Modeling and experimental studies of coating delamination of biodegradable magnesium alloy cardiovascular stents

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23 ABSTRACT

Biodegradable magnesium alloy stents exhibit deficient corrosion period for clinic applications, 24 25 making the protective polymer coating more crucial than drug-eluting stents with the permanent metal scaffold. We implemented a cohesive method based on finite element analysis method to predict the 26 integrity of adhesive between coating and stent during the crimping and deployment. For the first time, the 27 28 three-dimensional quantitative modeling clarified the conditions for polymer coating delamination and stress concentration. The fracture and micro-creaks of coatings were confirmed by scanning electron 29 30 microscopy observation. Moreover, we analyzed four possible factors, i.e., strut material, stent design, coating polymer and thickness of the coating, affecting the stent-coating damage and the distribution of the 31 32 stress. The cohesive modeling provides a greater understanding of stent-coating damage and shows how 33 computational analyses can be implemented in the design of coated biodegradable magnesium stents. KEYWORDS: Polymer coating; biodegradable magnesium alloy stent; delamination; cohesive zone 34

35 method; finite element analysis





38 INTRODUCTION

In recent years, drug-eluting stents have become the standard therapy for percutaneous coronary 39 intervention (PCI), to cure the treatment of coronary artery stenosis¹⁻². Bioabsorbable polymer-based 40 vascular scaffolds (BVS) and biodegradable magnesium alloy stents (BMS) were developed to overcome 41 the shortcomings of drug-eluting stents, leaving no permanent implant with short-term support and long-42 term degradation to restore vessel function, avoiding a series of disadvantages³. However, a series of clinical 43 results of BVS show that the bioabsorbable polymer-based scaffold has noninferior rates of target lesion 44 failure at 1 year to DES, but with a higher incidence of device thrombosis than the metallic stent through 45 2-year and 3-year clinical follow-ups⁴⁻⁶. Considering the differentiating failure modes in metallic and 46 polymeric devices, BVS not only degrade but also possess significant localized structural irregularities that 47 cause asymmetric degradation, which could be an explanation for the clinical results⁷. 48 49 Compared to the bioabsorbable aliphatic polymers of BVS, such as poly(l-lactic acid) (PLLA) and

poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) (PLGA), some of the biodegradable magnesium alloys have superior 50 mechanical properties and uniform degradation process⁸⁻¹⁰, which might lead to better long-term clinic 51 52 behavior than BVS. However, the degradation rates of Mg alloys are still too high at the initial stage of implantation for the clinical requirements¹¹⁻¹². On the one hand, applying polymer coatings on Mg alloys 53 could reduce the degradation rate of Mg and carry anti-proliferative drugs to avoid initial stenosis¹³⁻¹⁶. In 54 the light of observed coating damages on DES ¹⁷⁻¹⁸, the integrity and cohesion of polymer coating on BMS 55 are more important, as the delamination or fracture of the coating would expose the Mg alloy strut surface 56 and accelerate the localized corrosion rate, which might lead to vascular restenosis and prevent vessel 57

58 endothelialization¹⁸⁻²⁰.

Finite element analysis (FEA) has been widely used to guide stent design and simulate the deformation 59 and degradation of the implanted device²¹⁻²⁵. Cohesive zone method (CZM) based on a peeling model could 60 efficiently reflect the adhesive property between two surfaces²⁶⁻²⁷, for example stent and coating. A series 61 of 2D CZM simulation and experiments have been conducted for stainless drug-eluting stent, in order to 62 predict and explicate a variety coating-damages, including delamination, webbing, and buckling²⁸⁻³⁰. The 63 CZM has also been applied to design and analyze coated biodegradable magnesium stent^{25, 31}. Nevertheless, 64 the previous simulations of the adhesion of polymer coatings and metallic stents are based on two-65 dimensional models. The specific deformation of coating in the thickness direction of stent and the effects 66 of stent-balloon contact cannot be evaluated in such a model. 67

The present study aims to develop a 3-D model to simulate the deformation process and stress distribution of polymer coatings, meanwhile predicting and evaluating the coatings integrity and delamination tendency. This work is carried out considering two Mg alloys: commercial Mg alloy AZ31 and Mg-Nd-Zn-Zr (abbr. JDBM), a magnesium alloy made by with excellent mechanical properties, and uniform degradation behavior³². High-quality micro-tubes³³, stents³⁴ and polymer coatings¹⁵⁻¹⁶ used in this work are progressed by the authors. The 3D FEA modeling for polymer-coated magnesium stent using CZM is put forward first to date.

75 MATERIALS AND METHODS

76 Stent samples and Materials properties

77 The chemical composition and processing of two magnesium alloy tubes, AZ31 and JDBM, can be

found in our previous work³³. Two designs, the stent with sine-wave ring (abbr. SIN) and shape-optimized
stent (abbr. OPT) designed by our group, were shown in Fig.1. The repeated units were captured form each
design shown in colored, to build the FEA model. The outer diameter and thickness of stents were 3.00mm
and 160µm respectively.





Fig. 1 Geometries of SIN (top) and OPT stent (bottom) with the basic dimensions. One strut of each design (in
red and blue highlight) was chosen for the modeling.

The AZ31 tubes were cut into SIN stents (abbr. AZ31-SIN), while the JDBM tubes were cut into OPT 85 stents (abbr. JDBM-OPT). To adjust the unsmooth surface caused by the laser cutting, the stents were 86 polished with the electrochemical method and were then washed via ultra-phonic ethanol cleaning before 87 drying³³. After fluoride treatment of both AZ31-SIN and JDBM-OPT stents, the stents were prepared using 88 an ultrasonic spray-coating technology as described in our previous work¹⁶. Poly(l-lactic acid) (abbr. PLLA) 89 90 and poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) (abbr. PLGA) were used for stent coating spray. PLGA is in mole ratio of LA/GA=50/50. PLLA and PLGA with an weight-average molecular weight of ~100,000 g/mol were 91 bought from Jinan Daigang Biomaterial Co., Ltd. (Shandong, China). No drug is contained in those polymer 92



Fig. 2 The stress-strain curves of AZ31 and JDBM stent materials, and PLLA and PLGA coatings.

In our FEA model, JDBM and AZ31 alloy were used as stent platform materials, while PLLA and
PLGA were used for the coating materials. The stress-strain curves of JDBM and AZ31 were obtained from
tensile mechanical tests of micro-tubes³³. The polymers mechanical properties were taken from the study
by Paryab et al.³⁵. The stress-strain curves are shown in Fig.2. The modulus of elasticity and Poisson's ratio
of magnesium alloys are 43.5GPa and 0.35, respectively; the yield strength of JDBM and AZ31 are 120MPa
and 175MPa, respectively (Table.1).

Table.1 M	laterials prop	perty in the FI	ΞA	
Parameters	Stent		Coating	
	AZ31	JDBM	PLLA	PLGA
Density, $ ho~(ext{kg}\cdot m^{-3})$	1.78	1.84	1.30	1.30
Young's modules, E (GPa)	43.5	43.5	2.71	1.58
Poisson's ratio, v	0.35	0.35	0.3	0.3
Yield stress, σ (MPa)	175	122	67.9	29.7

105 Cohesive zone method (CZM)

The CZM approximation describes separation phenomenon caused by crack initiation and propagation between two surfaces. In this approach, the initial creak in interface was valued by a traction-separation law, which is based on energy principles²⁶. In FEA application, a single layer of cohesive elements (usually with a thickness of zero) is built between two surfaces as a "bonding" segment³⁶. During the simulation, the cohesive elements resist the tensile loads, separating the adjoining surfaces until the initiation of damage and the potential failure of the elements.

112 A bilinear traction-separation law is applied in the CZM in this study. The pure model constitutive 113 law of traction-separation responses in the normal direction and tangential direction is illustrated in Fig. 3. 114 This model assumes a linear elastic behavior before damage in the interface. Once an initiation criterion 115 σ_n/σ_t is reached, the damage is initiated. Under continuous loading, damage spreads until the final fracture 116 occurs.



118 Fig. 3 Schematic of the bilinear traction-separation law used for the cohesive elements, in the normal (a) and (b) in 119 the tangential direction. Yellow and gray cubes stand for coating and stent elements, respectively. Red arrows show 120 the traction direction.

121 The traction–separation constitutive relationship can be expressed as

$$\sigma = \begin{cases} K\delta, & \delta \leq \delta_n \\ (1-D)K\delta, & \delta_n \leq \delta \leq \delta_f \\ 0, & \delta \geq \delta_f \end{cases}$$
(1)

122 and

$$D = \begin{cases} 0, & \delta \leq \delta_n \\ \frac{\delta_f(\delta - \delta_0)}{\delta(\delta_f - \delta_0)}, & \delta_n \leq \delta \leq \delta_f \\ 1, & \delta \geq \delta_f \end{cases}$$
(2)

where σ and δ are the stress and displacement of separation. δ_n and δ_f are the initial damage displacement and fracture displacement. *D* is a damage variable, overall scalar stiffness degradation, ranging from 0 to 1. *K* is the initial interfacial stiffness, which is treated as a penalty parameter and does not represent a physically measurable quantity²⁷.

127 The critical energy release rate G_c can be calculated by

$$G_c = \frac{1}{2}\sigma_n \delta_f \tag{3}$$

128 where σ_n is the interfacial critical stress.

In Eqs.(1)–(3), we assume that $\sigma_n = \sigma_t$, and $\delta_n = \delta_t$, so that the stresses, displacements, and critical fracture energy can be represented for the components in normal and tangential directions. In this simulation, the adhesion data is captured in an enhanced 90° peeling test, which is reported in our previous work by a penalty function method^{27, 37}. Peeling test with simultaneous imaging of the samples has been carried out by means of an in-house developed micro-tensile equipment³⁸.

134 Finite element model

135 Considering the symmetry of the stent, one-sixth ring was developed for both SIN stent and OPT stent.

136 Moreover, the influence of the balloon-stent interaction on coating delamination was investigated.





Fig. 4 The FEA model of stent unit and two driving cylindrical surfaces (a), with boundary conditions in
circumferential direction and displacement loading in radial direction. The cross-section of the model (b) includes
stent (blue) and coating (yellow) meshes, and cohesive zone element (red) between with zero thickness (c).

A theta-symmetry (Fig.4a) was applied to the nodes of the two distal surfaces of the structure and a 141 142 radial displacement is applied to the balloon. The coating was modeled with a series thickness of 5µm, 143 10µm and 15µm covering the stents. Between the stent and the coating, and at the edge of coating, there is a monolayer of cohesive elements of zero thickness, as shown in Fig.4c. The balloon was modeled with a 144 cylindrical surface. A general contact algorithm was applied to simulate interaction between coating and 145 stent interaction, between abluminal side of coating and crimping device, and between luminal side of the 146 coating and the balloon, setting a normal hard contact and a tangential behavior with a coefficient of friction 147 of 0.2. In this way the crimping and expansion deformation of stent are driven by the inner and outer shells 148 (Table 2). 149

Table.2 Boundary conditions for stent-coating deformation

			-	
Time,	Outer surface (crimping)		Inner Surface (expansion)	
S	Diameter, mm	Contact state	Diameter, mm	Contact state
0	3.1	\checkmark	-	
0.5	3.0	\checkmark	-	
1.5	1.3	\checkmark	1.1	\checkmark
2.0	-		1.1	\checkmark
3.5	-		3.1	\checkmark
4.0	-		-	

The coating and stent were meshed with eight-node brick elements with reduced integration (C3D8R), 10 and 2 layers in stent and coating thickness direction respectively. The cohesive layer was meshed with eight node tridimensional cohesive elements (COH3D8) with average max edge length of 15μm. And the balloon was meshed using four nodes surface elements with reduced integration (SFM3DR). The simulations were run using the ABAQUS/Explicit code 6.14 (Dassault Systèmes, Vélizy-Villacoublay, France).

157 SEM characterization

The surface morphology of the PLLA and PLGA coatings were examined by scanning electron
microscopy (SEM, JSM 7600F, Japan). Before SEM observation, samples were coated with a layer of gold
with a thickness of ~20 nm by a sputter coater (SHINKKU VD MSP-1S, Japan).

161 *Objective of the study*

Firstly, three FEA scenarios were simulated and validated by experiments: the AZ31-SIN stent coated
with PLLA and PLGA, respectively, and the JDBM-OPT stent coated with PLGA. Only two stent platforms
were provided due to the difficulty in manufacturing stent samples. The thickness of coatings is 10µm,

which is calculated by the mass increment after ultrasonic spray-coating. In this section, the critical energy release rate G_c of 58.2 J/m² is captured by peeling test mentioned previous.

167 Secondly, for one stent, namely PLLA coated AZ31-SIN stent, the process of delamination was further 168 investigated. The traction of cohesive element layer during crimping and expansion were plotted and 169 divided in the local coordinate system. The sequence of damaging and deleting of cohesive element during 170 the process of coating debonding would be evaluated.

Thirdly, as different coating material properties and stent material influence the adhesion interface states and deformations of the coatings, the influence of stent design and material on coating deformation behavior was investigated. For the 3D models, we build up three different stent platforms: AZ31-SIN stent, JDBM-SIN stent and JDBM-OPT stent, coated with PLLA with 10µm thickness. In order to present the various behavior of coating deformation on a different platform, another smaller interface fracture energy G_c of 43.5 J/m² was assumed.

Furthermore, to investigate influence of coating materials and thickness on coating peeling, two materials (PLLA and PLGA) and three coating thicknesses (5, 10 and 15 μ m) are combined with the three stent platforms (AZ31-SIN, JDBM-SIN and JDBM-OPT) for 18 simulation scenarios. The range of coating thickness is based on the current commercial stent coating thicknesses, and can provide a reference for future coating process optimization. For each scenario, a critical interface fracture energy G_c' was calculated to avoid coating delamination during the expansion step and compared to other scenarios.

184 RESULTS

185 Simulation predicting and experiment validation

Three FEA scenarios were simulated and validated by experiments, as shown in Fig.5. The first row is the SIN stent coated with PLLA (a-c), the second row is the same stent coated with PLGA (d-f) and the last row is the OPT stent coated with PLGA (g-i).







195	The distributions of the maximum principal stress of the PLLA coating are shown in two different
196	perspectives (Fig. 5a-b). The predicted fractures and delamination of PLLA coatings in SIN stent were
197	similar to the experiment (Fig. 5c). As shown in Fig. 5d, the PLGA coating in the SIN stent should remain
198	integrated after the expansion, which was also confirmed by SEM observations (Fig. 5f). Furthermore, the
199	simulation found coating stress concentration near the inside edge of the stent bow (Fig. 5d and e). In the
200	SEM observation, dense micro-cracks exhibit a similar pattern to the contour of the stress distribution in
201	the same region (Fig. 5f). The density of the micro-cracks looked consistent with the distribution of
202	maximum principal stress on the coating surface.
203	The comparison between the PLGA coatings in SIN and OPT stent (Fig. 5d & e) shows that the coating

in the OPT stent has a much lower peak stress than that in the SIN stent (33MPa vs 49MPa), and no micro-

cracks can be observed in SEM image (Fig. 5i).

204

206 Stress fluctuation during crimping and expansion

The deformation and maximum principal stress distribution of PLLA coating in SIN stent after crimping and expansion are shown in Fig. 6. Although the coating remained intact after crimping (Fig. 6a), it had delamination inside strut bow, and fractured at the inside edge of the coating after the expansion (Fig. 6b).





212 Fig. 6 The maximum principal stress distributions of polymer coating after crimping (a) and after expansion (b)..

213 Three collinear dots show the locations of representative nodes of the cohesive layer, indicated by the black arrow

214 (a). The coating delamination is indicated by the black arrow (b). The normal traction (σ_n) , tangential traction in 215 radial direction (τ_r) and in circumferential direction (τ_{θ}) for the three nodes are shown in (c), (d) and (e), 216 respectively. The sequence of stiffness degradation distribution (SDEG) of the cohesive elements and maximum principal stress distribution of the coating elements during the initial period of the delamination are shown in (f). 217 218 Three collinear nodes were selected from cohesive layer at luminal (red), midplane (blue) and abluminal (green) location to analyze the stress in the cohesive layer. According to the local coordinate 219 system defined in Fig. 5b (n, r and θ in normal, radial and circumferential direction), the tractions of 220 these nodes in the three directions are shown in Fig. 5c, d, and e, respectively. The normal traction σ_n of 221 the three nodes were in compressive state during crimping and recoil. During expansion σ_n of these nodes 222 changed to a tensile state and increased rapidly, and the midplane node reached the T_{max} at 2.80s, then 223 the corresponding CZE was damaged and deleted in sequence. The peak σ_n of the luminal and the 224 225 abluminal node reached are $0.96T_{max}$ and $0.82T_{max}$, respectively. These result shows that the normal 226 traction is not the only reason for the coating delamination at the luminal and abluminal locations. As for 227 the tangential traction in the radial direction (τ_r) , the midplane node reached a peak value of $0.14T_{max}$ 228 during the expansion (Fig. 6d). However, τ_r of the luminal node reached $-T_{max}$ at 2.85s almost at the same time it reached the peak value of σ_n . Then, the corresponding CZE were damaged and coating 229 230 delamination happened at the luminal location. The tangential traction τ_r of the abluminal node reached $0.84T_{max}$ at 2.65s, ealier than the normal traction got the peak value. In the circumference direction, the 231 232 tangential tractions (τ_{θ}) for the three nodes fluctuated around zero because of the geometrical symmetry 233 (Fig. 6e).

234

The sequence of stiffness degradation distribution of cohesive elements and maximum principal stress

distribution of the coating elements during the initial period of the delamination revealed the detailed process of cohesive elements degradation (Fig. 6f). The midplane node and luminal node got damaged at 2.85s, but the cohesive layer was still intact. The initial debond of coating appeared in the luminal and middle zone at 2.90s. Subsequently, the debond of coating spread around and the concentration of stress occurred around the abluminal node at 3.00s. Next timeframe, all of the cohesive elements on the symmetric line were deleted and the delamination of coating took place at 3.05s.

241 The influence of stent design and material on coating deformation





243 Fig. 7 The maximum principal stress distributions of PLLA coatings with a thickness of 10 μm on the AZ31-SIN

244	stent (a), JDBM-SIN stent (e) and JDBM-OPT stent (i) expanded to the inner diameter of 3.1mm and recoiled, with
245	an interface fracture energy G_c of 43.5 J/m ² . The max principal stress in the stents are shown in panels b, f and j.
246	The equivalent plastic strain (PEEQ) distributions of the abluminal strut surface are shown in panels c, g and k, and
247	for the lateral strut surface in panels d, h and l. Two legends are used to highlight the difference in abluminal and
248	lateral surface; the locations of maximum PEEQ are marked by three red arrows.
249	As for the influence of the stent material and design on the coating deformation, the first column of
250	Fig. 7 shows the surface morphology and stress distribution of the PLLA coating after crimping and
251	expansion of the three different stent platforms (AZ31-SIN stent, JDBM-SIN stent and JDBM-OPT stent).
252	The PLLA coating on the AZ31-SIN stent delaminated at both inside and outside edge of the bow after
253	being deployed (Fig. 7a). When the material is changed from AZ31 alloy to JDBM, the coating on JDBM-
254	SIN sent delaminated at the inside edge while the outside edge of coating remained intact (Fig.7e). On the
255	other hand, when the stent material is JDBM but the stent design is changed to OPT, all the PLLA coating
256	on JDBM-OPT stent remains intact after balloon expansion and recoil (Fig. 7i). The peak value of
257	maximum principal stress of coatings decreased from 76.2MPa to 56.73MPa (Fig.7e & i).
258	To further disclose the influence of stent material and design, the struts of AZ31-SIN, JDBM-SIN
259	and JDBM-OPT stent were isolated to compare the distribution of maximum principal stress (S. Max.
260	Principal) and equivalent plastic strain (PEEQ) (Fig. 7b, c, f, g) in the stent after expansion and recoil.
261	The same design and the same elastic modulus of alloys generated similar patterns of stress and strain for
262	AZ31-SIN and JDBM-SIN stent. The peak values of max principal stress of AZ31-SIN and JDBM-SIN
263	stent are 245.3MPa and 203.6MPa, respectively. And the corresponding peak value of equivalent plastic
264	strain are 0.779 and 0.633, respectively. Meanwhile, the locations of peak stress are located at the center 17





Fig. 8 The volume fraction of maximum principal stress (a), and PEEQ (b) in AZ31-SIN stent (red), JDBM-SIN
stent (blue) and JDBM-OPT stent (green).



volume percentage of high stress (\geq 160MPa), of AZ31-SIN stent, JDBM-SIN stent and JDBM-OPT are 4.14%, 1.71% and 1.42% respectively (Fig. 8a) and the percentage of high plastic deformation (\geq 0.2), of them are 14.2%, 12.3% and 4.36% respectively (Fig. 8b). These statistics disclose that the AZ31-SIN stent exhibits more severe stress concentration behavior than JDBM-SIN stent. The JDBM-OPT stent decreased the stress concentration fundamentally than JDBM-SIN stent. Stent design plays a crucial factor in the deformation behavior of stent and coating.

281 The influence of coating materials and thickness



282

283 Fig.9 The critical interface fracture energy Gc' required to avoid delamination for the combination of different

284 polymer coatings, coating thickness and stent types.

The critical interface fracture energy G_c' of each combination of coating materials, thicknesses and stent platforms was evaluated by multiple tentative simulations (Fig. 9). Among them, the JDBM-OPT stent coated with PLGA of the thickness of 5um required an interface fracture energy G_c' that is not less than 13.6J/m². Therefore the coating remains intact during the deformation. With the increase of coating thickness, the critical interface strength increased accordingly and the critical interface strength required

290	for the PLGA coating of a thickness of 10 and 15um increased to 27.2 J/mm ² and 43.5 J/mm ² ,
291	respectively. Because the PLLA coating has higher elastic modulus and yield strength than those of the
292	PLGA coating (2.71MPa vs. 1.58MPa; 67MPa vs. 29MPa), the critical interface fracture energy of PLLA
293	is higher than that of PLGA, based on the same stent platform. In addition, when the stent material and
294	design are considered, the analysis of the critical interface fracture energy G_c' is consistent with the
295	previous comparison of the stress distribution statistics (Fig. 8). Although both the design and the material
296	of the stent affect the critical interface fracture energy, the primary factor is the design and the influence
297	of the stent material is subordinate relatively. For example, the critical interface fracture energies of
298	PLLA with a thickness of 15 μ m on these stent platforms are 65.3 J/mm ² , 87 J/mm ² and 97.9 J/mm ²
299	respectively (Fig. 9). The critical interface fracture increased by 33.2% due to the replacement of the stent
300	design while substituting the AZ31 for JDBM, the critical interface fracture only increased by 12.3%.
301	DISCUSSION
302	The study of stent coating delamination is important because the delamination damages the coating
303	integrity and then influences the drug delivery adversely ^{18, 20, 39} . Furthermore, the coating delamination of
304	biodegradable magnesium alloy stents can accelerate the localized corrosion of the stent platform. This
305	study applied 3D finite element model to predict the coating delamination for three scenarios, and the results
306	are well compatible to experimental tests (Fig. 5). Considering that the FEA framework includes a series
307	of parameters, such as the material properties of the stent and coating, the thickness of the coating and the
308	interface fracture energy G_c , the validated simulation proved the robustness, accuracy and compatibility of
309	the proposed CZM framework. As far as the authors know, this is the first work using 3D model to evaluate
310	the coating delamination of cardivascular stents.

Owing to the symmetry of the boundary conditions in the FEA model, the gap located in the inside edge of the corner shown in the FEA result (Fig. 5b) is smaller than that in the SEM image (Fig. 5c). The inaccuracy introduced by laser-cutting and coating spray, as well as the asymmetric deformation of crimping and expansion, leading to the longer delamination gaps compared to the simulation result.

Compared to the adhesion properties between chronflex AL and 316L stainless steel captured via peeling test by C. Hopkins et al²⁹, our interface fracture energy G_c is much higher (58.2 J/m² vs 29.6 J/m² for dry sample). The primary cause is that the fluoride acid corrades the sample surface. The roughness of fluoride magnesium is higher than polished stainless steel, which leads to higher interface fracture energy G_c^{13} .

The 3D model revealed more information about coating delamination which 2D model cannot find, 320 because 3D model includes the stent thickness, and stent-balloon contact and friction. As shown in Fig. 6, 321 322 coating delaminated from the inside edge of strut bow and fractured at the inside edge of coating after expansion. This phenomenon is concurrent with the 2D results^{28, 30-31}. The 3D result shows that the normal 323 tractions at luminal and abluminal location are not the only reason for the coating delamination there. The 324 sequence of stiffness degradation distribution of cohesive elements during the initial period of the 325 delamination provided the detailed cohesive elements damaging process (Fig. 6f). The contact between 326 coating and balloon plays an important factor on the tangential tractions in the initial phase of delamination. 327 Furthermore, these sequences reveal that the debonding is not instantaneously, but is an incremental process 328 329 that starts from luminal node towards the abluminal node. This inference is ignored in 2D analysis. It is worth noting that the radial direction is perpendicular to 2D models, which means that the τ_r will be 330 331 assumed to zero in 2D simulation.

332 Our analyses showed the influence of the material and the design of the stent platform on coating delamination. Due to the higher yield point of AZ31 compared to JDBM (175MPa vs. 122MPa), the plastic 333 strain accumulative zone of the AZ31-SIN stent spreads to the adjacent area slower than JDBM stent, 334 resulting in a smaller plastic deformation zone with a higher plastic deformation peak (Fig. 7d, h and 8b). 335 Because of the concentrated severe plastic deformation, the strain gradients on the surface of the stent bow 336 337 become sharp and the interfaces between the coating and the stent have higher shear stress, which will accelerate the damaging of cohesive elements and result in the coating delamination. Furthermore, the local 338 stress concentration of the coating leads to more micro-cracks in the deformed area, which is a potential 339 340 problem for the application of the biodegradable magnesium alloy stents. Compared with the distinction between the two magnesium alloys AZ31 and JDBM, the design of stent plays a prominent role in the 341 deformation. The distributions of Max. Principal Stress and PEEQ display completely different patterns 342 343 between OPT and SIN stents (Fig.7j and 7k). Due to the design of the salient contour, the external deformation in the OPT stent is spread out to the two shoulders from the center area. The gradient width 344 strut contour scattered the deformation center to the opposite sides (Fig.7k & 7l). The percentage of high 345 plastic deformation of OPT stent is 4.36% (Fig. 8b). The numbers confirm that the high plastic deformation 346 section of the stent decreases sharply when the deformation concentrated area is dispersed to both sides. 347 The plastic deformation in the concentration was evenly distributed to vast areas, resulting the strain 348 gradient on the stent surface become gentleness, which provides more favorable conditions for the adhesion 349 350 of the coating.

The influence of polymer coating is also important to control the coating delamination. The analysis of the thickness and type of polymer coating is concurrent with the previous 2D result^{28, 30}, i.e.the thicker the coating, the higher the elastic modulus and yield strength of the coating, the more unfavorable the adhesion of the polymer coating on the surface of the stent. The stent design that well matches coating properties can help improve the clinical outcome of biodegradable Mg alloy stents.

This study has some limitations. First, the zero-thickness cohesive elements are sensitive to mass 356 scaling in 3D modeling. In our work the target time increment is 2×10^{-6} s, a larger target time increment 357 358 could lead to unstable degradation process of the cohesive elements, which means the computational time of 3D simulation is much higher than in a 2D space. Second, the balloon is simplified to a cylinder surface. 359 The 3-fold balloon will lead to higher friction force on the coating surface, especially in the circumferential 360 361 direction. Third, the property of the polymer coating is in dry conditions, considering that the validation experiment is carried out in vitro without liquid. When a stent is implanted the material property of PLGA 362 and PLLA will change after immersion in blood and the interface strength between coating and stent will 363 be reduced by hydration. Moreover the critical interface fracture energy G_c' (Fig. 9) is an approximation 364 value rather than a precise range, for reduce the amount of calculation. 365

366 CONCLUSIONS

This study provides an easily grasped and intelligible framework for understanding the deformation of
both coating and stent struts, distinguishing the most important among the multiplying parameters,
predicting delamination behavior, and providing guidelines for stent and coating designers.

370 The significant findings for the polymer coated biodegradable magnesium alloy cardiovascular stents371 are summarized as follows:

The debonding process started from luminal node extend to abluminal node, driven by the contact
 between balloon and coating.

374	2) JDBM with lower yield strength performed a more uniform strain and more favorable for adhesion
375	of the coating, compared to the commercial magnesium alloy made of AZ31.
376	3) Shape optimization of stent improves the strain and stress distribution of coating observably,
377	avoiding coating delamination.
378	4) PLGA coating with lower elastic modulus and yield strength, compared to PLLA polymer, tends
379	to follow better the deformation of the stent and to adhere on the surface tightly.
380	5) A reduction in coating thickness and an increase in stent-coating interface strength improve the
381	resistance to delamination.
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