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#### Mechanical properties and reliability of glass-ceramic foam scaffolds for bone repair

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#### Abstract

The development of reliable, synthetic scaffolds to repair large defects in load-bearing bones is one of the key challenges of regenerative medicine of hard tissues. This study addresses the mechanical properties of experimental glass-ceramic scaffolds fabricated by sponge replication and exhibiting a bone-like 3-D trabecular architecture, as assessed by micro-computed tomography investigations. The scaffolds have a strength of 18 MPa, an elastic modulus around 380 MPa, a Weibull modulus of 4 and a fracture energy of 544 kJ m<sup>-3</sup> when tested in compression. Such results were compared with and found similar or even superior to those reported in the literature for bioceramic scaffolds and human cancellous bone. These key mechanical data, together with the peculiar foam-like porous architecture, indicate the great potential of this type of scaffolds for use in load-bearing bone tissue engineering applications.

Keywords: Glass; Scaffold; Compressive strength; Weibull modulus; Bone tissue engineering

#### 1. Introduction

Since Hench and associates first described, in the early 1970s, the ability of 45S5 Bioglass<sup>®</sup> to form an interfacial bond with host tissues *in vivo* [1], bioactive glasses (BGs) with various oxide formulations have attracted increasing interest among biomaterials researchers [2]. Upon implantation, silicate BGs undergo specific reactions leading to the formation of an amorphous calcium phosphate or hydroxyapatite (HA) layer on the surface of the glass, which is responsible for

their strong bonding with the surrounding tissues [1]. BGs are particularly interesting for bone tissue engineering applications as they have been recognized able to promote the proliferation and differentiation of bone cells [3], to release ions activating osteogenic genes expression [4] and to stimulate angiogenesis [5].

From a general viewpoint, the physico-chemical and mechanical properties of BGs can be tailored over a wide range by changing either composition or thermal/environmental processing history. In 2006, Park et al. [6] and Chen et al. [7] independently pioneered the fabrication of BG-derived macroporous scaffolds by polymeric sponge replication; since then, several other manufacturing methods [8], including the use of pore-former polymeric particles [9,10], freeze-drying [11] and lithography-based approaches [12], have been proposed. The architectural design of a scaffold is a great challenge because, from a structural viewpoint, two competing requirements are to be fulfilled: on one hand, the scaffold should exhibit an adequate mechanical competence, e.g. strength and stiffness comparable to those of natural bone, but, on the other hand, the implant should be sufficiently porous to allow cells colonization and new bone ingrowth once implanted in the human body. Apart from a few excellent exceptions [13], in the literature there is a relative paucity of publications reporting a comprehensive assessment of the mechanical properties of bioceramic scaffolds, as most studies have focused on evaluating only the compressive strength.

In the present work, foam-like glass-ceramic scaffolds based on an experimental silicate glass were fabricated by sponge replication and mechanically characterized assessing not only their compressive strength but also, for the first time, their elastic modulus, fracture energy and Weibull modulus, which are all key features to be taken into account for a rational design of porous brittle biomaterials.

#### 2. Materials and methods

The material used for scaffold preparation is a silicate quaternary glass having the following molar composition:  $57SiO_2$ -34CaO-6Na<sub>2</sub>O-3Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. The glass reagents (high-purity powders of SiO<sub>2</sub>, CaCO<sub>3</sub>, Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>, Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> purchased from Sigma-Aldrich) were molten in a platinum crucible at 1550 °C for 1 h in air; the melt was quenched in cold water to obtain a frit, that was subsequently ground by a 6-balls zirconia milling machine and sieved to a final particle size below 32  $\mu$ m.

Sponge replication method was adopted to fabricate the scaffolds according to a processing schedule reported elsewhere [14]. Briefly, 10-mm cubic blocks of a commercial open-cells polyurethane (PU) sponge (foam density ~20 kg m<sup>-3</sup>) were soaked into a water-based glass slurry (weight composition: 30% glass, 64% distilled water, 6% poly(vinyl alcohol)) and subsequently compressed to squeeze the slurry out of the pores in a controlled way. After drying at room

temperature in air, the samples were thermally treated (1000 °C/3 h, heating rate 5 °C min<sup>-1</sup>) to remove the polymeric sponge and to sinter the glass particles, thereby obtaining a glass-ceramic replica of the template.

Samples shrinkage due to sintering was assessed by geometrical measurements as  $(1 - V_s/V_0) \times 100$ , wherein  $V_0$  is the volume of the glass-impregnated sponge before sintering and  $V_s$  is the volume of the sintered scaffold.

The scaffolds were chromium-coated, and their morphology and porous 3-D architecture were investigated by scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Philips 525 M; accelerating voltage = 15 kV). The inner porous network of the scaffolds was also non-destructively investigated by micro-computed tomography (micro-CT; SkyScan 1174, Micro Photonics Inc.) to assess the pores content.

The compressive failure stress  $\sigma_c$  (MPa) was evaluated through crushing tests on 7 mm × 7 mm × 7 mm cubic samples (MTS System Corp. apparatus, 5-kN cell load, cross-head speed set at 1 mm min<sup>-1</sup>) as:

$$\sigma_c = \frac{L_M}{A_R} \tag{1}$$

being  $L_M$  (N) the maximum load registered during the test and  $A_R$  (mm<sup>2</sup>) the resistant cross-sectional area. Prior to testing the contact surfaces of the scaffolds were polished using SiC grit papers to obtain parallel surfaces.

The elastic modulus was determined from the linear region of the stress-strain response. This approach is commonly used and accepted in the literature [13,15] although leading to underestimation of the elastic modulus; some authors suggested alternative strategies, such as ultrasonic characterization, to partially solve this problem [16].

The energy per unit volume  $E_V$  (J mm<sup>-3</sup>) absorbed by the scaffold till the breaking off is reached was defined as the energy necessary to deform a specimen from the unloaded condition to the failure strain  $\varepsilon_f$ , and was calculated as the area under the stress-strain curve up to  $\varepsilon_f$  [17]:

$$E_V = \int_0^{\varepsilon_f} \sigma(\varepsilon) d\varepsilon$$
 (2)

being the strain  $\varepsilon$  the integration variable; the initial and final condition are, respectively,  $\sigma(\varepsilon = 0) = 0$  and  $\sigma(\varepsilon = \varepsilon_f) = \sigma_c$  (calculated from Eq.(1)).

The above-mentioned mechanical parameters were expressed as mean value  $\pm$  standard deviation calculated on thirty samples.

The Weibull modulus was determined according to ASTM C1239-07 [18] by fitting the strength data with the equation:

$$\ln \ln \left(\frac{1}{1 - P_f}\right) = m \ln \left(\frac{\sigma}{\sigma_0}\right) = m \ln(\sigma) - m \ln(\sigma_0)$$
(3)

wherein  $P_f$  is the probability of failure at a stress  $\sigma$  and  $\sigma_0$  is the Weibull scale parameter determined from the intercept of the fit to the data and the Weibull modulus *m*. The probability of failure was evaluated using the equation

 $P_{f} = \frac{j - 0.5}{n}$ , wherein *n* is the total number of tested specimens and *j* is the specimen rank in ascending order of failure stresses.

## 3. Results and discussion

The scaffold volumetric shrinkage was estimated to be  $67 \pm 5$  %, the low standard deviation demonstrated the good reproducibility of the adopted fabrication method.

Fig. 1a reports a SEM micrograph of scaffold surface, exhibiting a trabecular-like porous architecture mimicking that of cancellous bone. A homogeneous, bimodal distribution of pores sizes – pores above 100  $\mu$ m originated by the 3-D macro-cells network of the PU template and pores below 10-20  $\mu$ m – is clearly evident in the scaffold cross-section (Fig. 1b). Fig. 1c puts into evidence the typical needle-like shape of 10- $\mu$ m long wollastonite (CaSiO<sub>3</sub>) crystals developed during thermal treatment [14], which demonstrates the glass-ceramic nature of the scaffold material.

Micro-CT analysis (Figs. 1d,e) revealed a mean macro-pore size of 240  $\mu$ m (the majority of small micro-pores visible in Fig. 1b were excluded from the calculation adopting an image resolution of 10  $\mu$ m) and a total porosity of 56 ± 6 vol.%, which is comparable to that of healthy trabecular human bone (50-80 vol.% [19]). Scaffolds had a good 3-D pores interconnectivity throughout the whole volume (Fig. 1e) with open porosity above 95 % of the overall pores content, which is a key feature after *in vivo* implantation in order to have paths for cells to migrate, tissue to grow in and waste products to flow out.

A typical example of compressive stress-strain curve for SCNA scaffold is reported in Fig. 2. The curve exhibits a multi-peak profile, which is peculiar of foam-like ceramics [20]. The curves have a positive slope up to a first peak, after which the thin trabeculae begin to crack causing an apparent stress drop (negative slope); however, the scaffold was still able to withstand higher loads and therefore the stress rises again. The repetition of this behaviour produces a jagged stress-strain curve while the progressive cracking of scaffold struts occurs; when also the thick trabeculae are fractured, the curve has an ultimate negative slope.

The scaffolds compressive strength was  $18 \pm 5$  MPa, which is above the standard reference range (2-12 MPa [21]) considered for human trabecular bone as well as most foam-like scaffolds with the same porosity reported in the literature [8,22]. The elastic modulus,  $380 \pm 172$  MPa, is within the range assessed for cancellous bone (50-500 MPa [23]); this is an important finding as one of the major reasons leading to implant failure is the stiffness mismatch

between implanted biomaterial and surrounding bone. The fracture energy was  $544 \pm 230$  kJ m<sup>-3</sup>, which is 4 to 25 times higher than that reported for glass-ceramic scaffolds having analogous porous architecture [24,25].

Fig. 3 shows Weibull plot of the compressive strength data; least mean squares fitting of a straight line through the experimental points gave a Weibull modulus of 4. The Weibull modulus determined from the strength data for a large number of identical samples (typically 20-30 or more) is commonly used as a measure of the mechanical reliability or the probability of failure of brittle materials [26]. The mechanical response of brittle materials is sensitive to microstructural flaws such as pores and micro-cracks: therefore, Weibull modulus is used to evaluate the probability of failure of brittle materials under a given stress. In this work, the Weibull modulus of glass-ceramic scaffolds produced by sponge replication was assessed for the first time, hence a direct comparison with analogous data from the literature is not possible; nonetheless, a few results concerning bioceramic scaffolds produced by different techniques can be considered. The Weibull moduli of solid-freeform-fabricated (SFF) porous HA, β-TCP and calcium polyphosphates scaffolds have been reported to be within 3-9 for testing in compression [27-29]. To the best of the authors' knowledge, only one study reporting the Weibull modulus of bioactive glass scaffolds is available in the literature: specifically, Liu et al. [13] recently assessed a Weibull modulus around 12 for robocast 13-93 glass scaffolds. This value is significantly higher compared to that assessed for SCNA scaffolds; however, it has to be taken into account that the porosity of 13-93 glass scaffolds is quite lower (47 vol.% [13]) and, most importantly, the methods of fabrication and subsequent 3-D porous architectures and struts microstructures are far different: robocast scaffolds are constituted by dense glass filaments that are free from large flaws, whereas a diffused micro-porosity can be observed along the cross-section of SCNA scaffolds struts (Fig. 2). The increase of sintering temperature and time might allow to reduce the small micropores of SCNA scaffolds thereby contributing to further improve the mechanical properties; however, a higher shrinkage involving a lower porosity would be also achieved, which would make the scaffolds unsuitable for bone tissue engineering applications.

Looking at the future, a significant increment of Weibull modulus could be achieved by polymer infiltration of sintered SCNA foams, as suggested by Martinez-Vazquez et al. [28] who investigated the effect of poly(lactic acid) and poly( $\varepsilon$ -caprolactone) coatings on  $\beta$ -TCP foams. On the other hand, the scaffold toughness will increase *in vivo*: Woodard et al. [30] reported that porous bioceramic scaffolds, with a brittle response as fabricated, show an elastoplastic response in compression after implantation for 2 months in pigs.

The results reported in this paper further support the mechanical suitability of SCNA scaffolds as load-bearing highstrength grafts for bone defect filling and, moreover, as trabecular-like coatings on prosthetic devices for better osteointegration, as recently proposed by the authors [31,32].

#### 4. Conclusions

SCNA scaffolds fabricated by sponge replication exhibited a foam-like 3-D porous network mimicking the trabecular architecture of cancellous bone. The total porosity, which was predominantly open, was around 56 vol.% and the pore sizes ranged within 100-500  $\mu$ m. When tested under compression, the scaffolds had a strength of 18 MPa, an elastic modulus around 380 MPa, a Weibull modulus of 4 and a fracture energy of 544 kJ m<sup>-3</sup> (mean values). Besides providing key data for the design of bioactive glass porous grafts, these findings support the mechanical suitability of the produced scaffolds for load-bearing bone repair.

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## **Figure legends**

**Fig. 1.** SCNA scaffolds morphology and architecture: SEM micrographs at different magnification of (a) the surface  $(50\times)$ , (b) a transversal cross-section  $(120\times)$  and (c) a strut with needle-shaped wollastonite crystals  $(2500\times)$ ; (d) 3-D reconstruction of the scaffold volume (side 5 mm) by micro-CT and (e) mid-length cross-sections in the [xy], [xz] and [yz] orthogonal planes.

Fig. 2. Typical compressive stress-strain curve of SCNA scaffolds.

**Fig. 3.** Weibull plot for the compressive strength of SCNA scaffolds. The linear fitting parameters were defined in the Eq.(3) and were assessed through the least means squares algorithm. The plot is approximately linear over most of the stress range, but deviations from a linear relationship are apparent at low and high stress values, as commonly observed for such tests on other materials.





Fig. 1



Fig. 2



Fig. 3