Improvement of corrosion resistance and biocompatibility of rare-earth WE43 magnesium alloy by neodymium self-ion implantation

Weihong Jin, Guosong Wu, Hongqing Feng, Wenhao Wang, Xuming Zhang, Paul K. Chu

ABSTRACT

Without introducing extraneous elements, a small amount of Nd is introduced into rare-earth WE43 magnesium alloy by ion implantation. The surface composition, morphology, polarization, and electrochemical properties, as well as weight loss, pH, and leached ion concentrations after immersion, are systematically evaluated to determine the corrosion behavior. The cell adhesion and viability are also determined to evaluate the biological response in vitro. A relatively smooth and hydrophobic surface layer composed of mainly Nd$_2$O$_3$ and MgO is produced and degradation of WE43 is significantly retarded. Furthermore, significantly enhanced cell adhesion and excellent biocompatibility are observed after Nd self-ion implantation.

1. Introduction

Biodegradable metals have attracted much attention due to their potential application to temporary implants, including cardiovascular stents [1–3] and orthopedic implants [4,5]. Magnesium-based and iron-based alloys are the primary biodegradable metals, which are capable of degrading relatively safely within the body [6,7], and in particular, magnesium alloys are very promising in biomedical applications [6,8]. Rare-earth magnesium alloys have the advantage that they do not contain aluminum, which may be detrimental to neurons [9]. For example, WE43 Mg alloy, which contains yttrium (Y) and neodymium (Nd), is one of the attractive biomedical rare-earth magnesium alloys [10,11]. Y serves as an effective solid solution hardener because the difference in the atomic radii between Mg and Y atoms is quite large and Y may be introduced in a considerable quantity due to its high solubility in magnesium [12]. As a rare-earth element with limited solubility, Nd contributes to the enhancement of the anti-corrosive properties [13]. Therefore, addition of small quantities of Y and Nd can modify the microstructure and improve the mechanical properties and corrosion resistance of magnesium alloys. Compared to other traditional biomedical materials, such as stainless steels, titanium alloys, and cobalt–chromium alloys, magnesium alloys degrade spontaneously in the physiological environment and a follow-up surgery is not needed to remove the implants after healing [14]. Moreover, the elastic modulus of magnesium alloys matches that of bone, thereby avoiding the stress-shielding effect, which can reduce new bone growth [8]. Additionally, magnesium is an essential element in the human body, plays a vital role in metabolic processes [15], and benefits bone growth [16,17]. However, the rapid degradation rate of magnesium alloys in the aggressive physiological environment has so far limited wider clinical adoption because of mechanical integrity loss before sufficient healing [8], as well as excessive hydrogen evolution during degradation [18]. Unlike products for the automotive, aerospace, and electronics industry, biomedical magnesium implants require both good biocompatibility, as well as controlled degradation. In fact, the ideal biodegradable candidate should have a suitable degradation rate to allow the implant to maintain mechanical support during tissue healing while being nontoxic and compatible to cells [19,20].

Surface treatment is commonly performed to improve the corrosion resistance and biocompatibility of magnesium-based biomedical implants [19–22]. Unlike conventional techniques such as coatings, ion implantation does not change the geometric dimensions of the specimens and introduces a graded surface layer without an abrupt interface, thereby minimizing the risk of layer delamination. Consequently, ion implantation is one of the most effective ways to improve the surface properties of Mg alloys [16,23–25]. Neodymium in the RE WE43 magnesium alloy improves the mechanical properties mainly by grain boundary strengthening, due to the formation of the intermetallic phase in the grain boundary [13,14,26]. It has also been reported that Nd...
can enhance the corrosion resistance of magnesium alloys due to suppression of the galvanic effects by the intermetallic compounds [13,15,27,28] and the surface layer containing neodymium oxide [7,15,22,29]. In addition, Nd has been shown to be biocompatible as relatively high concentrations can be tolerated by various cell types [17,25,30]. In this work, without introducing extraneous elements, a small amount of Nd is ion implanted into WE43 Mg alloy and the effects on the corrosion resistance and biocompatibility as well as mechanisms are studied systematically.

2. Experimental details

2.1. Ion implantation and surface characterization

The as-cast WE43 (Mg–3.79 wt.%Y–2.43 wt.%Nd–1.55 wt.% Gd–0.52 wt.%Zr) magnesium alloy was cut into 10 mm × 1 0 mm × 2 mm plates, ground using different successive grades of SiC abrasive paper (up to 1200 grit), ultrasonically cleaned in ethanol for 10 min, and dried in air. Nd ion implantation was conducted on a metal ion implanter equipped with a neodymium cathodic arc source (HEMII-80, Plasma Technology Ltd., Hong Kong SAR) for 5 h at an accelerating voltage of 30 kV and a base pressure of 5.0 × 10⁻⁴ Pa in the vacuum chamber.

The elemental depth profiles and chemical states were determined by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, PHI 5802, Physical Electronics, Inc., USA) with Al Kx irradiation. The sputtering rate was estimated to be about 7.8 nm/min based on a SiO₂ reference. The surface morphology before and after ion implantation was examined by scanning electron microscopy (SEM, JSM-820, JEOL Ltd., Japan) and atomic force microscopy (AFM, Auto Probe CP, Park Scientific Instruments, USA). The contact angle measurements were performed using 4 μL water droplets on a contact angle goniometer (Model 200, Ramé-Hart, USA) at room temperature and the average value was calculated from three measurements conducted on three different samples. The hardness and elastic modulus were determined by a nano-indentor (Nano Indenter XP, MTS Systems Corporation, USA).

2.2. Corrosion studies

Electrochemical measurements were conducted on an electrochemical workstation (Zennium, Zahner, Germany) using a three-electrode cell. A saturated calomel electrode (SCE) served as the reference electrode, a platinum rod was used as the counter electrode, and the sample constituted the working electrode. All the potentials were relative to SCE if not specified. The electrochemical experiments were conducted in both simulated body fluids (SBF) and complete cell culture medium (cDMEM) composed of Dulbecco’s Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM, Gibco, Life Technologies, USA) and 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Gibco, Life Technologies, USA) at 37 °C. The SBF solution with a pH of 7.4 contained ions with the following concentrations: 142.0 Na⁺, 5.0 K⁺, 1.5 Mg²⁺, 2.5 Ca²⁺, 147.8 Cl⁻, 4.2 HCO₃⁻, 1.0 HPO₄²⁻, and 0.5 SO₄²⁻ mM, which are close to those in human blood plasma. The SBF was prepared by dissolving the following reagent grade chemicals: 8.035 g/L NaCl, 0.355 g/L NaHCO₃, 0.225 g/L KCl, 0.231 g/L KH₂PO₄, 3H₂O, 0.311 g/L MgCl₂·6H₂O, 1.0 M HCl (39 mL), 0.292 g/L CaCl₂, and 0.072 g/L Na₂SO₄ in distilled water and then buffered at pH 7.4 using 6.118 g/L trishydroxymethyl aminomethane and 1.0 M HCl [31]. The area exposed to the solution was 1 cm² during the electrochemical measurements. After immersion in the solution for 5 min, electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was performed in the frequency between 100 kHz and 100 mHz with a 10 mV peak-to-peak alternating signal at the open circuit potential (OCP). The polarization curves were then acquired at a scanning rate of 1 mV s⁻¹ from −300 mV and 500 mV with respect to the OCP. To monitor the degradation of the untreated and Nd-implanted magnesium alloys, immersion tests were carried out in SBF. The specimens were immersed in 20 mL of SBF and maintained at 37 °C. At each time point, 3 samples were studied to obtain an average value for weight loss, pH, and ion concentrations. At different immersion time of 1, 3, and 7 days, the specimens were taken out from the SBF and the corrosion products formed on the sample surface were removed using chromic acid (200 g L⁻¹ CrO₃ + 10 g L⁻¹ AgNO₃). The samples were then rinsed with deionized water and dried overnight for subsequent weight measurements. The pH of the extracted SBF was monitored at the three intervals. The concentrations of leached magnesium, alloying elements, calcium, and phosphate species were determined by inductively-coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES, PE Optima 2100DV, Perkin Elmer, USA). In addition, both the surface morphology and composition of the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 samples after immersion in SBF for 2, 12, and 36 h were examined by SEM equipped with energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS, INCAx-sight, Oxford Instruments, UK).

2.3. In vitro studies

Mouse MC3T3-E1 pre-osteoblasts were used in the in vitro cell culture experiments. The MC3T3-E1 cells were cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere with 5% CO₂. Prior to the cell adhesion experiments, the samples were sterilized with 70 vol% ethanol for 30 min and rinsed three times with sterile phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). The MC3T3-E1 cells were seeded on the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 samples after immersion in SBF for 2, 12, and 36 h by examination with SEM equipped with energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS, INCAx-sight, Oxford Instruments, UK).

The in vitro cell viability was evaluated by an indirect method. The untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 samples were first immersed into DMEM at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere with 5% CO₂ for 3 days. The ratio of the sample surface area to DMEM was 1.25 cm²/mL. The solution was collected and filtered through a 0.22 μm filter (Merck Millipore, Germany) for the following experiments. The extracts were stored at 4 °C and supplemented with 10% FBS prior to usage. 5.0 × 10⁵ MC3T3-E1 cells per well were seeded on a 96-well culture plate. After incubation for 24 h, the medium was replaced by 100 μl of the medium containing different concentrations of the extracts. The control groups were treated with DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS. After incubation for 1 and 3 days, 10 μl of (3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide were added to each well and incubated for another 4 h. 100 μl dimethyl sulfoxide was added to dissolve the formed formazan. The absorbance was determined at 570 nm on a microplate spectrophotometer (BioTek Eon, BioTek Instruments Inc., USA). The cell viability is calculated by (ODsample/ODcontrol) × 100%.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Surface characterization

The XPS depth profile of the Nd-implanted WE43 is depicted in Fig. 1 and the high-resolution Mg 1s, Y 3d, Nd 3d, and O 1s spectra
of the Nd-implanted WE43 are shown in Fig. 2. As shown in Fig. 1, a thin Nd-rich layer is formed on the Nd-implanted WE43 sample and the peak Nd concentration is about 38%. Compared to the bulk substrate with a size of 10 mm × 10 mm × 2 mm, the amount of Nd implanted is much smaller since the implanted depth of Nd is approximately 160 nm. Oxygen is also observed from the top layer as well as relatively deeply into the Nd-implanted sample possibly due to the formation of magnesium oxide/hydroxide [32] and oxygen contamination [33]. The high-resolution Nd 3d spectrum in Fig. 2(c) shows Nd 3d⁵⁄₂ at 982.6 eV, which indicates the formation of Nd₂O₃ on the surface of the implanted sample [34]. The valence state of neodymium gradually changes to the metallic state accompanied by gradually declining O 1s intensity (Fig. 2(d)) with increasing sputtering time. The Nd₂O₃ layer is about 70 nm, which acts as the main barrier against corrosion of the magnesium substrate in the corrosive environment. The surface magnesium exists in the form of oxidized state (Mg²⁺), which may be assigned to magnesium oxide/hydroxide [32]. As shown in Fig. 2(a), the magnesium peak intensity from 0 to 6 min is very weak, indicating small amounts of magnesium oxide/hydroxide in the top layer. As sputtering continues, some of the magnesium changes into the metallic state (Mg⁰), while oxidized magnesium is still detected, indicating the formation MgO [16,23] in a relatively thick layer, which can further serve as a barrier against magnesium corrosion. Yttrium is not abundant in the near surface as inferred from the decreased yttrium signal after Nd implantation but after sputtering for 9 min, yttrium is detected in the metallic state [33,35]. As shown in Fig. 2(d), the oxygen peak at 0 min corresponds to the formation of Nd₂O₃ and Mg(OH)₂/MgO compounds. With increasing sputtering time, the oxygen peaks shift toward the negative direction and then the positive direction, suggesting that the content of Nd₂O₃ increases and then decreases. The trend is in accordance with the results in Fig. 2(c). After sputtering for 12 min, the oxygen peak is attributed to the formation of MgO. This suggests that Nd ion implantation produces Nd₂O₃ in the top layer near the surface.

![Fig. 1. XPS depth profile of the Nd-implanted WE43.](image)

![Fig. 2. High-resolution XPS spectra of (a) Mg 1s, (b) Y 3d, (c) Nd 3d, and (d) O 1s acquired at different sputtering time from the Nd-implanted WE43.](image)
and MgO in the inner layer, both of which keep the Mg substrate away from the external aggressive medium to lessen corrosion.

The SEM and AFM images of the WE43 samples before and after Nd ion implantation are depicted in Fig. 3, which reveals obvious changes in the surface morphology after ion implantation. The untreated sample has a relatively rough surface with some scratches produced by mechanical grinding (Fig. 3a and c), but the surface becomes smoother after Nd ion implantation, with only some intrusions appearing on the surface of the Nd-implanted sample surface (Fig. 3b and d). The \(\alpha\)-Mg matrix and some second phases with different size and shape (referring to the arrows) are also present in the microstructure of the WE43 sample before and after ion implantation. The root-mean-square roughness value of the untreated WE43 is 10.9 nm, which is larger than 1.2 nm of the Nd-implanted WE43 (scanned area of 5 \(\mu\)m \(\times\) 5 \(\mu\)m). Generally, the surface roughness of the materials affects the corrosion resistance. A smooth surface is beneficial to corrosion resistance due to the relatively homogeneous structure and small difference in the electrode potential between the peaks and valleys [36–38]. Since Nd ion implantation results in a relatively smooth surface, the corrosion resistance is expected to improve. Fig. 4 shows the water contact angles measured from the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 samples. The contact angle of the untreated WE43 sample is 35.8°, while that of the Nd-implanted sample increases to 71.2°. A larger contact angle is related to lower surface energy indicating that the Nd-implanted surface is more hydrophobic. Fig. 5 shows the hardness and elastic modulus values of the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 samples. The mechanical performance is an important consideration for biomedical magnesium alloys [39]. Compared to traditional biomedical materials, magnesium alloys have relatively low strength, which needs to be enhanced to provide firm support. Generally, the materials hardness is proportional to the materials strength [40] and a bigger Young modulus is related to larger plastic resistance [41]. There have been research activities trying to improve the surface mechanical properties of different biomedical materials using different methods [42,43]. With increasing displacement into the surface, the hardness and elastic modulus decrease gradually due to the gradient structure and then reach stable values representing the values of the bulk substrate. The results show that Nd ion implantation improves the surface mechanical properties.

3.2. Corrosion behavior

Before the EIS and polarization tests, the OCP of the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 were observed for 300 s after immersion in SBF and cDMEM at 37 °C as shown in Fig. 6. In both SBF and cDMEM, the OCP of the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 exhibits noble shifts with respect to the immersion time. At the beginning, the potential of the untreated WE43 is \(-2030\) mV and \(-1794\) mV in SBF and DMEM, respectively, while the potential of the Nd-implanted WE43 is \(-1920\) mV and \(-1761\) mV in SBF and DMEM, respectively. After immersion for 300 s, compared to the untreated WE43 (about 18 mV vs. SCE in SBF and 59 mV vs. SCE in cDMEM), the Nd-implanted WE43 shows potential shifts of about 67 mV vs. SCE and 78 mV vs. SCE in SBF and cDMEM, respectively. Therefore, the Nd-implanted WE43 shows larger noble potential shifts, which indicates the corrosion rate is likely to be
retarded with respect to time and better protection is performed on the Nd-implanted WE43 samples.

Fig. 7(a) and (b) display the polarization curves of the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 in SBF and cell culture medium. The cathodic and anodic polarization curves represent cathodic hydrogen evolution and anodic dissolution of the samples, respectively. As shown in Fig. 7(a) and (b), the corrosion potential ($E_{\text{corr}}$) and corrosion current density ($I_{\text{corr}}$) are calculated by Tafel extrapolation of the cathodic polarization curve due to a non-symmetrical polarization curve between the anodic and cathodic branches [44,45]. The $E_{\text{corr}}$, $I_{\text{corr}}$, and Tafel slope $b_c$ values obtained from the polarization curves are listed in Table 1. Compared to the untreated WE43 samples ($555.7 \pm 65.0 \, \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ in SBF and $2.55 \pm 0.79 \, \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ in the cell culture medium), the Nd-implanted WE43 samples exhibit significantly low $I_{\text{corr}}$ of $11.9 \pm 4.9 \, \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ in SBF and $0.50 \pm 0.06 \, \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ in the cell culture medium. The corrosion rate is determined by the corrosion current density, one of the most important parameters in corrosion resistance characterization. The smaller corrosion current density corresponds to a lower corrosion rate. Therefore, corrosion of the WE43 magnesium alloy is significantly retarded by Nd implantation. The corrosion rate of both the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 is faster in SBF than the cell culture medium, and it is mainly due to the high concentration of chloride ions in SBF [31] and protein adsorption on the materials surface acting as an inhibitor against corrosion in the cell culture medium [46]. The improvement in the corrosion resistance in SBF is more obvious than that in the cell culture medium because $I_{\text{corr}}$ shows a 50-fold decrease in SBF but only a 5-fold decrease in the cell culture medium. All in all, the polarization results reveal that Nd implantation deters magnesium degradation both in SBF and cell culture medium.
To investigate and understand the corrosion processes at the electrode/electrolyte interface, EIS is conducted. Fig. 8 depicts the Nyquist plots of the WE43 samples in SBF and cell culture medium before and after ion implantation. Two capacitive loops in the high and low frequency regions are observed from both solutions. They are obvious in SBF and overlap in the cell culture medium. The high frequency capacitive loop is attributed to charge transfer whereas the capacitive loop in the low frequencies results from mass transportation through the corrosion product layer. The Nd-implanted WE43 shows large capacitive loops in both solutions. It is well known that a larger capacitive loop contributes to better corrosion resistance. Therefore, the Nyquist results suggest that the corrosion resistance of the WE43 magnesium alloy is greatly enhanced in SBF and cell culture medium after Nd ion implantation.

In the electrical equivalent circuit, each resistor–capacitor parallel circuit corresponds to the relevant capacitive time constant. According to the physical structure of the electrode, two electrical equivalent circuits with two time constants shown in Fig. 8(c) and (d) are used to fit the experimental data of the Nyquist plots for both SBF and cell culture medium, respectively. The same materials may have different EIS behavior in different solutions and different electrical equivalent circuits are used to fit the EIS results [47]. In this work, the EIS plots of the same sample in the two different solutions exhibit two semicircles, but the two semicircles in the cell culture medium are indistinct. SBF is composed of mainly inorganic salts, whereas the cell culture medium also contains some proteins. This may result in different corrosion behavior revealed by different EIS plots. Two relatively clear semicircles appear in the case of SBF, while the two capacitive loops interact with each other for the cell culture medium as shown in the Nyquist and Bode plots. Good fits are observed from the Nyquist and Bode plots, as well as the values of chi-square in Table 2. $R_s$ corresponds to the solution resistance between the working electrode and reference electrode. The constant phase element, $CPE_1$, represents the capacitance of the oxidized surface layer or corrosion products and $R_1$ indicates the corresponding resistance against the mass transportation. $CPE_2$ is the double layer capacitance at the electrolyte/substrate surface and $R_2$ represents the relevant charge transfer resistance. According to the two electrical equivalent circuits, the fitted values are obtained from the Nyquist plots of the WE43 samples before and after ion implantation as listed in Table 2. Theoretically, the $R_s$ values should be the same for alloys with different compositions in the same solution. The $R_s$ values obtained from the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 are 17.97 $\Omega \text{cm}^2$ and 14.82 $\Omega \text{cm}^2$, respectively, which are not exactly the same but close. Hong et al. [48] and Moradi et al. [49] have also observed a small difference in $R_s$ from the materials in the same solution. The relatively small difference in the solution resistance for different materials may be caused by experimental errors. Compared to the untreated substrate in SBF, the Nd-implanted sample exhibits an approximately 550-fold and 50-fold increase in $R_1$ and $R_2$ and an about 105-fold and 29-fold decrease in $CPE_1$ and $CPE_2$, respectively. $R_1$ and $R_2$ are two essential parameters to evaluate the corrosion resistance and good anti-corrosion property is achieved by large $R_1$ and $R_2$ usually corresponding to small $CPE_1$ and $CPE_2$. Generally, a Mg(OH)$_2$ layer is formed during initial immersion in the corrosive solution. The smaller $R_1$ and $R_2$ of the untreated WE43 are related to the Mg(OH)$_2$ layer with less protective ability, thus giving rise to easy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$E_{corr}$ (mV vs. SCE)</th>
<th>$I_{corr}$ ($\mu$A/cm$^2$)</th>
<th>$b_c$ (mV/decade)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WE43</td>
<td>Nd-implanted WE43</td>
<td>WE43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-1992 ± 4</td>
<td>-1740 ± 26</td>
<td>-1705 ± 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>555.7 ± 65.0</td>
<td>11.9 ± 4.9</td>
<td>2.55 ± 0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-361 ± 21</td>
<td>-335 ± 35</td>
<td>-244 ± 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 8. Nyquist plots of the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 in (a) SBF and (b) cDMEM and equivalent circuits of the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 in (c) SBF and (d) cDMEM.
attack by the corrosive chloride ions and other species diffusing through the porous structure. The Mg(OH)₂ layer tends to be dissolved in the SBF with abundant chloride ions, thus exposing the magnesium substrate underneath for more corrosion. This porous layer also has a poor ability to resist mass transportation, thereby making it easier for chloride ions to penetrate the magnesium substrate. Thus, the native corrosion layer formed on the untreated WE43 tends to rupture and cannot protect the substrate. On the other hand, the significantly larger $R_1$ and $R_2$ of the Nd-implanted WE43 are attributed to the protective gradient layer containing $\text{Nd}_2\text{O}_3$ and MgO formed by Nd ion implantation. The stable and protective $\text{Nd}_2\text{O}_3$ is mainly responsible for the anti-corrosion properties while the inner MgO layer reinforces the protection of the substrate [50–52]. In the cell culture medium, the two capacitive loops interact with each other, which can be seen from the Nyquist and Bode plots. It is difficult to separate the components of the electrical equivalent circuits. Therefore, a much larger $R_2$ value but a smaller $R_1$ value is observed for the Nd-implanted WE43. In this condition, the anticorrosion properties of materials are usually evaluated by the sum of the $R_1$ and $R_2$ values [53]. Although the $R_1$ value of the Nd-implanted WE43 is smaller than that of the untreated WE43 in the cell culture medium, the $R_2$ value is several orders of magnitude larger than the $R_1$ value and the $R_2$ value of the Nd-implanted WE43 is approximately 18 times as much as that of the untreated WE43. Compared to the untreated WE43 ($7.6463 \times 10^3 \Omega \text{cm}^2$), the total resistance of the Nd-implanted WE43 increases to $1.3512 \times 10^5 \Omega \text{cm}^2$, which indicates the corrosion resistance of the Nd-implanted WE43 is greatly higher than.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SBF</th>
<th>Nd-implanted WE43</th>
<th>cDMEM</th>
<th>Nd-implanted WE43</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$R_s$ ($\Omega \text{cm}^2$)</td>
<td>17.97</td>
<td>14.82</td>
<td>16.93</td>
<td>16.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$CPE_1$ ($\Omega^{-2} \text{cm}^{-2} \text{S}^{-1}$)</td>
<td>$7.294 \times 10^{-3}$</td>
<td>$6.954 \times 10^{-3}$</td>
<td>$1.740 \times 10^{-5}$</td>
<td>$1.667 \times 10^{-6}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n_1$</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R_1$ ($\Omega \text{cm}^2$)</td>
<td>6.59</td>
<td>3626</td>
<td>135.3</td>
<td>18.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$CPE_2$ ($\Omega^{-2} \text{cm}^{-2} \text{S}^{-1}$)</td>
<td>$3.45 \times 10^{-5}$</td>
<td>$1.17 \times 10^{-5}$</td>
<td>$8.06 \times 10^{-7}$</td>
<td>$3.07 \times 10^{-7}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n_2$</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R_2$ ($\Omega \text{cm}^2$)</td>
<td>64.42</td>
<td>3253</td>
<td>7.511</td>
<td>1.351 $\times 10^5$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\chi^2$</td>
<td>$3.75 \times 10^{-5}$</td>
<td>$7.06 \times 10^{-4}$</td>
<td>$7.76 \times 10^{-4}$</td>
<td>$2.58 \times 10^{-4}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 9. (a and b) Bode impedance and (c and d) Bode phase angle plots of the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 in SBF and cDMEM.

Table 2
Fitted EIS results of WE43 and Nd-implanted WE43 in SBF and cDMEM based on the corresponding equivalent circuit models.
that of the untreated WE43 in the cell culture medium. Compared to the untreated WE43, the Nd-implanted WE43 also shows a smaller \( CPE_1 \) in the cell culture medium. Generally, \( R_1 \) is inversely proportional to \( CPE_1 \). The nondistinct separation of the two interacting semicircles may also result in the deviation of the relationship between \( R_1 \) and \( CPE_1 \). It is not ideal in the actual simulation and has also observed by other researchers [54–56]. Thus, a small deviation in the \( R_1 \) and \( CPE_1 \) values should be acceptable. The results suggest that Nd ion implantation significantly enhances the corrosion resistance of the WE43 magnesium alloy in SBF and cell culture medium, although the improvement in the latter is not as substantial as similar to the polarization curves.

Fig. 9 depicts the Bode impedance and phase angle plots of the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 in SBF and cell culture medium. The Bode plots characterize the anticorrosion performance from different aspects and more direct information about the corrosion resistance can be obtained. Zahrani and Alfantazi [57], Cvijovic-Alagic et al. [58], and Osorio et al. [59] also discussed both the Nyquist and Bode plots in their papers. Compared to the untreated substrate, the Nd-implanted sample shows larger impedance and phase angle over the entire frequency range. The impedance of the Nd-implanted WE43 at the low frequency of 100 mHz shows a 86-fold increase in SBF and 11-fold increase in the cell culture medium. The maximum phase angle of the Nd-implanted WE43 increases from 32.1° ± 1.4° of the untreated WE43 to 73.0° ± 1.0° in SBF and from 67.8° ± 4.2° of the untreated WE43 to 81.7° ± 0.4° in the cell culture medium, respectively. According to the literature [60,61], the impedance at low frequency such as 100 mHz is an appropriate parameter to evaluate the protective properties and higher impedance at low frequency corresponds to better
protective performance because the impedance at the low frequency corresponds to the resistance against mass transportation of the dissolved ions through the oxidized/product layer. The remarkable increase of the impedance in the low frequency region of the Nd-implanted WE43 implies greatly improved corrosion resistance in the corrosive media. The larger phase angle corresponds to the more capacitive response which indicates that penetration of the corrosive solution through the oxidized/product layer to the substrate becomes weak and the current flowing through the defects in the oxidized/product layer becomes less significant [62]. The maximum phase angle peak at the higher frequency is mainly due to the formation of the surface film on the electrode surface [63] and a larger the maximum phase angle corresponds to better corrosion resistance. Hence, the corrosion resistance is enhanced in both SBF and cell culture medium. In addition, the improvement in the maximum phase angle and impedance at low frequencies is more obvious in SBF than the cell culture medium, implying that Nd ion implantation can enhance the corrosion resistance in the both corrosive media, albeit more effective in SBF. The Bode impedance and phase angle results are consistent with those obtained by polarization and Nyquist studies.

Figs. 10–12 show the surface morphology at different magnification and corresponding EDS data of the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 samples after immersion in SBF for 2, 12, and 36 h. According to the surface morphology images, severe corrosion is observed from the untreated WE43 surface after immersion in SBF but there is less local corrosion on the Nd-implanted surface even after immersion in SBF for 36 h. The corroded regions show...
some cracks which tend to become channels for penetration of the corrosive solution leading to further corrosion of the magnesium substrate. Only slight corrosion is observed from the Nd-implanted WE43 sample surface after immersion for 2 h, although some cracks appear after 12 and 36 h. However, the corroded area is still much less than that on the untreated sample. According to EDS, the corrosion products on the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 samples immersed in SBF consist of Mg, O, Ca, and P stemming from MgO, Mg(OH)$_2$, phosphate, and carbonate. The same elements but different ratios are observed after immersion for different time. The EDS data are collected from the severely corroded regions (Figs. 10(g) and (i), 11(g) and (i), and 12(g) and (i)) and slightly or un-corroded regions (Figs. 10(h) and (j), 11(h) and (j), and 12(h) and (j)). The tabulated analysis shows only the relative amounts of Mg, Ca, and P, but O is not determined quantitatively. The quantitative analysis of all the elements is preferred and can provide more persuasive information. Generally, EDS is semi-quantitative. If light elements with atomic numbers less than 11 such as oxygen are included, the elemental contents deviate from the actual values. For instance, Jamessh [64] determined the elemental contents by EDS by including only the relatively heavy elements such as Mg, Ca, and P. Determination of the relative concentrations of heavy elements imparts useful information about the corrosion products and here, we show the concentration of these important elements excluding oxygen. Compared to the untreated WE43 sample, the Nd-implanted WE43 samples have smaller concentrations of Ca and P but larger amount of Mg and a similar trend is observed from the seriously corroded areas as well. Even after immersion for 36 h, there are still some regions showing Mg on the Nd-implanted sample, indicating the absence of corrosion.
These results suggest that corrosion of the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 surface continues with immersion time, but the corrosion propagation is much slower on the Nd-implanted WE43 sample.

Fig. 13(a) shows the concentrations of Mg, Ca, and P released from the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 samples determined by ICP-OES. The Mg ion concentration increases gradually with immersion time as expected. After 1 day, the Mg concentration released from the implanted sample is only 97.0 ppm, which is much smaller than 216.3 ppm released from the untreated WE43 sample. Even after 3 and 7 days, the Nd-implanted WE43 sample releases much less Mg than the untreated WE43 sample. In addition, compared to fresh SBF, the Ca and P concentrations of both the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 exhibit no big change in the beginning and then decrease due to the insoluble Ca and P corrosion products. Small concentrations of Ca and P are observed from the untreated WE43 samples, which is in accordance with the larger Ca and P contents in the corrosion products of the untreated WE43 sample as shown by EDS. The alloying element concentrations leached from the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 are also determined to be less than 0.4 μg/mL, as shown in Fig. 13(b), while the concentrations measured from the extracted SBF of the Nd-implanted WE43 samples are smaller than those determined from the extracted SBF of the untreated WE43. Fig. 13(c) presents the corresponding pH values measured from the extracted SBF of the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 samples. A gradual increase in the pH over time is observed from the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 samples. The pH increases from 7.99 to 9.04 for the untreated WE43 and varies between 7.68 and 8.76 for the Nd-implanted WE43. As shown in Fig. 13(c), the weight losses measured from the Nd-implanted WE43 samples are obviously smaller than those measured from the untreated WE43 samples at each time interval. All in all, the immersion test furnishes experimental evidence that the degradation rate of the WE43 magnesium alloy is mitigated by Nd ion implantation.

To fathom the corrosion process and reason for the improved corrosion resistance of the WE43 magnesium, the mechanism proposed by Song [65] is adopted here. After immersion in the solution, the magnesium matrix surrounding the second phase dissolves (Eq. (1)) because the second phase is nobler and less reactive than the magnesium matrix being the anodic electrode [66]. Simultaneously, hydrogen is produced due to the cathodic reaction (Eq. (2)), which results in a local alkaline condition. A magnesium hydroxide Mg(OH)₂ layer with a porous structure is formed (Eq. (3)) in the corrosion regions due to the favorable alkaline environment as follows:

\[
\text{Mg} \ (s) \rightarrow \text{Mg}^{2+} \ (aq) + 2e^- \quad \text{(anodic reaction)} \quad (1)
\]

\[
2\text{H}_2\text{O} \ (aq) + 2e^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2 \ (g) + 2\text{OH}^- \ (aq) \quad \text{(cathodic reaction)} \quad (2)
\]

\[
\text{Mg}^{2+} \ (aq) + 2\text{OH}^- \ (aq) \rightarrow \text{Mg(OH)}_2 \ (s) \quad \text{(product formation)} \quad (3)
\]

\[
\text{Mg} \ (s) + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \ (aq) \rightarrow \text{Mg(OH)}_2 \ (s) + \text{H}_2 \ (g) \quad \text{(overall reaction)} \quad (4)
\]
The Mg(OH)₂ corrosion layer formed on the magnesium alloys is stable only in an alkaline solution with a pH of over 11.5 \[^{[67]}\]. Therefore, the insoluble Mg(OH)₂ is normally transformed into insoluble MgCl₂ in a solution with corrosive chloride ions. The process continues into the substrate until the corrosion medium is exhausted. Accompaning the corrosion process, hydroxyapatite is formed because the previously formed Mg(OH)₂ provides favorable sites for hydroxyapatites nucleation and its continuous growth is maintained by consuming Ca and P species in the surrounding solution. The magnesium dissolution process increases the Mg, as well as alloying element concentrations, but decreases the Ca and P concentration in the corrosive solution, resulting in increasing pH and formation of the corrosion products containing Mg, O, Ca, and P. In comparison with the untreated WE43 magnesium alloy, the Nd-implanted WE43 is better protected by the implanted layer containing stable and protective Nd₂O₃ and partially-protective MgO. The oxide layer serves as a strong barrier against corrosion and greatly retards magnesium dissolution. Nevertheless, there are still a few regions on the Nd-implanted WE43 sample not covered well by the oxide. In these regions, the corrosive solution can still overcome the surface layer to reach the substrate, giving rise to local corrosion of the Nd-implanted WE43 surface. The area of the substrate exposed to the corrosive solution is restricted by the oxide layer and the implanted layer is able to effectively delay the corrosion process of the magnesium alloy \[^{[53]}\]. Therefore, a smaller degradation rate is observed from the Nd-implanted WE43 and the ensuing environmental changes induced by the Nd-implanted WE43 are much less than those by the untreated WE43. The environmental changes can influence the biological properties of the magnesium alloys to be discussed in the next section.

### 3.3. In vitro studies

Fig. 14 displays the MC3T3-E1 cell morphology on the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 samples after incubation for 5 h. It clearly shows that the number of MC3T3-E1 cells on the Nd-implanted sample is significantly larger than that on the untreated one, implying better initial cell adhesion after the surface treatment. In addition, the MC3T3-E1 cells on the Nd-implanted WE43 sample spread better and have better shape because the attached cells have more flattened membranes and filopodia corresponding to good cell attachment to the materials surface. Compared to the untreated WE43, the Nd-implanted sample exhibits better cell adhesion.

Fig. 15 shows the viability of the MC3T3-E1 pre-osteoblasts cultured in the WE43 and Nd-implanted WE43 extraction media with 100%, 70%, 50%, and 10% concentrations for 1 and 3 days. The cell viability is expressed as a percentage of the viability of cells cultured on the control. The viability of the MC3T3-E1 pre-osteoblasts cultured in the extraction medium of the Nd-implanted WE43 sample is close to that of the control at each concentration after incubation for 1 day and similar values are observed after 3 days. However, the untreated WE43 extraction medium, especially at high concentrations, shows significantly reduced cell viability. The MC3T3-E1 cells after incubation with the untreated WE43 extraction medium for 3 days display obviously decreased cell viability. This indicates that the untreated WE43 has high cytotoxicity to the MC3T3-E1 pre-osteoblasts. In comparison with the untreated WE43, the Nd-implanted WE43 shows better biocompatibility.

Besides the good corrosion resistance, good biological properties are required for implantable biomaterials. The Nd-implanted WE43 sample exhibits good cell adhesion and viability. It is possibly because the formation of a relatively smooth, hydrophobic, anti-corrosion, and biocompatible surface layer containing Nd₂O₃ and MgO provides a more stable and favorable environment for cell attachment and cell growth. Other surface characteristics, such as composition, surface roughness, and surface energy, can also influence the cell response, such as adhesion, spreading, and proliferation. Here, the surface properties affect direct cell adhesion due to the direct contact between the cells and materials surface, while there is less influence on indirect cell viability. Cells that spread better tend to proliferate better, and thus, good cell attachment is important to promoting proliferation. A relatively smooth surface has been shown to contribute to better cell adhesion \[^{[68–70]}\]. The Nd-implanted WE43 sample is not as rough as the untreated one, and therefore, the MC3T3-E1 pre-osteoblasts cultured on the untreated WE43 sample spread less and also have a more abnormal shape. In contrast, cells cultured on the

Fig. 14. Fluorescent images of MC3T3-E1 pre-osteoblasts after 5 h incubation on the (a) untreated and (b) Nd-implanted WE43 samples.

Fig. 15. In vitro cell viability of MC3T3-E1 pre-osteoblasts cultured in the extraction medium of the untreated and Nd-implanted WE43 for 1 and 3 days.
Nd-implanted WE43 sample are large in number, spread well, and have a normal shape. As another important factor affecting the cellular behavior, the surface energy of the implantable materials can regulate cell adhesion, spreading, and proliferation. One general observation is that hydrophobic surfaces are beneficial to cell adhesion and proliferation [71,72]. Hence, the lower surface energy on the Nd-implanted WE43 results in better cell attachment. Some researchers have studied the relationship between the contact angle and cellular behavior. The surface interactions are very complex and surface free energy is not correlated to wettability only. Some studies show that a 60°–70° contact angle is ideal for cell attachment and spreading and 65° is commonly regarded as the marginal value for implantable materials [73,74]. The contact angle of the Nd-implanted WE43 increases from 35.8° to 71.2°, thus bonding well for osteoblasts.

The enhanced biological properties of the magnesium alloys are generally related to the improved corrosion resistance [16]. Rapid degradation of magnesium results in excessive formation of corrosion products, such as released metal ions, alkaline environment, and hydrogen bubbles. Cells are very sensitive to environmental fluctuations. Owing to the improved corrosion resistance, the Nd-implanted WE43 sample is able to provide an environment with a pH closer to the normal physiological environment, thus benefitting cell adhesion and growth. The amounts of released Mg and alloying elements from the Nd-implanted WE43 samples are also smaller thus giving rise to the better cell attachment and cell viability [75]. Theoretically, the improved corrosion resistance leads to less hydrogen evolution, thereby providing a stable surface with good biocompatibility. Hydrogen evolution may negatively influence direct cell adhesion because better cell attachment and cell viability are achieved when the cells are cultured in a friendly environment with less adverse stimulation.

4. Conclusion

Rapid degradation of rare-earth magnesium alloys is the major limitation hampering wider application to cardiovascular stents and orthopedic implants. To improve the corrosion resistance of the WE43 magnesium alloy, low-fluence Nd self-ion implantation, which does not involve elements foreign to the alloy, is performed. The XPS, SEM, AFM, and water contact angle results show that a relatively smooth and hydrophobic surface layer composed of mainly Nd₂O₃ and MgO is produced. The Nd-implanted sample exhibits a significantly smaller corrosion current density and higher impedance in both SBF and cell culture medium. Smaller weight loss, smaller pH variation, less leaching of magnesium and alloying elements, and much less severe corrosion are observed from the Nd-implanted WE43 magnesium alloy. The remarkable enhancement in the corrosion resistance is mainly attributed to the stable and protective Nd₂O₃ outer layer, as well as partially protective MgO inner layer. Cells attach and spread well on the Nd-implanted WE43 and cells incubated with the extracted medium of the Nd-implanted WE43 for 3 days show similar viability obtained from the complete cell culture medium, indicating that the Nd-implanted WE43 magnesium alloy has good biocompatibility in vitro. The improvement in the in vitro biological response stems from the improved corrosion resistance and relatively hydrophobic and smooth surface. Our results suggest that Nd self-ion implantation is a promising method to improve both the corrosion resistance and in vitro biocompatibility of the rare-earth WE43 magnesium alloy.

Acknowledgments

This work is financially supported by City University of Hong Kong Research Grants Council (RGC) General Research Funds (GRF) CityU 112212, and Hong Kong Strategic Research Grant (SRG) No. 7004188.

References

