

Multiresponsive 4D Printable Hydrogels with Anti-Inflammatory Properties

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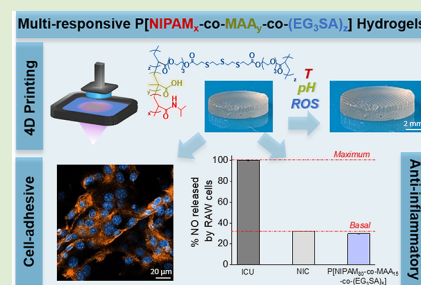
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ABSTRACT: Multiresponsive hydrogels are valuable as biomaterials due to their ability to respond to multiple biologically relevant stimuli, i.e., temperature, pH, or reactive oxygen species (ROS), which can be present simultaneously in the body. In this work, we synthesize triple-responsive hydrogels through UV light photopolymerization of selected monomer compositions that encompass thermoresponsive *N*-isopropylacrylamide (NIPAM), pH-responsive methacrylic acid (MAA), and a tailor-made ROS-responsive diacrylate thioether monomer (EG₃SA). As a result, smart P[NIPAM_x-co-MAA_y-co-(EG₃SA)_z] hydrogels capable of being manufactured by digital light processing (DLP) 4D printing are obtained. The thermo-, pH-, and ROS-response of the hydrogels are studied by swelling tests and rheological measurements at different temperatures (25 and 37 °C), pHs (3, 5, 7.4, and 11), and in the absence or presence of ROS (H₂O₂). The hydrogels are employed as matrixes for the encapsulation of ketoprofen (KET), an anti-inflammatory drug that shows a tunable release, depending on the hydrogel composition and stimuli applied. The cytotoxicity properties of the hydrogels are tested *in vitro* with mouse embryonic fibroblasts (NIH 3T3) and RAW 264.7 murine macrophage (RAW) cells. Finally, the anti-inflammatory properties are assessed, and the results exhibit a ≈70% nitric oxide reduction up to base values of pro-inflammatory RAW cells, which highlights the anti-inflammatory capacity of P[NIPAM₈₀-co-MAA₁₅-co-(EG₃SA)₅] hydrogels, *per se*, without being necessary to encapsulate an anti-inflammatory drug within their network. It opens the route for the fabrication of customizable 4D printable scaffolds for the effective treatment of inflammatory pathologies.



Multiresponsive hydrogels, also known as intelligent or smart hydrogels, can undergo controlled shape changes in response to more than one stimulus, which has attracted great attention in the biomedical field for drug delivery,¹ tissue engineering,^{2,3} cancer therapy,⁴ or biosensing.^{5,6} Their ability to change their properties upon response to biological (i.e., temperature, pH, enzyme activity, reactive oxygen species), and/or external stimuli, (i.e., light, electrical or magnetic field),^{7–9} make them ideal candidates for 4D printing, a cutting-edge technology for manufacturing customizable dynamic materials combining 3D printing and stimuli-responsiveness.^{10,11}

The design of tailor-made stimuli-responsive polymers allows to provide specific and simultaneous responses to different stimuli, a common scenario in biology.^{12–16} Poly(*N*-isopropylacrylamide) (PNIPAM) is the most studied polymer to develop thermoresponsive hydrogels. PNIPAM displays a reversible volume phase transition through swelling at temperatures below the so-called lower critical solution temperature (LCST ~ 32 °C) and shrinking above it.³ This swelling/shrinking process has been modulated through copolymerization with other monomers, which in turn confer responsiveness to other environmental stimuli such as pH.¹² For example, copolymers of PNIPAM and methacrylic acid (MAA) or acrylic acid (AA) can be deprotonated at high pHs,

above their pK_a, endowing hydrogels with pH-response in addition to temperature sensitivity.¹⁷ PMAA and PAA hydrogels have also been exploited for targeted drug release as they acted as drug protectors at acidic conditions in the stomach to be later released at higher pH ~ 8 in the gastrointestinal tract.¹⁸ The dual response of P[NIPAM-co-MAA] and P[NIPAM-co-PAA] copolymers to temperature and pH changes has also been studied by many authors for controlled drug release.^{19–21} More recently, the use of reactive oxygen species (ROS), oxidant species present in the human body, has drawn attention as possible stimuli for responsive hydrogels. ROS effect can vary from beneficial cell survival to non-desirable oxidative stress when they are overproduced, thus causing inflammation, cancer, and age-related diseases.^{22,23} Among different types of ROS-responsive polymers (i.e., sulfides, diselenides, thioketals, aryl boronic esters, etc.), those bearing thioether groups present interesting hydrophobic to

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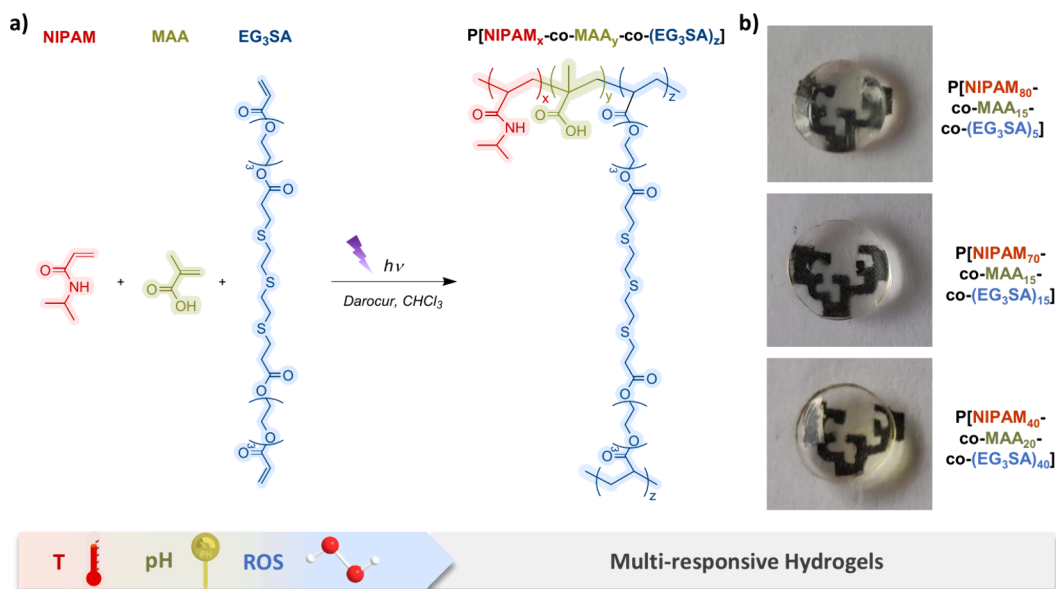


Figure 1. (a) Chemical route employed for the synthesis of $P[\text{NIPAM}_x\text{-co-MAA}_y\text{-co-(EG}_3\text{SA)}_z]$ hydrogels by UV light at 365 nm for 3–5 min and using Darocur as a photoinitiator. (b) Pictures of the synthesized hydrogels with different monomer ratios.

hydrophilic transitions when oxidized by ROS without requiring cleavage.^{24–27} Very recently, we developed ROS-responsive photopolymerizable thioether-based hydrogels through the synthesis of aqueous soluble redox monomers from oligomers of ethylene glycol sulfur diacrylate (EG_3SA). The resulting hydrogels were used as 5-Fluorouracil carriers to inhibit the growth of melanoma cancer cells.²⁸

Considering that overproduction of ROS in tumor/inflamed areas is generally linked to pH changes becoming slightly acidic (pH 5.4–7.1),^{29,30} the development of intelligent hydrogels that respond simultaneously to ROS, acidic pH, and body temperature is an interesting approach to modulate the simultaneous multistimulation in complex biological environments. Here, we have synthesized multiresponsive hydrogels through UV-light photopolymerization of a selected monomers mixture consisting of thermoresponsive NIPAM, pH-responsive MAA, and a tailor-made ROS-responsive EG_3SA monomer. $P[\text{NIPAM}_x\text{-co-MAA}_y\text{-co-(EG}_3\text{SA)}_z]$ hydrogels' response to external stimuli (temperature, pH, and ROS) and controlled-release properties are investigated. Their additive manufacturing through digital light processing (DLP) 4D printing is also performed to obtain customizable hydrogels. Finally, we show that the hydrogels display anti-inflammatory properties.

$P[\text{NIPAM}_x\text{-co-MAA}_y\text{-co-(EG}_3\text{SA)}_z]$ hydrogels were synthesized by copolymerization of three different responsive monomers, thermoresponsive NIPAM ($x = 80, 70$ or 40% mol), pH-responsive MAA ($y = 15, 15$ or 20%mol), and ROS-responsive EG_3SA ($z = 5, 15$ or 40%mol). Then, the hydrogels were obtained by UV-light photopolymerization ($\lambda = 365$ nm) using Darocur 1173 (2-hydroxy-2-methylpropiophenone) as a photoinitiator and 30 wt % CHCl_3 as a sacrificial solvent (Figure 1). In all cases, transparent hydrogels were formed.

The chemical characterization of the hydrogels was performed by infrared spectroscopy (Figure S1). The peak at 1720 cm^{-1} is attributed to $\text{C}=\text{O}$ vibrations of the acid carbonyl groups of MAA and the acrylate groups of EG_3SA . The peaks at 1650, 1540, and 1130 cm^{-1} are assigned to $\text{C}=\text{O}$, $\text{N}-\text{H}$, and $\text{C}-\text{N}$ stretching of amide groups present in

NIPAM. The peak at around 1455 cm^{-1} is attributed to $\text{C}-\text{H}$ bending in the $-(\text{CH}_3)_2$ and $-\text{CH}_2$ groups of NIPAM and MAA,³¹ and the peaks at 690 and 715 cm^{-1} are the signatures of symmetric and asymmetric dimethyl sulfide bonds, respectively. After H_2O_2 treatment, thioether groups of EG_3SA are oxidized into sulfoxides and/or sulfones, as corroborated by the appearance of two peaks at 1020 and 1320 cm^{-1} corresponding to the stretching of the double bond $\text{S}=\text{O}$ in sulfoxides and $\text{O}=\text{S}=\text{O}$ in sulfones, respectively.²⁸

The response of the hydrogels to different stimuli, ROS, temperature, and pH, was tested (Figure 2a). Four different scenarios can be considered. (i) Single pH-response: under nonoxidative conditions (PBS) at room temperature ($25\text{ }^\circ\text{C} < \text{LCST}$ of PNIPAM) and different pHs, swelling is controlled by the protonation state of MAA (Figure 2b). $P[\text{NIPAM}_{80}\text{-co-MAA}_{15}\text{-co-(EG}_3\text{SA)}_5]$ hydrogels exhibited a ≈ 140 wt % swelling at pH 7.4. Increasing the EG_3SA percentage resulted in cross-linking points and more reticulated hydrogels with less water-holding capacity decreasing the swelling of $P[\text{NIPAM}_{40}\text{-co-MAA}_{20}\text{-co-(EG}_3\text{SA)}_{40}]$ up to $\approx 10\%$ wt. At acidic pHs ($< \text{p}K_a \approx 5.5$ of PMAA), carboxylic groups of PMAA are protonated (COOH) and hydrogels shrank, decreasing the swelling. For $P[\text{NIPAM}_{80}\text{-co-MAA}_{15}\text{-co-(EG}_3\text{SA)}_5]$ hydrogels, a decrease of up to ≈ 47 wt % at pH 3 was observed, while swelling was almost negligible for $P[\text{NIPAM}_{40}\text{-co-MAA}_{20}\text{-co-(EG}_3\text{SA)}_{40}]$. At alkaline pH 11, COO^- deprotonates, promoting the swelling of $P[\text{NIPAM}_{80}\text{-co-MAA}_{15}\text{-co-(EG}_3\text{SA)}_5]$ hydrogels up to $\approx 215\%$ wt. (ii) Dual thermo- and pH-response under nonoxidative conditions (PBS) at $37\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ($> \text{LCST}$ of PNIPAM) and different pHs (Figure 2c): At this temperature, hydrogels contract due to the presence of PNIPAM. The swelling of $P[\text{NIPAM}_{80}\text{-co-MAA}_{15}\text{-co-(EG}_3\text{SA)}_5]$ hydrogels decreased up to ≈ 93 wt % at pH 7.4 and ≈ 17 wt % at pH 3, whereas for $P[\text{NIPAM}_{70}\text{-co-MAA}_{15}\text{-co-(EG}_3\text{SA)}_{15}]$ and $P[\text{NIPAM}_{40}\text{-co-MAA}_{20}\text{-co-(EG}_3\text{SA)}_{40}]$ hydrogels with a larger content of EG_3SA , the high cross-linking degree induced similar swelling values to those observed at $25\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. The same tendency was observed at pH 11 ($> \text{p}K_a$ of PMAA). (iii) Dual ROS- and pH-response under oxidative conditions (9 mM H_2O_2) at $25\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and

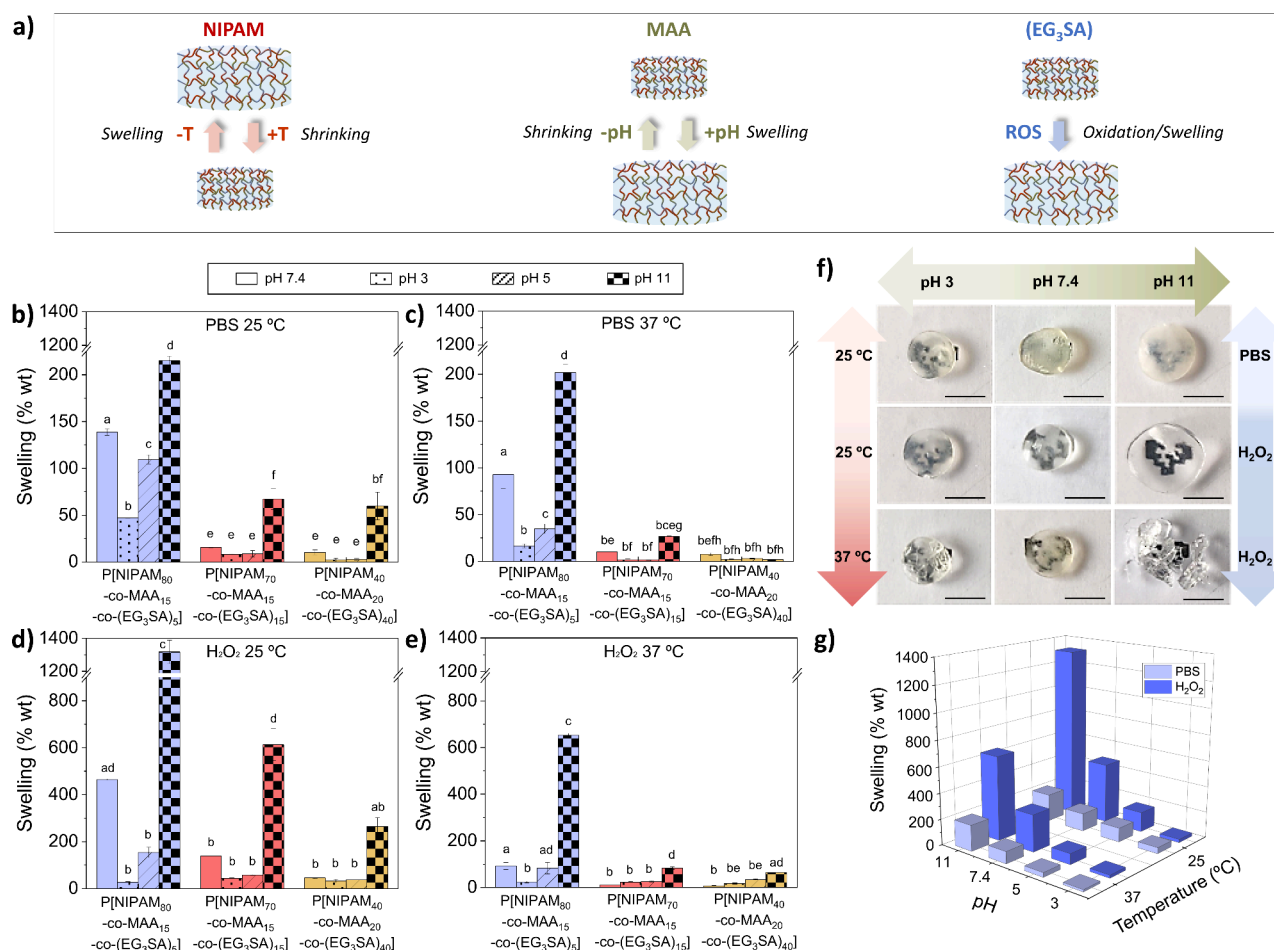


Figure 2. (a) Schematic representation of the swelling/shrinking behavior of each monomer within the P[NIPAM_x-co-MAA_y-co-(EG₃SA)_z] hydrogels in response to external stimuli, temperature, pH, and/or ROS. (b) Swelling of P[NIPAM_x-co-MAA_y-co-(EG₃SA)_z] hydrogels at different pHs immersed in (b) PBS at 25 °C, (c) PBS at 37 °C, (d) 9 mM H₂O₂ at 25 °C, and (e) 9 mM H₂O₂ at 37 °C, for 24 h. Diagrams (b)–(e) include the mean and standard deviation ($n = 3$) and the ANOVA results. Different letters indicate statistically significant differences at a significance level of $p < 0.05$ using Tukey's test. Bars with no common letters are significantly different ($p < 0.05$). (f) Representative pictures of P[NIPAM₈₀-co-MAA₁₅-co-(EG₃SA)₅] hydrogels after 24 h at different temperatures, pHs, and under nonoxidant (PBS) or oxidant (H₂O₂) conditions. Scale bars = 5 mm. (g) Swelling comparison of P[NIPAM₈₀-co-MAA₁₅-co-(EG₃SA)₅] hydrogels at different temperatures (25 and 37 °C) and pHs (3, 5, 7.4 and 11), in Phosphate Buffer Solution (PBS) or H₂O₂.

different pHs (Figure 2d): P[NIPAM₈₀-co-MAA₁₅-co-(EG₃SA)₅] hydrogels experienced a huge swelling of ≈ 465 wt % at pH 7.4 due to the oxidation of the thioether groups present in the EG₃SA domains, which led to more hydrophilic hydrogels. This effect was less pronounced in hydrogels with a larger content of EG₃SA due to their higher cross-linking density. All hydrogels exhibited the highest swelling properties in H₂O₂ at pH 11, as all copolymer components are in the most hydrophilic state, holding the largest quantity of water, ≈ 1320 wt % for P[NIPAM₈₀-co-MAA₁₅-co-(EG₃SA)₅], ≈ 615 wt % for P[NIPAM₇₀-co-MAA₁₅-co-(EG₃SA)₁₅], and ≈ 265 wt % for P[NIPAM₄₀-co-MAA₂₀-co-(EG₃SA)₄₀]. (iv) Triple ROS-, thermo-, and pH-response under oxidative conditions (9 mM H₂O₂) at 37 °C and different pHs, where all monomers are involved in the stimuli-responsive properties (Figure 2e): The least cross-linked P[NIPAM₈₀-co-MAA₁₅-co-(EG₃SA)₅] hydrogels presented the highest swelling at all pHs (Figures 1f,g and S2). At pH 7.4, P[NIPAM₈₀-co-MAA₁₅-co-(EG₃SA)₅] hydrogels showed the lowest swelling (≈ 93 wt %), as they contained the highest percentage of PNIPAM. The swelling decreased with the pH up to ≈ 8 wt % at pH 3 due to the combination of the shrinking behavior of PNIPAM and PMAA that

camouflaged the hydrophilic oxidation properties of PEG₃SA. At alkaline pH 11, the swelling increased exponentially due to the deprotonation of COO⁻ groups of PMAA together with the more hydrophilic oxidized PEG₃SA, which led to the hydrogel's breaking, probably due to the high pressure produced by the water, which broke their network and made them difficult to handle.

P[NIPAM_n-co-MAA_m-co-(EG₃SA)_x] hydrogels were tested as scaffolds to encapsulate an anti-inflammatory drug, ketoprofen (KET). The KET release under different stimuli (temperature, pH, ROS; Figure 3a,b) was correlated with the hydrogels' swelling behavior (Figure 2). P[NIPAM₈₀-co-MAA₁₅-co-(EG₃SA)₅] and P[NIPAM₇₀-co-MAA₁₅-co-(EG₃SA)₁₅] hydrogels showed a much higher capability of releasing KET than P[NIPAM₄₀-co-MAA₂₀-co-(EG₃SA)₄₀], in agreement with swelling tests. P[NIPAM₈₀-co-MAA₁₅-co-(EG₃SA)₅] hydrogels released 0.26 mg/mL of KET after 24 h in PBS at pH 7.4 and 25 °C. The release decreased up to 0.21 mg/mL at 37 °C due to the NIPAM-induced shrinking trapping a higher part of KET molecules inside. The decrease of pH to 5, at 37 °C, induced a slight reduction of the KET released up to 0.19 mg/mL because of the MAA-induced

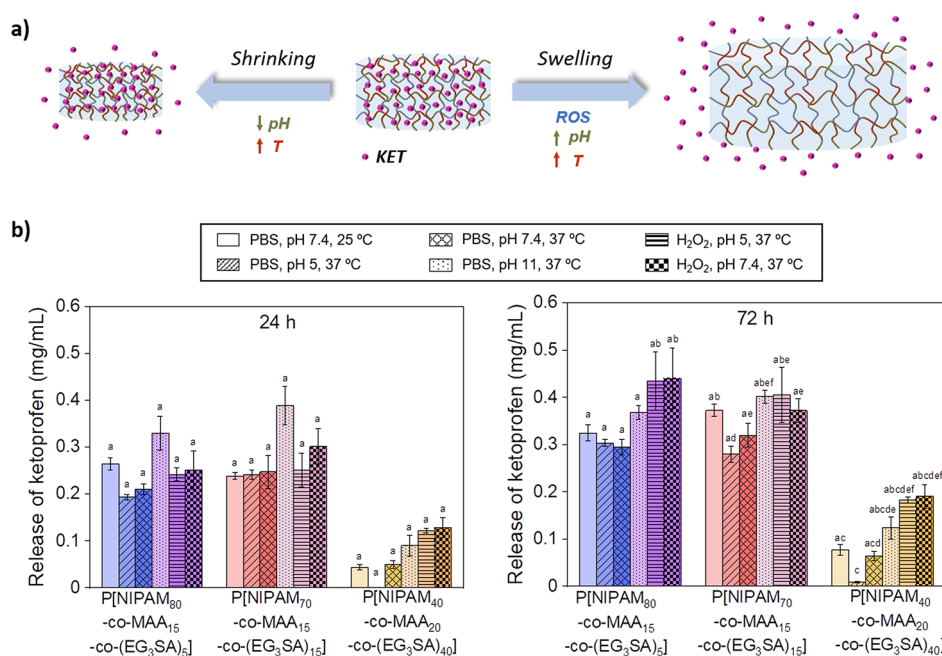


Figure 3. (a) Schematic representation of the ketoprofen (KET) release from P[NIPAM_x-co-MAA_y-co-(EG₃SA)_z] hydrogels under different conditions of temperature, pH, and ROS. (b) Release of KET from P[NIPAM_x-co-MAA_y-co-(EG₃SA)_z] hydrogels under nonoxidative conditions in PBS, and oxidative conditions in the presence of 9 mM H₂O₂, at 25 or 37 °C, and pH 5, 7.4, or 11 for 24 and 72 h. Diagrams include the mean and standard deviation ($n = 3$) and the ANOVA results. Different letters indicate statistically significant differences at a significance level of $p < 0.05$ using Tukey's test. Bars with no common letters are significantly different ($p < 0.05$).

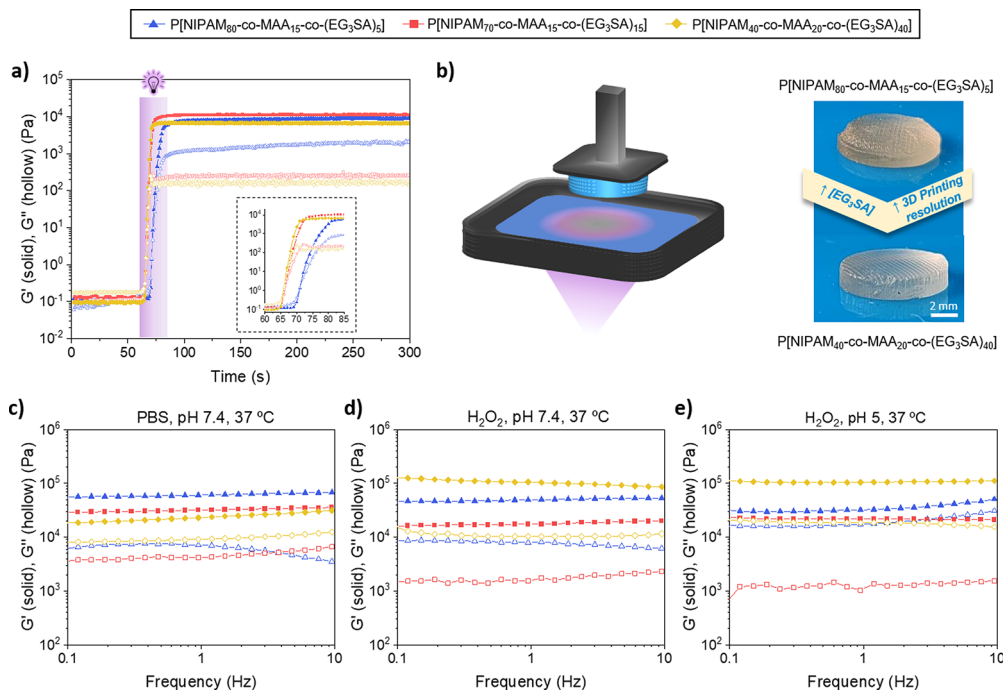


Figure 4. (a) Photorheological properties to determine the gel point ($G' > G''$) when the inks are irradiated for 10–20 s (from 60 s), leading to P[NIPAM_x-co-MAA_y-co-(EG₃SA)_z] hydrogels. (b) Schematic representation of the DLP process employed to print the hydrogels (left), and shape-defined 4D-printed P[NIPAM_x-co-MAA_y-co-(EG₃SA)_z] hydrogel scaffolds with pores (right). Rheological properties of P[NIPAM_x-co-MAA_y-co-(EG₃SA)_z] hydrogels in the presence of different stimuli: (c) PBS, pH 7.4, 37 °C, (d) H₂O₂, pH 7.4, 37 °C, and (e) H₂O₂, pH 5, 37 °C.

shrinking, while the pH increase to 11 increased the release (0.33 mg/mL). In the presence of H₂O₂ at pH 7.4 and 37 °C, the release of KET increased (0.27 mg/mL) due to the oxidation of the thioether groups of EG₃SA becoming more hydrophilic, while the decrease of pH slightly reduced the KET released (0.25 mg/mL). This hydrophilic effect is more evident

over time as the release of KET increased after 72 h. P[NIPAM₇₀-co-MAA₁₅-co-(EG₃SA)₁₅] hydrogels showed a similar behavior. The same trends were observed in the case of P[NIPAM₄₀-co-MAA₂₀-co-(EG₃SA)₄₀] hydrogels, although the concentration of KET released was much lower due to their higher cross-linking degree and consequently lower

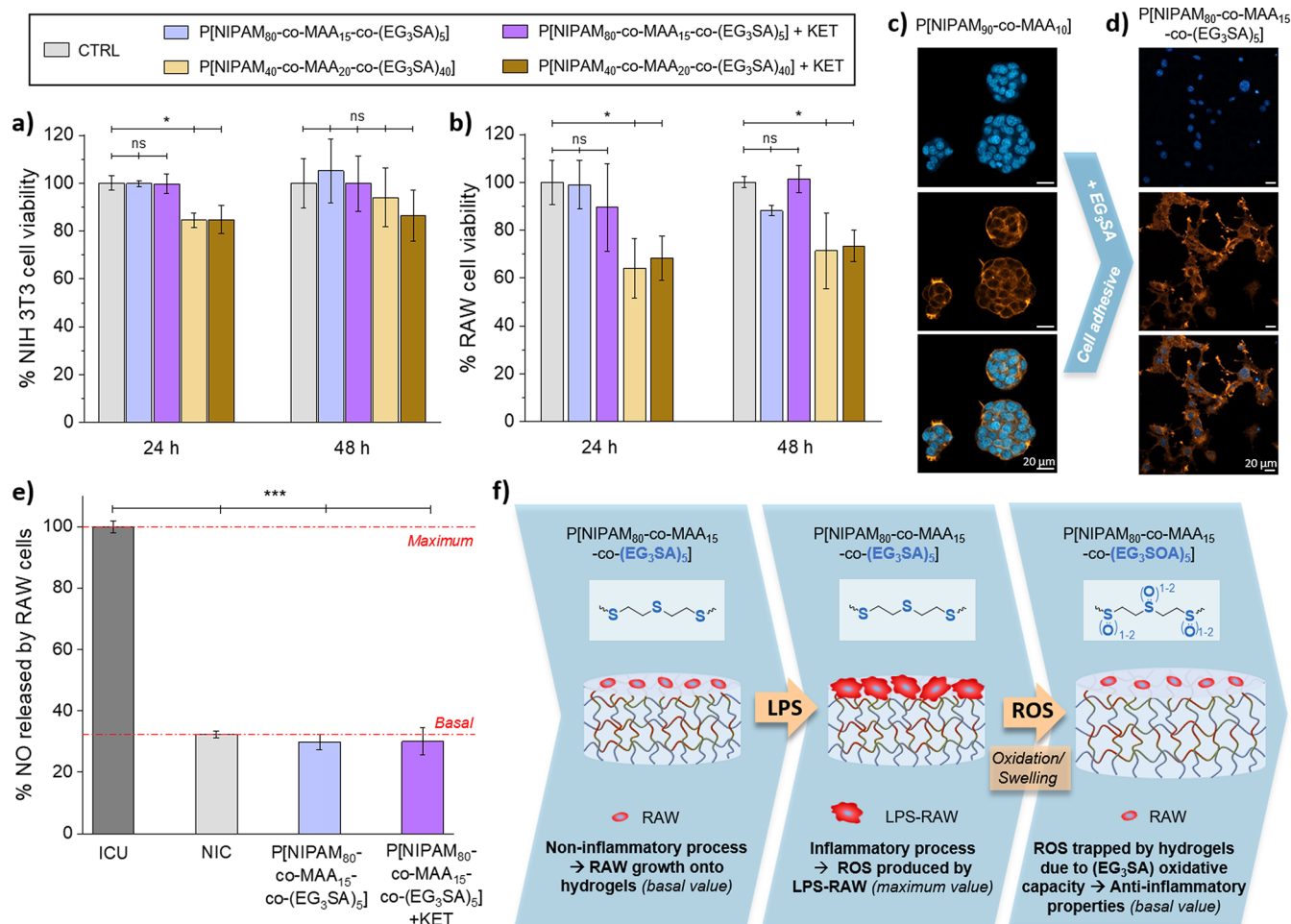


Figure 5. In vitro cytotoxicity tests of nonloaded and KET-loaded P[NIPAM_x-co-MAA_y-co-(EG₃SA)_z] hydrogels in contact with (a) NIH 3T3 and (b) RAW cells for 24 and 48 h. (c) NIH 3T3 cell adhesion on (c) P[NIPAM₉₀-co-MAA₁₀] and (d) P[NIPAM₈₀-co-MAA₁₅-co-(EG₃SA)₅] hydrogels. (e) Nitric oxide (NO) released by LPS-RAW cells seeded on the plate (ICU), non-LPS-RAW cells seeded on the plate (NIC), and LPS-RAW cells seeded on the hydrogels. Diagrams (a), (b), and (e) include the mean and standard deviation ($n = 3$) and the ANOVA results at significance levels of $*p < 0.05$ and $***p < 0.001$ using Tukey's test (ns means nonstatistically significant differences). (f) Schematic representation of the inflammatory process induced by the activation of RAW cells, growth on top of the hydrogels, with LPS leading to ROS production, and the anti-inflammatory properties of P[NIPAM₈₀-co-MAA₁₅-co-(EG₃SA)₅] hydrogels, which trapped ROS due to the oxidative capacity of the (EG₃SA) block.

swelling capacity. Therefore, all hydrogels were thermo-, pH-, and ROS- responsive leading to tunable KET release profiles.

The additive manufacturing by DLP 3D printing was initially studied by photorheology (Figure 4a). Before irradiation (0–60 s), the loss modulus (G'') was higher than the storage modulus (G'), pointing out the liquid-like state of the copolymer inks. After 60 s, the UV light was switched and the photopolymerization process started reaching a solid-like state ($G' > G''$) in a few seconds. The photopolymerization time decreased with an increase in the EG₃SA concentration from 20 s for P[NIPAM₈₀-co-MAA₁₅-co-(EG₃SA)₅] to 12 and 10 s for P[NIPAM₇₀-co-MAA₁₅-co-(EG₃SA)₁₅] and P[NIPAM₄₀-co-MAA₂₀-co-(EG₃SA)₄₀], respectively. As no significant differences were observed between hydrogels with 5% and 15% mol EG₃SA, only hydrogels with the lowest and highest percentage of this monomer, 5% and 40% mol, were studied in further experiments. The copolymers with 5% and 40% mol EG₃SA were successfully processed by DLP 3D printing to fabricate customized multihollow scaffolds (Figure 4b). Thanks to their stimuli-responsive properties, they became 4D-printable hydrogels. The printing resolution

increased with the percentage of EG₃SA monomer within the copolymers, but the hydrogels were more brittle. The mechanical properties in the presence of different stimuli were characterized by rheology. In all cases, G' was higher than G'' , corroborating the hydrogel formation (Figure 4c). Three different conditions were tested to characterize the hydrogels based on the most representative biological conditions: (i) Physiological mimicking conditions (PBS, pH 7.4, 37 °C): G' increased with NIPAM percentage within the hydrogels, from $\approx 2 \times 10^4$ Pa for P[NIPAM₄₀-co-MAA₂₀-co-(EG₃SA)₄₀] (Figure S3) to $\approx 6 \times 10^4$ Pa for P[NIPAM₈₀-co-MAA₁₅-co-(EG₃SA)₅] due to their higher contraction at physiological temperature making them less flexible. (ii) Oxidation in the presence of ROS (H₂O₂), which are present in inflammatory diseases,³² at pH 7.4 and 37 °C (Figure 4d). The mechanical properties were highly influenced by the thermoresponse of NIPAM and ROS-response of EG₃SA. G' increased up to $\approx 1 \times 10^5$ Pa in P[NIPAM₄₀-co-MAA₂₀-co-(EG₃SA)₄₀] hydrogels due to the higher percentage of EG₃SA that led to the formation of sulfoxides and sulfones, thus, allowing them to hold a high quantity of water and making them more brittle. (iii)

Oxidation (H_2O_2) at pH 5 and 37 °C (Figure 4e). No significant differences were observed in G' of P[NIPAM_{40-co}-MAA_{20-co}-(EG₃SA)₄₀] hydrogels between pH 7.4 and pH 5, probably because they reached the maximum swelling capacity before breaking. G' of P[NIPAM_{80-co}-MAA_{15-co}-(EG₃SA)₅] hydrogels decreased to $\approx 3 \times 10^4$ Pa because of the less amount of cross-linker EG₃SA and the higher elasticity of the oxidized chains.

The cytotoxicity of nonloaded and KET-loaded P[NIPAM_{x-co}-MAA_{y-co}-(EG₃SA)_z] hydrogels was tested *in vitro* with mouse embryonic fibroblasts (NIH 3T3) and RAW 264.7 murine macrophage (RAW) cells. These cell lines were selected as representative models involved in inflammatory processes during tissue repair,^{33–36} in which macrophages modulate inflammation and fibroblasts lay down a new extracellular matrix. P[NIPAM_{80-co}-MAA_{15-co}-(EG₃SA)₅] hydrogels were not cytotoxic, showing NIH 3T3 and RAW cell viabilities higher than 90% (Figure 5a,b). However, P-[NIPAM_{40-co}-MAA_{20-co}-(EG₃SA)₄₀] hydrogels reduced the viability of NIH 3T3 ($\approx 85\%$) and RAW ($\approx 65\%$) cells and were discarded for the next experiments. It was observed that the presence of the EG₃SA within P[NIPAM_{80-co}-MAA_{15-co}-(EG₃SA)₅] hydrogels favored the NIH 3T3 cell adhesion in comparison with P[NIPAM_{90-co}-MAA₁₀] hydrogels (Figure 5c,d). NIH 3T3 cell morphology was visualized by staining cell nuclei with Hoechst (blue staining) and cytoskeleton (F-actin fibers) with phalloidin-rhodamine (orange staining). On P[NIPAM_{80-co}-MAA_{15-co}-(EG₃SA)₅] hydrogels, NIH 3T3 cells showed an elongated morphology and cell spreading, which was not observed in P[NIPAM_{90-co}-MAA₁₀] hydrogels where fibroblasts exhibited a round morphology forming clusters. It is known that cell adhesion is influenced by chemical groups present on the surface of the hydrogels³⁷ and specifically enhanced by sulfonic groups,³⁸ which induce a reorganization of the actin cytoskeleton of fibroblasts.^{39,40} Thus, the thioether groups present on the EG₃SA domains favored the cell adhesion on P[NIPAM_{80-co}-MAA_{15-co}-(EG₃SA)₅] hydrogels. The anti-inflammatory properties of nonloaded and KET-loaded P[NIPAM_{80-co}-MAA_{15-co}-(EG₃SA)₅] hydrogels were tested in contact with RAW cells, which can polarize to their pro-inflammatory phenotype (M1) when they are activated by lipopolysaccharide (LPS) and start to overproduce nitric oxide (NO). The anti-inflammatory capacity of the hydrogels was determined by measuring the NO production of LPS-activated RAW cells (LPS-RAW) seeded on the hydrogels for 24 h (Figure 5e) in comparison with LPS-RAW cells seeded on the well plate (positive control, inflammatory conditions untreated - ICU) and non-LPS-activated RAW cells seeded on the hydrogels (negative control, noninflammatory conditions - NIC). The NO released by LPS-RAW cells seeded on top of P[NIPAM_{80-co}-MAA_{15-co}-(EG₃SA)₅] hydrogels decreased up to $29.9 \pm 2.6\%$ after 24 h, reaching the basal value of non-LPS-activated RAW cells on the hydrogels (NIC = $32.3 \pm 1.1\%$). Nonsignificant differences were detected in comparison with KET-loaded P[NIPAM_{80-co}-MAA_{15-co}-(EG₃SA)₅] hydrogels that also decreased the NO production ($30.1 \pm 4.4\%$) up to basal values. To quantify the anti-inflammatory capacity of P[NIPAM_{80-co}-MAA_{15-co}-(EG₃SA)₅] hydrogels, NO values were compared with those of LPS-RAW cells seeded on a plate and brought in contact with different ketoprofen concentrations (Figure S4). Results showed that NO released by LPS-RAW cells decreased up to basal values from 0.3 mg/mL KET approximately. Overall,

these results proved the excellent anti-inflammatory capacity of P[NIPAM_{80-co}-MAA_{15-co}-(EG₃SA)₅] hydrogels, *per se*, without encapsulating an anti-inflammatory drug (Figure 5e). At the initial stage, RAW cells are seeded on top of P[NIPAM_{80-co}-MAA_{15-co}-(EG₃SA)₅] hydrogels. They are in a noninflammatory stage and NO production is at the basal value. In the second stage, the inflammatory process is induced by activation of RAW cells with LPS and they start to overproduce NO (a type of ROS). Then, in the last stage, the ROS produced by LPS-RAW cells are trapped by the P[NIPAM_{80-co}-MAA_{15-co}-(EG₃SOA)₅] hydrogels in the oxidized EG₃SA domains formed by sulfoxides and sulfones (EG₃SOA), thus reducing the inflammatory process and the NO production by RAW cells up to basal values of noninflammatory conditions. This interesting achievement opens the route for the fabrication of 4D printable anti-inflammatory scaffolds in a customized manner with anti-inflammatory properties.

In conclusion, triple-responsive hydrogels were synthesized by photopolymerization of thermoresponsive NIPAM, pH-responsive MAA, and ROS-responsive EG₃SA monomers. Thus, it also allowed their additive manufacturing by DLP leading to 4D printed shape-defined hydrogels. The swelling properties of P[NIPAM_{x-co}-MAA_{y-co}-(EG₃SA)_z] hydrogels decreased with the temperature increase from 25 to 37 °C, due to the contraction of PNIPAM chains above their LCST, and with the pH decrease from 7.4 to 3, because of the protonation of the carboxylic groups of PMAA below their pK_a . On the contrary, swelling increased with the pH increase from 7.4 to 11, due to the deprotonation of carboxylic groups, and with the presence of ROS (i.e., H_2O_2) because of the oxidation of the thioether groups in EG₃SA into sulfoxides and sulfones making them more hydrophilic. P[NIPAM_{x-co}-MAA_{y-co}-(EG₃SA)_z] hydrogels were used as carriers for the controlled release of ketoprofen. The mechanical properties of the hydrogels were characterized by rheology showing a variation of the initial G' values ($\approx 10^4$ Pa) that depended on the applied stimuli and could reach up to $\approx 10^5$ Pa. Cell tests pointed out P[NIPAM_{80-co}-MAA_{15-co}-(EG₃SA)₅] hydrogels presented the optimal stimuli-responsive performance while being non-cytotoxic, at the same time they possessed anti-inflammatory properties *per se*.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

SI Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsmacrolett.4c00404>.

Materials and methods, ¹H NMR spectra of EG₃SA monomer in CDCl₃, FTIR spectra of P[NIPAM_{70-co}-MAA_{15-co}-(EG₃SA)₁₅] hydrogels at different conditions, representative pictures of P[NIPAM_{x-co}-MAA_{y-co}-(EG₃SA)_z] hydrogels under different conditions and swelling comparison, rheological properties of P-[NIPAM_{x-co}-MAA_{y-co}-(EG₃SA)_z] hydrogels in PBS at pH 7.4 and 25 °C, and nitric oxide (NO) released by RAW cells in the presence of different ketoprofen concentrations (PDF)

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The manuscript was written through the contributions of all authors. All authors have approved the final version of the manuscript. CRediT: **Maria Regato-Herbella** data curation, formal analysis, investigation, methodology, writing-original draft; **Daniele Mantione** investigation, methodology, writing-original draft; **Agustín Blachman** investigation, methodology, writing-original draft; **Antonela Gallastegui** investigation, methodology; **Graciela Cristina Calabrese** validation; **Sergio E. Moya** funding acquisition, validation, writing-review & editing; **David Mecerreyes** conceptualization, funding acquisition, project administration, supervision, writing-review & editing; **Miryam Criado-Gonzalez** conceptualization, data curation, formal analysis, investigation, methodology, supervision, writing-original draft, writing-review & editing.

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The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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