1. Introduction

Damage to human bone tissue is highly influenced by the age and gender of the patient, pathologies (genetic, dietary and acquired infections), and injuries due to accidents, among others. In addition, the trend towards increased life expectancy increases the probability of bone fracture, wear, loss of density, etc., which involves the necessity to use implants for total or partial bone replacements [1-4]. In this context, the clinical use of commercially pure titanium (Ti c.p.) and $TiAl₆V₄$ alloy are the biometallic materials more widely employed. However, problems associated with the bone resorption phenomenon, due to the stiffness mismatch between the cortical bone (20-25 GPa) and the implant of titanium (100-110 GPa), have been reported [5,6]. The use of porous implants to solve the stress-shielding problem has been widely addressed by the scientific community. In this context, the authors of this work present in the Table 2 a new classification of up to 34 different techniques to produce porous metallic materials (also named foams or cell materials) [10-125], classifying these processing routes by the raw material presentation: liquid metal, metal powder, metal preform and, metal powder suspension. On the other hand, other great goal is to replicate the hierarchical structure of bone tissues. Moreover, radial graded porosity materials are also needed in a great many applications, such as self-lubricated parts, CO₂ capture systems, substrates for catalysis, high efficiency heat sinks and surrogate materials to simulate irradiated nuclear fuel, among others.

Table 2. Classification of the different techniques to develop porous metallic materials.

Some available works show the limitations in controlling the quantity, size, distribution and morphology of the pores by conventional routes. Other works indicate the high cost, and the great difficulty in obtaining reproducibility and versatility of the new processing routes (laser sintering, ion beam milling, field assisted sintering technology, etc.). In this work, the authors develop the optimisation and validation of a novel sequential uniaxial compaction device, to produce cylinders of radial graded porous materials.

Figure 1. Components of the compaction device: a) die, b) set of compaction punches, c) set of extraction punches and d) centring tools.

Figure 2. Diagram of the methodology used.

Figure 3. Images of defective pieces, due to the pressing stage and elimination of the lubricant and the spacer, and an image of a correct piece produced with the application of the optimised conditions for the sequential compaction process (three concentric zones designed with a radial

graded porosity structure). Titanium cylinders with: a) displaced core; b) break in the intermediate layer in the green body; c) lack of adhesion between layers after sintering; d), e) and f) with loss of material after removal of both lubricant (EBS) and the spacer from the green body (ammonium bicarbonate or NaCl); and, g) optimal structural integrity and concentricity of the layers.

	Incorrect Removal Protocol	Correct Removal Protocol
EBS	500° C (1h)	100°C (2h), 300°C (4h) and 500°C (4h)
$NH_4(HCO_3)$	$110^{\circ}C(2h)$	60° C (10h), 110 $^{\circ}$ C (12h), both stages at 10^{-2} bar
NaCl	Immersion in water with moderate agitation, at room temperature (2h).	Immersion in water at rest, at 45-55 °C: 4 cycles of 4h, and finally dried at $100^{\circ}C(1.5h)$

Table 3. Lubricant (EBS), NH₄(HCO₃) and NaCl space-holder removal protocols used.

Figure 4. Macro- and micrographs of the longitudinal section in the designs manufactured by

conventional PM with increasing and decreasing gradients.

Interface between layers

Figure 5. Micrographs of the longitudinal section made in each transition zone in the increasing and decreasing designs manufactured by conventional PM: IG and DG, respectively.

Figure 6. Macro- and micrographs of longitudinal sections made at the interfaces in the IG design and homogeneous porosity cylinders manufactured in similar conditions [128].

Figure 7. Macro- and micrographs of longitudinal sections of Ti cylinders with radial graded porosity obtained by SHT: HG design obtained by NaCl (D $[4,3] = 445 \mu m$), and SG designs obtained by NaCl (D [4,3] = 206 μ m] and NH₄ (HCO₃) (D [4,3] = 265 μ m).

Figure 8. Macro- and micrographs of the Ti cylinder with radial graded porosity obtained by SHT: a) upper base of the HG design obtained by NaCl (D $[4,3] = 445 \,\mu m$)), b) longitudinal section of the SG design obtained by NaCl (D $[4,3] = 206 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$).

Table 4. Density, total porosity, interconnected porosity and equivalent pore diameter, by Archimedes' method and image analysis of Ti cylinders with radially graded porosity fabricated according to the SG design by space-holder technique (SHT).

Table 5. Young's modulus and yield strength obtained by uniaxial compression testing and ultrasound technique of Ti cylinders with radial graded porosity fabricated according to the SG design by space-holder technique.

Figure 10. Stress-strain curves of the Ti cylinder with the SG design: influence of the type of

spacer [NaCl vs NH₄ (HCO₃)].

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