



The effect of TiO₂ nanotubes on the biological properties of porous titanium foam by anodization technique for orthopedic application

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ABSTRACT

In the present study, the TiO₂ nanotubes were grown on the surface of porous titanium foam by the anodization method. The surface of titanium foam before and after the coating of TiO₂ nanotubes was structurally and morphologically characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD), field emission electron microscope (FESEM) equipped with energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX). Additionally, the cytocompatibility of TiO₂-coated porous titanium foam was evaluated by methyl thiazol tetrazolium (MTT) assay. The results have shown that the anatase crystalline phase was formed on the surface with a uniform thickness of 2.5 μm. Finally, TiO₂-coated porous titanium foam was biocompatible and significantly enhanced the proliferation and attachment of MG-63 osteoblast cells compared to the uncoated substrate. All the results postulated that the coating of titanium substrate with TiO₂ nanotube shows excellent promise for orthopedic implant application.

Keywords: Titanium foam, Bone implant, Powder metallurgy, Nanotube, Cytocompatibility

1. Introduction

According to the powder metallurgy, to acquire a porous structure, the technique with space holder is used as a considerable method [1]. Space holder particles are employed as the pore former in porous metal foams. Thus, the space holder method is utilized in controlling the parameters related to porosity comprising its morphology and the percentage of pore dispersion. For this purpose, a wide range of space holders like saccharose, urea [2], and starch have been used. The space holder can be easily removed and rapidly dissociated with little residual, making it more advantageous over

other pore-making techniques.

Titanium implants have been widely used as dental bone implants [3]. Nonetheless, its higher density and rigidity compared to natural human bone leads to implant loosening and, consequently implant fracture [4]. Porous titanium possesses unique characteristics, including a large specific surface area, low density, and a high strength-to-weight ratio [5]. In addition, the porous structure can be alternatively used to repair bone defects due to their biocompatibility and comparable stiffness to that of human bone [6]. In this regard, porous titanium can enhance implant fixation

and accelerate bone healing which caused by the substitution of the bone tissue ingrowth to the pores [7].

Surface treatment is required to improve the surface properties of metallic implant [8]. One way to enhance the surface quality is to add materials with favorable properties, such as nanostructured material. For this purpose, by adding nanostructured materials to the implant surface, the cell fate can be controlled and the osteoconductivity of the implant can be promoted by increasing the interactions with serum proteins [9]. One of the potential nanostructured materials is titanium dioxide (TiO_2). There are some notable properties of TiO_2 -based materials such as nontoxicity, biocompatibility, large surface area, and chemical stability [10]. However, the main disadvantage of TiO_2 nanoparticles is poor recyclability and secondary pollution due to their difficult separation [11]. The immobilization of TiO_2 on the solid surface, including metals has been proposed to tackle this challenge [11]. Although the expensive phase separation process is eliminated by using this approach, the specific surface area of TiO_2 is significantly reduced. Consequently, researchers have attempted to fabricating porous TiO_2 on the substrate to enhance the specific surface area [12].

Various techniques can be employed to immobilize the nanostructured material on the surface of titanium implants, such as micro-arc oxidation, plasma spraying, magnetron sputtering, and anodization [13]. The anodizing technique is also used to increase the thickness and regularity of the oxide layer on the implant's surface [12]. An extensive body of literature in recent years showed that the fabrication of TiO_2 nanotube by anodization significantly improved the osteoblastic

activity of the porous titanium scaffold [14, 15]. However, in most of the reports, anodic oxidation was mainly used to deal with dense titanium and titanium alloy, not porous titanium. Nonetheless, Fan X et al. [16] investigated the bioactivity of the TiO_2 nanotubes on the porous titanium by in vitro and in vivo evaluations.

In our previous study, TiO_2 nanoparticles was coated on the surface of titanium foam using magnetron sputtering, and the results illustrated an improvement in the biological properties of titanium foam [17]. Therefore, this study aimed to fabricate porous titanium foam using powder metallurgy and urea as the space holder and explore the effect of TiO_2 nanotube formation by anodic oxidation on the foam surface in improving the chemical, physical, and biological properties of the samples. It is expected that this macro-pores and nanotubes can significantly improve the bioactivity of porous titanium. The bioactivity of the TiO_2 nanotubes on the porous titanium was investigated by in vitro evaluation.

2. Materials and methods

Titanium hydride (TiH_2) powder with an average particle size of $45 \mu\text{m}$ and urea powder with Needle-like morphology as a space holder (with size of the particle from 500 up to 800 micrometers) were used as raw materials. Ethylene glycol ($\text{C}_2\text{H}_6\text{O}_2$), Ammonium fluoride (NH_4F), Sodium carbonate (Na_2CO_3) were electrolyte for anodic oxidation. Also, double distilled water (ddH_2O) was applied in all the aqueous solutions. Table 1 summarizes the information on these materials.

2.1. Preparation of foams

The foam with needle-shape, morphology was

Table 1- Types of materials employed in the present study

Materials	Use to make	Ordered company
(TiH_2) powder	titanium foam	Merck (Darmstadt, Germany)
urea powder ($\text{CH}_4\text{N}_2\text{O}$)	titanium foam	Sinchem South Korea
Ethylene glycol ($\text{C}_2\text{H}_6\text{O}_2$)	electrolyte for anodic oxidation	Merck (Darmstadt, Germany)
Ammonium fluoride (NH_4F)	electrolyte for anodic oxidation	Merck (Darmstadt, Germany)

fabricated using titanium hydride (TiH₂) and needle-shaped urea space holder. For this purpose, the space holder was mixed with TiH₂ with a volume ratio of 5:5. Then, green pellets were prepared by uniaxial compression of the powder mixture under pressure of 120 MPa to produce a green specimen with a height of 5 mm and a diameter of 8 mm, which is based on the standard compression test of metallic materials at room temperature (E9-89a, ASTM). Specimens with the same dimensions were prepared for biological tests. Afterward, a sintering process was applied to remove the remaining space holder material and sinter the particles of the green specimen. The temperature was increased at the rate of 278.15 kmin⁻¹ from the room temperature to 200 °C and was maintained for 40 min to evaporate the urea space holder. Under 10⁻⁴ torr vacuum pressure, the temperature was elevated to 1000 °C and was maintained for 3 h to sinter the sample.

2.2. Anodizing process

All the anodization experiments were carried out at room temperature in a two-electrode electrochemical cell. The initial specimens were cylindrical titanium foam with a height of 5 mm and a diameter of 8 mm as anode and graphite thin film with thickness of 1 mm as cathode. Before anodizing, titanium foam was sanded with abrasive papers from 600 to 2000 and polished with solution containing Al₂O₃ particles (0.3 μm). Then, it was rinsed with acetone and ethanol (volume ratio 1:1), afterwards, it was washed with deionized water and finally dried at ambient temperature. All the experiments were performed at the constant DC voltage of 60 V for 1.5 h. Area ratio of anode to cathode was 1:1 and distance between them was fixed as 3 cm. The used electrolyte includes ethylene glycol, 3 vol% of deionized water, NH₄F (0.3 M) and sodium carbonate (0.03 M).

2.3.1. Structural analysis

The phase analysis of pure porous titanium foams and TiO₂-coated titanium foams were performed by X-ray diffraction (XRD, EQUINOX 3000, France), and the XRD patterns were obtained by Cu-Kα radiation with diffraction angles 20° ≤ 2θ ≤ 80°. Then, the patterns were matched to the International Centre for Diffraction Data (ICDD) reference file using PANalytical X'Pert Highscore Plus software. An energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) (FESEM, TESCAN-XMU, Czech Republic) device was employed to assess chemical composition.

2.3.2. Morphological properties

The microstructure and morphology of porous

titanium foams were evaluated by light microscope (Olympus CX23 Japan microscope) and the morphology and structure of the TiO₂ arrays were investigated by field emission electron microscope (FESEM, TESCAN-XMU, Czech Republic). Before FESEM observation, Au was sputtered on the surface of the specimens.

2.3.3. Physical properties

The fabricated foam's relative density and apparent porosity were calculated using Archimedes principles according to ASTM B962-17 [18]. The specimens were weighed accurately, immersed in distilled water, and reweighed. The porosity was determined by calculating the weight difference of samples before and after water immersion. Equations 1 to 5 were used to calculate volumetric density (D_v), solid bulk density (D_{sb}), open porosity (P_a), total porosity (P_t), total porosity (P_c), respectively. Where D₁ was water density, D_t was theoretical density, W_e was wet weight, W_a was sample dry weight, W_b was immersion weight, the theoretical density of solid titanium was reported to be 4.506 g/cm³ and the theoretical density of porous titanium foam was reported to be 4.506 g/cm³ [19].

$$D_b = (W_a / W_e - W_b) \times D_1 \quad (\text{eq. 1})$$

$$D_{as} = (W_a / W_a - W_b) \times D_1 \quad (\text{eq. 2})$$

$$P_a = 100 \times (1 - D_b / D_{as}) \quad (\text{eq. 3})$$

$$P_t = 100 \times (1 - D_b / D_t) \quad (\text{eq. 4})$$

$$P_c = P_t - P_a \quad (\text{eq. 5})$$

2.3.4. In vitro cell biocompatibility assay

The in vitro biocompatibility assay was conducted based on International Organization for Standardization (ISO) 10993: Biological Evaluation of Medical Devices, Part 5: Tests for Cytotoxicity [20]. For this purpose, the experiments were carried out in 96-well culture plates. The MG-63 (NCBI C-116, National Cell Bank of Iran, Pasteur Institute, Iran) was cultured at 3 × 10⁴ cells/sample density. The medium used for culturing these cells was a mix of Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM, GIBCO, and Scotland) and Ham's F-12 supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Seromed, Germany), 100 μg/mL streptomycin, and 100 U/penicillin (Sigma, USA). The cultures were incubated for different time durations. At the end of culture time, the

cells were harvested for 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2, 5-diphenyltetrazolium-bromide (MTT) proliferation assay and field emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM).

2.3.4.1. MTT assay for cell viability and proliferation

The control sample was a tissue culture polystyrene plate (TCPS), and the assay was MTT. Each cylindrical sample with a height of 5 mm and a diameter of 8 mm was seeded at a cell density of 5×10^3 by using a 24-well plate. After 3 and 7 days, the culture medium was removed from each well, and 1 mL of MTT solution (0.5 mg mL^{-1} , Sigma, USA) was added. Next, the medium was placed in the incubator at 37°C for 5 h. The wells were placed on a shaking incubator for 15 min to reach optimal absorbance measurement. In addition, to dissolve the purple formazan crystals, 1 mL isopropanol (Sigma, USA) was added to each well. At this point, the optical density was recorded at 545 nm using a multi-well microplate reader (STAT FAX 2100, USA). This procedure was repeated three times, and the final ODs were normalized to control the optical density.

2.3.4.2. Cell morphology

The cells were cultured for 24 h, fixed in 2.5 % glutaraldehyde, and dehydrated for 10 min using alcohols graded 50 %, 70 %, 80 %, 85 %, 90 %, 95 %, and 100 %. First, samples were examined by optical light microscopy. Second, the specimens were sputter-coated with gold and were examined using a FESEM.

2.3.5. Statistical analysis

The data were statistically analysed by the analysis of variance (ANOVA) using the SPSS software version 22. P-value <0.05 was considered significant for all tests.

3. Results and discussion

Figure 1 shows the light microscope images of needle-like urea and the corresponding titanium porous foam fabricated by powder metallurgy and needle-like urea as the space holder. The size of macropores was found to be in the range of 400-700 μm . This pore size is suitable for attachment, proliferation, and growth of osteoblast [21]. The formation of open and interconnected pores is the decomposition of urea into the water, carbon dioxide, and NH_3 under heat treatment. Table 1 shows the porosity parameters of both titanium foams and titanium samples without macropores. Despite the lower porosity of the titanium sample (26 % according to Table 1), titanium foams had an open pore network of 60.2 %. It has been reported [22] that pores in porous metals could be divided into two types: the micro-pores and the macropores. The former is generated due to the partial sintering of TiH_2 powders and have resulted from TiH_2 decomposition. These results supported the findings of Akbarinia et al. and Naddaf et al. [23, 24] that presented the decomposition of hydride molecules helps form highly active newly created titanium sites at the exterior of the hydride particles. On the other hand, the latter that has much larger

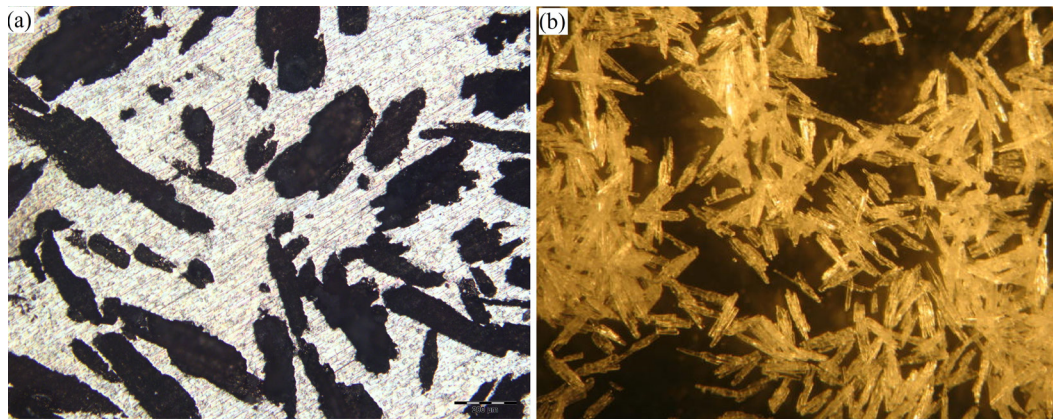


Fig. 1- Light microscope images of (a) titanium foam and (b) needle-like urea powder.

Table 2- Porosity parameters of titanium foams and titanium samples without macropores

Samples	Total porosity (%)	Open pores (%)	Closed pores (%)	Density (g cm^{-3})
Ti	26.25	15.16	10.09	2.84
Ti/NU	60.2	31	29.2	1.793

size are obtained by the decomposition of spacer particles. Therefore, the substrate's microporosity and macroporosity justify the implant's physicochemical and biological properties [25].

Figure 2 shows the XRD pattern of titanium foam and the titanium foam coated with titanium dioxide (TiO₂) using the anodizing method. The corresponding peaks related to the titanium substrate and titanium oxide layer with anatase crystalline phase can be observed. The structure of surface oxide obtained from the anodizing method is usually amorphous due to the rapid reactions during anodizing [26]. TiO₂ possesses three distinct

phases including anatase, rutile, and brookite. It was found that the anatase phase initiates to form at around 300 °C, and its formation is completed at 600°C [27]. Further, an increase in the temperature leads to the formation of the rutile phase. The present study's peak at 2θ=25.1° with plane index (101) indicated the phase transformation to anatase crystalline phase in the surface oxide nanotubes after heat treatment at 480°C. According to previous reports, the anatase phase is more beneficial for bone growth than rutile due to network similarity to hydroxyapatite [27].

The FESEM micrographs of the cross-section

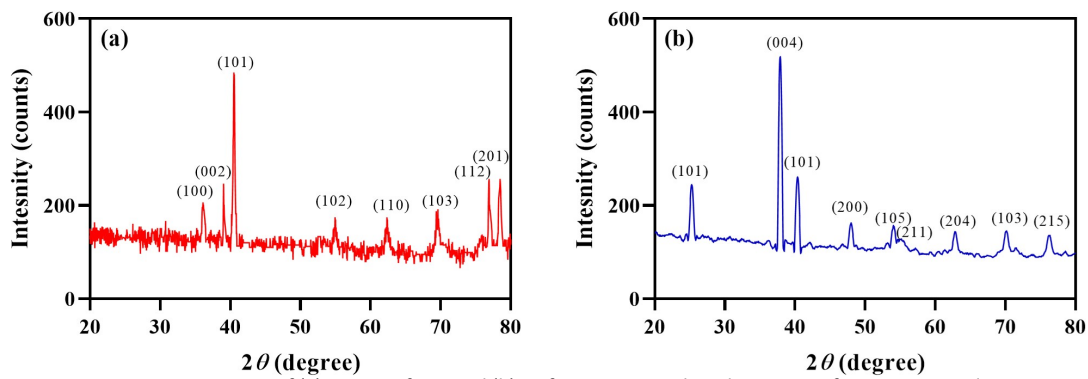


Fig. 2- XRD patterns of (a) titanium foam and (b) surface TiO₂ coated on the titanium foam, respectively.

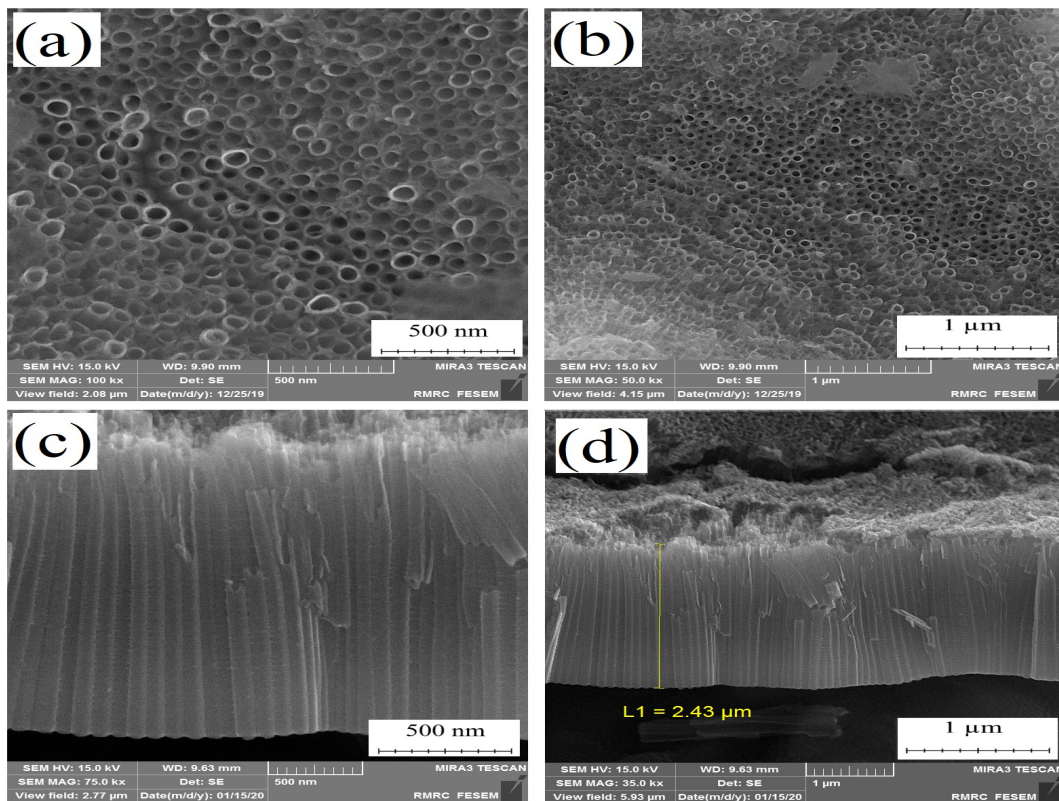
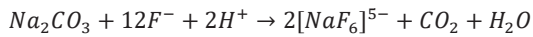


Fig. 3- FESEM micrograph of (a, b) top and (c,d) cross sections TiO₂ coated- titanium foam after anodizing process in different magnifications.

of titanium foam coated with TiO₂ layer using anodizing method are shown in Figure 3. As can be observed from the two different magnifications, the thickness of organized nanotubes with uniform walls was found to be 2.5 μm. These organized nanotubes were obtained by using an organic electrolyte in which sodium carbonate was added as the buffer not only to increase the thickness of nanotubes but also to reduce the internal diameter and ultimately improve the morphology of nanotubes [28]. However, according to the following reaction, the sodium ions could be present in the nanotubes as the impurities [29]:



NH₄F was used as the organic electrolyte to

prevent the presence of such impurities. The EDX analysis of the titanium foam and nanostructured TiO₂ on the surface of titanium foam after the anodizing process is shown in Figure 4. As can be observed, there were no additional or unwanted elements in titanium foam before and after coating. Additionally, the presence of Ti and O elements with 55.94% and 44.06% weight percent, respectively indicated the formation of the TiO₂ layer on the titanium foam after anodizing process. According to EDX analysis, the powders were not oxide during sintering, which may lead to better mechanical properties for porous titanium foams.

Figure 5 shows the percentages of viable cells in different samples. The cell viability of control samples was considered 100 %. According to a previous report, the cell viability above 70%

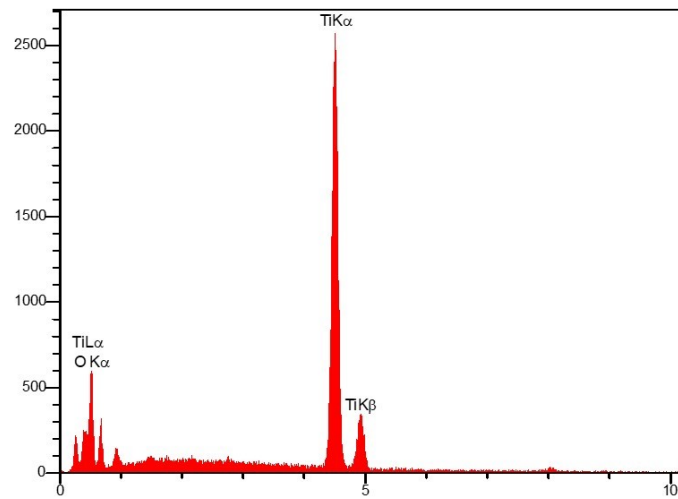


Fig. 4- The EDX analysis of nanostructured TiO₂ on the titanium foam using anodizing process.

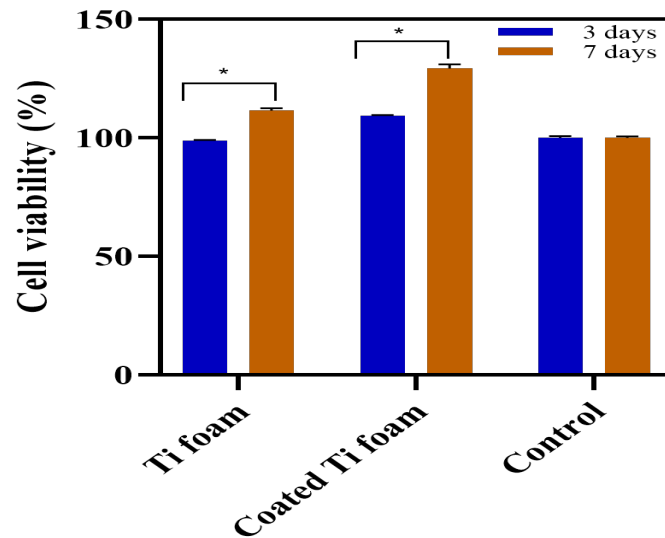


Fig. 5- MTT assay of human osteoblast (MG63) cells on the coated titanium and titanium foam without coating after 3 and 7 days of cell culture, respectively where * indicate the significant difference ($p < 0.05$).

indicates the cytocompatibility of the sample [30]. The cell biocompatibility of osteoblast (MG63) cells on the titanium foam without spacer (control) and titanium foams prepared by needle-like urea spacers with nanotubes was evaluated by MTT assay, and the results are depicted in Figure 5. As can be seen, the titanium foam coated with nanotubes showed significantly higher cell viability compared to titanium foam without coating ($p^* < 0.05$). Additionally, both revealed significantly higher cell viability than control samples. This high percentage of cell viability could be attributed to sufficient porosities as previous studies have demonstrated that the macropores of the implants are sufficiently enough for cell infiltration, nutrients, and metabolites [14]. In addition, the needle-like pore morphologies possessed sharp corners, which increased the implant's surface roughness and surface area. This leads to better adsorption of proteins and other biological molecules, which ultimately increases cell viability [21]. Van Bael et al. have reported that cells have bridging behavior which defines that the surface tension is inclined to reduce the curvature on the angled corner of the pores as much as possible to give the pores circular shapes [31]. To this end, the enhanced cell viability could be attributed to the bridging behavior of cells

by which the cells are inclined to bridge on the angled corner of the pores. Although the titanium foams with needle pore morphology showed high cell viability compared to control samples, it is unclear in which pore morphology could provide better cellular behavior because different pore morphologies have been shown to adjust the properties of titanium-based orthopedic implants [32].

The coating of TiO₂ nanotubes using anodizing also enhanced the cell viability, indicating a nanotube, positive effect cell activity. The possible explanation for this enhancement in cell viability is the microstructural properties and the shape of the coating layer. The anodized layer with a nanometric structure provides a large specific surface area for cell activity and suitable porosity for MG63 cell anchorage and adhesion. It was found in previous studies that the pore surface and shape can affect osteoblast cell connectivity [28]. Additionally, the elevation in surface charge density on the sharp edges of TiO₂ nanotubes could improve the adhesion of mediating proteins as the positively-charged proteins on the corners could connect with the negatively-charged surface during electrostatic forces [33]. Therefore, we can draw a conclusion that nanotubes of anatase phase have positive effect

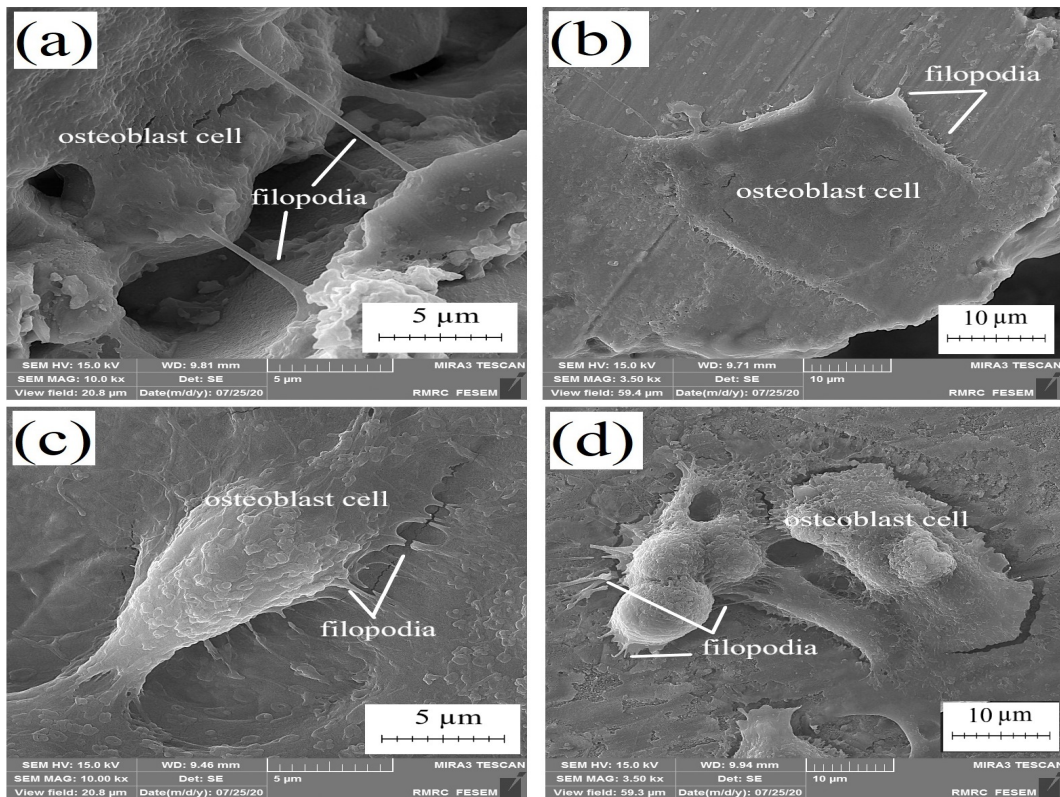


Fig. 6- FESEM micrographs of MG63 cell attachment on (a,b) titanium foam with needle-like pore morphology and (c,d) titanium foam coated with TiO₂ nanotubes at two different magnifications, respectively.

on the the enhanced cell viability of the implants and scaffolds because of their inducing ability to formation.

To further investigate the cellular response and their connectivity, the cells were observed by FESEM after 24 h. As shown in Figure 6, MG63 cells were all well attached on the surface titanium foams with and without TiO₂ nanotubes. The MG63 cells showed elongated filopodia on the surface, which is in good agreement with the MTT assay. In addition, the cells covered the surface. This indicated that the surface supported the cell attachment as the cells were elongated on the surface instead of maintaining their original shape (circular) [34].

4. Conclusion

In this study, titanium porous foam was fabricated by powder metallurgy using a needle-like urea space holder, and a thin layer of TiO₂ nanotube was successfully coated on the surface of porous titanium foam. The phase analysis indicated that the anatase crystalline phase was formed in the surface oxide nanotube. This occurrence was further confirmed by the presence of Ti and O elements in the coating indicating the formation of a TiO₂ layer on the titanium foam after the anodizing process. Finally, the coating of TiO₂ nanotubes using anodizing also significantly enhanced the cell viability and supported the proliferation and attachment of MG-63 osteoblast cells. The nanostructured TiO₂-coated metallic substrate showed excellent promise for bone and dental implant applications.

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