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Boronate-ester crosslinked hyaluronic acid hydrogels for dihydrocaffeic acid delivery and fibroblasts protection against UVB irradiation

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Abstract

Herein, we exploit the dynamic nature and pH dependence of complexes between phenylboronic acid and diol-containing molecules to control the release of an anti-photoaging agent, dihydrocaffeic acid (DHCA), from a dynamic covalent hydrogel (HG). The HG is prepared by reversible formation of boronate ester crosslinks between hyaluronic acid (HA) modified with saccharide (GLU) residues and HA functionalized with 3-aminophenylboronic acid (APBA), part of which is involved in complexation with DHCA. The hydrogel exhibited increased dynamic moduli and a lower relaxation time at pH 7.4 in comparison to pH 6, and greater amount of DHCA was incorporated at pH 7.4. Moreover, this hydrogel prolonged DHCA release at pH 7.4 through drug

reversible complexation/decomplexation, while the rate of release was fastest in acidic (skin) conditions. Very interestingly, the incorporation of DHCA into the network enhances its protection against UVB-induced L929 fibroblast death. Therefore, this smart hydrogel can contribute to photoaging prevention.

Keywords: hyaluronic acid, dynamic covalent hydrogel, dihydrocaffeic acid, anti-photoaging, small molecules delivery

1. Introduction

Human skin is the largest organ and the major protective barrier of the body. Consequently, it is continuously exposed to external harmful insults, especially ultraviolet radiation (UV) (Cavinato & Jansen-Dürr, 2017). UVB (280-320 nm) passes through epidermis and reaches the upper layer of dermis (Britto, Shanthakumari, Agilan, Radhiga, & Kanimozhi, 2017). Exposure to UVB causes oxidative stress by simultaneously increasing reactive oxygen species (ROS) production and decreasing endogenous antioxidants. Oxidative stress induced by UVB promotes a set of alterations in skin cells, which leads to photoaging, and is a key risk factor to skin cancer development (Cavinato & Jansen-Dürr, 2017; Dunaway, Odin, Zhou, Ji, & Zhang, 2018).

Several natural antiaging products have emerged, which can counteract UVB-induced skin damages by modulating some deleterious processes, including oxidative stress and inflammation (Cavinato, Waltenberger, Baraldo, Grade, & Jansen-Durr, 2017). The active compounds have been incorporated in various delivery systems in order to improve their efficiency of release in the skin as well as their photochemoprotective capacity. Micro/nanoemulsions, polymeric nanoparticles and

other nanocarriers have been extensively studied (Bagde, Mondal, & Singh, 2018). However, there are some limitations to using these systems, among them batch-to-batch variation, shelf stability and cost of production. In addition, the effectiveness of some formulations has not been studied yet (Bagde et al., 2018; Cavinato et al., 2017). Thus, there is a need for alternative approaches for the prevention of detrimental effects of UVB in skin.

In this context, hydrogels are interesting candidates as platforms for antiaging agent delivery. Indeed, as hydrophilic polymer networks (Nie, Pei, Wang, & Hu, 2018), hydrogels have drawn special attention for pharmaceutical and biomedical applications due to their high moisture content, soft and flexible structure, transparency, biocompatibility, biodegradability, non-toxicity and capacity to modify or control drug release (Kostova et al., 2018; Sahiner et al., 2015; Trombino et al., 2009). Several natural and synthetic polymers can be used to prepare hydrogels. Hyaluronic acid (HA) is a natural polymer composed of a repeating disaccharide unit of D-glucuronic acid and *N*-acetyl-D-glucosamine, linked by β -1,4 and β -1,3 glycosidic bonds (Essendoubi et al., 2016). HA presents beneficial properties for the skin, such as hydration, skin repair and wound healing, as well as unique physico-chemical properties, including viscoelasticity, high water retention capacity and lubrication. Moreover, HA can be chemically modified to obtain systems responsive to external stimuli. Hence, HA is widely used in the pharmaceutical and cosmetic fields as an active ingredient and to develop different topical drug delivery systems (Avadhani et al., 2017; Este, Eglin, & Alini, 2014; Sahiner et al., 2015). As HA cannot form a hydrogel itself, reversible crosslinking via dynamic covalent bonds has emerged as an attractive strategy to obtain HA-based networks (Figueiredo et al., 2019; Lou et al., 2018; Nimmo, Owen, & Shoichet, 2011). Among dynamic covalent bonds, boric acid and boronic acid

derivatives have been widely used to crosslink diol-containing polymers like polysaccharides as they can readily form reversible borate and boronate esters with 1,2- and 1,3-diol-containing species (Figueiredo, Ogawa, et al., 2020; Mayumi, Marcellan, Ducouret, Creton, & Narita, 2013; Sacco, Furlani, Paoletti, & Donati, 2019). In particular, crosslinking via phenylboronic acid (PBA or its derivatives) has been largely reported as it can be easily grafted on a polymer and can react with saccharides (or catechols) to form boronate esters that undergo hydrolysis under acidic conditions (Huang et al., 2018). Therefore, dynamic covalent crosslinks formed between PBA and saccharide molecules grafted on HA chains can be advantageously used to produce pH-responsive hydrogels (Figueiredo, Cosenza, et al., 2020; Heleg-Shabtai, Aizen, Orbach, Aleman-Garcia, & Willner, 2015; Roberts, Hanson, Massey, Karren, & Kiser, 2007; Tarus et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2011).

This is particularly interesting for epidermal application, since normal human skin exhibits an acidic pH (ranging from 3.0 to 6.5) (Duffy, Guzman, Wallace, Murphy, & Morrin, 2017). Dynamic covalent hydrogels offer many other advantages, including rapid and ease of preparation, flexibility to alter their structure like physically crosslinked networks while being more stable (Brooks & Sumerlin, 2016; Marco-Dufort & Tibbitt, 2019; Xu et al., 2011). Therefore, all these properties make such hydrogel networks attractive candidates for topical application. Accordingly, the purpose of the present study was to incorporate an antioxidant compound, dihydrocaffeic acid (DHCA), in a dynamic covalent hydrogel based on HA modified with PBA and saccharide moieties (Fig. 1), and to evaluate the potential of this smart polysaccharide network to control DHCA release and enhance cytoprotection produced against UVB death on fibroblasts.

Dihydrocaffeic acid (DHCA) is a phenolic compound with high antioxidant potential described in the literature (Amić, Marković, Klein, Dimitrić Marković, & Milenković, 2018; Poquet, Clifford, & Williamson, 2008), and it demonstrated cytoprotective effect on keratinocytes irradiated with UV (Poquet et al., 2008). Moreover, our previous studies showed that DHCA decreased some cellular oxidative harms, matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) expression and apoptosis by decreasing ROS production, enhancing endogenous antioxidant defense and inhibiting mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) pathway on L929 fibroblasts irradiated with UVB (Oliveira et al., 2019). Therefore, the development of a topical delivery system containing DHCA is an interesting strategy to prevent photoaging. Interestingly, once included in the HA-based dynamic covalent hydrogel described above, DHCA may form dynamic covalent bonds with PBA groups. This is the case as DHCA contains a catechol in its chemical structure. Thus, the selective entrapment of DHCA through complexation with PBA could be an attractive alternative to obtain an antiaging product with a controlled topical release of the active ingredient.

Some work have used hydrogels based on HA-catechol to obtain interesting skin care systems, as reported by Liang and colleagues (Liang et al., 2019). In this study, the authors developed adhesive hemostatic conductive hydrogels based on HA modified with dopamine and polydopamine-coated reduced graphene oxide using hydrogen peroxide/horseradish peroxidase as initiator system. The hydrogels demonstrated a set of interesting properties, especially for the skin, such as tissue adhesiveness, self-healing ability, wound healing, antioxidant capacity conferred by the catechol dopamine, and prolonged drug release.

Finally, although other studies have shown the interest of boronate ester-crosslinked hydrogels for control anticancer drug delivery (Heleg-Shabtai et al., 2015;

Huang et al., 2018), the reported process of drug release was based on the hydrogel dissociation. This was the case as the active species acted as cross-linkers in the polymer network. Conversely, in our case, the anti-photoaging agent DHCA does not cross-link the polymer chains. Consequently, the HA network can be obtained without the presence of DHCA, and its release from the hydrogel is not expected to promote its dissociation.

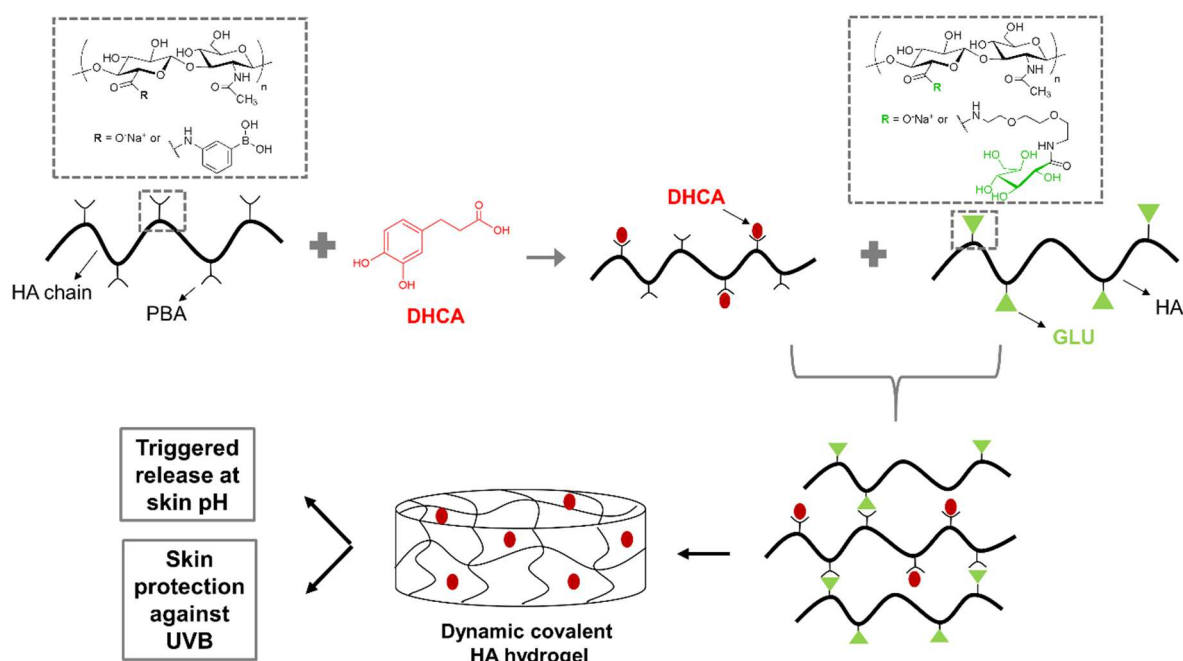


Figure 1: DHCA complexation by HA-PBA and production of HG containing DHCA via reversible boronate ester bond formation.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Materials

Sodium hyaluronic acid (HA, weight-average molar mass (M_w): 100 kg/mol) was obtained from Lifecore Biomedical. DHCA, 3-aminophenyl boronic acid (APBA), Hank's balanced salt solution (HBSS), *N*-acetyl cysteine (NAC), phosphate buffer saline (PBS) and 2,4,6-trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid (TNBS) were purchased from

Sigma-Aldrich. 4-(4,6-dimethoxy-1,3,5-triazin-2-yl)-4-methylmorpholinium chloride (DMTMM) and D-glucono-1,5-lactone were provided by Alfa Aesar and Carbosynth, respectively. Boc-1-amino-3,6-dioxo-8-octanamine (Boc-DOOA) was purchased from Iris Biotech GMBH. Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) and fetal bovine serum (FBS) were purchased from Life Technologies/Gibco Laboratories. Neutral red was obtained from Interlab. All other solvents and chemicals used were of analytical grade. Water used in all the experiments was purified by using an Elga Purelab purification system, with a resistivity of 18.2 MΩ cm.

2.2. Determination of the binding affinity (K_a) of DHCA for APBA

In order to evaluate the affinity of DHCA for APBA, we determined the K_a by ^1H NMR spectroscopy (Bérubé, Dowlut, & Hall, 2008). In this assay, a 1:1 binding stoichiometry was assumed. The samples were diluted in deuterated PBS 0.01 M pD 6 or pD 7.4, and six different mixtures with a molar ratio of APBA/DHCA ranging from 1 to 2 were obtained (detailed procedure in supplementary material, Fig. S1 and S2). ^1H NMR spectra of APBA alone and of APBA in the presence of excess DHCA (to induce 100% complex formation) were recorded to assign the aromatic proton signals of bound and unbound APBA. The K_a was calculated by integration of aryl protons of the APBA/DHCA complex and of free APBA (equations described in supplementary material). The ^1H NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker spectrometer operating at 400 MHz (Avance III HD model, Bruker BioSpin AG, Fallanden, Switzerland), at room temperature. Chemical shifts were given relative to external tetramethylsilane (TMS = 0 ppm) and calibration was performed using the signal of the residual protons of the solvent as a secondary reference.

2.3. Synthesis of HA-derivatives

HA grafted with APBA moieties (HA-PBA) was synthesized by an amide coupling reaction using APBA, HA and DMTMM as a coupling agent. APBA (93 mg, 0.50 mmol) was added to a water/dimethylformamide (water/DMF, 3:2 v/v) mixture containing DMTMM (212 mg, 0.77 mmol) and HA (306.6 mg, 0.77 mmol), and the pH was adjusted to 6.5 using 1 M aqueous solution of NaOH. The mixture was stirred for 46 h at room temperature. The resulting HA-PBA was purified by extensive dialysis against water (Spectra/Pore, MWCO 6-8 kD) followed by freeze drying (yield: 50%). The degree of substitution (DS, average number of substituting groups per repeating disaccharide unit of HA) of the final product was found to be 0.5 from ¹H NMR analyses (Tarus et al., 2014) using digital integration of the signals at δ (ppm) 6.8-7.9 (protons of APBA) and 2.0 (methyl protons in HA). This value was confirmed by that derived from the reaction kinetics using the TNBS method (supplementary material, Fig. S3).

HA grafted with gluconamide moieties (HA-GLU) was obtained in three steps (Figueiredo, Cosenza, et al., 2020). Firstly, a solution of D-glucono-1,5-lactone (80.8 mg, 0.45 mmol) in DMF (20 mL) was dropped in a solution of boc-DOOA (113 mg, 0.45 mmol) in DMF (25 mL) for 3 h. After stirring overnight at room temperature, the solvent was removed under reduced pressure, and the resulting product was dried under vacuum to give boc-DOOA-gluconamide (Fig. S4). In a second step, the boc protecting group was removed by acid treatment of boc-DOOA-gluconamide (56 mg, 0.13 mmol) in trifluoroacetic acid (0.6 mL, 7.8 mmol) for 5 min at room temperature. The pH of the mixture was adjusted to 7.0, and the solvent was removed under reduced pressure, yielding 1-amino-DOOA-gluconamide (Fig. S5). Then, the HA-GLU was synthesized by an amide coupling reaction. 1-amino-DOOA-gluconamide (56 mg, 0.17 mmol) was added to a water/DMF (3:2 v/v) mixture containing DMTMM (207 mg, 0.75 mmol) and

HA (300 mg, 0.75 mmol), and the pH was adjusted to 6.5 using 1 M aqueous solution of NaOH. The mixture was stirred for 65 h at room temperature. The HA-GLU obtained was purified by dialysis against water (Spectra/Pore, MWCO 6-8 kD) followed by freeze-drying (yield: 84%). The DS of the HA-GLU conjugate was found to be 0.1 from the reaction kinetics using the TNBS method (supplementary material, Fig. S3), and was confirmed by ^{13}C NMR analyses (Fig. S6).

2.4. HPLC analysis of DHCA

Prominence High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) system (Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan), containing vacuum degasser, double micro-volume piston pump, auto-sampler, thermostatic column compartment and spectrophotometer detector UV-Vis and LabSolutions Software was used to analyze DHCA. Reversed-phase chromatography was performed on a C_{18} column (150 \times 3.0 mm, particle size 5 μm ; Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan). The mobile phase used was 0.01% (v/v) acetic acid in water and acetonitrile (85:15 v/v), pH 3.8. The injection volume was 15 μL , with a flow rate of 1 mL/min and column temperature of 25 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. Elution was monitored for 6 min by absorbance at 225 nm.

The validation of the proposed reversed-phase HPLC procedure was performed according to International Conference on Harmonization of Technical Requirements for Registration of Pharmaceuticals for Human Use Q2(R1) (ICH, 2005). The retention time of DHCA was 2.4 min. The method was specific (Fig. S7) and linear ($y = 24319x + 4852.1$, $r = 0.9998$) using eight concentrations in the range of 0.1–100 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ of DHCA. The residue analysis showed that the method presented significant regression because the calculated F for regression was higher than critical F (110286.7 > 4.04), and did not present lack of fit, regarding the calculated F for lack of fit was lower than

critical F ($2.33 < 2.39$). Moreover, the method presented accuracy and precision (Table 1S). Slight changes in mobile phase constitution (84:16 v/v) and column temperature (24 °C) did not alter the DHCA quantification (Table S1), indicating that the method is robust. The limit of detection and quantification were found to be 0.40 µg/mL and 1.22 µg/mL, respectively.

2.5. Complexation of DHCA by HA-PBA

DHCA was complexed with HA-PBA using a DHCA/PBA molar ratio of 1 in 0.01 M PBS pH 6 or pH 7.4 by stirring at 400 rpm for 30 min at room temperature. Non-complexed DHCA was removed by centrifugation (7000 rpm, 15 min) using centrifugal filter devices (Amicon Ultra - 15 mL centrifugal filter unit with Ultracel - 50 K membrane, NMWL 50 kDa, Millipore, Cork, Ireland). After centrifugation, 50 µL of DHCA complexed with HA-PBA (HA-PBA-DHCA), which was retained on the filter, were diluted in acetonitrile in a ratio of 1:4 (sample:acetonitrile, v/v) and stirred for extraction of DHCA. An aliquot of the resulted solution was diluted in water in a ratio of 1:5 (sample:water, v/v), filtered in micro filter (0.45 µm) and analyzed by HPLC. The DHCA complexation efficiency (DCE) was calculated according to equation 1:

$$\text{DCE (\%)} = (\text{weight of complexed DHCA} / \text{initial weight of DHCA in the system}) \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

2.6. Formation of dynamic covalent HA hydrogels (HG)

The HG were obtained by mixing different volumes of HA-PBA/DHCA complex and HA-GLU solutions (15 g/L) in 0.01 M PBS pH 6 or pH 7.4, with a PBA/GLU molar ratio of 1 (Tarus et al., 2014) (Fig. S8). Plain HG were obtained by mixing HA-PBA and HA-GLU solutions with the same PBA/GLU molar ratio as described above for HG containing DHCA (Fig. S9).

2.7. Oscillatory rheometry

The oscillatory rheological analyses of freshly prepared plain HG and HG containing DHCA produced at pH 6 or pH 7.4 were carried out at 32 °C, using a cone-plate AR2000 rheometer (TA Instruments, New Castle, USA) with a film of solvent trap (silicone) to avoid solvent evaporation. The cone used is striated, has a diameter of 20 mm, an angle of 4° and was separated by a fixed distance of 0.118 mm. Oscillatory strain sweep experiments at 1 Hz were used to determine the linear-viscoelastic range of the hydrogel networks as shown in Fig. S10. The oscillatory frequency sweep (0.01-10 Hz) experiments were performed within the linear viscoelastic range (strain fixed at 1.5 %) to determine the frequency dependence of the storage (G') and loss (G'') moduli. The frequency dependences of the G' and G'' moduli were measured from at least three replicate samples.

2.8. *In vitro* DHCA release from HG

DHCA release from HG produced at pH 7.4 was performed in a Falcon cell culture insert (Corning Life Sciences, Durham, USA), containing a poly(ethylene terephthalate) track-etched membrane (0.4 μ m pore size), mounted in a 24 well plate (Fig. S11). HG containing DHCA (300 mg), or 300 μ L of DHCA dispersed in purified water was placed in the donor compartment, and kept in contact with 1 mL of receptor medium (0.01 M PBS pH 6 or pH 7.4). The system was maintained under stirring (450 rpm) at 32 °C, and an aliquot of 500 μ L was withdrawn at 0.5, 1, 2, 4, 6 and 8 h, and replaced with the same volume of receptor medium. The amount of DHCA released over time was determined by HPLC using the methodology previously validated. All experiments were carried out in triplicate.

2.9. Cell viability assay

Fibroblast L929 cell line (NCTC clone 929 [L cell, L929, derivative of Strain L] ATCC® CCL1™) was maintained and cultured in DMEM supplemented with 2 mM L-glutamine, 10% (v/v) FBS, penicillin (50 U/mL), and streptomycin (50 µg/mL) at 37 °C in a 5% CO₂ atmosphere.

Neutral red assay (Borenfreund & Puerner, 1985) was used to evaluate the cytotoxicity of DHCA, plain HG and HG containing DHCA produced at pH 7.4 on L929 cells. The cultured cell suspension was dispensed into a 96-well plate (2.5×10^4 cells/well) and incubated for 24 h. Thereafter, the media was replaced with serum-free DMEM containing different concentrations of DHCA (7, 14, 21, 28 and 35 µM), of HG without and with DHCA (amount of hydrogels containing 7, 14, 21, 28, and 35 µM of DHCA), and incubated for 24 h. PBS was used to wash the monolayers after incubation, and 200 µL of neutral red solution (40 µg/mL) was added. After 3 h the supernatant was removed and the cells were fixed with an aqueous solution of 2% (v/v) formaldehyde and 1% (w/v) calcium chloride, and then 200 µL of a solution of 1% (v/v) acetic acid and 50% (v/v) ethanol was added. Absorbance was measured at 540 nm (BioTek, PowerWave XS microplate spectrophotometer) after 15 min at 25 °C in the dark. The percentage of viable cells was calculated relative to untreated cells. The cytotoxicity analyses were determined in triplicate.

2.10. Cytoprotection assay against UVB

Neutral red assay was also used to evaluate the capacity of samples to protect L929 cells against UVB-induced death. L929 cells were seeded into 24-well plates (1.25×10^5 cells/well) and incubated for 24 h. After incubation, L929 cells were pre-

293 treated for 1 h with DHCA (7, 14, 21, 28, and 35 μ M), HG without and with DHCA
294 produced at pH 7.4 (containing 7, 14, 21, 28, and 35 μ M of DHCA) or 1 mM NAC (as
295 a positive control) dissolved in serum-free DMEM. Then, the media with treatments
296 was replaced by HBSS, and cells were irradiated with 600 mJ/cm² of UVB, a dose that
297 causes 50% cell death [OLIVEIRA et al., 2018]. One UVB lamp (Philips, TL 40W/12
298 RS SLV) at a fixed distance of 20 cm from the surface of the cell culture plates was
299 used. The irradiation intensity was measured by radiometer (Vilber Lourmat, VLX-3W,)
300 equipped with a sensor to detect UVB (detects peak of 312 nm) (Vilber Lourmat, CX-
301 312). After irradiation, cells were incubated for 24 h in serum-free DMEM, and then
302 were submitted to neutral red assay (Borenfreund & Puerner, 1985). The percentage
303 of viable cells was calculated relative to untreated and nonirradiated cells. The
304 analyses were carried out in triplicate.

306 **2.11. Statistical analysis**

307 Data were expressed as the mean \pm standard deviation (SD). Statistical analysis
308 was carried out by Prisma 5.0 software using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA)
309 followed by Tukey test. Values of $p < 0.05$ were considered statistically significant.

312 **3. Results and Discussion**

314 **3.1. Affinity of DHCA for APBA**

315 To verify the ability to selectively entrap DHCA in the HA hydrogel through
316 complexation with APBA, we measured the binding affinity, K_a , of free APBA for DHCA

by ^1H NMR spectroscopy titration. The measurements were performed at pH 6, i.e. close to the pH of skin, and at pH 7.4, which is the pH of the hydrogel formulations.

The ^1H NMR spectra of APBA alone and in the presence of excess DHCA were first recorded to easily assign the aromatic proton signals corresponding to bound and unbound APBA (Fig. 2). Then, several ^1H NMR spectra of APBA/DHCA mixtures in which the molar ratio of APBA/DHCA was varied from 1 to 2 were recorded to calculate K_a as detailed in supporting information (Fig. S1 and S2).

The K_a value between DHCA and APBA was lower in acidic conditions ($K_a = 130.5 \pm 6.1$ L/mol at pH 6) than at pH 7.4 ($K_a = 1726.7 \pm 28.4$ L/mol). These data are in line with the fact that the affinity between PBA and diol-containing molecules is pH dependent (Yan, Springsteen, Deeter, & Wang, 2004). In particular, Springsteen and Wang (Springsteen & Wang, 2002) found a K_a of 150 M^{-1} and 830 M^{-1} of the ester formed between phenylboronic acid and catechol at pH 6.5 and pH 7.4, respectively. These data suggest that the pH of skin may be used as a trigger for localized release of DHCA complexed with APBA in the hydrogel formed at pH 7.4.

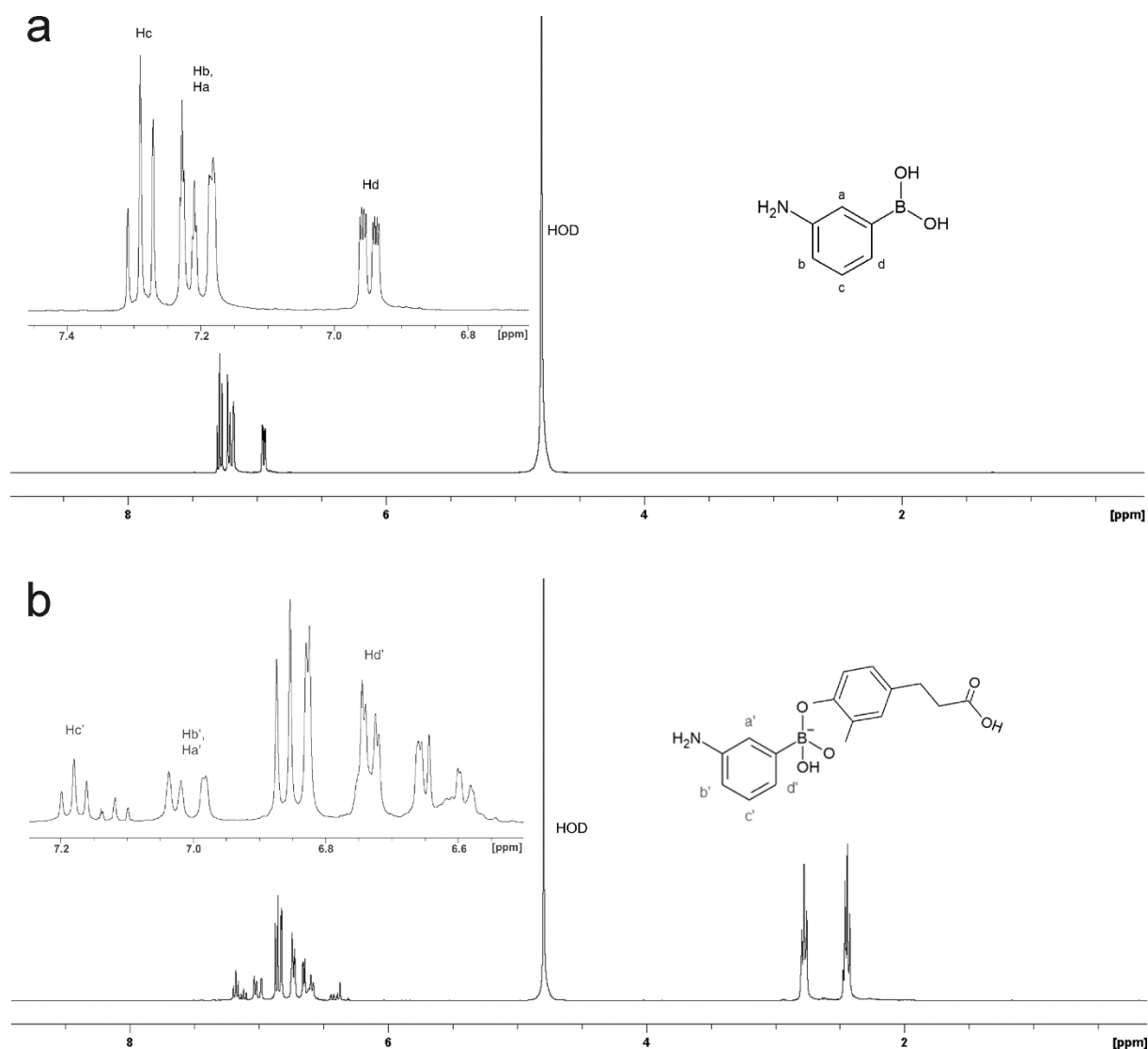


Figure 2: K_a determination between DHCA and APBA by ^1H NMR spectroscopy titration analysis. ^1H NMR spectra in 0.01 M deuterated PBS pD 7.4 at 25 °C of APBA alone (18 mM) (a) and APBA (18 mM) in the presence of excess DHCA (54 mM) (b).

3.2. DHCA complexation by HA-PBA and formation of HG

In the present work, two HA derivatives modified with 3-aminophenyl boronic acid and with gluconamide moieties (HA-PBA and HA-GLU, respectively) were used to obtain a dynamic covalent hydrogel at physiological pH for complexation of DHCA. Indeed, we previously demonstrated formation of networks exhibiting a gel-like behavior at physiological pH by combining HA-PBA with HA-GLU. Such properties were related to the high binding capacity of PBA towards glucose units in the ring-opened form (such as gluconamide derivatives, resulting in the formation of boronate

ester bonds with slow exchange dynamics. By contrast, HA-PBA alone gives rise to a viscous solution similar to initial HA, as PBA has nearly no affinity for HA sugars (Figueiredo, Cosenza, et al., 2020).

The HA-PBA and HA-GLU derivatives were prepared by amide bond formation between the carboxylic groups of HA and amine-functionalized GLU, using DMTMM as a coupling agent (Figueiredo, Cosenza, et al., 2020). The structures of the HA-PBA and HA-GLU conjugates were confirmed by ^1H and ^{13}C NMR spectroscopy, respectively. Digital integration of the NMR spectra also allowed to assess their degree of substitution (DS = 0.5 for HA-PBA and 0.1 for HA-GLU). Here, we targeted a DS value for HA-PBA more than two-fold higher than HA-GLU so that half of the grafted PBA is used for the selective complexation of DHCA.

Formation of the HA-PBA/DHCA complexes was carried out in 0.01 M PBS both at pH 6 and pH 7.4. The values of DHCA complexation efficiency at pH 6 and pH 7.4 were found to be 50% and 58%, respectively. The difference between the two DCE values is not so high given the K_a values found for the APBA/DHCA complex at these two pH. However, the K_a values were measured for free APBA, which suggests some positive impact of HA on the DHCA binding capability to PBA at pH 6.

Then, the HG at pH 6 and at pH 7.4 were obtained by simply mixing HA-PBA/DHCA and HA-GLU, through boronate ester bond formation between the remaining APBA moieties and the GLU molecules grafted on HA (Fig. S8). Plain HG were also produced by mixing HA-PBA with HA-GLU in the same conditions (Fig. S9).

We confirmed hydrogels network formation by dynamic rheological experiments. In our study, the frequency sweep measurements of the storage (elastic) modulus (G') and the loss (viscous) modulus (G'') were performed to probe the gel-like properties of the HA-PBA/HA-GLU network with and without DHCA under different pH

conditions. These measurements revealed a predominant elastic response for the HA-PBA/HA-GLU assembly with and without DHCA at pH 7.4, as G' is higher than G'' within the whole range of frequencies covered (Fig. 3a). These data thus show that these networks have a gel-like behavior. On the other hand, it was observed that for both networks produced at pH 6, G'' dominates G' in a large range of frequency (Fig. 3b). Therefore, a viscous behavior predominates at pH 6. This decrease in the lifetime of the network (G' - G'' crossover point observed at higher frequency) and in the density of cross-linking (decrease of the G' modulus) can be reasonably attributed to the decrease of affinity of PBA for GLU at pH 6 (Tarus et al., 2014).

The difference in HG formation at pH 6 and at pH 7.4 is confirmed by the analysis of G' at a fixed frequency of 2.5 Hz (Fig. 3c). G' values were lower for plain HG and for HG containing DHCA produced at pH 6 (44.6 Pa and 28.1 Pa, respectively), than G' values obtained for those produced at pH 7.4 (305.8 Pa and 296.1 Pa, respectively). Moreover, it is worth noting that DHCA incorporation in the HG did not hamper HG formation at both pHs, considering the similar rheological behavior for plain HG and for HG containing DHCA (no statistically significant difference was found between G' for HG produced at pH 6 and at pH 7.4, $p < 0.05$). Taking into account the better DCE and the most adequate rheological properties of HG produced at pH 7.4, they were chosen for further biological experiments.

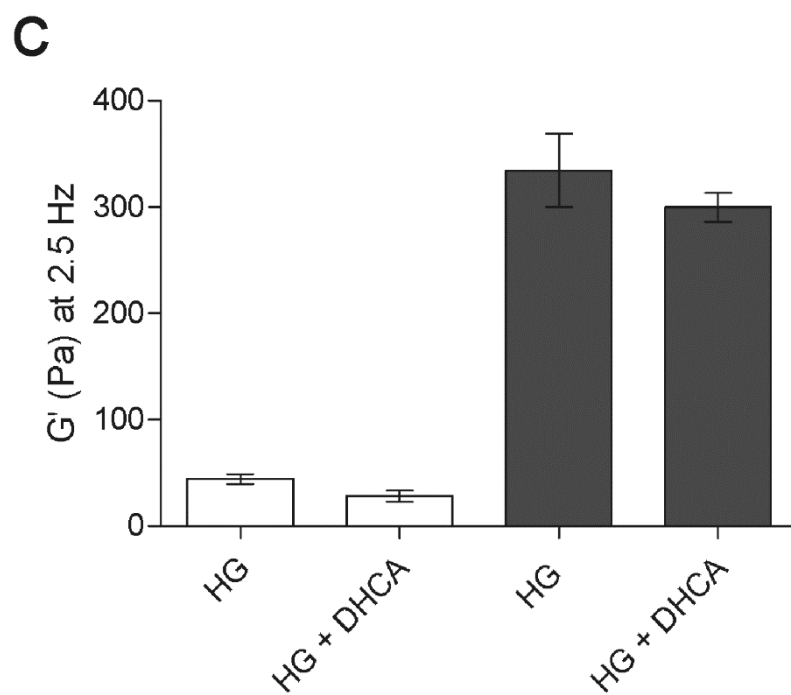
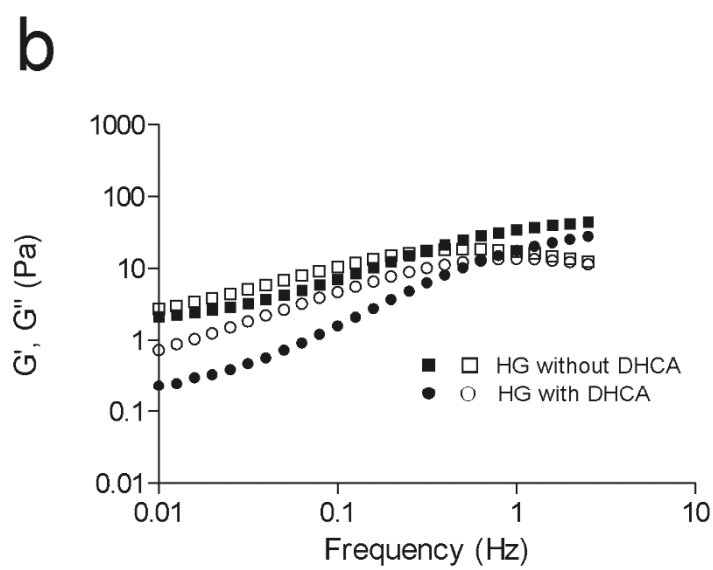
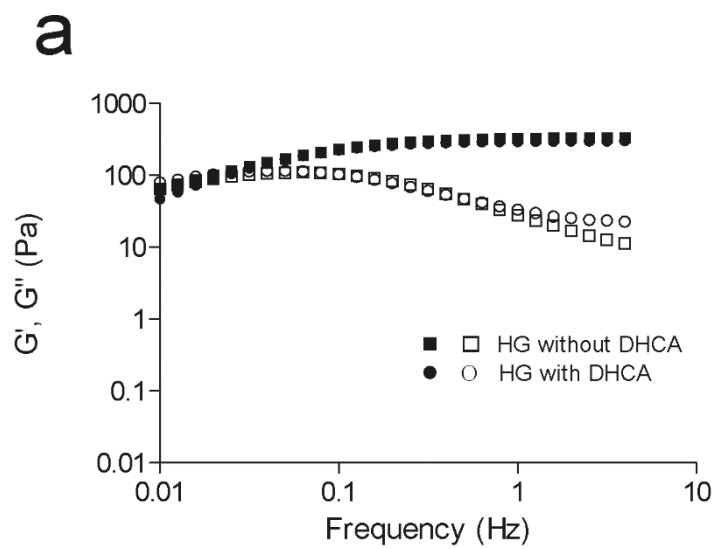


Figure 3: Dependence of storage modulus (filled symbols) and viscous modulus (open symbols) on frequency of modified HA-hydrogels without DHCA and with DHCA at pH 7.4 (a) and pH 6 (b) at 32 °C, and storage modulus of modified HA-hydrogels without DHCA (HG) and with DHCA (HG + DHCA) at 2.5 Hz in pH 6 (white bars) and in pH 7.4 (gray bars) at 32 °C (c), and each column represents the mean \pm SD ($n = 3$).

3.3. *In vitro* DHCA release studies

Delivery systems for topical administration that provide a controlled drug release are highly desired, given their potential benefits to the patient. Sustained release can prevent adverse effects caused by active ingredients present in high concentrations, supplies the skin for long periods, thereby reducing the number of product administrations, and decreases drug exposure to external environment. Therefore, such topical systems promote more safety and comfort for users, in addition to improve effectiveness of the drug (Costa & Santos, 2017).

The *in vitro* release of DHCA from HG was conducted using cell culture inserts positioned inside wells of a 24-well plate containing receptor media composed by 0.01 M PBS at pH 6 or pH 7.4. These two receptors medium were chosen to emphasize the different behavior of the HGs in a neutral environment and in a more acidic condition, similar to the skin environment. For comparison, cell culture inserts containing free DHCA dispersed in water were also prepared as blanks. Plates were kept under continuous stirring at 32 °C (to reproduce the skin temperature) (Kregar et al., 2015) and the receiver solution was collected at pre-determined times for quantification of DHCA by HPLC. Fig. 4 compares plots of the cumulative release over time of DHCA solubilized in water (blank) and entrapped in the HG in receptor medium at pH 7.4 and pH 6. As expected, HG prolonged DHCA release in both receptor mediums, compared to the blank. In receptor medium at pH 7.4, only 9 % of DHCA was released from the HG while 36% release was achieved for the blank during 8 h. In receptor medium at

pH 6, 38% and 19% of DHCA release was measured for the blank and the HG formulation, respectively, in the 8 h of testing.

The fastest delivery of DHCA at pH 6 can be attributed to two main factors: the decreased number of boronate ester crosslinks in acidic conditions resulting in the formation of a loosely crosslinked HA network, and the reduced number of DHCA/PBA complexes. Both factors facilitate release of DHCA into the surrounding acidic environment compared to the physiological medium.

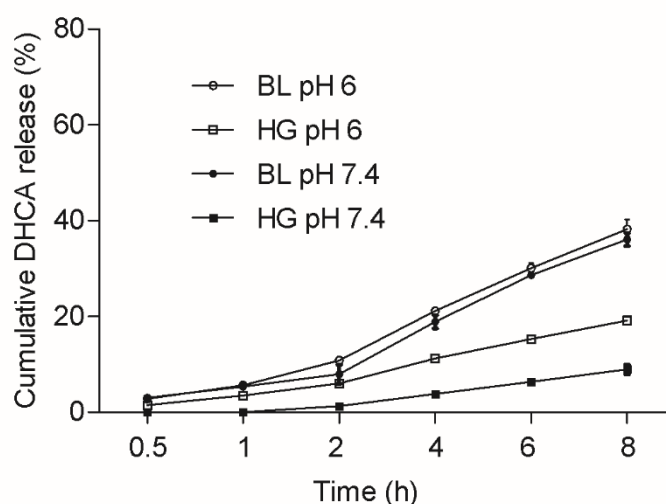


Figure 4: *In vitro* DHCA release from distilled water (blank-BL) and from modified HA-hydrogel (HG) produced at pH 7.4 in 0.01 M PBS pH 6.0 and pH 7.4 at 32 °C. Each symbol represents the mean \pm SD ($n = 3$).

3.4. Cytotoxicity and protective effect of HG against UVB-induced cell death

Human skin confers physical, chemical, and bacteriological protection for the organism. Besides, skin prevents dehydration, participates to thermoregulation, hormone production, contains elements of immune system and expresses external beauty (Rittie & Fisher, 2015). Hence, the maintenance of a healthy skin presents a physiologic and social importance. Dermis plays important functions in skin: confers

structural and mechanical properties, and offers supplementation of nutrients for the epidermis (Duque, Bravo, & Osorio, 2017). Fibroblasts are the main cell type of the dermis, and they produce elastin and collagen fibers, proteoglycans and glycosaminoglycans, such as HA, which promotes hydration, skin stiffness, resistance to deformation, skin repair and wound healing (Britto et al., 2017; Duque et al., 2017; Haydont, Bernard, & Fortunel, 2018). For these reasons, several studies have been evaluated the detrimental effects of external insults in fibroblasts, including from UV radiation (Britto et al., 2017; Oliveira et al., 2019).

Oxidative stress promoted by UVB causes a set of keratinocytes and fibroblasts damages, which can result in skin disorders, such as photoaging and skin cancer (Dunaway et al., 2018). In our previous work, we demonstrated that DHCA is a promising antiaging agent, which could prevent UVB-induced oxidative stress and its damages to L929 cells (Oliveira et al., 2019).

In order to evaluate the effect of DHCA incorporation in the HG and its ability to counteract fibroblasts harms promoted by UVB, we firstly verified toxicity and then cytoprotection against UVB-induced L929 cell death of DHCA, plain HG and HG containing DHCA. The samples were not toxic to L929 cells in all range of concentrations evaluated (7 – 35 μ M equivalent in DHCA), with a cell viability of 98%, 97% and 94% for the highest dose of DHCA (35 μ M), plain HG (23 mg of HG) and HG containing DHCA (35 μ M of DHCA in 23 mg of HG), respectively (Fig. 5).

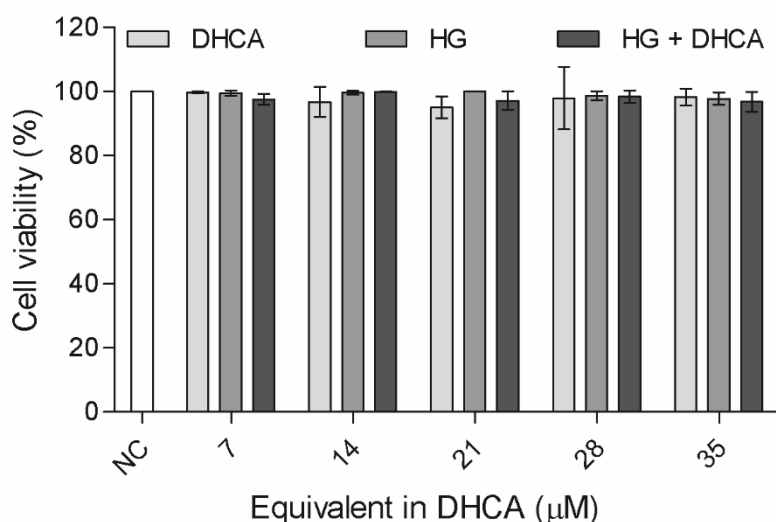


Figure 5: Effect of DHCA, plain modified HA-hydrogel (HG) and HG containing DHCA (7 – 35 μM of DHCA or hydrogels doses containing 7 – 35 μM of DHCA) in cell viability of L929 cells evaluated by neutral red assay after 24 h of treatment. Each column represents the mean \pm SD ($n = 3$).

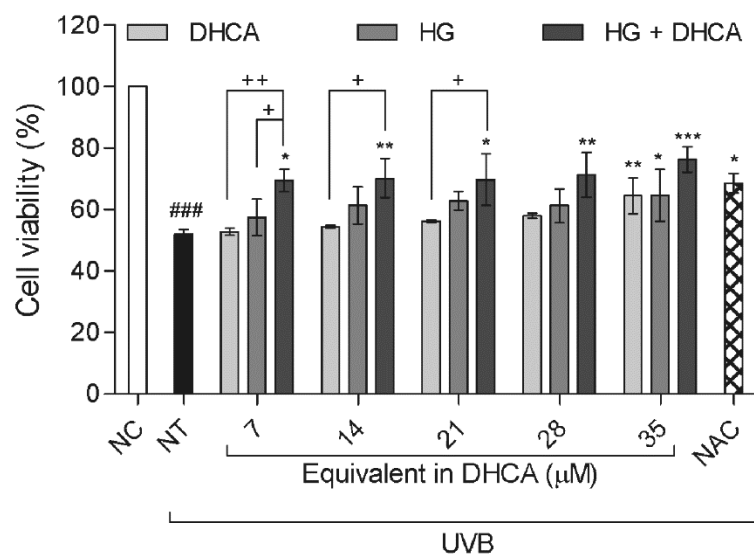
As shown by figure 6a, UVB irradiation significantly decreased cell viability at 600 mJ/cm² (cell viability of 52%) compared to nontreated and nonirradiated cells (NC), while 1 mM of *N*-acetyl cysteine, the standard antioxidant used, protected UVB-induced cell death (cell viability of 69%). As expected, DHCA alone showed a cytoprotective effect in a dose dependent manner (significant difference was observed between 7 μM and 35 μM of DHCA [$p < 0.01$], as well as between 14 μM and 35 μM of DHCA [$p < 0.05$]). A significant increase in the cell viability was obtained only at higher dose evaluated (cell viability of 65% at 35 μM of DHCA) (Oliveira et al., 2019). Interestingly, plain HG also protected L929 cells against death induced by UVB (cell viability of 68% for 23 mg of HG), and the HG containing DHCA provided a significant protective effect in all doses used (cell viability of 76% at 35 μM of DHCA in 23 mg of HG).

Microscopic analyses (Fig. 6b) confirmed the results described above. UVB induced a decrease in cell number and changes in cellular morphology. On the other

hand, 1 mM NAC and the samples evaluated partially restored cell number, and improved cellular morphology, especially the HG containing DHCA.

These results are in agreement with our previous cytoprotective results for DHCA alone. This phenolic compound prevented cell death by diminishing oxidative stress and its cellular damages caused by UVB exposure (Oliveira et al., 2019). Moreover, we observed a significative protection of plain HG, and that the incorporation of DHCA in the HG improved the protection against death promoted by UVB, especially in lower concentrations evaluated. HA, the main component of the HG, have shown proliferative properties in human dermal fibroblasts by increases expression of transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β), besides to promote collagen preservation through induction of tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase 1 (TIMP-1) expression, and reduction of MMP-1 expression (Monteiro, Tersario, Lucena, Moura, & Steiner, 2013). Taken together, these HA properties can contribute to the cytoprotective capacity verified for HG. In addition, the higher cytoprotective capacity of the HG containing DHCA can also be explained by the beneficial effects of HA on skin cells, which improves the cytoprotection promoted by DHCA.

a



b

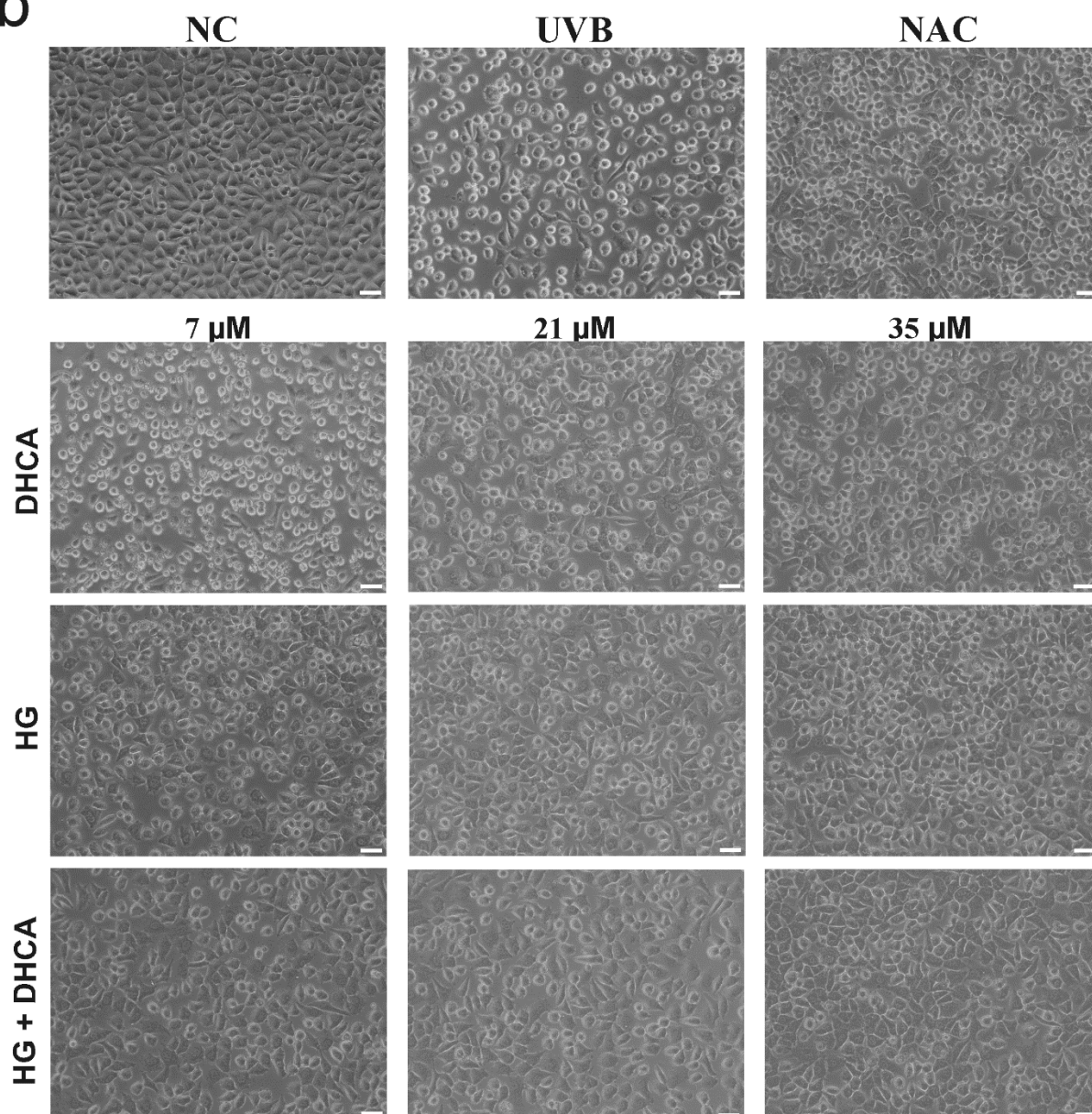


Figure 6: Cytoprotective effect of DHCA, plain dynamic covalent HA hydrogel (HG), HG containing DHCA (HG + DHCA) (7 - 35 μ M of DHCA or hydrogels doses containing 7 - 35 μ M of DHCA) and NAC (1 mM) against L929 cell death induced by UVB. L929 cells were pretreated for 1 h before UVB irradiation (600 mJ/cm²), and after 24 h of irradiation cells were submitted to neutral red assay (a) or observed using a phase contrast inverted microscope (b). Each column represents the mean \pm SD ($n = 3$). ### $p < 0.001$: significantly different from nonirradiated and nontreated cells (NC); * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$ and *** $p < 0.001$: significantly different from irradiated and nontreated cells (NT); + $p < 0.05$, ++ $p < 0.01$. Scale bars: 50 μ m.

4. Conclusions

In this work, a novel dynamic covalent HA hydrogel containing the antioxidant and anti-photoaging agent DHCA for skin applications was developed. We demonstrated the selective entrapment of DHCA in the hydrogel through its complexation with PBA grafted on HA chains via boronate ester bond formation. The system developed prolonged DHCA release using the pH as a trigger, which allows an effective release of DHCA in skin environment. Moreover, the skin beneficial properties of HA used to produce the hydrogel contributed to improve DHCA protection against UVB-induced fibroblasts death. In this way, the polysaccharide employed in the present study provided a set of advantages, considering that it participated in the dynamic covalent hydrogel production and in the mechanism to control DHCA release, as well as played an important role in fibroblasts protection against UVB. Therefore, the potential of a novel smart HA hydrogel produced in preventing skin photoaging for long periods make it a good candidate for future cosmetic applications.

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528

529 **Appendix A. Supplementary material**

530

531 **References**

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