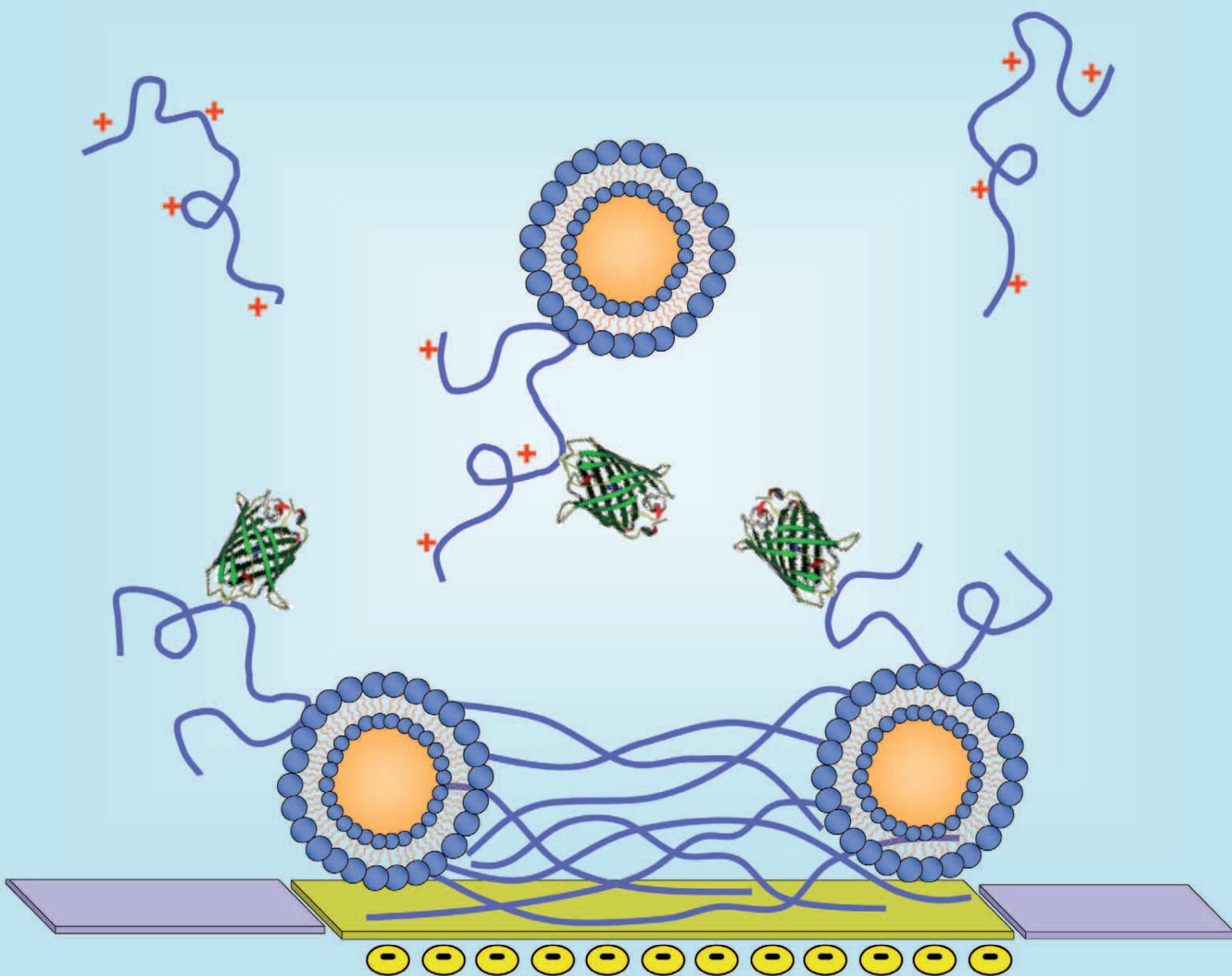


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## EMERGING AREA

G. F. Payne and S. R. Raghavan  
Chitosan: a soft interconnect for  
hierarchical assembly of nano-scale  
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# Chitosan: a soft interconnect for hierarchical assembly of nano-scale components

Gregory F. Payne<sup>\*a</sup> and Srinivasa R. Raghavan<sup>\*b</sup>

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Traditional microfabrication has tremendous capabilities for imparting order to hard materials (*e.g.*, silicon wafers) over a range of length scales. However, conventional microfabrication does not provide the means to assemble pre-formed nano-scale components into higher-ordered structures. We believe the aminopolysaccharide chitosan possesses a unique set of properties that enable it to serve as a *length-scale interconnect* for the hierarchical assembly of nano-scale components into macro-scale systems. The primary amines (atomic length scale) of the glucosamine repeating units (molecular length scale) provide sites to connect pre-formed or self-assembled nano-scale components to the polysaccharide backbone (macromolecular length scale). Connections to the backbone can be formed by exploiting the electrostatic, nucleophilic, or metal-binding capabilities of the glucosamine residues. Chitosan's film-forming properties provide the means for assembly at micron-to-centimetre lengths (supramolecular length scales). In addition to interconnecting length scales, chitosan's capabilities may also be uniquely-suited as a *soft component–hard device interconnect*. In particular, chitosan's film formation can be induced under mild aqueous conditions in response to localized electrical signals that can be imposed from microfabricated surfaces. This capability allows chitosan to assemble soft nano-scale components (*e.g.*, proteins, vesicles, and virus particles) at specific electrode addresses on chips and in microfluidic devices. Thus, we envision the potential that chitosan may emerge as an integral material for soft matter (bio)fabrication.

<sup>a</sup>Center for Biosystems Research, University of Maryland Biotechnology Institute, 5115 Plant Sciences Building, College Park, MD 20742, USA. E-mail: payne@umbi.umd.edu; Fax: +1 301 314 9075; Tel: +1 301 405 8389

<sup>b</sup>Department of Chemical and Biomolecular Engineering, University of Maryland, College Park, MD 20742, USA. E-mail: sraghava@eng.umd.edu; Fax: +1 301 405 0523; Tel: +1 301 405 8164

## Why a soft interconnect?

Microfabrication is the technology that has demonstrated the greatest capability for creating ordered structures over length scales that span from the submicron to the centimetre. Yet microfabricators are facing an interesting dilemma in their quest to fabricate chips capable of continuing the exponential



Gregory F. Payne

Gregory F. Payne received his B.S. and M.S. degrees in Chemical Engineering from Cornell University in 1979 and 1981, respectively. He received his Ph.D. in Chemical Engineering from The University of Michigan in 1984. After completing his Ph.D., he returned to Cornell to do post-doctoral work with Michael Shuler in biochemical engineering. In 1986 Dr Payne joined the faculty with joint appointments in Chemical and Biochemical Engineering

at the University of Maryland Baltimore County (UMBC) and in the Center for Agricultural Biotechnology (now the Center for Biosystems Research) at the University of Maryland Biotechnology Institute (UMBI). His research is focused on biofabrication—the use of biological or biomimetic materials and processes for construction. Specifically, his group

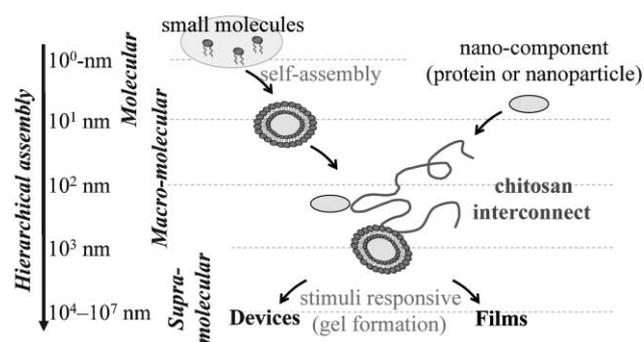


Srinivasa R. Raghavan

biofabricates using enzymes and biologically-derived polymers such as chitosan.

Srinivasa R. Raghavan received his B.Tech. in Chemical Engineering from the Indian Institute of Technology, Madras in 1992 and graduated with a Ph.D. in Chemical Engineering from North Carolina State University in 1998. He performed post-doctoral research in Chemical Engineering at the University of Delaware after which he

joined the Department of Chemical and Biomolecular Engineering at the University of Maryland at College Park in 2001. Dr Raghavan's interests are in the broad area of complex fluids and nanomaterials, and his research group integrates a range of physical, chemical and biological methods to prepare and analyze materials that have structure over a range of length scales.



**Fig. 1** Chitosan as a length-scale interconnect for hierarchical assembly. The figure shows that nano-scale assemblies of small molecules (e.g., a vesicle) or other nano-components (e.g., a protein or nanoparticle) can be connected to sites along a chitosan chain. These structures, in turn, can be connected into larger supramolecular assemblies and deposited at specific device addresses or formed as free-standing films.

increase in computer power. At the same time that conventional microfabrication is struggling to economically fabricate below 60 nm, there is an emergence of various nano-scale components (e.g., carbon nanotubes and quantum dots). Yet hierarchical methods to connect these discrete, pre-formed nano-scale components into macro-scale systems are not available.

Compared to the fabrication of silicon wafers, the creation of ordered soft devices is far less advanced. Yet fabricators of soft devices will face the same challenge—how to connect pre-formed nano-components over a hierarchy of length scales. An additional challenge (or opportunity) is the connection of soft nano-scale components (e.g., proteins, vesicles and virus particles) into hard devices for biosensor or microsystem applications.

We believe the aminopolysaccharide chitosan may emerge as an important material for soft matter fabrication because this biopolymer possesses a set of properties that uniquely equips it for hierarchical assembly of nano-scale components over a range of length scales. The potential of chitosan as a *length-scale interconnect* is illustrated in Fig. 1. As indicated, chitosan provides sites for connecting nano-scale components ( $10^0$ – $10^1$  nm) along its linear backbone ( $10^1$ – $10^3$  nm). Assembly at larger length scales occurs through chitosan's stimuli-responsive gel-forming properties that enable this polysaccharide to self-organize at the macro-scale ( $>10^3$  nm). Importantly, chitosan films and gels can be induced to form in response to localized electrical stimuli. Thus, chitosan offers properties both to connect length scales and to connect nano-scale components to electronic devices. Chitosan's potential as a *soft component–hard device interconnect* was recently reviewed for biological systems.<sup>1</sup> Here, we describe our rationale for proposing chitosan as a length-scale interconnect for hierarchical assembly.

## Molecular length scale (0.1–1 nm)

Chitosan is prepared by *N*-deacetylation of the linear  $\beta$ -(1 $\rightarrow$ 4)-linked polysaccharide chitin. Since chitin deacetylation is rarely complete, chitosan is formally a copolymer of *N*-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc) and glucosamine (GlcN). The unique chemical feature of chitosan is the primary amine of the GlcN residues. As illustrated by the reaction below, these primary amines can be protonated conferring a positive charge to chitosan, and at a sufficiently high charge density, chitosan becomes soluble in aqueous solution. In fact, the term “chitosan” is an operational definition of an acid-soluble, deacetylated chitin derivative. While providing some information of the co-polymer composition (typically the degree of acetylation of chitosan is less than 50%), this operational definition provides no specification of chitosan's molecular weight or sequence (random or blocky).<sup>2,3</sup> As a result of this ambiguity, there can be considerable disagreement in the literature on the finer details of chitosan's structure and properties.

Chitosan's primary amines confer important material properties. At low pH, the amines are protonated making chitosan a *cationic polyelectrolyte*. This polyelectrolyte property has been employed by several groups to generate multilayer films or capsules using layer-by-layer assembly.<sup>4–15</sup> At high pH, the amines are deprotonated and chitosan undergoes a transition from a soluble cationic polyelectrolyte to an insoluble polymer. Importantly, this *pH-responsive* switch is near neutrality (chitosan's apparent  $pK_a$  has been reported to range between 6 and 7)<sup>16–21</sup> suggesting chitosan as a biologically-derived stimuli-responsive polymer for medical applications (e.g., injectable matrices).

For assembly purposes, the glucosamine residues provide the sites for connection to the chitosan backbone. In their protonated form, the amines allow connection through *electrostatic* interactions.<sup>22</sup> The *nucleophilic* properties of the amines allow connections through covalent linkages that can be formed through a range of coupling chemistries.<sup>23,24</sup> Finally, chitosan's *metal binding* properties<sup>25–28</sup> allow connections through chelation mechanisms.<sup>29,30</sup>

## Macromolecular length scale (1–100 nm)

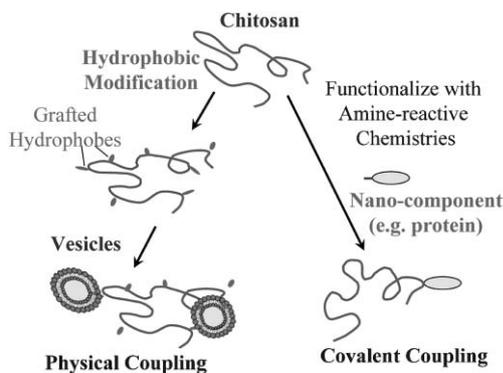
Chitosan is large with a typical molecular weight of  $10^5$ – $10^6$ , a radius of gyration of  $10^1$ – $10^2$  nm,<sup>31–34</sup> and a contour length approaching microns.<sup>35,36</sup> For comparison, chitosan is about 10-fold larger than typical globular proteins and comparable in size to large unilamellar vesicles. In solution, chitosan behaves as a stiff worm-like chain with persistence lengths reported to be 5–15 nm.<sup>31,33,34,37</sup> Even this measure of chain stiffness is large compared to the diameter of typical globular proteins ( $\approx 2$ –5 nm). Chitosan's size and stiffness are expected to vary with pH, salt concentration and possibly even composition (*i.e.*, GlcNAc content), and studies to resolve



these effects are ongoing in several labs. At low pH (<3.5) electrostatic repulsions expand the chitosan chain and make the backbone more rigid.<sup>38</sup> At intermediate pH (4–6), chitosan's radius of gyration appears to remain relatively constant.<sup>32</sup> Further increases in pH leads to precipitation or aggregation.<sup>32,39</sup>

As noted, GlcN's primary amines provide sites for attachment of nano-scale components to the chitosan backbone, through physical, covalent, and metal-binding mechanisms. Fig. 2 illustrates how we have used chitosan's *nucleophilic* properties to connect nano-scale components to its backbone. The left path shows that hydrophobic moieties can be grafted to the chitosan backbone using common reductive amination reactions with long-chain aldehydes.<sup>35,40–43</sup> At sufficiently low degrees of substitution (typically 2%), the chitosan chains remain acid-soluble, while the hydrophobic moieties can insert into the bilayer of surfactant vesicles and physically connect the vesicles to the backbone.<sup>44–46</sup> The right path in Fig. 2 illustrates the grafting of nano-components to chitosan using either chemical or biochemical methods. Various chemical coupling methods have been used to immobilize proteins onto crosslinked and insoluble chitosan supports,<sup>23</sup> or to graft proteins to uncrosslinked and acid-soluble chitosan chains.<sup>47</sup> An alternative biochemical method for coupling proteins to chitosan employs the enzyme tyrosinase to convert accessible tyrosine residues of proteins into reactive *o*-quinones that can react with chitosan's amine.<sup>48</sup> We are aware that this method has been used to graft gelatin,<sup>49,50</sup> green fluorescent protein,<sup>51–53</sup> and silk fibroin<sup>54–57</sup> to chitosan.

Potentially, conjugates of chitosan and nano-components can retain chitosan's *pH-responsive* behavior. This is illustrated in Fig. 3 which shows the pH-solubility profile for the GFP–chitosan conjugate. At low pH, the conjugate is soluble while an increase in pH near or above chitosan's  $pK_a$  results in precipitation of the fluorescent conjugate.<sup>51</sup> Studies with the laccase–chitosan conjugate showed that this precipitation is reversible with retention of biological (*i.e.*, laccase's enzymatic) activity upon multiple precipitation and resolubilization steps.<sup>47</sup>

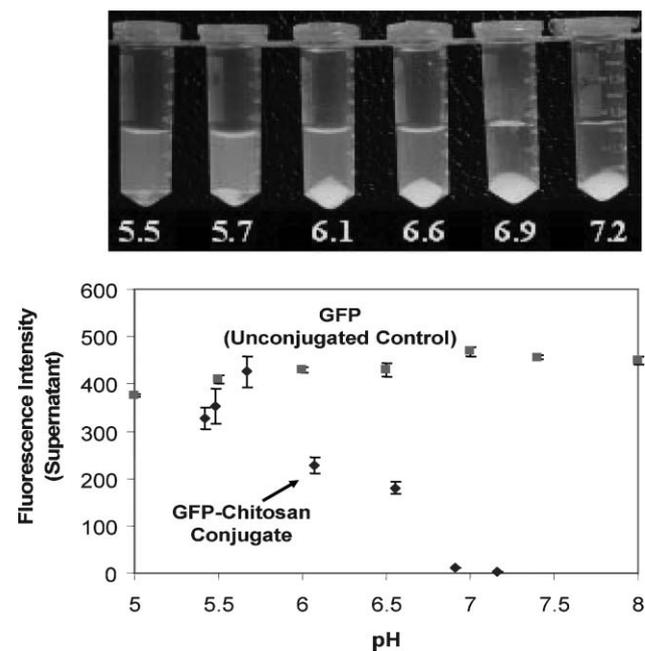


**Fig. 2** Two types of mechanisms to couple nano-components to chitosan. The scheme on the left illustrates the *physical coupling* of hydrophobes grafted on chitosan to the bilayers of surfactant vesicles. The scheme on the right depicts the *covalent coupling* of nano-components such as proteins through reactions between their functional groups with the amines on chitosan.

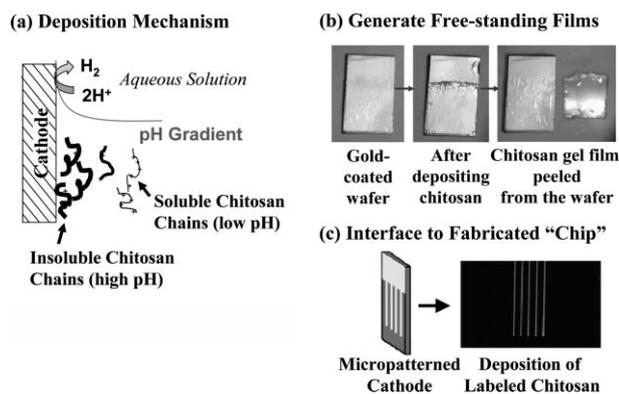
## Supramolecular length scale ( $\mu\text{m}$ – $\text{cm}$ )

As mentioned, chitosan is soluble at low pH but insoluble at neutral or higher pH. While Fig. 3 shows that chitosan can form insoluble precipitates, chitosan can also form a mechanically strong 3-D hydrogel network. For instance, cast chitosan films were observed to have a Young's modulus of 7 MPa when measured under wet conditions.<sup>58</sup> Domard and co-workers proposed three conditions necessary for chitosan to undergo a sol–gel transition to form a homogeneous gel:<sup>59</sup> (i) the chitosan concentration must exceed  $C^*$ , the critical concentration for chain overlap ( $C^* \approx 0.1\%$ <sup>33,60</sup>); (ii) there must be a critical balance between attractive and repulsive interactions; and (iii) the conditions that initiate gel formation must be uniformly percolating. If these conditions are not satisfied, then chitosan chains that undergo the soluble-to-insoluble transition can precipitate as small aggregates without forming a 3-D elastic network. While these conditions provide a useful framework, it is important to recognize that the structural details of the physical crosslinks that serve as the network junctions for the chitosan hydrogels are not well-characterized.<sup>61,62</sup>

Many groups have used chitosan's ability to self-organize in response to a pH-shift to cast/spin films,<sup>28,63–67</sup> spin fibers,<sup>68</sup> or generate 3-D scaffolds by robotic dispensing.<sup>69</sup> Our interest in chitosan has been sparked by the observation that network-formation can be induced by convenient and localized electrical signals as illustrated in Fig. 4.<sup>70,71</sup> Mechanistically, Fig. 4a shows that cathodic reactions that result in the net



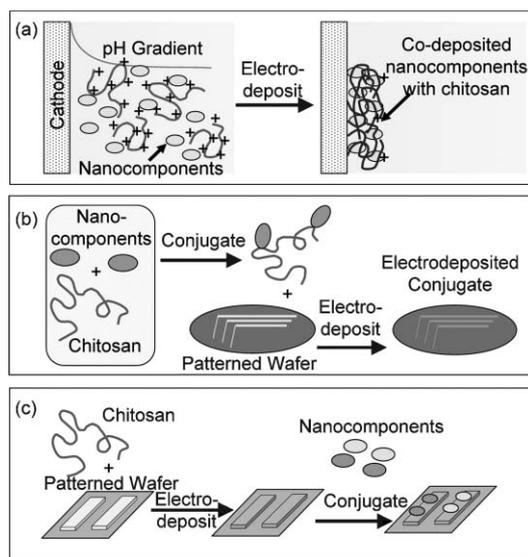
**Fig. 3** pH-Responsive properties of GFP–chitosan conjugates. Adapted with permission from ref. 51 (copyright 2003 American Chemical Society). The control solution of unconjugated GFP has a fluorescence that is independent of pH. In contrast, the GFP–chitosan conjugate precipitates when the pH is increased from 5.5 to 7, as shown by the photographs (above), taken under UV illumination. Consequently, the fluorescence in the supernatant solution sharply decreases with pH.



**Fig. 4** Chitosan assembly using electrochemical gradients. (A) The local gradient of pH at a cathode results in the deposition of a chitosan network from solution. (B) Electro-deposited chitosan networks can be peeled from gold wafers as “free standing” films. (C) Chitosan can also be deposited onto micropatterned cathodes. The figure on the right shows localized deposition of a fluorescein-labeled chitosan. The stripes on the pattern are 20  $\mu\text{m}$  wide and the separation between the stripes is 100  $\mu\text{m}$ .

consumption of  $\text{H}^+$  (or production of  $\text{OH}^-$ ) can generate a localized region of high pH adjacent to the cathode surface. Chitosan chains that experience this localized high pH can be induced to undergo gelation<sup>72</sup> with the formation of thin films or thicker hydrogels depending on the electrodeposition conditions.<sup>71</sup> Thick chitosan films can be peeled from the wafer as illustrated in Fig. 4b and thus electrodeposition can be used to generate “free-standing” films. Alternatively, chitosan can be electrodeposited onto micropatterned electrodes as illustrated in Fig. 4c and this electrodeposition can be performed with micron-level lateral selectivity.<sup>73</sup> It is important to note that electrodeposited films are stable and remain intact in the absence of an applied voltage, but these films can be readily re-solubilized by washing with weak acids. Alternatively, chitosan films can be made acid-insoluble by covalent crosslinking (*e.g.*, with glutaraldehyde).

Chitosan's electrodeposition provides a versatile means for assembling nano-scale components into macro-scale structures, and Fig. 5 illustrates three approaches. Fig. 5a shows that discrete nano-scale components can be blended into the deposition solution and co-deposited with chitosan. Upon deposition, these components can be entrapped within the chitosan film's network. As shown in Table 1 co-deposition with chitosan has been used to assemble various nano-scale components onto electrode surfaces. Since electrodeposition is performed under mild aqueous conditions co-deposition can be used to assemble soft nano-components such as proteins and vesicles. Alternatively, Fig. 5b shows that covalent conjugates of chitosan that retain pH-responsive properties can be electrodeposited. To our knowledge, the only covalent conjugates that have been electrodeposited are chitosan conjugates of either the green fluorescent protein (GFP) or gelatin. These protein–chitosan conjugates were electrodeposited onto micropatterned electrodes either individually<sup>51</sup> or sequentially at separate electrode addresses.<sup>74</sup> Finally, Fig. 5c shows that chitosan can be electrodeposited first, and then the nucleophilic amines can be employed for subsequent



**Fig. 5** Three approaches for supramolecular assembly of nano-scale components *via* electrodeposition. (A) Co-deposition of nano-components. (B) Deposition of conjugates of chitosan and nano-scale components. (C) Deposition of chitosan, followed by localized conjugation with nano-scale components.

**Table 1** Co-deposition of nano-scale components with chitosan

Soft nano-components	Glucose oxidase <sup>81,82</sup> Horseradish peroxidase <sup>83</sup> Hemoglobin <sup>84</sup> Latex beads <sup>88</sup> Vesicles and liposomes <sup>89</sup>
Hard nano-components	Hydroxyapatite <sup>90–92</sup> Gold nanoparticles <sup>81,83</sup> Carbon nanotubes <sup>82</sup> Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> magnetic particles <sup>84</sup>

functionalization. This approach has been used to couple oligonucleotide probes<sup>75</sup> and tobacco mosaic virus (TMV) particles to electrodeposited chitosan.<sup>76</sup>

## Conclusions. Limitations and opportunities for a soft interconnect

Chitosan can serve as an interconnect in two ways. First, chitosan can serve as a length-scale interconnect for hierarchical assembly. Nano-scale components can be assembled along chitosan's backbone, while chitosan's self-organization allows assembly to the macro-scale. But chitosan's “softness” makes assembly imprecise when viewed through the lens of conventional rigid microelectronics. The nano-scale components cannot be assembled onto the backbone with nano-scale precision (*i.e.*, at a specific sugar residue) nor is the backbone sufficiently rigid for permanent localization. While chitosan's softness may be ill-suited for fabricating conventional microelectronics, it may be well-suited for fabricating soft medical materials.<sup>77–80</sup> Potentially, tissue engineers could enlist chitosan's fabrication capabilities to construct scaffolds with the interconnected channels needed for cell infiltration, as well as the assembled biological cues required to recruit cells,

facilitate their adhesion, guide their migration, and promote their development. Further, chitosan's pH-responsive gel-formation may enable injectable matrices that can be "programmed" to release controlled dosages of multiple drugs for personalized treatments.

Second, chitosan can serve as an interconnect between nano-scale components and hard electronic devices. Chitosan's ability to recognize localized electrical stimuli and respond by electrodepositing as a stable film provides the means for the signal-guided deposition of nano-components at individual electrode addresses. Especially important is that chitosan electrodeposits from aqueous solution under conditions that are sufficiently mild to accommodate the labile nature of soft nano-components (e.g., proteins, vesicles and virus particles). For example, Chen and co-workers<sup>81–84</sup> are co-depositing soft and hard nano-components (e.g., enzymes and carbon nanotubes) onto electrodes to allow the coupling of biological recognition with electrochemical sensing (e.g., to detect glucose). This group exploits the fact that the co-deposits are in direct contact with an electrode. An additional example is the work of Ghodssi, Rubloff and co-workers<sup>85,86</sup> who are fabricating microsystems that exploit chitosan's ability to be electrodeposited from solution at electrode addresses within a microfluidic channel. Potentially, the ability to electrodeposit chitosan from closed and fully-packaged microfluidic devices could offer unique opportunities for high-throughput, lab-on-a-chip applications.<sup>87</sup>

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