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This is the author's manuscript

Original Citation:

Availability:

This version is available <http://hdl.handle.net/2318/129819> since

Published version:

DOI:10.10110.1016/j.matdes.2012.11.046

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***In-vitro* wear assessments of fixed and mobile UHMWPE total knee replacement**

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Running title: Fixed vs. mobile TKR

Journal: Materials and Design Journal

Special Issue MDT

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1. ABSTRACT

This work discusses the wear behaviour of two different ultra-high-molecular-weight-polyethylene (UHMWPE) tibial component designs. Mobile and fixed bearings were tested on a knee wear simulator for 5 million cycles using bovine calf serum as lubricant. We correlated the wear results with the chemical characterization of the investigated materials: Fourier Transformed Infra Red Spectroscopy analyses, Differential Scanning Calorimetry and cross-link density measurements were used to assess the chemical features of this polyethylene.

Mobile and fixed polyethylene inserts showed a different wear behaviour: the mobile designs components showed lower weight losses than the fixed components (109 ± 6 mg and 163 ± 80 mg, respectively). Significant statistical differences were observed in wear rate ($P = 0.035$, Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for two samples).

From a molecular point of view, typical radiation-induced oxidation profiles were observed in all the tested polyethylene samples, but the overall degradation was more significant in the fixed bearing inserts and this is likely to play a role on the wear performances.

Keywords: wear; mobile TKR; fixed TKR; FTIR analyses; crystallinity.

2. INTRODUCTION

It is well known that the oxidative degradation of ultra-high-molecular-weight-polyethylene (UHMWPE) decreases its mechanical properties, leads to the formation of wear debris and consequently may induce biological responses that cause osteolysis and implant loosening [1-5]. The goal is to develop improved materials in order to extend the lifetime of orthopaedic implants up to 30 years. Several new and pending products aim to address this issue and laboratories wear test can help on this matter.

The objective of wear evaluation is to determine the wear rate and its dependence on the test conditions (i.e. load, range of motion, lubricant and temperature). Under the same material chemical characteristics, wear of knee prosthesis depends on its geometry, kinematics conditions, and absence or presence of soft-tissue. A wear test reproducing *in vivo* working conditions must be performed to obtain realistic results.

Wear mechanisms at the articular surfaces of knee prostheses, are influenced by many factors (including load, motion pattern, component geometry, absence or presence of soft-tissue, etc.) that can cause knee failures [6, 7]. Contact kinematics has been identified as the dominant factor affecting UHMWPE wear in total knee replacement (TKR) [8, 9]. Nevertheless contradictory results are often found in the literature as far as wear on the polyethylene is concerned when mobile or fixed bearing inserts are implanted/tested [10-14]. However, in most of the studies on this subject, almost little or no attention was paid to the material chemical characteristics, such as oxidation, degree of crystallinity and cross-link density, which have often been demonstrated to strongly influence the wear performances [3, 15, 16]. In particular, oxidative degradation is known to reduce the wear resistance of ultra-high molecular weight polyethylene, while cross-linking improves it [17, 18].

TKR implants include both mobile- and fixed-bearings designs. As of now, there is controversy over which design provides superior results [19-21]. Fixed-bearing (FB) knee prosthesis is a knee arthroplasty in which the tibial component is fixed to the tibial bone and does not allow movement of the bearing surface. On the other hand, the concept of the mobile-bearing (MB) knee prosthesis was developed in order to create a dual surface articulation, with a polyethylene insert that articulates in between a metallic femoral component and a tibial tray [22]. This leads to larger contact areas, lower contact stresses and, theoretically, better wear advantages over the fixed bearing. Nevertheless, both designs show excellent survival rates of up to 95% in

28 10-year follow-up [23-25] and comparative studies could not demonstrate the superiority of one or the other
29 design [26-29].

30 To gain more insight into this subject, the present study is aimed at comparing the *in vitro* wear behaviour of
31 mobile and fixed UHMWPE TKR designs, using the same knee simulator under bovine calf serum as
32 lubricant. Furthermore, we aimed at investigating if and how the physico-chemical characteristics of
33 radiation-sterilized UHMWPE can influence the wear performances. The wear behaviour of mobile and fixed
34 UHMWPE bearings was comparatively evaluated by gravimetric measurements, while chemical analyses
35 were performed at a molecular level. At this regard, Fourier Transformed Infra Red Spectroscopy (FTIR)
36 Microscopy, Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC) and cross-link density measurements were used in
37 order to monitor chemical properties across the tibial insert section.

38 **3. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

39 **3.1 Specimens tested**

40 The wear behaviour of TKR fixed and mobile bearing UHMWPE knees (Size #2, 4 specimens for each
41 batch) was investigated using commercially available designs. Each polyethylene tibial insert was coupled
42 with CoCrMo femoral and tibial components. A schematic draft of the mobile and fixed bearing design is
43 showed in Figure 1. The conventional polyethylene resin (GUR 1050) was surgical grade consolidated by
44 compression moulding (according to ISO 5834/2) and γ -sterilised (30 ± 4 KGy).

45 Following a standardized protocol [30], all the UHMWPE inserts were pre-soaked for four weeks before the
46 wear tests was performed. This was conducted in order to achieve a steady level of fluid absorption as
47 recommended by (ISO 14243) international standard.

48 **3.2 Wear test details**

49 A wear test with the same knee simulator and the same kinematics was performed for each design (fixed and
50 mobile). In particular, each wear test ran for five millions cycles using a “three-plus-one” stations simulator
51 (Shore Western Mfg., Monrovia, USA). Three specimens were placed on three different stations while the
52 fourth station was taken by the soak control specimen. Testing was performed to estimate the total change in
53 mass due to lubricant absorption, according to ISO 14243-3. Alignment and load components (axial load,
54 anterior/posterior translation, intra/extra-rotation, flexion/extension) reproduced a simplified gait cycle, as it
55 is usually applied in our laboratory [31-34] and according to ISO 14243-3. Load was applied vertically
56 (perpendicular to the tibial tray), and oscillating in the range 168 to 2600 N to reproduce a physiological
57 profile. The applied kinematics was in displacement control for the following degrees of freedom:

- 58 a. flexion/extension (F/E) angle oscillating between 0° (neutral) and 58° (flexion)
59 synchronously with the load;
- 60 b. anterior/posterior (A/P) translation oscillating between 0.0 mm (neutral) and 5.2 mm
61 (posterior);
- 62 c. intra/extra-rotation (I/E) oscillating between 21.9° (extra-rotation) and 5.7° (intra-rotation).

63 The soak control station allows only synchronous axial load of the same amplitude of the one applied on the
64 three test specimens.

65 The lubricant used was 25% (v/v) sterile bovine calf serum (SIGMA, St. Louis, MI) balanced with deionised
66 water and 0.2% sodium azide (E. Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) to prevent bacterial degradation. The
67 lubricant was maintained at a constant temperature of 37 ± 2 °C during the entire test. Each wear test was run
68 at a frequency of 1.1 Hz. Gravimetric wear of the tibial specimens was assessed at 500,000 cycle intervals.
69 Weight loss was measured using a microbalance (SARTORIUS AG, Göttingen, Germany) with an
70 uncertainty of ± 0.01 mg. Each weight measurement was made in triplicate.

71 A statistical analysis (Kolmogorov-Smirnov non parametric test [35]) was applied to correlate the wear
72 behaviour among all polyethylene samples tested in this study. Statistical significance was set at $P < 0.05$.

73 **3.3 FTIR spectroscopy**

74 A FTIR Microscope (Spectrum Spotlight 300, Perkin-Elmer, Shelton, Connecticut, USA) was used to
75 investigate the chemical characteristics through the thickness of the components. A series of 180 μm thick
76 slices of UHMWPE was microtomed perpendicularly to the articulating surface. A PolyCuts Microtome
77 (Reichert-Jung, NuBlock, Germany) was used at a rate of 10 mm/s in air at room temperature. Line-scan
78 spectra were collected by setting the area of analysis at $100 \times 100 \mu\text{m}^2$; the spectra were recorded every 100
79 μm along the mapping direction, starting from the articulating surface towards the bulk. For the worn inserts,
80 two separate line scans were collected: the first one was performed starting from the most worn area of the
81 bearing surface, the second one was collected starting from the unworn surface of the same sample. We
82 assumed that the analysis of the unworn area could give a reliable picture of the chemical characteristics of
83 each specimen surface prior to wear testing. All spectra were run in the transmission mode with a 4 cm^{-1}
84 resolution and 16 scans per spectrum, and were normalised at 2020 cm^{-1} at an absorption of 0.05,
85 corresponding to a film thickness of ca. 100 μm . The peak at 2020 cm^{-1} , a combination band associated with
86 the twisting of CH_2 , was used as an internal standard, since it can be regarded as unaffected by minor
87 changes in the polymer structure [36].

88 The molar concentration of trans-vinylene double bonds was calculated from the 965 cm^{-1} absorption band,
89 using the molar absorptivity proposed by De Kock and Hol [37].

90 The FTIR ketones absorption at 1718 cm^{-1} was used to characterize the oxidation in the specimens. An
91 oxidation index was calculated, in accordance to ASTM F2102, as the area ratio of the carbonyl peak
92 (between 1650 and 1850 cm^{-1}) to the 1370 cm^{-1} reference peak (between 1330 and 1390 cm^{-1}) from the FTIR
93 spectra.

94 The surface oxidation index (SOI) was calculated as the average of the oxidation indices of the first 3mm of
95 the sample, while the maximum oxidation index (OI) was calculated as the local oxidation index
96 corresponding to the strongest ketones absorption.

97 **3.4 Determination of crosslink density.**

98 The crosslink density was quantified by gravimetric measurements. Small cylinders with diameter of 3 mm
99 and approximate weight of 15 mg were cut out of the inserts and soaked in xylene at 135°C for 3 hours. Two
100 separate measurements were taken on each sample: one specimen was obtained from the unworn region of
101 the bearing surface, the other was cut from the inner bulk. All the experiments were run in triplicate.

102 The swell ratio (ρ) was calculated as:

$$103 \quad \rho = \frac{(V_s + V_x)}{V_s} \quad (1)$$

104 where V_s is the initial volume of the sample, calculated by dividing the initial weight of the sample by the
105 density of UHMWPE (assumed to be 0.93 g/cm^3), and V_x is the volume of the absorbed xylene, calculated
106 by subtracting the initial weight of the sample from its final xylene-swollen weight and dividing the result by
107 the density of xylene (0.75 g/cm^3).

108 The measured ρ values were used to determine the crosslink density, ν_d . The molecular weight between
109 crosslinks, M_c , was calculated using the equations reported by Muratoglu [38].

110 **3.5 Crystallinity.**

111 The crystallinity of the tested samples was determined using a DSC (DSC 6- Perkin-Elmer, Waltham,
112 Massachusetts, USA) at a heating rate of 10°C/min . Again, two distinct regions were tested, one
113 representative of the surface layer (depth $< 1\text{mm}$, unworn area) and the other one of the bulk region (depth $>$
114 3mm). All the experiments were run in duplicate. The sample weights varied around 5 mg. The heat of

115 fusion was calculated by integrating the DSC endotherm from 60 to 160°C. The crystallinity was calculated
116 by normalizing the heat of fusion to the heat of fusion of 100% crystalline polyethylene (293 J/g) [39].

117 4. Results

118 All commercial knee specimens completed all tests. The cumulative (medial plus lateral) weight loss for the
119 two different designs (mobile and fixed) was generally lower for the UHMWPE mobile bearings; an average
120 mass loss of 109 ± 6 mg and 163 ± 80 mg was measured for the MB and FB specimens, respectively. The
121 variation in volumetric wear versus the number of cycles for all inserts is plotted in **Figure 2**. The MB
122 configurations showed wear differences compared to the FB configuration ($P = 0.035$, Kolmogorov-Smirnov
123 Test for two samples). However, it must be stressed that one FB specimen (#2) wore significantly more than
124 the other ones.

125 Visual and microscopic examinations of the bearing surfaces revealed a large damaged areas (16×20 mm) on
126 both medial and lateral condyle for each design; the femoral components showed similar surface features:
127 unidirectional scratches were observed, on both medial and lateral condyle for each design, and along the
128 A/P direction (**Figure 3**). The tibial insert showed longitudinal scratches along the A/P direction and
129 burnishing phenomena indicating a predominance of adhesive wear (**Figure 4**), in agreement with findings
130 by Barnett and co-workers [10].

131 FTIR measurements showed the presence of a trans-vinylene absorption at 965 cm^{-1} , which is well known to
132 be related to irradiation [40, 41]. The trans-vinylene absorption was constant through the inserts cross
133 section, indicating an homogeneously distributed irradiation dose. The trans-vinylene concentration varied
134 between $2,8 \text{ mmol/l}$ and $3,3 \text{ mmol/l}$ among the different samples.

135 **Figure 5** (Parts a and b) shows the FTIR line-scan collected along the cross-section of the unworn and worn
136 region of FB#2, respectively. The strong absorption centered at 1718 cm^{-1} can be attributed to the presence
137 of oxidation products (ketones), whose concentration is maximum at the bearing surface and decreases
138 towards the bulk. Previous studies have shown that absorption of lipids from the synovial fluid in vivo or
139 from the calf serum used as lubricant during in vitro testing may result in a well-defined ester peak absorbing
140 at 1740 cm^{-1} . Besides interfering with the calculated gravimetric wear rate [42], this absorption may
141 complicate the interpretation of the spectra and the calculation of the oxidation index [16, 43]. We verified
142 that the carbonyl peak at the unworn surface of our inserts primarily consisted of a single ketone peak (see

143 **Figure 5**). We also soaked thin sections cut from the inserts in boiling cyclohexane for up to 6 hours and we
144 found no significant changes to the oxidation profiles after extraction.

145 Evidences of oxidation were observed on all samples, although to different levels. No significant differences
146 in oxidation were observed among the worn MBs. The results of MB#2 are then commented hereafter as
147 representative of the MBs group. The maximum oxidation index (OI) calculated on the worn and unworn
148 region of each investigated sample, and the average surface oxidation index (SOI) calculated on the unworn
149 region are reported in Table 1. In all cases, the maximum OI was located right at the surface level. The
150 degree of crystallinity of the polyethylene inserts was constantly higher on the surface than in the bulk
151 (**Table 2**). The cross-link density of the bulk region of the inserts, measured in term of molecular weight
152 between cross-links (M_c), varied between 13500 g/mol for the most heavily oxidized FB#2 and 11000 g/mol
153 for the mildly oxidized control sample MB#4. In contrast, while trying to measure the cross-link density of
154 the surface region of the inserts, we observed that a significant fraction of polyethylene was dissolved into
155 xylene, thus making a reliable calculation of cross-link density impossible.

156 5. Discussion

157 Given the long term issues of polyethylene wear in TKR, clinicians are increasing their interest in new
158 designs. A debate remains about the clinical difference between fixed or mobile bearing TKR. In this study,
159 we were wondering whether mobile TKR design would result in a similar/altered/different wear mechanism
160 with respect to a fixed TKR using the same knee simulator, the same kinematics, and the same size of the
161 UHMWPE inserts. We have also investigated the chemical properties of the tested UHMWPE, in order to
162 evaluate their influence on the observed wear performances.

163 The UHMWPE components were gamma sterilized, but details such as sterilization atmosphere (air or inert)
164 were not specified, as it often happens in commercial products. We used the trans-vinylene groups
165 concentration calculated from the FTIR spectra to assess the actual absorbed radiation dose, following a
166 standardized internal procedure. Radiation doses ranging between 26 and 31 kGy were calculated, in
167 accordance with the manufacturer declaration.

168 All the UHMWPE inserts, including the control unworn samples, showed a characteristic oxidation profile
169 (**Figure 5**), which can be attributed to the radiation sterilization in the presence of oxygen [44, 45].
170 Nevertheless, significant differences in the oxidation levels were observed among different samples (Table
171 1). In particular, while the MB samples showed similar and lower oxidation indexes, significant variations
172 were observed among the FBs, with FB#2 having the highest OI and SOI in the unworn region, followed by
173 FB#1 and FB#3, respectively. The observed differences are not surprising, since it is widely known that the
174 development of a specific oxidation profile results from a combination of heterogeneous parameters, such as
175 irradiation dose rate, temperature of the sterilization facility, oxygen availability, etc. [44]. This often result
176 in significant differences in the oxidation level, even among samples that have identical characteristics
177 (starting material, manufacturing cycle, design, etc.), except for the sterilization batch.

178 The OI observed in the worn region of all tested samples was constantly lower than that of the unworn
179 region, probably because degraded material had been previously removed from the surface by wear, as
180 suggested by the comparison of Figure 3a with 3b. The absence of an FTIR absorption centered at 1740 cm^{-1}
181 on both the worn and the unworn region indicates that diffusion of lipids from the lubricant into UHMWPE
182 was not significant in the present conditions. This is in contrast with previous findings [42].

183 The observed surface oxidation was accompanied by an increase in crystallinity (**Table 2**). A slight increase
184 in crystallinity is always observed in irradiated UHMWPE, being the result of “tie” chain scission, due to
185 irradiation, and rearrangement of those chains into the crystalline structure [46]. Nevertheless, the higher
186 crystallinity observed here on the surface of the inserts, compared to that of the bulk, is a result of further
187 rearranging of smaller chains formed as a part of the oxidation and chain scission cascade [47, 48].

188 The existence of a low molecular weight polyethylene fraction created by radiation-induced degradation is
189 confirmed by the results of the cross-link density measurements: while the cross-link density found in the
190 bulk of the inserts is more or less consistent with a moderately cross-linked, radiation sterilized UHMWPE
191 [38], the same measurement on the oxidized surface region resulted in solubilisation of a significant fraction
192 of the material.

193 It is well known that a correlation between the molecular structure of polyethylene and its wear resistance
194 exists and highly cross-linked polyethylene has been developed to address the need of a higher-molecular
195 weight polyethylene with improved wear performance [15]. Thus, the observed degradation is certainly
196 detrimental for the wear performances of UHMWPE.

197 Although consistent literature on TKR wear tests became available in the last years, to the authors’
198 knowledge, there are not many reports describing in detail both the wear performances and the chemical
199 characterization of implants with different designs, tested with the same knee simulator. The chemical
200 characterization of our samples indicates that the fixed bearings have a more significant degradation in both
201 their upper and lower surfaces. This molecular degradation is likely to be responsible for an increased wear
202 rate of UHMWPE, as well as the multidirectional motion pattern in the femoral articulation of the fixed
203 design, which, as observed by other authors [49, 50], results in a cross-shear stress on the polyethylene
204 contact surface. Moreover, degraded polyethylene on the lower surface of the insert can also exacerbate the
205 backside wear phenomenon, to which fixed bearing designs are known to be particularly subjected [51].

206 These observations appear in agreement with the wear test findings, which indicate a better wear behaviour
207 (in terms of weight loss) of the mobile design, even if the mobile components are free to move in any
208 direction on the tibial tray, resulting in having two articulating interfaces and, therefore, the potential of
209 increased UHMWPE wear. Although large damaged areas were observed on both medial and lateral condyle
210 for each design, as well as a burnishing phenomena indicating a predominance of adhesive wear during knee

211 wear simulation, gravimetric results showed that mobile components worn less than fixed components: the
212 mean gravimetric wear rates were 21.9 mg/million cycles for the mobile and 32 mg/million cycles for the
213 fixed knee design, respectively. These results were in agreement with other studies that compared mobile *vs.*
214 fixed designs using displacement and force control simulators [14, 51, 52].

215 The oxidation trend (FB#2 > FB#1 > FB#3 > MBs) basically reflects an inverse wear resistance trend, even if
216 a moderately higher oxidation level for FB#2 does not account completely for the dramatic difference
217 observed in the wear test. Also, the significant difference in oxidation between FB#3 and MBs does not
218 support the practically insignificant differences in wear. These observations suggest that a more complex set
219 of parameters must be taken into account to determine the wear performance.

220 In conclusion, mobile and fixed bearing designs showed significant statistical differences in wear rate: the
221 mobile bearings exhibited a better wear behaviour, but this may be due either to a more advantageous design
222 or to better material chemical characteristics (i.e. less oxidative degradation) or to a combination of the two.

223 It is recognized that the small number of specimens is a limitation of this study, even if such wear test is
224 expensive and time consuming. Also, it could be questionable if an extended sample size would be sufficient
225 to distinguish the wear behaviour between the two configurations. In particular, the overlapping of two
226 concurrent variables (surface chemical characteristics and design) always makes the overall interpretation of
227 the wear performance a difficult task.

228 **6. Conclusions**

229 This study demonstrated significant differences in the oxidation levels between mobile and fixed TKR
230 designs. All the UHMWPE inserts, including the control unworn samples, showed a characteristic oxidation
231 profile which can be attributed to the radiation sterilization in the presence of oxygen.

232 The overall results of the physical and chemical characterization indicate that the oxidized surfaces of the
233 inserts were already chemically degraded before the wear test. Moreover, they suggest that the present wear
234 experiment, as well as the majority of those involving commercial products, radiation-sterilized in the
235 presence of oxygen, has been performed on samples exhibiting different starting levels of oxidation (i.e.
236 different starting mechanical properties). Overall, we are unable to draw a definite conclusion regarding the
237 advantage of one configuration over the other: the wear experiments seem to indicate a more favourable
238 behaviour of the MB configuration, but the chemical characterisation demonstrated that the FB specimens
239 were more degraded from a chemical point of view and this has certainly influenced the wear performances,
240 independently on the design.

241

242

243 **Acknowledgements**

244 The authors would like to thank Luigi Lena for the pictures and Stefano Falcioni for the performance of the
245 statistical analysis.

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Tables & Figures Captions

Table 1 – Average surface oxidation indexes (SOI) and Maximum oxidation indexes (OI) of representative samples.

Table 2 – Peak melting points and percentage of crystallinity of representative samples.

Figure 1 – Total knee prosthesis tested using a knee simulator: Parts A) & B) show the mobile and fixed designs, respectively.

Figure 2 – Wear behaviour of mobile vs. fixed UHMWPE bearings design tested using a knee simulator.

Figure 3 – Unidirectional scratches were observed, on both medial and lateral condyle for each design, and along the A/P direction. Part A) and Part B) show the femoral components for the fixed and the mobile design, respectively.

Figure 4 – Longitudinal scratches along the A/P direction and burnishing phenomena were observed on both medial and lateral condyle for each design, and along the A/P direction. Part A) and Part B) show the polyethylene menisci for the fixed and the mobile design, respectively.

Figure 5 – FTIR line-scan collected on the specimen FB#2, along the cross-section of the unworn (Part A) and worn region (Part B).

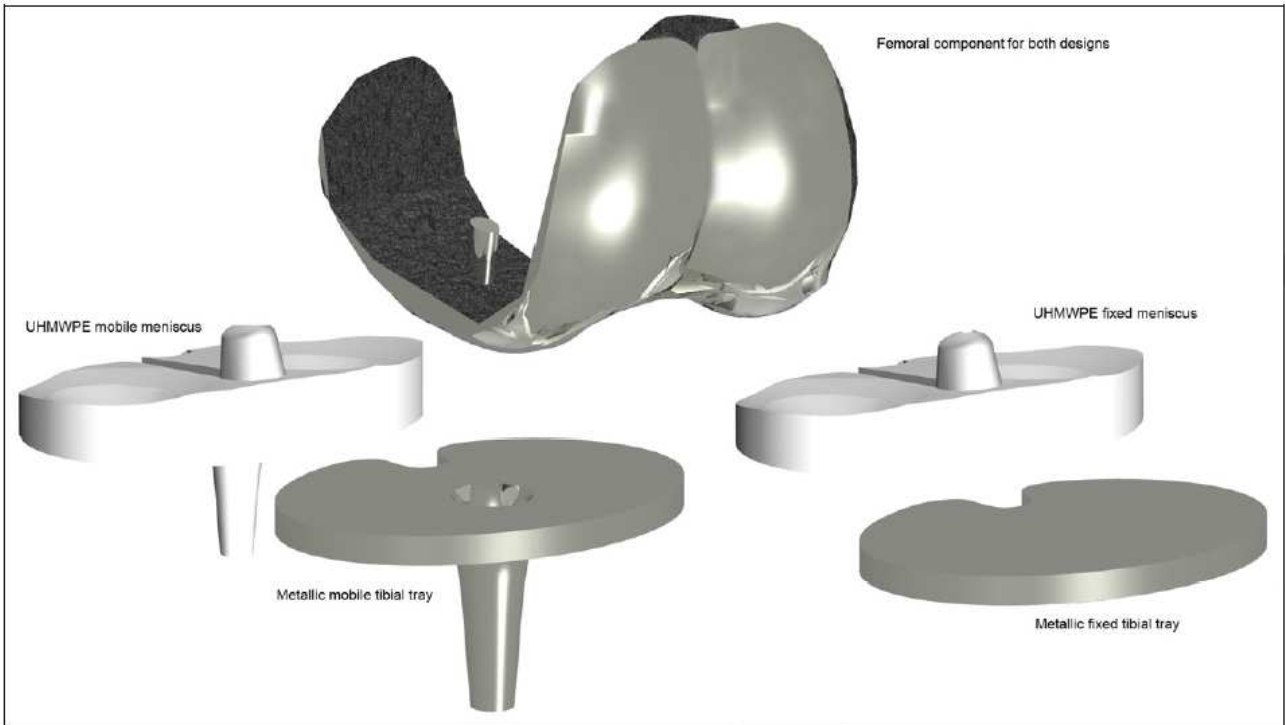


Figure 1 – Total knee prosthesis tested using a knee simulator: Parts A) & B) show the mobile and fixed designs, respectively.

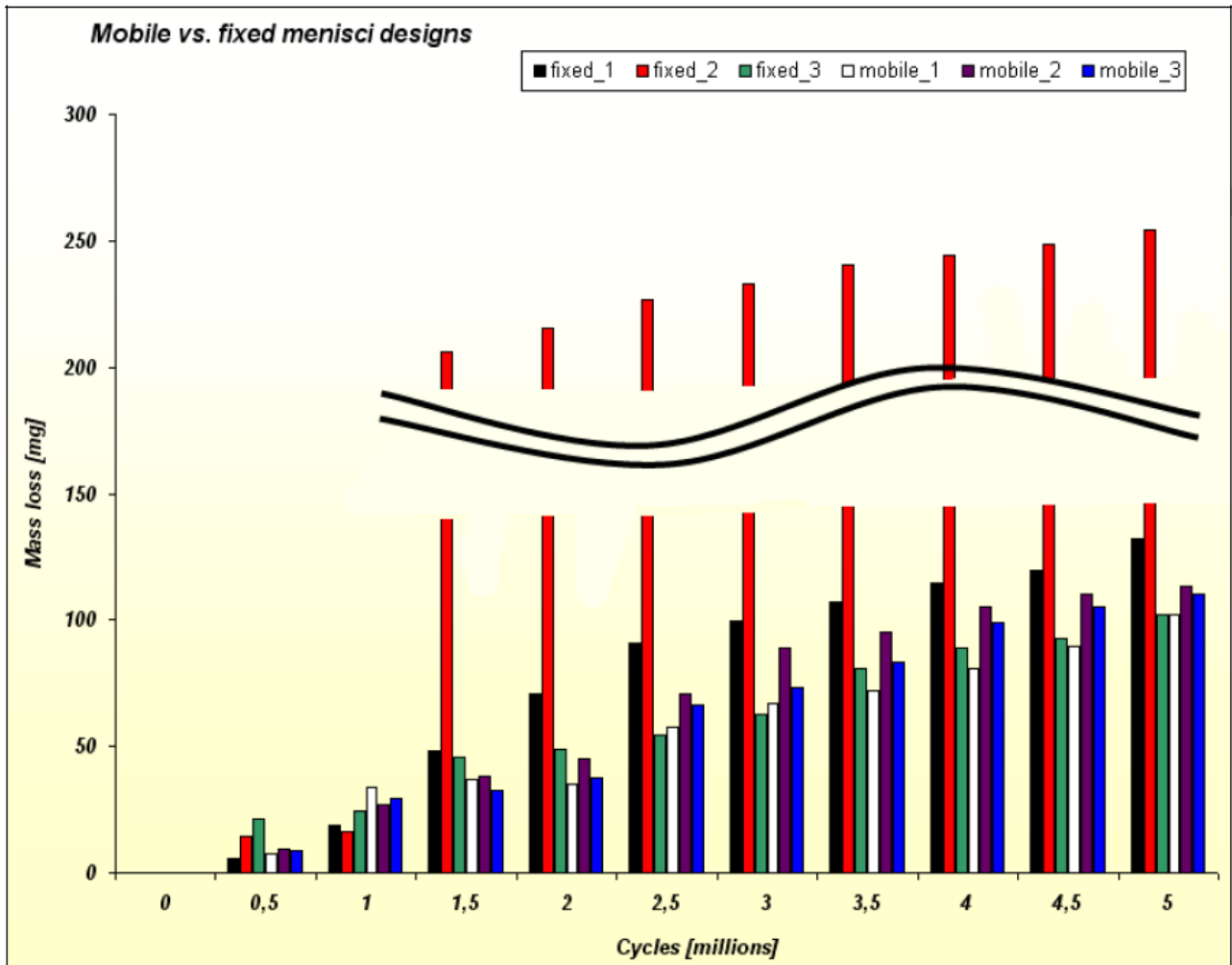
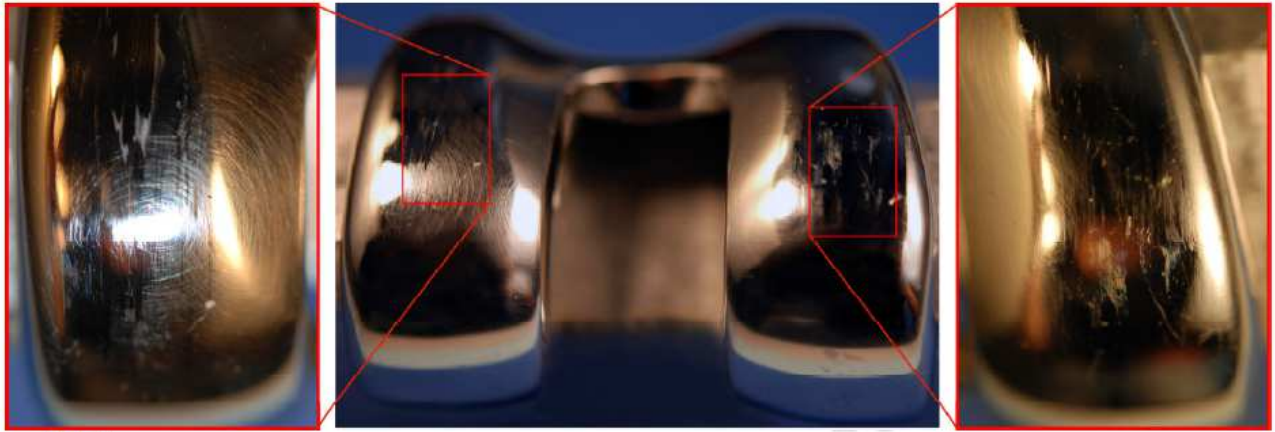
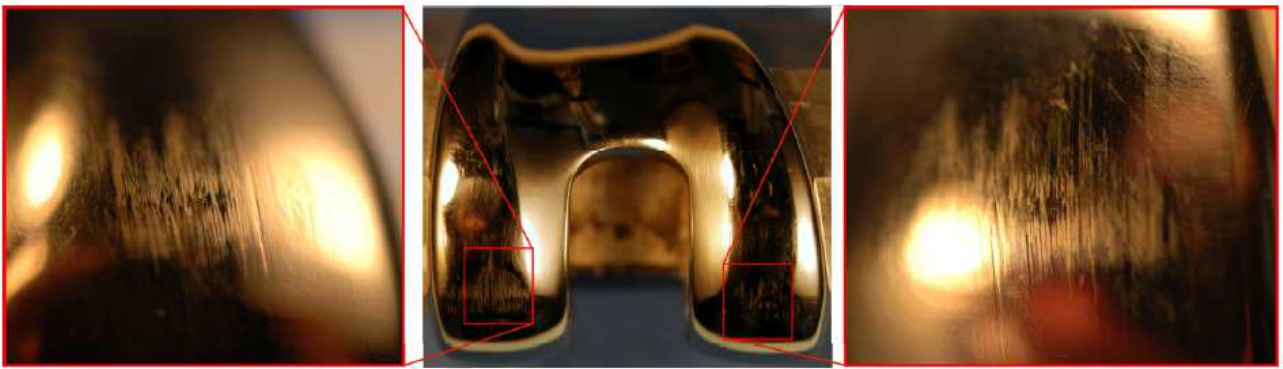


Figure 2 – Wear behaviour of mobile vs. fixed UHMWPE bearings design tested using a knee simulator.

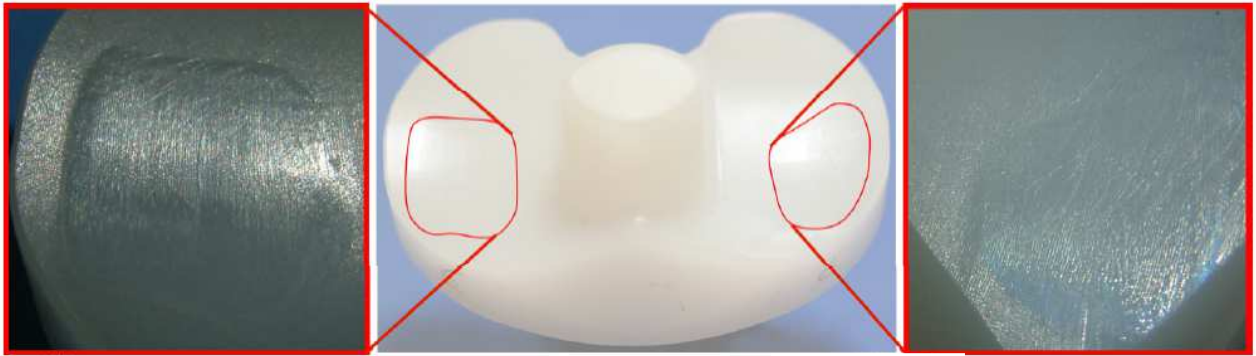


Part A)

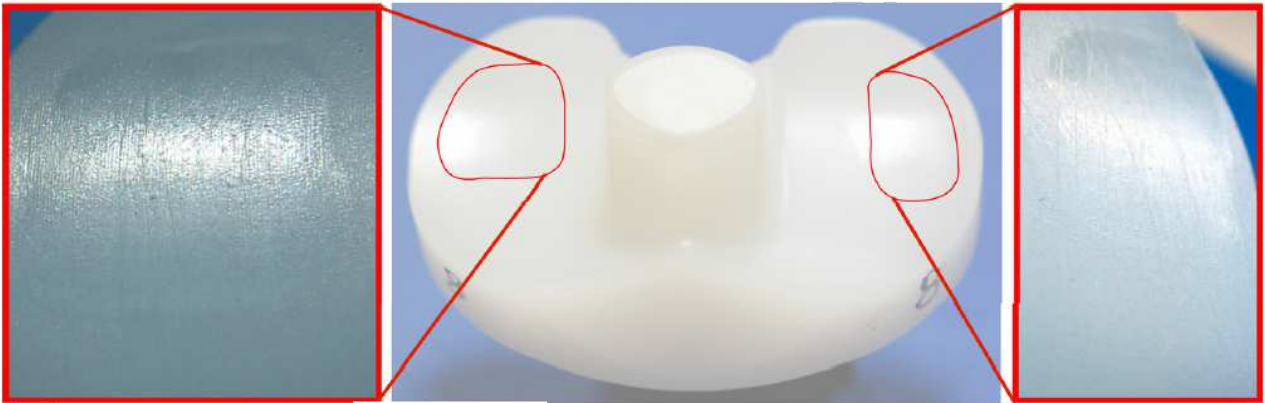


Part B)

Figure 3 – Unidirectional scratches were observed, on both medial and lateral condyle for each design, and along the A/P direction. Part A) and Part B) show the femoral components for the fixed and the mobile design, respectively.



Part A)



Part B)

Figure 4 – Longitudinal scratches along the A/P direction and burnishing phenomena were observed on both medial and lateral condyle for each design, and along the A/P direction. Part A) and Part B) show the polyethylene menisci for the fixed and the mobile design, respectively.

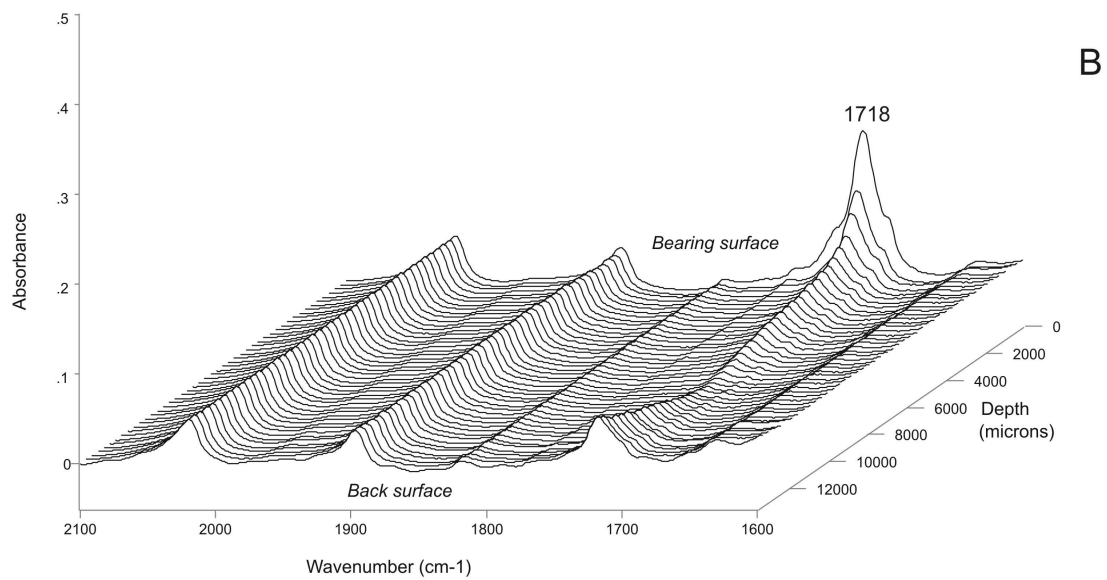
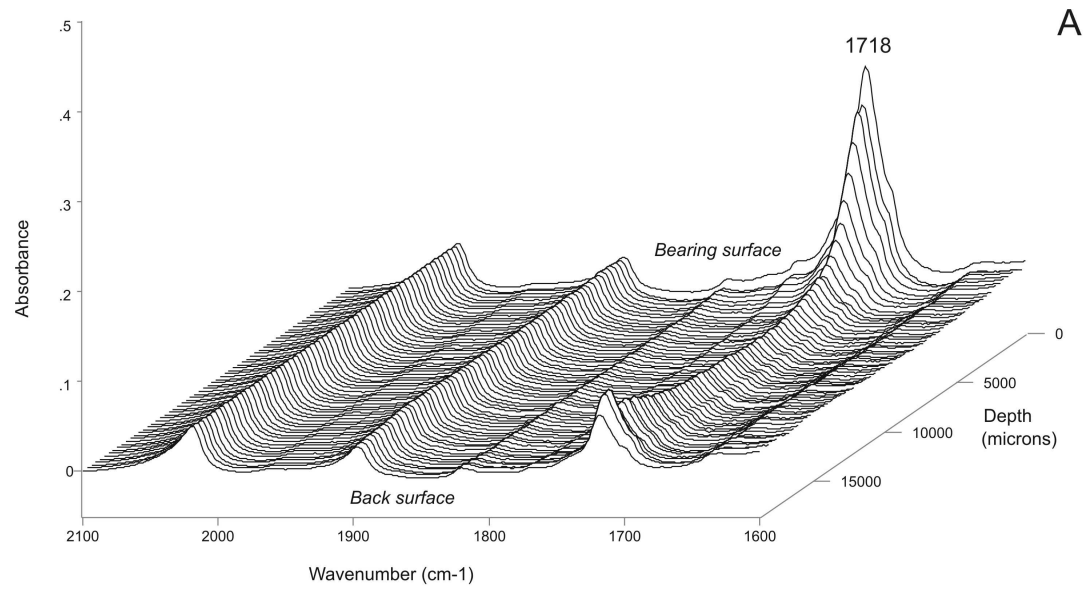


Figure 5 – FTIR line-scan collected on the specimen FB#2, along the cross-section of the unworn (Part A) and worn region (Part B).

Sample	Average Surface Oxidation Index (SOI) Unworn region	Maximum Oxidation Index (OI) Unworn region	Maximum Oxidation Index (OI) Worn region
Fixed_1	0.8	1.8	1.5
Fixed_2	1.0	2.5	1.2
Fixed_3	0.5	1.0	0.9
Mobile_2	0.2	0.5	0.4
Mobile_4(CTRL)	0.2	0.6	-

Table 1 – Average surface oxidation indexes (SOI) and Maximum oxidation indexes (OI) of representative samples.

	T _m (°C)	% Crystallinity
FB#2 unworn surface	135 ±1.0	53,6±1.2
FB#2 bulk	138± 0.8	48,6±0.9
MB#2 unworn surface	139±0.5	53,6±1.0
MB#2 bulk	137±0.6	49,4±0.7
MB#4 CTRL surface	138±0.5	53,1±1.0
MB#4 CTRL bulk	136±0.7	48,8±0.5

Table 2 – Peak melting points and percentage of crystallinity of representative samples.