

COLLAGEN: BIOMATERIAL PROPERTIES AND APPLICATIONS IN MEDICAL DEVICES

MANOJ K. JAIN Ph.D.

Dept. Biochemistry, Robert Wood Johnson Medical School, 675 Hoes In,
Piscataway, N.J. 08854

Connective tissues are composed of fibrous and non fibrous components. Collagen and elastic fibers are the fibrous components. The primary non fibrous components of connective tissues are proteoglycans and glycoproteins. These are found in the interfibrillar spaces and are composed of proteins and sugars. Further, there is the presence of cells such as fibroblasts, osteoblasts, chondrocytes and other cell types found in various tissues. These components are found in all connective tissues in varying amounts and in different structural arrangements [1,2].

Generally, composition, distribution and orientation of connective tissue components reflect function of the tissue [2]. For example tendon is used for the transmission of tension. Therefore tendon is composed of large collagen fibers that are aligned parallel to the tendon axis which limit deformation and provide tensile strength. Tendon contains only small amounts of glycoproteins and proteoglycans which are generally used to dissipate or store energy. In comparison, the aortic wall contains collagen, elastin and proteoglycans [3]. The collagen and elastic fibers in aorta form independent structural networks that are directed in both the circumferential and longitudinal directions. This allows for the aorta to act as a secondary pump for blood, while limiting deformation of the vessel. This concept of design based upon function in tissues is critical when viewing connective tissues as biomaterials.

Biomaterials have been used in the past for tissue repair and replacement caused by thermal, chemical, or mechanical trauma. These materials included amnion, placenta, human cadaver and porcine skin, and fasciae. These body tissues are composed primarily of collagen, which is the principal structural protein found in mammalian

tissues. Collagen, a natural biomaterial extracted from animal tissues has been purified and used in various forms for medical applications (Table 1) [4-52]. The medical device industry has recently shown increasing interest in collagen-based biomaterials as medical devices. Reasons for this interest are based upon advent of new technology for collagen purification and processing and economical sources for raw material. Another factor affecting use of collagen as a biomaterial is recently published research indicating that collagen materials improve wound-healing characteristics. Further, by modeling tissues as composites, technology now exists to design biomaterials based upon function as found in native connective tissues. Recent advances in cell and enzyme immobilization have documented new uses for collagen and collagen-composite materials. This article describes the properties which make collagen a useful biomaterial and the current state of research on medical devices that utilize collagen.

Collagen Structure and Properties

The primary functions of native collagen are to contain, support and interconnect body tissues [1]. Characterization of different collagen types present in connective tissues such as skin, tendon, bone, cardiovascular tissue etc. [3,53] has been done extensively. To date, twelve distinct types of collagen have been characterized based upon chemical data and can be classified by functionality and distribution in tissues [53]. Type I collagen is the most abundant in connective tissues. It is a unique fibrous protein found in connective tissues such as skin dermis and bone. It consists of three alpha chains with a repeating GLY-X-Y sequence where X and Y are often proline and hydroxyproline respectively staggered by one amino acid relative to the other. The presence of these respective amino acids gives type I collagen its structural

Table 1: The Use of Collagen devices in various medical applications

Specialty	Application
Dermatology	Soft-tissue augmentation**
Dentistry	Oral wounds** Biocoating for dental implants* Support for hydroxyapatite** Periodontal attachment**
General surgery	Hemostasis** Hernia repair**
Neurosurgery	Nerve repair** Nerve conduits**
Orthopaedic	Bone repair** Articular cartilage reconstruction**
Ophthalmology	Corneal graft** Tape for retinal reattachment**
Plastic surgery	Repair of tissue defects**
Urology	Ureter replacement** Dialysis membrane** Renal repair**
Vascular	Vessel replacement**
Other	Biocoating** Drug delivery**

rigidity. Each individual chain exists as a left handed helix and has a molecular weight of approximately 100,000 [3]. These left handed helices intertwine giving rise to a right handed super helix with an axial rise of approximately 39 residues and molecular weight of approximately 285,000 [1,3]. The super helix is stabilized by inter and intramolecular interactions between side chains and by hydrogen bonded water bridges. The collagen molecule has characteristic dimensions of 300 nm x 1.5 nm. There also exists two nonhelical regions termed carboxy and amino terminals important in crosslinking and self assembly of collagen. Aggregation of collagen molecules results in the formation of collagen fibrils which in turn give rise to collagen fibers. This ability to self assemble is directly related to the unique amino acid sequence found in collagen. When

polymerized, a characteristic banding pattern every 6.90 nm [53] exists which lends strength and resilience to collagen fibers. The usefulness of collagen in medical devices is primarily a consequence of this ability to aggregate in vitro into various strong structures.

Purification, Processing, and Crosslinking of Collagen

Ideally, certain characteristics in a biomaterial are crucial. Biomaterial sterilization must be relatively easy and effective to avoid infection at the time of implantation. The material should be non inflammatory, non immunogenic and available in sufficient quantity for widespread utilization. The material should be conducive for vascularization and cellular ingrowth. Finally, the material and its degradative products should be free of any mutagenic or carcinogenic potential [54,55]. Collagen is used today as a biomaterial partly due to its adherence to the above criteria.

Native collagen extracted from animal tissues is inherently impure. Purification of native collagen must maintain the integrity of collagen in terms of molecular and fibrillar structure. The use of collagen as a biomaterial is linked to its low potential for immunological complications when purified [56]. Some antigenic sites of collagen reside in the non helical or telopeptide region [57]. Removal of these regions by enzymatic treatment may result in decreased antigenicity. Purification of collagen from tissues such as bovine skin using enzymatic techniques reduce the collagen to single molecules. Purification using non enzymatic techniques exist which maintain the fibrillar structure of collagen [57]. Structural glycoproteins as well as other miscellaneous tissue components must also be removed during the purification process.

Increased knowledge of collagen chemistry has led to the creation of many collagen based biomaterials with a wide range of functions. A list of existing biomaterials using reconstituted collagen in various forms can be seen in table 2 [5,53]. These biomaterials require high purity of collagen to minimize implant antigenicity. Collagen based biomaterials degrade with time due to the presence of degradative enzymes [3]. Crosslinking of collagen

Table 2: Forms and applications of collagen in medical devices [5]

Form of Collagen	Application
Solution	Plasma expander
gel	cosmeticum
flour	hemostatic agent
fibers	sutures, weaving of blood vessels, valve prosthesis
membrane	corneal replacement, wound dressing, hemodialysis
sponge	wound dressing, surgical tampons, vaginal contraceptive
tubing	vessel prosthesis, reconstruction of hollow organs such as the esophagus and trachea

can control the degradation rate of collagen in vivo [3]. Native collagen molecules are crosslinked after an enzyme catalyzed modification during molecular packing into native fibrils in vivo. However, collagen crosslinking can be controlled through the use of physical techniques or chemical agents in vitro. By controlling crosslink density, one can control biodegradation time of a subcutaneous collagen implant, the capacity of collagen to absorb water, the solubility of collagen, the tensile strength of the collagen fibers, and the rate of collagen degradation by enzymes. Methods for crosslinking include drying, ageing, anhydrous heating and chemical treatment using formaldehyde, glutaraldehyde, succinaldehyde, glyoxal, acrolein, carbodiimides, and diisocyanate compounds [58-63]. The type of crosslinking, which is directly related to the biodegradation rate in vivo, is usually selected based upon tissue ingrowth and biomaterial properties required for the particular application. Also, the use of collagen based implants to serve as a template or scaffold for tissue regeneration is useful due to its inert products of degradation.

Cell Growth on Collagen Matrices

Wound repair involves many processes including

cell migration, biosynthesis and deposition of connective tissue components, deposition and remodeling of granulation tissue. Type I collagen has been found to promote fibroblast proliferation in vitro [64]. It has also been shown to be a good scaffold for growth of hard tissue indicated by increases in alkaline phosphatase activity, presence of mineral and increased mechanical properties of the matrix upon cell infiltration [64]. For soft tissue applications, migration, growth, and proliferation of fibroblast cells has been enhanced using collagen matrices [65-67]. It has been shown that collagen matrices are effective in closing skin ulcers which would normally lead to exposure of tendon, muscle, and bone if left untreated [17]. It has been recognized that growth, differentiation, and replication of many cell types in culture is assisted by collagen and collagen-containing substrates. The majority of work to date has been done with type I collagen isolated from bovine hide. Type I collagen alone has proved to be a useful matrix for many cell types even though in vivo, a wide dispersity of collagenous and non collagenous components exist [53,66-69]. To date, various uses for type I collagen matrices exist such as scaffolds for artificial skin, bone, and cell-seeded burn dressings [68,69]. Immobilization of enzymes or cells onto the collagen provides a "living" bioreactor [70]. This use of collagen matrices may have great commercial value with the increase in collagen technology.

Clinical Applications

Type I collagen has been used in a wide variety of applications (Tables 1 and 2). The most successful applications of collagen exploit its unique biological characteristics, for which no synthetic substitute material currently exists. These characteristics for medical devices include minimal antigenicity, which can be reduced further through crosslink control, attachment sites for many cell lines, hemostatic capability, a mild inflammatory response when implanted, and the relative abundance of natural sources. Taking advantage of some of the biological characteristics described above, one of the most commercially successful medical uses of collagen in the past has been the subcutaneous implantation of soluble collagen for the repair of dermatological defects. The physical characteristics of soluble collagen allow it to polymerize at body temperatures

and thus from a stable subcutaneous gel. In approximately 95% of clinical cases, the implant produces a limited cellular response, becoming rapidly populated by host fibroblasts [6,7]. The material becomes vascularized and remains histologically stable for 6 to 18 months.

Collagen Composite Technology

The most recent advances have come in collagen composite technology. Collagen composites used for orthopaedic, dental, and wound care show great promise for repair and replacement of hard and soft tissues [53,64,71]. Again, the key characteristic of these materials is the use of collagen as a scaffold material for cellular ingrowth and proliferation. The other composite components are important in mineral deposition, and cell migration. In dental application, collagen can be used as a carrier substance for hydroxyapatite delivery. Use of a collagen matrix for this purpose makes application easier and insures that the hydroxyapatite does not travel to other body sites along with spreading the healing process. Mathematical modeling now exists to predict mechanical properties of collagen based composites making material design and selection easier for a specific application [53,64,72]. This is particularly useful for design of bone implants where material properties vary greatly depending upon location in the body. Biological composites are now being developed and at present seem to be the most promising materials for the future.

Collagen As a Hemostatic Agent

An established use of collagen has been as a hemostatic agent. It has been shown that a crosslinked collagen sponge can serve as an excellent hemostatic device stopping blood flow within 2 to 5 minutes [18]. Collagen sponges can hold up to 40 times their weight in fluid [18]. Collagen powders are currently marketed as hemostatic agents. Collagen has been used with great sophistication in hemostasis in an increasing number of procedures, including hepatic resectioning, splenic repair laparoscopy, and oral surgery [13-19]. Use of these materials is increasing due to the advent of newer more economical processing procedures for collagen devices.

Conclusions

Type I collagen is a very useful natural biomaterial for various applications. It can be used for wound healing and wound care where a scaffold is required for tissue regeneration such as artificial skin. It is useful in promoting cellular migration, growth and proliferation. It can be used for hemostasis. It can also be used in a composite form to provide a biomaterial with more complex properties such as for induction of bone growth and for dental applications. Its usefulness stems from its material and biological properties. New techniques are being developed to purify, process and manufacture collagen based materials economically in order to make most effective use of the unique properties of collagen.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Silver, F.H. *Biological Materials, Structure, properties and Modeling of Soft Tissues*, NYU press 1987, Chapters 1,6 and 7.
2. The Dermis, ed. montagna, W., benley P.J. Dobson, R.L.Appleton Century Crofts 1970, Chapter 1.
3. "Extracellular Matrix biochemistry" edited by piez, K. A. and Reddi, A. H.,Elsevier Science publishing Co.Inc., New york, N Y, 1984.
4. Pachenco, J.M., Berg, R.A. and Silver, F.A., *Collagen : Its place in the medical device and diagnostic Industry, medical Device and Diagnostic Industry*, 9, 49-55, 1987.
5. Chvapil, M., *Collagen sponge; theory and practice of medical applications*, J. Biomed. Malls. Res., 11, 721-741, 1977
6. Klein AW, "Implantation Techniques for injectable collagen", J Am Acad Derm, 9:224-228, 1983.
7. Knapp Tr, Luck E, And Daniles Jr, "Behaviour of solubilized Collagen as a Bioplant," J Surg Res, 23:96-105, 1977.
8. Stein Md, Salkin LM, Freedman AL, et al., "Collagen Sponge as a Topical Hemostatic Agent in mucogingival Surgery," J Periodontol, 56:35-38, 1985.
9. Mitchell R, "A New Biological Dressing for Areas Denduded of Mucous Memberane," Br Dent J, 155:346-348, 1983.
10. Yaffe A, Ehrlich J, And Shoshan S, "Biological Anchoring of Acrylic Tooth Implants in the Dog, Using Enriched Collagen Solution," Arch Oral Biol, 23: 415-419, 1978.
11. Harvey WK, Pincock JL, Matukas VJ, et al., "Evaluation of a Subcutaneously Implanted Hydroxylapatite Avitene mixture in Rabbits," J oral Maxillofac Surg, 43: 277-280, 1985.
12. Yaffe A, Ehrlich J, and Shoshan S, "Restoration of Periodontal Attachment, employing enriched Collagen Solution in Dog," J Periodontol, 55:823-828, 1984.
13. Mason Rg, and Read Ms, "Some Effects of Micro crystalline Collagen Preparation on Blood, Hemostasis, 3:31-46, 1974.
14. Colin D, Horton J, Ogden ME, et al., "Evaluation of Hemostatic Agents in Experimental Splenic Lacertions," Am L Surg, 145:256-259, 1983.
15. Borten M, and Friedman EA, "Translparoscopic Hemostasis with Microlibrillar Collagen in Lieu of Laparotomy," J Report Med, 28:804-806, 1983.
16. Peacock EE, Seigler HF, and Biggers PW, "Use of Tanned Collagen Sponges in the Treatment of Liver Injuries," Ann Surg, 161:238-247, 1965.
17. Hait Mr, Battista OA, Stark R, et al., "Microcrystalline Collagen as Biological Dressing, Vascular Prosthesis, and Hemostatic Agent," Surg Forum, 20:51-59,

1969. 18. Battista Oa, Cruz MM, and Hait Mr, Fibrous collagen derived product having hemostatic and wound-binding properties, U. S. Pat. 3, 742,955, 1973. 19. Cruz MM, Tenery JH, and Tressler LC, Fibrous collagen derived web having hemostatic and wound healing properties, U.S. Pat. 4,016,887, 1977. 20. Adler Rh, Pelcanos NT, Geil RG, et al., "A Collagen Mesh Prosthesis for Wound Repair and Hernia Reinforcement," Surg Forum, 13:29-31, 1962. 21. Höll-Allen RTJ, "porcine Dermal Collagen Repair of Inguinal Hernias," J Royal Col Surg Edin, 29:154-157, 1984. 22. Sarmah BD, and Holl-Allen RTJ, "Porcine Dermal Collagen Repair of Inguinal Hernias," Br J Surg, 71:524-525, 1984. 23. Parker G, White T, and Jenkins R, "Surgical Repair of Extratemporal Facial Nerve: A Comparison to Suture Repair and microfibrillar Collagen Repair," Laryngo scope, 94: 950-953, 1984. 24. De La Torre Jc, Hill Pk, Conzalez-Carvajal M, et al., "Evaluation of Transcortical Spinal Cord Regeneration in the Rat," Exp Neuro, 84: 188-206, 1984. 25. Colin C, and Donoff RB, "Nerve Regeneration through Collagen Tubes," J Dent Res, 63:987-993, 1984. 26. Berfer J, and Struck H, "Experimental Studies on Fracture Healing: Accelerated Fracture Healing through Soluble Heterologous Collagen," Arch Surg, 106:838-842, 1973. 27. Moskow Bs, Gold SI, and Gotsegen R, "Effect of Scleral Collagen upon the Healing of Experimental Osseous Wounds," J Periodontol, 47:596-606, 1976. 28. Speer DP, Chvapil M, Volz Rg, et al, "Enhancement of Healing in Osteochondral Defects by Collagen Sponge Implants," Clin orthop Relat Res, 144:326-335, 1979. 29. Dunn MW, Nishihara T, Stenzel KH, et al., "Collagen Derived Membranes: Corneal Implantation," J Scien, 157:1329-1330, 1967. 30. Tanner JC, Smith Jp, Bradley Wh, et al., "Lamellar Keratoplasty: Use of Collagen Graft for Corneal Replacement," Eye Ear nose Throat Mon, 47:368-372, 1968. 31. Apanay MB, and Tanner Jc, "Excision of Corneal Burns and Use of Collagen Graft," Surg Forum, 20:483-372, 1968. 32. L'Esperance FA, "Reconstituted Collagen Tape in Retinal Detachment Surgery," Arch ophthalmol, 73:472-475, 1965. 33. Abbenhaus JI, MacMahon Ra, Rosenkrantz JG, et al., "Collagen sheets as a Dressing for Large Exposed Areas," Surg forum, 16:477, 1965. 34. Chernosky ME, "Collagen Implant in Management of Perleche," J Am Acad Derm, 12:493-496, 1985. 35. Holl-Allen RTJ, "Porcine Dermal Collagen Implants in Man," J Royal Col Surg Edin, 29:151-153, 1984. 36. Kaisary Av, Luck Rj, And Pendower JEH, "Use of Collagen Implant for Posterior Rectopexy in Complete Rectal Prolapse: Preliminary Communication," J Royal Soc Med, 77:01-203, 1984. 37. Shakespeare PG, and Griffiths RW, "Dermal Collagen Implants in Man," Lancet, April, PP 795-796, 1980. 38. Tachibana M, Nagamatsu GR, and Addonizo JC, "Uteral Replacement Using Collagen Sponge Tube Grafts," J urol, 133:866-869, 1985. 39. Stenzel KH, Miyata T, and Rubin AJ, "Collagen as a Biomaterial," Ann Rev Biophys, 3:231-253, 1974. 40. Tanner JC, Marcucci Ma, and Brodley WH, "Partial Nephrectomy and Use of Collagen Grafts for Renal Wound Closure," J Urol, 99:710-712, 1968. 41. Benjamin HB, Kaplan S, and Kroidl R, "Myocardial Metabolism after Collagen Tube Revascularization of the Ischemic Heart: Experimental Study and Review of the Literature," J Am Geriat Soc, 20:241-254, 1972. 42. Krajcok M, Zastava V, and Chvapil M, "Collagen-Fabric Vascular Prosthesis: Biological and Morphological Experience," J Surg Res, 4:290-306, 1964. 43. Chvapi M, and Krajcok M, "Principle and Construction of a Highly porous Collagen Fabric Vascular Graft," J Surg Res, 11:358-371, 1963. 44. Nimmi Me, and Cheung DT, Coating for bioprosthetic device and method of making same, U.S. Pat. 4,378,224, 1983. 45. Ksander GA, and Gray L, "Reduced Caspule Formation around Soft Silicone Rubber Prosthesis Coated with solid Collagen," Ann Plast Surg, 14:351-358, 1985. 46. Miyata T, Material comprised of heparinized collagen for antithrombotic artificial blood, vesseles, European Pat. 92, 414, 1983. 47. Okamura S, and Hino T, Method for manufacturing medical articles composed of silicone rubber-coated with collagen, U.S. Pat 3, 955,012, 1976. 48. Nilacy SS, Breast prosthesis with biological absorbable outer container, U.,S. Pat. 3,955,012, 1976. 49. El-Samaligy Ms, and Rohdewald P, "Reconstituted Collagen Nanoparticles: A Novel Drug Carrier Drug Delivery System," J Pjaram Pharmacol, 35:537-539, 1983. 50. Kincl FA, Ciaccio La, and Henderson SB, "Collagen as a Drug Carrier," Arch Pharm, 317:657-661, 1984. 51. Miyata T, producing a Collagen carrier for medical, e. g., ophthalmological-mfg. succinylated collagen from sterilized calf skin, U.S. Pat. 4, 164,559, 1979. 52. Teramatsu T, Antibiotic composite for medical use: coating polymer film with collagen and fixing polymycin B to collagen, Japanese Pat. 56, 161,046, 1981. 53. Jain MK, Micromechanical properties of collagen based implants Ph.D. Thesis, 1989. 54. Ellingsworth, L.R.; Deluistro, F.; Bremman, J.E.; Sawamura, S. and McPherson, J. (1986), "The human response to reconstituted bovine collagen," The J. Immunology, 136:3, PP. 887-892. 55. Siegle, R.J., McCoy Jr., P., Schade, W. and Swanson, N.A. (1984), "Intradermal implantation of bovine collagen: Humoral Immune Responses Associated with Clinical Reactins", Arch. Dermatol., 120, PP. 183-187. 56. Friedman, M. J., Sherman, O.H. Fox, J.M., Del pizzo, W., Snyder, S.J. and Ferkel, R.J. (1985), "Autogenic anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) anterior reconstruction of the knee", Clin. Orthop. and related reserach, 196, PP. 9-14. 57. Coodship, A.E. and cooke, p. (1986), "Biocompatibility of tendon and ligament prostheses." CRC critical reviews in Bioncompatibility , 2, PP. 303-334. 58. Gustavson KH, Chemistry of the Tanning process, New york, Academic press, PP 249-268, 1956. 59. Cheung DT, and Nimmi NE, "Mechanism of Cross Linking of proteins by Glutaraldehyde," Conn Tiss Res, 10: 187-199, 1982. 60. Bowes JI, and Cater CW, "The interaction of Aldehydes with Collagen," Biochim Biophys Acta, 168:341-352, 1968. 61. WoldF, "Bifunctional Regents," Meth enzym, 15:623-654, 1972. 62. Sheehan JC, and Hivaka JJ, "Use of Soluble and Basic Carbodiimides in Petide Synthesis," J organ Chem, 21:439-441, 1956. 63. Schmidt-Thome A, and linder B, plasma substitutes from collagen decomposition products, German Pat. 1155134, 1963. 64. Jain MK, Berg RA, Material properties of hard tissue substitutes, Man. In Prep. 65. Bell E, Tissue-equivalent and method for preparation thereof, U.S. Pat. 4,485,096, 1985. 66. Doillon, C.J., Whyne, C. F., Brandwein, S., and Silver, F.A., Collagen based wound dressings: control of the pore structure and morphology, J. Biomed. Matls. Res., 20, 1219-1228, 1986. 67. Doillon, C.J. Berg, R.A., and Silver, F.H., Collagen based wound dressings effects of hyaluronic acid and fibronectin on wound healing, Biomaterials, 7, 3-8, 1987. 68. Yannas, I.V., Burke, J.F., Orgill, D.P., and Huang, C., US patent 4,060,081, 1977. 69. Yannas, I.V., Burke, J.F., Orgill, D.P., and Skrabut, E.M., Wound tissue can utilize a polymeric template to synthesize a functional extension of skin, Science, 215, 174-176, 1982. 70. Chibata I, and Tosa T, "Immobilized Microbial Cells and Their Applications," Trends Biochem Sci, 4:88-90, 1980. 71. Jain MK, Chernomorsky A, Silver FH, Berg RA, Material Properties of Soft Tissue Substitutes, J Biomed. Matls. Res., 22(A3), 311-326, 1988. 72. Jain MK, Tandon GP, Berg RA, Stress Effects on Cellular Metabolism, Biomaterials, accepted with revisions. 1989