

UNIVERSIDADE DE SÃO PAULO  
FACULDADE DE ODONTOLOGIA DE BAURU

LETICIA FLORINDO PEREIRA

**Experimental calcium phosphate ceramic with titanium dioxide nanoparticles: manufacturing, characterization, mechanical and chemical properties analysis**

**Cerâmica experimental a base de fosfato de cálcio com adição de nanopartículas de dióxido de titânio: desenvolvimento, caracterização e análise de propriedades mecânicas e química**

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Orientadora: Profa. Dra. Ana Flávia Sanches Borges

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## ERRATA



## FOLHA DE APROVAÇÃO

## **DEDICATÓRIA**

Aos meus pais Jason e Márcia e à minha irmã Leda.

Porque o amor pela minha família é o que me renova e abastece o meu coração. A vocês dedico não somente essa, mas todas as realizações da minha vida.

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*“Só é possível caminhar em direção a excelência se  
você souber que não sabe algumas coisas.”*

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## ABSTRACT

### **Experimental calcium phosphate ceramic with titanium dioxide nanoparticles: manufacturing, characterization, mechanical and chemical properties analysis**

The following study proposed the development and characterization of a new ceramic for dental use made from hydroxyapatite (HA) extracted from bovine bones, with the intention of reusing these solid wastes and turning them into a sustainable and low-cost material. Furthermore, the addition of titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>) nanoparticles to this material was carried out in an attempt to improve its mechanical and chemical properties. Disks ( $\varnothing = 14 \pm 2$  mm; thickness =  $1.2 \pm 0.2$  mm) were obtained through uniaxial and isostatic pressing from bovine hydroxyapatite powder and TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles and sintered at 1300°C for 2 hours. Three experimental groups were developed (HA, HA+5%TiO<sub>2</sub> and HA+8%TiO<sub>2</sub>) and microstructurally characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS). For mechanical and chemical analysis, indentation fracture (IF), biaxial flexural strength (BFS) and chemical solubility tests were performed. XRD spectra revealed the appearance of a peak corresponding to  $\beta$ -tricalcium phosphate ( $\beta$ -TCP) for HA group. For HA+5%TiO<sub>2</sub> and HA+8%TiO<sub>2</sub>, the entire composition was converted into  $\beta$ -TCP and calcium titanate (CaTiO<sub>3</sub>). IF toughness was higher for HA+5%TiO<sub>2</sub> ( $1.34 \pm 0.26$  MPa.m<sup>1/2</sup>) and HA+8%TiO<sub>2</sub> ( $1.28 \pm 0.21$  MPa.m<sup>1/2</sup>) than for HA ( $0.65 \pm 0.10$  MPa.m<sup>1/2</sup>). HA showed significantly higher characteristic stress (295.8 MPa) in relation to groups with 5% (235.1 MPa) and 8% (214.4 MPa) TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. The Weibull modulus values of the three groups were statistically similar. The solubility results indicated that all experimental ceramics were above the 2000 ug/cm<sup>2</sup> limit set by the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) 6872:2015. The experimental calcium phosphate ceramic with additions of 5% and 8% of TiO<sub>2</sub> achieved desirable mechanical properties, but very high chemical solubility values.

Keywords: Ceramics. Dental Materials. Bone. Nanotechnology. Apatites.

## RESUMO

Este estudo propôs o desenvolvimento e caracterização de uma nova cerâmica para uso odontológico feita a partir de hidroxiapatita (HA). A HA foi extraída de ossos bovinos, com a intenção de reaproveitar esses resíduos sólidos e transformá-los em um material sustentável e de baixo custo. Além disso, a adição de nanopartículas de dióxido de titânio ( $\text{TiO}_2$ ) (5 e 8%) a este material foi realizada na tentativa de melhorar suas propriedades mecânicas e químicas. Discos ( $\varnothing 14 \pm 2$  mm; espessura =  $1.2 \pm 0.2$  mm) foram obtidos por prensagem uniaxial e isostática a partir de um pó de hidroxiapatita bovina e nanopartículas de  $\text{TiO}_2$  e sinterizados a  $1300^\circ\text{C}$  por 2 horas. Três grupos experimentais foram desenvolvidos (HA, HA+5% $\text{TiO}_2$  e HA+8% $\text{TiO}_2$ ) e caracterizados microestruturalmente por difração de raios-X (DRX), microscopia eletrônica de varredura (MEV) e espectroscopia por energia dispersiva (EDS). Para análise mecânica e química dos materiais, os testes de tenacidade à fratura pelo método da indentação, de resistência à flexão biaxial (RFB) e de solubilidade química foram realizados. Os espectros de DRX revelaram, para o grupo HA, o aparecimento de um pico correspondente ao beta-tricálcio fosfato ( $\beta$ -TCP). Para HA+5% $\text{TiO}_2$  e HA+8% $\text{TiO}_2$ , toda a composição de HA e  $\text{TiO}_2$  foi convertida em  $\beta$ -TCP e titanato de cálcio ( $\text{CaTiO}_3$ ). A tenacidade à fratura foi maior para HA+5% $\text{TiO}_2$  ( $1,34 \pm 0,26$  MPa.m<sup>1/2</sup>) e HA+8% $\text{TiO}_2$  ( $1,28 \pm 0,21$  MPa.m<sup>1/2</sup>) do que para HA ( $0,65 \pm 0,10$  MPa.m<sup>1/2</sup>). HA apresentou resistência característica significativamente maior (295,8 MPa) em relação aos grupos com 5% (235,1 MPa) e 8% (214,4 MPa) de nanopartículas de  $\text{TiO}_2$ . Os valores de módulo Weibull dos três grupos foram estatisticamente semelhantes. Os resultados de solubilidade indicaram que todas as cerâmicas experimentais estavam acima do limite de 2000 ug/cm<sup>2</sup> permitido pela *International Organization for Standardization* (ISO) 6872:2015. A cerâmica experimental de fosfato de cálcio com adições de 5% e 8% de  $\text{TiO}_2$  alcançou propriedades mecânicas desejáveis, mas valores de solubilidade química muito elevados.

Palavras-chave: Cerâmicas. Materiais Dentários. Osso. Nanotecnologia. Apatitas.

## SUMÁRIO

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## 1 INTRODUÇÃO

Cerâmicas de fosfato de cálcio são estudadas para aplicações na área da saúde já há muitos anos, devido suas excelentes propriedades biológicas (MONROE *et al.*, 1971). Existem várias cerâmicas de fosfato de cálcio, que se diferenciam pela estequiometria (razão entre Ca e P presentes) e propriedades físico-químicas (ELIAZ; METOKI, 2017).

A hidroxiapatita (HA) é uma cerâmica de fosfato de cálcio e o principal componente mineral dos dentes e tecidos ósseos que vem sendo amplamente estudada na engenharia de tecidos para utilização como biomaterial em áreas médicas e odontológicas (SWETHA *et al.*, 2010; BORDEA *et al.*, 2020; LIM *et al.*, 2020). Esse material é de grande interesse em muitas áreas por apresentar admiráveis propriedades biológicas, como bioatividade, biocompatibilidade e alta osteocondutividade, já apresentando comprovação de segurança biológica e sendo amplamente utilizado na área de cirurgia e implantodontia para enxertia, regeneração óssea e revestimento de implantes (ELIAZ; METOKI, 2017; BORDEA *et al.*, 2020; GHIASI *et al.*, 2020). Essas propriedades somadas à possibilidade de utilização tanto na conformação porosa quanto densa, a permitem ser um material muito versátil, com múltiplas aplicações clínicas em Odontologia (PRAKASAM *et al.*, 2015; MBARKI *et al.*, 2017; PIRES *et al.*, 2020; BORDEA *et al.*, 2020).

HA pode ser extraída de fontes biológicas ou resíduos naturais, como cascas de ovos, algas marinhas, plantas, ossos animais ou escamas de peixes, o que é considerado um processo ecologicamente correto e sustentável (AKRAM *et al.*, 2014; MOHD PU'AD *et al.*, 2019; AGBEBOH *et al.*, 2020). Neste estudo, a cerâmica densa de HA tem sua origem na reutilização de ossos bovinos, sendo uma fonte acessível, renovável e inesgotável de HA para uso como matéria-prima, além de o método de extração ser economicamente viável e eficiente (JAYATHILAKAN *et al.*, 2012; KUSRINI; SONTANG, 2012; RINCÓN-LÓPEZ *et al.*, 2018).

Os materiais de cerâmica pura estão se tornando cada vez mais populares para substituir a estrutura dentária ausente (POGGIO *et al.*, 2017). Entretanto, a possível aplicação de uma cerâmica densa policristalina à base de HA como restauração é limitada por apresentar baixas propriedades mecânicas, como tenacidade à fratura e resistência à flexão (PRAKASAM *et al.*, 2015; ELIAZ; METOKI, 2017). Além disso, para uso como um material restaurador, a cerâmica de HA deve demonstrar

durabilidade no meio bucal, onde estariam constantemente sujeitas à dissolução por ataque químico neste ambiente (HAWSAWI *et al.*, 2020).

A Norma ISO (*International Standard Organization*) 6872 (2015) especifica os requisitos e métodos de ensaio padronizados para caracterizar e avaliar as propriedades de materiais cerâmicos odontológicos para restaurações e próteses fixas totalmente cerâmicas e metalocerâmicas. De acordo com os valores obtidos nos testes de resistência à flexão, tenacidade à fratura e solubilidade química, os materiais cerâmicos destinados para uso como próteses fixas podem ser classificados e indicados para o uso clínico específico (ISO 6872, 2015).

A fim de aprimorar o comportamento mecânico e a durabilidade de um material, a adição de nanomateriais tem sido proposta (FABER; EVANS, 1983; FATHI *et al.*, 2014; PIRES *et al.*, 2020). Nanopartículas de dióxido de titânio (TiO<sub>2</sub>) têm se destacado na área odontológica como aditivo em materiais dentários, uma vez que são capazes de potencializar propriedades mecânicas (WETZEL *et al.*, 2006; XIA *et al.*, 2008; GHAREMANI *et al.*, 2017) e biológicas (ELSAKA; HAMOUDA; SWAIN, 2011; SODAGAR *et al.*, 2017), além de diminuir a solubilidade química dos materiais (FATHI *et al.*, 2014). A adição de nanopartículas de TiO<sub>2</sub> em uma cerâmica densa de HA bovina já foi investigada previamente por Pires *et al.* (2020) nas concentrações de 1%, 2% e 5% e foi demonstrado que a concentração de 5% teve o maior potencial para melhorar as características mecânicas do material. A HA com adição de 5% de nanopartículas de TiO<sub>2</sub> teve o valor de dureza Vickers médio (399.6 ± 15.31 HV) significativamente maior quando comparado à HA pura (335 ± 12.98 HV). Quanto à resistência a flexão, os valores permaneceram sem diferença estatística, mas alcançaram um valor aceitável (214,9 ± 36,4 MPa) de acordo com as exigências da norma ISO 6872:2015.

Atualmente, uma grande quantidade de materiais cerâmicos e vias de processamento estão disponíveis para serem utilizados em Odontologia na fabricação de restaurações (GRACIS *et al.*, 2015). No entanto, até hoje, não existe no mercado uma cerâmica que consiga integrar tecnologia, sustentabilidade, segurança biológica e baixo custo em um só material. Por apresentar-se como um material atrativo e promissor, torna-se necessário investigar o efeito da adição de TiO<sub>2</sub> em concentrações maiores que 5% em peso, na microestrutura e nas propriedades mecânicas e químicas de uma cerâmica densa de HA de origem bovina.

**2 ARTIGO**

The article presented in this Dissertation was written according to the *Dental Materials* instructions and guidelines for article submission.

**Experimental calcium phosphate ceramic with titanium dioxide nanoparticles: manufacturing, characterization, mechanical and chemical properties analysis**

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## ABSTRACT

*Objectives.* Develop a sustainable bovine hydroxyapatite dental ceramic with the addition of titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>) nanoparticles (5% and 8% by weight), analyzing the outcome of this addition to the microstructure, as well as its mechanical and chemical properties, in order to evaluate whether they satisfy the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) 6872:2015 for dental ceramics or not.

*Methods.* Disks were obtained through uniaxial and isostatic pressing from bovine hydroxyapatite powder and TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles and sintered at 1300°C for 2h. Three experimental groups were developed (HA, HA+5%TiO<sub>2</sub> and HA+8%TiO<sub>2</sub>) and subjected to X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS), indentation fracture (IF), biaxial flexural strength (BFS) and chemical solubility test.

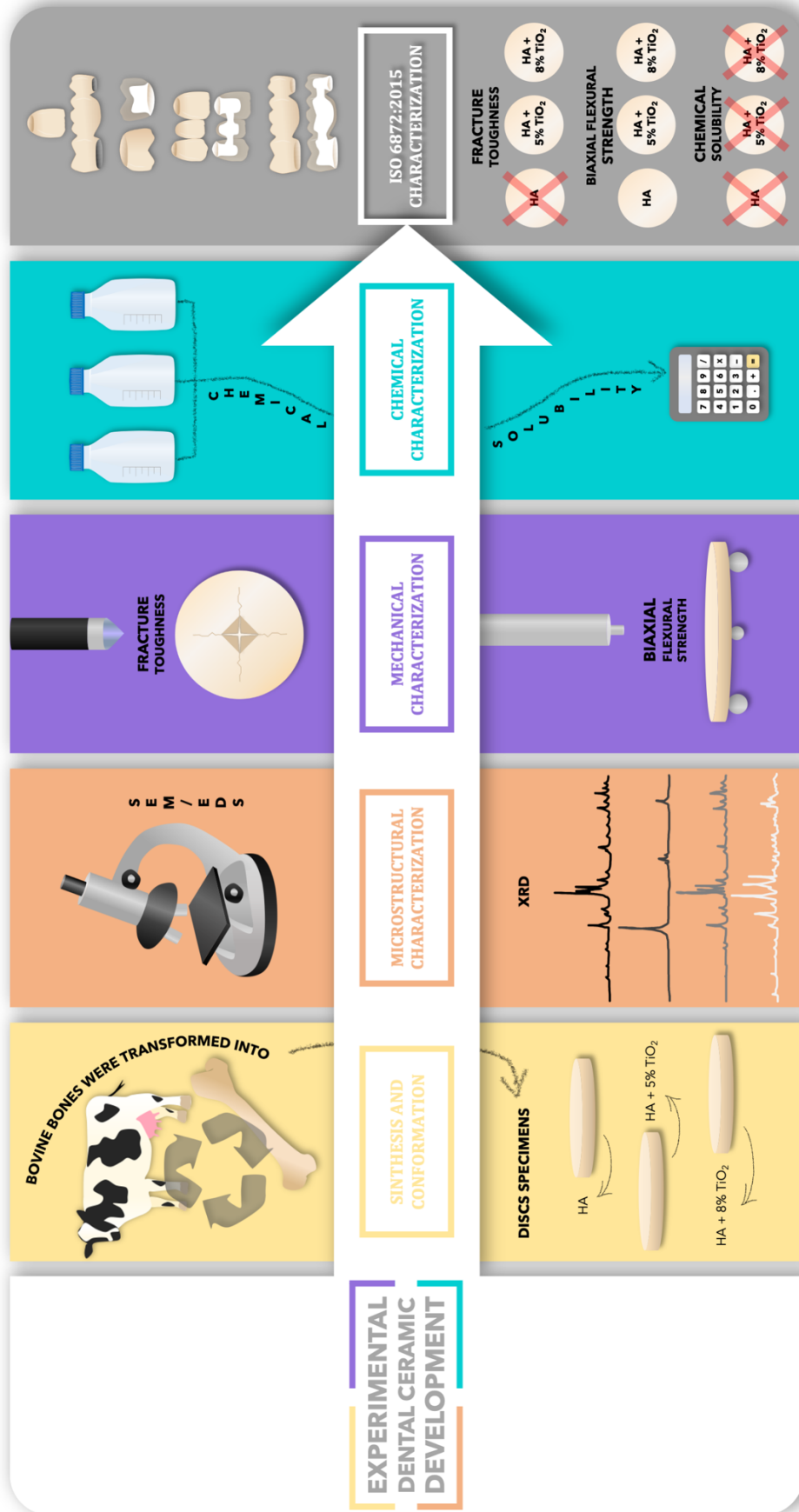
*Results.* XRD revealed, for HA group, the appearance of a peak corresponding to  $\beta$ -tricalcium phosphate ( $\beta$ -TCP). For HA+5%TiO<sub>2</sub> and HA+8%TiO<sub>2</sub>, the entire composition was converted into  $\beta$ -TCP and calcium titanate (CaTiO<sub>3</sub>). The SEM images showed a dense ceramic matrix and a uniform distribution of another phase in groups with TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. HA+5%TiO<sub>2</sub> ( $1.34 \pm 0.26$  MPa.m<sup>1/2</sup>) and HA+8%TiO<sub>2</sub> ( $1.28 \pm 0.21$  MPa.m<sup>1/2</sup>) showed significantly higher fracture toughness values than HA ( $0.65 \pm 0.10$  MPa.m<sup>1/2</sup>). HA showed significantly higher characteristic stress (295.8 MPa) in comparison to groups with 5% (235.1 MPa) and 8% (214.4 MPa) TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. Differences were not observed between the Weibull modulus values. The solubility results indicated that all experimental ceramics were above the 2000 ug/cm<sup>2</sup> limit set by the ISO 6872:2015.

*Significance.* This study proposed the development and characterization of a new ceramic for dental use made from HA extracted from bovine bones, with the intention of reusing these solids waste and transforming them into a sustainable and low-cost material. Although the experimental calcium phosphate ceramic with additions of 5% and 8% of TiO<sub>2</sub> achieved desirable mechanical properties, the chemical solubility values were very high.

*Keywords:* Ceramics. Dental Materials. Bone. Nanotechnology. Apatites.



GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



## 1. INTRODUCTION

Calcium phosphates (CaP) form a privileged class of biomaterials because of their remarkable biological properties [1]. Depending on the Ca/P ratio, several families of CaP can be established [2]. One of the most important CaP ceramics is hydroxyapatite (HA) (Ca/P = 1.67), the major tooth and natural bones' inorganic component [1]. HA is of great interest for many fields because of its excellent bioactivity, biocompatibility and high osteoconductivity [3]. These properties, added to the possibility of use in dense or porous conformations, allow it to be an extremely versatile material, with multiple uses in dental applications [4-7].

HA can be extracted from natural sources, such as bones from different animals [8]. HA generated from bovine bones offers economic benefits, as it relies on the use of cheap, natural and undesirable material, and is attractive from an environmental point of view, since it can be generated from waste [2]. The reuse of these solids is considered an eco-friendly, environmentally sustainable and economically viable process [9, 10].

The possibility of using a dense ceramic made from HA as a dental restoration is limited by its low mechanical properties, such as fracture toughness and flexural strength [4, 11]. Furthermore, to be used as a restorative material, HA ceramics must demonstrate durability in the oral environment, where they would be constantly subject to dissolution by chemical attack [12].

The International Organization for Standardization (ISO) 6872:2015 specifies the requirements and the corresponding testing methods to characterize and evaluate the dental ceramic materials properties for all-ceramic and metal-ceramic restorations and prostheses. According to the values obtained in the flexural strength, fracture toughness and chemical solubility tests, ceramic materials intended to be used as dental prostheses can be classified and recommended for specific clinical use [13].

In order to improve the mechanical behavior and durability of a material, the addition of nanomaterials has been proposed [6, 14, 15]. Titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>) nanoparticles have been getting more attention in the dental field as an additive to different materials, since they are capable of enhancing mechanical [16-18] and biological [19, 20] properties, apart from decreasing the materials' chemical solubility [15]. The addition of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles to a dense bovine HA ceramic has been

previously investigated [6] at concentrations of 1%, 2% and 5% and it was shown that the 5% had the greatest potential to improve its mechanical characteristics.

Currently, a large number of ceramic materials and processing methods are available to be used in the fabrication of dental restorations [21]. However, none of these integrate technology, sustainability, biological safety and low cost in a single material. The combination of HA and TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles presents itself as an attractive and promising material and therefore, this study aims to develop a bovine hydroxyapatite dental ceramic with the addition of titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>) nanoparticles (5wt% and 8wt%) and investigate the outcome of this addition on the microstructure as well as on the mechanical and chemical properties, evaluating whether they satisfy the ISO 6872:2015 for dental ceramics or not.

## 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

### 2.1. Preparation of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles

The TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles were obtained by the sol–gel method. 185 mL of distilled water, 56.7 mL of isopropanol, and 2.6 mL of nitric acid (HNO<sub>3</sub>) were added to an Erlenmeyer flask. Next, 15 mL of titanium isopropoxide (IV) were added to the solution and the contents stirred at 300 rpm for 30 min, on a magnetic plate. The solution was heated at 85 °C while stirring. The heating and stirring patterns were maintained until the complete evaporation of the liquid, which resulted in condensation. Subsequently, the resulting gel was heat-treated at 450 °C for two hours and reduced to a homogeneous powder (Figure 1).

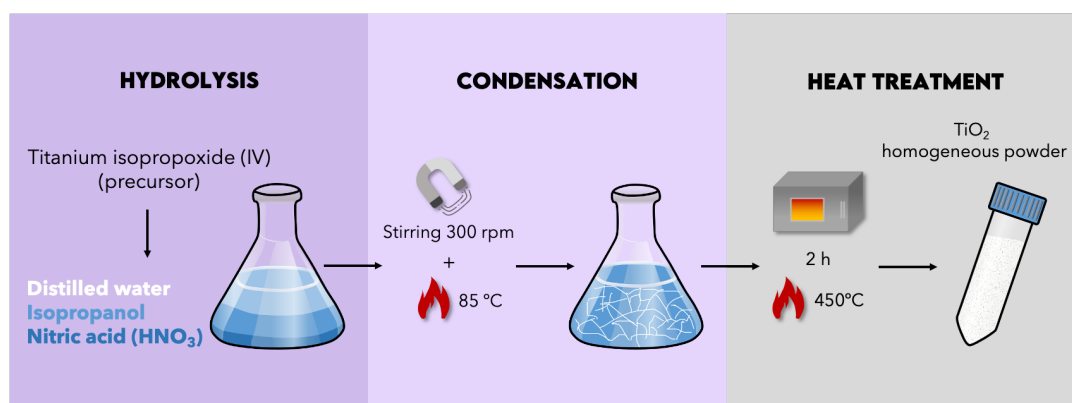


Figure 1. Flowchart of the synthesis of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles by the sol-gel method.

## 2.2. Specimen preparation

Bovine metatarsus (2-year-old), which were certified to be contamination free, were collected and underwent manual, chemical (five minutes immersed in 100 vol hydrogen peroxide) and thermal (calcined at 900 °C for 24 hours) cleaning processes (Figure 2A), in order to completely remove the organic matter and kill the pathogens which may have been present.

Subsequently, the bones underwent milling processes. First manual, using a mortar and pestle (Figure 2B), and then with mills, to reduce the size of the particles and increase the reactivity among them, thus reducing the time required for the sintering as well as the final porosity of the ceramic.

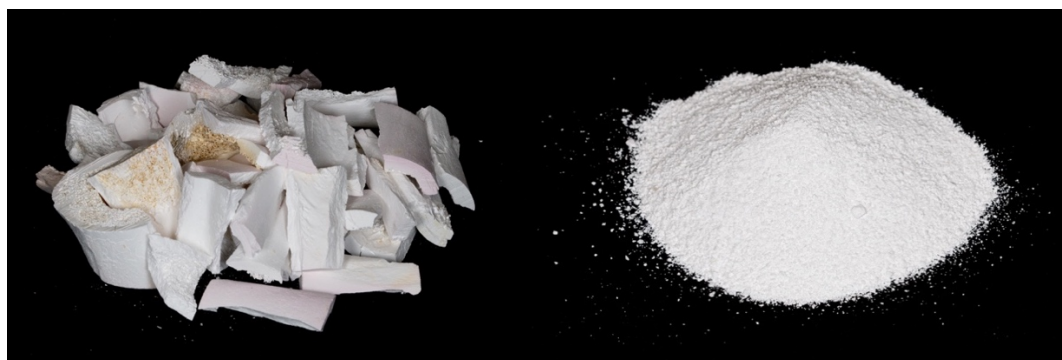


Figure 2. A) Bovine bone after manual and thermochemical processes to remove organic matter. B) Hydroxyapatite powder resulting from manual milling processes.

The milling processes were performed in an alcohol system. A jar was loaded with 30 vol% of HA, 69.95 vol% of isopropyl alcohol (Lab-Synth), and 0.05 wt% of para-aminobenzoic acid (PABA; Sigma Aldrich). This mixture was placed in a rotatory mill for 48 h, followed by a vibratory mill for 96 h.

Next, 1.2 wt% of polyvinyl butyral (PVB; Butvar B98), previously dissolved in isopropanol, was added and homogenized in a vibratory mill for 2 h.

For the specimens added with nanomaterials, after these 2 h in the vibratory mill, the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles were weighed at 5% and 8% of the working volume relative to HA, and added to HA with PVB. The mixtures were put back in the vibratory mill for 10 min for homogenization.

The contents of the jars with and without nanoparticles were discharged, and the barbotine was dried with a hot air blower at approximately 80 °C until the liquid was

completely evaporated. Next, the three powders were granulated on sieves (#100 mesh  $\leq 150 \mu\text{m}$ ; #150 mesh  $\leq 106 \mu\text{m}$ ; #200 mesh  $\leq 75 \mu\text{m}$ ).

### 2.2.1. Conformation and sintering

The experimental ceramics were obtained using the HA powder which did or didn't receive the addition of  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles. Three experimental groups were developed: HA, HA+5% $\text{TiO}_2$ , HA+8% $\text{TiO}_2$ .

In order to obtain disk-shaped specimens, 0.5 g of the obtained powder was weighed and inserted into a cylindrical container, which generated the conformation of disks with 15 mm diameter and 1.4 mm height, after uniaxial pressing at 100 MPa for 30 seconds.

To complete the compression, the specimens were vacuum encapsulated in elastomeric balloons and pressed by an isostatic press at 200 MPa for 1 min. The specimens were subjected to a sintering furnace (Lindberg/Blue M, Asheville, NC, USA), according to the following temperature gradient: first, from room temperature to 160°C at a heating rate of 2.7°C/min; from 160°C to 600°C at 4 °C/ min; from 600°C to 1100°C at 5°C/min; and finally, from 1100°C to 1300°C at 6°C/min. The specimens were maintained at the maximum temperature of 1300°C for 120 min, followed by the cooling of the furnace up to room temperature.

After sintering, the specimens reached the dimensions of  $14 \pm 2$  mm diameter and  $1.2 \pm 0.2$  mm height. The final dimensions were in accordance with ISO 6872:2015. The study design is shown in Figure 3.

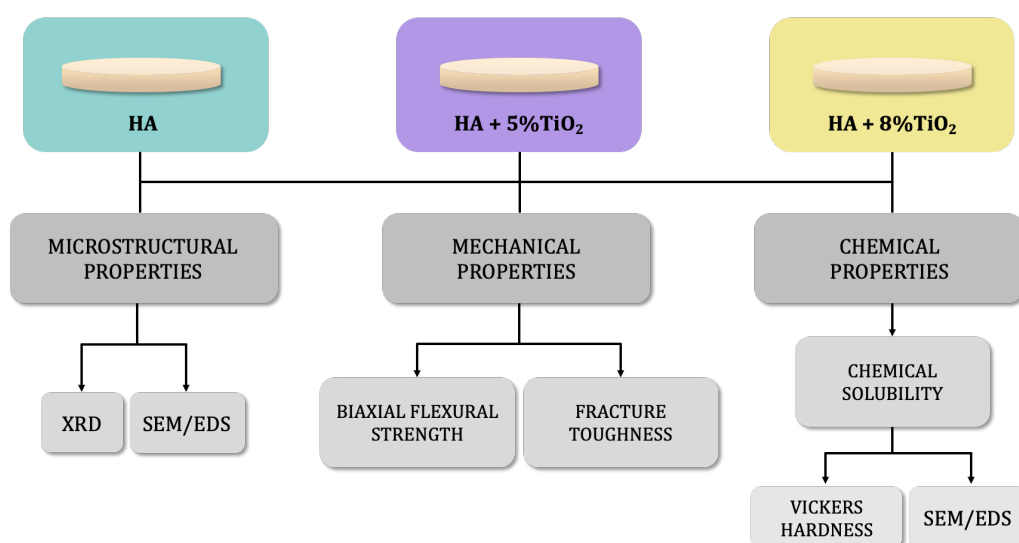


Figure 3. Study design.

## 2.3. Microstructural properties

### 2.3.1. X-ray diffraction (XRD)

The initial powders and the three sintered samples were analyzed by an X-ray diffractometer (XRD 7000, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan). The scanning was performed on the Bragg-Brentano geometry  $\theta$ - $2\theta$ , using Cu ( $K\alpha$ ) radiation,  $\lambda = 1.5406 \text{ \AA}$ , operating at a voltage of 40 kV and a current emission of 30 mA. The data were obtained over  $2\theta$  range of  $10^\circ$ –  $80^\circ$  at a scan rate of  $2^\circ \text{ min}^{-1}$ .

The software X'pert HighScore Plus (Malvern Panalytical, Malvern, United Kingdom) was used to identify the crystalline phases present in each sample. The crystalline phases were identified by comparing the spectra obtained by the standard cards of the ICSD (Inorganic Crystal Structure Database) database. Furthermore, the program also performed the Rietveld refinements, quantifying the phases present in each sample as well as estimating the crystallite's size.

### 2.3.2. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) / Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy (EDS)

A scanning electron microscope (JSM-5600LV, JEOL, Tokyo, Japan) was used to analyze the sintered specimens' microstructure. Before the test, the specimens were put in stubs and a thin layer of conductive carbon was applied on the surface of the specimens using a sputter-coating unit (Denton Vacuum, Moorestown, NJ, USA). External and fractured surfaces were observed at 500x, 1000x, 2000x and 5000x magnifications.

The elemental compositions of each specimen were determined by EDS analysis. The specimens were subjected to SEM imaging at 35x magnification. Three sites of interest from each specimen were scanned for further comparison.

## 2.4. Mechanical properties

### 2.4.1. Fracture toughness ( $K_{Ic}$ )

Two specimens from each group were added in PVC cylinders and epoxy resin was poured into them (Piraglass Ltda., Piracicaba, SP, Brazil). After resin polymerization, the surface of each specimen was finished by silicon carbide papers (#150, #240,

#320, #400, #600, #800 e #1200) and polished with felt discs and diamond abrasive paste of 4  $\mu\text{m}$ , 2  $\mu\text{m}$  and 1  $\mu\text{m}$  in a semiautomatic sander (APL-4, Arotec, São Paulo, SP, Brazil), followed by 10 min of sonication with distilled water to clean and remove any polishing residue (Maxi Clean 750, UNIQUE UltraSonic, Indaiatuba, SP, Brazil).

The indentation fracture (IF) method was used to estimate the fracture toughness. A microhardness tester VMHT Mot (Leica, Wetzlar, Germany) with a Vickers indenter was used for the test. Five indentations were performed on each specimen. For each indentation, the microhardness tester was programmed to generate a load of 500 gf for 15 seconds, which was sufficient to generate radial cracks from the indentation vertices. The length of produced crack ( $c$ ) and half of indentation diagonal ( $a$ ) were measured to calculate the  $c/a$  ratio (Figure 4). When  $c/a < 2.5$ , it is suggested that the crack is Palmqvist type, and when  $c/a > 2.5$ , radial-median type [22]. Fracture toughness values were then calculated using the correct equation for the corresponding crack type.

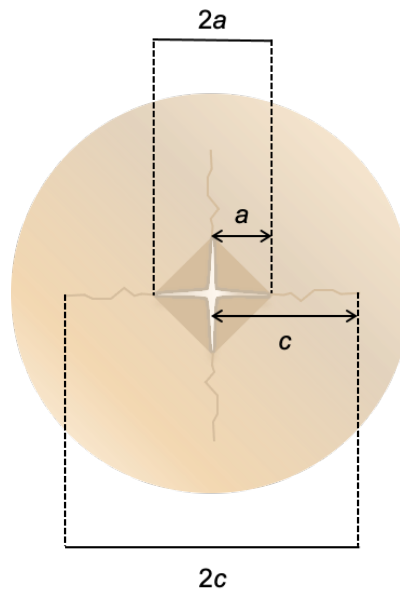


Figure 4. Values measured to obtain the type of crack produced with indentation. “ $a$ ” corresponds to half of indentation diagonal and “ $c$ ”, to length of crack produced measured from the center of the indentation.

#### 2.4.2. Biaxial flexural strength (BFS)

Thirty specimens from each group were subjected to the biaxial flexural strength test using a universal testing machine (K2000 MP, Kratos, Cotía, Brazil) and a specific device (OD36, Odeme Dental Research, Luzerna, Brazil), according to ISO 6872:2015 guidelines (Figure 5A). In the device, each disk was placed on three steel balls with a

diameter of 3.5 mm each and positioned 120° apart on a circular support with a diameter of 10 mm. A load was applied in the center of the specimen by a piston with a diameter of 1.4 mm, at a crosshead speed of 0.5 mm/min until failure (Figure 5B). Fracture load data, in newtons (N), were collected and the following equation was used to calculate the flexural strength (MPa):

$$\sigma = -0,2387P(X - Y)/b^2$$

where  $\sigma$  is the maximum tensile stress (MPa),  $P$  is the total load which leads to fracture (N),  $b$  is the specimen thickness at fracture site (mm), and  $X$  and  $Y$  are calculated according to:

$$X = (1 + \nu) \ln(r_2 / r_3)^2 + [(1 - \nu) / 2] (r_2 / r_3)^2$$

$$Y = (1 + \nu) [1 + \ln(r_1 / r_3)^2] + (1 - \nu) (r_1 / r_3)^2$$

where  $\nu$  is Poisson's ratio (0.25),  $r_1$  is the radius of support circle (mm),  $r_2$  is the radius of loaded area (mm) and  $r_3$ , the radius of specimen (mm).

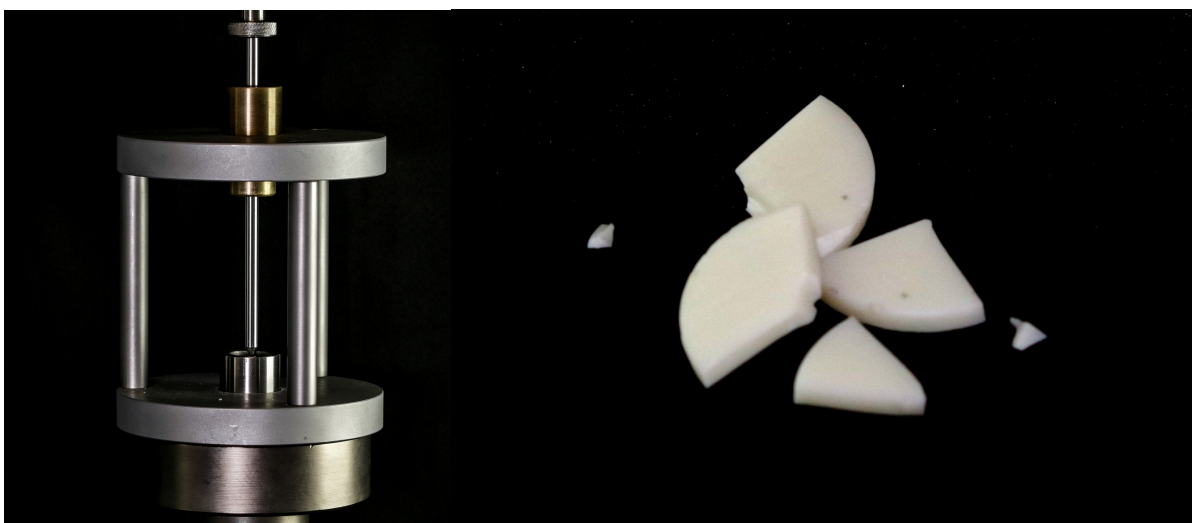


Figure 5. A – Device developed to content the ISO 6872 standard recommendations in the biaxial flexural strength test. B – Specimen fractured after the mechanical test.

## 2.5. Chemical properties

### 2.5.1. Chemical solubility

The current standard ISO (6872:2015) does not specify the specimen's number or shape for the chemical solubility test in dental ceramics, it is only required that the surface area exposed to the solution be at least 30 cm<sup>2</sup>.



The surface area of each disk was determined by measuring the radius ( $r$ ) and height ( $h$ ) of each one (Figure 6) and applying these values to the formula for total surface area of a cylinder ( $2.\pi.r^2 + 2.\pi.r.h$ ), where  $\pi = 3.14$ . With the surface area of each disk calculated, eleven disks from each group were used for this test, in a manner that the number of specimens in each group had a total surface area above 30 cm<sup>2</sup> (Table 1).



Figure 6. Measured dimensions on each disk specimen to be applied in the formula for the area of a cylinder.

All specimens' surfaces were finished and polished by silicon carbide papers #600, #800, #1200, #1500, #2000 and #2500 as well as utilizing felt discs and aluminum oxide paste.

Following the ISO recommendations, the disks were ultrasonically cleaned (USC-1800, UNIQUE, Indaiatuba, SP, Brazil) in deionized water for 15 min, dried for 4 hours at  $150 \pm 5$  °C in a thermostatically controlled oven (Thoth Equipment's, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil) and weighed on an analytical scale with 0.1 mg precision (AR2140, Ohaus Adventurer, Barueri, SP, Brazil). Next, specimens were immersed in 100 mL of 4% acetic acid (by volume) in a 250 mL Pyrex® glass bottle. The glass bottle was closed and placed in a preheated dry heat oven to  $80 \pm 2$  °C for 16 hours. After which, the specimens were once again ultrasonically washed with deionized water for 15 min, dried for 4 hours at  $150 \pm 5$  °C and reweighed. Chemical solubility was determined by calculating the mass loss in  $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ , using the following equation:

$$\text{Chemical solubility } (\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2) = \text{weight loss } (\mu\text{g}) / \text{surface area } (\text{cm}^2)$$

Considering changes could happen at the surface during chemical solubility testing, characterization tests such as SEM, EDS and Vickers hardness were carried out to investigate the effects of exposure to 4% acetic acid on specimens from the three groups (HA, HA+5%TiO<sub>2</sub> e HA+8%TiO<sub>2</sub>).

### 2.5.1.1. Vickers hardness (VH)

Vickers hardness was measured, before and after the chemical solubility test, using a microhardness tester with a Vickers indenter (Wilson Tukon 1202, Buehler, Illinois, USA) with a 300 gf load and a dwell time of 15 seconds for the 11 specimens from each group. Using the Buehler Omnimet MHT software, five indentations were measured per specimen, and an average hardness was calculated.

Groups	Specimens (n=11)	Radius (cm)	Height (cm)	Individual surface area (cm <sup>2</sup> )	Total surface area (cm <sup>2</sup> )
HA	1	0.65	0.12	3.14	32.18
	2	0.61	0.12	2.86	
	3	0.62	0.12	2.86	
	4	0.59	0.13	2.68	
	5	0.61	0.12	2.83	
	6	0.65	0.12	3.12	
	7	0.65	0.12	3.13	
	8	0.61	0.13	2.84	
	9	0.65	0.12	3.15	
	10	0.62	0.12	2.86	
	11	0.60	0.13	2.71	
HA + 5%TiO <sub>2</sub>	1	0.64	0.12	3.08	31.74
	2	0.65	0.12	3.10	
	3	0.61	0.12	2.77	
	4	0.60	0.12	2.74	
	5	0.61	0.12	2.77	
	6	0.60	0.12	2.74	
	7	0.61	0.12	2.76	
	8	0.65	0.13	3.14	
	9	0.65	0.12	3.11	
	10	0.60	0.12	2.75	
	11	0.61	0.12	2.76	
HA + 8%TiO <sub>2</sub>	1	0.64	0.12	3.03	31.06
	2	0.64	0.12	3.05	
	3	0.60	0.12	2.75	
	4	0.61	0.12	2.79	
	5	0.60	0.13	2.78	
	6	0.61	0.12	2.79	
	7	0.61	0.12	2.82	
	8	0.60	0.12	2.75	
	9	0.60	0.12	2.74	
	10	0.61	0.12	2.78	
	11	0.61	0.12	2.77	

Table 1. Surface area of each specimen and number of specimens required to have at least 30cm<sup>2</sup> of surface area.

## 2.6. Statistical analysis

Data obtained from fracture toughness, chemical solubility and Vickers hardness were tabulated and subjected to normality (Shapiro-Wilk) and homoscedasticity (Levene) tests. In case of parametric distribution, data were statistically evaluated using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), for independent groups, and through two criteria repeated-measures ANOVA, for paired groups, followed by post-hoc comparisons test by Tukey, with significance level set at  $p < 0.05$ . In case of non-parametric distribution, the Kruskal-Wallis test was used. Data sets were analyzed using statistical software Jamovi (Jamovi version 2.0, Sydney, Australia).

Biaxial flexural strength data were analyzed by the Weibull 2-parameter statistical analysis (Weibull++, Reliasoft, Tucson, AZ, USA). The probability of failure *versus* stress and the Weibull modulus ( $m$ ) *versus* characteristic stress ( $\sigma_0$ ) (reliability) were performed with 90% confidence levels.

## 3. RESULTS

### 3.1. XRD

With regards to the initial powders (before sintering), the XRD pattern of  $\text{TiO}_2$  shows that only the anatase phase (9852-ICSD) was found. Typical crystalline content of HA (26204-ICSD) was found for initial powder from bovine bone. While for the samples sintered at  $1300^\circ\text{C}$ , in the HA group (without nanoparticles) a non-characteristic peak was found and corresponds to  $\beta$ -TCP (6191-ICSD), another ceramic from calcium phosphate family. For the sintered samples containing 5% and 8% of  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles, the presence of HA and  $\text{TiO}_2$  was not identified. The identified peaks were  $\beta$ -TCP and also a perovskite, calcium titanate ( $\text{CaTiO}_3$ ) (74212-ICSD) (Figure 7). The weight fraction (%) of each phase based on relative peak intensity was estimated by Rietveld refinement and can be seen in Table 2.

Using Scherrer's equation,  $L = (0.94 \cdot \lambda) / (\beta \cdot \cos \theta)$ , where  $L$  is the crystallite's size ( $\text{\AA}$ ),  $\lambda$  is wavelength of the source used in XRD equipment,  $\beta$  is width at peak's half height and  $\theta$  is the peak angle, we were able to estimate that the crystallites were nanoparticles (HA crystallite = 40nm;  $\text{TiO}_2$  crystallite = 50nm).

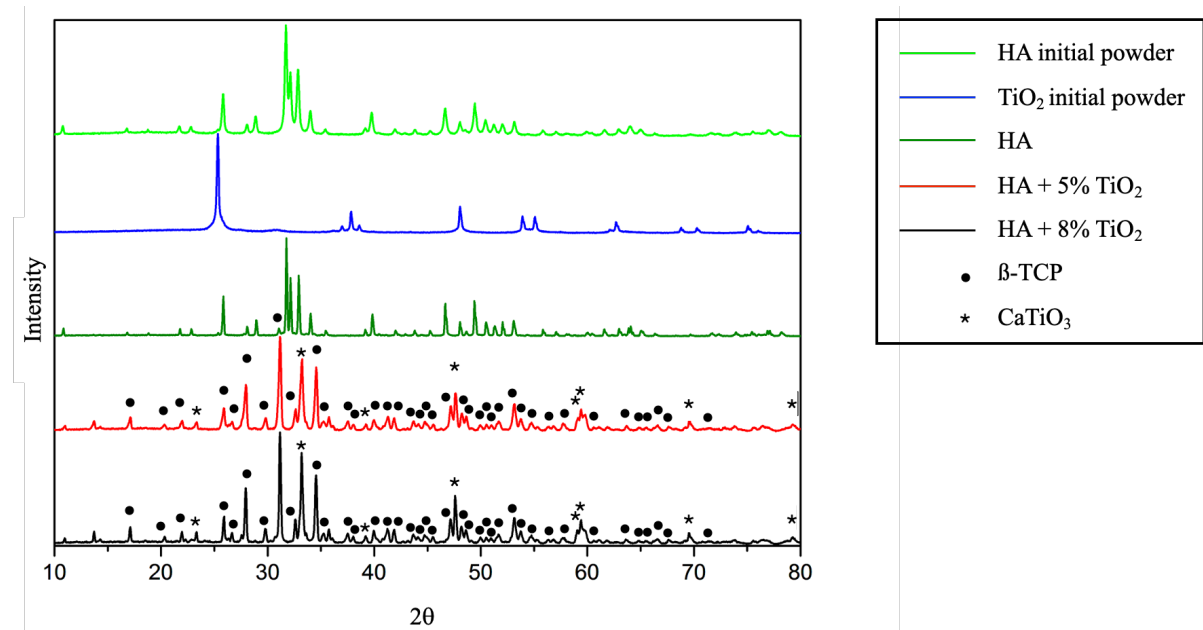


Figure 7. DRX patterns of initial powders and experimental ceramics.

	HA (26204-ICSD)	β-TCP (6191-ICSD)	CaTiO <sub>3</sub> (74212-ICSD)
HA	91,7%	8,3%	-
HA + 5%TiO <sub>2</sub>	-	77,7%	22,3%
HA + 8%TiO <sub>2</sub>	-	75,9%	24,1%

Table 2. Phase compositions obtained by Rietveld analysis.

### 3.2. SEM/EDS

SEM micrographs showing the three sintered groups' external surfaces microstructure are presented in Figure 8 and fractured surfaces are presented in Figure 9. The surface of sintered samples showed a dense fully crystalline matrix, with a good densification degree. Another phase's uniform distribution is also observed on the dense matrix, both for the TiO<sub>2</sub> additions of 5% as well as the 8% one. Observing the bulk of sintered samples, a different pattern of the surface can be seen, where the presence of porosities can be observed. The bulk of the three materials is very similar with regards to their microstructure, with presence and number of pores apparently similar.

The EDS results are shown in section 3.5. (Chemical solubility, VH and EDS analysis).

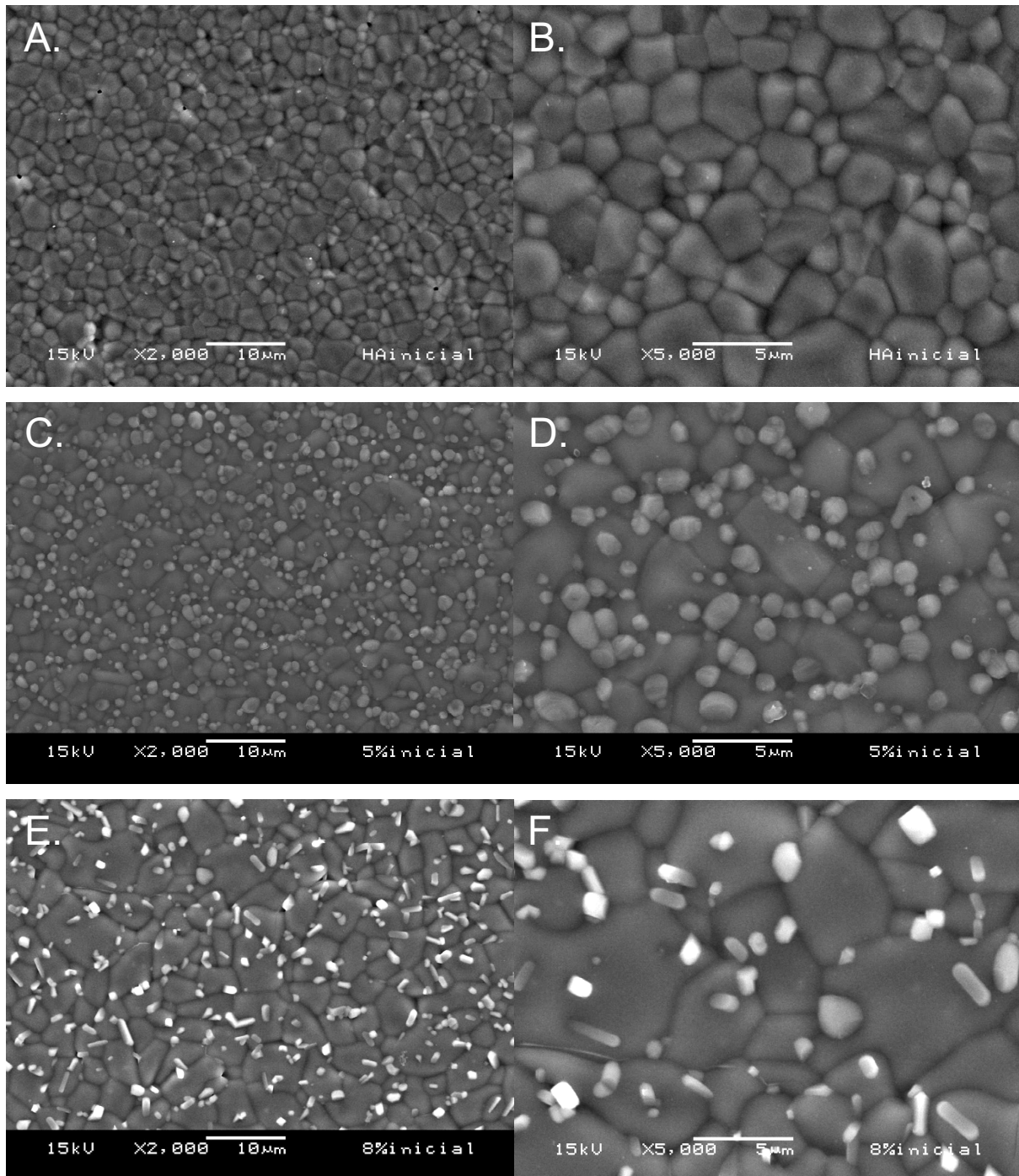


Figure 8. Micrographs of the external surface of sintered specimens. (A, B) HA. (C, D) HA+5%TiO<sub>2</sub>. (E, F) HA+8%TiO<sub>2</sub>.

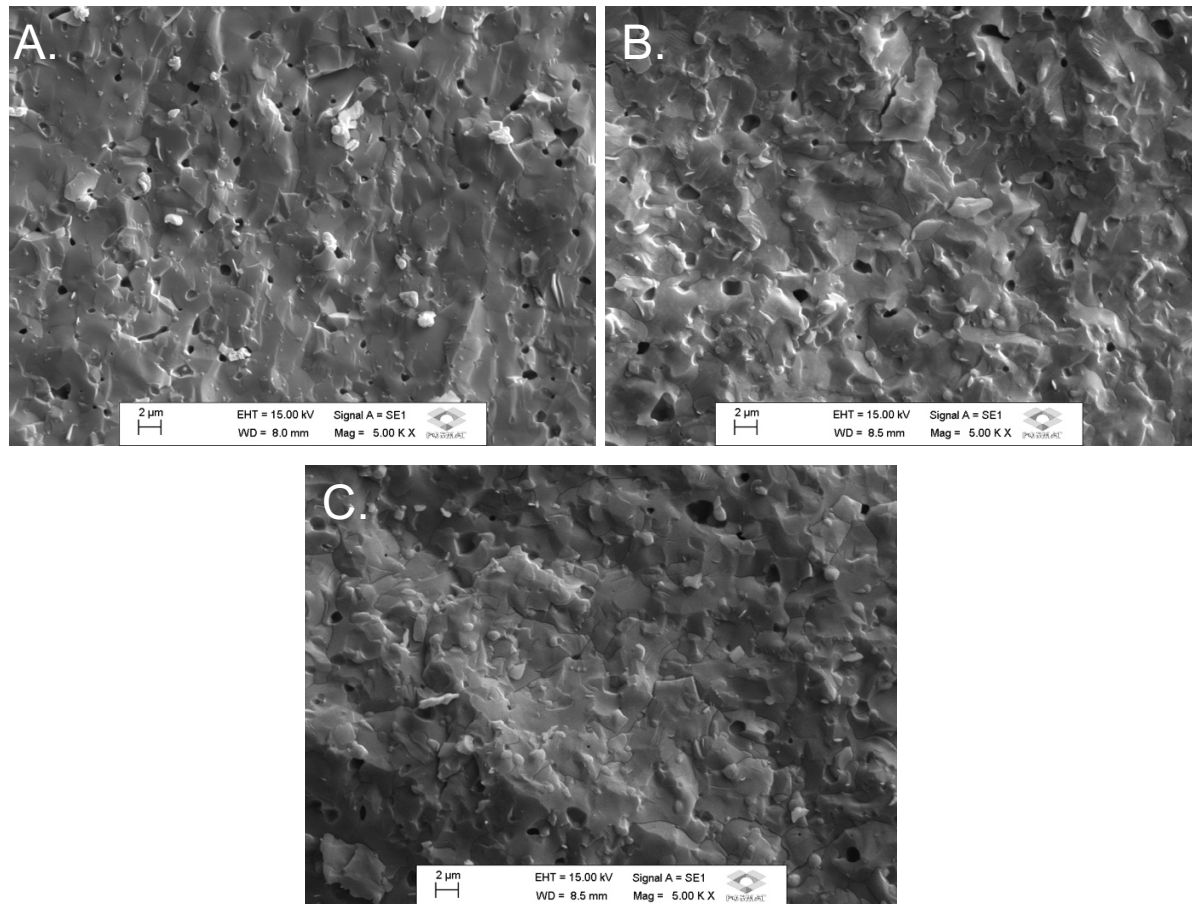


Figure 9. Micrographs of the fractured surface (bulk) of sintered specimens. (A) HA; (B) HA+5%TiO<sub>2</sub>; (C) HA+8%TiO<sub>2</sub>.

### 3.3. Fracture toughness ( $K_{1C}$ )

The formula's choice for calculating fracture toughness by the IF method depends on the type of crack that is formed. In this study, the Anstis equation was used, as the  $c/a$  ratio indicated that the cracks were of the radial-median type. Fracture toughness was calculated by the following equation:

$$K_{1C} = A \left( \frac{E}{H} \right)^{1/2} \frac{P}{c^{3/2}}$$

where  $A$  is a constant determined by Anstis et al. (1981) with a value of 0.016,  $E$  is the Young's modulus (GPa),  $H$  is the Vickers hardness (GPa) obtained at the indentation moment,  $P$  is the applied load (N) and  $c$  is the crack length produced ( $\mu\text{m}$ ), measured from the center of the indentation.

Fracture toughness data were normally distributed and analyzed using parametric test ANOVA. A significant difference was found among the groups ( $p < 0.05$ ). IF toughness was higher for HA+5%TiO<sub>2</sub> ( $1.34 \pm 0.26 \text{ MPa}\cdot\text{m}^{1/2}$ ) and HA+8%TiO<sub>2</sub> ( $1.28 \pm 0.21 \text{ MPa}\cdot\text{m}^{1/2}$ ) than for HA ( $0.65 \pm 0.10 \text{ MPa}\cdot\text{m}^{1/2}$ ). However, among the groups containing 5% and 8% of the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, no significant difference was found ( $p > 0.05$ ).

The cracks' profile produced by the three groups are shown on the micrographs of Figure 10. It is possible to observe a decrease in crack length in the groups containing TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles.

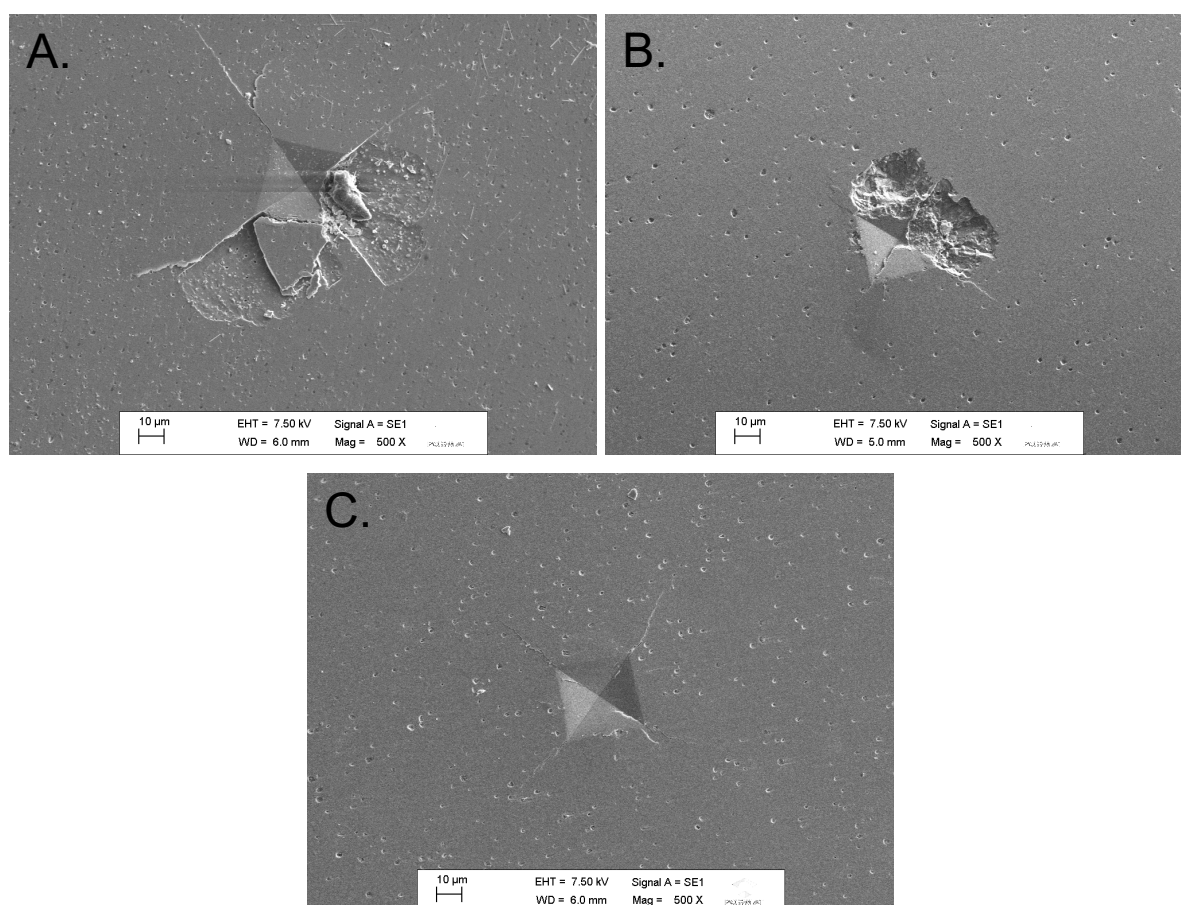


Figure 10. Micrographs obtained after the IF method. (A) HA; (B) HA+5%TiO<sub>2</sub>; (C) HA+8%TiO<sub>2</sub>. Note a decrease in crack length in groups with TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles.

### 3.4. BFS and Weibull analysis

The use level probability Weibull curves and contour plot of the three groups after biaxial flexural strength tests are shown in Figures 11 and 12, respectively. Table 3 shows the results of Weibull statistical analysis. The Weibull modulus ( $m$ ) - an indicator



of reliability - and characteristic stress (MPa) - which indicates the stress in which 63.2% of the specimens of each group may fail - are represented in the contour plot. Significant differences were identified considering the non-overlap of the contours. HA demonstrated the highest characteristic stress values, which is statistically different from HA+5%TiO<sub>2</sub> and HA+8%TiO<sub>2</sub>. However, regarding the analysis of the Weibull modulus ( $m$ ), the overlap between contours when projected on the Y axis of the graph, indicates the absence of significant differences for the three groups and indicates they are homogeneous.

	Characteristic Stress ( $\sigma_0$ )	Weibull Modulus ( $m$ )
<b>HA</b>	295.8 (273-319) <sup>a</sup>	5.3 (3.9-7.0) <sup>a</sup>
<b>HA + 5%TiO<sub>2</sub></b>	235.1 (223-247) <sup>b</sup>	8.0 (5.9-10.4) <sup>a</sup>
<b>HA + 8%TiO<sub>2</sub></b>	214.4 (200-228) <sup>b</sup>	6.2 (4.6-8.0) <sup>a</sup>

Table 3. Results of Weibull statistical analysis. Characteristic stress (MPa) and Weibull modulus ( $m$ ) with their respective minimum and maximum. Different letters indicate significant difference between materials ( $p < 0.05$ ).

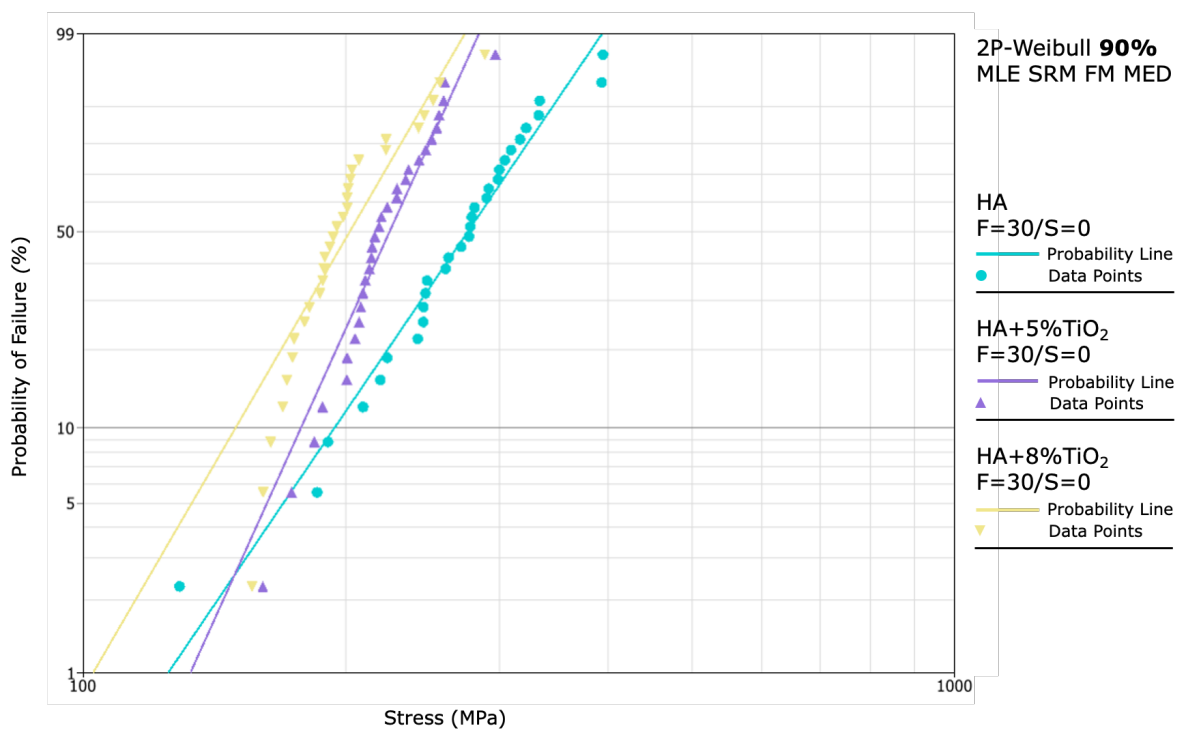


Figure 11. Use level probability Weibull, showing the probability of failure as a function of stress (MPa) of the three experimental groups after biaxial flexural strength tests.



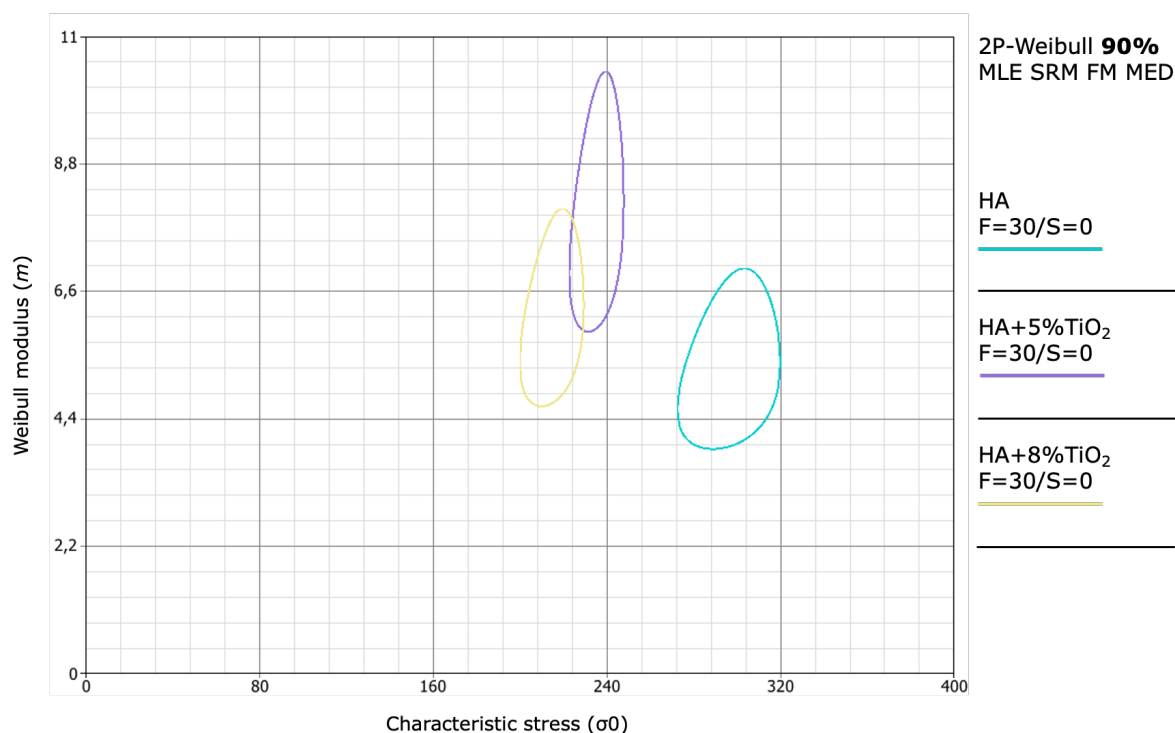


Figure 12. Contour Plot showing Weibull modulus ( $m$ ) as a function of Characteristic stress (MPa). The non-overlap between contours indicates statistically significant difference.

### 3.5. Chemical solubility, VH and EDS analysis

Chemical solubility data indicated a violation of normality and therefore, were analyzed nonparametrically by Kruskal-Wallis. No significant difference was found among the groups HA (6536, 6277;7877  $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ ), HA+5%TiO<sub>2</sub> (6654, 6099;8551  $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ ) and HA+8%TiO<sub>2</sub> (8548, 8481;8654  $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ ) ( $p > 0.05$ ). The box-plot of solubility results can be seen in Fig. 13. These results placed all tested experimental ceramics above the 2000  $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$  limit set by the ISO standard (6872:2015) for a dental ceramic material (see Table 4).

Fig. 14(A-I) show SEM micrographs of the surfaces after the chemical solubility test. For all the tested materials, the micrographs showed great damage and high surface roughness after the solubility test. Moreover, micrographs also show the lack of some particles from the surface after the test. In Fig. 14D and 14G it is possible to observe, at 200x magnification, elevations formations on the surface of specimens with the nanoparticles, which didn't happen in the HA specimens (Fig. 12A).

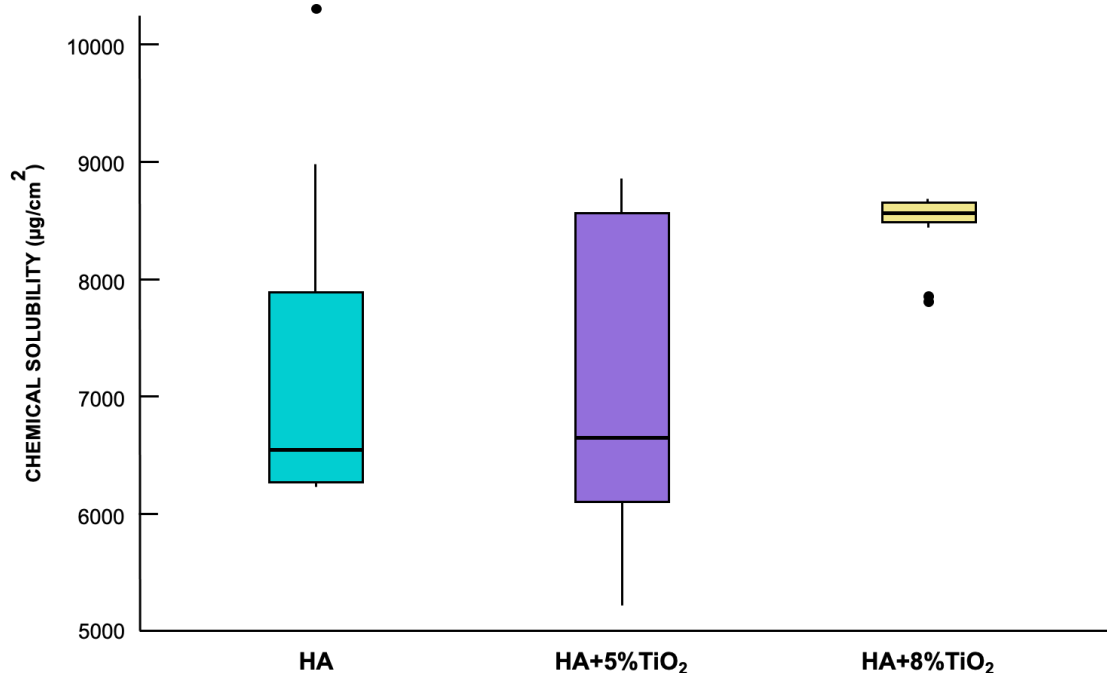
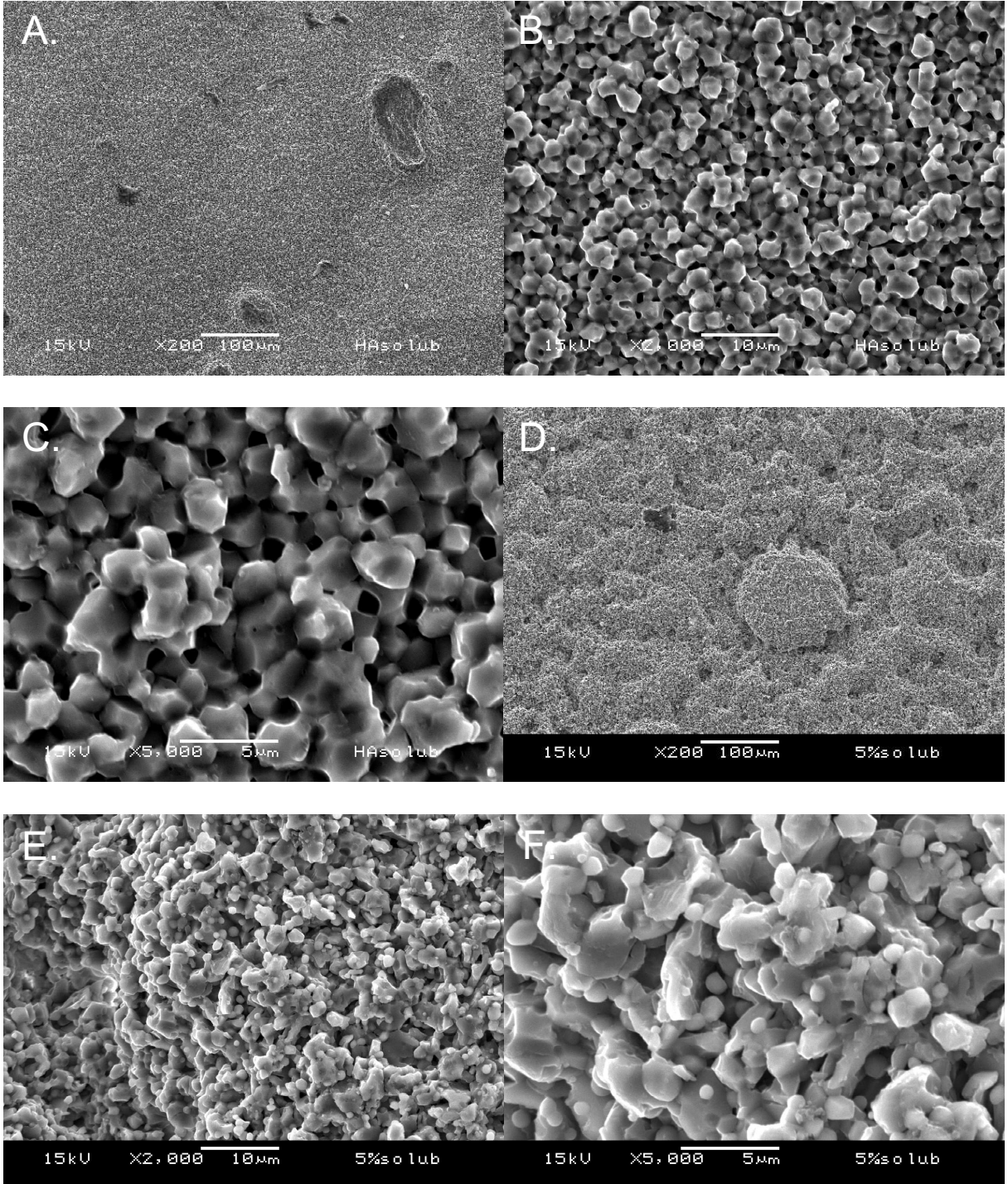


Figure 13. Box-plot. The Kruskal-Wallis test found no significant difference between the chemical solubility values of the experimental groups.

Class	Recommended Clinical Indications	Mechanical and chemical properties		
		Flexural strength (MPa)	Fracture toughness (MPa·√m)	Chemical solubility (µg/cm <sup>2</sup> )
1	a) Monolithic ceramic for single-unit anterior prostheses, veneers, inlays, or onlays adhesively cemented. b) Ceramic for coverage of a metal framework or a ceramic substructure.	50	0.7	<100
2	a) Monolithic ceramic for single-unit anterior or posterior prostheses adhesively cemented.	100	1	<100
	b) Partially or fully covered substructure ceramic for single-unit anterior or posterior prostheses adhesively cemented.	100	1	<2000
3	a) Monolithic ceramic for single-unit anterior or posterior prostheses and for three-unit prostheses not involving molar restoration adhesively or non-adhesively cemented.	300	2	<100
	b) Partially or fully covered substructure for single-unit anterior or posterior not involving molar restoration adhesively or non-adhesively cemented.	300	2	<2000
4	a) Monolithic ceramic for three-unit prostheses involving molar restoration.	500	3.5	<100
	b) Partially or fully covered substructure for three-unit prostheses involving molar restoration.	500	3.5	<2000
5	Monolithic ceramic for prostheses involving partially or fully covered substructure for four or more units or fully covered substructure for prostheses involving four or more units.	800	5	<100

Table 4. Classification of ceramics for fixed prostheses by clinical use with the mechanical and chemical properties recommended by ISO 6872:2015 and the findings for experimental ceramics.



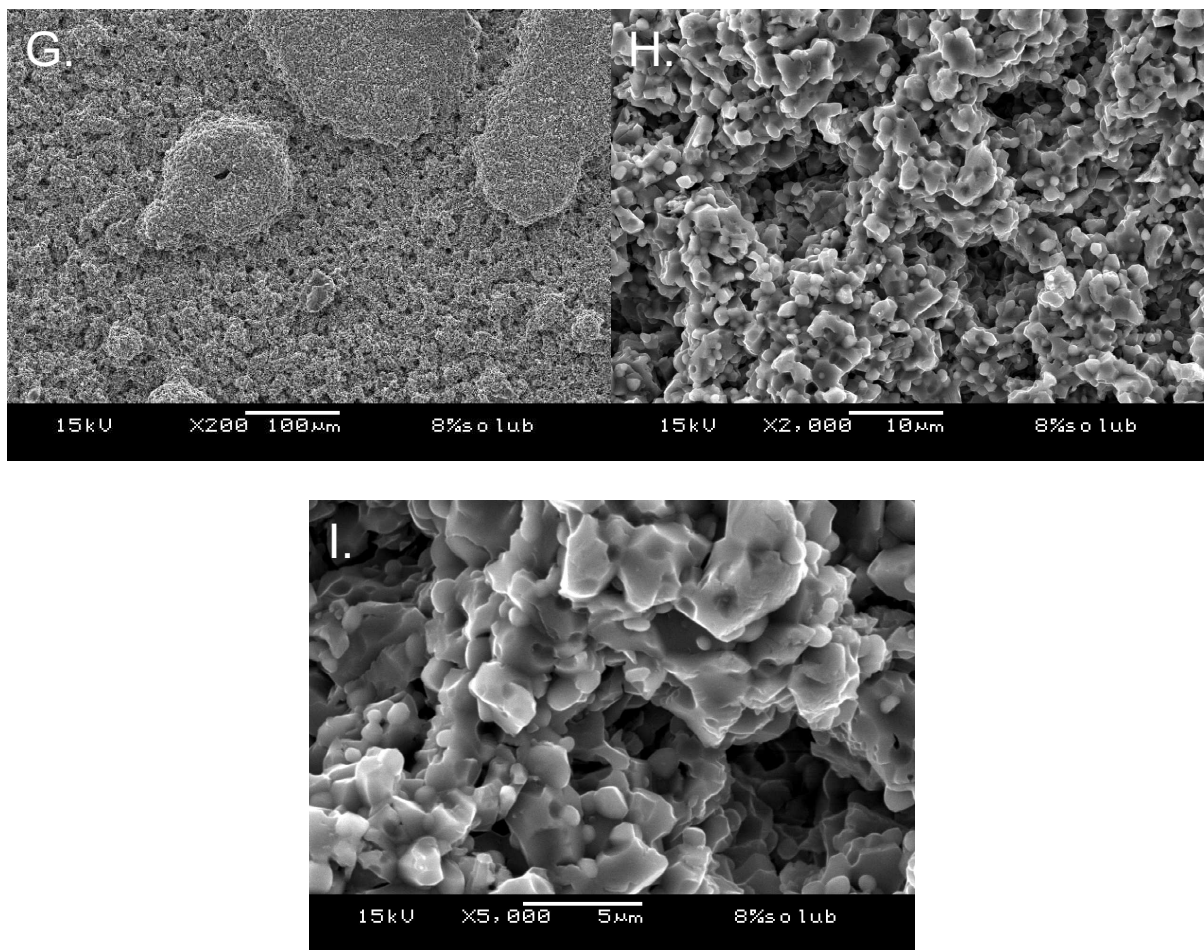


Figure 14. Surface of the experimental ceramic groups in 200x, 2000x and 5000x after the chemical solubility test. A, B, C - HA group. D, E, F - HA+5%TiO<sub>2</sub> group. G, H, I - HA+8%TiO<sub>2</sub>.

Specimens' EDS scans were obtained of pre- and post-solubility testing. Three randomly selected spectra were representatives of each specimen. The EDS analysis showed that the surface of HA was mainly composed of calcium (Ca) and phosphorus (P). The quantitative findings are summarized in Table 5. For HA+5%TiO<sub>2</sub> and HA+8%TiO<sub>2</sub> the EDS analysis showed that the HA group's surface was mainly composed of Ca, P and titanium (Ti), the quantitative findings are summarized in Table 6 and 7, respectively. There was a significant decrease in phosphorus in the composition after the solubility test for all groups ( $p < 0.05$ ). A significant decrease in Ti can also be observed in the HA+8%TiO<sub>2</sub> group ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Element	wt% Pre-solubility				wt% Post-solubility			
	S1	S2	S3	Mean $\pm$ SD	S1	S2	S3	Mean $\pm$ SD
Ca	72.5	72.1	72.4	72.3 $\pm$ 0.2	73.6	73.3	73.4	73.4 $\pm$ 0.2
P	27.5	27.9	27.6	27.7 $\pm$ 0.2*	26.4	26.7	26.6	26.6 $\pm$ 0.2*
Ti	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 5: The table shows the detected elements in HA specimens as determined by EDS. S1, S2 and S3 indicate the spectra. The presence of asterisk indicates a significant difference within the same group.

Element	wt% Pre-solubility				wt% Post-solubility			
	S1	S2	S3	Mean $\pm$ SD	S1	S2	S3	Mean $\pm$ SD
Ca	63.5	63.5	64.0	63.7 $\pm$ 0.3	63.5	64.2	63.5	63.7 $\pm$ 0.4
P	24.9	25.0	24.9	25.0 $\pm$ 0.04*	20.3	21.3	20.7	20.8 $\pm$ 0.5*
Ti	11.6	11.5	11.1	11.4 $\pm$ 0.3	16.2	14.5	15.8	15.5 $\pm$ 0.9

Table 6: The table shows the detected elements in HA+5%TiO<sub>2</sub> specimens as determined by EDS. S1, S2 and S3 indicate the spectra. The presence of asterisk indicates a significant difference within the same group.

Element	wt% Pre-solubility				wt% Post-solubility			
	S1	S2	S3	Mean $\pm$ SD	S1	S2	S3	Mean $\pm$ SD
Ca	57.2	58.1	56.3	57.2 $\pm$ 0.9	64.3	64.0	64.8	64.4 $\pm$ 0.4
P	25.3	25.8	24.8	25.3 $\pm$ 0.5*	20.5	21.4	21.3	21.1 $\pm$ 0.5*
Ti	17.5	16.2	19.0	17.5 $\pm$ 1.4*	15.2	14.6	14.0	14.6 $\pm$ 0.6*

Table 7: The table shows the detected elements in HA+8%TiO<sub>2</sub> specimens as determined by EDS. S1, S2 and S3 indicate the spectra. The presence of asterisk indicates a significant difference within the same group.

As for the Vickers hardness data before and after the solubility test, repeated-measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed that the average hardness of the samples significantly decreased after the chemical solubility test ( $p < 0.05$ ) for the same group. When comparing the three groups initial and final hardness values, no significant differences were found between them (Figure 15). The results showed that the hardness of HA was reduced by 14.5% after the chemical solubility test, by 26.7% for the group with 5% nanoparticles and approximately 31% for the group with 8% (Figure 16). The mean and standard deviation values of VH pre- and post-solubility are in Table 8.

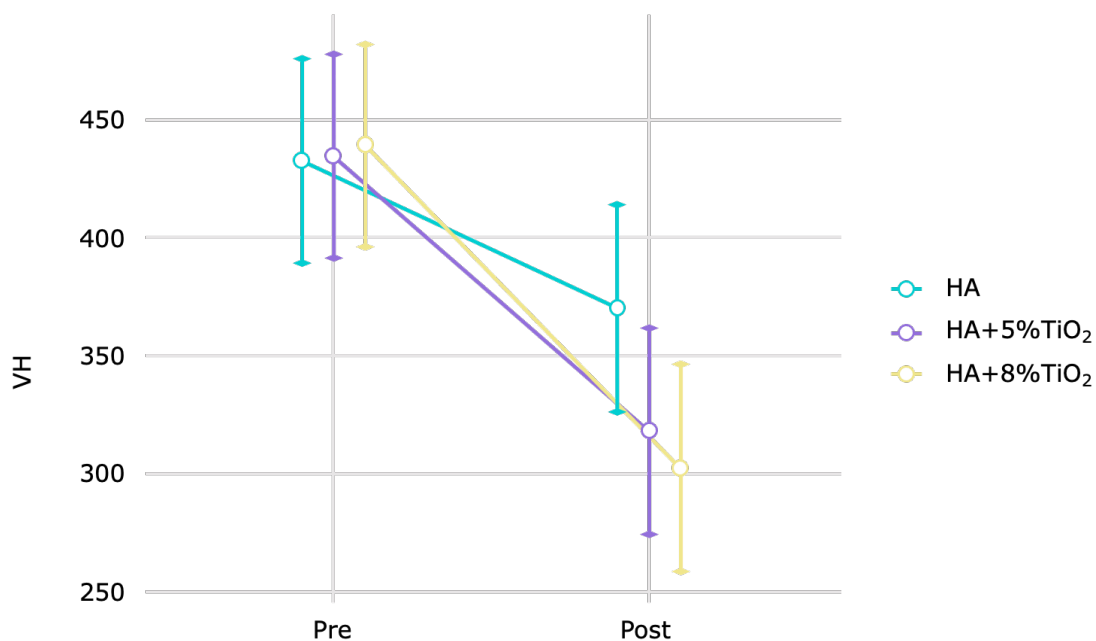


Figure 15. The graph presented above shows that there were significant differences when the same group was compared pre- and post-solubility test. However, between the three groups there is no significant difference in Vickers hardness before or after the solubility test.

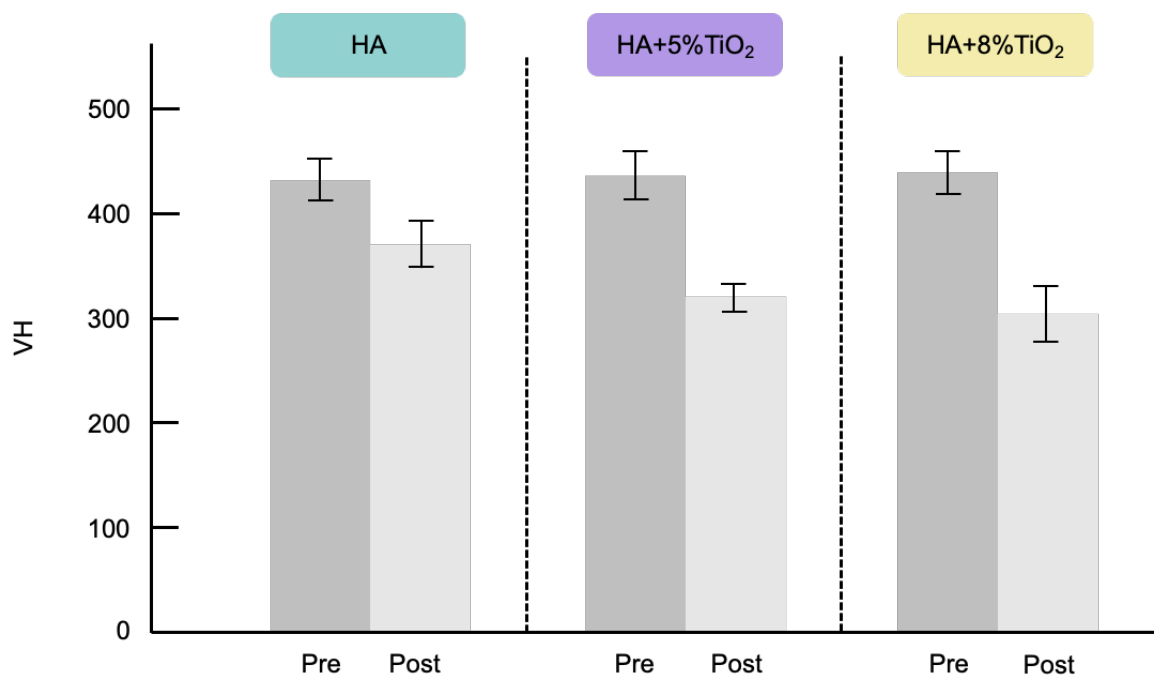


Figure 16. Difference in the Vickers hardness mean values in the three groups pre- and post-solubility test (n=11).

	Vickers hardness pre-solubility (VH)	Vickers hardness post-solubility (VH)
HA	433 ± 67 <sup>a</sup>	370 ± 75 <sup>b</sup>
HA + 5%TiO <sub>2</sub>	434 ± 76 <sup>a</sup>	318 ± 43 <sup>b</sup>
HA + 8%TiO <sub>2</sub>	439 ± 66 <sup>a</sup>	303 ± 88 <sup>b</sup>

Table 8. The mean and standard deviation values of VH pre- and post-solubility. Groups having different superscript letter were significantly different ( $p < 0,05$ ).

#### 4. DISCUSSION

This study proposed the development and characterization of a new ceramic for dental use made from HA, extracted from bovine bones, as an idea of reusing these solid wastes to turn them into a sustainable and low-cost material. Besides, the addition of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles to this material was carried out in an attempt to improve its mechanical and chemical properties.

According to our findings, the XRD pattern of the TiO<sub>2</sub> initial powder shows that only the anatase phase was found. This result was already expected by the temperature (450 °C) and time (2h) used in the sol-gel route [23, 24]. The XRD pattern showed that only pure HA was found in the bovine HA initial powder. This indicates that the powder obtained from bovine bone consists of pure HA and, at the calcination temperature of 900 °C, HA did not decompose into other crystalline phases. However, increasing the temperature, for HA samples sintered at 1300 °C, it was possible to observe in diffractogram the appearance of a peak not found at 900 °C, corresponding to  $\beta$ -TCP, indicating that at 1300 °C there was partial decomposition of HA. In the sintered samples containing the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, the Rietveld refinement indicated that the entire composition of HA and TiO<sub>2</sub> was converted into  $\beta$ -TCP and CaTiO<sub>3</sub>.

Kusrini & Sontang (2012) [25] demonstrated by DTA analysis that the formation of a new phase of bovine bone powder took place between 1125 and 1227 °C. The authors recommended that the ideal temperature for sintering is around 1000 °C for 3h. The study by Rincón-López et al. (2018) [26] did not observe the decomposition of bovine HA at the sintering temperature of 1200 °C. Although hydroxyapatite is known for its thermal instability [4, 27], studies reported that at sintering temperatures greater or equal to 1300 °C, HA decomposition was not observed [28, 29], which differs from what was found in this study. However, these studies researched synthetic HA.



Apparently, synthetic HA and bovine HA have different behaviors. In addition, other factors than sintering temperature may be related to these findings, such as the synthesis method, sintering time, heating or cooling rate time, and even the stoichiometry of the obtained material [2, 4, 8, 30, 31].

ISO 6872 specifies guidelines and appropriate testing methods for assessing dental ceramic materials, including methods to evaluate the flexural strength, fracture toughness and chemical solubility of dental ceramics. According to the values obtained in the tests, ceramic materials can be classified and recommended for specific clinical use (Table 8). Based on these recommendations, it was possible to mechanically and chemically characterize the new experimental calcium phosphate ceramic.

According to the data obtained in the fracture toughness test, the material without nanoparticles (HA group) did not reach the minimum value to be used as a dental ceramic ( $< 0.7 \text{ MPa}\sqrt{\text{m}}$ ). However, the addition of 5% and 8% of nanoparticles significantly increased the fracture toughness of the material, which fitted the ISO standard classification as a “Class 2” ceramic.

As for the data from the flexural strength test, although the addition of nanoparticles has reduced the flexural strength of material, the values still allow it to adhere to ISO standard as a “Class 2” ceramic as well. Additionally, it is important to highlight that there was no significant difference between the Weibull modulus of the materials, which indicates reliability (low variability and similar failure probability). For the same group, the characteristics of the materials are very similar, which led them to behave in a similar way.

The ISO 6872 determines the level of accepted solubility of both directly (“enamel”) and indirectly (“core”) exposed dental ceramics to the oral environment. Enamel class dental ceramics should display up to  $100 \mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$  for maximum solubility level, whereas core class ceramics must show less than  $2000 \mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ . Unfortunately, however, none of the experimental materials chemical solubility could achieve an acceptable chemical solubility value ( $> 2000 \mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ ). The SEM analysis of pre- and post-solubility testing for all tested materials in this research provided visible evidence that the experimental ceramics’ surfaces were affected when subjected to a corrosive environment, with a very high degree of effect, exceeding the allowed limit.

Hawsawi et al. 2020 [12] proved that geometry and size of individual specimen can affect the solubility test outcomes. Specimens containing a geometry of edges and corners and with a small individual surface were more damaged and had increased in



solubility. Furthermore, by analyzing the literature, there are only a few published studies regarding dental ceramics' chemical solubility that have adhered to the method described in the ISO 6872. This may indicate a possible lack of confidence of the ISO standard method.

This is the first study that evaluates the chemical solubility of a calcium phosphate ceramic according to the recommendations of ISO 6872:2015 for dental use. Therefore, this material requires more investigations.

## 5. CONCLUSION

The experimental calcium phosphate ceramic with additions of 5% and 8% of TiO<sub>2</sub> achieved desirable mechanical properties, but the chemical solubility values did not allow it to become a dental ceramic.

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