

Fig. 10 SEM secondary electron images of the surface of the specimens of SP-treated and untreated specimens after immersion in Hanks' solution for 1.0 Ms, showing calcium phosphate precipitates

Fig. 11 SEM secondary electron images of the surfaces of specimens after CP treatment followed by immersion in Hanks' solution for 1.0 Ms. Cracks were observed in the base calcium phosphate layer on the 1 Hz(-1_1)V specimen

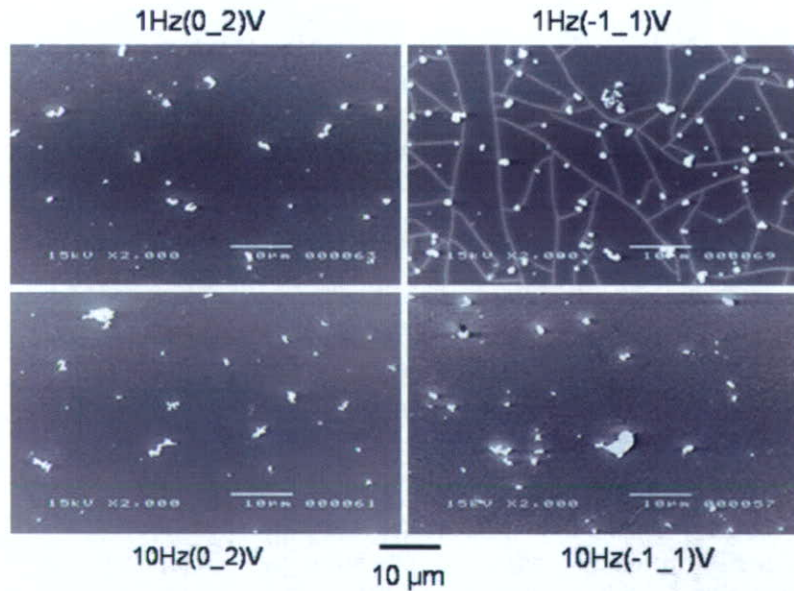
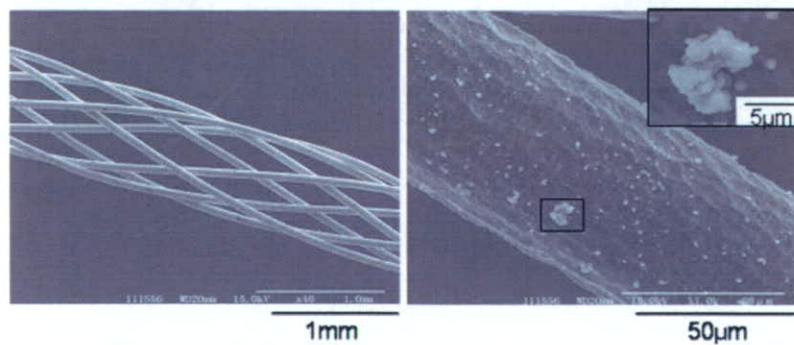


Fig. 12 SEM micrographs of a titanium woven texture after CP treatments, 1 Hz (-1_1)V, followed by immersion in Hanks' solution for 1.0 Ms. Calcium phosphate precipitates are seen in a close-up view on the right



material (Hanks' solution). The total electric charge, Q , can be calculated from the time-transient curve of the current density, and the current is controlled by the electron (ion) transfer in the testing system. When the potential is increased from the rest potential, E_0 , to 1.0 V or 2.0 V, the electrons transfer from the electrolyte to the electrode. If the potential gap between the specimen and the electrolyte is larger, the electron migration becomes easier and faster just after the SP change. Then, with higher SP, the anodic current became larger. In fact, a larger total electric charge, Q , was observed at 2.0 V SP. After the electron transfer, the potential gap (including a gradient within the electric double layer) settled again in an equilibrium passive condition.

After the SP and CP treatments, the surface of titanium had a golden lustre due to the reaction product on the film that contained yellowish ions and/or showed interference colouring. The SP treatment at 2.0 V for 10 ks, which had the darkest golden lustre in the present study, was expected to have the thickest surface film formation of any treatment conditions. This thick film (layer) contained not only titanium oxide but also a certain amount of calcium phosphate [24, 27]. This means that calcium phosphate precipitation occurred during the SP treatment (before immersion in Hanks' solution) as a result of the longer treatment time.

4.2 Titanium stability in surface films

In the XPS analysis of the surfaces of the specimens after SP treatment, C, O, Ti, Ca, P, and/or N spectra were detected from the oxide films. Among them, C and N were considered to exist as a contaminated layer, and O, as oxides. Except for the SP treatment at 2.0 V for 10 ks, which exhibited no clear Ti^{4+} peaks due to the thick calcium phosphate layer, no significant difference was observed in the fraction of Ti^{4+} . Because TiO_2 is the most stable form in the titanium oxides, this Ti^{4+} fraction is considered as the stability of oxide. From these data, the SP treatment produced a thicker and more stable oxide film than that of the untreated specimen.

The thickness of the oxide film on the CP treated specimens was approximately 5 nm regardless the treatment conditions showing small difference and fraction of Ti^{4+} was varied from 88% to 93% and showed a similar tendency in thickness.

Although neither the frequency nor the different treatments, -1.0 V to 1.0 V and 0 V to 2.0 V, revealed clear effects, there was a certain correspondence between the oxide film thickness and oxide stability.

4.3 Calcium phosphate precipitation during electrolytic treatments

The fraction of OH^- among O^{2-} , OH^- , and H_2O in SP-treated specimens, as shown in Fig. 6, became larger with the treatment time. The specimens treated with 2.0 V for 10 ks showed the largest fraction of OH^- , which was larger than that of untreated specimen. The largest $[Ca]/[P]$ ratio (1.75) was seen in the same specimen among all test conditions. For both step potentials, the very small passive current density longer than 10 ks is still effective to increase the $[Ca]/[P]$ ratio and the OH^- fraction. Thus, the hydroxyl group might have a certain effect on the crystallinity of the calcium phosphate.

In the CP treatment at 1 Hz and 10 Hz with -1.0 V to 1.0 V, as shown in Fig. 9, the cathodic current might be a factor to form the high $[Ca]/[P]$ ratio calcium phosphate. Moreover strong correspondence was seen between the $[Ca]/[P]$ ratio and the hydroxyl group fraction, which suggested the hydroxyl group affected the crystallinity of the calcium phosphate in the same manner as the SP treatment. It is suggested that the cyclic exchange of anodic and cathodic currents may enhance the absorption of P and Ca alternately and that OH^- may contribute to this process.

4.4 Immersion in Hanks' solution to precipitate the calcium phosphate layer

The calcium phosphate formation of specimens SP-treated for 10 ks after immersion in Hanks' solution was comparable to that of the untreated specimen. The XPS data (no Ti^0 peak identified in specimens treated at 1.0 V for 1 ks, 1.0 V for 10 ks, 2.0 V for 1 ks and 2.0 V for 10 ks specimens) and the SEM observation suggest that the calcium phosphate precipitated not only as particles, but as a thin layer covering the surface of each specimen. The number of calcium phosphate precipitates increased with the increasing treatment time. Even though the passive current density from 1 ks to 10 ks was very small, it was still an important factor for particle precipitation and growth of the layer of the calcium phosphate. The effect of the SP difference on the precipitation was not identified within the conditions of the present study.

The immersion in Hanks' solution after CP treatment also produced both layer and particle calcium phosphate. Differently from the case of the SP treatment, cracks in the base phosphate layer on the surface treated at -1.0 V to 1.0 V were observed. These cracks were clearly caused by the thickness of the layer. However, a more detailed discussion of these cracks

and the cathodic current would exceed the scope of the present study. The number of precipitates obviously increased in the treatment at -1.0 to 1.0 V.

As stated above, both the very small passive current (in the SP treatment) and the cathodic current (in the CP treatment with -1.0 to 1.0 V) were effective to accelerate the calcium phosphate formation. Although the mechanisms in either case may differ, they have not been clearly identified. As shown in Figs. 6 and 9, the existence of the hydroxyl group shows a certain correlation to calcium phosphate formation. It is strongly suggested that the hydroxyl group affects the absorption of Ca and P ions and/or the formation of calcium phosphate on the surface. The very small passive current in the SP treatment and the cathodic current in the CP treatment might have a role in this process.

5 Conclusion

Calcium phosphate was precipitated on a titanium surface by the SP and CP treatments together with a titanium oxide film. In the SP treatment, the stability of the oxide thickness of the oxide film and the fraction of the hydroxyl group on the surface became larger with a longer treatment time. In the CP treatment, the stability of the oxide thickness of the oxide film and the fraction of the hydroxyl group on the surface became larger in the treatment with a potential wave at -1.0 to 1.0 V rather than at 0 – 2.0 V. The very small passive current in the SP treatment and the cathodic current in the CP treatment enhanced the calcium phosphate formation. SP and CP treatments were effective to accelerate calcium phosphate precipitation on titanium in Hank's solution in spite of their lower voltage than that of the conventional methods. The calcium phosphate formation was accelerated by the hydroxyl group in Hanks' solution.

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Structure and strength at the bonding interface of a titanium-segmented polyurethane composite through 3-(trimethoxysilyl) propyl methacrylate for artificial organs

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Abstract: The objective of this study was to investigate the structure and strength at the bonding interface of a titanium (Ti)-segmented polyurethane (SPU) composite through 3-(trimethoxysilyl) propyl methacrylate (γ -MPS) for artificial organs. The effects of the thickness of the γ -MPS layer on the shear bonding strength between Ti and SPU were investigated. Ti disks were immersed in various concentrations of γ -MPS solutions for several immersion times. The depth profiles of elements and the thickness of the γ -MPS layer were determined by glow discharge optical emission spectroscopy and ellipsometry, respectively. The bonding stress at the Ti/ γ -MPS/SPU interface was evaluated with a shear bonding test. Furthermore, the fractured surface of a Ti-SPU composite was observed by optical microscopy and characterized

using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy. Consequently, the thickness of the γ -MPS layer was controlled by the concentration of the γ -MPS solution and immersion time. The shear bonding stress at the interface increased with the increase of the thickness of the γ -MPS layer. Therefore, the control of the thickness of the γ -MPS layer is significant to increase the shear bonding stress at the Ti/ γ -MPS/SPU interface. These results are significant to create composites for artificial organs consisting of other metals and polymers. © 2007 Wiley Periodicals, Inc. *J Biomed Mater Res* 82A: 52–61, 2007

Key words: titanium; segmented polyurethane; silane coupling agent; shear bonding stress; surface analysis

INTRODUCTION

Polymers are widely used as biomaterials because of their high degree of flexibility, biocompatibility, and technological properties.^{1–4} For example, polyurethane and polyacrylonitrile are used as blood vessel prostheses and artificial kidneys, respectively. Segmented polyurethane (SPU) is also widely used because of its antithrombogenicity.^{2,5,6} In addition, since the biofunctionalization of the polymer surface by surface modification is easy, it has been undertaken to improve biocompatibility.⁷ To maintain an antithrombogenic surface for artificial vessels, a poly(ethylene glycol) or 2-methacryloyloxyethyl phosphorylcholine polymer has been immobilized to the

polymer surfaces in the previous studies.^{8,9} However, the polymers show insufficient strength and long-term durability for some purposes because of their structures. Thus, the improvement of the strength and durability of the polymers is sometimes required.

On the other hand, metals have been used widely as biomaterials (for stents, hip joints, and bone plates) for a long time, since metals have good mechanical properties, especially toughness, and long-term durability.¹ In particular, titanium (Ti) and Ti alloys are the most promising metallic biomaterials because of their high corrosion resistance and tissue compatibility among metals. However, the biocompatibility of metals is generally inferior to that of polymers and ceramics because no biofunction is added to the metals during the manufacturing process.

If a polymer and a metal could be bonded and used as a composite material, a new material having good biocompatibility and high mechanical strength could be created. The interfacial chemical structure governing the bonding strength, especially at the

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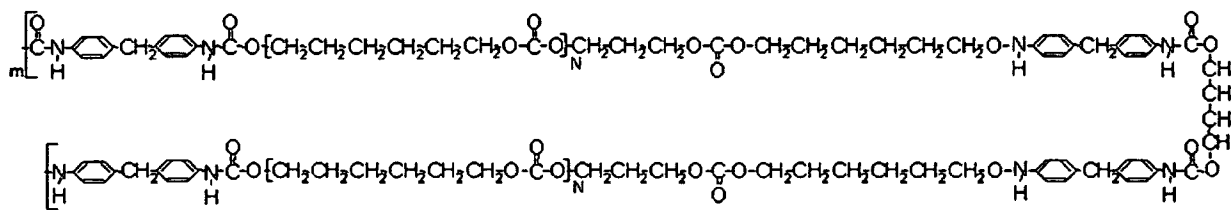


Figure 1. Chemical structure of corehtane70A.

nanometer level, is one of the most challenging aspects to the development of composite materials.

The bonding of polymers with metals is currently utilized in dentistry.¹⁰⁻¹⁴ Investigators have tried to combine a Ti alloy and a resin for crown facings.¹⁵ In particular, silane coupling agents containing S—H groups and Si—O—CH₃ groups are comprehensively used to combine dental alloys with resins.¹⁶ The S—H groups works as a bonding agent with polymers; the Si—O—CH₃ works as a bonding agent with metals. The mechanical properties and durability of composite resin increases with silanized filler.¹⁷⁻²¹ However, in most studies about materials using silane coupling agents in the field of dentistry, only the bonding strength is evaluated and discussed, and there are few reports that examine and discuss the chemical structures at the bonding interface and how they influence the bonding strength.

Other studies on silane coupling agents to combine polymers with metals have been performed in other fields. An aluminum-vegetable oil composite using a silane coupling agent has been developed.^{22,23} Rubber-to-metal bonding by a silane coupling agent was investigated.²⁴ In addition, the surface modification of stainless steel by grafting of poly(ethylene glycol) using a silane coupling agent has been reported.²⁵ However, only the chemical structure is investigated in these studies. In other words, the relationship between the bonding strength and the interfacial chemical structure containing a silane coupling agent layer has not been studied.

The objective of this study was to investigate the unequivocal relationship between the shear bonding strength and the chemical structure at the bonding interface of a metal-polymer composite through a silane coupling agent. As the base materials for the composite, Ti and SPU were used, the shear bonding strength between Ti and SPU of Ti-SPU composites manufactured under various bonding conditions was evaluated. Furthermore, the nanometer-level structures at the interface and the fractured surface of the composite were investigated. From these results, factors that affect the bonding strength were specified. It is our hope that this study will lead to enhancements in the creation of metal-polymer composites for artificial organs.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Specimen preparation

Commercially pure Ti disks with 2 and 5 mm in thickness and 8 mm in diameter were prepared from wrought titanium rods (grade 2; Rare Metallic, Japan). The disks were polished with a 320 and 600 grid SiC papers in water, followed by buffing with 9- μ m size diamond paste and a 0.05- μ m size alumina slurry for a mirror-finished surface. The disks were ultrasonically rinsed in acetone and deionized water for 5 min. The surface of the 2-mm thick disks was characterized using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). The detail of XPS analysis is described later. Solutions of 0.1, 0.5, 1.0, and 2.0vol% 3-(trimethoxysilyl) propyl methacrylate (γ -MPS) were prepared by diluting 100%-concentration γ -MPS (Kanto Chemical, Japan) with deionized water and adjusted at pH 4 using acetic acid. These solutions were then hydrolyzed for 1 h under stirring and filtered using a 40- μ m membrane filter. Prior to the γ -MPS coating, both 2- and 5-mm thick disks were ultrasonically cleaned again in acetone for 5 min. The cleaned disks were then immersed in the freshly prepared γ -MPS solutions for 1, 10, 50, and 100 min. The disks were dried with a stream of high-purity nitrogen gas and kept in a vacuum desiccator.

The depth profiles of elements and the thickness of the γ -MPS layer deposited on 2-mm thick disks were determined by glow discharge optical emission spectroscopy (GD-OES) and ellipsometry, respectively, whereas 5-mm thick disks coated with the γ -MPS layer were used for a shear bonding test. To prepare a 3.0vol% SPU solution, 600 mg Corehtane70A (Crovita) with the chemical structure shown in Figure 1, 10-mL tetrahydrofuran (Kanto Chemical), and 10-mL dimethylformamide (Kanto Chemical) were mixed. Ti disks coated with the γ -MPS layer were then immersed in the freshly prepared SPU solution and kept in the vacuum desiccator for 2 days. Thereafter, the Ti-SPU composites were removed from the SPU solution and dried in the vacuum desiccator again. The grip for the shear bonding test was thus formed on the surface of the SPU layer using an autopolymerized acrylic resin (UNIFAST II, GC, Japan). Fractured surface was characterized using XPS. The flowchart of the experimental procedure is shown in Figure 2. The γ -MPS concentration and immersion time of specimens used for GD-OES, ellipsometry, shear bonding tests, and XPS are summarized in Table I.

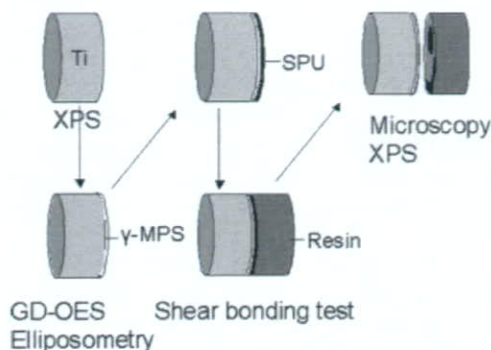


Figure 2. Flow chart of the experimental procedure.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy

Composition and thickness of the surface oxide film on the Ti disk was determined using XPS (SSX100, SSI, UK). Also, the fractured manner and chemical bonding state at the fractured surface after the shear bonding test of Ti-SPU composites with and without the γ -MPS layer were characterized. The conditions for the XPS analysis are listed in Table II. The take-off angle for photoelectron detection from the surface of the specimen was 35° . All binding energies, given in this paper are relative to the Fermi level, and all spectra were excited with the monochromatized Al $K\alpha$ line (1486.61 eV). The spectrometer was calibrated against Au $4f_{7/2}$ (binding energy, 84.07 eV) and Au $4f_{5/2}$ (87.74 eV) of pure gold and Cu $2p_{3/2}$ (932.53 eV), Cu $2p_{1/2}$ (952.35 eV), and the Cu Auger $L_3M_{4,5}M_{4,5}$ line (kinetic energy, 918.65 eV) of pure copper. The energy values were based on published data.²⁶ The composition and thickness of the surface layer and the composition of the metal substrate were simultaneously calculated according to a method devised by Asami et al.^{27,28} Empirical data and theoretically calculated data of relative photoionization cross-sections were used for the quantification. The relative photoionization cross-sections used in this study are summarized in Table III, where σ_{ij}/σ_{O1s} represents the relative photoionization cross-section of a level j electron of an element i to that of the O 1s electron.^{27,28} Data obtained from XPS experiment was statistically analyzed by Student's t test.

TABLE I
The γ -MPS Concentration and Immersion Time of Specimens Used for GD-OES, Ellipsometry, Shear Bonding Test, and XPS

Immersion Time (min)	Concentration of γ -MPS Solution (vol %)			
	0.1	0.5	1.0	2.0
0 (untreated)	E, S, X			
1	G, E, S, X	E, S	G, E, S	E, S
10	E	E	E, S	E, S
50	E	E	E, S	E, S
100	E	E	G, E, S	E

G, GD-OES; E, Ellipsometer; S, Shear Bonding Test; X, XPS.

TABLE II
Conditions for XPS Analysis

X-ray source	Al $K\alpha$
Accelerating voltage (kV)	10
Current (mA)	30
Take-off angle ($^\circ$)	35
Measurement area (μm)	1000×1000
Vacuum (Torr)	$>1.7 \times 10^{-9}$

Glow discharge optical emission spectroscopy

The depth profiles of elements from the γ -MPS layer were determined using a GD-OES instrument (Jovin Yvon RF 5000GD-OES, HORIBA, Japan) with a power of 40 W in a 600 Pa argon atmosphere. The spectral wavelengths (nm) employed for detecting various elements were as follows: H, 121.57; C, 156.14; N, 149.26; S, 185.25; Si, 288.15; Ti, 365.35; and O, 130.00.^{29,30} The sputtering rate was constant to directly compare these depth profiles obtained from different surfaces.

Ellipsometry

The thickness of the γ -MPS layer was determined with an ellipsometer (DVA-36Ls, Mizojiri Optical, Japan) in air. A He-Ne laser was used as the light source with a wavelength of 632.8 nm, and the incident angle to the Ti surface was 70° . The thickness was calculated by the optical constants of the refractive index and the absorption coefficient of titanium oxide on the Ti substrate, 2.209 and 3.079, respectively.

Shear bonding test

The shear bonding strength of the Ti/ γ -MPS/SPU interface of the Ti-SPU composite was evaluated using a universal mechanical test machine (2000-IB, Shimadzu, Japan) with a crosshead speed of 0.1 mm min^{-1} at ambient. The apparatus for the test was originally designed as shown in Figure 3. The shear bonding stress, σ , was calculated by the following equation:

$$\sigma = P / A$$

where P is the shear bonding force and A is the original bonding area. After the shear bonding test, the fractured surface was observed using an optical microscope. The area of SPU occupying the fractured surface was measured using a personal computer with an imaging analysis program (NIH Image 1.62 program), and the SPU area fraction on the gross fractured surface area was cal-

TABLE III
Photoionization Cross-Sections of Level j of Element i Relative to that of O 1s, σ_{ij}/σ_{O1s}

Level	σ_{ij}/σ_{O1s}
Photoionization cross-section	
Ti $2p_{3/2}$	1.28
C 1s	0.34

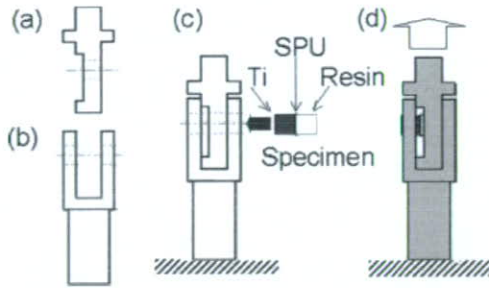


Figure 3. Illustration of the apparatus for the shear bonding test: (a) sliding and (b) fixed part. The Ti-SPU composite is inserted through both holes in parts (a) and (b), which are arranged in a straight line (c). By pulling up the sliding part, shear stress was applied onto the bonding interface of the composite (d).

culated. Data obtained from shear bonding test was statistically analyzed by one-way ANOVA.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Composition and thickness of surface oxide film on Ti

From the C 1s spectra, it was concluded that none of the specimens contained carbonate because no peak was detected at an energy region of 289–290 eV

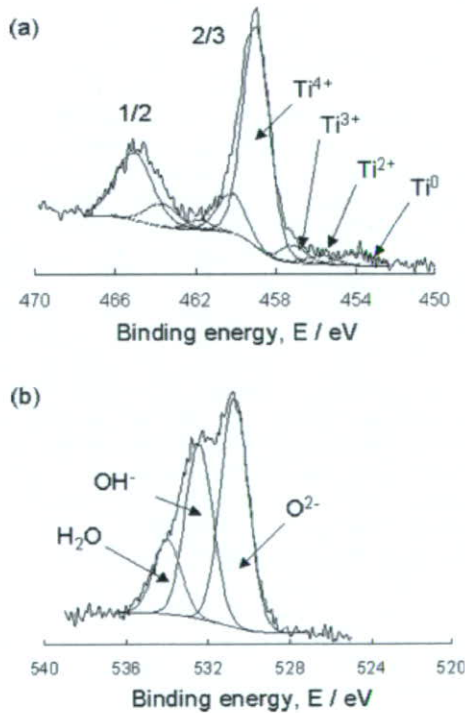


Figure 4. Typical XPS spectra of Ti 2p and O 1s electron energy region and the deconvolution of these peaks: (a) Ti 2p and (b) O 1s.

where carbonate should give a C 1s peak.³¹ Therefore, carbon detected by XPS can be ascribed to so-called contaminant carbon. Apart from carbon, only titanium and oxygen were detected with XPS. The Ti 2p electron energy region peak gave four doublets according to valence, Ti⁰, Ti²⁺, Ti³⁺, and Ti⁴⁺ according to published binding energy data [Fig. 4(a)].³² Proportions of Ti⁰, Ti²⁺, Ti³⁺, and Ti⁴⁺ were 0.01, 0.02, 0.03, and 92.8, respectively. On the other hand, the O 1s electron energy region peak contained three peaks originating from O²⁻, hydroxide or hydroxyl groups, OH⁻, and hydrate and/or adsorbed water, H₂O [Fig. 4 (b)].³³ Proportions of O²⁻, OH⁻, and H₂O in the surface oxide film were 0.54, 0.29, and 0.18, respectively. The relative concentrations of titanium and oxygen were calculated assuming the gross

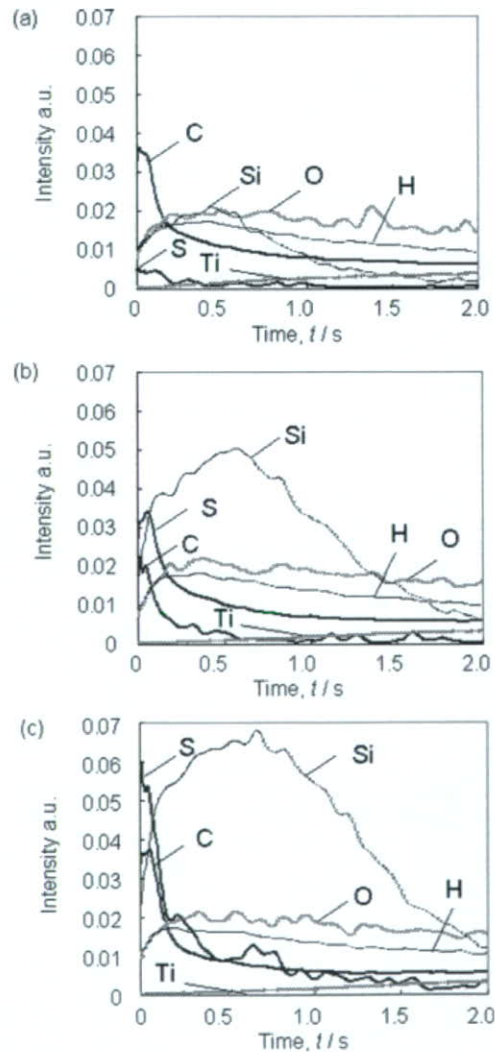


Figure 5. Depth profiles of elements in the γ -MPS layer formed by immersion in a 0.1% γ -MPS solution for 1 min (a), a 1.0% γ -MPS solution for 1 min (b), and a 1.0% γ -MPS solution for 100 min (c), as determined by the GD-OES.

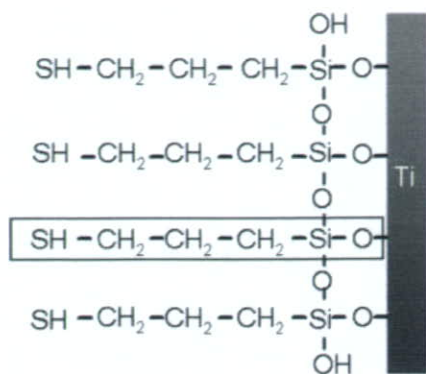


Figure 6. Chemical structure of the γ -MPS layer bonded to a Ti surface. The black frame indicates one molecular unit of γ -MPS.

amount of these elements as detected using XPS was 100 mole percent; 25.2 and 74.8mol%, respectively. The thickness of the surface oxide film was calculated as 4.8 nm. Therefore, chemical composition was calculated as $\text{TiO}_{0.59}(\text{OH})_{0.85} \cdot 0.53\text{H}_2\text{O}$. These results indicate that the Ti disk is covered by a very thin titanium oxide mainly consisting of TiO_2 with a small amount of Ti^{2+} and Ti^{3+} . A large amount of hydroxyl groups exist on and inside the surface oxide.

Depth profile and thickness of the γ -MPS layer

The depth profiles of elements in the γ -MPS layer determined by the GD-OES are shown in Figure 5. Similar depth profiles were obtained from all specimens. Elements were detected from the outside to the inside in this order: sulfur, carbon, silicon, and titanium. Sulfur and carbon were considered to the mercapto group of the γ -MPS. In addition, silicon

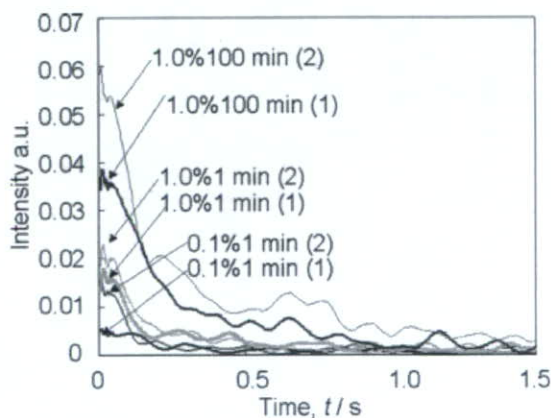


Figure 7. Depth profiles of sulfur of the γ -MPS layer as the concentration of γ -MPS solution and immersion time. Numbers, (1) and (2), in the figure represent two different specimens prepared under the same condition.

in the hydrolysis γ -MPS chemically combined with hydroxyl groups on the Ti disk and Si—O—Ti bonding was formed. These results are in good agreement with the chemical structure of γ -MPS bonded to a Ti surface (Fig. 6) that is expected from the general structure of γ -MPS. The intensity of sulfur in the γ -MPS layer increased with the increase of the concentrations of the γ -MPS solution and immersion times (Fig. 7). In other words, one sulfur atom exists on the terminal of a molecular unit of γ -MPS (as shown in Fig. 6); therefore, the number of sulfur directly correlate with the numbers of the molecular unit. In other words, the number of the γ -MPS molecular unit increases with the increase of the concentration of γ -MPS and the immersion time.

The thickness of the γ -MPS layer varied with the concentration of the γ -MPS solution and the immersion time (Fig. 8). In spite of the increase in the immersion time, the thickness of the γ -MPS layer did not significantly increase when the Ti disk was immersed in 0.1, 0.5, and 1.0% γ -MPS solutions. However, the thickness increased dramatically with the immersion time when the Ti disk was immersed in a 2.0% γ -MPS solution. The thickness of the γ -MPS layer decreased at 100 min of immersion time. In other words, the γ -MPS layer does not always thicken, even when the immersion time is increased.

Since many molecular units exist in a γ -MPS solution with high concentration, immobilization by dehydration and condensation of the molecular unit to the Ti surface easily occurs. Furthermore, possibility of immobilization of the γ -MPS molecular unit to the Ti surface increases with the immersion time. As a result, the thickness of the γ -MPS layer increased with the concentration of the γ -MPS solution and the immersion time.

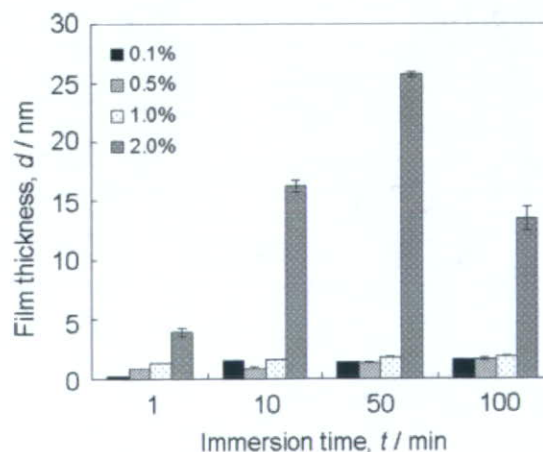


Figure 8. Thickness of the γ -MPS layer as the concentration of γ -MPS solution and immersion time.

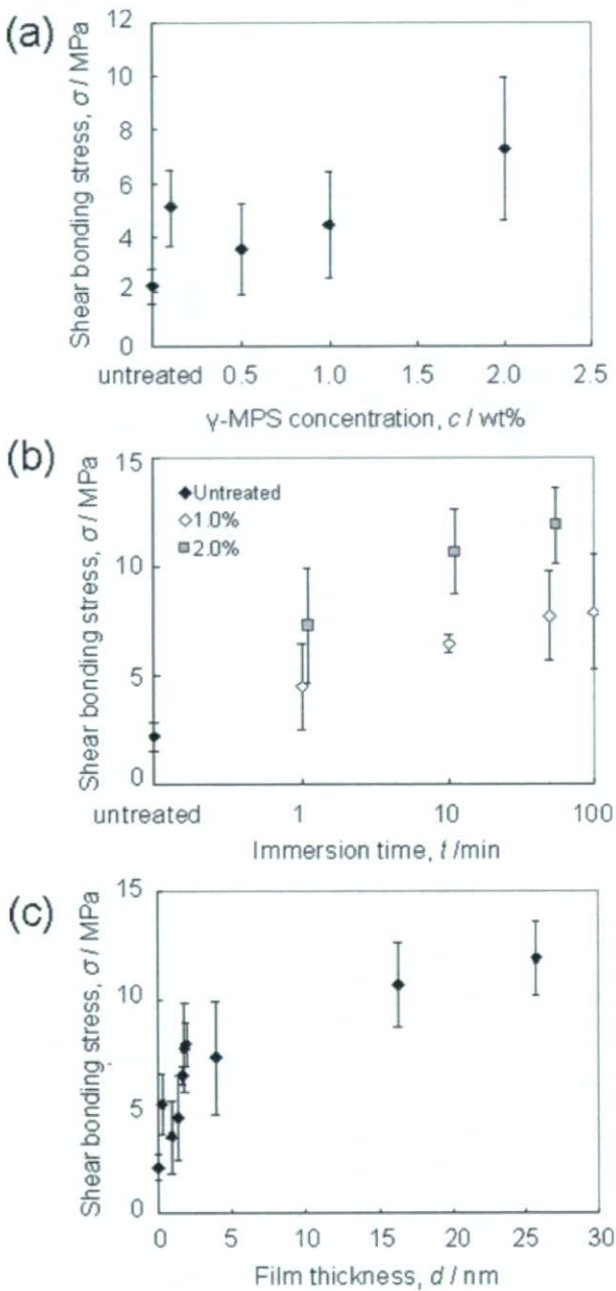


Figure 9. Shear bonding stress of the Ti/ γ -MPS/SPU interface formed by immersion for 1 min in various concentrations of a γ -MPS solution (a) and immersion in a 1.0 and a 2.0% γ -MPS solution at various immersion times (b). Relationship between the shear bonding stress of the Ti/ γ -MPS/SPU interface and the thickness of the γ -MPS layer (c).

Shear bonding stress of the Ti/ γ -MPS/SPU interface

Shear bonding stress of Ti/ γ -MPS/SPU interface increased with the increase of the concentration of the γ -MPS solution only in the case of 1-min immer-

sion [Fig. 9(a)], while no significant difference was obtained. On the other hand, the shear bonding stress of the Ti/ γ -MPS/SPU interface formed from 1.0 and 2.0% γ -MPS solutions significantly increased with immersion times ($p < 0.05$) as shown in Figure 9(b). Kanie et al. claimed that the adhesive strength of the PMMA resin against the Co—Cr alloy using γ -MPS increased with an increase in the concentration of γ -MPS,²⁰ which supports the results reported above. In addition, the relationship between the shear bonding stress of the Ti/ γ -MPS/SPU interface and thickness of the γ -MPS layer is shown in Figure 9(c). The shear bonding stress significantly increased with the thickness of the γ -MPS layer ($p < 0.05$).

The chemical structure of the Ti/ γ -MPS/SPU interface is illustrated in Figure 10. The length of one molecular unit is more than 1 nm according to the distances between atoms. If the number of molecular units per Ti surface area is small, each molecular unit keeps a distance from its neighbors and consequently falls down to the Ti surface. This results in a thin γ -MPS layer. Also, —Si—O—Si— bonding network among molecular units is not sufficiently formed. On the other hand, if the number of molecular units per Ti surface area is large, the molecular units will crowd at the interface and stand perpendicular to the Ti surface. As a result, the thickness of the γ -MPS layer will increase. In this case, the —Si—O—Si— bonding network is sufficiently formed. A thick γ -MPS layer would be attributable to the increase in the shear bonding strength because a thick γ -MPS has more molecular units containing S—H groups bonded to SPU.

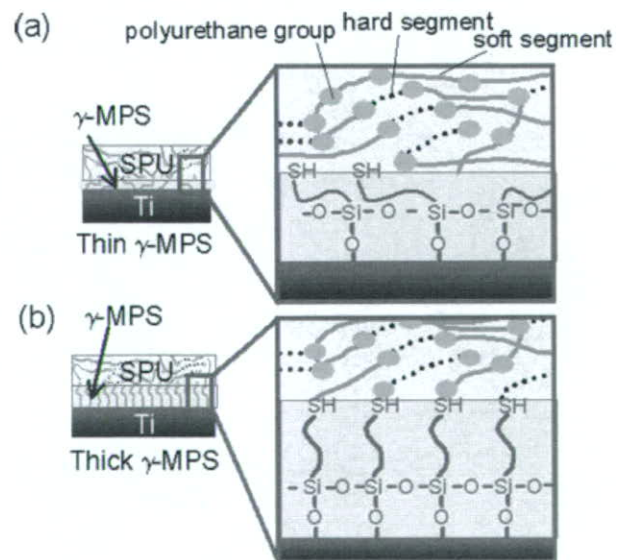


Figure 10. Schematic chemical structure at the Ti/ γ -MPS/SPU interface in the case of a thin γ -MPS layer (a) and a thick MPS layer (b).

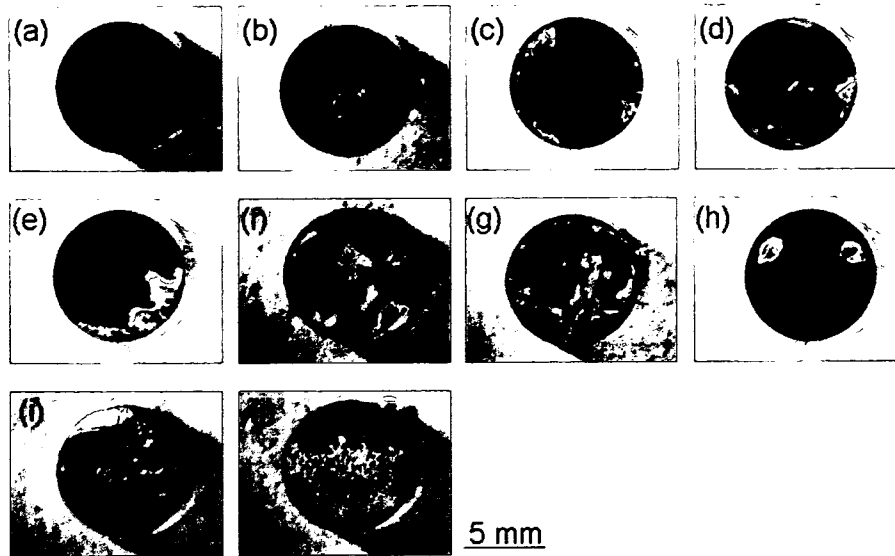


Figure 11. Optical microscopic images of the fractured surface of the Ti-SPU composite. Untreated (a), immersion in 0.1, 0.5, 1.0, and 2.0% γ -MPS for 1 min (b, c, d, and h), in 1.0% γ -MPS for 10, 50, and 100 min (e, f, and g), and 2.0% γ -MPS for 10 and 50 min (i and j).

Fractured surface observation

Optical microscopic images of the fractured surface of the Ti-SPU composite are shown in Figure 11. The SPU area fraction depended on the concentration of γ -MPS and the immersion times. Figure 12(a,b) show the SPU area fraction to the total fractured surface area. The SPU area fraction increased with the increase of the concentration of the γ -MPS solution and immersion time, while no significant difference was observed. Figure 12(c) shows the shear bonding stress of the Ti-SPU composite interface in relation to the SPU area fraction to the total fractured surface area of the Ti-SPU composite ($R_2 = 0.8051$). These results clarify that the shear bonding stress is large when the Ti-SPU composite is fractured inside the SPU. Hibino et al. demonstrated that the shear bonding stress at the interface between a dental alloy and a resin increases when the composite of a dental alloy and resin was fractured inside resin³⁴ and the result supports this study.

Analysis of the fractured surface by XPS

Carbon, nitrogen, sulfur, silicon, and titanium were detected from the fractured surface using XPS. Typical XPS spectra of C 1s electron energy regions and the deconvolutions of these peaks according to published data³² are shown in Figure 13. Table IV lists the ratios $[C-O, C-N, C=N]/[C]$, $[C=O, OH^-, Si-O-Si]/[O]$, and $[Ti^0]/[Ti]$ in the C 1s, O 1s, and Ti 2p peaks, respectively, obtained from

specimens with and without a γ -MPS layer. The $[C-O, C-N, C=N]/[C]$ ratio was significantly larger in the Ti-SPU composite in the presence of the γ -MPS layer than that in its absence. The C-O, C-N, and C=N peaks were originated from the SPU component elements, not from the γ -MPS layer. In other words, the Ti-SPU composite was fractured leaving the SPU component elements on the fractured surface. However, more residual SPU on the fractured surface of the Ti-SPU composite with the γ -MPS layer existed than that without a γ -MPS layer. Regardless of the existence of the γ -MPS layer, the Ti^0 state was detected from the fractured surface. The Ti^0 peak originated from the Ti substrate. Therefore, the SPU layer remaining on the fractured surface was very thin (less than 10 nm). In addition, the $[C=O, OH^-, Si-O-Si]/[O]$ ratio in the O 1s peaks was slightly larger in the Ti-SPU composite with the γ -MPS layer than in that without the γ -MPS layer, but this is not statistically significant. The Si-O-Si peak originated from the γ -MPS layer. In other words, the γ -MPS layer between the Ti substrate and residual SPU remained.

The relative concentrations of carbon, nitrogen, oxygen, sulfur, silicon, and titanium in the specimens were calculated, and it was assumed that the gross volume of these elements detected by XPS was 100mol%. Table V represents the concentrations of carbon, oxygen, and titanium of the fractured surfaces of the Ti-SPU composite with and without the γ -MPS layer. The carbon concentration was significantly higher in the Ti-SPU composite with the γ -MPS layer than in that without it. Moreover, a large

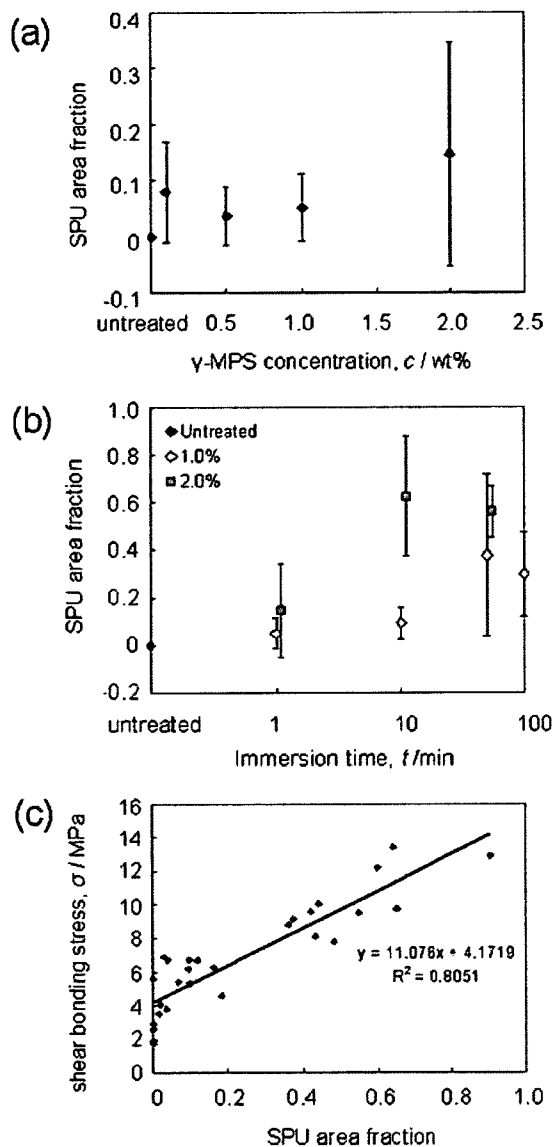


Figure 12. SPU area fraction to the total fractured surface area of the Ti-SPU composite through the γ -MPS layer formed by immersion for 1 min in various concentrations of the γ -MPS solution (a) and immersion in a 0.1 and a 2.0% γ -MPS solution at various immersion times (b). Shear bonding stress of the Ti/ γ -MPS/SPU interface in relation to the SPU area fraction to the total fractured area of the Ti-SPU composite (c).

amount of SPU remained on the fractured surface of the Ti-SPU composite with the γ -MPS layer rather than in that without it. On the other hand, the oxygen and titanium concentrations decreased in the presence of the γ -MPS layer. The signals from titanium oxide and titanium substrate were small due to the remaining layer. A schematic model of the fractured regions before and after the shear bonding test is proposed according to the results reported

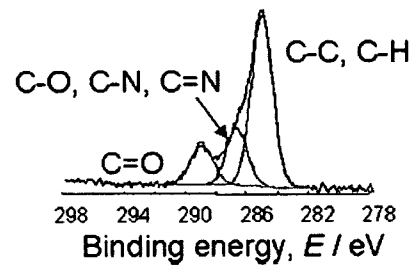


Figure 13. Typical XPS spectra of C 1s electron energy region and the deconvolution of these peaks.

above, as shown in Figure 14. The SPU elements remained on the fractured surface as a result of the presence of the γ -MPS layer. The thicker the γ -MPS layer was, the larger the SPU area fraction on the fractured surface was.

CONCLUSIONS

The thickness of the γ -MPS layer is controlled by the concentration of the γ -MPS solution and the immersion time. The shear bonding stress of the Ti/ γ -MPS/SPU interface increased with the increase in the thickness of the γ -MPS layer. The Ti-SPU composite was fractured inside the SPU, and the shear bonding stress of the Ti/ γ -MPS/SPU interface increased with the increase in the SPU area fraction. The γ -MPS is very useful to improve the bonding

TABLE IV
Ratios of [C-O, C-N, C=N]/[C], [C=O, Si-O-Si, OH-]/[O], and [Ti⁰]/[Ti] in the Fractured Surface of the Ti-SPU Composite

	Area (%)		
	C [C-O, C-N, C=N]	O [C=O, OH ⁻ , Si-O-Si]	Ti [Ti ⁰]
Without the γ -MPS layer	26.0 (0.2)	44.7 (5.6)	5.2 (0.1)
With the γ -MPS layer	25.5 (0.9)	50.7 (3.8)	6.1 (0.8)

The values given are mean (standard deviation).
* $p < 0.05$ (significant differences between the corresponding values).

TABLE V
XPS Results for the Relative Concentration of Elements in the Fractured Surface of the Ti-SPU Composite

	Concentration (%)		
	C	O	Ti
Without the γ -MPS layer	43.9 (2.0)	42.4 (1.5)	3.9 (0.1)
With the γ -MPS layer	56.9 (1.3)	35.7 (1.2)	2.8 (1.0)

The values given are mean (standard deviation).
* $p < 0.05$ (significant differences between the corresponding values).

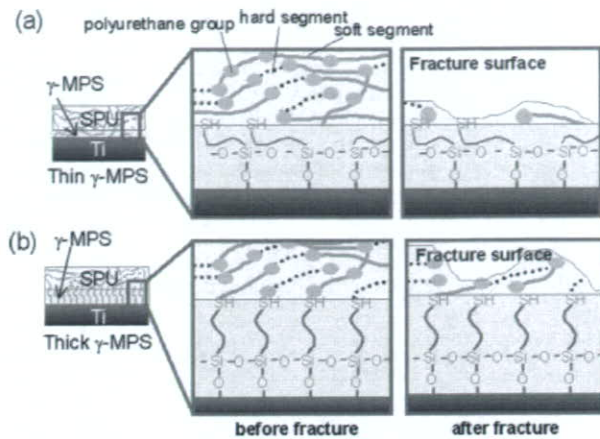


Figure 14. Schematic model of the fractured region before and after the shear bonding test in the case of a thin γ -MPS layer (a) and a thick γ -MPS layer (b).

strength of the Ti-SPU composite. The factor governing the shear bonding strength between Ti and SPU is the thickness of the γ -MPS layer. This study should lead to enhancements in the creation of metal-polymer composites for artificial organs.

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CaTiO₃ coating on titanium for biomaterial application—Optimum thickness and tissue response

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Abstract: The objectives of this study were to determine the optimum thickness of a CaTiO₃ film for biomaterial applications and to investigate the biocompatibility and bone formation of titanium with a CaTiO₃ film. First, CaTiO₃ films of 10, 20, 30, and 50 nm in thickness were deposited on titanium substrates using radiofrequency magnetron sputtering followed by annealing at 873 K in air for 7.2 ks. The optimum thickness of the CaTiO₃ film for bone formation was determined by comparison with its performance regarding calcium phosphate formation in Hanks' balanced saline solution (HBSS). Regarding calcium phosphate formation, the performance of the specimen with a 50-nm-thick CaTiO₃ film was superior to those of specimens with other thicknesses. A titanium prism with a CaTiO₃ film of 50-nm in thickness was surgically inserted in both soft and hard rat

tissues. The biocompatibility of CaTiO₃-deposited titanium and bone formation on it was investigated by histological observations. A slight inflammatory reaction was observed around the titanium with the 50-nm-thick CaTiO₃ film, while no severe response, such as degeneration and necrosis, was observed in either soft or hard rat tissue. New bone formation on the titanium plate with the CaTiO₃ film was more active than that without the film. The 50-nm-thick CaTiO₃ film has biocompatibility and can facilitate new bone formation *in vivo*, and, consequently, it is an excellent surface modification method for biomaterial applications. © 2007 Wiley Periodicals, Inc. *J Biomed Mater Res* 82A: 304–315, 2007

Key words: biomaterials; titanium; CaTiO₃ coating; biocompatibility; bone formation

INTRODUCTION

Titanium and its alloys have been widely used for dental and orthopedic implants because of their excellent biocompatibility^{1–4} and good mechanical properties.^{5–7} One disadvantage of these materials is that it takes several months to obtain good fixation between the material and bone. Although bulk properties dictate the mechanical properties of biomaterials, tissue-biomaterial processes are surface phenomena, and, as such, they are governed by the surface properties. To shorten the bone-fixation term, therefore, various surface modification techniques have been attempted.

Hydroxyapatite (HAP; Ca₁₀(PO₄)₆(OH)₂) is compatible with various tissue types and can bond directly to bone.^{8–10} Despite its excellent properties as a biomate-

rial, HAP lacks mechanical strength for some purposes, especially because of its brittleness and low impact resistance, which sometimes results in failure in implantation.¹¹ Consequently, major attempts have been conducted to achieve successful physical and chemical coating processes with HAP on titanium to acquire good mechanical properties and excellent bone fixation.¹² Various methods have been used to coat with HAP, such as immersion coating,¹³ electrophoretic deposition,¹⁴ ion-beam-assisted deposition,¹⁵ ion-beam sputter coating¹⁶ or radiofrequency (RF) magnetron sputter coating,¹⁷ pulsed laser deposition,¹⁸ and thermal spraying techniques.^{19,20} At this point, thermal spraying, especially the plasma-spray method, appears to be the most favorable because it has a high deposition rate and is applicable to complex shapes. In fact, this method is most commonly used in clinical applications. Nevertheless, some disadvantages have resulted in some reluctance to use the plasma-sprayed HAP in clinical settings. The most significant problems are poor coating-substrate

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bonding^{21,22} and lack of uniformity of the coating crystallinity.^{23,24} Generally, coatings with low crystallinity degrade rapidly in the human body. Likewise, plasma-sprayed HAP, which has parts with low crystallinity, dissolves rapidly in the human body. Consequently, loss of fixation of the coating-substrate bonding²⁵ and inflammation of the tissue around the material result. The crystallinity of the coating could increase with postannealing treatment. However, in a calcium-phosphate coating on titanium, the post-annealing treatment causes cracking of the coating,^{26,27} and, thus, the post-annealing treatment is not appropriate for the commercially available plasma-sprayed HAP.

One simple method to eliminate these problems would be to use thinner films. The mechanical properties of a film, such as the toughness and coating-substrate-bonding strength, increase with a decrease in the film thickness, and the possibility of film cracking with the post-heat treatment decreases. On the other hand, the thickness of the commercially available plasma-sprayed HAP is about 50 μm in general, which is reported as the optimum thickness.^{28,29} Since a dense HAP surface will loosen up to 15 μm because of a dissolution process after implantation, a coating should have a thickness sufficiently exceeding this lower limit and, thus, a thickness of about 50 μm or more is required.²⁸ Furthermore, the 50- μm -thick HAP would not be susceptible to fatigue failure, which commonly occurs in coatings thicker than 100 μm , but would still result in constant bone growth.²⁹ Therefore, it is generally considered that the application of HAP films that are much thinner than the commercially available films is inappropriate because the bone-fixation ability of the coatings is rapidly lost.

Recently, some of the present authors reported that calcium-phosphate formation on titanium in Hanks' balanced saline solution (HBSS) was facilitated by coating a CaTiO₃ thin film³⁰; in this study, the enhancement of calcium-phosphate formation was demonstrated on a CaTiO₃ thin film that was deposited to 50-nm thickness using RF magnetron sputtering followed by annealing in air at 873 K. Since biomaterials with the potential for good calcium-phosphate formation can rapidly adhere to bone, the CaTiO₃ coating would be expected to impart good bone-fixation qualities to titanium. Because the 50-nm film thickness of the CaTiO₃ coating is 1/1000 of the 50- μm thickness, the problems regarding the plasma-sprayed HAP noted above could easily be ameliorated. Moreover, the 50-nm CaTiO₃ film was reported to crystallize to a perovskite-type phase.³⁰ Since the dissolution of a crystallized-CaTiO₃ film in a simulated body fluid is rare,³¹ ion releases from the CaTiO₃ film in the human body would be expected to be rare as well.

In a previous study, the prepared CaTiO₃ film thickness was fixed to 50 nm, and all investigations

were performed *in vitro*.³⁰ The effect of the CaTiO₃ coating thickness on calcium-phosphate formation has not been investigated yet; in other words, the optimum thickness has not been determined. If it becomes possible to impart good bone fixation to titanium by coating it with a thin CaTiO₃ film, the deposition time could most likely be shortened because the deposition time of the film is proportional to the thickness. By thinning the coating film, the mechanical properties of the film would be further improved. Biocompatibility and bone formation *in vivo* have not been evaluated yet. Even if *in vitro* experiments were to suggest that the modification by the CaTiO₃ coating is a better alternative to plasma-sprayed HAP, a definitive evaluation would need to be conducted with *in vivo* experiments because a complex physiological reaction cannot be evaluated *in vitro*.

The objectives of this study are to determine the optimum thickness of a CaTiO₃ film for calcium-phosphate formation and to investigate the tissue response of CaTiO₃-coated titanium, particularly, with regard to bone formation on a titanium plate coated with a CaTiO₃ film of the optimum thickness. The optimum thickness of the CaTiO₃ film was determined by estimating the calcium-phosphate formation in HBSS. Moreover, the CaTiO₃ films were carefully characterized by grazing incident angle X-ray diffractometry (GI-XRD) and Auger electron spectroscopy (AES), and the dissolution behavior in a physiological solution was also investigated by AES. The relationship between the film properties and calcium-phosphate formation was discussed on the basis of the results. After determination of the optimum thickness, the CaTiO₃ film with the optimum thickness was surgically inserted in both soft and hard rat tissues. The tissue response and osteogenesis around CaTiO₃ were investigated and compared with those around cpTi by histological observation with the use of optical and fluorescent microscopy.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Preparation of specimens for immersion

Commercially available pure Ti (cpTi) grade 2 (ISO 5832-2) with a disk shape (Φ 8 mm \times t 1 mm) was mechanically polished with SiC paper (#1500) to obtain a rough surface. CaTiO₃ films were deposited on a cpTi substrate using RF magnetron sputtering with a CaTiO₃ target in an Ar gas flow. RF magnetron sputtering has several advantages, including homogeneous film preparation and ease of controlling the film thickness. These advantages make it possible to prepare homogeneous high-quality films. On the other hand, the low deposition rate is a disadvantage in RF magnetron sputtering.¹⁶ However, the problem of the low deposition rate is not critically serious because the required thickness of the CaTiO₃ film deposited is extremely small.

TABLE I
Specimen Preparation Conditions

Symbols	Deposition Conditions			Postannealing
	Sputtering Power (W)	Deposition Time (ks)	Thickness (nm)	
cpTi	–	–	–	No
anTi	–	–	–	Yes
CT10	200	0.21	10	Yes
CT20	200	0.42	20	Yes
CT30	200	0.62	30	Yes
CT50	200	1.04	50	Yes

The CaTiO₃ target used in the sputtering process was prepared by a sintering method. A commercial reagent of CaTiO₃ with a purification of 99.9% was formed into a 51-mm disk by a cold-press method, and, finally, the CaTiO₃ disk was sintered at 1523 K for 10.8 ks. The pressure of the deposition chamber just before the start of sputtering (base pressure) was about 10⁻⁷ Pa. The sputtering power was fixed at 200 W. The thicknesses of the deposited films were about 10, 20, 30, and 50 nm, which were calculated with the sputtering rate of the CaTiO₃ film. Thereafter, the specimens were annealed at 873 K for 7.2 ks in air using an electric furnace. For comparison, cpTi without a coating was examined with and without annealing under the same conditions as for the film-deposited specimens. The conditions for specimen preparation are summarized in Table I.

Characterization of specimens

The prepared specimens before and after the annealing treatment were characterized by the following two methods. The crystallinity of the CaTiO₃ film was identified by GIXRD with a step-scanning mode at 0.8 deg min⁻¹ and an X-ray incident angle $\alpha = 1.0$ degree against the specimen surface (Rotaflex RU-200B, Rigaku, Japan). The in-depth profile of the CaTiO₃ film was determined by AES (JAMP-7100E, JEOL, Japan), where the acceleration voltage of the electron probe was fixed to 10 kV and that of Ar ions for ion etching was fixed to 3.0 kV.

The dissolution behavior of the prepared specimens after the annealing treatment was investigated by comparing the in-depth profiles before and after immersion in a 0.8% NaCl solution in which the NaCl concentration corresponds to that of HBSS. Since HBSS contains the Ca ion and, thus, Ca adsorption on the surface of the specimen is often observed after immersion, the NaCl solution was employed to avoid Ca adsorption. The specimens were immersed in the NaCl solution for 14 days. The change in the in-depth profiles by immersion in the solution was determined by AES.

Evaluation of performance regarding calcium-phosphate formation in HBSS

HBSS was employed as a simulated body fluid to evaluate the performance of specimens regarding calcium-phosphate formation because its inorganic content is similar to that of human blood plasma. The HBSS used in this study was prepared without any organic species. The ion concentrations of HBSS are listed in Table II. HBSS was prepared by dissolving a prescribed amount of reagent-grade NaCl,

KCl, CaCl₂, MgSO₄·7H₂O, Na₂HPO₄·2H₂O, KH₂PO₄, and NaHCO₃ (Nacalai Tesque) in deionized water (Millipore). No adjustment of the pH was performed. The pH value of the HBSS immediately after preparation was about 7.8. Each of six specimens (Table I) was immersed in 12.6 mL of the HBSS at 310 K. The immersion was performed six times for each preparation condition. While avoiding Si contamination eluted from the vessels,³² specimens were immersed in vessels made of perfluoroalkoxy fluoroplastic (Teflon®PFA), and the vessels were completely sealed. To avoid an increase in the pH, HBSS was changed once every three days. Three specimens were retrieved from HBSS after immersion for 35 days, and the remaining three specimens were retrieved after immersion for 45 days. After retrieval, these specimens were gently rinsed with distilled water and dried in a convection oven at 313 K.

The performance of each specimen regarding calcium-phosphate formation was estimated by observing the surface and a cross section after immersion using scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and EPMA equipped with wavelength dispersive X-ray spectrometry (WDS) and energy dispersive X-ray spectrometry (EDS). The acceleration voltage of SEM and EPMA was 15 kV. Furthermore, the thickness of the calcium phosphate layer after immersion was estimated with a cross-sectional view when the calcium phosphate layer was sufficiently thick. The thickness was determined by averaging several points of the layer.

Tissue response to rat specimens

Preparation of specimens for implantation

Only on one side of the cpTi with a prism shape (1 mm × 1 mm × 5 mm), CaTiO₃ films were prepared with the same method as for CT50. The reason for using 50 nm as the

TABLE II
Ion Concentrations of Hanks Balanced Saline Solution (HBSS)

	Concentration (mol L ⁻¹)
Na ⁺	1.42 × 10 ⁻¹
K ⁺	5.81 × 10 ⁻³
Mg ⁺	8.11 × 10 ⁻⁴
Ca ²⁺	1.26 × 10 ⁻³
Cl ⁻	1.45 × 10 ⁻¹
HPO ₄ ²⁻	7.78 × 10 ⁻⁴
SO ₄ ²⁻	8.11 × 10 ⁻⁴
CO ₃ ²⁻	4.17 × 10 ⁻³

CaTiO₃ film thickness is explained later. The surface opposite the deposition side was metallurgically polished with SiC paper (#1500), and the Ti-oxide layer formed by the annealing treatment was then completely removed. This side became equal to the surface of cpTi and used as control against the CaTiO₃ film side.

Animal experiment

At first, the specimens were sterilized in an autoclave. Eight male Wistar rats aged 14 weeks (weight about 400 g) were used in this study. After the rats were anesthetized with diethyl ether (Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Osaka, Japan), pentobarbital sodium (50 mg/kg; MEMBUTAL Injection, Dainippon Pharmacy, Osaka, Japan) was injected intraperitoneally. The specimens were inserted into subcutaneous connective tissue in the abdominal region of the rats to examine the response in soft tissue. For hard tissue, a hole with a diameter of about 2 mm was carefully made in the lateral surface of the diaphysis of the femur using a dental round bar with a physiological saline external coolant. The specimen was inserted into the medullary space longitudinally through the hole made in the femur. The specimens were changed in the direction of the surface of cpTi and CaTiO₃ and implanted to prevent the influence of the anatomical site and surgical incision. The wound was then sutured, and 2% Calcein (CA; 8 mg/kg, Calcein, Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Osaka, Japan) was injected intraperitoneally. Moreover, 5% oxytetracycline hydrochloride (TC; 20 mg/kg, Terramycin, Pfizer, Tokyo, Japan) was injected into the peritoneal cavity a day before sacrifice. These agents were used for bone labeling.³³ Animal experiments were performed in accordance with the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals, Hokkaido University Graduate School of Dental Medicine. No rats were lost in the course of the study.

Histological observation of soft and hard tissue

Rats were sacrificed on days 7 and 28 after implantation, and the specimens with tissue blocks were fixed in 10% neutral-buffered formalin. The specimens implanted in the subcutaneous tissue were carefully removed after fixation, and

the tissue blocks were then embedded in paraffin by a conventional method. Hematoxylin- and eosin-stained specimens were observed histopathologically with an optical microscope.

The tissue blocks from the rat femurs were fixed in 10% neutral-buffered formalin, washed, stained with Villanueva bone stain, and then embedded in PMMA. The hard tissue blocks were then sectioned to 400 μ m in thickness with a precision saw, and thinner sections of about 100 μ m in thickness were prepared by mechanical polishing. The thin specimens were observed with optical and fluorescent microscopy.

RESULTS

Surface characteristics

AES in-depth profiles of specimens with a CaTiO₃ film of 50 nm in thickness (CT50) and without a film after the annealing treatment (anTi) are shown in Figure 1. Because of oxidation during annealing, Ti-oxide layers form between the CaTiO₃ film and the Ti substrate. The thicknesses of the Ti-oxide layers of CT50 and anTi are about 300 and 600 nm, respectively. Figure 2 shows the in-depth profiles of the Ca-atomic ratio determined by AES in specimens with a CaTiO₃ film of 10 (CT10), 20 (CT20), 30 (CT30), and 50 (CT50) nm in thickness before and after annealing, where the Ca-atomic ratio is defined by $[Ca]/([Ca] + [Ti])$. The profiles show a Ca-rich region at the top of the surface. In the specimens before annealing, the Ca-atomic ratio decreases with an increase in the depth. After annealing, the diffusion of Ca atoms into the direction of the Ti substrate is observed in the profiles of CT10, CT20, and CT30, and the region in which the Ca-atomic ratio was almost constant on CT30 disappears. However, the change in the in-depth profile of CT50 is so small that the Ca-ratio-constant region still remains.

The GI-XRD patterns of the specimens after annealing are shown in Figure 3. Since the effective depth of

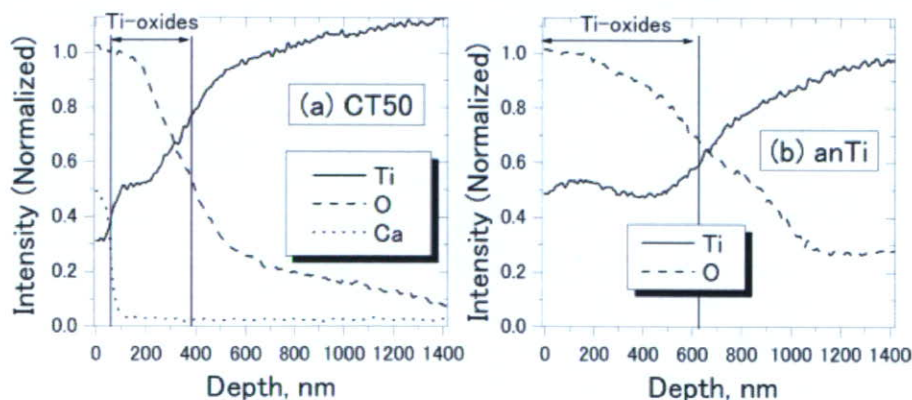


Figure 1. AES in-depth profile of (a) CT50 and (b) anTi. Intensities are normalized to an arbitrary value.

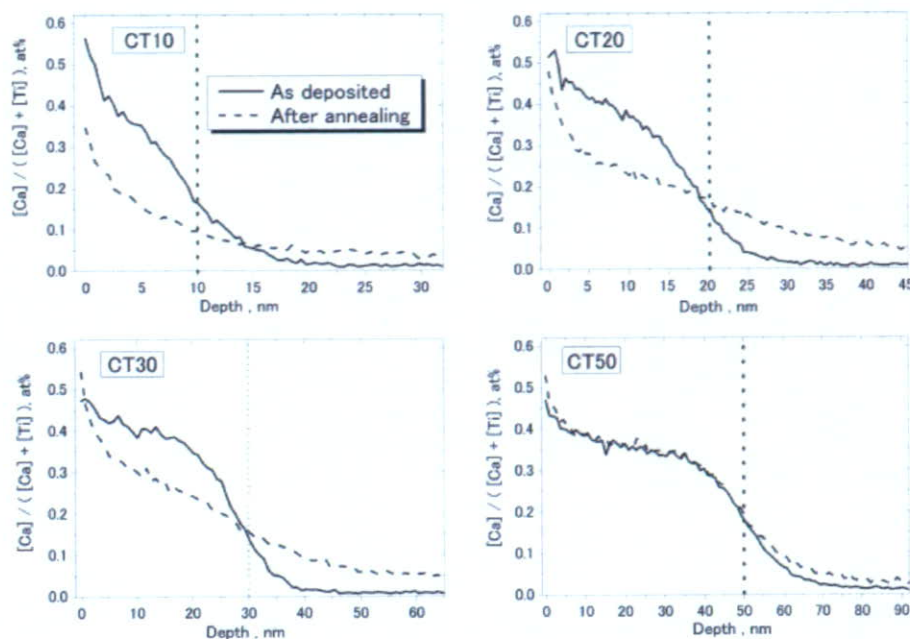


Figure 2. In-depth profiles of the Ca-atomic ratio determined by AES in CT10, CT20, CT30, and CT50 before and after annealing.

GI-XRD analysis at $\alpha = 1^\circ$ is larger than the thickness of the CaTiO_3 film, the GI-XRD patterns include the peaks from both the CaTiO_3 film and the substrate and the interface layer explained. Perovskite-type CaTiO_3 peaks are only observed on CT50. Peaks originating from rutile-type TiO_2 and Ti_2O are observed in all specimens. Judging from the AES in-depth profiles in Figure 1, TiO_2 and Ti_2O as the interface layer are formed between the CaTiO_3 film and the Ti surface by oxidation of Ti.

Dissolution behavior of the CaTiO_3 film in a 0.8% NaCl solution

Figure 4 shows the in-depth profiles of the Ca-atomic ratio in CT20 and CT50 before and after immersion for 14 days. The profiles of CT10 and CT30 are similar to that of CT20. In CT20, the Ca-atomic ratio near and at the outermost surface decreases after immersion, although almost all other parts of the Ca still remain in the film. The in-depth profiles of CT50 before and after immersion are almost the same, indicating that CT50 hardly dissolves in the 0.8% NaCl solution.

Calcium-phosphate formation in HBSS

SEM observation of a specimen surface after immersion

On the surfaces of the specimens after immersion for 35 and 45 days in HBSS, four types of morphology

were observed. These were categorized as follows: (1) no precipitates are observed on the surface (M1); (2) sphere-like precipitates with a size of several micrometer are scattered (M2); (3) surfaces are covered with sphere-like precipitates (M3); and (4) the precipitate layer grows into a thick layer (M4). The SEM images of typical morphologies of these four types are shown in Figure 5. Cracks contained in the M4-type morphology are due to an evaporation of water in a high-vacuum chamber. Since the EPMA-EDX spectra of the precipitates observed in M2, M3, and M4 included only the peaks from Ca and P, these precipitates were identified as calcium phosphates. The inserted values of $[\text{Ca}]/[\text{P}]$ correspond to the atomic ratios of the calcium phosphate determined by EMPA-WDS. These values are the same as those of HAP ($[\text{Ca}]/[\text{P}] = 1.67$). It is apparent that the amount of calcium phosphate on the specimen surface increases in the order of M1, M2, M3, and M4. This fact suggests that the morphology change in the typical image corresponds to the growing stage of the calcium phosphate.

Thus, the effect of the CaTiO_3 film thickness on Ti on calcium-phosphate formation can be evaluated by categorizing the surface morphology after immersion in HBSS. The number of the specimens categorized by the type of surface morphology after immersion in HBSS is shown in Table III. For example, the number of cpTi in the M1 stage, 1/3, means that one third of the specimens show an M1-type morphology after immersion for 35 days in HBSS. On all cpTi specimens, only M1 and M2 stages were observed even after immersion for 45 days. Moreover, the HAP layers

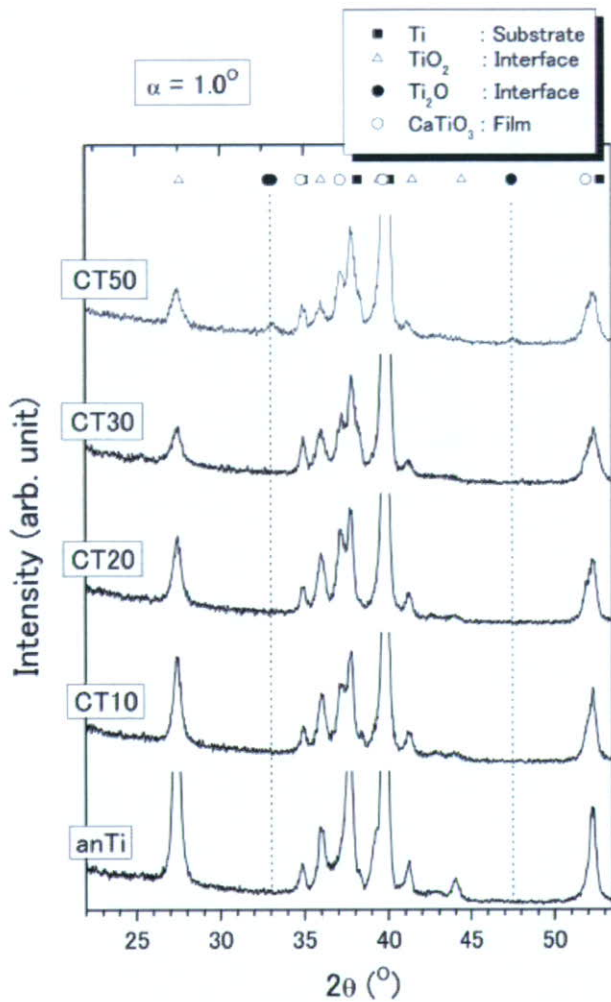


Figure 3. GI-XRD patterns of CT10, CT20, CT30, and CT50 after the annealing treatment. For comparison, the GI-XRD pattern of anTi is also included.

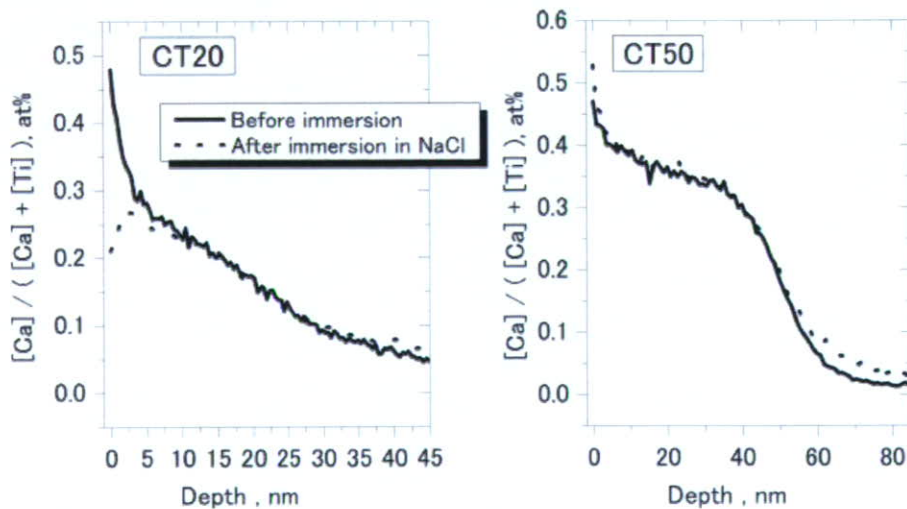


Figure 4. In-depth profiles of the Ca-atomic ratio in CT20 and CT50 before and after immersion in a 0.8% NaCl solution for 14 day.

were not observed on these specimens by EPMA. On the CT30 specimens, only the M2 and M3 stages were observed after immersion for 35 days, although calcium phosphates grew to the M3 or the M4 stage within 45 days. On anTi, CT10, and CT20 specimens, the surface morphology changed to the M3 or M4 stage after immersion for 35 days. All CT50 specimens showed the M4 stage in 35 days. These results indicate that the performance of CaTiO₃-deposited titanium and annealed titanium regarding the formation of calcium phosphate is superior to that of cpTi. Moreover, the CT50 specimen seemed to show the most stable growth of the calcium phosphate layer because all of these specimens attained the M4 stage within 35 days.

SEM observation of the cross-sectional view of specimens after immersion

Figure 6 contains typical SEM images of the cross-sectional view of specimens after immersion for 45 days. Figure 6(a,b) correspond to the cross-sectional images of the M3- and M4-stage specimens, respectively. Hemisphere-like calcium phosphates are observed in Figure 6(a). No hemisphere-like shape of calcium phosphate exists in Figure 6(b); however, a uniform, thick, and dense layer is evident.

The thickness of the calcium-phosphate layer of each specimen was determined from observation of the specimens at the M4 stage after immersion for 45 days. The thickness of the calcium-phosphate layer formed on cpTi could not be determined because no specimen reached the M4 stage. The averages of the thickness of the calcium phosphate layer formed on the specimens are summarized in Figure 7. The calcium phosphate layer on the CT50 specimen is about

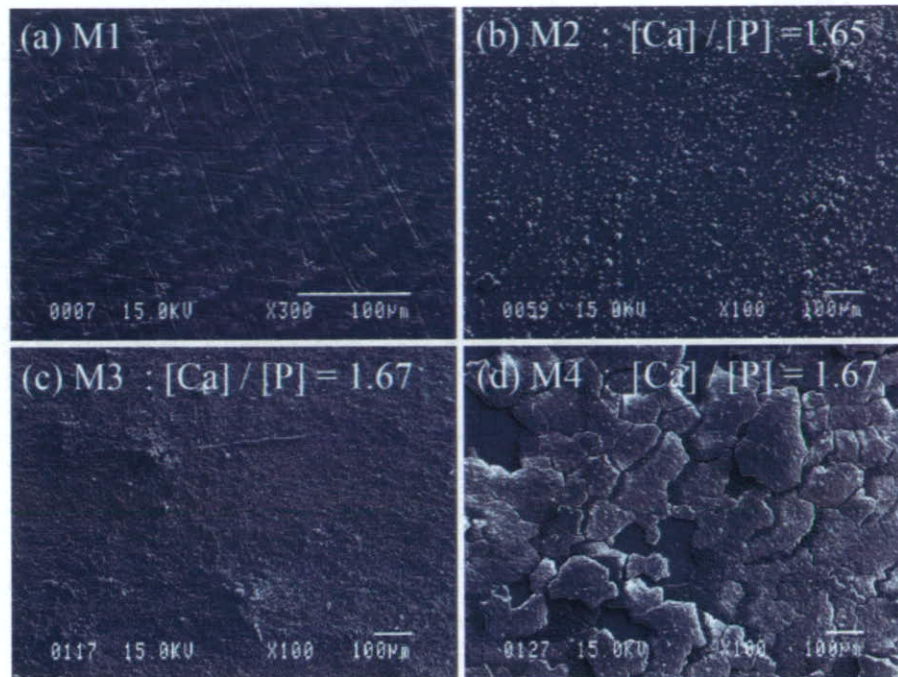


Figure 5. SEM images of the typical surface morphology of (a) M1, (b) M2, (c) M3, and (d) M4. The inserted $[[\text{Ca}]/[\text{P}]]$ values correspond to the atomic ratios of the precipitates determined by EPMA-WDS.

twice as thick as those of the other specimens. On the other hand, the calcium-phosphate layers on the anTi, CT10, CT20, and CT30 specimens were almost identical. Consequently, the growth speed of the calcium-phosphate layer is fastest on the CT50 specimen.

Tissue responses to the specimens

Soft tissue response

Figure 8 shows the tissue response to the CaTiO_3 film side and the cpTi side of the specimen implanted in subcutaneous tissue at 7 and 28 days after surgery. On day 7, the granulation tissue with a slight inflammatory change was recognized on the CaTiO_3 film side, while fibrous connective tissue with many fibro-

blasts was observed on the cpTi side. The thickness of the tissue around the CaTiO_3 film side was thicker than that on the cpTi side [Fig. 8(a,b)]. However, no severe inflammatory responses, such as necrosis and degeneration, were observed. On day 28, the thickness of the connective tissue around the specimen became smaller on both the sides, and there was no difference between the tissue reaction on the CaTiO_3 film side and that on the cpTi side [Fig. 8(c,d)].

Hard tissue response

Figure 9 shows the hard tissue response to a specimen in bone marrow by optical microscopy. On day 7, fibrous tissue [white asterisk in Fig. 9(a)], including cells with large cytoplasm [black arrows in Fig. 9(a)],

TABLE III
Number of the Specimens Categorized by the Surface-Morphology Type After Immersion for 35 and 45 Days in a SBF

Specimens	After Immersion for 35 Days				After Immersion for 45 Days			
	M1	M2	M3	M4	M1	M2	M3	M4
cpTi	1/3	2/3	0/3	0/3	0/3	3/3	0/3	0/3
anTi	0/3	0/3	1/3	2/3	0/3	0/3	0/3	3/3
CT10	0/3	0/3	1/3	2/3	0/3	0/3	1/3	2/3
CT20	0/3	0/3	1/3	2/3	0/3	0/3	0/3	3/3
CT30	0/3	1/3	2/3	0/3	0/3	0/3	2/3	1/3
CT50	0/3	0/3	0/3	3/3	0/3	0/3	0/3	3/3

The fraction means number of the each growing stage divided by number of specimen.