Surface Physicochemical and Structural Analysis of Functionalized Titanium Dioxide Films

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GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

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ABSTRACT

Titanium and its alloys are recognized as acceptable materials for many applications. The properties of titanium dioxide (TiO\textsubscript{2}) thin films are directly related to the structural characteristics of the material, which can be modified with tailor-made functional groups. Reactive bifunctional groups can be bound with hydroxyl-terminated TiO\textsubscript{2}, leading to the formation of self-assembled monolayers or multilayer films. The understanding of such interactions is necessary to design functional oxide coatings for a large variety of applications. In this study, nanosized TiO\textsubscript{2} films were synthesized by the sol-gel method and deposited by spin coating technique upon titanium substrate. Subsequently, TiO\textsubscript{2} thin films were functionalized with (3-aminopropyl)trimethoxysilane (APTMS), 3-(4-aminophenyl)propionic acid (APPA), 3-mercaptopropionic acid (MPA) or polyethylene glycol (PEG). Surface characterization by XPS, surface roughness, and contact angle indicated successful functionalization and allowed for identification of the preferential conformation of each molecule. APPA and APTMS presented free amine groups indicating the attachment to the surface by carboxyl and silane groups, respectively. Mercapto coupling from MPA showed the formation of S-Ti bonds. PEG-coated surface revealed polymerization of several hydroxyl groups that crosslinked with each other. Analyzing the mode of attachment at the interface of the metal oxide and functional group may help in the development of improved functional materials.
1. Introduction

Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) thin film is well known for its optical [1], photocatalytic [2], anti-corrosive [3,4], and antimicrobial properties [5]. It has been applied in paint coatings, as well as in the fields of energy, environment, and biomaterials [6-8]. The properties of TiO₂ films are directly related to the structural characteristics of the material, which can be tailored by the synthesis, deposition, or annealing method. The technique employed can influence the particle size, morphology, crystalline phase, thickness, roughness, wettability, and surface chemistry, and consequently its application. There are many different routes for the formation of titania thin films, including vacuum evaporation, sputtering, electrophoresis, Langmuir-Blodgett technique, and the sol-gel process [9]. Among these methods, sol-gel routes are considered to be the simplest. These routes present the possibility of homogeneity and microstructure control, as well as lower energy consumption, since the process is usually conducted at lower temperatures than those used in the conventional synthesis of ceramics [10]. The type of precursor, acidic or basic catalyst, and the temperature in the hydrolysis step determines the nature and properties of the products [11]. A high molar ratio of water effectively dilutes the alkoxide and accelerates the hydrolysis step leading to the formation of nanosized particles [12,13]. In general, the sol-gel product is deposited on a substrate by spin or dip-coating. The spin coating technique is a simple method that offers the advantages of low cost, the ability to form particles with good size distribution, control of the film thickness, reproducibility of the process, and the ability to provide highly uniform coatings [10].

The functional properties of titania thin films may be improved through surface modifications to suit various applications. Currently, there has been an increasing interest in the formation of chemically modified oxide surfaces with organic functionalities [14,15]. Hybrid surface architectures combining active organic and inorganic components at the nanometer scale play a crucial role in the development of functional materials [16,17], and these could be considered as self-regulating “intelligent” surfaces [18]. For these systems, the control of organic/inorganic interfaces and the creation of strong linkages between the different elements through covalent or ionic bonds can lead to remarkable properties due to synergistic effects [19]. The oxidized surface facilitates the strong adhesion of reactive functional groups (-SH, -COOH, -NH₂, etc.) yielding surfaces with great stability and functionality.

The organic molecules may adsorb on the TiO₂ surface by physiosorption or covalent bond formation. The presence of hydroxyl groups (-OH) on the titania surface, under ambient conditions, leads to the formation of covalent interactions between -OH and a specific functional group from the organic molecules through condensation reactions [20]. The covalent interaction between the substrate and the organic moieties depends on the reaction conditions and the type of functional groups present on the organic compound. Generally, the organic molecules that will interact with TiO₂ have two functional groups. The functional group with higher affinity for the substrate, the headgroup, interacts covalently with the -OH surface groups. The other terminal functional group will be free to interact with other molecules on the surface, such as peptides or proteins that are useful for bio-applications. Furthermore, the terminal group will be additionally responsible for the characteristics of the organic interface, which will define the surface properties [21].

There are two approaches normally used for surface functionalization: the deposition of multilayers; or the attachment of self-assembled monolayers (SAMs) [20,22]. SAMs result in ordered, oriented, and packed layers of organic molecules formed on the surface by equilibration to a structure of minimum surface free energy [23]. Multilayers result in disordered layers due to uncontrolled growth arising from fast reactions or interactions. Both these methods have their advantages and disadvantages. Monolayers provide a high level of control over the molecular level composition. However, the degree of order in these systems is largely determined by the alkyl chain length [24]. Furthermore, there are many parameters that can influence the preferential formation of a single or multilayer, such as deposition time, adsorption mechanisms, and molecular architectures. Thus, it is necessary to gain a better understanding of the type of attachment and growth mode at the interface, along with the functional group/metal oxide combined with surface-sensitive and bulk characterization techniques.

In this study, we describe our investigations of TiO₂ rutile sol-gel synthesis and deposition upon titania substrates in order to form a nanostructured thin film, which is further modified with bifunctional groups to form hybrid functional materials. Titanium dioxide thin films were functionalized with four different organic bifunctional molecules in order to better understand the mechanism behind mercapto, amine, carboxyl, and hydroxyl group attachment. The morphology, roughness, and surface chemistry of the oxide influences the adhesion, conformation, and growth mode of the organic molecules. A surface sensitive technique such as X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was combined with contact angle measurements, atomic force microscopy (AFM), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and X-ray diffraction (XRD) to gain a deeper insight into the formation of these functional materials and to understand the adhesion mechanisms.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Oxide Synthesis

Titanium dioxide solution was synthesized by a sol-gel route. The synthesis occurred by hydrolysis and condensation reaction of the titanium isopropoxide (IV) employing a high molar ratio of water:alcohol (200 : 1), isopropanol as co-solvent, nitric acid (HNO₃) as a catalyst and Triton X-100 as a surfactant. Distilled water (185 mL) was mixed with isopropanol (56.7 mL, Merck) and nitric acid (2.6 mL, Synth). Then, titanium isopropoxide (IV) (15 mL, Aldrich) was added and the mixture stirred for 30 min. Subsequently, the peptization was initiated covering the reaction beaker and heating the solution at 85 ° C under magnetic stirring for four hours. During this step, the evaporation of the solvents during hydrolysis results in the condensation of the colloid, which presented a light translucent blue color. In order to form the gel phase, the solution was kept under heat and stirred until a final volume of 50 mL was reached, and the solution presented a milky-white color. Finally, Triton X-100 surfactant (0.816 g, Synth) was added to 50 mL of the solution and stirred for 15 min.

2.2. Substrate Preparation

Commercial pure titanium discs (15 mm diameter x 3 mm thickness) were polished until Ra = 150 nm and then cleaned with isopropanol and deionized water for 15 minutes each in an ultrasonic bath. The samples were etched and hydroxylated in Piranha solution (a mixture of 7:3 (v/v) 98 % H₂SO₄ and 30 % H₂O₂) for two hours. After that, the substrates were rinsed copiously by deionized water for immediate oxide deposition.

2.3. Oxide Deposition

The deposition was performed by spin coating technique (2000 RPM per 60 seconds), the procedure was repeated three times for each sample. Between the depositions, the samples were heated for five minutes on a hot plate at 40 °C. After that, the samples coated with TiO₂ oxide were annealed at 850 °C for two hours in a heating rate of 1 °C min⁻¹ in order to obtain a rutile crystalline polymorphic phase.

2.4. Organic Molecules Deposition

TiO₂ surface was functionalized with four different bifunctional molecules: (3-aminopropyl) trimethoxysilane (APTMPS, Aldrich), 3-(4-
aminophenyl)propionic acid (APPA, Aldrich), 3-mercaptopropionic acid (MPA, Aldrich) and polyethylene glycol (PEG, Synth). The samples functionalization occurred by the immersion method as described below.

2.4.1. 3-(Aminophenyl)propionic acid

APPA solution (2 mM) was prepared in ethanol absolute (Merck) by stirring the solution on the magnetic plate for 5 minutes. After complete dissolution, it was heated up to 40°C, and then the substrate was immersed for 5 minutes.

2.4.2. (3-aminopropyl)trimethoxysilane

APTMS solution (10 mM) was prepared in ethanol (Merck) and the substrate was immersed in the solution for 1 minute at ambient temperature.

2.4.3. 3-mercaptopropionic acid

An aqueous solution (1 mM) was prepared with MPA adjusting the solution pH to 3 with HCl (Synth). The samples were immersed for 10 minutes in the solution under ambient temperature.

2.4.4. Polyethylene glycol

A mixture of the ratio of PEG (1 g, MW 8000) and distilled water (4 mL) was prepared. PEG was diluted, and the substrates were added to the solution and kept overnight. The samples were rinsed with water after the immersion.

After the deposition of the organic molecules, all samples were dried overnight at ambient conditions.

2.5. Characterization

2.5.1. X-ray Diffraction (XRD)

The crystalline orientation of TiO2 films was measured under ambient temperature using an X-ray diffractometer system (D/MAX-2100/PC, Rigaku), which employs the CuKα radiation (1.54056 Å) coupled to a nickel filter, in order to eliminate the CuKβ radiation. The applied tension was 40 kV, and the current was 20 mA. The scanning range was from 20° to 45°, with the regular step of 0.02° min⁻¹ and scan speed of 2° min⁻¹. In order to determine the crystal structure, the results were compared with PCPDF 76-1949 card.

2.5.2. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)

Structural characterization of the films was performed by Scanning Electron Microscopy (FEG-SEM JEOL 7500F). For cross section images, the oxide layer was deposited on a silicon substrate coated with Ti, under the same conditions as previously described for titanium substrates. A diamond cutter was used to cut the Si-Ti substrate coated with TiO2 from the backside of the sample. The samples were coated with gold and mounted on an aluminum stub with a double-sided conductive carbon tape for imaging the surface and the cross section of the samples. The measurements were performed applying a voltage of 2.00 kV and a working distance of 8 mm.

2.5.3. Confocal Microscopy

Surface roughness characterization was performed by confocal microscopy (Leica DCM3D) employing a 20 x lens. Roughness values (RMS) were determined by calculating the mean value from six randomly selected areas for each sample.

2.5.4. Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM)

AFM images were analyzed by the non-contact model using an atomic force microscope (Veeco), model Nanoscope III. The tips used were probe model FESP by Veeco Instruments, with 8 mm of curvature radius and 75 kHz resonance frequency.

2.5.5. Surface Contact Angle

The contact angle and surface energy were evaluated by the sessile drop technique in a goniometer (Ramé-Hart, 100-00) and using deionized water (polar substance), and diiodomethane (non-polar substance) as the probing liquids. At least three droplets were deposited on different positions of the samples and contact angle was measured at each side of the drop. Measurements were performed at room temperature and under controlled humidity environment. The contact angle and surface energy were evaluated by DROPimage software on the basis of the Young-Laplace equation describing the drop profile of sessile drops. More specifically, calculation of surface tension was done by means of a method based on a least squares fit to theoretical profiles produced by a numerical integration of the Young-Laplace equation [25].

2.5.6. X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS)

To determine the chemical states of the elements, the analysis was carried out in a Kratos (AXIS-165) using a monochromatic Al Kα X-ray source. After prepared, the samples were stored in a vacuum desiccator at a maximum period of 24 h before the XPS measurements. The XPS measurements were done without Ar cleaning and the samples were kept overnight inside the equipment to reach the desired vacuum of the system. Each sample was analyzed at take-off angle, defined as the angle of emission relative to the surface, of 54.7°. The energy resolution was 0.45 eV. Survey scan spectra were recorded at a pass energy of 80 eV, and individual high-resolution spectra at a pass energy of 20 eV. In order to correct for any charging effect, the binding energy of the C 1s peak was normalized to 285 eV, referred to the C 1s line of the carbon contamination. Curve fitting was performed using the CasaXPS software using as line shape GL(30) mode and with a FWHM constriction between 0.7 and 2.5 eV. Peak identification was done to obtain a consistent fit for all the potentials investigated.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. TiO2 sol-gel synthesis: reaction mechanism

By using a sol-gel process, the synthesis of titanium dioxide can be independently performed with inorganic or organic precursors, obtaining a monodisperse and submicron TiO2 powder.

A common method for obtaining TiO2 nanoparticles is to hydrolyze an alkoxide precursor, Ti(OR)x, where R is an organic radical, using sub-stoichiometric hydrolysis ratios and inorganic acid catalysts (HCl, HNO3) [11]. Through this organic process, the reactions involved may be represented in two steps: hydrolysis and condensation. In addition, the amount of water directly in the reactions, during which there is a preferential transformation of Ti-OH bonds. A large amount of water effectively thins the alkoxide and accelerates the hydrolysis step. Under these conditions, nanosized particles are formed [12]. The subsequent step involves condensation reactions, during which there is a preferential transformation of Ti(OH)4 in Ti(OH)2O−H2 species through a solvation phenomenon [26]. The presence of reactive species Ti-HO−·Ti may contribute to the development of polymer chains of Ti-O-Ti through olation reaction [27]. The olation occurs by a nucleophilic substitution process wherein M-H is the nucleophile and M is Ti4+. Through the nucleophilic substitution, the removal of the aqueous binder (H2O−) from the coordination sphere occurs in reactions with an excess of water. Alternatively, in the presence of alcohol as a co-solvent, the removal of R-OH species occurs. Thus, the binding liability for M-OH2 or M-OHR determines the kinetics of the olation reaction.

The process is continued by peptization, which constitutes the redispersion of the colloid by breaking the aggregates and forming a
translucent sol containing small particles distributed over a narrow range of sizes. This occurs in the presence of an acid medium, on which H$_3$O$^+$ ions act as peptizing ions ensuring high surface charges on the particles for their separation. Finally, as the solvent evaporates, it starts forming a three-dimensional network gel, through the adhesion of sol phase particles. The surfactant plays an important role in the size distribution of the particles and in the adhesion of the film.

3.2. TiO$_2$ thin film characterization

The TiO$_2$ thin films were analyzed by X-ray diffraction (XRD). A representative result is shown in Fig. 2a. A pronounced (110) peak of TiO$_2$ at 2$\theta$ = 27.7° was observed, indicating the presence of the rutile polymorphic phase. Other characteristic diffraction peaks from rutile TiO$_2$ were observed at 36.3°, 39.4°, 41.5°, and 44.3° in a 2$\theta$ range between 20.0° and 45.0°. Two weak diffraction peaks appeared at approximately 25.0° and 40.0°, which are attributed to the anatase (PCPDF 89-4921) and titanium (PCPDF 44-1294) crystal phases, respectively. The titanium phase peak is originated from the Ti substrate. Due to the thin oxide film deposited, some X-rays from the substrate were detected. These results indicate that the TiO$_2$ thin films are mainly composed of rutile crystals of TiO$_2$, which is known to be more inert and resistant to corrosion than the anatase phase, and can improve the wear resistance of the material due to its self-lubricating properties [28].

The TiO$_2$ surface was analyzed by SEM. The oxide presented a granular and rough structure with sintered particles due to the high annealing temperature (Fig. 2b). However, no defects were observed. An average TiO$_2$ particle size was estimated by Image J software. The value obtained was around 75 (± 6.4) nm.

Cross-section SEM images showed a good adhesion at the interface between the titanium substrate and the TiO$_2$ film (Fig. 2c), in agreement with the pull off test (Fig. S1). A titanium surface normally does not have enough intrinsic hydroxyl groups for covalent bonding with TiO$_2$. To overcome this, piranha etch, a strong oxidizer, provided a hydroxylated surface making it extremely hydrophilic to bond with the TiO$_2$ thin film. Furthermore, the TiO$_2$ thin film thickness was around 500 nm, which was controlled by the precursor solution viscosity and the rotating speed.

3.3. Surface functionalization with bifunctional molecules

The physicochemical characteristics of different functional groups were evaluated to analyze the chemical attachment, surface roughness, and surface energy from the interfaces. The bifunctional chemical compounds analyzed were: 3-(4-aminophenyl)propionic acid (APPA, H$_2$NC$_6$H$_4$CH$_2$CH$_2$CO$_2$H); (3-aminopropyl)trimethoxysilane (APTM, H$_2$N(CH$_2$)$_3$Si(OCH$_3$)$_3$); 3-mercaptopropionic acid (MPA, H$_2$SCH$_2$CH$_2$CO$_2$H); and polyethylene glycol (PEG, H(OCH$_2$CH$_2$)$_n$OH).

The AFM images (Fig. 3) show a comparison of the surface topography for the various samples analyzed. Fig. 3a shows the pristine Ti surface with small particles and some defects resulting from the polishing process. The rutile TiO$_2$ surface is characterized by larger and homogeneously dispersed grains (Fig. 3b). The AFM images show a homogenous surface coverage for the APPA and MPA molecules, indicated as small white dots on the TiO$_2$ grain boundaries (Fig. 3c and e). The adhesion of APPA and MPA molecules onto the titanium dioxide
surface may occur through the TiO₂ grain boundaries due to the higher surface energy in those regions. By contrast, APTMS and PEG showed the formation of multilayers, characterized by a dense deposition on the surface on which the metal oxide nanoparticles were completely covered (Fig. 3d and f).

In the case of APTMS, the formation of multilayers can be explained in terms of the nature of the solvent. Regarding non-anhydrous ethanol, the presence of water leads to a much faster condensation reaction not only with the surface hydroxyl (-OH) groups, but also with neighboring silanol groups [20,29]. This may yield disordered inhomogeneous multilayers. PEG molecules, however, have several hydroxyl groups that can crosslink themselves to form a multilayer.

Fig. 4 shows changes in the root mean square (RMS) surface roughness of the pristine Ti substrate, TiO₂ thin film, and the functionalized oxide thin films. The pristine Ti surface roughness is around 180 (± 31) nm. After being coated with TiO₂ thin film, there is an increase in RMS to 376 (± 32) nm, and sharp peaks can be discerned from the TiO₂ confocal image. There was no statistical difference between the samples of pristine TiO₂, TiO₂ APTMS (380 ± 12 nm), TiO₂ MPA (338 ± 27 nm), and TiO₂ PEG (364 ± 7 nm). The TiO₂ APPA sample indicated a minimum decrease in RMS to 314 (± 7) nm. The difference in surface roughness between pristine TiO₂ and the functionalized samples with all the organic molecules analyzed was less than 50 nm. Comparing the surface roughness data with the schematic models of attachment (Fig. 8), we can assume that even with a multilayer formation, in the case of APTMS and PEG, a thin layer of organic molecules is formed upon the TiO₂ surface. In the case of TiO₂ APPA, the organic molecules probably adhered to the surface in the valley regions, showing a slight decrease in RMS.

To further evaluate the adhesion process of the bifunctional molecules on TiO₂ surfaces, the surface wettability of the as-obtained functionalized TiO₂ thin films was assessed by water contact angle (CA) and surface energy (SE) measurements. The wettability properties of the surface functionalized TiO₂ thin films were expected to vary from the pristine TiO₂ films and Ti substrates due to the different functional terminal groups present on their surfaces. Fig. 5 shows the water CA and SE for the controls (Ti and TiO₂) and functionalized samples. Pristine Ti presented a CA of 72° (± 2.0°). The surface modification with TiO₂ thin film increased the wettability of the material due to the presence of terminal hydroxyl groups, showing a CA of 67° (± 2.4°).
general, the functionalization of TiO2 led to an increase in hydrophilicity of the material. The TiO2 APPA sample showed a slight enhancement in hydrophilicity, with a CA of 61° ± 3.0°. The surface wettability for the TiO2 MPA sample increased, which can be verified by the CA of 53° ± 4.0°. The major difference in CA value was observed for the TiO2 PEG sample (18° ± 4.4°), which tailored the surface with higher hydrophilic properties. This behavior can be attributed to the existence of oxygen in the backbone -(CH2CH2O-)n [30] and to the long carbon chain that interacted randomly on the surface, contributing to the acquisition of a very smooth and highly hydrophilic surface [31]. The only exception was TiO2 APTMS; this material showed a moderate contact angle of 73° ± 2.9° and a more hydrophobic behavior over the other functionalized samples.

The outermost layer predominantly controls the wettability of surface functionalized TiO2 thin films [32], suggesting that surface functionality treatment on TiO2 thin films was successfully achieved. Furthermore, the surface functionalization led to an increase in SE. Titanium surfaces tend to have low surface energy (39 ± 2.9 dyn/cm) [33]. However, with the deposition of TiO2 thin film, a slight increase to 45 (± 2.3) dyn/cm was observed. A considerable difference in SE was noticed on the functionalized samples, due to the presence of reactive terminal groups. The TiO2 APPA and TiO2 MPA samples showed a similar SE value of 52 (± 1.6) dyn/cm and 51 (± 1.7) dyn/cm, which can be attributed to the amine (-NH2) and carboxylic acid (-COOH) free groups, respectively. Besides the more hydrophobic behavior, the TiO2 APTMS sample exhibited a higher surface energy (49 ± 2.2 dyn/cm), when compared to the control samples, due to the presence of free -NH2 groups on the surface. The higher surface energy was observed for TiO2 PEG (77 ± 4.0 dyn/cm). The presence of several hydroxyl groups increases TiO2 PEG polarity and subsequently enhances the ability to interact with the approaching water molecules. Both micro and nanoscale surface roughness, as well as chemical functionalities, play an important role in wettability of materials, primarily in the fields of biomaterials and engineering surfaces [34–38]. Although the functionalized samples had similar RMS values, even small increments in surface roughness could lead to an enhanced wettability caused by the chemistry of the surface [39]. In this way, the surface roughness contributed to the TiO2 PEG sample’s hydrophilic behavior, as well as to the more hydrophobic performance observed for the TiO2 APTMS sample. Whereas the RMS, CA, and SE values were similar to TiO2 APPA and TiO2 MPA samples, it is assumed that the major influence in wettability was caused by the chemical functionalities for these samples. Furthermore, these results show that the physicochemical nature of TiO2 surfaces can be easily controlled via functionalization.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) experiments were used to examine the adsorption of amine, silane, mercapto, carboxyl, and hydroxyl groups on a titania surface. The obtained XPS results showed an increase in the intensity of C 1s (285 eV) for all functionalized samples when compared with the sample coated with only TiO2 (Fig. 6a), followed by the presence of the elements N, S, and Si, indicating the success in the functionalization process in accordance with CA measurements. Different contributions of oxygen can be observed in the high-resolution spectrum of O 1s from the TiO2 specimen (Fig. 6b), which can be divided into three peaks. The first two peaks, located at lower energy levels, are typical for the metal oxide bonds in TiO2 [40]. The third peak, located at 531.4 eV, is assigned to the oxygen of Ti-OH bonds [41]. Fig. 6c shows the high-resolution spectrum for Ti 2p. The energy difference between spin-orbit peaks Ti 2p1/2 and Ti 2p3/2 is 5.7 eV, which is consistent with Ti4+ in the TiO2 bond [42]. From fitting data, the full width at half maximum (FWHM) for Ti 2p is 0.970 for Ti 2p3/2 and 1.862 for Ti 2p1/2. The FWHM for metals are usually less than for oxides, which is probably the reason for this unusual difference. The XPS results for TiO2 proved that the surface contains hydroxyl groups that act as anchoring points for the formation of densely packed mono or multilayers.
Grafting of APPA molecules upon the TiO$_2$ surface can occur either by carboxylic acid or amine groups. The N 1s spectrum (Fig. 7c) shows the contribution from C-N (400.1 eV) and NH$_3^+$ (401.2 eV) species [40]. The presence of NH$_3^+$ suggests that it could be generated by the formation of a zwitterionic amine structure favoring the adsorption through the carboxylate group [46-48]. The absence of an N-Ti bond indicates no surface interaction between the titanium dioxide and nitrogen. Another feature that supports this conclusion of APPA attachment through the carboxyl is the presence of COO- species (288.8 eV) in C 1s spectrum after APPA attachment (Fig. 7d) [49].

Furthermore, the solution pH and the acidic or basic properties of the oxide play an important role in bonding with organic molecules. The oxide layer provides a pH on which the positive and negative charges resulting from the hydroxyl group’s dissociation in solution are balanced, and the apparent charge is zero. This pH value is known as the point of zero charge (pzc). In the case of rutile TiO$_2$, the pzc is 5.3 and the APPA solution pH is 6.4 [50]. It means that at a pH higher than 5.3, the TiO$_2$ surface is slightly basic and the APPA molecules have a preferential attachment through the carboxyl groups, which corroborates the XPS results.

In addition, the attachment of MPA molecules can succeed through mercapto or carboxylic acid groups upon the TiO$_2$ surface. Regarding the rutile TiO$_2$ pzc and MPA solution pH, the bonding with MPA molecules would be expected to occur through the mercapto groups. Since the pH of the MPA solution is equal to 3 (lower than 5.3), it leaves the oxide surface with acidic characteristics leading to a preferential attachment by the mercapto groups. In the C 1s spectrum (Fig. 7f), three components are observed: the first one at lower energy is related to the C-C bond in the MPA molecule (284.9 eV); a contribution at 288.8 eV is associated with the C-S bond; and at higher energy (288.6 eV), it can be attributed to the presence of COOH [40].

The high resolution sulfur spectra exhibit several S 2p spin-orbit coupling (S 2p$_{1/2}$ and S 2p$_{3/2}$) at approximately 159, 164, and 168 eV. From the analysis of the S 2p spectrum, Fig. 7e, we can conclude that mercapto functional coupling occurred preferentially due to the presence of a doublet near 164 eV that is commonly assigned to the S-Ti$^{+3}$ bond [51], and another S 2p spin-orbit coupling assigned as S-Ti$^{+3}$ species at 159.7 eV [52]. Furthermore, at 168.8 eV it is observed that another doublet is assigned as S-O bond, which is associated with the hydroxyl groups present on the TiO$_2$ surface [51], corroborating the previous findings that MPA binds covalently with the TiO$_2$ surface through mercapto groups.

It is known that PEG has several hydroxyl groups available for derivatization. In O 1s spectrum (Fig. 7h) we can observe a small amount of O-Ti-O bond and O-H in 529.8 and 531.0 eV [40], respectively. A sharp and intense peak at 532.4 eV, assigned to -CH$_2$-OH(OH)$_n$, indicates the formation of a polymeric layer on the titania surface. The increase of C 1s and O 1s in the PEG treated surface followed by a decrease in Ti 2p intensity (Fig. 7g) might suggest that the hydroxyl groups present on PEG are cross-linked with each other by polymerization [53].

A schematic model based on the XPS and AFM analysis for the preferential attachment of the bifunctional molecules with the TiO$_2$ surface is shown in Fig. 8. As show by AFM, APTMS and PEG molecules formed multilayers (Fig. 8a and d), which attached to the TiO$_2$ surface by silane and hydroxyl groups, as confirmed by XPS. The XPS measurements indicated that the APPA and MPA molecules attached to the surface by carboxyl and mercapto groups, respectively. However, it was not possible to identify by AFM if they formed a mono- or multi-layers, in this way Fig. 8b and c may have more than one molecule of thickness.

Besides the thickness of the organic layer, due to the presence of different terminal groups on the surface, each bifunctional molecule modifies the TiO$_2$ physicochemical properties in a characteristic manner, which can be controlled depending on the required application. The studied organic molecules are classic examples of coupling agents that have widespread applications ranging from high-

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At an energy of 531.3 eV, it is possible to observe Ti-O-Si species [45] that are formed after the silanization process. The two peaks at higher energy can be attributed to O-Si-O (532.7 eV) and Si-OH (534.4 eV) species [40]. The APTMS mechanism of attachment occurs first by silane hydroxylation; then the Si-OH can quickly react by condensation with the surface hydroxyl groups and neighboring silanol groups. Formation of such covalent bonds between silanes and the underlying substrate stabilizes the monolayer [20]. The presence of water leads to a much faster condensation reaction which can yield multilayers, as observed by AFM.
For APTMS it is shown the N 1s (a) and O 1s (b) spectra which led to a possible orientation by silane groups; APPA N 1s (c) and C 1s (d) spectra indicated a preferential attachment through COOH group; MPA adhesion was analyzed in terms of S 2p (e) and C 1s (f) indicating that it occurs by mercapto group; Considering Ti 2p (g) and O 1s (h) spectra from PEG, this molecule exhibited a polymerization with free –OH groups.
throughput cell culture platforms, biomedical devices, lab-on-a-chip, self-cleaning fabrics, anti-fog windows, to anti-corrosive coatings [18,20,37,54,55].

4. Conclusion

In this study, we characterized the surface morphological and physicochemical properties of TiO2 thin films. These films were prepared by sol-gel synthesis with high water content in order to form a nanostructured thin film. Titanium dioxide thin films were in rutile crystalline polymorphic phase presenting a crystallite size of 75 (± 6.4) nm. Titania films were then functionalized with four different organic bifunctional molecules: APTMS, APPA, MPA, and PEG.

The AFM images showed an attachment through the grain boundaries region for APPA and MPA molecules, and a multilayer formation for APTMS and PEG molecules. The difference in surface roughness between pristine TiO2 and the functionalized samples was less than 50 nm, showing that a thin layer of organic molecules was formed upon the TiO2 surface. In general, the functionalization of TiO2 led to an increase in hydrophilicity of the material, except for APTMS molecules, which is related to surface roughness. Small increments in surface roughness can lead to an enhanced wettability caused by the chemistry of the surface. Overall, the surface energy increased after functionalization. The higher surface energy was observed for TiO2 PEG due to the presence of several hydroxyl groups that enhance the ability to interact with the approaching water molecules.

Moreover, by the photoelectron experiments, there was proposed possible adhesion mechanisms and a growth mode of the organic molecules. The results confirmed that APTMS has a preferential attachment upon TiO2 surface through silane groups that reacted fast by condensation with the surface and neighboring silanol groups, resulting in disordered in-homogeneous multilayers. The APPA molecules attached the surface preferentially through COOH group, in a mono or bidentate way forming mono- or multi-layers. The MPA adhesion occurs by mercapto group that may form mono- or multi-layers. In the case of PEG, this molecules cross-linked with each other by polymerization forming multilayers.

In conclusion, this study would be useful for the development of nanostructured TiO2 films. It can also be used to better understand the adhesion mechanism of bifunctional molecules that can modify the physicochemical properties of the titania surface, thus opening a wide range of possible applications for these functional materials.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.colsurfa.2018.03.019.

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