

Original Article

MgB₂-based biodegradable materials for orthopedic implants



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ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 11 May 2022 Accepted 27 July 2022 Available online 2 August 2022

Keywords: MgB2 Biodegradable PLA In vivo Rat model Bone interaction

ABSTRACT

Bulk high density MgB₂ and a composite material made of a PLA matrix and MgB₂ powder inclusions were *in vivo* tested as candidates for biodegradable materials for orthopedic implants. A rat model was used. Implants were introduced into femoral bone, in transversal and longitudinal directions. Assessment of the implant—tissue interaction was performed by X-ray imaging, X-ray computer tomography, electron microscopy, cytology, and histopathology on samples at 40 and 90 days after surgery. Both materials are biocompatible, bone and adjacent soft tissue showing good tolerance of implants. Biodegradation of MgB₂ is faster than for PLA-MgB₂ composite, but in both cases, it is accompanied by bone regeneration. Results suggest that use of MgB₂-containing composites can promote space and time control of degradation and promotes MgB₂ as a promising material for fracture repair.

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1. Introduction

Implants can largely be classified as bioinert and biodegradable/bioactive types. Most common bioinert materials, often used for permanent or long period implants, are Ti and Tibased alloys, stainless steels (316 L), Co–Cr alloys, ZrO₂ and Al₂O₃ ceramics. Materials used for biodegradable/bioactive implants are Mg/Fe/Zn-based alloys, and polymers, such as

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https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmrt.2022.07.164

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PLA/PLLA. New composite materials with hydroxyapatite are also emerging [1]. In orthopedics, most implants are made of bioinert materials.

Since 2019, a biodegradable material was approved by the EU and other countries [2]. Commercially known as MAGNE-ZIX, it is a Mg-based alloy with additions of Zr and rare earth elements [3]. This biodegradable material is used to fabricate simple orthopedic implants, such as screws, pins, and orthopedic clamps. These products successfully replace, in some cases, the bioinert materials. MAGNEZIX products are suitable for the bones of the elbow, hip, hand, shoulder, knee, ankle, and foot [2], usually as small parts that bear low loads. Other potential magnesium-based products recently tested in vivo are clips for laryngeal microsurgery [4], plates and nails [5], and wound-closing devices [6]. Mg-based alloys are currently studied as promising biodegradable implants and different review articles cover these materials, emphasizing their advantages and problems [7-10]. Criteria for a biodegradable material to be used for an implant are [11]: (i) biocompatibility, (ii) controlled biodegradability, (iii) suitable mechanical properties, and (iv) low cost. Another important aspect is customization and adaptability of the orthopedic implants depending on the patient condition, e.g., size, weight, gender, age, fracture specifics.

In this work, we present *in vivo* test results on a rat model for assessment of MgB₂-based materials as a new candidate for orthopedic biodegradable implants. Arguments in favor of considering this material for orthopedic applications are addressed in the following paragraphs.

Regarding the biocompatibility, the first criterion, Mg and some Mg-alloys have shown excellent biocompatibility without signs of allergic or toxic reactions, being characterized by a safe degradation [12–18]. Magnesium also provides infection inhibiting effects [19]. Furthermore, MgB₂ nanosheets have also proved to have a good osteogenic potential for bone disease-related therapeutics, since they are able to enhance the osteoblast differentiation of mouse mesenchymal stem cells when embedded in polymeric scaffolds [20]. The alkaline pH of Mg in water is reaching a value of ~11. Bulk MgB2 with or without additions has a lower pH of ~8.5-10 [21,22] which is lower than that of pristine Mg, and closer to the blood pH ~7.4. The daily intake of Mg is 240-420 mg/day [11] and of B is 1-7 mg/day [23]. Mg is the fourth most abundant cation in the human body [24]. In healthy people boron levels are 15-80 µg/kg [25], being present in the body as boric acid, and it is completely absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract [26]. Magnesium [10] and boron [27-30] are involved in healthy bone growth and cell membrane care. The cytotoxicity of MgB₂ powders on different cellular lines was studied in [22,31,32]. While this is useful information, for biodegradable alloys, dynamic effects are important and only in vivo tests are relevant to observe if the body can accommodate the effects of the material implantation. MgB₂ has been shown to be an antimicrobial material [21,22,32]. This can be another useful feature to prevent soft tissue or bone infections [3]. From the biocompatibility and bioactivity viewpoints, MgB₂-based materials are expected to show similarities to Mg-based alloys, but synergetic effects induced by the presence of both B and Mg are not excluded.

Considering the second criterion concerns biodegradation aspects, many Mg-based alloys show a relatively high degradation rate in simulated body fluids at 37 °C, in many cases higher than the threshold of 0.5 mm/year proposed in ref. [33]. However, alloying and use of advanced technologies improve the corrosion resistance of biodegradable Mg alloys [9,34]. Previously performed studies indicate the MgB₂ corrosion rates in water of $4 \cdot 10^{-4}$ mm/year and of $4 \cdot 10^{-2}$ – $3 \cdot 10^{-6}$ mm/ year for MgB₂ added with Eu_2O_3 [21]. The presence of Cl⁻, HPO_4^{2-} , and $H_2PO_4^{-}$ ions [35,36] in the phosphate-buffered saline solution accelerates Mg reaction and MgB₂ decomposition. The bulk density influences mechanical properties. The density of the bone is $0.92-2 \text{ g/cm}^3$ [37], the lower limit being for cancellous bone, and the upper one for the cortical bone, while the theoretical density of MgB_2 is 2.63 g/cm³. Variation of the mechanical properties in correlation with the density of MgB₂ samples was studied by Murakami [38]. The Young modulus measured in the bending test was 311, 225 and 50 GPa when the packing ratio was 98, 92 and 63%, respectively (bending strength of 223-450 MPa). Therefore, during biodegradation, the mechanical properties of MgB₂ evolve towards those of the bone (Young modulus of 6-45 GPa, yield strength 120 MPa, compression/bending strength of ~250 MPa, ultimate tensile strength of 150 MPa, elongation strain 1.5-3% [11]). Another major concern is hydrogen gas release during degradation of Mg-based alloys for orthopedic applications. This can be potentially harmful [39] because the bone is poorly vascularized, and the natural removal of the hydrogen gas formed in the reaction between Mg and water and accumulated in the adjacent soft tissue as gas pockets, is slow. To suppress this effect, the Mg content can be decreased in the implant material. In this context, the MgB_2 with a high amount of B relative to Mg can be a promising solution vs. Mgrich alloys. In summary, considering the as-presented biodegradation aspects, MgB₂-based materials may provide some advantages over Mg alloys.

The third criterion, mechanical properties, points out the necessity to match as much as possible the mechanical properties of the bone with those of the implant material. The biomechanical properties of MgB₂ are very similar to those of human bone [3]. Strength (tensile, compressive or yield) and elastic Young modulus are primary parameters. A large mismatch of elastic modulus can lead to the implant carrying a greater portion of the load and cause 'stress shielding' of the bone [40]. This incompatibility can generate early implant loosening, deterioration of the healing process, skeleton thickening, and chronic inflammation [41]. Some authors [33] consider that an elongation larger than 10% is also important, while strength should be above 200 MPa. Compressive strength of MgB₂ at failure point is 600–750 MPa [42] which is superior to Mg, Mg alloys, polymers, and bone and it is in the lower limit of Ti and Ti alloys [6,11]. The Young modulus of MgB_2 is 120–160 GPa [42], similar or slightly higher than the values for some high-strength Mg alloys and Ti alloys. Although a higher strength of MgB₂ when compared with Mg alloys and polymers is advantageous, MgB₂ is brittle, bearing similarities with ceramic rather than with metallic materials. The mechanical properties of MgB₂ can be considered intermediate among the biomaterials for orthopedic implants. At the same time, ceramic-like mechanical properties can be a

disadvantage since shaping of MgB_2 by conventional mechanical processing is not easy so that composites and certain fabrication technologies have to be considered, e.g. diffusion of Mg into a B powder compact [43,44].

The fourth criterion is cost. A biodegradable implant does not require a second surgery for implant removal, offering patients a faster healing, cost-effective and safer recovery (lower risk of infection). Quality of treatment increases, the duration of sickness decreases, and savings in the healthcare system increase (e.g. resources and time of the surgeons).

The state-of-the art and presented comparative analysis suggest MgB₂-based materials as possible candidates for fabrication of biodegradable orthopedic implants, worth to be investigated. In this study, implants were made of highly dense sintered MgB₂ bars and composite rods of PLA-matrix added with MgB₂ powder. *In vivo* tests have shown promising results recommending MgB₂ for biodegradable orthopedic applications.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials and processing

Raw powder of MgB₂ was supplied by LTS Research Laboratories Inc (US). The powder was characterized in detail in ref. [22]. According to X-ray diffraction it consists of 97 wt. % MgB₂, the main phase, and of 1.8 wt. % MgO and 1.2 wt. % Mg, the secondary phases (Fig. 1).

Disks of 20 mm diameter and 3 mm thickness were prepared by Spark Plasma Sintering (SPS) at 1150 °C, for 3 min. Details of processing and characterization were reported in ref. [45]. According to X-ray diffraction, in sintered material, phase composition modified to 87.5 wt. % MgB₂, 8.6 wt. % MgO, and 3.9 wt. % MgB₄ (Fig. 1). One observes that the implant material is a composite, and each component is expected to influence implant behavior in the biological environment.



Fig. 1 – XRD patterns normalized to the most intense peak of MgB₂ ($2\theta \sim 42.41^{\circ}$) of the raw MgB₂ powder and of the sintered MgB₂ bulk. Phases are: 1 - MgB₂ (ICDD 72–7019), 2 - MgO (ICDD 45–0946), 3 - MgB₄ (ICDD 73–1014), and 4 - Mg (ICDD 35–0821).

Though important, this aspect is beyond the purpose of the current work. Relative bulk density of the sintered MgB₂ measured by Archimedes method in toluene is high, about 99%. Disks were cut with a diamond saw into bars of 4 and 9 mm length, with a square cross-section of 1 mm edge (Fig. 2 a). After polishing all faces down to 1 μ m of the diamond abrasive paste, the shorter bars were used for transversal implantation into the femoral bone, and the longer ones were placed in the longitudinal direction.

Composite filaments (1.5 mm in diameter and 15 mm long) of polylactic acid (PLA) containing MgB₂ powder were manufactured. The filament was made by dissolving PLA in dichloromethane and mixing the obtained solution with MgB₂ powder (20 wt. %). After pouring the solution on a flat metallic surface, the solvent was evaporated. The result was a 2–3 mm thick layer, which was cut into small fragments. The fragments were used to fabricate a filament with ~1.5 mm in diameter by hot extrusion at 180 °C on a Noztek extruder. Filaments were cut into small rod pieces with length of 4 and 9 mm (Fig. 2 b) and they were used as implants, similar to MgB₂ sintered bars addressed in the previous paragraph.

2.2. In vivo tests and methodology

The *in vivo* tests were performed in accordance with national and European legislation for animal protection, being approved by the Bioethics Commission of the University of Agronomic Sciences and Veterinary Medicine of Bucharest (19/09.11.2020) and authorized by Sanitary Veterinary and Food Safety Directorate of Bucharest (599/15.02.2021).

Sixteen healthy, 4 months old Wistar male rats, weighing 200–250 g were divided into 4 groups, each group consisting of 4 rats. The assessment of the bone reaction to the action of the implant (biocompatibility, biodegradation, bone regeneration) was performed at 40 and 90 days post-surgery. Two groups were used for the introduction of MgB₂ rods and two for PLA-MgB₂ rods. Groups and examples of implantation during surgery are presented in Table 1 and Fig. 3. The animals' food and water intake as well as social behavior were monitored for 14 days before the surgery.

The surgery was performed according to the previously established procedures [46–48]. Following preoperative clinical check-up, subcutaneous injection of 0.05 mg/kg atropine sulphate was administered 10 min before anesthesia.

All animals were anaesthetized for surgery with intramuscular injections of ketamine hydrochloride (20 mg/kg Vetaketam) and xylazine (2 mg/kg Xylazine 2%). While preparing each patient for surgery all the asepsis and antisepsis procedures were followed. Before implantation, all implant materials were UV sterilized. The sample rods were implanted intramedullary in the rats' femurs after predrilling with a 3 mm ball-shaped diamond bur fitted to a dental drill (part of a veterinary dental unit produced by Lingchen, China). In the first two groups, the femur was isolated, and the middle third was drilled with a diamond bur, simulating a longitudinal fracture in the compact femoral shaft. Through the obtained window, the implants (MgB_2 and $PLA-MgB_2$), with a length of 9 mm, were introduced. In the other two groups, the femur was transverse drilled. The introduction of the MgB₂ or PLA-MgB₂ (4 mm in length) biodegradable implants through the



Fig. 2 – Images of MgB_2 sintered bars (a) and of PLA-MgB₂ filament (b) cut in small rods and used as implants into femoral bone of the rat model (see section 2.2).

compact bone, through the medulla was performed to monitor its interaction with both bone tissue and adjacent soft tissues.

After the surgery, the body temperature was monitored and adjusted by using a heating pad at 37 °C until the end of anesthesia. All rats received a subcutaneous injection of Enrofloxacin (10 mg/kg Enrofloxacina 2.5%) as antibiotic prophylaxis and a subcutaneous injection of glucose solution for rehydration (2.0 ml Glucose 5%).

To observe the biocompatibility, biodegradation, and bone regeneration processes of the implanted materials, the animals were evaluated postoperatively at 40 and 90 days by imaging examination, cytology, and histopathology. Available residuals of implants were extracted and studied.

Radiological X-ray imaging was made with DuraDiagnost F30 machine (Philips, China) on sedated rats. Two radiological views of the implant limbs (medio-lateral and cranio-caudal) were performed on the rats in lateral and dorsal recumbency. The source-receptor distance was 100 cm, and no grid was applied. All obtained images were analyzed using the DICOM-viewer software (Pixeldata, Romania). It is noteworthy that the implant material contains elements with small atomic numbers (Mg¹² and B⁵) so that the implant is relatively radiotransparent (especially for PLA-MgB₂ composite rods) and, thus, it is difficult to observe details. The observations were supplemented with images obtained by X-ray computer tomography (XCT).

Table 1 — Rats groups undergoing femoral implantation surgery.	
Group	Implantation of pristine MgB ₂ bars and PLA-MgB ₂ composite rods
1	MgB ₂ sintered bar implanted longitudinally intramedullary in the femur
2	PLA-MgB ₂ rod implanted longitudinally intramedullary in the femur
3	MgB ₂ sintered bar implanted transversely through compact bone and muscle tissue
4	PLA-MgB ₂ rod implanted transversely through compact bone and muscle tissue

For the cytological examination, the sampling was performed using the medullary puncture technique on all subjects. The fine needle aspiration was made at the level of the proximal femoral epiphysis. The aspirated material was smeared on multiple glass microscope slides (medullograms) and then stained using the panoptic staining technique (May Grunwald-Giemsa/Romanovsky/Pappenheim, MGG) [49–53].

To describe post-implant histopathological changes, the bone tissue samples were immediately fixed in Baker solution and subsequently in the decalcification solution. After decalcification, bone tissue samples were incorporated into Paraplast Plus (Sigma) embedding medium by using the HISTOS 5 semi-automatic dehydration and paraffin embedding device. Paraffin sections (5 μ m) were deparaffinized, usually stained with the Hematoxylin-Eosin (HE) method [54]. The examination of both cytological smears and permanent stained histological preparations was performed with Olympus BX 51 DP-soft and Camedia-soft Microscope, at magnifications of 40×, 100x, 200x, 400x, and 1000x.

2.3. Characterization techniques

Materials before and after implantation were investigated by different techniques.

A Bruker-AXS D8 ADVANCE powder diffractometer (Cu_{Ka1} radiation, $\lambda = 1.5406$ Å) was used for X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns.

Images of microstructure and the local maps of elements were taken by scanning electron microscopy (SEM/EDX, Tescan Lyra 3).

X-ray computer microtomography (XCT) analysis was performed with an in-lab built micro-tomograph [55,56]. Briefly, the computer tomography (CT) configuration includes an X-ray tube (YXLON) that can operate at a voltage up to 225 kV and a maximum target power of 15 W. The images were acquired with a PerkinElmer flat panel X ray detector (2000 \times 2000 px, pixel size = 200 μ m, 16 bit) working in the binning 1 \times 1 regime. The integration time for each radiographic images was set to 1 s and two images were averaged before data storage. Samples were scanned in identical condition at a voltage of 90 kV and a current of 160 μ A, using 1.5 mm Al filtration. The incremental step between radiographies was 0.2° and a total of 1800 projections were acquired. The 3D model was reconstructed in cone-beam CT



Fig. 3 – Images taken during implantation surgery: (a) Groups 1–2: intramedullary introduction of the longitudinal $MgB_2/PLA-MgB_2$ implant; (b) Groups 3–4: transversely implantation of $MgB_2/PLA-MgB_2$ to the bone, through the compact bone and muscle tissue.

configuration using filtered back-projection algorithm provided by the Volume Graphics Software (VGStudio Max 3.5.0) obtaining a nominal voxel of 20 μ m.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Materials aspects after extraction

After 40 days of implantation, the MgB₂ implant consists of several large pieces indicating that biodegradation occurred. The main part, although porous, showed some shape and mechanical integrity (Fig. 4a). However, there are strongly affected cross sections in which the compact core has a diameter of less than 200 µm (Fig. 4b), although the total apparent diameter is 0.5-0.8 mm. Other details of much interest can be observed. An image in the cross section of the implant bar indicates that in different areas 40-50% of the initial diameter has been resorbed (Fig. 4c). The bioresorption process is not uniform. It is remarkable that in the images of Fig. 4c and d the bone can be seen on the surface of the implant. In some areas, the implant and the bone form a common unitary body, difficult to separate. This result indicates an osseointegration process. Elemental EDS maps (Fig. 5) support these results by the fact that elements composing the respective bone (Ca, Na, K, P and Cl) were detected in the extracted implant. Similar results were obtained for the MgB₂ transversal implant (Group 3, Table 1) at 40 days.

At 90 days after implantation (Groups 1 and 3, Table 1), degradation of MgB_2 was in a more advanced stage and only some powder-like fragments were observed (see Section 3.2).

A much slower corrosion (Fig. 6) was encountered in the in vivo experiments where the implant was the composite $PLA-MgB_2$ rod (Groups 2 and 4, Table 1). At 40 days after

implantation, the surface of the implant is just starting to degrade and there is no bone adhered on its surface. There are some regions of preferential degradation developing on the surface of the composite.

When observing the cross section of the PLA-MgB₂ rod after 90 days, the PLA matrix has more pores than in the initial, asprepared material before implantation surgery (compare SEM images a and b, d and h in Fig. 7). This result indicates that corrosive biodegradation of the PLA-MgB₂ implanted in the rat's femoral bone for 90 days took place in the rod's volume. Moreover, biodegradation of PLA-MgB₂ is apparently more uniform than in the case of the bulk MgB₂ implants (after 40 days) addressed in the previous paragraph, but a conclusion cannot be presented considering very different degradation rates of PLA (or PLA-MgB₂) and MgB₂, and more research is needed. Elemental EDX maps of Mg (Fig. 7 b and f) show the presence of this element in the initial PLA-MgB₂ rod and in the implanted material for 90 days. The red-green-blue (RGB) elemental maps (Fig. 7 c and g) obtained by overlapping the elemental maps for Mg, B, C, and O suggest that Mg is not free, and it forms compounds. Since EDX cannot detect hydrogen (expected to be present in compounds such as Mg(OH)₂, H₃BO₃ that may occur in the biodegradation process) and quantitative EDX analysis does not provide reliable data for light elements such as B, C, and O, it was not possible to ascribe a compound to a given region/grain in the PLA-MgB₂ composite samples. Biodegradation of MgB₂ from the PLA-MgB₂ is also supported by the color change of the rod. Initially the appearance of the rod was black, due to MgB₂ black powder embedded in the white PLA. After implantation for 90 days, the color became light gray, due to the mixing of possible reaction products, e.g. MgO (white), Mg(OH)₂ (white), B₂O₃ (white), H₃BO₃ (white), and B (black), and unreacted MgB₂ (black).



Fig. 4 – SEM images of the MgB_2 bar implant extracted from the femur of the rat model after 40 days of implantation: (a) general image; (b) core (cross section) of the extracted implant; (c) and (d) details of the implant showing bioresorption of the implant and attachment of the bone on it. Notations are: 1- bone attached to the implant, 2 - MgB_2 implant (Group 1, Table 1).



Fig. 5 – EDX maps of elements measured on cross section of MgB_2 extracted bar from the femur of the rat, after 40 days of implantation (Group 1, Table 1).



Fig. 6 – PLA-MgB₂ rod implants extracted from the rat's femur after 40 days of implantation: (a) transversely implanted (Group 4, Table 1); (b) and (c) SEM images of the longitudinally implanted rod taken at low and high magnification, respectively.

In summary, this section indicates the high potential of MgB_2 used for biodegradable bone implants. More details supporting these findings are presented in Section 3.2.

3.2. Implant-bone interaction aspects by X-ray radiological and XCT observations

A radiolucent area was observed at the MgB_2 implant site (after 15 and 40 days of implantation), representing the

accumulation of hydrogen gas (Fig. 8 a, arrow sign). The result is consistent with other *in vivo* studies on Mg-based materials implanted into bone [57]. However, Witte et al. [57] observed that gas accumulation disappeared after 2–3 weeks from intervention, whereas in our work, gas pockets were still present at 40 days, but reduced in quantity (when compared to 15 days, not shown). The amount of gas was higher for MgB₂ implants (40 days) inserted longitudinally than for those inserted transversely (Fig. 8 a, b) and this can be explained by



Fig. 7 – SEM/EDX images taken on PLA-MgB₂ rods before (a–d) and after longitudinal implantation (Group 2, Table 1) for 90 days (e–h).





a.

c.







Fig. 8 – Radiological X-ray images taken on the rat models with: (a) MgB₂ longitudinal implant at 40 days; (b) MgB₂ transversal implant at 40 days; (c) MgB₂ longitudinal implant at 90 days; (d) XCT 3D reconstruction image on proximal extremity of the femur with MgB₂ implant at 90 days. Note: in (a) and (b) the presence of H₂-gas pockets (indicated with thick red arrows) and lack of the gas accumulation in (c). Also observe in (c) the partial repair of the fracture site (thin yellow arrow); XCT 3D reconstruction image in (d) shows the presence of callus (white arrowhead) and bone remodelling (thin yellow arrow) at the site of implantation.

the higher amount of the implant material in the longitudinal case than in the transversal one. At 90 days after implantation gas pockets were not observed (Fig. 8 c) meaning that gas was fully resorbed.

Before going into other bone-implant interaction details, it is worthy to note that in some situations there was a total fracture of the femoral shaft, due to the bone physiological thinness, and the species behavior. The total fracture allowed the bone heads to move, but in most cases still there was a fibrous callus that later mineralized, succeeding in repairing the fracture site. At 40 days after surgery, the presence of a slight periosteal reaction was found. At 90 days, no significant bone changes were observed at the site of implant, and no bulk implant material was revealed suggesting that MgB_2 was decomposed and resorbed. Even in the case of total fractures, both X-ray examination and XRT show evidence of healing at the fracture site (Fig. 8 c, d), although no measures of immobilization of the resulting bone fragments were applied.

For the PLA-MgB₂ composite implant we could not observe any gas accumulation after 40 and 90 days (Fig. 9 a, b), due to the lower rate of degradation of the composite material (see Section 3.1) and lower amount of the MgB₂ component (20 wt. %). According to radiographic examination performed, after 40 days of implantation no remarkable changes were observed,



Fig. 9 – Radiological X-ray images taken on the rat models with: (a) PLA-MgB₂ transversal implant at 40 days; (b) PLA-MgB₂ longitudinal implant at 90 days; (c) XCT images on femur with PLA-MgB₂ longitudinal implant at 90 days from (b); (d) cross sectional CT view showing callus formed (arrowhead) with embedded implant (white arrows) outside the medullary channel.

only a slight periosteal reaction in some cases, demonstrating a good tolerance of the bone towards the implanted material (Fig. 9 a). Also, at 90 days by radiographic and XCT examinations no other visible special changes were noticed (Fig. 9 b, c, d): callus forms and the integrity of the PLA-MgB₂ implant is preserved. These observations confirm slow biodegradation of PLA-MgB₂. However, the XCT images from Fig. 9 c, d indicate for the selected specimen that calcification of the fracture site is defective and, thus, produces angulation due to lack of bone-fragments immobilization. Angulation of the bone is easily observed in the radiography from Fig. 9 b. One also notes that the implant is embedded in the callus and migrated outside the medullary canal (Fig. 9 c, d).

As noted in ref. [3] the MAGNEZIX implants generate a low interference of the signals, hence, the artefacts due to implant are minimum and this improves the diagnosis and the ability of surgeons and radiologists to assess the images [3]. Implants that contain MgB₂ show similar useful features [3].

3.3. Histopathological and cytopathological examination

For Groups 1 and 3, the histopathological examination at 40 days shows necrosis processes of the micro bone fragments

produced while drilling, due to the traumatic process of penetration of the rods into the medullary channel (Fig. 10 a, b), and uneven micro-thickening of the periosteum (Fig. 10 c). This fact caused the hematopoietic marrow to react by producing micro-hemorrhages and to cause a cell proliferation on various cell lines (lymphohistiocytic, myelocytic, mast cell; Fig. 10 d, e). This proliferation phenomenon can be well visualized and confirmed by cytological examination (Fig. 10 f, g). Histopathological examination brings also clear evidence of MgB₂ implant degradation: powder particles were detected in the muscle tissue and periosteum (Fig. 10 d, e).

At 90 days after implantation, bone compact microfragments, micro-hemorrhages and lymphomacrophagous cell infiltrates have occurred in the impact areas of the sintered MgB₂ implant (Fig. 11 a). The implanted sintered MgB₂ bars were fully decomposed, and a strong resorption process occurred. The evidence of implant degradation is the presence of powder particles in the bone compact and in the bone marrow (Fig. 11 c). An important histopathological change observed at 90 days after implantation is the appearance of a tissue reactivity reflected by fibrosis and collagen formation (conjunctive—fibrous reaction, Fig. 11 b). Another relevant change is observed in the bone marrow by the presence of



32.1



Fig. 11 – Histopathological and cytopathological observations on samples for the MgB₂ implant after 90 day of surgery: (a) overview showing increased tissue reactivity, fibrosis and cellular reaction around the implant (HE staining, 12.5x); (b) fibrosis and collagenization area (HE staining, 200x); (c) hematogenous bone marrow with the presence of osteoblasts and osteoclasts (HE staining, 200x); (d) trabecular-shaped bone compact with inorganic particles and bone marrow microhemorrhages (HE staining, 100x).

osteoblast and osteoclast cells that prove the process of bone regeneration (Fig. 11 d).

At 40 days, PLA-MgB₂ composite implants preserved their integrity being easily recovered. However, histopathological examination indicates the implant degradation. Degradation is related to MgB₂ particles dispersed in the PLA-MgB₂ composite, remnants of powder particles being found in the adjacent soft tissue to the implanted bone (Fig. 12 a), but the PLA rod was still in the bone. Degradation of the PLA-MgB₂ composite occurs and it is slower compared to pristine MgB₂ implant. This suggests that different amounts of MgB₂ in the polymer can provide a controlled biodegradation rate of the PLA-MgB₂ implant, but further research is required to demonstrate this idea. The lesions at the contact site with the PLA-MgB₂ implant were the same as with the MgB₂ ones (bone micro scales, bone compact deformation, micro hemorrhages, Fig. 12 b). Histopathological examination of the bone marrow showed increased cellular reactivity with the presence of osteoblasts and osteoclasts (Fig. 12 c). Cytopathological examination at the medullary level confirmed, through the presence of young cells of all cell lines (Fig. 12 d, e, f) that, together, these cells participate in bone regeneration.

Fig. 10 – Histopathological and cytopathological observations on samples for the MgB₂ implant after 40 days of surgery: (a) implantation area showing micro-fragments of the compact bone and micro-scales formation and marrow cell reaction (HE staining, 40x); (b) reactive hematogenous marrow showing increased cellularity and numerous necrotic bone microscales (HE staining, 100x); (c) uneven thickening with multi-lamellar appearance of the periosteum (HE staining, 40x); (d) MgB₂ microparticles present in the structure of the periosteum and lymphohistiocytic cell proliferation (HE staining, 400x); (e) inorganic particles with different shapes and sizes, randomly arranged, isolated or forming aggregates in the muscle fibers; (f) spinal cord hyperplasia - all cell lines normally represented, except mast cell hyperplasia (MGG staining, 40x); (g) osteoclasts surrounded by elements of the lymphoreticular system and mast cells (MGG staining, 40x).



Fig. 12 – Histopathological and cytopathological observations on samples of composite PLA-MgB₂ implant after 40 days of surgery: (a) striated muscle fibers, adjacent to the bone radius, torn with the presence of particles/agglomerates (HE staining, 40x); (b) implant area showing compact tunnelling with the formation of microscales and disorganization of the Havers channels indicated with the arrow (HE staining, 100x); (c) reactive hematogenous marrow with pleomorphic cellularity, numerous osteoclasts and osteoblasts (HE staining, 200x); (d) medullogram showing young elements of the erythrocyte series (erythroblasts) of the myelocyte series (promyelocytes, myelocytes) and lymphocytes highlighting the regenerative process at the medullary level (MGG staining, 100x); (e) medullogram showing megakaryocyte (top) and osteoclast (bottom) surrounded by young elements of the erythrocyte and monocyte series (MGG staining, 100x); (f) detail presenting a multinucleated bone cell (osteoclast), surrounded by mononuclear and polymorphonuclear cells (MGG staining, 100x).

90 days after implantation of $PLA-MgB_2$ in rats, no histopathological changes were found other than those revealed at 40 days after implantation.

Bio assessment of PLA-MgB₂ composite from this work comply with other excellent results obtained for PLA-based biodegradable/bioresorbable composites tested *in vitro* or *in vivo* for orthopedic applications [58–62]. These materials show a multifunctional useful biomechanical behavior with possibilities of properties control depending on patient's needs. Furthermore, many of the PLA-based composites overcome the drawback of relatively weak mechanical properties of PLA and are easy to processes, e.g. by 3D printing into complex, innovative, and customizable bone implants/scaffolds/joints/regeneration membranes. A direct comparative analysis between different PLA-based composites is not straightforward due to complexity, different aims, and evaluation conditions. Further research is required to provide optimum solutions for bone engineering.

4. Conclusion

Two types of biodegradable materials for orthopedic implants, MgB₂ and PLA-MgB₂, were assessed by in vivo tests of implantation into the femoral bone of the rat model. Implants were introduced longitudinally and transversally. Examination was performed by different techniques at 40 and 90 days after surgery. By imaging assessment of the MgB₂-implant groups, low gas accumulation that decreased over time was observed at the implant site. Also, a periosteal reaction was revealed. In the case of PLA-MgB₂ composite, the implant is more stable than MgB₂, showing slow degradation. Inorganic particles that resulted from disintegration of MgB₂ were found in the bone and muscle tissue for both types of implant materials. This indicates that corrosion in the PLA-MgB₂ composite takes place preferentially and faster at the MgB₂ sites. After 90 days from implantation, PLA-MgB₂ implants preserved their mechanical integrity and were easily extracted from the medullary channel of the bone. Presented results suggest the possibility to control the implant degradation in time and space by using composites with different amounts or gradients of PLA and MgB2 components. Both materials demonstrated a good tolerance of the bone to the implanted material. At 40 and 90 days postsurgery, it was found that the implants used did not cause cellular dysplastic changes that over time could have generated neoplastic processes.

In conclusion, in vivo tests of the proposed materials show excellent biocompatibility, optimal biodegradation, and good tissue regeneration. Therefore, orthopedic implants based on MgB₂ for fractures repair can be envisioned in veterinary and human medicine.

CRediT author statement

PB — conceptualization, data curation, formal analysis, funding acquisition, investigation, methodology, project administration, resources, supervision, validation, visualization, writing - original draft, writing-review & editing; NDB — conceptualization, formal analysis, investigation, methodolresources, validation, visualisation, writingogy. review&editing; EB - conceptualization, data curation, formal analysis, investigation, methodology, resources, supervision, validation, writing - original draft, writing - review&editing; NT- conceptualization, data curation, formal analysis, investigation, methodology, resources, supervision, validation, writing - original draft, writing-review&editing; FB formal analysis, resources; AP – investigation, visualization; CM - investigation; ADE - investigation; IOT - writing-review & editing; MB - investigation; MAG - investigation, visualization; GVA - formal analysis, investigation, validation, writing-review & editing; DR - investigation; IP - formal analysis, investigation, visualization; IT - formal analysis, methodology, validation, resources.

Authors thank Prof. A. Tanase for his contribution in performing the surgical interventions and Dr. A. Popovici for his help in the preparation of histopathological samples.

In memoriam of Prof. N. Manolescu, a strong supporter of this work.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Acknowledgments

P.B, N.D.B, M.B, M.A.G, G.V.A acknowledge Romanian National Authority for Scientific Research and Innovation (UEFISCDI), and EU for financial support, project 74-COFUND M- ERA.-NET" title="http://ERA.NET">ERA.NET II—BIOMB and 5PTE BIOTEHKER. The fee for open access publication was supported from the project 35PFE/2021, funded by the Romanian Ministry of Research, Innovation and Digitalization.

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