

Research Article

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Antibacterial, mechanical, and dielectric properties of hydroxyapatite cordierite/zirconia porous nanocomposites for use in bone tissue engineering applications

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Abstract: We made nanocomposites with different amounts of hydroxyapatite (HA), cordierite (Cord), and zirconia (ZrO_2), then sinterized them and studied them using X-ray diffraction (XRD) technique and field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM). Additionally, the bioactivity of the sintered samples was assessed in vitro following treatment with simulated bodily fluid (SBF), and FESEM was used to validate the creation of the HA layer on their surfaces. Measurements were also made for mechanical and antibacterial properties. All materials' electrical and dielectric characteristics were assessed before and after being treated with SBF solution. All of the samples that were studied had porosity increases of about 7.14, 22.44, 43.87, and 73.46%. This was because the sintering temperature was lowered while the concentration of ZrO_2 in the samples increased. Also, the microhardness got 5.35, 14.28, 28.57, and 55.35% better because there was more ZrO_2 and Cord in the samples than in the sample that did not have them. In addition, the compressive strength of all studied samples followed this trend, as it increased by 2.81, 7.79, 17.74, and 34.32% due to the reasons mentioned above. Furthermore, the electrical conductivity of the tested samples decreased as they increased their ZrO_2 and Cord contents. The bioactivity of the research materials also somewhat decreased as the concentrations of Cord and ZrO_2 were enhanced over time. Due to the magnesium (Mg^{2+}) ions found in Cord's composition and the samples' porousness, which aided in

forming an apatite layer on their surface, their bioactivity behavior was slightly reduced. All the samples that were looked at had a strong antibacterial effect on *Staphylococcus epidermidis* (*S. epidermidis* bacteria), which stopped their growth to a point between 2.33–3.30 mm. These results supported the notion that the generated porous nanocomposites have great potential for use in bone tissue engineering.

Keywords: porous nanocomposites, osseointegration, antibacterial effect, mechanical properties, bone tissue engineering applications

1 Introduction

Focusing on biomaterials used in the treatment of bone tissue, much effort has recently been put into designing biomaterials for repairing injured human tissues. It should be noted that these endeavors do not end due to the wide variety of standards for materials used in orthopedic applications, which are strongly affected by industrial progress [1–5]. Unfortunately, bone resorption, partly caused by wear and corrosion debris from the implants infiltrating the surrounding tissue and causing the implants to become loose, necessitates the replacement of 10–20% of implanted joints within 15–20 years. A superb biomaterial for surgical implantation should thus have a good combination of various physical properties. It should, first and foremost, be highly wear and corrosion resistant and also have good biocompatibility. Second, a material with a low modulus and high strength closer to the bone will be preferred. The material surface must maintain its integrity under pressure as the third important component [6]. Based on this, the best candidate materials should possess several properties such as osteoconductivity, biocompatibility, antimicrobial, electrical, and mechanical properties. Since no single material can satisfy all these needs, scientists have created composite materials to meet these diverse requirements [7,8].

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HA ($\text{Ca}_{10}(\text{PO}_4)_6(\text{OH})_2$) is one of the materials with the best prospects for use in orthopedic and dental applications. Its biocompatibility and capacity for bone bonding account for this remarkable significance in these various biological applications. In addition, the formation of B-type carbonated hydroxyapatite (B-CHA), which gives HA more desirable qualities, is the consequence of the partial replacement of certain phosphate (PO_4^{3-}) groups in its crystal structure by carbonate (PO_3^{2-}) groups [9]. Another important element in improving CHA's biological importance is its preparation in the nanometer range, which allows for stronger interactions with proteins and osteoblastic cells [10]. However, its weak mechanical qualities limit its potential for use in biomedicine. The composites' preparation or morphology can be changed to enhance HA's mechanical properties [11–13].

Aluminum oxide (Al_2O_3), and MgO, make up the ternary system of oxide that makes up Cord ($\text{Mg}_2\text{Al}_4\text{Si}_5\text{O}_{18}$) [14]. Due to its hardness, resistance to compression, chemical inertness, and porosity, which are suitable for the majority of the requirements for the success of biological materials, Cord has demonstrated remarkable success in various manufacturing methods in a variety of applications, particularly those involving biology [15].

One of the most often used biomaterials is ZrO_2 because of its promising properties, which include remarkable mechanical and thermal capabilities. As the color is so remarkably similar to the color of teeth, it also offers great aesthetic attributes. Because of these positive characteristics, it was initially used in dentistry in the 1990s [16,17]. As ZrO_2 is a chemical oxide, it also has the advantage of not dissolving in water, which lowers bacterial adhesion and exhibits minimum cytotoxicity. Moreover, it offers excellent corrosion resistance. The characteristics mentioned earlier have led to an expansion of the biological applications of ZrO_2 to orthopedic applications. Nevertheless, ZrO_2 's fundamental drawback limiting its clinical application is that it is bioinert [18]. As a result, creating nanocomposites with bioactive phases is one of the most promising ways to solve this issue.

The incidence of biomaterial-centered illnesses is one of the main disadvantages of using biomaterials. The host will interact with the biomaterial after implantation by developing a conditioning coating on its surface. The surface characteristics of the biomaterial mediate microorganism adhesion. The infection will begin when microorganisms on the surface start to multiply. For example, according to an *in vitro* investigation, *Staphylococcus epidermidis* multiplied in the first 8–12 h following implantation. Efforts have been made to avoid microbial contamination of foreign materials during implantation.

Antibiotic usage undoubtedly helps limit the frequency of infections focused on biomaterials, but a sizable proportion of patients struggle with this illness [19].

The effect of ZrO_2 on enhancing HA's mechanical and antibacterial properties has been studied by many researchers [20–23]. However, according to the authors' knowledge, the effect of adding different contents of Cord on HA has not gained the attention of researchers before. Therefore, one might expect that the combination of adding these two reinforcements, i.e., ZrO_2 and Cord, to HA and studying the biological, physical, mechanical, electrical, and dielectric properties of the resulting nanocomposites has not been studied. In addition, the novelty of this study extends to the investigation of the electrical and dielectric properties of samples after soaking them in simulated body fluid (SBF) for 10 days.

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Preparation of CHA nanopowders

To physically activate the chemical interaction between calcium carbonate (CaCO_3) and calcium hydrogen phosphate dihydrate ($\text{CaHPO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$) powders as reported in the studies by Youness *et al.* [24,25], CHA nanopowders have been created in this study with the use of a high-energy ball mill (HEBM). In a nutshell, HEBM was combined with $\text{CaHPO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and CaCO_3 for 5 h while rotating at 150 rpm. After that, milling was carried out for 10 h in dry conditions using 10 mm-diameter alumina balls and a 10:1 ball-to-powder ratio (BPR). The obtained CHA nanopowders phase composition, particle size, and crystallinity were investigated by XRD technique (Philips PW 1373; diffractometer with CuK–Ni filtered radiation at a scan speed of 0.5 min^{-1}) and high-resolution transmission electron microscopy–selected area electron diffraction (HRTEM-SAED; JEOL JEM-2100 Japan, operated at accelerating voltage of 120 kV).

2.2 Preparation of Cord nanopowders

Al_2O_3 (98.5%), SiO_2 (97.5%), and MgO (98%) powder were used to create the first combination of the Cord stoichiometric composition ($2\text{MgO} \cdot 2\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 5\text{SiO}_2$). The powder was mechanically blended for 30 min to verify the homogeneity of the representative batch. This mixture was dried and then heated for 3 h at $1,300^\circ\text{C}$ with air present to study the reaction process. Then, the

resultant Cord powders were investigated using XRD and HRTEM-SAED techniques.

2.3 Fabrication of HA/Cord/ZrO₂ nanocomposites

The purchased ZrO₂ powders (purity 99.5%) were mixed with the as-prepared materials, *i.e.*, CHA and Cord, using HEBM for 20 h and BPR = 5:1 running in the dry condition in alumina vials and balls with diameters of 10 mm at 150 rpm as a rotational speed. Then, the nanocomposite powders were pressed using a hydraulic press at 30 MPa and sintered at 600°C for 1 h at a heating rate of 5°C/min. The compositions of the samples prepared and their abbreviations are presented in Table 1.

2.4 Investigation of phase composition and microstructure of the sintered nanocomposites

With the XRD method's assistance, the sintered nanocomposites' phase composition was examined. In addition, FESEM (Philips XL3000 type) was used to analyze the microstructure of the sintered nanocomposites.

2.5 Biological properties of the tested samples

2.5.1 *In vitro* bioactivity assessment

It was possible to assess the *in vitro* bioactivity of the materials by letting the created nanocomposites soak in an SBF prepared in accordance with the guidelines provided by Kokubo *et al.* [26,27] for 10 days while maintaining the ratio of glass grains to the volume of solution = 0.01g/ml [28]. FESEM was then used on the soaked samples to look into the changes to their surfaces brought on by soaking them in SBF solution.

Table 1: Scheme of the prepared nanocomposites referring to the sample code and its composition (vol%)

Samples code	HA	Cord	ZrO ₂
CZ0	100	0	0
CZ1	97	2.5	0.5
CZ2	94	5	1
CZ3	88	10	2
CZ4	76	20	4

2.5.2 Antibacterial effect

The disc-diffusion method was used in the current study to assess the antibacterial activity of sintered nanocomposites against *S. epidermidis* and *Escherichia coli*, two typical species of Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria, respectively.

2.6 Measurement of the different properties of the obtained nanocomposites

2.6.1 Physical properties

We sintered all the samples at 600 °C for one hour and used the Archimedes method (ASTM B962-13), which is explained in Ref. [29], to figure out their bulk density and apparent porosity.

2.6.2 Mechanical properties

The microhardness of the sintered samples was determined in accordance with ASTM: B933-09, as mentioned in our most recent papers [30,31]. Notably, each data point included measurements of at least five indentations per specimen. On the other hand, all samples underwent the compressive strength test under ASTM E9.

2.6.3 Electrical and dielectric properties

Using a broadband dielectric spectroscopic method, the produced samples' AC electrical conductivity, dielectric constant, and dielectric loss were assessed at room temperature before and after soaking in the SBF solution for 10 days.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Investigation of the phase composition, crystallinity, and particle size of the starting materials

XRD equipment was used to investigate the phase composition of all starting materials, such as HA, Cord, and ZrO₂. The results are shown in Figure 1. By analyzing the obtained data, it is possible to see the clarity of distinct HA

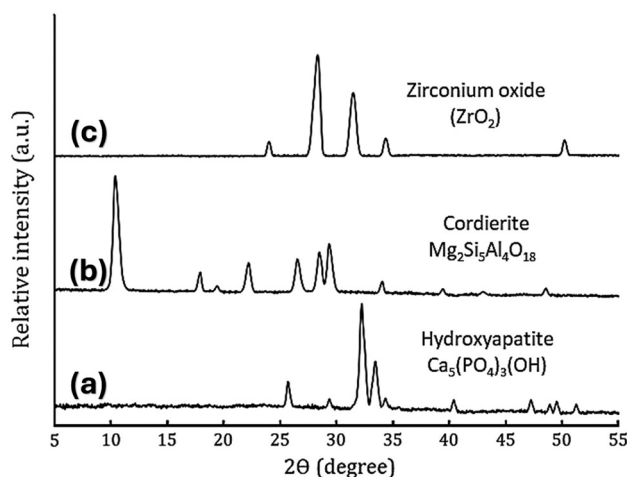


Figure 1: XRD patterns of the as-prepared powders, *i.e.*, (a) HA, (b) Cord, and (c) ZrO₂ powders.

XRD peaks without the presence of any other XRD peaks. This result suggests that the HA was produced correctly. The original materials, such as HA, Cord, and ZrO₂, may also be found to be in the nanoscale range based on the observed broadness in their diffraction peaks. One of the most important advantages of nanostructured biomaterial is its improved capacity to interact with proteins and cells that make bone [32].

The particle sizes and crystallinity of the HA, Cord, and ZrO₂ powders used are shown in Figure 2(a)–(c). The pictures in these figures make it very clear that the HA, Cord, and ZrO₂ are made up of spherical nanoparticles. This is because the milling process seems to have strongly grouped the HA powder particles together.

It is important to remember that the average particle sizes of HA, Cord, and ZrO₂ are 42.34, 56.62, and 77.74 nm, respectively. In addition, the SAED patterns demonstrated the presence of polycrystalline diffraction rings generated from the *d*-spacing ICCD file cards previously described.

3.2 Characterization of the sintered nanocomposites

3.2.1 XRD analysis

The XRD patterns of each sintered sample are displayed in Figure 3. The following key facts are supported by this figure and can be distilled as follows:

- The typical XRD peaks for HA, Cord, and ZrO₂ are clearly visible.

- Despite being treated to a high sintering temperature, there is no evidence that the HA particles decompose and form β -tricalcium phosphate (β -TCP; Ca₃(PO₄)₂).
- No other peaks could be detected on the X-ray diffractogram, indicating that the component phases of these nanocomposites did not interact and that there was no contamination during the synthesis of the nanocomposites or the sintering process.
- The sintering process, which reflects improved crystallization, shows a noticeable sharpness at all peaks compared to Figure 1.

3.2.2 Investigation of the microstructure of the samples by FESEM

The microstructure of all fabricated samples was analyzed using FESEM, as shown in Figure 4(a)–(e). From this figure, one can observe the porous structure of all samples. The reason for obtaining a porous structure for all the samples prepared from the initial sample, *i.e.*, CZ0, to the last sample, *i.e.*, CZ4, is the high melting temperatures of HA (1,650°C), Cord (1,460°C), and ZrO₂ (2,715°C) compared to the temperature used to perform the sintering process (600°C). As discussed earlier, since ZrO₂ has the highest melting temperature among the other materials used to prepare nanocomposites, increasing its volume percent is considered a major factor in increasing the porosity level. This conclusion is based on the significant increase in the number of pores and the proportion of ZrO₂. Another explanation for the observed increase in porosity as a result of increasing the content of ZrO₂ is the difference in particle sizes between HA (42 nm) and ZrO₂ (77 nm), as discussed in Section 3.1, which led to more pores between their particles due to a reduction in the contact area between HA and ZrO₂ particles, which resulted in hollow areas [33].

3.3 Biological properties of the tested samples

3.3.1 *In vitro* bioactivity assessment

In general, treatment in an SBF solution is known as a straightforward and affordable test to reliably assess a biomaterial's capacity to create a bone-like layer on its surface following immersion in it. It should be noted that

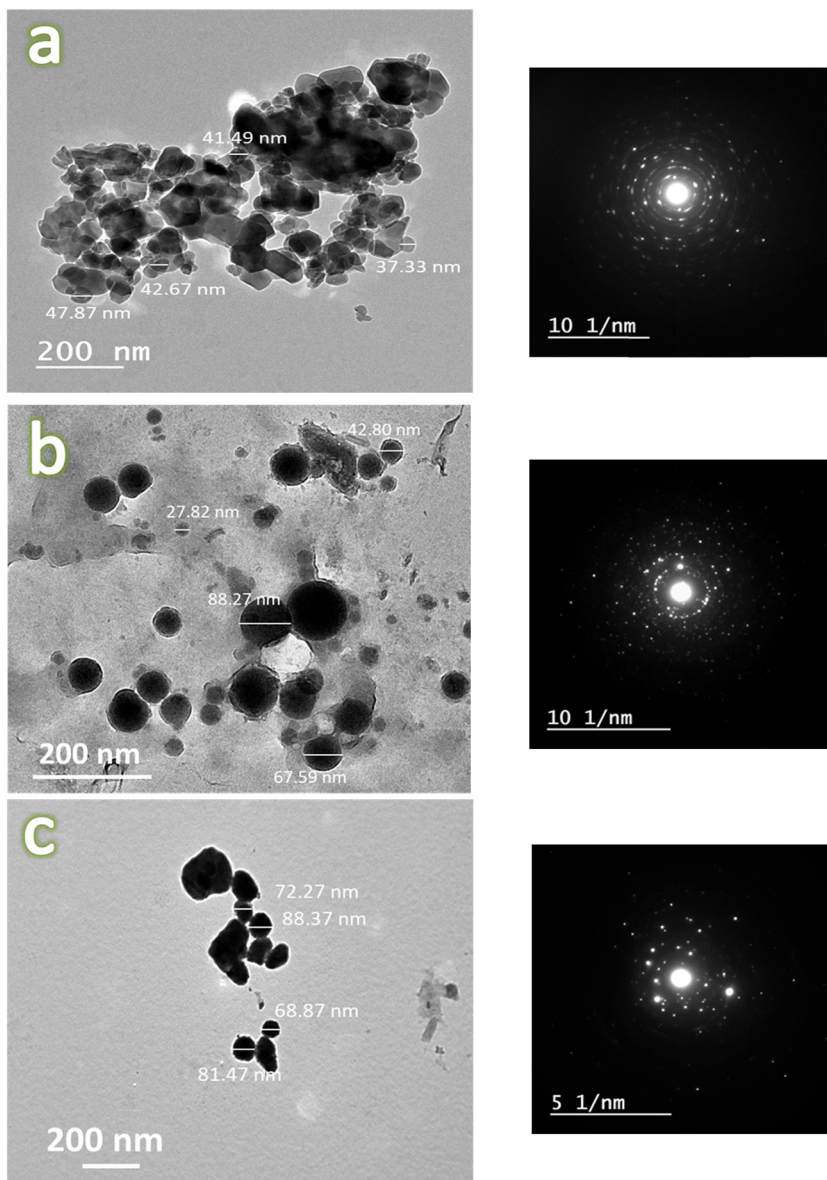


Figure 2: HRTEM images and their corresponding SAED patterns for the starting materials, *i.e.*, (a) HA, (b) Cord, and (c) ZrO₂ powders.

the “bioactivity property” refers to a substance’s capacity to build the desired layer. Based on this, the substance is thought to exhibit superb adhesion to nearby living bone tissue when it is transplanted into a person [34]. The sintered samples, *i.e.*, CZ0, CZ2, and CZ4, were incubated in the SBF solution for 10 days, and then they were submitted to FESEM to provide the reader with visual proof of the creation of the HA layer on their surfaces shown in Figure 5(a)–(c). Given that the bioactivity of the sintered nanocomposites displays a falling sequence, CZ0 > CZ2 > CZ4, it is clear that all sintered samples have shown a good formation for the apatite layer on their surfaces. In other words, when Cord and ZrO₂ concentrations rise, but HA amounts fall,

the investigated samples’ bioactivity marginally declines. This observation is supported by the generated layer almost completely covering the CZ0 sample’s surface. On the other hand, this layer gradually thins down as Cord and ZrO₂ levels rise, thankfully without significantly affecting the samples’ bioactivity. The obtained results can be explained in terms of many factors. First, the presence of negative charge content of HA, namely, (PO₄)^{3−}, which may quickly absorb the cations, specifically calcium (Ca)²⁺, present in the solution and result in the creation of an amorphous calcium phosphate layer, as indicated in our previous study [35]. The generated layer is then crystallized on the sample surface to produce HA crystals. Second, the Mg²⁺ ions in the Cord composition

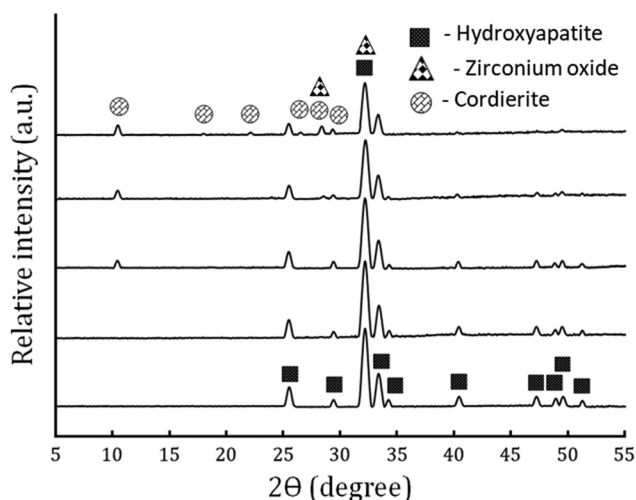


Figure 3: XRD patterns of sintered HA/Cord/ZrO₂ nanocomposites samples.

encouraged the growth of apatite on the sample surface [36]. Third, an increase in sample porosity encourages the development of apatite on a sample's surface. This is because materials with larger porosities will have better SBF flow, which will provide simpler ion dissolution between samples and SBF solution [37]. Noteworthy, the literature highly

supports the obtained results [38,39]. Based on the findings, it is possible to restore injured tissues, such as the hip, knee, teeth, and joints, using the nanocomposites that have been created [40].

3.3.2 Antibacterial effect

In most cases, bacterial infections acquired during surgical procedures cause severe difficulties following the implantation of biomaterials into people [41]. Based on this reality, assessing a possible biomaterial's antibacterial performance is crucial. Therefore, using disc diffusion tests, the antibacterial properties of the sintered samples were examined against *S. epidermidis* (ATCC12228) and *E. coli* (ATCC25922), which are Gram+ and Gram- bacteria, respectively. The results are displayed in Figure 6(a) and (b), and the measured diameter of the inhibition zones is tabulated in Table 2. The acquired images show that the growth of *E. coli* was markedly inhibited in all tested samples, including Cord and ZrO₂-free samples. These results can be attributed to the strong antibacterial effects of ZrO₂ and MgO present in the Cord and possible changes in the pH value due to the possible dissolution of the CZ0 sample in the surrounding medium. It is important to remember that these

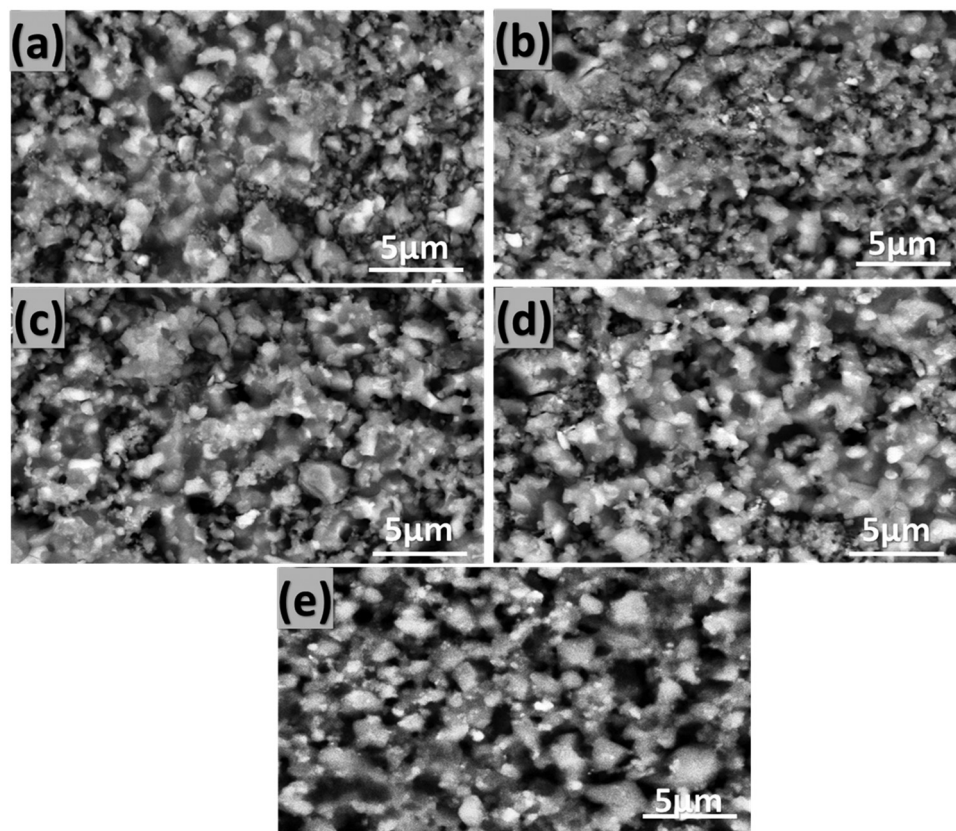


Figure 4: FESEM micrographs of all sintered samples; namely (a) CZ0, (b) CZ1, (c) CZ2, (d) CZ3, and (e) CZ4.

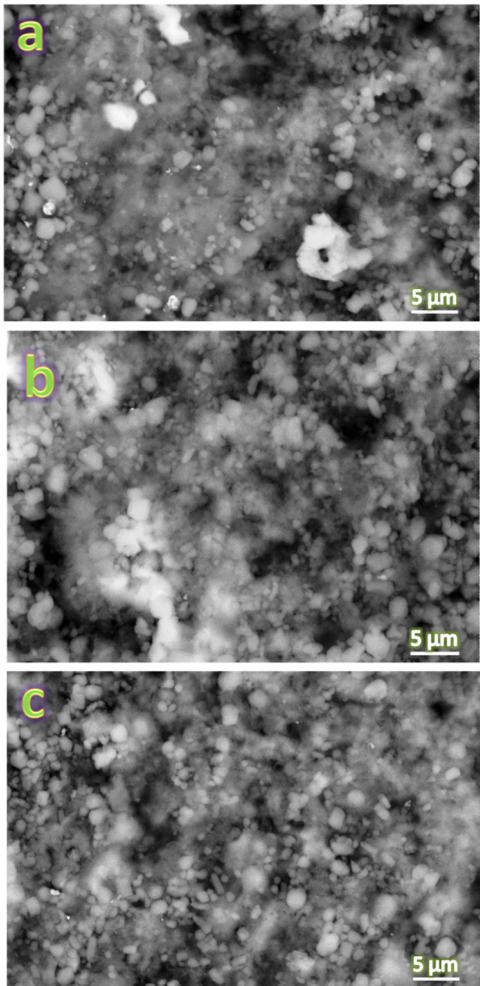


Figure 5: FESEM micrographs of (a) CZ0-, (b) CZ2-, and (c) CZ4-sintered samples after their treatment in the SBF solution for 10 days.

nanocomposites do not affect the growth of *S. epidermidis*. Here, we summarize how nano-ZrO₂ and nano-MgO in Cord kill bacteria.

Nano-ZrO₂ particles harm bacterial cell membranes by releasing active oxygen. As a result of this disruption, the cytoplasmic regions of the cells degrade, which also raises permeability [42]. On the other hand, the different possible antibacterial effects of MgO nanoparticles can be attributed to the fact that, according to references [43–45], the effects of MgO nanoparticles can be attributed to reactive oxygen species (ROS) production preventing *E. coli* from growing. The capacity of MgO to attach to the cell membrane and induce damage, resulting in an observable change in the shape of the cell membrane and causing deformation and cell death, is another antibacterial mechanism for Gram-negative bacteria. Gram-positive bacteria, on the other hand, have a strong peptidoglycan protective coating; therefore, this method does not apply to them.

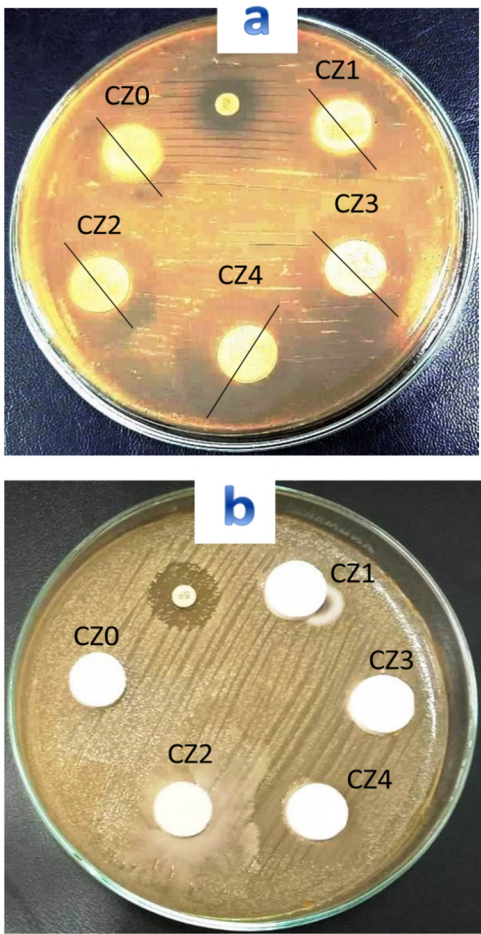


Figure 6: Photos of Petri dishes after conducting agar disc-diffusion assays against (a) *S. epidermidis* and (b) *E. coli* for sintered samples.

Table 2: The measured inhibition zone diameters for all examined nanocomposites samples against *S. epidermidis* and *E. coli* bacteria

Samples' code	Inhibition zone (mm)	
	<i>S. epidermidis</i>	<i>E. coli</i>
CZ0	2.33	...
CZ1	2.50	...
CZ2	2.78	...
CZ3	3	...
CZ4	3.3	...

3.4 Measurement of the different properties of the obtained nanocomposites

3.4.1 Physical properties

All samples' bulk density and apparent porosity are depicted in Figure 7(a) and (b), respectively. The findings show that

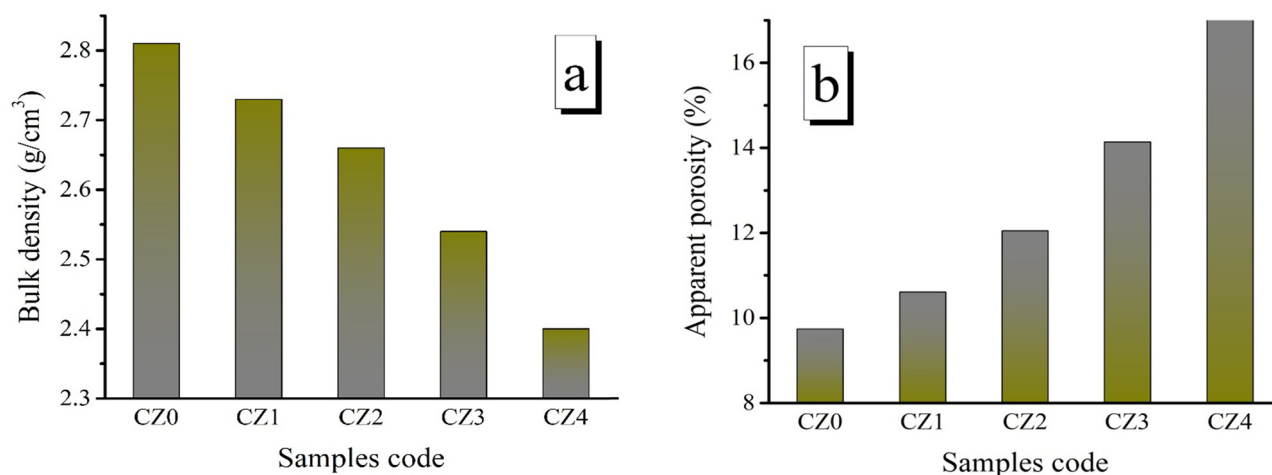


Figure 7: (a) Bulk density and porosity and (b) relative density of samples sintered at 600°C for 1 h.

the bulk density of the samples under investigation noticeably decreased when the volume percentages of Cord and ZrO_2 were successively increased. It is interesting to note that this decrease is not significant because HA (3.15 g/cm^3) was substituted with a lighter material, namely, Cord (2.28 g/cm^3), and a heavier material, namely, ZrO_2 (5.68 g/cm^3), while percentage increases for ZrO_2 were only 4 and Cord 20 vol%, respectively. In contrast, as discussed in Section 3.2.2, the low temperature used in the sintering process and the presence of ZrO_2 with a higher melting temperature, *i.e.*, 2,715°C, contributed to the increased porosity of the sintered samples.

These findings are well aligned with those covered in Section 3.2.2. Various variables greatly influence ceramic materials' densification, including the sintering temperature,

the surrounding environment, and the initial powder's grain size. Most notably, it can be assumed that if the materials utilized are in the small size range, the porosity of the generated composites will be higher since nano-sized powders exhibit superior condensation behavior than micron-sized ones at lower sintering temperatures [46].

3.4.2 Mechanical properties

The microhardness and compressive strength measurements for all nanocomposites are shown in Figure 8(a) and (b). These figures demonstrate how the combined effects of Cord and ZrO_2 boosted all the tested mechanical qualities. CZ0, CZ1, CZ2, CZ3, and CZ4 samples' microhardness values are 2.80, 2.95,

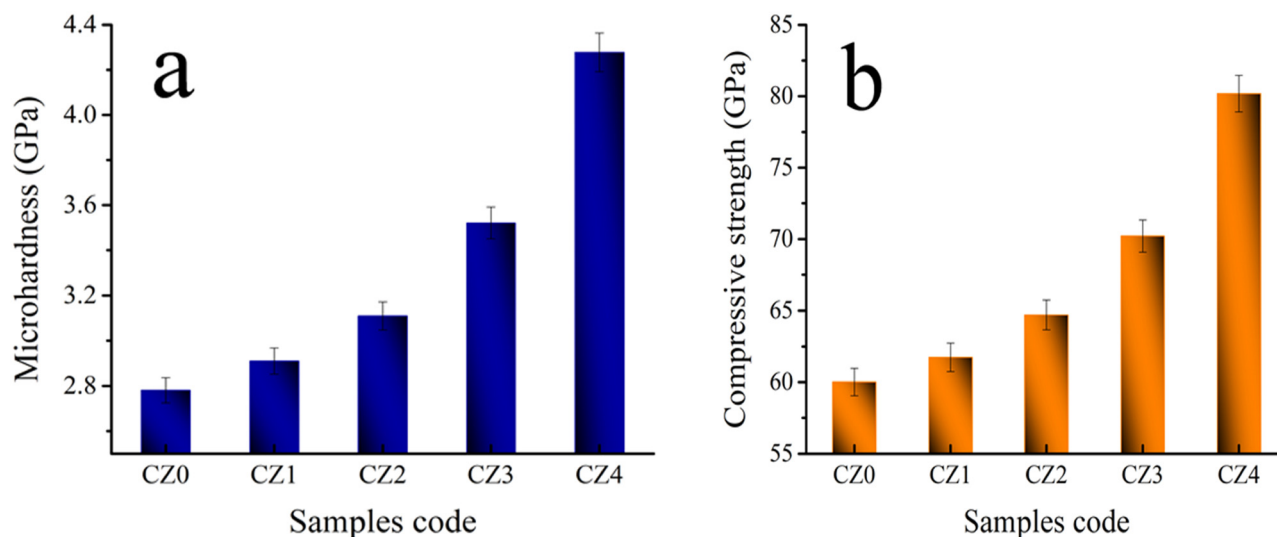


Figure 8: (a) Microhardness and (b) compressive strength of samples sintered at 600°C for 1 h.

3.20, 3.60, and 4.35 Hv, respectively, whereas their compressive strength values are 60.30, 62, 65, 71, and 81 MPa, respectively. Better mechanical properties of the reinforcements used in this study, *i.e.*, Cord and ZrO₂, can be used to explain the results obtained. These outcomes are quite consistent with those mentioned in Abushanab *et al.* [47]. It is important to note that the CZ4 sample's compressive strength is close to that of cortical bone (100–150 MPa), indicating that the surrounding bone would not experience the stress-shielding effect if the CZ4 sample was implanted into human bone. Importantly, the stress-shielding effect is extremely damaging and causes a major weakening of the bone since it lacks the stimuli required for the ongoing remodeling process, according to Wolff's law [48].

3.4.3 Electrical and dielectric properties

There is no denying that the good electrical properties of biomaterials greatly aid in encouraging bone formation [49]. This research examines the electrical and dielectric characteristics of sintered nanocomposites and the effect of the produced apatite layer on their surfaces. Readers interested in studying diverse biomaterial characteristics will find this article new due to its immense relevance. The electrical conductivity and dielectric properties, such as the dielectric constant and dielectric loss, were tested in this regard at various frequencies. Measurements at 1, 5, 10, and 20 MHz were made, and the results are displayed in Tables 3 and 4. It is clear that the materials' electrical conductivity significantly decreased when the amounts of Cord and ZrO₂ increased due to their electrical insulating behavior. However, this propensity increased a little bit with frequency increasing. Polarization typically confers HA's dielectric properties, which are known to significantly improve bone tissue regeneration. Interestingly, the ϵ' represents the real component of the dielectric, *i.e.*, and the ϵ'' represents the imaginary part.

Table 3: AC conductivity of all examined samples measured at different frequencies, *i.e.*, 1, 5, 10, and 20 MHz

	AC conductivity (S/cm)			
	1 MHz	5 MHz	10 MHz	20 MHz
CZ0	1.21×10^{-6}	3.31×10^{-6}	6.55×10^{-5}	1.35×10^{-4}
CZ1	9.71×10^{-7}	2.60×10^{-6}	5.24×10^{-5}	1.11×10^{-4}
CZ2	7.71×10^{-7}	1.77×10^{-6}	3.90×10^{-5}	9.30×10^{-5}
CZ3	5.29×10^{-7}	9.61×10^{-7}	1.92×10^{-5}	5.70×10^{-5}
CZ4	1.08×10^{-7}	4.42×10^{-7}	5.76×10^{-6}	1.05×10^{-5}

Table 4: ϵ' and ϵ'' of all examined samples measured at different frequencies, *i.e.*, 1, 5, 10, and 20 MHz

	1 MHz	5 MHz	10 MHz	20 MHz
	ϵ'			
CZ0	4.911	3.401	1.991	1.477
CZ1	5.977	4.398	2.511	1.741
CZ2	7.700	6.072	3.362	2.228
CZ3	10.908	8.385	4.837	3.130
CZ4	14.548	11.929	7.829	4.351
	ϵ''			
	1 MHz	5 MHz	10 MHz	20 MHz
CZ0	1.112	8.991	7.011	5.101
CZ1	0.136	0.132	0.099	0.078
CZ2	0.177	0.169	0.146	0.124
CZ3	0.264	0.256	0.232	0.194
CZ4	0.397	0.392	0.364	0.291

The natural frequency of these ions is the same as the frequency used in the AC field, according to Arul *et al.* [50]. The conduction of nano-sized HA at lower frequencies is due to the mild oscillation of Ca²⁺, PO₄³⁻, and OH⁻ ions. These dipole moments oscillate, resulting in ϵ' changes with a lower frequency. However, according to other research, the presence of protons (H⁺), oxide ions (O²⁻), and lattice hydroxyl (OH⁻) ions is all that is necessary for HA to conduct, with Ca²⁺ and PO₄³⁻ ions having no impact on the conductance of the substance [51,52]. Given that the AC conductivity is subject to the following relationship, the CZ0 sample exhibits a constant rise with the increasing frequency at high frequencies:

$$\sigma_{ac} = \sigma_{dc} + B\omega^s, \quad (1)$$

where σ_{dc} is the DC electrical conductivity, B is a constant, ω is the angular frequency, and s is an exponent [53].

The rise in AC conductivity with higher frequency is due to the separation of a complex set of ions along the c -axis of the HA crystal structure [50]. The AC conductivity continuously declines when the amounts of Cord and ZrO₂

Table 5: AC conductivity of all samples examined at different frequencies after incubation in SBF solution for 10 days

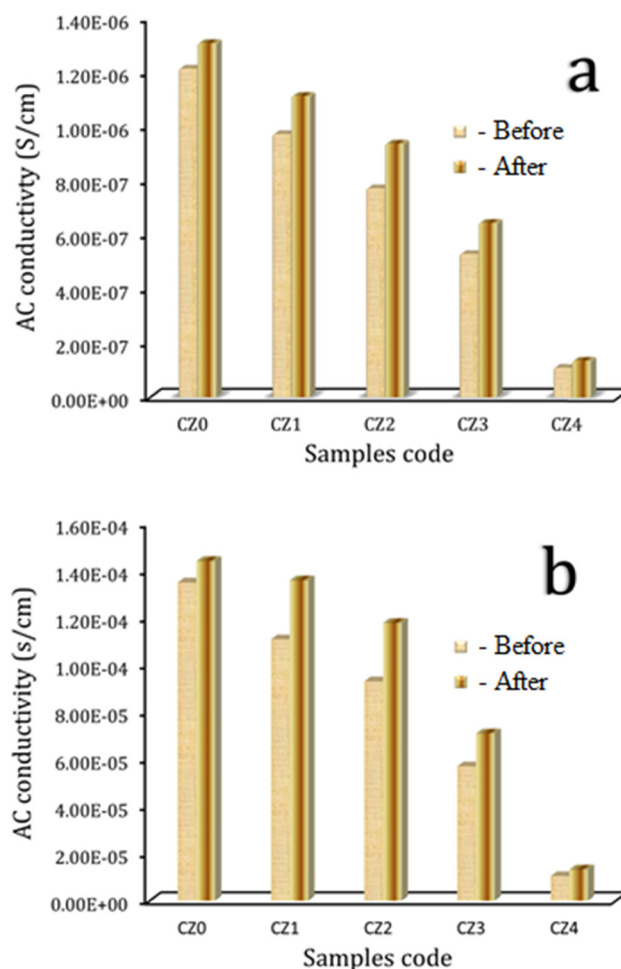
	AC conductivity (S/cm)			
	1 MHz	5 MHz	10 MHz	20 MHz
CZ0	1.31×10^{-6}	3.61×10^{-6}	7.14×10^{-5}	1.44×10^{-4}
CZ1	1.11×10^{-6}	3.12×10^{-6}	6.12×10^{-5}	1.36×10^{-4}
CZ2	9.36×10^{-7}	7.12×10^{-6}	4.79×10^{-5}	1.18×10^{-4}
CZ3	6.44×10^{-7}	1.20×10^{-6}	2.47×10^{-5}	7.09×10^{-5}
CZ4	1.35×10^{-7}	5.53×10^{-7}	7.11×10^{-6}	1.32×10^{-5}

Table 6: ϵ' and ϵ'' of all samples evaluated at various frequencies after a 10-day incubation period in SBF solution

	1 MHz	5 MHz	10 MHz	20 MHz
ϵ'				
CZ0	4.549	3.224	1.883	1.297
CZ1	5.352	3.911	2.207	1.510
CZ2	6.769	5.429	2.874	1.879
CZ3	9.205	7.172	4.002	2.570
CZ4	11.788	10.150	6.194	3.724
ϵ''				
CZ0	0.10	0.083	0.063	0.047
CZ1	0.123	0.120	0.084	0.064
CZ2	0.161	0.150	0.121	0.106
CZ3	0.228	0.211	0.191	0.149
CZ4	0.348	0.321	0.298	0.232

are increased because there are fewer charge carriers, which raises the nanocomposites' resistance [54,55].

After analyzing the data, it is evident that ϵ' rises with higher Cord and ZrO_2 levels while falling with higher applied frequency. Notably, the values drastically dropped with frequency up to 10 MHz, but the decline in values becomes less pronounced at 20 MHz. The fact that the tested samples' dipoles prefer to point in the direction of the applied electric field may be used to explain why the values of ϵ' decreased as frequency increased. In contrast, because of the slower relaxation of the highly oriented dipoles at lower frequencies, ϵ' records substantially greater values [50]. Conversely, a reduction in the number of dipoles that point in the direction of the AC field is brought on by increasing the concentrations of Cord and ZrO_2 . With the

**Figure 9:** AC conductivity of all sintered samples before and after treatment in the SBF solution for 10 days at (a) 1 MHz and (b) 20 MHz.

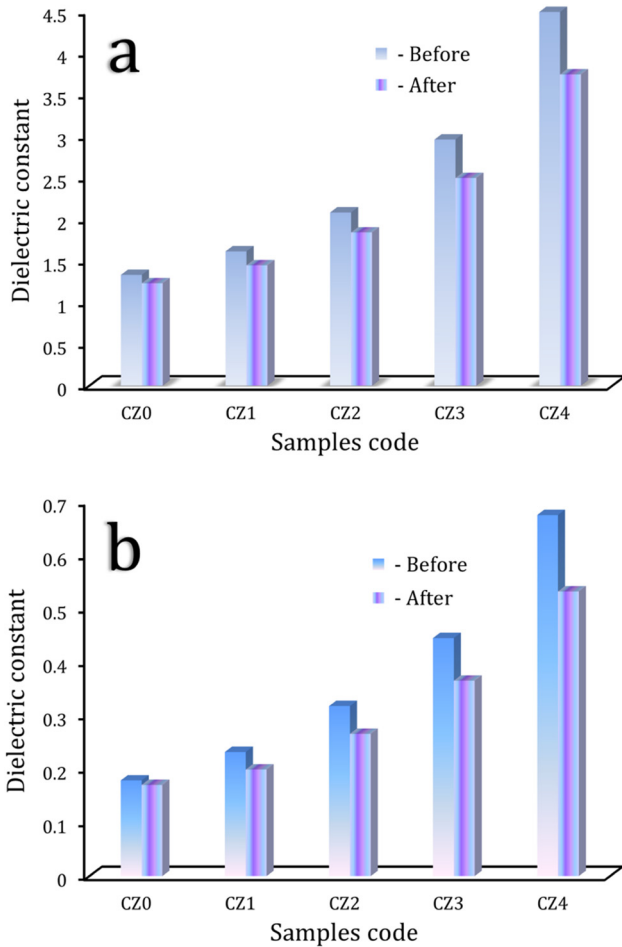


Figure 10: Dielectric constant of all sintered samples before and after treatment in the SBF solution for 10 days at (a) 1 MHz and (b) 20 MHz.

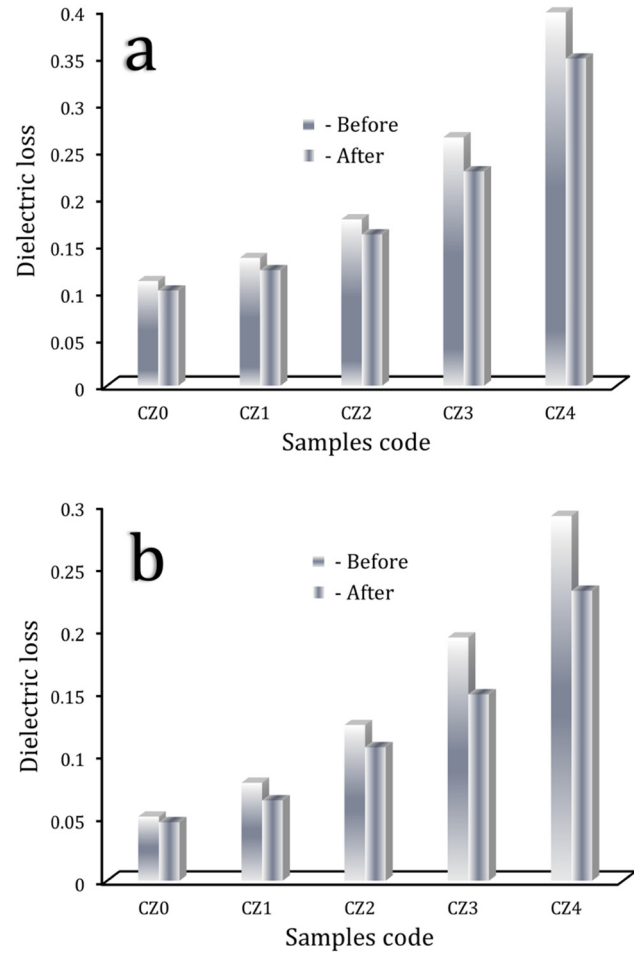


Figure 11: Dielectric loss of all sintered samples before and after treatment in the SBF solution for 10 days at (a) 1 MHz and (b) 20 MHz.

increasing frequency, a similar declining trend was also seen for ϵ'' . The electric dipoles do not have enough time to align themselves with the applied electric field before it changes direction, which accounts for the apparent reduction caused by rising AC frequency; however, because there are fewer charge carriers, the higher contents of Cord and ZrO₂ aid in raising the measured ϵ'' values [56].

When the same frequencies were used, the AC electrical conductivity, ϵ' , and ϵ'' were also measured to see what happened to the samples' electrical and dielectric behavior when a bone-like layer on the surface. The results were listed in Tables 5 and 6 as well. The characteristics of the nanocomposites indicated earlier before and after treatment in the SBF solution at lower and higher frequencies, i.e., 1 and 20 MHz, are further depicted in Figures 9–11, respectively, to simplify the comparison of these properties before and after incubation in the SBF solution. The findings showed that the tested sample's AC conductance is very minimally increased by the produced HA layer. This

favorable outcome can be due to reducing surface pores, which enhances conductivity. In addition, the insulating ceramic components present in the CZ1, CZ2, CZ3, and CZ4 samples are covered by this surface semiconductor layer. After incubation in the SBF solution, the values of ϵ' and ϵ'' displayed an opposite pattern, declining, which reflected the reduced dielectric characteristics of the examined samples.

4 Conclusions

In the present study, nanopowders of Cord, and HA have been successfully prepared with the help of high-energy ball mill and sintering process. Subsequently, different contents of Cord were added to HA in combination with ZrO₂ to produce nanocomposites with promising properties for use in bone tissue engineering applications. The findings demonstrated that there were porosity increases of around 7.14, 22.44, 43.87, and 73.46% in all of the studied samples.

This occurred as a result of the samples' increasing ZrO₂ concentration and decreasing sintering temperature. Furthermore, compared to the sample without ZrO₂ and Cord, the microhardness was enhanced as a result of the higher ZrO₂ and Cord contents. Additionally, due to the previously described factors, the compressive strength of each of the examined samples increased by 2.81, 7.79, 17.74, and 34.32%. Additionally, as ZrO₂ and Cord concentrations are raised, the resistance of the nanocomposites increases because there are fewer charge carriers, which causes the AC conductivity to constantly decrease. As the quantities of ZrO₂ and Cord increased over time, the study materials' *in vitro* bioactivity also slightly diminished. Thankfully, the porous nature of the samples and the presence of Mg²⁺ ions in Cord's composition prevented the samples' bioactivity behavior from significantly declining. Strong antibacterial effects against *S. epidermidis* bacteria were seen in all examined samples. However, none of the materials under examination had any effect on the development of *E. coli* bacteria. The results show that the developed nanocomposites may be used to repair damaged bone tissues.

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