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Sol-gel TiO₂ colloidal suspensions and nanostructured thin films: structural and biological assessments

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Abstract

The role of the substrate topography in phenotypes expression of *in-vitro* cultured cells has been widely assessed. However, the production of nanostructured interface via deposition of sol-gel synthesized nanoparticles has not yet fully exploited. This is also argued by the limited number of studies correlating the morphological, structural and chemical properties of the grown thin films with those of the sol-gel “brick” within the framework of the bottom-up approach. Our work intends to contribute to go beyond this drawback presenting an accurate investigation of sol-gel TiO₂ nanoparticles shaped as spheres and rods. They have been fully characterized by complementary analytical techniques both suspended in apolar solvents, by dynamic light

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3 scattering (DLS) and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) and after deposition on substrates
4 (solid state configuration) by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and powder x-ray
5 diffraction (PXRD). In the case of suspended anisotropic rods, the experimental DLS data,
6 analyzed by Tirado-Garcia de la Torre model, present the following ranges of dimensions: 4-5
7 nm diameter (\varnothing) and 11-15 nm length (L). These results are in good agreement with what
8 obtained by the two solid state techniques, namely 3.8(9) nm \varnothing and 13.8(2.5) nm L from TEM
9 and 5.6(1) \varnothing and 13.3(1) nm L from PXRD data.

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11 To prove the suitability of the supported sol-gel NPs for biological issues, spheres and rods
12 have been separately deposited on cover-slips. The cell response has been ascertained by
13 evaluating the adhesion of the epithelial cell line Madin-Darby Canine Kidney. The cellular
14 analysis showed that titania films promote cell adhesion as well the clustering organization,
15 which is a distinguishing feature of this type of cell line. Thus the use of nanostructured
16 substrates via sol-gel could be considered a good candidate for cell culture with the further
17 advantages of likely scalability and interfaceability with many different materials usable as
18 supports.

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Keywords: titanium dioxide, nanoparticles, sol-gel, thin film, MDCK cells

1. Introduction

Nowadays biomimetic research is widespread and this indicates that many natural phenomena are related to the micro and nano-structures present on the biosurfaces [1,2]. In the last years many works focused on the role of substrate topography in cellular proliferation and differentiation, as well as on the possibility to manufacture biocompatible interfaces able to mimic the physiological conditions of the extracellular environment [2]. Moreover, the cellular

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3 behaviour, both *in vivo* and *in vitro*, is influenced by mechanical, biochemical and topographic
4 properties of the extracellular microenvironment [3].
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8 In particular, the biochemical composition and the mechanical behavior of the extracellular
9 matrix play an important role in many processes like morphogenesis [4], differentiation [5],
10 development of tumors [6,7], etc. Cells can actively adapt to the adhesion surface and activate
11 specific intracellular signals, which affect their behavior and survival [8,9]. *In vivo*, cellular
12 adhesion is the consequence of the binding to extracellular matrix through cellular specific-
13 adhesion proteins. The protein binding is intrinsically affected by mechanical and chemical
14 signals deriving from topography of external environment which is characterized by objects of
15 different size scale, from the nano to the mesoscale [10,11]. On the other hand, *in vitro* cells
16 establish a complex network of interactions both with the artificial surface and the secreted
17 proteins as well as with the serum proteins of extracellular matrix. The optimization of the cell-
18 substrate interactions can consequently open new perspectives in the design of biomimetic
19 supports [12,13].
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35 In this work we focused our attention on titanium dioxide as substrate material for cell culture
36 studies. TiO₂ nanoparticles are a very valuable functional material, with properties strongly
37 depending on the crystalline phase (anatase, rutile or brookite) afforded by the synthetic
38 procedures. Nanocrystalline TiO₂ is used in photocatalysis [14–17], dye-sensitized solar cells
39 and electronic devices [18,19]. Among many materials, titania has also been studied in several
40 works on cellular proliferation due to its peculiar properties. Many efforts have been devoted on
41 the study of the topographic modifications of titania surfaces, since TiO₂ is among the most
42 studied biomaterials [20]. It has already been shown how stem cells answer differently to
43 different extracellular matrixes with relevant consequences on their differentiation and self-
44 renewal [21,22]. More recently it has been reported that, independently from the employed cell
45 types, a nanostructured topography constituted by anatase phase TiO₂ nanotubes (produced by
46 anodization of Ti sheets in a phosphate-fluoride electrolyte) with a 15-20 nm diameter induces
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3 stronger stimulation on differentiation, cell adhesion, proliferation, and motility, than amorphous
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5 TiO₂ and/or nanotubes with greater diameters [23].
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8 Often, top-down methods are used to obtain micro and nanostructured substrates, like the hard
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10 or the soft lithography [24], nevertheless these techniques are not usually able to produce
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12 substrates with morphology and hierarchical organization like in extracellular matrix is [25].
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15 In the literature there exist several examples of studies on cell interaction with nanostructured
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17 materials obtained with a bottom-up approach [26], but among them only a few are based on sol-
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19 gel nanoparticles deposition [27]. For this reason, in this work we have prepared, characterized
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21 and tested two different types of substrate, obtained by a wet-chemical method, by using spheres
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23 or rods as precursor bricks deposited on coverslips.
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26 The assessment of a nano-object size and shape has been achieved by solid state techniques;
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28 however, the results provided by deposited samples could be biased by aggregation processes,
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30 resulting in size and/or shape modifications. On the other hand, while many applications require
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32 NPs in the liquid state or as a heterogeneous stable suspension, solution approaches are not
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34 always informative as far as NPs' shape is concerned. Therefore, the use of a single technique
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36 either in the solid state or in solution cannot be completely satisfactory for the determination of
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38 size and shape of nanoparticles.
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42 Concerning the sol-gel method, we prepared both TiO₂ nanospheres and nanorods [28], and
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44 studied them through the complementary role of solution (DLS and NMR) and solid state (TEM
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46 and PXRD) analytical techniques. These sol-gel materials have been then employed to produce
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48 drop casted thin films of nanostructured TiO₂ supported on round glass coverslips as substrates
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50 for epithelial cells (MDCK, Madin-Darby Canine Kidney) adhesion and proliferation studies.
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52 For comparison the same set of biological experiments have been performed on nanostructured
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54 TiO₂ thin films produced by supersonic beam deposition of clusters, whose use as titania
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56 substrates for cell growth has been widely assessed [29,30].
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2. Experimental section

2.1. Sample preparation

2.1.1. Synthesis of spherical $\text{TiO}_2@OA$ nanoparticles. The synthesis of spherical and rod-like $\text{TiO}_2@OA$ was derived from a literature procedure [28]. Briefly, triethylamine (TEA) and ethylenglycole (EG) were treated with 4 Å molecular sieves for 24 h and then distilled (the first one from P_2O_5 , the second one in reduced pressure). Technical oleic acid (OA, 90%) was dried under vacuum heating at 120 °C for at least 1 h under vigorous stirring. Typically, 40 mL of dried OA were warmed at 100 °C and added with 4.5 mL of titanium tetraisopropoxide (TTIP, 1.5 mmol), then a solution of TEA (0.42 mL, 3 mmol) in anhydrous EG (2.2 mL) was added and the sol-gel reaction left to proceed for more than 60 h at 100 °C. The solution remained clear and no precipitate was observed. Part of the solution (2 mL) was then treated with 6 mL of ethanol or methanol under stirring and immediately a white precipitate formed. The suspension was centrifuged for 10 min at 3500 rpm, discarded the supernatant, re-dissolved in 2 mL of CHCl_3 and repeated the precipitation until a white and powdery precipitate was obtained.

2.1.2. Synthesis of rod-like $\text{TiO}_2@OA$ nanoparticles. Anhydrous OA was warmed at 100 °C, added with 2.25 mL of TTIP (0.75 mmol) under stirring. Then 3.75 mL of an aqueous solution 2 M of tetraethylammonium hydroxide was rapidly added. The solution was left under stirring and mild reflux at 100 °C for 6 h. The solution became turbid, also after removing the water excess under vacuum. Similarly, to what done in the case of the spherical $\text{TiO}_2@OA$ nanoparticles synthesis, the nanorod particles were recovered by treating 2 mL of suspension with 8 mL of ethanol or methanol, centrifuged at 3600 rpm for 20 min, repeating the procedure twice in order to remove the OA excess. Both spheres and rods were completely soluble in CHCl_3 , giving colorless and stable suspensions.

2.1.3. Sol gel-based thin films preparation. Round glass coverslips with a diameter of 13 nm were sonicated (Branson 5510 working at 42 kHz) in different solvents by following subsequent washing cycles which employed acetone, ethanol, milliQ water and isopropanol, 10 min for each

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3 solvent. Afterward, the coverslips have been dried by using a gentle nitrogen flux. Then, in a
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5 typical preparation, 10 mg of TiO₂ nanospheres or nanorods were suspended in 5 mL of CHCl₃,
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7 and 1 mL was further diluted adding 24 mL of CHCl₃. The diluted suspension was sonicated for
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9 15 min, immediately after, by using a 0.2 μm PTFE (polytetrafluoroethylene) syringe frit, 30 μL
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11 were drop-casted on a glass coverslip completely and uniformly covering the entire surface. The
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13 solvent was then made slowly evaporate. Finally, the covered glass coverslips were calcined at
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15 450 °C reaching the final temperature at a rate of 10.6 °C/min, leaving the coverslip for 2 h at
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17 450 °C, then pulling them out of the oven to let them slowly cool down to room temperature.

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21 **2.1.4. Cluster-assembled nanostructured substrates.** Nanostructured ns-TiO_x films were
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23 produced by supersonic cluster beam deposition (SCBD) using an apparatus equipped with a
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25 pulsed microplasma cluster source (PMCS) [31]. The PMCS operation principle is based on the
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27 ablation of a target titanium rod by pulsed argon plasma ignited by an electric discharge. The
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29 ablated titanium atoms thermalize in the quenching gas and aggregate to form clusters. The
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31 ablated titanium atoms thermalize in the quenching gas and aggregate to form clusters. The
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33 mixture of clusters and inert gas is then extracted into an expansion chamber through an
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35 aerodynamic filter and forms a seeded supersonic beam.

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37 A glass coverslip placed on a manipulator intersects perpendicularly the beam trajectory
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39 allowing the deposition of the clusters (rate of about 0.5–2.5 nm/min). The nanostructured film is
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41 grown under ballistic deposition regime. The clusters partially oxidize in the source and in the
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43 deposition chamber due to the presence of oxygen in trace. The oxidation further proceeds upon
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45 exposure to air resulting in a ns-TiO_x ($x \leq 2$) film, as assessed via electron spectroscopy [32].
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47 The roughness was determined by means atomic force microscopy (AFM) and, for the used
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49 deposition parameters, results to be 20 ± 0.5 nm [30].

50 51 52 53 **2.2. Characterization experiments**

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55 **2.2.1 NMR.** ¹H Pulsed field Gradient Spin Echo (PGSE) NMR experiments were on a Bruker
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57 400DRX spectrometer equipped with a BBI probe and z-gradients, at 300 K in CHCl₃/CDCl₃
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59 (9/1) or in CDCl₃, on diluted samples (typically NMR samples were prepared dissolving 3 mg of
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3 surfacted TiO₂ nanoparticles in 500 μL of protio or deuterated solvent). A 3 mm ID capillary
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5 tube was always used in order to minimize convective motions.
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8 Chloroform was chosen as solvent since it has the advantage to well dissolve the
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10 nanoparticles giving clear solutions and also because, among the apolar deuterated solvents
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12 available, it had the right properties, as relaxation time not too long (as benzene and toluene) in
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14 order to be used as internal standard too, one single resonance not overlapping with oleate
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16 resonances (as hexane, cyclehexane and so on). Finally, CD₂Cl₂ was discarded because of the
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18 presence of severer convective motions. The gradient strength (G) was linearly incremented in
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20 16 steps, from 5% to 95% of its maximum value ($G_{max} = 53.5$ G/cm). The gradient pulses used
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22 were sine shaped. Diffusion time (Δ) = 200-600 ms and gradient pulse duration (δ) = 2.4 ms
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24 were normally used. The gradient strength was varied from 30 % to 95 % in order to have a
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26 minor contribution of OA free in the case of a ligand excess, and recovery delay was left longer
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28 than 12 s. Standard deviations of the diffusion coefficients were obtained from the linear fitting
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30 of equation S2 (where γ is the gyromagnetic ratio, of ¹H and τ represents the time between
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32 bipolar gradients) [33], and the standard deviations of the hydrodynamic radii were computed
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34 accordingly, using Origin data analysis software package.
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41 **2.2.2. DLS.** The Dynamic Light Scattering analysis of diluted samples (ca 1 mg/mL or less) were
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43 recorded on Malvern Zetasizer Nano instrument, equipped with a 633 nm He/Ne laser, with the
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45 detector at an angle of 173.0°. The experiments were performed at a controlled temperature of
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47 25°C. The viscosity, the refractive index and dielectric constant of CHCl₃ were taken as 0.542
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49 mPa s, 1.446 and 4.81, respectively, and the refractive index and absorbance index of TiO₂ were
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51 taken as 2.49 and 0.01, respectively. All the measurements were performed scanning 10 times
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53 per experiment and repeating the measurement 5 times.
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57 **2.2.3. TEM.** The samples suspended in CHCl₃ (ca 0.4 mg/mL) were deposited by drop casting
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59 onto a 300 mesh Formvar/Carbon coated copper grid, and left to go naturally to dryness for one
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night. The transmission electron microscopy images were obtained on the Energy Filtering TEM

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3 LEO 912AB (Zeiss) operating at 120 kV and acquired using a CCD-BM/1K and the ESI vision
4 software AnalySIS (Soft Imaging Systems, Muenster, Germany). The statistics has been
5 obtained using the free software Image-J 1.37v.
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10 **2.2.4. PXRD.** Gently ground powders of the samples were deposited in the, 2 mm deep, hollow
11 of an aluminum sample holder. Diffraction experiments were performed using Cu-K α radiation
12 ($\lambda = 1.5418 \text{ \AA}$) on a vertical-scan Bruker AXS D8 Advance diffractometer in $\theta:\theta$ mode, equipped
13 with a Goebel Mirror and a linear Position Sensitive Detector (PSD), with the following optics:
14 primary and secondary Soller slits, 2.3° and 2.5° , respectively; divergence slit, 0.1° ; receiving
15 slit, 2.82° . Generator setting: 40 kV, 40 mA. The nominal resolution for the present set-up is
16 $0.08^\circ 2\theta$ (FWHM of the α_1 component) for the LaB $_6$ peak at about 21.3° (2θ).
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19 Rietveld refinement profile fitting have been done, with the use of the software TOPAS-R,
20 [34], on the two samples, assuming the anatase structure. For the nanosphere sample, the best
21 fitting has been obtained through the description of the peak broadening with the TOPAS CS_L
22 function [34]. However, this approach cannot be applied for anisotropic peak broadening that has
23 been described, for the nanorod sample, through the usage of 4th order spherical harmonics.
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26 It should be noted that, in the collected powder patterns (see supporting information Figure
27 S2), some peaks related to the aluminum of the sample holder can be observed. However, the
28 regions of the patterns that include these peaks have been excluded from the Rietveld refinement,
29 thus not affecting the goodness of the fitting. The refinements converged to $R_{wp} = 4.27$ and R_{Bragg}
30 $= 2.94$ for the nanospheres and to $R_{wp} = 3.73$ and $R_{Bragg} = 1.89$ for the nanorods.
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33 The Scherrer CS of both samples were determined on 004 and 020 reflections from their
34 *fwhm* values either measured on the experimental profile (by using the DIFFRAC.EVA software
35 [35], *vide infra*) or calculated from the fitted profile, converging to 13.3(1) and 5.6(1) nm for 004
36 and 020, respectively. For the nanosphere sample, the CS_L crystallite size was refined to
37 14.0(1) nm.
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3 **2.2.5. FTIR.** Infrared spectra were acquired on a Bruker Vector22 instrument. Samples were
4 dispersed in KBr and pressed in a pellet, recording the spectra between 4000 and 400 cm⁻¹.
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7 **2.2.6. Contact angle measurements.** The film static contact angles were measured by the sessile-
8 drop method [36]. The measurements were performed using an FTA100 (First Ten Ångströms
9 Inc.) instrument. The drop of 0.5-1 mm diameter was released from a tip of syringe on the
10 sample surface at 20 ± 1 °C. Each measurement was recorded in 150 images taken within 5 s
11 with a Pelco Model PCHM 575-4 camera (standard deviation ~2°). The image analysis was
12 performed by the FTA Windows Mode 4 software.
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21 **2.3. Cell culture and cell adhesion assays.**

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24 Immortalized Madin-Darby Canine Kidney epithelial cell line (MDCK) were cultured in
25 Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM), supplemented with 10% Fetal Bovine Serum
26 (FBS), 2 mM L-Glutamine, 0.1 mM non-essential aminoacid, 1.5 g/L sodium bicarbonate, 1
27 mM sodium pyruvate, 100 units/mL penicillin and 100 µg/mL streptomycin. Cells were grown in
28 tissue culture flasks at 37 °C in controlled atmosphere (5% CO₂) until they reached the 70%
29 confluence, then by using a solution of trypsin/EDTA (Sigma) they were seeded in the multiwell
30 plates. For cell adhesion and proliferation MDCK cells were seeded at a concentration of 10⁴
31 cells per well to 13 mm diameter round glass coverslips drop-casted with sol-gel TiO₂
32 nanospheres or TiO₂ nanorods, covered with ns-TiO_x, not functionalized glass, and to TCPS
33 (tissue culture plate surfaces, multiwell 24, TPP- Zellkultur und Labortechnologie, Switzerland).
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35 MDCK adhesion was studied by comparing the behavior of cells on the different substrates over
36 time. Cells were observed each hour for the first four hours after cell plating, by taking four
37 random fields pictures for each well with a Power Shot G6 Canon digital camera mounted on a
38 Zeiss Axiovert 40 CFL inverted optical microscope using 10x objective lens. Each thin film
39 layer was monitored in triplicate. Cells were also monitored each 24 h after the first 4 h, until
40 confluence was achieved by cells. Cells were counted as adhesive cells whenever the typical
41 polygonal-like shape was observed, while round and pearl-color cells were counted as detached
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3 cells. Percentage of adhesion was then calculated as the ratio between the adherent cells and the
4 total cell number for each picture (4 x well; at least 3 wells per tested material), then the
5 arithmetic media was finally calculated.
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10 11 12 **3. Results and Discussion**

13 14 15 **3.1. Study of the size of spheres and rods-like TiO₂@OA NPs in the colloidal and in the** 16 **solid phase forms synthesized with a wet bottom-up method.**

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TiO₂ NPs have been prepared according to a sol-gel method [28], which produces at first TiO₂ NPs capped with oleic acid as a surfactant (TiO₂@OA) that makes spheres and rods soluble in CHCl₃, giving colorless and stable suspensions. The interest toward this particular synthesis is due to several factors: a) the synthesis is conducted at relatively low temperatures compared to hydrothermal methodologies (vide infra); b) NPs are formed in the anatase phase; c) NPs can be obtained in two different forms: nanorods or nanospheres, in dependence of the tunable reaction conditions. The possibility to test the same material with a different shape and verify how it can influence the cellular behaviour has been taken into account.

The ¹H NMR spectra of free oleic acid and of TiO₂@OA nanospheres and nanorods are reported in Figure 1.

Upon binding to NPs, the ¹H NMR OA signals are broadened due to the shortening of T₂ in dependence to the increase of the correlation time, experienced by OA molecules when interacting with the NPs, *the chemical shifts remaining unchanged*. This broadening is more pronounced for the protons closer to the nanoparticle surface (see the barely observable CH₂ in position 2 and 3), in line with the view that as the distance from the surface increases local segmental mobility increases as well.

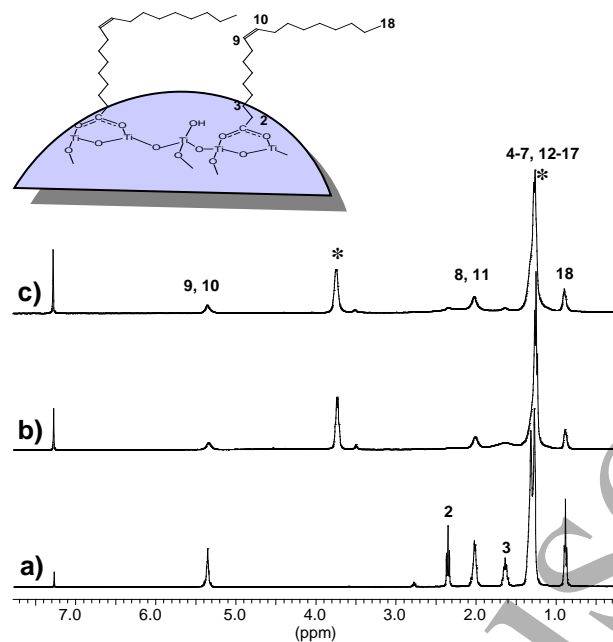


Figure 1. ^1H NMR spectra (298 K, CDCl_3) of (a) oleic acid; (b) TiO_2 @OA nanospheres and (c) TiO_2 @OA nanorods (asterisk marks CH_2 and CH_3 of ethanol).

The shorter T_2 can give rise to a significant loss of magnetization during the pulse sequences used for diffusion measurements; therefore, not all the resonances of the surfactant molecules can be equally useful in NMR diffusion experiments.

In order to minimize the effects of T_2 shortening and of possible convective motions, a double stimulated echo (DSTE) NMR pulse sequence (supporting information Scheme S1) has been used. Indeed, in spite of its intrinsic poor sensitivity, (only a quarter of the signal is retained), in this sequence (see Ref. [37]) the observed echo attenuation is coupled with the spin-lattice relaxation T_1 rather than the spin-spin relaxation T_2 , (allowing measurements with longer diffusion times, Δ), and the double stimulated echo compensates the possible effects of convective motions. In any case, since it is essential to get fixed information about the nanoparticle shape for the analysis of the diffusion data both from NMR and DLS, a TEM analysis was preliminarily performed (Figure 2). Figure 2 shows the micrographs of spherical nanoparticles (a), and of nanorods (c), while the analyses of the distribution sizes (b, d) showed that the diameter of the spherical NPs was centered at 6.5(1.1) nm and that the diameter and

length of the nanorods were 3.8(9) nm and 13.8(2.5) nm, respectively.

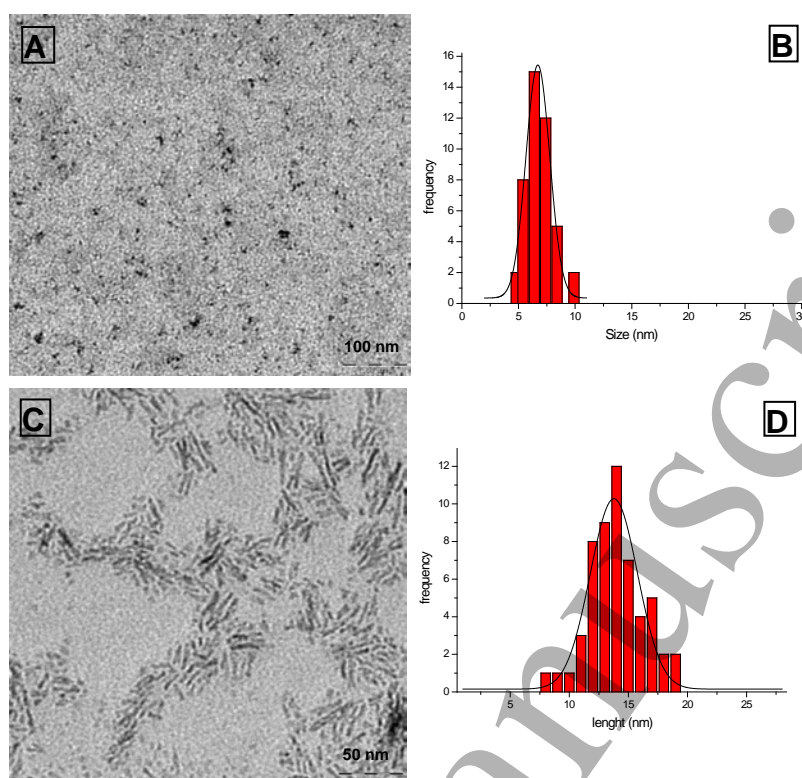


Figure 2. a) TEM image of a sample of TiO_2 spheres, capped with oleic acid, deposited from a chloroform suspension; b) histogram distribution of the diameters; c) TEM image of a sample of TiO_2 nanorods, capped with oleic acid, deposited from a chloroform suspension; d) histogram distribution of the rod length.

^1H DSTE NMR experiments were performed at 300 K in CDCl_3 where TiO_2 NPs suspension appeared transparent and colorless. Figure 3 shows the gradient dependence, according to Equation S2, of the intensities of the CH_3 signals of OA free and bound to $\text{TiO}_2@OA$ nanospheres. Two different monoexponential slopes of the attenuation profiles were obtained, as expected due to the difference of size for the two entities, and therefore to the difference of diffusion coefficients D_t .

Three DSTE NMR experiments were performed on $\text{TiO}_2@OA$ nanospheres using different Δ values. Only the slopes of the decays of the two most intense resonances CH_2 (4-7, 12-17) at 1.28 ppm and the one of CH_3 (18) at 0.90 ppm were used to estimate the diffusion coefficient, being the intensities of the other resonances too low for a meaningful

analysis. The mean value of D_t resulted $1.42 \cdot 10^{-10} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ($\pm 6 \cdot 10^{-12}$), which corresponds to a hydrodynamic diameter of 5.8(3) nm, value in agreement with the mean diameter of the inorganic core of nanospheres estimated by TEM analysis (6.5(1.1) nm, see Figure 2 panel b).

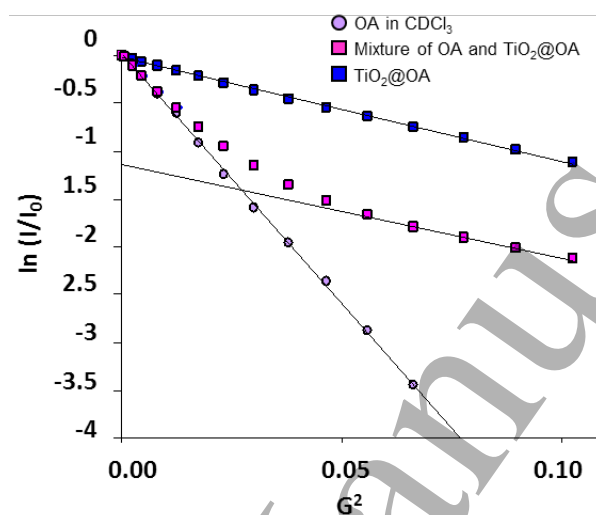


Figure 3. Comparison of the CH_3 resonance echo attenuation for a sample of free OA, $\text{TiO}_2@OA$ nanospheres and of a mixture of $\text{TiO}_2@OA$ nanospheres and free OA (300 K, CDCl_3 , $\Delta = 200$ ms, $\delta = 2.4$ ms).

In principle, when dealing with polydispersed systems, the extent of polydispersion must be taken into account. Equation S2 can be modified in the empirical Kohlrausch-Williams-Watts (KWW) distribution function or *stretched exponential* [38,39], introducing a parameter β (Equation 1) that describes the width of the distribution of the diffusion coefficients. β values are in the range $0 < \beta \leq 1$, the lower the β value the higher the polydispersion.

$$\ln \frac{I}{I_0} = -[(\gamma\delta)^2 D_t (\Delta - \frac{\delta}{3} - \frac{\tau}{2}) G^2]^\beta \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

Nevertheless, the fitting of the attenuation profiles through Equation 1 of both $\text{TiO}_2@OA$ spheres and rods brought always to an estimation of the parameter $\beta \geq 0.95$, indicating a low polydispersion. ^1H PGSE NMR experiments are sensitive to the presence of surfactant excess. In Figure 3 it is also shown the attenuation profile of a sample of $\text{TiO}_2@OA$ treated by the addition

of an OA drop. While in the absence of an excess of free OA, the attenuation profile follows a mono-exponential decay, in the presence of free OA, the attenuation profile becomes bi-exponential, with a fast decay behaviour that overlaps the decay of the free OA at low gradient intensities, and a slow decay at high gradient intensities with the same slope as the TiO₂@OA sample.

NMR measurements can give insights on many aspects. According to computer simulations reported in the literature [40], the attenuation profile observed for the mixture of TiO₂@OA and OA (Figure 3) is in line with a two-site system (OA free-TiO₂@OA = A-B) in slow exchange regime on the NMR time scale, with a ratio of the diffusion coefficients of the two species of ca 10 (D_A=10D_B) and with a relative population of the two sites A:B=8:2.

DLS measurements have been performed in the presence of free OA. Despite the capability of resolution of NMR to measure in a bi-exponential decay the same diffusion coefficient for TiO₂@OA (see Figure 3) compared to the D_t before the addition of the excess of OA free, DLS did not show the same resolution ability. In Figure S1 of supporting information it is reported the autocorrelation function decay for such a sample, whose fitting by a non-linear bi-exponential function (Equation 2) [41] led to the estimation of D_t = 5.5 · 10⁻¹¹ m² s⁻¹ ± 2·10⁻¹³, diameter 14.3 ± 1 nm (the second component n₂ was necessary to take into account the presence of dust or some aggregate in the sample 5.3 · 10⁻¹³ m² s⁻¹ ± 4·10⁻¹⁴, diameter 15 μm, n₁/n₂ = 2.9 · 10¹⁸).

$$G(t) = 0.15 \left(\sum_i A_i e^{-D_i q t} \right)^2 \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

where q the wave vector = $4\pi n / [\lambda \sin \theta/2]$, λ the wavelength of the incident light ($\theta = 90^\circ$), n = refractive index of CHCl₃ ($n = 1.4460$), $i = 2$, A is a pre-exponential factor that is proportional to the product of the square of the molecular mass times the number concentration, and with D_t is estimated by the iterative fitting process [41].

Such an increase is likely due to the formation of many OA layers around the particles through apolar interactions between the linked and free aliphatic chains of OA in monomeric or dimeric forms.

PXRD patterns confirmed that in both samples (rods and spheres, [42] Figure S2 and S3) TiO₂ is present as pure Anatase. However, an anisotropic broadening of the peaks, with sharper *00l* and broader *h00* (and *0k0*) reflections, is observed in the PXRD pattern of the nanorods thus revealing the anisotropic shape of its crystallites. Crystallite sizes were determined from the *004* and *020* reflections in this samples by applying the Scherrer equation (Eq. S3) on the *fwhm* values either measured on the experimental profile or calculated from the fitted profile. While for the nanosphere sample the crystal size is isotropic and equal to 14.0(1) nm (either for calculated and experimental *fwhm*), for the nanorod sample we have obtained crystal size values of 13.8(1) and 5.0(1) nm on the experimental profile and of 13.3(1) and 5.6(1) on the calculated one, obtained by Rietveld refinement.

As to TiO₂ nanorods, measures of the translational diffusion coefficient by DLS and NMR led almost to the same diffusion coefficient D_t , which resulted equal to $8.4 \cdot 10^{-11} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1} (\pm 1 \cdot 10^{-12})$ and $1.02 \cdot 10^{-10} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1} (\pm 1 \cdot 10^{-12})$, respectively. Due to the anisotropy of these NPs, the values of D_t cannot be used directly in the Stoke-Einstein equation (Eq. S1) for the obtainment of the size, but suitable models must be taken into account.

There exist many models relative to the correlation between the translational diffusion coefficient and dimension for rod-like nanoparticles: Tirado and Garcia de la Torre's relations (TGT) [43,44] hydrodynamic stick theory (HST) [45] and the Broersma's relations (B) [46] while Perrin theory [47] is applied to rotational ellipsoids (so it has not been taken into account in this study). Table 1 reports the size ranges compatible with the experimental D_t determined through NMR and DLS, according to the most accepted models cited above.

Models		NMR	DLS
Tirado and Garcia de la Torre (TGT)	$D_t = \frac{k_B T (\ln p + v)}{3\pi\eta L}$ <p>where $p = \frac{L}{d}$; $v = 0.312 + \frac{0.565}{p} - \frac{0.100}{p^2}$</p>	<p>$d = 4-5$ nm</p> <p>$L = 11-15$ nm</p>	<p>$d = 3-6$ nm</p> <p>$L = 14-21$ nm</p>
Hydrodynamic Stick Theory (HS)	$D_t = \frac{(D_{ } + 2D_{\perp})}{3}$ <p>where $D_{ } = \frac{kT}{2\pi\eta L} \ln(L/d)$; $D_{\perp} = \frac{kT}{4\pi\eta L} \ln(L/d)$</p>	<p>$d = 2-3$ nm</p> <p>$L = 11-19$ nm</p>	<p>$d = 2-3$ nm</p> <p>$L = 18-26$ nm</p>
Broersma (B)	$D_t = \frac{k_B T (\delta - 0.5(\gamma_{ } + \gamma_{\perp}))}{3\pi\eta L}$ <p>where $\gamma_{ } = 0.807 + 0.15/\delta + 13.5/\delta^2 - 37/\delta^3 + 22/\delta^4$ $\gamma_{\perp} = -0.193 + 0.15/\delta + 8.1/\delta^2 - 18/\delta^3 + 9/\delta^4$ $\delta = \ln(\frac{2L}{d})$</p>	<p>$d = 2-3$ nm</p> <p>$L = 11-19$ nm</p>	<p>$d = 2-4$ nm</p> <p>$L = 14-25$ nm</p>

Table 1. Estimation of diameter (d) and length (L) by TGT, HS and B theories for TiO₂@OA rod-like nanoparticles for NMR and DLS measurements.

The dimensions estimated for nanorods according to the three models are not very different. However, taking into account the criticism to the **HS** theory that does not consider the “end effect” and to the **B** theory that is more reliable for very long rods (e.g filaments), we judged more sound the description made by the **TGT** model. Indeed, taking into account the OA layer around the nanorods, the TEM size estimation need to be increased of ca 1-2 nm depending on the conformation around the NP assumed by OA, and **TGT** theory resulted so the most appropriate.

3.2 TiO₂ thin films preparation methods. TiO₂ films were obtained by drop casting the sol suspensions of TiO₂ nanorods and nanospheres obtained as described in the previous paragraph. The nanostructured glass supports remain transparent and suitable for an optical microscope observation. Drop casting covering method was adopted to uniformly cover the coverslips after many unsuccessful trials made with spin coating. The spin-coating covering method was also

performed, but was indeed unable to give uniform and reproducible coatings, likely due to the too low viscosity of the suspension and the poor weak interactions between the silica OH on the surface and the apolar tails of OA on the nanoparticles. Attempts to make the NPs better interacting with the glass surface were made by pretreating the coverslips with a silane endowed with an apolar chain, but this strategy was not satisfactory using n-propyltrimethoxysilane for the pretreatment.

Glass coverslips obtained by drop casting were calcined (see Experimental) in order to assure the complete oxidation and removal of all the organic residues. The efficacy of calcination cycle was tested on samples of both nanorods and nanospheres TiO_2 powders by analyzing the samples by FTIR spectroscopy. The comparison of the spectra recorded before and after calcination (Figure 4) well shows the completeness of the elimination of the organic surfactant and of the various solvents. Before the calcination process in both the spectra (a and c), several signals attributable to oleate capping ligand were present. The intense C-H stretching due to the methylene groups of the olefin tail were visible (at 2920 and 2850 cm^{-1} , asymmetric and symmetric, respectively), together with the shoulder at 2960 cm^{-1} due to the methyl terminal group and the weak peak at 3008 cm^{-1} due to the C-H on the double bond [48–50].

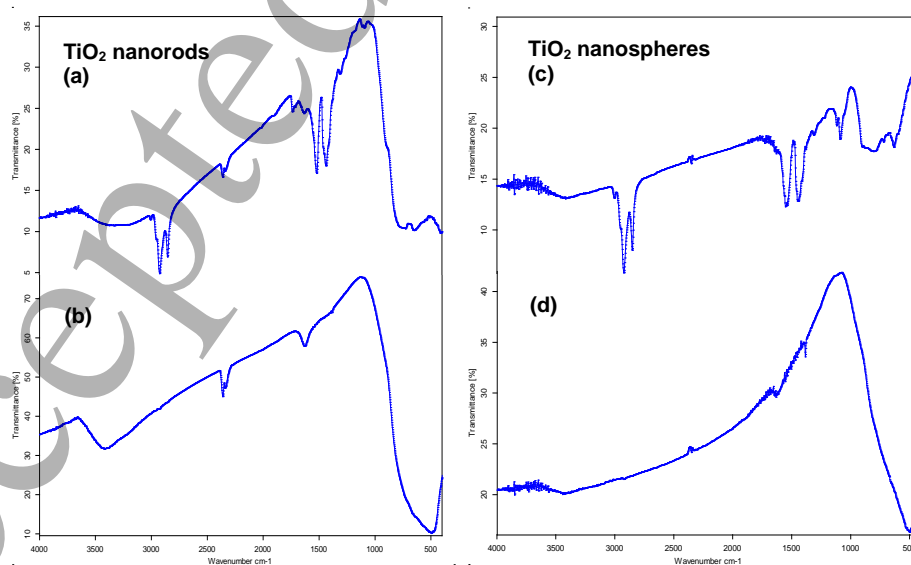


Figure 4. FT-IR spectra in KBr pellets of nanorods (sx) and nanospheres (dx) before (a, c) and after (b, d) calcination at $450\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$.

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3 The two intense and characteristic bands of the asymmetric and symmetric stretching centered
4 at 1520 and 1436 cm^{-1} indicated that the binding to the surface of TiO_2 was principally chelating
5 bidentate (see scheme reported in Figure 1). In the case of TiO_2 nanorods spectrum (a), a band at
6 ca. 1720 cm^{-1} indicated the presence of oleic acid monomers, which was not detectable in the
7 case of TiO_2 nanospheres. Below 1000 cm^{-1} the Ti-O-Ti stretching bands were detectable as very
8 broad bands. After the calcination process the region 400-1000 cm^{-1} gave a more defined peak,
9 indicating a more ordered Ti-O-Ti framework. Moreover, after the calcination, only peaks due to
10 coordinated surface water or superficial OH were detectable (at 3400 and 1640 cm^{-1}), while all
11 the organic component peaks disappear, confirming the efficacy of the thermal treatment.
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26 **3.3 TiO_2 thin films characterization.** The homogeneity as well as the wettability of the thin
27 films prepared with sol gel suspensions of TiO_2 nanorods and nanospheres have been
28 investigated through water contact angle measurements. Measurements were repeated randomly
29 depositing the water droplets in three different regions of the TiO_2 films resulting in contact
30 angle values ($25^\circ \pm 1$ for nanospheres and $29^\circ \pm 1$ for nanorods) lower than for the reference
31 glass substrate ($46^\circ \pm 1$) (Figure 5), in line with the fact that contact angle usually decreases by
32 increasing the roughness of the support. This means a high wettability and hydrophilicity of the
33 treated supports.
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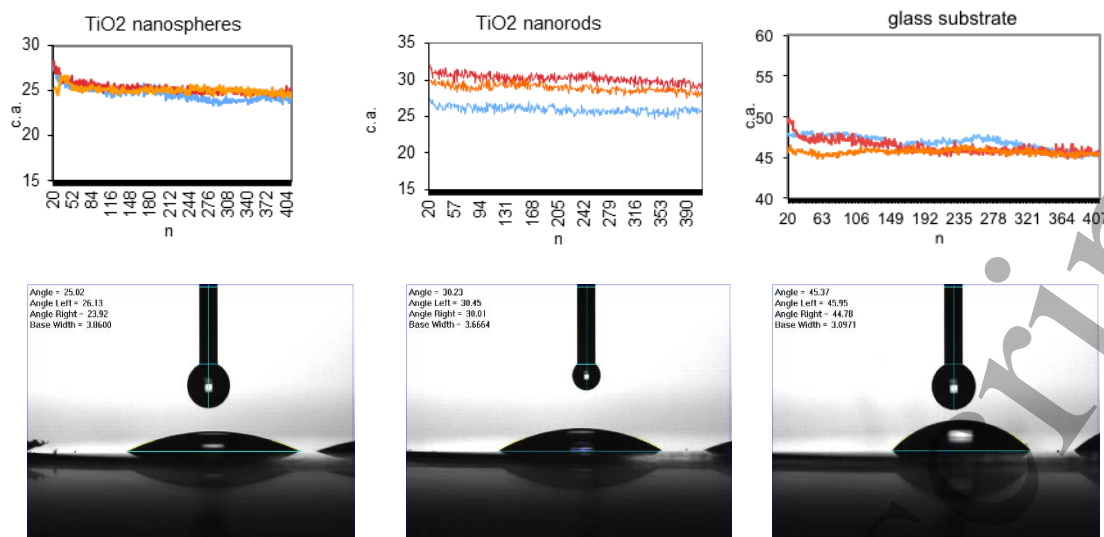


Figure 5. Water contact angle measurements on nanosphere and nanorod thin layers, and glass (from left to right respectively).

A SEM analysis was also performed on the nanorod sample. To this purpose, a silicon wafer was treated by drop casting with the same suspension used for the functionalization of glass substrates, revealing a dense covering of the nanorods (Figure 6 left). Moreover, the observation of the drop casted sample by zooming out the image (Figure 6 right) revealed the presence of a corrugated pattern formed during the withdrawal of the solvent.

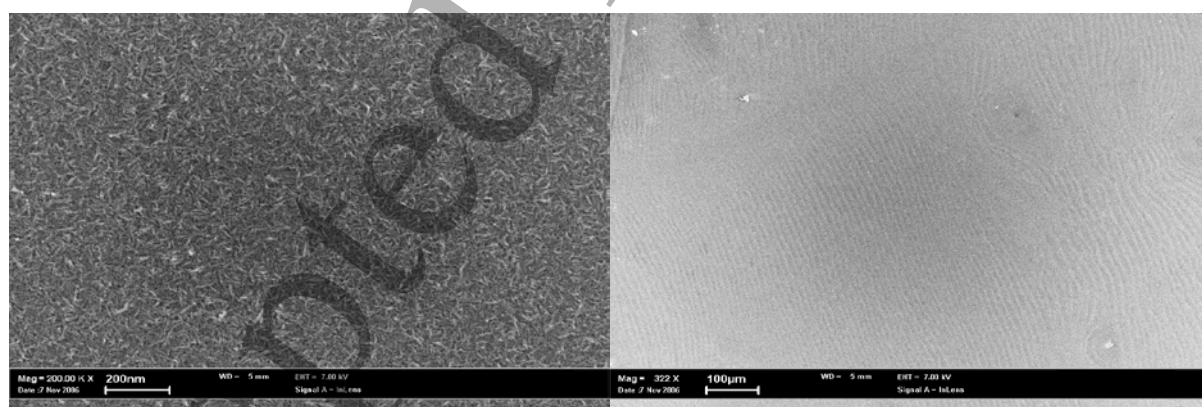


Figure 6. SEM images at two different magnifications of TiO₂ nanorods deposited by drop-casting on a Si wafer.

3.4 MDCK cells adhesion study on different TiO₂ based thin films. Study on the adhesion and proliferation of MDCK cells has been conducted comparing nanostructured titania thin films

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3 prepared by sol-gel method with plastic of multiwell plates (TCPS, tissue culture plastic
4 substrate, positive control), coverslip glass (negative control) and cluster assembled titania films.
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7 After 10000 cells per well were seeded, the cell shape and color were monitored over time as
8 a function of several kinds of substrates. The shape of cells passed from spherical (when not still
9 attached to the substrate) to elongated, with prolongations in evidence. At the same time the
10 color varied from pearly and bright to grey.
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16 Figure 7 reports digital photographs of the cells over time incubated on different substrates,
17 qualitatively showing the cells response to the different substrates at the following time points 1,
18 6 and 24 h by means the analysis of the cells morphology.
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24 At 6 h the images showed that cell adhesion on the different TiO_2 nanostructured substrates
25 were lower than that observed on TCPS and greater than the glass substrate. The cell shapes
26 show a polygonal-like morphology typical of the phenotype of adhered MDCK cells. At 24 h the
27 cells incubated on TCPS, sol-gel nanorods TiO_2 and ns- TiO_x show either good proliferation and
28 clustering, while on sol-gel nanospheres TiO_2 the cells to have a significant slower proliferation.
29 Moreover, the appearance of the cell clusters formed on the TiO_2 substrates was very similar to
30 that observed on TCPS, differently from what observed on the glass substrate, where are formed
31 by a very low number of cells.
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42 Some proliferation experiments were prolonged until 96 h (data not shown). In that case, we
43 observed that while cells on TCPS had already reached the confluence and had started to die, on
44 nanostructured TiO_2 films the cells had just reached confluence, showing a delay of the cell
45 growth on these nanostructured materials. The growth of MDCK cells on glass support was
46 undoubtedly slower than that on TiO_2 films. Optical images at 24 h indicate that the cells
47 adhered on sol-gel nanorods are more elongated with respect to TCPS and the other
48 nanostructured thin films. This behaviour could be ascribed to the occurrence of a guidance
49 stimulus for the cell growth compliant with the asymmetric shape of the nanorods. This is a well-
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known effect for cells grown on aligned multiple nanogrooves or nanogratings [51,52], but not yet observed in randomly distributed elongated nanostructures.

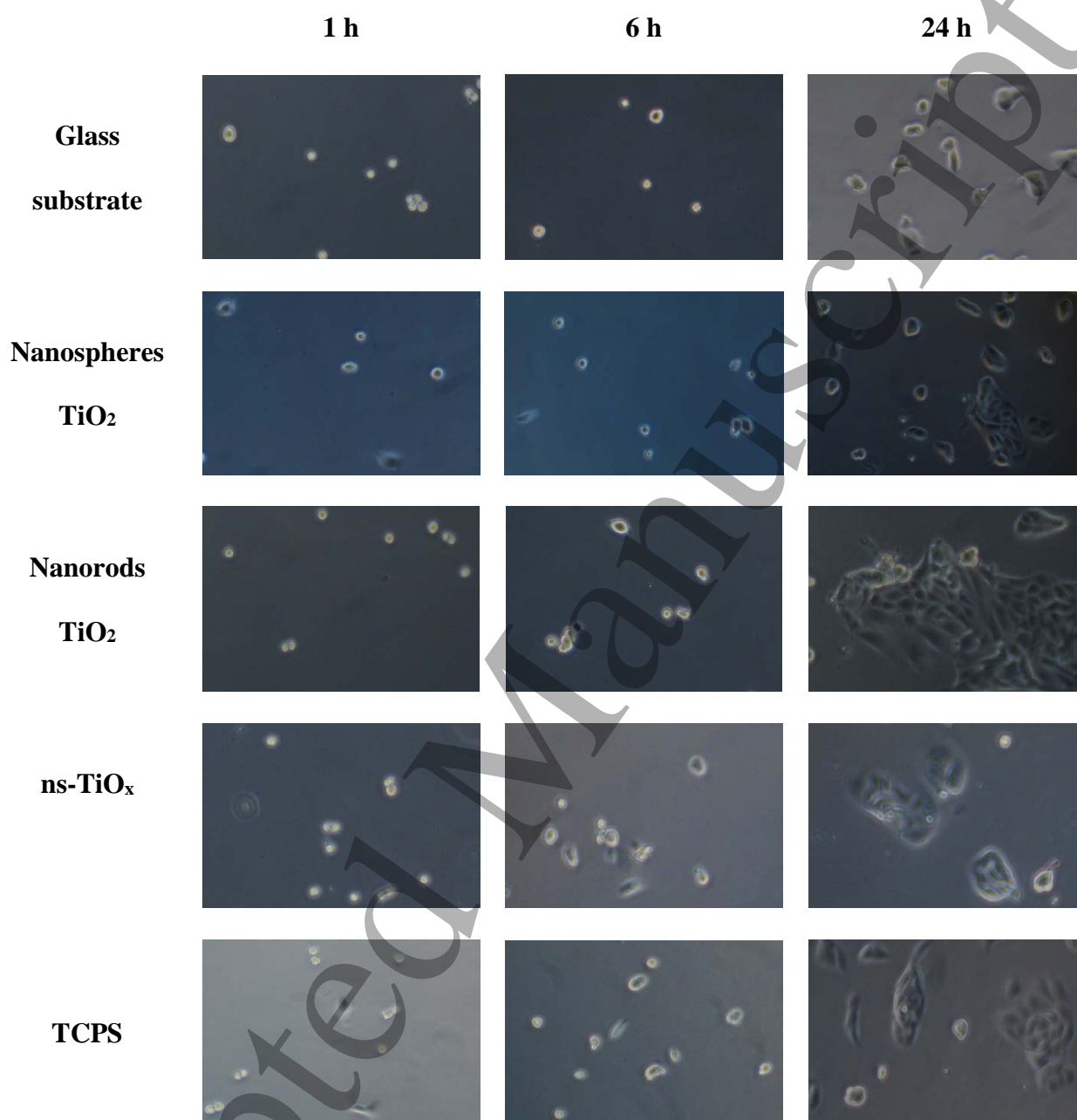


Figure 7. Digital photographs at different times of MDCK cells incubation on different substrates.

The quantitative evaluation of the adhesion of MDCK cells on the different kinds of substrates over time (1-4 h) was performed using the digital photographs of the cells. The images were analyzed counting all the elongated cells as attached cells and discarding all the spherical cells, considering them as not attached cells yet. Results have been reported in Figure 8. The

nanostructured TiO₂-based substrates show a good percentage of cellular adhesion, although retarded with respect to TCPS. Indeed, if we compare the number of adherent cells at fourth hour on the different substrate it can be concluded that the adhesion on plastic substrate was roughly double with respect to the TiO₂-based substrates, which in turn revealed a cellular adhesion more than doubled with respect to the one observed on the glass coverslip.

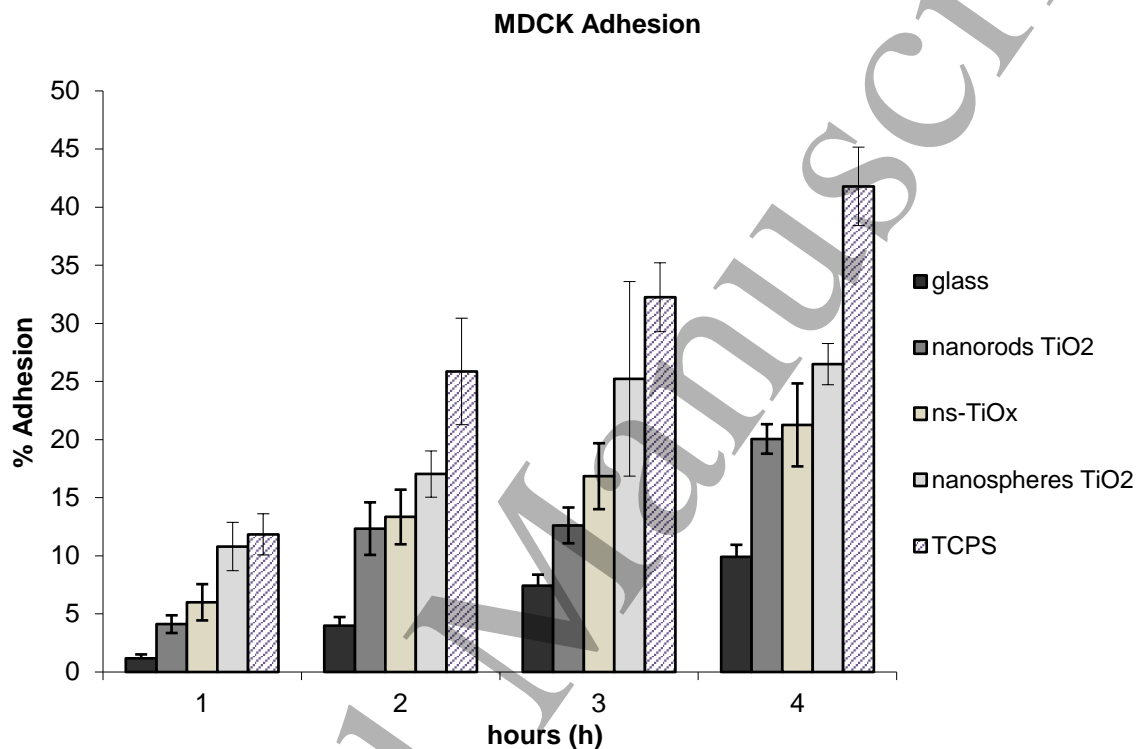


Figure 8. MDCK cell proliferation test results.

4. Conclusions

With this work we demonstrated that complementary analytical techniques (DLS, NMR, TEM, PXRD) can be combined for providing reliable information on the morphology and dimensions of two different set of apolar TiO₂ nanoparticles, prepared by a sol gel method. Diffusion NMR experiments represent a good tool to estimate the dimensions of suspended (sol dispersions) spherical nano objects as well as rod shaped nanoparticles, provided the starting knowledge on the shape of the nano-object from other solid techniques analyses (as for example microscopy or PXRD analyses). The second goal of the work was the evaluation of the

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3 employment of this kind of material to produce thin nanostructured films, as new substrates for
4 cell culture. The sol-gel TiO₂ nanoparticles thin films were compared to a ns-TiO_x thin film
5 produced by PMCS technology. The results of proliferation and cell adhesion tests are very
6 promising. In particular, the sol-gel nanorods TiO₂ films promote a good cell adhesion and
7 appear to affect the cell morphology of the MDCK, which usually prefer to maintain a
8 polygonal-like shape with respect to elongated one for the formation of the epithelial tissue.
9 Moreover, the adhesion and clustering amount is comparable to that of ns-TiO_x, whose
10 effectiveness as cell culture substrates has been widely assessed [26].
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21 Quantitatively the cell adhesion is lower with respect to the TCPS but almost the double with
22 respect the glass. However, the confluence for titania-based substrates is reached at about 96 h.
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26 Our results demonstrate that the use of sol-gel nanostructured TiO₂ films allows a good
27 control on the morphological and structural properties at the nanoscale of titania film and favor
28 the cell adhesion and clustering organization. The production of nanostructured substrates via
29 sol-gel has the advantages of being easily scalable and adopted for a wide range of support
30 materials.
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40 5. References and Notes

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