

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Colloids and Surfaces A

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/colsurfa

Physicochemical characterization of albumin immobilized on different TiO₂ surfaces for use in implant materials



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GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



ARTICLE INFO

Keywords: Titanium Titanium dioxide 3- Mercaptopropionic acid (MPA) 3-Aminopropyltrimethoxysilane (APTMS) Albumin adsorption and bone implant materials

ABSTRACT

Osseointegration process may be defined as the structural and functional connection between living bone and the surface of an implant, promoting adequate cell adhesion, proliferation, and differentiation. One strategy to increase the biocompatibility and consequently generate greater osteogenesis is to modify the surfaces of implants to alter the process of the bone tissue repair. Surface modifications in titanium implants were proposed using organic bifunctional spacers (3-mercaptopropionic acid, MPA, and 3-aminopropyltrimethoxysilane, APTMS) or direct albumin (BSA) immobilization. Chemical immobilization of BSA, either physically or covalently, on TiO₂ substrates showed similar surface chemistry without altering long-term cellular interaction. Furthermore, TiO₂-APTMS substrate with -NH₂ groups on the surface more efficiently interacts with components of the extracellular matrix, presenting high cell viability at 48 h and better viability and mineralization results.

1. Introduction

Implants currently used in dentistry or orthopedic surgery are mostly produced from metallic materials, with pure titanium and/or its derivatives alloys commonly employed. Titanium is attractive due to its physical and chemical properties, such as corrosion resistance, excellent mechanical properties, and superior biocompatibility compared to other alloys [1–4]. However, serious problems associated with biocompatibility and frequent incidence of infections still exist, which are the primary causes of implant failures and rejections [5,6]. In addition, metallic titanium has hydrophobic surface properties, which caused poor interface with biological cells and may prohibit cell adhesion

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https://doi.org/10.1016/j.colsurfa.2018.12.028

Received 12 September 2018; Received in revised form 28 November 2018; Accepted 13 December 2018 Available online 14 December 2018 0927-7757/ © 2018 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

[7,8].

The osseointegration process is a prerequisite for the success of an implant, so the implant surfaces should promote adequate cell adhesion, proliferation, and differentiation, to generate the formation of healthy bone at the osseointegration interface. One of the strategies to increase the biocompatibility and generate greater osteogenesis to avoid infections is by modifying the surfaces of these implants to alter the bone tissue repair process [9–13]. The hydrophilic property of the substrate is important for more effective interaction with the titanium surface, because the relative wettability and hydrophilicity of the surface are determinant factors for the degree of adhesion and migration cells [14].

Surfaces modifications in titanium may involve topographical and compositional changes, at the micro and nanoscale, to simulate the characteristics of natural bone in the osseointegration process [15–17]. These modifications alter the physical properties, such as morphological, chemical, and wettability of the surface, modifying the final biological properties [18–21].

Studies increasingly emphasize that a substrate with hydrophilic properties has more effective cellular interaction [4]. Vilardell et al. [21] and Mekayarajjananonthet [22] reported a number of studies correlating surface factors such as rugosity, surface energy, contact angle values, and cell adhesion with biomaterial surfaces [23].

The excellent biocompatibility of Ti is due to the surface oxide film spontaneously formed on its surface with a few nanometer titanium dioxide (TiO₂) thick Ti. However the extremely thin layer (5-6 nm) is not able to prevent long term corrosion and leads to implant failure. Werner et al. [24] reported that the thicker crystalline and homogeneous layer of TiO₂ (100 nm) on the titanium surface significantly increases the long-term bio-corrosion of titanium resistance and provides better adhesion and proliferation of osteoblasts. In addition, the native oxide layer was generally less hemocompatible compared to a thicker and more homogeneous layer of TiO₂ [24-27]. Therefore, the TiO₂ deposition in the nanometric and crystalline phase with controlled surface chemistry and hydrophilicity is extremely important in the bone integration process [27-29]. In addition, biomedical research has focused on modified TiO₂ surfaces that can optimize the early stages of osseointegration, improving bone bonding between bone and implant [32,33].

Titanium surface modification with TiO_2 nanometric films can be obtained by different deposition methods, among them, chemical spin coating method. This method changes not only the titanium topography or morphology, but also other surface characteristics, such as crystallinity, chemical composition, wettability, and adsorption capacity [29–31].

Titanium dioxide layers are chemically terminated mainly by hydroxyl (-OH) groups, under ambient conditions, which can dissociate into solution, generating positive, negative, or neutral charges, depending on the pH of the solution. This surface and the charges formed by the dissociation presents an important role in the interaction with polymers, proteins, and immobilization of organic molecules [34,35]. The interaction with the TiO₂ substrate can be covalent or non-covalent. The process modifies the surface energy of the material, macro and micro morphology, because it alters the functional groups and their mobility on the substrate surface to be implanted. These physical chemical alterations change the hydrophilicity and electrostatic properties of the surface responsible for cell interaction, adhesion, and proliferation of osteoblasts [36].

A promising alternative for surface modification is the immobilization of bioactive molecules, such as proteins and peptides, on the surface of the metal material [35,37,38]. The adsorption of proteins on the TiO₂ surface occurs through physical adsorption of the -OH groups on the surface, by electrostatic, hydrophobic, hydrogen bonding, and van der Waals interactions [39-42]. The protein and/or peptide layer under the surface is unstable and flexible, since this adsorption is preferentially given by reversible electrostatic interactions [43–45]. Therefore, proteins can adopt many conformations under the surface of the substrate, because they interact with the TiO₂ surface at many sites [46,47]. The size, charge, and surface composition of the proteins may lead to a complex adsorption process with various intermediates, conformations, and/or orientations on the TiO₂ surface [48], promoting dynamic protein adsorption/desorption processes. Thus, immediately after implantation and contact with biological fluids and components of the extracellular matrix, the protein layer can be removed into the medium [35].

These biomolecules have great potential to adsorb into almost all types of interface, due to the presence of amino acids in their protein chains, which are on their surface hydrophobic regions, uncharged polar and charged polar regions. Thus, the interactions may be due to hydrophilicity, hydrophobicity, ionic interactions, or by the formation of covalent bonds with a specific functional group of the molecule [43,49,50]. Systematic studies of biological responses to artificial materials require surfaces with well-controlled properties, and a variety of procedures have been applied to optimize the orientation and conformation of immobilized proteins on implant surfaces, such as fixation through load-driven orientation [51–53], adsorption through hydrophobic interactions [54–56], and covalent interactions by bioactive bifunctional compounds (ligand molecules) [57–59]. Frequently, binding molecules act as spacers, which provide greater steric freedom to the protein, allowing more specific activity [35].

The presence of hydroxyl groups (-OH) on the TiO_2 surface allows the occurrence of condensation reactions, through the formation of covalent bonds with bifunctional bioactive organic binders, generating self-assembled monolayers (SAMs) on the oxide surface [35,59,60].

These organic linkers have two functional groups. One of the functional groups interacts with the hydroxyls of the TiO_2 substrate, while the other organic group of the ligand interacts with the protein sites, to modify the chemical interface between the titania substrate and the biological environment [57,60–63]. The introduction of carboxy acid, esters, amine, sulfonated and/or thiol organic groups on the TiO_2 surface can be effective ways to conjugate various biomolecules by these functional groups [64]. The formation of SAMs alters many factors relevant to cell-implant interaction, including the surface energy of the material, macro and micro-morphology. These factors modify the electrostatic property of the surface responsible for the interaction and consequently cell adhesion and proliferation [61,65,66].

Protein covalent immobilization can substantially improve the stability of the resulting coatings through its irreversible manner compared to the physical adsorption of the protein on the substrate surface. In addition, covalent immobilization also allows better control over substrate surface parameters, such as thickness, binder density, and molecular orientation of the protein [31,35].

The proteins interaction with the implant surface plays an important role in the integration of the implant with the surrounding tissue as well as its biocompatibility and functionality. The adsorption of proteins on the surface of the implant is the first event that occurs after implantation, followed by cell adhesion and proliferation. Which cells will adhere on the surface depends on the type of protein adsorbed on the surface. Therefore, surface modification (functionalization) of the implant surface is very import to control cell and/or protein-surface interactions [13,35].

Numerous serum proteins, including albumin, fibrinogen, and fibronectin, have been studied in relation to their adsorption into the implant surface of materials and subsequent cellular responses [67]. Among them, albumin is a globular transport protein very well characterized and used in adsorption studies due to its abundance in plasma, constituting about 50% of the proteins in plasma. Some studies have shown that, in relation to other metal oxides, albumin has better adhesion with titanium dioxide, which occurs as a function of the oxide surface being positively charged, that is, depending on the surface charge density [68,69].

Self-assembled monolayers of alkanethiols (HS(CH₂)_nX derivatives)

[70] and coupling agents derived from silane ((CH₃-O)₃Si(CH₂) nX, where X is another functional group, are used to bind biomolecules in different materials with hydroxyl groups on their surface [71-73] and are suitable to study correlations between surface properties and biological responses. Therefore, the aim of this study was to evaluate the influence of surface chemistry involved in albumin immobilization (BSA) directly on the TiO₂ surfaces or by organic spacer linkers. In this study, 3-mercaptopropionic acid (MPA) and 3-aminopropyltrimethoxvsilane (APTMS) were used as organic bifunctional spacers on TiO₂ surfaces. As is known, one of the functional groups of MPA (thiol and/ or carboxylic acid) and APTMS (amine and/or silane) bind covalently on the TiO₂ surface through hydroxyl groups present on the surface. generating a new chemical interface, with different physicochemical properties. After the TiO₂ deposition, the substrates were immediately functionalized with the different chemical groups (3-mercaptopropionic acid (MPA), 3-aminopropyltrimethoxysilane (APTMS) and bovine serum albumin (BSA)) by immersion method. The interaction of the BSA on the TiO₂ surface and with the respective substrates functionalized with MPA and APTMS were characterized. The objective was to evaluate the effects of chemical, morphology, wettability, surface functional groups, and cell osteoblast adhesion using different BSA interaction on the surface.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

All materials and reagents were used with analytical grade and purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, as commercially received. Deionized water was used for all aqueous solutions obtained with a Millipore Milli-Q system. Titanium discs were prepared from commercially pure titanium specimens grade 4 (Ti cp4, 12.7 mm in diameter and 3 mm in thickness) from Bior-Acnis (Brazil).

2.2. TiO_2 synthesis solutions

In the present study, TiO₂ solution synthesis was prepared according to the method described by Trino, L.D and Bronze-Uhle, E. S et al. [74].

2.3. Preparation and modification of titanium substrates

The Ti cp4 discs were polished in an Arotec polisher (Aropol-2v model) using sandpapers with 320, 400, 600 and 800 granulometry, for two minutes each.

The substrates were cleaned were cleaned in a series of ultrapure water-isopropyl alcohol and ultrapure water, for ten minutes each in an ultrasonic cleaner, to remove all the sandpapers impurities. To alter the surface chemistry, Ti cp4 discs were etched and hydroxylated in a highly acidic piranha solution mixture of 7:3 (v/v) 98% H₂SO₄ and 30% H₂O₂) for two hours and, subsequently were rinsed in an ultrasonic cleaner with the same procedure as before for immediate oxide deposition [74,75].

Spin coating technique (2000 RPM per 60 s) was used to perform the TiO₂ solution deposition using a Headway Research INC (model PWM32-PS-R720) equipment. For spin process deposition, three drops of TiO₂ solution were added over the metallic surface substrate. After rotation, the substrates were placed in a hot plate at 40 °C for 5 min. The process was repeated three times for each sample. Subsequently, the Ti cp4 substrates coated with TiO₂ were annealed at 850 °C for two hours at a heating rate of 1 °C min⁻¹. The rutile crystalline polymorphic phase was obtained [74].

2.4. Methods of SAM preparation

2.4.1. Surface modification of TiO_2 substrates with organic bifunctional compounds

For SAM TiO_2 preparation, two different bifunctional form molecules were used as organic spacers: 3-mercaptopropionic acid (MPA) and 3- aminopropyltrimetoxysilane (APTMS). The functionalization of samples occurred by the immersion method as described below.

2.4.2. 3-mercaptopropionic acid (MPA)

The 3 mM MPA aqueous solution was prepared adjusting the pH solution to 3 using HCl. The substrates were immersed for 1 h at room temperature of 25 °C. After the immersion period, substrates were washed 3 times with water to remove the molecules physically adsorbed on the surface [76].

2.4.3. 3-aminopropyltrimetoxysilane (APTMS)

The 3 mM APTMS solution was prepared in ethanol. After complete dissolution, the substrates were immersed for 1 h at room temperature of 25 °C. Then, the samples were washed 3 times with ethanol to remove from the surface physically adsorbed molecules [77].

2.4.4. Protein adsorption: albumin functionalization

Bovine serum albumin (BSA) solution was prepared at PBS in a 0.40 mg/mL concentration until completed dissolution. The TiO₂ and TiO₂ modified surfaces were immersed in a protein solution for 6 h at room temperature (25 °C). After protein adsorption, substrates were removed from BSA solution and rinsed with PBS (2x) and deionized water (2x) to remove unbounded proteins and salt PBS residues. Subsequently, the substrates were dried, and surface properties were analyzed and characterized [78].

2.5. Surface characterization

2.5.1. XRD

The crystal structure of the TiO₂ films was analyzed by X-ray diffraction (XRD, D/MAX-2100/PC, Rigaku) using CuK α radiation within (k = 1.54056 Å) coupled to a nickel. The samples were scanned from 20° to 45°, with regular step of 0.02° min⁻¹ and scan speed of 2° min⁻¹, at 40 kV/20 mA. The XRD pattern of the samples were compared with PCPDF 65–3411, 44–1294, and 76–1949 cards for Ti and TiO₂, respectively.

2.5.2. XPS

The surface composition and chemistry were analyzed using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, K-Alpha -Thermo Scientific) equipped with an Al K α micro-focused monochromator with variable spot size (30–400 µm in 5 µm steps) and energy range 100–4000 eV. Survey scans were completed on each region, followed by high resolution scans. Scans were aligned to the binding energy of the Ti 2p3/2 peak at 458.8 eV. Curve fitting was performed using the CasaXPS software. Peak identification was done to obtain a consistent fit for all the potentials investigated. [79] The functional groups on the surfaces were confirmed by the appearance of characteristic peaks corresponding to the specific covalent bond formation and/or attachment molecule conformation.

2.5.3. Contact angle and surface energy

Surface wettability of the substrates was determined by the contact angle and energy surface with a goniometer (Ramé-Hart 100-00, Succassuna, NJ), using the sessile drop technique. Deionized water (polar substance) and diiodomethane (non-polar substance) were used as probe liquid. At least three droplets were deposited on different positions of the samples and contact angle was measured at each side of the drop. Measurements were performed in triplicate, at room temperature, and under controlled humidity environment. The contact angle and surface energy were evaluated by DROPimage software based on the Young-Laplace equation describing the drop profile of sessile drops [80].

2.5.4. AFM

Modified surface structure and morphology were analyzed by atomic force microscopy (AFM, Park System XE7, Santa Clara, CA, USA). Surface topography images was conducted in non-contact mode and collected using a silicon cantilever (PPP-NCHR, Park Systems Inc.) having a constant force of 42.0 N/m and resonance frequency of 330 Hz. The substrates were scanned in air under room temperature conditions. The images were taken using a scan rate in the range of 0.7 Hz, a peak force set point of 9.0 V, and a scan size performed over a 4.0 $\mu m \times 4.0 \,\mu m$.

The average roughness represented by the root mean square (rms) roughness of the surface was calculated based on a standard formula integrated in the imaging software.

2.6. In vitro biocompatibility

2.6.1. Cell culture

For the cell culture, mouse preosteoblast MC3T3-E1 (subclone 14) cells (ATCC-American Type Culture Collection) were cultured at 37 °C in α -MEM (Minimum Essential Medium α - Gibco, Carlsbad, CA, USA) supplemented with 10% FBS (Fetal Bovine Serum, Gibco), 1% of 10.000 U penicillin-10 mg/mL streptomycin (Sigma-Aldrich) under humidified atmosphere with 5% CO₂. After reaching the subconfluency, the cells were detached using the enzyme trypsin (0.25% trypsin, 1 mM EDTA - Sigma-Aldrich), for 5 min in the CO₂ incubator at 37 °C. The enzyme was inactivated with α -MEM containing 10% FBS. Cells suspensions were centrifuged at 1200 rpm, 5 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was discarded, and the cell pellet were diluted in a new α -MEM 10% FBS medium. To reduce the contamination risk, titanium samples (Ticp4, TiO₂, TiO₂-MPA, TiO₂-MPA-BSA, TiO₂-APTMS, TiO₂-APTMS-BSA and TiO₂-BSA) were maintained for 30 min in ultraviolet light prior to cell paltiing [81].

2.6.2. MTT reduction assay

To determine the cell viability, the MTT (3- (4,5-dimethylthiazol-2yl) -2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide) reduction method assay was performed based on the ability of mitochondrial enzymes. In this procedure, viable cells express higher metabolic activity, by converting the yellow water-soluble tetrazolium salt MTT into a purple-colored formazan product with a maximum absorbance near 550 nm. Thus the formazan production is an indirect indication of cell viability obtained through corresponding colorimetric absorbance proportional to the number of viable cells. For the MTT assay, 2×10^4 cells in 0.050 mL medium (α MEM + 10% FBS + 1% antibiotic) were carefully added on the surface of each substrate to prevent cell adhesion. After 4 h of incubation, at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere with 5% CO₂, 1.0 ml of medium was then carefully added into each well. MTT assay was performed in triplicate after 48 and 72 h of cell culture incubation. In each experimental period, the wells were washed with phosphate buffered saline solution (PBS 1X) and then the substrates were incubated in a sterile MTT solution (500 µL, 0.5 mg/mL) in a humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO2 at 37 °C for 4 h in the dark. The solution was removed and the MTT formazan was dissolved with 300 µL of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) for 30 min in the dark at room temperature. The extracted contents (250 µL) were transferred to another 96-well plate to allow reading by absorbance at 550 nm (Synergy TM Мx Monochromator-Based Multi-Mode Microplate Reader, BioTek Instruments Inc.) [82,83].

2.6.3. Calcium deposition assay

Quantification of mineralized calcium deposited in the extracellular matrix were performed by alizarin red staining (Sigma-Aldrich). For

this assay, the cells (0.050 mL of medium containing 5×10^4 cells/ well) cultured as described above, were seeded on the surface of titanium substrates derivatives. After 4 h of incubation, at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere with 5% CO₂, 1.00 mL of medium was added on the each well plate. The cells were cultured on the 3 replicates, on plastic and differently Ti surfaces, for a period of 14 days. At each predetermined time point, the cell-seeded samples were washed three times with PBS and then fixed in 70% ethanol (0.70 mL) for 1 h at 4 °C and washed PBS again. All of the samples were stained using 0.70 mL of alizarin red in ultrapure water for 10 min at room temperature. The staining solution was removed and the cells were washed three times with ultrapure water and images were taken. A quantification method was obtained by addition of 280 µL of 10% (v/v) acetic acid solution to each well containing the substrate previously stained with alizarin red. The plate was shaking at room temperature for 30 min. After solubilization, 100 µL of the extracted stain, from each substrate, were transferred to eppendorf tubes and then $40\,\mu\text{L}$ NH₄OH 10% was added to neutralize it. The colored supernatant were read in a 96-well plate with a spectrophotometer (Synergy ™ Mx Monochromator-Based Multi-Mode Microplate Reader, BioTek Instruments Inc.) in wavelength of 405 nm [84].

2.6.4. Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis of the cell assays were performed in the Graph Pad Prism 5 software (Graphpad Prism, GraphPad Software Inc., San Diego, CA, USA) by selecting the one-way ANOVA statistical test complemented by the Tukey test, with the level of statistical significance set at p < 0.05.

3. Results and discussion

The nanoscale modification of titanium surfaces can alter the physical properties of the surface, modifying the cellular interaction and may facilitate and allow bone formation in materials for medical and dental implants. As already mentioned, the deposition of thin TiO_2 films on the surface and the chemical manipulation of this surface, tends to improve osteoblast adhesion and proliferation properties, by altering the physical and chemical properties at the implant-cell interface.

Initially, thin films of TiO₂ were deposited and characterized on a titanium surface, as reported by Luciana et al. [74] According to the procedure, the TiO₂ films exhibit the XRD pattern for rutile and the presence of strong peak centered at a 27.7° relative of (110) plane, two low peaks can be observed at 25° and 40° relative to anatase, however, the thin film is majority composed of rutile. According to the same study, the particle size is around 75 (\pm 6.4) nm.

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) demonstrates that the TiO_2 films have a particle size of about 75 (\pm 6.4) nm and a thickness of approximately 500 nm [74]. After characterized by XRD and SEM, the TiO_2 substrates were immediately functionalized with the different chemical groups (3-mercaptopropionic acid (MPA), 3-aminopropyl-trimetoxysilane (APTMS), and bovine serum albumin (BSA)) to evaluate to evaluate the chemical, physical, and morphological influence of BSA binding on the TiO_2 substrate with or without the presence of bifunctional organic spacer.

The surface chemical composition of the substrates TiO₂, TiO₂-MPA, TiO₂-MPA-BSA, TiO₂-APTMS, TiO₂-APTMS-BSA, and TiO₂-BSA were observed through X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). XPS was used to examine the adsorption of the MPA, APTMS bifunctional organic compounds, and the BSA on the TiO₂ surfaces. Fig. 1 shows the survey spectra of the analyzed substrates.

The XPS results show an increase in the intensity of C 1 s (\sim 285 eV) for all functionalized substrates, which indicates the success of the surface modifications. TiO₂ substrate had C1 s peak indicating possible atmospheric contamination. Ti 2p (\sim 454 eV) were observed all the substrates referring to pristine TiO₂. The presence of O 1 s (\sim 530 eV) signal was observed in all the substrates referring to pristine TiO₂ or a



Fig. 1. XPS survey spectrum for the analyzed substrates of TiO2.

biofunctional group. The presence of S 2p (\sim 163 eV) signal for TiO₂-MPA and TiO₂-MPA-BSA confirms the success of thiol functionalization. In the substrates containing APTMS, the presence of signals referring to

N 1 s (\sim 401 eV) and Si 2p (\sim 103 eV), as well as in substrates containing albumin, confirms the surface modification with these biofunctional groups [17,74,76].

3.1. XPS analysis of MPA and APTMS on TiO₂ surface substrate

More chemical information related to the type of bond between the compounds on the TiO_2 surface and which free organic groups on the surface of the TiO_2 substrates were obtained by high resolution XPS scanning. The thiol, carboxylic acid, amino, silane, and hydroxyl organic groups were evaluated, through high resolution spectra for each respective group. The spectra were deconvoluted into different components by a fitting procedure.

The Ti 2p and O 1 s high-resolution XPS spectrum of the TiO₂ surface were taken and corroborate with previously obtained and published XPS signals [17,74]. The 2p3/2 peaks of Ti and TiO₂ are known to be at 453.8 eV and 458.8 eV, respectively. The energy difference between spin orbit peaks Ti $2p^{1}/_{2}$ and Ti $2p^{3}/_{2}$ is 5.7 eV, which is consistent to Ti⁴⁺ in TiO₂ bond. By O 1 s high resolution spectrum, two contributions were obtained consistent with Ti-O in TiO₂ and –OH groups on the surface [74].

Analyzing the high-resolution C 1 s, O 1 s, and S 2p spectra of MPA (Fig. 2) on the TiO₂ surface, it is possible to understand a preferential binding mode on both substrates. The deconvolution of C1 s high-resolution spectrum for TiO₂-MPA shows that the main peak has three contributions centered at 284.7 eV, 286.3 eV, and 288.6 eV, referring to C–C, C–S, and free COO- or COOH from MPA, respectively. The O 1 s signal presents two contributions at 530.0 eV and 531.6 eV, which corresponds to TiO₂/ Ti–O and S–O/OH bond, respectively. The TiO₂-MPA shows an S 2p peak with three contributions, centered at 159.5 eV, 164.05 eV, and 168.7 eV relative to S–Ti, C–SH (free MPA on the surface), and S–O bonds, respectively [17,85].

The S 2p analysis make it possible to determine the MPA binding mode under the TiO_2 surface. The presence of the S–O (O 1 s-531.6 eV) contribution is an indication that the thiol groups from MPA interact covalently with the hydroxyl groups of the TiO_2 substrate, leaving the free COO-/COOH groups on the surface, confirmed by the C 1 s (288.6 eV) [17,86]. Fig. 3 presents the high-resolution spectra of C1 s, O1 s, N1 s, and Si 2p for functionalized TiO_2 surfaces with APTMS groups.

Typical high-energy-resolution XPS spectra of C 1 s, N 1 s, and Si 2p were obtained after APTMS functionalization. The high-energy resolution spectrum of carbon C 1 s presented three different contributions that are related to different types of carbon-atom bonds at 285.2 eV, 286.7 eV, and 288.6 eV relative to C-C and/or C-H, C-O, and C-Si-O bonds, respectively. The O1s spectrum can be deconvoluted in two contributions centered at 530.02 eV and 531.8 eV corresponding to TiO₂/Ti-O and Ti-O-Si bonds, respectively, which indicates the adhesion of APTMS molecules by silane groups [17,74,87]. The deconvolution of N1 s high-resolution spectrum for TiO₂-APTMS shows that the main peak has three contributions centered at 398.9 eV, 400.3 eV, and 401.9 eV, referring to Ti-N, free -NH₂, and C-N bond. Contributions at 401.0 eV may be associated with the zwitterionic amine formation, which is connected with the existence of free NH_2 [88–90]. The high energy Si 2p spectrum of silicon resolution has a contribution centered at 102.9 eV for the Si-O bond. The N 1 s and O 1 s high resolution spectra analysis make it possible to confirm that the APTMS molecules bind covalently with the hydroxyls of TiO₂ across the silane groups, leaving the amine groups free on the surface.

3.2. XPS analysis of albumin immobilization on TiO_2 surfaces

The albumin immobilization on the TiO_2 , TiO_2 -MPA, and TiO_2 -APTMS surfaces were evaluated by XPS. Albumin can adsorb directly on a film surface of attractive electrostatic interacting with -OH groups present on the surface film, or through the covalent attachment



Fig. 2. High-resolution XPS spectra of C 1 s, O 1 s, and S 2p for TiO₂ surfaces functionalized with MPA.

between sites of albumin and functional groups of MPA or APTMS immobilized on the TiO_2 surface. Fig. 4 presents the C 1 s, N 1 s, and O 1 s high-resolution XPS spectra for the TiO_2 -BSA, TiO_2 -MPA-BSA, and TiO_2 -APTMS-BSA.

After protein adsorption, XPS analysis provided more evidence of the presence of proteins on the substrate surface. All the peaks observed on TiO₂-BSA were also observed on TiO₂-MPA-BSA and TiO₂-APTMS. The C1 s deconvolution of TiO₂-BSA spectra presents signals at 285.6 eV, 287 eV, and 288.8 eV referring to C-C/C-H, C-N/C-S, and COO-/COOH/C(O)NH bond, respectively. N 1 s shows contributions at 399.2 eV, 400.6 eV, and 402.2 eV referring to C(O)NH, -NH₂, and C-N bonds, which are typical of albumin on TiO₂ [91,92].

The O 1 s signal after protein adsorption is similar to protein-free,

suggesting that most of the signal is attributed to metal oxides (Ti–O) and – OH groups on the surface. The same peak positions are observed on TiO₂-MPA-BSA and TiO₂-APTMS-BSA, indicating the protein adsorption on the surface. Albumin immobilization on the TiO₂-MPA substrate is clearly observed, since C 1 s shows characteristic signs of the presence of albumin on the surface, especially C–N bonds in 286.4 eV, in addition to signals in the N1 s at approximately 402 eV, referring to -NH₂ and C–N.

For the TiO₂-APTMS-BSA substrate, an increase in signal percentage was observed at 400 eV (N1 s) for -NH₂ groups, from 69.2% on TiO₂-APTMS to 83.9% on TiO₂-APTMS BSA. The -C(O)NH₂ centered peptide bonds 288.8 eV (C 1 s) increase from 22.2% to 29.6% on the TiO₂-APTMS-BSA substrate. As already explained, the MPA ligand will



Fig. 3. High-resolution XPS spectra of C1s, O1s, N1s and Si 2p for TiO2 surfaces functionalized with APTMS.



Fig. 4. High-resolution XPS spectra of C 1 s, N 1 s, and O 1 s for TiO₂ surfaces functionalized with BSA.

interact with albumin through free – COOH groups on the surface, whereas APTMS will immobilize the protein through $-NH_2$ group. Covalent immobilization can not only improve surface uniformity but also provide more precise control of the protein on the surface, such as its fouling, orientation, and availability to attached to cells. The procedures used make the chemical modification in the surface of the substrates clear.

3.3. Surface wettability

The wettability/hydrophilicity and surface energy properties of the functionalized TiO_2 thin films were expected to vary from the pristine TiO_2 films and Ti substrates due to the different functional terminal groups present on their surfaces. It is known that the type of contact is closely related to the moisture and hydrophilicity of the surface, i.e. the lower the contact angle, the greater the wettability and consequently the surface hydrophilicity. The water contact angle (CA) measurements and the energy surface for the analyzed samples are compared in Fig. 5.

Fig. 5a shows the water contact angle (CA) measurements for the analyzed samples. The pristine Ti substrate presented the highest CA value (72°), being the less hydrophilic sample. The presence of TiO_2 thin film presented a mild increase in hydrophilicity, compared to Ti, and had a CA value of 54°. This slight change could be related to the presence of free hydroxyl groups on the TiO₂ surface. After functionalization, an increased wettability was observed for TiO₂-MPA sample to

28°, due to the presence of carboxylic acid terminal groups (-COOH) on the surface. Following the bio-functionalization with albumin, no significant change in wettability was observed for the TiO₂-MPA-BSA sample, which presented a CA of 31°. However, the presence of APTMS bifunctional molecule on the TiO₂ surface provided a more hydrophobic behavior, with a CA of 54° [78]. This could be related to the long carbon chain from the APTMS molecule. After the bio-functionalization with albumin, a decrease to 32° was observed for TiO₂-APTMS-BSA sample. The immobilization of the protein increased the wettability due to the presence of free -NH₂ and -COOH groups. This behavior is also confirmed when the protein is immobilized directly on the TiO₂ surface (TiO₂-BSA sample), showing high wettability with a CA around 17°.

The degree of wetting depends on the relative surface energies of the solids and the liquids on their intermolecular attraction [93]. The surface energy (SE) values had significant variations depending on the molecule present on the surface, as observed in Fig. 5b. SE values increased after the TiO₂ thin film deposition on Ti surface from 39 J/m^2 to 55 J/m^2 . This increase can be related to the presence of reactive – OH groups on the surface. The TiO₂-MPA, TiO₂-MPA-BSA, and TiO₂-BSA samples presented increased SE values of 72 J/m^2 , 69 J/m^2 , and 74 J/m^2 , respectively. This higher surface energy can be attributed to the presence of terminal – COOH groups for both samples. In addition, the bio-functionalized surfaces (TiO₂-MPA-BSA and TiO₂-BSA) also presented free -NH₂ groups that can increase the surface energy values. The TiO₂-APTMS did not present significant changes in SE value from



Fig. 5. Water contact angle (a) and surface energy (b) measurements for the functionalized samples.

the TiO₂ sample, showing a SE value of 54 J/m^2 . On the other hand, the presence of albumin on TiO2-APTMS-BSA sample increased the SE value to 68 J/m², which may be due to the albumin-free amine (-NH₂) and carboxylic acid (-COOH) groups. For the samples containing albumin, the presence of polar groups on this protein surface increases wettability and surface reactivity by polar liquids [94]. The surface wettability (hydrophilic surface) and surface charge (surface chemistry) of the substrate is an important factor in effective cell interaction with the surfaces, which can affect bone formation, influencing the adhesion, proliferation, and differentiation of osteoblasts [8,95,96]. Tamada et al. [97] determined that surfaces with a contact angle of 70° were suitable for cell adhesion even with surfaces that have poorly controlled roughness and surface load. In general, studies have shown that surfaces with contact angles less than 70° are promising for cell adhesion and proliferation [98].

The different TiO₂ surface modifications under Ti substrates are promising surfaces for cell response, since they have adequate wettability and surface chemistry for adhesion, proliferation, and differentiation of osteoblasts [14,99].

3.4. AFM analysis

To determine the morphological features and roughness of TiO₂, TiO₂-MPA, TiO₂-MPA-BSA, TiO₂-APTMS, TiO₂-APTMS-BSA, and TiO₂-BSA surfaces, AFM measurements were performed, based on a $4.0\,\mu m \times 4.0\,\mu m$ scan of the substrate. The AFM images are presented in Fig. 6.

The TiO₂ substrate had morphology with small spherical domains and low roughness ($R_a = 6.25 \pm 1.54$ nm). TiO₂-MPA and TiO₂-APTMS present different morphology and roughness compared to the TiO₂ substrate, but very similar to each other.

After BSA adsorption on the TiO2-MPA surface, the morphology and roughness remained similar with a little decrease of Ra, but within the measurement error. For the TiO2-APTMS substrate, the BSA adsorption maintained the morphology and increased the surface roughness of $Ra = 38.90 \pm 2.14 \text{ nm}$ (TiO₂-APTMS) to $Ra = 47.32 \pm 2.78 \text{ nm}$ (TiO₂-APTMS-BSA).

AFM measurements demonstrate that the BSA adsorption on the TiO₂ substrate increased the roughness to 52.76 \pm 1.95 nm, but the morphology was still similar to the surfaces with BSA. In general, a uniform surface, but not homogeneity, was observed with different spherical domains [14,78].

Skewness and Kurtosis parameters were evaluated for the AFM histograms. Skewness is a symmetry measure, or more specifically, the lack of symmetry. Kurtosis is aspect information of a probability distribution. The normal distribution is a symmetrical distribution with well-behaved tails. This is designated by the asymmetry obtained with skewness parameters close to zero and kurtosis values close to 3.00. Obtained values shown a normal distribution of the analyzed histograms, as indicated on caption of Fig. 6.

TiO₂ and functionalized TiO₂ surfaces had different morphologies and roughness. Although the substrates TiO2-MPA, TiO2-MPA-BSA, TiO₂-APTMS, TiO₂-APTMS-BSA, and TiO₂-BSA had similar morphologies, the roughness varied among surfaces. Therefore, the variation in morphology, roughness, and contact angle indicates differences in the chemical and wettability of the surface [14,78].

3.5. Cell viability assay

Cell viability of preosteoblast MC3T3-E1 cultured on titanium surfaces and modified substrates (TiO2, TiO2-MPA, TiO2- MPA-BSA, TiO2-APTMS, TiO₂-APTMS-BSA and TiO₂-BSA) were performed by the MTT reduction assay for 48 and 72 h. MTT assay, the most commonly used method to evaluate the cellular response (viability/cytotoxicity), can measure the increase or decrease of cells that show metabolic activities. Ti substrates were used as the control group [35,100,101].

The results of MTT optical density (OD) values at 550 nm are in Fig. 7.

The results found a gradual increase of cell viability on all surfaces over time. The cell viability at 48 h showed a relative increase for all groups compared with TiO₂, but TiO₂-APTMS presented the highest cell proliferation rate. On the other hand, TiO₂-MPA-BSA, TiO₂-APTMS-BSA, and TiO₂-BSA presented similar viability, although they increased with time. After 72 h, all the substrates presented increased viability, and no statistical difference was found among functionalized surfaces. During the first 48 h, the TiO₂-APTMS substrate had the highest biocompatibility and enhanced cell proliferation rate of MC3T3-E1, even when compared to those with surface immobilized albumin. In general, the functionalized TiO₂ substrates exhibit high biocompatibility and do not introduce toxic materials to the implant surface when compared to the TiO₂ film. As discussed previously, the TiO₂ film is important on the surface of the implant as it decreases the corrosion properties of the material. These biofunctional groups can improve cell adhesion and proliferation properties, as shown by the feasibility results.



Fig. 6. Two-dimensional AFM images of the surfaces. TiO₂ (6.25 ± 1.54 nm, Rsk = 0.11, Rku = 2.32), TiO₂-MPA ($R_a = 41.88 \pm 1.93$ nm, Rsk = 0.27, Rku = 3.08), TiO₂-APTMS ($R_a = 38.90 \pm 2.14$ nm, Rsk = -0.01, Rku = 2.11) TiO₂-BSA ($R_a = 52.76 \pm 1.95$ nm, Rsk = -0.47, Rku = 2.18), TiO₂-MPA-BSA, ($R_a = 37.56 \pm 3.42$ nm, Rsk = 0.65, Rku = 2.63) and TiO₂-APTMS-BSA ($R_a = 47.32 \pm 2.78$ nm, Rsk = -0.87, Rku = 2.78).

3.6. Alizarin red staining: calcium deposition

To assess the amount of mineral deposited by the cultured cells on the modified surfaces, the calcium deposition in the cell layer was quantified by the alizarin red staining [65,84,102]. The mineralization process was evaluated by determining the Ca^{2+} levels of the supernatants obtained after 14 days of cell culture under the titanium surfaces, through the absorbance measure. Fig. 8 shows the calcium deposition was illustrated by alizarin red on the surfaces at 14 days of culture. As shown in Fig. 8a, calcium deposition is observed as a red color. The mineralization amount was calculated and quantified (Fig. 8b).

On day 14, the cells cultured on the surface-modified Ti surfaces showed a larger amount of calcium. The mineral amount deposited on the different substrates is similar to the deposition found for the titanium substrate, already reported in the literature, as an excellent osteogenic inducer. All modified surfaces had increased extracellular matrix mineralization after 14 days, which indicates that modified TiO_2 surfaces could be a good implant material that helps accelerate the osteogenic differentiation of MC3T3-E1 cells. No statistical difference was found between the different treated surfaces [65, 104, 105].

4. Conclusions

The physical adsorption of albumin on TiO_2 surfaces are not stable and reversible adsorption and desorption processes can occur in the presence of extracellular matrix.

Covalent immobilization of albumin through MPA and APTMS allows better control of albumin on TiO_2 surfaces, with interactions oriented through the groups present on the surface, – COOH when MPA and NH₂ when APTMS, and can optimize cell adhesion and proliferation. However, TiO_2 -MPA-BSA and TiO_2 -APTMS-BSA exhibited very similar wettability and hydrophilicity, with similar viability and cell mineralization results after 72 h and 14 days, respectively, when



Fig. 7. Cell viability of MC3T3-E1 cells on different surfaces. Metabolic activity of cells surfaces were assessed by MTT assay after 48 and 72 h of culture. (* indicates statistically significant differences (p < 0.05)).



Fig. 8. (a) Images of calcium deposited on Ti modified surfaces, at 14 days of culture and (b) amount of mineralized calcium deposited after 14 days of cultures.

compared to studies of BSA adsorbed directly on TiO_2 .

The TiO₂-APTMS substrate had better viability and mineralization results, even with a higher contact angle (54°) than the other substrates analyzed. However, it still had adequate hydrophilicity for cellular interaction. Chemical immobilization of BSA, either physically or covalently, on TiO₂ substrates showed similar surface chemistry without altering long-term cellular interaction. The TiO₂-APTMS substrate with -NH₂ groups on the surface is a group that more efficiently interacts with components of the extracellular matrix, presenting high cell viability at 48 h. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that surface chemistry governs the resulting adhesion, proliferation, and differentiation of osteoblastic cells.

Acknowledgment

Authors thank the Brazilian agencies CAPES, CNPq, and FAPESP (2014/01713-3, 2014/20471-0, 2016/11183-7 and 2017/15035-5), for financial support. They are also grateful to Dra Elidiane C. Rangel, UNESO for the contact angle and energy surface measurements and Heloisa Helenna Figueiredo Paes de Oliveira for image design.

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