

# Chapter 13

## Modern Approach of Hydroxyapatite Based Composite for Biomedical Applications



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### 13.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an overview related to the modern approach of hydroxyapatite (HA) based composite for biomedical applications. Composite refers to a heterogeneous combination made up of two or more materials having different composition, properties and morphology in order to produce new materials with specific physical, chemical and mechanical characteristics (Salernitano and Migliaresi 2003). Simply speaking, the composite contains at least two or more components known as matrix and reinforcement. Biocomposites, on the other hand, refers to the blends of different materials based on their biocompatibility for various applications. Different types of composites, already in use or currently investigated for various biomedical applications, are presented in this chapter. The focus will be on the types of HA based composite, synthesis and fabrication approaches, characterization, various biomedical applications, the cell-material interactions and its bioactivity and biocompatibility.

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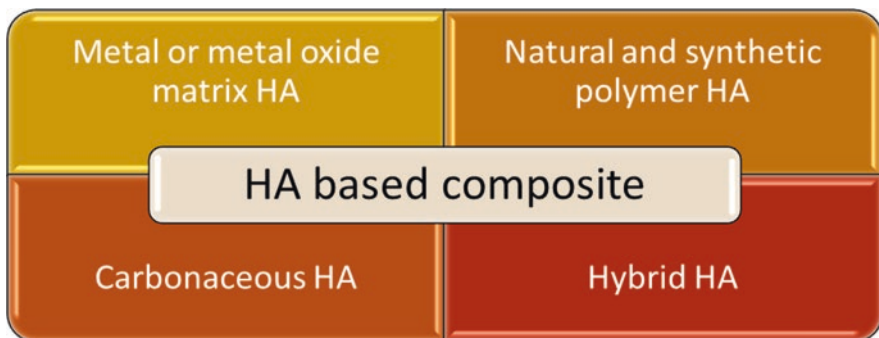
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HA based composite also known as bioceramics composite and been used for the past several years for various biomedical applications and recently its being used mainly in tissue engineering. Calcium phosphate or single-phase HA based composite have been widely used for the past thirty years. The advantages offer by the HA based composites consist of high compressive strength, comparative inertness towards body fluids, its attractive appearance, biodegradability, and high biocompatibility led to the use of bioceramics composite in dental and orthopaedic related biomedical applications. The structure of this chapter is organized as follows. In Sect. 13.2, classifications of the HA based composite materials are described. This is followed by a description of the modern synthesis or fabrication and characterization approaches (Sects. 13.3 and 13.4). Section 13.5 deals with current applications of HA based composite in biomedical focusing on the ideal properties and cell-material interaction. Concluding remarks are offered in the last Sect. 13.6.

## 13.2 Classification of Hydroxyapatite (HA) Based Composites

HA based composite used mainly in biomedical applications can be classified into various classifications. Herein, the main four classification consist of metal/metal oxide matrix HA based composite, polymer matrix HA based composite, carbonaceous HA based composite, and the hybrid HA based composite (Fig. 13.1). In terms of polymer matrix, HA based composite can be further divided into natural and synthetic polymer.



**Fig. 13.1** Classification of hydroxyapatite (HA) composites

### 13.2.1 Metal Matrix Hydroxyapatite (HA) Based Composite

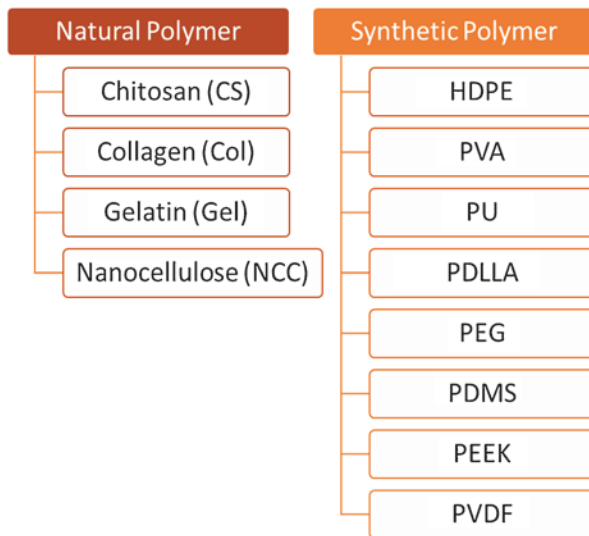
HA having component comparable to crystal structure of bone offers both bioactivity and compatibility. The major bottleneck related to the application of HA mainly due to their low fracture toughness and flexural strength. In order to enhance the mechanical properties of HA, metal and metal oxide such as magnesium, titanium dioxide, zirconia, alumina, and iron oxide usually incorporated in order to reinforce the prepared HA-based composites. The metal matrix HA based composite possess good tensile strength, high Young's modulus, high strength and highly resistance to corrosion. For biomedical application, the HA composite should be biodegradable and non-toxic (Bommala et al. 2018). Table 13.1 listed several types of metal and metal oxide previously used in preparing HA based composite for various biomedical application.

### 13.2.2 Polymer Matrix Hydroxyapatite (HA) Based Composite

Reinforcement can be achieved by incorporating HA with either natural or synthetic polymer the prepared HA-based composites (Fig. 13.2). Polymers provide various properties as a matrix for bone tissue engineering applications. Natural polymer-based composites received more attention than synthetic polymer composites owing to the biocompatible and biodegradable properties offered by natural polymers. Other advantages included biological recognition, good attachment to cells and having the ability to be degraded and resorbed by the body (Venugopal et al. 2010). Chitosan, chitin, collagen, gelatin and polylactic acid (PLA), hylauronic acid derivatives, starch, fibrin gels, silk and lignocelluloses are among popular natural polymer in preparing composites for medical application.

**Table 13.1** Metal and metal oxide used in preparing HA based composite

Types of Metal or Metal Oxide	Applications	References
Titanium (Ti) / Titanium Dioxide (TiO <sub>2</sub> )	Implant	Oleivi et al. (2015); Lim et al. (2001)
Magnesium (Mg) / Magnesium Oxide (MgO)	Bone replacement	Khanra et al. (2010)
Zinc (Zn) / Zinc Oxide (ZnO)	Bone implant, Antibacterial Biomaterial	Begam et al. (2017); Suparto and Kurniawan (2019)
Lanthanum (La)	Bone replacement	Yang et al. (2007)
Zirconia (Zr) / Zirconia dioxide (ZrO <sub>2</sub> )	Bone scaffold, Orthopaedic and Dental Prosthesis	An et al. (2012), Zhang et al. (2006), Matsumoto et al. (2011), Sung et al. (2007)
Iron Oxide (IO)	Bone cancer therapy	Sneha and Sundaram (2015)
Alumina (Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> )	Bone scaffold	Raj et al. (2018)



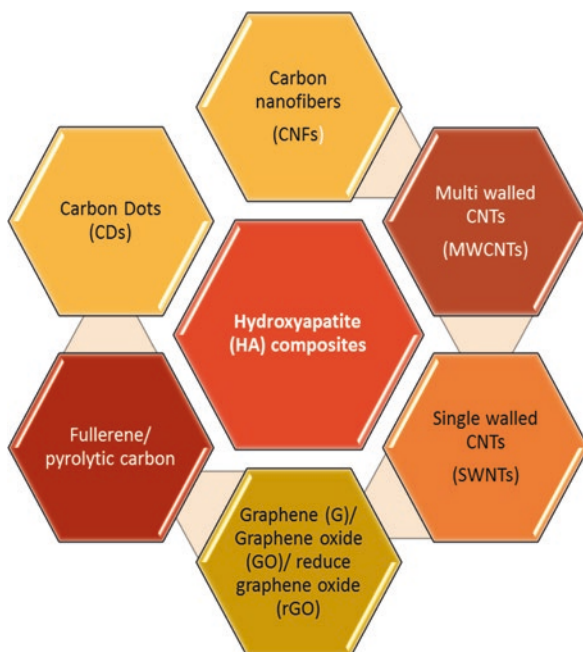
**Fig. 13.2** Several examples of natural and synthetic polymer incorporated to produce HA-based polymer composites

Apart from biocompatible and biodegradable, antimicrobial and antioxidant properties of the prepared HA based composites widely expand their application in various fields ranging from food nutrition, biomedical engineering up to pharmaceutical. The composites also should mimic the behavior of the replaced tissue, providing an ideal when in contact with the tissue and capable to be degraded progressive as soon as the regeneration process ended. However, these naturally derived polymers have several drawbacks such as instability and immunogenicity from batch to batch. So, synthetic polymers with modifiable properties such as polyvinyl alcohol (PVA), polyurethane (PU), poly-d, l-lactic acid (PDLA), polyethylene glycol (PEG), polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS), polyether ether ketone (PEEK) and thermoplastic polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) are among synthetic polymers usually used to create HA based composite as they offer exceptional applicability. The advantages offered by synthetic polymer consist of controlled mechanical properties, biodegradable, and reproducible for an extensive production.

### 13.2.3 Carbonaceous Hydroxyapatite (HA) Based Composite

Along with the excitement of nanoscience and the diverse applications of carbon-based nanomaterials, researchers worldwide started to utilise different carbonaceous materials to prepare nanocomposites either as a matrix material or as an additional reinforcing material. The carbonaceous materials reported to be bioactive for one or more purposes as it offers high competency for bone tissue engineering

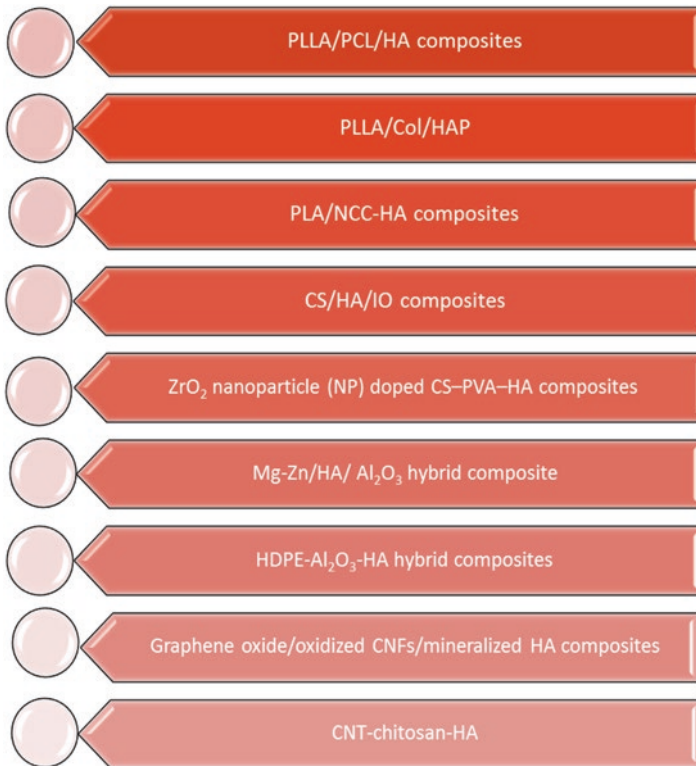
**Fig. 13.3** Carbonaceous HA based composites



equipped with biocompatibility with native tissues and antibacterial activity. The incorporation of various carbonaceous materials with HA led to high biocompatibility and excellent structural properties of the prepared nanocomposite. The use of carbonaceous material such as glassy or pyrolytic carbon, fullerenes, carbon nanotubes (CNTs) graphene oxide (GO), carbon dots (CDs) and their derivatives and compositions are unique and innovative trend in creating HA based composites (see Fig. 13.3).

### 13.2.4 Hybrid Hydroxyapatite (HA) Based Composite

A major challenge in tissue engineering is the development of composite materials capable of promoting the desired cells and tissue behavior (Davis and Leach 2008). So, hybrid HA based composite biomaterials having the capability to synergize the beneficial properties of multiple materials into an outstanding matrix (Bencherif et al. 2013). The hybrid HA prepared by combination of various other materials such as metal or metal oxides with either natural or synthetic polymers or carbonaceous materials. The hybrid composites offer tuneable properties and providing enhancement in cellular and tissue interaction tissue. There are numerous hybrid HA based composite materials (as listed in Fig. 13.4) in order to promote the formation of cell proliferation for tissue engineering applications.

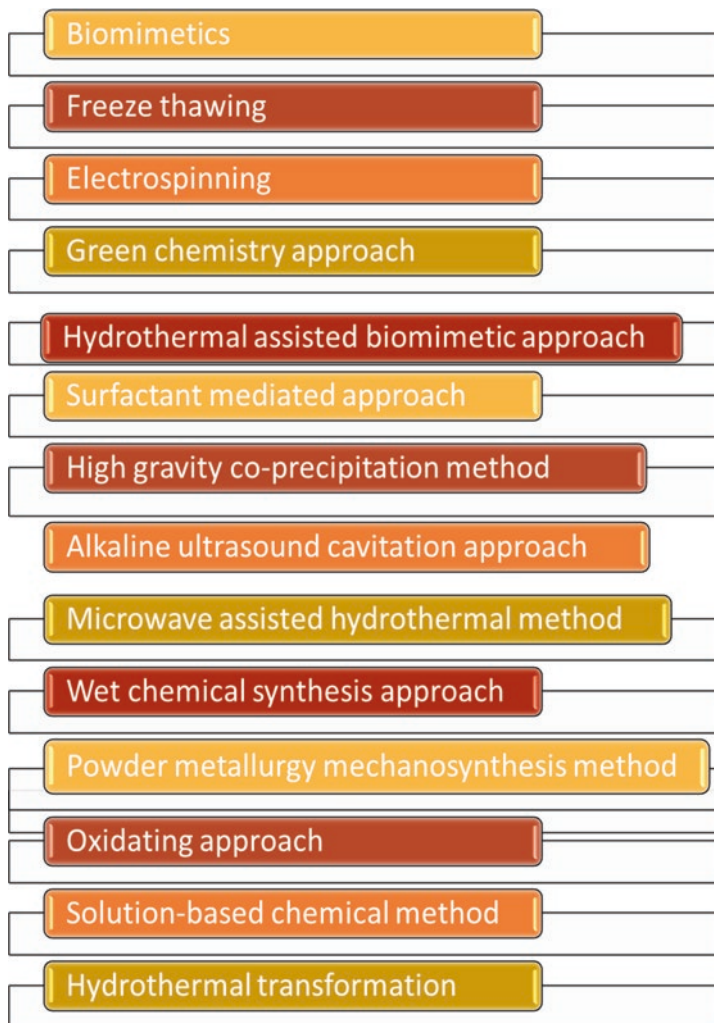


**Fig. 13.4** Examples of hybrid HA based composite

### 13.3 Modern Synthesis and Fabrication Approaches

Owing to the importance of HA based composites in various biomedical applications not limited to tissue regeneration and drug delivery applications. So, various techniques (see Fig. 13.5) have been reported for the preparation of HA based composites (Haider et al. 2017). Two important factors when choosing the synthesis approach are particle size and morphology of the final product of HA. To date, many findings correlated the HA synthesis techniques with the particle size, but very few articles reported the fabrication method and the morphology control of HA based composites.

The commonly used techniques for the preparation of HA based composite including biometrics, freeze thawing, electrospinning, electrospraying, chemical precipitation, hydrothermal, solid state synthesis at high temperatures, microwave irradiation, surfactant-assisted precipitation, wet chemical synthesis, powder metallurgy, ultrasound cavitation, solvent casting, sol-gel method and green synthesis

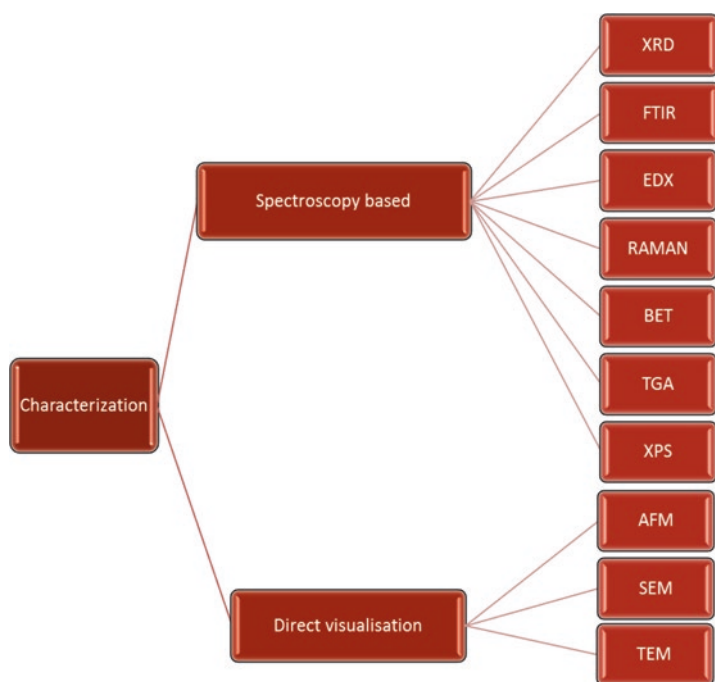


**Fig. 13.5** Modern synthesis approaches in the fabrication of hydroxyapatite (HA) based composites

approach. Chemical precipitation, hydrothermal and sol–gel technique listed as the most frequently approach in the HA based nanocomposite fabrications. Table 13.2 summarized several common methods and the developed HA based composites. Until now researchers still are investigating for the method to prepare composites of HA with the right stoichiometry and having both high crystallinity and aspect ratio. So far, only conventional wet mechano-chemical methods have been reported to have the ability to control the stoichiometry of the final product.

**Table 13.2** Several common methods and example of the developed hydroxyapatite (HA) based composites

Fabrication techniques of HA composites	Composites	References
Biomimetics	Col/HA, CNF/HA, PCL/HA	Lickorish et al. (2004); Wu et al. (2013); Lebourg et al. (2010)
Freeze thaw	PVA/HA, nHA@Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> /PVA	Su et al. (2017); Hou et al. (2013)
Electrospinning	PLLA/MWNTs/HA, PLGA/HA, HA-PVP/PEO	Mei et al. (2007); Lao et al. (2011); Zhou et al. (2014)
Chemical precipitation	Nano-Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> /HA	Zhang et al. (2016)
Hydrothermal	HA/Alumina and HA/MgO, SHA/rGO, GO/HA	Vijayalakshmi and Dhanasekaran (2017); Edwin et al. (2019); Rodríguez-González et al. (2018)
Microwave irradiation	PVOH/CNT/HA, Ag@Zn/HA, CS-HA	Lim (2018); Nedunchezian et al. (2016); Sukhodub et al. (2018)
Sol-gel method	ZrO <sub>2</sub> /Hap, TEOS/PDMS/HA, AMWCNT/HA	Bollino et al. (2017); Luo et al. (2015); Ji et al. (2015)
Solvent casting	P3HB/HA, p-PLLA/HA	Saadat et al. (2015); Dou et al. (2018)

**Fig. 13.6** Various characterization methods to evaluate the hydroxyapatite (HA) based composites



**Table 13.3** Characterization methods and main findings of various HA based composites

<p>X-Ray Diffraction Analysis (XRD) -degree of crystallinity -crystallite size</p>	<p><b>Metal or metal oxide HA</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Diffraction peak of HA appeared in the composite at <math>2\theta = 31.5^\circ</math>, <math>50^\circ</math> and <math>60^\circ</math> after samples dried at <math>100^\circ\text{C}</math> (Bouiahyia et al. 2019).</li> <li>- Crystallinity of the composite decreases and the crystallite size getting smaller when content of alumina increases (Bouiahyia et al. 2019).</li> <li>- The intensity of diffraction peak of HA in Fe-HA became lower due to ion exchange between <math>\text{Fe}^{3+}</math> and <math>\text{Ca}^{2+}</math> ion. The increment of <math>\text{Fe}^{3+}</math> led to the crystallinity decreased (Pai and Yen 2013).</li> <li>- XRD peaks position for La-HA deviated slightly towards lower angle which may be due to distortion in crystal lattice following substitution of La in HA (Mathi et al. 2019)</li> </ul>
	<p><b>Natural or synthetic polymer HA</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The addition of HA led to the reduction in terms of crystallinity degree of PCL as shown by the intensity peak of HA compared to PCL (Trakoolwannachai et al. 2019a, b).</li> <li>- Two notable sharp peaks for PEG noticeable at <math>2\theta = 19.1^\circ</math> and <math>23.2^\circ</math> and peaks for HA is <math>2\theta = 25.9^\circ</math> and <math>31.7^\circ</math>. As the positions does not overlapped, this indicated that there are no chemical interaction between PEG and HA (Wang et al. 2017).</li> <li>- HA peak in composite appeared at <math>2\theta = 25.9^\circ</math> and growth took place at (002) crystal plane. The PPy diffraction peak disappear due to weak intensity and covered by the background of HA peaks (Huixia et al. 2016)</li> </ul>
	<p><b>Carbonaceous HA</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Addition of fMWCNT into the HA found to have effect on the width at half maximum of the peak. As the width increases, it indicates that the crystallinity index decreased meanwhile crystallite size increased (Barabás et al. 2015).</li> <li>- XRD pattern of GO-HA consisted of HA peak at <math>2\theta = 31.8^\circ</math> without any secondary phase. GO diffraction peak wasn't detectable in composite probably due to low concentration of GO or less crystallographic order (Karimi et al. 2019).</li> <li>- The XRD pattern obtained for HA/GO represented by the peaks at <math>25.87^\circ</math>, <math>31.42^\circ</math>, <math>32.11^\circ</math>, <math>32.52^\circ</math>, <math>39.62^\circ</math> and <math>49.42^\circ</math> with crystal plane (002), (211), (112), (300), (202), (310), (222), (213) and (004) was matched with the JCPDS: No. 09-0432). The formation of well crystallized hexagonal phase of HA grown on two dimensional GO sheet was confirmed (Ramadas et al. 2017)</li> </ul>
	<p><b>Hybrid HA</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Typical peak for GO disappear besides crystallinity of HA and PLA decreased in PLA/HA/GO composites due to good dispersion of GO and HA in PLA matrix (Gong et al. 2017).</li> <li>- Diffraction peaks at <math>38.2^\circ</math>, <math>44.3^\circ</math>, <math>64.5^\circ</math>, <math>77.3^\circ</math> corresponding to planes [1 1 1], [2 0 0], [2 2 0], [3 1 1] of fcc silver particles. The presence of peaks at <math>20^\circ</math> and <math>31.7^\circ</math> revealed the characteristic to the presence of crystalline chitosan and n-HA respectively (Saravanan et al. 2011).</li> <li>- Diffraction peak of Cs in composite revealed the semi crystalline nature as the peak was broad at <math>10^\circ</math>–<math>20^\circ</math> meanwhile n-HA and <math>\text{nZrO}_2</math> exhibited crystalline nature which is composite scaffold also corroborated as crystalline phase due to imparted by n-HA and <math>\text{nZrO}_2</math> (Balangadharan et al. 2018).</li> </ul>

(continued)

**Table 13.3** (continued)

Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR) -functional group	<p><b>Metal or metal oxide HA</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- IR spectra for Al/HA displayed the stretching mode of PO<sub>4</sub> at 1100, 1050, 960 cm<sup>-1</sup> and bending mode at 605 and 564 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Bouiahya et al. 2019).</li> <li>- The stretching bond of phosphate observed at wavenumber of 962 cm<sup>-1</sup> which indicate the formation of HA in composite (Valizadeh et al. 2014).</li> <li>- IR analysis for HA/Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> displays vibration peak of phosphate at wavenumber 569 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 1044 cm<sup>-1</sup>, and 1047 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Vahdat et al. 2019)</li> </ul>
	<p><b>Natural or synthetic polymer HA</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- FTIR spectra of HA/PCL composites showed strong P-O stretching peak in the wavenumber range 1000–1100 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Trakoolwannachai et al. 2019a, b).</li> <li>- N-H bending band for chitosan shift slightly due to hydrogen bond with HA and the P-O bending peak at wavenumber of 952 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Trakoolwannachai et al. 2019a, b).</li> <li>- Specific bending vibration mode of PO<sub>4</sub> at wavenumber of 567 and 603 cm<sup>-1</sup> while stretching mode vibration at wavenumber of 963, 1035 and 1101 cm<sup>-1</sup>. Some peaks of HA and PPy in composite slightly shift due to interaction within composite (Huixia et al. 2016)</li> </ul>
	<p><b>Carbonaceous H</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The peaks observed at 2920 and 2850 cm<sup>-1</sup> attributed to ACH symmetric and asymmetric vibrations of GOs. The peak at 1642 cm<sup>-1</sup> corresponds to the stretching vibration mode of carbonyl group present in the graphene. The bending vibration of phosphate display at wavenumber of 629, 600 and 564 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Prabhu et al. 2016).</li> <li>- Phosphate absorption band at 610 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 1037 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1091 cm<sup>-1</sup> indicates the present of HA in composite and peak found at 1730 cm<sup>-1</sup> related to GO (Karimi et al. 2019).</li> <li>- FTIR spectrum of HA/GO displayed bending vibration band of phosphate at 568 and 601 cm<sup>-1</sup> meanwhile stretching vibration band were observed at 1099 and 1037 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The band of C=C and C=O stretching of GO were 1622 and 1722 cm<sup>-1</sup> respectively (Ramadas et al. 2017)</li> </ul>
	<p><b>Hybrid HA</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- CsAgHA composite exhibited different modes of phosphate band at 1035, 606, 517 cm<sup>-1</sup>. Peak at 1610 cm<sup>-1</sup> corresponds well to NH<sub>2</sub> absorption band in CS. Characteristic peak of C=O is shifted to 1635 cm<sup>-1</sup> by the coordinative interaction between Ag ions and the NH<sub>2</sub> groups of CS (Yan et al. 2015).</li> <li>- Amine peak of CS displayed at wavenumber of 1656 cm<sup>-1</sup>. Peak at 1634 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 1070 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 572 cm<sup>-1</sup> correspond to n-HA in composite. Zr-O stretching vibration mode can be observed at wavenumber of 452 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 416 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Balagandharan et al. 2018).</li> <li>- PLA/HA/GO composite displayed characteristic band of C=C vibration at ca. 1617 cm<sup>-1</sup> indicates that GO successfully introduced in composite. Besides, the appearance of peaks at 1041, 605 and 566 cm<sup>-1</sup> attributed to phosphate group of HA. Bands at 1184 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 871 cm<sup>-1</sup> are due to vibration of C-O-C and C-COO respectively besides bands at 2998 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 2947 cm<sup>-1</sup> are assigned to C-H stretching of PLA (Gong et al. 2017)</li> </ul>

**Table 13.3** (continued)

Scanning Electron microscopy (SEM) -morphology -particle size	<p><b>Metal or metal oxide HA</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Surface of La/HA was densely pack and the granules size are very small as well as high agglomeration (Mathi et al. 2019).</li> <li>- HA particle with elongated nanometric (irregular hexagonal) structure was agglomerated and contain silver nanoparticle in its interior (bright spot inside HA). The size of HA in range 100–150 nm long and 40–50 nm wide (Andrade et al. 2016)</li> <li>- Have irregular and porous structure as well as fine and spherical particles for HA/Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (Vahdat et al. 2019)</li> </ul>
	<p><b>Natural or synthetic polymer HA</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Small, irregular-shaped HA distributed homogenously on the surface and within PCL matrix as well as agglomeration occur which enhance its osteoinductive property (Trakoolwannachai et al. 2019a, b).</li> <li>- Scaffold composite showed interconnected pores and pore size within range 200–400 μm. Porosity slightly decreased when HA been incorporated with chitin due to interaction between polymer chains (Kumar et al. 2011).</li> <li>- nHA/CG scaffolds have a porous structure with interconnected pores. Agglomerated nHA particles discernible mostly on the surface of pore wall (Li et al. 2011)</li> </ul>
	<p><b>Carbonaceous HA</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- GO-nHA particles found to be bigger and having porous structure. However, after fluoride treatment, the particles become smaller and the porosity reduced as fluoride ion started to occupy the composite (Prabhu et al. 2016).</li> <li>- In GNs/HA, HA particles have a rod-like shaped with width around 50 nm and length in range of 100–200 nm (Pang et al. 2014).</li> <li>- C-HA in irregular shaped and rough surface was observed. Irregular surface may enhance the adsorption capacity. The plate-like nanocrystal might be the HA coating on the surface (Long et al. 2019)</li> </ul>
	<p><b>Hybrid HA</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- CS/n-HA/nAg scaffolds have rough surfaces and porous nature with size ca. 50–100 μm. Size of silver nanoparticles in range of 80–120 nm which distributed in the scaffolds. nHA particles ranging from 80 to 120 nm (Saravanan et al. 2011).</li> <li>- Cs/n-HA/nZrO<sub>2</sub> scaffold have interconnected pores which uniformly spread with size in the range of 55–65 μm. Interconnected porous structure significant in serving as template structure for cell attachment. Bone extracellular matrix formation and provide space for neovascularisation. (Balagangadharan et al. 2018).</li> <li>- PLA/HA/GO scaffold have rough surface with some joints and protuberances on that surface which suggested that GO and HA were attached to the surface of PLA (Gong et al. 2017)</li> </ul>

(continued)

**Table 13.3** (continued)

Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) -element present -Ca/P molar ratio	<p><b>Metal or metal oxide HA</b> - From EDX analysis concluded that when Al<sup>3+</sup> ion from aluminium element increase, the Ca/P molar ratio of Al/HA became lower (Bouiahya et al. 2019)</p>
	<p><b>Natural or synthetic polymer HA</b> - Ca/P molar ratio of nHA/PDLLA composite was 1.62 which is non- stoichiometric, calcium deficient and close to apatite in bone. The apatite mineralisation in surface of NHA/PDLLA is similar to animal bone in main composition (Deng et al. 2008)</p>
	<p><b>Carbonaceous HA</b> - Ca/P Molar ratio of Go-HA are about 1.7. This result suggested that GO has positive effect on the mineralisation of HA with Ca/P molar ratio close to the pure HA (1.67) (Fathyunes and Khalil-alla 2017)</p>
	<p><b>Hybrid HA</b> - C, P, O, Ca and Au element are traced in the EDX spectrum for PLA/HA/GO composite which clearly indicate the present of GO and HA in composite. Meanwhile, Au element came from the gold plate used to test sample using SEM measurement. The molar ratio of Ca and P for that composite obtained from EDX measurement is 1.64 which close to natural bone ratio (1.67) (Gong et al. 2017)</p>
Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) -thermal stability	<p><b>Metal or metal oxide HA</b> - TGA spectra of HA + GA displayed that 6.314% weight loss at 62.69 °C attribute to the presence of water content and 10.76% of weight loss correspond to the phosphate group. Besides, the weight loss of 8.574% at 433.56 °C due to presence of CaOOH. TGA spectra of HA + GA almost similar to HA but different in residual percentage due to presence of Ag metal in residual besides pure CaO. (Bharti et al. 2016). - TGA curve of Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-BHA (alumina-bovine hydroxyapatite) display that at evaporation of solvent, adsorbed water and crystal water of boehmite phase (Al-OOH) occurred at ca. 150 °C and 450 °C. Then, transformation of boehmite to α-alumina which the only stable phase of alumina, can be observed at 500–1300 °C. Small amount of BHA converted into β-TCP at 1250–1300 °C (Yelten et al. 2012)</p>
	<p><b>Natural or synthetic polymer HA</b> - PVAHA composite undergo continuous weight loss until 800 °C due to the degradation of PVA and dehydroxylation of HA. The weight loss due to water occurred up to 200 °C. Between 200 °C and 550 °C, the weight loss caused by degradation of PVA. 50% of PVA in HA has weight loss of 18.01% whereas 1% PVA in composite has weight loss of 7.05%. This finding indicated that the highest weight loss occurred on composite with highest percentage amount of PVA (Hussain et al. 2016). - Incorporation of nHA slightly enhanced the thermal stability of α-chitin. The thermogram of composite showed initial drop at 100 °C due to moisture loss and then it got straightened which indicates that no phase change in composite structure (Kumar et al. 2011)</p>

**Table 13.3** (continued)

	<p><b>Carbonaceous HA</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Two major weight loss when heating HA-CNT composite which takes place in air which is attributed to loss of amorphous carbon at 300–400 °C and CNT that typically above 400 °C (Kosma et al. 2013).</li> <li>- TGA curve of fMWCNT-HA composites show that the weight loss of 9.2% at 80–140 °C owing to the elimination of adsorbed water from the surface and pores. At 142–250 °C weight loss of 7.27% due to decomposition of <math>\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3</math> which was the by-product from the synthesis reaction. The composite has good thermal stability according to TGA measurement because of combustion of fMWCNT took place at higher temperature (510–609 °C). The TGA curve of fMWCNT-HA was a multi-stage process as without the formation of stable intermediates (Barabás et al. 2015)</li> </ul>
	<p><b>Hybrid HA</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- PLA/HA/GO showed the capability of the composite to remain stable without weight loss up to 200 °C. Major weight loss was observed between 240 and 400 °C. Based on the results, when the weight percentage of GO in composite increases, the maximum temperature decomposition become lower. Thermal stability of PLA revealed the enhancement by the addition of GO and HA may be due to interaction between HA, GO and PLA via hydrogen bond and van der Waals force. (Gong et al. 2017)</li> </ul>
<p>Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) -pPorosity -specific surface area</p>	<p><b>Metal or metal oxide HA</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The composite acted as mesoporous material. BET analysis showed that only moderate increase on specific surface area when high Al introduced to the composite. For lower content of Al, the mesoporosity became more obvious as the enlargement of hysteresis loop seen so obvious. The introduction of aluminium oxide to composite has specific surface area in range of 145 to 206 <math>\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}</math>, which clearly improve the specific surface area compared to pure HA (ca. <math>100 \text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}</math>) (Bouiahya et al. 2019)</li> </ul>
	<p><b>Natural or synthetic polymer HA</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- BET surface area of PVAHA composite was 41.3–63.7 <math>\text{m}^2/\text{g}</math> meanwhile for BET nitrogen adsorption/ desorption isotherms of composites showed type IV which a typical type for mesoporous material. (Hussain et al. 2016)</li> </ul> <p><b>Carbonaceous HA</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- BET nitrogen adsorption/desorption for GO-HA displayed type IV which similar to HA and having distinct hysteresis loop when <math>P/P_0</math> over 0.5, which reveals the characteristic of mesoporous material (Fathyunes and Khalil-alla, 2017)</li> </ul> <p><b>Hybrid HA</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- BET analysis proved that there are mesopores in the GO/HA/CS based composite as from the nitrogen absorption/desorption, the composite has similar structure with that of Type IV isotherm with H3 hysteresis. Based on BJH calculation, that composite consist of large BET surface area and the mesoporous structure distributed at 3.71 nm (Yilmaz et al. 2019)</li> </ul>

## 13.4 Characterization of HA Based Composites

Various characterization techniques have been used to characterize HA based composites. The characterization techniques can be divided into spectroscopic and direct visualization as listed in the Fig. 13.6. Table 13.3 concluded main findings of various HA based composites using both characterization techniques.

## 13.5 Current Application of Hydroxyapatite (HA) Based Composites

Hydroxyapatite based composites have various biomedical applications especially in tissue engineering. Tissue engineering or regenerative medicine is a field that involves in promoting new tissues or organs to restore defect, lost or damaged tissues and organs by engineered products. The current practice of using bone grafts for treating patients with bone defect resulted from trauma, pathology and congenital disease brings together a few disadvantages. The advancement of tissue engineering has shed a new light for both clinicians and patients involved. The triad of tissue engineering requires stem cells, growth factors and scaffold-based composites. HA based composite is one of the preferred scaffolds due to its similar composition and structure with the natural human bone (Roffi et al. 2017).

### 13.5.1 Bone Regeneration

Bone disorders due to trauma, congenital deformity and malignancy are one of the pathological areas that require transplantation of bone graft. Bone graft can either be autograft, allograft, xenograft or bone substitutes. However, each graft possesses different drawbacks that hinder optimal outcome after the surgery. Since the last few decades, the advancement in regenerative medicine has gradually being investigated to overcome the limitation of usual practice, including the bone tissue regeneration area. Even though it is difficult to mimic nature, recent scientific and technological findings show promising results to provide an alternative option to the current management. Scaffold, one of the important components in tissue engineering has received tremendous attention among researchers. The search for the right scaffold in bone tissue engineering since past few decades is still ongoing. The ideal scaffold for bone regeneration should have the following properties: biocompatible, bioresorbable, osteoconductive, osteoinductive and structurally similar to the native bone.

### 13.5.2 Ideal Properties of Scaffolds

Bioceramic such as HA, bioactive glass, zirconia and  $\beta$ -tricalcium phosphate ( $\beta$ -TCP) are mostly used for hard tissue regeneration (Huang et al., 2018; Lukić et al., 2011). HA based scaffolds have been reported to have good biocompatibility and osteoconductivity; suitable for bone regeneration (Hao et al., 2017). Owing to similar chemical composition with native bones HA has become the most common bioceramic used in bone tissue engineering (Mondal et al. 2019; Yang et al. 2019). Scaffolds chosen should mimic the actual microenvironment to allow cells to interact and behave at the optimum condition. Hence, scaffolds properties are essential in determining cellular response and fate (Loh and Choong 2013). There are few requirements for ideal scaffolds required in bone regeneration that include physical properties, biomaterial properties and mechanical properties (Tables 13.4 and 13.5).

Mechanical property of ideal scaffold in bone regeneration requires sufficient mechanical strength in order to maintain the cell integrity until formation of new bone. Newly bone regeneration should withstand loading to prevent shielding as compared to the surrounding native bone (Loh and Choong 2013).

**Table 13.4** Physical properties of ideal HA based composite for scaffold in bone regeneration

Properties	Characteristics
Porosity	Pore size Minimum 100 $\mu\text{m}$ in diameter for successful diffusion of nutrients and oxygen (Bose et al. 2012). More than 200 $\mu\text{m}$ for better osteoconduction and up to 500 $\mu\text{m}$ for vascularization (Khojasteh et al. 2016). More than 500 $\mu\text{m}$ might wash away the cells that previously seeded during in vivo application
Interconnectivity	Important to enable proper diffusion of nutrients and metabolic waste into and from deeper part of scaffold for cell viability (Battistella et al. 2012). Important for cell penetration and angiogenesis of cell/scaffold co-culture (Ghassemi et al. 2018)
Porosity	Porous scaffolds will offer high surface area for scaffold-cell interaction; resulted in better cells infiltration and attachment (Loh & Choong 2013). Dense scaffold has excellent mechanical property and less susceptible to breakage, but it has slow dissolution rate

**Table 13.5** Biomaterial property of ideal scaffold in bone regeneration

Properties	Characteristics
Biocompatibility	Biocompatible to the cells and environment (Ghassemi et al. 2018)
Osteoconductivity	Bone grows on a scaffold surface
Osteoinductive	Enhance osteogenesis
Bioresorbability	Ability to degrade in vivo, preferably at a controlled rate and eventually providing space for the new bone to grow

### 13.6 Conclusion and Future Remarks

This chapter reviewed modern approach used in the fabrication of HA based composite for various biomedical applications. Wide range of methods available for fabricating HA based composites have developed in the past few decades. Each of the fabrication methods has its own benefits and drawbacks. Factors need to be taken into consideration include the overall cost, easy and reliable procedures, the performance and characteristic of the end product. The HA composites prepared with either polymers, metals and metal oxide, carbonaceous and the hybrid mixtures have gain worldwide attention due to the outstanding biological properties on top of chemical resemblance to the bone tissues. It is important to consider the ideal properties of the biomaterial in designing the suitable HA based composite for biomedical applications. Future work will focus on the advancement and improvement in fabrication real bone like HA composites with improved mechanical, bioactivity, biocompatibility and osteoconductivity. The cell-material interaction, in vitro and in vivo studies will be the focus in the future.

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