS/SA and CS-OREC/SA along with 24h, 72h and 120h incubation. The
2	cell culture plate (TCPS) was used as the control group, it showed that NHDFs
3	cultured in both scaffolds exhibited a similar growth pattern of time-dependent
4	increase of cell number during the culture period. In detail, the cell viability of CS/SA
5	and CS-OREC/SA were 81.01±2.28% (P<0.05) and 87.59±4.39% on day 1,
6	98.66±6.92% and 109.50±3.38% on day 3, 115.55±3.29% and 124.20±3.92% on day
7	5. Besides, compared with the cell viability of NHDFs on CS/SA template, the
8	addition of OREC into CS/SA during intercalation process led to higher cell viability.
9	On days 3 after incubation, lower optical density was observed on TCPS than that on
10	CS/SA and CS-OREC/SA, which was due to the 2D surface that was just suitable for
11	the monolayer. When cells became confluent, contact inhibition resulted in the cease
12	of mitosis. The data demonstrated the enhanced biocompatibility and supportiveness
13	of CS-OREC/SA sponge for NHDFs proliferation.



Fig. 4. The cell viability of L929 cells: (A) control group and cells cultured with (B)
CS/SA sponge and (C) CS-OREC/SA sponge tested by MTT assay, significant
difference: *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

5

1

6 *3.3. Antibacterial Activity*

The antibacterial features of CS/SA and CS-OREC/SA were evaluated against the Gram positive and negative bacteria, S. aureus and E. coli. Figure 5 shows the antibacterial activities of tested composite sponges by disc-agar diffusion tests. Apparently, the inhibitory property of both CS/SA and CS-OREC/SA sponges against the Gram-positive bacteria are better than that against Gram-negative bacteria which was consistent with the previous reports ⁴². As observed in Figure 4A, the inhibition zones were around 5 mm against E. coli and 6.3 mm against S. aureus, respectively.

1	The antimicrobial activity might be attributed to the combined characteristics of CS
2	and SA: on one hand, some researchers believed that CS killed bacteria through cell
3	membrane damage duo to the electrostatic interactions between protonated amino
4	groups of CS and phosphoryl groups of phospholipid components of cell membranes
5	⁴³ . On the other hand, SA can easily form gel structure which will provide a beneficial
6	physical barrier against bacteria based on the hydrogel properties ⁴⁴ . Besides, as
7	expected, the degree of bacterial inhibition was remarkably enhanced with the
8	addition of OREC into the composite sponges. The inhibition diameters were around
9	7 mm against E. coli and 11 mm against S. aureus, respectively. In addition, both the
10	CS/SA and CS-OREC/SA composite sponges exhibited partial dissolution when
11	co-culturing with microorganism. It can be explained by the nutritive property of SA
12	⁴⁵ . Taken together, the antibacterial activity of prepared composite sponge was
13	improved with the introduction of OREC. The reason why the addition of OREC
14	could significantly enhance the antibacterial efficiency could be concluded as follows:
15	The positively charged OREC can absorb the negatively charged bacteria via
16	electrostatic forces, and the bacteria can be immobilized on the surface of OREC ³³ .
17	Besides, OREC exhibits large surface area and adsorption capacity which could
18	absorb bacteria and inhibit the proliferation of them ³¹ . More importantly, the bacterial
19	adsorption and immobilization capacities of CS-OREC were synergistically improved
20	because of its hydrophobicity and higher positive charge ²³ .



2 Fig. 5. Antibacterial activity of (A) CS/SA sponge and (B) CS-OREC/SA sponge.

3

4

1

The hemostatic efficacy of CS/SA and CS-OREC/SA sponge was evaluated by 5 rabbit ear artery, ear vein and liver hemorrhage model. The mean bleeding time and 6 7 mean blood weight of both composite sponges were summarized in Table 1. Figure 6 presented the conventional gauze (A-F) and CS-OREC/SA (A'-F') applied on 8 marginal auricular vein and auricular artery of rabbit. The surface of the prepared 9 sponge was soaked with a certain amount of blood, and it turned to be dark brown or 10 black immediately and gradually to be a clot after contacting with blood. Finally, the 11 12 bleeding was stopped in 97 seconds (vein) and 145 seconds (artery) in CS-OREC/SA treated group while bleeding was stopped in 137 seconds (vein) and 233 seconds 13 (artery) in OREC-free sponge. But the changes were not statistically significant. 14 15 Hence, for the OREC containing composite sponge, the arrest of bleeding took shorter 16 time with less blood loss in comparison with the sponges without it.

17 The shape change of the CS-OREC/SA during arresting blood was greatly different

^{3.4.} Hemostatic Effects

1 from CS/SA sponge (data not shown). Since the CS/SA sponge was partially water-soluble due to the -COONa group, the sponge could dissolve in the blood 2 quickly and became transparent. The CS /SA gauze swelled and formed a coagulum at 3 the bleeding site (data not shown). Although the coagulum gauze was beneficial to 4 5 stop the vessel end bleeding, the gauze did not stand the shock of faster blood flow 6 from the artery and was swept quickly away and could not arrest the later bleeding. 7 Hence, the hemostatic efficacy of the CS/SA was relatively low in ear-artery bleeding. However, the OREC containing sponge still maintained the compact structure after 8 9 covering on the ear wound. The reason might be that the mechanical property of the 10 sponge was enhanced with the addition of OREC and the intercalation between CS and OREC and the agent went on performing the hemostatic function. 11



12

Fig. 6. The hemostatic effect of conventional medical gauze and prepared
CS-OREC/SA sponge used to paste and press on the ear artery and auricular vein of
rabbit.

Table 1. The mean hemostatic time (MHT) (s) and mean blood weight (MBW) (g) of
(A) CS/SA and (B) CS-OREC/SA composite sponge in various rabbit injury models.

		MHT (s)			MBW (g)	
Sample	Ear artery	Ear vein	Liver	Ear artery	Ear vein	Liver
А	233±48	137±28	275±53	1.21±0.15	0.56±0.11	2.33±0.41
В	145±24	97±18	176±32	0.76±0.10	0.27±0.06	1.36±0.19

1

For the liver injury, consistent with these results of ear injury model, the styptic 2 3 effect was stronger with the addition of OREC for the composite sponges (Figure 7). The CS-OREC/SA had higher hemostatic efficacy than CS/SA and gauze. It took 4 longer time (275 s) with higher blood loss for CS/SA on arresting blood in 5 comparison with CS-OREC/SA (176 s). As observed in the inset of Figure 7G, when 6 the composite sponges were contacted with blood, they could stop bleeding quickly. 7 The concentrated blood had higher viscosity and the blood flowing rate became low, 8 9 finally the blood gradually clotted, its viscosity enhanced like well-known CMC 10 which contributed to its hemostatic activity by adhering tightly to the wound surface to seal leaking. 11



12

Fig. 7. The hemostatic effect of prepared CS-OREC/SA sponge applied in the rabbit
liver trauma.

15

16 Based on the hemostatic effects demonstrated by the above models, the

CS-OREC/SA composite sponge exhibited higher hemostatic efficiency than 1 CS-coated oxidized regenerated cellulose gauze reported by He et al ³⁸. It was 2 3 reasonable to deduce that the styptic capacity of the composite sponges was remarkable improved with the introduction of OREC. The hemostatic behavior of the 4 composite sponges may be mainly related to the structure and properties itself. Firstly, 5 the CS is a proven and effective hemostat with hydrophilic property that could 6 participate along with blood coagulation 46, 47. In detail, the amino groups with 7 positive charge of CS attracted the negative charge of muramic acid distributed on the 8 surface of the red blood cells¹¹. Therefore, it came out a strong adhesion effect 9 10 leading to the aggregation of red blood cells so as to promote blood clotting and achieve hemostatic effect. Secondly, the water-soluble -COONa groups make the 11 gauze rapidly gel when it contacts with the blood ³⁸. A lot of water in the blood was 12 absorbed by the SA so that the density and viscosity of blood increased rapidly which 13 made the blood flow slow down and achieved high blood clotting rate. What's more, 14 the CS-OREC containing composite sponges had larger specific surface area than CS 15 16 and swelling characteristics which contributed to the water-absorption. As a result, the 17 composite sponges became a viscous gel covering on the surface of the wound.

18

19 **4. Conclusion**

In this paper, we reported the fabrication of porous CS-OREC/SA sponge by solution intercalation, cross-linking and freeze-drying techniques. The introduction of OREC had significant influence on the morphology of the sponge including pore size

and distribution. FT-IR, EDX and XRD results evidenced the interaction between CS 1 and OREC and the successful assembling of OREC into CS/SA composites. Besides, 2 3 the antibacterial activities of the CS-OREC/SA composite sponges which were helpful for inhibiting the inflammation of the wound were greatly improved compared to 4 5 CS/SA. Moreover, the CS/SA and CS-OREC/SA composite sponge was evaluated for possible application as a hemostatic agent in clinical treatments. The hemostatic test 6 7 of the rabbit liver, ear-artery and ear-vein injury demonstrated that the introduction of 8 the OREC into the crosslinked sponge improved the styptic capacity. The prepared 9 composite sponge was more suitable as the hemostatic material applied in the rabbit 10 liver trauma in comparison with the ear-artery trauma. These results suggested that the OREC-contained composite sponges could be applied as a new kind of effective 11 12 hemostat, which showed great potential in clinical application.

13 Acknowledgements

This project was funded by National High Technology Research and Development Program of China (863 Program) (Grant No: SS2015AA020313), National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant Nos: 81272134, 81171804, 81071570, 81401597) and Science and Technology Innovation Development Foundation of Tangdu hospital (Grant No: 2013CXTS016).

1 References

2	1. D. S. Kauvar, R. Lefering and C. E. Wade, Journal of Trauma and Acute Care
3	Surgery, 2006, 60 , S3-S11.
4	2. J. G. McManus, B. J. Eastridge, C. E. Wade and J. B. Holcomb, Journal of Trauma
5	and Acute Care Surgery, 2007, 62, S14.
6	3. A. Sauaia, F. A. Moore, E. E. Moore, K. S. Moser, R. Brennan, R. A. Read and P. T.
7	Pons, Journal of Trauma and Acute Care Surgery, 1995, 38, 185-193.
8	4. B. S. Kheirabadi, A. Field-Ridley, R. Pearson, M. MacPhee, W. Drohan and D.
9	Tuthill, Journal of Surgical Research, 2002, 106, 99-107.
10	5. P. Rhee, C. Brown, M. Martin, A. Salim, D. Plurad, D. Green, L. Chambers, D.
11	Demetriades, G. Velmahos and H. Alam, Journal of Trauma and Acute Care
12	Surgery, 2008, 64 , 1093-1099.
13	6. I. Wedmore, J. G. McManus, A. E. Pusateri and J. B. Holcomb, Journal of Trauma
14	and Acute Care Surgery, 2006, 60 , 655-658.
15	7. N. Ahuja, T. A. Ostomel, P. Rhee, G. D. Stucky, R. Conran, Z. Chen, G. A.
16	Al-Mubarak, G. Velmahos and H. B. Alam, Journal of Trauma and Acute Care
17	Surgery, 2006, 61 , 1312-1320.
18	8. K. R. Ward, M. H. Tiba, W. H. Holbert, C. R. Blocher, G. T. Draucker, E. K. Proffitt,
19	G. L. Bowlin, R. R. Ivatury and R. F. Diegelmann, Journal of Trauma and
20	Acute Care Surgery, 2007, 63, 276-284.
21	9. C. K. Murray, S. A. Roop, D. R. Hospenthal, D. P. Dooley, K. Wenner, J. Hammock,
22	N. Taufen and E. Gourdine, Bacteriology of war wounds at the time of injury,

1	DTIC Document, 2006.
2	10. M. Ip, S. L. Lui, V. K. Poon, I. Lung and A. Burd, Journal of Medical
3	Microbiology, 2006, 55 , 59-63.
4	11. H. Zhong, W. Ye, X. Li, X. Wang and R. Sun, Current Nanoscience, 2013, 9,
5	742-746.
6	12. S. Ong, J. Wu, S. M. Moochhala, M. Tan and J. Lu, Biomaterials, 2008, 29,
7	4323-4332.
8	13. J. Fong and F. Wood, international Journal of Nanomedicine, 2006, 1, 441.
9	14. V. K. Poon and A. Burd, Burns, 2004, 30, 140-147.
10	15. J. G. Clay, D. Zierold, K. Grayson and F. D. Battistella, Journal of Surgical
11	Research, 2009, 155, 89-93.
12	16. A. E. Pusateri, J. B. Holcomb, B. S. Kheirabadi, H. B. Alam, C. E. Wade and K. L.
13	Ryan, Journal of Trauma and Acute Care Surgery, 2006, 60, 674-682.
14	17. N. Bhattarai, D. Edmondson, O. Veiseh, F. A. Matsen and M. Zhang, Biomaterials,
15	2005, 26 , 6176-6184.
16	18. X. Yang, X. Chen and H. Wang, <i>Biomacromolecules</i> , 2009, 10 , 2772-2778.
17	19. M. C. Bonferoni, G. Sandri, S. Rossi, F. Ferrari and C. Caramella, Expert Opinion
18	on Drug Delivery, 2009, 6 , 923-939.
19	20. L. Ma, C. Gao, Z. Mao, J. Zhou, J. Shen, X. Hu and C. Han, Biomaterials, 2003,
20	24 , 4833-4841.
21	21. F. Mi, S. Shyu, Y. Wu, S. Lee, J. Shyong and R. Huang, Biomaterials, 2001, 22,
22	165-173.

1	22. H. Deng, P. Lin, S. Xin, R. Huang, W. Li, Y. Du, X. Zhou and J. Yang,
2	Carbohydrate polymers, 2012, 89, 307-313.
3	23. H. Deng, X. Wang, P. Liu, B. Ding, Y. Du, G. Li, X. Hu and J. Yang, Carbohydrate
4	polymers, 2011, 83 , 239-245.
5	24. T. Hashimoto, Y. Suzuki, M. Tanihara, Y. Kakimaru and K. Suzuki, Biomaterials,
6	2004, 25 , 1407-1414.
7	25. K. Murakami, H. Aoki, S. Nakamura, Si. Nakamura, M. Takikawa, M. Hanzawa,
8	S. Kishimoto, H. Hattori, Y. Tanaka and T. Kiyosawa, <i>Biomaterials</i> , 2010, 31,
9	83-90.
10	26. Y. Chung, Y. Su, C. Chen, G. Jia, H. Wang, J. Wu and J. Lin, Acta Pharmacologica
11	<i>Sinica</i> , 2004, 25 , 932-936.
12	27. R. Huang, Y. Li, X. Zhou, Q. Zhang, H. Jin, J. Zhao, S. Pan and H. Deng,
13	<i>Carbohydrate polymers</i> , 2012, 90 , 957-966.
14	28. X. Wang, B. Liu, J. Ren, C. Liu, X. Wang, J. Wu and R. Sun, Composites Science
15	and Technology, 2010, 70 , 1161-1167.
16	29. European Food Safety Authority (EFSA), EFSA Journal, 2011, 9, 2007-2030.
17	30. Y. Feng, J. Gong, G. Zeng, Q. Niu, H. Zhang, C. Niu, J. Deng and M. Yan,
18	Chemical Engineering Journal, 2010, 162, 487-494.
19	31. X. Wang, B. Liu, X. Wang and R. Sun, Current Nanoscience, 2011, 7, 183-190.
20	32. H. Deng, X. Li, B. Ding, Y. Du, G. Li, J. Yang and X. Hu, Carbohydrate polymers,
21	2011, 83 , 973-978.
22	33. X. Wang, Y. Du, J. Luo, J. Yang, W. Wang and J. F. Kennedy, Carbohydrate

1	polymers, 2009, 77, 449-456.
2	34. X. Wang, Y. Du, J. Yang, X. Wang, X. Shi and Y. Hu, Polymer, 2006, 47,
3	6738-6744.
4	35. R. Huang, X. Zhou, X. Liu, Q. Zhang, H. g. Jin, X. Shi, W. Luo and H. Deng,
5	Journal of biomedical nanotechnology, 2014, 10, 485-499.
6	36. R. Huang, W. Li, X. Lv, Z. Lei, Y. Bian, H. Deng, H. Wang, J. Li and X. Li,
7	Biomaterials, 2015, 53, 58-75.
8	37. W. Huang, X. Li, Y. Xue, R. Huang, H. Deng and Z. Ma, International journal of
9	biological macromolecules, 2013, 53 , 26-31.
10	38. J. He, Y. Wu, F. Wang, W. Cheng, Y. Huang and B. Fu, Fibers and Polymers, 2014,
11	15 , 504-509.
12	39. J. Jia, Z. Wang, W. Lu, L. Yang, Q. Wu, W. Qin, Q. Hu and B. Z. Tang, Journal of
13	Materials Chemistry B, 2014, 2, 8406-8411.
14	40. A. Abruzzo, F. Bigucci, T. Cerchiara, B. Saladini, M. C. Gallucci, F. Cruciani, B.
15	Vitali and B. Luppi, Carbohydr Polym, 2013, 91, 651-658.
16	41. D. Liu, X. Yuan and D. Bhattacharyya, Journal of Materials Science, 2012, 47,
17	3159-3165.
18	42. W. Li, X. Li, Y. Chen, X. Li, H. Deng, T. Wang, R. Huang and G. Fan,
19	<i>Carbohydrate polymers</i> , 2013, 92 , 2232-2238.
20	43. H. K. No, N. Y. Park, S. H. Lee and S. P. Meyers, International journal of food
21	microbiology, 2002, 74 , 65-72.
22	44. S. A. Covarrubias, L. E. de-Bashan, M. Moreno and Y. Bashan, Applied

1 <i>microbiology and biotechnology</i> , 201	2, 93 , 2669-2680.
---	---------------------------

- 2 45. S. H. Yu, F. L. Mi, Y. B. Wu, C. K. Peng, S. S. Shyu and R. N. Huang, Journal of
- 3 *applied polymer science*, 2005, **98**, 538-549.
- 4 46. X. Huang, Y. Sun, J. Nie, W. Lu, L. Yang, Z. Zhang, H. Yin, Z. Wang and Q. Hu,
- 5 International journal of biological macromolecules, 2015, **75**, 322-329.
- 6 47. X. Huang, J. Jia, Z. Wang and Q. Hu, *Chin J Polym Sci*, 2015, **33**, 284-290.