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THERAPEUTIC PROPERTIES OF REGENERATIVE BIOMATERIAL: A SUMMARIZED REVIEW

Md. Ibrahim[1], Sharique Ahmad[2]*, Priyesh Srivastava[3] and Farheen Khan[4]

[1,3,4]Junior Resident, Department of Pathology, Era's Lucknow Medical College and Hospital, Era University, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh. India-226003.
[2]Professor, Department of Pathology, Era's Lucknow Medical College and Hospital, Era University, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh. India-226003.

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***Corresponding Author: Dr. Sharique Ahmad**
Professor, Department of Pathology, Era's Lucknow Medical College and Hospital, Era University, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh. India-226003.

ABSTRACT

Regenerative biomaterials progressed into essential in tissue engineering and regenerative therapies, offering innovative solutions to bolster the body's intrinsic healing capabilities. These advanced materials are designed to interact intricately with biological systems, delivering therapeutic benefits through various mechanisms. One of the critical therapeutic properties of regenerative biomaterials is biocompatibility, which ensures minimal immune response and promotes seamless integration with host tissues. This is paramount in reducing inflammation and enhancing the longevity of implants and grafts. Another crucial characteristic is bioactivity, which facilitates cell adhesion, proliferation, and differentiation, all crucial for effective tissue repair and regeneration. These materials often incorporate bioactive molecules that stimulate cellular activities and support the formation of new tissue. Biodegradability is equally important, allowing the materials to degrade safely within the body over time, eliminating the need for secondary surgical removal and reducing patient morbidity. Regenerative biomaterials also exhibit excellent mechanical properties, providing necessary structural support to damaged tissues while they heal. This includes appropriate strength and elasticity that mimic natural tissues, ensuring stability and function. Osteoconductivity and osteoinductivity are crucial for bone regeneration, offering a framework for new bone formation and inducing the differentiation of progenitor cells into osteoblasts, respectively. These properties make them ideal for orthopedic and dental applications. Both autologous and allogeneic graft therapies are utilized for osteogenic regeneration present substantial limitations, prompting the exploration of alternative methodologies. One promising approach involves isolating and expanding harvesting mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) from the patient and inoculating them onto porous, tridimensional scaffolds. During ex vivo cultivation, exposure to signalling molecules within the medium induces MSCs to differentiate into osteogenic cells. This bioengineered tissue can subsequently be the prosthetic apparatus was precisely positioned at the location of the defect, where it facilitates osteogenesis as the scaffold undergoes progressive biodegradation.[1] Moreover, these biomaterials can promote angiogenesis, enhancing blood supply to the healing tissue and improving nutrient and oxygen delivery, which is critical for tissue repair. Antimicrobial properties are also significant, reducing the risk of post-surgical infections and improving overall patient outcomes. Controlled release systems embedded within these substrates ensure the protracted dispensation of growth factors, thereby optimizing the reparative milieu and bolstering protracted tissue regeneration. The flexibility and effectiveness of regenerative biomaterials make them ideal for a variety of medical applications, including orthopedics, dentistry, plastic and reconstructive surgery, cardiology, and neurology. Continuous advancements in this field hold substantial promise for improving patient outcomes and revolutionizing the approach to medical treatments, making regenerative biomaterials a cornerstone of modern medicine.

KEYWORDS: Regenerative biomaterials, Tissue engineering, Regenerative therapy, Biomaterial.

INTRODUCTION

EVOLUTION OF BIOMATERIALS: The utilization of exogenous substances, contemporarily designated as biomaterials, elucidates a paradigm shift in the realm of biomedical science, to improve human health dates back to antiquity around 600 AD, the Mayans crafted nacreous teeth from seashells, achieving what currently exists acknowledged as osseointegration. Early Egyptians employed linen sutures for surgical purposes "The conceptualization of artificial hearts and organ perfusion systems dates back to the 4th century BC, although no such devices were actually constructed during that era. Leonardo da Vinci first envisioned contact lenses in 1508. In 1891, the German surgeon Theodor Gluck executed the inaugural hip arthroplasty by utilizing a cemented prosthesis composed of an ivory sphere. Subsequent technological advancements led to the introduction of chrome-based alloys and stainless steel implants, offering enhanced mechanical properties. Experimental efforts in dental implants commenced in 1809, when Maggiolo inserted a gold post anchor into a newly extracted socket. Efforts to develop dialysis units for renal disorders began in 1901 with John Jacob's pioneering attempts to extract toxins from the blood. Substantial progress in this field was achieved by Dr. Scribner from 1921 to 2003 at the University of Washington. In the early 1960s, Thomas Cronin and Frank Gerow at the University of Texas innovated the first silicone breast implant, which has since undergone numerous advancements. Additionally, in 1959, the first fully implantable pacemaker was realized through the collaborative work of engineer Wilson Greatbatch and cardiologist WM Chardack.[2]

Biomaterials have progressed from rudimentary implants to advanced technologies in tissue engineering and regenerative medicine. While some human tissues can naturally regenerate after damage, most cannot fully heal without intervention, especially in cases of severe injury, degenerative diseases, or infections. Early biomaterials were bioinert, primarily serving as structural supports or drug carriers, relying on the body's inherent healing potential.

Advancements in biomaterials and biological research have led to the incorporation of active substances, including drugs and living cells. Traditional tissue engineering involves creating cell-laden biomaterials in vitro before implantation, a process complicated by intricate cell culture requirements and low engraftment rates. As our comprehension of medical sciences and biomaterials advances, it becomes evident that tissue regeneration constitutes an intricate process, profoundly modulated by the intricate interplay between cellular entities and their microenvironment.

Contemporary regenerative biomaterials are inspired by the ability of certain materials to regulate molecular signaling pathways and cellular behaviors, suggesting their potential to guide tissue regeneration without the need for active drugs or cells. This realization has spurred significant interest in developing a new generation of regenerative biomaterials, which not only provide structural support or act as delivery vehicles but also function as active regulators of the regeneration process.

Biomaterials are meticulously engineered to sustain, ameliorate, augment, mend, or supplant corporeal structures tissues or their functions. In recent decades, continuous advancements and refinements in bio-materials have revolutionized numerous medical fields. These materials frequently endure persistent mechanical duress or biochemical attrition, potentially jeopardizing their structural soundness and operational efficacy. Consequently, prodigious investigational endeavors have been marshaled towards the innovation of autogenous reparative biomaterials, endowed with the capacity to stanch or even retrogress deleterious impacts occasioned by mechanical or biochemical perturbations. While self-healing encompasses the restoration of a biomaterial's functional properties, it predominantly refers to the recuperation of structural integrity and mechanical performance. This critique provides an exhaustive disquisition on self-repairing injectable hydrogels, an esoteric subclass of biomaterials that metamorphose into a fluidic state under shear stress and subsequently reconstitute their mechanical attributes. These hydrogels evince prodigious potential for utilizations in tissue regeneration and three-dimensional bioprinting.[3]

We present different sources and applications of regenerative biomaterials, providing a comprehensive overview for a diverse audience. First, we discuss recent advances in biomaterial sources, comparing their benefits and drawbacks and highlighting innovative designs. Next, we examine emergent uses of regenerative biomaterials across various tissues. We further scrutinize contemporary advancements in biomaterials and fabrication methodologies, which have precipitated the inception of an array of materials, encompassing both endogenous and artificial polymeric matrices, for therapeutic applications geared toward the remediation and regeneration of deficits and deformities in DOC structures. By exploiting the inherent attributes of biomaterials at the biotic interface, myriad tissue engineering methodologies and surgical interventions have been conceived and actualized within clinical praxis to efficaciously reinstate tissue morphology and function. The clinical utilization of polymeric scaffolds, whether augmented with supplementary cellular or biological mediators or not, is extensively chronicled in regenerative therapies aimed at tooth structures, periodontal support, alveolar bone, maxillary sinus, temporomandibular joint, and salivary glands.[4]

Studies on biomaterial interactions with cells and tissues, including their relevance to public health emergencies like COVID-19. Finally, we identify challenges for future research and development in regenerative biomaterials and related fields.[2]

Biomaterials for tissue regeneration can be sourced from metals, nonmetallic inorganics, hydrogels, other polymers, and bio-derived materials, each with its unique advantages and limitations.

Sources of biomaterials

1. **Metals**

- **Characteristics:** Known for outstanding mechanical properties and durability.
- **Example:** Titanium (Ti)
- **Uses:** Orthopedic implants due to excellent mechanical properties and high corrosion stability.
- **Enhancements:** Surface modifications (e.g., roughening, micro/nano structures) to promote osteointegration and improve cell-material interactions.
- **Limitations:** Lacking wear resistance, unsuitable for articulating surfaces.
- **Alloys:** Ti6Al4V, known for high mechanical strength and excellent corrosion resistance, often used with surface modifications to enhance biological sealing and osseointegration.

2. **Nonmetallic inorganics**

- **Examples:** Hydroxyapatite, bioactive glasses, bioactive glass-ceramics.
- **Characteristics:** Capacity to integrate with both osseous and soft tissues, promoting tissue regeneration.

3. **Hydrogels**

- **Characteristics:** Highly absorbent, capable of holding large amounts of water, mimicking natural tissue environments.

4. **Polymers**

- **Characteristics:** Diverse types and performances, used for a variety of medical applications.

5. **Bio-Derived materials**

- **Characteristics:** Esteemed as specialized composite medical materials, frequently sourced from natural origins to augment biocompatibility and functionality.

Surface modification techniques for metals

- **Methods:** Grit-blasting, acid-etching, laser method, electrochemical method.
- **Goals:** Enhance osteointegration, improve corrosion resistance, and increase biological activity.
- **Examples:** Coating with bioactive components, extracellular vesicle coatings, fibrinogen-modified implants.

Notable points

- **Ti Implants:** Commonly require surface modification for better cell-material interaction.
- **Composite materials:** Designed to overcome limitations of single-component materials (e.g., adding niobium to titanium for improved tensile performance).
- **Surface chemistry:** Mussel-inspired surface chemistry for multifunctional coatings, enhancing material performance through amino and catechol groups.
- The ideal scaffold should exhibit the following characteristics to achieve the desired biological response
- A three-dimensional, interconnected porous network to facilitate cellular elimination of metabolic waste and unobstructed nutrient flow.
- Exhibits a controllable degradation and resorption rate to synchronize with cellular proliferation.
- Mechanical properties to match those of tissues at the site of implantation.
- Capable of being fabricated in an array of morphologies and dimensions.
- It should mimic the extracellular matrix (ECM) in both its biological functionality and structural composition.[5]

Application in regenerative medicine

Cardiovascular Devices and Implants

Myocardial infarction, colloquially termed a heart attack, represents a principal etiological factor contributing to the prevalence of both mortality and morbidity within contemporary society. In particular, left ventricular remodelling that ensues post-myocardial infarction is the principal aetiology of heart failure.[6] Cardiac prosthetic valves are bifurcated into two principal categories: mechanical and biological. Mechanical valves are delineated into three distinct configurations: the caged-ball mechanism, the single-tilting-disk system, and the bileaflet design. Biological valves are classified based on the origin of their constituent tissues, which includes homograft valves—comprised of preserved human aortic or pulmonary valves—and heterograft bioprosthetic valves—sourced from animal tissues such as porcine cardiac valves or bovine pericardial membranes. Additional cardiovascular implants include stents, which are differentiated into balloon-expandable and self-expanding types based on their expansion mechanism. Immediate post-infarction constraint and mechanical fortification can markedly attenuate infarct expansion and countervail pathological remodeling.[7]

Artificial red blood cell substitutes

Research on red blood cell substitutes aims to develop products for blood replacement therapies, focusing on transporting oxygen and carbon dioxide. Ideal artificial blood products should be safe, Compatible with various blood types, capable of oxygen transport and release, and possessing extended shelf stability. Two main types of artificial blood products are being developed: perfluorocarbons (PFC) and hemoglobin-based products. PFCs are chemically inert compounds that do not react with gases, increase oxygen solubility in plasma, and facilitate oxygen transfer from red cells to tissues.

Extracorporeal artificial organs

These apparatuses extracorporeally process the patient's blood prior to reintegrating it into circulation Examples encompass aeriform and thermal exchangers, dialyzers, apheresis apparatuses, and bioartificial hepatic constructs. Bioartificial liver devices assist patients suffering from acute liver failure by employing hepatocytes within a bioreactor or utilizing non-living components to detoxify. These devices integrate natural or synthetic polymers, such as collagen. Applications extend to orthopaedic uses, dental implants, and cartilage implants.

- **Orthopedic applications:** In bone tissue engineering, metallic prostheses and naturally derived matrices, including hyaluronic acid, chitosan, and collagen, are utilized. Numerous studies have documented the application of self-healing injectable hydrogels for filling bone defects and facilitating healing. These hydrogels are frequently augmented with integrated pharmacological agents, ions, growth factors, stem cells, or microRNAs to further potentiate osteogenesis. Synthetic polymers, including poly(α-hydroxy acid) and polypropylene fumarate, are also utilized, though they may degrade into toxic byproducts. Bioactive inorganic materials, such as bioactive glass, hydroxyapatite, and tricalcium phosphate, exhibit significant potential in bone tissue engineering.

- **Dental implants:** Classified into endosteal or endosseous implants, which penetrate bone tissue, and subperiosteal systems, which interface with external bone surfaces, these implants employ materials such as titanium and its alloys, alumina, and hydroxyapatite-based surface treatments.

- **Cartilage implants:** Scaffolds made from natural polymers (e.g., agarose, alginate, and collagen) and synthetic polymers (e.g., PLA, PGA) are used in cartilage tissue engineering.

Surgical Sutures/Surgical Adhesives

- **Surgical sutures:** Classified into natural sutures (e.g., catgut derived from bovine intestines), synthetic nonabsorbable sutures (e.g., polyester, polyamide), and synthetic absorbable sutures (e.g., glycolide, L-lactide). Degradation of natural materials occurs via enzymolysis, while synthetic materials degrade via hydrolysis.

- **Surgical adhesives:** Include cyanoacrylates, protein glues, hydrogels, tooth and bone cements Cyanoacrylates undergo rapid polymerization in the presence of moisture and blood, making them effective as adhesives.

Albumin as a biomaterial

Albumin, a blood-derived biomolecule, demonstrates significant potential for both autologous and allogeneic tissue engineering applications. It has been effectively employed in the fabrication of coatings, scaffolds, and hydrogels. The subsequent subsections will delve into illustrative examples of albumin's integration with diverse materials or its direct application as a biomaterial in medical innovations.[6]

Stem cell

Research has elucidated that the integration of biomaterials with stem cell therapy can significantly enhance the regeneration of muscle and bone tissues. Stem cells possess the pluripotent capability to differentiate into various tissue types pertinent to aesthetic applications. They drive the differentiation of fibroblasts and endothelial cells, thereby facilitating muscle tissue regeneration. Biomaterials can modulate the stem cell microenvironment, thereby fostering their proliferation and differentiation. These biomaterials establish a conducive milieu for the support of specific cellular functions. Previous investigations have demonstrated that polymeric materials, such as Collagen I, can promote myogenesis. Additionally, proteins like fibrin have also been shown to support myogenic differentiation. Promising outcomes have been observed in animal models of muscle injury, underscoring the potential of these combined approaches for therapeutic applications. In contrast to traditional two-dimensional (2-D) culture systems, a three-dimensional (3-D) scaffold-based model facilitates the spatial arrangement of diverse cell types, promoting a structural organization that more accurately replicates in vivo tissue architecture.[7,8]

Injectable advanced biomaterials

In the facial region, aging is characterized by the progressive loss of soft tissue volume, particularly the atrophy of the skin, resulting from the shrinkage and reorganization of adipose tissue and a decrease in collagen synthesis by fibroblasts. Consequently, strategies aimed at mitigating subcutaneous fat loss or preserving dermal thickness have emerged as pivotal approaches in combating facial aging. One prevalent method for facial rejuvenation involves the use of soft tissue fillers, which augment tissue volume, smooth wrinkles, and immediately address superficial imperfections. However, filler injections are not without risks, and potential side effects may include pain, erythema, hemorrhage, hematoma, allergic reactions, vascular complications, infection, edema, and delayed adverse effects.[7]

Regenerative medicine utilizes an array of biomaterials, each meticulously crafted for distinct medical applications and needs.[1]

Other polymers in regenerative medicine

Polymers form the largest family of biomaterials, offering excellent versatility in their physical forms. Here are some notable uses and advancements:

Synthetic polymers

- **Poly (Methyl methacrylate) (PMMA):** Known as bone cement, used for bone repair.

- **Polyetheretherketone (PEEK):** Applied in orthopedic implants.
- **Polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE):** Utilized as an implant material owing to its biocompatibility and superior mechanical properties.
- **Biodegradable polymers**
- **PLGA (Poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid)) and PLLA (Poly(L-lactic acid))**: Used extensively in drug delivery and cardiovascular stents.

Modifications to enhance bioactivity

- Synthetic polymers often lack biological recognition, so physical and chemical modifications are employed.
- **Integrin ligands:** Immobilizing ligands like arginine-glycine-aspartic acid (RGD) peptides to promote cell adhesion, migration, and differentiation.
- **Advanced techniques:** Nanolithography and micropatterning for controlled surface modification and functionalized patterns for better spatial distribution.

Natural polymers

- **Silk fibroin:** Initially employed in sutures, this material has expanded its applications to encompass drug delivery and tissue repair, owing to its exceptional biocompatibility and modulable degradation properties.
- **Chitosan:** Known for its biocompatibility and biodegradability.
- **Hyaluronic Acid and Alginate:** Used in hydrogels for drug delivery and tissue engineering. Alginate transforms into a hydrogel with divalent cations and is used for injectable biomaterial vaccines.

Mechanical property enhancement

Polymers sometimes have insufficient mechanical properties. Enhancements include:

- **New polymer development**
- **Optimizing Condensed-State properties**
- **Polymer-Based composites:** E.g., incorporating laponite in polycaprolactone scaffolds or embedding nanohydroxyapatite in collagen hydrogels.

Advanced polymeric materials

- **Orthodontic treatments:** Modern clear aligners made from polymer films, offering precision and better patient experience compared to traditional metal braces.

DISCUSSION

Regenerative biomaterials are critical in modern medicine due to their unique therapeutic properties that address various medical challenges. They promote enhanced healing and tissue regeneration by providing a scaffold that supports tissue growth and regeneration, leading to accelerated recovery and reduced complications such as infection and prolonged inflammation. These materials are highly biocompatible and safe, minimizing immune responses and ensuring they do not harm patients over time. The ability to engineer materials at the molecular level allows for customized therapeutic solutions tailored to meet specific patient needs and medical conditions. This versatility enables their use in a wide range of applications, from bone regeneration to soft tissue repair, drug delivery, and wound healing. Regenerative biomaterials can be designed to match the mechanical properties of the tissues they replace, ensuring better functional outcomes, while their bioactivity promotes cell adhesion, proliferation, and differentiation for more effective and integrated healing processes.

Moreover, these materials minimize long-term complications through controlled degradation, matching the rate of tissue regeneration and providing sustained therapeutic effects by releasing bioactive molecules in a controlled manner. They also drive innovation in medical treatments, creating advanced drug delivery systems that release medications in a controlled manner, targeting specific areas and reducing systemic side effects. Regenerative biomaterials can replace traditional implants, offering improved integration and function within the body. In addressing public health challenges, these materials can be rapidly developed and deployed during emergencies, such as pandemics, for vaccines and treatments, and offer new solutions for managing chronic conditions like heart disease and diabetes by promoting the regeneration of damaged tissues.

Economically, regenerative biomaterials reduce healthcare costs by improving healing times and reducing complications, while enhancing the quality of life for patients through quicker recoveries and better functional outcomes. The therapeutic properties of regenerative biomaterials are essential for advancing medical treatments, improving patient outcomes, and addressing a wide range of medical and public health challenges, providing customized, safe, and effective solutions that enhance the body's natural healing processes and offer innovative approaches to modern medicine. Bioactive inorganic substances, like bioceramics and bioglass, have shown considerable effectiveness in orthopedic tissue repair owing to their ability to induce bone formation. Nonetheless, the inherent brittleness of many inorganic biomaterials poses a significant limitation, albeit one that can be partially mitigated. Hydrogels, as remarkable soft materials, closely mimic the biomechanical properties of soft tissues. Their high water content and intricate 3D network structures also confer exceptional capabilities for drug delivery.[10]

CONCLUSION

Regenerative biomaterials hold significant therapeutic potential, facilitating tissue repair and functional restoration. These materials can mimic natural tissue properties, promote cell proliferation, and support the body's healing processes. Innovations in biomaterials, such as biocompatible scaffolds and bioactive compounds, have shown promising results in regenerating skin, bone, and other tissues. Their ability to integrate with the body's systems and enhance regeneration without eliciting adverse reactions underscores their value in medical treatments. Ongoing research and development in this domain are imperative to fully realize and broaden the therapeutic applications of regenerative biomaterials.

Future outlook

Regenerative biomaterials inhabit the interdisciplinary vanguard, poised for symbiosis with artificial intelligence and neurobiology, promising transformative advancements in medical devices and drug delivery systems. Continued innovation and collaboration will drive the field forward, offering new insights and advanced treatments for various medical conditions.

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