



## Enhanced laminin adsorption on nanowires compared to flat surfaces



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### ABSTRACT

Semiconductor nanowires are widely used to interface living cells, and numerous nanowire-based devices have been developed to manipulate or sense cell behavior. We have, however, little knowledge on the nature of the cell–nanowire interface. Laminin is an extracellular matrix protein promoting cell attachment and growth. Here, we used a method based on fluorescence microscopy and measured the relative amount of laminin adsorbed on nanowires compared to flat surfaces. The amount of adsorbed laminin per surface area is up to 4 times higher on 55 nm diameter gallium phosphide nanowires compared to the flat gallium phosphide surface between the nanowires. We show that this enhanced adsorption on nanowires cannot be attributed to electrostatic effects, nor to differences in surface chemistry, but possibly to pure geometrical effects, as increasing the nanowire diameter results in a decreased amount of adsorbed protein. The increased adsorption of laminin on nanowires may explain the exceptionally beneficial properties of nanowire substrates for cellular growth reported in the literature since laminin is often used as surface coating prior to cell cultures in order to promote cell growth, and also because primary cell suspensions contain endogenous laminin.

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### 1. Introduction

Cell proliferation, morphology and adhesion on surfaces are strongly influenced by the topographical and chemical nature of the substrates. For instance, fibroblast spreading can be tuned by controlling the RGD (Arg-Gly-Asp) ligand density and clustering on the substrate [1,2]. There are three possible components in the cell response to different topographies: topography per se, biochemistry and substrate mechanical stiffness. Cells respond to the surface topography and one can find many examples in the literature of surfaces mimicking the extra-cellular matrix, which is not smooth and flat [3,4]. Cells are also sensitive to the stiffness of the substrate [5,6], which is directly influenced by the topography. For instance, a surface with long or low-density pillars will appear “softer” than a surface with shorter or denser pillars. Finally, cells are reacting to the biochemistry of the substrate, as mentioned above. In some cases, the topography and the biochemistry

of the surface are linked. For instance, it has been shown that a specific nanotopography was adsorbing more fibronectin than other topographies, leading to the formation of more cell focal adhesion spots on this topography [7].

A few years ago, we showed that gallium phosphide (GaP) nanowires were excellent substrates for culturing neurons from the peripheral nervous system [8–10], which we recently confirmed applies for CNS neurons as well [11]. Since then, various studies have shown that different types of cells could be cultured on a wide range of nanowires [12–20]. We have shown that cell focal adhesions formed specifically on nanowires [21], suggesting a possible increase in molecules from the extracellular matrix (ECM), promoting cell adhesion and growth, on the nanowires. Among these ECM molecules, laminin is a 900 kDa extracellular protein that can bind to the cell transmembrane receptor integrins, and can trigger the formation of focal adhesions. Laminin is widely used for coating substrates before cell cultures, as it has been shown to increase cell adhesion and growth on the substrate [22,23].

Here, we used fluorescence microscopy to quantify the relative laminin adsorption on nanowires compared to flat surfaces. The laminin is adsorbed on vertical nanowire array substrates and is subsequently fluorescently labeled using immunochemistry. The

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amount of photons detected from the nanowires and from the flat surface are normalized to the surface area and compared. The effects of surface chemistry and nanowire diameter are investigated.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Nanowires

Gallium phosphide nanowires were grown using metal organic vapor phase epitaxy (MOVPE) from catalytic gold nanoparticles [24]. Pure single crystalline gold nanoparticles with either 40 or 80 nm diameter were deposited randomly on a GaP (111)B substrate by aerosol deposition [25]. The average particle density on the surface was chosen to be 0.2, 0.5 or 1  $\mu\text{m}^{-2}$ . The substrates were subsequently transferred to a commercial MOVPE reactor (Aixtron 200/4, Aixtron AG) for nanowire growth as previously described [26,27]. In order to remove the surface oxide and to alloy the Au particles with the substrate, the samples were annealed at 470 °C for 10 min in an atmosphere of hydrogen and phosphine. The nanowire growth was conducted at low pressure (10 kPa) and was initiated by supplying trimethylgallium in addition to the phosphine at 470 °C. The nanowire length was controlled by adjusting the duration of the growth and was chosen to be between 2 and 5  $\mu\text{m}$ , depending on the sample. The nanowire diameter was determined by the gold particle size and was typically 55 nm and 90 nm for a nominal 40 nm and 80 nm diameter Au nanoparticle, respectively. The resulting GaP nanowires were perpendicular to the surface with very low tapering and with exceptional homogeneity in the dimensions of the nanowires. Some nanowire substrates were sputtered with  $\text{SiO}_x$  (AJA Orion 5 sputtering system) in order to cover the GaP material, as well as to increase the nanowire diameter to larger diameters, usually not achievable using our aerosol set-up.

### 2.2. Determination of the nanowire dimensions

The nanowire substrates were characterized using scanning electron microscopy (SEM), in a FEI NanoLab 600 FIB/SEM system. The lengths of the nanowires were measured and the nanowire diameters were measured at mid length. The measurements were repeated for 10 nanowires at each of five different places of the approximately 20 mm<sup>2</sup> large samples. The diameter variation within a given sample was  $\pm 5$  nm and the length variation was  $\pm 0.2$   $\mu\text{m}$ . In the case of  $\text{SiO}_x$ -sputtered nanowires, the final diameter variation was  $\pm 10$  nm.

### 2.3. Laminin adsorption

A solution of laminin from Engelbreth–Holm–Swarm murine sarcoma basement membrane at 1 mg/mL in Tris buffered NaCl (Sigma Aldrich) was thawed on ice and diluted to a final concentration of 0.1  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$  in either RPMI 1640 culture medium (Sigma Aldrich) or in phosphate buffer saline (PBS). A 2 mL volume of the 0.1  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$  laminin solution was poured in a petri dish containing the nanowire substrate and incubated at room temperature for 1 h. Initially, the samples were then fixed in Stefanini fixative for 10 min before being rinsed 3 times in PBS. We later found out that the fixation step was not necessary and that the adsorbed laminin ratio was the same (and stable for days), when fixation was omitted. Therefore most of the samples were simply rinsed in PBS after laminin incubation.

### 2.4. Laminin immunostaining

The substrates were incubated in a 1:200 rabbit-anti-laminin IgG (Sigma Aldrich) in PBS containing 0.25% Triton X100 and 0.25% BSA for 2 h at room temperature. After rinsing seven times in PBS,

the samples were incubated with 1:200 goat-anti rabbit-Alexa Fluor 488 IgG (Invitrogen) in PBS containing 0.25% triton X100 and 0.25% BSA for 2 h at room temperature, in the dark. The samples were subsequently rinsed several times in PBS. Nanowire substrates showed no detectable fluorescence when no primary antibodies were used or when no laminin was pre-adsorbed on the sample.

### 2.5. Direct laminin labeling with Alexa Fluor 488

We labeled laminin directly with Alexa Fluor 488 using the Alexa-Fluor 488 protein labeling kit (Invitrogen). Briefly, the Tris buffered NaCl solvent of the 1 mg/mL laminin stock solution was exchanged for PBS using a NAP-5 column (GE Healthcare Life Sciences) before using the protein labeling kit. The method is optimized for labeling small IgG proteins: even though we could collect a band of fluorescently labeled proteins, the concentration could not be determined using a spectrophotometer (Nanodrop), implying that it was below the 0.1 mg/mL detection limit. The labeled laminin solution was diluted 40 times in PBS before being poured on the GaP nanowire substrates for a one-hour incubation time in the dark, at room temperature. The samples were then rinsed in PBS.

### 2.6. Confocal microscopy

The samples were imaged using a Zeiss LSM 510 confocal microscope with a 63 $\times$  oil immersion objective (1.4 N.A.). The optical slice was set to the maximum, corresponding to 7.3  $\mu\text{m}$ . The optical slice should be larger than the nanowire length in order to collect the fluorescence from the laminin adsorbed on both the nanowires and the surface in the same image. The gain was adjusted to the highest value for which no pixels would be saturated. Line-averaged 4 times, 2048  $\times$  2048 pixel images were taken for all samples at a 1 $\times$  magnification in the LSM software, corresponding to a 142.86<sup>2</sup>  $\mu\text{m}^2$  area.

The linearity of the response of the photodetectors was verified by using a concentration series of the ATTO488 dye (Sigma Aldrich) in water (Excitation 488 nm, Emission 523 nm). Confocal z-stack images of the nanowire arrays were also acquired. In this case, the optical slice was chosen to be 0.8  $\mu\text{m}$  and the increment between two consecutive stack images was 0.4  $\mu\text{m}$ . The corresponding 3 dimensional image was then generated using the ImageJ software (version 1.44, National Institute of Health, USA).

### 2.7. Analysis

The confocal images were analyzed using ImageJ. On single-plane images (as shown in Fig. 2b for instance), a rectangular area was chosen, typically containing tens of nanowires. The total number of pixels ( $P$ ), as well as the mean counts per pixel (Mean  $C$ ) was extracted. The exact number of nanowires ( $N$ ) in the selected square was counted. A smaller square containing no nanowires was then selected, and the mean count (Mean  $C$  surface) was extracted from the image.

The number of counts per surface area ( $\mu\text{m}^{-2}$ ) on the nanowires was calculated as:

$$NW = \frac{P(\text{Mean } C - \text{Mean } C \text{ surface})}{N\pi DL} \pm \Delta(NW)$$

where  $D$  is the nanowire diameter and  $L$  is the nanowire length.

The uncertainty is estimated to be:

$$\Delta NW = \left( \frac{\Delta(\text{Mean } C \text{ surface})}{\text{Mean } C \text{ surface}} + \frac{\Delta(D)}{D} + \frac{\Delta(L)}{L} \right) NW$$

where  $\Delta(D) = 5$  nm and  $\Delta(L) = 0.2$   $\mu\text{m}$ .

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