

1 **FRONT MATTER**

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3 **Thermo-Responsive Polymers Targeting Inflammation in Murine Colitis**

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27

28 **Abstract**

29

30 Targeting the site of inflammation is an ideal approach for treating inflammatory bowel disease  
31 (IBD). Inflammation targeting enables maximal drug-on-target effects while minimizing off-  
32 target side effects. Negatively charged drug carriers have been shown to facilitate drug delivery to  
33 inflamed colon mucosa after local administration. To modulate the negative charges and integrate  
34 responsiveness to stimuli, here we describe thermo-responsive, inflammation-targeting (TRIT)  
35 hydrogels based on functionalized poly(*N*-isopropylacrylamide-*co*-methacrylic acid) (PNIPAM-  
36 MAA). We show that both chemical modification types and polymer molecular weights affect the  
37 resultant microgels' adhesion to the inflamed colon in dextran sulfate sodium (DSS)-induced  
38 murine colitis *in vivo*. Further, we quantified the correlations between microgels' adhesion and  
39 colitis severity for individual mice, demonstrating that the microgels' adhesion correlated directly  
40 with weight loss percentage in DSS-treated mice. By exploiting charge-mediated interaction and  
41 thermo-responsiveness, TRIT hydrogels represent a promising strategy to target inflamed colon  
42 mucosa as a drug delivery platform for colonic IBD treatment.

43

44 **Teaser**

45 This study developed thermo-responsive, inflammation-targeting (TRIT) hydrogels that harness  
46 charge-mediated interaction and sol-to-gel transition to target inflamed colon mucosa as a new  
47 approach for treating inflammatory bowel disease.

48  
49 **MAIN TEXT**

50  
51 **Introduction**

52  
53 Inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) in its two major clinically defined forms, Crohn's  
54 disease (CD) and ulcerative colitis (UC), is a chronic, idiopathic inflammatory set of conditions  
55 that may affect the entire gastrointestinal (GI) tract (1). The etiology of IBD is unclear, though it is  
56 commonly understood that certain environmental factors trigger an inappropriate inflammatory  
57 response to intestinal microbes in genetically susceptible hosts (2). Recently, IBD has evolved into  
58 a global disease with rising prevalence in many countries (3). There is no cure for IBD, necessitating  
59 life-long medication for patients. Frequent and long-term uses of systemic immunosuppressive  
60 drugs are associated with side effects and serious complications, such as opportunistic infections,  
61 malignancies, and liver toxicity (4). Drug delivery methods that selectively target the inflamed  
62 intestine would increase drug efficacy and minimize the exposure of healthy or distant tissues to  
63 immunosuppressive drugs, reducing side effects.

64 Under inflammation, the colonic mucus layer that normally covers the epithelium tends to  
65 decrease in thickness or become depleted at the inflamed region (5, 6). The inflamed  
66 microenvironment at the damaged mucosa contains a broad spectrum of pathophysiological  
67 features that could be exploited for the rational design of targeted drug delivery, using size-, charge-  
68 , ligand-receptor-, degradation-, or microbiome-mediated strategies (7). The charge-mediated  
69 targeting strategy relies on the accumulation of positively charged proteins at the inflamed colonic  
70 mucosa, which provide an instructive cue for negatively charged drug carriers to interact with.  
71 Previously, we developed a negatively charged, small molecule-based hydrogel that preferentially  
72 targeted the inflamed colon for localized dexamethasone delivery in IBD (8). This delivery  
73 technique improved drug efficacy and reduced systemic drug exposure in rodent models of IBD.

74 To enhance drug delivery targeting the inflamed colon, we expanded the small-molecule-  
75 based hydrogel to polymeric hydrogels with *in-situ* gelation using thermo-responsive materials.  
76 Thermo-responsive polymers have been widely used for biomedical applications for injection  
77 convenience as a liquid and subsequent gelation at the injection site to provide local drug delivery  
78 and release (9-11). Poly(*N*-isopropylacrylamide) (PNIPAM)-based materials are synthetic thermo-  
79 responsive polymers that have been extensively studied, due to their temperature-sensitive phase  
80 change, inert stability, and good biocompatibility (12-15). These polymers undergo a sharp coil-  
81 globule transition and phase separation at their lower critical solution temperature (LCST) in water,  
82 during which the interaction of hydrophobic components in the polymers forms nanodomains.

83 PNIPAM-based thermo-responsive polymers have been used as scaffolds for cell culture  
84 models of human intestinal epithelium (16) and drug delivery systems for growth factors in wound  
85 healing and small-molecule therapeutics for cancer therapies or photothermal therapies (17-19).  
86 Their high-water content and lack of chemical crosslinks provide good biocompatibility and  
87 facilitate clearance from the body. Administration via enemas in the liquid format of these thermo-  
88 responsive polymers allows broad dispersion in the colon, followed by *in-situ* gelation to localize  
89 therapeutics to ulcers for maximal efficacy. A thermo-sensitive delivery platform was reported  
90 using copolymers consisting of polyethylene glycol and polypropylene glycol for budesonide and  
91 mesalamine delivery in rodent IBD models (20). The delivery platform improved drug efficacy and  
92 showed greater colonic retention of drugs than drug liquids; however, detailed characterization of  
93 the material's physical properties was lacking. While using thermo-responsive materials for drug

94 delivery to colonic IBD is advantageous and promising, there are few studies on such delivery  
95 systems for this application.

96 Here, we report the development and characterization of PNIPAM-based thermo-responsive  
97 polymers targeting the inflamed colonic mucosa in murine models of colitis. We hypothesize that  
98 negatively charged PNIPAM-based polymers target the site of inflammation via charge-mediated  
99 interaction and subsequently form drug depots at the inflamed colonic mucosa through the sol-to-  
100 gel transition. Taking advantage of their physicochemical characteristics suitable for local drug  
101 delivery in colonic IBD, these thermo-responsive, inflammation-targeting (TRIT) polymers could  
102 have significant applications in IBD treatment. In this work, we choose PNIPAM-MAA for  
103 chemical modification because it responds sharply to temperature change (21) and possesses  
104 carboxylic acids for reaction. To tune the charges of PNIPAM-MAA, we conjugated two different  
105 molecules to PNIPAM-MAA, respectively: taurine (S modification) to increase the negative  
106 charges and *N,N*-dimethyl-ethylenediamine (N modification) to decrease the negative charges. The  
107 sulfonates in the S modification are strongly hydrated anions, while the tertiary amines in the N  
108 modification are weakly hydrated cations. The negative charges by sulfonates from the conjugated  
109 taurine are considered stable under acidic pH associated with intestinal inflammation (22),  
110 compared to the pH-dependent carboxylic acids. Furthermore, taurine is known to have antioxidant,  
111 antimicrobial, and anti-inflammatory effects that could benefit IBD treatment (23-27).

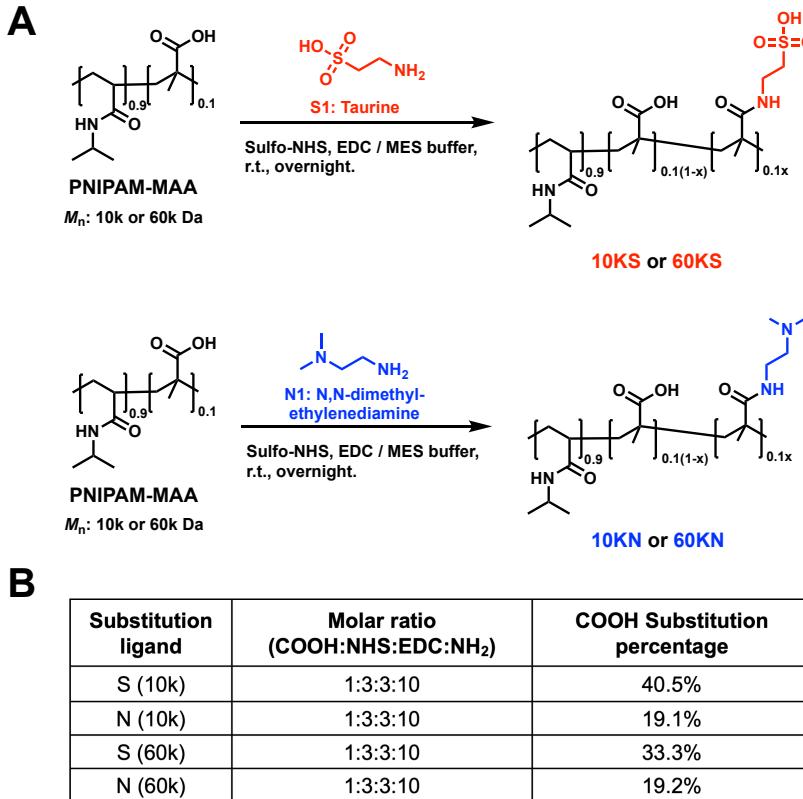
112 PNIPAM-MAA of two molecular weights, 10 kDa and 60 kDa, were employed for the  
113 chemical modifications. Using PNIPAM-MAA as a control, the modified polymers' size and zeta  
114 potential were characterized before and after the gelation *in vitro*. We then evaluated the adhesion  
115 of these polymers to the inflamed colon using dextran sulfate sodium (DSS)-induced acute colitis  
116 in mice *in vivo*, compared to healthy mice. The selection of DSS-induced acute colitis to study  
117 polymers targeting the inflamed colon was due to the quick onset of inflammation and the well-  
118 established experimental procedure in generating this colitis model (28, 29). Owing to the  
119 heterogeneous nature of chemically induced colitis, we further analyzed correlations between  
120 polymer targeting the inflamed colon and colitis parameters, including body weight loss percentage,  
121 colon length, colonic myeloperoxidase (MPO) activity, and histology scores from individual mice.  
122 Examining polymers' mucosal binding with colitis parameters could provide a further  
123 understanding of interactions between polymeric hydrogels and the biological microenvironment  
124 in colitis. These analyses may also advance our knowledge of comparing materials' binding  
125 capacity with chemically induced colitis models.

## 126 127 Results

### 128 129 Functionalization of PNIPAM-MAA with the S and N ligands

130 We chose PNIPAM-MAA for chemical modification, owing to the availability of carboxylic  
131 acids for reaction and the sharp response of PNIPAM-MAA to temperature change to undergo  
132 phase transition (21). The molar content of MAA in the PNIPAM-MAA we used was 10%. This  
133 was chosen because higher percentages of acrylic acids cause the cloud point to disappear due to  
134 sufficient solubility of MAA that offsets the aggregation of the hydrophobic temperature-sensitive  
135 components (30). We employed two different ligands to functionalize PNIPAM-MAA by  
136 EDC/NHS chemistry; one is taurine (S modification) to increase the negative charge, and the other  
137 is *N,N*-dimethyl-ethylenediamine (N modification) to reduce the negative charge (Fig. 1A). These  
138 reactions were performed for PNIPAM-MAA of two molecular weights ( $M_n$ ), 10 and 60 kDa. The  
139 resultant polymers were termed 10KS, 60KS, 10KN, and 60KN, with the unmodified polymers  
140 10K and 60K as controls. We chose taurine to modify PNIPAM-MAA because taurine is a naturally  
141 occurring amino sulfonic acid, and the ionization of sulfonic acids is stable compared to the pH-  
142 dependent ionization of carboxylic acids. This S modification enabled higher negative charges on  
143 10KS and 60KS than the corresponding 10K and 60K in the inflamed microenvironment, where

144 inflammation likely increases the local acidity in the niche. During the reaction, we used excessive  
145 EDC to activate PNIPAM-MAA and excessive S or N ligands for maximal substitution on  
146 PNIPAM-MAA; the feed molar ratio was 1:3:3:10 between MAA, EDC, NHS, and S or N ligand  
147 for modification. The results showed a substitution percentage of 33 - 40% for S modification  
148 (40.5% for 10KS and 33.3% for 60KS) and about 19% for N modification (19.1% for 10KN and  
149 19.2% for 60KN) on PNIPAM-MAA (Fig. 1B), calculated based on the <sup>1</sup>H-NMR spectra (fig. S1).



150 **Fig. 1. Chemical modifications of PNIPAM-MAA.** PNIPAM-MAA (10% MAA molar content)  
151 of 10,000 (10K) and 60,000 (60K) g/mol in molecular weight were used for the chemical  
152 modification. The carboxylic acids on PNIPAM-MAA were functionalized with taurine (S  
153 modification) or *N,N*-dimethyl-ethylenediamine (N modification). (A) Synthesis of the S or N  
154 modified PNIPAM-MAA using the EDC/NHS chemistry. After synthesis, the resulting mixture  
155 was dialyzed against 0.2 M carbonate buffer (x6), water (x3), and then lyophilized. The molecular  
156 weight cutoff (MWCO) of the dialysis tubing was 3.5 kDa for the 60K polymers and 1.0 kDa for  
157 the 10K polymers. (B) The structure of the modified polymers was confirmed by <sup>1</sup>H-NMR, and the  
158 substitution percentage of S or N modification on PNIPAM-MAA (10K) and PNIPAM-MAA  
159 (60K) was determined, respectively.

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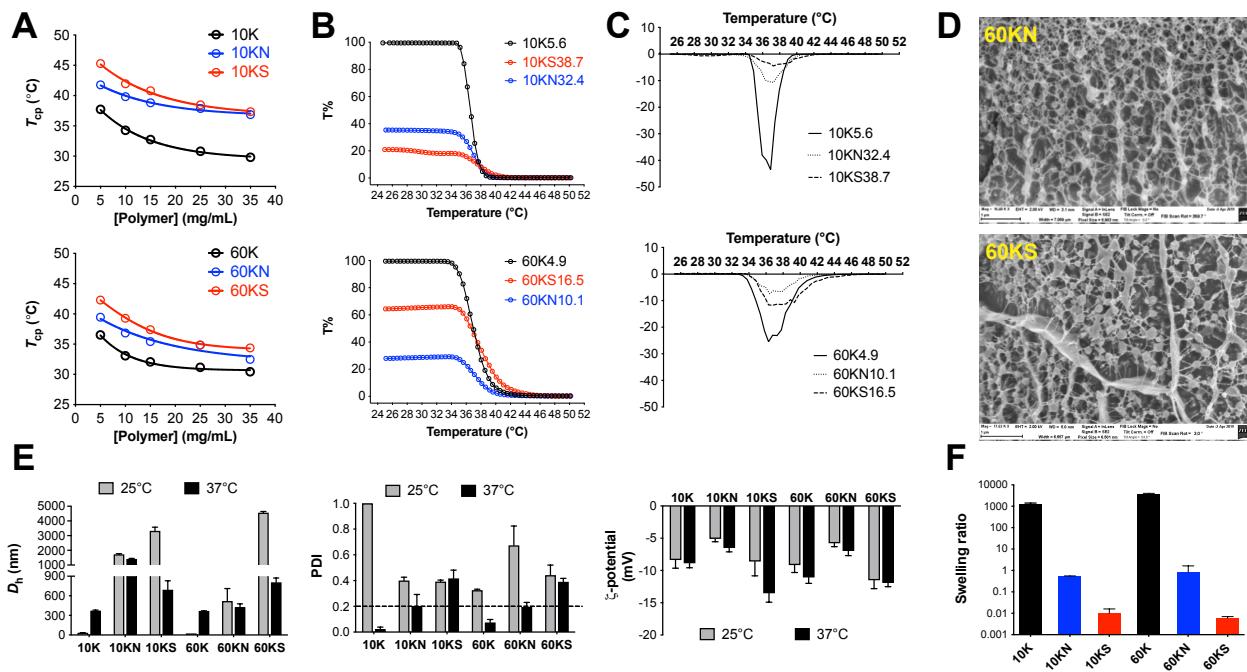
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## 162 Cloud Point temperature and microgels' morphology of the functionalized PNIPAM-MAA

163 First, we characterized and compared the LCST behavior of PNIPAM-MAA and the  
164 modified polymers using the cloud point temperature ( $T_{cp}$ ), measured by turbidimetry (31). We  
165 determined the  $T_{cp}$  of 10K, 10KS, 10KN, 60K, 60KS, and 60KN of various concentrations. The  
166 Transmittance% (T%) curves of all polymers at 5, 10, 15, 25, and 35 mg/ml were measured as a  
167 function of temperature ranging from 25°C to 50°C (fig. S2A). The  $T_{cp}$  of each polymer was  
168 calculated by determining the inflection point of the T% curve and plotted as a function of polymer  
169 concentration (fig. S2B). Further, the  $T_{cp}$  of each polymer at different concentrations was compared

170 (fig. S2C), and the correlation between  $T_{cp}$  and polymer concentration for PNIPAM-MAA and  
171 modified polymers were fitted using a four-parameter fit curve (Fig. 2A). The results showed that  
172 both S and N modifications elevated the  $T_{cp}$ , compared to the PNIPAM-MAA, with the S  
173 modification being more pronounced for both 10K and 60K PNIPAM-MAA. Since the S  
174 modification introduced sulfonic acids into the polymer, which increased the hydrophilicity of the  
175 polymer, it is expected that the S modification elevated the  $T_{cp}$ . On the other hand, replacing acrylic  
176 acids with N also increased  $T_{cp}$ , which could be attributed to the increase in hydrophilicity due to  
177 the addition of tertiary amine into the polymer. From the four-parameter fitted curves of  $T_{cp}$  vs.  
178 polymer concentration, the critical gelation concentration (CGC) of each polymer at  $T_{cp}$  of the  
179 human body temperature 37°C was determined, which were 5.6, 38.7, and 32.4 mg/ml for 10K,  
180 10KS, and 10KN, and 4.9, 16.5, and 10.1 mg/ml for 60K, 60KS, and 60KN, respectively. Each  
181 polymer was then prepared at its corresponding concentration, T% curves were measured, and  
182 experimentally confirmed individual's  $T_{cp}$  within 37 ± 0.5°C (Fig. 2B, 2C).

183 The internal structure of the 60KS and 60KN polymeric hydrogels at the micro/nanoscale  
184 was examined and visualized by cryo-scanning electron microscopy (cryo-SEM). Representative  
185 images showed the morphology of the spherical particles in the microgels (Fig. 2D). As a traditional  
186 approach, snap-freezing may have limitations in the cryo-SEM imaging process. The “wall-like”  
187 structures in these images were probably artifacts of ice crystals during the sublimation process in  
188 the sample preparation (32). However, these images roughly indicated the internal structure of these  
189 modified thermo-responsive polymers after gelation at the micro/nanoscale, which represented an  
190 initial step in understanding the *in-situ* structure of these polymers when applied *in vivo*.



191 **Fig. 2. Characterization of chemically modified PNIPAM-MAA (10KN, 10KS, 60KN, and**  
192 **60KS) using the unmodified polymers (10K and 60K) as control. (A)** The lower critical solution  
193 temperature (LCST) of all polymers (10K, 10KN, 10KS, 60K, 60KN, and 60KS) was determined  
194 using the cloud point method ( $T_{cp}$ ) and measured at different polymer concentrations (circles  
195 indicate experimental data). A four-parameter fit curve was plotted to correlate the polymer  
196 concentration with  $T_{cp}$  (lines indicate the simulated curves calculated based on the four-parameter  
197 curve fit). **(B)** Transmission percentage (T%) curves of polymers at concentrations of  $T_{cp} = 37^\circ\text{C}$ .  
198 For 10K, 10KN, and 10KS, the concentration of  $T_{cp} = 37^\circ\text{C}$  for each polymer is 5.6 mg/ml, 38.7  
199 mg/ml, and 32.4 mg/ml; For 60K, 60KN, and 60KS, the concentration of  $T_{cp} = 37^\circ\text{C}$  for each

200 polymer is 4.9 mg/ml, 16.5 mg/ml and 10.1 mg/ml. **(C)** First derivatives of the T% curves as a  
201 function of temperature for 10K, 10KN, 10KS and 60K, 60KN, 60KS at the concentration of  $T_{cp} = 37^\circ\text{C}$  for each polymer. The maximal point of the first derivative curve of each line indicated the  
202  $T_{cp}$ . The results confirmed experimentally that the polymer concentration from the four-parameter  
203 fit curve led to  $T_{cp} = 37^\circ\text{C}$  for each polymer. **(D)** Representative cryo-scanning electron microscopic  
204 (Cryo-SEM) images of 60KN and 60KS. To ensure gelation, polymers were used at 2x the  
205 concentration of  $T_{cp} = 37^\circ\text{C}$ . **(E)** The hydrodynamic size ( $D_h$ ) using Z-average intensity mean,  
206 polydispersity index (PDI), and zeta potential ( $\zeta$ -potential) measurements of all polymers at their  
207 concentrations of  $T_{cp} = 37^\circ\text{C}$  under 25°C and 37°C, respectively. Data are Mean  $\pm$  SD. **(F)** The  
208 swelling ratio for each polymer was determined by the ratio of spheric volumes of each polymer  
209 calculated from their size measurement under 37°C and 25°C. Data are Mean  $\pm$  SEM.  
210

211  
212 **Hydrodynamic size and zeta potential of the functionalized PNIPAM-MAA**

213 Next, we measured the hydrodynamic diameter ( $D_h$ ) and zeta potential ( $\zeta$ -potential) of  
214 PNIPAM-MAA and the modified polymers.  $D_h$  reveals the swelling or shrinking behavior of these  
215 polymers in response to temperature change, while the  $\zeta$ -potential is critical in confirming the S  
216 and N modifications and understanding the effect of surface charge on polymers' binding to the  
217 inflamed colon. First, we measured  $D_h$ , polydispersity index (PDI), and  $\zeta$ -potential of the six  
218 polymers, 10K, 10KN, 10KS, 60K, 60KN, and 60KS at 0.5 mg/ml in PBS (1 $\times$ , pH = 7.4) as a  
219 function of temperature (fig. S3). Both 10K and 60K showed a sharp increase in  $D_h$  when the  
220 temperature was raised to 32 - 34°C and reached a plateau after 37°C. In contrast, the modified  
221 polymers showed relatively similar  $D_h$  across the temperature range. A gradually decreased PDI  
222 was observed for all polymers upon increasing temperature. There was an increase in the negative  
223  $\zeta$ -potential for 10K and 60K as the temperature increased. Importantly, when the temperature was  
224 above 37°C, 10KN and 60KN showed the least negative  $\zeta$ -potential, followed by 10K and 60K.  
225 10KS and 60KS remained the highest negative  $\zeta$ -potential across the temperature range.

226 To understand the polymer's behavior under physiological temperature, we characterized  
227  $D_h$  and PDI of the polymers as a function of temperature at each polymer's CGC of  $T_{cp} = 37^\circ\text{C}$  (fig.  
228 S4). For 10K, 10KN, and 10KS, the concentration of each polymer at  $T_{cp} = 37^\circ\text{C}$  is 5.6, 32.4, and  
229 38.7 mg/ml in PBS (1 $\times$ , pH = 7.4). For 60K, 60KN, and 60KS, the concentration of each polymer  
230 at  $T_{cp} = 37^\circ\text{C}$  is 4.9, 10.1, and 16.5 mg/ml in PBS (1 $\times$ , pH = 7.4). Upon temperature increased to  
231 32°C, 10K and 60K started to show an increase in  $D_h$  while the modified polymers displayed a  
232 reduction in  $D_h$ . The decrease in PDI was more advanced for 10K and 60K than the modified  
233 polymers. However, the  $\zeta$ -potential of individual polymers at the CGC of  $T_{cp} = 37^\circ\text{C}$  could not be  
234 obtained due to the blackened gold-plated copper electrodes during the measurement, which was  
235 associated with the high polymer concentrations and the extended measurement duration required  
236 for the temperature range. Therefore, we measured and compared individual polymers'  $D_h$ , PDI,  
237 and  $\zeta$ -potential at their CGC of  $T_{cp} = 37^\circ\text{C}$  under 25°C and 37°C, respectively (Fig. 2E). The results  
238 showed that both 10K and 60K formed microgel particles under 37°C with a  $D_h$  of 373.2 nm and  
239 367.7 nm (PDI < 0.2), compared to 34.4 nm and 23.5 nm at 25°C (PDI >> 0.2). At 37°C, the N  
240 modification led to a smaller PDI than the S modification, while the S modification showed a more  
241 considerable decrease in  $D_h$  than the N modification, compared to that at 25°C. Although shrinking  
242 from 25°C to 37°C, the  $D_h$  of the modified polymers was still larger than that of PNIPAM-MAA,  
243 being 692.6 nm for 10KS, 1414.3 nm for 10KN, 373.2 nm for 10K, and 806.1 nm for 60KS, 425.2  
244 nm for 60KN, 367.7 nm for 60K. When comparing  $\zeta$ -potential, 10KN and 60KN showed the least  
245 negative charge, 10K and 60K in the middle, and 10KS and 60KS the highest negative charge of  
246 all polymers at both 25°C and 37°C, which also confirmed the successful conjugation of ligands  
247 onto PNIPAM-MAA.

248 When the temperature was raised from 25°C to 37°C, 10KN or 60KN demonstrated a ~1.2-  
249 fold decrease in  $D_h$ , while 10KS and 60KS both showed a ~5.2-fold decrease in  $D_h$ . Assuming  
250 spherical shapes of the formed particles and using the measured  $D_h$ , individual polymers'  
251 swelling/shrinking behaviors were calculated as the volume ratio of the particles measured at 37°C  
252 and 25°C (Fig. 2F). The result showed a highly swelling behavior of about 1000 times after gelation  
253 for 10K and 60K, while 10KS and 60KS demonstrated the highest shrinking behavior of about 100  
254 times. 10KN and 60KN were in the middle, shrinking roughly 0.5 times. Presumably, 10K and 60K  
255 possessed more carboxylic acids than the modified polymers, which were available to form  
256 hydrogen bonding and absorb water during the gelation, thereby leading to the swelling of the  
257 PNIPAM-MAA gel. On the other hand, the S and N modifications reduced the number of carboxylic  
258 acids for hydrogen bonding and increased the influence of hydrophobic collapse, leading to a  
259 compact structure. The high concentrations of the modified polymers of  $T_{cp} = 37^\circ\text{C}$  might also  
260 contribute to particle shrinkage due to inter-microgel steric compression and ion-induced  
261 deswelling (33, 34).

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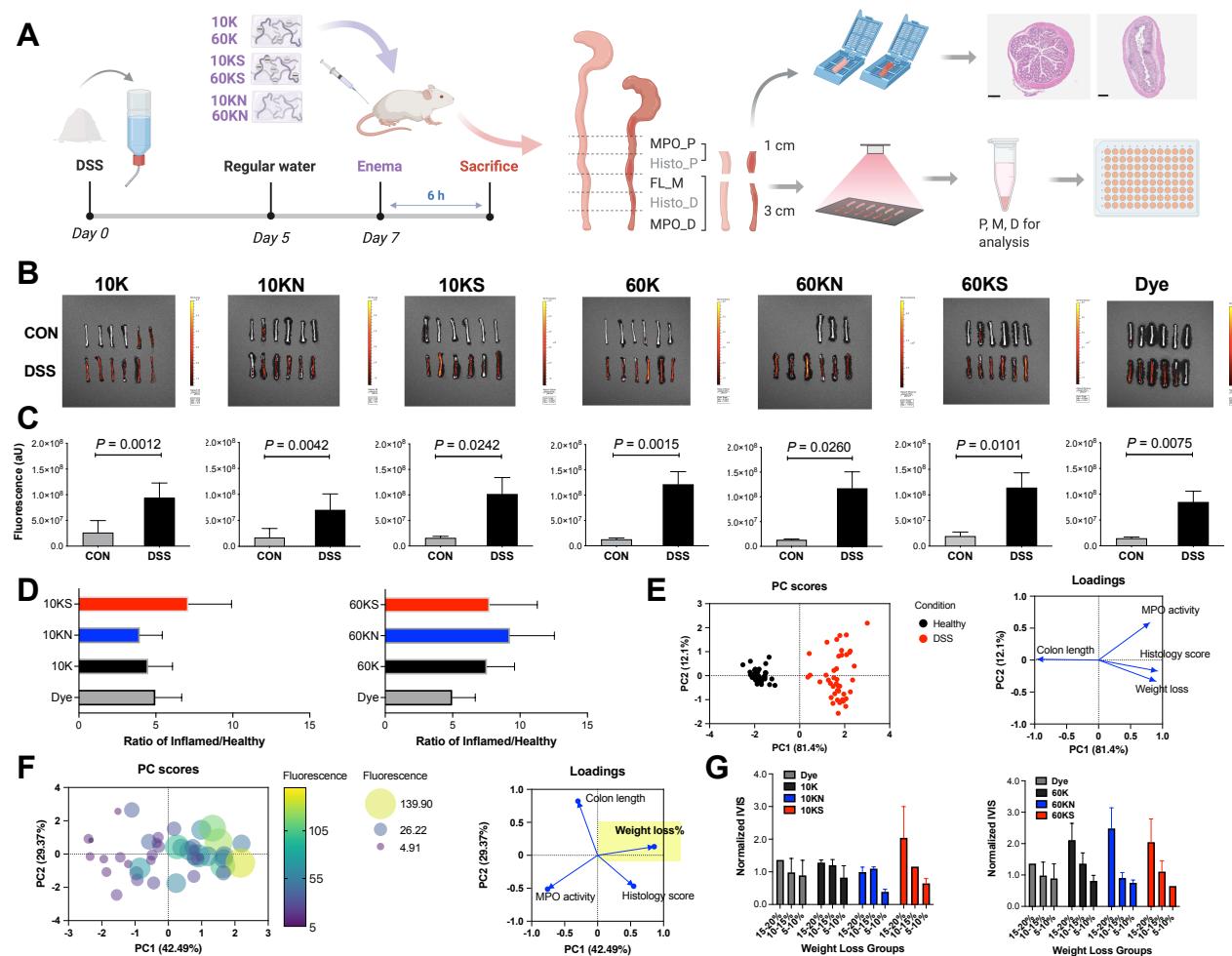
### 263 Adhesion of PNIPAM-MAA and modified polymers to the inflamed colon in mice *in vivo*

264 The *in vivo* studies were conducted with two main goals: (1) To assess the selective targeting  
265 of polymers to the inflamed colon, compared to the healthy colon *in vivo*; (2) To determine the  
266 effect of negative charge on polymer's targeting the inflamed colon by comparing the S  
267 modification with the N modification and PNIPAM-MAA. Texas Red® dextran (Ex = 570 nm, Em  
268 = 620 nm) was mixed with polymers for *in vivo* tracking. Considering that a small-molecule dye  
269 may escape from the hydrogel, we chose Texas Red® dextran of 10 kDa in molecular weight to mix  
270 with the polymers for rectal administration. We chose a low concentration of the dye, 0.1 mg/ml,  
271 to mix with individual polymers to minimize any effect of the dye on the polymers' gelation. The  
272 same amount of the dye was used for all individual polymers. The molar ratio of the polymers to  
273 the dye ranged from 8.2 to 387. The mixture of each polymer with the dye was characterized by  
274 size and  $\zeta$ -potential measurement at 25°C and 37°C, respectively (fig. S5). The result showed a  
275 similar pattern in the size and  $\zeta$ -potential measurement for the mixture of the dye with individual  
276 polymers as observed in the polymers alone, indicating that the addition of the dye did not  
277 significantly alter the gelation. However, we noticed that the dye alone was negatively charged and  
278 formed nanoparticles of about 200 nm with a PDI of 0.23.

279 Next, we determined the selective targeting of polymers to the inflamed colon by comparing  
280 the polymer retention in the inflamed colon with the healthy colon. All polymers, 10K, 10KN,  
281 10KS, 60K, 60KN, and 60KS, and the dye alone, were evaluated. Mice were given 3% DSS in  
282 drinking water for five consecutive days and then switched to regular drinking water for another  
283 two days. On day 7, the mixture of each polymer with the dye was administered rectally to colitic  
284 mice and healthy mice, respectively. Colons were dissected at 6h post-enema, measured in length,  
285 imaged by IVIS, and analyzed by histology and MPO assays (Fig. 3A). The DSS-induced acute  
286 colitis in mice was monitored by the body weight loss percentage (weight loss%) and the colon  
287 length (fig. S6). All DSS-treated mice showed a significant reduction in body weight and shorter  
288 colon length than the healthy controls. For all polymers, each group contained six mice except the  
289 healthy controls for 60KN, in which there were three mice because the other three mice were  
290 accidentally sacrificed at 3h post-enema. The 3 cm distal colon from individual mice treated with  
291 different polymers and the dye-alone were imaged by IVIS (Fig. 3B); full IVIS images with detailed  
292 descriptions were also shown in fig. S7. The quantification of IVIS fluorescence showed that all  
293 polymers retained significantly higher fluorescence in the colitic colon than in the healthy colon,  
294 including the dye alone (Fig. 3C). After IVIS imaging of the 3 cm distal colon (denoted "Distal"),  
295 1 cm colon tissue was used for MPO analysis, 1 cm for histology assessment, and 1 cm for  
296 homogenization to quantify the fluorescence using a microplate reader. Moreover, 2 cm colon tissue  
297 above the imaged distal colon (denoted "Proximal") was used for additional MPO and histology

298 assessment. A significant increase in MPO activity was observed in the inflamed colon compared  
299 to the healthy colon groups (figs. S8, S9). The DSS-treated groups also showed significantly higher  
300 histology scores than the healthy controls (figs. S10, S11), and the histology images of individual  
301 colon tissues are shown in fig. S12.

302 To compare the binding capability of polymers, we calculated the ratio of fluorescence  
 303 intensity for the inflamed colon divided by the healthy colon, denoted Ratio of Inflamed/Healthy,  
 304 for all polymers and the dye alone. The ratio of Inflamed/Healthy was 7.12 for 10KS, 4.50 for 10K,  
 305 3.96 for 10KN, 7.76 for 60KS, 7.55 for 60K, 9.25 for 60KN, and 4.97 for the dye alone (Fig. 3D).  
 306 10KS showed the highest ratio of Inflamed/Healthy, compared to 10K, 10KN, and the dye alone.  
 307 This observation matched our hypothesis that increased negative charge increased polymer  
 308 adhesion to the inflamed colon. However, 60KN showed a higher ratio of Inflamed/Healthy than  
 309 60KS and 60K, and these three polymers were much higher than the dye alone. Since the same  
 310 amount of Texas Red® dextran was used across all groups, the difference between each polymer  
 311 group and the dye alone indicates the targeting capability of individual polymers. The result showed  
 312 that increased negative charges on PNIPAM-MAA enhanced the polymer targeting the inflamed  
 313 colon for the low MW of 10 kDa; however, at the high MW of 60 kDa, there was little effect of  
 314 charges on the polymers' targeting the inflamed colon.



**Fig. 3. *In vivo* evaluation of polymers' adhesion to the inflamed colon and their correlations with colitis parameters.** A fluorescent dye, Texas Red® dextran, was mixed with each polymer for *in vivo* tracking. The concentration of the dye used was 0.1 mg/ml for all polymers. (A) A schematic

319 outlining the *in vivo* evaluation of polymers. Representative histology images showed the colon  
320 tissue from colitic mice and healthy controls. P: proximal, M: middle, D: distal. **(B)** IVIS images  
321 of the colon tissue from DSS-treated mice and healthy controls for the evaluation of all polymers  
322 and the dye alone. CON: healthy controls; DSS: DSS-treated mice. **(C)** Fluorescence quantification  
323 of IVIS images in **(B)**. **(D)** The ratios of fluorescence intensity in the colon tissue of the DSS-treated  
324 and healthy mice (Ratio of Inflamed/Healthy) were calculated for each polymer and the dye alone.  
325 **(E)** Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed on all mice with the loadings of weight  
326 loss percentage (%), histology score, colon length, and MPO activity. Healthy and DSS mice are  
327 clearly separated along the PC1 axis, which explains 81.4% of the variation. **(F)** PCA analysis of  
328 the spread of disease heterogeneity and its effect on polymer adhesion in DSS-treated mice. The  
329 variable loadings are weight loss%, histology score, colon length, and MPO activity. **(G)** IVIS  
330 fluorescence intensity as a function of weight loss% of mice in three bins for each polymer and the  
331 dye alone. Normalized IVIS was calculated by the IVIS fluorescence in the polymer groups divided  
332 by the IVIS fluorescence in the dye alone group.  
333

### 334 **Correlation between polymer adhesion to the inflamed colon and colitis parameters**

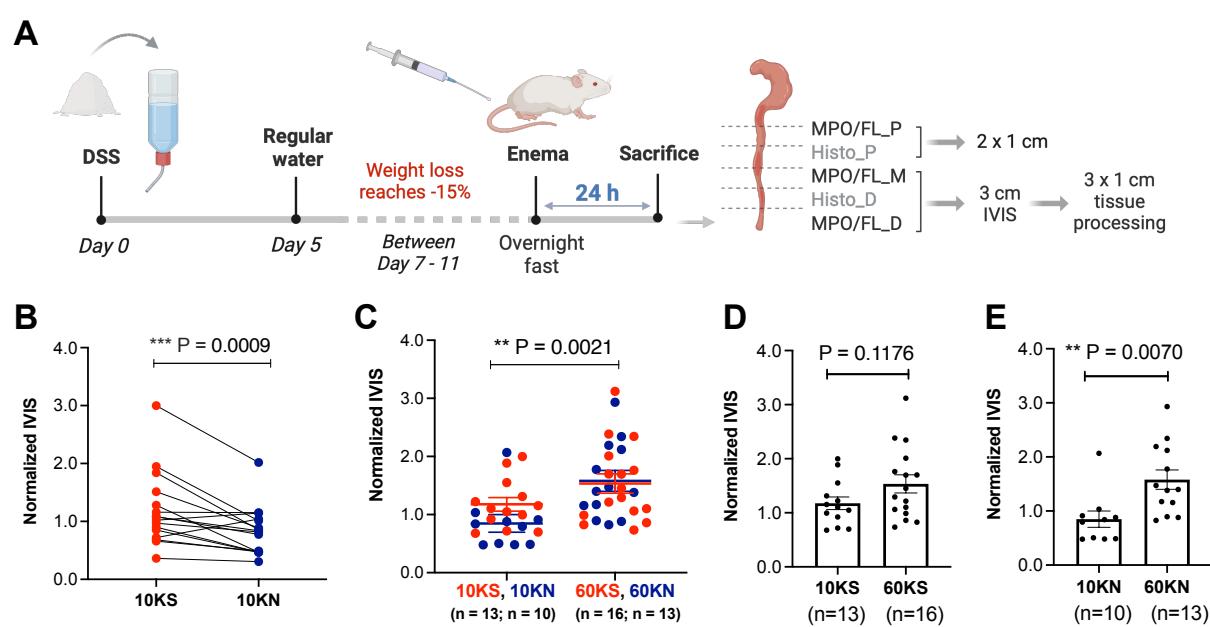
335 Due to individual differences and variations in the susceptibility to DSS-induced colitis,  
336 heterogeneity of colitis severity in DSS-treated mice is expected (28, 35). To better visualize the  
337 data and gain insights, principal component analysis (PCA) was performed on all mice with the  
338 loadings of colitis parameters, including weight loss percentage, colon length, MPO activity, and  
339 histology score. Healthy and DSS mice were clearly separated along the PC1 axis, which explains  
340 81.4% of the variation (Fig. 3E). This is expected as these variables are known biomarkers for the  
341 development of acute colitis. There is more spread along PC2, which includes contribution  
342 primarily from MPO activity but also from weight loss and histology score.

343 To further investigate the spread of disease heterogeneity and its effect on polymer  
344 adhesion, we investigated the correlation between the fluorescence retention of all polymers studied  
345 and the colitis parameters in DSS-treated mice. We quantified the colonic fluorescence retention  
346 using two methods: immediate direct quantification of the 3 cm distal colon by IVIS imaging (fig.  
347 S13A) and fluorescence measurement normalized against the total protein of the homogenized 1  
348 cm colon tissue from the 3 cm colon after IVIS imaging (fig. S13B). We monitored the weight  
349 loss% of individual mice in DSS-treated groups and healthy controls (fig. S13C). The logarithm of  
350 fluorescence intensity, quantified by IVIS and homogenized colon tissue, was proportional to the  
351 weight loss% of all mice studied, displaying a linear relationship by Pearson's correlation (fig.  
352 S13D, E;  $P < 0.05$ ). We then analyzed the correlation between the fluorescence intensity and weight  
353 loss% for colitic mice only. The correlation between the logarithm of fluorescence intensity and  
354 weight loss% was significant for all 60K-based polymers and most 10K-based polymers (fig. S13F,  
355 G;  $P < 0.05$ ). However, neither correlation was significant for the dye alone group ( $P = 0.1327$  for  
356 IVIS and  $P = 0.2087$  for homogenized colon tissue). Next, PCA was performed on the DSS-treated  
357 mice with variable loadings of weight loss percentage, colon length, MPO activity, and histology  
358 score (Fig. 3F). A correlation between fluorescence and PC1 can be seen, and a least squares  
359 regression indicated a significantly nonzero contribution ( $P < 0.0001$ ) of weight loss to  
360 fluorescence. The colon length, histology score, and MPO activity contribute to PC2 (29.4% of  
361 variation), but they do not have a significant effect on fluorescence. The fluorescence intensity  
362 quantified from all mice was collectively plotted against individual colitis parameters, including  
363 weight loss percentage, colon length, MPO activity, and histology score (fig. S14). A linear  
364 relationship was shown between the logarithm of the fluorescence and the weight loss% for both  
365 the IVIS quantification and the fluorescence quantification from homogenized colon tissue. After  
366 separating the mice into bins based on weight loss%, we found that the difference in adhesion  
367 between polymers was more apparent at higher weight loss% (Fig. 3G). Thus, to lower the variation

368 and spread of mouse disease conditions, we sought to compare the adhesion of polymers in mice  
369 whose weight loss was more than 15%.

370 To differentiate the binding capacity between the S and N modified polymers, we reduced  
371 the dye concentration from 0.1 to 0.02 mg/ml to eliminate potential effects from the dye. We also  
372 included a 70 kDa Texas Red® dextran dye to mix with the 60 kDa polymers. We characterized the  
373 size, PDI, and  $\zeta$ -potential of the polymers mixing with the dye, and compared the mixtures when  
374 the dye was at 0, 0.02, and 0.1 mg/ml under 37°C (fig. S15). The results showed that mixing with  
375 a dye led to a more compact size and smaller PDI of the microgels, and a higher concentration of  
376 the dye enhanced such an effect. Additionally, this effect was more pronounced for the modified  
377 polymers, particularly 10KS and 10KN, than for PNIPAM-MAA. Further, mixing with the dye  
378 reduced negative charges for 10KS and 10KN, but increased negative charges for 10K, 60K, 60KS,  
379 and 60KN. When using the dye of different MW, namely 10k dye and 70k dye, we observed similar  
380 effects on the size, PDI, and  $\zeta$ -potential for the 60 kDa polymers.

381 To ensure DSS-treated mice with more than 15% weight loss, the adhesion experiments  
382 were conducted between Day 7 and Day 11 after DSS treatment when the mice with colitis reached  
383 the body weight loss% of -15% (Fig. 4A). The body weight loss% of individual mice was  
384 monitored, and the colon length on the sacrifice day was measured (fig. S16). The polymers were  
385 administered rectally, mice were sacrificed at 24h post-enema, and the dissected colon tissue was  
386 for IVIS imaging (fig. S17) and further processing. For each colon tissue, the fluorescence of  
387 homogenized colon sections was compared, showing that the middle and distal colon sections  
388 possessed higher fluorescence intensity than the proximal colon (fig. S18A). Both the distal and the  
389 middle colon also demonstrated a significantly higher MPO activity than the proximal colon (fig.  
390 S18B,  $P < 0.0001$ ), confirming the heterogeneity of the MPO activity in different colon sections  
391 and highlighting this biological variation in DSS-induced colitis in mice.  
392



393 **Fig. 4. Comparison of polymers' adhesion to the inflamed colon in DSS-treated mice reaching  
394 15% weight loss. (A)** Schematic outlining the *in vivo* experimental procedure for mice reaching  
395 weight loss of 15%. P: proximal, M: middle, D: distal. **(B)** Paired comparison of similar weight  
396 loss% of 10KS and 10KN ( $n = 16$ ,  $P = 0.0009$  was determined by Ratio paired *t* test). **(C)**  
397 Comparison of IVIS fluorescence for 10KS, 10KN, and 60KS, 60KN.  $P = 0.0021$  was determined  
398 by Student's *t* test. **(D)** There was no significant difference in the fluorescence retention for 10KS  
399 and 60KS. **(E)** There was a significant difference in the fluorescence retention for 10KN and 60KN  
400 ( $P = 0.0070$  was determined by Student's *t* test).

399 and 60KS ( $P = 0.1176$  determined by Student's  $t$  test). (E) There was a significant difference in  
400 fluorescence retention between 10KN and 60KN ( $P = 0.0070$  determined by Student's  $t$  test).  
401 Normalized IVIS was calculated by the IVIS fluorescence in the polymer groups divided by the  
402 IVIS fluorescence in the dye alone group.

403  
404 We compared the adhesion between 10KS and 10KN using the 10k dye alone as a control,  
405 and the adhesion between 60KS and 60KN using the 70k dye as a control. Here we used normalized  
406 fluorescence for comparison in which the fluorescence from the polymer was divided by the  
407 fluorescence from the dye alone. We pooled the mice by pairing their weight loss%, using around  
408 15% in this evaluation and our first evaluation from 5% to 20% (Fig. 4B). We found significantly  
409 higher fluorescence retention in the inflamed colon for 10KS than 10KN ( $P = 0.0009$ , ratio paired  
410  $t$  test for comparable weight loss%). However, we did not observe a significant difference between  
411 60KS and 60KN. The MW of the polymers may play a dominant role in this process than the  
412 charges on polymers. With the weight loss% at around 15%, 60KS and 60KN showed significantly  
413 higher fluorescence retention than the 10KS and 10KN groups (Fig. 4C,  $P = 0.0021$ , Student's  $t$   
414 test). When we compared the 10KS vs. 60KS, there was no significant difference in the fluorescence  
415 retention ( $P = 0.1176$ ) (Fig. 4D); however, 60KN showed significantly higher fluorescence  
416 retention than 10KN ( $P = 0.0070$ ) (Fig. 4E). Further, there was no significant difference between  
417 the 10k dye and the 70k dye for the adhesion of 60KS ( $P = 0.9177$ ) or 60KN ( $P = 0.8834$ ) to the  
418 inflamed colon (fig. S18C, D). Detailed data are tabulated in Tables S1 and S2. The correlations  
419 between fluorescence intensity and colitis parameters underscored the heterogeneity in DSS-  
420 induced colitis and suggested using comparable colitis parameters to evaluate materials capacity in  
421 targeting the inflamed colon.

## 422 423 Discussion

424  
425 There is a pressing need to improve current therapies for IBD treatment. Therapeutics that  
426 can target the site of inflammation stand to maximize drug efficacy and minimize side effects. Drug  
427 delivery systems have employed various mechanisms to target the inflamed mucosa in IBD (36).  
428 Incorporating more than one targeting strategy in a delivery system has the potential to combine  
429 interactions for enhanced localization to the inflamed mucosa. Previous studies, including our work,  
430 showed that negatively charged drug delivery systems preferentially targeted the inflamed colon in  
431 IBD, owing to the accumulation of positively charged proteins at the site of inflammation (8, 37).  
432 To increase negative charges on the delivery system and integrate responsiveness to clinically  
433 relevant stimuli, we focus on thermo-responsive polymers that provide repetitive units for chemical  
434 modification and gel-forming capacity in response to temperature change. Here, we hypothesize  
435 that the functionalization of PNIPAM-based polymers can harness the charge-mediated interaction  
436 and sol-to-gel transition for enhanced targeting to the inflamed colon in experimental models of  
437 colitis. We characterized these microgel-based soft colloidal systems and investigated these  
438 polymers interacting with the inflamed colon, which could bring new approaches to target the site  
439 of inflammation for IBD treatment.

440 In this work, PNIPAM-MAA was chemically modified with taurine (S modification) to  
441 increase negative charges and with *N,N*-dimethyl-ethylenediamine (N modification) to decrease  
442 negative charges. The reactions were conducted for PNIPAM-MAA of two molecular weights, 10  
443 and 60 kDa, respectively. The resultant modified polymers were 10KN, 10KS, 60KN, and 60KS.  
444 The unmodified polymers, 10K and 60K, were as a control. The  $\zeta$ -potential of these thermo-  
445 responsive polymer-based microgels confirmed the structure modification: 60KS and 10KS with  
446 the most negative charges, 60K and 10K being less negative, and 60KN and 10KN being the least  
447 negative. For these polymers alone, we noticed that the  $\zeta$ -potential increased as the temperature  
448 increased from 25°C to 37°C. From a colloid chemical point of view, this increase in the  $\zeta$ -potential

449 stabilized the microgels by counteracting the instability usually enhanced at higher temperatures  
450 (38).

451 The chemical modification not only changed the surface charge but also altered the  
452 hydrophobicity/hydrophilicity of polymers, thereby affecting the LCST. The sulfonates in the S  
453 modification are strongly hydrated anions, while the tertiary amines in the N modification are  
454 weakly hydrated cations. Both ions are important species in the Hofmeister ion series that exert  
455 specific ion effects on the water solubility of macromolecules and the behavior of colloidal systems  
456 in aqueous solutions (39, 40). When present as ions in solutions, the sulfonates and tertiary amines  
457 contribute strongly to the “salt-out” process that tends to stabilize macromolecules and reduce the  
458 LCST. However, such an effect on the LCST would be different when the ligand was conjugated  
459 to macromolecules, instead of being present as salts in the solution. It has been reported that  
460 hydrophilic dextran increased the LCST of PNIPAM-based polymers when grafted to the polymer  
461 and reduced the polymer’s LCST when present in the solution, exerting opposite effects on the  
462 polymer’s thermo-responsiveness (41). In our work, the primary effect of the grafted sulfonates and  
463 tertiary amines on PNIPAM-MAA was to increase the hydrophilicity of the polymer, thereby  
464 increasing the LCST. This was consistent with the fact that the modified polymers required a higher  
465 concentration than PNIPAM-MAA to achieve  $T_{cp} = 37^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Furthermore, due to the presence of  
466 sulfonates or tertiary amines in the polymers, they likely contributed to stabilizing the polymeric  
467 networks and forming microgels.

468 Because the LCST of PNIPAM-based polymers is related to their concentrations and  
469 molecular weights (42) that directly affect the gelation process, one unique challenge in our work  
470 was how to compare these polymers for *in vivo* studies to determine the charge effect on the  
471 polymers’ targeting to the inflamed colon. We chose to compare them at individual polymers’ CGC  
472 of  $T_{cp} = 37^{\circ}\text{C}$  to achieve the *in-situ* gelation after rectal administration. Owing to their different  
473 chemical compositions and molecular weights, 10K, 10KN, 10KS, 60K, 60KN, and 60KS were  
474 used at 5.6, 32.4, 38.7, 4.9, 10.1, and 16.5 mg/ml for *in vivo* experiments. The corresponding  
475 concentration of the 60K-based polymers was lower than the 10K-based polymers, likely due to the  
476 increased polymer chain length, thereby increasing the opportunities to undergo hydrogen bonding  
477 to form microgels.

478 DSS-induced acute colitis was chosen due to the rapid onset of inflammation and the well-  
479 established procedure for generating this model. To minimize the heterogeneity in experiments, we  
480 removed mice that did not lose weight after the 5-day DSS treatment on day 7. Further, weight  
481 loss% was stratified to ensure appropriate within-group comparisons among animals and  
482 comparable average weight loss% for each group. Owing to the self-recovery nature and limited  
483 disease duration of this acute model (28), we determined the polymers’ adhesion before the full  
484 recovery of colitis, either on Day 7 for 6 h post-enema evaluation or by Day 11 for 24 h post-enema  
485 evaluation when using the weight loss of around 15%. We found that for 10K-based polymers, the  
486 charge interactions dominated the binding and led to higher fluorescence retention for 10KS than  
487 10KN, as shown by the ratio of Inflamed/Healthy and the ratio paired *t*-test using similar weight  
488 loss%. In contrast, for 60K-based polymers, the charge-mediated interaction was not dominant.  
489 Although 60KN showed the least negative charge, it exhibited comparable fluorescence retention  
490 in the inflamed colon to 60KS and 60K. All 60K-based polymers retained higher fluorescence in  
491 the inflamed colon than the 10K-based polymers, indicating the importance of molecular weight in  
492 the adhesion process.

493 An important feature of this study is that we examined the correlation between polymer  
494 targeting and colitis parameters in individual mice from the DSS-induced acute colitis and healthy  
495 controls. The heterogeneous nature of chemically induced colitis is well-known, but how the non-  
496 uniformity of the chemically induced colitis may interfere with the comparison of polymers  
497 targeting the inflamed colon has been underappreciated. We analyzed the colitis parameters,  
498 including colon length, weight loss%, MPO activity, and histology score, and found that, in general,

499 the polymer targeting was aligned with colitis severity. The higher the histology scores and the  
500 MPO activity and the shorter the colon length, the higher the fluorescence retention in the inflamed  
501 colon; although we did not observe a statistically significant correlation in our analysis for these  
502 three parameters. On the other hand, the weight loss% correlated significantly with the polymers'  
503 targeting. Within each polymer group, we observed that the higher the weight loss%, the higher the  
504 polymer binding to the inflamed colon. The PCA analysis also confirmed the significant  
505 contribution of weight loss to fluorescence, indicated by a significantly nonzero contribution using  
506 the least squares regression ( $p < 0.0001$ ). This led to our study using colitic mice with similar weight  
507 loss% to compare the charge effect on polymers' targeting for 10KS and 10KN. As a result, we  
508 found significantly higher fluorescence retention by 10KS than by 10KN.

509 The interaction of polymers with the inflamed mucosa *in vivo* is complex and could be a  
510 combination of several factors, including binding to the accumulation of the positively charged  
511 proteins locally, the increased intestinal tissue permeability, the sol-to-gel phase transition, and the  
512 microgel particles internalized by the infiltrated immune cells. Given this complex context, our  
513 study supports using mice of similar weight loss% in chemically induced colitis models when  
514 comparing materials' binding capacity to the inflamed colon. Further, the weight loss% can be  
515 monitored daily and measured routinely for assessment, compared to other colitis parameters that  
516 can only be analyzed after euthanization.

517 With regards to *in vivo* tracking, we chose to mix a fluorescent dye, Texas Red<sup>®</sup> dextran,  
518 with the polymer to form microgels. Although chemically conjugating a dye to the polymer has the  
519 advantage of monitoring the microgel long-term, it bears the risk of altering the polymer structure  
520 and the LCST, thereby interfering with the polymer behavior *in vivo*. As a hydrophilic  
521 polysaccharide, dextran was known to improve water retention and drug release profile for  
522 PNIPAM-based microgels by reducing the demixing/syneresis phenomenon (41). Therefore, in  
523 addition to tracking the polymer *in vivo*, using a Texas Red<sup>®</sup> dextran dye could also provide  
524 information on the effect of additives for PNIPAM-based materials for future experiments. We also  
525 examined the effect of the concentration and molecular weight of the Texas Red<sup>®</sup> dextran on the  
526 size and  $\zeta$ -potential of the microgels. We found that mixing with the dye reduced the particle size  
527 and PDI of polymer microgels as the dye concentration increased for all polymers. The effect on  
528 the  $\zeta$ -potential varied, depending on the dye's molecular weight and concentration. However,  
529 adding the dye did not change the pattern of the size and  $\zeta$ -potential for all polymers, compared to  
530 individual polymers without mixing with the dye. At 37°C, the dye alone formed nanocomplexes  
531 of about 200 nm with negative charges, consistent with previous reports on dextran nanoparticles  
532 (43). These negatively charged dextran nanocomplexes could explain our observation that the dye  
533 alone showed higher fluorescence retention in the inflamed colon than the healthy colon, a  
534 combination of charge-mediated interaction and passive deposition due to the increased intestinal  
535 permeability in colitic mice. In our experiments, the dye-alone group, including 10k dye and 70k  
536 dye, was studied in parallel with all polymers. When comparing polymers, the fluorescence from  
537 each polymer group was normalized against the corresponding dye-alone group.

538 Since the chemical modification not only changed the surface charge but also affected the  
539 interactions between the chemical groups in the polymer, limitations on characterization remain for  
540 the TRIT delivery systems based on the PNIPAM polymers. Both 10KS and 60KS are optimal  
541 candidates for the TRIT system, given their high fluorescence retention to the inflamed colon than  
542 the healthy colon; further, the grafted taurine will provide the well-established beneficial biological  
543 effects (23-27). Due to the difference in polymer molecular weights, suitable applications for each  
544 polymer need to be determined individually. Unlike well-established colloidal "hard sphere"  
545 models, thermo-responsive microgels are soft colloidal systems and far more versatile with  
546 complex behaviors (44). Multiple factors that affect their thermo-responsiveness, including the  
547 polymer structure, density, ionic strength, and the microgel's impact on the local dynamics of the  
548 dispersion, have still to be explored. Additionally, PNIPAM-MAA is not only thermo-responsive

549 but also pH-responsive. The measurement of the colon content in normal mice showed a pH of 7.8  
550 and in mice with colitis a pH of 6.7 (45). The lower value in colitis than the normal mice was  
551 consistent with reports in the human IBD (46), although the degree of acidity may vary depending  
552 on disease severity. The more acidic, the less negatively charged the carboxylic acids are since they  
553 are weak acids. However, it will unlikely affect the strong sulfonic acids from taurine. In this work,  
554 we did not evaluate the pH effect on the gelation, because we considered that the negative charge  
555 from the sulfonates will unlikely be affected by the physiological pH, even under inflammation.  
556 Another factor that may affect the extrapolation and translation of these results to human studies is  
557 the thermoregulatory difference in the physiological temperature of mice and humans (47). Mice  
558 tend to have a widespread and on average slightly lower core temperature than humans. Therefore,  
559 using the polymer concentration of  $T_{cp} = 37^{\circ}\text{C}$  that we reported here may achieve a more complete  
560 gelation in humans than in mice. Further studies on the physicochemical properties of PNIPAM-  
561 MAA and the modified polymers may inform additional implications when using thermo-  
562 responsive microgels in a broad area of biological and biomedical applications, including designing  
563 polymer-based drug delivery systems.

564 In sum, we report an approach to chemically modify thermo-responsive PNIPAM-based  
565 materials for targeted drug delivery to the inflamed colon in experimental colitis using charge-  
566 mediated interaction combined with the sol-to-gel transition. The charge-mediated interaction was  
567 dominant at a low molecular weight of 10 kDa but not for polymers at a high molecular weight of  
568 60 kDa, despite the chemical modifications. The correlation between polymer targeting and colitis  
569 parameters suggested using similar weight loss% when comparing materials interaction in DSS-  
570 induced acute colitis. Further understanding of polymeric hydrogels interacting with the inflamed  
571 intestinal mucosa could refine the future design of drug delivery systems in IBD. Here, our study  
572 to characterize and analyze PNIPAM-based microgels provides a delivery system that can adhere  
573 specifically to the inflamed colon, a potential platform for maximal efficacy and minimal side  
574 effects in colonic IBD treatment.

## 575 Materials and Methods

### 576 Materials

577 Taurine, N,N-dimethyl-ethylenediamine, N-hydroxy-sulfosuccinimide (Sulfo-NHS), 1-ethyl-3-(3-  
578 dimethyl-aminopropyl)carbodiimide hydrochloride (EDC), 2-(N-morpholino) ethane-sulfonic  
579 acid) (MES), Hexadecyltrimethyl ammonium bromide, O-dianisidine dihydrochloride, hydrogen  
580 peroxide (stabilized, 30 wt.% in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ), and Poly(N-isopropylacrylamide-co-methacrylic acid) (10  
581 mol% in methacrylic acid, PNIPAM-MAA) with a molecular weight of 10k and 60k, respectively,  
582 were purchased from Sigma Aldrich, Inc. Dextran Texas Red<sup>TM</sup> (Neutral, MW = 10K and 70K)  
583 was purchased from ThermoFisher Scientific, Inc. Dextran sulfate sodium (DSS) was purchased  
584 from Affymetrix, Inc. Due to a supply shortage from Sigma Inc., part of the 10k PNIPAM-MAA  
585 was synthesized in-house (21). For polymer synthesis, N-isopropylacrylamide (NIPAM),  
586 methacrylic acid (MAA), and azobisisobutyronitrile (AIBN) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich.  
587 The in-house synthesized PNIPAM-MAA was confirmed by  $^1\text{H-NMR}$ . The MW was determined  
588 by Gel Permeation Chromatography (GPC, water phase) and compared with the purchased one,  
589 indicating comparable  $M_n$  and polydispersity ( $M_w/M_n$ ).  
590

### 591 Synthesis and characterization of modified PNIPAM-MAA

#### 592 *Modification of PNIPAM-MAA with S and N ligands*

593 PNIPAM-MAA was modified with S or N ligands via the EDC/NHS coupling reaction. The molar  
594 ratio of 1:3:3 between reactants (methacrylic acid: EDC: sulfo-NHS) was used. First, 100 mg of  
595 10k or 60k PNIPAM-MAA (0.0905 mmol of methacrylic acid) was dissolved in 6mL of MES  
596 buffer (0.1 M, pH = 5.2) until completely dissolved. After six hours, sulfo-NHS (58.98 mg, 0.272  
597

599 mmol) was dissolved in 1 ml of MES buffer. Then 1ml of sulfo-NHS and EDC (59.37  $\mu$ l, 0.272  
600 mmol) were quickly added to the polymer solution, and the mixture was kept on a shaker for 45  
601 mins. For S modification, 113.3 mg of taurine (0.905 mmol) dissolved in 7ml of PBS (10x) was  
602 added and kept on a shaker overnight. For N modification, the entire reaction was repeated using  
603 98.9  $\mu$ l of N, N-dimethyl-ethylenediamine (0.905 mmol) instead of taurine. Taurine (S  
604 modification) and N,N-dimethyl-ethylenediamine (N modification) were added at a 1:10 molar  
605 ratio of the MAA in the polymer. After overnight shaking, polymer solutions were dialyzed for 4  
606 days with dialyzed against carbonate buffer (0.2 M, pH = 10) (x4) first and then dialyzed against  
607 water (x3). The dialysis tubing's molecular weight cutoff (MWCO) was 1.0 kDa for the 10K  
608 polymers and 3.5 kDa for the 60K polymers. The polymers were then lyophilized and stored for  
609 future testing. The chemical structure of modified polymers was confirmed by  $^1$ H-NMR. In a typical  
610 synthesis procedure for the 10k PNIPAM-MAA, NIPAM (916.6 mg, 8.1 mmol), AIBN (44.3 mg,  
611 0.27 mmol), methacrylic acid (MAA) (77.8 mg, 0.9 mmol), and anhydrous dimethylformamide  
612 (DMF, 6mL in total) were added to a 25 ml Schlenk round bottom flask. The mixture was stirred  
613 for 15 min to dissolve fully. Then the solution was degassed by purging with nitrogen for another  
614 15 min. Polymerization was carried out in an oil bath at 85°C and stirred for 16 hours. After  
615 polymerization, the mixture was precipitated by adding dropwise into pre-chilled diethyl ether  
616 under vigorous stirring (200 ml, 3x). The resultant white solid was dried under vacuum overnight,  
617 dialyzed (MWCO 3.5 KDa) against water for seven days to remove residual DMF, and then  
618 lyophilized to provide 664.5 mg of polymer (yield, 66.8%). The synthesized polymers were  
619 analyzed by  $^1$ H-NMR and water-phase gel permeation chromatography (GPC). The GPC analysis  
620 of the 10k PNIPAM-MAA from Sigma showed  $M_n$  of 9,115 Daltons and  $M_w/M_n$  = 2.876, and the  
621 three batches of in-house synthesized 10k PNIPAM-MAA showed  $M_n$  of 10,313 Daltons with  
622  $M_w/M_n$  = 2.819,  $M_n$  of 9,726 Daltons with  $M_w/M_n$  = 2.022, and  $M_n$  of 11,066 Daltons with  $M_w/M_n$   
623 = 2.349.

624

### 625 **LCST determination using the Cloud Point method**

626 To determine the lower critical solution temperature (LCST), PNIPAM-MAA or modified  
627 polymers were dissolved in 1× PBS for a range of concentrations (fig. S2). The change in the  
628 absorbance as a function of temperature was recorded by a Cary 100 Bio UV-vis spectrophotometer  
629 (Agilent Inc.). The temperature ranged from 25°C to 50°C, with a heating rate of 0.50°C/min and  
630 a data collection interval of 0.5°C. The absorbance was measured at a wavelength of 420 nm and  
631 then converted to transmission% (T%) (48). The LCST was determined to be the inflection point  
632 in the transmittance curve. It was calculated as the temperature at which the magnitude of change  
633 in transmittance over the temperature change was maximal by determining the maximal value of  
634 the first derivative of the transmittance curve (21). The four-parameter logistic regression was  
635 performed on the polymer concentration vs. LCST data to interpolate the concentration value that  
636 would yield the  $T_{cp}$  = 37°C. Then the absorbance of these polymer concentrations interpolated from  
637 the fitted curve was measured using the Could Point method across the temperature range 25°C to  
638 50°C. These concentration values were confirmed experimentally to show that the LCST of  
639 individual polymers were between 36.5 and 37.5 °C.

640

### 641 **Size and zeta potential ( $\zeta$ -potential) measurement**

642 The hydrodynamic size  $D_h$  (Z-average intensity mean) and  $\zeta$ -potential of the polymers were  
643 measured by a NanoSeries Malvern. For measurements across a temperature range, the initial  
644 temperature was 25°C and was then increased at a 2°C interval to 50°C. Each measurement had a  
645 2-minute temperature equilibration time. The concentration of the individual polymers for the  
646 temperature ramp measurements was 0.5 mg/mL, and the dispersant was 1mM NaCl. Each sample  
647 was measured at each temperature point three times, and this entire cycle from 25°C to 50°C was  
648 repeated three times for each polymer. Size and  $\zeta$ -potential were also measured at 25°C and 37°C,

649 respectively, with a 5-minute temperature equilibration time. The polymers were measured at  
650 individual concentrations of  $T_{cp}$  = 37°C. The dispersant was PBS (1×, pH = 7.4). Each polymer was  
651 measured three times at each temperature.  
652

### 653 **Cryo-scanning electron microscopy (SEM)**

654 To ensure complete gelation at 37°C for imaging, we prepared each modified polymer 60KS and  
655 60KN in water at 2-fold of their CGC at  $T_{cp}$  of 37°C. The concentrations for individual polymers  
656 were 33 mg/mL of 60KS and 20.2 mg/mL of 60KN. The polymer solutions were heated to gelation,  
657 snap frozen, coated with 80:20 Pt/Pd, and imaged. Briefly, one drop of the sample was preheated  
658 to 50°C, then immediately frozen in nitrogen slush at -220°C. Then the sample was cryo-transferred  
659 under a vacuum in the cryo-fracture apparatus chamber (Baltec MED-020), where it was fractured  
660 at -145°C. The temperature was then decreased to -100 °C and maintained at this temperature for  
661 10 min for sublimation. The sample was then coated with 80:20 Pt/Pd for 100 s (~10nm thickness)  
662 and introduced into the microscope chamber for imaging. Cryo-SEM images were obtained using  
663 the Zeiss NVision 40 microscope, operating at a 2-3kV acceleration voltage.  
664

### 665 **Colitic mice model**

666 Adult BALB/c wild-type (WT) mice were purchased from the Jackson Laboratory. Experiments  
667 involving WT mice were performed at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology's Koch Institute.  
668 All mouse studies were performed according to institutional and NIH guidelines for humane animal  
669 use. DSS colitis was induced in 7-8-week-old BALB/c mice by feeding them 3.0% DSS in drinking  
670 water for 5 consecutive days. Mice were then switched to regular water. The body weight of mice  
671 was measured daily. To minimize the heterogeneity in experiments, mice that did not lose weight  
672 after the 5-day DSS treatment were not used for experiments.  
673

### 674 ***In vivo* adhesion evaluation of polymers**

675 For *in vivo* adhesion testing, mice with colitis and their disease-free controls (untreated WT) were  
676 fed the Alfalfa-free diet (Envigo Inc.) to reduce the autofluorescence background. The body weight  
677 of mice was measured daily to monitor the disease development. On Day 6, mice were weighed  
678 and then fasted overnight to prepare for enemas the following morning. On Day 7, mice with  
679 different weight loss% were regrouped based on Day 6 weights to ensure the average weight loss%  
680 was roughly equal in each colitis group for polymer comparison. Then each mouse received an  
681 enema of 100 µl of the polymer solution containing Texas Red® Dextran in phosphate-buffered  
682 saline (PBSx1, pH = 7.4). Briefly, individual mice were anesthetized with 2.5% isoflurane, a 20G  
683 flexible disposable feeding needle (Cadence Science, Inc.) was advanced into the rectum 3 cm past  
684 the anus, the polymer solution with dye was administered, the catheter was removed, and the anus  
685 was kept closed manually for 1 minute before releasing the mouse into the cage. Animals were  
686 sacrificed after 6 hours. The distal 3 cm of the colon was removed and imaged using an IVIS  
687 fluorescence imager (IVIS 200, Perkin Elmer). Fluorescent signal intensity was quantified using  
688 Living Image 4.3.2 software (IVIS 200, Perkin Elmer). In another set of experiments, the adhesion  
689 between polymers was compared using only colitic mice with weight loss% of 15 - 20%. Mice were  
690 fed drinking water containing 3% DSS for 5 days and then switched to regular drinking water.  
691 Starting from Day 7, only mice with a weight loss percentage between 15 - 20% were used for the  
692 adhesion experiment. Then the mice were sacrificed at 24 h after administering the polymer and  
693 dye mixture. Owing to this acute model's self-recovery nature and limited disease duration, we  
694 evaluated the polymers' targeting by Day 11 before the full recovery of colitis.  
695

### 696 **Myeloperoxidase (MPO) activity**

697 The distal colon was homogenized in 1:20 (w/v) of 50 mM phosphate buffer (pH = 6) containing  
698 0.5% hexadecyltrimethyl ammonium bromide on ice using a homogenizer (Bertin Corp., Precellys).

699 The homogenate was centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 15 minutes. The supernatant (10  $\mu$ l) was added  
700 to 190  $\mu$ l of 50 mM phosphate buffer (pH 6) containing 0.167 mg/ml O-dianisidine dihydrochloride  
701 and 0.0005% hydrogen peroxide. The change in absorbance at 460 nm was measured. One unit of  
702 MPO activity is defined as degrading 1  $\mu$ mol of hydrogen peroxide per minute at 25°C (8). Total  
703 protein content was determined by BCA protein assay (ThermoFisher Scientific Inc.).  
704

## 705 Histology analysis

706 All mice were sacrificed for histopathological analysis on day 7 after IVIS imaging. Colons were  
707 isolated, fixed in 4% Paraformaldehyde, and embedded in paraffin. Standard Hematoxylin and  
708 Eosin (H&E) - stained sections were examined and scored by an experienced pathologist (J.K.L.)  
709 in a blinded fashion. The parameters mononuclear cell infiltration, polymorphonuclear cell  
710 infiltration, epithelial hyperplasia, and epithelial injury were scored as absent (0), mild (1),  
711 moderate (2), or severe (3), giving a total score of 0-12.  
712

## 713 Statistical analysis

714 Statistical analysis and graphing were performed with Prism version 10.0.2 (GraphPad Software).  
715 The two-tailed Student's *t* test was used to compare differences between two experimental groups,  
716 except for the study comparing polymers for targeting inflamed colon using similar weight loss%,  
717 where the Ratio paired *t* test was used. A value of *p* < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.  
718

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883  
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892  
893 **Data and materials availability:** All data are available in the main text or the  
894 supplementary materials.

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897 **Supplementary Materials**

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