

Springer Series in Biomaterials Science and Engineering 2

Besim Ben-Nissan *Editor*

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# Advances in Calcium Phosphate Biomaterials

 Springer

**2**

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Besim Ben-Nissan  
Editor

# Advances in Calcium Phosphate Biomaterials

 Springer

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*This book is dedicated to Professor Racquel Z. LeGeros, who has taught us and contributed so much in both research and education for the advancement of calcium phosphates and biomaterials. She will be greatly missed.*



# Tribute to Racquel

I ran across a simple note when cleaning out our offices from someone I really don't remember. It goes like this:

Dear Dr Racquel. I really wish to thank you for everything you have done for me to advance my career. You really did not know me, and I had difficulty understanding why you would help me until I got to know you and observed that it was your nature to be kind and helpful to everyone in your path.

John P. LeGeros, Ph.D.





# Preface

*“Cogito Ergo Sum”*  
René Descartes 1644

I would like to tell a story that all these years I seldom talked about.

It was on one of those dark sunsets of October 1973 that I found myself wounded in one of those conflicts that unfortunately never ended.

A number of doctors were busy trying to help me and other wounded soldiers under the harsh dangers of the front line. These doctors and following surgeries in hospital helped me to realise how “life was at the edge of a fine line” that separated our existence from death. In reality this happens in many instances throughout human history; on one side, humanity tries to exterminate each other and on the other it tries to save or repair life.

This was my first intimate and personal encounter with the medical field, and I admire those individuals that sacrificed themselves to help. It opened a new thinking in my mind to use my knowledge to help to preserve and improve life. It became a search for solutions to problems within medical science, which opened up new avenues for future endeavours.

After a few months, I found a number of people—at that time—that were the backbones of the “biomedical materials field pioneering research” with their new inventions and ground-breaking research. Dr. Charnley in the UK was one of those orthopaedic surgeons that understood well both biomechanics and materials in addition to his surgical skills. He was an excellent inventive thinker and was experimenting on the total hip joint designs that set the benchmark that we still use today. Professor Weis was working on the first blade-type titanium dental implants in the USA.

On the scientific side of the biomaterials field, Drs. Racquel and John LeGeros were active and initiated the basic chemistry and substitutions of calcium phosphates for bone regeneration and repair. Dr. Larry Hench was a young inventor with unique scientific approach to chemistry and ceramic synthesis to introduce the bioglass and other inventions that motivated generations that followed, and still do. Dr. Samuel Hulbert and his PhD student Dr. Klawitter postulated that porous ceramics can

be used as scaffolds, and produced a list of materials that till today is the golden standard of biocompatible materials. Dr. Aoki pioneered and set the synthesis methods for calcium phosphates that motivated me and others to follow his footsteps and all these giants mentioned in the field. During the late 1970s and the early 1980s, in Asia and specifically in Japan, Drs. Kawahara, Yamamuro, Oonishi and Kokubo and in Europe Klaas de Groot, Ducheyne, Rey and Dacusi and others were experimenting on a range of calcium phosphate bioceramics that further opened new avenues into which many of us built our research.

My motivation and involvement in bioceramics goes back to these researchers and their pioneering research efforts mentioned above. I have admired and have respect for all of the new small steps that many scientists contributed during the years and having motivated us with their work. I was thrilled when Prof. Min Wang proposed that I should edit a book on the “Advances in Calcium Phosphate Biomaterials” for Springer. Immediately, I contacted Prof. Racquel LeGeros to ask her to share with me the pleasure of partially writing and editing this book. Although very busy, she graciously agreed. At the Bioceramics 24 meeting last year in Kyushu, Japan, we prepared the basic structure and the list of authors we aimed to invite to contribute.

We were interested in calcium phosphate-based biomaterials and specifically “apatites” that since the early days have taken a role of passive scaffold for bone regeneration and repair. We were observing that during the last two decades, the concept has changed from passive participation to active involvement to stimulate the body to regenerate and repair the tissue. New-generation calcium phosphate scaffolds are designed to stimulate specific cellular responses in the nanoscale level utilising biogenic additives such as bone morphogenic proteins and stem cells to help release the ionic dissolution products and activate the cells in contact with the biomaterials. With the appropriate microbiological, biochemical and biomechanical stimulation, the cells produce additional growth factors that in turn stimulate generation of growing cells to self-assemble to the required tissues. Taking to account all these factors, we aimed in this book to bring these new concepts, mechanisms and methods by experienced and well-known and young academics, clinicians and researchers to forward their knowledge and expertise on calcium phosphate and related materials and their clinical applications. The general aim was directed not only to cover the fundamentals but also to open new avenues to meet the challenges of the future in research and clinical applications. Both Racquel and I were going to share the responsibility of inviting and co-authoring a few chapters, but it was not meant to be. A few months after sending invitation letters to authors, I received the sad, unexpected and hurting news from Prof. Dacusi that Racquel passed away in France, during her visit, where she usually helped students in their research efforts on calcium phosphates and related materials.

It was a very difficult decision to continue with the book without her guidance and support. However, we felt that this was probably what Racquel would have wanted us to do.

We received 17 chapters, and many others apologised that due to their heavy academic load they could not meet the timeline. This book is therefore their story that covers the advances in calcium phosphate materials from its modern characterisation methods to tissue-biomaterial interactions, from bioglass to biocomposites, from marine structures to drug delivery and from its history to new orthopaedic and maxillofacial applications.

To meet various needs of research, education and clinical applications, each chapter provides clear and fully detailed descriptions, theoretical and experimental issues, discussions and future considerations. This in-depth, practical coverage should also assist the recent graduates and the medical professionals in the calcium phosphate and in general in the biomedical materials field.

Throughout history, science never ceased “advancing”, and I trust that this reference book conveys the intensity of this fast “advancing calcium phosphate” field in an enthusiastic way to generate further research and their medical applications to further help the well-being of humans.

Sydney, NSW, Australia

Besim Ben-Nissan, Ph.D.



# Acknowledgements

First of all, I would like to acknowledge the contributions of Prof. Racquel Z. LeGeros to this book during its inception and for setting the tone. During the last five decades, she has inspired many of us to work and publish in the calcium phosphate field, and she set directions in which future generations will take the field further.

It was her unfortunate departure that left me alone to complete what we started together. To achieve this goal, two individual colleagues have contributed on every step of preparing this book, Dr. Andy H. Choi and Mr. Innocent Jacob Macha; without their hard work, persistence and contribution and visions, this book could not have been completed.



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# Abbreviations

ACP	Amorphous calcium phosphate
ALP	Alkaline phosphatase
ASC	Embryonic stem cells
BCP	Biphasic calcium phosphate
BMP	Bone morphogenetic protein
CDA	Calcium-deficient apatite
CFA	Carbonate- and fluoride-containing apatite
CHA	Carbonate hydroxyapatite
CPPD	Calcium pyrophosphate dehydrate
DCPD	Dicalcium phosphate dehydrate
ECM	Extracellular matrix
HAp	Hydroxyapatite
HCA	Hydroxyl-carbonate apatite
hMSCs	Human mesenchymal stem cells
IBBC	Interface bioactive bone cement
LPD	Liquid phase deposition
MCPM	Monocalcium phosphate monohydrate
OCP	Octacalcium phosphate
SBF	Simulated body fluid
TCP	Tricalcium phosphate

# Chapter 1

## Introduction to Synthetic and Biologic Apatites

Racquel Z. LeGeros and Besim Ben-Nissan

**Abstract** In the early 1970s, bioceramics were employed to perform singular, biologically inert roles, such as to provide parts for bone replacement. The realization that cells and tissues perform many other vital regulatory and metabolic roles has highlighted the limitations of synthetic materials as tissue substitutes. Demands of bioceramics have changed from maintaining an essentially physical function without eliciting a host response to providing a more integrated interaction with the host. This has been accompanied by increasing demands from medical devices to improve the quality of life, as well as extend its duration. Bioceramics especially hydroxyapatite incorporating biologic additives can be used as body interactive materials, helping the body to heal or promoting regeneration of tissues, thus restoring physiological functions. The crystallography and characterization of biologic and synthetic apatites are very complex. This chapter attempts to cover over four decades of research on one of the most intriguing and fascinating fields of research.

**Keywords** Bioceramic • Biologic apatite • Coralline HAp • Biomimetic • Nanocrystals

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## 1.1 Introduction

“Apatite” (Gr, to deceive) was the name given first by Werner in 1788 to describe a group of mineral crystals appearing with various tints (yellow, green, pink, etc.) that were often confused with more precious minerals or gems such as aquamarine, amethyst, topaz, etc. These minerals have the general formula  $M_{10}(PO_4)_6X_2$ , where M could be one of several metals (usually calcium, Ca), P is most commonly phosphorus (P), and X is commonly hydroxide (OH) or a halogen such as fluorine (F) or chlorine (Cl). Currently, the name “apatite” describes a family of compounds having similar structure (hexagonal system, space group, P63/m) in spite of a wide range of compositions [1, 2]. The unit cell of calcium hydroxyapatite (HAP) contains ten calcium (Ca), six  $PO_4$ , and two OH groups, arranged as shown in Fig. 1.1. The OH groups located in the corners of the unit cell are surrounded by two sets of Ca (II) atoms arranged in a triangular patterns at levels  $z = 0$  and  $z = 1/2$ , by two sets of  $PO_4$  tetrahedral also arranged in triangular patterns at levels  $z = Y$  and  $z = 2/3$ , and by a hexagonal array of Ca (I) atoms at a distance [3]. Critical to

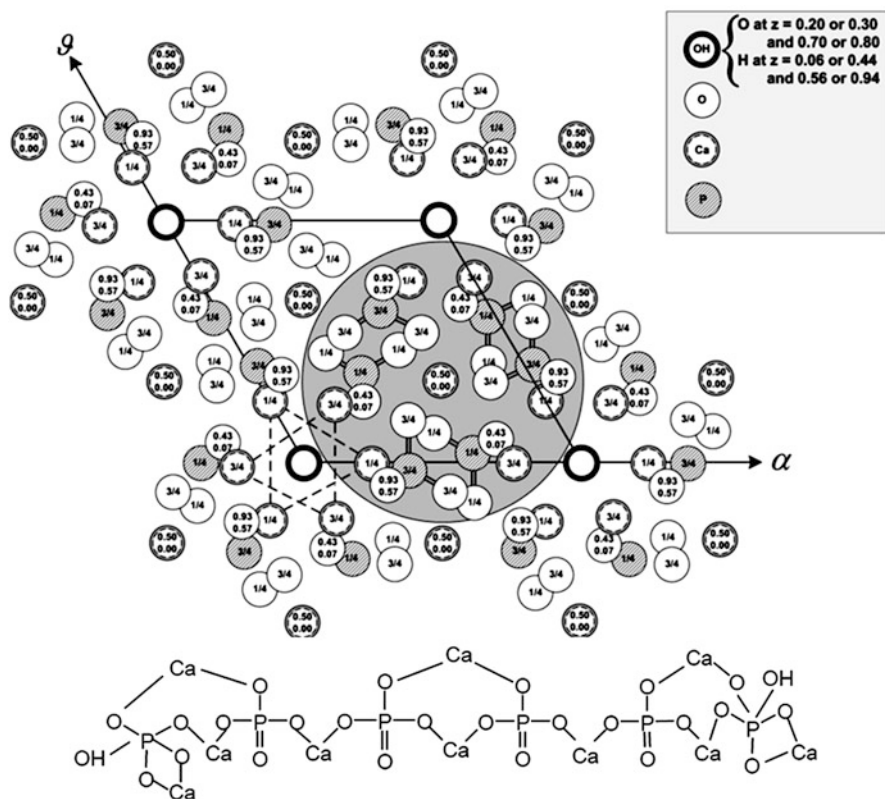


Fig. 1.1 The unit cell and simplified arrangement of hydroxyapatite,  $Ca_{10}(PO_4)_6(OH)_2$



the apatite structure is the network of  $\text{PO}_4$  groups in tightly packed arrangements [2]. Substitutions in the apatite structure affect lattice parameters ( $a$ - and  $c$ -axis dimensions, infrared absorption characteristics, morphology, dissolution properties, and thermal stabilities).

Biologic apatites are the inorganic phases of calcified tissues (teeth and bones). Similarity in composition of calcined bone to the apatite mineral was proposed by Proust and Klaproth in 1788 [4], and similarity in the X-ray diffraction patterns of bone and mineral apatites (HAp and fluorapatite (FA)) and similarity in composition (principally calcium and phosphate ions) led to the conclusion that the inorganic phases of bones and teeth are basically calcium hydroxyapatite [5–7]. Detection of carbonate associated with biologic apatites led to the speculation that these mineral phases are carbonate-containing apatites similar to the minerals dahllite (carbonate-containing apatite) or staffellite (carbonate- and fluoride-containing apatite) [8]. Studies on synthetic carbonate-substituted apatites demonstrated that carbonate substitution in the apatite structure can proceed in two ways:  $\text{CO}_3$ -for-OH or type A [9, 10] and  $\text{CO}_3$ -for- $\text{PO}_4$  or type B, coupled with Na-for-Ca [11, 12], and combined analyses of synthetic and biologic apatites using X-ray diffraction, infrared spectroscopy, and chemical analyses demonstrated that biologic apatites are carbonate apatites approximated by the formula  $(\text{Ca}, \text{Mg}, \text{Na})_{10}(\text{PO}_4, \text{CO}_3, \text{HPO}_4)_6(\text{CO}_3, \text{OH})_2$  [12–14]. For example, the following formula  $\text{Ca}_{8.856}\text{Mg}_{0.088}\text{Na}_{0.292}\text{K}_{0.010}(\text{PO}_4)_{5.312}(\text{HPO}_4)_{0.280}(\text{CO}_3)_{0.407}(\text{OH})_{0.702}\text{Cl}_{0.078}(\text{CO}_3)_{0.050}$  was proposed to describe the chemical composition of the inorganic part of dental enamel.

Early studies on synthetic apatites and related calcium phosphates were made to gain a better understanding of the structure, composition, and properties of biologic apatites, especially of human enamel apatites. However, studies on synthetic apatites in the last 30 years had focused on their preparation, their applications in medicine and dentistry, and their use as scaffolds for bone and teeth regeneration. Current commercial synthetic calcium phosphate biomaterials classified on the basis of composition include HAp,  $\text{Ca}_{10}(\text{PO}_4)_6(\text{OH})_2$ ;  $\alpha$ - and  $\beta$ -tricalcium phosphates ( $\alpha$ -TCP,  $\beta$ -TCP),  $\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$ ; and biphasic calcium phosphate (BCP), an intimate mixture of HAp and  $\beta$ -TCP with varying HAp/ $\beta$ -TCP ratios [15–19]. Other commercial HAp biomaterials are derived from biologic materials (e.g., processed human bone, bovine bone derived, hydrothermally converted coral or derived from marine algae) [20–22].

This chapter is a brief review of biologic and synthetic apatites used as biomaterials, updating reviews published earlier by the authors [13, 20, 23, 24].

## 1.2 Biogenic Apatites

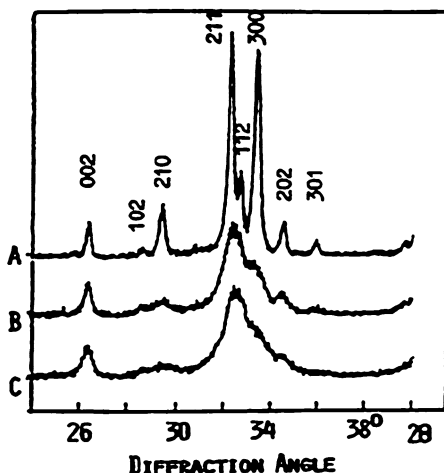
Normal and pathologic calcified tissues are composites of organic and inorganic phases. For bone, dentin, and cementum, the organic phase is principally collagen (about 25 % by weight) with smaller amounts of non-collagenous proteins [25].

On the other hand, the main organic phase in enamel is a non-collagenous protein (amelogenin) comprising about 1 % by weight of the enamel. In normal calcified tissues, such as in teeth and bones, in fish enameloids (teeth or calcified scales of some species), and in some species of shells, only carbonate (carbonate hydroxyapatite, CHA)- or carbonate- and fluoridecontaining apatite (CFA) occurs as the principal inorganic phase [13, 24, 26, 27]. In pathologic calcifications (dental calculus, urinary stones, vascular calcification, and other soft-tissue calcifications), biologic apatite may occur as one of the mineral phases that include other calcium phosphates, e.g., amorphous calcium phosphate (ACP),  $\text{Ca}_x(\text{PO}_4)_y$ ; dicalcium phosphate dehydrate (DCPD),  $\text{CaHPO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ; octacalcium phosphate (OCP),  $\text{Ca}_8\text{H}_2(\text{PO}_4)_6 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ; magnesium-substituted tricalcium phosphate ( $\beta$ -TCMP,  $(\text{Ca},\text{Mg})_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$ ); and calcium pyrophosphate dihydrate (CPPD),  $\text{Ca}_2\text{P}_2\text{O}_7 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  [24, 28].

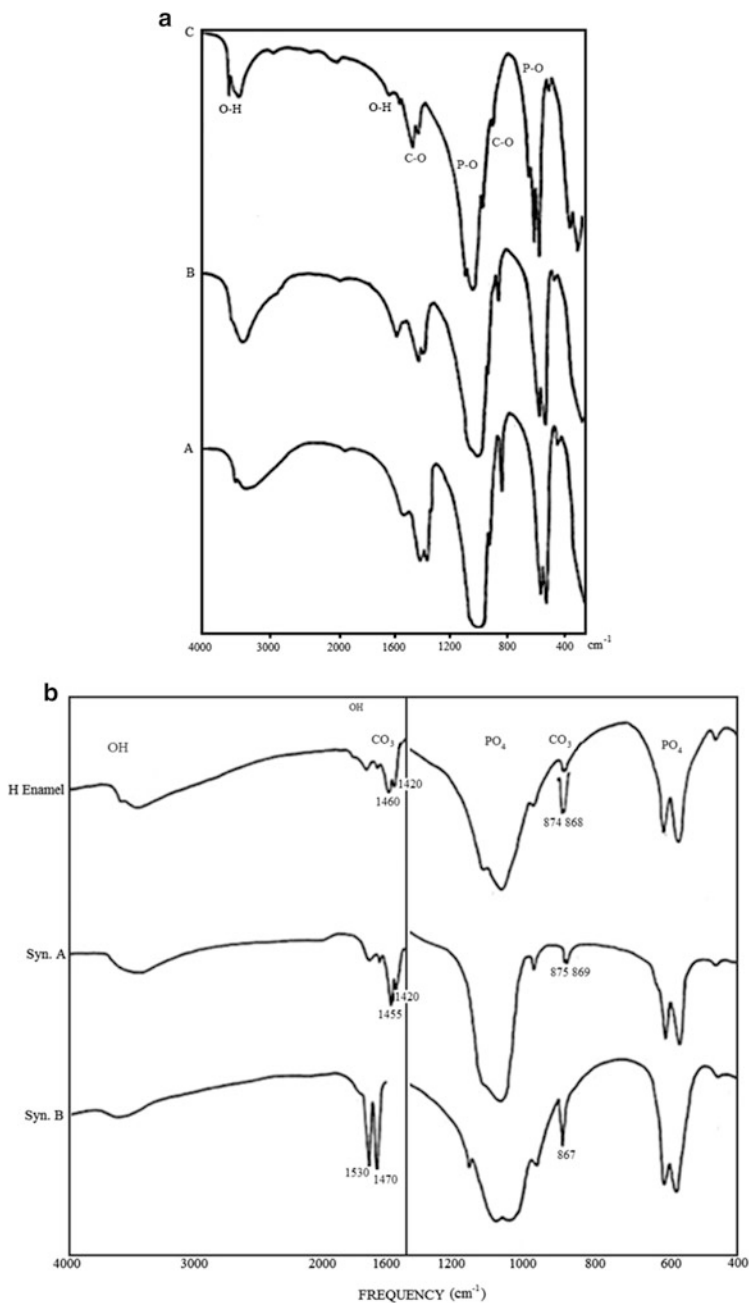
### 1.3 Enamel, Dentin, and Bone Apatite

Enamel, dentin, and bone apatite differ in crystallinity, reflecting crystal size (Fig. 1.2) and concentrations of minor constituents, mainly Mg and  $\text{CO}_3$  (Fig. 1.3a, Table 1.1) [13, 24, 29]. Enamel apatite contains the lowest concentrations of these ions and the highest crystallinity (larger crystals) compared to either dentin or bone apatite that shows much lower crystallinity (smaller crystals) or greater concentrations of Mg and  $\text{CO}_3$  (Table 1.1). These apatites also differ in solubility, decreasing in the order bone > dentin >> enamel.

These differences in crystallinity (crystal size) and solubility may be attributed to the differences in the concentrations of the minor constituents (e.g., Mg, N,  $\text{CO}_3$ ,  $\text{HPO}_4$ ). Studies on the effect of Mg and  $\text{CO}_3$  ions on the properties of synthetic apatites demonstrated that incorporation of these ions independently and



**Fig. 1.2** X-ray diffraction profiles of biologic apatites from adult human enamel (a), dentin (b), and bone (c)



**Fig. 1.3** (a) FTIR spectra of biologic apatites from adult human enamel, dentin, and bone. Note the higher resolution of the P–O (for PO<sub>4</sub> groups) absorption spectra of enamel (C), compared to those of dentin (B) and bone (A) apatites. (b) FTIR spectra comparing the characteristic C–O (for CO<sub>3</sub> groups) absorption bands in human enamel apatite compared to those in synthetic apatite with type A (CO<sub>3</sub>-for-OH) substitution (syn A) and with type B (CO<sub>3</sub>-for-PO<sub>4</sub>) substitution (syn B)

**Table 1.1** Composition (%) and physical properties of apatites in adult human enamel, dentin, and bone

	Enamel	Dentin	Bone
<b>Composition</b>			
Calcium, Ca <sup>2+</sup>	36.5	35.1	34.8
Phosphorus, P	17.7	16.2	15.6
Ca/P (molar)	1.63	1.63	1.71
Sodium, Na <sup>+</sup>	0.5	0.6	0.9
Magnesium, Mg <sup>2+</sup>	0.34	1.23	0.72
Potassium, K <sup>+</sup>	0.06	0.05	0.03
Carbonate, CO <sub>3</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	3.5	5.6	7.4
Fluoride, F <sup>-</sup>	0.01	0.06	0.03
Chloride, Cl	0.30	0.01	0.13
Pyrophosphate	0.02	0.10	0.07
Total inorganic (mineral)	97.0	70.0	65.0
Total organic	1.5	20.0	25.5
Absorbed H <sub>2</sub> O %	1.5	10.0	10.0
Trace elements: Zn, Cu, Fe, Sr, etc.			
<b>Crystallographic properties</b>			
<b>Lattice parameters</b>			
<i>a</i> -axis (+ 0.0003 nm)	0.9441		
<i>c</i> -axis (+ 0.0003 nm)	0.6880		
Crystallite size (nm, avg.)	33 × 3	2 × 0.4	2.5 × 0.3
Crystallinity index, <i>b</i>	70–75	33–37	33–37
Ignition products (800 °C)	HAp + β-TCMP	HAp + β-TCMP	HAp
HAp, Ca <sub>10</sub> (PO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>6</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub>			
<i>a</i> -axis = 0.9422 nm,			
<i>c</i> -axis = 0.6882 nm			
Crystallinity index = 100			
Composition: Ca, P, OH			

synergistically causes the growth of smaller and more soluble apatite crystals [13, 24, 29–32]. The effects of CO<sub>3</sub> incorporation on apatite crystal size and morphology and on dissolution properties are much more pronounced than that of Mg [13, 24, 32]. Proteins [25] and/or other ions (e.g., pyrophosphate, citrate) [12, 24] may also inhibit the crystal growth of biologic apatites.

Biologic apatites are usually calcium-deficient (i.e., with Ca/P molar ratio less than the stoichiometric value of 1.67 obtained for pure HAp, Ca<sub>10</sub>(PO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>6</sub>(OH)<sub>2</sub>). Calcining above 900 °C of human enamel and dentin apatite results in the loss of the CO<sub>3</sub> constituent and formation of HAp and β-TCMP [13, 24]. Calcining of bone (human or bovine) above 900 °C results in the loss of CO<sub>3</sub> and formation of mostly HAp with small amounts of calcium oxide, CaO [13, 24].

Partial dissolution of biologic apatites and precipitation of other calcium phosphates (DCPD, OCP, β-TCMP) are believed to occur in human enamel and dentin caries, characterized by the dissolution of the tooth mineral (carbonate apatite) by acids produced by oral bacteria [33, 34]. The non-apatitic calcium phosphates

(e.g., DCPD, OCP) may, in turn, transform to apatites by hydrolysis or by dissolution and reprecipitation processes [13, 24, 34].

Biologic apatites have been idealized as calcium HAp,  $\text{Ca}_{10}(\text{PO}_4)_6(\text{OH})_2$  [5–8]. However, the difference in lattice parameters: *a*-axis for enamel, 0.9442 nm vs. 0.9422 nm for HAp. Ca/P stoichiometry (e.g., about 1.63 for enamel or dentin apatite vs. 1.67 for HAp) and the association of other ions, notably magnesium (Mg) and carbonate ( $\text{CO}_3$ ) with biologic apatites (Table 1.1), have caused many years of disagreements and research on the structure and composition of biologic apatites [8, 9, 13, 35].

The nature of  $\text{CO}_3$  incorporation in biologic apatites, especially in human enamel apatite, had been a preoccupation of several researchers. The larger *a*-axis dimension of human enamel apatite compared to pure or mineral HAp was first attributed to the  $\text{CO}_3$ -for-OH substitution (type A) in these apatites [9]. Such type of substitution was observed in synthetic carbonate apatites prepared by diffusing  $\text{CO}_2$  into HAp at 1,000 °C under very dry conditions, resulting in an expanded *a*-axis and contracted *c*-axis dimension compared to pure HAp [9, 10]. However, studies on synthetic apatites prepared at much lower temperatures (60–95 °C) by precipitation or hydrolysis methods showed a partial  $\text{CO}_3$ -for- $\text{PO}_4$  substitution (type B) coupled with a partial Na-for-Ca substitution, resulting in a contracted *a*-axis and expanded *c*-axis dimension compared to  $\text{CO}_3$ -free apatites [11–13]. The observed expanded *a*-axis of enamel apatite may be attributed to partial Cl-for-OH substitution [36] and  $\text{HPO}_4$ -for- $\text{PO}_4$  substitution [37] rather than the  $\text{CO}_3$ -for-OH substitution in the apatite.

A possible  $\text{H}_3\text{O}$ -for-OH was also offered as a possible cause for the expanded *a*-axis dimension [8]. Additional evidence for the dominant partial  $\text{CO}_3$ -for- $\text{PO}_4$  substitution in enamel and all biologic apatites is the similarity of the characteristic  $\text{CO}_3$  absorption bands between the IR spectra of enamel apatite with those of synthetic apatites exhibiting  $\text{CO}_3$ -for- $\text{PO}_4$  substitution as shown in Fig. 1.3b [13, 24, 38].

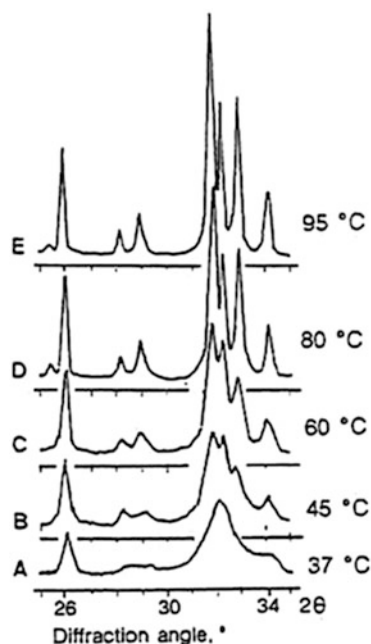
Studies in synthetic systems also showed that F incorporation (F-for-OH substitution) has the following effects: contraction in the *a*-axis dimension and no significant effect on the *c*-axis dimension compared to F-free apatites [13, 24], growth of larger and less soluble apatite crystals [13, 24, 39], and greater structural stability [3]. Such studies elucidated the nature of fluoride (F) incorporation in some biologic apatites (from modern and fossil teeth and bones). For example, the smaller *a*-axis dimension of shark enameloid compared to HAp or human enamel apatite is due to the high fluoride (F) concentration in shark enameloid (Table 1.1) [13, 27, 40]. The therapeutic use of fluoride in dentistry (sealants, topical gels, tablets) was based on the observation of low caries in areas of fluoridated water (1 ppm F) [41]. Fluoride treatment (topically or by the use of fluoridated dentifrices) of enamel and dentin leads to the formation of partially substituted (F, OH) apatite that is more resistant to acid dissolution, i.e., dental caries [29, 33, 34, 39]. Administration of F in the drinking water was shown to increase the crystal size and decrease the extent of dissolution of rat bones [42] and increase crystal thickness of enamel apatite [43]. Fluoride therapy (as NaF) has been recommended for the management of osteoporosis to increase bone density [44, 45].

## 1.4 Synthetic Apatites

Earlier extensive studies on synthetic apatites were made to gain a better understanding of biologic apatites and their properties. Because biologic apatite was idealized as HAP, most of the studies centered on HAP preparation and evaluation of HAP properties. Studies on synthetic apatites in the last 30 years were motivated by development of calcium phosphate-based biomaterials (principally HAP, TCP, or biphasic) for bone repair, substitution, and augmentation and as scaffolds for tissue engineering in bone and teeth regeneration. The rationale for developing HAP biomaterials was their similarity in composition to the bone mineral.

Synthetic HAP can be made by solid-state reactions or by precipitation or hydrolysis methods and subsequent sintering at high temperatures, usually 1,000 °C and above. Synthetic apatites can also be prepared using hydrothermal [46, 47], microwave [48, 49] or sol-gel [50, 51] methods. Apatite nanocrystals are obtained when prepared by precipitation or hydrolysis at lower temperatures (25–60 °C). Synthetic apatite crystals approximating the size of human enamel apatite may be obtained by precipitation or hydrolysis methods with reaction temperature, 80–95 °C (Fig. 1.4). Apatites may also be prepared in sol-gel systems [52], by electrodeposition [53, 54] or biomimetic precipitation on metallic or polymeric [55, 56] substrates.

Apatites obtained by precipitation involve the reaction of calcium salts (e.g.,  $\text{CaNO}_3$ ,  $\text{Ca(OH)}_2$ ,  $\text{CaCl}_2$ ,  $\text{Ca(Ac)}_2$ ) and phosphate salts ( $\text{Na}^-$ ,  $\text{NH}_4^-$ , or  $\text{K}^-$  phosphates) [24, 57]. Hydrolysis of non-apatitic calcium phosphates (e.g., ACP,



**Fig. 1.4** X-ray diffraction profiles of precipitated apatites obtained at different reaction temperatures. The nanoapatite crystals similar to bone apatite are prepared at 37 °C (a) or at room temperature. The narrowing of diffraction peaks reflects increased crystallinity; the broader the diffraction peak, the smaller the crystals

DCPD, DCPA, OCP,  $\beta$ -TCP,  $\alpha$ -TCP) or calcium compounds (e.g.,  $\text{CaCO}_3$ ,  $\text{CaMg}(\text{CO}_3)_2$ ,  $\text{CaF}_2$ ) in solutions containing OH,  $\text{CO}_3$ , or F results in the formation of apatite,  $\text{CO}_3^{3-}$  or  $\text{F}^-$  containing apatites [24, 32, 36, 58]. Apatites prepared by precipitation or hydrolysis methods when prepared at pH between 5 and 9 are calcium-deficient apatites (CDA), and subsequent sintering results in the formation of BCP [59]. Sintering or firing of synthetic apatites results in an increase in crystal size and decrease in microporosity.

Sintering of HAP at temperatures above 1,200 °C results in thermal decomposition of apatite forming other calcium phosphates such as  $\beta$ -TCP and  $\alpha$ -TCP and possibly even mixed with ACP. The combination of calcium phosphates (e.g., ACP, DCPA, DCPD, CDA,  $\alpha$ -TCP,  $\beta$ -TCP) with other calcium compounds ( $\text{CaO}$ ,  $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ ,  $\text{CaCO}_3$ ), mixed with phosphate solutions or organic acids, results in the formation of apatitic calcium phosphate cements [60, 61].

Studies on synthetic apatites showed that substitutions for Ca,  $\text{PO}_4$ , or OH ions in the apatite structure result in changes in lattice parameters (Table 1.2) and crystallinity (reflecting crystal size and/or strain) and dissolution properties. For example,  $\text{CO}_3$ -for- $\text{PO}_4$  coupled with Na-for-Ca substitution has the following effects on apatite properties:

- (a) Smaller  $a$ - and larger  $c$ -axis dimensions compared to  $\text{CO}_3$ -free apatites
- (b) Change from needlelike to rodlike to platelike with increasing  $\text{CO}_3$  incorporation
- (c) Lower resolution of the P-O (for  $\text{PO}_4$ ) absorption bands in the IR spectra
- (d) Higher solubility
- (e) Lower thermal stability [11–13, 24, 31, 32, 38]

Such studies helped explain the contributions of some ions associated with biologic apatites as well as led to the development of some therapies and manufacture of calcium phosphate-based biomaterials.

## 1.5 Synthetic Apatites as Bone-Substitute Materials

The first successful use of a calcium phosphate reagent in bone repair was reported by Albee in 1920 [62], followed more than 50 years later by the first clinical study by Nery et al. [63] on periodontal bony defects using porous calcium phosphate identified by the authors as “TCP.” X-ray diffraction analysis of Nery’s material years later revealed that the “TCP” consisted of a mixture of HAP and  $\beta$ -TCP with a  $\beta$ -TCP/HAP ratio of 20/80 [20] and was thus renamed “BCP” [64]. Similarity in composition of the synthetic apatite to biologic apatite was the rationale for the development of calcium-phosphate-based biomaterials for bone repair, substitution, and augmentation and as scaffolds for bone and tooth regeneration. These calcium phosphate bioceramics include HAP,  $\beta$ -TCP, BCP, bovine bone-derived apatites (unsintered and sintered), and coral-transformed apatite (Fig. 1.5). Commercialization of HAP as bone graft materials was largely

**Table 1.2** Lattice parameters of mineral and synthetic apatites compared to biologic apatite

Apatite	Substituent	Lattice parameters (+0.0003 nm)	
		<i>a</i> -axis	<i>c</i> -axis
Mineral			
OH apatite (Holly Springs)	–	0.9422	0.6880
F apatite (Durango, Mexico)	F-for-OH	0.9375	0.6880
Dahllite (Wyoming, USA)	CO <sub>3</sub> -for-PO <sub>4</sub>	0.9380	0.6885
Staffelite (Staffel, Germany)	CO <sub>3</sub> -for-PO <sub>4</sub> and F-for-OH	0.9345	0.6880
Marine phosphorite (USA)	CO <sub>3</sub> -for-PO <sub>4</sub> and F-for-OH	0.9322	0.6882
Synthetic (nonaqueous) <sup>a</sup>			
OH apatite	–	0.9422	0.6882
F apatite	F-for-OH	0.9375	0.6880
Cl apatite	Cl-for-OH	0.9646	0.6771
CO <sub>3</sub> apatite	CO <sub>3</sub> -for-OH	0.9544	0.6859
Synthetic (aqueous) <sup>b</sup>			
OH apatite	–	0.9438	0.6882
OH apatite	HPO <sub>4</sub> -for-PO <sub>4</sub>	0.9462	0.6879
F apatite	F-for-OH	0.9382	0.6880
(Cl, OH) apatite	*Cl-for-OH	0.9515	0.6858
CO <sub>3</sub> -OH apatite	*CO <sub>3</sub> -for-PO <sub>4</sub>	0.9298	0.6924
CO <sub>3</sub> -F apatite	*CO <sub>3</sub> -for-PO <sub>4</sub> and F-for-OH	0.9268	0.6924
Sr apatite	Sr-for-Ca	0.9739	0.6913
Pb apatite	Pb-for-Ca	0.9894	0.7422
Ba apatite	Ba-for-Ca	1.0161	0.7722
Biologic apatite			
Human enamel	(CO <sub>3</sub> ,HPO <sub>4</sub> )-for-PO <sub>4</sub> , (Na,Mg)-for-Ca, and Cl-for-OH	0.9441	0.6882
Shark enameloid	F-for-OH, Mg-for-Ca, and (CO <sub>3</sub> ,HPO <sub>4</sub> )-for-PO <sub>4</sub>	0.9382	0.6880

<sup>a</sup>Prepared at high temperature (1,000 °C) by solid-state reaction or diffusion [3, 9]

<sup>b</sup>Prepared at 95 °C either by precipitation or by hydrolysis of CaHPO<sub>4</sub> in solutions containing the desired substituent [13, 24, 58]

due to the independent efforts of Jarcho [15], deGroot [16], and Aoki [17]. Basic studies on BCP led to its commercialization and popularity as bone graft materials and as scaffolds for tissue engineering [18, 59, 64–69].

Commercial HA biomaterials are usually prepared by precipitation at high pH and subsequent sintering at about 1,000–1,100 °C [15–17]. Coral-derived HAp or coralline HAp is prepared by the hydrothermal reaction of coral (CaCO<sub>3</sub>) with ammonium phosphate [70]. Bovine bone-derived HAp is prepared by removing the organic phase (resulting in bone apatite) or removing the organic phase and sintering at high temperatures. These different preparations and origin (synthetic vs. biologic) are reflected in the difference in their initial crystallinity reflecting crystal size (Fig. 1.6) and their dissolution rates [71], increasing in the order

HAp << coralline HAp < bovine bone apatite (sintered) << bovine bone apatite (unsintered) HAp << BCP << β-TCP.



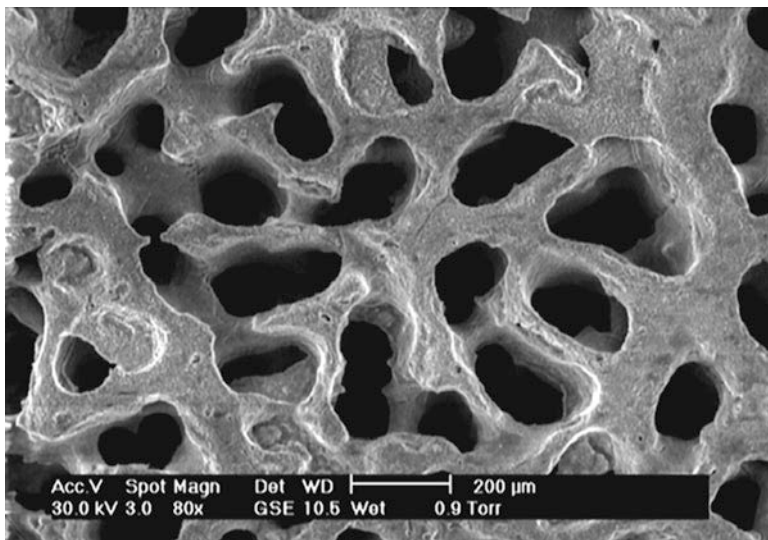


Fig. 1.5 Scanning electron micrograph of coralline apatite

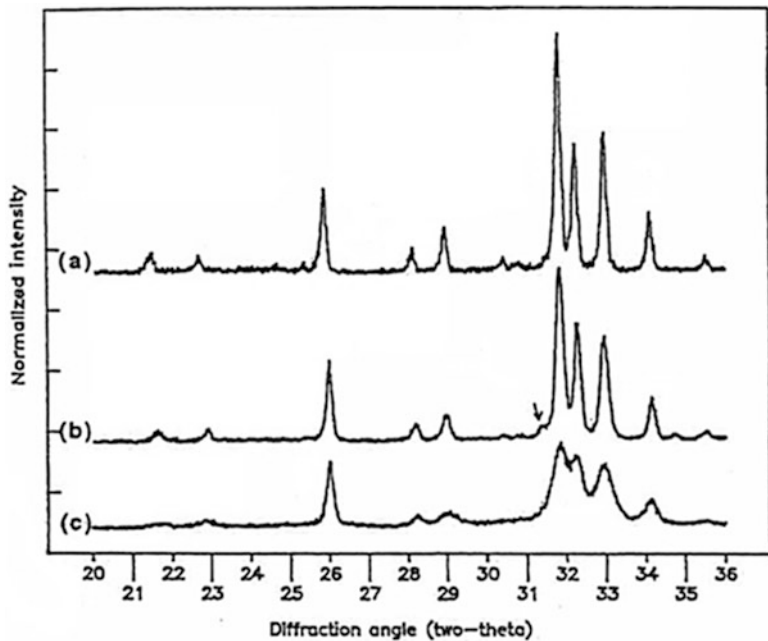


Fig. 1.6 X-ray diffraction profiles of apatite biomaterials (A, B, C). (A) Ceramic HAP (Calci-tite™), (B) coralline HAP (Interpore™), (C) unsintered apatite, calcium deficient (Osteogen™). The arrow on (b) indicates presence of  $\beta$ -TCMP

## 1.6 Synthetic HAp in Implant Surfaces and Coatings

Porous HAp and related calcium phosphates, in spite of their many desirable properties, are not strong enough to be used in load-bearing areas [15, 16]. The rationale for the development of “HAp”-coated orthopedic and dental implants is to combine the strength of the metal (usually titanium or titanium alloy) and the bioactive properties of HAp and other calcium phosphates. Dense HAp particles are used as the source material for depositing implant coating by the plasma-spray technique [15, 16, 72]. The high temperatures and other variable parameters involved in the plasma-spray process (e.g., velocity of feeding the HAp powder, distance of the gun from the metal substrate) result in the partial transformation of the original HAp into ACP and minor amounts of  $\alpha$ -TCP,  $\beta$ -TCP, and tetracalcium phosphate (TTCP,  $\text{Ca}_4\text{P}_2\text{O}_9$ ) [73]. Plasma-sprayed “HAp” coatings have nonhomogenous composition (principally ACP/HAp ratio), varying from the layer closest to the metal substrate to the outermost layer and varying from one manufacturer to another [73]. Alternatives to the plasma-spray method are nanocoating, electrochemical deposition [53, 54], and precipitation or chemical deposition [55, 56], the latter method being also applicable to nonmetallic substrates [56]. These other methods provide homogenous implant coating of the desired composition, e.g., HAp, FA, CHA, and OCP [53–56, 74], and allow coating deposition at much lower temperatures, thus permitting the incorporation of bioactive molecules and growth factors.

During the last decade, HAp or BCP has been used as an abrasive material for grit blasting to roughen the surface and provide a more bioactive surface (compared to alumina or silica abrasive), thus enhancing osseointegration of the implant [75].

## 1.7 Synthetic HAp in Composites

HAp and related calcium phosphates are used as the inorganic component in composites with natural (e.g., collagen, chitosan) or synthetic (polylactic acid or polylactideglycolic acid, PLA or PLGA, high-molecular-weight polyethylene) polymers [76, 77]. The rationale for developing composite biomaterials is the fact that bone is a composite of a biologic polymer (collagen) and inorganic phase (carbonate apatite).

## 1.8 Synthetic HAp and BCP as Scaffolds for Tissue Engineering

Several investigators have reported that mesenchymal stem cells (MSC) from bone marrow can be cultured in porous calcium phosphate biomaterials (ceramic HAp, coralline HAp, BCP ceramic) in vitro and implanted as a tissue-engineered material for bone regeneration [78, 79].

### ***1.8.1 Critical Properties of Synthetic HAp and Related Calcium Phosphates***

Porosity (interconnecting macroporosity) is an important property of biomaterials to allow bony ingrowth and vascularization [80, 81]. Macroporosity is introduced in HAp and other calcium phosphates by the incorporation of porogens such as naphthalene [82],  $H_2O_2$ , or sugar molecules. Biocompatibility of a material is determined in vitro from the cell response (proliferation, attachment, phenotypic expression) to the material. Material surface composition and surface roughness or topography influence cell response [83]. Bioactivity is defined as the property of the material to develop a direct, adherent, and strong bonding and interface with the bone tissue [84, 85]. Bioactivity is demonstrated in vitro and in vivo by the ability of the material to form carbonate apatite on the surface from the simulated body fluid in vitro [56] or biologic fluid in vivo in osseous or non-osseous sites [65, 66, 86, 87].

Osteoconductivity is the property of the material that allows attachment, proliferation, migration, and phenotypic expression of bone cells leading to the formation of new bone in direct opposition to the biomaterial [84]. Osteoinductivity is the property of the material that allows osteoprogenitor cell growth and development for bone formation to occur [88] and is usually determined by the formation of bone in non-bone-forming sites, e.g., under the skin or in the muscle. HAp and related calcium phosphates are generally considered to have all the above properties except osteoinductivity. However, although controversial, it has been reported that with the appropriate composition, geometry, and architecture, osteoinductive properties can be promoted [89, 90].

## **1.9 Conclusions**

The total analysis of the results obtained over four decades of research in this fascinating field of science suggests that with newer scientific tools and with further refinement, we will succeed to address problems relating to the structure, morphology, and analysis of the biologic materials and produce synthetic apatites or composites that will emulate the structure and characteristics of natural soft and hard tissues.

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## Chapter 2

# Clinical Applications of Hydroxyapatite in Orthopedics

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**Abstract** This chapter describes since 1982 the use of porous synthetic hydroxyapatite (HA) granules (0.1 to approximately 1.5 mm) interposed at the cement-bone interface to enhance bone bonding, a surgical procedure labeled interface bioactive bone cement (IBBC). HA granules were smeared on the bone surface just before cementing. Because the HA granules used in IBBC were pure polycrystalline HA, they were scarcely absorbed and their osteoconductive activity can continue indefinitely even after the onset of osteoporosis due to aging and even in conditions of extremely low pathological activity of bone. The appearance rate of radiolucent lines and osteolysis was extremely low even over 30 years when IBBC was used. Since 1986, in an attempt to fill the massive bony defect in the acetabulum at revision surgery of total hip arthroplasty, a mixture of HA granules with a size between 0.9~1.2 mm and 3.0~5.0 mm was placed densely and firmly into the bone defects. Bone ingrowth was measured to be over 2.5 cm in full depth and the new bone was very stable. Long-term clinical results over 26 years were excellent. On the weight-bearing area, bone ingrowth over 2.5 cm in full depth can be expected. However, on non-weight-bearing area, bone ingrowth is only 0.5 cm in depth. In large cavities

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