

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Fabrication of 3D gel-printed β -tricalcium phosphate/titanium dioxide porous scaffolds for cancellous bone tissue engineering

Xulin Hu¹, Hu Li¹, Liang Qiao², Shuhao Yang¹, Haoming Wu¹, Chao Peng¹, Yamei Zhang¹, Hai Lan¹, Hua Yang^{3*}, Kainan Li^{1*}

¹Clinical Medical College and Affiliated Hospital of Chengdu University, Chengdu University, Chengdu 610081, China

²The First Affiliated Hospital, and College of Clinical Medicine of Henan University of Science and Technology, Luoyang 471003, China

³West China School of Public Health of Sichuan University, Chengdu 610041, China

Abstract

Human bone is composed of cortical bone and cancellous bone. The interior portion of natural bone is cancellous with a porosity of 50%–90%, but the outer layer is made of dense cortical bone, of which porosity was not higher than 10%. Porous ceramics were expected to be research hotspot in bone tissue engineering by virtue of their similarity to the mineral constituent and physiological structure of human bone. However, it is challenging to utilize conventional manufacturing methods to fabricate porous structures with precise shapes and pore sizes. Three-dimensional (3D) printing of ceramics is currently the latest research trend because it has many advantages in the fabrication of porous scaffolds, which can meet the requirements of cancellous bone strength, arbitrarily complex shapes, and individualized design. In this study, β -tricalcium phosphate (β -TCP)/titanium dioxide (TiO_2) porous ceramics scaffolds were fabricated by 3D gel-printing sintering for the first time. The chemical constituent, microstructure, and mechanical properties of the 3D-printed scaffolds were characterized. After sintering, a uniform porous structure with appropriate porosity and pore sizes was observed. Besides, biological mineralization activity and biocompatibility were evaluated by *in vitro* cell assay. The results demonstrated that the incorporation of TiO_2 (5 wt%) significantly improved the compressive strength of the scaffolds, with an increase of 283%. Additionally, the *in vitro* results showed that the β -TCP/ TiO_2 scaffold had no toxicity. Meanwhile, the adhesion and proliferation of MC3T3-E1 cells on scaffolds were desirable, revealing that the β -TCP/ TiO_2 scaffolds can be used as a promising candidate for repair scaffolding in orthopedics and traumatology.

Keywords: β -tricalcium phosphate; Titanium dioxide; 3D printing; Porous scaffolds; Bone tissue engineering

***Corresponding author:**

Hua Yang (yangwawa19@163.com)
Kainan Li
(likainan1961cdfy@126.com)

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1. Introduction

The aging of population and an increase in life expectancy worldwide is accompanied by a surge of bone-associated diseases, including catagma, osteoporosis, and bone

tumors^[1-3]. An increasing demand for bone transplantation and regeneration approaches is now a critical issue in orthopedics. Autologous bone and allografts are considered a convenient strategy for bone repair operation, but each has some drawbacks^[3,4]. For instance, variable quality, limited availability, chronic donor site pain, and second surgery requirement restrict their extensive applications, rendering it vital to seek alternatives. Consequently, synthetic bone-graft scaffolds were developed to overcome the inherent limitations of autografts and allografts, thus attracting great interest in the orthopedic field^[5,6].

The aim of bone tissue engineering is to regenerate damaged osseous tissue to its original state using bionic scaffolds^[7], relying on scaffolds that act as a platform to motivate cells to adhere and spread with the ultimate goal of bone regeneration^[8,9]. The bionic bone scaffolds must be porous, characterized by the interconnected penetrating structure and pore with different sizes to sustain the growth of osteoblasts and provide a venue for vascularization^[7,10,11]. Three-dimensional (3D) printing technology opens up new opportunities for fabricating bone scaffolds with different extremely complex architectures and arbitrary shapes^[12], which is quite challenging for irregular bone defects by customization. Other than synthetic bone grafting granulation used in the therapy of small bone defects^[10], the 3D-printed porous scaffolds provide interconnected pores and mechanical integrity, which are promising attributes in the treatment of large segmental defects^[13].

Various biomaterials including bio-ceramics^[14], polymers and metal alloys, have been used to fabricate porous bone scaffolds^[15]. Among the different, calcium phosphate, typically the β -tricalcium phosphate (β -TCP) and hydroxyapatite (HA)^[16,17], is the most popular due to its excellent bioactivity and biocompatibility^[18]. Since β -TCP and HA are the components of human bones, their osteoconduction and osteointegration are similar to the natural bone^[19], and they have been applied in bone repair and reconstruction^[20,21]. Several conventional routes have been adopted to fabricate porous β -TCP scaffolds. Tunable pore sizes and porosity can be attained using a space holder-assisted powder processing to fabricate β -TCP scaffolds, but uncontrolled shrinkage during sintering gives rise to the insufficient mechanical strength of scaffolds^[22]. Gel casting, summarized as a stable gel network in a casting mold which is sintered to decompose, is able to prepare ceramic scaffolds with high porosity but low interconnectivity^[23]. Another conventional pore-forming method, freeze casting, has been utilized to manufacture porous ceramic scaffolds since the 2000s^[24]. The main shortcomings of freeze casting are the complexity of controllability and commonly low porosity with small pore size^[25]. Nevertheless, the aforementioned strategies

cannot provide a controllable design of the complex shape as well as a microporous structure with precise parameters. Nowadays, 3D printing technology, combining computer-aided design (CAD) with computer-aided manufacturing (CAM), has been developed to manufacture porous structures with desirable porosity, precise shape, and adjustable pore size^[26-28]. Furthermore, 3D printing is a promising technique for fabricating orthopedic implants for tissue engineering by virtue of customizable manufacturing and controlled hierarchical structures^[29,30].

Here, considering the advantages of β -TCP ceramic and 3D printing technology, we designed and fabricated a novel β -TCP/titanium dioxide (TiO₂) ceramic porous scaffold using a 3D gel-printing sintering for the first time. Since TCP is brittle and has low tenacity^[31], the TiO₂, which is also supposed to act as a base for nucleation, was incorporated to improve the mechanical properties of scaffolds. Meanwhile, TiO₂ can promote the adhesion of bone cells with good biocompatibility^[32,33]. The objective of this work was to explore the manufacturing process of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic porous scaffold with a systematic characterization. Additionally, we demonstrated the adhesion, proliferation, and metabolic activity of the MC3T3-E1 cells on scaffolds to evaluate its potential in bone tissue engineering.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

β -TCP and TiO₂ powder were obtained commercially (Kunshan Technology, China). All the chemicals used in this work, including gelatin, polyvinyl alcohol, and biological reagent, were purchased from Aladdin Biochemical Technology Co., Ltd (Shanghai, China). Other organic solvents and reagents were analytically pure and purchased from Kelong Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd (Chengdu, China).

2.2. Preparation of β -TCP/TiO₂ slurry and β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic

A stable slurry with the proper ratio of additives is fundamental to scaffold fabrication^[34]. In this study, β -TCP ceramics containing different weight TiO₂ (1–5 wt%) were produced via a molding-sintering method. First, 4 g β -TCP powder, 1.8 mL gelatin solution (20 wt%), 0.2 mL PVA solution (20 wt%) and TiO₂ powder were added into a 5-mL beaker and stirred thoroughly to obtain a ceramic slurry. The ceramic slurry was then injected into a prepared cylindrical mold with a diameter of 8 mm and a height of 4 mm. Second, the ceramic billet was taken out quickly from the mold after solidification. For the purpose of preventing the deformation or collapse in the subsequent decrease sintering process, the ceramic billet was put into a

freeze dryer at -80°C for 24 h to remove moisture. Finally, the lyophilized ceramic billets were sintered in a muffle furnace (KSL-1400X-A1, Kejing, China) in the different heating curves for degreasing to obtain the β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic sample. Hereafter, sintered ceramic samples with 1 wt%, 2 wt%, 3 wt%, 4 wt%, and 5 wt% of TiO₂ were labeled as β -TCP/1-TiO₂ ceramic, β -TCP/2-TiO₂, β -TCP/3-TiO₂ ceramic, β -TCP/4-TiO₂ ceramic, and β -TCP/5-TiO₂ ceramic, respectively.

2.3. Fabrication and 3D printing process of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic scaffolds

The ceramic slurry containing different weight ratios of β -TCP, TiO₂, gelatin, and PVA was aspirated into a syringe and added to the biological 3D printer (B Series, Guangzhou Maipu Regenerative Medical Technology Co., Ltd, China). The nozzle model used in this experiment was 22G (inner diameter was 400 μm) and the layer thickness of 3D printing was set to 0.4 mm. Other print parameters are as follows: printing speed = 30 mm/s; printing temperature = 50°C ; return axis speed = 5 mm/s; return axis length = 2 mm; temperature of ice plate = -5°C ; heating temperature of the nozzle = 50°C ; and discharge speed = 20 mm/s. The printing process was performed according to the pre-designed scaffold model ($10 \times 10 \times 10$ mm) and the filling rates were set to 20%, 30%, and 40%, respectively. After printing, the printed porous scaffolds were immediately put into the freeze dryer for freeze-drying at -80°C for 24 h. Finally, the frozen printed scaffolds were sintered in the muffle furnace in an optimized heating curve to fabricate the β -TCP/TiO₂ porous scaffolds. Hereafter, the sample of sintered ceramic scaffolds with 1 wt%, 2 wt%, 3 wt%, 4 wt%, and 5 wt% of TiO₂ was labeled as β -TCP/1-TiO₂ scaffold, β -TCP/2-TiO₂ scaffold, β -TCP/3-TiO₂ scaffold, β -TCP/4-TiO₂ scaffold, and β -TCP/5-TiO₂ scaffold, respectively.

2.4. Composition analysis of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramics and scaffolds

2.4.1. X-ray diffraction analysis (XRD)

X-ray diffraction analysis (XRD) of ceramics was detected using an X-ray diffraction analyzer (DX-2700B, Hao Yuan instrument co., Ltd, China). The β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic was milled into powder subjected to transmission analysis by CuK α -radiation with a voltage of 40 kV, a current of 30 mA and a scanning angle range of 20° – 80° .

2.4.2. Fourier infrared spectroscopy analysis (FIRS)

Nicolet 6700 infrared spectrometer (Thermo Fisher, USA) was used to identify the functional groups of the β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic samples. One to two milligram ceramic was grinded in an agate mortar to powder with dried potassium bromide. Subsequently, the mixed powder was pressed into pieces on the tablet press and tested.

2.4.3. Thermogravimetric analysis

Thermo-grameter analysis (METTLER TOLEDO, USA) was carried out to verify the thermostability of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic. For each group of samples, 10 mg ceramic was loaded into the crucible and heated at 20°C – 800°C with a heating rate was $10^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{min}$ under a nitrogen atmosphere.

2.4.4. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) microscopic analysis

The morphologies and microstructure of the ceramics and scaffolds were examined by a field emission scanning electron microscopy (Phenom pro, Netherlands) with a voltage of 10 kV. Before observation, the surface of the specimens was sprayed with a thin gold-plated layer.

2.5. Mechanical properties

The mechanical properties of ceramic and scaffolds were carried out using a universal testing machine (SANSCMT4503, YinFei Electronic Technology Co., Ltd, China) at room temperature. For each ceramic or scaffold specimen, the samples were prepared into cylindrical ceramic sheets with a diameter of 8 mm and a height of 4 mm for compressive strength testing. The surface under the pressure was flat and there were no defects on the sample. The speed of the squeeze head was set at 1 mm/min with 4.8 kN force. Each group of ceramic plate samples was tested at room temperature with five parallel samples according to the compression test standard GBT 1964-1996.

2.6. Porosity of porous ceramic scaffolds

The inner porosity of ceramic scaffolds ($10 \times 10 \times 10$ mm) was also conducted using ethanol as a medium employing the Archimedean principle. The scaffold of each specimen was measured using a vernier caliper to determine the volume V' . The sample was immersed in ethanol in the sealed test tube. After 24 h, the differential of the liquid level of alcohol was denoted as h , and the change in the volume was denoted as V . At last, the porosity of the ceramic scaffold was obtained by the following formula:

$$P = \left(1 - \frac{V}{V'}\right) \times 100\%, \quad V = \frac{\pi d^2}{4} \cdot h \quad (1)$$

Afterward, mean values and standard deviations were calculated from five specimens.

2.7. Biocompatibility evaluation of β -TCP/TiO₂ scaffolds

2.7.1. Bioactivity on biologic mineralization of β -TCP/TiO₂ scaffolds

The bioactivity of the β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic scaffolds was evaluated by immersing them in a simulated body fluid (SBF) at 37°C for 14 days. After removing from the given solution, the formation of bone-like apatite and the chemical composition of deposits was characterized

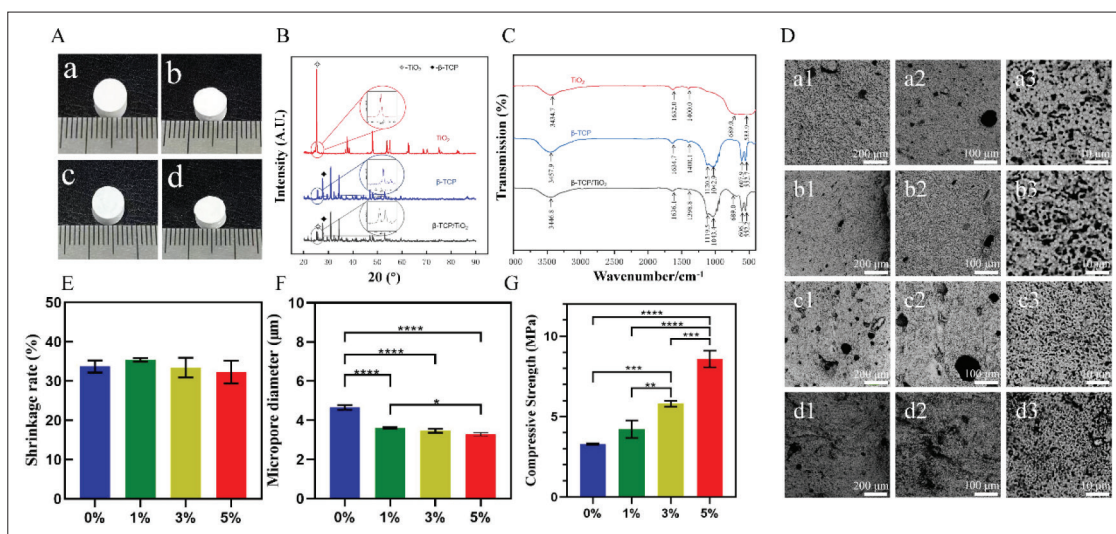


Figure 1. (A) Ceramic samples of β -TCP (a), β -TCP/1-TiO₂ (b), β -TCP/3-TiO₂ (c), and β -TCP/5-TiO₂ (d). (B) XRD diagram of TiO₂, β -TCP, and β -TCP/5-TiO₂ ceramic and details of the XRD diagram of the figure at 24.5°–26.5°. (C) Infrared spectrum of TiO₂, β -TCP, and β -TCP/5-TiO₂ ceramic. (D) Micro-morphology of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramics detected by SEM: β -TCP/TiO₂ (a), β -TCP/1-TiO₂ (b), β -TCP/3-TiO₂ (c), and β -TCP/5-TiO₂ (d). (E) The shrinkage of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic samples with 0% TiO₂, 1% TiO₂, 3% TiO₂ and 5% TiO₂. (F) Average diameter of micropores of β -TCP and β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramics. (G) The compressive strength of β -TCP and β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramics with different TiO₂ content.

by field emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM) equipped with energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS).

2.7.2. Cell biocompatibility and proliferation of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic scaffolds

Samples of ceramic scaffolds were sterilized by gamma-ray diffraction and were put into a 96-well cell plate cultured with MEMa medium containing 1% penicillin and streptomycin. 1 mL of mouse preosteoblast cells (MC3T3-E1) at a density of 6000 cells/well were seeded in each well and then cultured in a CO₂ incubator at 37°C for 1 and 3 days. After each incubation period, specimens were rinsed twice with phosphate-buffered saline, and then 10 μ L MTT (5 mg/mL) was added to each well and incubated for another 3 h. The cell viability was detected by the optical density value, and the cell survival rate was counted.

The cells on the scaffold surface were stained and observed to investigate the proliferation and adhesion of osteoblasts on scaffolds. Briefly, after the end of each incubation period of 1, 3, and 7 days, osteoblasts were fixed in 5% paraformaldehyde and subjected to gradient dehydration using 30%, 50%, 80%, 90%, and 100% alcohol, followed by SEM observation. Meanwhile, after 1, 3, and 7 days of incubation in a cell incubator, the osteoblasts on scaffolds were also dyed with calcein AM/propidium iodide (PI) solution, and the adhesion of cells on the surface was observed by an inverted fluorescence microscope (Nikon Eclipse Ti-E, Japan).

2.8. Statistical analysis

All statistical data were calculated by Origin 2018 and GraphPad Prism 8. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted (**** $P < 0.0001$; *** $P < 0.001$; ** $P < 0.01$; * $P < 0.05$; NS, no significant difference).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Characterization, morphology, and mechanical property of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic

Figure 1B revealed the XRD diagram of TiO₂, β -TCP and β -TCP/5-TiO₂ ceramic in detail. The XRD diffraction pattern of TiO₂ showed that the typical phase structure of the rutile phase, confirmed by the JCPDS card (21-1276) at 25.25°, 37.96°, 48.20°, 54.143°, and 62.87°^[35]. The prominent peak of TiO₂ was found in the XRD diagram of β -TCP/5-TiO₂, indicating that rutile TiO₂ existed in the structure of β -TCP/5-TiO₂ ceramic. Besides, the addition of TiO₂ slightly affected the diffraction pattern of β -TCP in the range in diffraction angle from 25° to 25.5°, indicating that TiO₂ was indeed incorporated into the β -TCP matrix.

The infrared spectrum of TiO₂, β -TCP and β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic is shown in Figure 1C. The vibration absorption peak of PO₄³⁻ was close to 1120 cm⁻¹, 1042 cm⁻¹, 607 cm⁻¹, and 552 cm⁻¹^[36]. Briefly, 1120 cm⁻¹ and 1042 cm⁻¹ belonged to the asymmetric stretching vibration of the P=O group; 607 cm⁻¹ was the symmetric stretching vibration peak of PO₄³⁻; 552 cm⁻¹ corresponded to the bending vibration absorption. For TiO₂ particle, characteristic absorption

peak formed at 689 cm⁻¹ and 533 cm⁻¹[37]. As expected, the characteristic peak of TiO₂ appeared distinctly in the infrared spectrum of β -TCP/5-TiO₂ ceramic powder. Therefore, TiO₂ was uniformly distributed and well-bound to the β -TCP matrix.

Figure 1A showed that the surface of ceramic samples was smooth without apparent cracks, but the volume of samples shrank because the ceramics became more compact after sintering. The volume shrinkage rate is depicted in Figure 1E. The average volume shrinkage rate of the sintered β -TCP ceramic was 33.73%. By contrast, the volume shrinkage rate of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic with different content of TiO₂ (1–5 wt%) were 35.38%, 33.42%, and 32.29%, respectively. The results showed that the addition of TiO₂ had little effect on the densification of β -TCP during sintering.

Micromorphologies of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramics with different TiO₂ contents were detected by SEM (Figure 1D). A few large holes were seen in all the ceramic billets because in the process of sintering (scale plate in 200 μ m), crystal water, PVA, and gelatin volatilized, causing a shrinkage of the ceramic volume. Nevertheless, the migration of the ceramic moving phase cannot fill the position of volatile matter, leading to the generation of a porous interior structure and large voids on the surface. Further observation in magnification (scale plate in 10 μ m) revealed that ceramic grains were tightly packed and arranged to form some micropores. As implantation materials, these micropores were conducive to the adhesion of cells, facilitating the entry of nutrients and the expulsion of harmful metabolite[38]. To our satisfaction, the average diameter of micropores of β -TCP and β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramics reflected that the average pore size gradually decreased with the addition of TiO₂ (Figure 1F). In addition, the uniform distribution of cavities in different sizes also confirmed the excellent dispersion in ceramic slurry, which played a vital role in the subsequent biological 3D printing[39].

The compressive strength of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramics is indicated in Figure 1G. The compressive strength of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramics increased by 283%, from 3.30 MPa to 8.59 MPa, which meets the mechanical requirements of bone repair scaffolds. Thus, the introduction of TiO₂ significantly improved the mechanical performance of β -TCP and overcame shortcomings of the fragility of β -TCP ceramics. This may be due to two reasons: first, the addition of TiO₂ promotes the densification degree of ceramics to a certain extent; second, TiO₂ may also promote the crystallization of β -TCP, rendering the binary ceramic strong.

3.2. Printability of 3D β -TCP/TiO₂ scaffolds

The printability of 3D β -TCP/TiO₂ scaffolds is affected by the content and particle size of inorganic salts, PVA

concentration, and temperature. While designing the printing ink formula, we choose gelatin with good biocompatibility as the main mobile phase because its temperature-sensitive characteristics could help with molding. Therefore, in this part, we mainly explored the influence of different inorganic salt addition and PVA solution addition on printability and formability of the stent (Figure 2). We found that the increase of inorganic salt content made ink extrusion difficult, but the addition of PVA component can effectively improve this problem. Therefore, in subsequent experiments, we chose 5% PVA as one of the ingredients in the printing ink formula.

3.3. Characterization of 3D β -TCP/TiO₂ scaffolds

Samples of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramics scaffolds in different filling rates were presented with perforative pipelines, and interpenetrating pores were perceived in the ceramic scaffolds. The square pore structure was neatly arranged, and the pore diameter was uniform (Figure 3A). It showed that the size of cavities inside the ceramic scaffold increased gradually with a decrease in the filling rate. Similarly, when the filling rate was 40%, the average macropore diameter decreased to 0.25 mm (Figure 3D). As illustrated in Figure 3C, with filling rates of 20%, 30%, and 40%, the average porosity of the 3D scaffolds was 79.32%, 66.34%, and 62.49%, respectively. A higher filling rate often results in compact structures and a higher utility rate of space[40], which was in line with the result obtained in this work that the average porosity decreased with the increase of the filling rate.

The average shrinkage rates of β -TCP/3-TiO₂ scaffolds with filling rates of 20%, 30%, and 40% were 56.51%, 54.96%, and 53.57%, respectively (Figure 3B). According to the data, as the filling rate increased, the average shrinkage rates decreased slightly. Filling rates were another factor of the compressive strength of scaffolds (Figure 3E). The strength of the β -TCP/5-TiO₂ ceramics scaffolds was 0.81 MPa, 1.87 MPa, and 2.69 MPa, respectively, with 20%, 30%, and 40% filling rates. It can be concluded that when the content of TiO₂ was 5 wt%, a higher filling rate in the preparation process contributed to higher compressive strength of the scaffolds.

The appearance of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramics scaffolds with different TiO₂ content is presented in Figure 4A. TiO₂ exhibited no effects affecting the appearance and internal structure of the scaffolds. No collapse and surface defects were found after the introduction of TiO₂, but alteration of void morphology was detected. The mean micropore diameter of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramics scaffolds was 3 μ m, which was a bit shorter than the micropore diameter in β -TCP scaffolds (Figure 4B). On the other hand, the content of TiO₂ had a negligible role on the porosity of β -TCP/TiO₂

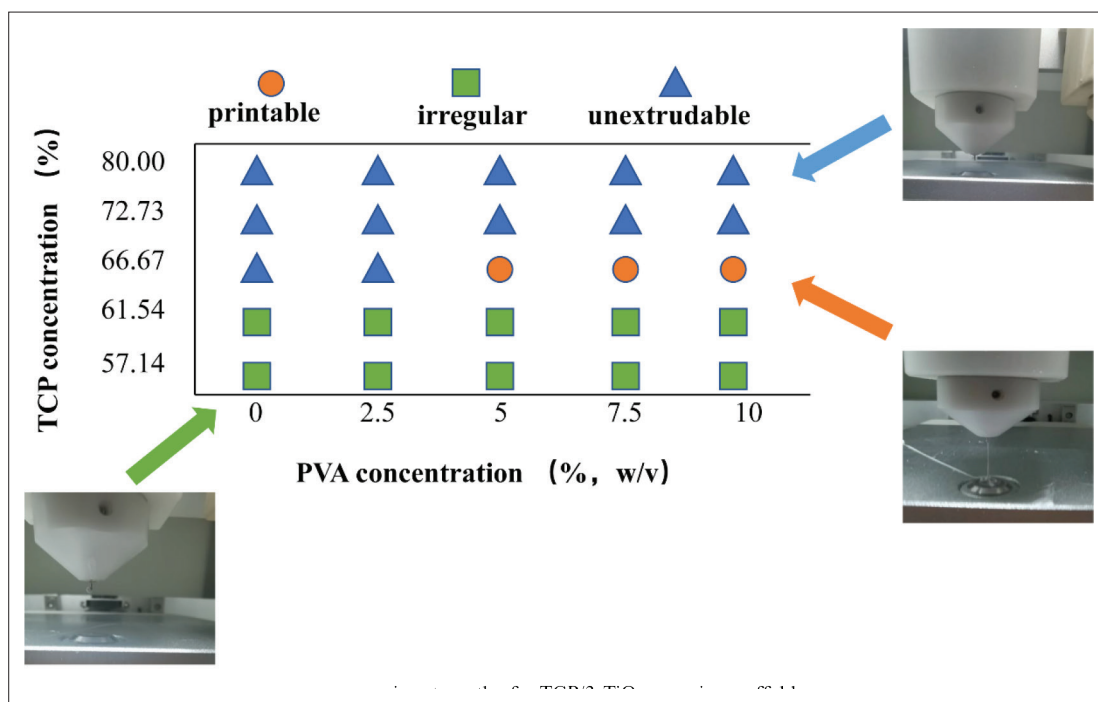


Figure 2. Printability in the fabrication of β -TCP/TiO₂ scaffolds

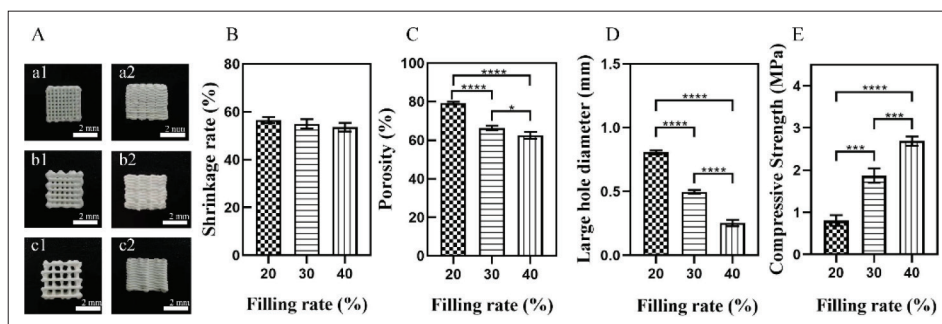


Figure 3. (A) Samples of β -TCP/3-TiO₂ ceramics scaffolds in different filling rates (a1 and a2: stents with a filling rate of 40%; b1 and b2: stents with a filling rate of 30%; c1 and c2: stents with a filling rate of 20%). (B) Effect of different filling rates on the shrinkage of β -TCP/3-TiO₂ scaffolds. (C) Effect of different filling rates on the porosity of β -TCP/3-TiO₂ ceramics scaffolds. (D) Average macropore diameter of β -TCP/3-TiO₂ ceramics scaffolds in different filling rate. (E) Effects of different filling rates on the compressive strength of β -TCP/3-TiO₂ ceramics scaffolds.

ceramics scaffolds (Figure 4D) because the average porosity of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramics scaffolds was on a scale of 65.55%–66.39%. Similarly, TiO₂ content has little effect on the shrinkage of β -TCP/TiO₂ porous ceramic scaffold (Figure 4E). Thus, it was concluded that the addition of TiO₂ filler was unable to change the formation mechanism and crystallization-molding process of ceramic sintering. The average shrinkage rates of β -TCP/3-TiO₂ scaffolds with filling rates of 20%, 30%, and 40% were 56.51%, 54.96%, and 53.57%, respectively (Figure 6). According to the data, as the filling rate increased, the average shrinkage rates decreased slightly.

The mechanical properties of bone repair scaffolds play a crucial role in healing bone defects. For β -TCP/TiO₂

ceramics scaffolds, the compressive strength of β -TCP ceramics scaffold was 0.35 MPa (Figure 4C). After the incorporation with TiO₂, the compressive strength of the ceramics gradually increased to 0.72 MPa.

3.4. Morphologies of 3D β -TCP/TiO₂ scaffolds

The SEM images of β -TCP/TiO₂ porous ceramic scaffolds with different TiO₂ contents, showing surface and cross-section of the scaffolds (Figure 5), were used to investigate the morphology and microstructure of scaffold sintered at 1100°C. The whole structure of β -TCP and β -TCP/TiO₂ scaffolds was intact without apparent defects and cracks on the surface (Figure 5A). We noticed that the surface of the scaffold was even and smooth without cracks, and the interconnection between layers was glossy (scale

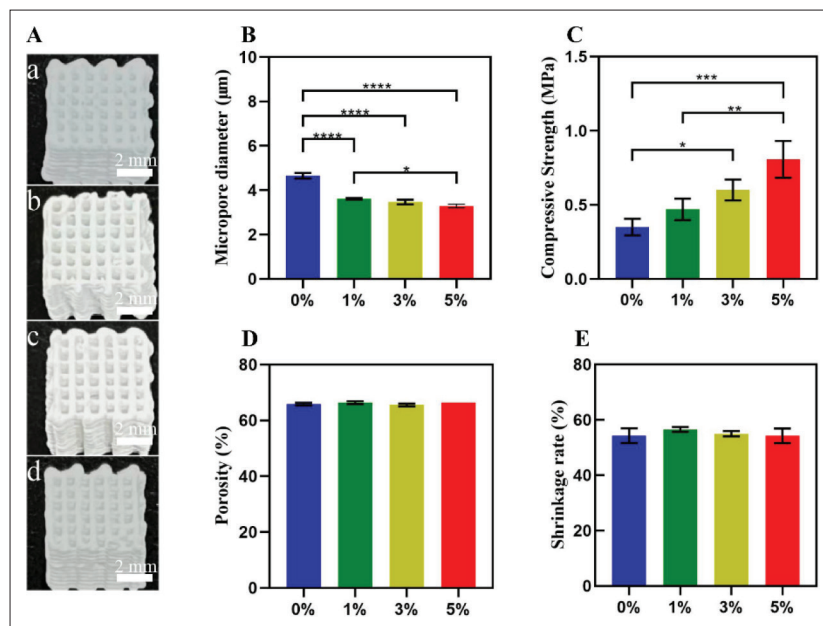


Figure 4. (A) Appearance of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramics scaffolds with different TiO₂ content. (B) Mean micropores diameter of β -TCP and β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramics scaffolds. (C) The compressive strength of β -TCP and β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramics scaffolds with different TiO₂ content. (D) Effect of different TiO₂ content on the porosity of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramics scaffolds with a filling rate of 30%. (E) Effect of different TiO₂ content on the shrinkage of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramics.

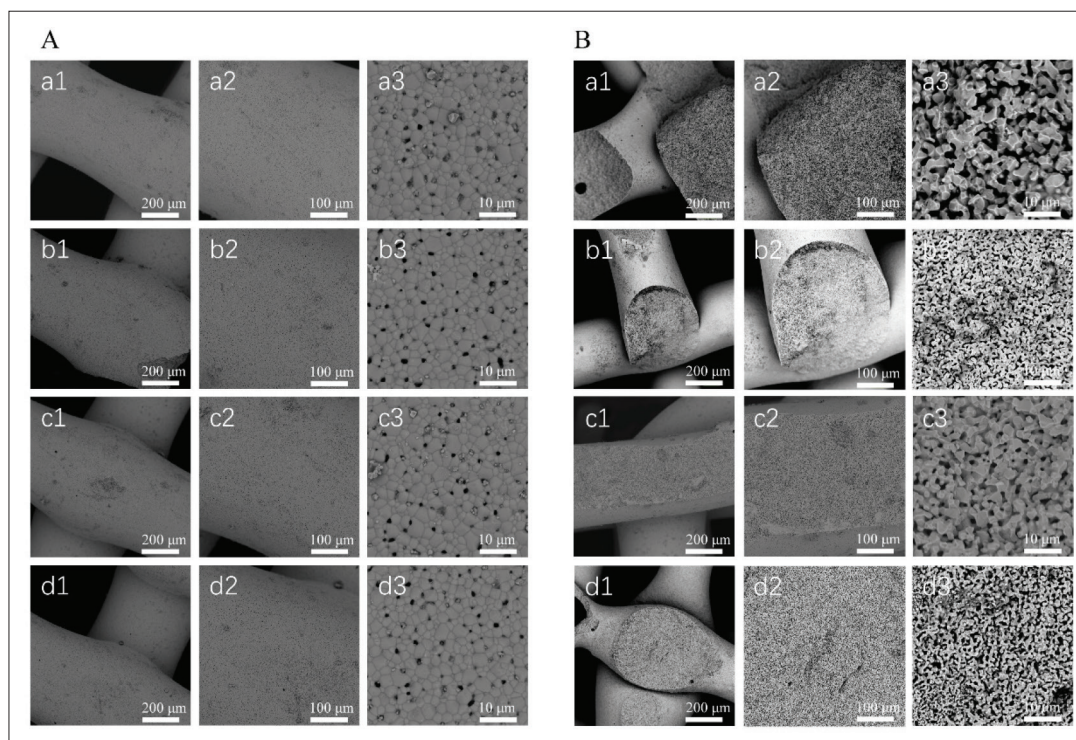


Figure 5. Micromorphology of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramics scaffolds detected by SEM. (A) Outward surface. (B) Fracture surface. Groups a, b, c, and d are ceramic scaffolds with 0% TiO₂, 1% TiO₂, 3% TiO₂, and 5% TiO₂ components, respectively. Groups a1, b1, c1, and d1 are visualized by SEM with 300 \times magnification; scale bar: 200 μ m. Groups a2, b2, c2 and d2 are visualized by SEM with 600 \times magnification; scale bar: 100 μ m. Groups a3, b3, c3, and d3 are visualized by SEM with 6000 \times magnification; scale bar: 10 μ m.

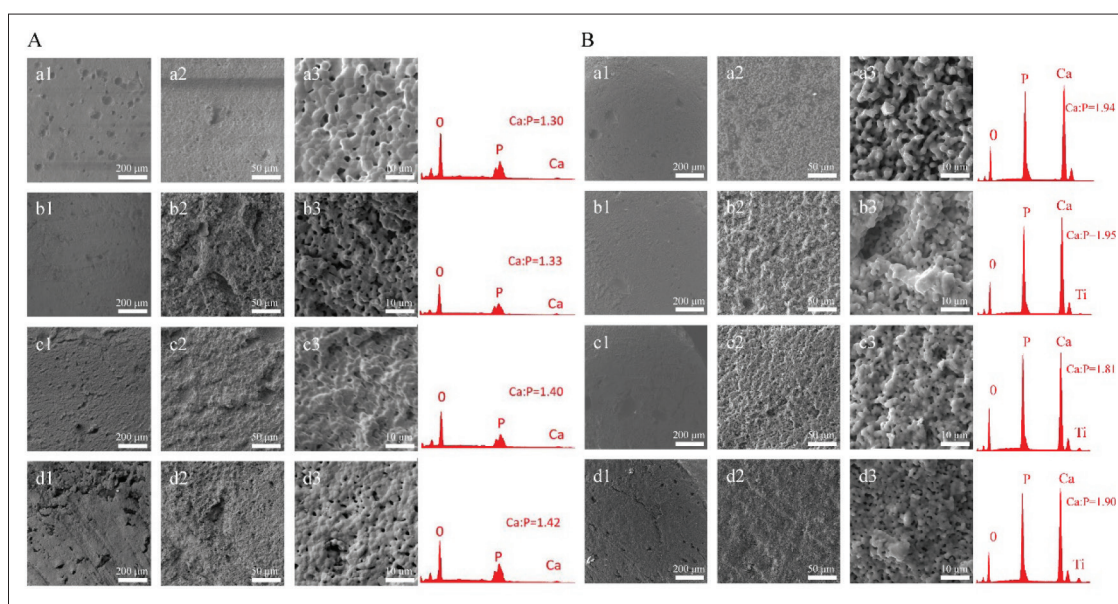


Figure 6. Scanning energy spectrum of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic scaffolds after 28 days (A) and 14 days (B) of biomineralization. Groups a, b, c, and d show the mineralization of ceramic scaffolds with 0% TiO₂, 1% TiO₂, 3% TiO₂, and 5% TiO₂ components, respectively. Groups a1, b1, c1, and d1 are visualized by SEM with 75 \times magnification; scale bar: 200 μ m. Groups a2, b1, c2, and d2 are visualized by SEM with 300 \times magnification; scale bar: 50 μ m. Groups a3, b3, c3, and d3 are visualized by SEM with 1500 \times magnification; scale bar: 10 μ m.

plate in 200 μ m). Furthermore, on account of adequate liquidity and no slurry agglomeration in the 3D printer nozzle, the ceramic slurry was evenly distributed without phase separation. The sintered ceramic scaffolds were constituted by pyknotic crystalline grain (scale plate in 10 μ m). As is well-known, regulable micropores promote the degradation and mineralization of implant materials in the body^[39]. Moreover, dense micropores were also uniformly distributed on the surface of scaffolds, positively influencing bone regeneration in an indirect fashion. Micromorphologies of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramics scaffolds, implying the cross-section, are displayed in Figure 5B. There were evenly distributed micropores inside the beams of scaffolds, which provide a pathway for the exchange of metabolism and nutrients between cells and external environment, thus promoting proliferation and differentiation of osteoblasts.

3.5. Biological mineralization of β -TCP/TiO₂ scaffolds

The formation of an apatite layer on the implant material surface is the key step to inducing good bone healing^[41]. Biomineralization is a crucial index to manifest formation process and mechanism of biological minerals^[42]. Therefore, the bone-bonding ability of bioactive material is often assessed by examining the apatite-forming ability on its surface in SBF. The calcium-phosphorus ratio of tricalcium phosphate was 1.5^[43]. After being immersed in SBF for 14 days, the Ca/P ratio of ceramic scaffolds of four groups (β -TCP: 1.94, β -TCP/1-TiO₂: 1.95, β -TCP/3-

TiO₂: 1.81, and β -TCP/5-TiO₂: 1.90) was higher than that of tricalcium phosphate (Figure 6A). This suggested that β -TCP stimulated calcium and phosphorus ions to form a hydroxyapatite layer on scaffolds in the SBF. Scanning energy spectrum of the β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic scaffold after 14 days of biomineralization demonstrated that for all the ceramic scaffolds, the light intensity of calcium and phosphorus elements was far higher than that of oxygen and titanium elements (Figure 6B). Since the calcium and phosphorus elements were enriched on the surface of the scaffold, the β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic scaffolds fabricated in this work had excellent biological mineralization ability and were possible to promote the growth of bone *in vivo*.

3.6. Cell biocompatibility and proliferation

To better understand the cell proliferation and migration on β -TCP/TiO₂ scaffolds, an MTT assay was carried out using MC3T3-E1 osteoblasts after being cultured (Figure 7A). Compared to the blank control (CK) group, the cell viability of cells on the ceramic scaffold was approximately 130%–140%, much higher than CK group after being cultured for 24 h. After 72 h of incubation, the cell viability decreased as a result of the normal apoptosis. It is worth noting that the cell viability was still higher than the value of the CK group. Although TiO₂ has been reported to promote the growth of osteoblasts, this experiment did not improve the proliferation of MC3T3-E1 cells. In summary, the β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic

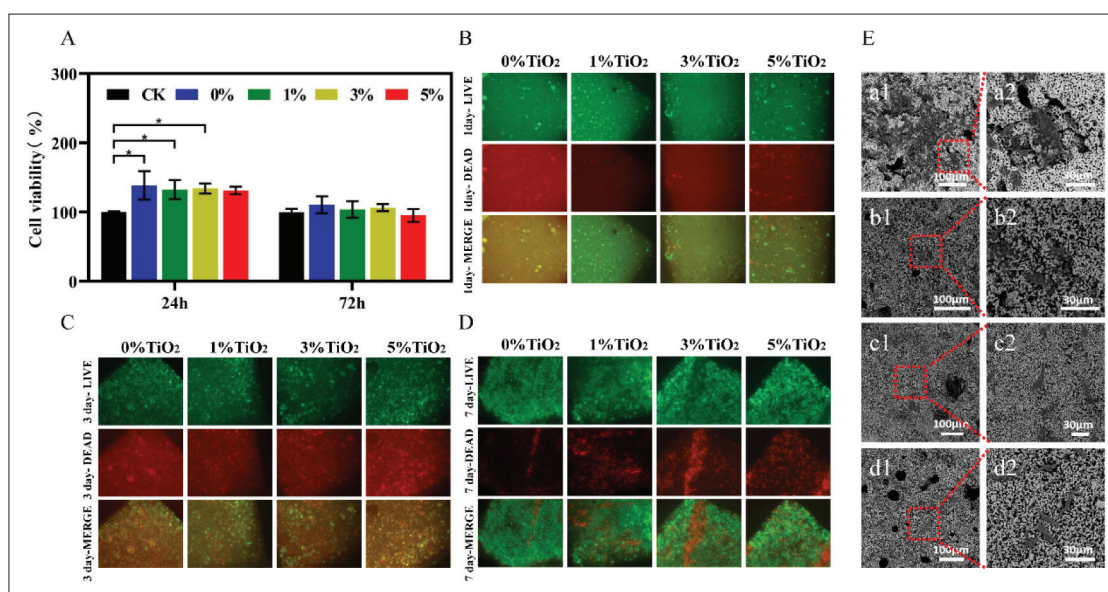


Figure 7. (A) The MTT assay results showing cell viability rate of MC3T3-E1 osteoblasts cultured on β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic scaffolds with different content of TiO₂ (CK was the blank control group). (B) Osteoblast fluorescence detection of MC3T3-E1 cells on β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic scaffolds for 1, 3, and 7 days. (C) Osteoblast fluorescence detection of dead MC3T3-E1 cells on β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic scaffolds for 1, 3, and 7 days. (D) Corresponding osteoblast fluorescence detection of living/dead cells of MC3T3-E1 cells on β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic scaffolds after 7 days of incubation. (E) Cell morphologies of MC3T3-E1 osteoblast cells cultured on β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic scaffolds: β -TCP/TiO₂ (a), β -TCP/1-TiO₂ (b), β -TCP/3-TiO₂ (c), and β -TCP/5-TiO₂ (d).

scaffold has no cytotoxicity and stimulates cell growth. Besides, all scaffolds were verified to have a similar outcome of cell viability in the MTT assay. The results also confirmed that β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic scaffolds have good biocompatibility and cytocompatibility.

Cell fluorescence staining was examined to observe the cell proliferation and adhesion of osteoblast cells on the surface of β -TCP/TiO₂ scaffolds (Figure 7B). Despite only a small number of MC3T3-E1 cells adhering to the ceramic scaffolds after 1 day of incubation, osteoblast cells proliferated rapidly on 3 and 7 days. After 1 day of culture, the cells on the scaffolds increased rapidly on 3 and 7 days. Notably, it was perceived that the living cells covered almost the surface of scaffolds. Figure 7C demonstrates that dead cells on β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic scaffolds increased simultaneously during cell culture. Therefore, the state of cell adhesion, growth, and proliferation on scaffolds was favorable. Furthermore, by comparing the distribution of the living and dead osteoblasts on 7 days, we found that the number of living cells was significantly higher than that of dead cells (Figure 7D). Figure 7E shows the morphology of MC3T3-E1 cells on the surface of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic scaffolds. MC3T3-E1 cells proliferated well with a stretched cell shape on the scaffolds. Besides, due to the abundant micropores on the surface, the cells adhered to the scaffolds firmly. To sum up, the β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic

scaffold has good cytocompatibility and was conducive to the growth of osteoblast cells.

4. Conclusion

The present work demonstrated the fabrication of β -TCP/TiO₂ ceramic porous scaffolds for bone tissue engineering using a 3D gel-printing sintering for the first time. The shrinkage ratio with filling rates of 20%, 30%, and 40% was 56.51%, 54.96%, and 53.57%, respectively. The porosity of the sintered scaffolds ranged from 65.55% to 66.39%, and the high porosity was conducive to cell proliferation and nutrient delivery. The compressive strength of the β -TCP ceramics scaffold was 0.35 MPa. After TiO₂ was incorporated, the compressive strength of the ceramics increased to 0.72 MPa, which meets the requirements of cancellous bone.

After immersion in SBF for weeks, the Ca/P ratio on the surface of ceramics scaffolds increased, implying the formation of a bone-like apatite layer and bioactivity. Furthermore, the *in vitro* study demonstrated that both the β -TCP scaffold and β -TCP/TiO₂ porous scaffolds were favorable for cell adhesion, growth and proliferation of MC3T3-E1 osteoblast cells. In conclusion, the β -TCP/TiO₂ porous scaffold has a lot of potential to be a promising bone repair scaffold in craniomaxillofacial and orthopedics surgery.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Author contributions

Conceptualization, supervision, investigation, formal analysis, writing original draft, writing - Xulin Hu

Review and editing - Hu Li

Methodology, writing – review & editing - Liang Qiao, Shuhao Yang

Writing – review & editing, Investigation - Haoming Wu, Chao Peng

Investigation - Yamei Zhang, Hai Lan, Hua Yang

Conceptualization, Methodology, Resources - Kainan Li

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Consent for publication

All agree to publish.

Availability of data

The data presented in this study are available on request from the corresponding author.

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