ARTICLE IN PRESS

Acta Biomaterialia xxx (2014) xxx-xxx

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Acta Biomaterialia



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

Novel synthesis and characterization of a collagen-based biopolymer initiated by hydroxyapatite nanoparticles

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ARTICLE INFO

16 Article history:

Received 8 August 2014
Received in revised form 20 November 2014

19 Accented 25 November 2014

20 Available online xxxx

21 Keywords:

22 Biodegradable polymer

23 Collagen

24 PLGA

25 Hydroxyapatite

ABSTRACT

In this study, we developed a novel synthesis method to create a complex collagen-based biopolymer that promises to possess the necessary material properties for a bone graft substitute. The synthesis was carried out in several steps. In the first step, a ring-opening polymerization reaction initiated by hydroxy-apatite nanoparticles was used to polymerize pL-lactide and glycolide monomers to form a poly(lactide-co-glycolide) co-polymer. In the second step, the polymerization product was coupled with succinic anhydride, and subsequently was reacted with N-hydroxysuccinimide in the presence of dicyclohexylcar-bodiimide as the cross-linking agent, in order to activate the co-polymer for collagen attachment. In the third and final step, the activated co-polymer was attached to calf skin collagen type I, in hydrochloric acid/phosphate buffer solution and the precipitated co-polymer with attached collagen was isolated. The synthesis was monitored by proton nuclear magnetic resonance, infrared and Raman spectroscopies, and the products after each step were characterized by thermal and mechanical analysis. Calculations of the resulting biopolymer, afforded a preliminary assessment of the structure of the complex biomaterial formed by this novel polymerization process.

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46 1. Introduction

Bone grafting is a standard surgical practice, involving the 47 replacement of deficient bone in order to repair bone fractures 48 and bone defects caused by congenital disorders, traumatic injury 49 or surgery of bone tumors [1,2]. It has been estimated that 6.8 mil-50 lion fractures occur annually in the USA [3-8], resulting in an esti-51 mated expenditure of US\$21 billion [5,6]. More than half a million 52 53 bone graft procedures are performed each year in the USA, which makes bone grafts the second most frequently transplanted mate-54 rial [5,8]. Bone grafts can serve as scaffolds onto which natural 55 56 bone can grow and regenerate in order to repair the fracture or 57 defect. Autogenous bone graft sources have been widely used since 58 the early 1900s [9,10], involving the harvest of bone tissue from the patient's own body. Autografts have less probability of being 59

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rejected by the immune system and induce complications such as pathogen transmission. However, the shortcomings of autografts include limited availability and donor site morbidity [9-13], which give rise to various complications that result from obtaining tissue from the patient's own body. Complications include chronic pain, scarring, bleeding and infection at the site of bone tissue retrieval. An alternative is allogeneic bone grafting, obtained from human cadavers or living donors. There are issues associated with this treatment as well, such as immunogenicity and rejection reactions and the possibility of infection transmission [11-13].

In an attempt to circumvent the difficulties associated with either autologous or allogeneic bone tissue replacement, extensive current research is aimed at the development of a suitable scaffold made of synthetic or natural biomaterials. Such a scaffold should be able to promote the migration, proliferation and differentiation of bone cells for bone regeneration [14–25], and at the same time shield the patient from the perils of bone tissue harvesting and/or tissue rejection. At present, there are no synthetic bone graft substitute materials available that have similar or superior biological

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.actbio.2014.11.044

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Please cite this article in press as: Bhuiyan D et al. Novel synthesis and characterization of a collagen-based biopolymer initiated by hydroxyapatite nanoparticles. Acta Biomater (2014), http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.actbio.2014.11.044 2

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80 and mechanical properties compared to bone itself. Hydroxyapa-81 tite (HAP) bioceramic is currently used clinically as a bone graft 82 substitute material. However, pure HAP bioceramic is only suitable 83 for repairing small fractures or non-load-bearing bone defects 84 because of its brittleness, low mechanical strength and weak fati-85 gue resistance [16,19–20]. In order to overcome these limitations, 86 resorbable polymers such as poly(L-lactide) (PLLA) were com-87 pounded with the ceramic materials such as HAP, resulting in a 88 biocomposite that would exhibit improved mechanical properties 89 [17–26]. However, the incompatibility between the polymer and 90 the ceramic material due to the lack of bonding between the poly-91 mer and the inorganic moiety resulted in a phase separation at the 92 polymer-filler interface. Such filler-polymer de-bonding and sepa-93 ration have been typically overcome by inducing covalent bonding 94 between the filler phase and the polymer matrix [27–29]. Hong 95 et al. [30] used this concept to successfully graft short chains of 96 PLLA (PLLA oligomers) directly to the hydroxyl groups on the sur-97 face of nanocrystalline HAP and then blend up to 40 wt.% of the 98 surface-modified particles into the PLLA matrix. The resulting composite material retained its biocompatibility, but became more 99 100 ductile, most likely due to the plasticizing effect of the oligomer 101 moiety. A more attractive system for bone repair applications is 102 the biodegradable poly(D,L-lactide-co-glycolide) (PLGA) polymer, 103 generated by the polymerization of lactide and glycolide mono-104 mers, because its degradation rate can be adjusted by altering 105 the ratio of lactic to glycolic acids to match the rate of bone forma-106 tion [31–33].

107 Clearly, the fabrication of synthetic bone graft substitutes that 108 would match the exceptional ability of natural bone to self-repair 109 is very challenging. It is most likely that a single phase system 110 would not possess all the necessary materials characteristics, and 111 hence modifications of the polymer matrix may be needed to modulate the properties of the composite and generate the required 112 113 bioactive material. A possible strategy would consist of the surface 114 modification of the polymer matrix in order to enhance certain sur-115 face properties such as hydrophilicity or chemical compatibility. A 116 more efficient strategy would be to tether to the polymer a biolog-117 ical macromolecule, which, if properly chosen, would assist with 118 both the compatibilization between the polymer matrix and the 119 HAP moiety and with the integration with the surrounding tissue. 120 Collagens, being the most abundant proteins in the body, and hav-121 ing suitable properties such as biodegradability, bioabsorbability with low antigenicity, high affinity to water and the ability to 122 123 interact with cells through integrin recognition, are a very promising candidate for such a modification of the polymer matrix 124 125 [14,34-36].

126 With the above preamble, it is clear that there is still a need for 127 a resorbable polymer system with sufficient strength and tough-128 ness for bone tissue engineering applications. Separation at the 129 composite filler-polymer interface suggests that bonding between 130 all the components of the multi-phase system is required to obtain 131 a mechanically and thermally stable material. In this study, the novel synthesis of a nano-HAP-PLGA-collagen (nHAP-PLGA-col) 132 133 multiphase biomaterial was developed using HAP nanoparticles (nHAP) as initiators and eventually as the reinforcing inorganic 134 135 phase. The synthesis process was carried out in several steps and was monitored by proton nuclear magnetic resonance (¹H NMR), 136 Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) and Raman spectroscopies. The 137 138 products after each step were also characterized by thermogravi-139 metric analysis (TGA) and and differential scanning calorimetry 140 (DSC). The estimation of the ratios of the components in the result-141 ing complex biopolymer, coupled with its initial dynamic mechan-142 ical analysis testing, afforded a preliminary assessment of the 143 structure of the complex biomaterial formed by this novel poly-144 merization process.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials

D,L-lactide and glycolide monomers were obtained from Ortec, 147 Inc. (Easley, SC). HAP nanopowder (≤200 nm) was purchased 148 from Sigma Aldrich. Lyophilized calf skin collagen type I 149 $(M_w = 1,000,000 \text{ g mol}^{-1})$ was purchased from Elastin Products 150 Company, Inc. (Owensville, MO). Stannous octoate, succinic anhy-151 dride (99%), N-hydroxysuccinimide (98%) (NHS), N,N-dicyclohexyl-152 carbodiimide (DCC), N,N-dimethylformamide (DMF), ethyl acetate 153 (99.5%), diethyl ether anhydrous, methylene chloride, toluene 154 (99.8%), phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) and hydrochloric acid (HCl) 155 were purchased from Fisher Scientific. All the solvents used 156 (DMF, ethyl acetate, methylene chloride) were stored over molec-157 ular sieves (4 Å). 158

2.2. Polymerization of PLGA initiated by nHAP

The amount of 0.84 g nHAP was dried overnight in a vacuum 160 oven at 80 °C to get rid of moisture. nHAP was further dried in a 161 glass reactor placed in an oil bath for 30 min at 100 °C. 39.42 g of 162 D,L-lactide (75 wt.%) and 10.58 g (25 wt.%) of glycolide monomers 163 were added to the reactor and stirred with a stainless steel rotator 164 while the oil bath temperature was set at 150 °C, which was cho-165 sen based on a previous study by Bendix [37]. The reactor was 166 purged with nitrogen gas three times and when the monomer 167 melted, the molten monomer and nHAP mixture was sonicated 168 with a sonicator probe for 5 min. 0.05 g stannous octoate catalyst 169 was dissolved in 10 ml toluene and added to the reactor when 170 the oil bath temperature reached 150 °C. Samples were collected 171 at different time intervals during the polymerization process to 172 be analyzed by ¹H NMR. After 2 h of polymerization, the reaction 173 was placed under vacuum (25 in Hg) for 30 min and then 0.2 g suc-174 cinic anhydride was added subsequently to obtain a carboxyl end 175 group, for the functionalization of the PLGA product. After an over-176 all period of 4.5 h of polymerization, the reactor was taken out of 177 the oil bath and the product at this stage was denoted as nHAP-178 PLGA co-polymer, which was collected with a spatula and dried 179 overnight in vacuum at room temperature. 180

2.3. Activation of nHAP-PLGA with N-hydroxysuccinimide

10 g of previously prepared nHAP-PLGA co-polymer was dis-182 solved in 200 ml dried methylene chloride and 0.39 g NHS (molar 183 ratio of NHS/co-polymer = 10) and 0.09 g DCC (30% excess) was 184 added according to the method followed by Porjazoska et al., 185 who successfully attached collagen with poly(ethylene glycol)-186 poly(D,L-lactide-co-glycolide)-poly(ethylene glycol) (PEG-PLGA-187 PEG) tri-block co-polymer [14]. The reaction was allowed to 188 continue for 20 h under a nitrogen atmosphere. The polymer solu-189 tion was then dissolved in ethyl acetate and precipitated in anhy-190 drous diethyl ether. The precipitated polymer was collected with a 191 spatula and dried in vacuum at room temperature overnight. Dried 192 nHAP-PLGA-NHS polymer was stored at 4 °C until it was used in 193 subsequent steps. 194

2.4. Attachment of collagen to the PLGA co-polymer

160 mg calf skin collagen type I was dissolved in 223.8 ml 1 mM196HCl in an ice bath and subsequently diluted with 300 ml 50 mM197phosphate buffer (pH 7.4). 0.96 g nHAP-PLGA-NHS polymer was198dissolved in 26.6 ml anhydrous DMF and added dropwise to the199collagen solution in the ice bath according to the method followed200

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