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³ Design and properties of novel gallium-doped injectable apatitic

cements

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A B S T R A C T

Different possible options were investigated to combine an apatitic calcium phosphate cement with 32 gallium ions, known as bone resorption inhibitors. Gallium can be either chemisorbed onto 33 calcium-deficient apatite or inserted in the structure of β -tricalcium phosphate, and addition of these 34 gallium-doped components into the cement formulation did not significantly affect the main properties 35 of the biomaterial, in terms of injectability and setting time. Under in vitro conditions, the amount of gal- 36 lium released from the resulting cement pellets was found to be low, but increased in the presence of 37 osteoclastic cells. When implanted in rabbit bone critical defects, a remodeling process of the 38 gallium-doped implant started and an excellent bone interface was observed. 39

Statement of Significance 41

The integration of drugs and materials is a growing force in the medical industry. The incorporation of 43
pharmaceutical products not only promises to expand the therapeutic scope of biomaterials technology 44 pharmaceutical products not only promises to expand the therapeutic scope of biomaterials technology 44 but to design a new generation of true combination products whose therapeutic value stem equally from 45 both the structural attributes of the material and the intrinsic therapy of the drug. 46

In this context, for the first time an injectable calcium phosphate cement containing gallium was 47 designed with properties suitable for practical application as a local delivery system, implantable by min- 48 imally invasive surgery. This important and original paper reports the design and in-depth chemical and 49 physical characterization of this groundbreaking technology. 50

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 The use of synthetic calcium phosphate-based bone substitutes 57 in human bone surgery is continuously expanding $[1-6]$. These bioactive implants have the unique capacity to be resorbed in vivo according to bone remodeling kinetics and replaced by natural bone. While first generation products were dominated by porous ceramics, injectable calcium phosphate cements (CPCs) 62 are currently under intense investigation $[7-13]$ since they offer additional advantages, including primary mechanical properties

similar to those of cancellous bone, along with an injectability 64 suitable for implantation of the composite under minimally inva-

65 sive surgery and adapted to any shape of defects. 66

In addition, the development of calcium phosphate cements 67 opened up new applications in the field of drug delivery systems. 68 Indeed, when implanted, CPCs combined with drugs may not only 69 act, as their main primary function, as mechanically resistant sac- 70 rificial calcium phosphate source for bone reconstruction, but are 71 also well-suited to address bone-related diseases or infections 72 [\[14\]](#page--1-0). Therefore, CPCs have been considered as carriers for local 73 and controlled supply of antibiotics, anti-inflammatory or 74 anti-cancer agents $[15-24]$, thus potentially providing a reliable 75 strategy for producing efficient pharmacological effects only to 76 specifically intended target sites. The specifically intended target sites.

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 In this context, bisphosphonate antiresorptive drugs (BP), one of the most conventional treatments of osteoporosis worldwide, have been successfully combined to deficient calcium apatite. Pre-clinical experiments using a large animal osteoporosis model (femoroplasty surgical approach) have thus shown both resorba- bility of the implanted calcium phosphate material and replace- ment by newly formed bone, with a therapeutic value stemming from both the attributes of the calcium phosphate matrix and 86 the intrinsic biological activity of the bisphosphonate $[25]$. Then, a novel injectable BP-loaded calcium phosphate cement was designed and shown to be suitable in terms of (i) rheology, in order to be worth considering for implantation using minimally invasive surgery, and (ii) setting time and strength for reinforcing 91 fragile bone sites [\[26\].](#page--1-0) In addition, this CPC-BP combined device provided cement-driven primary mechanical properties (bone augmentation) and offered a better bioavailability of the drug locally [\[7,27\]](#page--1-0).

 More recently we have explored the potential of gallium-doped calcium phosphate materials. Indeed, many studies have shown that gallium(III) ions inhibit bone resorption [\[28–34\],](#page--1-0) and for example gallium nitrate has been approved by the FDA for the treatment of cancer-related hypercalcemia and Paget's disease [\[35–38\]](#page--1-0). Therefore, we have investigated the in vitro effects of gal- lium nitrate, using well-established osteoclastic and osteoblastic 102 models [\[39,40\].](#page--1-0) It was shown that gallium reduced the resorption activity, differentiation and formation of osteoclasts by 104 non-cytotoxic mechanisms, in a dose-dependent $(0-100 \mu M)$ man- ner. In addition, gallium did not induce any adverse effect on osteoblastic bone forming cells. These results suggested that gal- lium may offer a promising option for regulating the excessive osteoclastic activity taking place in osteoporosis or in some oste-109 olytic bone tumours [\[41\].](#page--1-0) Interestingly, other groups in the litera-110 ture have also reported that Ga^{3+} ions show antimicrobial properties as well as a capacity for reducing arthritis-related pain $[42-46]$ and inflammation $[47]$. Finally, it is interesting to note that 113 ⁶⁷Ga citrate is used in nuclear medicine for tumor imaging by 114 scintigraphy, especially for lymphoma [\[48–51\]](#page--1-0).

 However, the bioavailability of gallium nitrate is very low and 116 thus requires a long and continuous IV administration. For this rea-117 son, we have investigated the possibility to combine gallium with injectable apatitic cements for the development of a local delivery system of this ion in osteoporotic sites. In the present paper, we describe the development of a suitable protocol for this purpose while preserving the textural, mechanical and setting properties of the cement. The ability of the gallium-doped cements to release 123 gallium ions was investigated under in vitro conditions, and in vivo implantation of these cements was also performed in bone critical defects on a rabbit animal model.

126 2. Materials and methods

127 2.1. Materials

128 Commercially available $Na₂HPO₄$ (Fluka), anhydrous dicalcium phosphate (DCPA –Sigma Aldrich, France), gallium nitrate hydrate (Alfa Aesar, Germany), Hydroxypropylmethylcellulose (HPMC, 131 E4 M° – Colorcon-Dow chemical (Bougival, France)) were used as received. CDA was prepared by alkaline hydrolysis of DCPD using aqueous ammonia, as previously described [\[52\]](#page--1-0).

134 α -TCP (alpha tricalcium phosphate) was prepared by calcination 135 of a 2:1 M mixture of CaHPO₄ and CaCO₃ at 1350 °C for at least 4 h, 136 and subsequent rapid cooling to room temperature. The obtained 137 reaction product contained less than 5% of β -TCP.

138 *Gallium-doped β-TCP* (Ca_{10.5–1.5x}Ga_x(PO₄)₇, *x* = 0.5) was prepared 139 by solid state reaction as previously reported [\[53\]](#page--1-0).

Gallium-doped CDA. In a typical procedure, a mixture of gallium 140 nitrate hydrate and calcium nitrate tetrahydrate was dissolved in a 141 beaker containing 125 mL of ultrapure water, with a $(Ca + Ga)/P$ 142 molar ratio of 1.515 and a Ga/Ca molar ratio in the 0-0.08 range. 143 The pH of the solution was adjusted in the $9-9.5$ range by means 144 of a concentrated solution of ammonia. The reaction mixture was 145 then introduced in a three-neck angled round bottom flask placed 146 in an oil bath and equipped with a dropping funnel. The tempera- 147 ture of the reaction mixture was raised to 50° C and 1.089 g of 148 diammonium hydrogen phosphate (8.25 mmol) dissolved in 149 125 mL of ultrapure water was added dropwise over a 5–10 min 150 period. The mixture turned white and the pH was adjusted in the 151 7.5–8 range by means of a concentrated solution of ammonia. 152 After 30 min, the obtained suspension (pH was neutral) was fil-
153 tered off while hot and washed with 250 mL of ultrapure water. 154 After repeating this procedure four times, the white waxy product 155 was dried in an oven at 80 °C for 24 h. The gallium content of the 156 collected aqueous fractions was measured by atomic absorption 157 spectroscopy, to determine the amount of gallium incorporated 158 in the isolated solid phase. Two samples were prepared containing 159 1.5 and 3 wt.% of gallium, respectively. 150

Preparation of the cement samples. The composition for the solid 161 phase of the commercially available apatitic cement reference 162 (Graftys[®] QUICKSET noted as QS-CPC) was the following: α -TCP 163 $(Ca_3(PO_4)_2, 78 \text{ wt.}\%)$, mixed with anhydrous dicalcium phosphate 164 [DCPA] (CaHPO₄, 10 wt.%), calcium deficient apatite (Ca_{10-x}[$]_x$ (HPO₄)y(PO₄)_{6-y}(OH)_{2-z}[]_z, 10 wt.%), hydroxypropyl methyl cel-
 lulose [HPMC] (2 wt.%). The composition of the different cement 167 samples is reported in [Table 1](#page--1-0). For clarity, the references chosen 168 for the CPC powders doped with gallium ([Table 1](#page--1-0), left column) 169 indicate their gallium weight content and the nature of the 170 Ga-doped component. Each CPC powder was milled to obtain a 171 similar particle size distribution, and then sterilized by 172 γ -irradiation. 173

Paste samples were prepared by mixing 6 g of the powdered 174 preparation with 2.7 mL of a 0.5 wt.% $Na₂HPO₄$ aqueous solution 175 for 2 min (liquid/solid ratio = 0.45 mL g^{-1}). 176

2.2. Methods 177

¹H and $31P$ solid-state magic angle spinning (MAS) NMR exper- 178 iments were performed on a Bruker Avance 300 spectrometer 179 operating at 7.0 T (1 H and 31 P Larmor frequency of 300.0 and 180 121.5 MHz, respectively) using a 4 mm double-resonance MAS 181 probe. ¹H MAS NMR spectra were recorded at a spinning frequency 182 of 14 kHz using a $\pi/4$ flip angle (pulse length of 2.5 μ s) and a recy- 183 cle delay of 3s. All $31P$ NMR spectra were recorded using a spinning 184 frequency of 14 kHz and 1 H SPINAL-64 decoupling $[54]$ (RF field 185 strength of 70 kHz) was applied during signal acquisition. $31P$ 186 quantitative MAS spectra were obtained using a $\pi/9$ flip angle 187 (pulse length of $0.8 \mu s$) and a recycle delay of $30 s$ to ensure no 188 saturation. 1D ${^1}H$ }–31P CP-MAS and 2D ${^1}H$ –31P heteronuclear 189 correlation (HETCOR) spectra were recorded at different contact 190 times (ranging from 0.25 to 12.5 ms) using a recycle delay of 1s. 191 The 17 ¹Ga solid-state NMR experiments were performed on Bruker 192 Avance 750 and 850 spectrometers operating at 17.6 T and 20.0 193 T (71 Ga Larmor frequencies of 228.8 and 259.3 MHz, respectively) 194 using a 1.3 mm double-resonance MAS probe.⁷¹Ga 1D MAS central 195 transition spectra were recorded at high spinning frequencies 196 ranging from 60 to 65 kHz using a Hahn echo sequence with a 197 71 Ga nutation frequency of 62.5 kHz (central transition selective 198 $\pi/2$ pulse length of 4 µs). The echo delay was set to two rotor peri- 199 ods and the recycle delay was set to 3s. Under these experimental 200 conditions, 1 H decoupling was not applied since it did not improve 201 the spectral resolution for the studied sample nor reduce the line- 202 width of the 71 Ga resonances. 1 H, 31 P and 71 Ga chemical shifts were 203

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