Anodic oxidation of zirconium in silicate solutions

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ABSTRACT

Herein, a study of the surface modification of zirconium by anodic oxidation is reported. The oxidation process was carried out in a solution containing \( \text{K}_2\text{SiO}_3 \) and KOH. The anodization was conducted at voltages of 100, 200 and 400 V. It was found that the morphology of the surface did not change during the oxidation of the zirconium at 100 and 200 V. The application of 400 V resulted in the incorporation of silicon into the formed oxide layer and a significant modification of the surface morphology. The obtained coatings are typical of coating produced during an electrolytic plasma oxidation process and contain a considerable amount of silicon. The anodic oxidation of zirconium leads to a significant improvement in the corrosion resistance of the material in the presence of Ringer’s physiological solution.

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1. Introduction

Implants made of metals or alloys are widely used in medicine. These materials cannot be introduced into the human body without a proper surface treatment. A modification must be performed to provide the appropriate functional properties on the surface of the implants. Biologically active or non-active surfaces can be formed by electrochemical methods that are often used during metal biomaterials production. The electrochemical processes used in implant production include: electrolytic etching, electrolytic polishing, anodic oxidation, electrophoretic deposition and cathodic deposition. The electrolytic polishing process is used for the production of very smooth and tension-free surfaces. Moreover, it results in an increase in the corrosion resistance of treated elements [1]. The effects obtained in the process can be improved by the application of a magnetic field [2,3]. Electrophoretic and cathodic depositions are used for the formation of layers, e.g., apatite layers on titanium implants that increase their bioactivity [4,5]. The anodic oxidation process is commonly used for the treatment of biomaterials made of titanium and its alloys, as well magnesium, niobium, tantalum and zirconium [6,7]. It also can be used for the formation of thin oxide layers that considerably improve the corrosion resistance of the implants [8–10]. A particular type of process is the so-called plasma electrolytic oxidation (PEO) or micro-arc oxidation (MAO), which proceed above the oxide layer breakdown potential [11]. A number of physical and chemical phenomena occur during this type of oxidation. These phenomena make it possible to obtain a treated surface coating of a ceramic that is enriched in the components present in the anodizing solution [12–15]. The coatings exhibit very good tribological properties, good corrosion resistance and improve the osseointegration of the coated biomaterials [16].

Commercially pure Ti and Ti–6Al–4V extra low interstitial (ELI) are the most commonly used titanium materials for implant applications. Although Ti–6Al–4V was originally developed for aerospace applications, its high corrosion resistance and excellent biocompatibility led to its entry into the biomedical industry [17]. Although titanium and its alloys, mainly Ti–6Al–4V, have excellent corrosion resistance and biocompatibility, some concerns have been raised about to the release of aluminum and vanadium from the Ti–6Al–4V alloy. Both Al and V ions have been associated with long-term health problems, such as Alzheimer disease, neuropathy and ostemomalacia [18]. In addition, vanadium is toxic both in its elemental state and as the \( \text{V}_2\text{O}_5 \) oxide, which is present at the surface [19,20]. Further, titanium has poor shear strength, making it less desirable for bone screws, plates and similar applications. Titanium also tends to undergo severe wear when it is rubbed between itself and other metals [21]. Titanium-based alloys with a high coefficient of friction can lead to the formation of wear debris that produce an inflammatory reaction, causing pain and the loosening of implants due to osteolysis [22]. The growing requirements for long-term implants, as well as doubts regarding the bioinertness of titanium alloys containing vanadium have contributed to the growing number of investigations of vanadium-free titanium alloys. Among the studied alloys, the most promising metallic biomaterials include [17] titanium–aluminum–niobium.

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(Ti–6Al–7Nb), titanium–niobium–zirconium (Ti–13Nb–13Zr),
titanium–niobium–tantalum–zirconium (Ti–29Nb–13Ta–4.5Zr) and
titanium–niobium (Ti–50Nb). Instead of the harmful alu-
minum and vanadium, other metals such as zirconium, niobium and
tantalum are predominantly used because these alloys are
much more resistant to corrosion in the presence of bodily fluids
than other alloys [23–30]. Previous studies have shown that pure
Ti, Nb, and Zr metals and alloys exhibit excellent corrosion resis-
tance in chloride, which is related to the presence of a stable
and protective oxide film on the surface (mainly TiO2, Nb2O5 and ZrO2)
[28,31]. The addition of Nb and Zr increases the thermodynamic
and kinetic stability of Ti in the alloy and thus reduces the dissolu-
tion rate of Ti [25]. Moreover, the oxide Nb2O5 has a more negative
heat of formation than Al2O3 and V2O5, and Zr and Nb ions have
lower solubility than Al and V ions in aqueous media [26,29].

Silicon (Si) is an essential element for the normal growth and
development of bone and connective tissues [32,33]. The
role of Si as an essential element for higher biological organisms
was discovered through deficiency studies [34]. In recent years,
increasing evidence supports the hypothesis that the presence of
Si contributes to the enhanced bioactivity of some bioactive
glasses and ceramics and significantly increases the up-regulation
of osteoblast proliferation and gene expression [35]. Si-containing
calcium phosphate ceramics were widely investigated and proven
to be more bioactive and favorable for the attachment and spread
of osteoblasts [33]. The incorporation of Si into conventional films
by PEO is a promising approach for introducing certain elements
into the film to enhance its bioactivity and thus favor skeleton
formation.

Herein, the results of plasma electrolytic oxidation of pure zir-
conium for the preparation of vanadium-free titanium alloys
are reported. The process was carried out in aqueous solutions of potas-
sium silicate and potassium hydroxide. The morphology, chemical
composition as well as the corrosion resistance of surface-modified
zirconium were evaluated.

2. Materials and methods

Pure zirconium (BIMO Metals, Wroclaw, Poland) samples in the
shape of a plate with dimensions of 10 mm × 10 mm were used in
this study. The samples were polished with #530 and #600 abrasive
paper and cleaned for 5 min in an ultrasonic wash in 2-propanol and
deonized water. The pretreatment of samples was conducted as
follows: polishing with abrasive paper of 600 granularity, etching
in a solution containing H2SO4 (4 mol dm−3) and HF (1 mol dm−3)
for 1 min, rinsing in distilled water and cleaning ultrasonically for
5 min (sample Zr).

After the etching process, the samples were oxidized anodically
in a bath containing potassium hydroxide (KOH – 5 g dm−3) and
potassium silicate (K2SiO3; different concentration). The anodiza-
tion was carried out at a current density of 0.1 A dm−2 for 5 min.
The sample labels and treatment conditions are provided in Table 1.
After anodization, the samples were rinsed with distilled water and
cleaned in an ultrasonic bath with 2-propanol and deonized water.
A DC power supply (PWR800H, Kikusui, Japan) was used for the
anodization reaction, in which the zirconium specimen served as
the anode and a titanium plate served as the cathode.

The morphology and the cross sectional and chemical compo-
sition of the anodic layer formed on the surface were examined
using a scanning electron microscope (SEM, Hitachi S–3400N, accel-
erating voltage = 25 kV) equipped with an energy-dispersive X-ray
spectrometer (EDX, Thermo Noran).

The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements
were performed in an ultrahigh vacuum (3 × 10−10 mbar) system
equipped with a hemispherical analyzer (SES R4000, Gammadata
Scienta). An un-monochromatic Mg Kα X-ray source of incident energy
of 1253.6 eV was applied to generate core excitations. The energy
resolution of the system, measured as a full width at half
maximum for an Ag 3d5/2 excitation line, was 0.9 eV. The energy
scale of the analyzer was calibrated according to ISO 15472:2001,
and the energy scale of the acquired spectra was calibrated for a
maximum C 1s core excitation at the electron binding energy (BE)
of 285 eV. The analytical depth for the measured samples (approx-
imated as SiO2 layers) was 10.4 nm.

The roughness (Ra parameter) of the samples was measured using
a Mitutoyo Surftest SJ–301 profilometer according to ISO
4287:1997. The Ra parameter is the arithmetic mean of the sum
of roughness profile values:

\[
Ra = \frac{1}{l} \int_{0}^{l} |Z(x)| \, dx,
\]

where \(Z(x)\) is the absolute ordinate value inside the elementary
measuring length and \(l\) is the elementary length in the \(x\) direction
(average line) used to determine the unevenness of the profile.

The corrosion resistance of the zirconium samples was inves-
tigated in the presence of Ringer’s simulated body fluid, which
is composed of 8.6 g dm−3 NaCl, 0.3 g dm−3 KCl, and 0.48 g dm−3
CaCl2·6H2O (Baxter, USA). The main components of the research
apparatus included a standard two-chamber electrolysis cell with
three electrodes: a working electrode, a platinum auxiliary elec-
trode and a Haber–Luggin capillary with a reference electrode
(saturated calomel electrode – SCE). The electrolysis cell was
powered by a PARSTAT 4000 potentiostat operated by the Versa
Studio software. The study included the following measurements:
(a) recording the open-circuit potential \(E_{OC}\) as a function of
time, (b) determining the log \((−1/F)\) curve in the potential range
of \(E_{OC}−20 mV\) to \(E_{OC} +20 mV\) \((dE/dt = 1 mV s^{−1})\), which
provides information about: (i) the corrosion potential \(E_{CORR}\) mV,
(ii) the corrosion current density \(i_{CORR}\), nA cm−2, and (iii) the
polarization resistance \(R_{p}\), kΩ cm2, and (c) recording the cyclic
polarization curve (CV) in the potential range from \(E_{OC} –0.1 V\ to
3 V \((dE/dt = 10 mV s^{−1})\).

All solutions were prepared using analytical grade reagents
manufactured by POCh Gliwice, Poland. Deionized water was
obtained from the Millipore Milli-Q system.

3. Results and discussion

The surface of the polished and etched zirconium exhibits the
expected morphology following such a treatment (Fig. 1). The
Ra roughness parameter of the etched zirconium was 0.23 μm (Table 1, Fig. 2). The etched zirconium was then anodically oxidized under different parameters. The anodic oxidation performed in a solution containing 0.5 mol dm$^{-3}$ K$_2$SiO$_3$ at a voltage of 100 V did not affect the surface morphology of zirconium samples (Fig. 3). The roughness was close to the Ra parameter of the substrate of 0.24 μm (Table 1 and Fig. 2). The EDX analysis demonstrated the presence of zirconium, oxygen and silicon on the surface of sample Zr-ANO-0.5-100 (spectra not shown). The presence of oxygen in the EDX spectra suggests that ZrO$_2$ and SiO$_2$ were observed on the surface of zirconium samples. The Zr/Si atomic ratio, calculated from the EDX data, was 51.63. This value indicates a low amount of silicon in the coating. The obtained coating was compact and uniformly covered the specimen. As expected for a barrier type anodic coating, it exhibited a thickness of 320–380 nm. The coating was formed below the potential when the oxide layer breakdown takes place (Fig. 3) [36]. A further increase in the voltage to 200 V did not influence the surface appearance (Zr-ANO-0.5-200 sample, Fig. 4). The Zr/Si atomic ratio decreased to 29.30, confirming an increase in the silicon content of the coating (Table 1). Cheng et al. investigated the plasma electrolytic oxidation of titanium in solutions containing calcium, silicon and sodium [37]. Silicon in the form of SiO$_2$ was incorporated into the oxide layer formed on titanium at a voltage of 200 V. The formed coating was also a barrier type coating with a thickness in the range of 560–760 nm (Fig. 4, Table 1). Based on the thickness analysis of the coatings formed at 100 and 200 V, it can be concluded that the change in the thickness of the coating in relation to the applied voltage is linear and averages 3.4 nm V$^{-1}$ for this voltage range and a current density of 100 mA cm$^{-2}$.

The change in anodizing voltage over the course of the zirconium oxidation at the maximum terminal voltage (400 V) is shown in Fig. 5. The curves are typical of a PEO process [15], wherein three segments can be distinguished: (1) a fast and linear increase in the voltage from 0 to 230 V, (2) a decrease in the rate of voltage increase (from approximately 230 to approximately 300 V) and the breakdown of the zirconium oxide layer appears above the voltage of 230 V, and (3) an intense discharge of the surface of zirconium and the lowest change in the rate. Increasing the potassium silicate concentration in the solution resulted in an increase in the rate in the first rectilinear segment of 9.0, 9.8, and 12.4 V s$^{-1}$ for K$_2$SiO$_3$ concentrations of 0.1, 0.5, and 1.0 mol dm$^{-3}$, respectively. The roughness of the surface also exhibited an increase with increasing voltage (Fig. 2). The roughness factors were 1.46, 3.70, and 4.09 μm for K$_2$SiO$_3$ concentrations of 0.1, 0.5 and, 1.0 mol dm$^{-3}$, respectively (Table 2).

Increasing the voltage during the oxidation in a solution of silicate and potassium hydroxide fundamentally influences the morphology and chemical composition of the obtained oxide layer (Zr-ANO-x-400 sample; Figs. 6–9). An increase in the potassium silicate concentration in the solution increases the silicon content of the oxide layer. The calculated Zr/Si atomic ratios were 12.42, 0.085, and 0.005 for K$_2$SiO$_3$ concentrations of 0.1, 0.5, and

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>BE (eV)</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Assignation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>O 1s</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>530.5</td>
<td>33.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Si 2p$_{3/2}$</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>102.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zr 3d$_{5/2}$</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>183.1</td>
<td>34.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Parameters of the deconvoluted O 1s, Si 2p, and Zr 3d core excitations for Zr-ANO-0.5-400 sample.
1.0 mol dm\(^{-3}\), respectively. The surface morphology of the Zr-ANO-0.1–400 sample after an oxidation at 400 V in a solution containing 0.1 mol dm\(^{-3}\) K\(_2\)SiO\(_3\) is provided in Fig. 6. The color of the coating is light gray and characterized by numerous small pores with a diameter of less than 1 \(\mu\)m. The formed coating is characterized by a layered structure and with a thickness of 5.5 \(\mu\)m (Fig. 6). The cross-section shows that the coating is non-uniform and reveals numerous cracks, with the outer regions of the coating detached in several locations (Fig. 6). A layered nature of the coating is less apparent than the coatings formed on a Zircaloy-4 alloy in the sodium silicate solution [38,39]. A similar coating was formed during the anodization of Zircaloy-4 alloy in a solution containing only NaOH [40]. The peaks corresponding to the substrate metal as well as intense peaks for silicon, oxygen and potassium are observed in the EDX spectrum (Fig. 6). This finding indicates an appreciable incorporation of silicon and potassium into the oxide layer. According to the EDX point analysis of the layer, a distinct peak for zirconium and a small signal for oxygen are observed at the metal/oxide interface (Fig. 6). In contrast, more intense signal for oxygen and silicon is observed at another point near the surface. Marker studies indicate that the films are formed mainly at the metal/film interface due to the inward migration of oxygen ions. Hence, the cation transport number is low, approximately 0.05 [41]. In the case of the PEO treatment, silicon species were found at a relatively high concentration in the outer layer of the film with a thickness of approximately 20 nm. This region of the film may be formed by the outward migration of Zr\(^{4+}\) ions, possibly assisted by the precipitation of silica due to the reduction of the pH near the surface of the film during the anodic segment of the current cycle [42]. In the pre-sparking stage of the treatment, silicon is a minor component of the main film [36,38]. In the case of anodization in a solution containing 0.5 mol dm\(^{-3}\) K\(_2\)SiO\(_3\), the formed coating was characterized by a considerable surface development as well as large pores with a diameter of up to 20 \(\mu\)m (Zr-ANO-0.5–400 sample; Fig. 7). The Zr/Si atomic ratio decreased substantially, to a value of 0.085 (Table 1). These results reveal a significant amount of silicon in the coating. The analysis of the high resolution spectra of O 1s, Si 2p, and Zr 3d was performed for Zr-ANO-0.5–400 sample (Fig. 8). The XPS measurements allowed determination of the Si/Zr and Si/O (excluding oxygen from adsorbed organic contaminants) atomic ratios as 2.07 and 0.48. These indicated that the surface layer is composed of silica-like species. The high resolution XP spectra were deconvoluted into minimum number of components and the resulting data were summarized in Table 2 and provide a comparison of the electronic states of elements at the surface studied. The assignment of components was performed using
Fig. 6. The SEM image of the surface, the cross section, and the EDX point analysis (x and y points on the right image) of the oxide layer on the zirconium anodized at 400 V in 0.1 mol dm⁻³ K₂SiO₃ (Zr-ANO-0.1–400 sample).

Fig. 7. The SEM image of the surface, the cross section, and the EDX point analysis (x, y, and z points on the right image) of the oxide layer on the zirconium anodized at 400 V in 0.5 mol dm⁻³ K₂SiO₃ (Zr-ANO-0.5–400 sample).

Fig. 8. Deconvoluted spectra of O 1s, Si 2p, and Zr 3d core excitations for the zirconium anodized at 400 V in 0.5 mol dm⁻³ K₂SiO₃ (Zr-ANO-0.5–400 sample).

Fig. 9. The SEM image of the surface, the cross section, and the EDX point analysis (x, y, and z points on the right image) of the oxide layer on the zirconium anodized at 400 V in 1.0 mol dm⁻³ K₂SiO₃ (Zr-ANO-1.0–400 sample).
standard databases [43–45]. The O 1s spectrum was de-convoluted into three components wherein the most intensive component (B) was assigned to the oxygen bonded to the silicon (silicates and/or silica) and the second component (A) was assigned to the oxygen in the metal oxides, and lowest (C) to oxygen in adsorbed water and organic contaminants. Analysis of Si 2p spectrum revealed single doublet (A) at Si 2p3/2 BE of 102.8 eV assigned to Si4+ in silicates or amorphous silica [43–45]. The relatively broad Si 2p3/2 component of full width at half maximum of 2.5 eV suggests relatively large variety of possible surroundings of silicon cation although all related to silicates. The Zr 3d core excitation was deconvoluted into two components i.e. the major one (A) to Zr4+ in zirconium silicate and the minor one (B) also to Zr4+ but in more electronegative surrounding like in zirconium hydroxide [45,46]. Additionally, little amount (3.4 at.%) of potassium was found as silicate (K 2p3/2 of 293.7 eV) at the studied surface. Carbon contamination from the atmosphere is always present in surfaces exposed to air.

The cross-sectional analysis of Zr-ANO-0.5–400 specimen also exhibited the stratification of the fabricated coating, as shown in Fig. 7. Point EDX analysis at the metal/oxide boundary mainly indicated the presence of zirconium (Fig. 7). The signals for oxides became more intense as the distance from the surface decreased. Moreover, a very intense silicon peak is observed right at the surface. In this case, the thickness of the formed coating was between 10 and 18 μm. Increasing the K2SiO3 concentration from 0.5 to 1.0 did not cause a significant change in the surface of the anodized samples (Zr-ANO-1.0–400 sample; Fig. 9). However, the produced coating appeared more cracked. The Zr/Si atomic ratio was 0.005, indicating a total coverage of the surface with silicate or silica (Table 2). The cross-sectional image (Fig. 9) reveals that the thickness of the oxide layer was between 41 and 71 μm with many connecting holes. The growth of an oxide layer by anodic oxidation and local breakdown with a small spark, as well as the subsequent oxygen gas evolution resulted in the formation of this complicated structure [46,47]. The EDX point cross-sectional analysis of Zr-ANO-1.0–400 sample is provided in Fig. 9. As observed with the previous specimen, the coating exhibited a laminar character. Only peaks for Si, O, and K were observed at the surface of the coating. This finding reveals the presence of potassium silicate and silica on the surface of the sample.

The temperature in the discharge area can be up to several thousand degrees Celsius [11], leading to the local evaporation of the solution, the crystallization of components and, finally, the incorporation of components into the oxide layer. Another feature of plasma electrolysis is the formation of specific surface structures, such as metastable high temperature phases, non-equilibrium solid solutions, mixed-compounds, glassy phases, and other characteristics. These substances are formed as a result of plasma thermochemical reactions at the surface of the electrode [11]. The incorporation of anions from the anodizing electrolyte into the oxide film is strongly affected by the nature of the electrolyte. For instance, organic acids anions are less incorporated into the oxide film due to the larger size of the alkyl chain compared with that of typical inorganic anions. In contrast, a significant amount of phosphate species (typically, a few at%) are incorporated into the growing film during the anodization in phosphate-based electrolytes [48]. In addition to the nature of the electrolyte, the process voltage fundamentally influences the possibility that elements will be incorporated into the oxide layer of titanium alloys. Because the voltage range of 100–200 V is lower than the breakdown voltage of the passive layer, no plasma oxidation was observed that resulted in a substantial incorporation of components in the oxide film. When a voltage of 400 V is used, silicon is incorporated in the oxide layer of zirconium (Zr–ANO-x–400 samples).

The open-circuit potential E_{OCP} of zirconium samples was recorded over a period of 1 h in the presence of Ringer’s simulated body fluid. The E_{OCP} was found to increase as the specimen was etched in samples that were anodized at 400 V (Fig. 10). Such behavior indicates the formation of an oxide layer on the surface of the sample in Ringer’s solution or the sealing of the existing layer on the surface of Zr [24,49,50]. In the case of samples that were oxidized at 100 and 200 V, the E_{OCP} slightly decreased before stabilizing (Fig. 10). This effect on E_{OCP} may demonstrate a certain activity of the samples in a physiological solution. These observations may result due to a change in the degree of crystallinity of the coating, the conversion of anhydrous oxides to hydrated oxides or the unsealing of the coating. Moreover, a very slow dissolution of the oxides in the Ringer’s solution is also possible [51,52]:

\[
\text{ZrO}_2 + 2\text{H}^+ \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{Zr}^{2+}
\]

The highest E_{OCP} values after 60 min of incubation in Ringer’s physiological solution were obtained for samples that were oxidized at 100 V.

The cyclic polarization curves (CV) obtained for zirconium samples in Ringer’s solution are provided in Fig. 11. The polarization curve obtained for pure Zr is similar to that of zirconium at a pH 8 buffer containing chlorides [53]. With increasing potential, the rate of hydrogen evolution decreases and the oxidation of zirconium begins, resulting in passivation due to the formation of a zirconium oxide film. At 302 mV, the slope in the CV plot starts to increase sharply (Fig. 11). In this region, the breakdown of the passive film and oxygen evolution at higher potentials contributes to the measured current. Following a further increase in the potential, the current density increases very sharply. This effect is due to the accelerated anodic dissolution caused by the breakdown of the passive layer and the eventual oxygen evolution. According to literature, in acidic solutions, severe anodic dissolution induced either by the flaking of zirconium oxide from the surface or the weakening of the oxide film by H3O+ ions produces a porous ZrO2 film [53,54]. However, in basic solutions, the mechanism of passive film breakdown is expected to be different. The passive property of the film can be changed due to loss of water from the structure [55]. In the case of Zr-ANO-0.5–100 and Zr-ANO-0.5–200 zirconium samples, the breakdown potential (E_{break}) was 1440 and 1940 mV, respectively (Table 3). However, the current density was significantly lower in comparison with pure zirconium (Fig. 11). This behavior in Ringer’s solution is associated with a passive layer of several hundred nanometers in thickness, formed on the surface, which protects the metal against corrosion. The zirconium anodized at a voltage of 400 V completely changed the shape of the CV curves, regardless of the solution used. Until 3 V, the breakdown potential was not observed and the recorded current density did not exceed a few mA cm⁻² (Fig. 11). This behavior of Zr–ANO-x–400 samples is typical of zirconium alloys after PEO and clearly confirms its excellent corrosion resistance [47].

Fig. 12 provides the potentiodynamic polarization curves of pure zirconium and anodized samples. The corrosion current density (i_{corr}), corrosion potential (E_{corr}) and polarization resistance (R_p) obtained by the linear polarization method are summarized in Table 3. The corrosion potential of the Zr substrate is −340 mV and its corrosion current density is 234.68 × 10⁻⁹ A cm⁻². In addition, the polarization resistance is 92.63 × 10³ Ω cm². The anodizing of zirconium samples at 100 and 200 V results in a significant shift in the corrosion potential toward the anodic side to 4.58 and −40.3 mV, respectively. The corrosion current density decreases considerably: Zr-ANO-0.5–100 with 2.54 × 10⁻⁹ A cm⁻² and Zr-ANO-0.5–200 with 6.37 × 10⁻⁹ A cm⁻². In contrast, the polarization resistance increases to 8.54 × 10⁶ Ω cm² and 3.41 × 10⁶ Ω cm², respectively. The use of a voltage higher than the passive layer breakdown potential causes an increase in the corrosion resistance in comparison to pure zirconium (Fig. 12; Table 3). The corrosion potential increases with decreasing K2SiO3 content in the
Table 3
The results of corrosion resistance investigations of the zirconium in Ringer’s solution.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>$K_2SiO_3, \text{ mol dm}^{-2}$</th>
<th>$U, \text{ V}$</th>
<th>$E_{\text{CORR}}, \text{ mV}$</th>
<th>$i_{\text{CORR}}, \text{ A cm}^{-2}$</th>
<th>$E_{\text{BREAK}}, \text{ mV}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Zr</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–34.058</td>
<td>$2.6 \times 10^4$</td>
<td>2347 $\times 10^{-9}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zr-ANO-0.5-100</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>$8.5 \times 10^6$</td>
<td>2.5 $\times 10^{-9}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zr-ANO-0.5-200</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>$-40.3$</td>
<td>$3.4 \times 10^8$</td>
<td>6.4 $\times 10^{-9}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zr-ANO-0.5-400</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>$-27.919$</td>
<td>$1205 \times 10^8$</td>
<td>1804 $\times 10^{-9}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zr-ANO-0.1-400</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>$-15.820$</td>
<td>$3378 \times 10^8$</td>
<td>64.4 $\times 10^{-9}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zr-ANO-1.0-400</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>$-30.525$</td>
<td>$2336 \times 10^8$</td>
<td>93.1 $\times 10^{-9}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 10. The variation of the $E_{\text{OCR}}$ with time for the etched zirconium and zirconium anodized at different conditions (Zr-ANO-x-y samples) in Ringer’s solution.

Fig. 11. The cyclic polarization curves recorded for the etched zirconium (left axis) and zirconium anodized at different conditions (Zr-ANO-x-y samples; right axis).

Fig. 12. The polarization curves recorded for the etched zirconium and zirconium anodized at different conditions (Zr-ANO-x-y samples).

anodization bath, which is associated with the structure and thickness of the formed passive layer. Moreover, the corrosion current density of Zr-ANO-x-400 specimens is lower than of pure zirconium (Fig. 12), and the polarization resistance increases (Table 3). A dense barrier layer with a thickness of 200–600 nm at the PEO coating/Zr playing an important role in the corrosion properties of coated samples. This barrier layer may be discerned in Figs. 6, 7 and 9. Moreover, the thick coating with high hardness and elastic modulus is relatively brittle, which might result in the presence of several cracks [47]. Thus, Cl− ions in the NaCl solution can easily penetrate into the coating along these cracks. A suitable coating thickness should be selected to obtain anti-corrosion coatings using the PEO process on Zr. Because the degradation of Zr often takes place though Zr, it is easy to form a protective passive film. As shown in Fig. 11, the breakdown potential ($E_{\text{BREAK}}$) of Zr for pitting attack is 302 mV, but the potential of coated alloys is greatly improved to over +3 V for samples anodized at 400 V. Hence, the PEO coating on Zr has excellent pitting corrosion resistance.

4. Conclusions
This work represents a study on the incorporation of silicon into an oxide film in zirconium using the anodic oxidation method. The process was performed in a solution containing $K_2SiO_3$ and KOH. The incorporation of a significant amount of silicon was observed upon applying a potential above the breakdown voltage of the oxide layer, namely 400 V. Moreover, the amount of the incorporated silicon increases with increasing potassium silicate concentration in the anodizing solution. The silicon incorporated into the oxide coating on zirconium occurs in the form of silica and silicates. This type of incorporation of Si into the oxide layer can be favorable for the adsorption of specific ions and for following the crystallization of hydroxyapatite in a tissue environment. Anodic oxidation of zirconium leads to a significant improvement in the corrosion resistance of the material in the presence of Ringer’s physiological solution. The produced oxide layers require further investigation (biocorrosion and bioactivity), the results of which will be presented in next study.

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