J Korean Dent Sci. 2014;7(2):58-65 http://dx.doi.org/10.5856/JKDS.2014.7.2.58 ISSN 2005-4742

# Effect of Chitosan on Expression of Osteogenic Genes during the Healing of Rat Extraction Socket

Gap-Hee Youn<sup>1</sup>, Seunggon Jung<sup>1</sup>, Tae-Hoon Lee<sup>2</sup>, Min-Suk Kook<sup>1</sup>, Hong-Ju Park<sup>1</sup>, Hee-Kyun Oh<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Departments of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery and <sup>2</sup>Oral Biochemistry, Dental Science Research Institute, School of Dentistry, Chonnam National University, Gwangju, Korea

Purpose: This study was performed to evaluate the effect of chitosan combined with absorbable gelatin compressed sponge on the expression of osteoblastic differentiation marker genes during the healing of rat extraction socket. Materials and Methods: Twenty-four male Wistar rats were used. In control group, the extraction socket was closed with suture. In chitosan group, the socket was filled with chitosan combined with Gelfoam (Pharmacia & Upjohn Co.) and closed with suture. In each group, the animals were sacrificed at 3 days, 1 week, 2 weeks, and 4 weeks postoperatively. The expression of osteoblastic differentiation marker genes, including *BSP*, *OCN*, *Runx2*, and *Col1* were quantified by real-time polymerase chain reaction.

Result: Compared to control group, the mRNA level of *BSP* in chitosan group increased significantly at 2 weeks after extraction and the level of *OCN* decreased significantly at 3 days and 4 weeks after extraction (P<0.05). The mRNA levels of *OCN*, *Runx*2, and *Col1* in chitosan group increased slightly at 2 weeks after extraction, but there was no statistical difference between groups.

Conclusion: The results indicate that chitosan has some effects on the expression of osteogenic genes during the healing of extraction sockets.

Key Words: Chitosan; Extraction socket; Osteoblastic differentiation

# Introduction

The alteration of the alveolar ridge occurs con-

comitantly with the healing of the soft and hard tissue but the process of remodeling may continue also after the termination of bone formation in

Corresponding Author: Hee-Kyun Oh

Department of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery, School of Dentistry, Chonnam National University, 77 Yongbong-ro, Buk-gu, Gwangju 500-757, Korea

TEL: +82-62-530-5610, FAX: +82-62-530-5619, E-mail: hkoh@jnu.ac.kr

Received for publication October 23, 2014; Returned after revision December 2, 2014; Accepted for publication December 9, 2014 Copyright © 2014 by Korean Academy of Dental Science

cc This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/3.0) which permits unrestricted non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

J Korean Dent Sci

the extraction sockets<sup>1)</sup>. The healing processes of extraction socket have been evaluated in many animal and human models<sup>2,3)</sup>.

Bone has a remarkable regenerative ability, but the inherent osseous processes are unable to repair the large defect during the healing time<sup>4)</sup>. Tissue engineering has been emerged as a possible solution for these clinical conditions. Several strategies can be employed to develop new bone tissue. Those strategies may involve the use of an extracellular matrix (ECM)—like structure (scaffold), cells, and growth factors. These 3 basic components need to be well synchronized to achieve a successful tissue engineering therapy<sup>5)</sup>. The cells would synthesize the ECM of new bone tissue, whereas the scaffold would provide an adequate three-dimensional (3D) environments for the cells<sup>6)</sup>. Mammalian cells require interactions with their microenvironment to survive, proliferate, and function. In tissue physiology, these 3D environments are largely composed of ECM proteins. In tissue engineering, these 3D structures are initially provided to the cells through the use of biodegradable and biocompatible scaffolds. They provide an environment that allows for the adhesion of cells and their proliferation, migration, and differentiation until these cells and the host cells begin to secrete and shape their own microenvironment. Therefore, scaffolds are considered a critical component of tissue engineering<sup>7)</sup>. To accomplish the goals of tissue engineering, scaffolds should satisfy the following requirements; should be porous to allow placement of cells and growth factors, should allow effective transport of nutrients, oxygen, and waste, should be biodegradable, leaving no toxic byproducts, should be replaced by regenerative tissue while retaining the shape and form of the final tissue structure, should be biocompatible and should have adequate physical and mechanical strength<sup>8)</sup>.

In recent studies, naturally derived polymers have been proposed for the scaffold such as starch, gellan gum, soy, silk and chitosan<sup>9</sup>. In particular, chitosan

has shown an excellent combination of properties and it has been demonstrated that it is suitable biomaterial for the development of scaffolds for bone tissue engineering. Chitosan can be used either alone, or in combination with other biodegradable polymers such as starch or silk, or with ceramics such as hydroxyapatite<sup>9)</sup>.

This study was performed to evaluate the effect of chitosan combined with absorbable gelatin compressed sponge on the expression of osteoblastic differentiation marker genes during the healing of rat extraction socket.

### Materials and Methods

# 1. Preparation of Chitosan Gel

Twenty grams of chitosan powder (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) was dissolved in 99.5% acetic acid (1 ml) and distilled water (30 ml).

### 2. Surgical Procedures

Twenty-four maleWistar rats (Damool Science, Daejeon, Korea) weighing about 400 g were used in this study. Animals were housed individually in standard rats cages with an ambient temperature of 24°C to 26°C and 12/12 hour light/dark cycle. Animals had free access to drinking water and standard laboratory pellets.

The rats were anesthetized by intramuscular ketamine HCl (60 mg/kg, Ketalar; Yuhan, Seoul, Korea) and Xylazine (3 mg/kg, Rumpun; Bayer, Seoul, Korea) and operated on under sterile condition. Two percents lidocaine HCl with 1: 100,000 epinephrine (HUONS Co. Ltd., Seongnam, Korea) was infiltrated in the maxillary vestibule. We used the split-mouth design in this study<sup>10</sup>. Briefly, right and left maxillary molars were extracted with dental elevators and forceps. In control group (n=24) the right maxillary first molar of each animal was extracted and the extraction socket was closed with 5-0 nylon (Ailee Co. Ltd., Busan, Korea). In chitosan group (n=24) the left maxillary first molar was

extracted and the socket was filled with chitosan combined with Gelfoam (Pharmacia and Upjohn Company, Kalamazoo, MI, USA) and closed with 5-0 nylon. Animals were given penicillin (Augmentin; Ilsung, Seoul, Korea) for 3 days to control the postoperative infection.

Animals were sacrificed with 0.9% normal saline and 4% KCl solution at 3 days, 1 week, 2 weeks, and 4 weeks after extraction. The maxilla was dissected, and the extraction sockets were surgically removed from the surrounding tissue. The extraction sockets were frozen immediately in liquid nitrogen, crushed and placed in tubes containing RNA isolation buffer. The experimental protocol was approved by the Ethical Committee for Animal Experiment in Chonnam National University.

# 3. Real-Time Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR)

The total RNA was isolated from the tissue using a QIAzol RNA Lysis reagent (QIAGEN Sciences Inc., Germantown, MD, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Purified RNA was measured with a spectrophotometer (Nanodrop 100; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). One milligram RNA was used to synthesize cDNA with the PrimeScript RT reagent kit (Takara Korea Biomedical Inc., Seoul, Korea) according to

manufacturer's recommedation. The quantitative real-time PCR was conducted using the SYBR Premix Ex Taq kit (Takara Korea Biomedical Inc.) in triplicate in the Applied Biosystems 7300 Real-Time PCR System (Life Technologies Korea, Seoul, Korea). The thermal cycling conditions were as follows: 15 minutes at 95°C, followed by 40 cycles at 95°C for 10 seconds, 58°C for 15 seconds, and 72°C for 20 seconds. All quantitation was normalized to an endogenous control  $\beta$ -actin. The data for gene expression were analyzed by the  $\Delta\Delta$ Ct method as described previously<sup>11)</sup>. Amplication efficiency of different genes was determined relative to  $\beta$ -actin ( $\Delta Ct = Ct_{gene} - Ct_{\beta-actin}$ ) the mRNA in each sample was calculated by comparative ( $\Delta\Delta Ct = \Delta Ct_{gene} - \Delta Ct_{\beta-actin}$ ) value method. The fold change in gene expression relative to the control was calculated by  $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ . The primer sequences were shown in Table 1.

### 4. Statistical Analysis

Each experiment, containing triplicate independent samples, was repeated at least twice, and qualitatively identical results were obtained. Independent sample t-test was used to determine any statistically significant difference between the control and experimental groups and one-way analysis of variance followed by Tukey's *post* 

**Table 1.** Sequences of the primers used for real-time polymerase chain reaction

Gene	Product size	Primer sequence	NCBI reference sequence
BSP	80 bp	Forward: GAAAGAGCAGCACGGTTGAGTA	NM_012587.2
		Reverse: GTCATAGGTTTCATACGCAGTGTTG	
OCN	105 bp	Forward: CAGACAAGTCCCACACAGCAA	NM_013414.1
		Reverse: CAGGTCAGAGAGGCAGAATGC	
Runx2	100 bp	Forward: AGAATGATGGTGTTGACGCTGAT	NM_053470.2
		Reverse: CTTCAATAGGGTCGCCAGACA	
Col1	113 bp	Forward: TGAGCCAGCAGATTGAGAACA	NM_053304.1
		Reverse: CCAGTACTCTCCGCTCTTCCA	
β-Actin	81 bp	Forward: TCCTGTGGCATCCATGAAACTA	NM_031144.3
		Reverse: TGTGTTGGCATAGAGGTCTTTACG	
		Reverse: CTTCAATAGGGTCGCCAGACA	

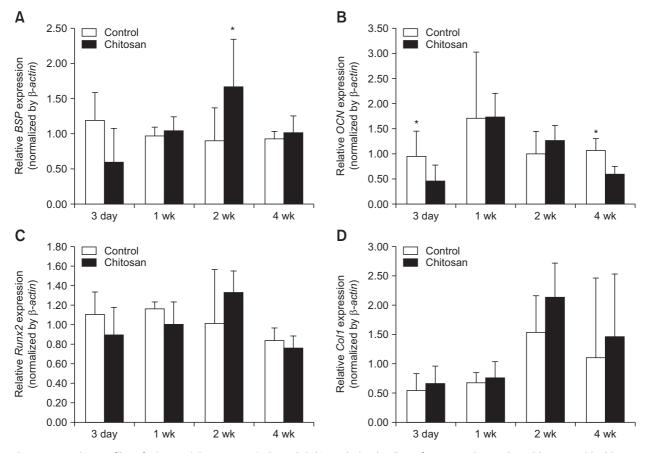
NCBI: National Center for Biotechnology Information.

*hoc* test was used to determine any statistically significant differences according to the time with the use of PASW Statistics version 18.0 software program (IBM Co., Armonk, NY, USA). P-values less than 0.05 were considered significant.

### Result

In the results of real-time PCR, the mRNA level of *BSP* increased significantly in chitosan group (87% increase) at 2 weeks after extraction compared to the control group (P<0.05; Fig. 1A). The mRNA level of *BSP* at 2 weeks after extraction increased significantly in chitosan group compared to other healing time points (P<0.05; Fig. 1A). The mRNA level of *OCN* decreased significantly in chitosan group (47% decrease) at 3 days and 4 weeks

after extraction compared to the control group (P<0.05). The mRNA level of OCN increased slightly in chitosan group (25% increase) at 2 weeks after extraction compared to the control group. However, there was no statistical difference at 2 weeks after extraction compared to the control (Fig. 1B). The mRNA level of OCN at 1 and 2 weeks after extraction increased significantly in chitosan group compared to other healing time points (P<0.05; Fig. 1B). The mRNA level of Runx2 in chitosan group decreased slightly at 3 days, 1 and 4 weeks after extraction and increased slightly at 2 weeks compared to the control group. However, there were no statistical differences compared to the control group (Fig. 1C). The mRNA level of Runx2 in chitosan group increased significantly at 2 weeks after extraction compared to other healing time



**Fig. 1.** Expression profiles of *BSP* (A), *OCN* (B), *Runx2* (C), and *Col1* (D) during healing of rat extraction socket without or with chitosan by quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction. The relative expression of *BSP*, *OCN*, *Runx2*, and *Col1* gene normalized against a housekeeping gene (β-actin). \*P<0.05.

points (P<0.05; Fig. 1C). The mRNA level of *Col1* in chitosan group was slightly higher than control group at all time points after extraction. However, there was no statistical difference compared to the control (Fig. 1D). The mRNA level of *Col1* in chitosan group increased at 2 weeks after extraction compared to other healing time points (P<0.05; Fig. 1D).

# Discussion

Bones are developed by two main processes: intramembranous and endochondral ossification<sup>12)</sup>. Five different cell types are involved in bone maintenance and remodeling; mesenchymal stem cells, bone-lining cells, osteoblasts, osteocytes, and osteoclast. Osteoblasts can be derived from mesenchymal stem cells that synthesize the organic matrix of the bone, osteoid<sup>13)</sup>. The osteoid is non-mineralized organic matrix including proteins such as *BSP*, *OCN*, *Col1*, osteopontin, and bone morphogenetic proteins.

An ideal material for bone regeneration should be biocompatible, biodegradable, easy to apply, and effective on bone repair. Since chitosan has been shown by many researchers to possess these properties<sup>14,15</sup>, this study was performed to evaluate its effectiveness on the healing of extraction socket.

Chitin is the second most abundant natural polymer after cellulose. Chitosan is a linear polysaccharide, obtained from the deacetylation of chitin, the primary structural polymer of the exoskelecton of crustaceans, cuticles of insects, and cell wall of fungi<sup>16</sup>. Chitosan is the common name for the family of deacetylated chitins, with different degrees of deacetylation. By definition, when the number of N-acetyl glucosamine units is higher than 50%, the polymer is considered chitin. On the other hand, when the number of N-acetyl glucosamine units is superior, its name is chitosan<sup>17</sup>).

Chitosan is a semi-crystalline polymer and its crystallinity is dependent of the degree of deacetylation<sup>16)</sup>. The solubility of chitosan depends on the free amino and N-acetyl groups, which are soluble in acidic pH<sup>18)</sup>. Chitosan, used in this study, presents a wide range of properties that make it appropriate for tissue engineering applications because of its biodegradability, biocompatibility, antibacterial activity, wound healing properties, and bioadhesive character<sup>9</sup>. One of the most important characteristic of chitosan, for tissue engineering applications, is its ability to be shaped into various form, such as microspheres, paste, membranes, sponges, fibers and porous scaffolds<sup>19</sup>. It is important for bone regeneration materials to be highly adaptable to the extraction socket. In this study the chitosan was used in the form of gel combined with Gelfoam to fill in the extraction sockets and remained there for local absorption. This application method was different from the others in terms of using chitosan gel combined with Gelfoam to achieve good adaptation to bone defects. The osteogenic gene expressions in chitosan group showed to be higher than control group. However, this study has a limitation that we did not consider the effect of Gelfoam to healing on extraction socket. Gelfoam is a one of the surgical coagulants and often used in clinical situation<sup>20</sup>. This material is un-inflammatory in tissue and does not cause the infiltration of cells and scar formation<sup>21)</sup>. Therefore, it is thought that there is few effect of Gelfoam to healing process in this study.

The differentiation of progenitor cells into secreting cells or osteoblast-like cells is critical in the healing process, and inducing differentiation is required for a biomaterial to be considered a tissue engineering material.

*OCN* is non-collagenous protein found in bone and dentin and secreted solely by osteoblasts and thought to play a role in the body's metabolic regulation<sup>22)</sup>. *Runx*2 is a key transcription factor associated with osteoblast differentiation. *Col1* is the most abundant collagen of the human body and presents in scar tissue, tendon, bone, dermis

and dentin<sup>23)</sup>. BSP is a highly post-translationally modified acidic phosphoprotein normally expressed in mineralized tissues such as bone and dentin<sup>24</sup>. BSP belongs to the SIBLING (small integrinbinding ligand N-linked glycoprotein) gene family<sup>25)</sup> and displays several characteristics typical of these proteins. BSP is expressed by several cell types associated with mineralized tissues but is expressed in abundance by osteoblasts. As well, BSP has been found to be expressed at pathological sites of mineralization such as microcalcifications in breast, thyroid and prostate neoplasms<sup>26)</sup> and atherosclerotic plaques<sup>27)</sup>. Even though there is ample evidence to suggest that BSP is a marker of osteoblast differentiation and the onset of mineral formation, there is no direct evidence suggesting the protein has an effect on either of these processes in vivo. Especially, this study revealed that BSP in chitosan group were expressed higher than the control at 2 weeks after extraction. It can be explained that higher cell proliferation and differentiation on chitosan were attributed to the high density of positive charges on chitosan at physiological pH that attracted negatively-charged proteins and cells<sup>28)</sup>.

Cell response to the presence of chitosan has been extensively investigated<sup>29,30)</sup>. Up-regulation of various types of biologic markers has been reported in the presence of chitosan in several cell culture studies and animal studies<sup>29-32)</sup>. Waltregny et al.<sup>26)</sup> reported that BSP is an osteoblastic differentiation marker and has functions as a hydroxyapatite nucleator. Lin and Chen<sup>33)</sup> assayed the biological responses of osteoblast including cell proliferation, viability, morphology, type 1 collagen expression, alkaline phosphatase activity, and mineralization. They concluded that cells on chitosan coating had higher proliferation, type 1 collagen deposition, and degree of mineralization compared to the control. Chevrier et al.<sup>34)</sup> reported that chitosan increased vascularization and induced granulation tissue generation. At 2 weeks after operation, a

mixture of woven bone and fibrous tissue was seen in treated defects, whereas in untreated ones, the fibrous tissue was dominant. In this study, the peak expression of mRNA including BSP, OCN, Runx2, and Col1 were observed at 2 weeks after extraction. These results seemed to be also consistent with previous studies<sup>34,35)</sup>. Liu et al.<sup>35)</sup> reported that osteoblastic differentiation marker such as TGF- $\beta1$ , BMP-2 and VEGF had peak expression level after 2 weeks.

The results of this study support the hypothesis that chitosan can induce the differentiation of osteoblasts. According to these results, chitosan can be useful to preserve the remaining alveolar bone after extraction for the future implant installation. However, further studies such as histological evaluation and immunohistochemistry are needed to clarify the detailed mechanism of chitosan how it induces osteoblastic differentiation of mesenchymal stem cells or osteoblasts in extraction socket. Moreover, this study has the other limitation that rat extraction socket is too small to estimate the precise effect of chitosan. Therefore, clinical evaluations are also required to apply this technique in clinical situations.

## Conclusion

This study was performed to evaluate the effect of chitosan combined with absorbable gelatin compressed sponge on the expression of osteo-blastic differentiation marker genes during the healing of rat extraction sockets. In conclusion, these results indicate that chitosan has some effects on the expression of osteoblastic differentiation marker genes during the healing of extraction sockets and it can be used for preservation of alveolar bone after extraction.

# **Conflict of Interest**

No potential conflict of interest relevant to this

article was reported.

# References

- Schropp L, Wenzel A, Kostopoulos L, Karring T. Bone healing and soft tissue contour changes following single-tooth extraction: a clinical and radiographic 12-month prospective study. Int J Periodontics Restorative Dent. 2003; 23: 313-23.
- 2. Evian CI, Rosenberg ES, Coslet JG, Corn H. The osteogenic activity of bone removed from healing extraction sockets in humans. J Periodontol. 1982; 53: 81-5.
- 3. Cardaropoli G, Araújo M, Hayacibara R, Sukekava F, Lindhe J. Healing of extraction sockets and surgically produced--augmented and non-augmented--defects in the alveolar ridge. An experimental study in the dog. J Clin Periodontol. 2005; 32: 435-40.
- Schmitz JP, Hollinger JO. The critical size defect as an experimental model for craniomandibulofacial nonunions. Clin Orthop Relat Res. 1986; (205): 299-308.
- 5. Yen AH, Sharpe PT. Stem cells and tooth tissue engineering. Cell Tissue Res. 2008; 331: 359-72.
- Bonfield W. Designing porous scaffolds for tissue engineering. Philos Trans A Math Phys Eng Sci. 2006; 364: 227-32.
- 7. Casagrande L, Cordeiro MM, Nör SA, Nör JE. Dental pulp stem cells in regenerative dentistry. Odontology. 2011; 99: 1-7.
- 8. Hutmacher DW, Schantz JT, Lam CX, Tan KC, Lim TC. State of the art and future directions of scaffold-based bone engineering from a biomaterials perspective. J Tissue Eng Regen Med. 2007; 1: 245-60.
- 9. Costa-Pinto AR, Reis RL, Neves NM. Scaffolds based bone tissue engineering: the role of chitosan. Tissue Eng Part B Rev. 2011; 17: 331-47.
- 10. Lesaffre E, Philstrom B, Needleman I, Worthington H. The design and analysis of split-mouth studies: what statisticians and clinicians should know. Stat

- Med. 2009; 28: 3470-82.
- 11. Livak KJ, Schmittgen TD. Analysis of relative gene expression data using real-time quantitative PCR and the 2(-Delta Delta C(T)) method. Methods. 2001; 25: 402-8.
- 12. Kronenberg HM. Developmental regulation of the growth plate. Nature. 2003; 423: 332-6.
- 13. Robey PG, Termine JD. Human bone cells in vitro. Calcif Tissue Int. 1985; 37: 453-60.
- 14. Ripamonti U, Duneas N. Tissue engineering of bone by osteoinductive biomaterials. MRS Bulletin. 1996; 21: 36-9.
- 15. Shin SY, Park HN, Kim KH, Lee MH, Choi YS, Park YJ, Lee YM, Ku Y, Rhyu IC, Han SB, Lee SJ, Chung CP. Biological evaluation of chitosan nanofiber membrane for guided bone regeneration. J Periodontol. 2005; 76: 1778-84.
- 16. Suh JK, Matthew HW. Application of chitosan-based polysaccharide biomaterials in cartilage tissue engineering: a review. Biomaterials. 2000; 21: 2589-98.
- 17. Shi C, Zhu Y, Ran X, Wang M, Su Y, Cheng T. Therapeutic potential of chitosan and its derivatives in regenerative medicine. J Surg Res. 2006; 133: 185-92.
- 18. Madihally SV, Matthew HW. Porous chitosan scaffolds for tissue engineering. Biomaterials. 1999; 20: 1133-42.
- 19. Yeo YJ, Jeon DW, Kim CS, Choi SH, Cho KS, Lee YK, Kim CK. Effects of chitosan nonwoven membrane on periodontal healing of surgically created one-wall intrabony defects in beagle dogs. J Biomed Mater Res B Appl Biomater. 2005; 72: 86-93.
- 20. Olson RA, Roberts DL, Osbon DB. A comparative study of polylactic acid, Gelfoam, and Surgicel in healing extraction sites. Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol. 1982; 53: 441-9.
- 21. Correll JT, Wise E. Certain properties of a new physiologically absorbable sponge. Exp Biol Med (Maywood). 1945; 58: 233-5.
- 22. Rodan GA, Noda M. Gene expression in osteo-

- blastic cells. Crit Rev Eukaryot Gene Expr. 1991; 1: 85-98.
- 23. Lalani Z, Wong M, Brey EM, Mikos AG, Duke PJ. Spatial and temporal localization of transforming growth factor-beta1, bone morphogenetic protein-2, and platelet-derived growth factor-A in healing tooth extraction sockets in a rabbit model. J Oral Maxillofac Surg. 2003; 61: 1061-72.
- 24. Ganss B, Kim RH, Sodek J. Bone sialoprotein. Crit Rev Oral Biol Med. 1999; 10: 79-98.
- 25. Fisher LW, Fedarko NS. Six genes expressed in bones and teeth encode the current members of the SIBLING family of proteins. Connect Tissue Res. 2003; 44(Suppl 1): 33-40.
- 26. Waltregny D, Bellahcène A, de Leval X, Florkin B, Weidle U, Castronovo V. Increased expression of bone sialoprotein in bone metastases compared with visceral metastases in human breast and prostate cancers. J Bone Miner Res. 2000; 15: 834-43.
- 27. Dhore CR, Cleutjens JP, Lutgens E, Cleutjens KB, Geusens PP, Kitslaar PJ, Tordoir JH, Spronk HM, Vermeer C, Daemen MJ. Differential expression of bone matrix regulatory proteins in human atherosclerotic plaques. Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol. 2001; 21: 1998-2003.
- 28. Bumgardner JD, Wiser R, Elder SH, Jouett R, Yang Y, Ong JL. Contact angle, protein adsorption and osteoblast precursor cell attachment to chitosan coatings bonded to titanium. J Biomater Sci Polym Ed. 2003; 14: 1401-9.
- 29. Zhao F, Grayson WL, Ma T, Bunnell B, Lu WW.

- Effects of hydroxyapatite in 3-D chitosan-gelatin polymer network on human mesenchymal stem cell construct development. Biomaterials. 2006; 27: 1859-67.
- 30. Leong KF, Cheah CM, Chua CK. Solid freeform fabrication of three-dimensional scaffolds for engineering replacement tissues and organs. Biomaterials. 2003; 24: 2363-78.
- 31. Stephan SJ, Tholpady SS, Gross B, Petrie-Aronin CE, Botchway EA, Nair LS, Ogle RC, Park SS. Injectable tissue-engineered bone repair of a rat calvarial defect. Laryngoscope. 2010; 120: 895-901.
- 32. Ang TH, Sultana FSA, Hutmacher DW, Wong YS, Fuh JYH, Mo XM, Loh HT, Burdet E, Teoh SH. Fabrication of 3D chitosan-hydroxyapatite scaffolds using a robotic dispensing system. Mater Sci Eng C. 2002; 20: 35-42.
- 33. Lin HY, Chen JH. Osteoblast differentiation and phenotype expressions on chitosan-coated Ti-6Al-4V. Carbohydr Polym. 2013; 97: 618-26.
- 34. Chevrier A, Hoemann CD, Sun J, Buschmann MD. Chitosan-glycerol phosphate/blood implants increase cell recruitment, transient vascularization and subchondral bone remodeling in drilled cartilage defects. Osteoarthritis Cartilage. 2007; 15: 316-27.
- 35. Liu C, Wu Z, Sun HC. The effect of simvastatin on mRNA expression of transforming growth factorbeta1, bone morphogenetic protein-2 and vascular endothelial growth factor in tooth extraction socket. Int J Oral Sci. 2009; 1: 90-8.