

Tapping into the Power of Sol-Gel Method for Enhanced Antimicrobial Activity of Titania Nanoparticles

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Abstract

Increasing bacterial resistance to antibiotics has become a serious threat to global public health. In this context, this study aims to evaluate the antimicrobial activity of titanium dioxide nanoparticles (TiO₂ NPS) synthesized using the sol-gel method. TiO₂ NPS samples were prepared and characterized for morphology via field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) and X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis. Kirby-Bauer disc diffusion method was used to test the antimicrobial activity of TiO₂ NPS against Gram positive bacteria *Staphylococcus aureus*, Gram negative bacteria *Escherichia coli*, and pathogenic fungus *Aspergillus penicillioides*. The results showed that TiO₂ NPS effectively inhibited the growth of microorganisms, with significant inhibition zones especially against fungi. The antimicrobial mechanism of TiO₂ NPS involves the formation of hydroxyl radicals and superoxide ions that damage the cell membrane of microorganisms. The implications of this study are the development of potential antimicrobial nanomaterials for biomedical and environmental applications, as well as the importance of considering the physical and chemical properties of TiO₂ NPS in designing effective infection treatment strategies.

Keywords

TiO₂ NPS, Antimicrobial Activity, Sol-Gel Method, Antimicrobial Resistance

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1. INTRODUCTION

The emergence of infectious diseases poses a serious threat to global public health, especially with the rise of antibiotic-resistant bacterial strains (Fan et al., 2020; Sumardi et al., 2022). For many years, antibiotics have been the antidote to infections in community and hospital settings. Such infections are often associated with resistant organisms, such as Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) (Halizah et al., 2023), penicillin-resistant *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (Albukhaty et al., 2022), multibiotic-resistant *Acinetobacter baumannii* (Alghamdi et al., 2022) and multibiotic-resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (Alhagri et al., 2023). Thus, new, more advanced antibacterial agents based on nanobiotechnology are needed. Thanks to their unique properties, nanoparticles (NPS) are often used in medical practice in the form of antimicrobial activity classified into various types, including carbon-based materials (such as fullerene and carbon nanotubes), inorganic nanoparticles (such as silver, palladium, and gold), metal oxides (such as aluminum oxide, titanium dioxide, zinc oxide, copper oxide and silicon

oxide) and quantum dots (Ahmadpour Kermani et al., 2021; Alhagri et al., 2023; Mutalik et al., 2020; Schutte-Smith et al., 2023).

The antimicrobial activity of *Staphylococcus aureus* NPS has been extensively studied with human pathogenic bacteria such as *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) and *Staphylococcus aureus* (Moradpoor et al., 2021). The bactericidal activity of NPS depends on factors such as size, stability, and concentration in the growth medium. When grown in medium enriched with NPS, the growth of bacterial populations can be inhibited by specific interactions with the nanoparticles (Moustafa et al., 2021). In general, the size of bacterial cells is in the micrometer range, while their cell membranes have pores in the nanometer range. NPS have the unique ability to penetrate the cell membrane because they are smaller than the pores of bacteria.

Currently, nanocrystalline titanium dioxide (TiO₂) is a semiconductor known for its photocatalytic activity (Andreas et al., 2022; Eddy et al., 2023; Oemar et al., 2023). In addition, TiO₂ has great potential as an auto-cleaning and disinfecting agent in various applications. TiO₂ has been widely used to kill

various groups of microorganisms, including bacteria, fungi, and viruses, due to its high photoreactivity, diverse antibiosis, and chemical stability (Younis et al., 2023; Yuzer et al., 2022). TiO₂ NPS break down organic compounds by releasing hydroxyl radicals and superoxide ions continuously, which is efficient in inhibiting the growth of pathogenic bacteria. The strong oxidizing power of TiO₂ NPS can be used against bacteria and other organic compounds. Leveraging the sol-gel method offers a unique opportunity to tailor the properties of TiO₂ nanoparticles, thereby enhancing their antimicrobial activity.

Recent research endeavors have shed light on the significance of synthesis methods in modulating the properties of TiO₂ nanoparticles and optimizing their performance in antimicrobial applications. For instance, a study conducted by (Phomma et al., 2020) successfully synthesized TiO₂ nanoparticles with a narrow size distribution using a wet ball milling sol-gel method. Their findings underscored the crucial role of calcination temperature in influencing particle size, crystallite size, and phase transition of TiO₂ nanoparticles. Notably, higher calcination temperatures were found to enhance the crystallinity of synthesized TiO₂ and promote the transition to the rutile phase, which significantly impacted the photocatalytic activity of the nanoparticles (Mahy et al., 2021; Phomma et al., 2020).

Furthermore, the incorporation of dopants, such as iron (Fe), into TiO₂ nanoparticles via the sol-gel method has demonstrated promising results in enhancing their photocatalytic efficiency under visible light irradiation. (Mancuso et al., 2023) employed a reverse-micelle sol-gel method to prepare Fe-doped TiO₂ samples for the photodegradation of crystal violet dye. Their comprehensive characterization of the photocatalysts revealed the successful introduction of Fe into the titania matrix, leading to the modulation of the relative amounts of TiO₂ polymorphs and a reduction in the band gap energy. This innovative approach not only broadens the spectrum of TiO₂ photocatalytic applications but also underscores the versatility of the sol-gel method in tailoring the properties of TiO₂ nanoparticles for specific antimicrobial purposes (Ali et al., 2021; Nachit et al., 2022). Moreover, the eco-friendly colloidal aqueous sol-gel synthesis of TiO₂ presents a promising avenue for producing crystalline TiO₂ nanoparticles without the need for a calcination step. This method offers distinct advantages, including the ability to obtain crystalline TiO₂ nanoparticles with tailored morphology and crystallinity while minimizing the use of organic chemicals. Studies have highlighted the comparable photocatalytic efficiency of colloidal aqueous TiO₂ nanoparticles to conventionally synthesized counterparts, indicating their potential for various antimicrobial applications and beyond (Mahy et al., 2021).

Previously, a discussion of the sol-gel method to increase the antimicrobial activity of titania nanoparticles was described in depth. However, although much research has been carried out on the physical, chemical and biological properties of TiO₂ (Mutalik et al., 2020; Rachmaniar et al., 2024; Schutte-Smith

et al., 2023), research on in-vitro testing of the antimicrobial properties of TiO₂ NPS is still very limited. Therefore, this study was designed to evaluate the antimicrobial activity of TiO₂ NPS synthesized by the sol-gel method. The prepared TiO₂ NPS samples will be tested against various microbes such as Gram-positive bacteria: *Staphylococcus aureus*, Gram-negative bacteria: *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*), and the test fungal pathogen: *Aspergillus penicillioides*.

2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

2.1 Materials

The materials utilized in the preparation of TiO₂ nanoparticle samples via the sol-gel technique included titanium isopropoxide raw material (TTIP 99% precursor) sourced from Sigma Aldrich Singapore, 3.2 mL of 4.4 M HNO₃ (pH 0.6), and ethanol solvent (C₂H₅OH, Merck India).

2.2 Methods

TiO₂ nanoparticle samples were prepared via sol-gel technique with titanium isopropoxide raw material (TTIP 99% precursor, Sigma Aldrich Singapore) and ethanol solvent. The synthesis of TiO₂ NPS begins by mixing 5 mL of TTIP with 5 mL of ethanol. The solution (sol A) was stirred for 30 minutes at 1500 rpm at room temperature. Solution (sol B) was prepared by dissolving 6 mL of ethanol, and adding 3.2 mL of 4.4 M HNO₃ (pH 0.6). The solution was then stirred for 20 minutes at 1500 rpm and room temperature. Next, dripping the solution of sol B into sol A at 1500 rpm. The mixture was then hydrolyzed at 40°C for one hour to produce a yellow solid. The solid was then ball milled at 192 rpm. TiO₂ NPS powder is then dried in the oven to remove impurities that still exist, followed by heating at 400°C for 2 hours. The illustration scheme of TiO₂ NPS synthesis experiments with Sol-gel method is presented in Figure 1.

2.3 Characterization of TiO₂ NPS

The sintered TiO₂ NPS powder was then characterized for morphology and particle size by field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM; Quanta FEG 650, FEI USA). X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis (X'Pert3 Powder, PANalytical Company B.V. Netherlands) was performed at 2θ angles in the range of 11°-90° to determine the crystalline phases formed. The phase analysis of the TiO₂ nanoparticles was based on COD 2310710 for anatase phase, COD 9004142 for rutile phase, and AMCSD 0005160 for brookite phase. The proportions of the anatase and rutile phases were calculated by the Rietveld Method using Rietica software.

2.4 Microorganism Source

As for the preparation of TiO₂ NPS suspension, microbial strains were obtained from the microbial type culture collection (BM-UM), Department of Biology, State University of Malang. Stock cultures of various Gram-negative bacteria: *E. coli* (BM-UM No: 87), Gram-positive: *Staphylococcus aureus* (BM-UM No: 91) and the fungus *Aspergillus penicillioides*

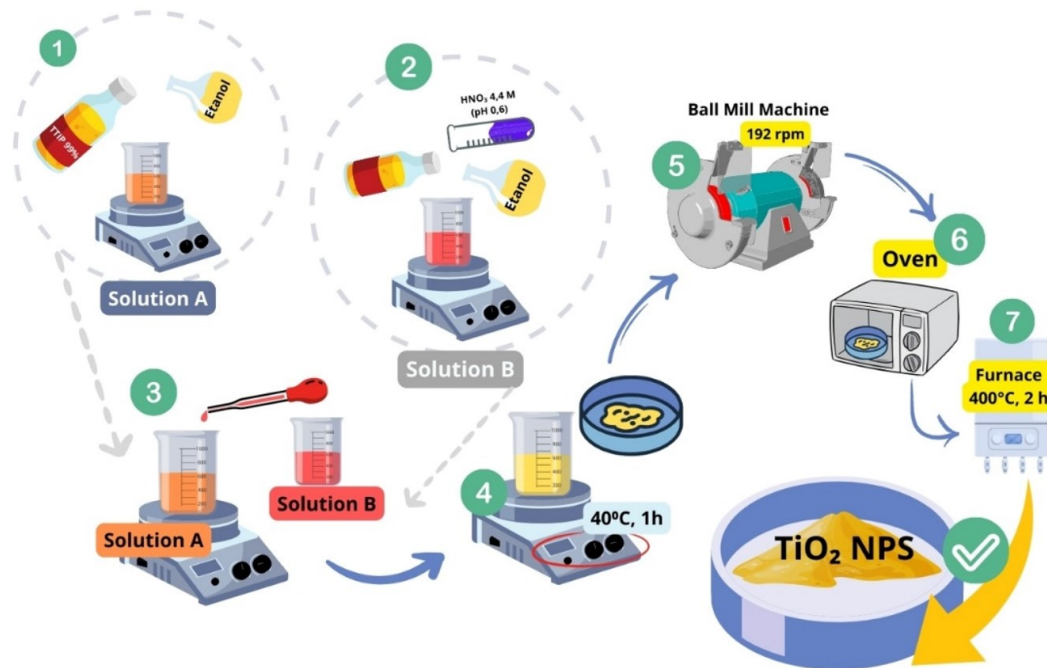


Figure 1. Illustration of TiO_2 Experimental Method using Sol-Gel Method

(BM-UM No: 117) were subcultured and maintained in sugar solution. Preparation of TiO_2 NPS solutions of 0.1, 0.15, 0.2, and 0.25 g/mL. The TiO_2 NPS solution was stirred at 300 rpm for 30 minutes at room temperature.

2.5 Antimicrobial Activity Test

Antimicrobial activity of TiO_2 NPS synthesized against Gram-positive bacteria *Staphylococcus aureus*, Gram-negative bacteria *E. coli*, and fungus *Aspergillus penicillioides*. Kirby-Bauer disc diffusion method was used for antimicrobial test (Moradpoor et al., 2021). Using sterile cotton swabs, cultures of test organisms were made on petri dishes for hygiene. It was then left for 30 minutes to absorb the culture. Then, wells with a diameter of 6 mm were pressed onto the petri dish to test the antimicrobial activity of the TiO_2 NPS sample. The wells were sealed with one drop of melted agar (0.8% agar) to prevent leakage of nanomaterials from the bottom of the wells. Using a pipette, 1 mL of each sample at various concentrations (0.1, 0.15, 0.2, and 0.25 g/mL) of TiO_2 NPS solution was poured into each well on a Petri dish. After that, the Petri dish that has been given TiO_2 is incubated at room temperature for a period of 12-24 hours in both dark and visible light conditions and then measured the diameter. The illustration scheme of TiO_2 NPS anti-microbial testing is presented in Figure 2.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Morphology and size distribution of TiO_2 NPS characterized using SEM instrument. The results of characterization are presented in Figure 1. The Figure 1 shows TiO_2 NPS exper-

riencing agglomeration. Based on previous research, it was revealed that agglomeration in TiO_2 is caused by electrostatic forces between particles (Listanti et al., 2019) because basically TiO_2 NPS has properties easily aggregated (Taufiq et al., 2019).

SEM images of the TiO_2 NPS are shown in Figure 3, which were taken at different magnifications of 20K \times , and 60K \times (Figure 3b and Figure 3c). From the SEM images (Figure 3b and 3c), it is known that the shape looks like a ball that stacks like a cereal granule. This result is proven from several previous studies that TiO_2 is spherical shaped like a ball. The size of some granules varies. The particle size distribution from 20k magnification was found to be 124.32 nm. These results indicated the presence of a phase coincide between anatase, rutile and brokite. The difference in phase formed is evidenced by the size of the particles formed. Anatase has a tendency to form small balls that stack on top of each other, while rutile and brokite have a larger diameter size. Figure 3 as a whole shows uniformity. Even if the many particles created cause agglomeration, it still has a homogeneous size level between particles. TiO_2 NPS are essentially polycrystalline, and this will be discussed further in the XRD results.

The optimum particle size reflects high stability against gravity due to Brownian motion and affects the release, bioavailability and organoleptic properties of nanoparticles (Liao et al., 2020; Rahmawati et al., 2020). The negative zeta potential of TiO_2 NPS synthesized using the USP method showed more uniform particles than other methods. This is stated by previous research that TiO_2 NPS have a high degree of heterog-

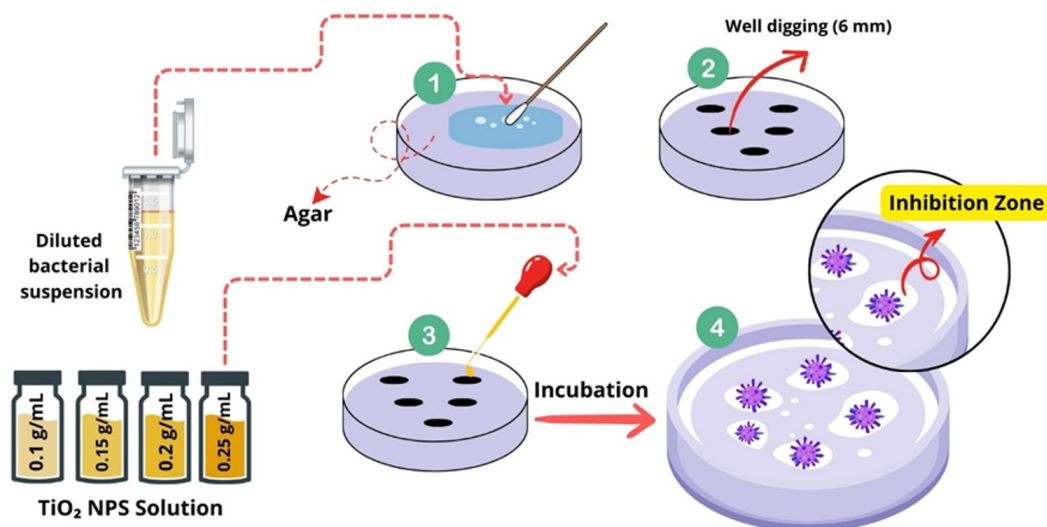


Figure 2. Schematic Illustration of Anti-Microbial Activity Testing

enization so that it requires other methods that can gradually compose TiO_2 NPS particles. The results of this study then prove that the USP method can improve the homogeneity of TiO_2 NPS because TiO_2 is arranged gradually from the formation flow. Figure 3a and Figure 3b show a higher negativity in the charge, giving greater stability to the synthesized TiO_2 NPS, thus avoiding excessive buildup of particles (Anwar et al., 2023).

Furthermore, XRD characterization was carried out to strengthen the presence of a polycrystalline phase in TiO_2 NPS. These results can be seen in Figure 4. Basically, the diffraction pattern of TiO_2 NPS has crystalline peak characteristics that vary depending on the phase. This can be seen from the research results in Table 1. The majority of peaks are known to belong to the rutile phase. This peak is confirmed by the research of Rachmaniar et al. (2024) which identified that the brookite peak is located TiO_2 NPS at an angle of $2\theta = 27.48^\circ$. The same thing was also reported by David et al. which states that the main peak of TiO_2 NPS rutile is located at an angle of $2\theta = 27.47^\circ$ with TiO_2 samples (Aboubakr et al., 2021). In addition to rutile high peak is also owned by brookite which is at $2\theta = 56.19^\circ$. However, from Figure 4 the peaks belonging to rutile and brookite are slightly the same, making it difficult to determine the main peak of brookite. This is because the annealing temperature used in the synthesis is in the phase transition of rutile and brookite, which is 400°C . Ismail et al. (2023) stated that TiO_2 will begin to have brookite particles when annealing has been at 400°C , while the dominant peak of the brookite phase is at 500°C . Detailed percentage of phases formed can be seen in Table 1.

The results of the XRD diffraction pattern of TiO_2 NPS are

Table 1. Diffractogram peaks of TiO_2 NPS

2 Theta (deg.)	Peak position of hkl
25.38	[011]
27.48	[110]
35.9	[102]
39.18	[020]
41.29	[111]
44.1	[120]
54.36	[121]
56.19	[113]
62.78	[024]
64.11	[023]
69.11	[116]
69.95	[112]
82.56	[231]

then smoothed using the Rietveld method to determine the crystal structure and particle size that matches the data COD 2310710 for anatase, COD 9004142 for rutile, and amcsd 0005160 for brookite so that the smoothing results are shown in Figure 4a. Based on the analysis manual using Rietica software, the parameter values are R_p , R_{wp} , R_b , and GoF (X^2) which are used to estimate the fit between the data and the model during the refinement process showed in Table 2.

As previously known, TiO_2 has anatase, rutile and brookite structures. In general, there are 6 parts filled with tetrahedral Ti^{4+} ions in anatase, 9 parts filled with tetrahedral Ti^{4+} ions in rutile, and 8 parts of octahedral Ti^{4+} ions in brookite (Ali et al., 2020). Crystal structure model of TiO_2 NPS visualized

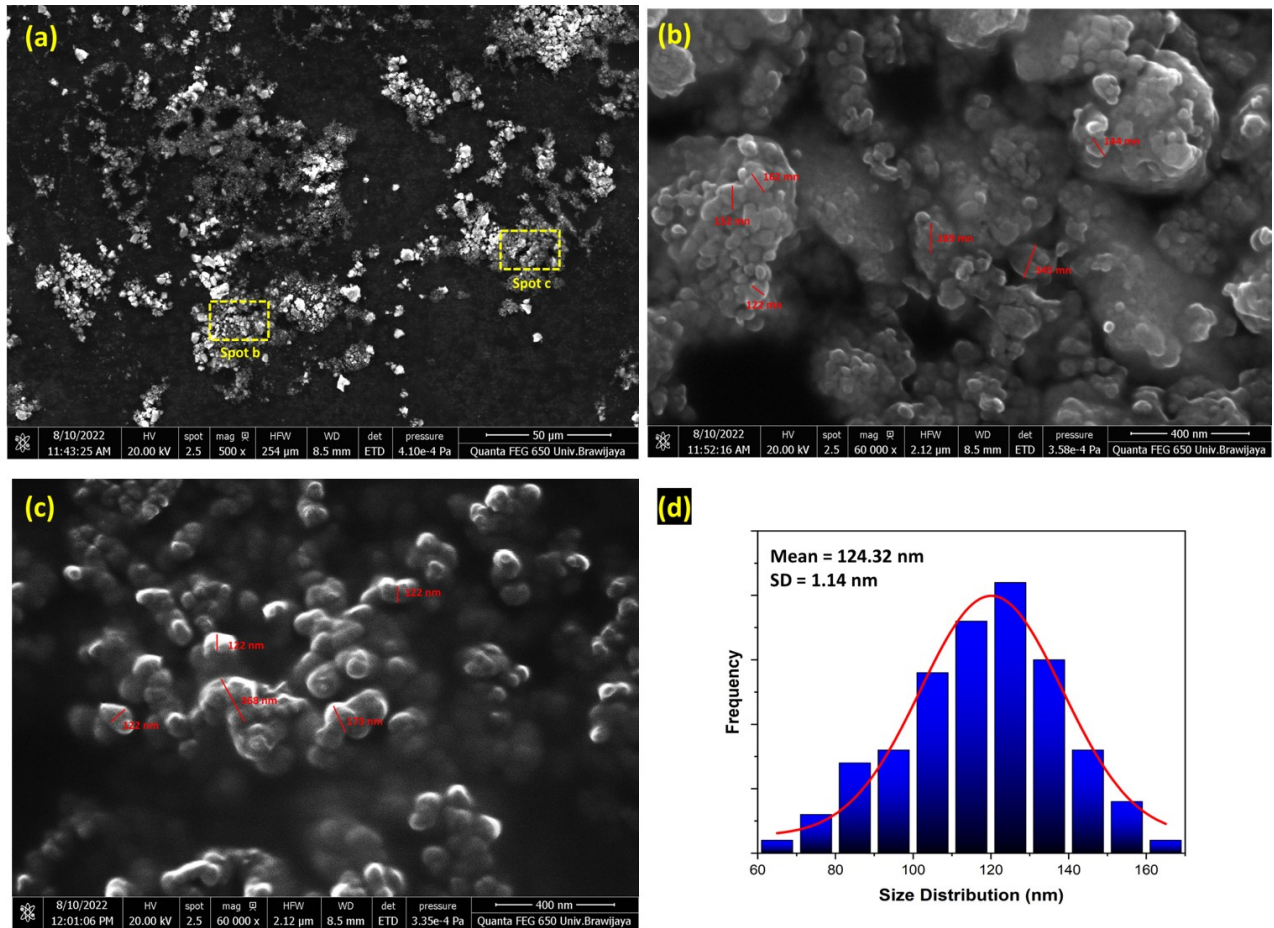


Figure 3. SEM Characterization Results of TiO₂ NPS with (a) 20K× Magnification, (b and c) 60K× Magnification, and (d) Particle Size Distribution from 60K× Magnification

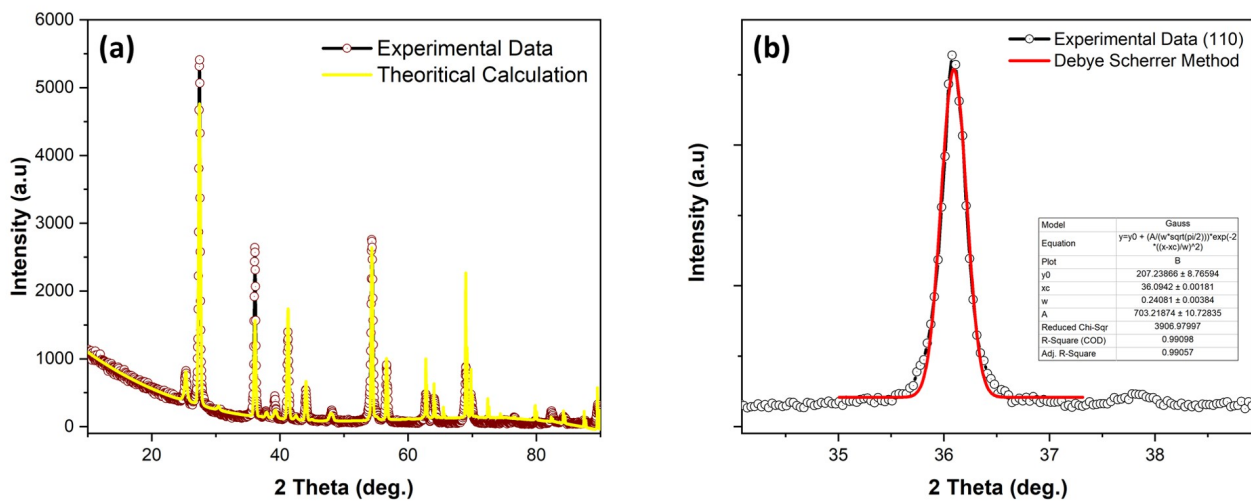


Figure 4. XRD Diffraction Pattern Results TiO₂ NPS that has been in (a) Refinement and (b) in Fitting using the Debye-Scherrer Equation

Table 2. TiO₂ NPS Refinement Results Output

Parameter	Value	Parameter	Value
Crystallite Size (nm)		Lattice Constant Anatase (Å)	
Anatase	118.71	a ²	3.78
Rutile	244.13	c	9.48
Brokrite	28.19	Lattice Constant Rutile (Å)	
Unit Volume (Å ³)		a ²	4.59
Anatase	136.05	c	2.96
Rutile	62.46	Lattice Constant Brokrite (Å)	
Brokrite	266.72	a	9.54
% Fase		b	5.34
Anatase	5.35	c	5.21
Rutile	51.61		
Brokrite	43.05		
Rp	18.13		
Rwp	9.98		
X ²	6.71		
Brag-Factor	10.53		

through Vesta software. Based on the software, the TiO₂ NPS crystal structure obtained is appropriate and can be seen in Figure 5.

In addition to the refinement method, there is a similar method used to confirm the crystal grain size with a different approach, namely using the Debye-Scherrer fitting method shown in Figure 5b. This method uses the Debye-Scherrer equation listed in Equation 1. The Debye-Scherrer fitting method is used to estimate the crystal grain size based on XRD diffraction patterns (Zerjav et al., 2022). In this method, the diffraction patterns are fitted to the Debye-Scherrer equation to generate parameters such as crystal grain size and stress strain in the grains.

By performing a good fitting between the observed diffraction pattern and the Debye-Scherrer equation, a more accurate estimate of the grain size of the crystal is obtained. By using the Debye-Scherrer fitting method, more accurate identification and confirmation of the crystal grain size present in the sample is obtained (Mustapha et al., 2021). Thus, the Debye-Scherrer fitting method is one of the useful and commonly used methods to confirm the crystal grain size in XRD diffraction pattern analysis (Mustapha et al., 2021):

$$D = \frac{K\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta} \quad (1)$$

Where D as the size of the crystal grain, λ as the wavelength of X-rays, β is the FWHM at the maximum peak, θ is the Bragg angle and K is a constant with a value of 0.9. With the Debye-Scherrer equation, the TiO₂ NPS sample has a particle size of 128 nm. These results confirm that the majority of TiO₂ NPS formed in the form of rutile with the highest level of crystal size compared to other phases. These results are

also well confirmed by Yang et al. which states that TiO₂ with annealing temperature of 400°C has a dominant rutile phase.

Furthermore, anti-bacterial testing was carried out on TiO₂ samples with variations in TiO₂ mass. Tests were carried out using a variety of bacteria *S. aureus* and *E. coli*. While the fungal pathogen using *Aspergillus penicillioides* with variations in concentration. The test results are presented in Figure 6.

Based on Figure 6a, it is known that TiO₂ has the highest inhibition zone of 2.03 mm for *S. aureus* bacteria and 0.117 mm for *Escherchia coli* bacteria and fungal pathogen *Aspergillus penicillioides* which is 19.9 mm for concentration variation of 0.1 g/mL. The presence of TiO₂ acts as a link between Ti⁴⁺ and microorganisms. TiO₂ nano particles proved to have less significant impact in killing bacteria. This is explained in the empirical fact that TiO₂ has the ability to damage cell walls but the effect is higher when composite using Ag which is proven to be more effective in killing bacteria (Nikmah et al., 2021). However, TiO₂ is more effective in damaging fungal tissue. Evident from the results of antimicrobial characterization, the inhibition zone value of fungi is higher than bacteria.

TiO₂ has a unique ion, namely Ti⁴⁺. This causes TiO₂ to have electrons in its crystal structure, which then forms electron-hole pairs (Nachit et al., 2022). These free electrons and holes are then involved in redox reactions with surrounding water and oxygen molecules, producing hydroxyl radicals (OH) and superoxide radicals (O²⁻). These radicals are highly reactive and can damage bacterial cell membranes, resulting in oxidation of membrane lipids and DNA damage (Alghamdi et al., 2022). This process causes an antimicrobial effect that reduces or eliminates the bacterial population around TiO₂. In addition, the effect of TiO₂ nanoparticles also increases the effectiveness of damage to bacteria. This is evidenced from previous research that micro-sized TiO₂ has no inhibition or

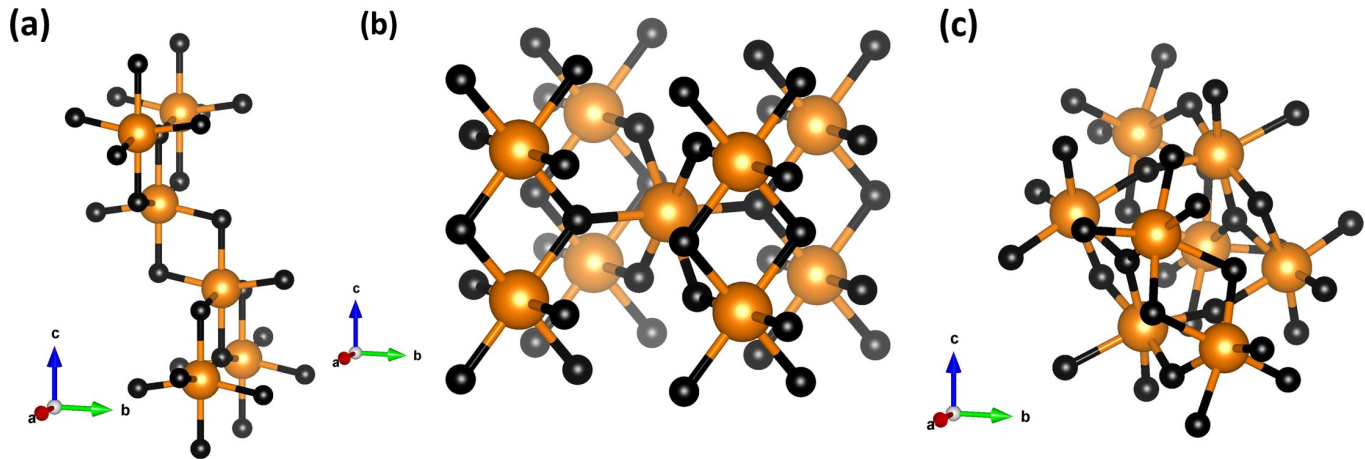


Figure 5. Crystal Structure of TiO_2 NPS (a) Anatase, (b) Rutile, (c) Brokite

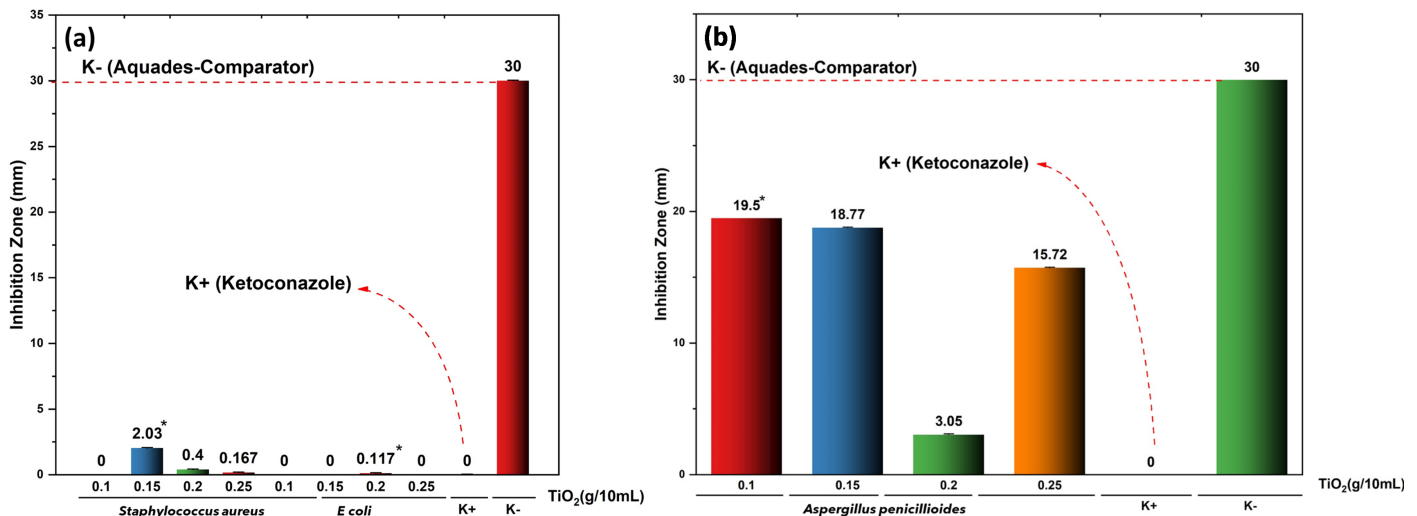


Figure 6. Characterization Results of TiO_2 NPS (a) Anti-Microbial and (b) Anti-Fungal

is less effective in killing *E. coli* bacteria.

Furthermore, TiO_2 has an influence on cell damage by disrupting cellular donor ligands. This process results in the release of Ti^{4+} into the cytoplasm and increases the formation of ROS (Reactive Oxygen Species) (Mustapha et al., 2021; Nikmah et al., 2021; Yuzer et al., 2022). ROS will play a key role in oxidative activity resulting in cells failing to maintain normal physiology and damage to cell function (Aboubakr et al., 2021). The placement of TiO_2 nanoparticles has contributed to the formation of free radical formation due to oxidative stress (Ali et al., 2020). TiO_2 will tend to associate with soft acids such as sulfhydryl groups (R-SH) present in proteins. As a result, the toxicity of TiO_2 will increase and damage cells by denaturing proteins (Fan et al., 2020). The mechanism of cell damage caused by TiO_2 is described by Figure 7.

4. CONCLUSIONS

TiO_2 NPS results show morphology that tends to agglomerate. This is consistent with previous findings which state that agglomeration on TiO_2 is caused by electrostatic forces between particles. The results of SEM characterization of TiO_2 NPS look spherical shape that stacked each other, indicating the presence of a phase coincide between anatase, rutile, and brokite. Furthermore, the results of X-ray diffraction analysis confirmed the presence of these phases, with the majority of diffraction peaks associated with the rutile phase. The Debye-Scherrer fitting method also estimated the crystal grain size to be around 128 nm, indicating the dominance of the rutile phase in the sample. Antimicrobial testing showed that TiO_2 has a more effective antimicrobial effect against fungi than bacteria, with the mechanism of cell damage involving the formation

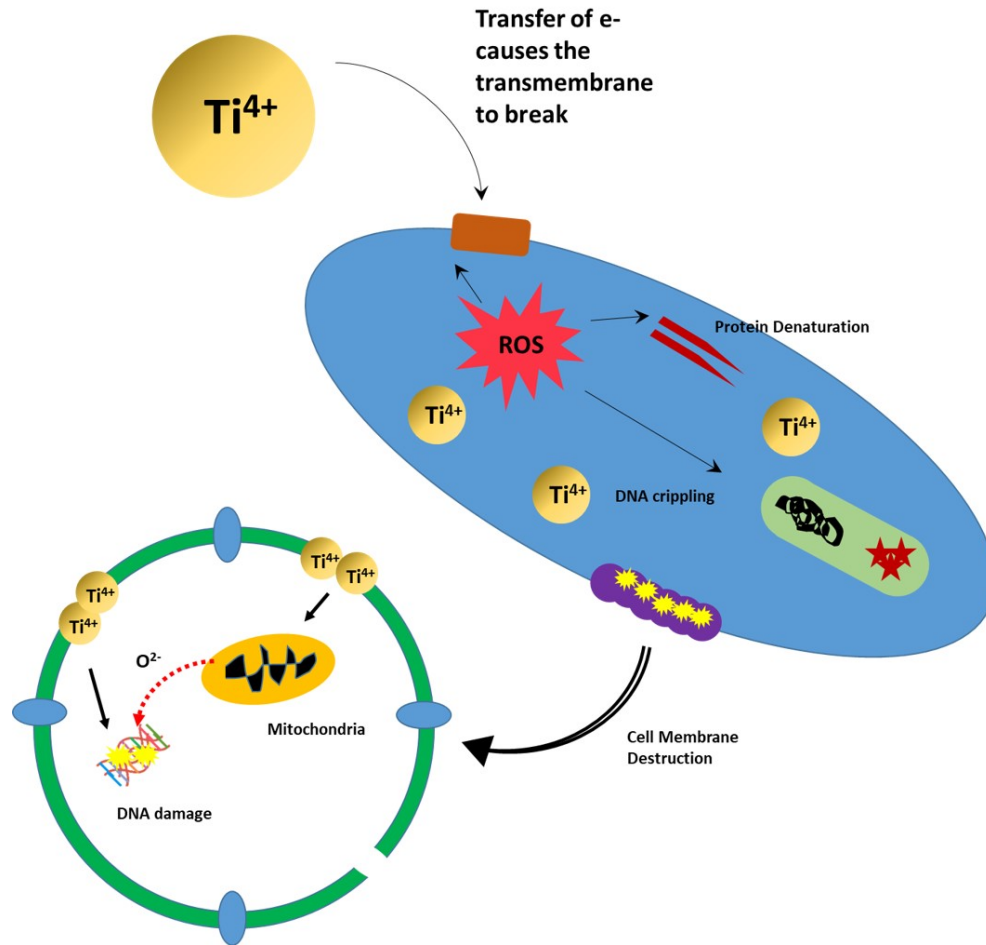


Figure 7. Mechanism of Microbial Cell damage

of free radicals such as hydroxyl and superoxide radicals. Although TiO₂ is less effective in killing bacteria directly, TiO₂ nanoparticles increase the effectiveness of damage to bacteria through oxidation processes that damage bacterial cell membranes and DNA. This shows the potential application of TiO₂ as an effective antimicrobial agent, especially against fungi.

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