

The effects of TiO₂ particles on the physico-chemical properties of polyester coatings

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ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

TiO₂ nanoparticles
Polyester coatings
Surface free energy
Wear resistance

ABSTRACT

Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) based surface coatings with appropriate binding matrices provide notable characteristics such as long-lasting efficacy and physico-chemical durability to minimise complex failures in a variety of applications. However, how the crystalline forms of TiO₂ and their distribution within matrices affect the coating characteristics remains unclear. In this research, we prepared TiO₂-based coatings by compositing two forms of TiO₂ nanoparticles (rutile and anatase) with an unsaturated polyester resin (UPR) matrix to produce TiO₂/UPR coatings, followed by physico-chemical characterization. Morphology and topography results revealed that the rutile nanoparticles showed a sphere-like shape, while the anatase nanoparticles had an irregular polyhedron structure. Additionally, a ring-like structure was formed on all coatings whilst coatings containing pure rutile exhibited slight agglomeration in the boundaries of rings. In contrast, anatase-containing coatings presented more agglomerates inside the rings. The consistent phenomenon was demonstrated by Raman and XRD analysis. The addition of anatase in the coatings significantly increased the surface free energy and hardness based on the wettability and nanoindentation tests. The chemical durability evaluation suggested that anatase improved the ability of chemical solution resistance of coatings by strong interaction between nanoparticles and matrix resulting from the irregular polyhedron structure and high surface free energy of the anatase nanoparticles. Excellent anti-wear performance was observed in anatase-containing coatings, implying that the nanoparticle distribution and the resulting higher hardness affected the wear-resistance of the TiO₂-based coatings.

1. Introduction

Organic/inorganic hybrid surface coatings have attracted a considerable attention due to the synergistic effect between organic and inorganic phases, which improves coating performance in diverse applications, including automotive, aerospace, electronics, and biomedical industries [1]. These hybrid systems typically comprise inorganic fillers such as silica (SiO₂), alumina (Al₂O₃), or titanium dioxide (TiO₂), and organic matrices such as polyacrylic acid, poly(carbonate urethane), polyurethane (PU), or polyester resins [2–7]. The combination enhances the coating's mechanical strength, thermal stability, and chemical resistance. For instance, in a study from Zhu and colleagues [4], polyacrylic acid modified graphene oxide exhibited an improvement in mechanical and chemical properties. D' Orazio and co-workers

synthesized anatase TiO₂ that was used alongside poly(carbonate urethane) as protective coating for the application of outdoor cultural heritage, and reported that a coating with 1 wt% of anatase TiO₂ nanoparticles showed good chemical durability [5]. Li et al. focused on the fabrication of graphene-reinforced waterborne Polyurethane (PU) coatings, highlighting its superior anticorrosive behavior attributed to an ideal network formation in the PU matrix that avoids permeation of foreign molecules [8]. Barroso et al. reported that particle-fillers, such as TiO₂, SiO₂, ZrO₂, and Al₂O₃, working together with polysiloxane coatings, are able to maintain a passive behavior over a broad temperature range without requiring a protective atmosphere resulting from the high-temperature stability and melting point of these fillers [6].

Despite that concern with regards its toxicity profile [9,10], titanium dioxide (TiO₂) is an excellent candidate due to its suitable valence band

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<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rsurfi.2025.100683>

Received 8 July 2025; Received in revised form 13 October 2025; Accepted 23 November 2025

Available online 24 November 2025

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and conduction band positions, long-term stability, cost-effectiveness, biocompatibility, and strong oxidizing power response [11–14]. TiO₂ consists of several crystalline forms, of which anatase and rutile are the two prevalent forms [15] that exhibit distinctively different properties [16]: anatase shows a greater photoactivity than rutile because of an increased level of radicals absorption on the anatase surface, causing its application in environmental purification systems, self-cleaning and antimicrobial products [17–19]. In contrast, rutile is the most thermodynamically stable form of TiO₂, exhibiting excellent stability and resistance to degradation, making it suitable for UV protection and weather resistance applications [20].

Within the spectrum of organic materials used in hybrid to improve the properties of TiO₂ coatings, unsaturated polyester resin (UPR) has recently received considerable attention. UPR synthesized based on the condensation of unsaturated diacids and saturated diols is one of the most commonly used thermosetting resins in construction, household production, and electronics [7,21]. It was reported in a previous study that addition of 4 % rutile TiO₂ to UPR could improve the impact strength retention rate of the coating by 29.8 % compared with the pure UPR [7]. Evora and colleagues evidenced that the introducing TiO₂ particles to UPR could significantly enhance the toughness of the UPR coating by as much as 57 % [22]. Moreover, Xiao and co-workers demonstrated that the tensile strength and elastic modulus of a TiO₂/UPR composite were increased by 47 % and 22 %, respectively, once 4 % TiO₂ was incorporated [23]. In addition, the impact strength of TiO₂/UPR coatings was increased by up to 50 % when 1.5 % anatase TiO₂ was used, which was attributed to the robust interfacial bonding force between the particles and the resin matrix [24].

However, although the properties of anatase and rutile TiO₂ have been extensively studied individually, comparative investigations of their performance within hybrid coatings remain scarce. A limited understanding of how different TiO₂ polymorphs interact with UPR—particularly in relation to their photocatalytic efficiency—has hampered efforts to optimize hybrid coating formulations. In this research, two crystalline forms of TiO₂: anatase TiO₂ particles and rutile TiO₂ particles, composited with polyester resin matrix, were chosen to construct TiO₂/UPR coatings on aluminum substrate plates. Depending on the different ratios of the two types of TiO₂ particles, the samples were named 100R (100 % rutile with UPR), 50R50A (50 % rutile and 50 % anatase with UPR), and 100A (100 % anatase with UPR). We investigated the physico-chemical properties of the coatings, including surface morphology and topography, surface roughness, surface free energy, components distribution, and coating hardness, followed by chemical durability evaluation and wear resistance test. Afterwards, the scientific implications of TiO₂ with polyester resin matrix on mechanical and chemical resistance are elucidated according to the nanoparticle structure and character of each crystal and the distribution of TiO₂ in the polymer matrix.

2. Materials and method

2.1. Preparation of hybrid TiO₂ surface coatings

Two types of TiO₂ particles, Anatase (PCN-SA, kindly donated by PCN Materials, Crete, Greece) and Rutile (Kronos 2300, Kronos Worldwide, Inc., Dallas, USA), were used as supplied. Specific ratios of TiO₂ particles (12 wt% anatase, 12 wt% rutile, and 6 wt% anatase mixed with 6 wt% rutile) were incorporated with an industrial coating formulation that contains primarily an unsaturated polyester resin (AkzoNobel Packaging Coatings Ltd, Birmingham, UK), respectively, followed by stirring at 4000 rpm at room temperature using a 3-bladed R1385 Propeller stirrer (IKA England Ltd., Oxford, UK) for 11 h to ensure a homogeneous distribution of the TiO₂ particle in the organic matrix. The resulting suspensions were subsequently coated on a Cr-free aluminum plate (Novelis, Warrington, UK) using a Wire-Bar Applicator (WC-6 Leneta Wire-Cator, Leneta, USA) and cured at 249 °C for 13 s in a hot air

oven (Werner Mathis AG, Oberhasli, Switzerland).

2.2. Surface characterization

2.2.1. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

A Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM) (Quanta FEI 650 FEG, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Massachusetts, USA) was utilized to study the TiO₂ particles alone and the TiO₂ particles embedded in the coating matrix. The samples of interest were coated with a thin layer of gold (approximately 5 nm) using a sputtering machine (LUXOR, Luxor Tech, Nazareth, Belgium). Back Scatter Electron (BSE) mode was chosen to distinguish the TiO₂ particles from the organic matrix.

2.2.2. Plasma focused ion beam (PFIB)

Once an area of interest, of which the dimension of 50 μm × 10 μm × 5 μm, was established, it was sputter coated with a conducting layer of tungsten, over which cross-section feature was generated using a Plasma Focused Ion Beam (Helios 5 PFIB CXe DualBeam, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Massachusetts, USA).

2.2.3. White light interferometry (WLI)

The hybrid TiO₂ coating samples were examined by a White Light Interferometer (Profilm3D, KLA Corporation, California, USA) using a 50× objective lens (Nikon CF Plan, Nikon Corporation, Japan), with a scanning area of 120 μm × 120 μm. The surface roughness (S_a) was calculated using the ProfilOnline based on at least three measurements per sample.

2.2.4. Atomic force microscopy (AFM)

An Atomic Force Microscope (FlexAFM, Nanosurf, Liestal, Switzerland) was used to establish the surface topography of the TiO₂ coating specimens. A contact mode cantilever (HQ:NSC36/Cr-Au, ApexProbes, UK) with a force constant of 1 N/m was utilized to image the coating surfaces under ambient conditions, with a scan size of 50 μm × 50 μm and a scanning frequency of 1 Hz. Data analysis was performed using Gwyddion software (Czech Metrology Institute, Okružní, Czech).

2.3. Surface free energy

Surface free energy values of the TiO₂ coating samples were quantified using a contact angle goniometer (Ossila Ltd, Sheffield, UK) based on the sessile drop method. Two types of liquid droplets: 10 μl of de-ionized water (produced by Direct-Q® 3 UV Remote Water Purification System, Merck Life Science, UK) or diiodomethane (Sigma-Aldrich, UK) was placed on the substrates of interest, of which the details were reported in a previous study [25]. Averaged data was obtained by at least 9 repeats per substrate.

In the present work study, the Fowkes equation was used to calculate surface free energy of three types of coating surface. The Fowkes' equation that relates the solid and liquid phase interactions with surface tension and contact angle is presented in Equation (1) below:

$$\sqrt{\sigma_l^D \cdot \sigma_s^D} + \sqrt{\sigma_l^P \cdot \sigma_s^P} = \sigma_l(1 + \cos \theta) / 2 \quad (1)$$

where σ_s^D and σ_s^P are the dispersive and polar components of the surface energy of the solid, and σ_l^D and σ_l^P are the dispersive and polar components of the surface tension of the liquid.

2.4. Chemical characterization

2.4.1. Raman microscopy

Raman spectra over different locations of the hybrid coating surface were acquired using a WiTec Confocal Raman spectrometer (Andor Technology, Oxford, UK) with a 785 nm laser excitation (Cobolt 08-NLD, HÜBNER Photonics GmbH, Germany). A 20× objective

(UPlanApo, Olympus, Japan) was used for both surface mapping and spectra recording. All Raman spectra were analyzed using the WiTec Project Data Evaluation software. For the surface mapping, a mapping size of $100\ \mu\text{m} \times 100\ \mu\text{m}$ was chosen with a scanning point collection setup of 100 points per line and 100 lines per image.

2.4.2. X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis

X-ray Diffraction measurements were performed using a BRUKER D8 Advance X-ray diffractometer (Bruker, Massachusetts, USA) equipped with a Cu X-ray source ($K\alpha$ wavelength of $1.5406\ \text{\AA}$) and configured in Bragg-Brentano θ - θ geometry. A step-scan approach was used to collect the XRD pattern over a 2θ range of 20 – 80° , with 0.02° increments and a dwell time of $0.5\ \text{s}$ per step.

2.5. Mechanical properties

Mechanical properties such as hardness and Young's modulus of the hybrid coating specimen were quantified using a Hysitron TI950 Triboindenter (Bruker, Bruker, Massachusetts, USA) equipped with a Berkovich tip. A minimum of 9 indentations were performed for each substrate.

2.6. Chemical durability

To evaluate their chemical durability, the hybrid coatings were exposed to aqueous solutions of different pH, following a method described in a previous study [26]. Hydrochloric acid (HCl) and sodium hydroxide (NaOH) were used to prepare solutions with pH 1 or pH 14, respectively, while de-ionized water (pH approximately 5) served as the control solution. Water contact angles of hybrid TiO_2 coating samples were measured before and after exposure to these solutions. The coatings underwent specific exposure treatment durations of $0.5\ \text{h}$, $4\ \text{h}$, $8\ \text{h}$, $16\ \text{h}$, and $48\ \text{h}$.

2.7. Adhesion to the supporting substrate

To evaluate the adhesion of the TiO_2 -based coatings to the supporting substrate, a scratch was performed on the coating surface under controlled loading conditions at a scratch distance of $5\ \text{mm}$ (constant loads of $1000\ \text{mN}$, $2000\ \text{mN}$, and $5000\ \text{mN}$; incremental loads of 1000 – $2000\ \text{mN}$ and 1000 – $3000\ \text{mN}$). The scratches were analyzed by an Optical Microscope (BX53M, Olympus, Japan) and Infinite Focus Microscopy (Alicona G4, Bruker, Chicago, USA), based on which the mechanical failures including failure modes (following guideline presented in Table 1), scratch depths, scratch area, and scratch volume were concluded.

2.8. Statistical analysis

All data included in this work was calculated from more than three independent experiments and are presented as mean value \pm standard deviation (mean \pm SD). Significant differences among groups were determined using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and t -test analysis. Significance was defined as $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$ and $****p < 0.0001$.

Table 1
Failure Types and their characteristics in hybrid coatings.

Failure type	Characteristics
Critical Load 1 (Lc1): Cohesive failure,	Visible damage, microcracks
Critical Load 2 (Lc2): Adhesive failure,	Partial delamination, some substrate exposed
Critical Load 3 (Lc3): Catastrophic failure	Total delamination, substrate exposed

3. Results and discussion

3.1. The effects of TiO_2 particles on polyester coating morphology and topography

Fig. 1 presents the morphology of the TiO_2 particles used, the hybrid TiO_2 coatings, and the cross-section of the corresponding coatings specimen. The rutile nanoparticles exhibited a spherical morphology with an approximate particle size of $509 \pm 51\ \text{nm}$. In contrast, the anatase nanoparticles showed irregularly shaped clusters, despite the fact that individual anatase particles were smaller than the rutile ones (the particle size: $40 \pm 9\ \text{nm}$) (Fig. 1a). Regarding the surface morphology of the coatings (Fig. 1b), all the TiO_2 particles with lacquers formed a grain-like structure separated by well-defined grain boundaries based on the optical micrograph and SEM images. 100R showed a more uniform TiO_2 distribution with a slight agglomeration in the grain boundary regions (BSE images). In contrast, 50R50A and 100A presented more nanoparticle agglomerates outside the grain boundary regions but inside the grain-like structure. EDS measurement in Fig. S1: Ti was not detected in the grain boundary regions. Furthermore, the differences in TiO_2 nanoparticle morphology are evidenced by the images acquired from the cross-section regions (BFIB images): small rutile particles in sample 100R (diameter: ca. $500\ \text{nm}$, refer to the yellow marks), large anatase clusters which are likely attributed to the high anatase agglomeration in sample 100A and a combination of rutile and anatase particles in sample 50R50A.

Fig. 2 shows the surface topography and area roughness of three different TiO_2 coatings, showing a consistent cluster and boundary structure also seen in the results from Fig. 1. Based on the AFM results, pure anatase TiO_2 particles adhered to the polyester resin matrix, also demonstrated by the roughness test made by the white light interferometer (WLI) in Fig. 2d. The roughness of 100A was $2.62 \pm 0.67\ \mu\text{m}$, significantly larger than that of 100R ($1.31 \pm 0.44\ \mu\text{m}$) and 50R50A ($1.48 \pm 0.45\ \mu\text{m}$).

3.2. Chemical characterization

The chemical composition and homogeneity, as well quality of surface coverage, were measured by Raman microscope and X-ray diffraction (XRD), of which the results are presented in Fig. 3. The Raman spectrum of anatase particles (Fig. 3a) shows characteristic peaks that correspond to $E_g(1)$, $E_g(2)$, B_{1g} , A_{1g} , and $E_g(3)$ at $138\ \text{cm}^{-1}$, $197\ \text{cm}^{-1}$, $398\ \text{cm}^{-1}$, $518\ \text{cm}^{-1}$ and $641\ \text{cm}^{-1}$, respectively, which is consistent with a previous study [27]. Moreover, the rutile Raman peaks of B_{1g} ($148\ \text{cm}^{-1}$), E_g ($449\ \text{cm}^{-1}$) as well as A_{1g} ($614\ \text{cm}^{-1}$) in rutile particles represented the rutile distribution in coatings [28]. The Raman spectrum of sample 100A (Fig. 3b) exhibits characteristic anatase peaks at B_{1g} ($421\ \text{cm}^{-1}$), A_{1g} ($520\ \text{cm}^{-1}$), and E_g ($642\ \text{cm}^{-1}$), consistent with the fingerprint of anatase TiO_2 . However, compared with pure anatase powders, the intensity of the prominent $E_g(1)$ band ($\sim 144\ \text{cm}^{-1}$) in the coatings was markedly reduced, in agreement with previous reports [29, 30]. This attenuation can be ascribed to several factors. For instance, coatings are known to suppress Raman intensities through substrate interactions, optical absorption, scattering, and the reduced effective sampling volume [29]. Moreover, when TiO_2 nanoparticles are dispersed within a polymer matrix, the optical path of both the incident and scattered light may be blocked or attenuated, further diminishing the Raman signal [30]. In contrast, the Raman spectrum of sample 100R displayed peaks at B_{1g} ($143\ \text{cm}^{-1}$), E_g ($447\ \text{cm}^{-1}$), and A_{1g} ($610\ \text{cm}^{-1}$), confirming the presence of rutile within the coatings, albeit with relatively lower intensity compared to pure rutile powders. Whereas the Raman magnitude of such peaks was seen to be small (the Raman magnitude of B_{1g} , E_g and A_{1g} : 4190 , 3930 and 3920 , respectively) compared to the peaks in sample 50R50A (the Raman magnitude of B_{1g} , E_g and A_{1g} : 5980 , 4000 , and 4020 , respectively). Furthermore, it was observed that the magnitude of signal peaks, e.g. B_{1g} , acquired from

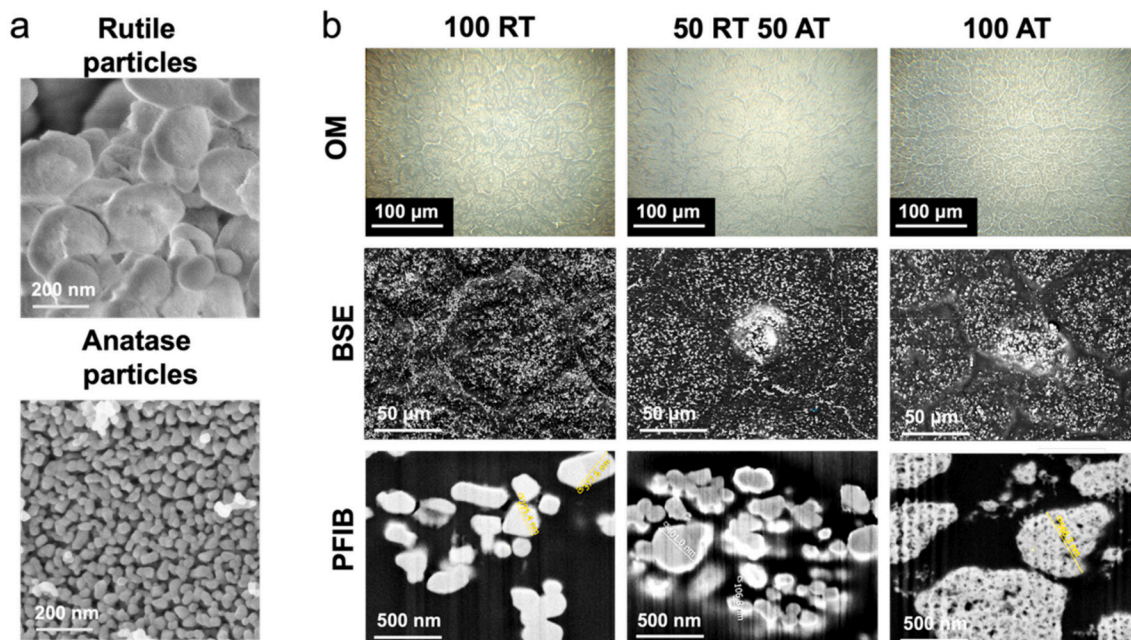


Fig. 1. Morphology of (a) TiO₂ particles: rutile (up) and anatase (bottom), and (b) TiO₂ incorporated coatings: Coating constructs measured by optical microscopy (OM, top line), scanning electron microscope (SEM) Back Scatter Electron (BSE) mode (middle line) and cross-section microstructure of TiO₂ coatings through plasma focused ion beam (PFIB) (bottom line). The white dots in BSE and BFIB images refer to the TiO₂ particles, and the yellow marks show the size of TiO₂ nanoparticles, respectively.

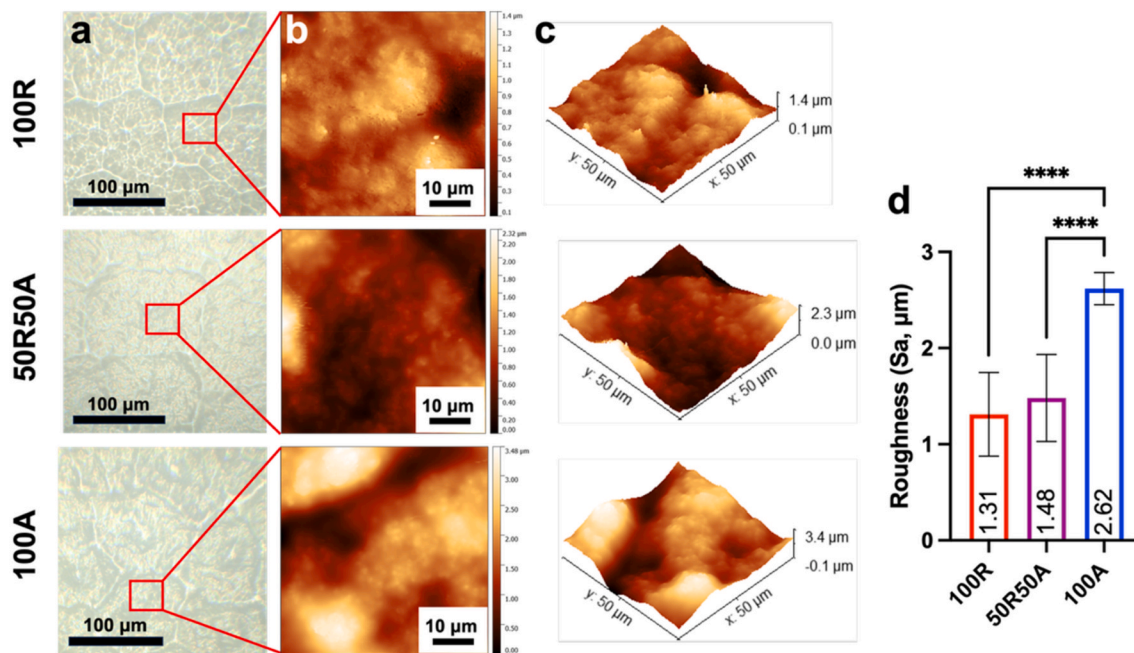


Fig. 2. Surface morphology of variable TiO₂ coating measured by (a) Raman microscope and (b) AFM. (c) 3D topographical profiles tested by AFM and (d) the surface area roughness measured by WLI. The error bars represent the standard deviation (n = 9, mean ± SD). ****p < 0.0001: compared with the group of 100R (one-way ANOVA).

100A sample is greater than that in 50R50A samples. This could be due to the influence of the size or agglomeration of TiO₂ particles inside coatings, which has been studied and demonstrated in a large number of works [28,31,32]: in theory, the Raman scattered radiation travels inside the sample through a diffuse reflectance scattering mechanism. In some cases, larger particles or higher agglomeration scatter more photons and provide greater scattering volume, enhancing the overall Raman signal magnitude. The Raman results above suggest more

anatase TiO₂ particle agglomeration in 100A, less rutile particle agglomeration in 100R compared to 50R50A. This supports the observation from the PFIB results in Fig. 1 and Fig. S2.

The X-ray diffraction data of the TiO₂ particles and three coating specimens are shown in Fig. 2c and d. The diffraction peaks of anatase particles such as (101) at 25.33°, (004) at 37.81°, (200) at 48.05°, and (211) at 55.06° (Fig. 2c) are consistent with the reference pattern of anatase TiO₂ (ICDD card No. 00-021-1272), confirming that the powders

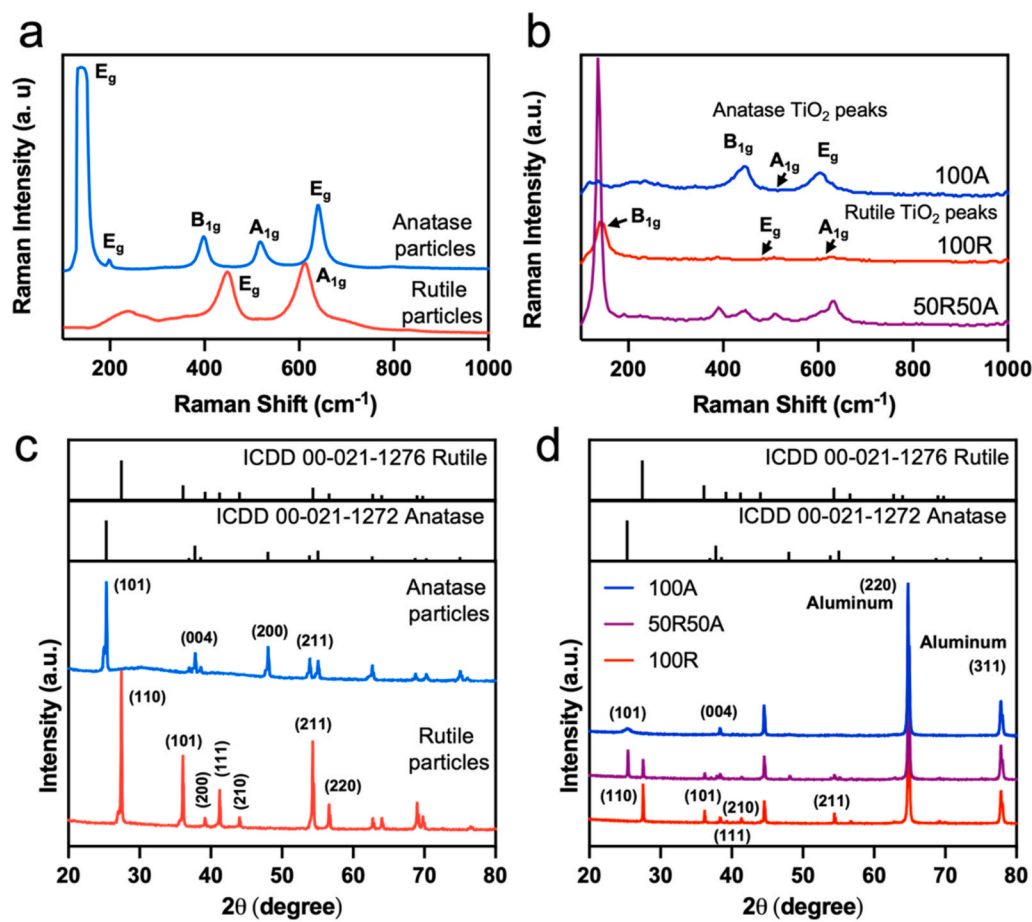


Fig. 3. The Raman spectra of (a) TiO_2 particles and (b) three coatings based on TiO_2 particles and XRD results of (c) TiO_2 particles and (d) three coatings.

used in this study were phase-pure anatase. In contrast, the characteristic reflections of rutile particles, including (110) at 27.44° , (101) at 36.07° , (200) at 39.17° , (111) at 41.23° , (210) at 44.03° , (211) at 54.32° , and (220) at 56.63° , were identified by comparison with the rutile reference pattern (ICDD card No. 00-021-1276). In Fig. 3d, three peaks, namely (101), and (004) were observed on the 100A coating, which confirms that the TiO_2 particles incorporated exhibit a pure anatase phase structure. However, a similar trend was observed in the XRD patterns, where the anatase-incorporated coating (100A) exhibited a reduced intensity of the characteristic (101) reflection compared to pure anatase powders. This reduction is likely attributed to the thin-film geometry [33] and substrate influence [34], which attenuate the relative diffraction intensity in coatings compared with powders. On the

contrary, five different peaks, including (110) at 27.55° , (101) at 36.19° , (111) at 41.35° , and (211) at 54.42° , were identified in the XRD spectrum of 100R coating, evidencing the rutile form of the TiO_2 particles [35,36]. It is not unexpected to observe a range of peaks, contributed by both rutile and anatase, in the 50R50A coating sample. The XRD results confirm not only the nature of the TiO_2 particles used, but that the coating preparation process does not affect the crystalline form of TiO_2 .

3.3. Surface free energy of the TiO_2 based coatings

The Equilibrium Contact Angle (ECA) values of water, reflecting the surface water wettability, on TiO_2 coatings are summarised in Fig. 4a. All coatings showed water wettability within a close range, with a

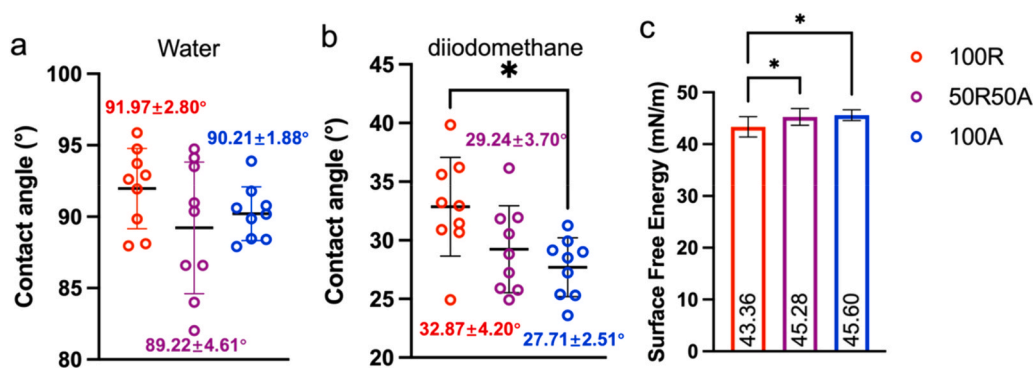


Fig. 4. The contact angle of different TiO_2 coatings (a) against water and (b) against diiodomethane. (c) The surface free energy of different TiO_2 samples. The error bars represent the standard deviation ($n = 9$, mean \pm SD). * $p < 0.05$: compare with the group of 100R (One-way ANOVA).

contact angle of approximately 90° ($91.9 \pm 2.8^\circ$, $89.2 \pm 4.6^\circ$, and $90.2 \pm 1.9^\circ$ for 100R, 50R50A, and 100A, respectively). To quantify the surface free energy (SFE) of the coatings and elucidate the interface characteristics for each composition, ECA of diiodomethane was measured (Fig. 4b), of which the results were used to calculate the surface free energy of the coatings (Fig. 4c). Diiodomethane was used to probe the non-polar interactions on the TiO_2 coatings surface, including Van der Waals forces and solvent-mediated phenomena such as hydrophobic attraction [25], while the polar interactions (electrostatic interaction or hydrogen bonds) were evaluated through the ECA of water [37]. Although the same polymeric matrix was used for all three coatings, the 100R coatings showed a diiodomethane ECA value of $27.7 \pm 2.5^\circ$ that is higher than that of the 50R50A coatings ($29.2 \pm 3.7^\circ$) and the 100A coatings ($32.8 \pm 4.2^\circ$). It is very probable that the SFE of the TiO_2 based coatings is primarily influenced by the characteristics of the TiO_2 phases. SFE was found to increase marginally with the increase of anatase ratio in the coating (43.36 ± 1.97 , 45.28 ± 1.61 mN/m, and 45.60 ± 1.04 for 100R, 50R50A, and 100A, respectively).

Fig. 5 shows the wettability and surface free energy as a function of the TiO_2 coatings, and the relation between surface free energy and surface roughness. The diiodomethane contact angle on TiO_2 coatings decreases (Fig. 5a) as the fraction of anatase increases, which results in an increased dispersive component of surface free energy (Fig. 5b) by 5.11 %. This implies that the anatase nanoparticles might be able to enhance the dispersive component of the surface energy, which is consistent with a previous study [38]. Fig. 5c and d show surface free

energy (either total, disperse, or polar component) as a function of the surface roughness, which advises that SFE is independent of surface roughness. Therefore, the different TiO_2 phases, rather than coating surface roughness, likely play the greatest role in the surface free energy of hybrid coatings although the factor is not much noticeable [39].

3.4. Mechanical properties of the coatings

The effect of including TiO_2 nanoparticles in polyester resin on the hardness and reduced Young's modulus of the surface coating is presented in Fig. 6. Nanoindentation results show that the value of hardness

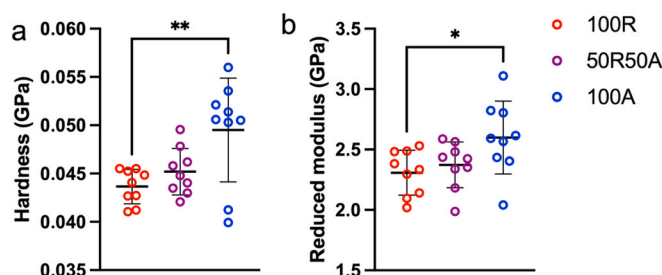


Fig. 6. The (a) hardness and (b) reduced modulus of different TiO_2 coatings. The error bars represent the standard deviation ($n = 9$, mean \pm SD, * $p < 0.05$ and ** $p < 0.01$: compared with the group of 100R, One-way ANOVA).

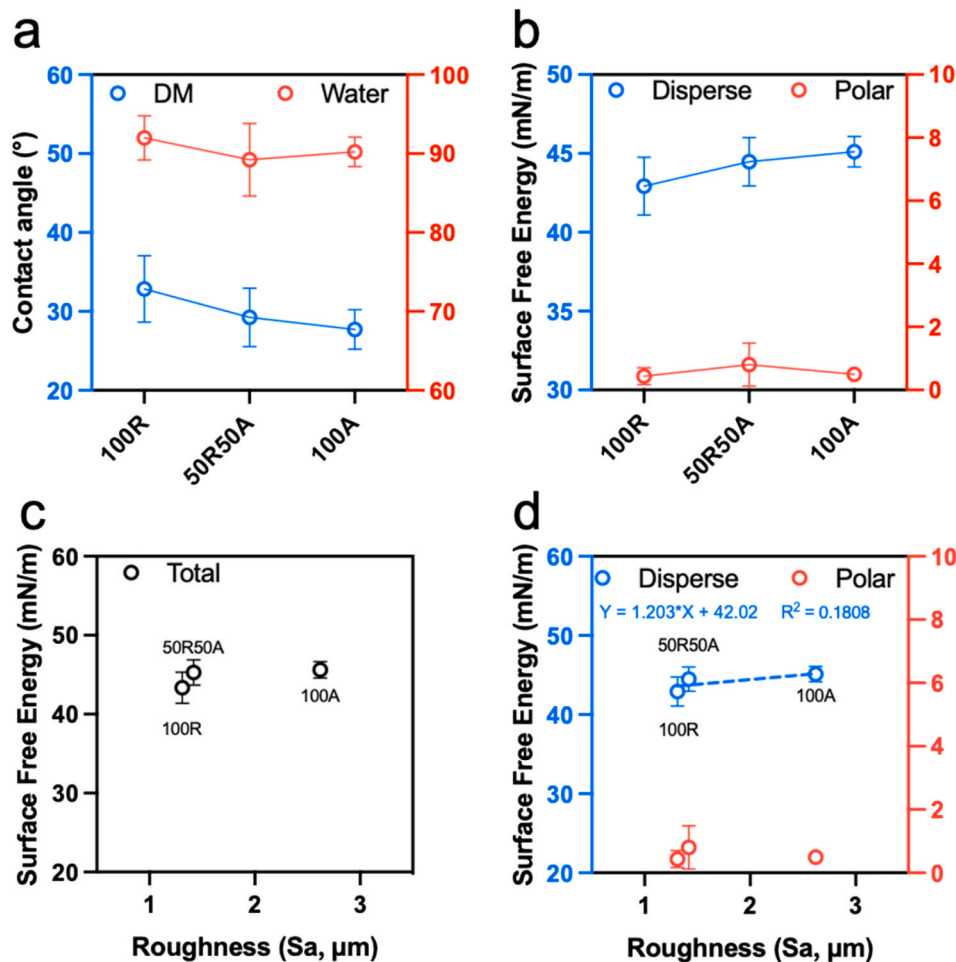


Fig. 5. (a) Contact angle values of water and diiodomethane acquired on TiO_2 coatings. (b) Disperse and polar components of surface free energy of the three TiO_2 samples. (c) The relation between surface roughness and surface free energy. (d) The relation between roughness and disperse and polar components. The error bars represent the standard deviation ($n = 9$, mean \pm SD).

of 100A, 0.050 ± 0.005 GPa, was significantly greater than that of 100R (0.044 ± 0.002 GPa) and 50R50A (0.045 ± 0.002 GPa), respectively. The total replacement of rutile by 100 % anatase resulted in a 12 % increase in the hardness of the coating. The same enhancing effect was observed with the reduced Young's modulus result, whereby the 100A coating presents a reduced Young's modulus of 2.599 ± 0.302 GPa, which is greater than that for 100R (2.308 ± 0.185 GPa). We conclude that the presence of anatase particles could enhance the mechanical performance of the TiO₂ coatings. The benefit is likely attributed to the anatase particles could act as an obstacle to plastic deformation of the polyester resin matrix: the anatase nanoparticles have excessive dangling bonds which allows for strong interactions with the polyester matrix, leading to a strong interface between the nanoparticles and the matrix [40], which was also supported by previous research [41], that reported that nickel nanocomposite coatings containing anatase nanoparticles showed a higher hardness rate compared with those containing rutile microparticles. The role of TiO₂ particle distribution and agglomeration within the polyester resin matrix (Fig. 1b and S2) may also contribute to the observed mechanical response. In the 100A coating, anatase nanoparticles formed numerous clusters (Fig. S2c), which can act as rigid filler domains and enhance the local resistance to indentation. Such clustered regions are capable of locally increasing stiffness and hardness, despite the non-uniform dispersion of the particles. A similar phenomenon was reported by Rovera et al., who demonstrated that coating regions with more pronounced aggregation or clustering of rigid nanoparticles acted as locally reinforced domains, resulting in higher measured nanomechanical properties such as hardness and stiffness [42].

3.5. Chemical durability

Coatings based on TiO₂ particles are deployed in a wide range of sectors such as biomedical industry, food packaging, agriculture [43–47], which requires an exceptional stability and durability when

being exposed to challenging environmental conditions. A chemical durability evaluation for the coatings that are consisted of TiO₂ particles and polyester resin was carried out against aqueous solutions of different pH values, whereby the water contact angle (WCA) of the coatings was measured as a function of pH condition and exposure time, of which the results are presented in Fig. 7.

It is apparent that the WCA of the 100R coating changed upon exposure to the testing liquids. For instance, the water contact angle of 100R reduced upon exposure to acidic environment (pH = 1) from $87.3 \pm 0.9^\circ$ to $83.6 \pm 0.6^\circ$ after 0.5 h, but from $88.7 \pm 3.1^\circ$ to $76.0 \pm 0.7^\circ$ after 8 h, which highlights the significance of resistance against chemicals. After immersion in deionized water, 100R coating deterioration was observed under the treatment for 8 h and 48 h, after which the ECAs raised from $84.9 \pm 3.0^\circ$ to $95.6 \pm 0.9^\circ$ and from $85.0 \pm 0.9^\circ$ to $91.4 \pm 1.5^\circ$, respectively. Compared with previous liquids, the alkaline solution (pH = 14) damaged the pure rutile coating more significantly: all the contact angle values were reduced after specific treatment periods, especially after 48 h, the ECA went down almost 30 % from $83.8 \pm 1.3^\circ$ to $60.9 \pm 6.9^\circ$. The chemical durability of 50R50A presented is between that of 100A and 100R coatings with no significant difference in ECA observed before and after exposure to HCl and water. However, NaOH exposure resulted in a significant reduction in ECA on the coating surface across nearly all treatment durations. As for the 100A sample, the value of ECA significantly dropped down from $89.8 \pm 3.2^\circ$ to $80.7 \pm 0.8^\circ$ after 16 h). Beyond this, no noticeable changes were observed.

It is worth noting that 100A coating exhibited the best performer in terms of chemical durability because of its consistent water contact angle upon exposure to the testing liquids, despite that there was a slight ECA reduction after 16 h exposure to the alkaline environment (reduced from $89.8 \pm 3.2^\circ$ to $80.7 \pm 0.8^\circ$). The excellent chemical durability of 100A coating is likely attributed to the distinct nature between rutile and anatase nanoparticles in the polyester resin matrix. The anatase nanoparticles have slightly greater surface free energy than rutile particles, which was observed in section 3.3 (Figs. 4 and 5), and was also

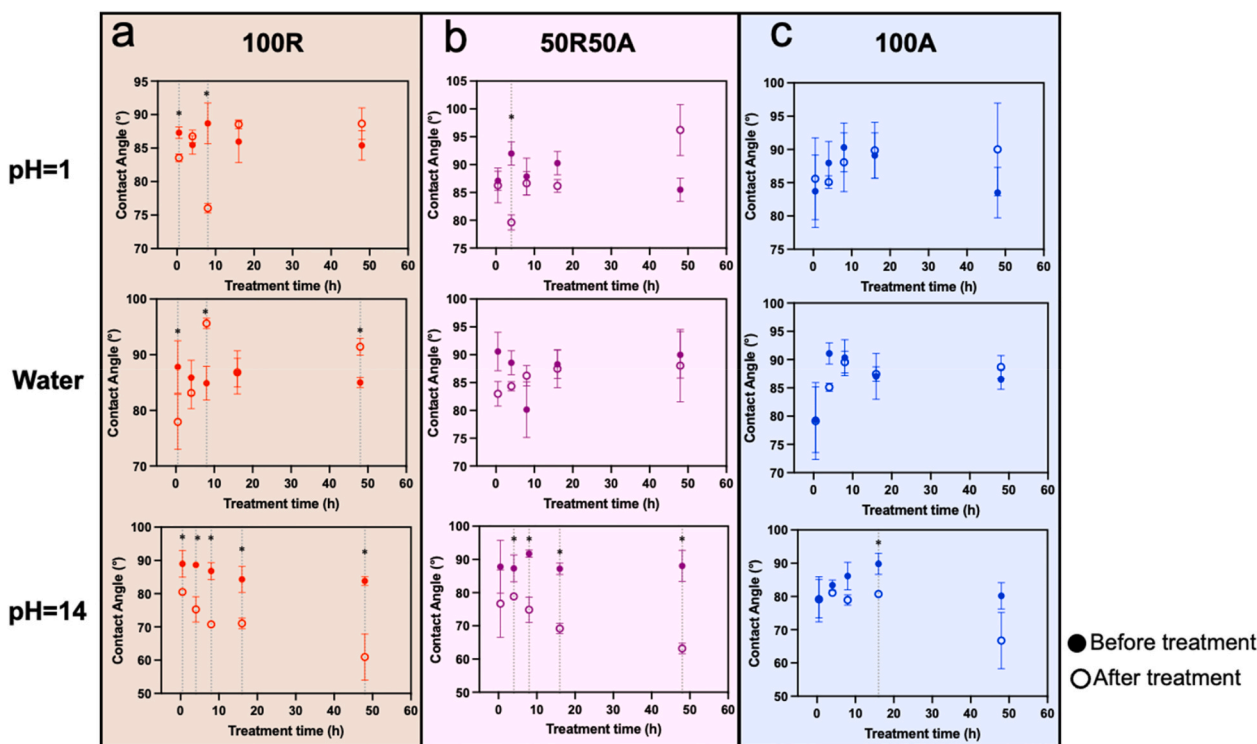


Fig. 7. The chemical durability of different TiO₂ coatings under acidic (pH = 1) water and alkaline (pH = 14) environments: (a) 100R, (b) 50R50A and (c) 100A. The error bars represent the standard deviation ($n = 3$, mean \pm SD). * $p < 0.05$: comparison between the contact angle values before and after treatment at the same time point (t -test).

reported by other studies [16]. This is likely one of the reasons anatase particles possess a strong interaction between the anatase nanoparticles and the polyester matrix [41]. Additionally, Shoaib et al. demonstrated that the anatase nanoparticles have a defect-rich surface with excessive dangling bonds which allows for strong interactions with the polyester matrix, resulting in a robust interface between the nanoparticles and the matrix [40]. Consequently, this strong interaction resulted in the resistance of corrosive liquid permeating into the coatings [48].

3.6. Adhesion performance of TiO₂ coatings

The mechanical durability of the TiO₂ coatings was evaluated by a set of scratch tests under two different testing conditions: constant loading at 1000, 2000, and 5000 mN, and incremental loading at 1000–2000 and 1000–3000 mN. The results are shown in Fig. 8, whereby Fig. 8a & b present the scratch test under constant load and Fig. 8c, d, and 8e show the incremental load test results. The maximum scratch depth on all coatings increased once the constant normal load was enhanced from 1000 mN to 5000 mN, e.g. approximately 5 μm under 1000 mN; 11 μm under 2000 mN, and 16 μm under 5000 mN. Lc1 failure type was observed for all samples under 1000 mN normal load, whereas a combination of Lc2 + Lc3 failure type was found on 100R coating surface under 2000 mN, implying a worse coating adhesion of pure rutile nanoparticle coatings compared with that of anatase particle-containing coatings (50R50A and 100A), on which only Lc2 failure occurred. Mechanical properties of all three coatings deteriorated under a normal constant load of 5000 mN, showing a Lc3 failure type, which is likely because the applied load (5000 mN) exceeded the limits of the mechanical endurance of the coatings (Additional details regarding the 3D scratch profiles can be found in Fig. S3). With regards the coating adhesion under an incremental load from 1000 mN to 2000 mN (Fig. 8c), a increased max scratch depth was observed on 100A specimen ($9.93 \pm 0.45 \mu\text{m}$), in comparison to that on the 100R coating ($8.26 \pm 0.61 \mu\text{m}$). This evidences that the maximum load of 2000 mN still could not break all coatings and only slight tracks remained. It manifests that the normal load of 2000 mN is likely the threshold to produce cracks and debris, which could result in a mechanical failure.

To quantitatively analyze the magnitude of adhesion of the coating

to the supporting substrate (Fig. 8d and e), the values of the scratch area and volume were calculated under the incremental load of 1000 mN–3000 mN. Based on the scratch area and volume results, we concluded that the coating containing anatase (100A) shows a greater wear resistance than the coatings containing rutile (100R): scratch area and scratch volume are $0.24 \pm 0.03 \mu\text{m}^2$ and $1.27 \times 10^5 \mu\text{m}^3$ for the 100A sample, and become $0.21 \pm 0.02 \mu\text{m}^2$ and $1.34 \times 10^5 \mu\text{m}^3$ for the 50R50A specimen, both of which are considerably less than those ($0.29 \pm 0.03 \mu\text{m}^2$ and $1.84 \times 10^5 \mu\text{m}^3$, respectively) acquired on the 100R coating.

The wear performance of the coatings could be affected by their mechanical properties, such as hardness and particle distribution, and by their chemical composition, e.g. inclusion of anatase or rutile particles [49]. It is anticipated that the coatings containing anatase (100A and 50R50A), with a great hardness (Fig. 6), could inhibit the plastic deformation under a high loading force, therefore exhibit an enhanced wear resistance [41]. Moreover, the agglomeration of rutile nanoparticles located in the peripheral regions of nanoparticle clusters in 100R (Fig. 1b, BSE image, red circle) likely deteriorated the wear performance further. A similar experimental phenomenon has been found in the research by Aliofkhazraei et al. [49], who reported that higher agglomeration of nanoparticles in the valleys of the coating resulted in the uneven force subjecting conditions on coatings, further leading to worse wear resistance.

3.7. Limitations

In this study, the physico-chemical characterization of TiO₂/UPR coatings prepared with anatase and rutile particles was investigated. Nonetheless, certain limitations remain to be addressed in future work. For example, additional chemical characterization techniques such as FTIR and XPS should be employed to gain deeper insights into the chemical composition and structural features of the TiO₂/UPR coatings. Meanwhile, chemical durability was evaluated primarily under acidic and alkaline environments. However, it is well established that TiO₂ can exhibit strong photocatalytic activity under UV irradiation, which may induce gradual degradation of the polymeric matrix. Such photoinduced degradation could compromise the long-term stability of the coatings in

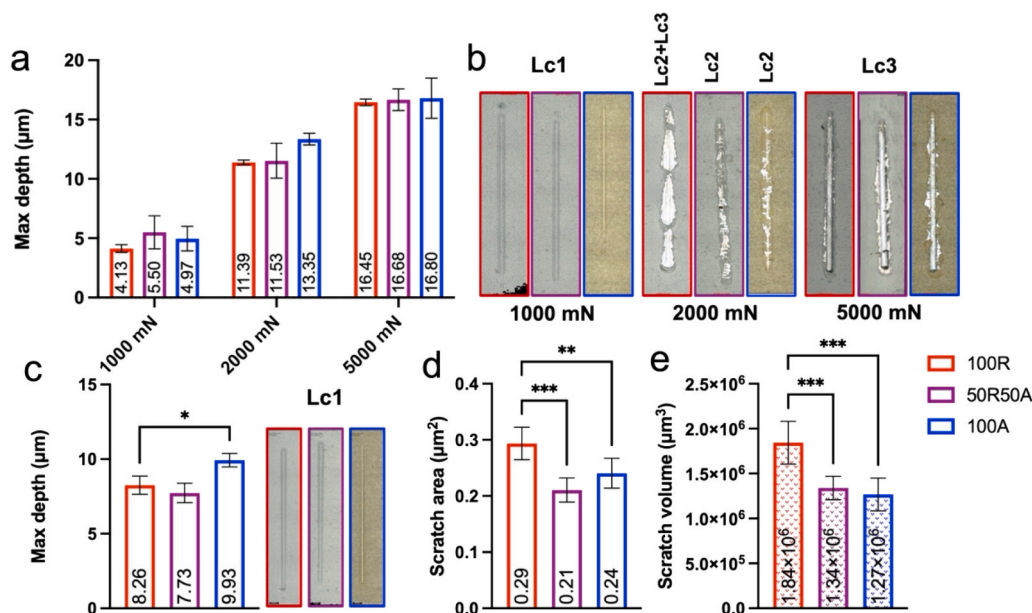


Fig. 8. The adhesion evaluation for different TiO₂ coatings. (a) The maximum penetrated depth of TiO₂ coatings by Berkovich tip with constant normal loads: 1000 mN, 2000 mN and 5000 mN. (b) the relative scratches from constant normal load testing. (c) The maximum penetrated depth with incremental normal loads from 1000 mN to 2000 mN and the relative scratches. (d) The scratch area and (e) the scratch volume with incremental normal load from 1000 mN to 3000 mN of different TiO₂ coatings. The error bars represent the standard deviation (n = 3, mean ± SD). *p < 0.05: compared with the group of 100R (One-way ANOVA).

outdoor applications and may also lead to the release of TiO₂ nanoparticles into the environment, raising potential ecological and health concerns. Future investigations will therefore focus on accelerated weathering and UV exposure tests to more comprehensively evaluate the photo-durability of the coatings and to assess nanoparticle release under realistic service conditions. Moreover, the effect of varying anatase/rutile ratios on the physico-chemical durability warrants systematic investigation, as this work focused only on a 1:1 ratio. The absence of a control coating prepared from UPR without TiO₂ incorporation is also another limitation. While the rutile-based coating (100R) was considered as a practical reference due to its availability as a mature commercial product from our industrial collaborator, it does not fully isolate the effect of TiO₂ incorporation on physico-chemical properties. Including a TiO₂-free UPR coating would have enabled more precise quantification of the contribution of TiO₂. Future work will therefore incorporate such a control sample to provide a more rigorous comparison.

4. Conclusions

In this study, we investigate how the distribution and crystalline composition of anatase and rutile TiO₂ nanoparticles influence the physico-chemical properties of hybrid coatings based on polyester resin. Particular attention is given to understanding how variations in particle dispersion and anatase/rutile affect coating performance and durability when incorporated into an unsaturated polyester resin matrix. The morphological characteristics of the coating revealed a sphere-like shape for the rutile nanoparticles, but irregular polyhedron clusters for anatase nanoparticles agglomeration. A repetitive ring-like structure was observed on the surfaces of all coatings, for the rutile-based coatings, TiO₂ particles exhibited slight agglomeration primarily in the boundary areas of these ring-like structures. In contrast, anatase-containing coatings displayed more pronounced nanoparticle agglomeration within ring-like regions. In addition, the anatase coatings exhibited greater nanoparticle aggregation within the polyester matrix compared to rutile hybrid coatings, as confirmed by Raman and XRD analyses. These analyses also verified both the crystalline nature of the TiO₂ nanoparticles used and confirmed that the coating preparation process did not affect their crystalline structure. Surface wettability and nanoindentation tests demonstrated that the addition of anatase in the coatings slightly increased the surface free energy by 5.17 % and hardness by 13.64 %. The chemical durability analysis showed that anatase improved the chemical resistance of the coatings. The scratch results revealed a superior anti-wear performance of anatase-containing coatings, implying that the coating hardness and nanoparticle distribution likely played a crucial role, i.e. the agglomeration of the rutile nanoparticles located within the ring-like shape boundary regions in the coating may cause uneven force conditions, along with low hardness, deteriorating the wear performance.

The demonstrated improvements in surface free energy, chemical stability, mechanical properties, and wear resistance suggest that anatase/UPR hybrid coatings hold strong potential for real-world applications as protective or functional coatings. Such properties are especially relevant for use in high-touch surfaces, packaging, or building materials, where enhanced durability and surface performance are critical.

Based on the results above, future improvements of TiO₂/UPR hybrid coatings could be achieved by enhancing nanoparticle dispersion or incorporating additional functional fillers such as Ag or ZnO nanoparticles to tailor the performance. Such coatings hold promise for use in protective and functional applications, including construction, marine, and automotive sectors, where durability, photocatalytic self-cleaning, and antimicrobial properties are highly desirable.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Ke Ren: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Validation, Software, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Daniel Perello:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Validation, Software, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Laura Buccoli:** Validation, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Roxana Guillen de la Cruz:** Writing – original draft, Validation, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Wahyu Wijanarko:** Validation, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Angel Gomes:** Methodology. **Richard Williams:** Validation. **Nuria Espallargas:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Validation, Supervision, Project administration, Methodology, Investigation, Conceptualization. **Anju Massey-Brooker:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Validation, Supervision, Project administration, Methodology, Conceptualization. **Peter J. Fryer:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Validation, Supervision, Project administration, Methodology, Conceptualization. **Zhenyu Jason Zhang:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Validation, Supervision, Project administration, Methodology, Investigation, Conceptualization.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Acknowledgments

We acknowledge financial support from the UK Research & Innovation (Horizon Europe Guarantee scheme, 10066793), the European Union's Horizon Europe research and innovation programme under Grant Agreement No 101058422 (SUPREME project), and Engineering and Physical Science Research Council (EP/V029762/1). The authors thank PCN Materials and AkzoNobel for providing anatase particles and TiO₂ coating samples, respectively. The PFIB images were performed by Hamid Khanmohammadi at the NTNU-PFIB lab that is a part of the SMART-H Infrastructure financially supported by the Research Council of Norway (project 296197) and NTNU.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rsufi.2025.100683>.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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