

1 **Cellulose based thin films as a platform for drug release studies to mimick wound**
2 **dressing materials**

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36 **Abstract**

37 In this paper, the use of ultrathin cellulose supports as platform for the incorporation of analgesic drugs in wound
38 dressings is proposed. As a model drug, diclofenac (DCF) is chosen, which is commonly used in pain easing
39 medical treatments. The DCF containing cellulose films are prepared by mixing solutions of trimethylsilyl
40 cellulose (DS_{Si}:2.5) with diclofenac dissolved in THF. After depositing the material on a solid surface by spin-
41 coating, the films are subjected to vapor-phase hydrolysis using 3 M HCl in order to achieve regeneration of
42 cellulose. The release of DCF from these films over time is studied by UV-VIS. Upon deposition of additional
43 layers of cellulose that do not contain DCF, the release from these films can be decelerated significantly. The
44 release kinetics from these films is very similar to those of viscose fibers impregnated with DCF solutions. These
45 studies indicate a potential use of cellulose thin films as model platform for viscose based wound dressings.

46 **Keywords:** cellulose, model platform, wound dressings, TMSC, diclofenac, release studies

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51 **Introduction**

52 In the design of new healthcare materials, an important issue is how to comply with extremely high quality
53 standards while considering appropriate safety precautions. Especially, if human use is envisaged such efforts
54 are particularly challenging as they are usually quite expensive (White 2011; World Wound Care Markets 2011
55 2011). Currently, wound care is one of the fastest growing markets for medical materials (World Wound Care
56 Markets 2011 2011). Novel approaches in wound dressing design aim at either enhancing the healing efficiency
57 of defective tissues or at decreasing the sensation of pain that accompanies many different wound types through
58 inclusion of analgesic or anesthetic drugs (Davies and White 2011; Kitchener 2010; Benbow 2010; Bell and
59 McCarthy 2010; Romanelli et al. 2009). One of the most promising approaches to achieve the latter comprises
60 the incorporation of desired drugs into polysaccharides (and their derivatives), which already have an important
61 position in the wound dressing market. Polysaccharides exhibit a wide range of beneficial properties for wound
62 healing, since they are biocompatible, mostly biodegradable, and often feature a high water uptake capacity
63 (Thomas 2008). Materials with a high water uptake capacity and long release times are able to enhance healing
64 rates and limit the extent of wound scarring since the wound is kept wet/humid (Gantwerker and Hom 2012).
65 Additionally, wound excretions can be soaked into such polysaccharide matrices, which contributes to enhanced
66 regeneration of damaged tissues (Widgerow 2011; Richetta et al. 2011; Hurlow and Bowler 2009). In particular,
67 cellulose, one of the most abundant organic biopolymers on earth, exhibits many interesting properties that make
68 it an ideal candidate in wound care, as well as for other healthcare applications (Czaja et al. 2006). Cellulose
69 features high biocompatibility and mechanical strength, while its water uptake capacity can be easily tuned using
70 different pretreatments (Pivec et al. 2013; Peršin et al. 2014; Stana-Kleinschek et al. 2011).

71 In dependence of wound type and size, wound dressings are designed to bear different characteristics. Besides
72 the stoppage of blood loss, wound dressings maintain a moist environment at the tissue-dressing interface,
73 remove excess exudate, provide thermal insulation and mechanical protection, act as barriers for micro-
74 organisms, allow suitable gaseous exchange and should be easily removed without causing additional trauma
75 accompanied with sensation of severe pain (Patton et al. 2013; Klode et al. 2011; Jurgens et al. 1995). While all
76 mentioned characteristics are thought important in advanced wound treatment (and are treated as such), many
77 recent studies have been conducted to assess the influence of pain on the wound healing process. Based on
78 scientific and clinical evidence, pain can significantly slow down the healing process (mostly through stress
79 induced release of hormones like cortisol and norepinephrine), which results in decreased patient quality of life
80 as well as in exponentially increased personal and public expenditures (Gantwerker and Hom 2012; Solowiej et
81 al. 2010; Petrulyte 2008). Effective and safe pain reduction is therefore very important in the course of the
82 healing process for different types of wounds. Non-steroid anti-inflammatory pain-killing drugs (NSAIDs) have
83 been proven very effective in pain reduction as they feature anti-inflammatory activity as well, which is of
84 particular importance for the treatment of chronic wounds. Since the risk of unwanted side effects with NSAIDs
85 systemic administration is relatively high, their direct delivery to the wound and surrounding tissue could
86 significantly increase the safety and efficiency of related therapies (Gaufberg et al. 2007; Alessandri et al. 2006;
87 Jorgensen et al. 2006). The drug can be incorporated into wound dressing materials *in situ* or *ex situ* (after host

88 material preparation). Whatever the approach, a desired drug release profile has to be achieved in terms of the
89 biological activity, frequency of the wound dressing exchange, and of course treatment costs.

90 In this paper, we address these issues by a model approach, which involves the use of cellulose ultrathin films as
91 active drug carrying materials. As a model drug, diclofenac is chosen, which is commonly used in pain easing
92 medical treatments. In the first part of the manuscript, we will describe how to prepare and characterize
93 diclofenac containing cellulose ultrathin films starting from trimethylsilyl cellulose, while in the second part the
94 release of diclofenac from these films is studied under various conditions and compared with those of viscose
95 fibers. Surprisingly, the results indicate that the model approach on cellulose thin films is highly comparable to
96 release from cellulosic fibers (e.g. viscose) allowing for direct comparisons in terms of release kinetics.
97 Therefore, we propose the model approach as a fast and cheap alternative to current testing systems available on
98 the market for studying drug release. In addition to its use as a platform for release testing of new drugs from
99 cellulose materials, this approach may also serve as a component in actual wound dressings which allows to tune
100 drug release kinetics by simple additional spin coating steps that are capable to introduce additional functional
101 layers (e.g. antimicrobial activity) acting additionally as physical barriers.

102 **Materials and methods**

103 *2.1. Materials*

104 Trimethylsilylcellulose (TMSC) with a DS value of 2.5 (from TITK, Rudolstadt, Germany; $M_w = 50000$) and
105 diclofenac sodium (DCF) obtained from Sigma-Aldrich, were used as the starting material for film preparation.
106 Regenerated cellulose fibers were studied in their non-woven form, i.e. viscose (CV), as produced by KEMEX,
107 The Netherlands. The specific surface area of the used viscose fabrics was 175 g/m^2 . Tetrahydrofuran (THF)
108 (99.9%) was purchased from Carlo Erba. For contact angle measurements and as acceptor medium in release
109 studies Milli-Q water (resistivity = $18.2 \text{ } \Omega^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) from a Milli-Q-water system (Millipore, USA) was used.
110 Quartz crystal microbalance (QCM-D) sensors coated with a gold layer (QSX303) were purchased from LOT-
111 Oriol (Germany).

112 *2.2. Film and fibers preparation*

113 Silicon wafers (Topsil, Germany) were used as base-substrates for film preparation. Prior to spin-coating, the
114 silicon wafers were cut into pieces of $1.5 \times 1.5 \text{ cm}^2$, subjected to piranha treatment (soaking in an
115 $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2(30\%)/\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ (conc.) mixture (1:7 v/v)), rinsed thoroughly with MQ water and finally dried in a stream of
116 dry nitrogen of high purity (5.0). For the preparation of the spin coating solution, TMSC was dissolved in THF
117 with 0,33 wt% for pure TMSC films and in 1 wt% for films with incorporated drug. The latter was prepared as
118 follows. The 1 wt% TMSC solution was added to a THF solution of DCF (1.0 wt%) in a ratio of 1:2 (TMSC :
119 DCF), resulting again in 0,33 wt% TMSC. For spin coating, 200 μl of the respective solution was deposited on
120 the static substrate and subjected to spin coating ($v = 4000 \text{ rpm}$, $a = 2500 \text{ rpm s}^{-1}$, $t = 60\text{s}$). Afterwards, the films
121 were regenerated for 15 minutes at room temperature in a petri dish, containing vapors of HCl. This process
122 yielded layers with thickness of approximately 50 nm. For some experiments an additional layer of cellulose was
123 prepared on top of these regenerated cellulose surfaces by spin coating a 0.33wt% TMSC solution onto the as-
124 prepared samples, followed by regeneration as described above.

125 Viscose fibers (1 cm²) were impregnated with 1 mg/ml solution of DCF (Sigma Aldrich, Munich, Germany) in
126 Milli-Q water ($\approx 18.2 \text{ M}\Omega \cdot \text{cm}$ at 25 °C) from a Milli-Q-water system (Millipore, USA). This process was
127 performed at room temperature (25°C) for 30 minutes.

128 2.3. Contact angle measurements

129 Static contact angles (SCA) of water were measured by using OCA15Pro contact angle measurement system
130 Dataphysics (Germany) with the sessile drop method. All measurements were conducted at room temperature
131 with a drop volume of 3 μl . On each surface (pure TMSC, TMSC with DCF and both regenerated surfaces) at
132 least three drops were deposited. Determination of the SCA was performed with the software provided by the
133 manufacturer (software version SCA 20.2.0).

134 2.4. Infrared spectroscopy

135 FTIR-ATR spectra were recorded using a PerkinElmer Spectrum GX Series-73565 FTIR-spectrometer at a scan
136 range of 4000–650 cm^{-1} . QCM-D quartz crystals coated with a gold layer were used as substrates for FTIR-ATR
137 measurements. The spin coating and regeneration of TMSC were performed in the same way as with silicon
138 wafers. The scans were performed on three different places of each sample.

139 2.5. Atomic force microscopy (AFM)

140 Atomic force microscopy (AFM) was used for surface roughness determination, examination of the film porosity
141 and thickness. As-prepared samples were dried under high grade nitrogen (5.0). The samples were attached onto
142 round shaped metal disc sample holders and mounted on the Nanosurf FlexAFM (Switzerland). Topography
143 images and film thicknesses were acquired in tapping operation mode. For the film thickness analysis the film
144 was partially removed mechanically and the cross section was measured. Silicon AFM tips (Budget Sensors
145 Tap190Al-G, Innovative Solutions, Bulgaria) with a nominal spring constant of $k = 48 \text{ N/m}$ and a nominal
146 resonance frequency of 190 kHz were used for imaging purposes for all samples. Images of $2.5 \times 2.5 \mu\text{m}^2$ were
147 recorded with a resolution of 512×512 pixels. All images were processed and the corresponding roughness was
148 calculated using Gwyddion 2.31 software.

149 2.6. Release studies – UV-VIS spectroscopy

150 The release of DCF from the as-prepared samples was studied based on the standard method for testing material
151 performance for wound dressing applications using the Franz diffusion cell. An adaptation of the commonly
152 used experimental setup had to be used to avoid sample loss due to withdrawal. The released drug amount was
153 quantified by UV–VIS spectroscopy at 275 nm (Cary 50 UV-Visible Spectrophotometer, Agilent, Germany). For
154 this purpose each film was transferred to a 15 ml glass bottle, containing 7 ml of Milli-Q water. The temperature
155 was maintained at $37 \pm 0.2 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. At defined time intervals the amount of released drug was quantified by
156 transforming the measured absorbance for each sample to concentration using the Beer-Lambert law. The release
157 measurements of at least three parallels of one layered regenerated TMSC films with DCF and three parallels of
158 films with an additional regenerated TMSC layer were performed and evaluated. The release curves are
159 presented either as percentage of the released amount of the incorporated drug or as the measured concentration.
160 The incorporated amount was calculated from the concentration, measured after the release curves reached the

161 release end point ($dc/dt=0$), which was confirmed by FTIR-ATR measurement. A more thorough explanation
162 follows in the discussion section. Finally, the first derivatives of the release data from the film samples were
163 calculated to expose the multi-mechanism release nature.

164 *In vitro* drug release studies for viscose with incorporated DCF were performed using static Franz diffusion cells.
165 A piece of viscose with a well-defined size (10 mm^2) was placed on top of a cellulose acetate membrane. The
166 receptor compartment was filled with Milli-Q water and its temperature was maintained at $37\pm 0,2\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. During the
167 dissolution testing the medium was stirred continuously with a magnetic bar. Samples were collected over a
168 period of 24 hours at the same intervals as for the model films. The withdrawn sample volumes were replaced by
169 fresh milli-Q water. During the release profile examination and calculation of concentrations from the measured
170 absorbance, this dilution was accounted for and results were normalized. All release studies were performed in
171 three parallels.

172 **Results and Discussion**

173 As already mentioned in the introduction, the development of advanced wound dressing materials exhibiting
174 several simultaneous functions is an expensive effort. Complex products used in healthcare have to pass a multi-
175 phase safety and efficiency testing, but also these do not always allow for quantitative characterization as their
176 final form excludes the use of sophisticated methods devoted to the examination of more defined samples. Both
177 arguments lead to in-company weighing of development and consecutive commercialization of even clinically
178 already proven products (in terms of safety and efficiency). While development reaches multimillion
179 investments, alternative methodologies on how to decrease the development costs of such advanced and often
180 complex products that consist of several interacting components (host material, drugs etc.) have to be
181 considered. Common approaches towards cost reduction mostly include simplification and miniaturization;
182 therefore preparation of model films with simulated chemical composition of the final product, is a promising
183 approach. The goal of this study is therefore to investigate to which extent ultrathin cellulose films can serve as a
184 suitable model platform to assess the performance of viscose-based wound dressings in terms of their controlled
185 drug release potential, and their overall performance towards application in wound treatment.

186 To evaluate the proposed model and our hypotheses, cellulose thin films containing a potentially therapeutic
187 dose of the NSAID diclofenac (DCF) were prepared. Thin films are ideal for characterization purposes, since
188 they provide a defined morphology enabling a detailed characterization of their surface properties as well as for
189 modeling of drug release, especially for controlled release delivery systems. Although cellulose thin films and
190 viscose fibers consist of cellulose, their different morphologies and accessibilities do not necessarily allow for a
191 direct comparison of the two materials regarding the drug release kinetics. However, it can be expected that most
192 of the DCF is located at accessible sites at the viscose fibers as well as for the model films. In order to explore
193 possibilities to further tune and to control the release, another layer of cellulose was deposited on top of these
194 films without incorporated DCF (Figure 1). This additional layer serves as a physical barrier with a significant
195 impact on DCF diffusion from the films. By variation of the physico-chemical characteristics (layer thickness,
196 porosity etc.) of this additional layer, tuning of the release time and rate can be achieved. The latter is highly
197 desirable since successful analgesia in patients suffering from different wound types is not possible without
198 proper space and time bound release control. For instance, acute trauma-induced wounds require immediate pain
199 reduction (drug release), while for chronic wounds a long lasting pain reduction is favorable.

201 One of the major problems in establishing efficient models that can correlate to viscose is the poor solubility of
 202 cellulose in common organic and non-toxic solvents. An elegant way to circumvent this problem is to initially
 203 use soluble cellulose derivatives, followed by their conversion to cellulose after shaping and processing. In the
 204 past decade, trimethylsilyl cellulose (TMSC) has been found to be a very suitable precursor in this respect. Its
 205 solubility can be tuned by variation of the degree of substitution (DS_{Si}) with silyl groups from rather polar, hence
 206 soluble in ethanol (DS_{Si} ca. 0.7) or DMSO (DS_{Si} ca. 1.5) to rather unpolar and soluble in solvents such as toluene
 207 and chloroform ($DS_{Si} >2.5$). This tunable solubility of TMSC presents a major advantage when studying drug
 208 incorporation and release, since it allows for evaluation of drug release over a wide range of polarity in a single
 209 material. Since DCF is very well soluble in THF, a THF soluble TMSC derivative (DS_{Si} : ca. 2.5) was chosen for
 210 our studies.

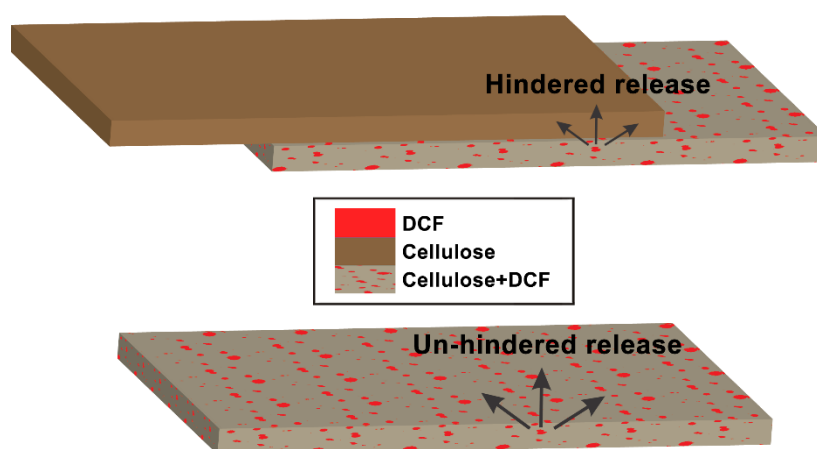


Figure 1: Proposed film stacking: BOTTOM – schematical depiction of the prepared drug loaded cellulose based model films; TOP – two layered model film with an additional cellulose layer on top, serving as a diffusion barrier enabling prolonged release.

211 For preparation of drug containing films, a TMSC/drug mixture was deposited on the chosen substrate (*i.e.*
 212 silicon wafers for most of the testing or flat gold QCM sensors for FTIR-ATR measurements) by spin coating
 213 followed by cleavage of the silyl groups by acidic vapors of HCl (Figure 2).

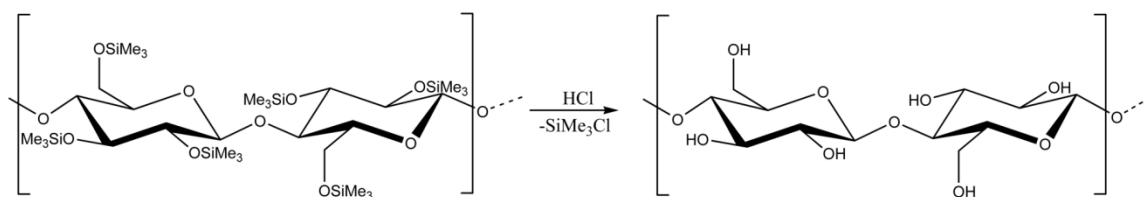


Figure 2: Conversion of TMSC to cellulose by HCl vapor treatment. Please note that the DS_{Si} of TMSC used in the study is 2.5.

214 In the first set of experiments, the model film preparation was optimized. In most literature reports, the
 215 preparation of TMSC films was realized by using 1 wt% solutions of TMSC (mainly from AVCEL) in the
 216 course of the spin coating process yielding films with a thickness of approximately 50 to 60 nm before
 217 regeneration. In contrast, the TMSC used in this study gives highly viscous solutions at 1 wt%, which do not
 218 yield ultrathin homogenous films after spin-coating (layer thickness 1 to 2 microns; results not included in this
 219 study). However, by diluting the films by a factor of three, homogenous TMSC films were obtained exhibiting a

220 thickness of 54.7 ± 0.9 nm (determined by AFM). DCF containing films were prepared by addition of DCF
221 solution (1 mg/ml in THF) to a 1 wt% TMSC solution (ratio 1+2), resulting in a final TMSC concentration of
222 0.33 wt%. Using the same spin-coating parameters as for the preparation of pure TMSC films (mentioned in the
223 *Experimental* section), a very similar film thickness could be achieved (54.9 ± 0.5 nm). In contrast to most
224 polymers that show phase separation when mixed with TMSC (Kontturi et al. 2005; Hoeger et al. 2012), DCF is
225 highly miscible with TMSC, while its incorporation does not lead to significant structural changes. Indeed, pure
226 TMSC and DCF containing TMSC thin films exhibit very similar morphology and surface roughness as
227 determined by AFM (Figure 4). The latter is rather high for both films indicating a porous film nature, suitable
228 for loading of high amounts of drugs. Even more importantly, such porous structures having a high specific
229 surface area can be compared to the macroscopic viscose porosity to some extent (and with some restraints),
230 since viscose is composed of many intertwined and tangled fibers. Usually, cellulose films prepared from TMSC
231 exhibit a smooth, flat surface (Mohan et al. 2011) with a rather low surface roughness (ca 0.7-2 nm), but
232 obviously the change of the TMSC source (partially attributed to the different molecular weight and the use of a
233 different solvents) resulted in formation of films exhibiting quite different morphologies, as indicated by a
234 relatively high roughness (rms: ca. 10 nm over 3 micrometers).

235 Regeneration by exposure to HCl vapors of the TMSC films with or without incorporated DCF led to formation
236 of cellulose thin films (as depicted in Figure 2). The cleavage of the bulky silyl groups (present in TMSC) results
237 in a decrease in film thickness to 19.0 ± 0.4 for cellulose and to 18.2 ± 0.6 nm for cellulose+DCF thin films,
238 which is in the same range as reported previously (Djak et al. 2011; Kontturi and Lankinen 2010). Regeneration
239 of TMSC to cellulose (with or without incorporated DCF) did not significantly alter the morphology and
240 porosity of the films. The decrease in layer thickness is accompanied with a decrease of the static water contact
241 angle from $98(1)^\circ$ (TMSC) and $96(1)^\circ$ (TMSC+DCF), to $37(1)^\circ$ (Cellulose) and $54(1)^\circ$ (Cellulose+DCF). The
242 value for the cellulose film is in the range of reported contact angles for cellulose thin films (Mohan et al. 2011;
243 Kontturi et al. 2003b; Nyfors et al. 2009). The cellulose+DCF films exhibit a higher water contact angle, most
244 likely due to the unpolar moieties (phenyl rings) of the DCF molecule, decreasing the overall film wettability.
245 Since this difference in the water contact angle is less pronounced before regeneration, the latter probably
246 exposes a certain amount of the drug on the film surface. This is also in accordance with the results of the
247 dissolution testing, where an initial burst effect is clearly visible. More details will be presented later in the
248 article.

249 One of the commonly used methods to prove successful regeneration of TMSC films to cellulose, is FTIR-ATR
250 spectroscopy. The DCF molecule exhibits some very specific bands that are clearly separated from vibrations in
251 cellulose and TMSC. The obtained results are presented in three graphs. Figure 3a shows FTIR-ATR of TMSC
252 before and after regeneration to confirm successful regeneration. Figure 3b and 3c present FTIR-ATR spectra of
253 DCF and DCF loaded TMSC and regenerated cellulose films, respectively. Representative peaks indicating
254 successful DCF incorporation are marked. DCF representing peaks in cellulose samples exhibit higher intensities
255 in average, since the ratio between the host material and drug is changed during the regeneration process. Figures
256 3b and 3c serve for identification of peaks that can be attributed to DCF as well and can therefore be used for
257 confirmation of its presence in the samples.

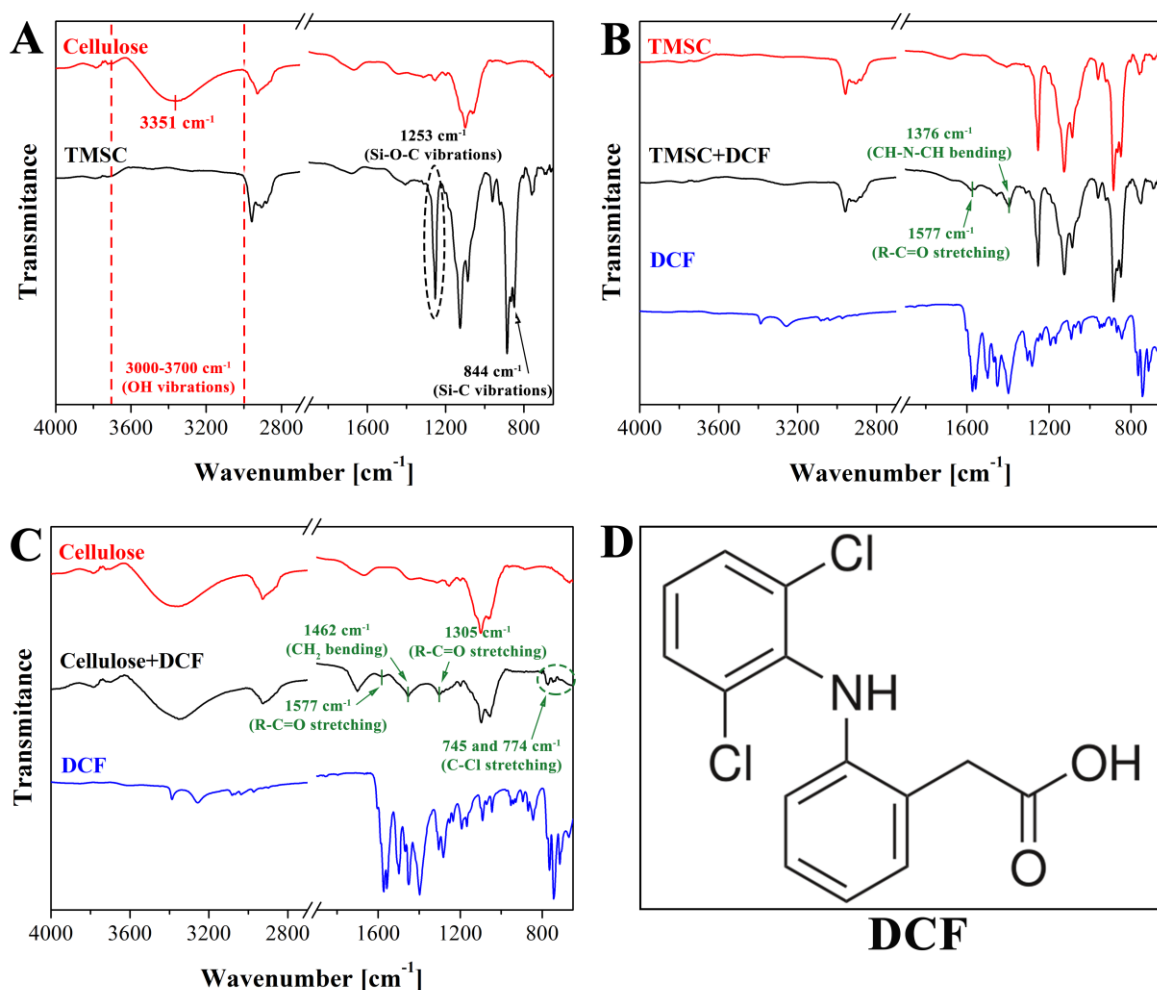


Figure 3: a) FTIR-ATR spectra of cellulose and TMSC, b) FTIR-ATR spectra of TMSC, TMSC+DCF and DCF, c) FTIR-ATR spectra of cellulose, Cellulose+DCF and DCF and d) molecular formula of DCF. Marked (green) regions and peaks correspond to DCF assigned peaks.

258 Similar to literature values, the observable bands in the TMSC spectra are C–Si rocking vibrations at 844, and
 259 1253 cm⁻¹ respectively (Kontturi et al. 2003a) while OH vibrations (3700– 3000 cm⁻¹) are negligible due to the
 260 high DS value of the used TMSC. Upon regeneration, bands corresponding to OH vibrations appear (centered at
 261 3351 cm⁻¹) concomitant with the disappearance of the C–Si rocking vibrations. After DCF incorporation into the
 262 films, several new bands can be observed. Bands that can be assigned to C-Cl vibrations are visible in the region
 263 of 650 – 750 cm⁻¹, while a band corresponding to CH – N – CH vibration can be observed at 1376 cm⁻¹. At 1577
 264 cm⁻¹ R=C=O stretching can be observed as another indication of DCF presence.

265 Finally, FTIR-ATR measurement was performed also after the release to be able to evaluate possible DCF
 266 remainders in the samples. No peaks, assigned to DCF could be observed in the spectra of cellulose with
 267 incorporated DCF, indicating that no significant amount of the incorporated drug stayed inside the host cellulose
 268 film. On the contrary, the two layered cellulose sample with DCF in the first, even after 24h exhibits some peaks
 269 that can be assigned to DCF. This is in agreement with the results from release testing, more clearly described in
 270 the following section. After 48h no more peaks were observed that could be related to DCF, which again
 271 corresponds to the release testing results, where the two-layered sample release all of the incorporated amount
 272 after approximately two days. The additional FTIR-ATR spectra can be found in Supporting information – S1.

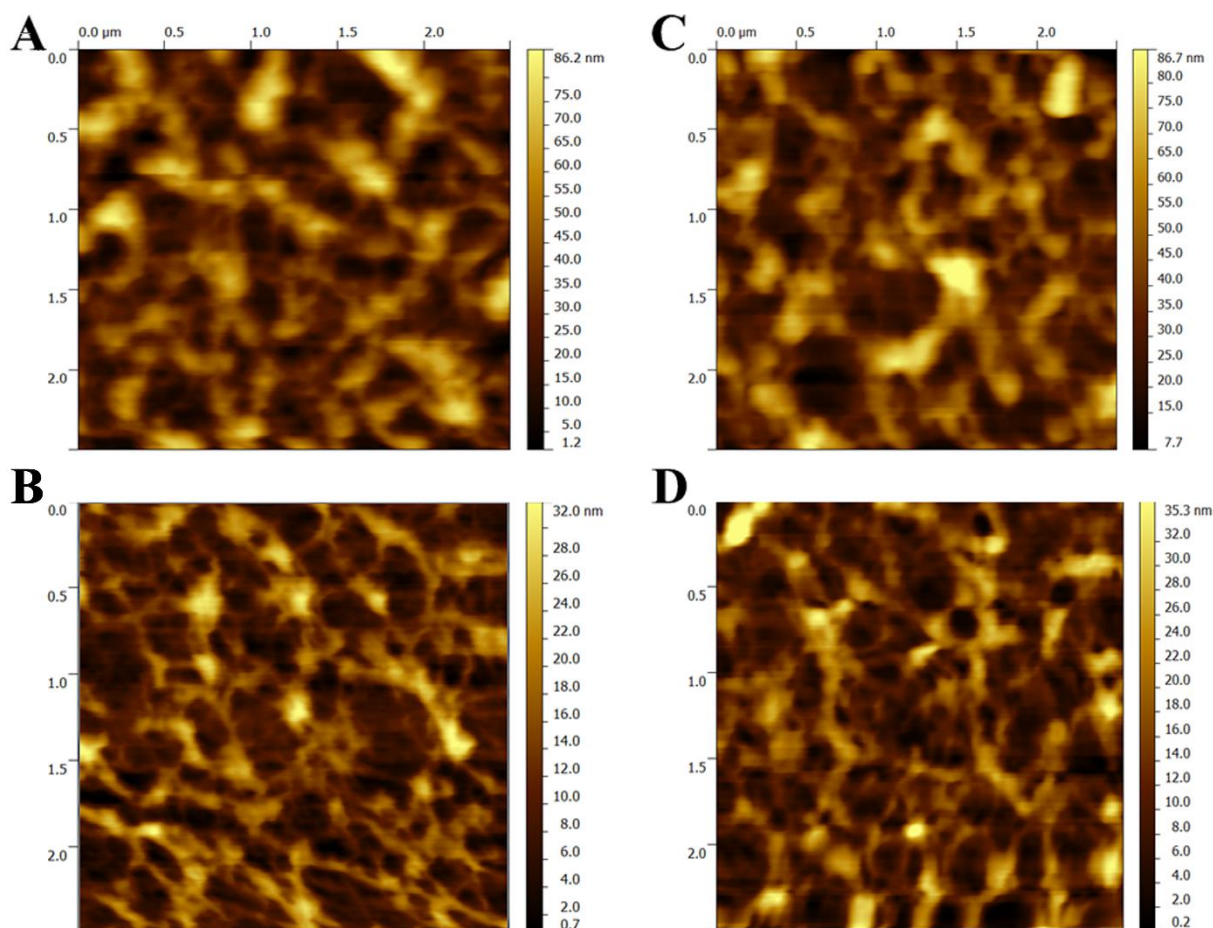


Figure 4: AFM topography images ($2.5\ \mu\text{m} \times 2.5\ \mu\text{m}$) of the different films. A: TMSC (RMS: 15,99 nm), B: cellulose (RMS: 14,77 nm), C: TMSC+DCF (RMS: 5,65 nm), D: Cellulose+DCF (RMS: 6,69 nm).

273 *Release of DCF from the films*

274 After successful preparation of DCF containing cellulose films, we became interested in the release kinetics of
 275 the DCF from the films and how it relates to viscose based wound dressings. Although both materials consist of
 276 cellulose, there are major differences that may influence the drug release from these materials. While films
 277 prepared from TMSC by spin-coating are highly amorphous (Kontturi et al. 2011; Mohan et al. 2012), viscose
 278 fibers have significant crystalline domains lowering the accessibility to water and functional reactants/molecules.
 279 In addition, the viscose fibers are already shaped into a fibrous form exhibiting rather high roughness while the
 280 cellulose thin films provide a discrete 2D confined space accompanied by usually low rms roughness. However,
 281 the films in these studies exhibit a higher roughness than those reported in literature. In order to tune the release
 282 kinetics and provide some insights about the release kinetics and hindrance induced by cellulose thin films, an
 283 additional cellulose layer was deposited onto the DCF containing initial cellulose film. In this study, the release
 284 from as-prepared films was studied using an adapted dissolution testing approach, based on the standard method
 285 for studying release from wound dressing materials. Quantification of the drug release was done by UV-VIS
 286 spectroscopy at 275 nm, which corresponds to the DCF highest UV absorption peak. The overall method was as
 287 follows. Each film was transferred to a 15 ml glass bottle which contained 7 ml of Milli-Q water. At defined
 288 time intervals (5, 10, 20, 30, 60, 120 and 180 min) an UV probe was immersed into the glass bottle to measure
 289 the absorbance. Quantification was performed by transforming the measured absorbance to concentration using a

290 calibration curve (obtained by measuring absorbance for DCF solutions with known concentrations). The results
291 are presented either as the calculated concentration or as the released drug percentage, whereas the incorporated
292 amount was defined as mentioned above. As is clearly visible in Figure 5a, the release is fast in the beginning for
293 all samples and slows down after approximately 10 minutes. Obviously, the decrease in the release rate is more
294 pronounced for the sample equipped with an additional cellulose layer. The almost identical release profile of the
295 films within the first 5 minutes with and without the additional cellulose layer on top is most likely related to the
296 intrinsic DCF solubility and the film morphology. Since the films are highly porous for both samples, a high
297 “leaching” rate of the drug through the upper level is initially possible. However, after the first “burst release”
298 (within the first 5 minutes), the release profiles of one and two layered films start to follow different paths. After
299 the second measurement point at ten minutes, the release rate of the sample consisting of two cellulose layers is
300 significantly slower, when compared to the single layer film. Apart from the sterical hindrance of the second
301 layer, this decrease in the release rate can be attributed to possible hydrogen and Van-der-Waals interactions
302 between cellulose and DCF. Since DCF was incorporated *in situ* into the first layer, the drug molecules are
303 preferentially released from it via a diffusion controlled mechanism, while a portion (surface bound DCF
304 exposed due to TMSC regeneration) is released almost instantly (burst effect). A different mechanism is more
305 likely for the transport of DCF molecules through the second layer. Their most obvious path towards the solution
306 is through the porous cellulose network (as seen from Figure 4 – AFM images of morphology), where a
307 relatively large surface area is available for interaction with the host material. One may imagine this process to
308 be very similar as in chromatography, where compounds interact with the stationary phase and consequently
309 elute slower. This behavior can be exploited in order to generate materials whose release properties can be tuned
310 over a wide range of release times, allowing for the simultaneous testing of wound dressing materials intended
311 for treatments, where immediate pain reducing action is required as well as for patients with chronic diseases
312 where a steady but slow release should be accomplished. It is clear that the shown approach is generic and that
313 depending on the used top layer(s) the interaction capacity of the analgesic drug can be highly controlled leading
314 to either fast or slow release. Anyway, the porous structure of the investigated cellulose thin films will always
315 result in a burst like behavior in the initial stage of application (‘burst’), while the top layer acts as a ‘stationary
316 phase’ slowing or accelerating release depending on the envisaged application (acute vs chronic wounds). An
317 immediate release of analgesic drugs is beneficiary for treatment of chronic wounds as well, but even more
318 important is a more controlled (and slower) release in later stages of the wound healing process. Such combined
319 effects significantly improve the patients’ quality of life and lead to a lower frequency of wound dressing
320 exchange and lower expenses for treatment.

321 Therefore, film stacking is very interesting in terms of final application, since different profiles can be achieved
322 by adding layers with or without incorporated drug (immediate release, prolonged release and combined release).
323 An important aspect is that such advanced drug releasing approaches are readily prepared and easily assessed
324 using the proposed model films preparation platform.

325 The efficiency of the porous top layer for slowing down the release mainly depends on its interaction capacity
326 with the drug of interest. Hence, the proposed model system is highly suitable for testing and evaluating different
327 multilayered films for drug release control as well and it enables a versatile platform to compare a variety of host
328 materials and/or incorporated drugs. One of the possible additional functionalities that can be included into such
329 film-based systems, are layers based on cationic polysaccharides (i.e. chitosan and its derivatives), which are

330 capable to induce antimicrobial activities reducing the risk of infections in the course of the wound healing
331 process. However, further investigation regarding these issues go beyond the scope of one paper.

332 An important question is preparation of multi-layered films is how the preparation of additional layers can affect
333 the composition of the bottom layer. The latter is an even bigger issue, if the bottom layer includes an
334 incorporated drug, which can be possibly flushed away during the preparation of additional layers. Since the
335 films in this study were prepared using THF, which dissolves the used drug DCF as well, an additional
336 experiment was dedicated to preparation of the second layer using CHCl_3 , which is equally good for preparation
337 of films, but is a far worse solvent for DCF. The obtained results is available in Supporting information (S2-S4).

338 For all single-layered samples, the end point of release ($dc/dt=0$) was reached after a period approximately 240
339 minutes, while the same point was reached only after almost two days (2880 minutes – data not shown in Figure
340 5, but instead available as supporting info – S2) for the two-layered sample. In this context, a very important
341 question is the amount of DCF that remains in the cellulose films. In order to evaluate this question, the dried
342 films have been subjected to IR spectroscopy at different times after the release. In the case of the DCF/cellulose
343 films, bands associated with DCF found prior to the release studies could not be detected beyond 240 minutes of
344 release, while the films with an additional cellulose top-layer exhibited bands belonging to the DCF molecule
345 until almost two days. Although the incorporated amount of the drug should be the same for the two layered
346 sample (since the same procedure was used for the preparation of the first layer with DCF), the percentage of the
347 released drug for this sample was quite smaller at 240 minutes, when the end point of release was reached for the
348 sample with only one cellulose layer. Even after 24 hours, when the drug concentration almost stopped changing,
349 the two layered sample still exhibited peaks previously associated with DCF, while the release studies showed
350 that approximately 10% of the incorporated amount were still to be released. After 2 days of release, also the
351 sample with the additional cellulose barrier layer, reached the end release point, concomitant with the
352 disappearance of the DCF associated peaks in the IR spectra.

353 As mentioned above, the DCF release from the as-prepared model films is the sum of at least two different
354 coupled release mechanisms, the initial burst, followed by a diffusion controlled release. To confirm the “multi-
355 mechanism” release scenario, the first derivative was calculated from the obtained release data for the cellulose
356 samples (Figure 5c). Since 1st deviations from the obtained release data and taking into account the error bars
357 revealed at least two different regions (judging by the always present break in the release curve at 20 minutes
358 regardless of the sample, it could well be three coupled mechanisms) in the release profile (the regions are
359 separated with a blue dashed line, showing possible three regions of different release mechanism), commonly
360 used models to explain the drug release (Ukmar et al. 2012; Ukmar et al. 2011) could not be applied for
361 additional data evaluation.

362 Finally, to get an impression whether release of DCF from model cellulose films is comparable to real systems, a
363 commonly used wound dressing material, viscose, was impregnated with the same amount of DCF as was
364 incorporated in the films. Cellulose model films and viscose can be compared since their chemical structure is
365 the same, as well they are similar in terms of accessible sites for interaction of the media with the embedded drug
366 molecules through their porous structure. The release testing of this sample was performed in an analogous way
367 as for the thin films (as described in the *Experimental* section). Since the main purpose of this study was the

368 preparation of applicable models for development of novel advanced wound dressing materials, this was the
 369 most important validation point of our approach. Unexpectedly, the model film and the viscose fiber samples
 370 both show a similar release rate (Figure 5b). There are some minor differences in the early burst like release
 371 phase (in the region from 5 to 20 minutes); probably these differences originate from inhomogeneous DCF
 372 distribution in viscose. The final amount of released DCF is very similar for both samples with both reaching a
 373 release rates close to 100% after 24 h (final points are not shown).

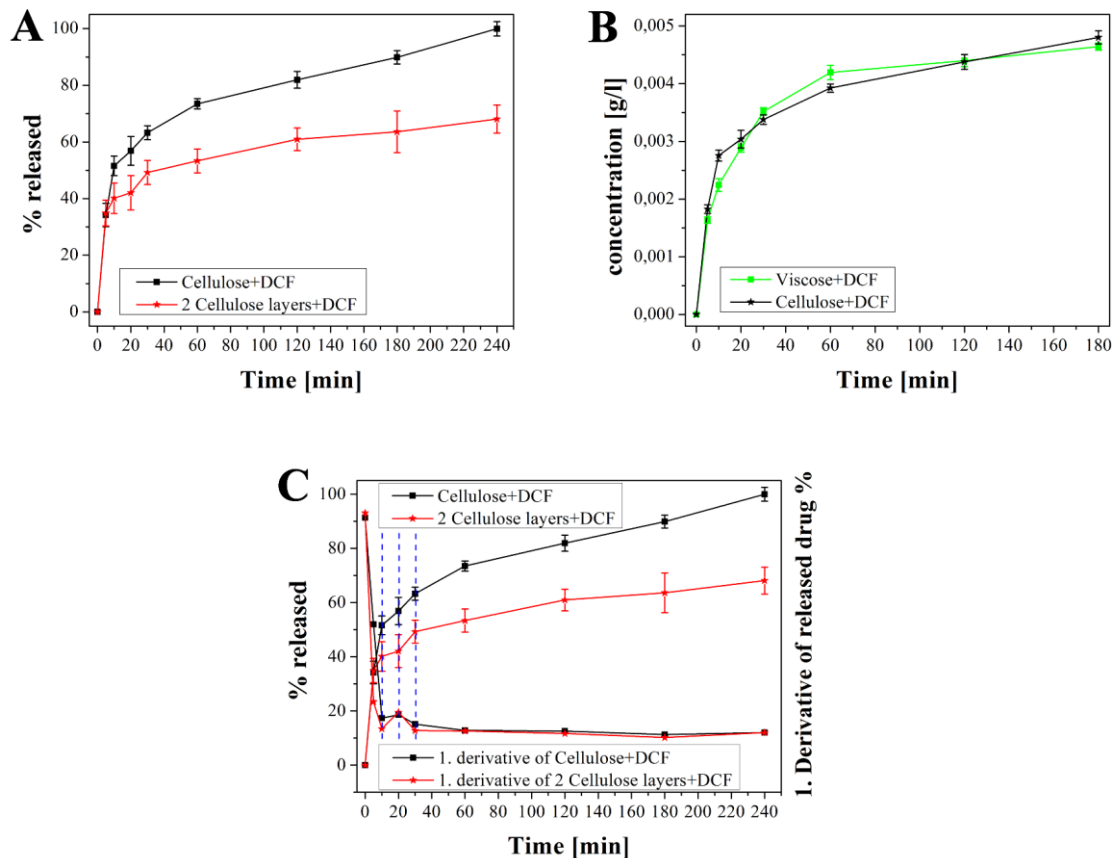


Figure 5: A) DCF release profile comparison between one layer and two layer cellulose films, B) comparison of DCF release from cellulose (model) and viscose (actual wound dressing) materials, and C) DCF release profile comparison between one layer and two layer cellulose films with additionally drawn 1. derivatives of the measured data to expose the multi-mechanism “complex” release from such materials. The release profiles present the average values from three parallel measurements, while the error bars present the standard deviations.

374 Conclusion

375 A model system for in vitro therapeutic wound dressing material testing is presented. Cellulose model films were
 376 chosen for this purpose, since viscose (build from cellulose) is one of the most frequently used materials in
 377 wound care. Additionally, films allow for thorough and relying characterization. The as-prepared samples were
 378 evaluated in regard of their physico-chemical and release properties. Cellulose based model films were shown
 379 suitable for tuning of drug release related characteristics and thorough characterization in order to better design
 380 possible future wound dressing products. Since cost reduction is nowadays the most limiting factor in
 381 development of new materials, optimization at the laboratory scale is certainly one of the possible solutions to
 382 decrease the development cost of advanced materials applicable in wound care. Although additional studies are
 383 necessary to fully exploit the possibilities and limitations of such model systems, the quite remarkable fit of the

384 release curves of the cellulose film and viscose sample for example, is already very promising. Using the
385 proposed model system, we were able to show that layering can enable controlled tuning of the release
386 properties. By adding an additional cellulose layer on top of the drug loaded one, a prolonged drug release could
387 be achieved. Such layering seems a promising way for wound type-based wound dressing design. For example,
388 our present system seems to be ideal for treatment of wounds, which require a reasonably fast start of activity,
389 which is then maintained over a longer period (until the wound dressing exchange). The practical benefit from
390 such system in light of the increasingly important cost reductions, could be the prolongation of the wound
391 dressing exchange frequency, by which the overall wound treatment costs would be reduced. Further studies are
392 already under way in order to fully understand the type of interaction between the cellulose host materials and
393 the incorporated drug molecules, as well as to find exact correlation between the performance of this model
394 system and actual wound dressings.

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405 **Author contributions**

406 Authors have contributed to the work equally.

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