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TZNT alloy for surgical implant applications: A systematic review

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ABSTRACT

Owing to its good mechanical properties, enhanced wear resistance, good biological properties, biocompatibility, low cytotoxicity, and great corrosion behavior, Ti-Nb-Ta-Zr (TZNT) alloy, as new β titanium alloy, has attracted considerable attention for surgical implant applications. The need for the improvement of the implant properties in the physiological environment can be fulfilled by using the β titanium alloy with low elastic modulus. Additionally, this alloy can inhibit the surgical implant fracture, infection, inflammation, and the reaction of soft tissue with particulate debris. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to review the properties and applications of TZNT alloy as a promising choice for surgical implant applications.

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1. Introduction

Given the good performance including good biocompatibility, lower elastic modulus, excellent corrosion resistance, and high specific strength, Ti and its alloys are considered as the optimum materials for surgical implants [1]. With scientific advances, the third generation of titanium alloys as the new type of β alloys for biomedical applications has been developed such as Al-free Ti-Zr-Ta-Nb- and Ti-Zr-Mo-based alloys. The newly developed β titanium alloys have more advantages over conventional Ti alloys and are considered as more suitable materi-

als for human-implant applications [2].

In the past few decades, Ti alloys, especially, Ti-6Al-4V alloy and commercially pure (cp) Ti, have been widely utilized in orthopedic implants due to their desirable biocompatibility, excellent corrosion properties, and promising mechanical performance. Based on the history of thermo-mechanical processing and material composition, titanium alloys have been divided into α , near- α , metastable β , stable β or $\alpha + \beta$ categories. Zr is a neutral stabilizer while elements such as Ta and Nb are isomorphs of β -stabilizers. Compared to cp titanium (α -Ti) and Ti-6Al-4V ($\alpha + \beta$ Ti), β -Ti alloys exhibit some enhanced characteristics [3].

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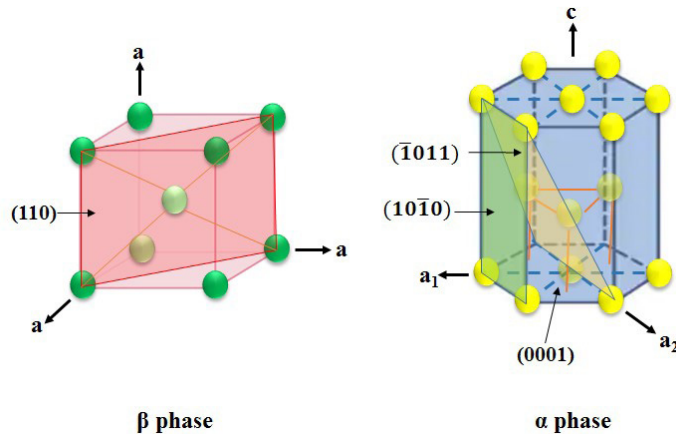


Fig. 1. Crystal structure of the α and β phases.

TNZT is a β -titanium quaternary alloy developed in recent years for orthopedic applications [4]. This alloy exhibits some promising properties including superior low elastic modulus [5-11] biocompatibility [12-16], good resistance to corrosion as well as the absence of toxic elements like vanadium and aluminum. The adverse tissue reaction and cytotoxicity resulting from V and Al have been extensively reported in the literature [3]. Complications caused by inflammation can be severe enough to make revision surgery necessary. Therefore, biomaterials and surface modification methods are required for the provision of the optimal infection resistance. In this regard, a comprehensive understating of the complicated interactions that occur at the interface of bone-implant is required. Two-thirds of implant-associated infections and revision surgeries have been reported to be due to the interaction of biomaterial with *Staphylococcus* and *Staphylococcus aureus* epidermis [17, 18]. Thus, investigations on the novel TNZT alloy with promising characteristics for surgical implant applications have attracted the attention of researchers.

2. Processing of β -titanium alloys

β alloys usually undergo a hot working process and the subsequent heat treatment. In the leaner β alloys, the $\alpha+\beta$ field is where the final hot working operation is conducted, while in the richer β alloys, it is preferentially performed in the β field. The heat treatment includes three steps: solution, quenching, and aging. If the solution treatment is performed above the temperature of β transus, the formed β grains will be coarse. On the other hand, the precipitation of the primary α_p phase occurs when the solution treatment is performed just below the β transus. The crystal structure of the α and β phases are illustrated in Fig.1. The α_p volume fraction and shape is controlled by the heat treatment temperature and forging/rolling deformation, respectively. A needle-like α_p is formed when no working is done and by increasing the time of hot working the shape moves toward a spherical α_p shape [19].

An appropriate selection of deformation and temperatures initiating from the breakdown of ingot could control the size distribution and grain size of the β phase. It is possible to obtain small grain sizes by several deformation and recrystallization cycles [20].

A film-like α phase is preferentially precipitated in grain boundaries during the forging process, cooling process from β -forging, and final heat treatment. The suppression of the harmful precipitation of α in grain boundaries is possible by the high cooling rate from the beta phase region. If the cross-section is large, the grain boundary film can be broken by subsequent α/β -processing.

The secondary α_s precipitation with fine distribution occurs at lower temperatures between 400 °C to 600 °C. Aging time and temperature besides the temperature of solution treatment could control the volume and size of the phase. Depending on the volume fraction of the precipi-

tates and their size, a remarkable strengthening effect can be achieved. In richer beta alloys, inhomogeneous precipitation of α_s can be conducted, while in lean beta alloys it is homogeneous. In the case of rich beta alloys, grain boundaries are the first sites for precipitation and then the precipitates are formed in the grain leading to the creation of some local unaged areas. Generally, a more homogenous distribution of the α_s precipitates and an enhanced aging response can be obtained by cold work. To summarize, the control of the beta titanium alloys properties are influenced by β grain size, grain boundary α , the size, shape, and volume fraction of α_p and α_s [21, 22]. α_p , α_s , and grain boundary α are schematically illustrated in Fig. 2.

3. Mechanical properties

3.1. Tensile strength

Yield stresses in the range of 900 to 1400 MPa can be obtained by the aging of β titanium alloys. However, by increased aging, a significant reduction in ductility is observed in all β alloys. This is due to the larger difference between the yield stress of the aged β matrix soft and primary α as well as the increase of strain localization in the aged matrix that results in early crack nucleation [23]. Duplex aging processes have been used to improve the fatigue and toughness resistance in more highly β -stabilized alloys, which have inhomogeneous α_s precipitations. The duplex aging consists of “low/high” - or “high/low” aging steps, which allow obtaining higher strength in shorter time, compared to aging in just one step [24, 25].

The ductility of the alloys can also be influenced by primary α_p .

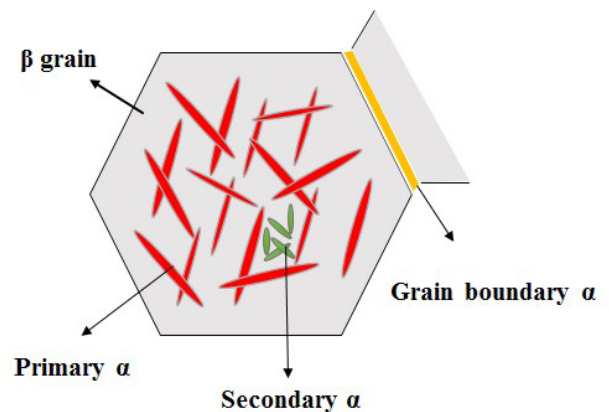


Fig. 2. Primary, secondary and grain boundary α .

The change from globular to acicular shape in primary α_p and also its coarsening, resulting from the processing, leads to the ductility reduction. This is due to the increased slip length or effective size of the soft primary α_p resulting in early crack nucleation [26]. Lower temperatures of solution heat treatment lead to the increase in the volume fraction of primary α_p and the reduction of ductility at a constant yield strength. For obtaining desirable yield stress, higher aging of the β phase with a larger volume fraction of soft α_p is required; however, this is in favor of crack nucleation. In other words, increased ductility and reduced yield strength is the consequence of the increased volume fraction of α_p at a constant aging treatment [27]. There is a correlation between the effects of grain boundary and grain size. Strength is not affected by these parameters; however, they can influence ductility. Because of the localized strain in the soft α film in the grain boundary, ductility is reduced resulting in the occurrence of crack nucleation and subsequent fracture in grain boundaries [28, 29]. In the case of intergranular crack nucleation, no conclusive explanation existed for the effect of the grain size on ductility.

3.2. Fracture Toughness

Fracture toughness is significantly reduced by increased aging. According to fractography analyses for ductility, the reason for this trend is an increase in localized strain and the strength difference between the aged matrix and the soft α_p [30]. Single-step aging has been replaced by duplex aging to improve toughness and strength [24]. Studies indicated that a combination of fine secondary α (resulting from low aging) and long, coarse primary α (resulting from high aging) forms a tortuous crack path leading to the increase in the toughness. Moreover, toughness will decrease when the shape of α_p phase transforms from elongated to

globular shape [31]. Based on fractographic studies, a more pronounced crack deviation occurs when elongated α_p existed [32]. Increasing the volume fraction of α_p can also decrease toughness drastically at constant yield strength. An increase in the degree of matrix aging compensates for the higher volume fraction of soft α_p . The increased α_p volume fraction leads to an increase in toughness at constant aging [19].

Several authors [33, 34] have studied the role of grain boundary α and grain size. For instance, the fracture toughness of Ti-15-3 has been found to be reduced by beta grain refinement [35, 36]; while no effect was found for Ti-10-2-3 and Beta C [37]. It has been indicated that grain boundary α could lead to increase or decrease in fracture toughness, or it may have no effect on it. It has been reported that microstructures with very fine, recrystallized grains, and primary α_p decorated with grain boundary α show a drastic drop in fracture toughness in comparison with the microstructure with large grains [38].

To explain contradictory observations, one should consider different parameters including grain boundary, grain size, stress state, plastic zone size, and degree of aging [39]. In the following conclusions, the plastic zone is confined to the grain boundary α which acts as a low energy fracture path (Fig. 3).

The transgranular pre-fatigue crack will be the initiation of the fracture if the grain size is much larger than the plastic zone (large grain, high strength) [40]. Fracture toughness is not affected by grain boundary α in this fracture mode, because it is influenced by the intrinsic toughness of the aged matrix.

(II) The low energy path of soft grain boundary α can be the initiation site of cracks and its propagation when the beta grain size is much smaller than the size of plastic zone (low strength, small grain). For the transgranular fracture, smaller fracture toughness is obtained at constant yield stress. In the case of active grain boundary fracture mechanism, the increase in grain size results in more tortuosity in the crack path and the subsequent enhancement of toughness. When a broken up grain boundary α , called necklace, is formed instead of a continuous film, the cracks are still deflected; however, a higher energy path is provided and ductility is not reduced. Additionally, the plastic zone will be more confined to the grain boundary α film with an increase in matrix aging in the case of intergranular fracture, which will result in a lower toughness. Anisotropy in fracture toughness could be observed in stretched grains produced by forging due to the crack deviation effect and intergranular fracture.

(III) In the absence of grain boundary α , beta grain size does not influence toughness fracture due to transgranular fracture [19].

To sum up, a combination of maximum crack deviation and high-energy crack paths could result in an optimum toughness. This could be the combination of an aged matrix with acicular primary α_p or a large grain size with a broken up grain boundary α .

3.3. Fatigue

Beta alloys have good fatigue potential; for example, a cycle fatigue strength (HCF) of Ti-10-2-3 with large cross-section has been reported to be 700 MPa ($R = -1$, $K_t = 1$), which cannot be achieved for any other titanium alloys [41]. HCF strength can be increased by the increase in 0.2 % yield strength or aging. Some studies have also shown that the richer beta alloys exhibit a lower fatigue strength compared to leaner beta alloys. This is because α_s is heterogeneously precipitated in the richer beta alloys. Because of using a duplex aging, an increase in fatigue strength was obtained due to a more homogeneous α_s precipitation. Moreover, the results indicated that HCF strength could not exceed the upper limit by further aging. It can be concluded that at a higher strength, the soft regions such as primary α_p zones without precipitates, or grain boundary α , which are fatigue cracks initiation sites, become more dominant. This is because the difference of strength between the aged matrix and these soft zones becomes higher. Additionally, the higher fatigue strength can

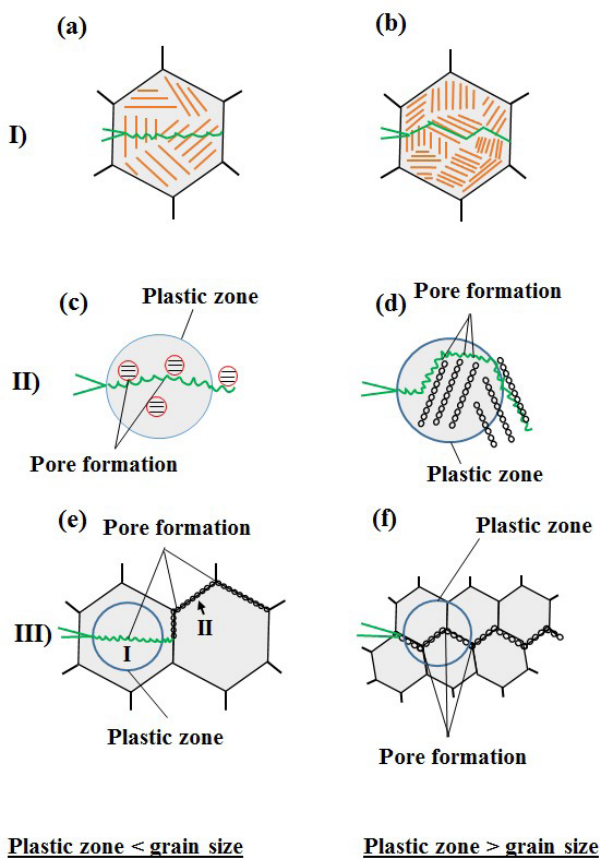


Fig. 3. Crack initiation and growth in β alloys.

be due to the localized slip in the aged matrix [42, 43].

It has been also shown that the fatigue strength of beta titanium alloys is enhanced by grain size reduction. It has been discussed that grain boundary α is the crack nucleation site. Similar to static properties, delayed crack nucleation occurs due to the reduction of the slip length of grain boundary α in smaller grain sizes. The studies on the effect of α/β deformation on fatigue strength after β -forging indicated that a higher ratio of high cycle fatigue strength to yield strength was observed in the purely β -forged condition in comparison with the beta+ alpha/beta-forged material with alpha/beta deformation higher than 30%. By an α/β deformation higher than 30%, high amounts of α grain boundary that were produced in the purely β -processed condition were effectively removed. This is also the reason why no further improvement of fatigue strength is observed in more than 30% α/β deformation. HCF strength is independent of the grain size effect in the case of grain boundary α suppression and the initiation of cracks from the aged matrix [19, 44, 45].

There is still a lack of data to understand and optimize the fatigue behavior; however, the obtained results already shed light on the fatigue resistance improvement approaches including homogeneous dispersion of secondary α , suppression, or reduction of grain boundary α , small grain size, and aging to an optimum level.

4. Properties of TZNT alloys

As mentioned, Ti alloys with metastable β structure, are good candidates for orthopedic applications due to high ductility, low elastic modulus, and the good corrosion resistance in the body environment [46, 47]. To avoid problems such as the stress shielding and the consequent osteoporosis, the difference between Young's moduli of bone and biomaterial should be reduced. Therefore, orthopedic materials are needed to have low Young's modulus. In general, Young's modulus of metastable β -Ti alloys is almost half of the Ti-6Al-4V alloy. By employing different methods such as conventional aging treatment [48, 49], severe plastic deformation [50], and the addition of alloying elements like Fe [23, 51], the strength of these alloys can be increased.

Zareidoost et al. [6] investigated the properties of different TZNT alloys by adding Ag (TZNT-Ag), Sn (TZNT-Sn), and Fe (TZNT-Fe) alloying elements. After suction casting, dendritic morphology was formed in the designed alloys; however, a more homogenous microstructure was obtained for the TZNT-Ag alloy. TZNT, TZNT-Ag, and TZNT-Fe consisted of the β phase, while TZNT-Sn showed separation of β -lean and β -rich regions in the alloy. Moreover, upon cold compressive deformation, very high ductility was obtained for the new TZNT alloys and TZNT-Ag showed the lowest Young's modulus around 65 GPa. Moreover, the ratio of compressive yield stress to Young's modulus was obtained in the range of 0.92-1.08% for all the prepared alloys. TZNT-Ag revealed the highest corrosion resistance in Ringer's solution.

In another study also conducted by Zareidoost et al. [52], as-cast ($\text{Ti}_{55}\text{Zr}_{25}\text{Nb}_{10}\text{Ta}_{10}\text{Fe}_{0.5}$) alloy was cold-rolled and its effect on texture evolution and microstructure of the alloy was investigated. They reported that after different cold-rolling stages, hardness increased which was proposed to be related to grain refinement, the increase of microstrain, and the decrease of crystallite size. Additionally, it was indicated that the reduction of elastic modulus with the cold deformation increase was related to the texture evolution. Cold rolling up to 90% resulted in the increase in the intensity of α -fiber texture and the consequent increase in hardness and decrease in Young's modulus.

Li et al. [53] compared the corrosion behaviors of Ti12.5Zr2.5Nb2.5Ta, Ti6Al7Nb, TA2, and Ti6Al4V in Ringer's solution using the potentiodynamic technique. According to the results, the corrosion resistance of TZNT was higher than that of TA2, Ti6Al7Nb, and Ti6Al4V. Ta_2O_3 , Nb_2O_3 , ZrO_2 , and TiO_2 were the constituents of the passive film on the

TZNT's surface. These oxides with the nobler equilibrium constants improve the stability of the passive film. Additionally, adding elements with low electrochemical reaction potentials, such as Ta, Nb, and Zr could lead to the reduction of the anode activity and improvement of passive properties.

5. TZNT alloys for biomedical applications

5.1 Application in orthopedic implants

One of the promising candidates for applications in the orthopedic field is titanium alloys containing Ta, Zr, and Nb with metastable β phase [54-59]. This is because of their high corrosion resistance in biological environments, high ductility, low elastic modulus, and excellent biocompatibility [60]. However, due to their relatively low strength, the use of these alloys for orthopedic implants is limited [51, 52, 59, 61].

Approximately one million hip replacements has been recorded since 2003 in Northern Ireland, Wales, and England according to the National Joint Registry (NJR) report. Ti alloys, mainly Ti6Al-4V, have been utilized for decades in implant applications where load-bearing properties are required. However, they have some limitations including corrosion, wear [62], infection, aseptic loosening, and adverse soft tissue reaction to debris particles resulting in implant failure and the need for revision surgeries [18, 62]. In terms of mechanical properties, low fracture toughness and low strength can result in implant fracture. The main reason for failure is the difference between the elastic modulus of implant and bone, which results in stress shielding and resorption of bone. Using materials with a modulus close to the human bone, such as TNZT, is a sensible solution to this problem. These β -Ti alloys contain no toxic elements and have lowest elastic modulus among the β -Ti family. On the other hand, the poor wear behavior of TNZT limits its application as a load-bearing part of hip implants [63]. Therefore, the improvement of the implant properties is required.

Laser surface nitriding of TNZT is a way to improve its biological response and mechanical properties. Titanium nitride has remarkable antibacterial properties and good biocompatibility. In this regard, Donaghy et al. [18] used laser nitriding to apply an antibacterial surface on TNZT alloys for hip implant applications. They used incremental laser power to prepare laser-nitrided surfaces on TNZT. According to the results, rougher surfaces with distinctive features were formed by laser nitriding. Regardless of laser power, the surface of implants could be tailored to become hydrophilic after laser nitriding. It was proposed that fiber laser nitriding in a high power regime could be employed for the formation of antibacterial surface patterns on TNZT. It was observed that the most effective laser power was 45W, which created an overlapping crescent shape. With increasing power, the overlapping crescent shape becomes more obvious. Accordingly, laser-nitrided surfaces provided the implant with a remarkable antibacterial effect while showing no special advantage to mesenchymal stem cell response.

The micro-scale abrasive wear property of Ti-35Nb-7Zr-6Ta alloy, as human-implant materials, in terms of load and sliding distance was studied by Zheng et al. [2]. The evaluation of micro-scale abrasive wear behavior of the alloy was carried out in distilled water and Hank's solution and the influence of sliding and load distance was studied. According to the results, the increase in the distance led to the increase in the wear volume of the TZNT alloy due to the greater damage, however, the same regularity was not seen in the wear volume with the increase in load. At different simulated body fluids, the wear occurred under the same sliding distance. The wear mechanism affected the wear appearance. In the wastage map, minor areas of low wastage were observed and the rest was medium wastage, and no high wastage was present. The wastage map was attributed to the alloy wear volume under different

conditions.

Acharya et al. [59] investigated the effect of the Zr addition to a Ti-Nb-Ta-O alloy in terms of the functional response and mechanical properties for orthopedic applications. By varying the processing technique, different crystallographic textures were observed in Ti-Nb-Ta-Zr-O and Ti-Nb-Ta-O. It was found that both alloys possessed low elastic modulus because they have beta microstructures, however, the lower elastic modulus belonged to the Ti-Nb-Ta-O alloy. This is due to its favorable orientation of crystals resulting from the absence of Zr in the structure. Because of the presence of oxygen atoms in interstitial sites, the values of tensile strength were noticeably high for both alloys. In comparison with Ti-Nb-Ta-O alloy, Ti-Nb-Ta-Zr-O showed higher strength revealing the hardening effect of Zr. Both alloys exhibited the satisfactory in vitro biological behavior and corrosion resistance. Additionally, improved osteoblast attachment and lower corrosion rate were observed in the Ti-Nb-Ta-Zr-O alloy. It was concluded that the functional response and mechanical properties of both alloys were promising, and marginal improvement in the performance of Ti-Nb-Ta-Zr-O alloy for orthopedic applications was shown due to the presence of Zr.

5.2 Application in dental implant

Dental implantology was first emerged in 1957 by Per-Ingvar Brånemark, a Swedish orthopedic surgeon [64]. He found that bone continued to grow adjacent to Ti, which could provide bone with the capability to adhere to the Ti metal effectively without rejection. The adherence of bone to implant is called “osseointegration” and it is an important indicator of success rates in dental implantology [65, 66]. In 1982, the United States Food and Drug Administration recommended Ti as a dental implant material. Since then, dental implant manufacturing companies have widely investigated the development of modern materials and the surface treatments to improve osseointegration and consequently, enhance the overall implant success [67-71].

A new binary alloy with the formulation of 13-17% zirconium and 83-87% titanium has recently been introduced in dentistry for producing narrow-diameter implants. It has been claimed that better mechanical characteristics (40% higher fatigue strength and tensile strength of 953 MPa) could be achieved by the application of this alloy in comparison with Ti-6Al-4V and cp Ti [72, 73]. Improved osseointegration can be obtained by adding Zr to Ti [65], and enhanced biocompatibility is shown compared to pure titanium [74].

TZNT is considered as another new promising Ti alloy for surgical implants. This alloy benefits from the unique advantage of the elasticity modulus closer to the human bone than that of conventional Ti alloys as well as admission strain (0.65%) near to human bones (0.67%). The incorporation of alloying elements such as Ta, Nb, and Zr enhances the alloy corrosion resistance and no adverse tissue reactions or toxicity is observed [74-76].

Wang et al. [77] conducted osseointegration studies on Ti-Nb-Zr-Ta-Si titanium alloy for dental implant materials. For the preparation of the alloy, high-energy ball milling was used and subsequently, reactive sintering was performed. Based on the results, compared to cp Ti implants, the prepared Ti alloy implants exhibited a higher rate of mineral apposition after four weeks of healing. It was suggested that the prepared alloy implants showed osseointegration comparable to cp Ti implants. Additionally, a more favorable rate of mineral apposition was promoted by the Ti alloy implants compared to cp Ti implants. It was concluded that the prepared TZNT alloy could be considered as an alternative material for dental implants due to improved mineral matrix apposition rate and establishment of a close direct contact compared to cp Ti implants.

The corrosion resistance of Ti-Nb-Ta-Zr-Fe (TNTZF) alloy, which is currently utilized as replacement materials for dental implants, arti-

ficial hip joints, and other hard tissues, was studied by Xu et al. [78]. Compared to Ti-6Al-4V ELI alloy, TNTZF alloy showed wider passive region, passive current density with more stability, lower corrosion current density, and higher corrosion potential indicating its better corrosion resistance. Additionally, in contrast to Ti-6Al-4V ELI alloy, pitting corrosion was not indicated on its surface passive film. The surface passive film on TNTZF alloy was found to be composed of TiO₂, ZrO₂, Ta₂O₅, NbO₂, Nb₂O₅, and Ti₂O₃ oxides in the TiO₂ matrix. These oxides provide the passive film of TNTZF with more stability and protective ability compared to Ti-6Al-4V ELI alloy leading to its superior corrosion resistance.

6. Conclusions and future insights

As elements such as titanium, niobium, zirconium, and tantalum exhibit good corrosion resistance and excellent biocompatibility in the physiological environments, they are incorporated in the initial Ti alloy (e.g., TZNT). Nb and Ta are also β -stabilizing alloying elements. Moreover, Zr plays a β -stabilizer role in titanium alloys containing Nb and/or Ta. Owing to their excellent physicochemical properties, low density, high corrosion resistance, and good biocompatibility, TZNT alloy have been used as a surgical implant material. Additionally, the low elastic modulus of TZNT alloy can provide protection from adverse soft tissue reaction to debris, inflammation, infection, and consequent implant failure. In conclusion, the development of TZNT alloy can lead to the achievement of a more promising candidate for application in surgical implants.

It has been found that improvement of properties, particularly in surgical implants, can be achieved by using TZNT alloy. Additionally, there is the possibility to fabricate special implant material and enhance the properties of these alloys to promote the surgical implants' advantages and reduce the risk factors, and consequently, the surgical implant failure. Thus, it is expected that this novel implant material should be improved owing to the optimal properties offered by TZNT implants. Meanwhile, these implants will be considered as alternatives to Ti-based and Zr-based implants in dental and orthopedic implantology.

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Conflict of Interest

All authors declare no conflicts of interest in this paper.

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