

Gelatin–Chitosan composite capped gold nanoparticles: a matrix for the growth of hydroxyapatite

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Abstract Growth of hydroxyapatite (HA) on gelatin–chitosan composite capped gold nanoparticles is presented for the first time by employing wet precipitation methods and we obtained good yields of HA. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) spectrum has shown the characteristic bands of phosphate groups in the HA. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) pictures have shown spherical nanoparticles with the size in the range of 70–250 nm, whereas ≥ 2 –50 nm sized particles were visualized in high resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM). X-ray diffraction (XRD) spectrum has shown Bragg reflections which are comparable with the HA. Energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) studies have confirmed calcium/phosphate stoichiometric ratio of HA. The thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) has shown about 74% of inorganic crystals in the nanocomposite formed. These results have revealed that gelatin–chitosan capped gold nanoparticles, acted as a matrix for the growth of HA.

Keywords Gelatin–chitosan composite · Wet precipitation · Hydroxyapatite · Gold nanoparticles · Nanocomposite materials

Introduction

In the recent decades the death rate among the aged, due to bone defects which is the result of trauma, tumour ablation in orthopaedics or bone diseases is increasing and some of them die due to insufficient ideal bone substitute. Therefore some pioneering work should be done in the field of bone tissue engineering to prepare ideal bone substitute, which mimics the natural bone. The so-called work is a ‘biomimetic approach’ (Rose et al. 2002) and thus prepared bone substitute can help in the formation of osteogenic cells at the required site. Nanotechnology plays an important role in bone tissue engineering, as bone is a nanocomposite containing minerals and proteins essentially. The major portions of minerals in bone are apatites such as hydroxyapatite, fluoroapatite and carbonate apatite. From these apatites, hydroxyapatite is the commonly used bone mineral (Gineste et al. 1999), as it has osteoinductive nature (Liu et al. 1998). Hydroxyapatite can be used as a graft material for bone repair, augmentation, substitution (Chang et al. 2001). It is highly biocompatible, exhibits good bioactivity, osteoconductivity and it is resistant to infection (David et al. 2005) similar to that of a natural bone. The most important aspect of nHA is that it can promote the

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attachment and growth of human osteoblast-like cells (Huang et al. 2004). Gelatin has wide range of applications, one of which is that it can act as a protective medium in the synthesis of monodisperse colloidal particles in aqueous solution system (Borginon 1967). The attractive feature of gelatin is that it has not shown any antigenicity and is completely resorbable in vivo (Yao et al. 1996). Gelatin can be made into composites by blending with other materials like chitosan, β -tricalcium phosphate (β -TCP) and hydroxyapatite (HA). This composite has the property of imitating the natural extracellular matrix (ECM) for tissue engineering and cartilage with good results (Elcin et al. 1998).

Chitosan and its composites have been used in bone tissue engineering (Zhao et al. 2002). Chitosan (poly-1, 4, D-glucosamine) a partially de-acetylated derivative from chitin is structurally similar to glycosaminoglycan (GAG) and has many desirable properties as tissue engineering scaffolds (Suh et al. 2000). Chitosan finds extensive application due to its low cost, large-scale availability, antimicrobial activity (Khor and Lim 2003), biodegradability, non-toxicity and its adsorption properties (Dufresne et al. 1999). The free amino group in chitosan has chelating, film forming properties and is soluble 0.3 N acetic acid. The mechanical and the biological properties of chitosan can be increased by blending it with gelatin which has the capacity to form polyelectrolyte complex (Mao et al. 2003) and has found much attention in bone replacements. The gelatin–chitosan network has been found to be safe, haemostatic and osteoinductive and does a good work on wound healing (Rezania and Healy 1999).

In a 3D porous hydroxyapatite/chitosan–gelatin [HCG] scaffold, Zhao et al. (2006) found that human mesenchymal stem cells [HMS] are maintained at a high proliferation rate. Du et al. (1999) used a biomimetic nano-HA/collagen scaffold with osteogenic cells in organ culture. Natural biopolymers such as collagen, fibrin, alginate and hyaluronic acid (Geiger et al. 2003), can be used in bone tissue engineering. Synthetic polymers such as poly (α -hydroxyl acids), poly (lactic acid) PLA (Mikos et al. 1994), poly (glycolic acid) PGA (Ma et al. 1995) or their copolymer PLGA (Shea et al. 2000) can also be used as biomaterials for the use in bone tissue engineering.

The development of metal nanoparticles with well-defined shape, size and composition is a big challenge

in the field of nanotechnology. Several methods have been reported for the preparation of metal nanoparticles (Kometani et al. 2001) to control the size (Murphy et al. 2005) and shape (Sun et al. 2002) of nanoparticles. Gold nanoparticles (AuNPs) can be synthesized by the reduction of Chloroauric acid (HAuCl_4) using citrate (Su et al. 2003; Misra et al. 2006), sodium borohydride (NaBH_4) as reducing agents to synthesize AuNPs in organic solvents (Manna et al. 2003). AuNPs can also be prepared by reducing with chitosan, in which chitosan acts as a stabilizing agent and a protecting polymer (Esumi et al. 2003). But chitosan is having poor solubility in neutral and basic medium; therefore, it is necessary to provide an acidic medium like hydrochloric acid, lactic acid, acetic acid, glutamic acid to dissolve chitosan. Esumi et al. (2003) reported the formation of gold–chitosan nanocomposite by adsorption of chitosan molecules on particle surfaces and evaluated the catalytic activities from elimination of hydroxyl radicals using a spin-trapping technique.

Aryal et al. (2006) have shown that gold nanoparticles with collagen form an efficient matrix for the growth of HA and the mineralized collagen can be potentially applied in bone tissue repair and regeneration. He has also demonstrated the immobilization of fibrous collagen onto gold nanoparticles thereby engineering the fibres into nanospheres which were subsequently used for the synthesis of HA. In the present study, the preparation of hydroxyapatite nanoparticles on gelatin–chitosan capped gold nanoparticles is discussed. The novelty of this study lies in the usage of chitosan along with gelatin and the yield of nano-HA is about 74%.

Experimental details

Reagents

Sodium borohydride, Hydrogen tetrachloroaurate (III), 30 wt.% solution in dilute hydrochloric acid, 99.99% was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich St. Louis, MO, USA. Sodium dihydrogen ortho-Phosphate was purchased from Qualigens Fine chemicals, India. Calcium chloride dihydrate extra pure was purchased from Merck Ltd., India. Gelatin of pharmaceutical grade was used and other chemicals used were of analytical grade. Chitosan was prepared by the modification of earlier methods (Mochizuki et al. 1989).

Nanoparticle synthesis

One gram of gelatin (G) was dissolved in 50 mL of double distilled water at 55 °C. One gram of Chitosan (C) was dissolved in 50 mL of 0.1 N HCl. To 1 mL of gelatin solution, 1 mL of chitosan solution was added and stirred at room temperature till the solution mixture was homogenous (GC). As gelatin is soluble in water and could not be precipitated because of its ambiguous isoelectric point chitosan solution was added to the gelatin solution (chitosan can be precipitated above pH 6.5 along with gelatin). To 2 mL of GC solution, 0.5 mL of aqueous HAuCl_4 solution (0.01 M) was added followed by stirring for 1 h. At this time the pH of the solution was around 6. To this resulting solution 0.2 mL of 1 M NaBH_4 dissolved in 0.3 M NaOH solution was added drop-wise followed by stirring for 1 h. The solution developed a wine red colour. Later the pH of the solution was brought to 7 using dilute HCl (0.1 N). A fair pink colour was observed which is the characteristic colour of gold nanoparticles. The contents were centrifuged at 6,000 rpm for 15 min; the pellet formed was purified by repeatedly washing with double distilled water to ensure that it was free from any impurities for the preparation of hydroxyapatite. The pellet (GC–Au nanomatrix) was dispersed in 5 mL double distilled water and to this solution 1 mL of CaCl_2 solution (1 M) was added followed by

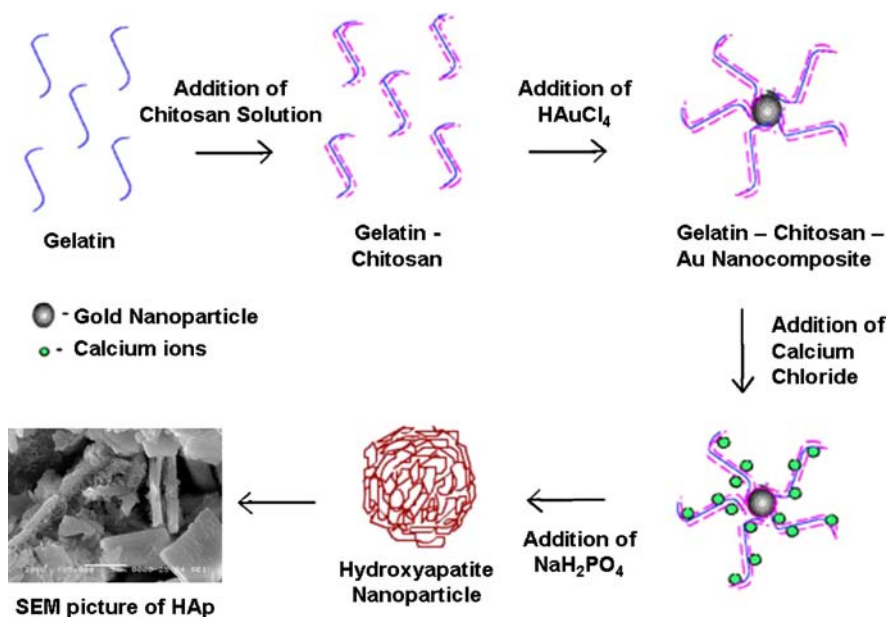
addition of 1 mL of $\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_4 \cdot 12\text{H}_2\text{O}$ solution (1 M), and the contents were stirred for half an hour at room temperature (30 °C). The resulting precipitate was centrifuged and washed repeatedly with water. Finally the HAP formed was dried at 100 °C for about 5 h. The mechanism of the formation of HAP is schematically shown in Fig. 1.

A separate control experiment was conducted as above except that HAuCl_4 solution and NaBH_4 solution were not added in the reaction mixture.

Characterization

FTIR for the GC–Au–HAP nanocomposite was carried out using Nicolet impact 400 Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR). Surface structure was visualized by scanning electron microscope (SEM, JEOL JSM-5610LB) with Phoenix EDX attachment, which was directly connected to SEM to carry out the elemental analysis of the same. Dried and powdered samples were coated with gold ions using an ion coater (Fisons sputter coater) under the following conditions: 0.1 Torr pressure, 20 mA current and 70 s coating time, using a 15 KV accelerating voltage. The EDX spectrum was recorded in a spot-profile mode by focusing the electron beam onto the specific regions of the sample. Thermo gravimetric analysis (TGA) was carried out using TGA Q50 V20.6 thermal analyser Build 31 in

Fig. 1 Schematic representation of mechanism of formation of GC–Au–HA nanocomposite



nitrogen atmosphere (80 mL/min) at a heating rate of 10 °C/min. The particle size and morphology of the samples were studied using High Resolution-Transmission Electron Microscope (HR-TEM) using JEM-3010F transmission electron microscopy (TEM). A drop of well-dispersed nanoparticle dispersion was placed onto the amorphous carbon-coated 200-mesh copper grid, followed by drying the sample at ambient temperature before it was loaded into the microscope. X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern was recorded from a drop-coated sample on a glass substrate.

Results and discussion

As gelatin is soluble in water with ambiguous isoelectric point we have prepared gelatin–chitosan composite that precipitates at pH around 7. As the backbone of gelatin molecule contains carboxylic groups, the calcium ions of the calcium chloride bind to these groups and further calcium ions react with phosphate ions (from NaH_2PO_4) to form a compound like HAP. Addition of chitosan solution to gelatin solution is first reported in this article to prepare gold-based HAP nanoparticles.

Figure 2a shows the X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of HAP crystals using gelatin–chitosan capped gold nanoparticles as a scaffold. The XRD pattern was recorded from a drop-coated sample of HAP on a glass substrate. The peaks at 31.7, 45.3 and 56.2 indicate reflections from 112, 222, 004 crystal planes, respectively. These reflections more or less correspond to Bragg reflections of HAP. The result shows that gold nanoparticles induced the formation of HAP nanoparticles on the gelatin–chitosan scaffold. Figure 2b shows the XRD spectrum of the precipitate formed in the control experiment showing peaks other than HA. These peaks include α -TCP with peaks at 21.6, 23.4 and 25.5, and β -TCP with peaks at 27.3 and 28.4 (Park et al. 2008). Without gold nanoparticles it is clear from this results that in the absence of gold nanoparticles, other calcium apatites will form when gelatin and Chitosan are used as a medium.

The surface morphology of the GC–Au capped nanoparticles analysed by scanning electron microscope (SEM) is shown in Fig. 3a, b, c. In Fig. 3a, the size and shape of the individual crystals can be observed. The shape of the crystals is spherical and

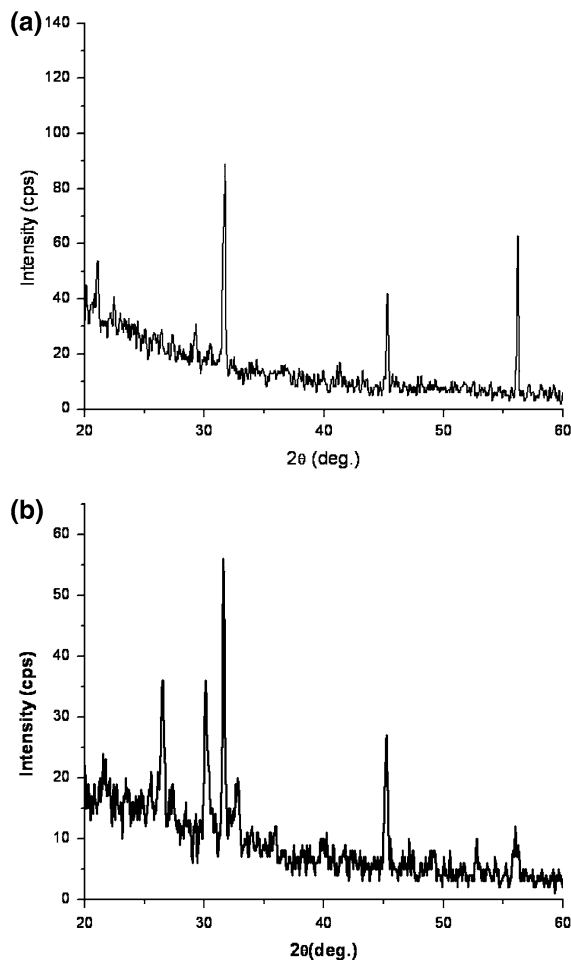


Fig. 2 (a) XRD pattern of GC–Au–HA nanocomposite exhibiting the peaks at 31.7, 45.3 and 56.2. (b) XRD spectrum of the precipitate obtained in control experiment exhibiting peaks of α -TCP with peaks at 21.6, 23.4 and 25.5 and β -TCP with peaks at 27.3 and 28.4 apart from HA peaks

the sizes of the crystals are in the range of 70 to 250 nm. A beautiful aggregation of these crystals is shown in Fig. 3b, c. The aggregated HA particles exhibited crystalline nature. The High-resolution transmission electron microscopic (HR-TEM) analysis in Fig. 4b has revealed that the size of the nanocomposite formed was in the range of ≥ 2 –50 nm. The aggregations of these nanoparticles are represented in Fig. 4a. The selected area of diffraction in Fig. 4c of the HA shows the Bragg deflections at 004, 112, 222. These studies have confirmed the nanosized components of GC–Au–HA nanocomposite.

The Energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDX) spectrum of the nanocomposite formed is shown in

Fig. 3 Scanning Electron Microscope image of the GC–Au–HA nanocomposite (a) showing individual crystals with the size in the range 70 to 250 nm (b) and (c) showing aggregated crystals

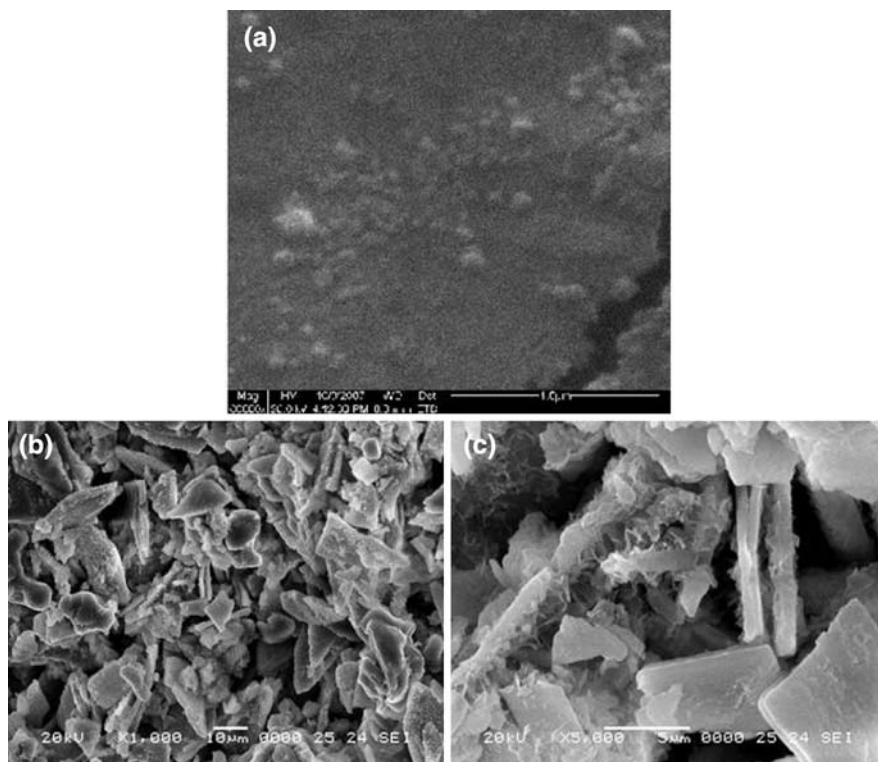
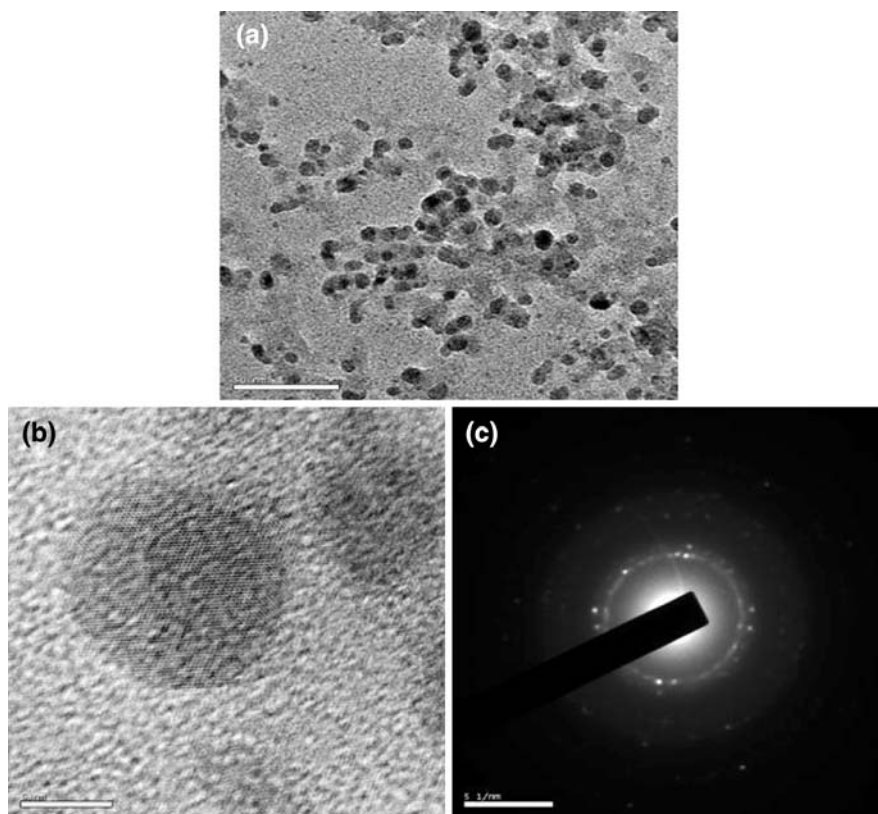


Fig. 4 High Resolution Transmission Electron Microscope images of GC–Au–HA nanocomposite showing the size of nanocomposite (a) 50 nm (b) 5 nm (c) diffraction image of the composite showing the lattice parameters at 004, 112, 222



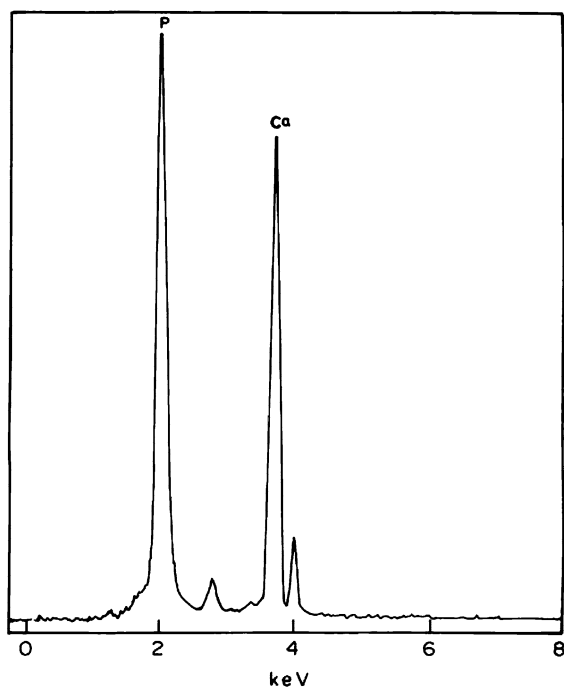


Fig. 5 EDX profile showing the Ca and P signals of GC–Au–HA nanocomposite

Fig. 5. The calcium and phosphorus signals are very clearly seen indicating the formation of calcium phosphates. The ratio of Ca to P was found to be 1.64:1 and the value is similar with that of synthetic HA.

The Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) spectrum of the HA formed using GC–Au–HA nanoparticles is seen in Fig. 6a. The vibration modes ν_1 , ν_3 , ν_4 of the phosphate ions are observed in the spectrum. ν_3 band was observed around $1,063\text{ cm}^{-1}$ and well-resolved bands at 602, 576 and 658 represent ν_4 vibration modes. The peak at 873 shows the contribution of HPO_4^{3-} ions, a weak ν_1 vibration mode of the phosphate groups is seen at 986 cm^{-1} . The FTIR spectrum of the precipitate formed in the control experiment is shown in Fig. 6b. It did not differ much with that of HA formed using gold nanoparticles and exhibits similar phosphate vibrations.

The thermogram of GC–Au–HA nanocomposite is shown in Fig. 7a. The composite loses its moisture and the bound water up to 199°C . Approximately 5% protein loss was observed between 199 and 429°C which is due to the degradation of gelatin.

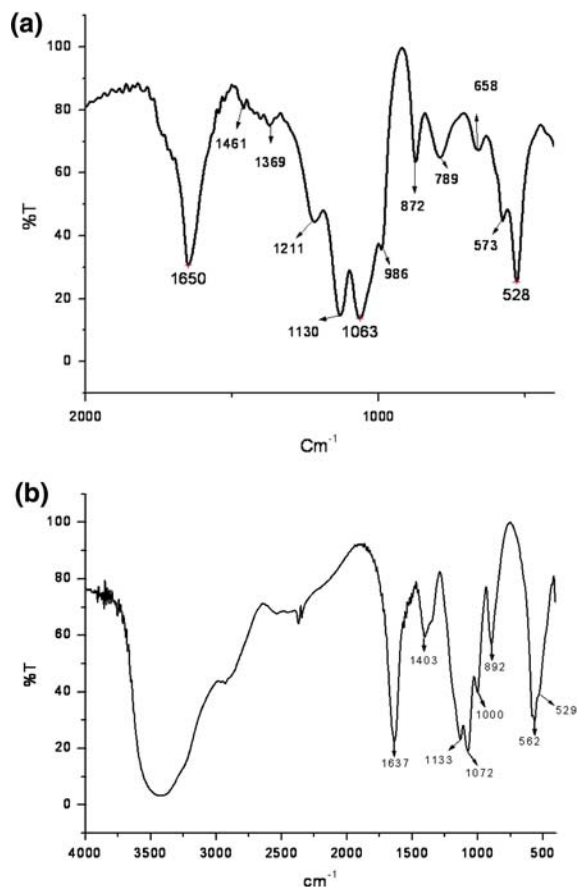


Fig. 6 (a) FTIR of the GC–Au–HA nanocomposite showing the phosphate vibrational modes of ν_1 , ν_2 , ν_4 of HA. (b) FTIR of the precipitate obtained in control experiment

Around 11% loss was observed between 429 and 825°C which was attributed to further degradation of the material or evolution of CO_2 . The remaining 74% of the inorganic material is considered as HA, whereas the thermogram of the precipitate obtained in the control experiment (Fig. 7b) shows 62% of the inorganic material at 785°C . About 12% more inorganic material formed in the experiment using gold nanoparticles indicates a better yield.

Conclusions

It is evident from the study that gelatin–chitosan capped gold nanoparticles can act as a matrix for the growth of HAp crystals. We were able to produce HAp nanoparticles on the surface of gelatin–chitosan

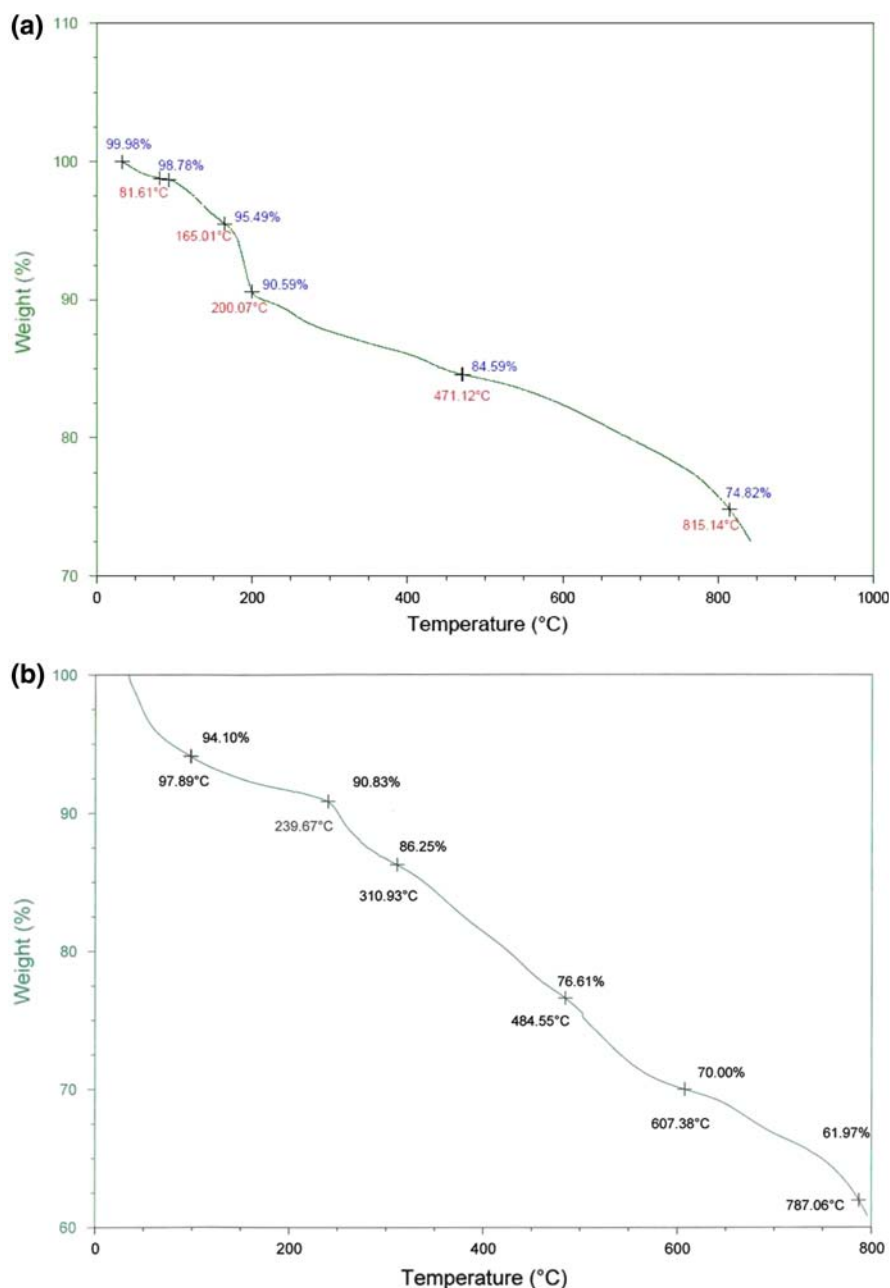


Fig. 7 (a) Thermogram of the GC-Au-HA nanocomposite exhibiting the two stage weight loss due to the decomposition of gelatin and Chitosan. (b) Thermogram of the precipitate obtained in control experiment

capped gold nanoparticles in this study. This method is cost-effective with a yield of 74% nano-HA.

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