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Role of Tissue Engineering Used in The Production of Human Skin

Senthil J.[1*], Ashok K.[2], Babu M.[2] and Jayendran U.[3]

[1]Department of Biotechnology, Sharmila Institute of Medicinal Products Research Academy (Affiliated to Bharathidasan University), Tanjavur, Tamil Nadu, India
[2]Department of Microbiology and Biotechnology, School of Basic Sciences, BIHER, Chennai, Tamil Nadu, India
[3]Centre for Nanoscience and Nanotechnology, International Research Centre, Sathyabama Institute of Science and Technology, Chennai, Tamil Nadu, India

**Corresponding Author*
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Abstract: The skin is the body's largest structure, and serves an important function in preserving unity. For the durability of the organism as an external covering, the skin is necessary for heat control and maintenance of moisture. The skin is continuously regenerated and has a capacity to overhaul wound by repairing and regenerating various types of cutaneous cells. Noteworthy, progress has been achieved throughout the recent generation of skin alternatives that *in vitro* resemble replacement or modelling of human skin cells. By contrast, new skin alternatives do not fully restore healthy skin structure and are deficient in the covering of skin, sebaceous glasses, hair follicles and sweat glands. Enhancements in stem-cell biology and skin morphogenesis demonstrate considerable promise in the development of skin substitutions that are preferable hazy from regular skin.

Keywords: Skin, Tissue engineering, Artificial skin, Modelling, Skin replacement

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Introduction

Tissue engineering is expanding in order to redevelop newly catched material for the substitution of problem or wounded tissues as a new field of biomedical engineering (Silver, 1993). In order to do this, the cells needed to be strengthened are not only based on a required cell but also on a simulated extracellular matrix (ECM). Human skin represents approximately a tenth of its body's shape and it is subject to significant penalties for such damage as physical distress, infection, burn, sickness or operations (Nerem and Sambanis, 1995). Tissue engineering of skin replacements is a possible basis for enhanced therapy in the battle against chronic and acute skin injuries. There are currently no substantial prototypes of skin that fully mimic the composition, structure, organic constancy or healthy skin vision environment (Sittinger *et al.*, 1996). Alternates should have some significant physiognomies, such as easy to use and deployed

in the sight of wounds; vital blockade services that have appropriate aquatic fluidity; willing adhesion; physical and mechanical properties in keeping with; the experience of regular deprivation; disinfection, non-toxicity and non-antigeneicity; and negligible inflammatory effect (Eaglstein and Falanga, 1998). Furthermore, with minimum damage and pain and angiogenesis, they should join the congregation, while still cost effective (Naughton and Tolbert, 1996). The ultimate objective of tissue engineering is satisfied most or all of these requirements when original smart skin replacement is created.

Progressive and structural provisions:

The skin has epidermal and dermal sheets penetrated through a circulatory and neurological system with many different facets (Chevallay and Herbage, 2000). Underneath, the hypodermis is comprised of the tissue and fat. The basal layer and hair follicles of epidermal base cells and stem cells govern an unabated growth of the epidermal renewal (Germain *et al.*, 2000). The epidermis has additional cell types, which include melanocytes, cells of Langerhan and Merkel. The dermis has two strats: an upper papillary layer with a rheedy structure of collagen fibres and a dense lower reticular layer with abundant collagen fibres comparable to the surface of the skin (Nerem and Seliktar, 2001). The extracellular dermal matrix consists primarily of collagen, elastin and reticular fibres (Stock and Vacanti, 2001). The major components of the dermis are the collagen and proteoglycan matrix which provide for continual excretion.

The healing of foetal injuries reveals an absence of scar and fibrosis (Griffith and Naughton, 2002). The advancement is classified by low irritation and regeneration of healthy deposition of collagen and adnex skin (Li *et al.*, 2002). The dynamic development of the foetal skin is substantially different from the adult skin, as characterised by advanced intensities of the growth factor transforming (TGF)-β3 and minor stages of the platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF), TGF-β1 and TGF-β2 (Vats *et al.*, 2003). A notable development in the field of wound healing is the tissue-contriving skin. It is mostly connected to limitations associated with the use of autographs and allographer where the contributor is agonising because of dullness, pollution, and defects (Yang *et al.*, 2004). Recently, in particular, in cases of accidents, the primary preventative problem is the obtainability of autologous skin, skin replacements produced have covered wide presentations (MacNeil, 2007). The growth of a mimicked skin helps individuals with burns and many skin-related diseases to act (Ahmed *et al.*, 2008). The current study provides an encompassing overview of advances and future predictions for tissue overhaul and rejuvenation of alternative skin.

Actual skin replacement:

Autologous keratinocytes may be acquired and grown into interlinked epithelial layers, which can be shifted to large skin defects in the individual suffering (MacNeil, 2008). Holoclones are characterised as clonogenic keratinocytes that may be acquired from the skin and successively proliferated in cultures for more than 140 replicates and show that the multipotents are true stem cells based on their ability to remodel several lines on the skin (Rouwkema *et al.*, 2008). These built-in stem cells within these epithelial expands provide for the epidermis' healing and renewal. It has proved to be helpful to develop epidermal stem cells in fibrin settings or allogeneic dermis (Chen *et al.*, 2009). The finances greatly improved the receiving quantities of the implants, improved the wealth of implant management and operation and decreased the rejection of wounds and scarring. Autologous epidermal stem cell culture facilitates the acquirement of vast epithelial regions from a small skin sample; however, this procedure takes longer than several weeks (Wong and Chang, 2009). The installation of stem cells on a substance takes the essential time from a modest skin biopsy for a material that does not need the full confluence of the prior replacement to brand outsized epithelic layers onto the material (Böttcher-Haberzeth *et al.*, 2010). Moreover,

epidermal stem cells conceal the capacity to renovate the normal rolling dermal-epidermal connection and the artificial ration of the dermis called the papillary dermis in fibrin settings or allogeneic dermis (Paquet *et al.*, 2010). However, there is no repair of a full functional skin for these epidermal stem cell implications. After transfer of these implants, epidermal supplements comprising hair follicles, sebaceous glands, or sweat glands are not rebuilt, which means multifarious epithelial and mesenchymal links are required for the production of additions (Parenteau-Bareil *et al.*, 2010). Moreover, the implantations do not restore the new skin's automated properties or visual shape (Ikada, 2011). Enhancing stem cell biology and skin morphogenesis can extend skin production to exchange the normal usefulness and aesthetics of healthy skin. The skin is the most important component of the human body (Moulin *et al.*, 2011). The protection of the organism from environmental effects is one of its main responsibility. When both acute and chronic shield is gone, it has to restore itself in order to avoid end to its carrier's life (Mohamed and Xing, 2012). When the skin is injured, the damaged surface is re-epithelialised. Another major concern is the need for extra protection for severe wounds. This layer prevents drying and infection. It also directs cells through wound reparation and healing rates (Kamel *et al.*, 2013). This has led to the development of biological, synthetic dressings and replacements of skin. Wounds caused by enormous combustion made it essential to create several types of temporary and permanent replacement skin (Böttcher-Haberzeth *et al.*, 2014). This was necessary as the patient was unable to heal his skin alone. Certain characteristics from dermal and epidermal skin should be addressed in order to achieve a good long-term healing (Mahboob Morshed *et al.*, 2014). An artificial skin is no better than the original. Tissue engineers should thus concentrate their efforts on developing a universal skin that would be the greatest choice in the shortest period possible (Sundaramurthi *et al.*, 2014).

A scaffold for the synthesis of cells and ECM is utilised to construct a three-dimensional structure (Ribeiro *et al.*, 2015). The target region is characterised by appropriate cytokines and growth factors. It also promotes the newly created tissue's structure and activities. There are conditions for a scaffold to be able to offer all of this: it should be of a suitable internal structure, and should contain an area that can support the behaviour of cells such as adhesion, distinguishing, and proliferation. Its characteristics are based on the changes done to it and the biomaterial nature (Chaudhari *et al.*, 2016). Polymer scaffolds have a crucial function in tissue regeneration since they are sponginess and pore size. These concerns have been thoroughly discussed and addressed in many publications. In terms of allowing movement, adhesion and propagation, and also the spread of waste, oxygen and nutrients, porous organisation of scaffolds is crucial (Chen and Liu, 2016). Greater pores are certainly employed for nutrition delivery and waste disposal. On the other hand, small holes give a larger adhesive surface area. The procedures utilised to achieve varied pore sizes and porosities vary with the generation of the salt discharge, modified lyophilization, phase spread and application of numerous temperatures for frozen usage (Singh *et al.*, 2016).

Several kinds of skin tissue regeneration scaffolds are reported. Despite certain setbacks, the restoration of tissue and injury cures have proven remarkably successful (Solovieva *et al.*, 2018). Because of their varying porosity, they also succeed in supplying cells with regular nutrients and oxygen. Mechanical strength and bioconsistency may be a problem for the production of skirts, however, the future is hopeful for composites and ceramic kinds. Several biomaterials are used alone or in combination to produce scaffolds, both natural and manufactured (Jaganathan *et al.*, 2019). These material combinations solve the challenges of biocompatibility, biodegradability and mechanical strength (Martin-Piedra *et al.*, 2019). Examples of natural biomaterials include collagen, cellulose and chitosan (Yu *et al.*, 2019). They are either

present as polysaccharides or as proteins. Their parallels with the natural ECM are extremely biocompatible and quickly degradable. This makes them ideal for the development of skin cells (Beheshtizadeh *et al.*, 2020). When looking at synthetic biomaterials, there are instances of nanomaterials, such as polyvinyl pyrrolidones (PVP), polycaprolactone (PCL), polyethylene glycol (PEG), polylactic acid (PLA), and others which enhance the strength of the scaffold (Cao *et al.*, 2020). More study and effort are needed to guide composite scaffolds in this regard. A comprehensive understanding of all the aforementioned facts will lead to the production of highly effective and appropriate skin tissue regeneration facilities (Pang *et al.*, 2020). Tissue engineering has several problems to overcome, such as the cell scaffolding, cellular spread and differentiation speed, and tissue vascularization (Barros *et al.*, 2021). Rapid progress of the "skin-on-chip" system has opened the way for engineered skin to be created for the healing and the testing of injuries. The invention of chip-based bioreactors enables the cultivation of organic crops and the mechanical stress to be improved. Microfluidic technologies have also advanced, which have been created to generate perfused peel cultures and have a promise in the application of a variety of medicinal compounds linked with skins and wound cures (Daikuara *et al.*, 2021).

In vitro skin prototypes are used to identify skin damaging or toxic compounds and have been designed to be useful instruments to assess progressions and to document compulsive conditions. Although *in vitro* skin alternatives are virtually ultra-modern in the company of epidermal and dermal layer, changes clearly occur among these replicas and natural *in vivo* skin (Nour *et al.*, 2021). An *in vitro* replacement disadvantage is that it isn't only formed, organised or placed. In practise, every in vitro skin is carefully designed and manufactured. An automated technique would expressly lower industrial costs and would offer a consistent outcome for a complete regulation of the operation. The use of human cell derivatives of keratinocytes capable of cornification will contribute to further decreasing the load of a replica and regain the anticipation of the last building (Chaudhari *et al.*, 2016). The bulk of the now achieved cell lines is inappropriately derived from cancer cells which lack the ability to organise a corneous layer; a novel cell cornifying line has just been shown recently. The brief duration of their lives is another issue that restricts skin options. The extension of adequate skin-replacement conservation methods as was done for dermal skin grafts is one way of achieving lengthy use.

The sustained growth in cell reprogramming for iPS opens the door to patients with accurate tissue replacement stem cell foundations. The skill of iPS manufacturing has recently been built with keratinocytes as its enrichment. In addition, iPS may be generated using hair-producing keratinocytes (Martin-Piedra *et al.*, 2019). Pulling a single person's hair hence only provides the original significant material to produce iPS cells that may subsequently be differentiated into bespoke tissue-related stem cells. In other words, it might be conceivable that hair separated keratinocytes are relentlessly transformed into numerous stem cells of the skin without an iPS-intermediate status. The ability to create various skin stem cells that can be incorporated in the skin tissue enables all complicated cell kinds to be renovated (Riha *et al.*, 2015).

The newly found human foreskin stem cells have a huge potential to distinguish between various cell types, which may also reduce the danger factors in gene transfections to achieve stem cell characteristics. The cells include mesenchymal stem cell markers and some hematopoietic stem cell producers (Jaganathan *et al.*, 2019). Our specific investigation has shown that chondrogen, adipogenesis, osteogenesis, neurogenesis, epithelia, and Myogenesis may be distinguished. They have a potential to be employed in tissue engineering models in future possibilities (Sundar *et al.*, 2021).

Future progress should encompass skin addition to *in vitro* skin alternatives. The blend of sweat and hair follicles will help to simulate a more exact *in vivo* condition and hence, a more precise experimental format. Vast number of developments in vascularization of full-thickness, *in vitro*-skin models have been completed in recent decades; nevertheless vascular structures cannot be combined with external vascular systems in which physiological shear conditions continue, which have prevented the growth of *in vitro* vasculature. The use of more graduated biological and synthesis-imitating structures can help remove these issues. These problems can be eliminated. Mechanical sensing research offers the chance to discover indigenous ECM and cell sensing systems that control tissue homeostasis and dysregulation. The results of this study are very comprehensive, and focus on how epidermal tissue governance is demonstrated by mechanical sensing and how structures have formed to preserve tissue homeostasis. There are three primary types of cells on the basement membrane and root sheath of the follicle: stem cells, transit amplifiers and terminally differentiated cells. Stem cells have to shift between cell cycling and quiet depending on epidermal refill or anagen stimulation needs, and transit amplifier cells have a number of divisions to undergo before entering a terminal differentiation programme to separate them from the basement membrane and begin a terminal dividing programme.

This involves the participation of additional, mechanically reliant cell-regulatory systems. Such processes include epigenetic alteration with modifications that correlate to chromatin remodelling. This is seen as a comprehensive histone acetylation and nuclear envelope transmembrane (NET). The possible explications of cellular commitment differentiation in the niche cellular structures, like the base of skin membrane, follicle bulge and hair follicle pattern of anagen follicles can be found in the chromosome restriction conferred by historical acetylation and chromosomal binding with NET proteins. To understand how, during loading of hair shafts, the various hair follicle compartments and dermal collagen contribute to the distribution of force in the pilosebaceous unit, an anagenic and interfollicular epidermal / dermal homoostasis are investigated. The findings show physical processes that inhibit nuclei deformation inside areas of the follicle to where the populations of stem cells are located. Activity of histone deacetylase (HDAC) has recently been shown to have biophysical basis. On extendable silicone matrices, mesenchymal stem cells were cultivated. When expanded, nuclear elongation increased, which corresponded with lower HDAC activity and consequent increases in histone acetylation. Lamination A/C knock-down removed mechanical repeal of HDAC.

This work shows the need to retain stem cell niches of the improved nuclear deformation at the pilosebaceous unit. Other research have found out how mechanical stretching induced the Ras-like protein Rap1 to enhance activity in p38 while the cellular contraction led to Ras and to ERK1/2 and JNK activity upregulation. A second research found that ERK1/2 was upregulated as a result of extended cell expansion and higher proliferation rates in HaCaT cells. The structural changes in lamin A/C due to compression of the cell, activity ERK1/2 and expression of promeiotic genes must be analysed to unifying the ideas of mechanical compression by nuclear reshaping and subsequent chromatin reshaping, as a rule. The involvement of the interfollicular collagen is more important than in the follicular anchoring, which has been described before. An developing idea is that cellular tension plays an important role in the modulation of cellular dynamics, which might be caused by the rigidity of the extracellular matrix. There is a wealth of networks with important structural components consisting of collagen and elastin for cells of the basement and non-cycling part of the dermis. The structural rigidity of these matrices has demonstrated that they affect concentration formation and actin-stress fibre development, both of which have an influence on the pace and differentiation of cellular proliferation.

Cells can quickly perceive variations in the physical surroundings. This tensioning is also crucial for maintaining the homeostasis of stem cell proliferation and differentiation. Matrix stiffness is well known for the destiny changes of mesenchymal stem cells that have unique rigidities that distinguish osteoblasts, fibroblasts, chondrocytes and adipocytes. Therefore, the loss of stress in the skin might influence stem cell renewal, hair follicle and epidermis differentiation. The processes through which rigidity influences cell destiny and proliferative capacity are less known. There is a connection between nuclear size, circularity and rates of proliferation in this study. This is because the colonies with more cells have nuclei that are on average at least 30% bigger and show circular decrease. As the produced collagen matrices do not show a shared fibre-based orientation, cell propagation should lead to circular morphologies if the rearrangement of the cytoskeleton actin's dynamics governs the nuclear dynamics. The impact of high density collagen on proliferation rates, which was previously reported in other research, i.e. higher density (points of contact), results in increased expression of Ki67, is therefore corroborated in cells that represent a greater proportion of polarised cells suggestive of mitosis.

When we consider that the nucleus contains many metres of genetic material in a volume from 512 to 1728 to 3, the biological significance is obvious (based on the upper and lower limit of nuclear size recorded within this study). Histones and NETs are consequently utilised to properly fold chromosomes in order to generate enough space during normal cellular homeostasis for transcription. As cells specialise, they require only access to a certain sub-set of genes, which govern which genes may be transcribed. The genome has to be completely reproduced during cell division by requiring chromosomal de-condensation. There is a need for nuclear enlargement, as the results imply, to support the unfolding of many metres of genetic material. It is therefore true that several mechanical sensing signals must be capable of causing alterations in nuclear dynamics and chromosomal restructuring. A further knowledge of the relationship between physical indications and epigenetic alteration will give new objectives to tissue-specifically battle gene dysregulation. NETs have a greater and more tissue-specific organisation and manifestations in their involvement in chromosomal organisation.

The findings showing an increase in collagen density leads to an overregulation of proliferation by the p38 and ERK-mediated collagen-dependent mechanisms might help to develop a way to regulate these specific MAPKs through hemidesmosomes. This might lead to novel targets for combating scamic cell carcinomas with hemidasmosomal proteins such plectin and β4 integrain being often dysregulated. Plectin has also been found to be interacting with the MAPK through an α6β4/FAK/p38 route with a cytoskeletonic connecting protein. In the case of wound healing, the most practical application to technological progress is the study of cellular behaviour on varied collage densities. To understand how cellular growth-promoting environments may be created, bio-scaffolds and hydrogels can be created that might significantly shorten rehabilitation time for patients with big wounds and chronic wounds.

This study was able to define some features, i.e., a high-density matrix, which are promoting cellular growth. It can be feasible to generate novel treatments for wound healing by the identification of synthetic or naturally derived biosimilars more readily extracted and produced. In order to understand how such features may also influence the elicited phenotyping, the next obvious step was to employ atomic microscopy to determine the rigidity of high-density and low-density matrices. The use of sophisticated bioimages is at the heart of this work. The methodologies and analysis procedures utilised have been examined in this work to a much broader extent. A high-strength screening technique for evaluating protein expression across tissues offers automatic analysis of protein

localization that might be of significant use in the field of tissue-specific illnesses diagnosis that allow for tailored therapies. In order to test the recombination capacity of ovarian cancer cells, the mechanism for potentiation of the targeted therapies has been used since then. This approach is used. The unique method used for analysing SHG signal in that thesis offers a new entrance to collagens and biologic and synthetic structure characterization consisting of repetitive units that are non-centrosymmetrical. This would apply greatly in the industry, particularly when skin-like models are built, that seek to characterise matrices for optimal cellular development.

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