GRAPHITE FIBER/TFE POLYMER POROUS COMPOSITES IN RECONSTRUCTIVE SURGERY

C.A. Homsy Prosthesis Research Laboratory, The Methodist Hospital Houston, Texas 77030

J.N. Kent
Department of Oral Surgery, Dental School, LSU Medical Center
New Orleans, Louisiana 70119

Graphite fiber and TFE polymer were combined to produce a porous low modulus composite intended for medical implant use.* The specific methodology for preparation of this novel composite structure has been published elsewhere.[1] The microstructure of this composite is illustrated in Figure 1 at 300X magnification. The structure is an isotropic matrix of polytetrafluoroethylene polymer upon which is superimposed graphite fibers in the range of 50 to 100 micra in length. The composite is approximately 80% void, with average pore diameter of about 300 micra. The open pore structure also exhibits dendritic interpore connections of between 100-200 micra. The bulk physical appearance of the material is that of a stiff sponge of Young's modulus--40 Kg/cm² and an ultimate tensile strength--10 Kg/cm².

The creation of the composite was premised on 3 requirements: (1) ingredient biocompatibility; (2) bio-functionality through the selection of a modulus close to that of soft tissue and spongey bone; and (3) maximum porosity and interpore connections consistent with appropriate bulk mechanical properties. Initial studies evaluated biocompatibility, [2] tissue ingrowth kinetics and performance of the material as a bulk implant or as a coating on metallic endoprostheses whereby stabilization of the prostheses was provided by tissue ingrowth. [3,4,5]

Very rapid fibrous tissue ingrowth into the material was observed at rates of 600 micra per week for loose immature collagen and 80 micra per week for dense mature collagen. These rates are approximately 5 times those observed with open pore polytetrafluorothylene exhibiting the same porosity and pore architecture as the composite. This difference is now attributed to the surface energy character of the graphite fiber ingredient and specific surface area of the composite which results from the inclusion of that ingredient.

Implant stabilization is directly related to the surface area and geometry of an implant and the interfacial reaction of the implant with adjacent tissue. More area disposed perpendicular to stress direction would decrease the unit loads supporting tissue must sustain and thereby enhance stability. The microporosity of the Proplast composite develops very large surface interaction areas. Although porosity of biologically inert materials is generally known to engender tissue ingrowth, [2] long-term fixation between the implant and tissue has been seen to depend on appropriate selection of modulus for the porous implant; newly forming fibrous tissue within the porosity of the Proplast is not irreversibly traumatized by micro-motion that necessarily must take place between an implant and the implantation site. [6,7]

Proplast composite exhibits a low modulus in order to provide an interface of gradual conversion from the structure and property of the opposed tissue to that of the bulk material of an implant. Under such conditions, stress vectors can be supported by the omnidirectional interlocking of tissue with implant. Moreover, stress would tend to be uniformly dispersed to low unit values. In addition to implant fixation, a viable ingrowth interlocking between implant and adjacent tissue may also serve to prevent extrusion of percutaneous and permucosal implants secondary to epithelial encapsulation.

Histological preparations of composite implants placed in dogs, rabbits, and primates, showed that tissue morphology and rate of organization depend upon the implantation site. Specimens recovered from long bone, femoral head prostheses coatings, and alveolar ridge augmentation, show rapid collagenous ingrowth with some bone formation usually limited to the interface with bone. Multinucleated giant cells or other remarkable cell populations are absent. Implants from mobile soft tissue locations show less rapid collagenization associated with transient presence of giant cells. The latter appear to have no

^{*} Proplast Bimplant biomaterial, Vitek, Inc., Houston, Texas 77054.

meterious effect other than to reduce the rate of cologenation.

Both porous and non-porous forms of the com
scale were compared with USP Plastic Negative Stan
and material in long bone of Beagle dogs for 2 years.

findings of toxicological significance were evi
to findings of toxicological significanc

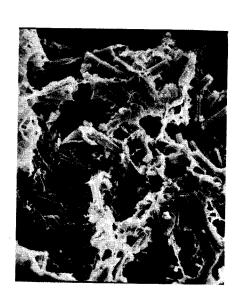
The composite was first used in humans in 1970. Pre-commercial clinical studies were carried or through 1974 in more than 190 patients with success rates in excess of 90% for applications involvig contour and boney reconstruction of the chin, - >>e, zygoma, malar, orbit, and mastoid defect. -ose cases of failure were associated with the learnrg curve of operative technique and the usual hospirates of operative sepsis. Alveolar ridge augmento ion with Proplast has been notably less successful 50-70%) with early and late losses from sepsis. The procedure involves extensive intra-oral manipulation - proximity to mucosal tissue. Late losses from - .cosal perforation can be minimized by good patient : xxxxxxxxx in oral hygiene and routine denture ad-_sment. Optimal surgical instructions have been zereloped to reduce losses. Notwithstanding the ∞ surrence of losses, alternative procedures such as core grafting are less successful and satisfying to === patient and surgeon.

Clinical publications document efficacy of me composite in Tenon's capsule of the eye, middle est, facial contour reconstruction, mastoid obliteration, alveolar ridge, TMJ prosthesis stabilization, sectus excavatum repair, and treatment of atrophic mitis. [9-15] Prospective studies have been undertoo for over 3 years in the clinical use of the composer for stabilization of orthopedic joint prostheses, est eligament prostheses, and hand tendon prostheses. Current research studies in animals involve the set of the composite for reversible sterilization, perital pocket obliteration, herniation defect repair, and prostheses for the bladder, trachea, mandible, and endosseous denture support.

- U.S. Patent 3,992, 725
- C.A. HOMSY, JADA, 86, 817, (1973).
- 3 C.A. HOMSY, et al., Clin. Orthop. Rel. Res., 89, 220, (1972).

- [4] E.C. HINDS, et al., O. Surg., O. Med., O. Path., 38, 512, (1974).
- [5] J.N. KENT, et al., JADA, 89, 1142, (1974).
- [6] C.A. HOMSY, Orthop. Clin. N. Amer., 2, 295, (1973).
- [7] F.W. RHINELANDER et C.L. NELSON, Acta Orthop. Belg., 40, 771, (1974).
- [8] C.A. HOMSY et M.S. ANDERSON, Chapter 10, Biocompatibility of Implant Materials, Sector Publishing, London, England, (1976).
- [9] M.G. LYALL, Trans. Opthal. Soc. U.K., <u>96</u>, 79, (1976).
- [10] J.J. SHEA et C.A. HOMSY, Laryngoscope, <u>84</u>, 1835, (1974).
- [11] J.B. JANEKE et J.J.SHEA, S. African Med. J., 50, 781, (1976).
- [12] B.S. FREEMAN, Brit. J. Plast. Surg., <u>29</u>, 158, (1976).
- [13] H. VENO et R.G. MERRILL, Shikai Tembo, 4, (1973).
- [14] C.D. FARRELL et J.N. KENT, Alpha Omegan, December, 21, (1975).
- [15] E. WHITEHEAD, Can. J. Otol., 4, (1975).

Figure 1



Proplast Implant Material, SEM 300X