

UNIVERSIDADE DE SÃO PAULO
FACULDADE DE ODONTOLOGIA DE BAURU

LUCAS JOSÉ DE AZEVEDO SILVA

**Synthesis, characterization and mechanic evaluation of dense
bovine hydroxyapatite ceramics with TiO₂ nanoparticles**

**Síntese, caracterização e avaliação mecânica de cerâmica densa de
hidroxiapatita bovina com nanopartículas de TiO₂**

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Orientador: Prof. Dr. José Henrique Rubo

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*“A vida é o que acontece quando se
está fazendo planos”*

John Lennon

ABSTRACT

Bovine bone can be considered a renewable source of hydroxyapatite (HA) for use as a raw material. Recycled bovine bone have the advantages of reducing costs and developing a safe material from a biological source, being a sustainable product, already used in medical and dental treatments. The study aimed to synthesize and characterize the microstructure and mechanical properties of dense bovine hydroxyapatite (HA) ceramics with addition of 5% or 8% of TiO₂ nanoparticles in the rutile phase after the final sintering. The structural characterization was obtained from analysis by FTIR, XRD, SEM, EDS and relative density. The mechanical characterization was performed by measuring the fracture toughness after a three-point flexural strength test. The results of the microstructural characterization show that there was no secondary phase formation and that there was a non-homogeneous dispersion of nanoparticles in the HA matrix. The relative density was 2.9 ± 0.09 g/cm³ for HA/8%TiO₂np presenting higher density compared with pure HA (2.7 ± 0.03 g/cm³) ($p = 0.011$) and HA/5%TiO₂np (2.7 ± 0.05 g / cm³) ($p = 0.041$) groups. Regarding mechanical properties, the flexural strength indicates that pure HA (51.7 ± 10.3 MPa) and HA/8%TiO₂np (47.4 ± 6.4 MPa) presented statistically significant different higher results ($p < 0.001$) relative to HA/5%TiO₂np group (28.8 ± 3.1 MPa). Such results lead to a fracture toughness value with statistical significance difference between the groups. The pure HA (0.43 ± 0.01 MPa m^{1/2}) and HA/8%TiO₂np (0.40 ± 0.06 MPa m^{1/2}) groups presented higher K_{Ic}, comparing with the HA/5%TiO₂np group (0.23 ± 0.02 MPa m^{1/2}) ($p < 0.003$; $p < 0.007$). It is concluded in this way, that the addition of TiO₂ nanoparticles in the rutile phase, through the adopted synthesis methodology, did not manage to increase the fracture toughness results of dense hydroxyapatite ceramics.

Keyword: Durapatite, Biocompatible material, Ceramics

RESUMO

O osso bovino pode ser considerado uma fonte renovável de hidroxiapatita (HA) para uso como matéria-prima. Sua reciclagem tem como vantagens a redução de custos e o desenvolvimento de material seguro a partir de fonte biológica, sendo um produto sustentável, já utilizado em tratamentos médicos e odontológicos. O estudo teve como objetivo sintetizar e caracterizar as propriedades microestruturais e mecânicas das cerâmicas de hidroxiapatita bovina densa (HA) com adição de 5% ou 8% de nanopartículas de TiO_2 na fase rutilica após a sinterização final. A caracterização estrutural foi obtida a partir da análise por FTIR, DRX, MEV, EDS e densidade relativa. A caracterização mecânica foi realizada medindo a tenacidade à fratura após um teste de resistência à flexão de três pontos. Os resultados da caracterização microestrutural mostram que não houve formação de fase secundária e que há uma dispersão não homogênea de nanopartículas na matriz HA. A densidade relativa foi de $2,9 \pm 0,09 \text{ g / cm}^3$ para HA / 8% TiO_2np , apresentando maior densidade em comparação com o HA puro ($2,7 \pm 0,03 \text{ g / cm}^3$) ($p = 0,011$) e o HA / 5% TiO_2np ($2,7 \pm 0,05 \text{ g / cm}^3$) ($p = 0,041$) grupos. Quanto às propriedades mecânicas, os resultados da resistência à flexão indicam que a HA pura ($51,7 \pm 10,3 \text{ MPa}$) e a HA / 8% TiO_2np ($47,4 \pm 6,4 \text{ MPa}$) apresentaram maior resistência à flexão, com diferença estatisticamente significativa ($p < 0,001$) em relação ao grupo HA / 5% TiO_2np ($28,8 \pm 3,1 \text{ MPa}$). Tais resultados levam a um valor de tenacidade à fratura com diferença de significância estatística entre os grupos. Os grupos HA puro ($0,43 \pm 0,01 \text{ MPa m}^{1/2}$) e HA / 8% TiO_2np ($0,40 \pm 0,06 \text{ MPa m}^{1/2}$) apresentaram K_{Ic} mais alto, comparados com o grupo HA / 5% TiO_2np ($0,23 \pm 0,02 \text{ MPa m}^{1/2}$) ($p < 0,003$; $p < 0,007$). Conclui-se, assim, que a adição de nanopartículas de TiO_2 na fase rutilica, através da metodologia de síntese adotada, não conseguiu aumentar os resultados de tenacidade à fratura de cerâmicas de hidroxiapatita densa.

Palavras-Chave: Durapatita, Materiais biocompatíveis, Cerâmica

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1 INTRODUCTION

1 INTRODUCTION

The global development process has been accompanied by an increasing trend of solid waste production. Without properly defined recycling processes, incorrect disposal can lead to environmental problems. [1, 2] Thus, bone and meat produced from animal waste deserve important attention in their management [3,4]

The reuse of discarded bovine bone after slaughtering, when properly controlled, can be considered a renewable source of hydroxyapatite (HA) for use as raw material [5,6]. The use of bone residues as raw material for HA extraction is considered solid waste recycling. This procedure has, as main advantages, the reduction of the high cost associated with producing synthetic HA and the supply of a safe material from a biological source, developing a sustainable product [7,8].

Hydroxyapatite is a biomaterial that is already applied clinically for medical and dental treatment. It is considered the main constituent of human bones and teeth [5,6] and characterized by being chemically and directly attached to bone when implanted [9]. Its molecular formula $\text{Ca}_{10}(\text{PO}_4)_6(\text{OH})_2$ and crystalline structure constitute one of its most important properties, which is the ease of cationic and anionic substitutions [10,11]. These characteristics allows its use as an efficient biocompatible material for use as implants and prostheses [12,13].

HA is already used in dentistry in order to prevent bone loss after tooth extraction, as well as to recover areas with bone resorption. However, it cannot be recommended in situations where heavy loads are present due to its low mechanical resistance, such as fracture toughness, thus being characterized as a fragile material [14-16].

The addition of microstructural reinforcements has already been made with the aim of future fabrication of a polycrystalline ceramic with favorable mechanical properties for a broader use. This methodology has been done as an attempt to mechanically improve composite materials based on synthetic HA. Such mechanical reinforcements act through the control of density and microstructure [17-18]. Therefore, the microstructural characterization of the experimental materials is

necessary to verify the possible formation of new secondary phases. These can be the byproduct from the mixing of the matrix with the reinforcing particles.

The use of reinforcement particles can also cause crack deviation and deflection, leading to a decrease in local maximum stress and crack energy absorption, which may result in the elimination of stress concentration at its tip [19-21]. Such mechanisms act to increase an intrinsic property of materials: fracture toughness.

The stress intensity factor (K) is a measure of the amount of stress concentration that occurs at the tip of a crack previously existing in the material. This measurement is dependent on the applied stress and the geometry and size of this previous crack. By increasing the applied stress, the K increases to a critical point (K_c) where crack propagation occurs until catastrophic failure occurs in the material under study. [22]

Considering the failure mode commonly associated with fragile materials (mode I or opening) we have the representation of fracture toughness by K_{Ic} . Thus, K_{Ic} represents the fracture toughness corresponding to the amount of energy a material can absorb before catastrophic failure in failure mode I. [22,23]

Among the materials used as reinforcing agents for HA are zirconia, alumina, mullite, titanium, bioglass and ion addition in solid solution in HA [17,18,24-28]. Current studies have used inorganic nanocrystalline metal oxides as a reinforcement mechanism [29-34], suggesting that the addition of these particles would be one of the following ways in search of increased mechanical properties, specifically the fracture toughness of materials.

Meira, 2017, obtained satisfactory results in fracture toughness of HA dense ceramic of bovine origin by adding alumina whiskers as reinforcement [29]. Pires, 2019 [35], used diversified concentrations of ZnO and TiO₂ nanoparticles and TiO₂ nanotubes as reinforcement for HA and better results were found in the groups with addition of TiO₂ nanoparticles.

TiO₂ is considered a good option as a nanoparticle added to ceramics [36-39] and has advantages such as good stability [36,37] and applications such as photocatalysis and antimicrobial activity [36-39], besides having significant

biocompatibility [39]. There are four polymorphic phases of TiO_2 found in nature: anatase (tetragonal), brookite (orthorhombic), rutile (tetragonal) and TiO_2 (B) (monoclinic) [39,40]. However, only the rutile and anatase phases can play some role in TiO_2 applications [39] and currently these two phases have been prepared in the form of powders, crystals, thin films, nanotubes and nanoparticles [40].

The rutile phase in relation to the other TiO_2 phases is considered the most stable [39,40] at most temperatures and pressures up to 60 Kbar [40]. It can be considered a viable alternative as a nanostructure to obtain mechanical characteristics favorable for a new dense polycrystalline ceramic based on bovine hydroxyapatite.

According to the dental ceramic's latest classification for clinical indications [41], current polycrystalline ceramics can be used in dentistry for copings, anterior and posterior total crowns, up to three-element fixed partial dentures and abutments, as well as dental implant material [37]. The manufacture of bovine

HA polycrystalline dense ceramics is a potential method for reuse of solid waste, reducing the environmental impact caused by its improper disposal, as well as providing a promising, low cost and sustainable biocompatible material for the dental area, by adding intrinsic compositional characteristics, if biological characteristics can be maintained and mechanical properties improved.

2 ARTICLE

2 ARTICLE

DENSE POLYCRYSTALLINE BOVINE HYDROXYAPATITE BIOCERAMICS WITH TiO₂ RUTILE NANOPARTICLES: SYNTHESIS, NANOSTRUCTURAL AND MECHANICAL CHARACTERIZATION.

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ABSTRACT

Recycled bovine bone can be considered a renewable source of hydroxyapatite (HA) for its use as raw material. This procedure has, as main advantages, the reduction of costs and the development of a safe material from a biological source, being a sustainable product, already used in medical and dental treatments. The study aimed to synthesize and characterize the microstructure and mechanical properties of dense bovine hydroxyapatite (HA) ceramics with addition of 5% or 8% of TiO₂ nanoparticles in the rutile phase after final sintering. The structural characterization was obtained from analysis by FTIR, XRD, SEM, EDS and relative density. The mechanical characterization was performed by measuring the fracture toughness after a three-point flexural strength test. The results of the microstructural characterization show that there was no secondary phase formation and that there is a non-homogeneous dispersion of nanoparticles in the HA matrix. The relative density was 2.9 ± 0.09 g/cm³ for HA/8%TiO₂np presenting higher density compared with the pure HA (2.7 ± 0.03 g/cm³) ($p = 0.011$) and the HA/5%TiO₂np (2.7 ± 0.05 g / cm³) ($p = 0.041$) groups. Regarding mechanical properties, the flexural strength results indicate statistical significance difference between the pure HA (51.7 ± 10.3 MPa) and HA/8%TiO₂np (47.4 ± 6.4 MPa), presenting higher flexural strength ($p < 0.001$) when compared to the HA/5%TiO₂np group (28.8 ± 3.1 MPa). Such results lead to a fracture toughness value with statistical significance difference between the groups. The pure HA (0.43 ± 0.01 MPa m^{1/2}) and HA/8%TiO₂np (0.40 ± 0.06 MPa m^{1/2}) groups presented higher K_{Ic}, comparing with the HA/5%TiO₂np group (0.23 ± 0.02 MPa m^{1/2}) ($p < 0.003$; $p < 0.007$). It was concluded, that the addition of TiO₂ nanoparticles in the rutile phase, through the adopted synthesis methodology, did not increased the fracture toughness results of dense hydroxyapatite ceramics.

Keyword: Durapatite, Biocompatible material, Ceramics

1 INTRODUCTION

The controlled use of bovine bone use can be considered a renewable source of hydroxyapatite (HA) as raw material [5,6]. The use of organic waste as a raw material for HA extraction is considered solid waste recycling, with some advantages as cost reduction compared to synthetic HA and supply of a safe material from a biological source, developing a sustainable product [7,8].

In attempt to produce a new polycrystalline bioceramic material from bovine HA, a dense bovine HA bioceramic was produced with some interesting characteristics: 235,2 MPa in biaxial flexural strength test, 335 GPa in Vickers hardness test, σ_0 and m values higher compared to HA bioceramics with nanostructures added [35] and when the pure HA ceramic is compared with pure titanium and commercial zirconia [30], were observed that wettability and roughness tests had similar results between the groups. And also results presented no cytotoxicity and cell adhesion after 24 and 48h.

The use of reinforcement within biomaterials can cause crack deflection and deflection, causing the maximum local stress and energy absorption of the crack, which may cause the tensile stress at its tip to change [19-21]. Among the materials used as reinforcing agents for HA, we highlight zirconia, alumina, mullite, titanium, bioglass and addition of ions in solid solution in HA [17-28]. Pires, 2019 [35], used diverse specimens of ZnO and TiO₂ nanoparticles and TiO₂ nanotubes as reinforcement for bovine HA and the better results were found in groups with addition of TiO₂ nanoparticles.

TiO₂ is considered a good choice as ceramic applied nanoparticles [36-39], since it has advantages such as chemical stability [36,37], photocatalysis and antimicrobial performance [36-38], and biocompatibility [39]. TiO₂ are in four

polymorphic phases: anatase (tetragonal), brookite (orthorhombic), rutile (tetragonal) and TiO_2 (B) (monoclinic) [39,40]. However, only rutile and anatase of analog phases can play some role in TiO_2 applications [39] and currently these two phases have been prepared in the form of powders, crystals, thin films, nanotubes and nanoparticles [36]. A rutile phase in relation to the other TiO_2 phases is the highest stability considered of [39,40] at most temperatures and pressures up to 60 Kbar [40], introducing itself as a viable alternative to increase mechanical parameters.

According to the classification of dental ceramics based on their clinical indications [41], the current polycrystalline ceramics are indicated for dental treatments such as copings, anterior and posterior crowns, fixed prostheses up to three elements and abutments, as well as dental implant material [42]. Thus, the aim of the present study was to synthesize, characterize and evaluate the influence of the addition of two TiO_2 amounts on the microstructure and mechanical properties by fracture toughness of the bovine HA bioceramic as a potential biomaterial for dental implant materials.

2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

Specimens preparation

2.1 Preparation of TiO_2 nanoparticles by Arruda, 2015 [43]

Rutile TiO_2 nanoparticles were obtained by the sol-gel process. Into an Erlenmeyer flask, 185 ml of distilled water, 56.7 ml of Isopropanol and 2.6 ml of nitric acid (HNO_3) were added. After this, 15 ml of titanium (IV) isopropoxide was added to solution and stirred (300 rpm) for 30 min. The solution was heated at 85°C while stirring. These heating and stirring patterns were maintained until complete evaporation of the liquid, resulting in crystallization. Afterwards, it was taken to the furnace to reduce the homogeneous powder.

2.2 HA powder preparation

The materials used in the manufacture of experimental ceramic were polyvinyl butyral (PVB) (Butvar B98) as a binder, 4-aminobenzoic acid (PABA) as deflocculant and isopropyl alcohol as the solvent of the binder as well as liquid barbotine medium (Table 1).

Bovine (2 years old) metatarsus specimens, passed by an initial manual cleaning, then, went through thermochemical processes for removal of residual organic matter [44]

Following the production of particulate hydroxyapatite, in the alcoholic environment two types of milling were performed. At the first milling, the jar was loaded with 30 vol% Hydroxyapatite, 69.95 vol% isopropyl alcohol and 0.05 wt% PABA (para-aminobenzoic acid). The mix was placed in a rotatory mill for 48 hours and after, for 96 hours vibrating in ball mill.

After this period, 1.2% by weight of PVB (polyvinyl butyral) dissolved in isopropanol was added and homogenized in the vibratory mill for two hours. For specimens with nanomaterials, after these two hours in the vibrating mill, the TiO₂ nanoparticles were weighed at 5% and 8% of the working volume relative to HA and added to a smaller HA-loaded jar. The mixture was returned to the vibrating mill for 10 minutes.

After the second mill, each jar was discharged and the barbotine was dried with a hot air blower at about 80°C. This mixture was granulated in sieves # 200 mesh ≤ 75 μm to obtain granules average size of 35 μm .

2.3 Ceramic bars preparation

The experimental groups were: pure HA, HA/TiO₂np5% and HA/TiO₂np8% (5 and 8% of TiO₂ nanoparticles)

For specimen preparations, 1.5 g of the powders were weighed, inserted into a rectangular device, generating the conformation of specimens with 21mm length x 4 mm width x 3 mm height, after uniaxial pressing 100 MPa for 1 minute. The specimens were beveled using a metal device, where the four largest edges of each specimen were beveled to a standard width of 0.1mm in accordance with ISO 6872 (2015) [45].

The specimens were pressed by isostatic press at 200 Mpa for 1 minute. The sintering process were carried out in a Lindberg Blue / M chamber-type furnace in an air atmosphere from room temperature to 160°C at a heating rate of 2.7 ° C/min, then to 600°C at 4°C/min., then to 1100°C at 5°C/min and finally at the maximum temperature (1300°C) at 6°C/min, with a level of 120 minutes followed by slow oven cooling to room temperature.

Structural analyses

2.4 X-ray Diffraction (XRD)

Specimens and powder were positioned in the specimen holder to ensure a smooth surface and mounted on a fixed horizontal specimen plane. Spectra were recorded at room temperature on a Philips X' Pert X-ray diffractometer with a Cu K α source ($\lambda=1.5418$ Å) in Bragg–Brentano geometry (2θ). Data analyses were carried out using profile fits of select individual XRD peaks.

2.5 Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR)

Ceramic powders sintered specimens were submitted to spectroscopy on infra-red frequency (Vertex 70, Bruker). In the present work, this technique observed the vibration bands that occur between 4000 and 400 cm⁻¹.

2.6 Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope (FE-SEM)/Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy (EDS)

Five specimens from each group was randomly selected after tests and then gold-sprayed for scanning electron microscopy (SEM) analysis (ZEISS, Supra40, Jena, Germany). The measurements were taken into fractured surfaces in 80x, 200x, 400x and 3.000x of magnification.

Five specimens from each group was randomly selected after tests and then gold-sprayed for scanning electron microscopy (SEM) analysis (ZEISS, Supra40, Jena, Germany). The composition measurements were taken in 3.000x magnification at external and fractured surfaces in bar specimens and in start powders.

2.7 Relative Density ($n=10$)

The relative density measurement procedure was performed by the Archimedes principle. This methodology requires mass measurements under 3 different conditions for each specimen: (1) Dry measurement, (2) wet specimens and (3) in liquid immersion.

Density values are obtained with the following equation for each specimen:

$$\rho_{specim} = \frac{w_s}{(w_U - w_I)} \times \rho_{liquid}$$

Where: ρ specimen is the specimen density, w_s is the dry specimen weight, w_u is the wet specimen weight, w_l is the liquid immersion specimen weight, and ρ liquid is the density of the liquid used for specimen immersion.

Mechanical analyses

2.8 Flexural strength ($n=10$)

The 3-point flexural strength test (σ_f) of the bar specimens was performed on a universal testing machine (Sintec 5G, MTS) with a 5000 N compression load and a constant speed of 0.5mm / min. The specimens were positioned in a 3-point flexure device with a distance of 12.0 mm between the support cylinders and the center of the metal sphere where the load was applied. The flexural strength values (σ_f) were determined according to the equation: $\sigma_f = 3Pl / 2wb^2$, where P is the fracture load (N), l is the distance between the supports (span) (12 mm), w is the specimen width (mm), and b is the specimen thickness (mm).

2.9 Fracture toughness by flexural surface fracture (FSF) (adapted from Cesar, et al., 2017 [22], Ramos et al., 2016 [46]) ($n=10$)

Fractured specimen surfaces were cleaned in detergent solution for 15 minutes immersed in ultrasound, followed by immersion for 15 minutes in deionized water and 100% ethanol bath. Specimen surfaces were first examined under a stereomicroscope (Leica 0.45X, Meiji Techno, Japan) to determine the location of the fracture origin.

The size of the critical defect (c) was measured (Image J, Wayne Rasband, USA) at 200x magnification, and quantitative analysis was conducted based on the equation:

$c=(ab)^{1/2}$, where (a) is the height of the origin of the defect and (b) is half its width [47]

The fracture toughness (K_{Ic}) was estimated using the flexural strength values (σ_f) by applying the fracture mechanical principles. The equation: $K_{Ic} = Y\sigma_f \sqrt{a}$ was used for the calculation, based on Griffith – Irwin theory [48,49] where K_{Ic} is fracture toughness ($\text{MPa.m}^{1/2}$), σ_f is resistance to fracture (MPa), Y is the geometric factor of stress intensity (related to defect geometry), and c is the defect size. Y is the parameter that considers the location and shape of the initial defect, which will be calculated according to ASTM C1421.

2.10 Statistical analyses

Data were submitted to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk normality tests. The Levene test was performed to verify the homogeneity of the variances. After verification of normality, they were analyzed by ANOVA at $\alpha = 0.05$, followed by Tukey post-test for comparison between groups.

3 RESULTS

3.1 X-Ray diffraction (XRD)

The XRD results are shown in Figure 2. The XRD spectrum identified predominance in crystallographic planes characteristics of Hydroxyapatite (Card No.: 00-009-0432). The presence of TiO_2 rutile phase peaks is also observed (Card No.: 00-002-0494), in a secondary, tenuous but defined, because of its low amount in the hydroxyapatite matrix. The co-existence of HA and TiO_2 can also be observed in specimens with the addition of nanoparticles. Therefore, there was no creation of a secondary phase.

3.2 Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR)

The FTIR results shows the chemical bonds present in the materials with the bonds represented in graphs (Figure 3 and 4). In all specimens, it can be noted bands attributed to PO_4^{3-} groups (1101 , 1026 , 633 and 560 cm^{-1}). The band at 1650 cm^{-1} is attributed to H_2O bonds. The band at 2300 cm^{-1} is attributed to atmospheric CO_2 , and at 1545 cm^{-1} , attributed to the CO_3^{2-} ions. This can be caused by the dissolution of atmospheric CO_2 in the synthesis [50]. The band 2010 cm^{-1} is attributed to Ca^{2+} -CO bond [51].

The TiO_2 rutile nanoparticles can be noticed by the Ti-O-Ti and Ti-O bonds from 450 to 500 cm^{-1} [52]. As also seen in the XRD results, there was no link between Ti and any chemical element present in HA.

Regarding the graph with sintered materials, it can be noticed a stretched 1100 cm^{-1} band in the sintered specimens, made possible by absorbed water. This pattern is not seen in the sintered specimens. The Ti-O-Ti and Ti-O bonds is only evidenced in the sintered specimen of 5% TiO_2 added. In the other specimens, these bands may be deviated to a frequency below 500 cm^{-1} . According to the literature, such connections can be observed from 400 to 700 cm^{-1} [52].

3.3 Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FE-SEM)/ Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy (EDS)

The FE-SEM images ($3000\times$ magnification) of fracture surface, shows a surface similarity between the pure HA group and the group with 8% TiO_2 added (Figures 5a and 5c). The group with 5% of nanoparticles (Figure 5b) shows its surface with a greater disorganization of the grains, presenting a fracture pattern apparently different

from the others. We can also notice an apparent greater cohesion between the grains of the specimens of pure ceramics and with the addition of 8% of TiO₂ nanoparticles.

Another characteristic that can be noticed is the reduction of pores in the groups with the addition of nanoparticles in relation to the group without TiO₂. The group with 5% TiO₂ nanoparticles appears to have a lower number of pores when compared to the others.

The EDS analyses are presented in Figures 6, 7 and 8. The results of defined localization indicate the composition of the material. The chemical elements saw were calcium, phosphorus, oxygen, magnesium and gold for all groups. Moreover, titanium was identified for reinforced TiO₂ nanoparticles groups.

For the defined location, the EDS mapping (Figures 9 and 10) shows the irregularity in the distribution of Ti in the specimen, both in the group 5% and in the 8% reinforced TiO₂ nanoparticles groups.

3.4 Relative Density

The relative density values are presented in Table 2. The results indicate statistically significant difference between the groups. The HA/TiO₂np8% group ($2,9 \pm 0,09$ g/cm³) presented higher density compared with the pure HA ($2,7 \pm 0,03$ g/cm³) ($p = 0,011$) and the HA/TiO₂np5% ($2,7 \pm 0,05$ g/cm³) ($p = 0,041$) groups. The pure HA and HA/TiO₂np5% groups presented statistical similarity in their results ($p = 0,735$).

3.5 Flexural Strength (FS)

The flexural strength data obtained from 3-point surface flexion are presented in Table 3. The results indicate statistical significance difference between the groups. The pure HA ($51,7 \pm 10,3$ MPa) and HA/TiO₂np8% ($47,4 \pm 6,4$ MPa) groups presented higher flexural strength, being similar to each other ($p = 0,331$). Comparing with the

HA/TiO₂np5% group ($28,8 \pm 3,1$ MPa), the previously mentioned groups presented significant difference ($p < 0,001$; $p < 0,001$).

3.6 Fracture Toughness by flexural surface fracture (FS)

The Fracture Toughness (K_{Ic}) and critic defect (c) data obtained are presented in Table 4. The results indicate statistical significance difference between the groups. The pure HA ($0,43 \pm 0,01$ MPa m^{1/2}) and HA/TiO₂np8% ($0,40 \pm 0,06$ MPa m^{1/2}) groups presented higher K_{Ic}, being similar to each other ($p = 0,849$). Comparing with the HA/TiO₂np5% group ($0,23 \pm 0,02$ MPa m^{1/2}), the previously mentioned groups presented statistically significant difference ($p < 0,003$; $p < 0,007$).

4. DISCUSSION

The proposal of the study was the synthesis of a reinforced hydroxyapatite dense bioceramic with 5 and 8% of TiO₂ nanoparticles. Characteristics are sought between the mimetic, tooth, and the purely mechanical ideal, with high hardness, such as Zirconia.

Following a previous study [35] that found promising results by adding TiO₂ nanoparticle in a HA matrix comparing to pure HA ceramic, this kind of nanostructure was chosen in attempts to increase some mechanical properties. The choice of higher amount in TiO₂ nanoparticle was followed. It was assumed that a crack deflection mechanism, reported by Faber and Evans [19], could be increase the reinforced HA groups material fracture toughness. The choice for rutile TiO₂ nanoparticle was based on its greater chemical stability in comparison to anatase TiO₂ [39,40]. It can be noticed through the FTIR and XRD analyzes the incorporation of TiO₂ nanoparticles as a load

particle in the two groups with the TiO₂ nanoparticles added. In the present work, the mix of hydroxyapatite and TiO₂ nanoparticles did not form secondary phases. However, the EDS analysis shows that the titanium distribution in the specimens was not homogeneous, however, HA/TiO₂np8% showed be more homogeneous than HA/TiO₂np5%. The irregularity in the distribution of TiO₂ may be one of the reasons why the mechanical properties of the HA/TiO₂np5% was lower compared to the others groups in both, flexural strength and fracture toughness properties.

The second reason can be the absence of secondary phases with HA, since the location in the matrix can influence the material's resistance. The reinforcement particle can be distributed in four modes: 1) along the grain boundaries of the matrix, 2) inside the grains of the matrix, 3) both along the grain boundaries or inside the grains, or 4) both the matrix and reinforcement grains are uniformly distributed [53]. If they are uniformly distributed in the material matrix, they behave differently than they do when are concentrated in the grain's insides or boundaries, resulting in a material with better mechanical properties [54]. Moreover, the nanostructure being along the grain boundaries is one of the reasons for the easy fracture of the composite material [53]. However, as the more uniform distribution was seen for HA/TiO₂np8% the major localization of nanoparticles in our materials matrix was more seemed to be in the grain boundaries, further analyses can be conducted to exactly determine this in ceramic composites as SEM, TEM, Laser Confocal Microscopy, Raman spectroscopy and Zeta potential analyses [53].

It is also known in the literature that one of the characteristics of the TiO₂ anatase phase is its good behavior when added to ceramic materials [38,55-59]. In the previous study by Pires et al, 2020 [35], in the 5% concentration of Anatase, the

mechanical characteristics of dense HA ceramics are similar to those of pure HA. In this current study, TiO₂ rutile resulted in lower mechanical values at a concentration of 5%. Despite the poor flexural strength and fracture toughness shown in the HA with 5% amount of rutile, when this concentration is increased to 8% amount, the results were similar to the pure HA.

Fractographic inspection is needed to perform the fracture toughness analyses [46]. By verifying the fracture origin, size, geometry and characteristic areas that define the critical defect that possibly caused the initial of the fracture [59]. Fractographic can predict the fracture toughness of the ceramic materials from flexural strength tests [58,59]. Regarding the size of the critical defect, similar averages were observed among the groups, showing means of 44.4 μm , 44.0 μm and 40.0 μm , respectively for pure HA, Ha/TiO₂5%np and Ha/TiO₂8%np. It is important to note that, according to the Griffith–Irwin theory calculation [48,49], the greater the flexural strength and critical defect size, the greater the fracture toughness result.

When the mechanical results are thought related to the relative density results, HA/TiO₂np8% still is a promising group. Density results are in accordance to the higher theoretical density of TiO₂ [38] since pure HA group and HA/TiO₂np5% were similar, being a number between 5 and 8% on which above this increased its density compared to the pure HA. It was defined in previous studies that use mechanical mechanisms such as nanoparticles, can act on density increasing and microstructure control by grain growth of materials [17-18].

Furthermore, another factor that can be inferred through the density result is the number of pores in the material structure. A previous study [61] discussed the possible relation between the pores existing and the grain growth. Its sizes increase with the gas diffusion within pores during sintering process. In addition, the grain growth

increasing, increases the relative density of the material [61]. Other previous literature discusses the increase of the pores number with increase of particles amount. [62,63]. However, it is yet discussed that other factors that influence this fact, such ceramic grain size, grain growth and grain boundaries [64,65]. Moreover, adjusting the correct sintering time and temperature for the material, can also decrease the number of pores [62,63], grain growth and material densification [61].

The homogeneous distribution of the microstructures can influence the sintering process [61]. Usually, when mixing powders, the material can agglomerate resulting in small inter-agglomerated pores. During sintering, they can sinter faster with the rapid growth of grains, while the large inter-clustered pores of the non-clustered matrix have a lower sintering predisposition. [66-68]. Finally, the optimization of the temperature leads to an increase in the bond strength between the grains of the material, which may increase its mechanical strength [62,69,70].

5. CONCLUSIONS

Within the limitations of this in vitro study, it can be concluded that:

The addition of rutile TiO₂ nanoparticles to an HA matrix can be considered as a filler particle and the 8% in volume can be a promising HA blend material, since flexural strength and fracture toughness similar to the pure HA, and superior relative density.

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APPENDIX – TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 1. Density and proportion of components used in specimens' preparation.

Component	Density (g/cm ³)	Proportion (%)	Function
HA	3.14	30% (total volume)	Ceramic powder
PABA (4-Aminobenzoic acid)	1.37	0.05% (ZrO ₂ weight)	Deflocculant
PVB (Polyvinyl butyral)	1.1	2% (ZrO ₂ weight)	Binder
Isopropyl alcohol	0.78	70% (total volume)	Solvent
TiO ₂ nanoparticles	4.23	5 and 8% (total volume)	Reinforcement

Table 2. Relative Density Data of experimental dense bovine HA ceramics by Archimeds' Method (g/cm³)

Groups	Mean ± Standard Deviation
HA	2,7± 0,03 b
HA/TiO ₂ np5%	2,7± 0,05 b
HA/TiO ₂ np8%	2,9± 0,09 a

Different letters indicate statistically significant difference of 5% (p<0.05).

Table 3. Flexural Strength Data of experimental dense bovine HA (MPa)

Groups	Mean ± Standard Deviation
HA	51.7 ± 10,3 a
HA/TiO ₂ np5%	28,8 ± 3,1 b
HA/TiO ₂ np8%	47,4 ± 6,4 a

Different letters indicate statistically significant difference of 5% (p<0.05).

Table 4. Critical Defect (c) and Fracture Toughness (K_{Ic}) Data of experimental dense bovine HA

	HA	HA/TiO ₂ np5%	HA/TiO ₂ np8%
c (µm)	44,4	44,0	40,0
K _{Ic} (MPa m ^{1/2})	0,43 ± 0,01 a	0,23 ± 0,02 b	0,40 ± 0,06 a

Different letters indicate statistically significant difference of 5% (p<0.05).

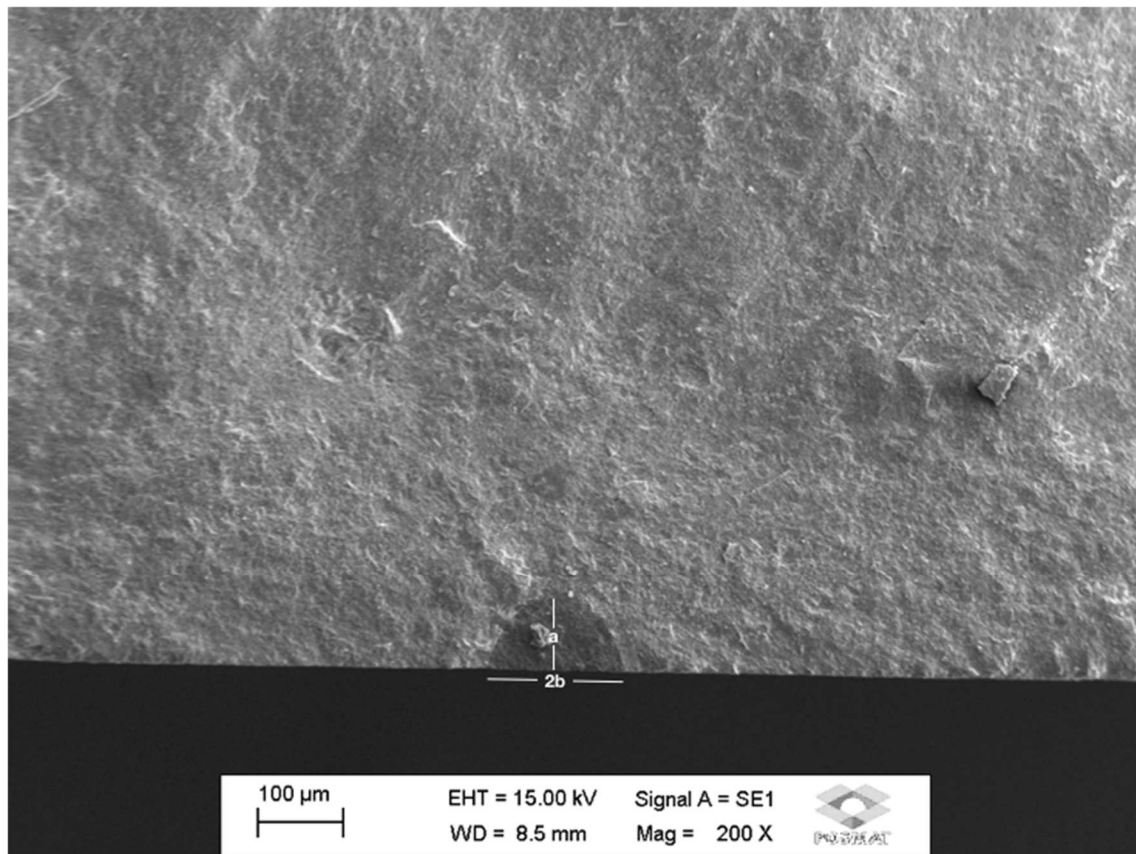


Figure 1. Fractured surface of pure bovine HA ceramic with schematic critical defect measurement

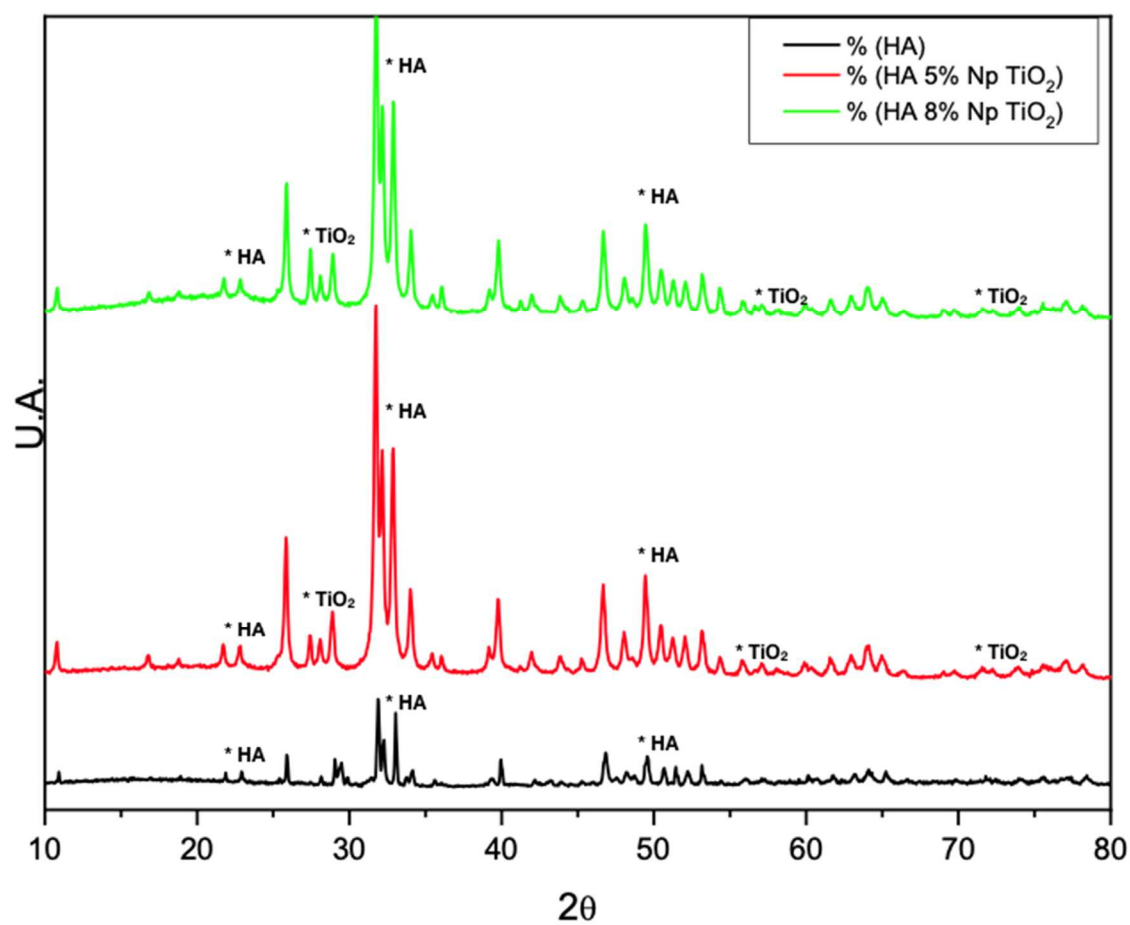


Figure 2. XRD patterns of pure HA, HA/5% TiO_2np and HA/8% TiO_2np .

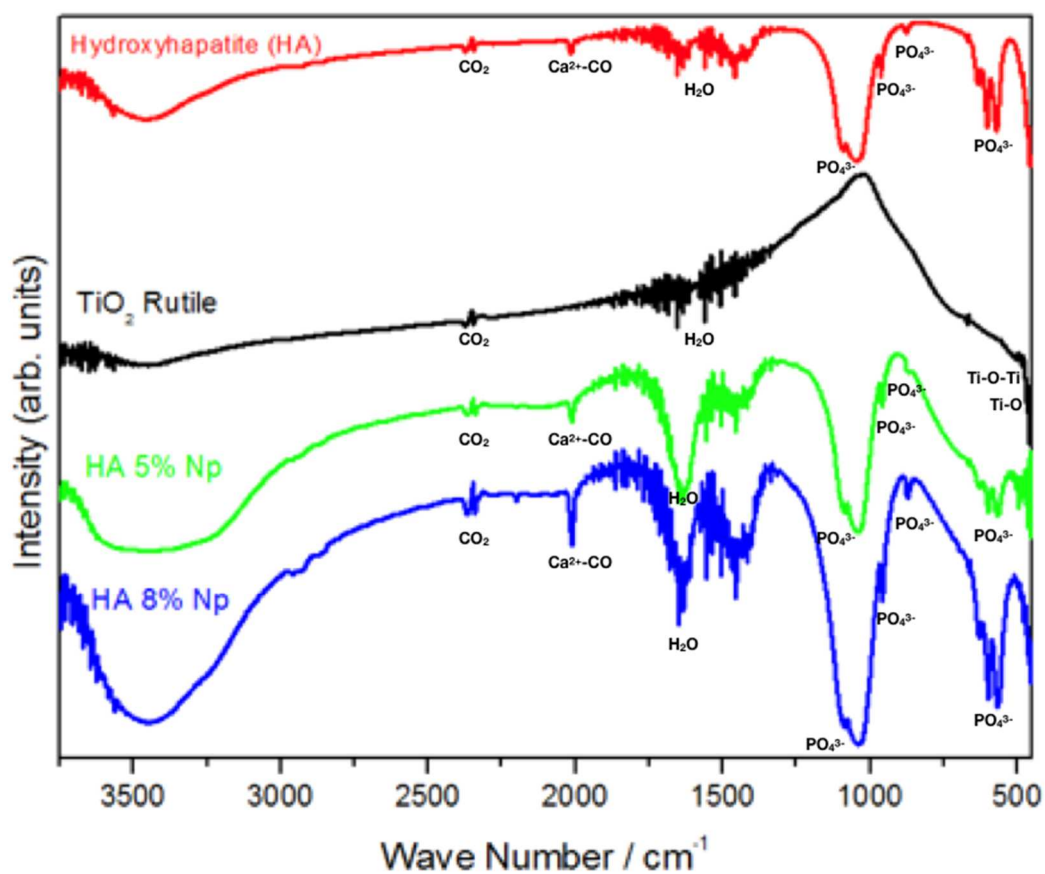


Figure 3. FTIR spectra of starting ceramic powder.

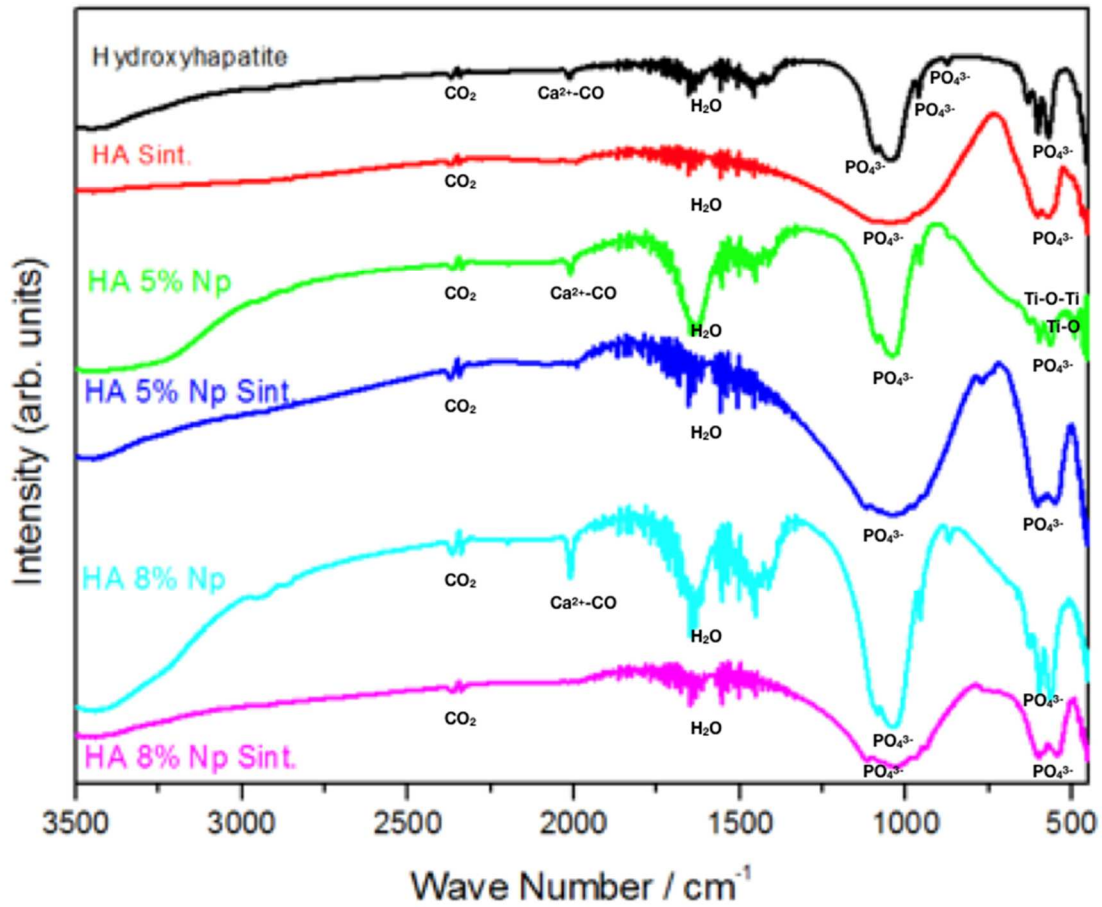


Figure 4. FTIR spectra of powder and sintered ceramic specimens.

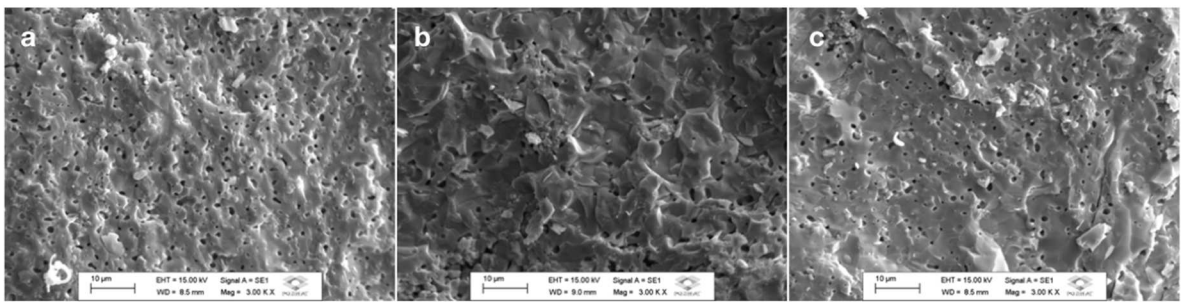


Figure 5. FE-SEM of groups (a) Pure Ha, (b) HA/5%TiO₂np and (c) HA/8%TiO₂np

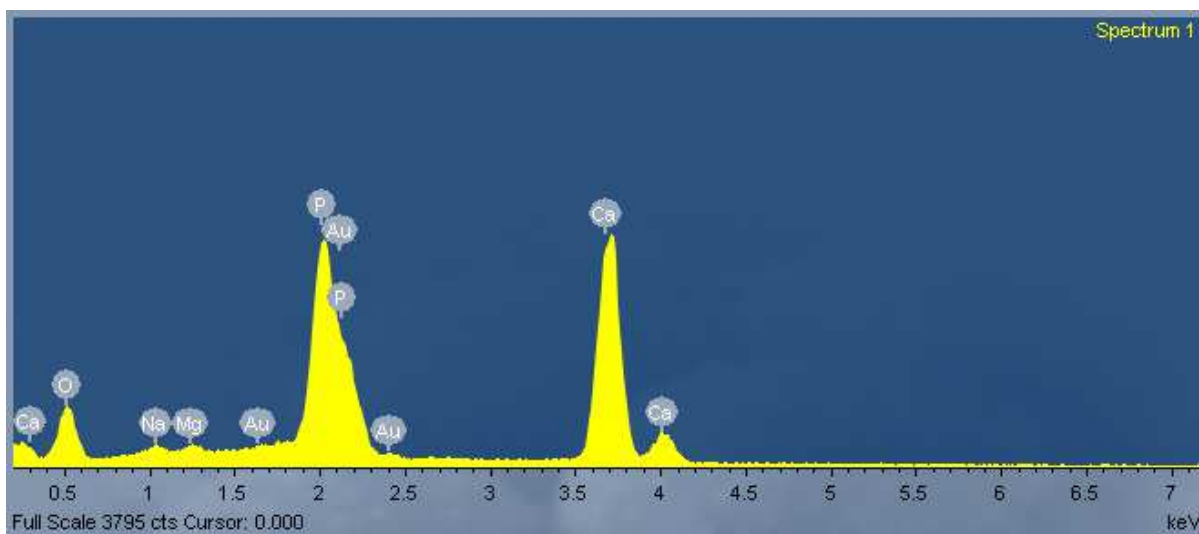


Figure 6. EDS analysis of Pure HA specimen external surface. Note the predominance of P, Ca, followed by O, Mg and Na.

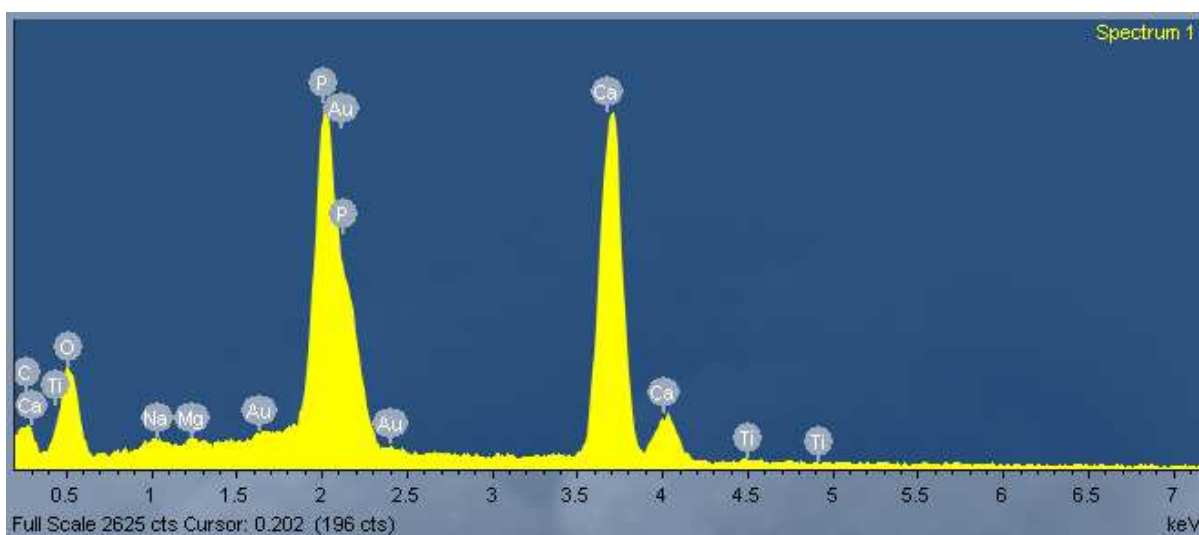


Figure 7. EDS analysis of HA5%npTiO₂ specimen external surface. Note the predominance of P, Ca, followed by Ti, C, O, Mg, and Na.

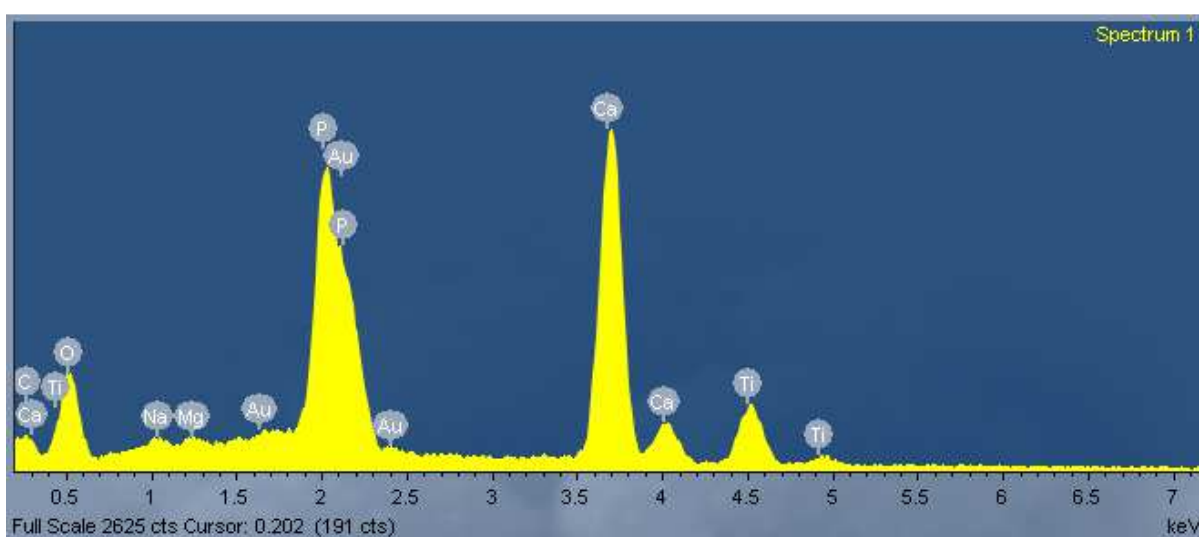


Figure 8. EDS analysis of HA8%npTiO₂ specimen external surface. Note the predominance of P, Ca, followed by Ti, C, O, Mg, Na.

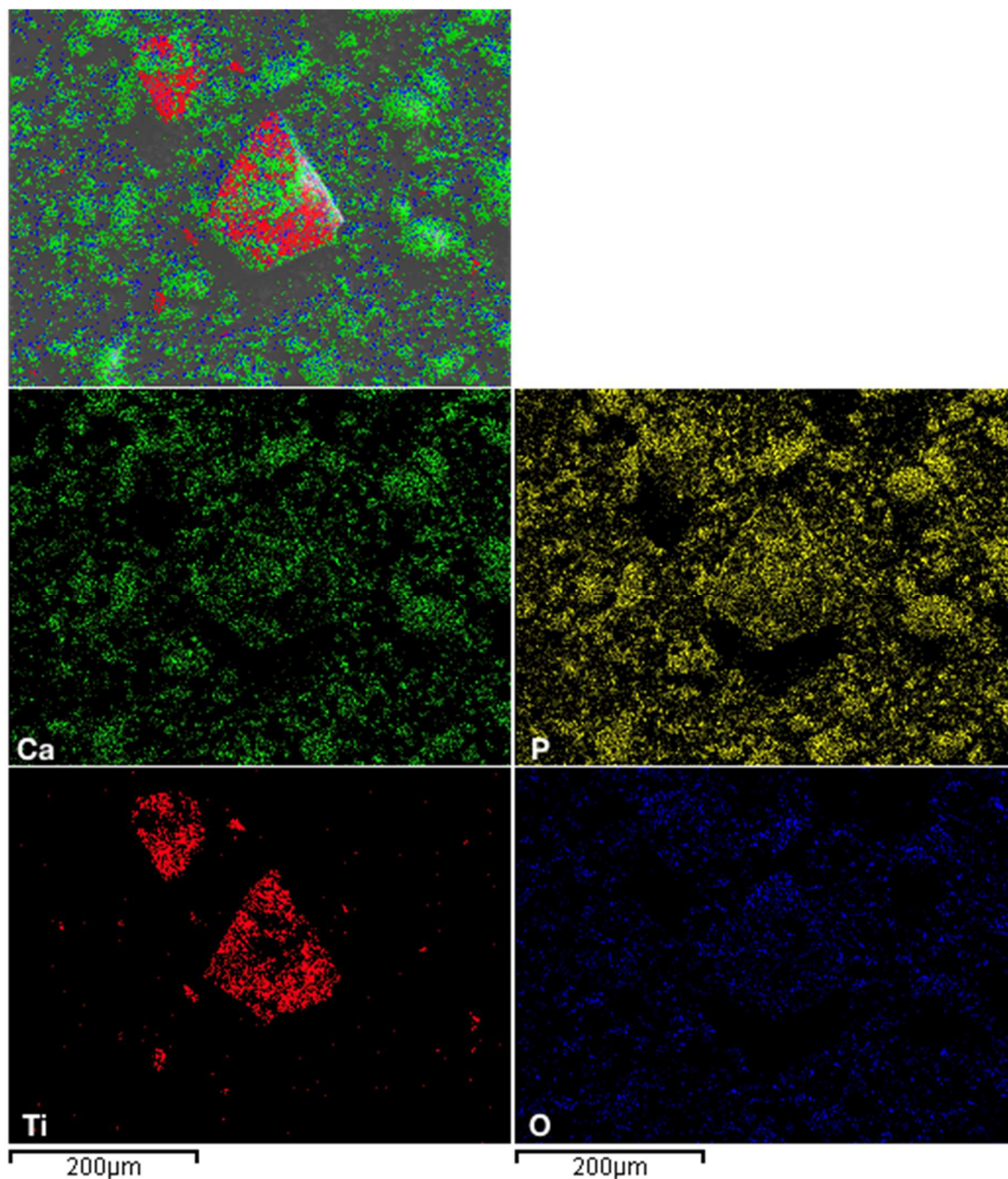


Figure 9. EDS mapping of HA5%npTiO₂ group. Note that Ti was red-identified in a non-homogeneous spreading, different from the Ca, P and O spreading patterns.

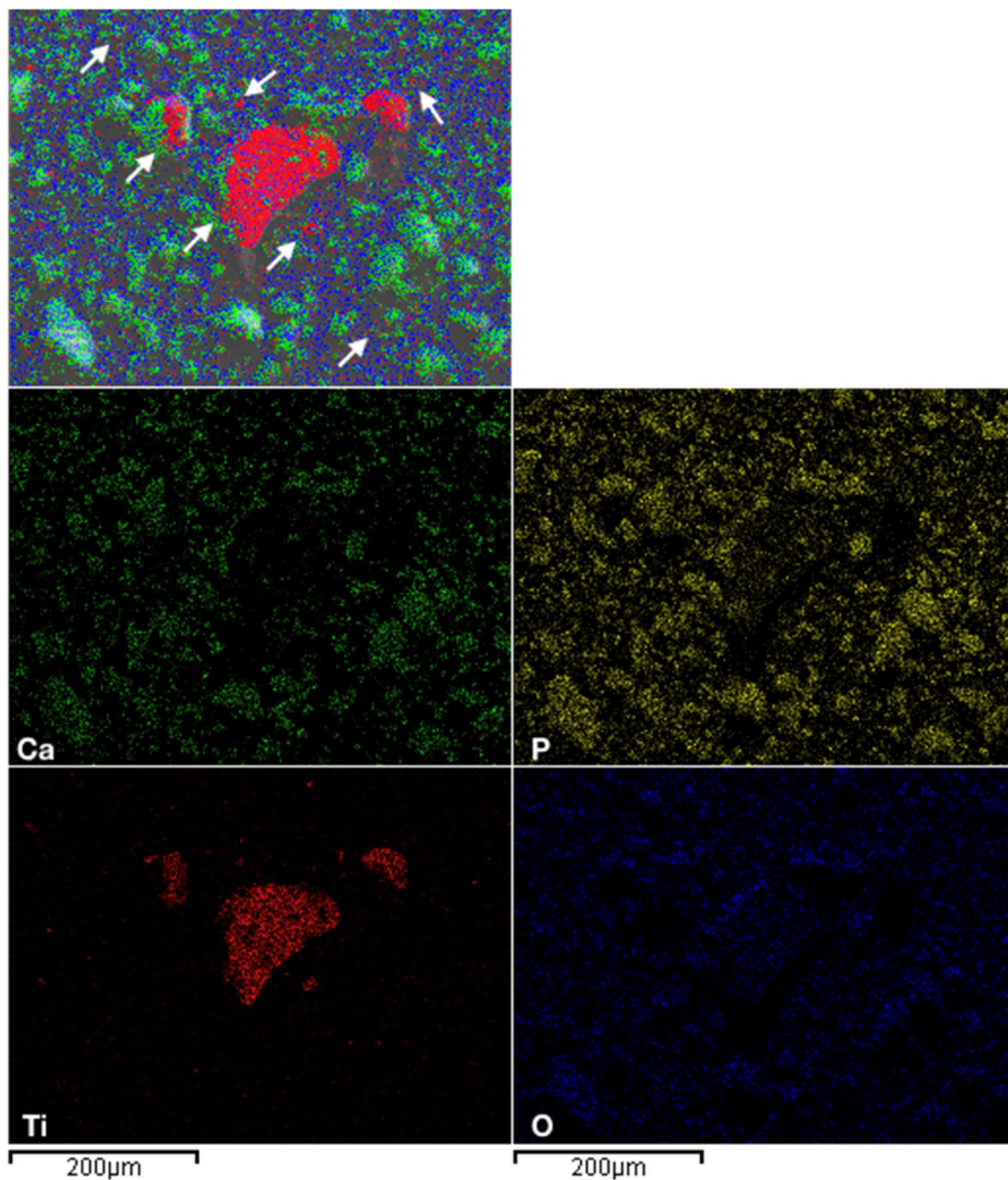


Figure 10. EDS mapping of HA8%npTiO₂ group. Note that Ti was red-identified in a more homogeneous spreading compared to the HA5%npTiO₂ group (white arrows)