

# From Bio-waste to Bone Substitute: Synthesis of Biomimetic Hydroxyapatite and Its Use in Chitosan-based Composite Scaffold Preparation



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Nanocomposite structure of the bone can be mimicked by chitosan/hydroxyapatite (CS/HAp) composite scaffold. Biological hydroxyapatite (HAp) contains various ions, which have a crucial role in bone growth. The aim of the present work was to synthesize biomimetic hydroxyapatite and prepare composite scaffolds based on chitosan, where HAp was synthesised from hen eggshells, seashells and cuttlefish bone. The powders were composed of nano-structured calcium deficient HAp and amorphous calcium phosphate (ACP). In the as-prepared powders,  $\text{Sr}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Na}^{+}$  ions were detected as a result of using biogenic precursor of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ions. Highly porous CS/HAp structures have been prepared by freeze-gelation technique. The CS/HAp scaffolds have shown highly porous structure with very well interconnected pores and homogeneously dispersed HAp particles. The MTT assay of CS/HAp scaffolds has shown no toxicity, and the *live/dead* assay has confirmed good viability and proliferation of seeded cells.

## Keywords:

biogenic source, chitosan, hydroxyapatite, scaffold, trace element

## 1. Introduction

Considering the improvement of people's living standard and increased life expectancy, it is crucial to develop scaffolds for bone tissue engineering that fulfil various requirements such as bioactivity, biocompatibility, cell-scaffold adhesion, mechanical properties, and biodegradability<sup>1,2</sup>. A promising way to obtain appropriate scaffold is to mimic the structure, element content, and phase composition of natural bone tissue<sup>3–5</sup>.

Human bone consists of 65–70 % inorganic phase (calcium phosphates and trace elements), 20–25 % of organic phase (primarily collagen), and 5–8 % of water<sup>6</sup>. Hydroxyapatite ( $\text{Ca}_{10}(\text{PO}_4)_6(\text{OH})_2$ , HAp) is a calcium phosphate highly used in bone tissue engineering as scaffold, filler, drug delivery system, and bioactive coating, due to its bioactivity, osteoinductivity, biocompatibility, and chemical similarity to the mineral phase of bone tissue<sup>1,7,8</sup>. Biological HAp in its structure contains various trace elements, such as  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Na}^{+}$ ,  $\text{K}^{+}$ ,  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Sr}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Cl}^{-}$ ,  $\text{F}^{-}$ , which have a crucial role in bone growth<sup>9,10</sup>. Incorporation of mentioned ions in synthetic HAp crystal lattice can affect its crystallinity, morphology, lattice parameters, thermal stability, solubility,

and phase composition, which can significantly improve the biological properties of synthetic HAp bioceramics<sup>11</sup>.

Numerous methods have been developed for the synthesis of HAp, such as solid-state, mechanochemical, chemical precipitation, sol-gel, and hydrothermal methods, using various precursors of calcium and phosphate ions. However, in synthetic stoichiometric HAp there are no trace elements in its structure, which is why natural biogenic sources as potential materials for synthesis of biomimetic HAp have been investigated<sup>1,6,12</sup>. Calcium-rich sources, such as eggshells, seashells, animal bones, cuttlefish bone, and corals represent a promising future of bioceramics because they naturally contain trace elements in their crystal lattice<sup>13</sup>. Additionally, using natural biogenic sources for HAp synthesis, bio-waste (e.g. eggshells, fish bones) is reduced and recycled, and it is considered as an environmentally friendly approach<sup>14,15</sup>.

Scaffolds used as biomaterials for bone regeneration should promote cell-cell and cell-material interactions, cell adhesion, extracellular matrix deposition, diffusion of gases, nutrients, and regulatory factors to ensure cell proliferation and differentiation at degradation rate close to regeneration rate of bone tissue, without causing an inflammatory reaction<sup>16</sup>. Combination of HAp and organic phase (biodegradable polymer) leads to improved biologi-

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cal and mechanical properties of composite material. HAp provides bioactivity and osteoinductivity, while polymer provides mechanical resistance, flexibility, and biodegradability<sup>17</sup>. Polymers can enable porous structure, which promotes bone tissue ingrowth and interactions between an implant and natural bone tissue<sup>18</sup>. One promising candidate as polymer matrix in composite scaffolds for bone tissue engineering is biopolymer chitosan (CS). The CS is a naturally occurring polysaccharide obtained from biopolymer chitin by the deacetylation process. Chitin and chitosan are biopolymers obtained from crustacean shells of marine source, and they are non-toxic, biodegradable, and biocompatible<sup>3,15,19</sup>. The amino ( $-\text{NH}_2$ ) groups in the chitosan polymer chain provide anti-bacterial, anti-fungal and anti-microbial properties without causing inflammatory reaction<sup>15,20</sup>. Chitosan-based composites are commonly used in medical technology as drug delivery systems, scaffold-based, wound healing, and tissue engineering materials<sup>15</sup>. Materials obtained from biogenic sources are attracting increasing interest due to remarkable biointeractive surface at cell level, better cell attachment and growth, and therefore, are more biocompatible than synthetic materials<sup>3</sup>.

Considering all mentioned above, the aim of the present work was to synthesize biomimetic hydroxyapatite and prepare composite scaffolds based on chitosan. The preparation study and biological properties of chitosan/hydroxyapatite (CS/HAp) scaffolds have been studied, using three different biogenic sources for HAp preparation (hen eggshells, seashells and cuttlefish bone).

## Materials and methods

### Preparation of starting materials

Calcium oxide (CaO) obtained from synthetic ( $\text{CaCO}_3$ , TTT) and biogenic calcium carbonate from hen eggshell, cuttlefish bone (*Sepia officinalis* L.), and seashell (*Trachycardium egmontianum* L.) was used as the source of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ions for HAp synthesis. To remove the organic matter and obtain CaO from hen eggshell (CaO\_e), cuttlefish bone (CaO\_c), and seashell (CaO\_s), they were washed, crushed, and calcined at 700 °C in air atmosphere for 4 h<sup>6,12</sup>. Synthetic CaO was obtained by calcination at same conditions as synthetic  $\text{CaCO}_3$ .

### Synthesis of hydroxyapatite

HAp was synthesised by wet precipitation method by dissolving the appropriate amounts of CaO from different sources (prepared as described in *Preparation of starting materials*) in distilled wa-

ter. Ammonium dihydrogen phosphate ( $\text{NH}_4\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4$ , Lachner) was added into solution to gain Ca/P molar ratio 1.67 (stoichiometric HAp). Stirring was continued for 3 days at 60 °C followed by overnight aging at room temperature. The synthesised HAp powders from CaO, CaO\_e, CaO\_c and CaO\_s are referred to as HAp, HAp\_e, HAp\_c and HAp\_s, respectively. Part of each sample was heat treated at 1200 °C for 2 h.

### Preparation of chitosan-hydroxyapatite biocomposite scaffolds

The appropriate amount of chitosan was added to 0.40 wt% acetic acid solution to obtain 1.2 wt% chitosan solution at ambient temperature. The appropriate amounts of HAp, HAp\_e, HAp\_c, and HAp\_s were added to obtain 30 wt% of HAp in chitosan solution, based on a previous study<sup>21</sup>. The CS/HAp suspensions were cooled to 4 °C, set in moulds, frozen, and kept at -30 °C for 8 h. Further, frozen samples were immersed into the neutralisation medium of 1 M NaOH/ethanol at -30 °C for 24 h to induce gelation of chitosan. The samples were rinsed in ethanol (96 wt%) at -30 °C for 24 h, washed with distilled water, frozen, and lyophilized. The synthesised chitosan/hydroxyapatite biocomposite scaffolds from HAp, HAp\_e, HAp\_c, and HAp\_s are referred to as CS/HAp, CS/HAp\_e, CS/HAp\_c, and CS/HAp\_s, respectively. Schematic diagram of composite scaffold preparation is shown in Fig 1.

### Characterisation of obtained materials

Elemental analysis was performed by ICP-MS (ICP-MS PerkinElmer SCIEXT ELANR DRC-e, Concord, ON, Canada) according to the manufacturer's protocol. In each batch, ICP-MS accuracy was verified with standard reference materials with results within the certified concentration range for all relevant elements (ICP-MS Complete Standard-V-ICPMS-71A, Inorganic Ventures, USA). Each sample (100 mg) was dissolved in 1 mL of aqueous solution of  $\text{HNO}_3$  (Ultra-Pure, Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, SAD), and the solution volume was increased up to 10 mL with ultrapure water.

The final pH of precipitated suspensions was measured on Schott CG 842 pH-meter using Blue-Line 14 electrode with precision of 0.01 at room temperature.

Phase analyses of obtained calcium oxides were done using X-ray diffraction analysis (XRD) performed on Shimadzu XRD-6000 (Shimadzu, XRD-6000, Duisburg, Germany) diffractometer with  $\text{Cu K}_\alpha$  (1.5406 Å) radiation operated at 40 kV and 30 mA, in the range 35°–70°, at a step size of 0.02°, and exposure of 0.6 s. Phase analysis of

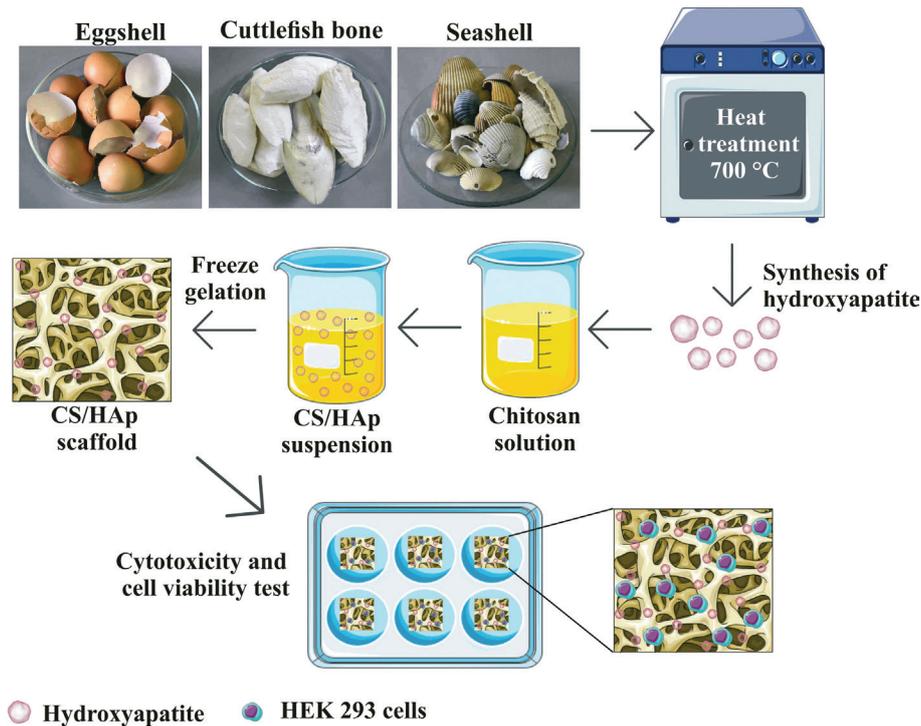


Fig. 1 – Schematic diagram of the synthesis of composite chitosan/hydroxyapatite scaffolds obtained from eggshell, cuttlefish bone, and seashell

as-prepared and heat-treated HAp powders, mixed with 5 wt% of polycrystalline silicon standard (NIST SRN 640e, Sigma Aldrich), was performed using X-ray diffraction analysis (XRD) in the range of  $20^{\circ}$ – $70^{\circ}$ , at a step size of  $0.02^{\circ}$ , and exposure of 3 s. The software DIFFRAC.SUITE TOPAS V.5.0. (Bruker, Karlsruhe, Germany) with the fundamental parameters approach was employed for Rietveld refinements. The structural parameters of HAp obtained by Veselinović *et al.*<sup>22</sup>,  $\beta$ -tricalcium phosphate by Yashima *et al.*<sup>23</sup>, and  $\alpha$ -tricalcium phosphate by Mathew *et al.*<sup>24</sup>, have been used as the initial values in the refinements. The crystallite size of HAp along the *c*- and *a*-axis were calculated applying Scherrer's approximation, measuring the full width at half maximum (FWHM) of reflection. The weighted profile R-factor ( $R_{wp}$ ) was used to assess the goodness-of-fit of the Rietveld refinement, while results with  $R_{wp} < 11\%$  and  $R_{exp} < 3\%$  were considered to be acceptable.

The Fourier transform infrared spectra (FTIR) of as-prepared HAp powders and CS/HAp biocomposite scaffolds were recorded by attenuated total reflectance (ATR) spectrometer for solids with diamond crystal (Bruker, Vertex 70, Ettlingen, Germany) at  $20^{\circ}\text{C}$ , over the spectral range of  $4000$ – $400\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , with 32 scans and  $4\text{ cm}^{-1}$  of resolution.

The morphology of prepared CS/HAp biocomposite scaffolds was analysed by scanning electron microscopy (SEM, TESCAN, Vega3 EasyProbe,

Kohoutovice, Czech Republic) at electron beam energy of 11 keV. Scaffolds were coated with plasma of gold and palladium for 90 s. Obtained SEM images and ImageJ software (ImageJ2, Madison, Wisconsin, USA) were used to determine diameter of 350 pores of different CS/HAp scaffolds. The results are shown as pore density (%) of each pore range in relation to the total number of measured pores.

Porosity of the scaffolds was evaluated by Archimedes' principle, immersing each scaffold in ethanol ( $\rho = 0.789\text{ g cm}^{-3}$ ) at room temperature. The scaffolds porosity (%) was calculated as the pore volume ( $V_{\text{pore}}$ ) fraction within the total volume of scaffold ( $V_{\text{CS/HAp}}$ ) according to the Eq. (1):

$$\text{Porosity}(\%) = \frac{V_{\text{pore}}}{V_{\text{CS/HAp}}} \quad (1)$$

The samples were cut with biopsy puncher into cylindrical pieces of 6 mm diameter ( $D$ ) from previously prepared scaffold with uniform thickness ( $H$ ) of  $\sim 1\text{ mm}$ . The dry samples ( $n = 5$ ) were initially weighed ( $W_d$ ). After immersion in ethanol under vacuum atmosphere, excess liquid was removed with the humid blanket, and samples were weighed again ( $W_e$ ). The pore volume was calculated according to Eq. (2):

$$V_{\text{pore}} = \frac{W_e - W_d}{\rho_{\text{ethanol}}} \quad (2)$$

The density of cylindrically-shaped scaffold is calculated according to Eq. (3)

$$\rho_{\text{CS/HAp}} = \frac{W_d}{\pi \cdot (D/2)^2 \cdot H} \quad (3)$$

## Biological evaluation

### Cell seeding

Prepared scaffolds were cut into cylindrical pieces of 6 mm diameter and ~1 mm height, sterilised in 96 % ethanol for 24 h. After sterilisation, scaffolds were washed 3 times with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) solution (Gibco – Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA), and left in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's culture medium (DMEM) – high glucose (Sigma- Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, USA) supplemented with 10 % foetal bovine serum (Capricorn Scientific, Ebsdorfergrund, Hessen, Germany) and 1 % penicillin/streptomycin (Lonza, Basel Switzerland) for 24 h at 4 °C. The following day, scaffolds were transported into polystyrene 96-well plates with hydrophobic surface (Corning – Sigma Aldrich).

The human embryonic kidney 293 (HEK 293) cells were seeded on each scaffold in a concentration  $0.5 \cdot 10^5$  cells/200  $\mu\text{L}$  of medium per well. Cell suspension was added on each scaffold, and incubated for 30 min in the incubator to allow cell attachment and migration inside the scaffold. Following the incubation period, the medium was added to a final volume of 200  $\mu\text{L}$  per well. Each experiment was performed in triplicate. Blanks for both assays were included as well. The cells were kept in a 5 %  $\text{CO}_2$  humidified atmosphere at 37 °C.

### Cytotoxicity evaluation by MTT assay

Evaluation of potential cytotoxicity was obtained by staining with (3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide) (MTT, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, USA), and colorimetric detection at 560 nm using microplate reader (GlowMax-Multi, PromegaMadison, Wisconsin, USA) after 1 and 3 days of cell culture. The medium was removed, and 200  $\mu\text{L}$  of MTT solution diluted in medium ( $0.5 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$ ) was added to each well. Following the incubation period of 3 h at 37 °C, MTT solution was aspirated and 150  $\mu\text{L}$  of DMSO (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, USA) added to each well. Following the 15 min incubation needed for dissolution of formazan crystals, 100  $\mu\text{L}$  of solution was transferred into clean 96-plate in order to read absorbance.

### Quantitative detection of cell viability by Live and Dead Cell assay

The percentage of live and dead cell population was determined by fluorescent detection using Live

and Dead kit (Abcam, Cambridge, UK) after 1 and 7 days of cell culture. In order to collect cells from each scaffold, the medium was removed; scaffolds were washed with PBS followed by trypsinisation (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, USA) and neutralisation with the medium. Samples were centrifuged at 300 x g for 5 min, and the supernatant was removed. The cell pallet was washed with PBS and incubated with 200  $\mu\text{L}$  of the stain diluted 1 000 x in PBS. After 10 min incubation in the dark, solution was transferred into black opaque 96-well plates (Corning – Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, USA) and analysed on microplate reader (GlowMax-Multi, PromegaMadison, Wisconsin, USA) using fluorescent filters (excitation 490 nm, emission 510–570 nm).

### Statistical analysis

MTT experiments were performed in triplicate ( $n = 3$ ), and Live and Dead assay in quadruplicate ( $n = 4$ ). All data were expressed as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA test followed by a post-hoc test to evaluate the statistical significance between groups. A value of  $p < 0.05$  was considered statistically significant, and  $p < 0.01$  was considered highly statistically significant.

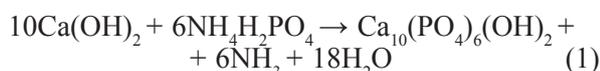
## Results and discussion

Pharmacologics and biologics were used in combination with calcium phosphate ceramics (CaP) to increase bone regeneration. However, the use of growth factors might result in negative side effects, such as unwanted ectopic bone formation. The natural bone mineral is multi-substituted calcium-deficient apatite, which includes low concentrations of different ions, such as  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Sr}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ,  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ , etc. Nowadays, the interest is turning to biomimetic synthetic apatite, where biogenic sources are used to produce multi-substituted HAp as an alternative and potentially safer strategy<sup>3,25,26</sup>. The trace elements are essential during bone tissue regeneration as they increase proliferation and differentiation of osteoblast cells, and decrease osteoclast cells activity<sup>26</sup>. Moreover, the presence of trace elements results in higher dissolution rate compared to stoichiometric hydroxyapatite. That leads to higher concentration of released ions that are essential for bone regeneration process<sup>27</sup>. According to *in vivo* studies obtained by Lee *et al.*<sup>28</sup>, higher rate of bone formation was measured in defect filled with HAp obtained from eggshells compared to defect filled with HAp obtained from seashells. Different bone formation can be the result of different element composition of HAp obtained from different sour-

es. Furthermore, recently developed interest for nanotechnology in many fields is producing interesting and imminent applications for nano-hydroxyapatite in orthopaedics<sup>29</sup>, dentistry<sup>30</sup> and maxillofacial<sup>31</sup> surgery. The aim of this study was the synthesis of multi-substituted HAp, and to determine which of the biogenic sources and associated trace elements leads to enhanced biological performance. The HAp was prepared from biogenic waste materials that are available in large quantities in nature. Hen eggshell, seashell, and cuttlefish bone are mainly composed of calcium carbonate (~95 %), while the rest is organic component and mineral salts<sup>32</sup>. To mimic collagen type I in natural bone tissue, biopolymer chitosan as polymer matrix was used.

### XRD patterns of calcium oxides

After the heat treatment of synthetic and biogenic calcium carbonates ( $\text{CaCO}_3$ ), the XRD patterns (Fig. 2a) show characteristic peaks for CaO (ICDD 82-1691), without characteristic peaks of aragonite and calcite polymorphs. Under heating,  $\text{CaCO}_3$  decomposes to calcium oxide (CaO) (and carbonate dioxide), which was further dissolved in distilled water, producing calcium hydroxide ( $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ )<sup>25,26</sup>. To obtain HAp, appropriate amount of  $\text{NH}_4\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4$  was added to  $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$  and following reaction occurred<sup>6</sup>:



### FTIR analysis

FTIR spectra (Fig. 2b) of all as-prepared powders (HAp, HAp\_e, HAp\_c, and HAp\_s) is shown in the range 400–1550  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , while at the wave numbers  $>1550 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  significant bands were not detected. Typical bands of phosphate ( $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$ ) group at 1026 and 1091  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  are attributed to asymmetric stretching vibration of P–O, bands at 561  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and 601  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  to asymmetric bending vibrations of O–P–O and 961  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  band associated to symmetric stretching vibration of P–O, which can be assigned to HAp phase. The absorption bending vibrations of O–H observed around 632  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  is characteristic for structural OH– group in HAp crystal<sup>34,35</sup>. Weak absorption bands characteristic for carbonate ( $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ) group at 870 (out of plane bending), 1416 and 1455  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (asymmetric stretching) indicate that tetrahedral  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  sites in the HAp lattice are partially replaced by  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  (B-type of substitution) typical for biological apatite<sup>36,37</sup>. As HAp powders are synthesised from CaO,  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  substitution was expected due to the high reactivity of the initial component and the presence of  $\text{CO}_2$  in the process of synthesis

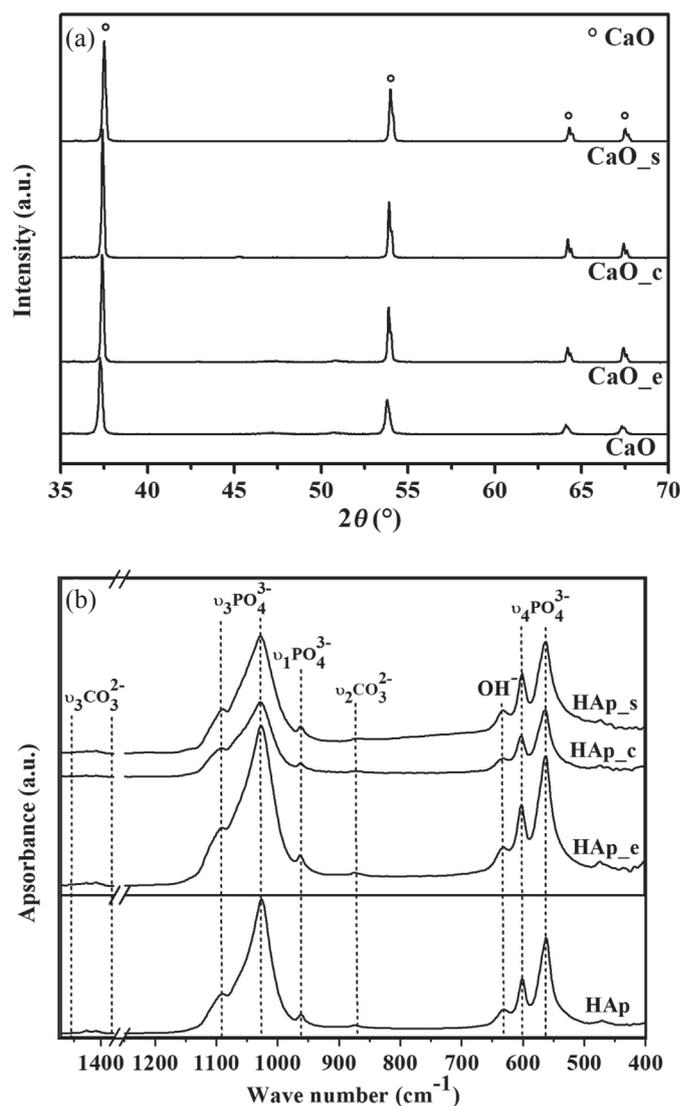


Fig. 2 – XRD patterns (a) of heat-treated calcite (synthetic, CaO; eggshell, CaO\_e; cuttlefish bone, CaO\_c; seashell, CaO\_s). Characteristic CaO (ICDD 82-1691) diffraction maxima are depicted as (°). FTIR spectra (b) of as-prepared HAp synthesised from prepared calcium oxides.

at atmosphere conditions, as previously described by Goloshchapov *et al.*<sup>32</sup> The  $\text{CO}_3$ -substitution in HAp lattice enhances bioresorption and therefore osteogenic performance of synthetic material<sup>32</sup>. As reported by Kumar *et al.*<sup>34</sup>,  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  ions are most abundant ions in natural bone mineral with weight ratio in the range 4–8 wt%. In the early stage of bone maturation, B-type substitution is dominant, while as humans grow older, A-type substitution increases<sup>34</sup>.

### Chemical composition of as-prepared powders

The chemical composition of HAp powders was determined by ICP-MS analysis (Table 1). In all prepared samples from biogenic source  $\text{Sr}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  ions, which are typical trace elements in natural bone mineral, were detected. Compared

Table 1 – Results of ICP-MS analysis and quantitative analysis of as-prepared CaP phases performed by Rietveld refinement of the XRD data

Sample	Minor substituents (mol%)					Ca/P (mol mol <sup>-1</sup> )	Quantitative analysis (wt%)	
	Sr	Na	Mg	Al	Fe		HAp	ACP
HAp_s	0.20	0.34	0.26	0.07	0.07	1.58	64.04	35.96
HAp_c	0.49	0.74	0.60	0.06	0.08	1.48	88.62	11.38
HAp_e	0.12	0.13	1.40	0.05	0.06	1.55	75.52	24.48
HAp	0.01	0.00	0.40	0.05	0.02	2.08	85.59	14.41

to HAp obtained from biogenic source (HAp\_e, HAp\_c, and HAp\_s), control powder (HAp) prepared from synthetic CaO, had significantly lower content of strontium (0.01 mol%) and sodium ions (0.00 mol%), while comparable content of magnesium (0.40 mol%) ions. The sodium (0.74 mol%) and strontium (0.49 mol%) contents were significantly higher in the case of HAp\_c, while higher magnesium content (1.40 mol%) was measured in HAp\_e. The Sr<sup>2+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup> and Na<sup>+</sup> content were significantly lower in the case of HAp\_s compared to HAp\_c and HAp\_e. The higher magnesium content in HAp obtained from hen eggshells is not surprising since the hen eggshell is composed of CaCO<sub>3</sub>, organic component, and ~1 % magnesium carbonate, as previously described by Akram *et al.*<sup>10</sup> These results are in accordance with the work of Lee *et al.*<sup>28</sup>, who observed higher concentration of Mg ions in HAp obtained from eggshell compared to HAp obtained from seashells. The aragonite structure of cuttlefish bone is stabilised with strontium ions<sup>38,39</sup> that results in higher strontium content in HAp\_c compared to HAp\_e and HAp\_s. Obtained results provide additional support for results obtained by previous studies confirming that by using biogenic sources, the multi-substituted hydroxyapatite can be obtained.

Sodium (Na<sup>+</sup>) and magnesium (Mg<sup>2+</sup>) ions are highly important in the early stage of bone mineralisation, whereas the lack of these ions may result in bone fragility<sup>34</sup>. Previous studies have shown that substituting CaP materials with Mg<sup>2+</sup> improved densification as well as osteoblastic cellular attachment, proliferation, and alkaline phosphatase (ALP) production<sup>26</sup>. *In vivo* studies obtained by Landi *et al.*<sup>40</sup> showed greater osteogenic properties of CaPs substituted with Mg<sup>2+</sup> compared to non-substituted system. Further, magnesium possesses antibacterial and antitumor properties reducing the risk of inflammatory reaction<sup>41</sup>. Strontium plays a crucial role in bone formation by increasing osteoblast activity through stimulating the calcium sensing receptor, while reducing bone resorption by inhibiting the formation of osteoclasts<sup>26,42</sup>. Compared to other scaffold materials that are combined with growth

factors, the scaffolds composed of hydroxyapatite substituted with trace elements can achieve long-term release of ions that promote bone repair, and show good bioactivity and osteoinductivity in terms of proliferation, cell viability, and morphology<sup>42</sup>.

As expected, HAp synthesised from biogenic sources have lower Ca/P ratio (Table 1) than stoichiometric HAp with Ca/P molar ratio 1.67. This can be due to trace elements present in HAp structure as determined by ICP-MS method. Obtained results are in good agreement with bioapatite that is so-called calcium-deficient hydroxyapatite with Ca/P molar ratio ~1.5<sup>43,44</sup>. Contrary to expectations, the HAp obtained from synthetic CaO had Ca/P ratio 2.08, although the stoichiometric Ca/P ratio was expected. The reason for this rather contradictory result is still not entirely clear, but there are two possible explanations for this outcome. Comparing the experimental diffraction pattern (Fig. 3) to JCPDS standards, the crystalline phase is ascribed to HAp (JCPDS 09-0432), while Rietveld refinement studies demonstrated presence of amorphous calcium phosphate (ACP) phase as well (Table 1). The ACP can have Ca/P molar ratio in the range 1.2–2.2, depending on the synthesis conditions and used precursors<sup>43</sup>. Further, the higher Ca/P molar ratio can be the result of higher calcium content and lower phosphate content as result of B-type substitution, as previously explained by FTIR analysis.

#### XRD patterns of as-prepared powders and Rietveld refinements

Comparison of the XRD results to JCPDS HAp standard, confirmed the formation of crystalline hexagonal structure in the space group *P6<sub>3</sub>/m*. Rietveld refinement studies have confirmed the presence of ACP in all as-prepared samples. The weight percentage of ACP (Table 1) differed between the samples, 14.41 wt% was determined in HAp, 24.48 wt% in HAp\_e, 11.38 wt% in HAp\_c, 35.96 wt% in HAp\_s, respectively. The final pH of all precipitated solutions at room temperature was 10.41 ± 0.06, and it favoured HAp and ACP precipitation<sup>45</sup>. In the literature, different estimates of the ACP content in bone mineral can be found, in the range 1–30 % of

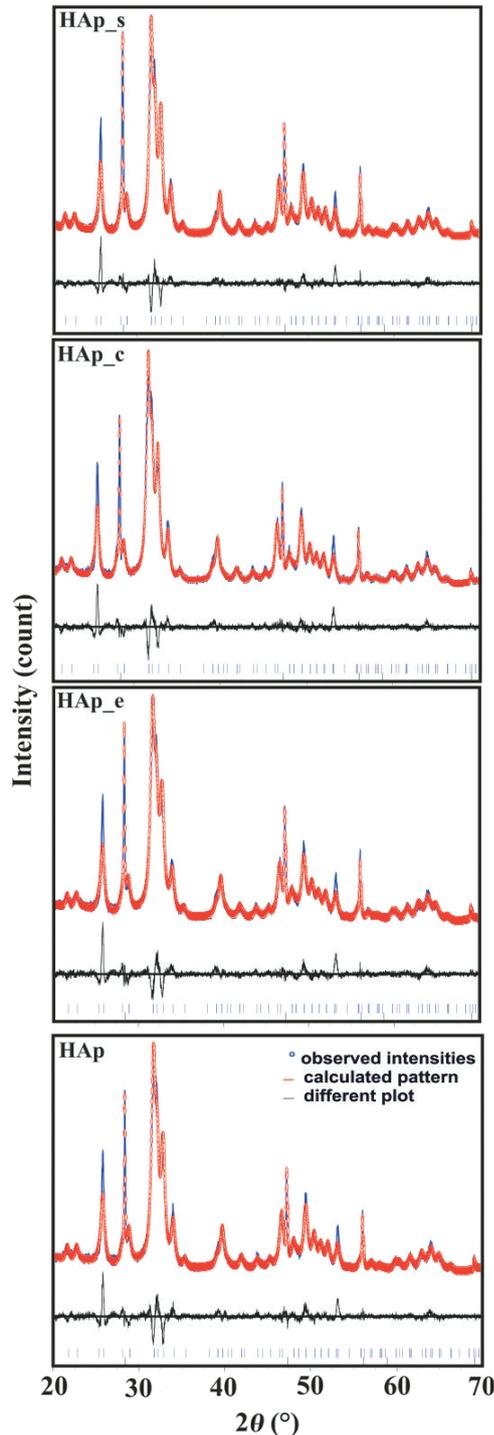


Fig. 3 – Rietveld analysis pattern of powder diffraction data for as-prepared CaP powders obtained from different biogenic sources. The open circles are experimental data and the solid lines are calculated intensities. The difference between the experimental and calculated intensities is plotted below the profile ( $R_{wp} < 11\%$ ;  $R_{exp} < 3\%$ ). Bragg positions of hydroxyapatite and silicon (standard) are marked below each pattern.

the total mineral mass, while the rest is poorly crystalline calcium deficient hydroxyapatite substituted with various ions<sup>45</sup>.

The Rietveld refinement studies revealed no significant difference between the lattice parameters

Table 2 – Unit cell parameters and crystal size of HAp in the as-prepared CaP powders

Sample	HAp			
	$V(\text{Å}^3)$	$a = b(\text{Å})$	$c(\text{Å})$	$L(\text{nm})$
HAp_s	530.084	9.4304265	6.8825875	13.93
HAp_c	529.946	9.4298413	6.8816424	13.03
HAp_e	529.956	9.4332978	6.8767361	10.99
HAp	529.730	9.4284543	6.8808578	12.21

Table 3 – Quantitative analysis of phases in heat-treated CaP powders performed by Rietveld refinement of the XRD data

Sample	Quantitative analysis (wt%)			
	HAp	$\beta$ -TCP	$\alpha$ -TCP	ACP
HAp_s_h	58.62	4.31	14.52	22.55
HAp_c_h	74.09	17.38	4.69	3.84
HAp_e_h	42.65	37.46	–	19.89
HAp_h	68.32	12.35	18.73	0.60

of HAp obtained from different sources (Table 2), and they were almost identical to lattice parameters of HAp standard JCPDS 09-0432. It can be assumed that the presence of trace elements had no influence on the cell structure of HAp. The average crystallite size ( $L$ ), calculated using Scherrer equation, was 12.21 nm for HAp, 10.99 nm for HAp\_e, 13.03 nm for HAp\_c, and 13.39 nm for HAp\_s. All prepared HAp powders could be considered as nanostructured, and the surface of nanostructured materials plays an important role in cell adhesion, migration, and extracellular matrix production<sup>46</sup>.

### XRD patterns of heat-treated powders and Rietveld refinements

XRD patterns of heat-treated powders at 1200 °C are presented in Fig. 4. The synthesised HAp, HAp\_e, HAp\_c, and HAp\_s powders after heat treatment were referred to as HAp\_h, HAp\_e\_h, HAp\_c\_h, and HAp\_s\_h, respectively. In comparison to XRD patterns of as-prepared powders, the diffraction peaks of heat-treated powders had sharpened, indicating an increase in crystallinity due to the heat treatment. The phase composition of samples after heat treatment is given in Table 3. HAp\_h, HAp\_c\_h, and HAp\_s\_h were composed of HAp (JCPDS 09-0432),  $\beta$ -TCP (JCPDS 09-0169),  $\alpha$ -TCP (JCPDS 09-0348) and ACP, while in HAp\_e\_h powder  $\alpha$ -TCP was not detected. As previously described by Liao *et al.*<sup>47</sup>, XRD patterns, after heat treatment of hydroxyapatite in range 1000 – 1350 °C, showed characteristic peaks of stoichiometric HAp.

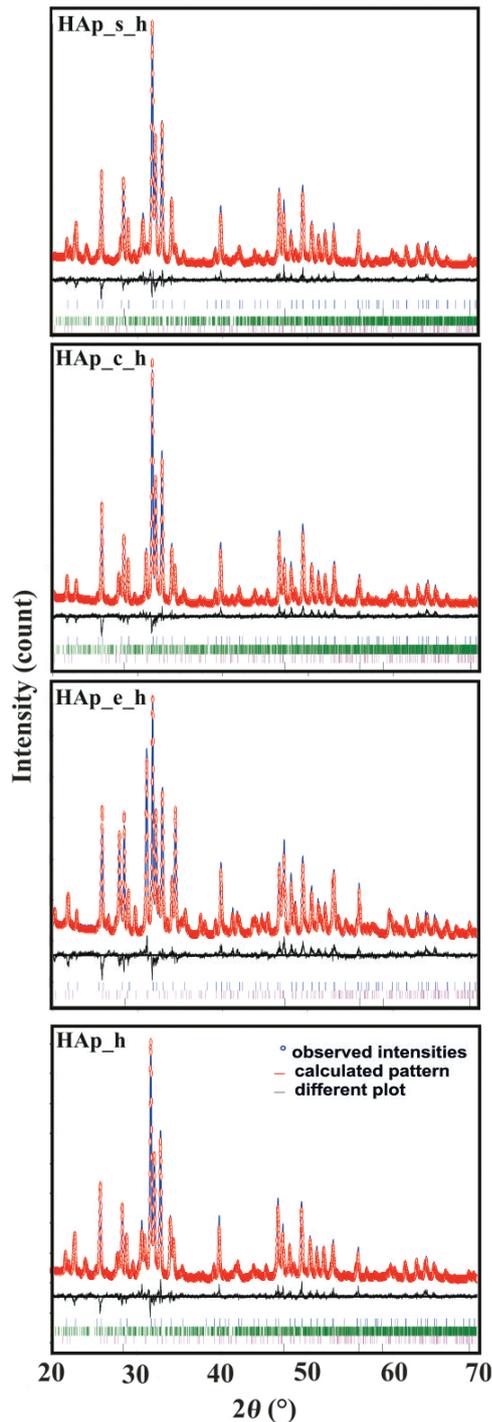


Fig. 4 – Rietveld analysis pattern of powder diffraction data for heat-treated CaP powders obtained from different biogenic sources. The open circles are experimental data and the solid lines are calculated intensities. The difference between the experimental and calculated intensities is plotted below the profile ( $R_{wp} < 11\%$ ;  $R_{exp} < 3\%$ ). Bragg positions of hydroxyapatite,  $\beta$ -tricalcium phosphate,  $\alpha$ -tricalcium phosphate and silicon (standard) are marked below each pattern.

However, calcium deficient HAp with trace elements in its lattice structure can reduce the temperature of phase transformation to  $\beta$ -TCP and  $\alpha$ -TCP due to disrupted crystal lattice stability<sup>47</sup>. The

HAp\_e, HAp\_c, and HAp\_s obtained from biogenic source were composed of calcium deficient HAp as Ca/P ratio was lower than 1.67, and partial phase transformation to  $\beta$ -TCP and  $\alpha$ -TCP was expected. The HAp\_e\_h was composed of HAp and  $\beta$ -TCP without precipitation of  $\alpha$ -TCP. Stipniecie *et al.*<sup>48</sup> reported that  $Mg^{2+}$  ions promote the thermal conversion of HAp to  $\beta$ -TCP, i.e., those ions prefer to substitute and stabilise  $\beta$ -TCP crystal structure. It can be supposed that high concentration of  $Mg^{2+}$  ions in HAp\_e is the reason why HAp to  $\alpha$ -TCP transformation had not been observed. Similar effect was detected in HAp\_c\_h, where higher amount of precipitated  $\beta$ -TCP and lower amount of  $\alpha$ -TCP was detected compared to HAp\_h and HAp\_s\_h due to 0.60 mol% substitution with  $Mg^{2+}$  ion prior to heat treatment.

### Morphology of CS/HAp scaffolds

The microstructures of CS/HAp, CS/HAp\_e, CS/HAp\_c, and CS/HAp\_s shown in Fig. 5a reveal highly porous structure with sphere-like HAp particles homogeneously dispersed in chitosan matrix. In natural bone tissue, the mineral is mainly calcium deficient carbonate HAp substituted with trace elements with plate-like morphology. However, synthetic HAp can have various nanostructures like sphere, rod, plate, flake, flower, etc.<sup>6</sup>

The determined pore volume fraction was  $57.02 \pm 0.01\%$  in CS/HAp,  $60.81 \pm 0.09\%$  in CS/HAp\_e,  $60.24 \pm 0.07\%$  in CS/HAp\_c,  $58.41 \pm 0.04\%$  in CS/HAp\_s scaffold, respectively. Highly porous structure is an essential parameter for oxygen, nutrients and metabolic waste diffusion, and enables tissue ingrowth and contributes to the creation of permanent interactions between a tissue and the implant<sup>18,49</sup>. The analysis of porosity and pore size distribution revealed no significant differences between the samples. The distribution of pore size, shown in Fig. 5b, ranged from  $\sim 35$  to  $\sim 350 \mu m$  in the CS/HAp\_e, CS/HAp\_c, and CS/HAp\_s scaffolds, and from  $\sim 50$  to  $\sim 400 \mu m$  in CS/HAp scaffold. It has been suggested that the pore size must be large enough to allow migration of cells, but small enough to allow the binding of cells to the scaffold. Porous polymer scaffolds with a pore size of  $100\text{--}500 \mu m$ , combined with hydroxyapatite, were found to be optimal scaffolds for bone-tissue engineering<sup>49</sup>. It can be assumed that only different trace elements present in HAp lattice would influence biological properties of obtained scaffolds.

### FTIR analysis of CS/HAp scaffolds

FTIR spectra (Fig. 6) of composite scaffolds (CS/HAp, CS/HAp\_e, CS/HAp\_c, and CS/HAp\_s) and control (CS) is shown in the range  $400\text{--}1750 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,

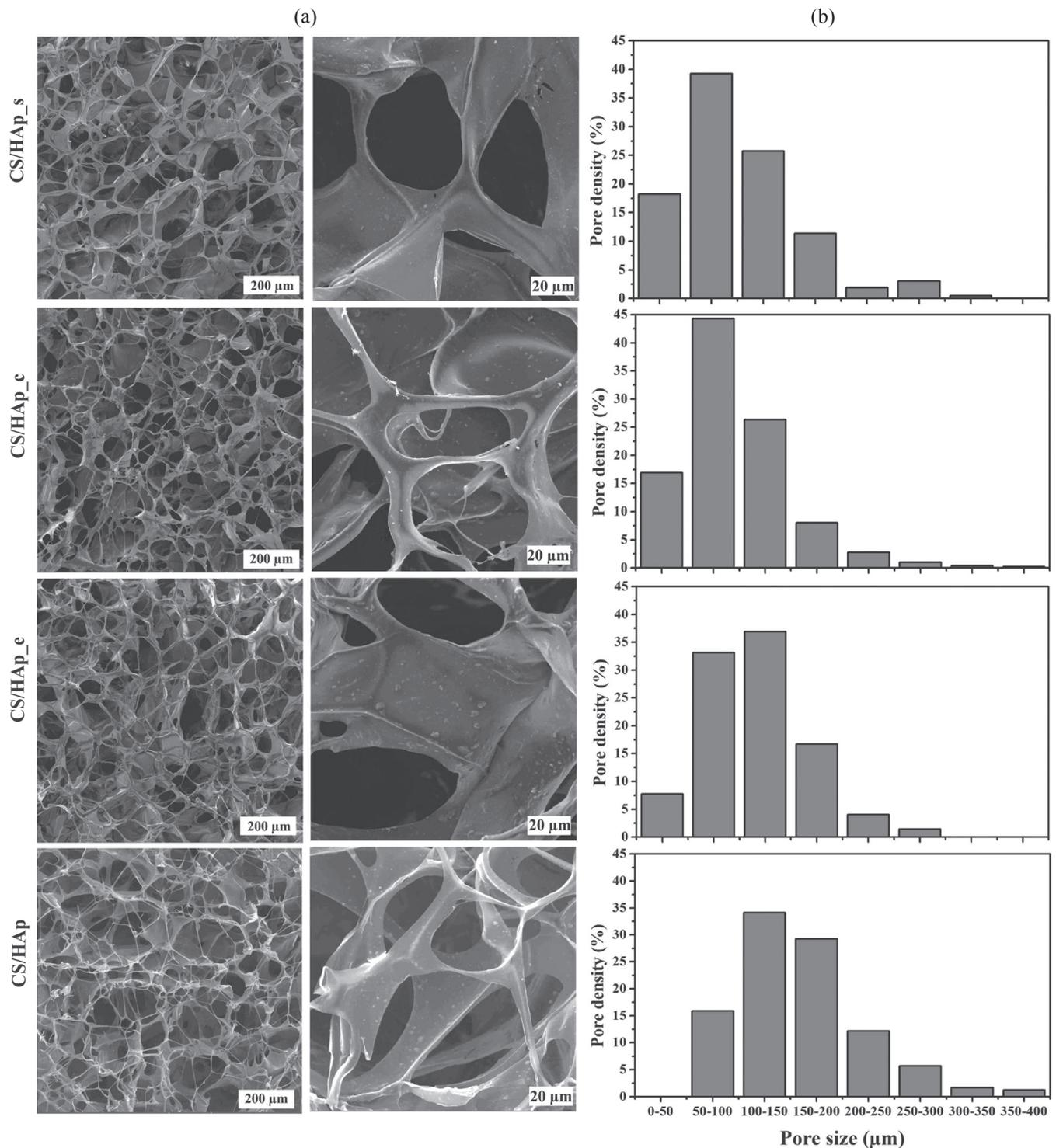


Fig. 5 – Microscopic imaging (a) and pore size distribution (b) of prepared composite scaffolds obtained from different biogenic sources. Scale bar: 200 and 20 μm.

as at the wave numbers  $>1750\text{ cm}^{-1}$  significant bands were not found. Typical bands of chitosan groups were found at  $1654\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , corresponding to amid I (carbonyl band of amid), at  $1568\text{ cm}^{-1}$  attributed to amid II (amino band of amid),  $1421\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $1323\text{ cm}^{-1}$  that correspond to the vibrations of OH and CH in the ring,  $1377\text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $\text{CH}_3$  in amide group, and range  $1025 - 1151\text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $\text{C}-\text{O}-\text{C}$  in glycosidic linkage<sup>50</sup>. Along with characteristic bands

for chitosan, typical bands for HAp were found at  $564\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $600\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $1028\text{ cm}^{-1}$  corresponding to  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$ , and at  $631\text{ cm}^{-1}$  corresponding to  $\text{OH}^-$  group.

#### Biological evaluation of CS/HAp scaffolds

The biological evaluation of CS/HAp scaffolds has been performed on the HEK 293 cells to determine cytotoxicity and cell viability performance.

Mitochondria are essential metabolic organelles of cells, and their activity can be a direct indicator of cell viability and proliferation. MTT assay is used to assess the mitochondrial activity of cells. The viability of HEK 293 cells cultured on CS/HAp, CS/HAp\_e, CS/HAp\_c, and CS/HAp\_s scaffolds was determined by MTT assay (Fig. 7a). The cells seeded on prepared scaffolds showed no significant difference in cell viability after 1 day of cell culture. Following the 3-day incubation period, the cell viability enhanced with significant difference for the cells seeded on CS/HAp\_e, CS/HAp\_c, and CS/HAp\_s scaffolds, respectively. Meanwhile, the cells seeded on CS/HAp showed a lack of significant increase in cell viability. The significant increase in cell viability provides additional support for using biogenic sources as precursors to obtain scaffolds for bone regeneration.

The *Live/dead* assay was determined after 1 and 7 days of cell culture, and is shown in Fig. 7b. The composite scaffolds obtained from chitosan and HAp derived from biogenic sources (CS/HAp\_e, CS/HAp\_c and CS/HAp\_s) displayed enhanced percent of live cells compared to the scaffold obtained from chitosan and synthetic hydroxyapatite (CS/HAp). The CS/HAp\_e and CS/HAp\_c showed greater percent of live cells after 7 days of cell culture compared to CS/HAp and CS/HAp\_s, respectively.

Our results are in accordance with the work of Kim *et al.*<sup>51</sup> suggesting that cell proliferation is significantly higher for HAp obtained from cuttlefish bone compared to synthetic HAp. Similar findings are reported by Lee *et al.*<sup>28</sup> demonstrating better biological performance of HAp obtained from eggshells compared to seashells. As explained, the higher concentration of Mg<sup>2+</sup> ions in HAp structure obtained from eggshells might be related to the higher bone regeneration in comparison with HAp obtained from seashells. The Mg<sup>2+</sup> ions are related to the early stage of bone formation and metabolism. Both *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies show greater bone formation of materials enriched with Mg<sup>2+</sup> ions<sup>37,50</sup>. Greater cell proliferation of the CS/HAp\_c scaffold can be related to the higher content of Sr<sup>2+</sup> ion as previously described by Braux *et al.*<sup>52</sup> and Neves *et al.*<sup>53</sup> The Sr<sup>2+</sup> ions are used in osteoporosis treatment, and stimulate bone formation and decrease bone resorption *in vivo*. Lower cell viability on CS/HAp\_s can be the result of a significantly lower trace element concentration of HAp obtained from seashells compared to HAp obtained from eggshells and cuttlefish bone.

## Conclusion

Composite scaffolds based on biodegradable polymers and bioactive ceramics are promising materials for bone-tissue regeneration applications.

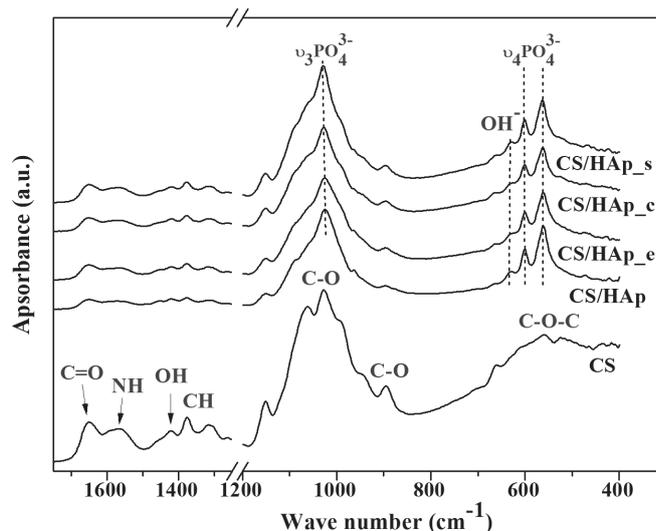


Fig. 6 – FTIR spectra of prepared composite scaffolds obtained from different biogenic sources. Chitosan (CS) scaffold was used as a control.

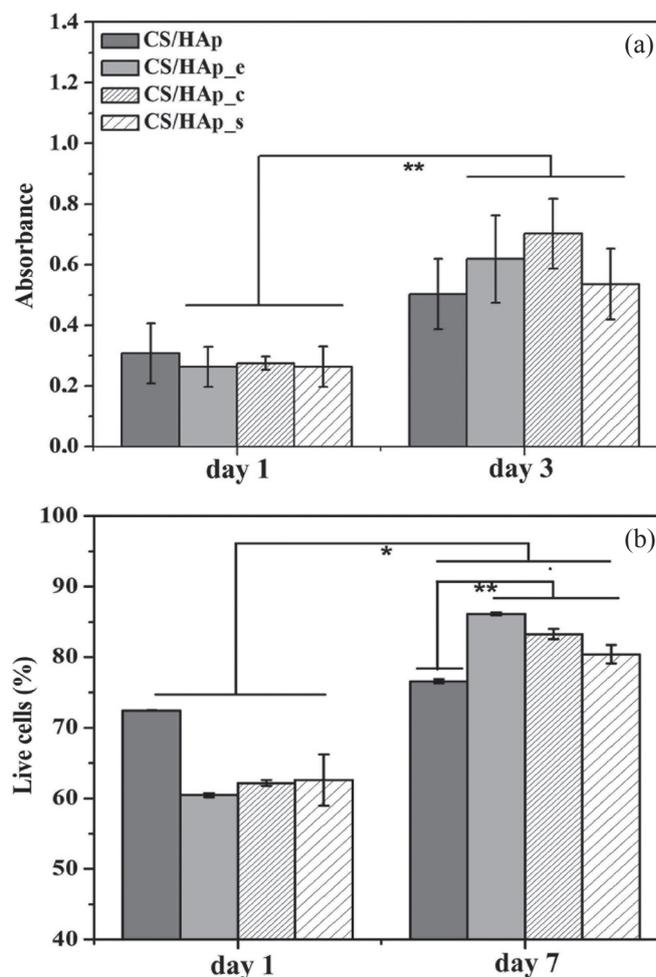


Fig. 7 – Cytotoxicity (a) of CS/HAp scaffolds obtained from different biogenic sources. The viability of human embryonic kidney 293 cells at 1 and 3 days of cell culture expressed by the absorbance at 560 nm. Quantification (%) of live cells (b) on prepared scaffolds (CS/HAp, CS/HAp\_e, CS/HAp\_c, CS/HAp\_e) determined by *Live/dead* assay. The significant difference between two groups: \* ( $p < 0.05$ ), \*\* ( $p < 0.01$ ).

The incorporation of metal ions into a hydroxyapatite structure is a promising pathway to increase the biological properties of the scaffolds. Using biogenic sources, such as eggshells and cuttlefish bone, to prepare multi-substituted HAp, can be considered an environmentally friendly and economically viable approach. Positive influence of Mg<sup>2+</sup> and Sr<sup>2+</sup> ions, present in eggshell and cuttlefish bone, on cell viability has been observed. However, further studies involving swelling and biodegradation assay at simulated biological conditions, and seeding of stem or preosteoblastic lineage need to be performed in order to confirm CS/HAp\_e and CS/HAp\_c scaffolds as potential bone-tissue engineering materials.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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