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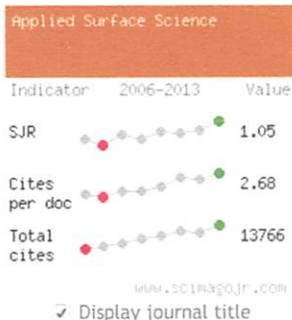
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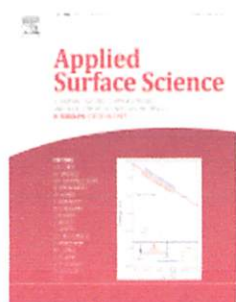
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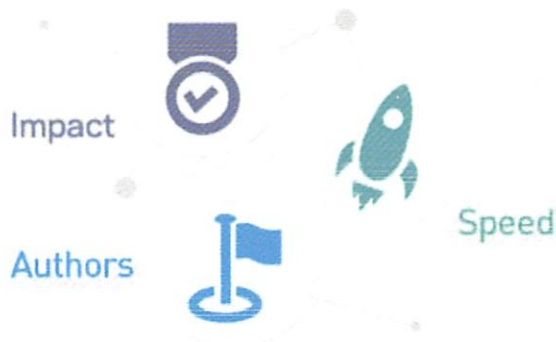
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## Hydroxyapatite electrodeposition on anodized titanium nanotubes for orthopedic applications



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### ABSTRACT

Nanotubes modification for orthopedic implants has shown interesting biological performances (such as improving cell adhesion, cell differentiation, and enhancing osseointegration). The purpose of this study is to investigate effect of titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>) nanotube feature on performance of hydroxyapatite-coated titanium (Ti) bone implants. TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes were prepared by anodization using ammonium fluoride electrolyte (NH<sub>4</sub>F) with and without modifiers (PEG400 and Glycerol) at various potential forms, and times. After anodization, the nanotubes were subsequently annealed. TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes were characterized by scanning electron microscope and X-ray diffractometer. The amorphous to anatase transformation due to annealing was observed. Smooth and highly organized TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes were found when high viscous electrolyte, NH<sub>4</sub>F in glycerol, was used. Negative voltage (−4 V) during anodization was confirmed to increase nanotube thickness. Length of the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes was significantly increased by times. The TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube was electrodeposited with hydroxyapatite (HA) and its adhesion was estimated by adhesive tape test. The result showed that nanotubes with the tube length of 560 nm showed excellent adhesion. The coated HA were tested for biological test by live/dead cell staining. HA coated on TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes showed higher cells density, higher live cells, and more spreading of MC3T3-E1 cells than that growing on titanium plate surface.

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### 1. Introduction

Biomaterials are artificial or natural materials used to replace the lost or infected biological structure. Commonly-used biomaterials for orthopedic implants are 316L stainless steels, cobalt–chromium alloys, and titanium and its alloys. Among these materials, titanium is preferred for orthopedic implants because it possesses closer elastic modulus to that of bone than other [1,2]. However, using titanium as bone implant often fails after long-term use due to an incomplete osseointegration (incomplete bonding between the implant and surrounding bone) [3,4]. Surface treatments such as roughening by sand blasting, formation of anatase phase TiO<sub>2</sub> [5], hydroxyapatite coating, or chemical treatment [6–10] have been used to improve bioactivity of titanium and to enhance bone growth. Webster et al. reported that nano-grained

ceramics (with surface structures less than 100 nm) can improve bioactivity of titanium implants and enhance osteoblast adhesion [11,12]. In this aspect, nanoscaled modification is an alternative to improve osseointegration of titanium-based orthopedic implants [13,14]. Therefore, nanotubular TiO<sub>2</sub> arrays are highly interested in this study because of its nanoscale and high surface area.

Titanium oxide nanotubes can be prepared by various techniques, such as sol–gel method [15], electrophoretic deposition [16] and anodization [17]. Among these methods, fabrication of vertically aligned TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes on titanium substrate could be easily obtained by anodization [17]. Various researchers prepared the nanotubular structures by electrochemical anodization in hydrofluoric acid containing electrolytes [18,19]. However, to be non-toxic and environment friendly, neutral fluoride solution (NH<sub>4</sub>F) was used as the electrolyte in this work. Metal oxide formation and nanotube self-assembly are formed by carefully balancing between the electrochemical processes (field-assisted oxide growth and metal etching) and chemical dissolution of the substrate (the presence of an acidic or complex-forming electrolyte)

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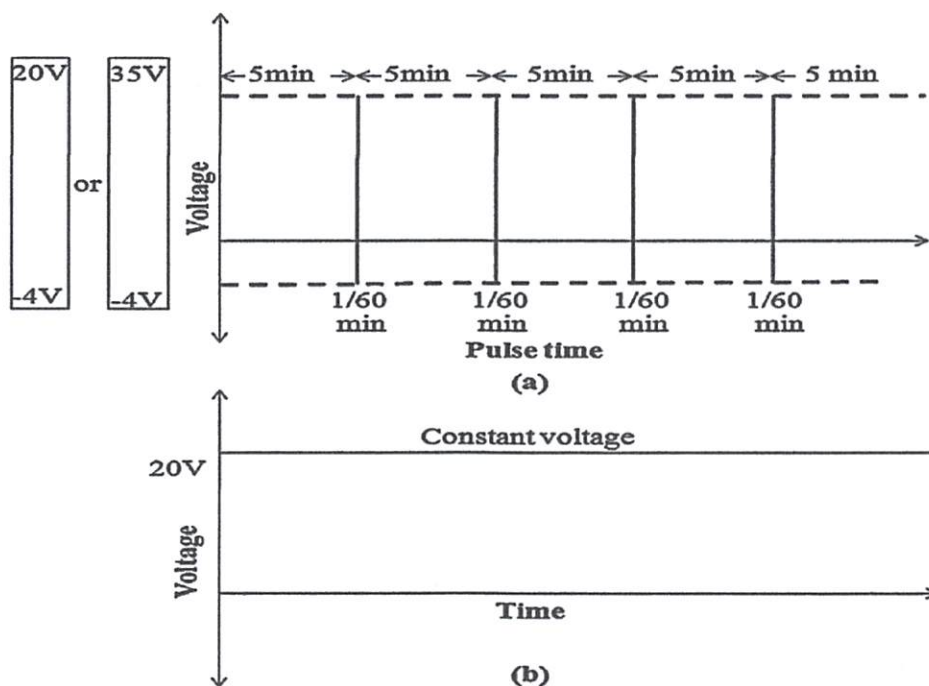


Fig. 1. Potential pulse waveform (a) and constant potential (b) used for anodic growth of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays.

[20,21]. To obtain this balance, pulse anodization was used to control chemical dissolution [22]. In the other works, micrometer-long TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes with uniform or smooth tube walls were formed when high viscous electrolytes containing fluoride ions were used [23,24]. Therefore, to achieve uniform and well oriented TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube array, pulse anodization and viscous electrolyte were used in this study.

Another approach to enhance osseointegration of Ti implants is coating titanium with nanostructured hydroxyapatite (HA) (main mineral in bones with the molar Ca/P ratio of 1.67 in stoichiometric hydroxyl apatite (Ca<sub>10</sub>(PO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>6</sub>(OH)<sub>2</sub>) [25]). The HA-coated titanium was shown to have excellent corrosion resistance and good biocompatibility [2]. With electrodeposition, HA with complex shapes can be obtained and thickness of coating can be easily controlled at low temperature. In this work, to search for the optimum conditions for fluoride anodization, the growing of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube layers in different viscous electrolytes, various times and pulse anodization were studied. Nanostructured HA coatings were electrodeposited on TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays after anodization and surface alkali treatment, respectively. After that, adhesion of HA electrodepositions coating on the nanotube from each anodization conditions were measured by ASTM D 3359-02: Standard Test Methods for Measuring Adhesion by Tape; cross-cut tape test (B). Finally osteoblast cells behavior on HA coated anodized titanium surface (ATi) was investigated.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Preparation of titanium

Titanium plate with 1.0 mm. thickness (Alfa Aesar, 99.2 wt.%) was used as a substrate to grow oxide nanotube arrays. The surface was polished to mirror quality using silicon carbide paper (TOA, Thailand) of successively finer roughness (400, 600, 800, 1000, 1500 and 2000 grits), and following by polishing with 0.05- $\mu$ m alumina powder (Allied, USA). After polishing, the titanium plate was washed with deionized (DI) water and was sonicated for 5 min in acetone and another 5 min in ethanol.

### 2.2. Anodization to form TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays

The titanium nanotube layers were prepared by electrochemical method. Platinum wire and the titanium plate were used as negative and positive electrodes, respectively. All films were grown at approximately 25 °C in 0.36 M ammonium fluoride (NH<sub>4</sub>F) electrolytes (viscosity of 0.764 cP) with and without modifiers: 10% (NH<sub>4</sub>F in H<sub>2</sub>O):90% Glycerol, (viscosity of 300 cP) or polyethylene glycol 400 (viscosity of 133.71 cP). The viscosity of electrolyte was measured by cylinder rotation viscosity technique (Viscometer DV II+ (Brookfield, USA). Anodization was conducted with two different potential forms: pulse (20/-4V) and constant (20 V) voltage, as shown in Fig. 1. Anodization time was varied as 0.5, 1.5 and 2.5 h. After anodization, samples were carefully cleaned with DI water and then were dried by nitrogen gas. The grown porous layers were annealed at 450 °C for 30 min to obtain anatase phase.

### 2.3. Electrodeposition of hydroxyapatite

It was reported that HA coating on ATi, anodized titanium, from electrodeposition without any surface treatment was not homogenous [26]. To obtain homogenous HA, the ATi samples were treated by 1 M NaOH solution at 50 °C for 2 min prior to electrodeposition. After the pre-treatment, the HA deposition was conducted. The electrolyte was prepared by dissolving 1.67 mM phosphate containing salt in the form of NH<sub>4</sub>H<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> (Sigma, Thailand) and 2.5 mM calcium containing salt in the form of Ca(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> (Sigma, Thailand) in distilled water. To increase ionic conductivity, 0.15 M NaCl was dissolved in the electrolyte and the pH of electrolyte was buffered at 7.2 by tris(hydroxyl aminomethane), and hydrochloric acid [26]. The pre-treated ATi and platinum were used as a cathode and an anode, respectively. The electrodeposition of HA was carried out at a constant potential, -2.5 V, at 80 °C for 10 min.

### 2.4. Morphological and structural characterization

The surface morphology of ATi was investigated by a scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM, CamScanMX2600) with a nominal

electron beam voltage of 10 kV. The tube diameter, tube length and tube wall thickness were measured by image analysis software (Image J, Montgomery). The crystal structures of ATi before and after annealing were examined by X-ray diffractometer (Bruker D8 Advance) in the range of  $2\theta = 5\text{--}80^\circ$ .

### 2.5. Adhesive tape test

The adhesion of the HA coating to the substrate was measured using ASTM D 3359-02 cross-cut tape-test (B) [27]. Grid of  $6 \times 6$  parallel cuts with 1 mm gaps between them was made through the coating down to the substrate. The 3 M Brand Scotch tape was firmly placed in the area of the grid and it was pulled abruptly off at an angle as close to  $180^\circ$  as possible after 90 s. Damage of the coating was evaluated visually by SEM-EDS (FE-SEM, Nova NanoSEM 450, US). The damage area of the samples (expressed in percent) was classified into these scales: 5 = 0%; 4 = less than 5%; 3 = 5–15%; 2 = 15–35%; 1 = 35–65%; 0 = over 65%.

### 2.6. Calcein AM/Ethidium homodimer-1 staining for live/dead assay

Human osteoblasts (MC3T3-E1, passage number = 4) were used to test for observation of live (green) and dead cells (red). Cells were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) (In-Vitrogen Corporation) supplemented with 10 vol.% of fetal calf serum (Dominique Dutcher), and 1 vol.% of penicillin/streptomycin (In-Vitrogen Corporation) at  $37^\circ\text{C}$  in 5%  $\text{CO}_2$  in humidified atmosphere. The media were replaced every 3 days. The 80% of confluent cells were subcultured through trypsinization (0.25% trypsin/0.53 M EDTA; In-Vitrogen Corporation). Cells were seeded and cultured on plastic polystyrene (control); titanium plate and HA-coated on ATi at the cell density of  $5 \times 10^4$  cells/cm<sup>2</sup>. Cells were stained using the Live/Dead<sup>®</sup> Viability/Cytotoxicity Kit (L-3224, In-Vitrogen Corporation) in a ratio of 2  $\mu\text{M}$  of calcein AM and 4  $\mu\text{M}$  of Ethidium homodimer-1. The fluorescence images from these dyes was observed separately with different filters and investigated by Image J by using upright fluorescence microscope (Olympus AX70, USA).

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Anodized titanium characterization

The XRD pattern (Fig. 2) showed that annealing at  $450^\circ\text{C}$  for 30 min causes transformation of anodized  $\text{TiO}_2$  to anatase, body-centered-tetragonal  $\text{TiO}_2$ . This result is in an agreement with the study by Fang et al. [28,29].

The FE-SEM images (Fig. 3) indicated various morphologies of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  prepared by different conditions. Fig. 3a and b shows the irregular array of the nanotubes, which formed in two different electrolytes:  $\text{NH}_4\text{F}$  in 100%  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and 10% ( $\text{NH}_4\text{F}$  in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ):90% PEG 400. In contrast, the arrays of  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanotubes on the titanium substrate, anodized in high viscous electrolyte (10% ( $\text{NH}_4\text{F}$  in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ):90% glycerol) was highly ordered (Fig. 3c). As suggested by Macak et al. [24], high viscous fluid like glycerol suppresses local concentration fluctuations and pH bursts during anodization, which leads to smooth  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanotubes. The same phenomenon was also reported by Chanmanee et al. [22] and Marcak and Scimuki [30].

The  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanotubes formation mechanism in  $\text{F}^-$  containing electrolyte is composed of the chemical etching and the enhanced electrical field induced etching of  $\text{TiO}_2$  as shown by these reactions:

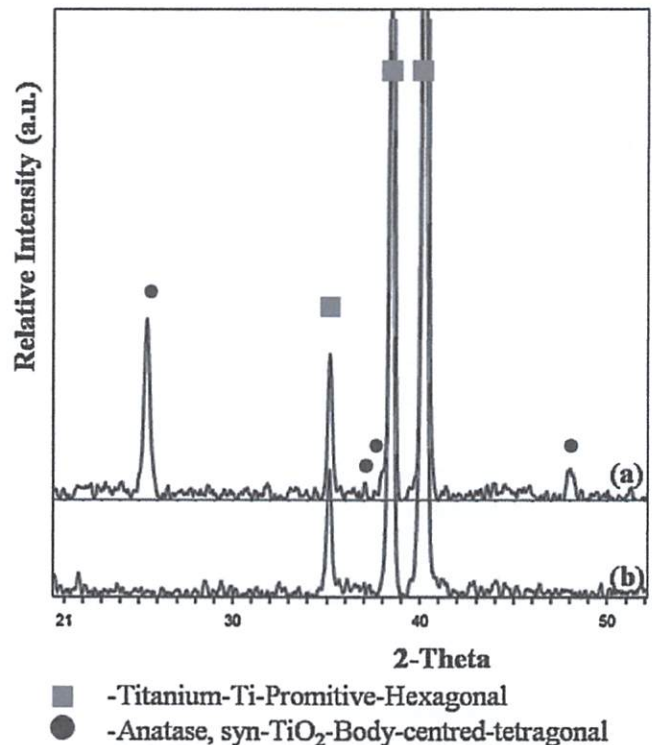
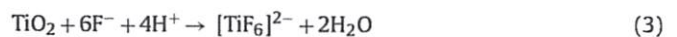


Fig. 2. XRD patterns of titanium oxide obtained by anodization with (a) and without (b) annealing.



Reaction (1) describes the oxide growth on Ti surface. The fluoride ions in the electrolyte have two roles. First, it reacts with  $\text{Ti}^{4+}$  ions, which are dissolved at the oxide–electrolyte interface, to form soluble  $[\text{TiF}_6]^{2-}$  complex (reaction (2)). The other role is to chemically dissolve  $\text{TiO}_2$  and then form  $[\text{TiF}_6]^{2-}$  complex [reaction (3)] [30–32]. As a result of these processes, extensive pores on  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanotube, caused by  $\text{F}^-$  etching, become assembled and become disconnected while reaction (1) still proceeds [33]. This is the self-assembly of  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanotube. These reactions, thus, must be carefully balanced in order to form highly-ordered nanotube arrays. It is also found that the highly-ordered  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanotube was obtained when pulse anodization was applied (Fig. 4). Importantly, the film morphology is considerably improved when pulse anodization is combined with 90% glycerol as the growth medium. Reactions (1) and (3) occur during positive potential range whereas negative voltage electrostatically induces the binding of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  species with  $\text{TiO}_2$ , as shown in reaction (4), to form adsorbing  $\text{TiO}_2(\text{NH}_4^+)$ . The role of  $\text{TiO}_2(\text{NH}_4^+)$  is to protect the nanotube walls against chemical etching by fluoride ions even in a short times of negative potential (1 s) [34–36].



Effect of anodization time on tube wall thickness, diameter and length of nanotubes were shown in Figs. 5 and 6. The figures suggested that an increase of time significantly increases tube length and decreases wall thickness. The tube lengths of anodized  $\text{TiO}_2$  formed for 0.5, 1.5, 2.5 h are approximately 280, 560 and 920 nm, respectively. The wall thicknesses are 12 and 10 nm for anodization time of 1.5 and 2.5 h, respectively. It should be noted that the wall thickness for the nanotube formed at anodization time of 0.5 h is not mentioned here because the shape of nanotube is irregular. The cause of irregularity of  $\text{TiO}_2$  layers is because the anodization time is too short. Growth rate at the beginning is much higher than

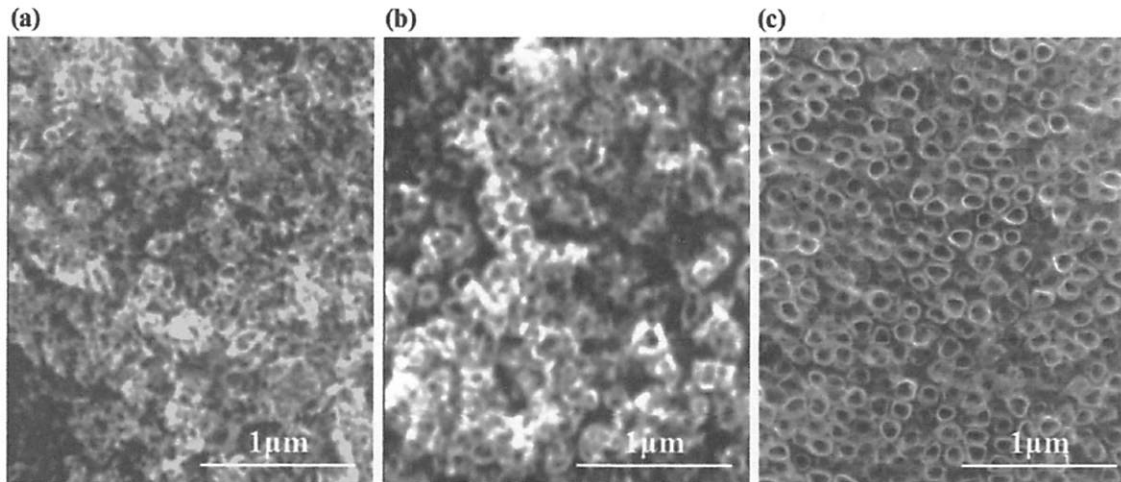


Fig. 3. SEM images of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube formed on titanium plates in 0.36 M NH<sub>4</sub>F by anodization under different conditions (20V for 3 h); (a) NH<sub>4</sub>F in 100% H<sub>2</sub>O; (b) 10% (NH<sub>4</sub>F in H<sub>2</sub>O):90% PEG 400; and (c) 10% (NH<sub>4</sub>F in H<sub>2</sub>O):90% Glycerol.

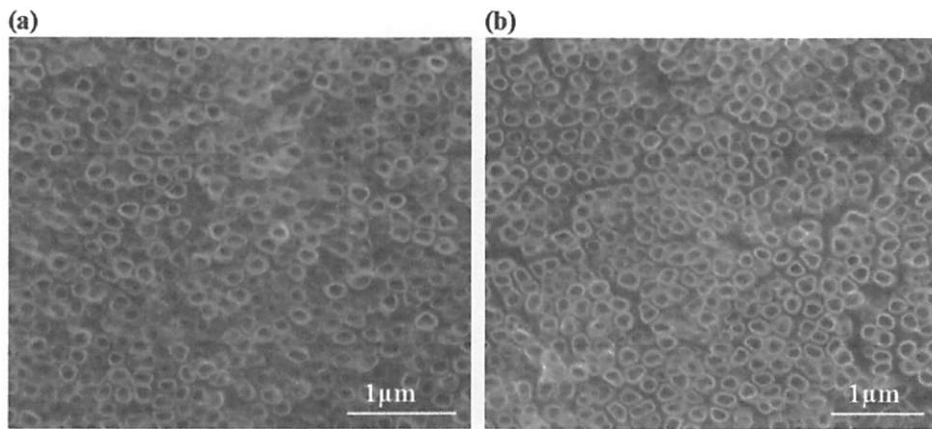


Fig. 4. SEM images of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays grown by (a) constant potential anodization (20V, 3 h) compared with samples grown by (b) pulse anodization at 20/-4 V.

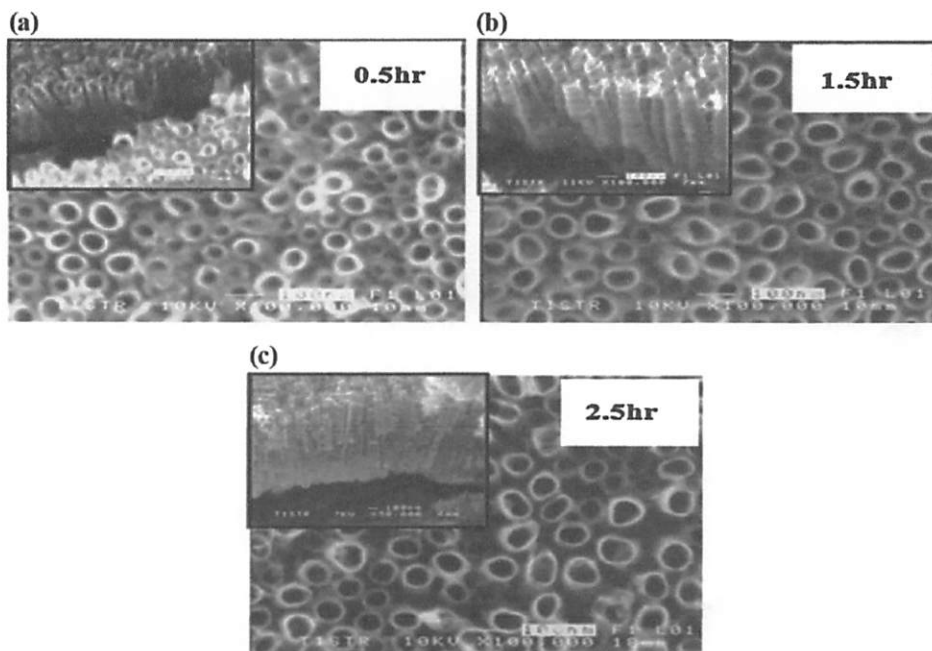


Fig. 5. SEM images of nanotube arrays anodized at various time: (a) 0.5, (b) 1.5 and (c) 2.5 h, which lengths are approximately 280, 560 and 920 nm, respectively. The inner images shows side views of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays. All scale bars are 100 nm.

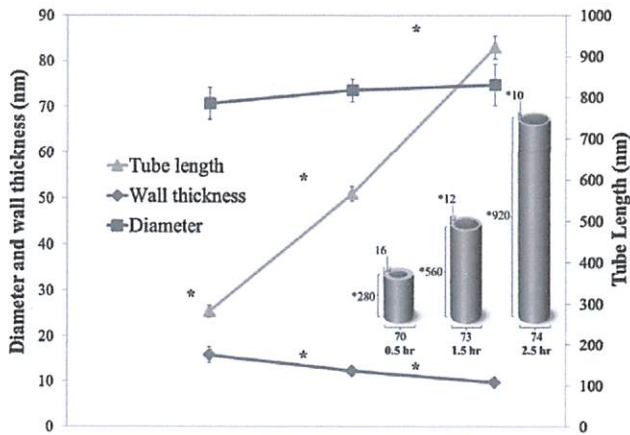


Fig. 6. Wall thickness, diameter and length of nanotubes formed with different anodization times analyzed by Image J. Statistics are calculated using ANOVA. A  $p$ -value was calculated using one way ANOVA;  $n = 3$ , \* $p < 0.05$  when compared with other anodization condition.

dissolution rate because activity of titanium to form oxide layer is still high compared with that of oxide to dissolve in the electrolyte. Consequently, the surface is locally activated and pores start to grow randomly [26]. When anodization time is longer, the individual pores start interfering with each other, and then orderly self-assembly of nanotubes begins to proceed. At this stage, the growth rate is equal to the dissolution rate. Therefore, when anodization time is 1.5 or 2.5 h, the  $\text{TiO}_2$  layers were highly order and the structure changes to nanotube form. The difference of nanotube shape may cause different mechanical interlocking between HA coating and nanotube arrays, which will be discussed further in adhesive tape test analysis for HA coated-ATi layers.

### 3.2. Electrodeposition of hydroxyapatite

EDS result confirmed that the nanostructure of sodium titanate ( $\text{Na}_2\text{Ti}_5\text{O}_{11}$  or  $\text{Na}_2\text{Ti}_6\text{O}_{13}$ ) was deposited on the top of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanotubes, as shown in Fig. 7. The effect of the NaOH pre-treatment on crystal size of electrodeposited HA was previously described by Seung-Han Oh et al. [37]. In that study, after the  $\text{TiO}_2$  layers made contact with the NaOH solution, sodium titanate was formed. The sodium titanate enhanced the formation of calcium phosphate during immersion in SBF. The crystal size of HA grown from the sodium titanate surface will be less than the size of that sodium titanate. This mechanism is called "bio-inspired nanostructure". The growth of finer-scale structure of HA from a nanostructured substrate ( $\text{TiO}_2$  nanotube arrays) is one way to fabricate nanostructured HA coating

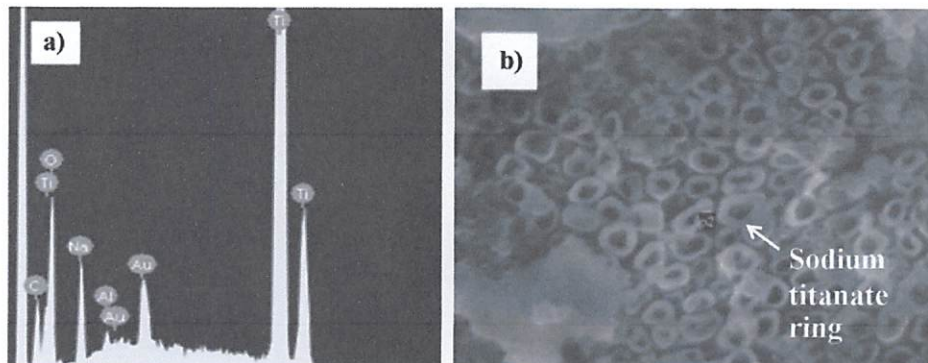


Fig. 7. EDS-SEM analysis of ATi after NaOH pre-treatment: (a) the peaks of elements (Na, Ti and O) and (b) SEM image with the arrows representing  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanotube and sodium titanate ring on the top of the nanotube.

Table 1

Classification of adhesion of the HA coatings to the different anodization times samples and titanium surface.

Substrates for HA coating	Analysis removed area	
	Removed area, %	Category
ATi: 0.5 h	17.75	2
ATi: 1.5 h	2.19	4
ATi: 2.5 h	12.35	3
Titanium plate	98.20	0

for orthopedic implants. However, in their study, sodium titanate was formed at a higher concentration of NaOH compared with this work. The crystal structures of calcium phosphate minerals after grown on both of pretreated-ATi and titanium plate were analyzed by XRD, as shown in Fig. 8. From the figure, HA ( $\text{Ca}_{10}(\text{PO}_4)_6(\text{OH})_2$ ) coating was found for both of P-ATi and titanium plate, but the higher HA peak were found for the P-ATi substrate.

Fig. 9 shows that HA coating on titanium plate was looser than the coating on ATi. The result was confirmed by tape test. The SEM image of HA coating after tape test was shown in Fig. 10. The image confirmed that adhesion of HA on ATi is better than that of HA on titanium plate. The result is in an agreement with other works, which suggest that using nanotube enhances adhesion between the substrate and the coating [38,39].

### 3.3. Adhesion of HA coatings on $\text{TiO}_2$ nanotube arrays formed from different times

For the tape test, only some of the HA upper layer is removed and most HA still remains on  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanotube layers due to adhesion of the coating on the tube. The area of remaining HA coated-ATi samples after tape test are shown in Fig. 10a–d (OM with SEM image as an inset). Classification results of adhesion of the coatings, evaluated by tape-test, are summarized in Table 1. The removal of the tape from the HA-coated-anodized samples was more difficult than from HA-coated titanium plate samples. Samples without anodization showed large damage area along the cuts after tape test and was classified as class 0. According to the damage area, samples anodized for 0.5, 1.5 and 2.0 h, were classified as class 2, 4 and 3, respectively. This result indicates that the anodization time of 1.5 h is more suitable than others to be used for preparing the ATi substrate for HA coating.

The better adhesion of HA on ATi than that of HA on titanium plate is probably caused by higher surface area and physical locking between HA coating and ATi. As suggested by Wang et al. [40]  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanotube surface promoted mechanical interlocking between HA and  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanotube.

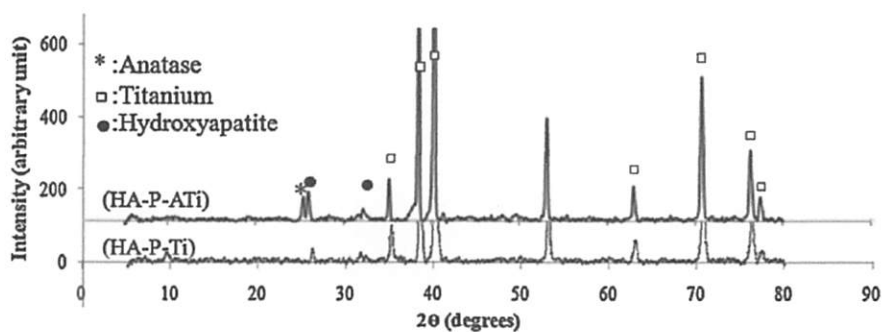


Fig. 8. X-ray diffraction spectra of the electrodeposited HA coatings on titanium plate (HA-P-Ti) and ATi with NaOH pre-treatment (HA-P-ATi).

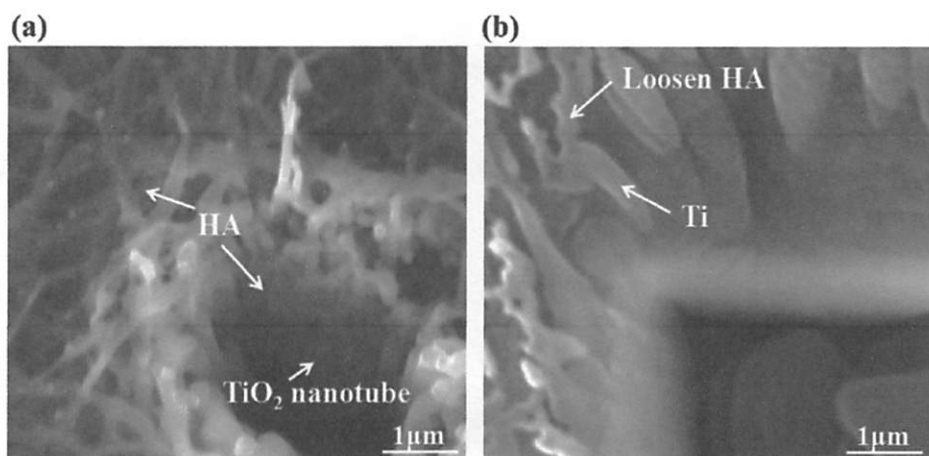


Fig. 9. SEM images of cross-section of HA coating on an anodized titanium (a) and titanium plate (b). Inner images shows surface of each coating.

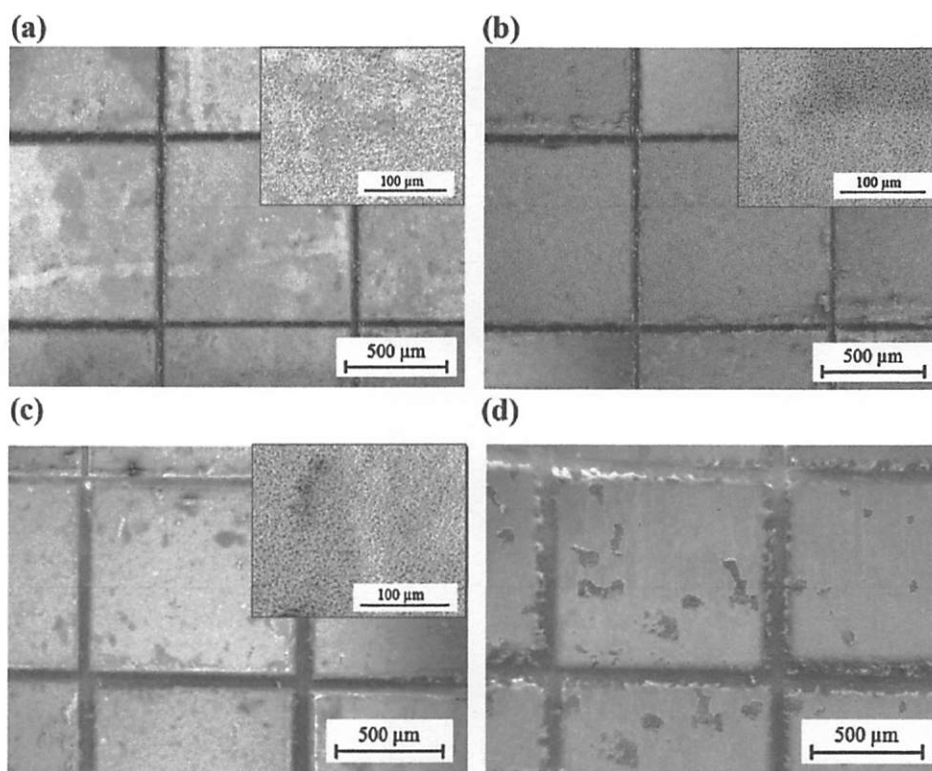


Fig. 10. SEM images shows surface of HA coated on titanium nanotube of different tube length after tape-test: (a) 280 (b) 560 and (c) 920 nm and (d) titanium plate.



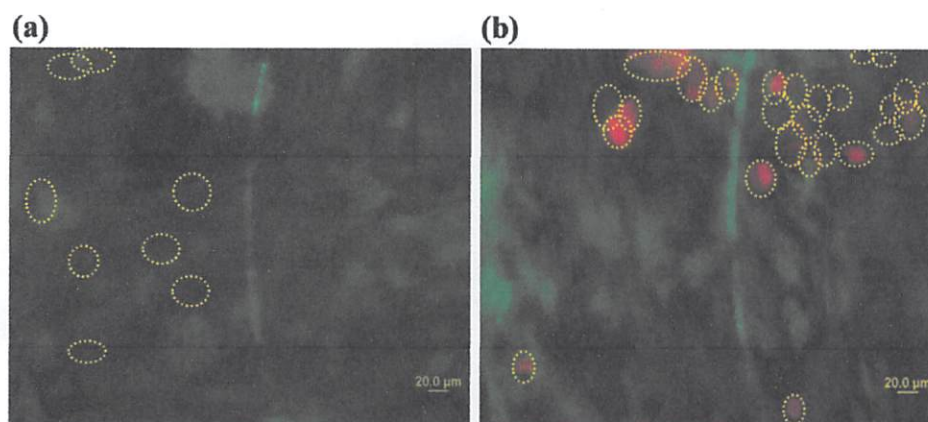


Fig. 11. Live/Dead staining of MC3T3-E1 osteoblasts on HA coated-ATi and HA coated-titanium plate. Dead cells shows in the circle and other cells are the live cells.

In the tape test, axial compressions were induced on TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube surface. The tube structure could be deformed during tape loading, which induced both collapse and wears of the nanotubes. According to Yokobson et al. [41], the collapse of nanotubes due to axial compression are undergoes various atomistic mechanisms. The explanation for higher damaged surface of HA on tubes with 2.5 h anodization time than that of 1.5 h is due to localized deformation and failure originated by higher nanoscale defects. According to the Euler equation:  $\sigma_{cr} = \pi^2 EI / (AL^2)$ , the critical stress ( $\sigma_{cr}$ ) that the column can bear is inversely proportional to the second order of the column height,  $L$ . The higher the height of the column, the lower is the critical stress that the column can bear. In this study, the height of the column formed for anodization time of 2.5 h is approximately 920 nm which is larger than that of tube anodized for 1.5 h (560 nm). Therefore, the more severe damage was expected for the nanotube anodized for 2.5 h. However, the Euler buckling equation is only valid for long and slender columns loaded axially in compression. For a short column under the axial load, the column will fail by direct compression before it buckles. This failure mechanism might be valid for the 280 nm-height nanotube which formed with anodization time of 0.5 h. In addition to the column height, the tube with larger inner diameter will promote higher adhesion because the HA can grow deeper in the tube pore. As reported previously, the lower the anodization time, the smaller is the tube inner diameter (Fig. 6). Considering both the height and the inner diameter effects, better physical locking between HA coating and the nanotube is expected for 1.5 h-anodized nanotube.

From the morphology and the adhesive tape test, it can be concluded that HA deposition on the nanotube anodized for 1.5 h with NaOH pretreatment is appropriate to be used as biomaterial for further studies.

### 3.4. Live/dead assay

The vitality of MC3T3-E1 is demonstrated at day 3 by calcein AM/ethidium homodimer-1 staining (Fig. 11a and b). From HA coating on ATi, most cells were alive. In contrast, many of the embedded cells on HA coated on titanium plate were dead, as depicted by red ethidium homodimer-1-stained cells. The osteoblast cell growth were enhanced by HA coated-ATi because HA is better adhered on TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes causing a higher number of bone cell growths (the alive cells (greenish cells) were analyzed using Image J) than those cells growth on titanium plate. This result is basically in an agreement with the trend of other works [12,42,43]. Webster et al. shows that overall enhancing bone formation on the implant surface is the relationship of osteoblast adhesion on HA-containing substrates. The preliminary results in the present study indicate that the

enhanced osteoblast adhesion and the enhanced nanoscale-HA formation occur simultaneously when using TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays as a substrate for HA formation and subsequent cell culture. Therefore, the HA coated-ATi that anodized for 1.5 h could be the best choice for a further use in orthopedic applications, because the results suggest that HA coated-ATi can provide a higher number of living cell residence when compared to HA coated on conventional titanium plate. Moreover, HA coated-ATi maintains the highest amount of HA coating on ATi substrates after adhesive tape test in the present study.

### 4. Conclusion

In summary, TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes arrays were successfully fabricated on titanium, which is widely used for orthopedic implants in fluorine-containing anodization. TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotubes were the most highly-ordered when using high viscous electrolyte in anodization with the application of pulse potential. This method is environment friendly, simple and repeatable. Length of the nanotubes could be significantly controlled from about 250 nm to 1 μm. Moreover, at tube length around 560 nm (anodized for 1.5 h) the highest adhesion of HA surface on the nanotube was achieved. TiO<sub>2</sub> nanotube arrays can improve both adhesion of HA on the modified implant and the surrounding bone tissues *in vivo*, which is essential for early bone formation. The Live/Dead cell staining study on anodized titanium, which fabricated from this study, also supports this hypothesis.

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