

**UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL RURAL DO RIO DE JANEIRO
INSTITUTO DE TECNOLOGIA
DEPARTAMENTO DE TECNOLOGIA DE ALIMENTOS
PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM CIÊNCIA E TECNOLOGIA DE
ALIMENTOS**

TESE

**TECNOLOGIAS A PARTIR DO OSSO BOVINO PARA A OBTENÇÃO DE
COLÁGENO TIPO I – ANÁLISE DOS PROCESSOS DE BENEFICIAMENTO,
DESMINERALIZAÇÃO, HIDRÓLISE ENZIMÁTICA E FORMAÇÃO DE GEL
PARA USO EM ALIMENTOS**

VANESSA RICAS BIANCARDI

2024



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VANESSA RICAS BIANCARDI

Sob a Orientação do Professor
José Lucena Barbosa Junior

e Co-orientação da Professora
Louise Emy Kurozawa

Tese submetida como requisito
parcial para obtenção do grau de
**Doutora em Ciência e Tecnologia de
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Dedico essa Tese as mulheres da minha vida:
A Serena, pois fizemos juntas;
A Emanuele e a Julia, meus exemplos de irmandade;
E a Eliane, minha forte mãe;
Alcansei essa grandeza a partir de vocês.

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RESUMO

BIANCARDI, Vanessa Ricas. Tecnologias a partir do osso bovino para a obtenção de colágeno tipo I – Análise dos processos de beneficiamento, desmineralização, hidrólise enzimática e formação de gel para uso em alimentos. 2024. Tese (Doutorado em Ciência e Tecnologia de Alimentos). Programa de Pós-graduação em Ciência e Tecnologia de Alimentos. Departamento de Tecnologia de Alimentos. Instituto de Tecnologia. Universidade Federal Rural do Rio de Janeiro. Seropédica, RJ, 2024.

As descobertas sobre as funcionalidades do colágeno foram sendo impulsionadas em paralelo ao crescente interesse pelos resíduos da produção agropecuária. Colágeno é a proteína predominante nos tecidos fibrosos dos animais, como no osso. Osso é composto predominantemente por fibras de colágeno tipo I sequenciadas em conjunto com cristais minerais. O colágeno tipo I é uma proteína biopolimérica e de estrutura fibrosa, apresentando uma hélice tripla característica que confere propriedades de automontagem e biocompatibilidade. O colágeno tipo I mantém as mesmas propriedades quando isolado a partir da fonte. A partir do osso bovino, não era factível a obtenção de colágeno tipo I devido à sua rigidez natural, até que recentes estudos apresentaram alternativas para contornar essa limitação e possibilitar o beneficiamento. A Tese teve como objetivo elucidar tecnologias a partir do resíduo ósseo através das metodologias necessárias para o reaproveitamento do osso bovino e viabilizar a obtenção do colágeno tipo I através da transformação do coproduto para uso em alimentos. Foram elaborados quatro estudos científicos apresentados nos capítulos I, II, III e IV. O capítulo I resume e avalia a literatura atual dos estudos que investigaram a obtenção de colágeno e gelatina a partir de resíduos ósseos, compila a literatura atual pelos estudos que usaram o colágeno ósseo como agente de ligação, assim como, pelos estudos que usaram colágeno e gelatina de resíduos agropecuários em alimentos. Há avanços na obtenção de colágeno e gelatina a partir do osso, assim como há expectativas tecnológicas e sustentáveis de aplicações promissoras em alimentos. As informações apresentadas visam novas estratégias de obtenção, avanços das pesquisas e aplicações de práticas sustentáveis. O capítulo II investigou as propriedades físico-químicas da matriz óssea da tíbia bovina após beneficiamento e desmineralização. A matriz óssea foi solubilizada em ácido acético seguido de ácido láctico. Foram analisados na matriz óssea: percentuais de osseína e hidroxiapatita pelo teor de nitrogênio e cinzas; teor de minerais; distribuição do tamanho das partículas; espectroscopia de infravermelhos por transformada de Fourier (FTIR); difração de raios X (DRX); e microscópio eletrônico de varredura (MEV). Nos extratos residuais, foram analisados o pH e o teor de minerais. A solubilização por ácidos afetou as propriedades físico-químicas da osseína-hidroxiapatita. A matriz óssea solubilizada por ácido acético e láctico mostrou a preservação da osseína juntamente com a perda de hidroxiapatita. Foi revelada a disponibilização do colágeno tipo I após os processos e uma alternativa viável como desmineralização do osso bovino. O capítulo III obteve colágeno gel a partir da tíbia bovina e aplicou-o na formação de hidrogéis automontados com goma xantana e transglutaminase. Colágeno gel foi obtido através do processamento, desmineralização e hidrólises utilizando proteases comerciais. Foram analisados em função dos processos: grau de hidrólise; rendimento; teor de proteína; e teor de hidroxiprolina. Foram analisados no colágeno gel: solubilidade; calorimetria diferencial de varrimento (DSC); análise gravimétrica térmica (TGA); FTIR; e microscopia de fluorescência. Foram elaborados com o colágeno gel selecionado os hidrogéis automontados com goma xantana e transglutaminase. Foram analisados nos hidrogéis: FTIR; e microscopia de fluorescência. Os resultados demonstraram a biocompatibilidade do colágeno gel com a goma xantana e a transglutaminase, evidenciando seu potencial como insumo para produtos proteicos. O capítulo IV obteve colágeno a partir da tíbia bovina e analisou a composição, as propriedades

estruturais e térmicas. Colágeno em gel foi obtido através do processamento, desmineralização e hidrólise utilizando protease comercial. Foram analisadas no colágeno: DSC; TGA; FTIR; DRX; MEV; e o espectrômetro de energia dispersiva (EDS). DSC e TGA mostraram estabilidade ao calor. FTIR mostraram os respectivos peptídeos de colágeno. XRD mostraram os picos de difração. MEV-EDS mostraram um resíduo mínimo de elementos minerais. Os resultados foram promissores, revelando o colágeno com propriedades desejáveis para produtos à base de proteínas. Por fim, ao promover o reaproveitamento do resíduo ósseo e validar tecnologias a partir da tíbia bovina, a presente Tese eleva a acessibilidade das metodologias envolvidas, contribuindo significativamente para a redução de resíduos agropecuários e promovendo a sustentabilidade. A pesquisa reforça a economia circular oferecendo soluções biotecnológicas que agregam valor aos resíduos.

Palavras-chave:

colágeno tipo I, osso bovino, resíduo ósseo, tecido ósseo, sustentabilidade, economia circular, inovação, indústria de alimentos.

ABSTRACT

BIANCARDI, Vanessa Ricas. Bovine bone technologies for obtaining type I collagen - Analysis of processing, demineralization, enzymatic hydrolysis and gel formation processes for use in food. 2024. Thesis (PhD in Food Science and Technology). Postgraduate Program in Food Science and Technology. Department of Food Technology. Institute of Technology. Federal Rural University of Rio de Janeiro. Seropédica, RJ, 2024.

The functionalities of collagen were driven by the growing interest in agro-industrial production waste. Collagen is the predominant protein in the fibrous tissues of animals, such as bones. Bone is primarily composed of type I collagen fibers sequenced together with mineral crystals. Type I collagen is a biopolymeric protein with a fibrous structure, featuring a characteristic triple helix that grants it self-assembly and biocompatibility properties. Type I collagen retains these properties when isolated from its source. Due to the natural rigidity of bovine bone, obtaining type I collagen was not feasible until recent studies introduced alternatives to overcome this limitation, enabling its processing. This thesis aimed to elucidate technologies derived from bone waste, presenting methodologies for bovine bone reutilization and enabling the extraction of type I collagen through coproduct transformation for use in food applications. Four scientific studies are presented in Chapters I, II, III, and IV. Chapter I summarizes and evaluates the current literature on collagen and gelatin extraction from bone waste, compiling research on the use of bone collagen as a binding agent and the application of collagen and gelatin from agro-industrial residues in food products. Advances have been made in collagen and gelatin extraction from bones, with promising technological and sustainable applications in the food industry. The information presented provides insights into novel extraction strategies, research advancements, and sustainable practices. Chapter II investigated the physicochemical properties of bovine tibia bone matrix following processing and demineralization. The bone matrix was solubilized using acetic acid followed by lactic acid. Analyses of the bone matrix included ossein and hydroxyapatite percentages (through nitrogen and ash content), mineral composition, particle size distribution, Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), X-ray diffraction (XRD), and scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Additionally, pH and mineral content were assessed in the residual extracts. Acid solubilization influenced the physicochemical properties of ossein-hydroxyapatite, with acetic and lactic acid treatments preserving ossein while depleting hydroxyapatite. The results confirmed type I collagen availability post-processing, demonstrating a viable alternative for bovine bone demineralization. Chapter III focused on obtaining collagen gel from bovine tibia and applying it in self-assembled hydrogels with xanthan gum and transglutaminase. Collagen gel was obtained through processing, demineralization, and hydrolysis using commercial proteases. Analyses included hydrolysis degree, yield, protein content, and hydroxyproline content. The collagen gel was further analyzed for solubility, differential scanning calorimetry (DSC), thermogravimetric analysis (TGA), FTIR, and fluorescence microscopy. Selected collagen gel was then used to develop self-assembled hydrogels with xanthan gum and transglutaminase, which were analyzed using FTIR and fluorescence microscopy. The results demonstrated the biocompatibility of collagen gel with xanthan gum and transglutaminase, highlighting its potential as an ingredient for protein-based products. Chapter IV obtained collagen from bovine tibia and analyzed its composition, structural properties, and thermal behavior. Collagen gel was obtained through processing, demineralization, and hydrolysis using a commercial protease. Analyses included DSC, TGA, FTIR, XRD, SEM, and energy-dispersive spectroscopy (EDS). DSC and TGA confirmed heat stability, FTIR identified collagen peptides, XRD revealed diffraction peaks, and SEM-EDS showed minimal residual mineral elements. The findings were promising, demonstrating that the collagen possessed desirable properties

for protein-based product applications. Ultimately, by promoting the reutilization of bone waste and validating technologies derived from bovine tibia, this thesis enhances the accessibility of the involved methodologies, significantly contributing to the reduction of agro-industrial waste and fostering sustainability. This research reinforces the circular economy by providing biotechnological solutions that add value to waste materials.

Key words:

type I collagen, bovine bone, bone waste, bone tissue, sustainability, circular economy, innovation, food industry.

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APRESENTAÇÃO

A presente Tese se apresenta como projeto originário de uma pesquisa de doutorado realizado no Programa de Pós-graduação em Ciência e Tecnologia de Alimentos da Universidade Federal Rural do Rio de Janeiro. O projeto foi idealizado em parceria com a empresa Proteínas MS LTDA. E também em parceria com o Programa de Pós-graduação em Engenharia de Alimentos da Universidade Estadual de Campinas. As colaborações resultaram na pesquisa documentada a seguir.

A Tese está estruturada em Introdução geral, Revisão bibliográfica, corpo principal nos Capítulos I, II, III e IV, Conclusões, Notas e Anexos. Sendo a Introdução geral uma exposição das principais temáticas da ciência abordada na pesquisa, junto as justificativas e objetivos. E a revisão bibliográfica uma indexação dos conceitos da ciência abordada na pesquisa.

O Capítulo I (intitulado ‘Reaproveitamento de resíduos ósseos na produção de colágeno e gelatina: avanços nos processos de obtenção e uso emergente em alimento’) apresenta um manuscrito a ser submetido a um periódico científico relevante na área de ciência de alimentos. O manuscrito se trata de uma revisão sistemática acerca das principais definições e processos envolvidos a ciência do colágeno ósseo.

O Capítulo II (intitulado ‘A physicochemical evaluation of ossein–hydroxyapatite within the bovine bone matrix revealed demineralization and making type I collagen available as a result of processing and solubilization by acids’) apresenta o manuscrito publicado no periódico *Jornal of Food Science* da Wiley Online Library (DOI: 10.1111/1750-3841.16954) e relevante para a área de ciência de alimentos. O manuscrito é um estudo científico acerca dos processos preliminares a obtenção do colágeno ósseo e investiga as propriedades físico-químicas do osso em função dos processos.

O Capítulo III (intitulado ‘Collagen gel from bovine tibia waste as protein-based product: evaluation of hydrolysis by proteases and self-assembled hydrogels with xanthan gum and transglutaminase’) apresenta um manuscrito a ser submetido a um periódico científico relevante a área de ciência de alimentos. O manuscrito é um estudo científico acerca dos detalhes da hidrólise enzimática do colágeno ósseo e investiga o potencial uso do hidrolisado como gel para alimentos.

O Capítulo IV (intitulado ‘Comprehensive physical analysis of composition, structural, and thermal properties of collagen from bovine tibia waste for protein-based product value-chain’) apresenta um manuscrito a ser submetido a um periódico científico relevante a área de ciência de alimentos. O manuscrito é um estudo científico acerca da hidrólise do colágeno ósseo e investiga as propriedades físicas estruturais do hidrolisado para alimentos.

Após os capítulos, as Conclusões expõem as evidências e as perspectivas da ciência abordada na pesquisa, as Notas referenciam os financiadores e contribuintes da pesquisa e os Anexos constam esquematizações das metodologias propostas.

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1. INTRODUÇÃO

Há uma demanda global crescente por fontes alimentares que atendam a critérios nutricionais e sustentáveis, o que tem estimulado o interesse da indústria de alimentos por insumos proteicos com propriedades bioativas e tecnológicas (ABECASSIS et al., 2018; RAVINDRAN; JAISWAL, 2016). Nesse contexto, o colágeno se apresenta como alternativa valiosa, com valor agregado para a indústria de alimentos, devido às suas funcionalidades reconhecidas e superior aplicabilidade (CAMPOS et al., 2023; HALAKE et al., 2016). O colágeno possui propriedades antioxidantes, anticancerígenas, anti-hipertensivas, redutoras de colesterol e antienvelhecimento (FU et al., 2019; GOMEZ-GUILLEN et al., 2011; TANG et al., 2022). Além do uso popularmente conhecido em suplementações e regeneração tecidual, observa-se uma expansão na utilização do colágeno no desenvolvimento de alimentos (ABECASSIS et al., 2018; TANG et al., 2022). Suas propriedades tecnológicas ampliam as aplicações para a indústria de alimentos e incluem atuação como agente gelificante, emulsificante, ligante, estabilizante, antioxidante e antimicrobiano (FU et al., 2019; GOMEZ-GUILLEN et al., 2011; TANG et al., 2022).

As descobertas sobre as funcionalidades do colágeno foram impulsionadas em paralelo ao crescente interesse pelos resíduos da produção agropecuária, ocasionando para a indústria de alimentos oportunidades de inovação e sustentabilidade (CAO et al., 2021; SAMATRA et al., 2022; THORSEN et al., 2024). Esses princípios se relacionam com o reaproveitamento do resíduo ósseo bovino, no qual vem sendo desenvolvidas pesquisas concebendo soluções que os atendam (SAMATRA et al., 2022; STRØM-ANDERSEN, 2020). De fato, existe o viés sustentável no reaproveitamento do osso bovino como resíduo, visto que apenas em 2023, foi gerada a exuberante quantidade de 8,95 milhões de toneladas de carcaças bovinas na produção agropecuária nacional (CEPEA, 2024; IBGE, 2024). Entretanto, é no viés tecnológico que o osso bovino inova, pois apresenta 90% de sua matriz proteica composta por colágeno tipo I (DUNNING, 2002), insumo relevante para a elaboração de biomateriais, tornando a exploração notável para aplicações funcionais (LIU et al., 2019; TANG et al., 2022). Essas abordagens ampliam as possibilidades de agregar valor de mercado ao colágeno tipo I oriundo de resíduos, além de direcionar a produção agropecuária para uma economia circular (MORA et al., 2019; RAVINDRAN; JAISWAL, 2016; SULTANA; ALI; AHAMAD, 2018).

A exploração funcional do resíduo ósseo bovino é realizada a partir dos processos de obtenção do colágeno tipo I no osso, no entanto, os métodos convencionais frequentemente se mostram ineficazes para tecidos rígidos, o que inviabiliza a valorização de seus coprodutos (HONG et al., 2019; SAMATRA et al., 2022). Considerando que o colágeno tipo I se caracteriza como a proteína de origem animal majoritária e confere automontagem e biocompatibilidade entre a matriz proteica e os constituintes nos tecidos rígidos, essas propriedades fazem do colágeno tipo I um coproduto biotecnológico (GOMEZ-GUILLEN et al., 2011; HALAKE et al., 2016; LIU et al., 2019). Assim, se faz presente a necessidade da exploração científica e tecnológica por novos métodos de obtenção do colágeno tipo I, visando tecnologias que preservem as propriedades inerentes da proteína (TANG et al., 2022; ZHANG et al., 2020). A possibilidade de obtenção do colágeno tipo I a partir do osso bovino com as mesmas propriedades também é idealizada (CAO et al., 2021; SAMATRA et al., 2022).

Apesar da demanda da indústria de alimentos por fontes viáveis de peptídeos de colágeno tipo I, e do fato de o osso bovino ser uma fonte sustentável para essa exploração, o número de pesquisas aprofundando esse tema ainda é reduzido. Não se considerava factível a obtenção de colágeno tipo I a partir do osso bovino devido à sua rigidez natural, até que recentes estudos apresentaram alternativas para contornar essa limitação e possibilitar o seu beneficiamento (CAO et al., 2021; SAMATRA et al., 2022). No entanto, ainda existem restrições quanto à viabilidade e ao rendimento nos processos subsequentes de obtenção. Pesquisas voltadas para elucidar tecnologias viáveis para a obtenção de colágeno tipo I a partir do osso bovino devem

emergir da atual fronteira do conhecimento. A presente tese apresenta contribuições para essa exploração, colaborando para a valorização dos coprodutos da produção agropecuária e para a economia circular no Brasil (CAMPOS et al., 2023; THORSEN et al., 2024). A Tese teve como objetivo elucidar tecnologias a partir do resíduo ósseo através das metodologias necessárias para o reaproveitamento do osso bovino e viabilizar a obtenção do colágeno tipo I através da transformação do coproduto para uso em alimentos. Uma alternativa interessante de coproduto biotecnológico é o colágeno gel, tendo os peptídeos do colágeno tipo I a habilidade de formar gel por automontagem e capacidade de fornecer biocompatibilidade em matrizes alimentares (LIU et al., 2019; TANG et al., 2022). O desenvolvimento do colágeno gel a partir do osso bovino reinventa possíveis coprodutos do colágeno tipo I e visa desenvolvimentos para uso em alimentos (FU et al., 2019; HONG et al., 2019). Portanto, a presente Tese se divide em quatro estudos científicos, propondo em específico: revisar a literatura atual sobre estudos que investigaram a obtenção de colágeno e gelatina a partir de resíduos ósseos e sobre estudos que usaram colágeno e gelatina provenientes de resíduos agropecuários em alimentos (capítulo 1); analisar os processos de beneficiamento e desmineralização preliminares a obtenção do colágeno tipo I e investigar as propriedades físico-químicas do osso (capítulo 2); analisar os processos de hidrólise enzimática do colágeno tipo I e investigar a formação do colágeno gel para uso em alimentos (capítulo 3); e obter colágeno tipo I e analisar suas propriedades estruturais por metodologias físicas (capítulo 4).

1.1. Considerações quanto ao manejo do resíduo ósseo no Brasil

O manejo de resíduo ósseo no Brasil é uma questão relevante dentro da gestão de resíduos sólidos e reflete a necessidade de práticas eficientes para minimização dos volumes gerados (BRASIL, 2010). Os resíduos ósseos são gerados predominantemente pela produção agropecuária e demandam estratégias adequadas para tratamento e reaproveitamento, em conformidade com as regulamentações ambientais estabelecidas (HART et al., 2022). A Política Nacional de Resíduos Sólidos, instituída pela Lei nº 12.305/2010, reforça a necessidade de uma abordagem integrada e sustentável, promovendo a redução, reutilização e reciclagem dos resíduos (BRASIL, 2010). Essa regulamentação não trata especificamente do resíduo ósseo, mas fornecem uma base inicial para o incentivo a um manejo adequado do material.

Na atualidade, o resíduo ósseo é geralmente encaminhado para graxarias e passam por processos de tratamento que visam maximizar o reaproveitamento para redução dos volumes gerados (MATTAR; JUNIOR; OLIVEIRA, 2014). A transformação desses resíduos em farinha de ossos é uma prática comum, direcionando-os para a produção de suplementos utilizados em rações animais e na agricultura. Entretanto, em regiões agropecuárias que carecem de infraestrutura adequada, os resíduos sólidos são frequentemente destinados a lixões ou aterros e descartados sem controle sanitário (MAIELLO; BRITTO; VALLE, 2018; MATTAR; JUNIOR; OLIVEIRA, 2014). Nesse sentido, a integração de práticas de economia circular tem ganhado destaque buscando explorar o resíduo ósseo quanto ao seu potencial biotecnológico, visando transformação em coprodutos, reduzindo assim a quantidade de resíduos sólidos destinados a aterros (THORSEN et al., 2024; HART et al., 2022).

Projetos e parcerias entre setores público e privado são incentivados para fomentar práticas sustentáveis e melhorar o manejo dos resíduos (MAIELLO; BRITTO; VALLE, 2018), como ao exemplo dos atuantes na presente Tese. A promoção de soluções biotecnológicas e inovadoras junto a implementação de pesquisas com abordagem sustentável são essenciais para assegurar a eficácia do manejo do resíduo ósseo gerado pela produção agropecuária (THORSEN et al., 2024; HART et al., 2022). Estas iniciativas podem promover a sustentabilidade em nível internacional e contribuir para a economia circular no Brasil (THORSEN et al., 2024).

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2. REVISÃO BIBLIOGRÁFICA

2.1. Osso, tecido ósseo e matriz óssea

O osso é um órgão rígido responsável pela formação do esqueleto dos vertebrados, possuindo uma estrutura hierárquica composta por tecido ósseo, matriz extracelular mineralizada e células especializadas. O osso é um complexo de interações intermoleculares, desempenhando funções cruciais, como suporte estrutural, proteção de órgãos vitais, facilitação do movimento, armazenamento de minerais e produção de células sanguíneas. Para isso, apresenta uma estrutura dinâmica, capaz de crescer, reparar e adaptar às demandas fisiológicas e mecânicas (TZAPHLIDOU, 2008). Nesse sentido, o tecido ósseo é o tecido biológico que formam os ossos e é constituído por células especializadas e pela matriz óssea. Entre as células ósseas, os osteoblastos são responsáveis pela produção da matriz óssea, sintetizando e secretando osteoide, um componente orgânico da matriz extracelular do osso que é essencial para a mineralização. Uma vez que os osteoblastos ficam presos na matriz que secretaram, eles se diferenciam em osteócitos. Os osteócitos, que constituem a maior parte das células ósseas em adultos, desempenham um papel crucial na manutenção da matriz óssea. Por outro lado, os osteoclastos são células multinucleadas envolvidas na reabsorção óssea, um processo fundamental para a remodelação contínua do osso. Devido a essas funções especializadas, o tecido ósseo é dinâmico e está constantemente sendo remodelado em resposta a estímulos mecânicos e fisiológicos (DUNNING, 2002).

Matriz óssea é o componente extracelular do tecido ósseo, composta por glicoproteínas, proteoglicanos, fibras de colágeno e minerais. Glicoproteínas e proteoglicanos desempenham um papel crucial na mineralização óssea, facilitando a fixação dos cristais de cálcio às fibras de colágeno devido à sua capacidade de ligação iônica. O colágeno tipo I forma a espinha dorsal da estrutura óssea e é depositado pelos osteoblastos, variando conforme a natureza do osso. Além do colágeno, a matriz orgânica do osso contém proteínas não colágenas, como a osteocalcina, que é exclusiva do osso. Essas proteínas adicionais têm funções variadas, incluindo a regulação da mineralização e a modulação da atividade celular. Assim, a matriz óssea é composta principalmente por uma parte fibrosa (fração orgânica) e uma parte mineralizada (fração inorgânica). A fração orgânica é predominantemente constituída por colágeno tipo I, organizado em fibras helicoidais orientadas e sequenciadas, que conferem resistência e flexibilidade ao osso. A fração inorgânica é formada por cristais minerais de hidroxiapatita, contendo cálcio, sódio, fósforo e potássio, que estão associados às fibras de colágeno. Esses componentes se alinham de maneira integrada para manter a rigidez característica do osso, permitindo que a matriz óssea suporte peso e resista a impactos (DUNNING, 2002; FERREIRA et al., 2012).

2.2. Colágeno e suas principais características

Colágeno é a proteína predominante nos tecidos fibrosos nos mamíferos e constitui até 30% das proteínas corporais. As principais fontes de colágeno são peles, couros, ossos, tendões e cartilagens. Existem 29 diferentes tipos de colágeno, sendo o tipo I o mais comum e predominante nas estruturas teciduais dos mamíferos. Por exemplo, ossos e tendões contêm colágeno tipo I, enquanto a cartilagem apresenta tanto colágeno tipo I quanto II. O sistema vascular contém colágeno tipo I e III, e as membranas basais contêm colágeno tipo IV. Além do colágeno tipo I, os tecidos podem conter outros tipos de colágeno em menores quantidades, como V, VIII, IX, X, XI e XIV. No entanto, o colágeno tipo I é o principal peptídeo encontrado em tecidos fibrosos (FU et al., 2019; GOMEZ-GUILLEN et al., 2011; TANG et al., 2022).

A estrutura do colágeno é única, composta por três cadeias polipeptídicas dispostas em uma tripla hélice e agrupadas em fibras. Essas cadeias seguem uma sequência repetitiva de aminoácidos, caracterizada por Gly-X-Y, onde Gly é glicina, X é prolina e Y é hidroxiprolina. A glicina aparece a cada três posições na cadeia polipeptídica, permitindo um empacotamento

apertado da hélice tripla. Isso é fundamental para a formação da estrutura helicoidal, pois a glicina, por não conter cadeia lateral, facilita o empacotamento estreito. A prolina e a hidroxiprolina contribuem para a rigidez e a estabilidade da hélice de colágeno devido às suas estruturas cíclicas e à capacidade de formar ligações de hidrogênio. As particularidades dos resíduos associados às ligações determinarão as características do tipo do colágeno (FU et al., 2019; GOMEZ-GUILLEN et al., 2011; TANG et al., 2022).

A estrutura básica da fibra de colágeno é caracterizada pela formação de muitas fibrilas interligadas, o que confere uma série de propriedades estruturais essenciais. A presença de quatro ou oito fibrilas de colágeno dispostas em conformação transversal é estabilizada e reforçada por ligações covalentes, formando uma fibra de colágeno. A composição de aminoácidos varia conforme a natureza da proteína, e pode diferir significativamente entre animais devido à influência das espécies e do tipo de tecido, com as sequências determinadas pelos genes da fonte. Além disso, as regiões N e C terminais dos aminoácidos, que estão associadas a outros aminoácidos, desempenham um papel importante na estrutura helicoidal e na formação. Além disso, a formação dessas fibrilas permite uma organização espacial que facilita a interação com outras proteínas e componentes da matriz extracelular, desempenhando um papel fundamental na manutenção da estrutura e na regeneração dos tecidos (FU et al., 2019; GOMEZ-GUILLEN et al., 2011; TANG et al., 2022).

2.3. Processos de obtenção convencionais do colágeno

Os processos convencionais para a obtenção do colágeno empregam diferentes agentes e metodologias, sendo que cada método ou condição físico-química irá resultar em um material com diferentes propriedades físicas, químicas e morfológicas. O colágeno pode ser facilmente modificado pela reação de seus grupos funcionais para gerar variedades de materiais com propriedades personalizadas. Muitas delas até aprimoradas, amplamente baseadas em reticulação induzida de forma química ou enzimática, bem como mistura com outros polímeros. Por outro lado, também sofre de algumas propriedades físico-químicas indesejáveis, como instabilidade térmica ou baixa resistência mecânica (GOMEZ-GUILLEN et al., 2011; HONG et al., 2019).

Colágeno é naturalmente insolúvel em meio aquoso e, para facilitar a obtenção, a fonte deve receber um prévio tratamento físico ou químico, anterior aos processos de extração. Os tratamentos físicos podem ser realizados por aquecimento em água a temperaturas superiores a 45 °C, ação de ultrassom assistida ou condições supercríticas. Os tratamentos químicos se resumem a solubilização em soluções ácidas ou alcalinas. O objetivo é quebrar ligações não covalentes, de modo a desorganizar a estrutura da proteína, produzindo inchaço e dissolução, facilitando a ação posterior do agente collagenolítico de obtenção. Os prévios tratamentos na fonte de colágeno irão clivar as ligações covalentes de hidrogênio e desestabilizar a tripla hélice. O processo seria o início da obtenção do colágeno ou a obtenção do colágeno parcialmente hidrolisado, conhecido como gelatina. Dessa forma, para cada fonte específica é necessário o entendimento do procedimento de obtenção. A otimização da obtenção pode ser aferida por sua capacidade de produzir o máximo rendimento possível do colágeno, dentro das especificações exigidas (CAO et al., 2021; ZHANG et al., 2020).

Ácidos orgânicos e soluções alcalinas são utilizados para obter colágeno pela ação nas ligações presentes nas triplas hélices em afinidade aos aminoácidos presentes. Por outro lado, as condições de processos são limitantes e resultam na obtenção de um material de colágeno parcialmente hidrolisado ou com resíduos. Para aumentar o rendimento do colágeno são utilizadas proteases com ação collagenolítica, com o intuito de potencializar a produção do peptídeo. Contudo, a obtenção e as condições no processo de obtenção devem ser determinadas através dos parâmetros: pré-tratamento; solubilização; concentração de substrato; razão enzima para substrato; tempo; temperatura; pH; fatores específicos do substrato, como origem; fatores

específicos da protease ou agente colagenolítico (COA et al., 2021; FU et al., 2019; GOMEZ-GUILLEN et al., 2011).

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3. CAPÍTULO I

Título

Reaproveitamento de resíduos ósseos na produção de colágeno e gelatina: avanços nos processos de obtenção e uso emergente em alimentos

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Resumo

O presente trabalho resumiu e avaliou a literatura atual referente aos estudos que investigaram a obtenção de colágeno e gelatina a partir de resíduos ósseos. Também compilou os estudos que empregaram o colágeno ósseo como agente de ligação, assim como aqueles estudos que utilizaram colágeno e gelatina de resíduos agropecuários em alimentos. O colágeno e a gelatina são peptídeos derivados do colágeno tipo I, provenientes de resíduos agropecuários, e atendem à demanda por insumos biotecnológicos. As aplicações em alimentos foram resumidas e destacaram o colágeno e a gelatina como insumos inovadores e com potencial para aplicações promissoras em alimentos. Os processos de obtenção a partir do osso envolvem solubilização com solventes químicos e hidrólise enzimática por proteases. Houve avanços na obtenção de colágeno e gelatina a partir do osso, assim como perspectivas tecnológicas para aplicações promissoras em alimentos. As metodologias apresentadas visam contribuir para o desenvolvimento de novas estratégias de obtenção, avanços nas pesquisas e adoção de práticas sustentáveis.

Palavras-chaves

tecido ósseo; colágeno tipo I; cristais minerais; desmineralização; hidrólise; protease; coproduto; sustentabilidade; insumo; formulação.

3.1. Introdução

Reaproveitamento de resíduos ósseos na produção de colágeno e gelatina constitui uma estratégia de economia circular, capaz de atender à crescente demanda por insumos biotecnológicos, incluindo os da indústria de alimentos (CAO et al., 2021; SAMATRA et al., 2022; THORSEN et al., 2024). Essa abordagem impulsiona pesquisas científicas para o reaproveitamento dos resíduos como insumos, especialmente em meio aos desafios da produção agropecuária por sustentabilidade (FU et al., 2019; RAVINDRAN; JAISWAL, 2016). Colágeno e gelatina possuem valor agregado e contribuem no desenvolvimento de novos produtos pela elaboração de insumos, fibras, filmes, membranas, revestimentos e géis (HE et al., 2021; TANG et al., 2022). Os mesmos têm revelado potencial e inovação em alimentos (CHEN; LI; HUANG, 2020), como agente de ligação para matrizes de peptídeo-cálcio (HU et al., 2022; QI et al., 2023; WANG et al., 2020; WU et al., 2019b; ZHANG et al., 2021), como agente crioprotetor em pães congelados (CAO et al., 2020a; YU et al., 2020) e como insumo para carnes processadas (ALEXANDRETTI et al., 2019; NUÑEZ et al., 2020; NUÑEZ et al., 2023; XU et al., 2022). Colágeno e a gelatina são insumos versáteis para alimentos e contribuem para soluções biotecnológicas e sustentáveis (CAO et al., 2021; SAMATRA et al., 2022).

Visando desenvolver insumos com apelo funcional, são investigados processos de obtenção do colágeno e gelatina a partir do osso via métodos físico-químicos, envolvendo tratamentos como desmineralização e hidrólise enzimática (FERRARO; ANTON; SANTÉ-LHOUTELLIER, 2016; SAMATRA et al., 2022). No entanto, o osso possui a matriz peptídeo-mineral e sua estrutura natural surte efeito nas respostas aos tratamentos (TZAPHLIDOU, 2008; ZHANG et al., 2020). Assim, o colágeno obtido do osso requer a desestruturação da matriz peptídeo-mineral e o isolamento dos peptídeos por meio dos tratamentos de desmineralização e hidrólise, ainda preservando suas propriedades bioativas (BIANCARDI et al., 2024; ZHANG et al., 2020). A gelatina pode ser mais facilmente obtida a partir do osso aparado por solubilização, uma vez que consiste na proteína parcialmente hidrolisada do COL I (NAOMI et al., 2021).

Osso é uma composição de tecido animal estrutural rígido composto predominantemente por fibras de colágeno tipo I (COL I) sequenciadas em conjunto com cristais minerais (HONG et al., 2022). Bioquimicamente, apresenta um tipo de tecido conjuntivo organizado pela matriz peptídeo-mineral em vários níveis, composto por uma fração orgânica denominada osseína com células e fibras de COL I (30-35%), e uma fração inorgânica denominada hidroxiapatita com diferentes cristais minerais como cálcio, sódio, fósforo e potássio (65-70%) (DUNNING, 2002). O COL I é a principal proteína presente no osso (NEEL et al., 2016) com formação biopolimérica fibrilar composta por uma tripla hélice de cadeias polipeptídicas caracterizada pela sequência repetitiva e contínua dos aminoácidos glicina, prolina e hidroxiprolina (Gly-X-Y) (GOMEZ-GUILLEN et al., 2011; LIU et al., 2019). A fibrila de Gly-X-Y possui composição essencial na estrutura do COL I, pois quando agrupadas, apresentam capacidade de biocompatibilidade e automontagem, formando as fibras helicoidais. Assim, os derivados do COL I (colágeno e gelatina), isolados a partir do material fonte, mantêm as mesmas propriedades (HE et al., 2021; LIU et al., 2019).

Apesar dos apelos tecnológicos e sustentáveis, o reaproveitamento dos resíduos agropecuários a partir do osso permanece limitado, visto os desafios técnicos nos processos de obtenção dos derivados do COL I. A estrutura natural e rígida do tecido ósseo apresenta resistência aos tratamentos físico-químicos convencionais utilizados para a obtenção de colágeno e gelatina, resultando em baixos rendimentos ou ineficiências dos processos (DUNNING, 2002; YAO et al., 2020). Entretanto, há estudos na literatura atual que investigaram a obtenção de colágeno e gelatina a partir de resíduos ósseos buscando o reaproveitamento do COL I (Tabela 3.1), assim como há estudos que utilizaram os derivados do COL I em alimentos e os descreveram como provenientes de resíduos agropecuários (Tabela

3.2). Nesse sentido, é importante relacionar a estrutura do osso com os processos de obtenção, também em função das propriedades dos derivados do COL I (BOIRE et al., 2018). Além disso, é importante ampliar a atual fronteira do conhecimento, de modo a valorizar o resíduo ósseo e o uso dos derivados do COL I em alimentos (CAO et al., 2021; SAMATRA et al., 2022; THORSEN et al., 2024). Portanto, a proposta da presente revisão foi resumir e analisar a literatura atual pelos estudos que investigaram a obtenção de colágeno e gelatina a partir de resíduos ósseos, em função dos tratamentos utilizados, resumir a literatura atual pelos estudos que usaram o colágeno ósseo como agente de ligação, assim como, pelos estudos que usaram colágeno e gelatina provenientes de resíduos agropecuários em alimentos e por fim, apresentar expectativas sobre esses resumos.

Tabela 3.1 - Obtenção dos derivados de colágeno tipo I a partir do resíduo ósseo mediante tratamentos utilizados

Fonte	Pré-tratamento	Desmineralização	Hidrólise	Produto obtido	Referência
Bovino	Água/ 100 °C/ 1 h	Ácido acético 1 M/ 37 °C/ 3 h + Ácido láctico 1 M/ 37 °C/ 3 h	-	Osso tratado	(BIANCARDI et al., 2024)
Bovino	NaOH 0.1 M/ 4 °C/ 2 d Hexano 10%/ 4 °C/ 2 d	EDTA 0.25 M/ 4 d	Ácido cítrico 0.05 M/ 25 °C/ 26 h Pepsina 25 °C/ pH 2/ 5 h	Gelatina	(CAO et al., 2020b)
Bovino	Lipase/ pH alcalino/ design experimental	-	Protease 50 °C/ 5 h	Osso tratado	(YAO et al., 2020)
Bovino	NaOH 0.1 M/ 4 °C/ 2 d Álcool butílico 10%/ 4 °C/ 2 d	EDTA-4Na 0.5 M/ 4 °C/ 5 d	Ácido acético 0.5 M/ 4 °C/ 3 d	Colágeno	(PAOLA et al., 2019)
Bovino	Álcool etílico 90%/ 15 min	-	Ácido acético 0.5 M/ 4 °C/ 5 d	Colágeno	(FERRARO et al., 2017a)
Camelídeo	-	HCl 10%	Alcalase 50 °C/ pH 8/ 4 h Neutrased 50 °C/ pH 7/ 4 h Papaina 50 °C/ pH 6.5/ 4 h Tripsina 50 °C/ pH 7.5/ 4 h Bromelina 45 °C/ pH 6.8/ 4 h	Gelatina	(WANG et al., 2023)
Camelídeo	Água/ 90 °C/ 2 h	-	HCl 0.5 M/ 25 °C/ 3 d	Gelatina	(HASSAN et al., 2021)
Camelídeo	Água/ 80 °C	HCl 0-6%/ 1-5 d	HCl 6%/ 25 °C/ 3 d	Gelatina	(AL-KAHTANI et al., 2017)
Caprino	NaOH 0.1 M/ 48 h Álcool butílico / 72 h	EDTA-2Na 0.5 M/ 5 d	Alcalase 50 °C/ pH 8/ 2.5 h Neutrased 45 °C/ pH 8/ 15 h	Gelatina	(MATULESSY et al., 2021)

Tabela 3.1 (continuação) - Obtenção dos derivados de colágeno tipo I a partir do resíduo ósseo mediante tratamentos utilizados

Fonte	Pré-tratamento	Desmineralização	Hidrólise	Produto obtido	Referência
Ovino	Etanol PA / 24 h	-	Tripsina 4 °C/ pH 8,0/ 4 h Papaína 55 °C/ pH 6,0/ 4 h Alcalase 50 °C/ pH 9,0/ 4 h Protease 1 50 °C/ pH 7,5/ 4 h Protease 2 50 °C/ pH 7,5/ 4 h	Colágeno	(HU et al., 2022)
Ovino	NaOH 0.1 M /4 °C/ 48 h Álcool butílico 10%/ 4 °C/ 48 h	EDTA-2Na 0.5 M/ 4 °C/ 5 d	Ácido acético 0.5 M + Pepsina/ 3 d	Colágeno	(VIDAL et al., 2020)
Ovino	Hexano 10%/ 24 h	HCl 0.4 M/ 24 h	Papaína 55 °C/ pH 6/ 3 h Pepsina 40 °C/ pH 2.5/ 3 h	Colágeno	(WANG et al., 2020)
Ovino	NaOH 0.1 M/ 48 h Álcool butílico 10%/ 72 h	EDTA-2Na 0.5 M/ 5 d	Ácido acético 0.5 M/ 3 d	Colágeno	(GAO et al., 2018)
Suíno	-	-	HCl 1 M + Pepsina/ 25 °C/ 3 h	Gelatina	(MA et al., 2019)
Suíno	Hexano 10%/ 24 h NaOH 0.08 M + NaCl 4%	Ácido cítrico 10%/ 24 h	Neutrase 50 °C/ pH 7.5/ 4 h Alcalase 45 °C/ pH 9.0/ 4 h Flavourzyme 50 °C/ pH 7.5/ 4 h Papaina 55 °C/ pH 6.0/ 4 h Trypsina 50 °C/ pH 8.0/ 4 h	Colágeno	(WU et al., 2019)
Suíno	-	HCl 0.6 M/ 22 °C/ 24 h	Alcalase 50 °C/ pH 9/ 3 h	Colágeno	(LIU et al., 2018)

Tabela 3.2 - Resumos dos estudos com o uso de colágeno e gelatina em alimentos, sendo os derivados provenientes de resíduos agropecuários

Fonte	Derivado	Desenvolvimento	Investigação	Referência
Osso bovino	Colágeno	Insumo para massa fresca	Caracterização na qualidade sob efeito do congelamento	(CAO et al., 2020a)
Pele suína	Gelatina	Insumo para massa fresca	Caracterização na qualidade sob efeito do congelamento	(YU et al., 2020)
Pele suína	Gelatina	Insumo para pães	Caracterização na qualidade e endurecimento sob efeito da retrogradação do amido	(YU et al., 2019)
Bovino	Colágeno	Revestimento para biscoito	Efeito na conservação e melhoria de qualidade	(CORIA-HERNÁNDEZ et al., 2023)
Couro bovino	Colágeno	Revestimento para tripa sintética	Propriedades físico-químicas e análise da reticulação de glutaraldeído sob efeito de secagem	(CHEN et al., 2020)
Couro bovino	Colágeno	Revestimento para tripa sintética	Propriedades físico-químicas e análise sensorial sob efeitos da reticulação com glioxal	(ZAJĄC; PAJAŁ; SKOWYRA, 2021)
Pele bovina	Colágeno	Revestimento para tripa sintética	Propriedades físico-químicas e potencial aplicação por extrusão	(SUURS; BRAND; DAAMEN, 2023)
Pele bovina	Colágeno	Revestimento para tripa sintética	Caracterização estrutural e análise das propriedades reológicas	(SUPOV et al., 2023)
Pele bovina	Colágeno	Revestimento para tripa sintética	Caracterização estrutural e análise da reticulação	(CHEN et al., 2019)
Pele bovina	Gelatina	Insumo para produto cárneo de frango	Efeito nas propriedades antioxidantes, textura e cor no processamento	(NUÑEZ et al., 2023)
Pele bovina	Gelatina	Insumo para produto cárneo de frango	Caracterização na qualidade sob efeito da capacidade de retenção de água	(NUÑEZ et al., 2020)
Pele Bovina	Colágeno	Insumo para hambúrguer	Desenvolvimento e caracterização na qualidade sob efeito do congelamento	(XU et al., 2022)
Bovino	Colágeno	Insumo para hambúrguer	Desenvolvimento e caracterização na qualidade	(ALEXANDRETTI et al., 2019)

Tabela 3.2 (continuação) - Resumos dos estudos com o uso de colágeno e gelatina em alimentos, sendo os derivados provenientes de resíduos agropecuários

Fonte	Derivado	Desenvolvimento	Investigação	Referência
Pele bovina	Colágeno	Filme para carne bovina fresca	Desenvolvimento e análise das propriedades sob efeito do filme	(TANG et al., 2023)
Bovino	Colágeno	Insumo para bebida mista	Desenvolvimento e propriedades físico-químicas	(VARGA-TÓTH et al., 2006)
Pele mamífero	Colágeno	Suplemento para polpa de fruta	Desenvolvimento e propriedades físico-químicas	(SILVA et al., 2021)
Cartilagem bovina	Colágeno	Insumo para carne cultivada	Desenvolvimento e propriedades físico-químicas	(ZERNOV; BARUCH; MACHLUF, 2022)

3.2. Obtenção dos derivados do COL I a partir do resíduo ósseo

3.2.1. Limitações

Tratamentos físico-químicos têm sido empregados como processos de obtenção a partir do osso de diferentes fontes, incluindo bovinos, camelídeos, ovinos e suínos (Tabela 3.1). O processo de obtenção de colágeno e gelatina dos ossos tem início com o resíduo moído ou aparado, resultando em derivados com heterogeneidade nos resultados obtidos. Ao investigarem a obtenção de colágeno ósseo bovino por meio de hidrólise enzimática, Yao e colaboradores (2020) encontraram dificuldade no processo pelo baixo rendimento e baixa taxa de hidrólise. Esses resultados foram justificados pela inacessibilidade das proteases aos locais ativos do COL I na matriz peptídeo-mineral, o que ocorreu devido à estrutura rígida do osso, bem como a presença de gordura proveniente do resíduo, dificultando a ação proteolítica. Ainda, COL I é insolúvel em meio aquoso em sua forma natural no osso (MENG et al., 2022) e para isolar seus peptídeos, preservando a funcionalidade da proteína, são necessários tratamentos no osso previamente a etapa de hidrólise enzimática. Os tratamentos utilizam agentes físico-químicos para moagem, remoção da gordura superficial e desorganização da matriz peptídeo-mineral, facilitando a acessibilidade do COL I pelas proteases (BANCARDI et al., 2024). A preparação do osso desempenha um papel crucial na hidrólise, pois desorganiza a matriz peptídeo-mineral, altera a conformação da proteína e melhora a eficiência da reação (YAO et al., 2020). Os estudos analisados (Tabela 3.1) demonstraram viabilidade na obtenção de colágeno e gelatina ao realizarem pré-tratamentos e desmineralização a partir do osso. Esses tratamentos visavam à preparação do osso previamente a hidrólise, com o objetivo comum de desmineralizar a matriz peptídeo-mineral para possibilitar a ação proteolítica nos peptídeos do COL I (CAO et al., 2020b; GAO et al., 2018b; MATULESSY et al., 2021; PAOLA et al., 2019; VIDAL et al., 2020; WANG et al., 2020; WU et al., 2019).

3.2.2. Pré-tratamentos

Ossos provenientes de resíduos agropecuários são remanescentes da carcaça do animal e contém o osso íntegro com pedaços de carne e gordura aderidos. Isso demonstra a necessidade de pré-tratamentos, principalmente para remoção da gordura e das proteínas não colágenas (CAO et al., 2021). Esses tratamentos são descritos nos estudos analisados (Tabela 3.1), onde a remoção do excesso de carne e gordura foram feitos manualmente. Porém, para remoção completa da gordura foram utilizados tratamentos via solubilização usando álcool etílico (FERRARO et al., 2017a; HU et al., 2022), álcool butílico (PAOLA et al., 2019; GAO et al., 2018a; MATULESSY et al., 2021; VIDAL et al., 2020) ou hexano (CAO et al., 2020; WANG et al., 2020; WU et al., 2019). Outros estudos apresentaram alternativas à remoção da gordura como a fervura em água (BANCARDI et al., 2024; HU et al., 2022) e o uso de lipase (YAO et al., 2020). Além disso, foi descrito o uso do hidróxido de sódio como tratamento para a remoção das proteínas não colágenas, buscando aumentar a eficiência no processo de obtenção (CAO et al., 2020; PAOLA et al., 2019; GAO et al., 2018; MATULESSY et al., 2021; VIDAL et al., 2020). São requeridos os pré-tratamentos no processo de obtenção de colágeno e gelatina, pois os mesmos preparam o osso para os tratamentos subsequentes. Porém, não há esclarecimento e ordem dos tratamentos a serem realizados, inclusive há estudos que não os descrevem (LIU et al., 2018; WANG; TU; WANG, 2023).

3.2.3. Desmineralização

Desmineralização no osso é o processo de remoção ou redução dos cristais minerais da hidroxiapatita e é requerida na matriz peptídeo-mineral (NEEL et al., 2016). Os estudos analisados (Tabela 3.1) descrevem a desmineralização via dissolução ou solubilização por solventes ácidos, variando o tipo de agente e os parâmetros utilizados. Os cristais minerais dos ossos foram solubilizados por solventes em ácido etilenodiamino tetra-acético (EDTA 0.25 M,

EDTA-2Na e EDTA 4-Na), comumente utilizados como nos processos convencionais de obtenção de colágeno e gelatina (CAO et al., 2020b; ES MELISSA PAOLA et al., 2019; GAO et al., 2018a; MATULESSY et al., 2021; VIDAL et al., 2020). O ácido clorídrico também foi utilizado como solvente variando as concentrações (AL-KAHTANI et al., 2017; LIU et al., 2018; WANG; TU; WANG, 2023; WANG et al., 2020). Solventes ácidos podem romper as interações intermoleculares, resultando no aumento das cargas repulsivas na tripla hélice do colágeno e na subsequente hidratação das fibras colágenas. Como consequência desestabilizam a estrutura da matriz peptídeo-mineral (ZHANG et al., 2020). Todavia, Biancardi e colaboradores (2024) e Wu e colaboradores (2019) utilizaram ácidos orgânicos (ácido acético, ácido láctico e ácido cítrico) na desmineralização como alternativa de solvente verde. Esses estudos otimizaram o processo pelos solventes com eficiência, o que condiz com a necessidade sustentável para o reaproveitamento do resíduo. O uso de solventes verdes minimiza o impacto ambiental, são mais seguros e também resultam em benefícios econômicos a longo prazo, devido à redução dos custos no tratamento de resíduos e conformidade com regulamentações ambientais (ALMOHASIN et al., 2023).

3.2.4. Colágeno solúvel em solventes ácidos

Ácido acético é o solvente mais popular e usual nos processos de obtenção de colágeno e gelatina, geralmente na concentração de 0,5 M (HONG et al., 2019). Nos estudos analisados (Tabela 3.1), o ácido acético 0,5 M foi utilizado para obtenção de colágeno solúvel a partir do osso bovino (FERRARO et al., 2017; PAOLA et al., 2019) e osso ovino (GAO et al., 2018). O processo de obtenção de Ferraro e colaboradores (2017) apresentou rendimento proteico de 16%. Os autores optaram pelo uso do ácido acético devido ao seu potencial em solubilizar o colágeno, mantendo as fibras helicoidais e preservando suas funcionalidades. Outros solventes ácidos também são considerados convencionais para obtenção dos derivados do COL I, como cítrico, láctico e clorídrico (GOMEZ-GUILLEN et al., 2011; HONG et al., 2019). O ácido clorídrico foi utilizado para obtenção do colágeno solúvel a partir do osso de camelo (AL-KAHTANI et al., 2017; HASSAN et al., 2021), com rendimentos entre 22-25% conforme parâmetros e tratamento. A obtenção de colágeno solúvel em solventes ácidos foi descrita como possível, embora os processos exigiram de três a cinco dias de tratamento para efeito extrator. Considerando o tempo e rendimentos descritos com a possível quantidade de solventes utilizados, a viabilidade do processo de obtenção por solubilização em escala industrial é questionável. Isso direciona os processos para adaptações otimizadas, como a hidrólise enzimática.

3.2.5. Colágeno e gelatina via hidrólise enzimática

Nos estudos analisados (Tabela 3.1) o uso das proteases resultou na obtenção dos derivados do COL I via hidrólise, com diferentes padronizações dos processos a partir do osso. A pepsina é a protease comumente utilizada na obtenção de colágeno e gelatina em vários tipos de resíduos (GOMEZ-GUILLEN et al., 2011) e foi utilizada na obtenção do colágeno a partir de osso ovino (WANG et al., 2020) e da gelatina a partir do osso bovino (CAO et al., 2020) e osso suíno (MA et al., 2019). Porém, diferentes proteases comerciais foram consideradas usuais na hidrólise do COL I (Tabela 3.1), destacando o uso repetido das enzimas alcalase (pH entre 8-9 e temperatura entre 45-50 °C), neutrase (pH entre 7-7,5 e temperatura entre 45-50 °C), e papaína (pH entre 6-6,5 e temperatura entre 50-55 °C) (HU et al., 2022; LIU et al., 2019a; MATULESSY et al., 2021; WANG et al., 2023, 2020; WU et al., 2019). Os usos das enzimas em pH neutro-alcalino e em temperatura próxima a 50 °C foram as melhores condições de obtenção do COL I para neutrase a partir do osso camelídeo (WANG et al., 2023) e osso ovino (HU et al., 2022) e para alcalase a partir do osso suíno (WU et al., 2019). Considerando os parâmetros e os resultados descritos, a hidrólise enzimática eleva os processos de obtenção a

níveis otimizados e sustentáveis para a escala industrial. As proteases catalisam a clivagem de ligações peptídicas específicas do COL I, desestruturando nas fibras helicoidais as interações que não são quebradas por solventes ácidos ou alcalinos. Isso torna a hidrólise enzimática o método mais utilizado para otimizar os processos de obtenção de colágeno e gelatina (HONG et al., 2019). Além disso, suas reações e parâmetros são controláveis, geram alto rendimento, resultam em poucos produtos de reação secundária e danos mínimos na proteína, sendo a forma utilizada para melhorar funções proteicas e nutricionais (CAO et al., 2021).

3.2.6. Outras formas de obtenção

Embora a obtenção de colágeno e gelatina seja em maioria realizada por hidrólise enzimática, é fundamental investigar novas tecnologias sob diferentes condições de processo e avaliar a qualidade dos materiais obtidos. As pesquisas variam conforme o acesso aos materiais residuais, bem como as condições estruturais e financeiras (CAO et al., 2021). Estudos focados em processos otimizados devem priorizar a obtenção de peptídeos com suas funcionalidades preservadas. Com isso, Zhang e colaboradores (2023) obtiveram colágeno do osso bovino através da explosão a vapor, uma alternativa de processo sustentável quando comparada ao convencional. Os autores investigaram o efeito de diferentes pressões e reações de tempo no osso e obtiveram o colágeno com redução do cálcio e fósforo, atingindo uma recuperação da proteína em 60.5%. Outras tecnologias estão sendo incorporadas aos estudos de obtenção de colágeno e gelatina a partir de resíduos agropecuários por vias sustentáveis. Exemplos incluem o uso de ultrassom, aquecimento ôhmico, micro-ondas, campo elétrico pulsado e extração supercrítica, utilizados na otimização e em combinação com os tratamentos tradicionais (CAO et al., 2021; SAMATRA et al., 2022). Os estudos analisados (Tabela 3.1) demonstraram eficácia na obtenção de colágeno e gelatina a partir dos ossos via tratamentos convencionais. No entanto, é questionável o consumo de tempo e energia, além do uso considerável de solventes químicos. O reaproveitamento dos resíduos ósseos demanda abordagens biotecnológicas, mas os processos a partir do osso são ainda recentes e limitados.

3.3. Uso dos derivados do COL I a partir de resíduos agropecuários

3.3.1. Colágeno e gelatina na panificação

Colágeno e gelatina foram apresentados como insumos versáteis para a panificação (Tabela 3.32). Colágeno e gelatina atuaram como agentes crioprotetores em estudos com pães congelados (CAO et al., 2020a; YU et al., 2020), melhorando a qualidade do produto pela redução dos danos causados pelo congelamento e cristalização do gelo. Colágeno ósseo bovino aumentaram a taxa de sobrevivência da levedura e melhoraram a textura do pão congelado (CAO et al., 2020a). Gelatina de pele de suíno melhoraram a qualidade dos pães ao manter o glúten e reduzir os efeitos do congelamento (YU et al., 2020), também reduziram a migração de água e a retrogradação do amido durante o armazenamento (YU et al., 2019). Ainda, o colágeno bovino combinado com goma xantana e óleo essencial de orégano foi utilizado em revestimento, aumentando o tempo de conservação em biscoitos pelo controle da umidade, atividade de água e crescimento fúngico (CORIA-HERNÁNDEZ et al., 2023).

3.3.2. Colágeno e gelatina na indústria de carnes

O uso do colágeno e gelatina se destacou como insumo inovador para a indústria de carnes, melhorando tanto a qualidade do produto quanto os benefícios nutricionais (Tabela 3.32). A adição de colágeno foi investigada em carnes processadas, oferecendo benefícios significativos na qualidade dos produtos, como ação crioprotetora em hambúrgueres bovinos congelados (XU et al., 2022). O uso de colágeno bovino em fibra e em pó em formulações de hambúrgueres não só aprimoraram a textura e as propriedades sensoriais, mas também aumentaram a digestibilidade do colágeno (ALEXANDRETTI et al., 2019). Gelatina de pele

bovina melhorou a capacidade de retenção de água em carnes de frango processadas, oferecendo uma alternativa eficaz e funcional aos polifosfatos (NUÑEZ et al., 2020; NUÑEZ et al., 2023). Filmes de colágeno com ácido gálico apresentaram melhores propriedades mecânicas e termoestabilidade, além de fornecer barreiras eficazes contra a luz UV e a atividade microbiana, destacando seu potencial como material de embalagem para prolongar a vida útil de carnes processadas (TANG et al., 2023). Adicionalmente, Zernov, Baruch e Machluf (2022) investigaram o uso de colágeno para o desenvolvimento de microtransportadores celulares de hidrogel comestíveis para carne cultivada, facilitando a expansão celular, permitindo a incorporação direta dos microtransportadores na carne cultivada e melhorando suas propriedades sensoriais e nutricionais. Isso destaca o papel do colágeno para o desenvolvimento de futuros produtos cárneos cultivados.

3.3.3. Colágeno ósseo como agente de ligação

Colágeno e gelatina são polímeros naturais com capacidade de prover biocompatibilidade, ou seja, possuem a capacidade de interação química a outros componentes orgânicos e inorgânicos por automontagem (GOMEZ-GUILLEN et al., 2011; HE et al., 2021). Importante destacar que não apresentam toxicidade para os seres humanos, tornando os derivados do COL I elegíveis para o uso funcional como agente de ligação (HE et al., 2021). E dentre as reconhecidas aplicações do COL I (CAO et al., 2021), o uso funcional como agente de ligação do colágeno e gelatina a partir do osso é restrito. Assim, no desenvolvimento do presente trabalho, foram resumidos os estudos ascendente que usam o colágeno ósseo com essa finalidade (Tabela 3.23). Os estudos elaboraram a matriz peptídeo-cálcio com base na funcionalidade do colágeno ósseo como agente de ligação, buscando compreender os mecanismos de ligação e as propriedades da estrutura da matriz para melhorar a biodisponibilidade do cálcio em alimentos ou suplementos (HU et al., 2022; WANG et al., 2020; WU et al., 2019; ZHANG et al., 2021). Em destaque, Qi e colaboradores (2023) elaboraram a matriz peptídeo-cálcio e também investigaram a sua atividade de absorção intestinal com efeito na biodisponibilidade analisada, demonstrando a matriz como uma nova estratégia para promover a absorção intestinal de cálcio, tendo os mecanismos de ligação do cálcio ao peptídeo analisados para garantir os efeitos de absorção. Assim, peptídeos do COL I derivados do osso podem ser usados para beneficiar a saúde através do desenvolvimento de matrizes bioativas para alimentos ou suplementos, pois permitem a associação do peptídeos aos componentes bioativos por biocompatibilidade, com liberação controlada dos mesmos durante digestão gastrointestinal (TANG et al., 2022).

Tabela 3.3 - Resumos dos estudos com o uso funcional do colágeno ósseo como agente de ligação

Matrix	Desenvolvimento	Investigação	Referência
Peptídeo-cálcio	Peptídeos de colágeno do osso bovino + CaCl ₂ / pH 8/ 60 °C/ 30 m	Mecanismo de ligação do cálcio e sua atividade de absorção intestinal	(QI et al., 2023)
Peptídeo-cálcio	Peptídeos de colágeno do osso ovino + Ca / pH 5-9/ 30-70 °C/ 20-60 m	Mecanismo de ligação do cálcio e caracterização estrutural	(HU et al., 2022)
Peptídeo-cálcio	Peptídeos de colágeno do osso bovino + CaCl ₂ / pH 7/ 60 °C/ 60 m	Propriedades físico-químicas e caracterização estrutural	(ZHANG et al., 2021)
Peptídeo-cálcio	Peptídeos de colágeno do osso de carneiro + resíduo da desmineralização / pH 7/ 37 °C/ 15 m	Caracterização estrutural e análise de estabilidade	(WANG et al., 2020)
Peptídeo-cálcio	Peptídeos de colágeno do osso suíno + CaCl ₂ / pH 5-9/ 30-70 °C/ 20-100 m	Propriedades físico-químicas e otimização do processo	(WU et al., 2019a)

3.3.4. Outras aplicações em alimentos

Outras aplicações em alimentos foram resumidas (Tabela 3.3). A adição do colágeno em bebidas substitutas de lácteos foi investigada, onde ocorreu a diminuição da degradação dos compostos bioativos (VARGA-TÓTH et al., 2006). O colágeno foi aglomerado com proteína de arroz e melhorou a capacidade de dispersão em polpas de frutas (SILVA et al., 2021). Colágeno foi aplicado na fabricação de invólucros para embutidos (SUURS; BRAND; DAAMEN, 2023) cuja produção é otimizada por técnicas de processamento e modificação química. Colágeno e gelatina se destacaram pela biocompatibilidade e uso multifuncional, onde estudos revelaram que além da reticulação do colágeno com glutaraldeído melhorar a resistência mecânica e a estabilidade estrutural do revestimento (CHEN et al., 2020), o colágeno também reduziu o grau de desnaturação e a proporção de inchaço no revestimento (CHEN et al., 2019). Tripas de colágeno provenientes de couro bovino foram investigadas utilizando glioxal como agente de reticulação (ZAJĄC; PAJĄK; SKOWYRA, 2021), apresentando propriedades semelhantes às tripas naturais e proporcionam qualidade sensorial superior nos embutidos. Em estudo semelhante, a adição de glicerol estabilizou a estrutura dos invólucros de colágeno, afetando o processo de degradação do mesmo pela enzima collagenase (SUPOV et al., 2023).

3.4. Uso emergente dos derivados do COL I a partir do resíduo ósseo

As investigações e os interesses nas possíveis aplicações do colágeno e gelatina cresceram conforme agregaram valores de mercado a nível global, sendo estimado para 2027 em aproximadamente 7 bilhões de dólares (CAO et al., 2021), possibilitando explorar e comercializar os derivados a partir de resíduo ósseos. Para isso, é fundamental compreender a estrutura, os processos de obtenção e como seus coprodutos funcionais geram receitas (BOIRE et al., 2018; TANG et al., 2022), pois, existem apelos no reaproveitamento dos resíduos agropecuários como coprodutos, especialmente econômicos, funcionais e sustentáveis (STRØM-ANDERSEN, 2020), mas, também existem as limitações nos processos de obtenção a partir do osso, em níveis onde a exploração global é impactada (YAO et al., 2020). Nesse sentido, os avanços na obtenção de colágeno e gelatina a partir do resíduo ósseo foram apresentados, e os ossos emergem como uma fonte promissora de colágeno tipo I, ao atender aos requisitos e superar as limitações. Isso ocorre quando o colágeno e a gelatina obtidos por tecnologias sustentáveis são utilizados como insumos funcionais e economicamente viáveis. As investigações do COL I no osso são cruciais para compreender as limitações atuais e prover inovações em alimentos, visto o potencial para aplicações promissoras de seus insumos derivados (RAVINDRAN; JAISWAL, 2016), inclusive as resumidas (Tabela 3.2 e Tabela 3.3). Como expectativas, a presente revisão ofereceu uma análise abrangente do osso como fonte emergente de COL I, explorando os atuais processos de obtenção de colágeno e gelatina e o uso desses derivados em alimentos. A Figura 3.1 apresenta o resumo gráfico das informações obtidas. Essas informações destacam os avanços tecnológicos e os princípios fundamentais visando direcionar a indústria de alimentos para uma economia circular associada à produção agropecuária. A compreensão das informações apresentadas é crucial para o desenvolvimento de novas estratégias de obtenção e para o avanço das pesquisas e aplicações de práticas sustentáveis neste campo.

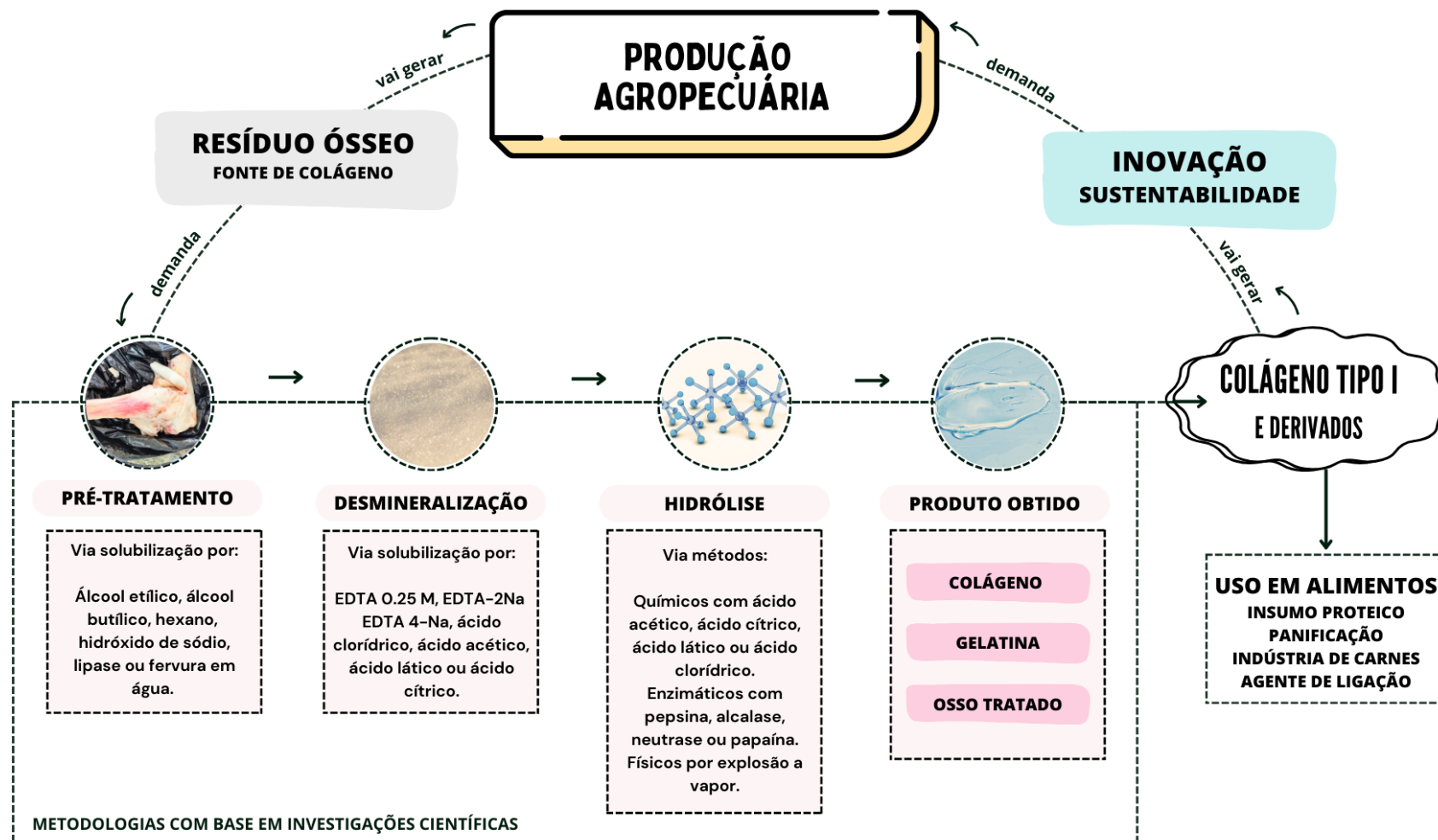


Figura 3.1 - Resumo gráfico das informações obtidas na presente revisão.

3.5. Conclusão

Os processos de obtenção de colágeno e gelatina a partir de resíduos ósseos foram resumidos e analisados. Nos processos atuais, os tratamentos físico-químicos usuais dos resíduos envolvem a solubilização por solventes químicos e a hidrólise enzimática por proteases. Esses tratamentos têm como objetivo remover a gordura e as proteínas não colágeno, desmineralizar a matriz peptídeo-mineral e hidrolisar os peptídeos do COL I. Os processos apresentaram avanços na obtenção de colágeno e gelatina. No entanto, é necessário revisar as abordagens biotecnológicas e sustentáveis, necessárias para o reaproveitamento de resíduos agropecuários. Entretanto, as aplicações em alimentos foram resumidas e destacaram o colágeno e a gelatina como insumos inovadores e com potencial para aplicações promissoras em alimentos. As metodologias apresentadas visam contribuir para o desenvolvimento de novas estratégias de obtenção, avanços nas pesquisas e adoção de práticas sustentáveis.

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4. CAPÍTULO II

Title

A physicochemical evaluation of ossein-hydroxyapatite within the bovine bone matrix revealed demineralization and making type I collagen available as a result of processing and solubilization by acids

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Abstract

Bovine bone is an animal-origin matrix rich in type I collagen (COL I) and it necessitates prior demineralization and makes COL I available. This study investigated the ossein-hydroxyapatite physicochemical properties evaluation as a result of processing and solubilization by acids and revealed the bone matrix demineralization and making COL I available. The tibia residue from bovine sources was processed, ground, and transformed into bone matrix powder. The bone matrix was solubilized in acetic acid followed by lactic acid. The bone matrix was evaluated as a result of processing and solubilization by acids: ossein and hydroxyapatite percentages by nitrogen and ash content, mineral content, particle size distribution, Fourier-transformation infrared spectroscopy, x-ray diffraction, and scanning electron microscope. For the obtained residual extracts, pH, and mineral content were evaluated. The solubilization by acids affected the ossein-hydroxyapatite physicochemical properties, and the bone matrix solubilized by acetic and lactic acid showed the preservation of the ossein alongside the loss of hydroxyapatite. The processing and the solubilization by acids were revealed to be a viable alternative to bone matrix demineralization and enabling the accessibility of bone COL I.

Keywords

bone collagen, bone matrix, demineralization, type I collagen, solubilization

4.1. Introduction

Bovine bone is an animal-origin matrix rich in type I collagen (COL I) and the biotechnological potential has been wasted due to challenges in bone matrix processing, being its natural resistance tissue. However, bone COL I has been explored and innovation is required to reach the desired functionality in bone sources. (GOMEZ-GUILLEN et al., 2011; RAVINDRAN & JAISWAL, 2016; STRØM-ANDERSEN, 2020; SULTANA, ALI & AHAMAD, 2018). New solutions have been proposed to obtain COL I in the bone matrix, which has to be demineralized and protein fraction preserved, such possible approaches that facilitate making bone COL I available (BUCKLEY, 2016; FERRARO, ANTON & SANTÉ-LHOUELIER, 2016; FU et al., 2019; LIU et al., 2019).

The bone matrix is composed of oriented sequenced helicoidal fibers of collagen and mineral crystals, where its histology is responsible for the rigidity in structure in tandem with the organic (ossein) and inorganic (hydroxyapatite) fractions. COL I represents the predominance of the organic fraction and it forms the ossein as conjunctive tissue in many levels of organization. In the inorganic fraction, mineral crystals with calcium, sodium, phosphorous, and potassium are the major constituents of hydroxyapatite. These components align with COL I integral to maintaining tissue rigidity. Thus, it can be represented in the bone matrix by major components of bone tissue and the ossein-hydroxyapatite by the organic (COL I) and inorganic (minerals) properties (DUNNING, 2002; FERREIRA et al., 2012; TZAPHLIDOU, 2008).

Researchers have been using processing and solubilization to obtain bone COL I, considering that processing affects the bone matrix in different characteristics, and consequently also on the quality of the bone collagen (CAO et al., 2021; FERRARO, ANTON & SANTÉ-LHOUELIER, 2016; FU et al., 2019; LIU et al., 2019). Even though some evidence can be found regarding the COL I obtained in bone sources (GAO et al., 2018; HASSAN et al., 2021; WU et al., 2019), especially in bovine bones with functional attributes (FERRARO et al., 2017; PAOLA et al., 2019; CAO et al., 2020), standardization of processing focusing in bone matrix demineralization and making COL I available are limited, as well as the understanding of the effects on the ossein-hydroxyapatite physicochemical properties (CHANG & BUEHLER, 2014; GEORGIADIS, MÜLLER & SCHNEIDER, 2016; URIST, MIKULSKI & LIETZE, 1979).

Solubilization by acids also has been studied in bone matrix demineralization and protein fraction availability, to understand the ossein-hydroxyapatite physicochemical properties as a result of methodology (MOHAMMADIAN & MADADLOU, 2018; CHEN et al., 2021; AL-KAHTANI et al., 2017; MENG et al., 2022). The bone matrix demineralization uses solubilization by acids (LIU et al., 2022; JAZIRI et al., 2022; LIU & HUANG, 2016; ANDONEGI, DE LA CABA & GUERRERO, 2020), which acetic acid is the most implemented as a solvent by its capacity of interacting with the ossein-hydroxyapatite (BRODSKY & RAMSHAW, 1997; GELSE, PÖSCHL & AIGNER, 2003; GOMEZ-GUILLEN et al., 2011). Although, when acetic acid is associated with lactic acid it is expected that hydroxyapatite will be dissolution into a supernatant and the ossein will be preserved, resulting in bone matrix demineralization and making COL I available (JAZIRI et al., 2022; LIU & HUANG, 2016; KANWATE & KUDRE, 2017). Thus, solubilization by acids is acknowledged as a methodology for bone matrix demineralization, but, without an agreement regarding evaluation of the making COL I available against the ossein-hydroxyapatite physicochemical properties.

Further evaluation studies are found in the literature regarding the bone matrix, yet they often do not focus on the ossein-hydroxyapatite properties under the effect of bone demineralization and making COL I available (CHEN et al., 2011; DUNNING, 2002; GEORGIADIS, MÜLLER & SCHNEIDER, 2016; WU et al., 2021; TZAPHLIDOU, 2008).

Moreover, the deposition of the ossein-hydroxyapatite structure in the bone matrix can be investigated by physicochemical evaluation (GEORGIADIS ET AL., 2016; SMITH ET AL., 2016). The particularities of the ossein-hydroxyapatite structural interactions by the bone matrix processing steps and the effects of solubilization by acids can be analyzed by quantification, distribution, spectroscopic, and microscopic methods (GELSE, PÖSCHL & AIGNER, 2003; RIAZ et al., 2018). Therefore, this study investigated the ossein-hydroxyapatite physicochemical properties evaluation by the quantification of components, distribution, spectroscopy, and microscopy, and revealed bone matrix demineralization and making type I collagen available as a result of the processing and solubilization by acids.

4.2. Materials and Methods

4.2.1. Materials

The bones used in this study were residual tibia from male cattle (approximately four years old) slaughtered in a regional butchery provided by Beltecnologia Indústria e Comércio de Produtos Alimentícios LTDA (Grupo Beltec, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil). The used reagents were sodium hydroxide, copper and potassium sulphate, boric, hydrochloric and sulfuric acids, and hydrogen peroxide (Êxodo Científica, Sumaré, SP, Brazil); acetic and lactic acid, methylene blue, sodium chloride, and methyl red (Dinâmica Química Contemporânea, Indaiatuba, SP, Brazil). All the chemicals used were analytical grade standards.

4.2.2. Bone matrix processing

The bovine bone was processed by an adapted method from Paola et al. (2019) and Gao et al. (2018). The bone was cut using a band saw (Vonder SFV090, Curitiba, PR, Brazil) in 5 cm pieces and was kept at 100 °C for 30 minutes in a hot bath (Solab SL-153, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) so that the cartilage and fat could be removed. The clean cuts were dried in the drying chamber (Solab SL-102, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) at 60 °C for 24 hours. The dried cuts were milled by a hammer mill (Tecnal TE-330, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) followed by a high-energy ball mill (Retsch PM 100, Haan, NW, Alemanha) at 400 rpm for 10 minutes, to a crude bone matrix powder. The powder was boiled by immersion in distilled water (1:10 w/v) kept in an Erlenmeyer sealed with a lid and kept at 100 °C for 60 minutes in a hot bath (Solab SL-155, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) to complete fat removal. Finally, the wet fat-free bone matrix was drained and dried in a drying chamber (Solab SL-102, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) at 60 °C for 24 hours, resulting in the wet fat-free bone matrix. The residual extract after boiling was obtained to analyze the mineral content and the pH value. The processes were illustrated in Figure 4.1.

4.2.3. Bone matrix solubilization by acids

The bone matrix solubilization was adapted according to the solubilization methods by acids in bone sources (León-López et al., 2019; Ferraro et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2022; Jaziri et al., 2022). The wet fat-free bone matrix was solubilized by acetic acid followed by lactic acid, both 1 M (1:10 w/v). For each solubilization, the incubation conditions were 37 °C for 3 hours and rotated at 200 rpm (Novatecnica NT715, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil). For each acid, the bone matrix was drained and dried in a drying chamber (Solab SL-102, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) at 60 °C for 24 hours, resulting in the bone matrix solubilized by acetic acid and the bone matrix solubilized by acetic and lactic acid. The residual extracts after solubilization by acids were obtained to analyze the mineral content and the pH value. The processes were illustrated in Figure 4.1.

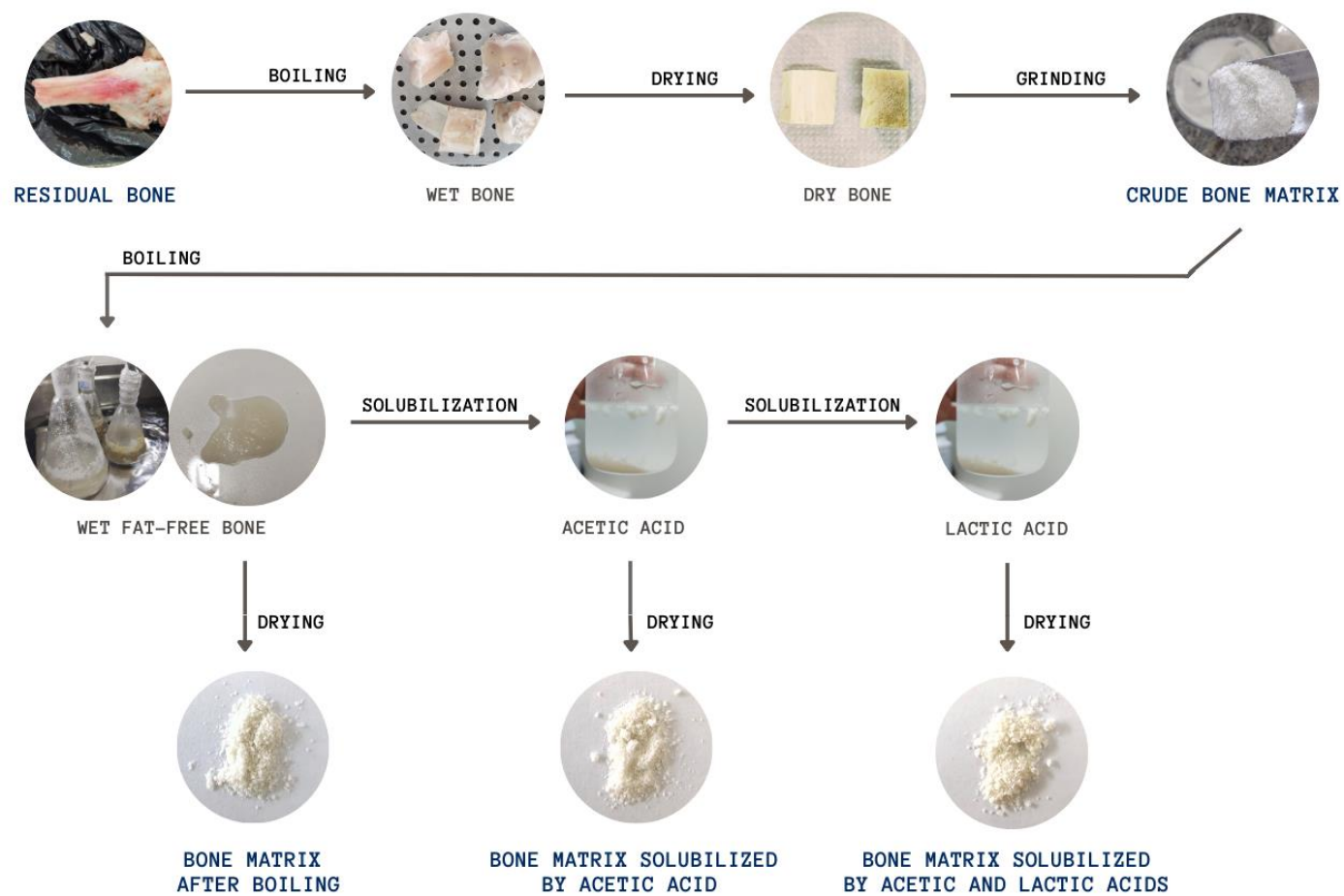


Figure 4.1 - Illustration of the bone matrix processing and the solubilization by acids. The bovine bone processing and solubilization by acids were a viable alternative to bone matrix demineralization and making COL I available.

4.2.4. The evaluation of the ossein-hydroxyapatite physicochemical properties

4.2.4.1. Ossein and hydroxyapatite percentages by nitrogen and ash content

Ossein and hydroxyapatite percentages were determined in the bone matrix by an adapted method from Dhanabalan et al. (2017). The percentages were calculated using Equations 1 and 2, and the crude bone matrix was used as control.

$$\% \text{ Ossein} = \frac{\text{Nitrogen content in bone matrix processed} \times \text{Weight of bone matrix processed}}{\text{Nitrogen content in control} \times \text{Weight of control}} \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

$$\% \text{ Hydroxyapatite} = \frac{\text{Ash content in bone matrix processed} \times \text{Weight of bone matrix processed}}{\text{Ash content in control} \times \text{Weight of control}} \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

Nitrogen content was determined in the bone matrix by Kjeldahl's adapted method AOAC 955.04 (2005). For that, 0.2 grams of sample were weighed with 0.1 grams of copper sulphate and 1 gram of potassium sulphate in 8 mL of sulfuric acid. The digestion was conducted in a digestion system (Sarge Tecnal 046 8-50, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) by heating at 350 °C for 8 hours. The distillation was conducted using a distiller (Tecnal TE-0363, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) with sodium hydroxide 50% reacting in the tube and collection of the distilled fraction in Erlenmeyer with 5 mL boric acid 4% and 1 ml of red methyl and methylene blue. The titration was stopped using standardized hydrochloric acid 0.1 M. The conversion factor used was 6.25 and results were shown in % nitrogen per 100 grams of bone matrix.

Ash content was determined in the bone matrix by ash adapted method from AOAC 942.05 (2008). For that, 0.5 grams were weighed and incinerated in a muffle oven (Fornitec F2 – D, São Paulo, SP, Brazil) at 550 °C for 12 hours. The results were shown in % ash per 100 grams of bone matrix.

4.2.4.2. Mineral content

Mineral content was determined in the bone matrix and the residual extracts by an adapted method from Güven, Karakaya & Babaoğlu (2021). For that, 0.5 grams of the sample was weighed in a distillation tube containing 5 mL of nitric acid 65% and 2 mL of hydrogen peroxide 35%. The digestion was conducted in the digestion system (Sarge Tecnal 046 8-50, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) at 95 °C for 8 hours. It was observed the accumulation (relation between the total nutrients content versus dry mass) of the following elements: aluminum (Al), calcium (Ca), copper (Cu), chromium (Cr), iron (Fe), manganese (Mn), magnesium (Mg), nickel (Ni), lead (Pb), sodium (Na), potassium (K), phosphorus (P), and zinc (Zn). The P content was analyzed by spectrophotometer (Weblabor WUV-51, São Paulo, SP, Brazil). The Na and K contents were analyzed by a flame photometer (Digimed DM-62, São Paulo, SP, Brazil). The remaining Al, Ca, Fe, Cu, Cr, Mn, Mg, Ni, Pb, and Zn contents were analyzed by atomic absorption spectrophotometer (Varian SpectraAA 55B, Santa Clara, CA, USA). The results were shown in milligrams of mineral per kilogram of bone matrix or liter of extract.

4.2.4.3. The particle size distribution of the bone matrix

Particle size distribution was measured in the bone matrix by an adapted method from Zou et al. (2017). The Mastersizer 2000 (Malvern Instruments, Malvern, WR, United Kingdom) was used with water as a dispersion phase. The laser analyzer is based on dynamic light dispersion. Stokes and Einstein's equations were used to calculate the distribution and size of particles.

4.2.4.4. Fourier-Transformation Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR)

The spectra were investigated in the bone matrix by an adapted method from Wu et al. (2019). The FTIR (Bruker VERTEX 70, Billerica, MA, USA) was used in the range of 4000 to

400 cm⁻¹ with a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹ with the ATR technique (Attenuated Total Reflectance). The peak signal in the spectrum was analyzed using the software Opus version 6.5 (Bruker Corporation, Billerica, MA, USA).

4.2.4.5. X-ray diffraction (XRD)

The spectra were investigated in the bone matrix by an adapted method from Ma et al. (2019). The XRD (Bruker-AXS D8, Billerica, MA, USA) was used with CuK α radiation at 40 kV and 25 mA. The parameters of angular diffraction were $2\theta = 5^{\circ}$ - 70° , with a step size of $0,02^{\circ}$ and interval step of 2 s. The resulting signals were exported from the origin equipment software.

4.2.4.6. Scanning electron microscope (SEM)

Images from the scanning electron microscope were performed in the bone matrix aiming to observe the bone surface by an adapted method from Zou et al. (2017). The images were obtained in a scanning electron microscope EVO LS10 (Zeiss, Oberkochen, BW, Germany). The adjustable pressure mode was used in a non-fixed mode, with a valved pressure of 100 μ m and a secondary electron detector specific for this model. The material was not covered by gold. Voltage and Current used, 20KV and 100A, in which the observed material was 400, 1000, and 2000 times.

4.2.5. Statistical analysis

The experimental data were analyzed in software Minitab version 19.2020.1 (Minitab, State College, PA, USA) by ANOVA and Tukey test at a significance level of 5% with a mean and a standard deviation.

4.3. Results and discussion

4.3.1. Bone matrix processing

The hammer milling followed by another high-energy ball mill was enough to mill the particles and form the bone matrix. The transformation of the powder bone from the milling is essential to the bone demineralization and making COL I available, which means homogenous contact of the ossein-hydroxyapatite with the acid reagent in the solubilization (HERNÁNDEZ-RUIZ et al., 2022; SRIMARUT et al., 2021). Investigations of COL I from bone sources utilized the bone matrix powder (FERRARO et al., 2017; PAOLA et al., 2019; CAO et al., 2020) and reinforce the necessity of selecting two or more milling to treat the rigidity of the material in this process. Further, the treatment was performed in the bone matrix by the boiling process to completely remove the fat layer. Boiling is an economical alternative to the use of organic solvents (CHEN ET AL., 2011). The aqueous media do not interfere with the bone matrix at a structural level and it keeps the prominent components of ossein-hydroxyapatite (MENG ET AL., 2022).

4.3.2. Bone matrix solubilization by acids

Solubilization by acids has been studied in bone matrix demineralization and protein fraction availability and is acknowledged as a methodology (MOHAMMADIAN & MADADLOU, 2018; CHEN et al., 2021; AL-KAHTANI et al., 2017; MENG et al., 2022). In this study, the bone matrix was processed and was solubilized to important preliminary methods to induce in bone demineralization, and consequence, making COL I available. The crude bone matrix was resistant to COL I availability, primarily due to its mineral content aligns with COL I, integral to maintaining tissue rigidity (DUNNING, 2002; FERREIRA et al., 2012; TZAPHLIDOU, 2008). However, the selection of acetic and lactic acid solvents is mandatory, since the acids can affect the ossein-hydroxyapatite physicochemical properties within the

deliberate interaction in the bone matrix, where the process leads in hydroxyapatite dissolved to the residual extract and the ossein preserved. Thus, the solubilization by acetic and lactic acids was intentional because it is a viable alternative to bone matrix demineralization and making COL I available. The presence of organic compounds in acetic and lactic acid solvents affects the inorganic fraction of bone matrix through chemical affinity (JAZIRI et al., 2022; LIU & HUANG, 2016; KANWATE & KUDRE, 2017). Consequently, the solubilization by acids affected the bone matrix swelling and ruptured the intermolecular bonds that stabilize the structure of the ossein-hydroxyapatite, and cause the ossein and hydroxyapatite percentages (Figure 4.1). Furthermore, when the acetic and lactic acid were used in solubilization sequential, there was an increased dissolution of hydroxyapatite in the residual extract, while ossein remained available. This approach holds promise for advancing the understanding of the ossein-hydroxyapatite properties within the bone matrix (GOMEZ-GUILLEN et al., 2011; FERRARO et al., 2017; SONG et al., 2018).

4.3.3. The evaluation of the ossein-hydroxyapatite physicochemical properties

4.3.3.1. Ossein and hydroxyapatite percentages by nitrogen and ash content

The crude bone matrix showed 25.5% of nitrogen content and 64.7% of ash content (Table 4.1). Ossein represents the protein predominance (COL I) or organic fraction of bovine bone (FERREIRA et al., 2012) and may present 25% to 30% in the bone matrix, as shown by the nitrogen content (FERRARO et al., 2017; MA et al., 2019). Hydroxyapatite represents the minerals or inorganic fraction of bovine bone and may have 65%, as shown by the ash content (DUNNING, 2002; PACCA et al., 2014). In this study, the crude bone matrix showed 25.5% of nitrogen content and 64.7% of ash content, and its values were considered 100% for ossein or hydroxyapatite. The solubilization by acids had an effect on the ossein and hydroxyapatite percentage within the investigated bone matrix, spotting the bone matrix solubilized by acetic and lactic acid (Table 4.1). The bone matrix solubilized by acetic acid and lactic acids showed 98.5% of ossein and 34.8% of hydroxyapatite. Therefore, the solubilization by acetic and lactic acid showed a substantial percentage of ossein and a lower percentage of hydroxyapatite, which indicates the preservation of ossein and the dissolution of hydroxyapatite within the bone matrix (JAZIRI et al., 2022). Thus, the solubilization by acetic and lactic acid revealed the bone matrix demineralization and making COL I available.

4.3.3.2. Mineral content

Mineral crystals are disposed in the hydroxyapatite (DUNNING, 2002; TZAPHLIDOU, 2008) and were investigated in the bone matrix as well as in the residual extracts obtained to quantify the dissolution in the supernatant. Table 4.2 and Table 4.3 show the bone matrix mineral content was evaluated with an expected prevalence of Ca (FIELD, 2000), and the solubilization by acids had an effect on the hydroxyapatite by indicating the loss of Ca in the respective bone matrix as well as by Ca dissolution in the respective residual extracts. Solubilization by acids did not affect a few mineral contents (Al, Cu, Fe, Mn, and Ni). In contrast, solubilization by acetic and lactic acids showed interference on the major mineral contents (Mg, Na, P, and K) (Table 4.2) and on minor mineral contents (Cr, Pb, and Zn) (Table 4.3). Considering the major mineral contents (Table 4.2) responsible for the stiffness of the bone matrix (DUNNING, 2002; TZAPHLIDOU, 2008), the solubilization by acids had an effect within the bone matrix demineralization followed by the dissolution of hydroxyapatite to the supernatant and was an important indication of the minerals in the residual extract obtained by the bone matrix solubilized by acetic and lactic acid.

Table 4.1 - Ossein and hydroxyapatite percentages by nitrogen and ash content as a result of bone matrix processing and solubilization by acids. The contents were shown in % nitrogen and % ash per 100 grams of bone matrix

	N (g/100g matrix)	% Ossein*	Ash (g/100g matrix)	% Hydroxyapatite**
Crude bone matrix	25.5 ± 0.7 ^b	100	64.7 ± 0.5 ^b	100
Bone matrix after boiling	21.6 ± 1.0 ^c	78.7	69.8 ± 0.5 ^a	100
Bone matrix solubilized by acetic acid	26.7 ± 0.7 ^b	79.2	60.9 ± 1.1 ^b	71.3
Bone matrix solubilized by acetic and lactic acid	57.8 ± 1.5 ^a	98.5	51.8 ± 2.8 ^c	34.8

* Indicates only the nitrogen contents in the treated matrices. ** Indicates only the ash contents in the treated matrices.

Table 4.2 - Major mineral content (Al, Ca, Fe, Mg, Na, K, and P) in the bone matrix and the dissolution in the obtained extract as a result of bone matrix processing and solubilization by acids. The contents were shown in % of the mineral per bone matrix kilogram or liter of extract, and distilled water was used as a control

	Al (mg/kg)	Ca (mg/kg)	Fe (mg/kg)	Mg (mg/kg)	Na (mg/kg)	K (mg/kg)	P (mg/kg)
Crude bone matrix	10.4 ± 0.3 ^a	1037.7 ± 9.0 ^b	2.1 ± 0.02 ^a	14.7 ± 0.2 ^a	772.4 ± 6.1 ^a	22.2 ± 0.02 ^{ab}	108.8 ± 0.5 ^a
Bone matrix after boiling	10.4 ± 0.6 ^a	1217.9 ± 4.3 ^a	2.1 ± 0.04 ^a	16.1 ± 0.1 ^a	686.9 ± 52.9 ^{ab}	13.3 ± 0.01 ^{bc}	121.5 ± 0.3 ^a
Bone matrix solubilized by acetic acid	11.4 ± 0.6 ^a	1127.9 ± 6.9 ^a	2.4 ± 0.2 ^a	7.2 ± 1.1 ^b	542.4 ± 87.2 ^{ab}	31.0 ± 6.3 ^a	118.9 ± 8.1 ^a
Bone matrix solubilized by acetic and lactic acid	11.8 ± 0.2 ^a	885.9 ± 13.8 ^c	2.3 ± 0.06 ^a	5.6 ± 0.3 ^b	428.5 ± 70.0 ^b	3.5 ± 1.3 ^c	104.9 ± 0.2 ^a
	Al (mg/L)	Ca (mg/L)	Fe (mg/L)	Mg (mg/L)	Na (mg/L)	K (mg/L)	P (mg/L)
Control extract	11.4 ± 0.2 ^a	22.7 ± 8.5 ^c	2.1 ± 0.2 ^a	1.7 ± 1.2 ^b	2.1 ± 0.7 ^b	3.6 ± 1.1 ^a	0.3 ± 0.2 ^b
Bone matrix after boiling extract*	10.7 ± 0.4 ^a	15.2 ± 2.7 ^c	2.2 ± 0.03 ^a	1.0 ± 0.2 ^b	23.9 ± 1.6 ^{ab}	8.6 ± 3.4 ^a	0.1 ± 0.1 ^b
Bone matrix solubilized by acetic acid extract**	11.4 ± 1.1 ^a	184.9 ± 21.0 ^b	1.8 ± 0.05 ^a	11.4 ± 2.5 ^a	37.9 ± 14.5 ^{ab}	3.7 ± 2.3 ^a	0.5 ± 0.3 ^b
Bone matrix solubilized by acetic and lactic acid extract ***	10.9 ± 0.3 ^a	550.9 ± 7.6 ^a	2.1 ± 0.02 ^a	7.6 ± 0.2 ^a	39.9 ± 10.0 ^a	1.5 ± 1.6 ^a	7.6 ± 0.1 ^a

* 8.46 pH extract. ** 4.05 pH extract. *** 3.50 pH extract.

Table 4.3 - Minor mineral content (Cu, Cr, Pb, Mn, Ni, and Zn) in the bovine bone matrix and the dissolution in the obtained extract as a result of bone matrix processing and solubilization by acids. The contents were shown in % of the mineral per bone matrix kilogram or liter of extract, and distilled water was used as a control

	Cu (mg/kg)	Cr (mg/kg)	Pb (mg/kg)	Mn (mg/kg)	Ni (mg/kg)	Zn (mg/kg)
Crude bone matrix	0.1 ± 0.06 ^a	0.6 ± 0.01 ^a	0.6 ± 0.01 ^a	0.1 ± 0.01 ^a	0.2 ± 0.01 ^a	0.4 ± 0.01 ^c
Bone matrix after boiling	0.1 ± 0.01 ^a	0.6 ± 0.03 ^a	0.6 ± 0.01 ^a	0.1 ± 0.01 ^a	0.2 ± 0.04 ^a	0.5 ± 0.02 ^b
Bone matrix solubilized by acetic acid	0.1 ± 0.01 ^a	0.7 ± 0.02 ^a	0.6 ± 0.04 ^a	0.1 ± 0.04 ^a	0.1 ± 0.16 ^a	0.6 ± 0.01 ^a
Bone matrix solubilized by acetic and lactic acid	0.1 ± 0.01 ^a	0.7 ± 0.06 ^a	0.6 ± 0.02 ^a	0.1 ± 0.01 ^a	0.2 ± 0.03 ^a	0.6 ± 0.01 ^a
	Cu (mg/L)	Cr (mg/L)	Pb (mg/L)	Mn (mg/L)	Ni (mg/L)	Zn (mg/L)
Control extract	0.01 ± 0.01 ^a	0.7 ± 0.04 ^a	0.4 ± 0.01 ^b	0.1 ± 0.02 ^a	0.1 ± 0.13 ^a	0.1 ± 0.01 ^b
Extract after boiling*	0.02 ± 0.01 ^a	0.6 ± 0.05 ^{ab}	0.4 ± 0.01 ^b	0.1 ± 0.01 ^a	0.2 ± 0.01 ^a	0.1 ± 0.01 ^b
Extract from solubilized by acetic acid **	0.03 ± 0.01 ^a	0.5 ± 0.03 ^b	0.5 ± 0.03 ^{ab}	0.1 ± 0.04 ^a	0.1 ± 0.17 ^a	0.1 ± 0.01 ^{ab}
Extract from solubilized by acetic and lactic acid ***	0.05 ± 0.01 ^a	0.6 ± 0.02 ^{ab}	0.5 ± 0.01 ^a	0.1 ± 0.01 ^a	0.2 ± 0.01 ^a	0.3 ± 0.01 ^a

* 8.46 pH extract. ** 4.05 pH extract. *** 3.50 pH extract.

4.3.3.3. The particle size distribution of the powder matrix

The particle size distribution of the bone matrix was evaluated as a result of processing and solubilization by acids. Figure 4.2 shows the distribution ranging in size from 10 to 1000 μm . The bone matrix solubilized by acetic and lactic acid distribution demonstrated less variation, showing its uniform peak dispersed between 100 and 1000 μm , and this distribution indicates possibly increased aggregation of the protein by the molecular interactions since the collagen fibers show auto-arranged organic structures (FERRARO et al., 2016). Thus, it can be observed that the particle size distribution in the bone matrix solubilized by acetic and lactic acid (Figure 4.2) affected the ossein-hydroxyapatite physicochemical properties with effect on the particle aggregation (SONG et al., 2021; HU et al., 2022; ZHANG et al., 2021).

4.3.3.4. Fourier-Transformation Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR)

The spectra in the ossein-hydroxyapatite properties of the bone matrix were obtained by FTIR and were evaluated as a result of processing and solubilization by acids. Figure 4.3 shows the results from the peak signals. The spectra related to the hydroxyapatite appeared in the 500-600 cm^{-1} (RIAZ et al., 2018; WU et al., 2019), exhibiting higher intensity in the crude bone matrix than expected. The spectra characteristic of ossein-hydroxyapatite in the bone matrix appeared as peaks between 1000 - 1100 cm^{-1} , possibly due to the coupling vibrations of the mineral contents with the peptide groups from collagen (FERRARO ET AL., 2017; RIAZ ET AL., 2018). The bone matrix solubilized by acids showed increased intensity in the peaks associated with ossein vibrations, where the amide being characteristic to collagen with the spectrum of amide A in 2900-3000 cm^{-1} (stretching N-H), of amide B in 2800-2900 cm^{-1} (stretching C-H), of amide I in 1700-1800 cm^{-1} (stretching C=O), of amide II in 1600-1700 cm^{-1} and of amide III from 1350-1450 cm^{-1} (N-H attached to stretching C-N) (AL-KAHTANI et al., 2017; FERRARO et al., 2017; ZHANG et al., 2021). The spectra allowed for the identification of COL I and minerals based on characteristic vibrations of ossein and hydroxyapatite. Considering the peak signals, the solubilization by acetic and lactic acid (Figure 4.3) revealed the higher bone matrix ossein vibrations, important for effectiveness in the ossein-hydroxyapatite properties.

4.3.3.5. X-ray diffraction (XRD)

The spectra in the ossein-hydroxyapatite structure of the bone matrix were obtained by XRD and were evaluated as a result of processing and solubilization by acids. Figure 4.4 shows the results from the peak signals. The spectra XRD indicate the organic complex or metallic ions through the diffraction peaks (ZHANG et al., 2021). As well as the bone matrix that shows a random pattern, with two peaks of strong intensity in the matrices solubilized by acids. The bone matrix solubilization by acids affected the dispersion of the components in the ossein-hydroxyapatite, generating interactive strength reflected by the diffraction peaks of high intensity, possibly due to the presence of COL I available (WANG et al., 2020). Considering the peak signals, the solubilization by acetic and lactic acid (Figure 4.4) impacted the diffraction peak formation, which demonstrates its effectiveness in the ossein-hydroxyapatite properties.

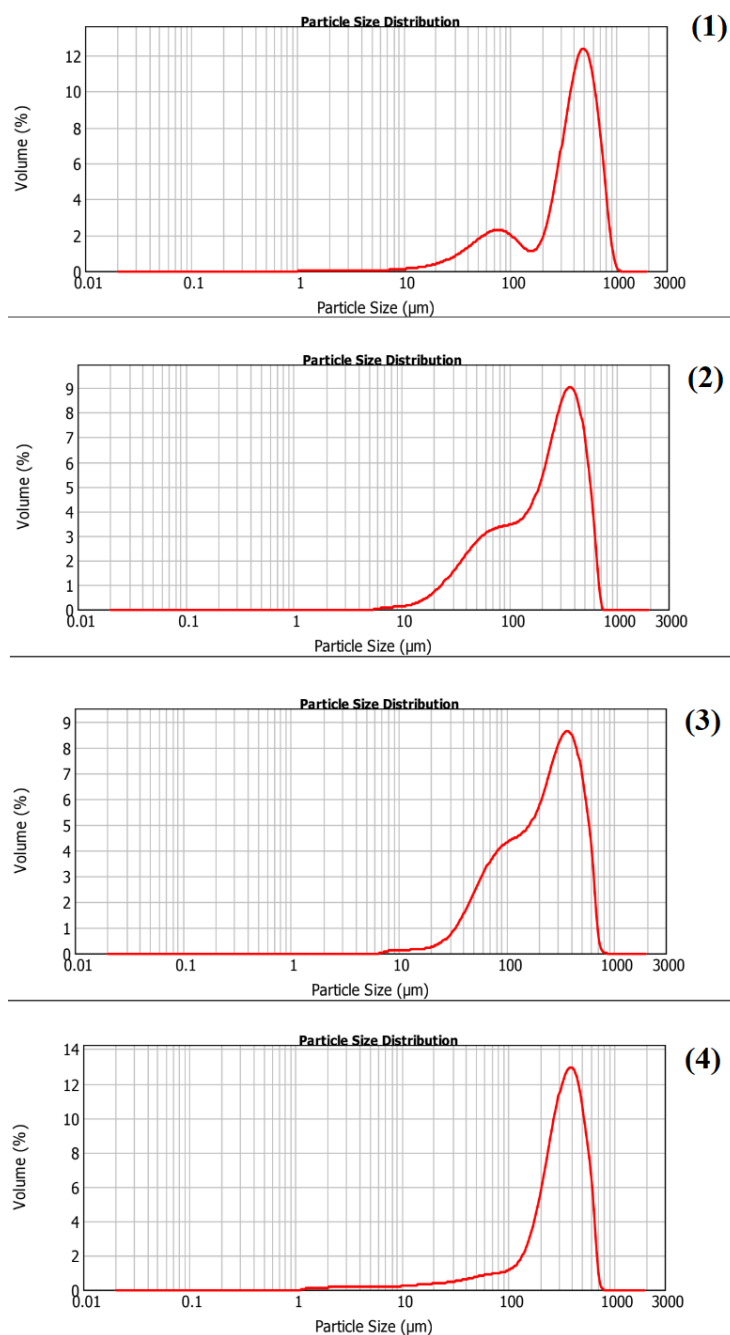


Figure 4.2 - Particle size distribution as a result of bone matrix processing and solubilization by acids: (1) Crude bone matrix; (2) Bone matrix after boiling; (3) Bone matrix solubilized by acetic acid; (4) Bone matrix solubilized by acetic and lactic acid.

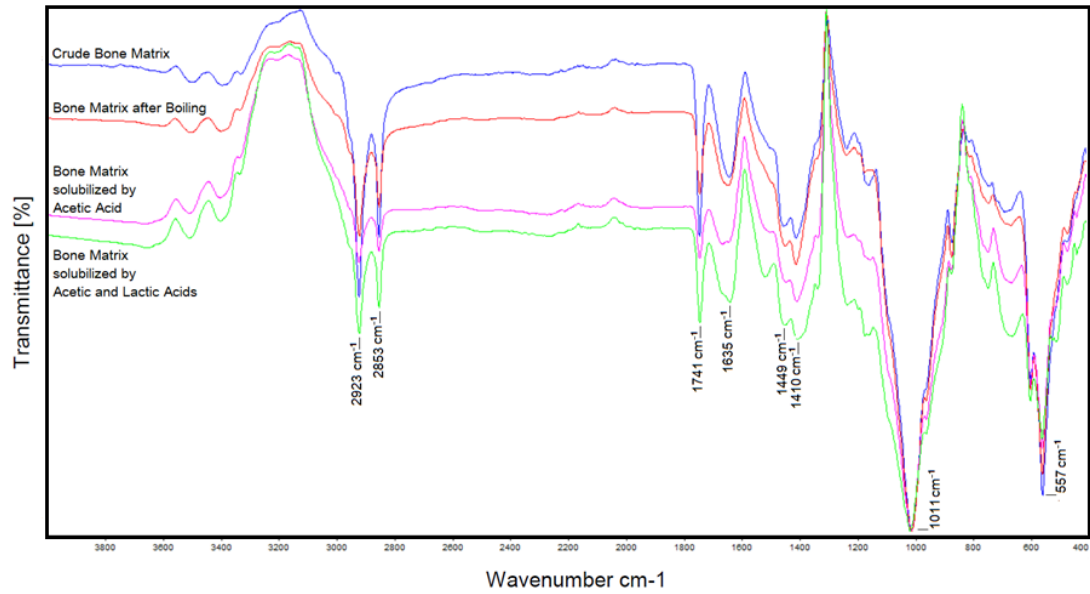


Figure 4.3 - Spectra with signals from peaks by FTIR as a result of bone matrix processing and solubilization by acids. The indicated peak at 557 cm⁻¹ represents the minerals from hydroxyapatite. The peak indicated at 1011 cm⁻¹ represents the ossein-hydroxyapatite. The other highlighted peaks are from amide group vibrations related to collagen from ossein.

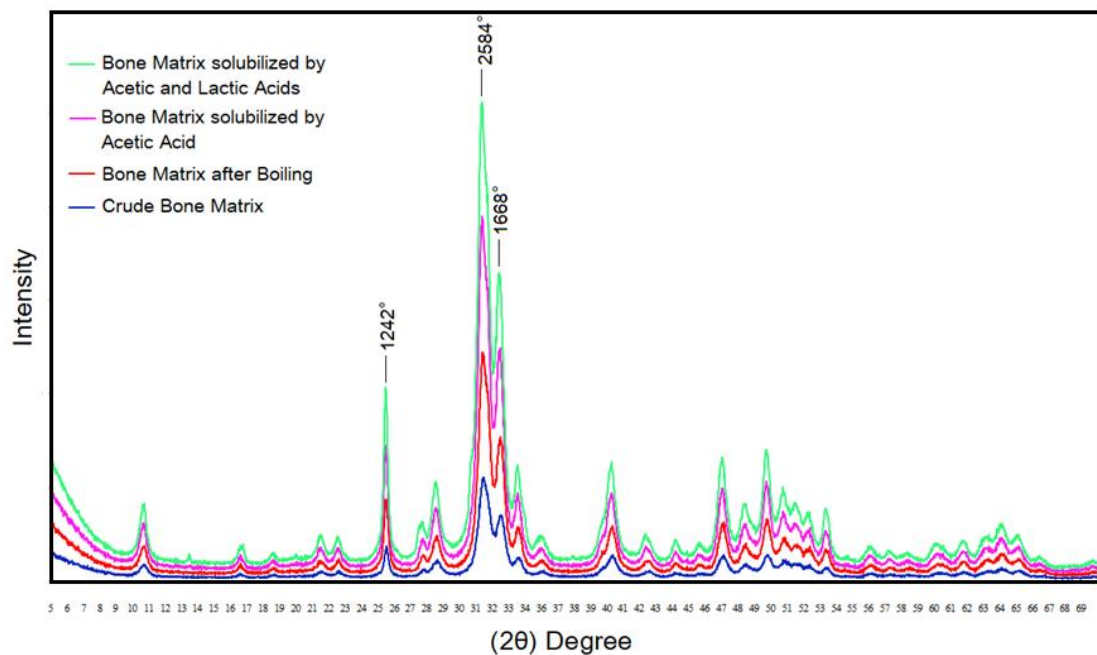


Figure 4.4 - Spectra with peak signals by XRD as a result of bone matrix processing and solubilization by acids. The indicated diffraction peaks are the ones with greater intensities and represent the organic complex or metallic ions in the bone matrix solubilized by acids.

4.3.3.6. Scanning electron microscope (SEM)

The image of the bone matrix surface was obtained by SEM and was evaluated as a result of processing and solubilization by acids. Figure 4.5 shows the crude bone matrix after boiling with rough random particle sizes. Figure 4.6 and Figure 4.7 represent the bone matrix solubilized by acids also showing rough random particle sizes, however with changes in the bone surface by treatments, indicated by pores. Hydroxyapatite is responsible for the rigidity of the bone matrix since its mineral crystals stabilize the ossein-hydroxyapatite structure. However, the bone matrix solubilization by acids showed demineralization (Table 4.2) in association with the rupture of intermolecular bonds in the ossein-hydroxyapatite by the affinity to the acid solvent, and consequently, the loss of mineral crystals. Therefore, the solubilization by acids causes deformations in the bone surface (AL-KAHTANI et al., 2017; CAO et al., 2020; TZAPHLIDOU, 2008; WU et al., 2019). The obtained images of the bone matrix solubilized by acids indicate deformations by pores in the bone surface, whereas the bone matrix solubilized by acetic and lactic acid had an enhancement in pores on the bone surface from observed fragments.

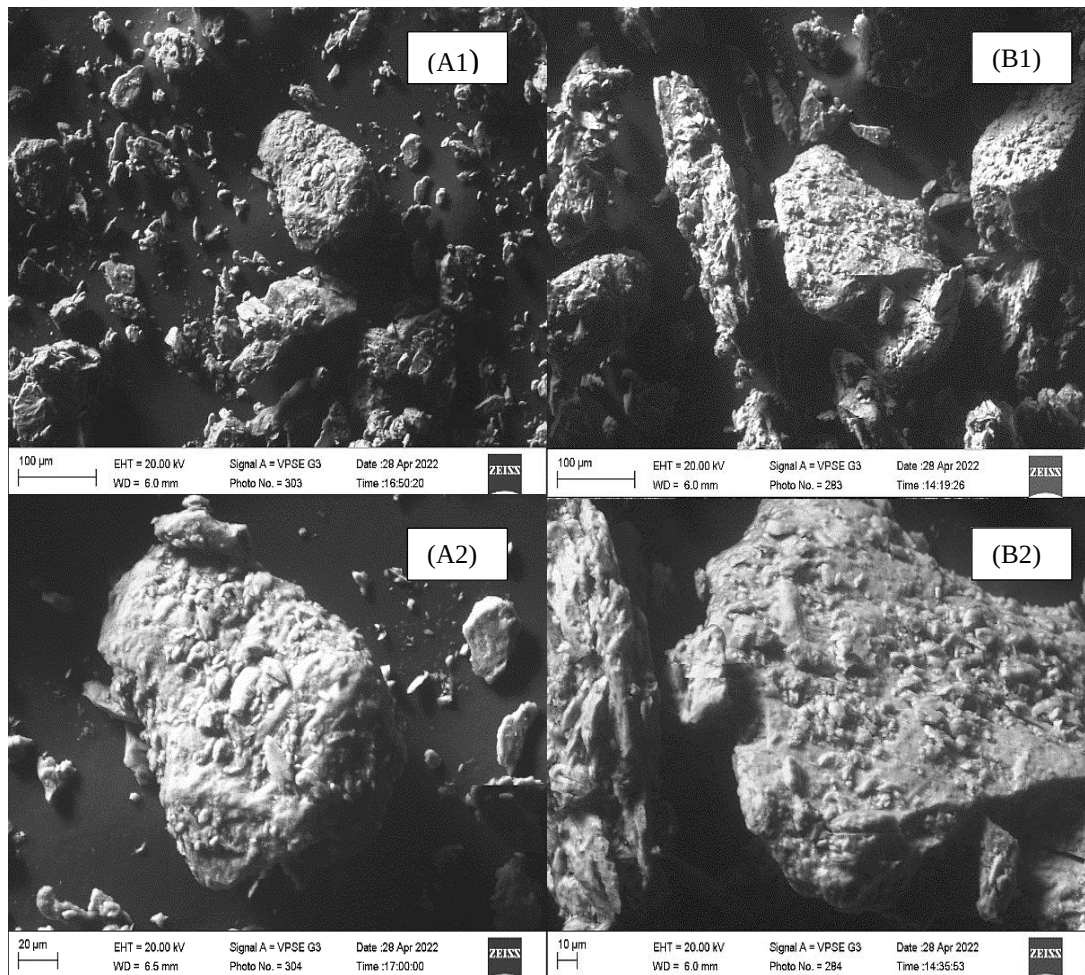


Figure 4.5 - SEM from the bone matrix surface magnified 400 (A1 and B1) and 1000 (A2 and B2) times with crude bone matrix surface (A1 and A2) and the bone matrix after boiling (B1 and B2). The bone matrix does not present interferences in the bone surface represented by pores.

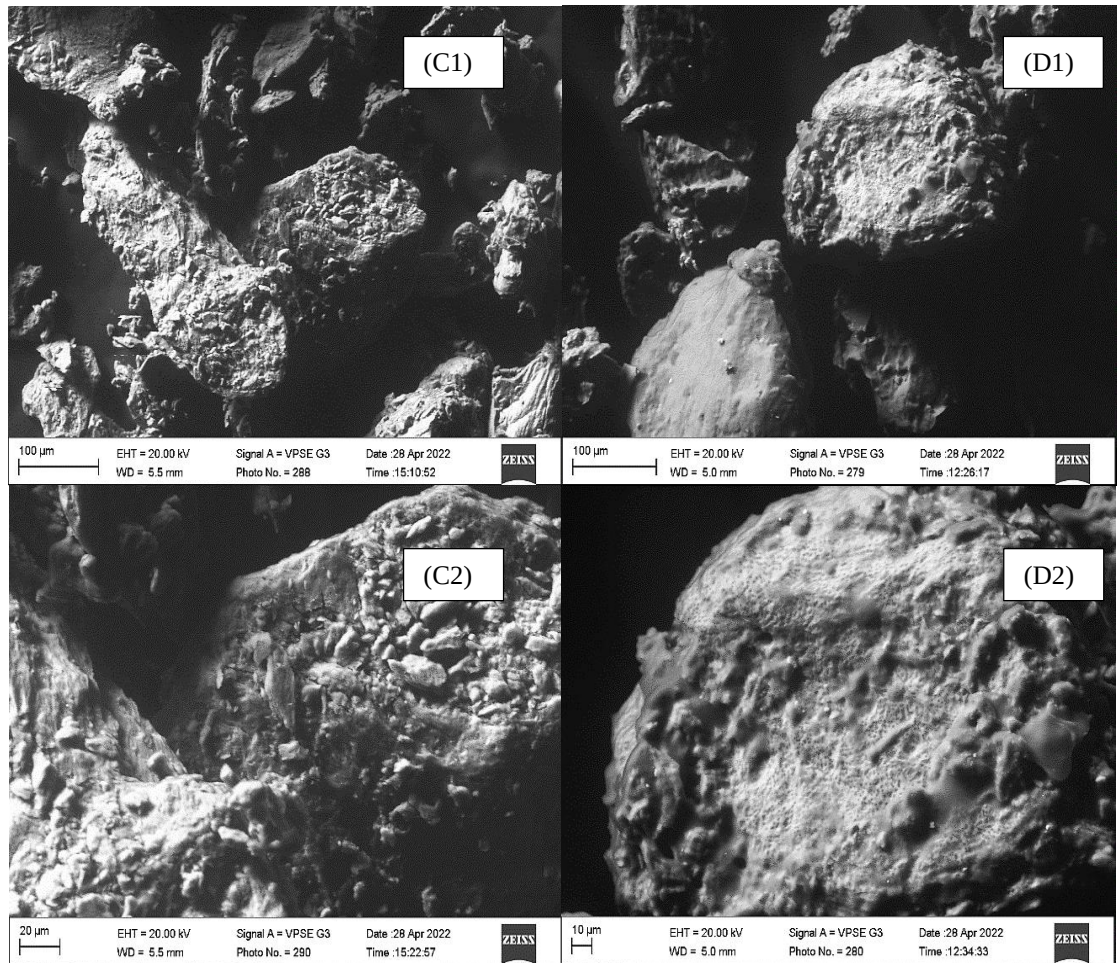


Figure 4.6 - SEM from the bone matrix surface magnified 400 (C1 and D1) and 1000 (C2 and D2) times with the bone matrix solubilized by acetic acid (C1 and C2) and the bone matrix solubilized by acetic and lactic acids (D1 and D2). The bone matrix presents interferences in the bone surface represented by pores.

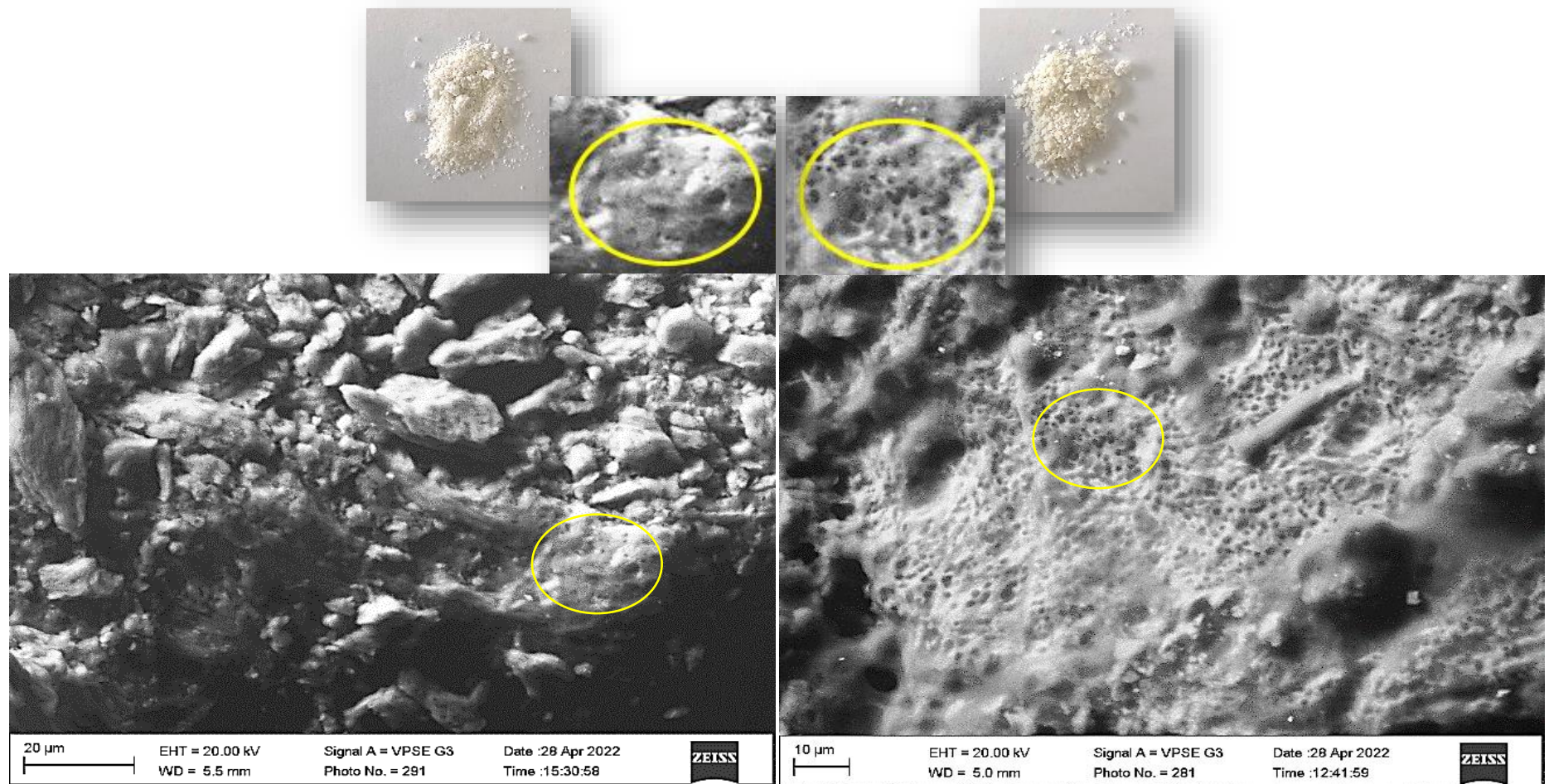


Figure 4.7 - SEM from the bone matrix surface magnified 2000 times with the bone matrix solubilized by acetic and lactic acids (F2) with high interferences in the bone surface represented by pores compared to the bone matrix solubilized by acetic acid (F1).

4.4. Conclusion

The bovine bone processing and solubilization by acids were a viable alternative to bone matrix demineralization and making COL I available since the evaluation of the ossein-hydroxyapatite physicochemical properties. The bone matrix solubilized by acetic and lactic acid showed the preservation of ossein and the dissolution of hydroxyapatite and also showed the dissolution of major mineral contents in the residual extract. The bone matrix solubilized by acetic and lactic acid also revealed ossein-hydroxyapatite effects in the particle size distribution and the spectra. In addition, it showed deformation in the pores in the bone surface spotted by microscopy. The investigation revealed bone matrix demineralization and making COL I available due to processing and solubilization by acids. This study made it possible a biotechnological potential investigation of bone COL I.

4.5. References

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5. CAPÍTULO III

Title

Collagen gel from bovine tibia waste as protein-based product: evaluation of hydrolysis by proteases and self-assembled hydrogels with xanthan gum and transglutaminase

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Abstract

The study aimed to evaluate a collagen gel obtained by enzymatic hydrolysis of type I collagen from bovine bone waste and to enable its use in the formation of self-assembled hydrogels with xanthan gum and transglutaminase. The collagen gel was obtained by bone processing, demineralization, and hydrolysis using commercial proteases (Protamex APP 3000 and Protezyn PW2A1105, separately or in combination). The degree of hydrolysis, process yield, and protein and hydroxyproline content were evaluated. The combination of proteases resulted in higher process yield, and protein and hydroxyproline content. Solubility were evaluated. Thermal properties were evaluated by differential scanning calorimetry and thermal gravimetric analysis. Structural properties were evaluated by Fourier transformation infrared spectroscopy and fluorescence microscopy. The collagen gel obtained by combination of proteases was used to form self-assembled hydrogels with xanthan gum and transglutaminase. Structural properties were evaluated by Fourier transformation infrared spectroscopy and fluorescence microscopy. The results confirmed the biocompatibility of the collagen gel with xanthan gum and transglutaminase. Fluorescence microscopy showed that the collagen and xanthan gum formed a stable self-assembled hydrogel. The study revealed that the collagen gel from bovine tibia waste could potentially be used in the food industry applications as a protein-based product.

Keywords

emerging protein; bovine bone; bone collagen; biocompatibility; fluorescence microscopy; FTIR.

5.1. Introduction

Collagen is a biopolymeric protein and its fibrous structure features a characteristic triple helical, identified by the repetitive and continuous sequences of the amino acids glycine, proline, and hydroxyproline, giving collagen biocompatibility properties (GOMEZ-GUILLEN et al., 2011; LI; WU, 2018; NAOMI et al., 2021). There are 29 types of collagen, but the type I (collagen I) is responsible for the protein structural properties of rigid tissues in mammals, as well as in bone, and the long fibrous structure in triple helical conformation with the natural capacity of self-assembly stands out (GEORGIADIS, MÜLLER, & SCHNEIDER, 2016; HE et al., 2021; MA et al., 2021). Collagen I has a wide range of applications due to its biocompatibility and can be effectively employed in hydrogel formation, providing important functionalities as protein-based product in food development, such as gelling, stabilizing, emulsifying, and crosslinking (CAO et al., 2021; TANG et al., 2022).

An increasing number of studies are focusing on obtaining collagen from bone waste, given that bone is a notable source of collagen I. Indeed, it has already been explored in the bovine (CAO et al. 2020; PAOLA et al., 2019; QI et al., 2023; YAO et al., 2020; ZHANG et al., 2021), ovine (GAO et al., 2018; HU et al., 2022; MATULESSY et al., 2021; VIDAL et al., 2020; WANG et al., 2020), porcine (WU et al., 2019), and camel bone (WANG et al., 2023). Studies of collagen I from bone waste have also been employed to evaluate its biocompatibility (OECHSLE et al., 2016), hydrophilicity (YU et al., 2019), and solubility (GAO et al., 2018). The potential of bone waste lies in the fibrous structure of collagen I and the ability of its peptide hydrolysates to form a collagen gel, a property that is influenced by the source and the hydrolysis reaction (FERTALA, 2020; HONG et al., 2019; TANG et al., 2022). For effective process, it is essential to use protease on bone collagen I in a manner that preserves the fibrous structure. As a result, the released peptides are organized into fibrils, leading to the formation of a self-assembling collagen gel (FU et al., 2019; HONG, et al., 2019; NAOMI et al., 2021).

Hydrogel is an assembled system formed by macromolecules and their network that absorbs a significant amount of water/liquid without dissolving, ensuring biocompatibility and stability (FAN et al., 2022; LI et al., 2019). Collagen I has fibrous structure to form a single hydrogel by collagen gel, but, can be degraded under extreme physical or chemical conditions (FAN et al., 2022; LIU et al., 2019; SAQIB et al., 2022). Moreover, because of the unique biocompatibility of collagen I, the self-assembled hydrogel formation with xanthan gum (XGum) and transglutaminase (TGase) becomes an alternative to stabilize collagen I (AHMAD et al., 2019; LIU et al., 2020; NAOMI et al., 2021). Hydrogel from collagen I have also been used in combination with XGum (PHAM et al., 2016), carrageen gum and TGase enzyme (CHEN et al., 2022), laccase enzyme (TANG et al., 2021), and gelatin (HE et al., 2020), which increases the interest in understanding the collagen I function hydrogel formation with XGum and TGase.

Although studies on collagen I from bone waste are emerging, researchers have not yet fully explored hydrolyzed peptides for applications in collagen gel or their use in hydrogel formation. This gap presents an opportunity for valorize bone waste by-products as protein-based products. Thus, further research is needed to explore the hydrolysis of collagen I from bovine tibia waste by proteases, focused on its ability to form a gel and its use in the assembled formation such as hydrogel (DING et al., 2022; LIU et al., 2020; SAQIB et al., 2022; ZHANG; BAI, 2021). In fact, hydrogel could be widely used to improve food matrix profiles and develop novel food formulations, with properties modified by interacting and entangling the individual components (IRASTORZA, et al., 2021; ZHONG & ZHAO, 2022). If the hydrolysis of collagen I and the formation of collagen gel from bovine tibia waste are recognized, the potential applications of collagen gel and self-assembled hydrogels with XGum and TGase open opportunities for use in the food industry as protein-based products (MIWA, 2020; TANG et al., 2022). After all, collagen I has a great application in the self-assembled hydrogels and

provides natural biocompatibility with polysaccharides and enzymes due to its fibrous structure (CAO et al., 2021; FU et al., 2019; TANG et al., 2022). Therefore, the hydrolysis of collagen I by protease needs to be studied in depth to properly valorize bovine tibia waste, to form a collagen gel with biocompatibility and stability, and to reveal its potential as a protein-based product. To this end, the study aimed to evaluate of a novel collagen gel from bovine tibia waste, in detail the hydrolysis of type I collagen by commercial protease, and enable its use in the formation of self-assembled hydrogels with XGum and TGase.

5.2. Materials and methods

5.2.1. Materials

The bovine tibia waste was residual from 4-year-old male cattle, slaughtered in a regional butchery provided by Beltecnologia Indústria e Comércio de Produtos Alimentícios LTDA and Proteínas MS LTDA (Grupo Beltec, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil). The proteases used for hydrolysis were: Protezyn APP 3000 (Prozyn, São Paulo, SP, Brazil) and Protamex PW2A1105 (Novozymes, Araucária, PR, Brazil). The materials used to form hydrogels were: transglutaminase Activa TG-S-NF (Ajinomoto, Limeira, SP, Brazil) and Xanthan Gum (Sinergia Científica, Campinas, SP, Brazil). The chemical reagents used for analysis were: 4-dimethylamino benzaldehyde and Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, CA, USA); acetic, lactic, hydrochloric and sulfuric acids, chloramine-T, formaldehyde, sodium hydroxide and sodium chloride (Dinâmica Química Contemporânea, Indaiatuba, SP, Brazil). All these chemicals are in analytical grade standards.

5.2.2. Collagen gel from bovine tibia waste

5.2.2.1. Tibia processing and demineralization

The tibia processing and demineralization were adapted method from Biancardi et al. (2024). The tibia was cut using a band saw (Vonder SFV090, Curitiba, PR, Brazil) in 5 cm pieces and it was boiled by immersion in distilled water (1:5 w/v) and kept at 100 °C for 30 min (Solab SL-153, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) to remove the cartilage and fat. The clean cuts were dried in the dryer chamber (Solab SL-102, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) at 60 °C for 24 h. The dried cuts were milled by a hammer mill (Tecnal TE-330, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) and a high-energy ball mill at 400 rpm for 10 min (Retsch PM 100, Haan, NW, Germany). The tibia milled was boiled by immersion in distilled water (1:10 w/v) and kept at 100 °C for 60 min (Marconi MA 184/BX, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) to complete fat removal. The wet fat-free tibia was drained and was solubilized by acetic acid followed by lactic acid, both 1 M (1:10 w/v). For each solubilization, the incubation conditions were kept at 300 rpm at 37 °C for 3 h (Marconi MA 184/BX, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil). The wet demineralized tibia was drained and dried in the drying chamber (Ethik, Vargem Grande Paulista, SP, Brazil) at 60 °C for 24 h.

5.2.2.2. Hydrolysis of collagen I by proteases

The hydrolysis of collagen I by proteases was adapted from Matulesy et al. (2021) and Paola et al. (2019). The hydrolysates were obtained using separately two enzymes (Protamex or Protezyn), their combination (Protamex + Protezyn), and their sequence (Protamex → Protezyn). The protease concentrations were 5 g per 100 g of protein. The demineralized tibia was solubilized in buffer solution EDTA-2Na 0.5 M (1:100 w/v) with Protezyn at pH 11, and Protamex at pH 10, and Protezyn + Protamex at pH 10, and Protamex → Protezyn at pH 10 followed by adjustment to pH 11 with NaOH 1 M, under optimal incubation conditions for these proteases at 60 °C for 6 h (Tecnal TE-053, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil). The solutions were heated at 90 °C for 15 min to inactivate the enzyme activity in a bath (Marconi MA 184/BX, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil). The solution of NaCl 4 M (1:1 v/v) was added to the hydrolysate and stored under refrigeration at 4 °C for 24 h to precipitate the collagen I. The precipitate was

collected by centrifugation at 9500 rpm at 4 °C for 20 min (Sorvall ST 8R, Waltham, MA, USA) and dialyzed with deionized water 3 times by centrifugation at 9,500 rpm at 4 °C for 20 min (Sorvall ST 8R, Waltham, MA, USA), with renewing the solution each centrifugation. Collagen I was formed by self-assembled in a collagen gel and stored under freezing conditions at -18 °C for evaluation.

5.2.2.3. Degree of hydrolysis

The degree of hydrolysis (DH) in the hydrolyzed solution was adapted from Hu et al. (2022). DH was determined by formol titration method (Rutherford, 2010) based on the percentage of α -amino nitrogen in the substrate. 10 mL of hydrolysis solutions (before precipitation described in 2.2.2) was taken with a recognized initial pH value. And, 10 mL of neutral formaldehyde was added to affect the pH. Then, it was titrated with NaOH 0.5 M to the initial pH value. The volume (mL) of NaOH 0.5 M consumed after formaldehyde addition was noted as V_f . V_o is the volume (mL) of NaOH 0.5 M consumed in a blank experiment with deionized water. The DH was calculated by equation 1.

$$DH (\%) = (V_f - V_o) \times C \times \left(\frac{0.014}{10}\right) \times \left(\frac{V}{TPN}\right) \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

Where: The C is the NaOH solution molarity (M); the value 0.014 represents the mass (g) of nitrogen which is equivalent to 1 mL of NaOH 1 M; the value 10 is the volume (mL) of the sample; V is the total volume (mL) of hydrolysate; TPN is the protein content in the demineralized bone determined by Dumas method (conversion factor of 6.25).

5.2.2.4. Protein content and process yield

The protein content (PC) in the collagen gel was adapted from Hall & Schönfeldt et al. (2013). PC was determined by Dumas Combustion method (Etheridge et al., 2000) based on the combustion process to measure nitrogen gas values. The samples were combusted at $\pm 1000 - 1050$ °C, which O₂ flow rate was 400 ml/min, and at a ratio of 1.6 mL O₂/mg of rice flour standard ($N = 1.38 \pm 0.05$ %) (Alpha Resources Inc., Stevensville USA). A thermal conductivity cell detected the difference in thermal conductivity caused by the presence of gas nitrogen (VELP Dumas NDA 701, Usmate Velate, MB, Italy). The conversion factor used was 6.25 and PC results were expressed in percent grams of collagen per 100 grams of gel. The process yield (Y) of the hydrolysis to collagen gel was adapted from Vidal et al. (2020). The process yield was calculated by equation 2.

$$Y (\%) = \left(\frac{W_f \times PC_f}{W_o \times PC_o}\right) \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

Where: W_o is the weight of demineralized bone (g); W_f is the weight of collagen gel (g); PC_o is the protein content of demineralized bone (g protein/g bone); PC_f is the protein content of collagen gel (g protein/g collagen gel).

5.2.2.5. Hydroxyproline content

The hydroxyproline content (HC) in the collagen gel was adapted from AOAC 990.26 (2009). HC was determined by colorimetric method based on the oxidation of hydroxyproline with chloramine-T and colored with 4-dimethylaminobenzaldehyde and measured at 560 nm against a blank reagent. The samples were hydrolyzed with H₂SO₄ 3.5 M (1:15 w/v) at 300 rpm at 105 °C (IKA C-MAG HS7, Campinas, SP, Brazil) for 16 h in a fume hood (BioSeg, Campinas, SP, Brazil) and were diluted for the final concentration of hydroxyproline stayed

near 0.3 µg/ml. The hydrolyzed samples were added to the oxidation solution with chloramine-T, and the dye solution with 4-dimethylamino benzaldehyde. The absorbance was measured by spectrophotometer at 560 nm (PG Instruments T60V, Lutterworth, LEC, UK). The calibration curve was obtained with analytical hydroxyproline (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, CA, USA) in the various concentrations (0, 0.3, 0.6, 1.2, 2.4, 3.6, 4.8 µg/ml), which blank was diluted without hydroxyproline. The conversion factor used was 8 and HC results were showed as grams of collagen per 100 grams of gel.

5.2.2.6. Statistical Data Analysis

The collagen gel developed data were expressed with a mean value and standard deviation ANOVA and Tukey test at a significance level of 5% software Minitab version 19.2020.1 (Minitab, State College, PA, USA).

5.2.3. Collagen gel used to formation of hydrogels

5.2.3.1. Solubility

The solubility of the collagen gel was adapted from Vidal et al. (2020). The sample was dissolved in acetic acid 1 M (1:5 /v) and was stirred at 4 °C for 12 h (Marconi MA 184/BX, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil), and the supernatant was collected by centrifugation at 9500 rpm at 4 °C for 15 min (Sorvall ST 8R, Waltham, MA, USA). The pH of the supernatant was adjusted for 1.0 to 10.0 with NaOH 1 M or HCl 1 M and its protein content was determined by the Bradford method (Bradford, 1976). The calibration curve was measured with analytical bovine serum albumin (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, CA, USA). The solubility curve was obtained by considering 100% of the solubility of the sample to be obtained at the highest pH value.

5.2.3.2. Differential scanning calorimetry and thermal gravimetric analysis

The differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) and thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA) in the collagen gel were adapted respectively from Tian et al. (2020) and Qi et al. (2023). The DSC was performed at 10 to 120 °C, which N2 flow rate at 50 mL/min, and the heating rate at 10 °C/min (Mettler Toledo DSC1, Schwerzenbach, ZH, Switzerland). The TGA was performed at 25 to 800 °C which the O2 and N2 flow rate at 50 mL/min, and the heating rate at 10 °C/min (Mettler Toledo TGA, Schwerzenbach, ZH, Switzerland).

5.2.3.3. Formation of self-assembled hydrogels with XGum and TGase

The collagen gel was used in the formation of self-assembled hydrogel with XGum, TGase, and XGum + TGase, and was tested as described Chen et al. (2022) and Tang et al. (2021). For all hydrogels, the collagen gel was hydrated with distilled water (1:20 w/v) and was stirred at 100 rpm at 45 °C for 30 min (IKA C-MAG HS7, Campinas, SP, Brazil). The self-assembled hydrogels formations are described below:

(a) Hydrogel with XGum: 5 g of XGum per 100 g of collagen gel was added to the solution and stirred at 100 rpm and 45 °C for 30 min (IKA C-MAG HS7, Campinas, SP, Brazil);

(b) Hydrogel with TGase: the pH value of the collagen gel was adjusted to 7 with acetic acid 0.5 M, followed by the addition of 50 g of TGase per 100 g of collagen gel, and stirred at 100 rpm at 45 °C for 30 min (IKA C-MAG HS7, Campinas, SP, Brazil);

(c) Hydrogel with XGum + TGase: the pH value of the collagen gel was adjusted to 7 with acetic acid 0.5 M, followed by the addition of 5 g of XGum and 50 g of TGase per 100 g of collagen gel, and stirred at 100 rpm and 45 °C for 30 min (IKA C-MAG HS7, Campinas, SP, Brazil).

All hydrogels were left at 4 °C for 12 h and then vacuum-dried at 60 °C for 3 h (Tecnal TE-395, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil).

5.2.3.4. Fourier Transformation Infrared Spectroscopy

The Fourier transformation infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) in the collagen gel and hydrogels was adapted from Wu et al. (2019). A small portion of the samples was transferred to the agate mortar and was added KBr in the ratio 0.5/100 to prepare the pressed pellet (~ 7 tons for 4 min). FTIR (Nicolet 6700, Madison, WI, USA) was used in the range of 4000 to 400 cm⁻¹ with a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹ with a Snap-In Baseplate accessory.

5.2.3.5. Fluorescence microscopy

The fluorescence microscopy in the collagen gel and hydrogels was adapted from Nascimento et al. (2023). The fluorescence microscopy was performed a microscope Axioscope 5 (Zeiss, Oberkochen, BW, Germany) utilizing a coupled camera Axioscam 503 Color (Zeiss, Oberkochen, BW, Germany) to capture images. The samples were photographed to identify the collagen gel deposited on the hydrogel surface using excitation and emission wavelengths with Calcofluor White (excitation at 405 nm and emission at 410–490 nm), FITC (excitation at 488 nm and emission at 498–547 nm), and Red Nile (excitation at 543 nm and emission at 610–710 nm). Components were observed using a 10× objective.

5.3. Results and discussion

5.3.1. DH, PC, HC and Y analysis

PC, HC, and Y were identified as parameters that influenced the formation of collagen gel. This occurred when bone collagen I was hydrolyzed by proteases, either separately (Protamex or Protezyn) or in combination (Protamex + Protezyn). When hydrolyzed sequentially (Protamex → Protezyn), gel formation was not observed. The combined use of Protamex and Protezyn showed a significant effect ($p < 0.05$) on the DH, PC, HC and Y values (Figure 5.1). This combination resulted in the highest values of PC (92.2%), HC (11.5%), and Y (49.9%). As a final outcome, the synergistic action of Protamex + Protezyn led to the formation of a collagen gel (COLIgel), which was subsequently used in this study to develop self-assembled hydrogels.

HC represents hydroxyproline, an important amino acid in the fibrous structure, comprising up to 12% of PC, and responsible the ability to form a gel as well (LI; WU, 2018; LIU et al., 2019). The values of PC and HC indicated the presence of the fibrous structure of collagen I, along with a great percentage of Y. Other studies on collagen I from bone waste found values of PC below than this study (near 70%) and values of Y (near 30%) (MATULESSY et al., 2021; VIDAL et al., 2020), and studies also considered the value of Y for the selection of proteases (WU et al., 2019; YAO et al., 2020).

Combined use of the proteases resulted in a lower DH value (11.9%). Other studies of collagen I from bone waste (HU et al., 2022; WU et al., 2019) found similarly low values of DH (near 5% to 15%) from alkaline protease hydrolysis. In this case, values of DH should be taken into account together with values of PC, HC, and Y. The hydrolysis of collagen I by proteases showed a different effect on the values of DH even the precipitation of collagen gel was visible. The DH establishes the fraction of soluble hydrolyzed amines based on the protein source (RUTHERFURD, 2010), and the amines derived from collagen I hydrolyzed are residues of the fibrous structure (GOMEZ-GUILLEN et al., 2011; NAOMI et al., 2021).

Several variables influence hydrolysis reactions by protease, including type of fibrous structure, pretreatment of the substrate, protease-to-substrate ratio, time, temperature, and pH (CAO et al., 2021; GOMEZ-GUILLEN et al., 2011; HONG et al., 2019). These variables were previously considered to evaluate the DH, PC, HC and Y. As a result, tibia preparation and enzyme specificity led to an interaction between the available collagen I and the collagenolytic action of the protease. The ability of collagen I to form a collagen gel depended mainly on the hydrolysis conditions; but, the previous tibia processing and demineralization favored the

accessibility of protease to the collagen I (BIANCARDI et al., 2024). The collagenolytic action of protease occurs when the available collagen I fibrous structure has been associated with protease's active site in a productive conformation, where intramolecular surface of collagen I is readily accessible (FU et al., 2019; RAVINDRAN et al., 2018; TANG et al., 2022).

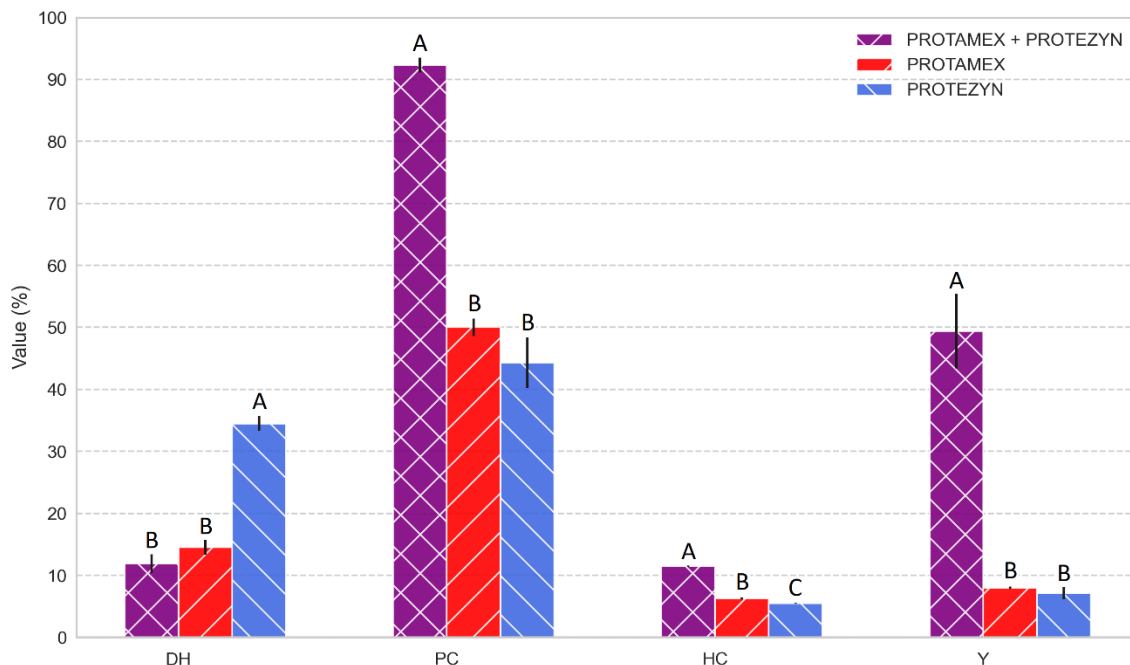


Figure 5.1 - Evaluation of hydrolysis by proteases includes assessment of the degree of hydrolysis (DH), protein content (PC), hydroxyproline content (HC), and process yield (Y). The hydrolysis of collagen I from bovine tibia waste by combined use of the proteases (Protamex + Protezyn) resulted in the higher PC, HC and Y values.

5.3.2. Solubility, DSC and TGA analysis

Solubility of COLIgel was evaluated (Figure 5.2) to use in the formation of hydrogels, taking into account the gel solubility influence on the self-assembly interaction system, an important assessment to the formation and the stability. The highest sample solubility at pH 10 value and this result allowed the use of COLIgel in the formation of hydrogel with XGum and TGase.

COLIgel heat stability was evaluated by DSC and TGA (Figure 5.3), necessary to control the temperature during the formation of the hydrogels and to avoid denaturation. DSC showed an exothermic peak at 87.5 °C (Figure 5.3) representing the denaturation temperature of protein, when the fibrous structure of collagen I was degraded by oxidative reactions influenced by temperature (TANG et al., 2021). TGA showed similar results in the both atmospheres analyzed (Figure 5.3), and the initial decomposition of COLIgel corresponded to the DSC result even at 87.5 °C (67%). It is important to highlight that the final decomposition of COLIgel by TGA at 800 °C (7%) showed a loss of all protein content (Figure 5.3), and the final weight value was attributed to the mineral residual from tibia, when the structure bonds requires more energy to break (ZHANG et al., 2021).

The hydrogels were formed by the proposed self-assemblies (COLIgel + TGase; COLIgel + XGum; COLIgel + XGum + TGase) once the solubility and thermal stability were established, resulting in different assemblies with a moist, transparent and malleable appearance.

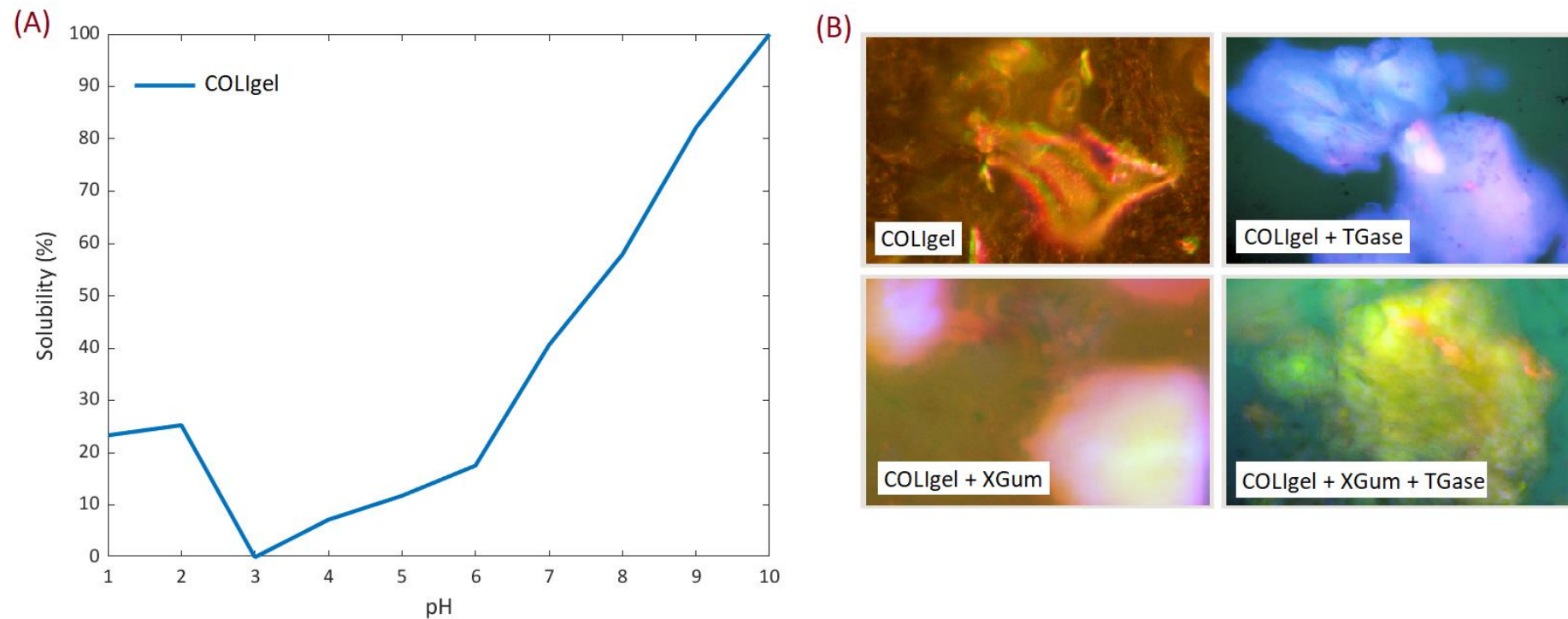


Figure 5.2 - (A) Solubility of collagen gel obtained by the combined use of proteases (COLIgel) at pH values (0% of solubility at pH 3 and 100% solubility at pH 10). (B) Fluorescence microscopy images in the hydrogels COLIgel, COLIgel + transglutaminase (TGase), COLIgel + xanthan gum (XGum), and COLIgel + XGum + TGase. The red colored regions correspond to the peptides of the COLIgel and other colored regions correspond to the XGum and TGase excipients. Components were observed using a 10× objective.

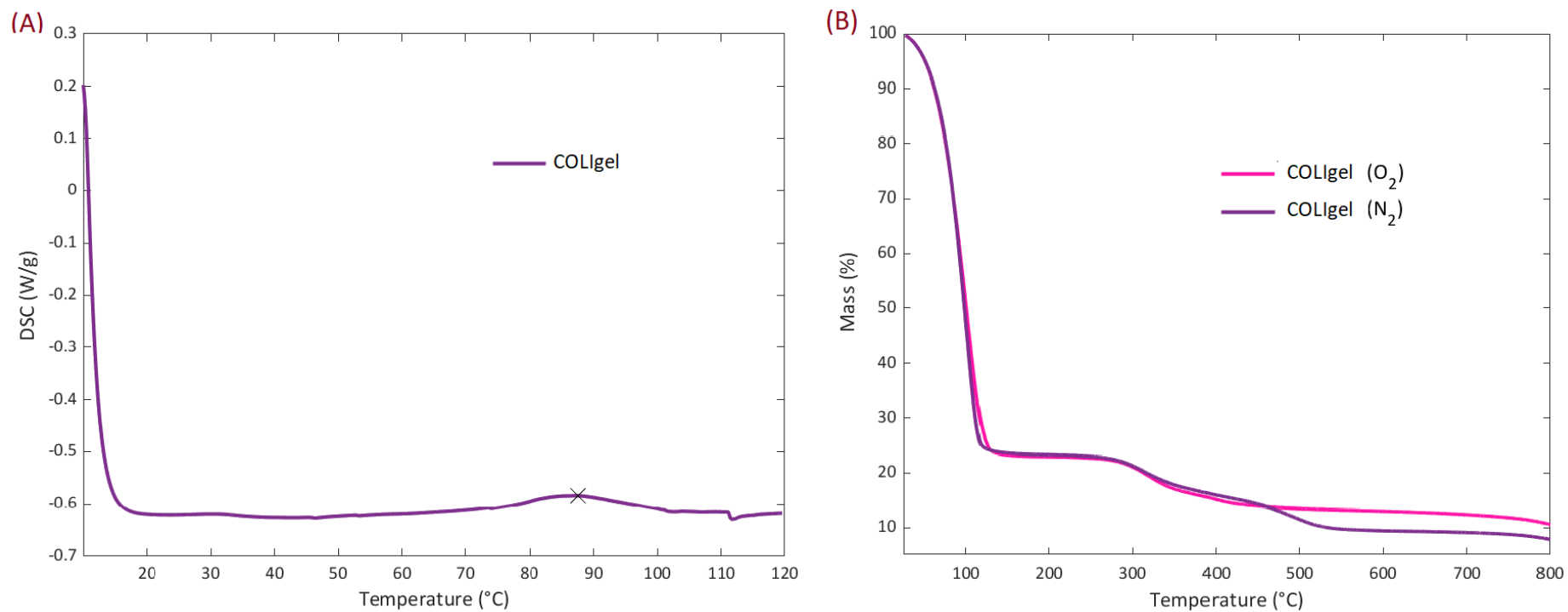


Figure 5.3 - (A) DSC in the collagen gel obtained by the combined use of proteases (COLIgel) in N₂ atmosphere and an indication of the temperature at 87.5 °C as the peak of protein denaturation. (B) TGA in the COLIgel in O₂ and N₂ atmosphere with loss of protein mass and at 800 °C at a rate of 7%.

5.3.3. FTIR and fluorescence microscopy analysis

FTIR of COLIgel and its hydrogels showed the biocompatibility by the vibrational peptides groups of collagen I from bovine tibia waste (Figure 5.4). The spectra characteristic of vibrational peptides groups from COLIgel appeared a peak at 1029 cm⁻¹ and showed the amide A at 3377 cm⁻¹ (stretching N-H in the primary structure) (RIAZ et al., 2018). The COLIgel has a triple helical structure by amino acids, beyond carboxyl groups in covalent bonds and hydrogen bonds in intra and inter chain, and this structure even hydrolyzed can be reflect in absorption peaks by FTIR (CAO et al., 2020; WU et al., 2019). The other amides characteristic to collagen I appeared being the amide I at 1637 cm⁻¹ (stretching C=O), amide II at 1548 cm⁻¹ (N-H attached to stretching C-N in the primary structure), and amide III ranged at 1458 cm⁻¹, at 1401 cm⁻¹, 1327 cm⁻¹, and 1237 cm⁻¹ (N-H attached to stretching C-N in the secondary structure) (AL-KAHTANI et al., 2017; FERRARO et al., 2017; RIAZ et al., 2018). COLIgel spectra revealed the characteristic of collagen I and the same references were used to evaluate the hydrogels spectra. The COLIgel structure was not altered when used in the formation of hydrogels, but its characteristics vibrations peptide groups were changed. This was reflected about the amide A, the COLIgel + TGase spectra showed at 3409 cm⁻¹, the COLIgel + XGum spectra showed at 3418 cm⁻¹, and the COLIgel + XGum + TGase spectra showed at 3419 cm⁻¹. COLIgel in the hydrogels was reflected the amide B (stretching N-H in the secondary structure), COLIgel + TGase spectra showed at 2920 cm⁻¹, COLIgel + XGum spectra showed at 2957 cm⁻¹ and 2924 cm⁻¹, and COLIgel + XGum + TGase spectra showed at 2928 cm⁻¹. These peaks revealed the stretching N-H bonds in COLIgel within the hydrogels, with properties modified by interactions (WU et al., 2019). It was important to verify the biocompatibility in the assemblies, given that collagen I from bovine tibia waste self-assembly provides for organic and inorganic compounds (CAO et al., 2021; HONG et al., 2019; TANG et al., 2022; ZHU et al., 2022). COLIgel in the formation of hydrogels is also reflected the amides I, II and III within range the peaks at 1647 cm⁻¹ to 1022 cm⁻¹, attributed to self-assembly with both XGum and TGase. The hydrogels were affected by their water-holding capacity, leading to gel formation and reflected in several vibrational peptide groups, in addition to the availability of organic groups from tibia (MIWA, 2020; WU et al., 2019).

Fluorescence microscopy of COLIgel and its hydrogels showed the stability by the assemblies (Figure 5.2). The results showed that the COLIgel with XGum and TGase assembled, highlighting the COLIgel + XGum in a stable assembly with prevalence of collagen I from bovine tibia waste. Stability of the hydrogel is due to hydrophobic interaction system, which the self-assembly process results in a non-uniform or reversible hydrogel (LIU et al., 2019). Fluorescence microscopic image visualize the distribution and interaction of individual components in hydrogel, providing important insight into the structure-effective (ZHONG; ZHAO, 2022). Thus, in the COLIgel image, the prevalence of collagen I was visible through its peptides, and in the COLIgel + XGum imagen, the collagen I was visible in stable interaction of the XGum excipient. This could be analyzed in the hydrogel images by the red colored regions, which correspond to the peptides of the COLIgel and other colored regions correspond to the XGum and TGase excipients. Collagen I from bovine tibia waste in the hydrogel COLIgel + XGum was essential for the structure-effective peptide + polysaccharide, and for practical applications it was an interesting protein-base product for food matrix profiles (IRASTORZA et al., 2021; ZHONG; ZHAO, 2022).

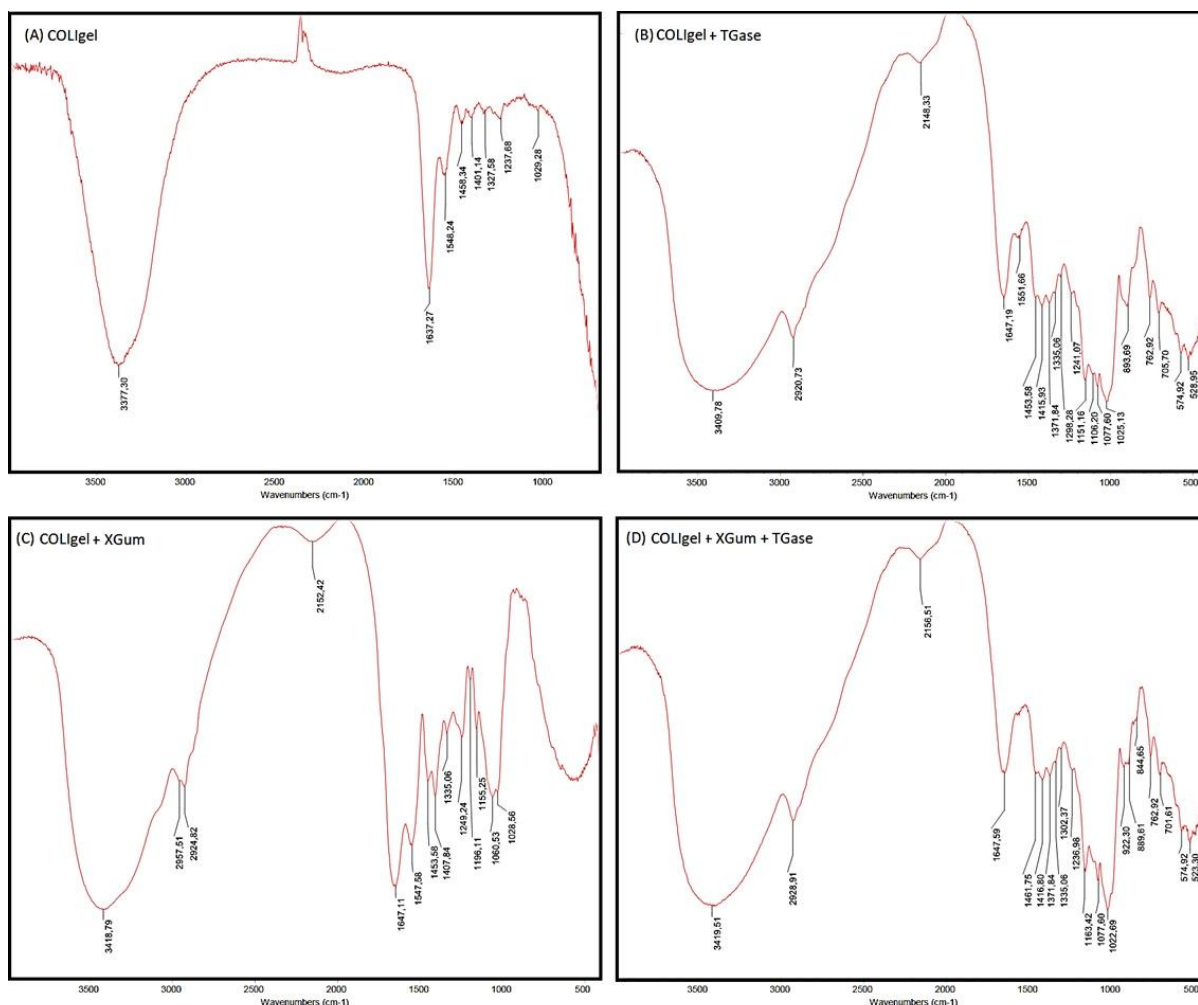


Figure 5.4 - Spectra by FTIR in the (A) collagen gel obtained by the combined use of proteases (COLIgel), (B) COLIgel + transglutaminase (TGase), (C) COLIgel + xanthan gum (XGum), and (D) COLIgel + XGum + TGase. The spectra showed the biocompatibility by the vibrational peptides groups of collagen I from bovine tibia waste.

5.4. Conclusion

The study revealed that the collagen gel from bovine tibia waste is a viable protein-based product. Consequently, COLIgel was obtained and evaluated, demonstrating the effective hydrolysis by proteases of bone collagen I. Successfully, COLIgel was used to form self-assembled hydrogels, demonstrating its suitability for potential applications in hydrogel formation with XGum and TGase. The biocompatibility and stability of COLIgel with XGum and TGase were confirmed through proposed assemblies, showing that COLIgel + XGum form a potentially stable hydrogel assembly. These findings suggest that COLIgel could be used in food industry applications as a potential protein-based product, enhancing the stability of food products, improving food matrix profiles, and developing novel food formulations. Future research should focus on exploring the functional properties of COLIgel-based in various food matrices and optimizing its formulation for specific food applications to advance this research.

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6. CAPÍTULO IV

Title

Comprehensive physical analysis of composition, structural, and thermal properties of collagen from bovine tibia waste for protein-based product value-chain

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Abstract

The aim of the study was to perform a comprehensive physical analysis of composition, structural, and thermal properties of collagen from bovine tibia waste. This analysis was conducted in order to explore their potential for protein-based product value-chain. The collagen in gel-form was obtained by bone processing, demineralization, and hydrolysis using commercial protease. The thermal properties were evaluated by Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) and thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA). The structural properties were evaluated by Fourier transformation infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), and X-ray diffraction (XRD). The composition properties were by scanning electron microscope (SEM), and energy dispersive spectrometer (EDS). DSC and TGA indicated substantial thermal stability of collagen. FTIR indicated the vibration peptides groups and XRD indicated the diffraction peaks from collagen. MEV-EDS indicated minimal residual from mineral elements in the collagen. The study revealed promising results from a physical analysis of collagen from bovine tibia waste, indicating that the peptides possess desirable properties as protein-based for a range of high-value applications.

Keywords

bone; type I collagen; by-product; hydrolysis; DSC; TGA; FTIR; XRD; SEM; EDS.

6.1. Introduction

Collagen has gained increasing value in the food industry and continued research into its fibrous structure leading to significant innovations in its practical applications (ABECASSIS et al., 2018; TANG et al., 2022). Its functional property of biocompatibility enable its incorporation into various protein-based products, thus driving innovation in food development and sustainability (CAO et al., 2021; FU et al., 2019). Biochemically, collagen is the predominant fibrillar protein that provides tensile strength in animal tissues, characterized by a unique triple-helix conformation primarily composed of the amino acids glycine, proline, and hydroxyproline (GOMEZ-GUILLEN et al., 2011; TANG et al., 2022). Functionally, collagen contributes to the development of protein-based products by forming as matrix for additives, fibers, and inputs that retain their biocompatibility (HONG et al., 2019; LIU et al., 2019).

There are 29 types of collagen and among them, type I collagen stands out due to its remarkable biocompatibility, with considerable implications for food industry (CAO et al., 2021; TANG et al., 2022). Type I collagen is also fibrillary, with each molecule consisting of three polypeptide chains arranged in a characteristic triple-helix configuration (GOMEZ-GUILLEN et al., 2011). This formation imparts substantial tensile strength and durability to the tissues it supports, such as bone. Thus, bone is a rigid structural animal tissue predominantly composed of type I collagen fibers with mineral crystals, a naturally biocompatible structure (SAMATRA et al., 2022; TZAPHLIDOU, 2008). In the current study, type I collagen structure from bovine tibia waste was evaluated through physical analysis to offer valuable insights into their composition and behavior.

Bone and its derivative wastes are resistant to the physicochemical processes used to obtain type I collagen, and, in order to develop functional inputs with appeal, novel processes have emerged that significantly altering its structural characteristics (BIANCARDI et al., 2024; CAO et al., 2021). Furthermore, type I collagen as a protein-based products has been widely used in constructing advanced materials through crosslinks, including gels, hydrogels, delivery systems, films, and coatings (LIU et al., 2019; YAN et al., 2023). To advance this, physical analysis of collagen structures is crucial for elucidating their molecular arrangement and exploring functional biocompatibility. Such analysis also provides insights into their structural integrity, morphology, and composition (CAO et al., 2021; TANG et al., 2022). Understanding these properties is fundamental for advancing the efficacy and utility of collagen in scientific and industrial domains, as it enables the development of superior protein-based products and enhances their applications (BIANCARDI et al., 2024; SAMATRA et al., 2022). Additionally, non-destructive analysis significantly contributes to optimizing material design and ensuring their performance in scientific endeavors (RIAZ et al., 2018).

At present, there is an increasing number of studies focused on obtaining collagen from bone waste (SAMATRA et al., 2022). However, detailed structural elucidation to enhance the utility of type I collagen has not been prioritized. Considering the lack of comprehensive physical analysis of type I collagen from bovine tibia, there exists a significant opportunity to explore bone waste for the protein-based product value chain, highlighting the need to address this gap. Such examination is crucial for advancing innovations in the value chain and is increasingly critical in response to the rising demand for novel, sustainable sources of collagen as protein-based products. Therefore, the aim of this study was perform a comprehensive physical analysis of composition, structural, and thermal properties of collagen from bovine tibia waste.

6.2. Material and methods

6.2.1. Materials

The bovine tibia waste was residual from 4-year-old male cattle, slaughtered in a regional butchery provided by Beltecnologia Indústria e Comércio de Produtos Alimentícios LTDA and

Proteínas MS LTDA (Grupo Beltec, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil). The commercial protease used was Protezyn APP 3000 (Prozyn, São Paulo, SP, Brazil). The chemical reagents used for analysis were: Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, CA, USA); acetic and lactic acids; sodium hydroxide; and sodium chloride (Dinâmica Química Contemporânea, Indaiatuba, SP, Brazil). All these chemicals are in analytical grade standards.

6.2.2. Bone processing and demineralization

The bone processing and demineralization were adapted from Biancardi et al. (2024). The residual tibia was cut using a band saw (Vonder SFV090, Curitiba, PR, Brazil) in 5 cm pieces and was boiled by immersion in distilled water (1:5 w/v) and kept at 100 °C for 30 min (Solab SL-153, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) to remove the cartilage and fat. The clean cuts were dried in the drying chamber (Solab SL-102, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) at 60 °C for 24 h. The dried cuts were milled by a hammer mill (Tecnal TE-330, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) followed by a high-energy ball mill at 400 rpm for 10 min (Retsch PM 100, Haan, NW, Germany). The bone milled was boiled by immersion in distilled water (1:10 w/v) and kept at 100 °C for 60 min (Solab SL-155, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) to complete fat removal. The wet fat-free bone was drained and was solubilized by acetic acid followed by lactic acid, both 1 M (1:10 w/v). For each solubilization, the incubation conditions were kept at 300 rpm at 37 °C for 3 h (Novatecnica NT 715, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil). The wet demineralized bone was drained and dried in the drying chamber (Solab SL-102, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) at 60 °C for 24 h. The processes were illustrated in Figure 6.1.

6.2.3. Collagen peptides obtained by protease

The collagen obtained process was adapted from Matulesy et al. (2021) and Paola et al. (2019). The collagen in gel-form was obtained by commercial protease (5 g per 100 g of protein). The demineralized bone was solubilized in buffer solution EDTA-2Na 0.5 M (1:100 w/v) with protease added at pH 10 under optimal incubation conditions at 60 °C for 6 h (Solab SL-158, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil). The protease concentrations were 5 g per 100 g of protein. The solution was heated at 90 °C for 15 min for inactivation of the protease activity (Solab SL-155, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil). The solution of NaCl 4 M (1:1 v/v) was added to precipitate the peptides and it was stored under refrigeration at 4 °C for 24 h. The precipitate was collected by centrifugation at 6,000 rpm at 25 °C for 20 min (Novatecnica NT 830, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) and was dialyzed with deionized water 3 times by centrifugation at 6,000 rpm at 25 °C for 20 min (Novatecnica NT 830, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil), with renewing the solution each centrifugation. The collagen was collected, dried in the drying chamber (Solab SL-102, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) at 60 °C for 4 h, and stored under refrigeration at 4 °C. The processes were illustrated in Figure 6.1.



Figure 6.1 - Illustration of the bone processing, demineralization, and collagen obtained process from bovine tibia, exploring the use of bone waste for the protein-based product value chain.

6.2.4. Differential scanning calorimetry and thermal gravimetric analysis

Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) and thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA) in the collagen were adapted respectively from Tian et al. (2020) and Qi et al. (2023). The DSC was performed at 10 to 120 °C which N₂ flow rate was 50 mL/min, and the heating rate was 10 °C/min (Mettler Toledo DSC1, Schwerzenbach, ZH, Switzerland). The TGA was performed at 10 to 800 °C which N₂ flow rate was 50 mL/min, and the heating rate was 10 °C/min (Mettler Toledo TGA-50, Schwerzenbach, ZH, Switzerland). Moisture content and ash values were quantified by TGA.

6.2.5. Fourier Transformation Infrared Spectroscopy

Fourier transformation infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) in the collagen was adapted from Wu et al. (2019). A small portion of the samples was transferred into the equipment for analysis. FTIR (Nicolet 6700, Madison, WI, USA) was used in the range of 4000 to 675 cm⁻¹ with a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹ with a Snap-In Baseplate accessory. The resulting signals were exported from the origin equipment software.

6.2.6. X-ray diffraction

X-ray diffraction (XRD) in the collagen was adapted from Ma et al. (2019). A small portion of the samples was transferred to an agate mortar and pressed into pellets (~7 tons for 4 min), then transferred to the equipment for analysis. XRD (X'Pert-MPD, Almelo, Netherlands) was used with CuK α radiation at 40 kV and 40 mA. The parameters of angular diffraction were $2\theta = 5^{\circ}$ – 70° , with a step size of 0.02° and interval step of 2 s. The resulting signals were exported from the origin equipment software.

6.2.7. Scanning Electron Microscope and Energy Dispersive Spectrometer

Scanning electron microscope (SEM) and energy dispersive spectrometer (EDS) in the collagen were adapted from Chen et al. (2021). SEM (Leo 440i, Oxford, OXF, UK) was used to obtain representative images in the stub with metallization (Au) with voltage at 20 KV and current at 100 A, and observed magnification at 45 $\times$, 250 $\times$, 1,000 $\times$, 2,000 $\times$, and (D) 10,000 $\times$. EDS (Leo 6070, Oxford, OXF, UK) was used to detect elements in the stub without metallization and observed magnification at 1,000 $\times$.

6.2.8. Statistical Data Analysis

The EDS data were expressed with a mean value and standard deviation ANOVA and Tukey test at a significance level of 5% software Minitab version 19.2020.1 (Minitab, State College, PA, USA).

6.3. Results and discussion

6.3.1. DSC and TGA analysis

Thermal properties of collagen was observed by DSC and TGA (Figure 6.2). DSC indicated a relative increase in heat flow between 15–60 °C due to the thermal decomposition of collagen. The midpoint at 50.92 °C indicates the temperature at which a thermal transition, such as protein denaturation. This suggests that collagen peptides were degraded by oxidative reactions influenced by temperature (Tang et al., 2021). However, the relative increase in the curve may not correspond to denaturation, as the hydrolysis process of collagen might influence denaturation due to the approximate temperature involved. This value could serve as a reference for future applications of collagen. The midpoint at 50.92 °C also indicates that there is a slight intensity required to break the amide bonds, likely due to the caused by C–N bond in the collagen structure (WANG et al., 2020). TGA indicated the first thermal event, observed at a midpoint of 96.57 °C, with the evaporation of free water and the disruption of hydrogen bonds

between inter and intra collagen structure (Tang et al., 2021). The moisture content was 11.7% and corresponding to the loss that occurred at this initial thermal event. The second thermal event started at 301.48 °C, indicating a decrease in collagen weight, with approximately 50% of the mass lost at the midpoint of 353.57 °C. This suggests the release of bound water and the formation of small molecular products from the thermal decomposition of collagen (Tang et al., 2021). The final thermal event, ending at 603.85 °C, is attributed to the complete thermal decomposition of collagen, with the weight value reflecting the residual ash content in the sample (Zhang et al., 2021). Ash value at 3.8 mg was the residue at the end.

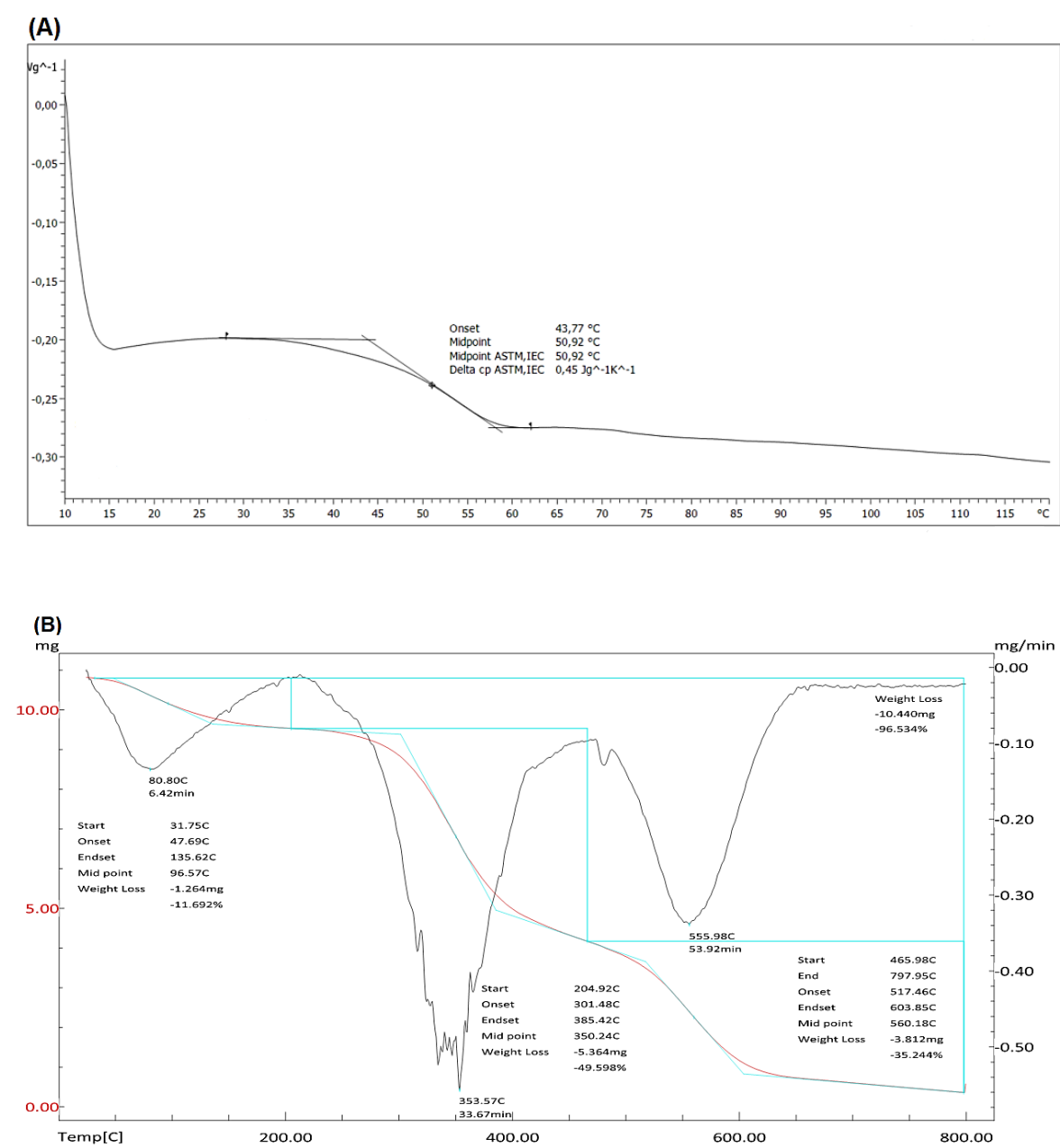


Figure 6.2 - (A) DSC in the collagen with indication of the temperature at 50.92 °C as the peak of protein denaturation. (B) TGA in the collagen with loss of protein mass. Moisture value at 11.7% was the loss that occurred at the first thermal event. Ash value ate 3.8 mg was the residue at the end.

6.3.2. FTIR analysis

FTIR showed the vibrational peptides groups of collagen (Figure 6.3). The spectra showed the carboxyl groups characteristic from collagen at 1158 cm^{-1} , 1078 cm^{-1} and 1025 cm^{-1} . Their peaks of the carboxyl groups reflect the stretching vibrations of C-N and C-O-C bonds, as well as the presence of hydroxyl groups, and indicate coordination with metal ions (RIAZ et al., 2018; WU et al., 2019). The spectra showed the amide A (stretching N-H in the primary structure) at 3278 cm^{-1} and the amide B (stretching N-H in the secondary structure) at 2927 cm^{-1} and 3075 cm^{-1} . Amide A and B represent the hydrogen stretch of N-H group with a carbonyl group. Their peaks in the spectra reveal the collagen peptides from tibia with primary and secondary structure of the peptide chain (RIAZ et al., 2018). The spectra also showed other amides characteristic from collagen, amide I (stretching C=O) at 1635 cm^{-1} , amide II (N-H attached to stretching C-N in the primary structure) at 1532 cm^{-1} , and amide III (N-H attached to stretching C-N in the secondary structure) ranged at 1455 cm^{-1} , 1399 cm^{-1} , 1335 cm^{-1} , and 1237 cm^{-1} . Amide III peaks indicate the degree of N-H bending and hydrogen bonding interactions between the amino acid side chains, which are critical for stabilizing the secondary structure of peptide collagen (FERRARO et al., 2017; RIAZ et al., 2018). These peaks supported that peptides was similar to type I collagen peptides from bone in another studies (FERRARO et al., 2017; WU et al., 2019).

6.3.3. XRD analysis

XRD showed the diffraction peak of collagen (Figure 6.3). There is a prominent peak at $2\theta = 45.5$ degrees, with a peak height of 49.0 counts and a full width at half maximum (FWHM) of $0.6^\circ 2\theta$ on the left side. This peak corresponds to a d-spacing of $1.9\text{ \AA}$ and represents 100% relative intensity. These findings indicate the presence of a well-defined crystalline phase with a preferred orientation along this specific plane. The intensity of the peak suggests strong crystallinity in this particular crystallographic direction (ANDONEGI; DE LA CABA; GUERRERO, 2020; KANDAMACHIRA et al., 2015). However, the moderate FWHM suggests some distribution in crystallite sizes or the presence of minor amorphous components in the sample, which may affect the overall structural quality observed. This diffraction pattern resembles type I collagen peptides from bone in another study (ZHANG et al., 2021).

6.3.4. SEM and EDS analysis

SEM showed distinct morphological features (Figure 6.4). The fragments exhibited irregular shapes with varying sizes, indicating a non-uniform formation. The surface texture appeared smooth with occasional porosity, suggesting variations in the formation process that may affect structural integrity. Aggregation of the fragments was observed at magnifications of $250\times$ and $1,000\times$, likely due to intermolecular interactions facilitated by the experimental conditions, as evidenced by FTIR. Some degree of crystallinity was noted at magnifications of $45\times$ and $250\times$, as evidenced by XRD. Additionally, the images showed slight surface roughening at magnifications of $1,000\times$, $2,000\times$, and $10,000\times$, indicating the presence of organic material and suggesting that the roughness is due to the gel-form collagen resulting from the processing. For collagen material, the irregular shapes and size variations reflect the natural heterogeneity of type I collagen fibrils (FERRARO et al., 2017). EDS showed elemental composition data, confirming the predominance of elements inherent to the collagen structure, such as carbon and oxygen (Table 6.1). The relative abundance of these elements was consistent with the expected molecular composition of collagen, as supported by FTIR data indicating that carboxyl groups reflect the stretching vibrations through a structured molecular arrangement. Sodium, chlorine, and sulfur were also detected, suggesting residual mineralization, but at levels that are not significant compared to the predominant elements. For collagen material, the composition is consistent with type I collagen (MATULESSY et al., 2021). These observations

provide valuable insights into the structural integrity and functional properties of the collagen peptides, with EDS data further elucidating the elemental makeup that contributes to the observed morphological and structural characteristics.

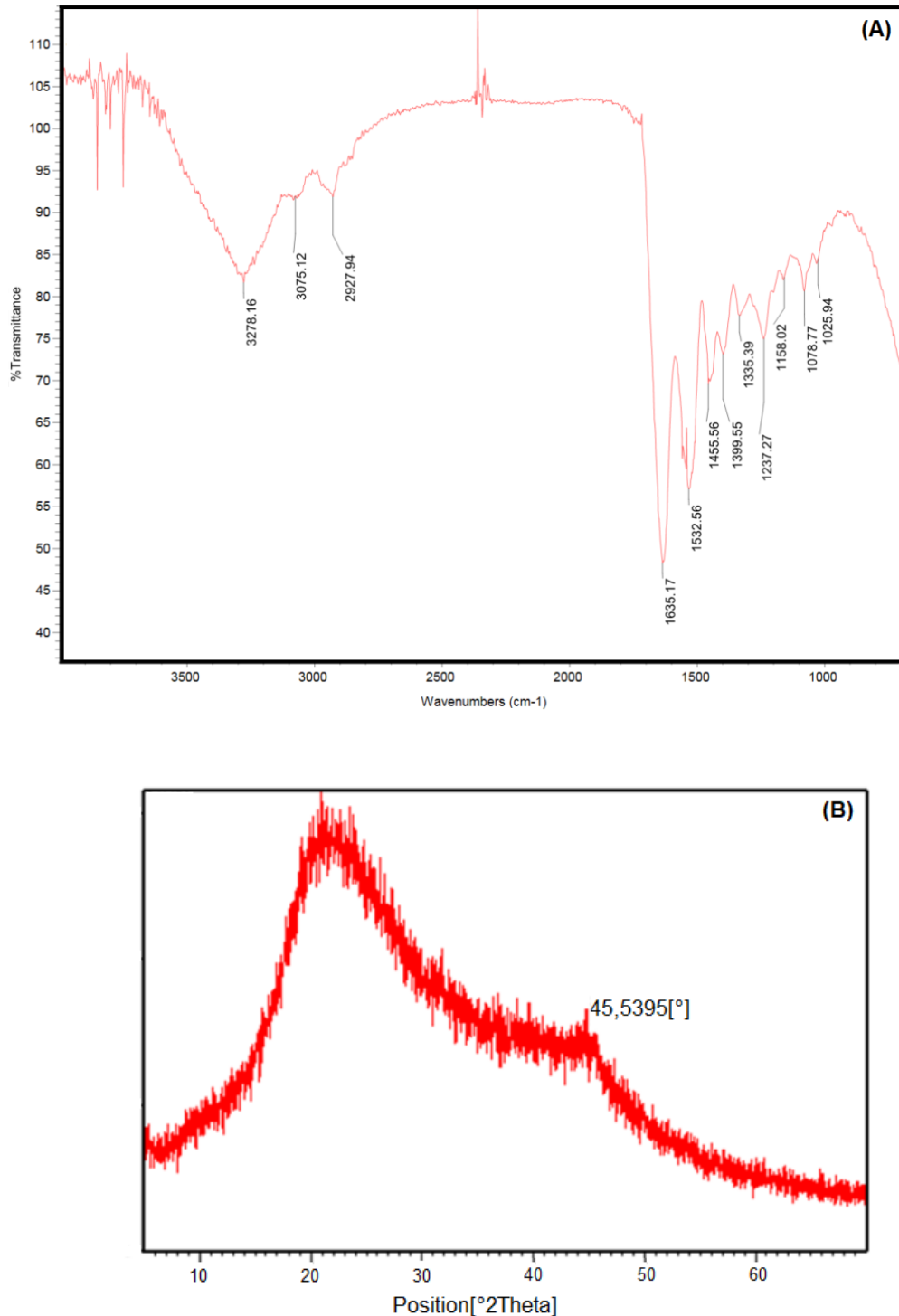


Figure 6.3 - (A) Spectra by FTIR showed the vibrational peptides groups of collagen. (B) Spectra by XRD showed the diffraction peaks of collagen.

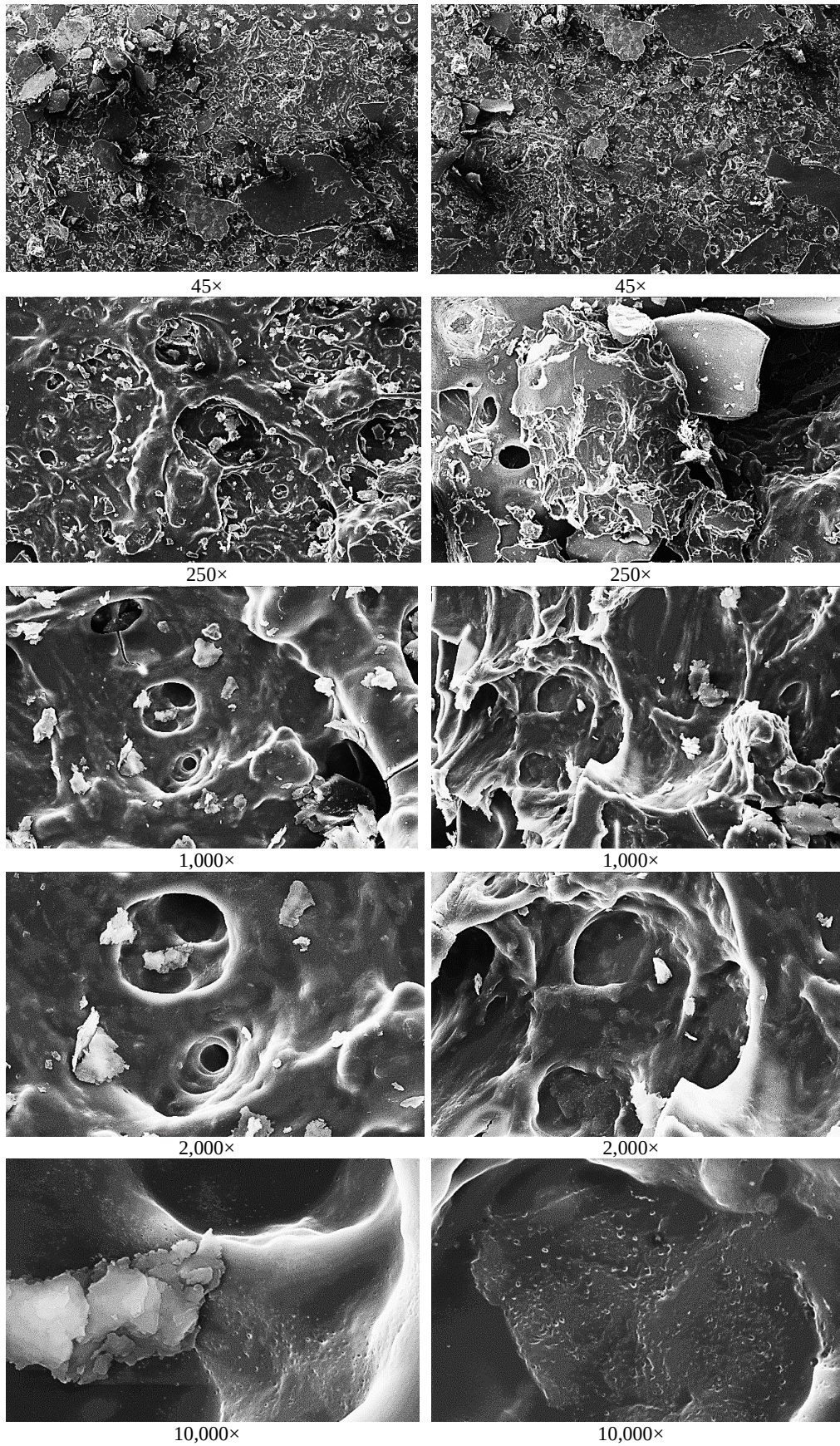


Figure 6.4 - Images by SEM showed the collagen with magnification at 45×, 250×, 1,000×, 2,000×, and 10,000×.

Table 6.1 - EDS data analysis of collagen. Element Weight (%) is the mass percent value of the element that is obtained after correcting for the effects between the elements in the spectrum. Atomic Weight (%) is the mass percent value of the element based on the molar mass of the element

Element	Element weight (%)	Atomic weight (%)
C	59.2 ± 2.0 ^a	66.3 ± 1.8 ^a
O	38.1 ± 2.6 ^b	32.1 ± 2.3 ^b
Na	1.9 ± 0.7 ^c	1.1 ± 0.4 ^c
Cl	0.6 ± 0.3 ^c	0.2 ± 0.1 ^c
S	0.2 ± 0.1 ^c	0.1 ± 0.1 ^c
Total	100.0 ± 0.0	99.8 ± 0.4

6.4. Conclusion

The study revealed promising results from a physical analysis of collagen from bovine tibia waste, indicating that the collagen possess desirable properties as protein-based for a range of product. Thermal properties indicated characteristic features of collagen, which is essential for its use in applications requiring heat resistance. Structural properties indicated the vibration peptides groups and diffraction peaks from collagen, which are crucial for providing integrity and functionality of the collagen peptides. Compositional properties indicated minimal residual from mineral elements, which are advantageous as a sustainable resource for developing protein-based products. This could have considerable implications for industries such as chemical and food inputs, as it provides an efficient manner to utilize bovine tibia waste and create protein-based products with high-added value-chain. Future research should focus on exploring the functional properties of collagen from bovine tibia waste to advance this research.

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7. CONCLUSÃO GERAL

A presente tese teve como objetivo elucidar tecnologias a partir do resíduo ósseo e alcançou resultados promissores com as metodologias propostas para o reaproveitamento do osso bovino. A partir da revisão da literatura atual, o Capítulo I esclareceu as informações técnico-científicas atuais envolvidas na ciência do colágeno ósseo e apresentou usos emergentes em alimentos a partir de resíduos agropecuários. Essas informações foram valiosas para subsidiar as metodologias propostas nos capítulos seguintes. Nesse sentido, o Capítulo II descreveu os processos preliminares no resíduo ósseo para a obtenção do colágeno tipo I e consolidou a desmineralização por solubilização em ácidos. O Capítulo III estabeleceu a hidrólise enzimática do colágeno tipo I e a formação do colágeno gel para uso em alimentos. Já o Capítulo IV detalhou as propriedades estruturais do colágeno, utilizando os mesmos processos anteriores. Por fim, os estudos aprofundados definiram os processos de obtenção do colágeno tipo I e a transformação do coproduto em colágeno gel para uso em alimentos.

A implementação das metodologias foi validada, como a desmineralização por solubilização em ácidos e a hidrólise enzimática do colágeno tipo I, demonstrando a viabilidade dessas como processos a partir da tibia bovina. No entanto, é essencial ampliar essas pesquisas para validar ainda mais as metodologias desenvolvidas, especialmente para outras fontes ósseas vindas de resíduos agropecuários. A diversificação das fontes ósseas pode potencializar os benefícios econômicos e ambientais, permitindo amplo espectro de coprodutos. Dessa forma, novas investigações poderiam garantir a aplicabilidade dessas técnicas em diferentes contextos industriais, consolidando o reaproveitamento de resíduos como uma prática padrão na produção agropecuária.

Para assegurar a plena valorização da pesquisa e o fornecimento de uma base técnico-científica robusta para futuras investigações, é imperativo que as elucidações apresentadas sejam aprofundadas no desenvolvimento de alimentos com o colágeno gel. Essa continuidade permitirá a ampliação da fronteira do conhecimento por avanços que beneficiarão tanto a academia quanto a indústria. A possibilidade do uso de colágeno gel em alimentos abre oportunidades para inovações visando transformar a indústria de alimentos. Especificamente, o colágeno gel pode ser incorporado em alimentos funcionais, suplementos nutricionais e produtos com base em proteínas, oferecendo alternativas sustentáveis e de alto valor agregado.

Ao promover o reaproveitamento do resíduo ósseo e validar tecnologias a partir da tibia bovina, a presente Tese eleva a acessibilidade das metodologias envolvidas, contribuindo significativamente para a redução de resíduos agropecuários e promovendo a sustentabilidade. Além disso, a pesquisa reforça a economia circular, especialmente a nível nacional, oferecendo soluções biotecnológicas que agregam valor aos resíduos. Atualmente, tanto a tecnologia para obtenção do colágeno tipo I quanto seu coproduto na forma de colágeno gel se apresentam como alternativas de insumo proteico para a indústria de alimentos. Que esta Tese represente um passo inicial para o mercado de colágeno tipo I a partir do osso bovino e contribua para a jornada de ações sustentáveis em prol da economia circular no Brasil.

8. NOTAS

A pesquisa foi financiada por: Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior - Brazil (CAPES) – Código de financiamento 001; Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico - Brazil (CNPQ) - Código de financiamento 142577/2020-0; Fundação Carlos Chagas Filho de Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado do Rio de Janeiro (FAPERJ) - Códigos de financiamento E-26/210.631/2019 e E-26/210.905/2021; e Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado de São Paulo (FAPESP) - Código de financiamento 2019/03812-2. A pesquisa teve o amparo de: Proteínas MS LTDA; e Fundação de Apoio à Pesquisa Científica e Tecnológica da Universidade Federal Rural do Rio de Janeiro (FAPUR/UFRRJ). O estudo científico do Capítulo II teve a contribuição de: LABEQ

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9. APÊNDICES

9.1. APÊNDICE A - RESUMOS GRÁFICOS

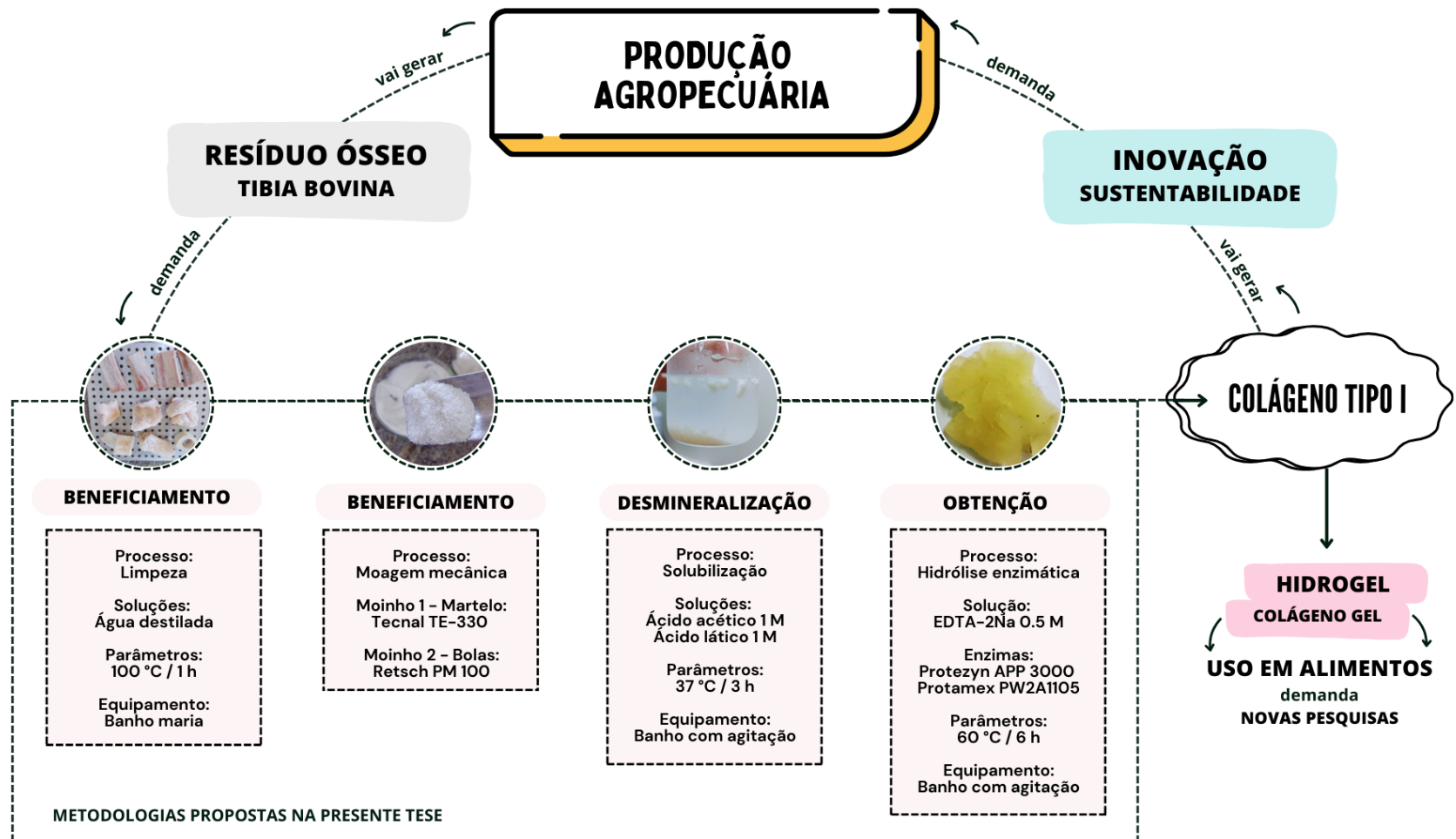


Figura A1 - Resumo gráfico das informações elucidadas nos estudos da presente Tese.

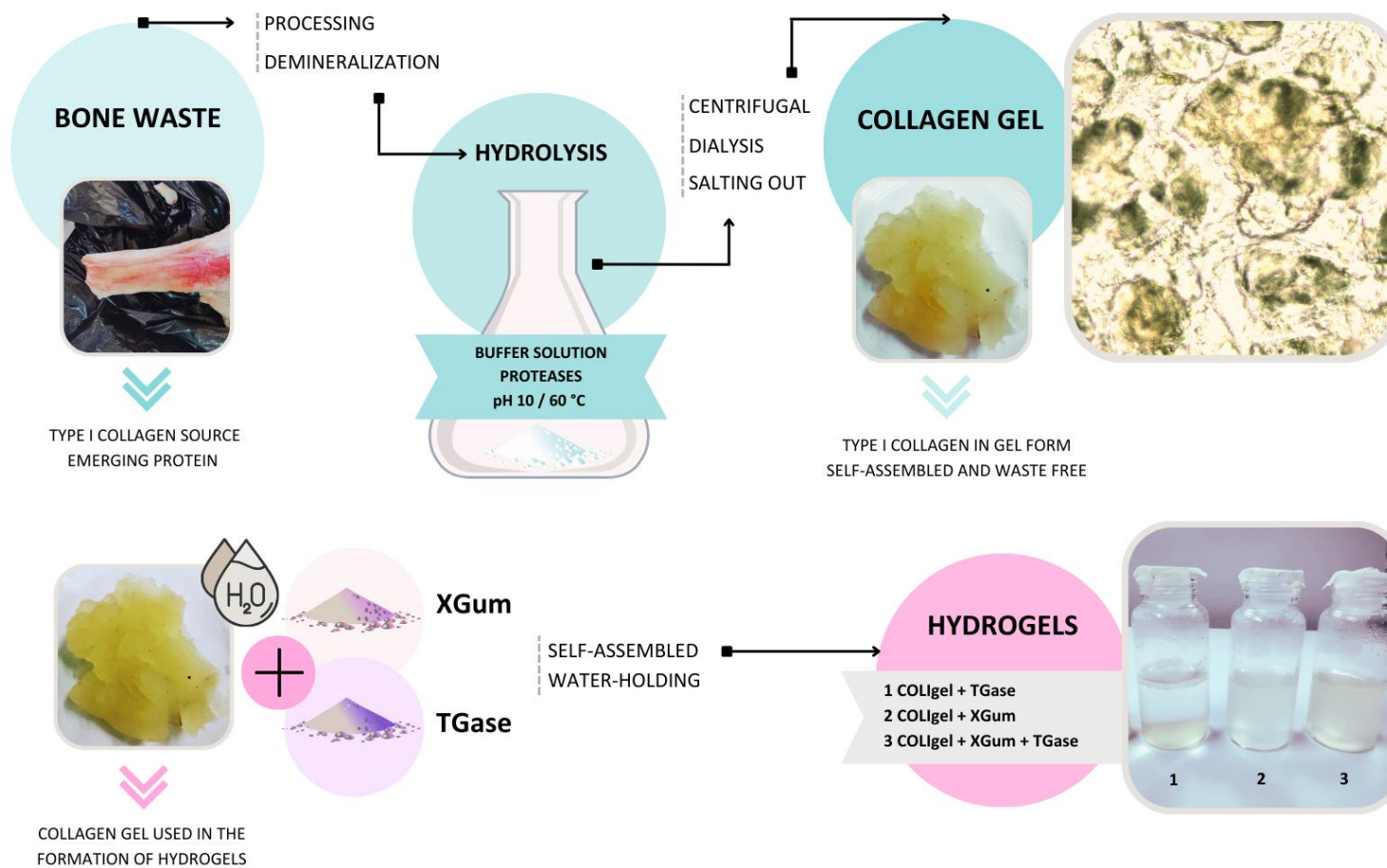


Figura A2 – Resumo gráfico do estudo do Capítulo III.

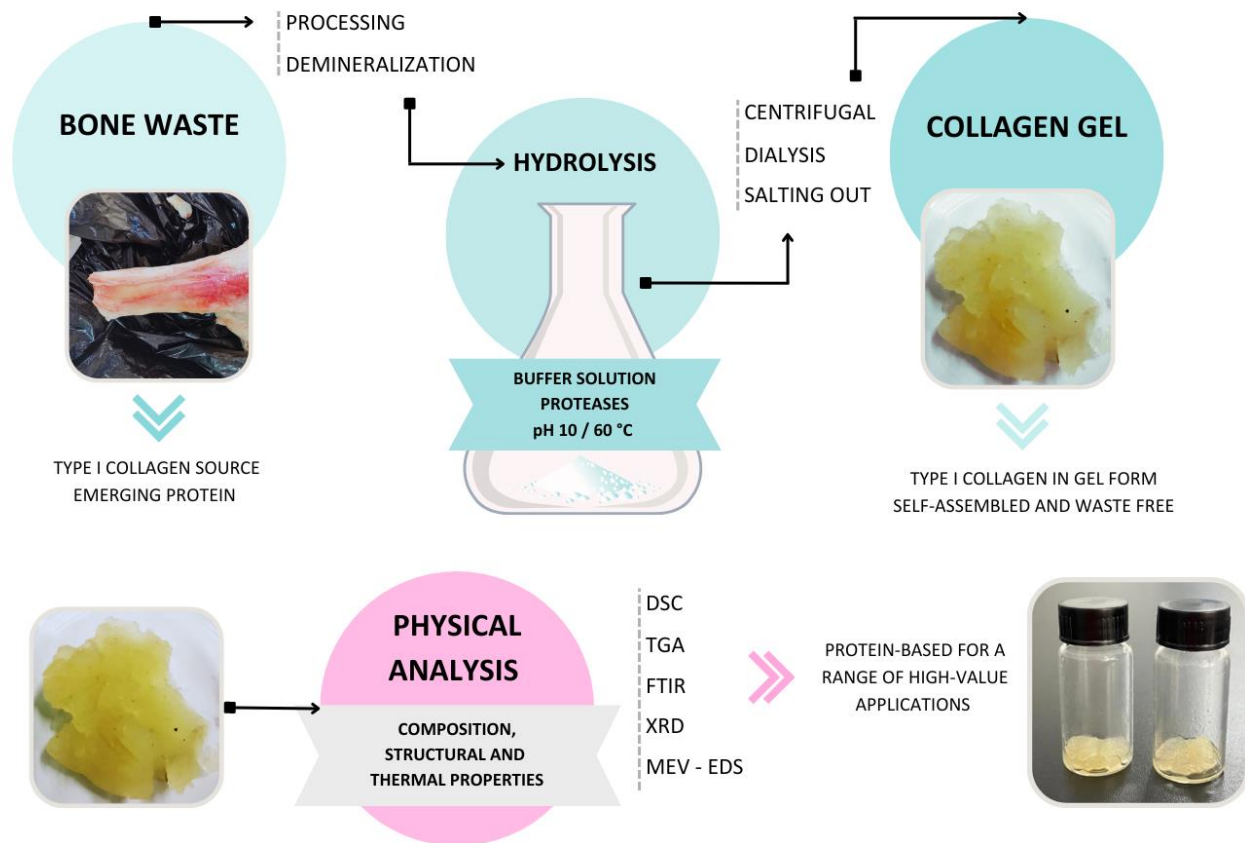


Figura A3 – Resumo gráfico do estudo do Capítulo IV.

9.2. APÊNDICE B – PROTOCOLO DETALHADO PARA OBTENÇÃO DO COLÁGENO TIPO I EM FORMA DE GEL A PARTIR DO OSSO BOVINO

ETAPA 1: Corte do resíduo ósseo

Método: Corte mecânico do resíduo.

Parâmetros: Comprimento dos pedaços de 5 cm.

Equipamento: Serra fita (Vonder SFV090, Curitiba, PR, Brasil).

ETAPA 2: Remoção de cartilagem e gordura

Método: Imersão dos pedaços de osso em água destilada e fervura.

Parâmetros: Proporção solução aquosa de 1:5 (peso/volume); temperatura de 100 °C; tempo de 30 minutos.

Equipamento: Banho Maria (Solab SL-153, Piracicaba, SP, Brasil).

ETAPA 3: Secagem dos cortes limpos

Método: Secagem dos cortes de osso limpos em câmara de secagem.

Parâmetros: Temperatura de 60 °C; tempo de 24 horas.

Equipamento: Câmara de secagem (Solab SL-102, Piracicaba, SP, Brasil).

ETAPA 4: Moagem do osso

Método: Moagem dos cortes de osso secos em moinho de martelo seguida por moagem em moinho de bolas de alta energia.

Parâmetros: Velocidade de 400 rpm; tempo de 10 minutos.

Equipamento: Moinho de martelo (Tecnal TE-330, Piracicaba, SP, Brasil) e moinho de bolas de alta energia (Retsch PM 100, Haan, NW, Alemanha).

ETAPA 5: Fervura para remoção completa de gordura

Método: Fervura do osso por imersão em água destilada.

Parâmetros: Proporção solução aquosa de 1:10 (peso/volume); temperatura de 100 °C; tempo de 60 minutos.

Equipamento: Banho Maria (Solab SL-155, Piracicaba, SP, Brasil).

ETAPA 6: Desmineralização por solubilização em ácidos

Método: Solubilização do osso desengordurado em ácido acético 1 M seguido por ácido láctico 1 M.

Parâmetros: Proporção solução aquosa de 1:10 (peso/volume); agitação a 300 rpm; temperatura de 37 °C; tempo de 3 horas.

Equipamento: Incubadora com agitação (Novatecnica NT 715, Piracicaba, SP, Brasil).

ETAPA 7: Secagem do osso desmineralizado

Método: Secagem do osso desmineralizado em câmara de secagem.

Parâmetros: Temperatura de 60 °C; tempo de 24 horas.

Equipamento: Câmara de secagem (Solab SL-102, Piracicaba, SP, Brasil).

ETAPA 8: Hidrólise enzimática por protease

Método: Solubilização do osso desmineralizado em solução tampão de EDTA-2Na 0,5 M com adição de protease.

Parâmetros: Proporção solução aquosa de 1:100 (peso/volume); concentração de protease de 5 g por 100 g de proteína; pH 10; temperatura de 60 °C; tempo de 6 horas.

Equipamento: Banho Dubnoff (Solab SL-158, Piracicaba, SP, Brasil).

ETAPA 9: Inativação da protease

Método: Aquecimento da solução aquosa para inativação da atividade da protease.

Parâmetros: Temperatura de 90 °C; tempo de 15 minutos.

Equipamento: Banho Maria (Solab SL-155, Piracicaba, SP, Brasil).

ETAPA 10: Precipitação do colágeno

Método: Adição de solução de NaCl 4 M para precipitação do colágeno.

Parâmetros: Proporção solução aquosa de 1:1 (volume/volume); armazenamento sob refrigeração de 4 °C; tempo de 24 horas.

Equipamento: Refrigerador convencional.

ETAPA 11: Coleta do precipitado

Método: Centrifugação para coleta do precipitado em forma de gel.

Parâmetros: Velocidade de 6.000 rpm; temperatura de 25 °C; tempo de 20 minutos.

Equipamento: Centrífuga (Novatecnica NT 830, Piracicaba, SP, Brasil).

ETAPA 12: Diálise do colágeno

Método: Diálise do colágeno por centrifugação com água deionizada, renovando a solução a cada centrifugação.

Parâmetros: Três ciclos de centrifugação; velocidade de 6.000 rpm; temperatura de 25 °C; tempo de 20 minutos por ciclo.

Equipamento: Centrífuga (Novatecnica NT 830, Piracicaba, SP, Brasil).

ETAPA 13: Armazenamento do Colágeno

Método: Armazenamento do colágeno seco sob congelamento.

Parâmetros: Temperatura de -18 °C.

Equipamento: Refrigerador convencional.