

**Photothermal stress triggered by near infrared-irradiated
carbon nanotubes promotes bone deposition in rat calvarial
defects**

Journal:	<i>Journal of Biomaterials Applications</i>
Manuscript ID:	Draft
Manuscript Type:	Original Manuscript
Date Submitted by the Author:	n/a
Complete List of Authors:	Yanagi, Tsukasa; Fukuoka Dental College, Department of Oral Rehabilitation Kajiya, Hiroshi; Fukuoka Dental College, Department of Physiological Science and Molecular Biology Kawaguchi, Minoru; Fukuoka Dental College, Department of Dental Engineering Kido, Hirofumi; Fukuoka Dental College, Department of Oral Rehabilitation Fukushima, Tadao; Fukuoka Dental College, Center for Regenerative Medicine
Keywords:	Photothermal stress stimulation, DNA/protamine scaffold, bone deposition, preosteoblasts, osteogenesis
Abstract:	The bone regenerative healing process is often prolonged, with a high risk of infection particularly in elderly and diseased patients. A reduction in healing process time usually requires mechanical stress devices, chemical cues, or laser/thermal therapies. Although these approaches have been used extensively for the reduction of bone healing time, the exact mechanisms involved in thermal stress-induced bone regeneration remain unclear. In this study, we investigated the effect of optimal hyperthermia on rat calvarial defects in vivo and on osteogenesis in vitro. Photothermal stress (PTS) stimulation was carried out using a new photothermal device, composed of an alginate gel including incarbon nanotubes (CNT) and their irradiator with near-infrared (NIR) light. PTS (15 min at 42°C, every day), triggered by NIR-induced CNT, promoted bone deposition in critical-sized calvarial defects compared with non-thermal stress controls. We recently reported that our novel DNA/protamine (D/P) complex scaffold induces bone regeneration in calvarial defects. In this study, PTS upregulated bone deposition in D/P-engrafted calvarial defects. Furthermore, PTS significantly induced expression of osteogenic related genes in a time-dependent manner, including alkaline phosphatase, osterix and osteocalcin. This was observed in DP-cells, which were expanded from regenerated tissue engrafted into the D/P scaffold, as well as in human MG63 preosteoblasts. In summary, this novel CNT-based PTS approach upregulated expression of osteogenic-related genes in preosteoblasts, resulting in promotion of mineral deposition for enhanced bone repair.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

For Peer Review

Photothermal stress triggered by near infrared-irradiated carbon nanotubes promotes bone deposition in rat calvarial defects

Abstract

The bone regenerative healing process is often prolonged, with a high risk of infection particularly in elderly and diseased patients. A reduction in healing process time usually requires mechanical stress devices, chemical cues, or laser/thermal therapies. Although these approaches have been used extensively for the reduction of bone healing time, the exact mechanisms involved in thermal stress-induced bone regeneration remain unclear. In this study, we investigated the effect of optimal hyperthermia on rat calvarial defects *in vivo* and on osteogenesis *in vitro*. Photothermal stress (PTS) stimulation was carried out using a new photothermal device, composed of an alginate gel including incarbon nanotubes (CNT) and their irradiator with near-infrared (NIR) light. PTS (15 min at 42°C, every day), triggered by NIR-induced CNT, promoted bone deposition in critical-sized calvarial defects compared with non-thermal stress controls. We recently reported that our novel DNA/protamine (D/P) complex scaffold induces bone regeneration in calvarial defects. In this study, PTS upregulated bone deposition in D/P-engrafted calvarial defects. Furthermore, PTS significantly induced expression of osteogenic related genes in a time-depended manner, including alkaline phosphatase, osterix and osteocalcin. This was observed in DP-cells, which were expanded from regenerated tissue engrafted into the D/P scaffold, as well as in human MG63 preosteoblasts. In summary, this novel CNT-based PTS approach upregulated expression of osteogenic-related genes in preosteoblasts, resulting in promotion of mineral deposition for enhanced bone repair

Introduction

Tissue engineering research in the field of regenerative medicine is currently based on three critical factors, including scaffolds, cells and growth factors^{1,2}. This therapeutic approach enables treatment and administration during the healing process. Optimal scaffolds are required for both tissue engineered constructs and for host tissues around these defects. DNA is an interesting candidate for a novel bone scaffold, because it has the great advantage of providing a phosphate group. The water solubility of DNA restricts its wider application in the biomaterials field, because of rapid elution from the implantation site within the body^{3,4}. Recently, we synthesized a novel and valuable DNA/protamine (D/P) complex scaffold (D/P scaffold), by mixing an aqueous solution of DNA (300 bps) with protamine to generate a water-insoluble white powder. The D/P scaffold has suitable viscosity for a number of clinical applications and is non-toxic with a minimal soft tissue response and antibacterial effects^{5,6}. Furthermore, we recently reported that the D/P scaffold dramatically promoted new bone regeneration in critical-sized calvarial defects (CSCDs) in rats, via osteogenesis of peripheral tissues implanted into the D/P scaffold⁷⁻⁹.

It is necessary to further reduce this bone regeneration healing period, which typically takes more than 3–6 months. A reduction in healing process time usually requires mechanical stress devices, chemical cues, or laser/thermal therapies.^{10,11}. Although it remains unknown whether thermal treatment directly activates regenerative factors, hyperthermia therapy is a well-known and valuable treatment for the promotion of healing in somatic disease areas. Bone regeneration studies have previously indicated that hyperthermic stress stimulates longitudinal and concentric growth of the femur and tibia of growing rats and dogs¹²⁻¹⁴. However, there was no significant variation in the

1
2
3
4 growth of the lumbar or first-three caudal vertebrae, which are warmed by the animal
5 body, regardless of the environmental conditions¹². In contrast, hyperthermia therapy
6 stimulates bone remodeling and the formation of new bone, thus increasing cortical
7 bone density, suggesting an acceleration by hyperthermia in bone regeneration¹¹.
8
9

10
11
12
13 Carbon nanotubes (CNTs) have been considered for application in various
14 biomedical systems, including intracellular molecular delivery and drug delivery^{15, 16}.
15 The unique properties of CNTs include their strong optical absorbance in the
16 near-infrared (NIR) region, which enables the release of significant heat. This
17 exothermic generation potential by NIR irradiation has been used for hyperthermia
18 cancer therapy¹⁷⁻²⁰. Thus, the released energy produces localized heating within a tissue,
19 which could potentially be used for photothermal therapy in the treatment of bone
20 defects. We therefore considered that CNT could be used as an exothermic hyperthermic
21 device for bone repair.
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31

32
33 The aim of the present study was to clarify whether PTS, triggered by our
34 novel photothermal device, could enhance bone regeneration. We therefore examined
35 the effects of PTS, on new bone deposition in the presence or absence of our
36 osteoinductive D/P scaffold using a CSCD rat model. In addition, we examined the
37 effects of PTS on osteoblast differentiation using D/P-cells, which were expanded from
38 the regenerated tissue engrafted into the D/P scaffold, and MG63 preosteoblasts.
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47

48 **Materials and methods**

49 ***Preparation of the alginate gel including carbon nanotubes (CNT-AG)***

50
51 To prepare water-soluble CNTs, CNT (400 mg, single-walled type, average diameter 1
52 nm, average length 800 nm, CG100, South West Nanotechnology, Norman, OK) were
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 mixed with 300 ml of sulfuric acid and 100 ml of nitric acid, according to a previous
5 report²¹. The resulting solid was then washed with deionized water and dried in a
6 vacuum oven for 24 h at 80°C. Sodium alginate (2 g, Wako, Osaka, Japan) and
7 water-soluble CNTs (10 mg) were dissolved in 100 ml of deionized water. The solution
8 was poured into a plastic mold and then covered by a filter paper wetted with 2%
9 calcium chloride solution for 3h to set the solution into a CNT-alginate gel (CNT-AG;
10 80 mm in diameter and 2mm in thickness). The CNT-AG was then carefully removed
11 from the mold and immersed in 2% calcium chloride solution for 24h to achieve
12 complete gel processing. The prepared CNT-AG was cut into disk-shaped specimens
13 (10 mm diameter and 1 mm thickness). From preliminary evaluation, the CNT-AG disks
14 showed strong heat emission by irradiating with NIR light. Because exothermic
15 generation can be controlled by NIR irradiation conditions, the CNT-AG disk was
16 considered a promising candidate as a photothermal device.
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34

35 ***PTS stimulation***

36
37 PTS stimulation *in vivo* and *in vitro* was carried out by irradiation of CSCDs in
38 Sprague-Dawley (SD) rats and D/P-cells or MG63 preosteoblasts in 24-well plates,
39 respectively. Calvarial defects, in either the presence or absence of implanted D/P disks,
40 were also irradiated with CNT-AG (15 mm diameter) using the NIR apparatus (4.0
41 W/cm², LA-100 IR, Hayashi, Tokyo, Japan). The CNT-AG patch was set into the
42 cranial skin and attached to the defects when rats were under deep anesthesia using
43 isoflurane. The light tip of the NIR apparatus was located at a distance of 3 cm from the
44 bottom of the calvarial bone and exposed to NIR light for 15 min at 42°C every day for
45 3 months (Figure 1A). All procedures using animals were approved by the Council on
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 Animal Care of Fukuoka Dental College (No.13007) and were performed in accordance
5 with the Ethics Guidelines for Animal Experiments at Fukuoka Dental College. For *in*
6 *vitro* analysis, cells in 24-well multi-plates were irradiated with CNT-AG using the NIR
7 apparatus. The light tip of the NIR apparatus was located at a distance of 3 cm from the
8 surface of the bottom of each well in the multi-plates (Figure 1B). Each well was
9 exposed to NIR light for 15 min at 42°C every day for 5 consecutive days.
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19

20 ***Preparation of DNA/protamine (D/P) complex paste disks***

21 D/P complex paste disks were prepared as previously described (Shinozaki et. al, 2014).
22 In brief, a solution of 300 bp fragments of sterilized salmon testis DNA was prepared
23 and a 2% sterilized salmon testis protamine sulfate (MW = 4500) solution was provided
24 by Maruha-Nichiro Holdings, Ltd., Tokyo, Japan. Freeze-dried D/P complex powder
25 was kneaded in distilled water to convert it into a paste. To prepare disks of D/P
26 complex paste, the D/P complex paste was injected into a silicone mold (internal
27 diameter: 8 mm; height: 0.8 mm) on a polytetrafluoroethylene plate. The fabricated D/P
28 complex disks (40 mg) were immediately and carefully removed from the
29 polytetrafluoroethylene plate and silicone mold.
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44

45 ***Implantation of D/P complex paste disk***

46 Ten-week-old male SD rats (approximately weight 300 g) were used in the present study.
47 All surgical procedures were carried out under general anesthesia induced by 2%
48 isoflurane (Abbott Laboratories, Abbott Park, IL, USA) with an air mixture gas flow of
49 2.0 L/min using an anesthesia gas machine (Anesthesia machine SF-B01; MR
50 Technology, Inc., Tsukuba, Ibaraki, Japan). After shaving the rat hair, an incision was
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 made in the calvariae of all rats. The skin was separated and the periosteum was
5
6 exposed. The periosteum was then separated carefully from the calvarial bone. An
7
8 8-mm diameter bone defect was created in the center of the calvarial bone using an
9
10 8-mm diameter trephine bar. These procedures were carried out carefully to avoid
11
12 injuring the dura. The D/P scaffold, which was prepared to 8-mm diameter, was
13
14 implanted into the bone defect, and the periosteum and skin were repositioned and
15
16 sutured using Vicryl 3-0 (Ethicon Inc., Somerville, NJ, USA). Empty defects were used
17
18 as controls. The rats were divided into four groups: (a) blank (empty), (b) blank
19
20 stimulated by PTS (c) implanted D/P (300 bp), (d) implanted D/P (300 bp) stimulated
21
22 by PTS. Observation periods were carried out at 1, 2 and 3 months. Six rats were used
23
24 for each group at each period.
25
26
27
28
29

30 31 *Explanted outgrowth culture of fibrous connective tissue from calvarial defects*

32
33 Fibrous connective tissue from the calvarial defects, 2 weeks after DP complex
34
35 implantation, was used for the explant-outgrowth culture system. Primary cultures of
36
37 mesenchymal-like cells (termed DP-cells) were harvested as outgrowths from the
38
39 connective tissue explants from the calvarial defects. In brief, explants were cut into
40
41 pieces of approximately $3 \times 2 \times 2$ mm and placed on the bottoms of dishes. Explants
42
43 were allowed to adhere to the dishes and were then cultured in Dulbecco's Modified
44
45 Eagle's Medium (DMEM; Invitrogen, Tokyo, Japan) supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal
46
47 bovine serum (FBS; HyClone, Logan, UT, USA) and 1% (v/v) penicillin/streptomycin
48
49 (PS; Invitrogen). All cultures were maintained at 37°C in a humidified incubator with
50
51 5% CO₂. After 21 days, outgrown cells from the explants were subcultured and
52
53 maintained for up to an additional 7 days as secondary monolayers on tissue culture
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

dishes before being used for real time reverse transcription chain reaction (RT-PCR) analysis.

Cell Culture

Human MG63 preosteoblasts or DP-cells, which were derived from tissues implanted within the D/P complex in the calvarial defects, were cultured in DMEM containing 10% FBS. MG63 or DP-cells were cultured at a density of 1×10^5 cells/ml in 24-well microplates with DMEM and 10% FBS for 1, 2, 3 and 5 days at 37°C in an atmosphere of 5% CO₂. On reaching sub-confluence, cells were cultured in DMEM with 10% FBS supplement with osteogenic induction reagents, BMP-4 (10 ng/ml; PeproTech. Inc., USA) or ascorbic acid (50 µg/ml), dexamethasone (10^{-6} M) and β-glycerophosphate (10 mM). In some experiments, PTS stimulation of these cells was carried out for 15 min at 42°C every day for 5 days.

Micro-computed tomography (µ-CT) analysis

Micro-CT images were taken using *in vivo* µ-CT equipment (Skyscan-1176; Bruker, Belgium) at 50 kV and 500 µA. The thickness of one µ-CT slice was 35 µm. The percentage of new bone formation area in the defect was obtained from each µ-CT image and calculated as the area of newly formed bone/area of the original defect created by trephination, in accordance to our previous paper⁷. At first, the newly formed bone area on the µ-CT slice images in the horizontal direction was quantified two-dimensionally using WINROOF image analysis software (MITANI corp., Tokyo, Japan). The 8-mm diameter circles were drawn on each µ-CT slice image for analysis. A series of ten µ-CT images, showing areas of the highest amount of new bone formation,

1
2
3
4 were used for one sample analysis. The percentage of new bone formation in the defect
5
6 (% of new bone) was calculated as the total area of new bone formation per 10 μ -CT
7
8 slice images x100.
9

10 11 12 13 ***Histological staining***

14
15 For decalcification, calvariae tissue specimens were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in
16
17 phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), decalcified in 10% ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid
18
19 (EDTA) for 4 weeks at 4°C, and then embedded in paraffin. Paraffin sections (4 μ M)
20
21 were then stained with H&E to visualize any histological changes. Remaining samples
22
23 (used as non-decalcified specimens) were stained with Villanueva Osteochrome Bone
24
25 (VOB) stain. For VOB staining, specimens were immersed in VOB solution for 3 days,
26
27 dehydrated with a graded ethanol series, defatted in acetone, and then embedded in
28
29 methyl methacrylate. These specimens were sectioned at 20 μ m. The stained sections
30
31 were observed for histology by fluorescence microscopy.
32
33
34
35
36
37

38 ***Real time Reverse Transcription-Polymerase Chain Reaction (RT-PCR)***

39
40 Total RNA was isolated from MG63 preosteoblasts and DP-cells using Trizol reagent
41
42 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). RNA was reverse transcribed by Superscript II
43
44 (Invitrogen) and amplified by Taq polymerase (Invitrogen) using gene-specific primers.
45
46 The cDNA was amplified by real time RT-PCR using LightCyclerNano (Roche
47
48 Diagnostics, Tokyo, Japan). Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) was
49
50 used as an internal control. Relative mRNA expression was normalized as the ratio of
51
52 alkaline phosphatase (ALP), RUNX2, osterix (OSX) and osteocalcin (OCN) mRNAs to
53
54 GAPDH expression levels. All reactions were run in hexaplicate.
55
56
57
58
59
60

Statistics

Data are expressed as means \pm standard error of the mean (SEM). Differences were analyzed with one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Scheffe's multiple comparison tests. *P*-values of <0.05 were considered to be significant.

Results

Micro-CT analysis

New bone regeneration was evaluated after PTS stimulation in the presence or absence of D/P scaffolds in CSCDs of 10-week-old SD rats. Although these CSCDs are previously reported not to undergo spontaneous healing 1 month after cranial surgery²², the defects in the present study underwent some level of regeneration (22.1 \pm 2.5% of bone generation) 3 months after cranial surgery in the non-implanted CSCDs (empty; Figures 2 and 4). New bone formed in both horizontal and coronal directions. In contrast, PTS deposited new bone with small peninsulas 1 month after cranial surgery in the empty control. The PTS-induced bone deposition in CSCDs significantly increased in a time-dependent manner in the empty control up to 3 months, compared with in the absence of PTS, as shown using μ -CT and histological analysis. We recently reported that the D/P complex is a new osteoinductive scaffold suitable for calvarial defects²⁰. To clarify whether PTS enhanced bone repair using the D/P scaffold, we examined the effect of PTS on bone deposition in the CSCDs following implantation of the D/P scaffold. D/P scaffold implantation alone induced large peninsulas of bone deposition compared with the blank (Figures 3 and 4). Furthermore, PTS dramatically upregulated new bone deposition in the D/P scaffold-implanted in CSCDs in a time-dependent

manner compared with the non-thermal condition.

PTS effect on histological bone healing in calvarial defects

We examined how the μ -CT images reflected the histological bone healing process in CSCDs using H&E and VOB stained sections. The main central area of the CSCD was gradually replaced with dense fibrous connective tissue (C) that contained little mineral residues. New bone (N) with C area gradually extended from the edges of these defects in a time-dependent manner (Figure 5, PTS(-) in empty). Although preexisting bone formed a lamellar structure, the new bone formed a disordered line of tissue in the calvariae. It was likely that the growth of newly formed bone on the cortical side was faster than that of the epithelial skin tissue side because the cortical side bone was longer. PTS resulted in a slight increase in N area with C area 3 months after cranial surgery. Furthermore, implantation of the D/P scaffold additionally induced new bone formation with a decrease in C area. Although D/P scaffold implantation in CSCDs upregulated new bone deposition together with some connective tissue, the PTS dramatically deposited newly formed thick lamellar bone without connective tissue, 3 months after D/P scaffold implantation (Figure 6, PTS(+) in D/P scaffold implantation). Red immunofluorescence areas were detected in the dense fibrous connective tissue of the CSCDs using VOB staining, indicating osteoid in the newly formed immature bone²³ (Figure 6, PTS (-) in empty). PTS stimulation decreased the level of red immunofluorescence, representative of immature osteoid in the bone deposition areas. D/P scaffold implantation alone also resulted in detection of a large amount of immature red staining in the bone defects. PTS stimulation with D/P scaffold implantation again reduced this (Figure 6, PTS (+) in D/P implantation). These results indicated that the

1
2
3
4 histological changes corresponded well the μ -CT data.
5
6
7

8 ***PTS upregulated osteogenic-related gene expression***

9
10 To investigate whether PTS stimulated bone regeneration, we examined the effects of
11 PTS on the expression of osteogenic-related genes using human MG63 preosteoblasts
12 and DP-cells.
13
14
15
16

17 Incubation of MG63 cells with BMP-4 gradually induced the expression of
18 osteogenic-related genes, including ALP, RUNX2, OSX, and OCN in a time-dependent
19 manner (Figure 7). Osteogenic induction medium also increased expression of
20 osteogenic-related gene in a time-dependent manner (data not shown). Furthermore,
21 PTS significantly upregulated the expression of ALP, OSX and OCN mRNAs compared
22 with the control without PTS. Similarly, these genes were significantly upregulated in
23 the DP-cells in a time-dependent manner after PTS compared with the control (Figure
24 7).
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36

37 **Discussion**

38 Efficient regeneration of bone defects is reported to be achieved using a combination of
39 three regenerative factors: scaffolds, cells and growth factors^{1, 2}. Furthermore, bone
40 regeneration is facilitated by extracellular stimulation, such as mechanical stress devices,
41 chemical cues, or laser/thermal therapies. In the present experiment, we used a novel
42 photothermal device, composed of AG with CNTs and an irradiator with NIR light for
43 hyperthermia therapy. The PTS triggered by the device upregulated bone repair with or
44 without an osteoinductive scaffold with enhanced expression of osteogenic-related
45 genes in MG63 preosteoblasts and DP-cells.
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 It has been reported that using only one heating cycle fails to elicit any
5 significant heat shock-enhancement of osteogenesis²⁴. Elevating body temperature is a
6 common recommendation for osteoarthritic patients by taking a daily hot shower²⁵.
7
8 Based on this, 5 days of heating at 41–42°C was chosen to provide enough heat
9
10 stimulation in our study. It has been reported that mild heat stress (39–42°C) induces
11
12 osteogenesis, measured by increased ALP activity in MG63 cells²⁷. The optimal
13
14 temperature of 42°C also had reported to be induced heat shock promoter-mediated
15
16 gene expression in NIH-3T3 cell²⁸. Therefore, repetitive PTS was applied to maintain a
17
18 thermal effect for 15 min at 42°C every day, to assess bone repair and osteoblast
19
20 differentiation.
21
22
23
24
25

26
27 The response to heat stress is reported to be a protective reaction of cells to a
28
29 variety of environmental and pathological stimuli²⁷. The most obvious feature of the
30
31 heat stress response is an increase in the synthesis of heat shock proteins (HSPs)^{29, 30}.
32
33 HSPs are critical components of the cells defense mechanism against injury associated
34
35 with adverse stress^{31, 32}. Promoters that contain heat shock elements upstream of the
36
37 HSP coding region, known as heat shock promoters, can be turned on by heat shock.
38
39 HSPs promote cell survival³² and are thought to function in the protection and recovery
40
41 of cells from environmental and pathological stress^{29, 30}. However, little information is
42
43 available on the expression of HSPs in bone remodeling. According to an
44
45 immunostaining study using rat tibia, HSPs are believed to have important roles in the
46
47 bone formation process, since HSP27, HSP47 and HSP70 are highly expressed in
48
49 osteoblasts in newly formed bone areas^{34, 35}. We found that PTS upregulated expression
50
51 of osteogenic-related molecules through activation of HSP27 in MC3T3-E1 mouse
52
53 osteoblasts (unpublished data). The upregulation of HSP27 in MC3T3-E1 suggests that
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 protection is offered from external stress, whilst also modulating several important
5
6 molecules relevant to bone physiology. These results suggest that PTS may upregulated
7
8 the expression of HSPs as well as osteogenic-related molecules in preosteoblasts,
9
10 resulting in promotion of bone deposition in bone defects. However, the detailed
11
12 mechanism of PTS-induced bone regeneration remains unclear. Further studies will
13
14 address the mechanism of the PTS-activation downstream pathway into the
15
16 upregulation of bone formation *in vivo* and *in vitro*.
17
18

19
20 The removable device to control multiple cell functions is an important for
21
22 various biological applications, including cancer research, tissue engineering, and brain
23
24 science^{36, 37}. The devices of exothermic generation have been developed using UV,
25
26 short-wavelength visible, and IR laser light heat to induce a thermal response. Although
27
28 UV, short-wavelength visible, and IR light have poor penetration into body NIR light
29
30 can penetrate at least 10 cm through deep tissue³⁶⁻³⁸. CNTs remarkably possess
31
32 electrical, chemical, mechanical and thermal properties, indicating in useful and
33
34 valuable materials in science and technology. Furthermore, CNTs include their strong
35
36 optical absorbance in NIR light and release significant heat³⁸. We for first time indicated
37
38 that this novel device can be useful for hyperthermia in bone repair in present
39
40 experiments. The device, which is composed of CNT-AG and its irradiator have the
41
42 characteristics as follow; a) The CNT-AG materials can process arbitrary shape. b) The
43
44 device is easy to control the setup point in temperature. c) The PTS stimulation triggered
45
46 by the device has affect on the deep tissues. d) The device is convenience to move
47
48 anywhere. Therefore, the device was revealed to be useful the hyperthermia therapy for
49
50 bone repair as well as for cancer therapy. Furthermore, our data indicated the
51
52 combination of osteoinductive D/P scaffold and PTS stimulation strongly upregulated the
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 bone deposition.

5
6 Hyperthermia has been used widely as a physical therapy for a number of
7
8 diseases, such as inflammatory osteoarticular disorders¹⁴ and malignant bone tumors³⁹,
9
10⁴⁰, as well as bone metastasis⁴. Hyperthermia therapy stimulates bone remodeling and
11
12 the formation of new bone, thus increasing cortical bone density¹⁰, suggesting that
13
14 hyperthermia accelerates local bone formation. Our results taken together with those of
15
16 previous reports, suggest that PTS, triggered by CNTs irradiated with NIR, not only
17
18 facilitates the recovery of cells but also enhances osteogenic-related genes in MG63
19
20 preosteoblasts and DP-cells.
21
22

23
24 In summary, we found that PTS promoted bone regeneration in rat calvarial
25
26 defects with or without implantation of a D/P complex osteoinductive scaffold *in vivo*.
27
28 Furthermore, PTS potentially upregulated the expression of osteogenic-related genes in
29
30 MG63 preosteoblasts and DP-cells. We therefore suggest that PTS may activate heat
31
32 stress-dependent molecules and upregulate osteogenesis. Photothermal-induced
33
34 osteogenic promotion suggests that there may be a potential use of thermotherapy for
35
36 diseases characterized by bone loss, such as osteoporosis, or to accelerate fracture
37
38 healing.
39
40
41
42

43 44 **Acknowledgments**

45
46 This work was supported by a Grant-in-Aids for Scientific Research from the Ministry
47
48 of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of Japan (Nos. 24592823 and
49
50 23390455) and by a Grant-in-aid for strategic study base formation support business
51
52 (S1001059) from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science. We would like to
53
54 thank Maruha-Nichiro Corporations for providing the DNA and protamine. The authors
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 have declared that no conflicts of interest exist.
5
6
7

8 **References**

- 9
10
11 1. Doll B, Sfeir C, Winn S, et al. Critical aspects of tissue-engineered therapy for bone
12 regeneration. *Crit Rev Eukaryot Gene Expr* 2001; 11: 173-198.
13
14
15
16
17 2. Tabata Y. Tissue regeneration based on growth factor release. *Tissue Eng* 2003; 9
18 Suppl 1:S5-15.
19
20
21
22
23 3. Fukushima T, Ohno J, Hayakawa T, et al. Mold fabrication and biological assessment
24 of porous DNA-chitosan complexes. *J Biomed Mater Res B Appl Biomater* 2009; 91:
25 746-754.
26
27
28
29
30
31
32 4. Fukushima T, Kawaguchi M, Hayakawa T, et al. Complexation of DNA with Cationic
33 Polyamino Acid for Biomaterial Purposes. *J Oral Tissue Engin* 2008; 6: 24-32.
34
35
36
37
38 5. Fukushima T, Ohno J, Hayakawa T, et al. Polycationic protamine for water-insoluble
39 complex formation with DNA. *Dent Mater J* 2010; 29: 529-535.
40
41
42
43
44
45 6. Mori N, Ohno J, Sakagami R, et al. Cell viabilities and biodegradation rates of
46 DNA/protamine complexes with two different molecular weights of DNA. *J Biomed*
47 *Mater Res B Appl Biomater* 2013; 101: 743-751.
48
49
50
51
52
53
54 7. Shinozaki Y, Yanagi T, Yamaguchi Y, et al. Osteogenic Evaluation of DNA/Protamine
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3
4 Complex Paste in Rat Cranial Defects. *Journal of Hard Tissue Biology* 2013; 22:
5
6 401-408.
7
8
9
10
11 8. Shinozaki Y, Toda M, Ohno J, et al. Evaluation of bone formation guided by
12
13 DNA/protamine complex with FGF-2 in an adult rat calvarial defect model. *J*
14
15 *Biomed Mater Res B Appl Biomater* 2014. DOI: 10.1002/jbm.b.33143.
16
17
18
19 9. Toda M, Ohno J, Shinozaki Y, et al. Osteogenic potential for replacing cells in rat
20
21 cranial defects implanted with a DNA/protamine complex paste. *Bone* 2014;
22
23 67:237-245.
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33 10. Leon SA, Asbell SO, Arastu HH, et al. Effects of hyperthermia on bone. II. Heating
34
35 of bone in vivo and stimulation of bone growth. *Int J Hyperthermia* 1993; 9: 77-87.
36
37
38
39 11. Ikenaga M, Ohura K, Kotoura Y, et al. Hyperthermic treatment of canine tibia
40
41 through RF inductive heating of an intramedullary nail: a new experimental approach
42
43 to hyperthermia for metastatic bone tumours. *Int J Hyperthermia* 1994; 10: 507-516.
44
45
46
47
48 12. Richards V and Stofer R. The stimulation of bone growth by internal heating.
49
50 *Surgery* 1959; 46: 84-96.
51
52
53
54
55 13. Doyle JR and Smart BW. Stimulation of Bone Growth by Short-Wave Diathermy. *J*
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3
4 *Bone Joint Surg Am* 1963; 45: 15-24.
5
6
7
8
9 14. Weinberger A, Abramovici A, Fadila R, et al. The effect of local deep microwave
10 hyperthermia on experimental zymosan-induced arthritis in rabbits. *Am J Phys Med*
11 *Rehabil* 1990; 69: 239-244.
12
13
14
15
16
17 15. Dhar S, Liu Z, Thomale J, Dai H, et al. Targeted single-wall carbon
18 nanotube-mediated Pt(IV) prodrug delivery using folate as a homing device. *J Am*
19 *Chem Soc* 2008 130: 11467-11476.
20
21
22
23
24
25
26 16. Liu Z, Chen K, Davis C, et al. Drug delivery with carbon nanotubes for in vivo
27 cancer treatment. *Cancer Res* 2008 68; 6652-6660.
28
29
30
31
32
33 17. O'Connell MJ, Bachilo SM, Huffman CB, et al. Band gap fluorescence from
34 individual single-walled carbon nanotubes. *Science* 2002; 297(5581): 593-596.
35
36
37
38
39 18. Kam NW, O'Connell M, Wisdom JA, et al. Carbon nanotubes as multifunctional
40 biological transporters and near-infrared agents for selective cancer cell destruction.
41 *PNAS* 2005; 102: 11600-11605.
42
43
44
45
46
47
48 19. Zhou F, Xing D, Ou Z, et al. Cancer photothermal therapy in the near-infrared
49 region by using single-walled carbon nanotubes. *J Biomed Opt* 2009; 14: 021009.
50
51
52
53
54
55 20. Ji SR, Liu C, Zhang B, et al. Carbon nanotubes in cancer diagnosis and therapy.
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 *Biochim Biophys Acta* 2010; 1806: 29-35.
5
6
7

- 8
9 21. Kawaguchi M, Fukushima T, Hayakawa T, et al. Preparation of carbon
10 nanotube-alginate nanocomposite gel for tissue engineering. *Dent Mater J* 2006; 25:
11 719-725.
12
13
14
15
16
17 22. McKee MD and Nanci A. Osteopontin at mineralized tissue interfaces in bone, teeth,
18 and osseointegrated implants: ultrastructural distribution and implications for
19 mineralized tissue formation, turnover, and repair. *Microsc Res Tech* 1996; 33:
20 141-164.
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28 23. Erlebacher A and Derynck R. Increased expression of TGF-beta 2 in osteoblasts
29 results in an osteoporosis-like phenotype. *J Cell Biol* 1996; 132: 195-210.
30
31
32
33
34
35 24. Lim CL, Byrne C and Lee JK. Human thermoregulation and measurement of body
36 temperature in exercise and clinical settings. *Ann Acad Med Singapore* 2008; 37:
37 347-353.
38
39
40
41
42
43
44 25. Chen J, Shi ZD, Ji X, et al. Enhanced osteogenesis of human mesenchymal stem
45 cells by periodic heat shock in self-assembling peptide hydrogel. *Tissue Eng Part A*
46 2012; 19: 716-728.
47
48
49
50
51
52
53 26. Shui C, Scutt A. Mild heat shock induces proliferation, alkaline phosphatase activity,
54 and mineralization in human bone marrow stromal cells and Mg-63 cells in vitro. *J*
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3
4 *Bone Miner Res* 2001; 16: 731-741.
- 5
6 27. Miyako E, Deguchi T, Nakajima Y et al. Photothermal regulation of gene expression
7
8 triggered by laser-induced carbon nanohorns. *PNAS* 2012; 109: 7523-7528.
- 9
10
11
12
13 28. Lindquist S, Craig EA. The heat-shock proteins. *Annu Rev Genet* 1988; 22: 631-677.
- 14
15
16
17
18 29. Schlesinger MJ. Heat shock proteins. *J Biol Chem* 1990; 265: 12111-12114.
- 19
20
21
22 30. Sorger PK. Heat shock factor and the heat shock response. *Cell* 1991; 65: 363-366.
- 23
24
25
26 31. Morimoto RI and Santoro MG. Stress-inducible responses and heat shock proteins:
27
28 new pharmacologic targets for cytoprotection. *Nat Biotechnol* 1998; 16: 833-838.
- 29
30
31
32
33 32. Rylander MN1, Feng Y, Zimmermann K, et al. Measurement and mathematical
34
35 modeling of thermally induced injury and heat shock protein expression kinetics in
36
37 normal and cancerous prostate cells. *Int J Hyperthermia* 2010; 26: 748-764.
- 38
39
40
41 33. Lavoie JN, Gingras-Breton G, Tanguay RM, et al. Induction of Chinese hamster
42
43 HSP27 gene expression in mouse cells confers resistance to heat shock. HSP27
44
45 stabilization of the microfilament organization. *J Biol Chem* 1993; 268: 3420-3429.
- 46
47
48
49
50 34. Tiffée JC, Griffin JP and Cooper LF. Immunolocalization of stress proteins and
51
52 extracellular matrix proteins in the rat tibia. *Tissue Cell* 2000; 32: 141-147.
- 53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3
4 35. Ramos DM, Kamal F, Wimmer EA, Temporal and spatial control of transgene
5 expression using laser induction of the hsp70 promoter. *BMC Dev Biol* 2006; 6: 55.
6
7
8
9
10
11 36. Huang H, Delikanli S, Zeng H, Remote control of ion channels and neurons through
12 magnetic-field heating of nanoparticles. *Nat Nanotechnol* 2010; 5: 602-606.
13
14
15
16
17 37. König K. Multiphoton microscopy in life sciences. *J Microsc* 2000; 200: 83-104.
18
19
20
21
22 38. Weissleder R, Kelly K, Sun EY, et al. Cell-specific targeting of nanoparticles by
23 multivalent attachment of small molecules. *Nat Biotechnol* 2005; 23: 1418-1423.
24
25
26
27
28 39. Robinson JT, Welsher K, Tabakman SM, et al. High Performance In Vivo Near-IR
29 (>1 μm) Imaging and Photothermal Cancer Therapy with Carbon Nanotubes. *Nano*
30 *Res* 2010; 3: 779-793.
31
32
33
34
35
36
37 40. Carter DL, MacFall JR, Clegg ST, et al. Magnetic resonance thermometry during
38 hyperthermia for human high-grade sarcoma. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys* 1998; 40:
39 815-822.
40
41
42
43
44
45

46 **Figure legends**

47
48 **Figure 1.** Images of the experimental device arrangement for photothermal stress (PTS)
49 stimulation under *in vivo* (A) and *in vitro* (B) conditions. The PTS device was composed
50 of alginate gel-comprising carbon nanotubes (a: CNT-AGs) and a near-infrared ray
51 irradiator (NIR: b). In both conditions, the top of the NIR irradiator was fixed 3 cm
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 distance from the CNT-AG disk. (A) *In vivo* stimulation: the CNT-AG disk (a) was
5 placed on to the rat calvaria and irradiated 15 min at 42°C every day. (B) *In vitro*
6 stimulation: the CNT-AG disk (a) was attached to the bottom of the multi-well plates
7 and NIR was irradiated 15 min at 42°C every day.
8
9
10
11
12
13
14

15 **Figure 2.** Coronal μ -CT images of the empty control group at 1, 2 and 3 months after
16 cranial surgery. The upper images represent un-stimulated and the lower images
17 represent PTS-stimulated samples. The white dashed circles indicate calvarial defects
18 just after cranial surgery (8 mm in diameter). The percentage of new bone deposition
19 was calculated from the bony tissue in the white dashed line.
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27

28 **Figure 3.** Coronal μ -CT images of D/P scaffold implantation at 1, 2 and 3 months after
29 cranial surgery. The upper images represent un-stimulated and the lower images
30 represent PTS-stimulated samples. The white dashed circles indicate calvarial defects
31 just after cranial surgery (8 mm in diameter). The percentage of new bone deposition
32 was calculated from the bony tissue in the white dashed line.
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41

42 **Figure 4.** Calculated new bone deposition rate at 1, 2 and 3 months after cranial
43 surgery.
44
45

46 The percentage of bone deposition was calculated from six-mice. Data shown are the
47 mean from six mice (mean \pm SEM). **** $P < 0.01$** , un-stimulated vs. PTS-stimulated
48 group.
49
50
51
52
53
54

55 **Figure 5.** Histological images of calvarial tissue at 3 months after cranial surgery.
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4 B and N indicated pre-existing and new bone, respectively. C indicates connective
5
6 tissues. Scale bar represents 2 mm.
7
8
9

10 **Figure 6.** VOB-stained section of each group of calvarial defect at 3 months after
11 cranial surgery. The epiphysis of the regenerative bone is shown in the figure. Scale bar
12 represents 500 μm .
13
14
15

16
17
18
19 **Figure 7.** Human MG63 preosteoblasts and DP-cells were cultured prior to performing
20 quantitative RT-PCR for ALP, Runx2, OSX, and OCN at 0, 1, 3, and 5 days. Data shown
21 are the mean from six mice (mean \pm SEM). $**P < 0.01$, un-stimulated vs.
22 PTS-stimulated group.
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

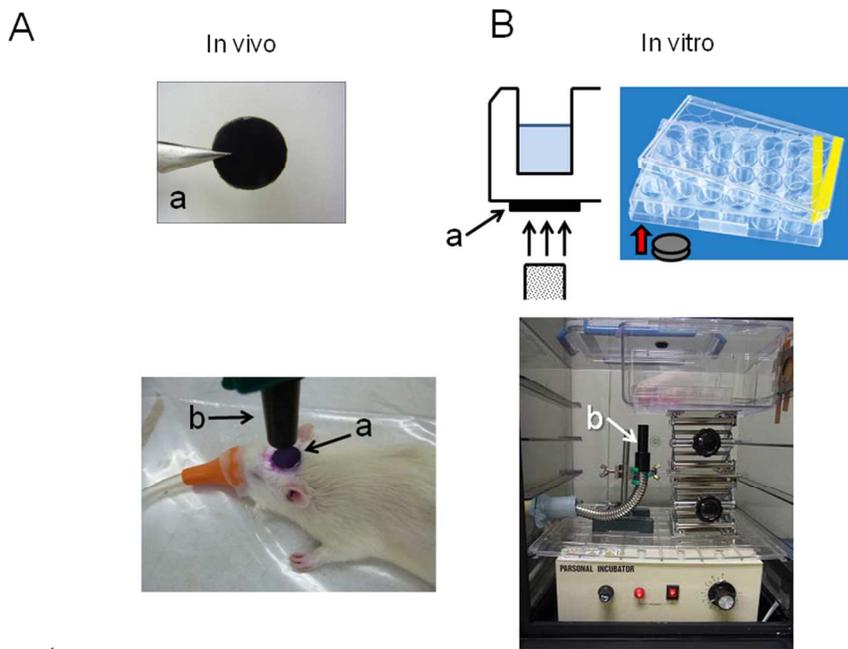
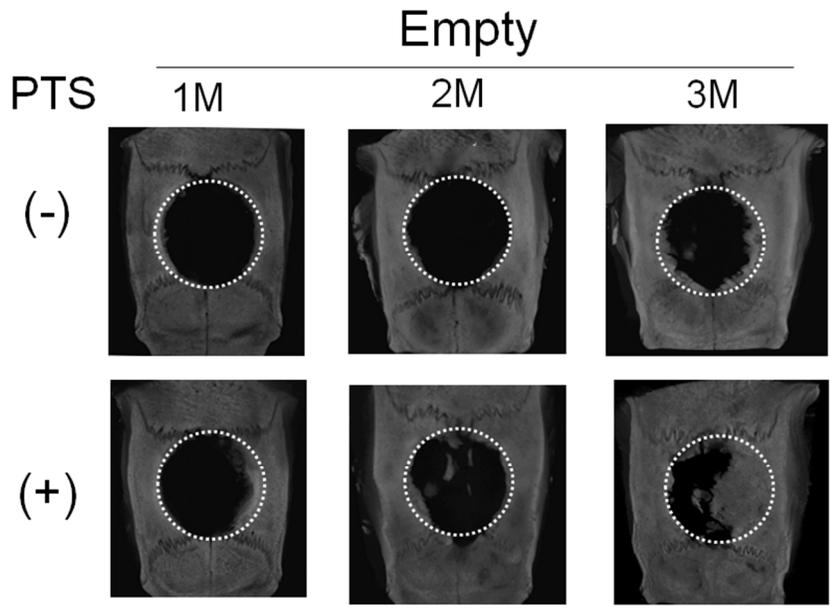


Figure 1

81x60mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Review

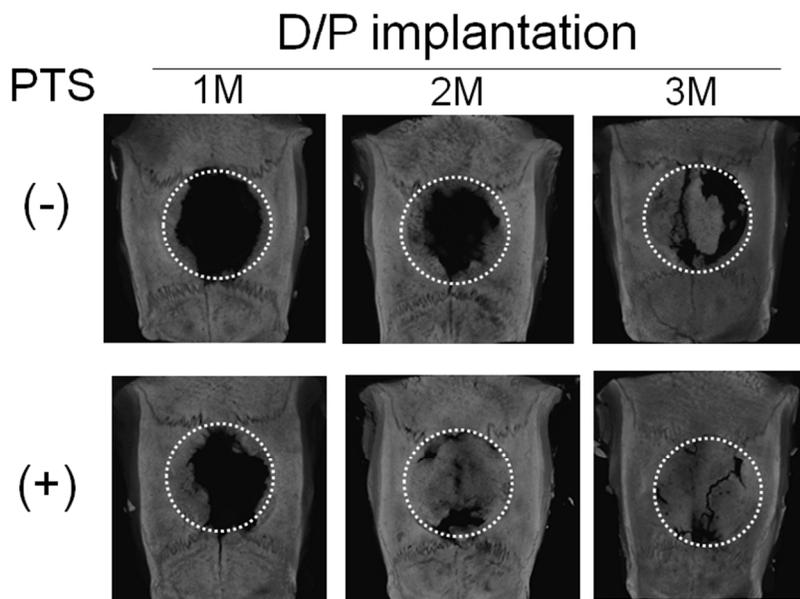
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



29 Figure 2

30
31
32
33 81x60mm (300 x 300 DPI)

34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
Review



29 Figure 3

30
31
32
33 81x60mm (300 x 300 DPI)

34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

review

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

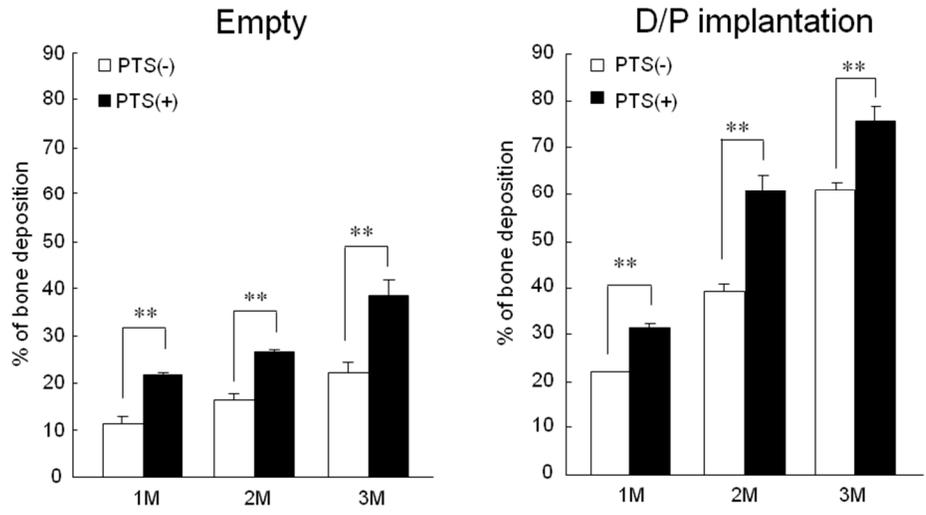


Figure 4

81x60mm (300 x 300 DPI)

review

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

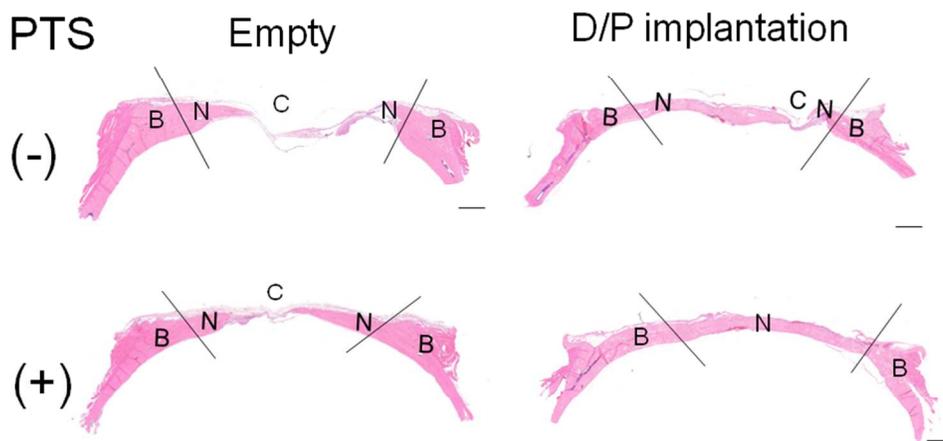


Figure 5

81x60mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Review

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

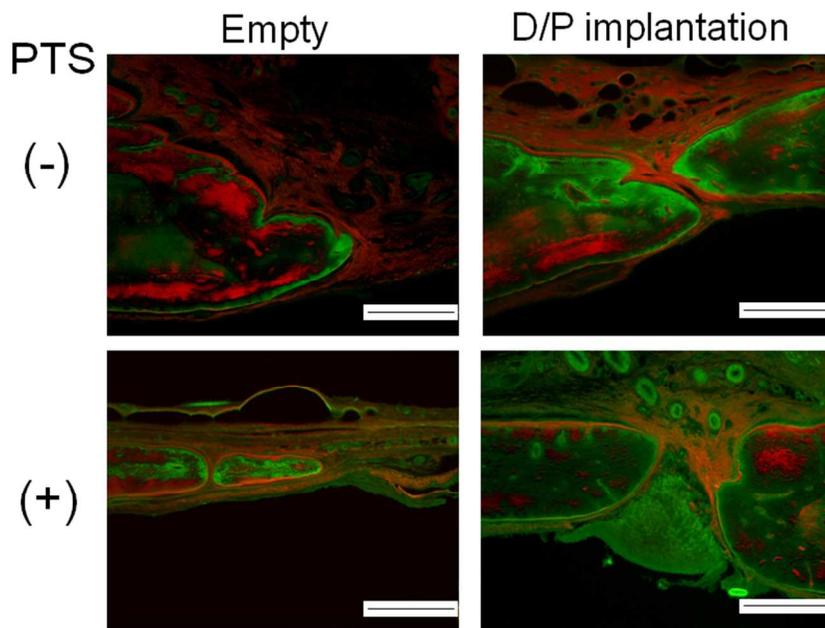


Figure 6

81x60mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Review

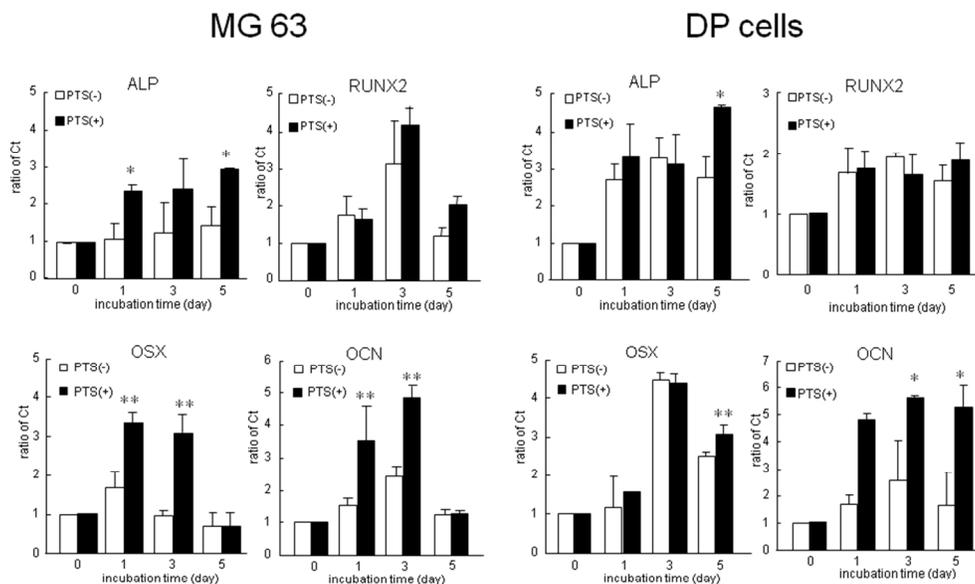


Figure 7

81x60mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Review