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Design and characterization of textured surfaces for applications in the food industry

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Abstract. The aim of this work is to design, manufacture and characterize surface morphologies on AISI 316L stainless steel produced by a custom designed laser-texturing strategy. Surface textures were characterized at a micrometric dimension in terms of areal parameters compliant with ISO 25178 and correlations between these parameters and processing parameters (e. g. laser energy dose provided to the material, repetition rate of the laser pulses and scanning velocity) were investigated. Preliminary efforts were devoted to the research of special requirements for surface morphology that, according to the commonly accepted research on the influence of surface roughness on cellular adhesion on surfaces, should discourage the formation of biofilms. The topographical characterization of the surfaces was performed with a Coherence Scanning Interferometer. This approach showed that increasing doses of energy provided to the surfaces increased the global level of roughness as well as the surface complexity. Moreover, the behavior of the parameters S_{pk} , S_{vk} indicates also that, due to the ablation process, an increase in the energy dose causes an average increase in the height of the highest peaks and in the depth of the deepest dales. The study of the density of peaks S_{pd} showed that none of the surfaces analyzed here seems to perfectly match the conditions dictated by the theories on cellular adhesion to confer antibiofouling properties. However, this result seems to be mainly due to the limits in the resolving power of Coherence Scanning Interferometry, which does not allow the resolution of sub-micrometric features which could be crucial in the prevention of cellular attachment.

Keywords: Surface metrology; Texturing; Biofouling, dairy industry

Nomenclature

Symbol	Name	Unity of measure
RR	Laser repetition rate	kHz
v	Scanning speed	mm/s
HOL	Horizontal overlap	dimensionless
H	Hatch distance	mm
F	Laser fluence	J/cm ²

N	Number of Scans	dimensionless
E	Energy dose	J/cm ²
S_a	Average roughness	μm
S_q	RMS roughness	μm
S_{sk}	Skewness	dimensionless
S_{dr}	Developed interfacial area ratio	dimensionless
S_{pd}	Density of peaks	μm^{-2}
S_k	Core roughness	μm
S_{pk}	Reduced peak height	μm
S_{vk}	Reduced valley depth	μm
S_z	Maximum height	μm

1. Introduction

There are several examples of surface nano and micro structures with diverse properties that exist in nature [1, 2, 3, 4]. The self-cleaning effect of lotus leaves, the adhesion of gecko's feet, the antireflectivity of moth eyes and the antifouling properties of fish scales are well known examples of such natural phenomena. As a result of these unique surface properties, there has been growing interest in biological interfaces and their unique features and this has encouraged scientists and engineers to investigate the physico-chemical nature of such surface structures. The ultimate goal of this biomimetic surface research is the realization of synthetic surfaces reproducing the physico-chemical properties observed in living systems, that could potentially be implemented in technological applications [5]. The ability to prevent the formation of biofilm is amongst the most reproducible features of biological interfaces. Synthetic interfaces with these properties have already gained relevance in numerous technological applications. Among these, one of the most relevant is the food industry. In particular, the formation of biofilms on the surface of food machinery can compromise food hygiene, because biofilms often contain spoilage or pathogenic bacteria, that can be dangerous for human health. In addition, the presence of biofilm on surfaces across food plants can seriously limit the process yield; for example, the occurrence of biofilms can increase the frequency of plant shut down for cleaning, it can reduce heat transfer and operating efficiency in heat exchange equipment, and even increase frictional resistance and corrosion rates on surfaces, leading to high losses of energy and spoiling of food stuffs [6, 7, 8].

Many unique properties of bio surfaces are correlated with the presence of surface micro- and/or nanostructures [5, 9, 10]. Numerous techniques have been explored with respect to production of bio inspired large area topographies these have included, photolithography [11, 12], nanoprinting [13, 14], and electron beam lithography [15, 16]. These techniques offer the possibility to realize structures with well defined geometries repeated periodically on a workpiece surface. Consequently, such textures are completely identified by a relatively small number of simple geometrical parameters, like the size and period of the repeating unit. These regular structures are useful for studying the correlations between the macroscopic properties and the surface morphology [11]. However, despite their excellent performance, these approaches suffer from some shortcomings, such as complexity (multiple processing steps), the need for expensive masks, the high process cost and slowness of the patterning process [10]. Recently, novel powerful approaches for the realization of biomimetic interfaces have been developed that combine the effectiveness of functional surface topographies with the possibility of

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7 76 functionalizing large areas, making them more suitable for up-scaling to production environments. These
8 77 techniques cover anodization [17], polymer film roughening [18, 19], electroerosion [20], and sol-gel processes
9 78 [21, 22]. In particular, laser machining has emerged as a novel and promising approach for high speed
10 79 modification of interfacial properties; in fact, this technique, especially with ultrashort laser pulses, can facilitate
11 80 the realization of surface textures on multiple dimensional scales, similar to those found in natural biological
12 81 systems, in only a one-step process [23, 24, 25]. Moreover, these textures can be realized without the need for
13 82 clean room facilities and can be implemented in different gaseous atmospheres with the additional possibility of
14 83 controlling to some degree the surface chemistry [10]. This technique leads to surface topographies characterized
15 84 by a random distribution of hills and dales (ISO 25178). This fact, often accompanied by inhomogeneities in the
16 85 chemical composition, leads to a difficult correlation between the topographic features and the macroscopic
17 86 properties of interest. Therefore, an accurate description of the geometry of such random topographies requires
18 87 the use of statistical quantities related to the distribution of the surface topographical features of the processed
19 88 area. The need for a complete description of surface roughness led to the development of areal surface
20 89 roughness parameters and their adoption into standards (ISO 25178) [26, 27]. Unfortunately, despite this new
21 90 approach to surface characterisation, the majority of literature concerning the metrological characterization of
22 91 biomimetic interfaces restrict analysis to a few metrological quantities, such as the so-called average roughness
23 92 (S_a) or the RMS roughness (S_q). This kind of description is not sufficient for a complete geometrical
24 93 characterization of the topography, since it is known that surfaces with the same values of these parameters can
25 94 have different geometries in terms of spatial properties and spatial frequency and this consequently has a great
26 95 affect on the surface functional properties [28, 29]. Therefore, efforts need to be devoted to introduce the use of
27 96 more representative parameters from the ISO 25178 “toolbox” to give a more refined description of complex
28 97 textures.

29 98 In this work, the surface roughness of AISI 316L stainless steel samples treated with ultrashort laser pulses has
30 99 been characterized in order to provide examples of surfaces that can be investigated for their antibiofouling
31 100 properties. AISI 316L austenitic stainless steel is widely used in the food industry because of its high resistance
32 101 to corrosion by food products and detergents [30]. Several attempts have been made to correlate the occurrence
33 102 of biofilm to the surface roughness of such stainless steel. Despite in this work into the relationship between the
34 103 level of hygiene and the type of finishing, the published results are somehow contradictory [30, 31]. For example
35 104 many studies attribute the improved hygienic properties of certain finishes to the low average roughness R_a [32,
36 105 33], while in other studies no clear relationships has been found between the amount of biofilm and average
37 106 roughness R_a [34].

38 107 The present study extends the use of areal surface parameters, metrological surface parameters to include those
39 108 falling within the scope of standard ISO 25178. The parameters have been deployed in the reported work in order
40 109 to assess the correlation between surface roughness and processing conditions, i. e. laser energy dose provided to
41 110 the target. The list of roughness parameters includes: average roughness S_a , RMS roughness S_q , skewness S_{sk} ,
42 111 developed interfacial area ratio S_{dr} , density of peaks S_{pd} , core roughness S_k , reduced valley depth S_{vk} and reduced
43 112 peak height S_{pk} . The metrological analysis has been performed from topographical maps obtained using a
44 113 Coherence Scanning Interferometer, measuring at or just below micrometric resolution. The present reported

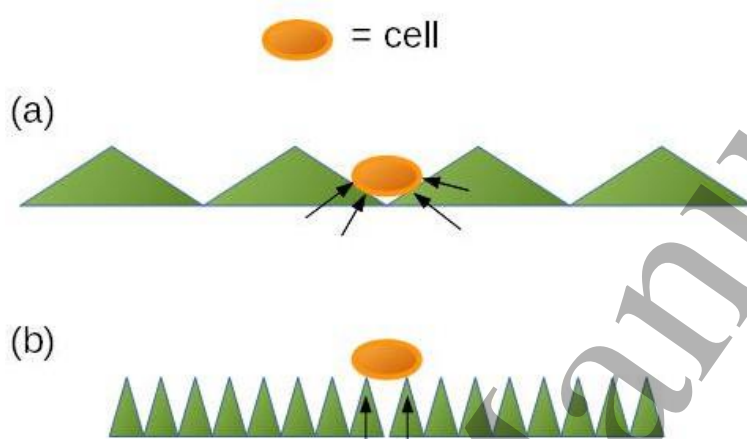
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7 114 work assessing optimal requirements for the antibiofouling has been carried within the framework of the basic
8 115 theories concerning the influence of surface roughness on bacterial adhesion. Finally, guidelines for the design of
9 116 surfaces minimizing the nesting of microorganisms of stainless steel surfaces, are derived and reported.
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118 **2. Requirements for the design of antibiofouling surfaces**

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15 120 With regard to the relation between surface roughness and the formation of biofilm, several theories and
16 121 mechanisms of adhesion have been proposed. First of all, a cell can be characterized as an external wall with a
17 122 certain degree of elasticity. Several works in literature show that the elastic modulus and non-covalent
18 123 interactions between a surface and the cell contribute decisively to the adhesive strength [35, 36, 37]. In the
19 124 formation of a biofilm, the cell wall can change its shape up to a certain limit in order to adapt itself to the
20 125 substrate geometry. Therefore, cells tend to adhere preferentially to surfaces that minimize the deformation of the
21 126 cell itself, such as surfaces with favourably sized valleys or grooves. These surface features are supposed also to
22 127 protect the cell against hydrodynamic turbulences [29, 35, 36, 37]. For example, Verran et al. showed that in
23 128 samples with a substrate of PMMA with an average roughness of $1.96 \mu\text{m}$, *Candida Albicans* adhere
24 129 preferentially into defects, i.e. scratches [37]. Whitehead et al. observed the same behaviour for *S. aureus* and *P.*
25 130 *Aeruginosa* on Si surfaces coated with Ti, characterized by pits with diameter ranging from “fractions of μm to 2
26 131 μm ” [38].

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33 132 In the attempt to adapt the cell curvature to a surface, the base cellular shape could play a crucial role. In
34 133 particular, one can expect that cells, such as coccoid bacteria, with an almost spherically symmetrical shape,
35 134 could adapt their surface curvature to a larger variety of rough patterns than cells, such as *Pseudomonas* bacteria,
36 135 that have a rod-like shape, i.e. an almost cylindrical symmetry. Cellular adhesion on surfaces is in principle
37 136 influenced not only by the geometrical characteristic of cells, but also by other factors, like the ability to secrete
38 137 polymeric substances that facilitate the attachment and experimental results that have been published over the
39 138 years seem to confirm this hypothesis. For example, Ivanova et al. showed that the spherical *S. aureus* cells
40 139 adhere more easily on molecularly smooth Ti surfaces compared to the rod-like *P. aeruginosa* [39]. They
41 140 attribute this effect not only to the shape of bacteria, but also to the more flexible cell membrane in *S. aureus*
42 141 than in *P. aeruginosa*. For this last reason *S. aureus* can adhere easily on a surface with spikes whose spacing
43 142 dimension are lower than cellular size, by adapting its outer structure to the surface curvature. In these and other
44 143 examples [23, 39, 40, 41], the emerging common concept is that the bacterial dimension defines a critical length-
45 144 scale for bacterial adhesion: structures whose size is smaller than the cellular dimension have negligible effect on
46 145 bacterial attachment. This idea explains some conventions that have been introduced in the design of surfaces
47 146 utilised in the food industry, for example the rule that hygienic steel surfaces must have an average roughness
48 147 lower than $0.8 \mu\text{m}$ dictated by the EHEDG (European Hygienic Equipment Design Group) and additionally the
49 148 requirement of R_a less than $1.6 \mu\text{m}$, dictated by the ISO 4287 standard for cleanability, [31, 37] The idea of a
50 149 “cutoff” threshold length scale of $0.2 \mu\text{m}$ for the formation of bacterial plaque on dental surface is proposed by
51 150 Bollen et al [42]. To clarify this point, the authors report the argument proposed by Scardino et al. [43], who
52 151 studied the attachment of diatom cells of different sizes on polyimide surfaces with grooves modelled from the

152 fouling resistant bivalves *Mytilus galloprovincialis* and *Tellina plicata*. They found that for groove widths near
 153 the cells size, the number of adhered cells decreases significantly. The schematic diagram used to explain this
 154 behaviour is reported in figure 1. A cell standing on a surface whose roughness is larger than the cell size (fig.
 155 1(a)) adheres on the surface with a relatively large number of attachment points. On the contrary, a surface
 156 whose roughness is smaller than the cell size provides a small number of attachment points, thus making more
 157 difficult the cellular adhesion (fig. 1 (b)).

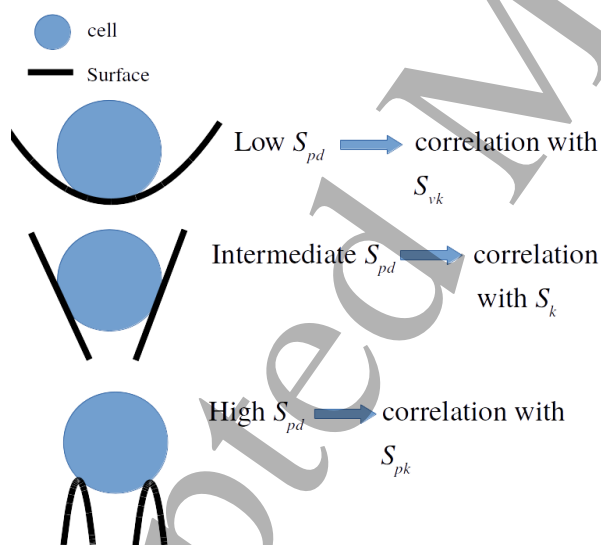


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 163 Figure 1. Scheme proposed to explain the correlation between diatom cell size and width of grooves in a rough
 164 surface.

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 166 According to the hypotheses defined so far and taking into account that the average surface roughness S_a
 167 obtained by conventional machining ranges between 3.2 to 1 μm , the most frequent condition when generating
 168 surface texture by mechanical tools would be that represented in panel a of figure 1: the alternation of peaks and
 169 valleys would create a favourable condition to host microorganisms. Therefore, the main idea is to look for a
 170 technological process which enables the production of multiscale hierarchical structures in which nanoscale
 171 features are superimposed to the microscale roughness. With these surface morphologies, the condition that
 172 minimizes the number of contact points depicted in the panel b of figure 1 should be present across the surface
 173 including the inclined flanks of the primary roughness. It should be noted that defining optimal attachment
 174 criteria by S_a values alone is essentially flawed as S_a refers only to surface amplitude information and does not
 175 infer spatial properties. In fact two surface of differing roughness (S_a) could have identical spatial properties. A
 176 better quantifying parameter should be a roughness parameter based on spatial information such as peak density
 177 S_{pd} combined with a parameter inferring amplitude properties.

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 179 In order to define the number of peaks per area unit that an ideal surface should have to hinder the multiplication
 180 of contact point between bacteria and surface, the attachment behaviour of *S. aureus*, which is represented as a
 181 blue circle in figure 2, was investigated. A single cell of this bacterium has an approximately spherical shape,

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7 182 whose diameter d is in the range $0.5\text{-}0.7\mu\text{m}$. Hence a critical value of density of peaks S_{pd} can be defined which
8 183 corresponds to a distance between adjacent peaks equal to the cellular diameter. This value is such that $(1/S_{pd})^{1/2} \approx$
9 184 d , and it is equal to $S_{pd}^{crit} \approx 4\mu\text{m}^{-2}$. For S_{pd} such that $S_{pd} < S_{pd}^{crit}$, we can expect that the most part of bacterial cells
10 185 will stand on the bottom of valleys, thus maximizing the contact area. In addition, since the reduced valley depth
11 186 S_{vk} (see appendix for the formal definition) is related to the surface depth in the bottom of the dales, one can
12 187 expect a correlation between the amount of biofilm and S_{vk} . For high S_{pd} , i. e. such that $S_{pd} > S_{pd}^{crit}$, the bacteria
13 188 will remain in contact with the peaks. Therefore, in an attempt to prevent the formation of biofilm, this situation
14 189 has to be considered preferable. By the definition the reduced peak height parameter S_{pk} , should be correlated
15 190 with the surface height above the mean plane. Therefore, for $S_{pd} > S_{pd}^{crit}$, we can expect a strong correlation
16 191 between this parameter and the amount of biofilm. Finally, for intermediate values of peak density, S_{pd} it can be
17 192 expected that a significant part of the cell surfaces will stand in contact with the sample surface at intermediate
18 193 heights with respect to the mean height line. Consequently, it can be surmised that there should be a correlation
19 194 between the amount of biofilm and the core roughness S_k , that, according to its definition, is related to the core
20 195 height of the surface. However, it is important to emphasize that at the moment these arguments are only
21 196 hypothetical and do not account for additional effects, such as disomogeneities in the chemical composition from
22 197 the summit to the valleys, bacterial motility, dynamics of the fluid containing the bacteria etc. Therefore, these
23 198 theories need to be investigated experimentally.
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201 Figure 2. Schematic illustration of the possible correlations between the amount of bacterial adhesion and the
202 parameters S_{vk} , S_{pk} and S_k in relation with the value of S_{pd} .
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204 3. Materials and laser processing

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206 In order to assess the optimal surface topographies for antifouling a series of irradiated samples consisting of
207 square plates of 50 mm side and thickness of 2 mm, made of AISI 316L stainless steel were examined. AISI
208 316L was chosen as the target material as it is widely employed in food handling and food processing. All the
209 samples had a baseline as-received average roughness $S_a < 0.5\mu\text{m}$. Before the laser treatment, the samples were
210 cleaned for 5 minutes in acetone in an ultrasound bath, following this laser texturing was performed without

shielding gas. Textured surfaces with dimensions of $8 \times 8 \text{ mm}^2$ were obtained by irradiation with linearly horizontally polarized pulses of an Amplitude Systems Satsuma HP3 laser system with average power up to 40 W, the repetition ranged up to 1 MHz, the central wavelength was 1030 nm and the pulse duration was 350 fs. The laser beam was firstly magnified by a factor of three through a beam expander and then directed into a scanning system to provide accurate positioning of the laser pulses. The final focus was achieved using a 100 mm f-theta lens to a spot diameter of approximately $25 \mu\text{m}$. The laser pulse repetition rate, RR and scan speed the scan speed are indicated below. Four different experimental conditions were examined: $RR=100 \text{ kHz}$ and $v = 200 \text{ mm/s}$, $RR=250 \text{ kHz}$ and $v = 500 \text{ mm/s}$, $RR=500 \text{ kHz}$ and $v = 1000 \text{ mm/s}$, and finally $RR=1000 \text{ kHz}$ and $v = 2000 \text{ mm/s}$. The horizontal overlap HOL is defined as :

$$HOL = \frac{d-l}{d} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

where d is the beam diameter and l is the length of the path made by the laser source between two consecutive pulses ($l = v/RR$). The processing conditions specified above were set to maintain the horizontal overlap at 92%, in order to maximize the efficiency of laser ablation. For each combination of scan speed and repetition rate, nine values of laser fluence F (defined as the ratio between the pulse energy and the focused spot area) were chosen, ranging from 0.36 to 2.33 J/cm^2 . The selected range of F was established based on a lower limit necessary to overcome the specific modification threshold of the material and an upper limit to avoid thermal damage and surface melting. A factorial design of experiments was then developed with 4 levels of repetition rate and 9 levels of fluence, giving a total of 36 textured surfaces.

The energy dose, E , was defined as the ratio between the total energy provided to the surface by the radiation and the total irradiated area. Higher energy dose regimes could potentially be achieved also by superimposing multiple successive scans, N . In particular, for this experiment, the same process was repeated for $N = 10$ scans. Therefore, by neglecting thermal losses between two consecutive scans, the total energy doses provided to the surfaces ranged from 178 to 1143 J/cm^2 . Prior to surface characterization, the treated surfaces were emersed in an ultrasonic bath for 10 minutes using ethanol at room temperature, they were then washed with fresh ethanol and finally dried in vacuum at room temperature.

For sake of clarity Table 1 summarizes the process parameters used for the tests together with other process variables which were kept constant in the present study.

Table 1. Process parameters and range of variation. Scan speed was varied according to repetition rate to keep the overlap constant at 92%.

	Value/Range
Wavelength	1030 nm
Pulse duration	350 fs
Repetition rate, RR	100, 250, 500, 1000 kHz
Spot diameter	$25 \mu\text{m}$
Pulse overlap, HOL	92%

Scan speed, v	200, 500, 1000, 2000 mm/s
Hatch distance, H	5 μm
Laser fluence, F	0.36, 0.48, 0.69, 0.86, 1.14, 1.35, 1.69, 1.94, 2.33 J/cm ²
Number of scans, N	10
Energy dose, E	178, 235, 340, 423, 560, 663, 831, 950, 1143 J/cm ²

4. Surface characterization

Surfaces have been firstly inspected from a qualitative point of view using a Phenom desktop scanning electron microscope (SEM). This was done with the objective to ascertain the presence of hierarchical structures by using the maximum allowed depth of focus of the scanning electron microscope at a magnification up to 6000x. The topography of the surfaces as quantified using a Coherence Scanning Interferometer. The experimental apparatus employed was the Taylor-Hobson CCI MP. A 50x objective was used with a Numerical aperture of 0.55 and working distance of 3.4mm. The maximum measurement area is square of size $336 \times 336 \mu\text{m}^2$ where the optical lateral resolving power of the objective is limited to $0.4 \mu\text{m}$ the acquisition software can produce digital maps whose maximum size is 1024×1024 resulting from interpolation procedures. Therefore, the effective resolving power can reach nominal values of approximately 338 nm. A problem concerning the data acquisition with Coherence Scanning Interferometry is related to the fact that, with the numerical aperture specified, the apparatus cannot detect signals originating from surfaces whose slopes are greater than 27.5° . This limit is due to the fact that the light is scattered from the slopes away from the acceptance cone of the objective. This drawback results in the presence of non measured points in the digital maps. To limit this problem, a data binning protocol was applied to the acquired matrices, reducing the size of the maps to 512×512 . This level of binning is a reasonable compromise between the need to minimize the number of non-measured points and the need to minimize the number of optical artifacts in the form of non-physical peaks..

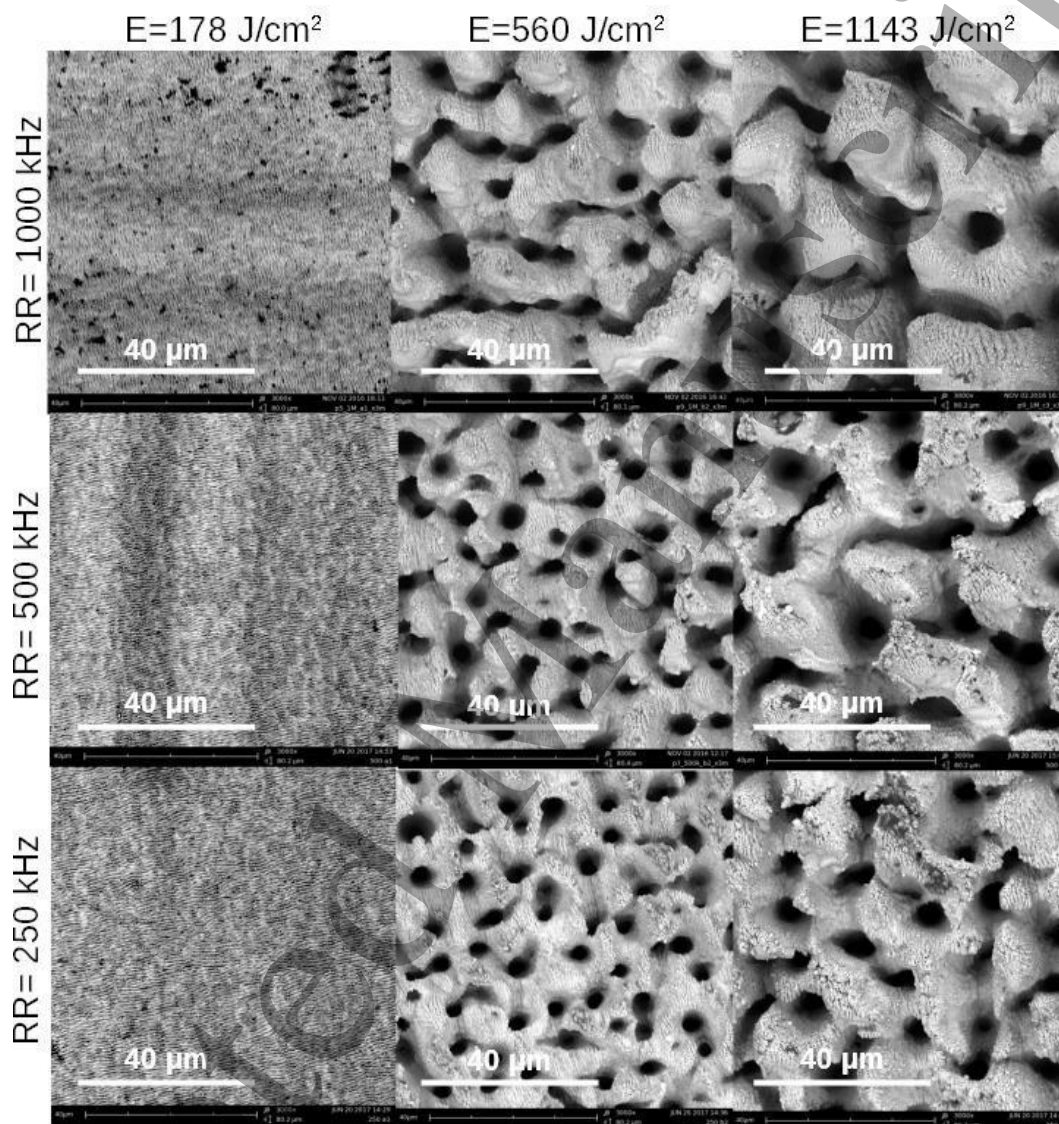
The interferometric maps were first subjected to a spline interpolation procedure, whose aim was to “fill in” the non-measured points resulting from the finite acceptance angle of the objective. The calculation of metrological parameters was performed on previously filtered digital maps. The filtering procedure included a least squares leveling operation, and a Gaussian S-filter with a cutoff wavelength of $2.1 \mu\text{m}$ on both the x and y directions. This filtering procedure had the purpose of cutting-off the noise observed mainly in the maps obtained with low energy doses. The procedures followed for the calculation of the roughness parameters described in this work are explained in detail in the appendix.

5. Results and discussion

In figure 3 a series of SEM images of portions of surfaces obtained with different values of RR and v and for growing values of E provided to the samples is reported. At low E , laser-induced periodic surfaces structures (LIPSS) called LSFL (Low Spatial Frequency LIPSS) are observed. These structures are oriented

275 perpendicularly to the laser polarization and with a period comparable to the laser wavelength. The presence of
 276 LSFL in similar conditions of irradiation has been previously assessed in other works in literature [44, 45, 46,
 277 47].

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279
 280 Figure 3. SEM images of the laser ablated surfaces obtained with different values of RR (on the left) and for
 281 growing values of E (on the top) provided to the samples.
 282

283 By increasing the E parameter, LIPSS are replaced with columnar structures whose transversal dimensions
 284 increase with increasing E . In addition, it's possible to distinguish periodic features, situated on the top of such
 285 columnar structures. SEM images obtained at higher resolutions than those showed in fig. 3 reveal that these
 286 periodic features have a period comparable with the laser wavelength. Another interesting feature concerning the
 287 experimental conditions with which the laser texturing has been performed is the variation of the surface
 288 morphology with the RR for a given value of energy dose E . In particular, by fixing E , a decrease in RR seems to
 289 reduce the transversal dimension of the columnar structures.

Several physical phenomena are expected to contribute to the morphologies observed. First of all, at lower energy doses Marangoni convection, driven by the high thermal gradients generated by the ultrafast laser-matter interaction, has been proposed as the dominant physical process that occurs [48]. At higher E , the common idea is that the surface morphology is the result of a modulated energy deposition due to the interference between the laser pulses and surface plasmon polaritons (SPP). By further increasing the E parameter, the carrier densities reach values for which the formation of SPPs can't occur anymore. In this situation, the dominant mechanisms that control the surface morphology change and a transition from LIPSS to bumps is observed. The decrease in the spike width for decreasing values of RR is confirmed by a qualitative analysis of the interferometric maps reported in figure 4. In fact, in the topographic view we observe a decrease in the height of the structures by decreasing the repetition rate

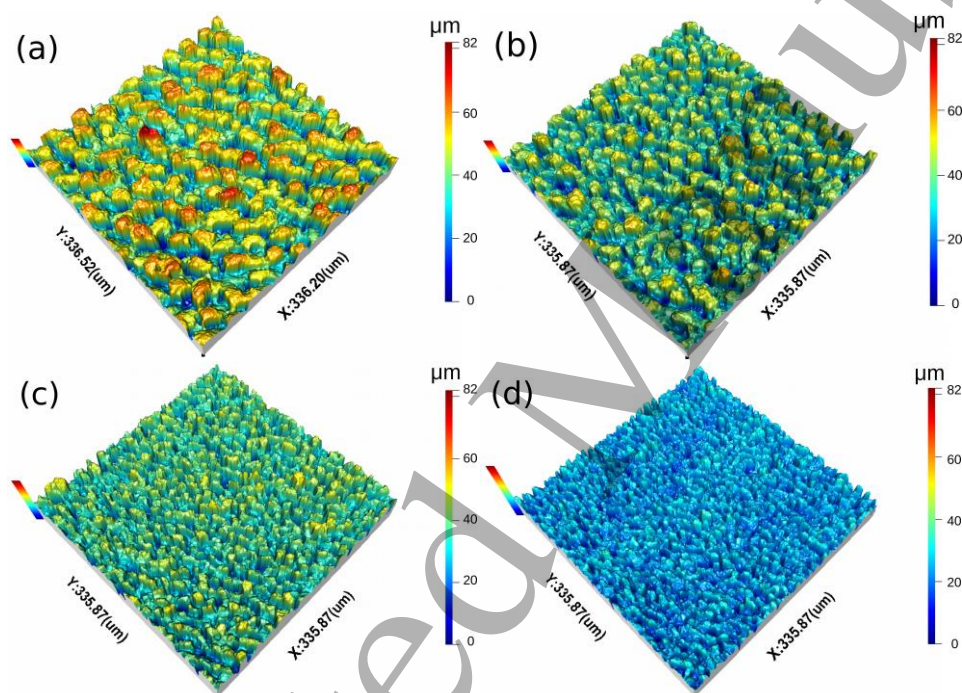
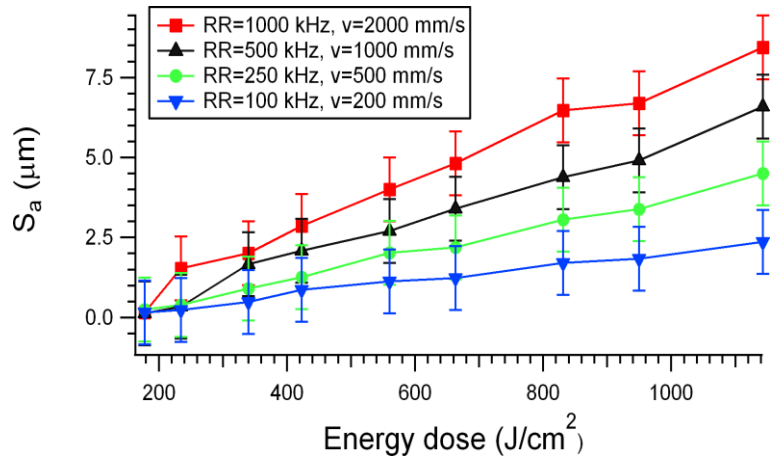
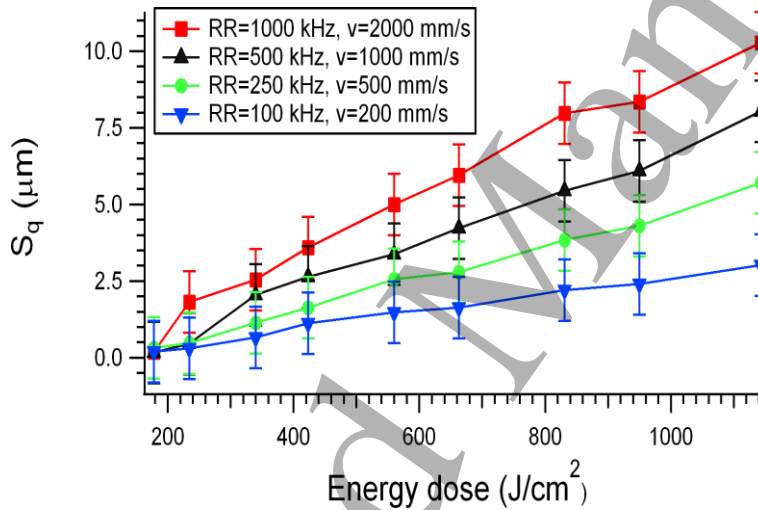


Figure 4. Interferometric 3D maps regarding textures obtained using $E=1143\text{J}/\text{cm}^2$: (a) $RR=1000$ kHz, $v = 2000\text{mm}/\text{s}$; (b) $RR= 500$ kHz, $v = 1000\text{mm}/\text{s}$; (c) $RR=250$ kHz, $v = 500\text{mm}/\text{s}$; (d) $RR=100$ kHz, $v = 200\text{mm}/\text{s}$.

In figs. 5 and 6 the plot of the average roughness S_a and RMS roughness S_q vs the energy dose E is shown. The two graphs show that S_a and S_q increase almost linearly with E , indicating that the increase in the transversal size with E showed in figure 3 is accompanied by an increase in the average height. The slope of the linear dependence decreases for decreasing values of repetition rate.

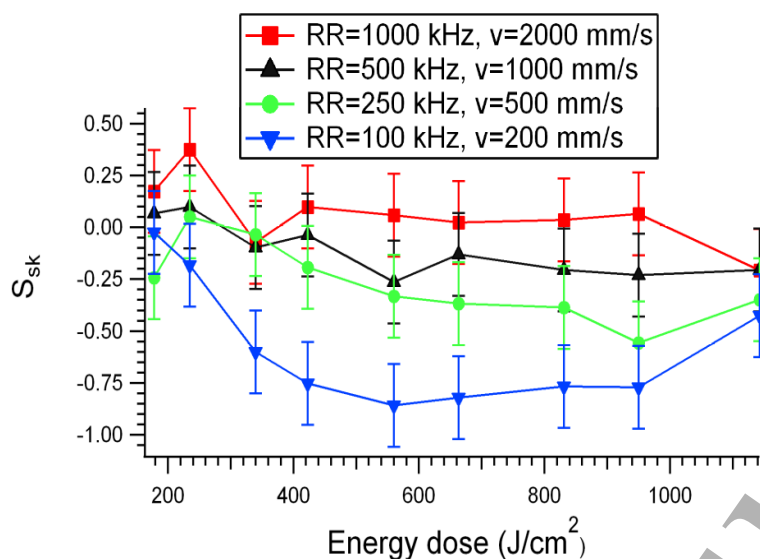


314
315 Figure 5. Evolution of the average roughness S_a with the energy dose E for ultrashort laser textured surfaces
316 (evaluation area: $336 \times 336 \mu\text{m}^2$). The error bars associated to the values of E have the same size of the markers
317 (standard deviation).
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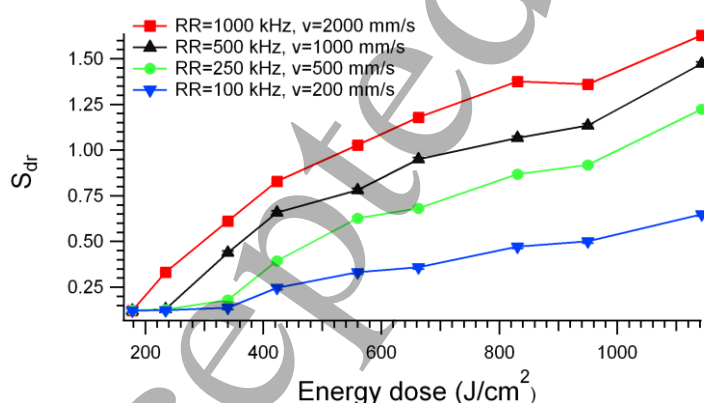
320
321 Figure 6. Evolution of the RMS roughness S_q with the energy dose E for ultrashort laser textured surfaces
322 (evaluation area: $336 \times 336 \mu\text{m}^2$). The error bars associated to the values of E have the same size of the markers
323 (standard deviation).
324

325 While the correlation expressed in figs 5-6 are quite well defined, the correlation between E and the skewness S_{sk}
326 (figure 7) is less evident. However, some interesting conclusions can be drawn by observing this last parameter.
327 S_{sk} seems to be almost constant or weakly decreasing as a function of E for all the experimental conditions..
328 According to the definition of S_{sk} [49], the decrease of S_{sk} for decreasing values of RR means that the surface is
329 increasing valley dominated. This increasingly negative value will be self limiting and then reverse when the so
330 called valleys grow in lateral extent to a point where the calculated mean plane shifts downwards. This effect is
331 due to the ablation of material that, according to the qualitative observations made on the interferometric maps, is
332 more effective for low values of RR and v where the valley features are relatively isolated compared to the
333 surrounding topography [50].
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337 Figure 7. Evolution of the skewness S_{sk} with the energy dose E for ultrashort laser textured surfaces (evaluation
338 area: $336 \times 336 \mu\text{m}^2$). The error bars associated to the values of E have the same size of the markers (standard
339 deviation).

340 With regard to the behaviour of S_{dr} , a strong correlation between this parameter and E was observed. In particular
341 an increasing level with E similar to that found for S_a and S_q was observed. The S_{dr} parameter takes account of
342 the ratio between the actual surface area and the projected measurement area (for further information, see the
343 appendix). Therefore, it can be seen that the ablation process increases the total interfacial area with energy
344 doses. According to some studies on the influence of surface roughness on bacterial adhesion [24], an increase in
345 the interfacial area is not necessarily reflected in an increase in the surface available for cellular attachment. In
346 particular, as we pointed out in the section 2, large areas could trap air bubbles, thus hindering cellular adhesion.
347 Further investigations on the bacterial attachment have to be performed in order to clarify this point.



349
350 Figure 8. Evolution of the developed area ratio S_{dr} with the energy dose E for ultrashort laser textured surfaces
351 (evaluation area: $336 \times 336 \mu\text{m}^2$). The error bars associated to the values of E and S_{dr} have the same size of the
352 markers (standard deviation).

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In figure 9 the density of peaks S_{pd} is plotted versus the quantity E . First of all, we note that the reported curves, corresponding to fixed values of RR , have a well defined behaviour for high energy doses, in accordance with the qualitative observation of SEM and interferometric data. In particular, for fixed RR , S_{pd} decreases with increasing E , with a rate depending on the repetition rate, indicating an increase in the overall size of the surface structures. In addition, a decrease in RR at fixed E leads to textures with denser peaks, with greater values of S_{pd} . This trend confirms the qualitative observations made on the interferometric maps. For decreasing energy doses, the limits in the resolution of the Coherence Scanning Interferometer become more and more evident. In particular, the calculation of S_{pd} is heavily affected by the occurrence of the transition between bumps and LIPSS, represented approximately by the dashed vertical line in figure 9. Another crucial point is that none of the surfaces examined here seem to match the condition on the values of S_{pd} defined in section 2. However, peaks of sizes of 1 - 1.5 μm are distinguishable in the SEM images (figure 3, for $E = 178.0 \text{ J/cm}^2$). Such peaks either cannot be resolved in the interferometric maps, or they are excluded from the counting of peaks by the procedure for the calculation of S_{pd} dictated by the ISO standard. Moreover, SEM images obtained with higher resolution show that all the surfaces present a hierarchical shape. Therefore, an additional investigations on the S_{pd} parameter with microscopies that allow to resolve sub-micrometric features and concrete tests on the bacterial adhesion are needed in order to clarify this point. In addition we cannot exclude effects of the extracellular polymeric substance or of the cell curvature that should in principle relax the requirements made here.

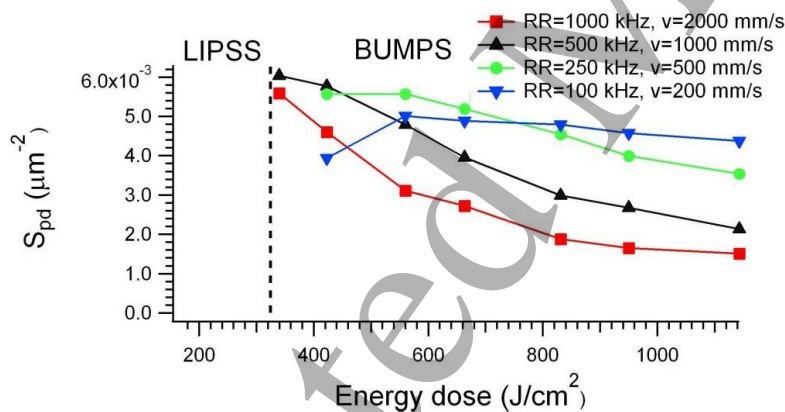


Figure 9. Evolution of the density of peaks S_{pd} with the energy dose E for ultrashort laser textured surfaces (evaluation area: $336 \times 336 \mu\text{m}^2$). The dashed vertical line represents a qualitative estimate of the value of E at which a transition between bumps and LIPSS occurs. The error bars associated to the values of E have the same size of the markers (standard deviation).

In figures 10-12 the parameters S_k , S_{pk} and S_{vk} as a function of E are shown. All the parameters show an increasing behaviour for increasing values of E with a growth rate that decreases for decreases in RR . This behaviour is more evident on the S_k parameter, that is related to the depth of the core roughness. The behaviour of S_k has similarities to that of S_a and S_{a_s} since S_k measures an amplitude property.

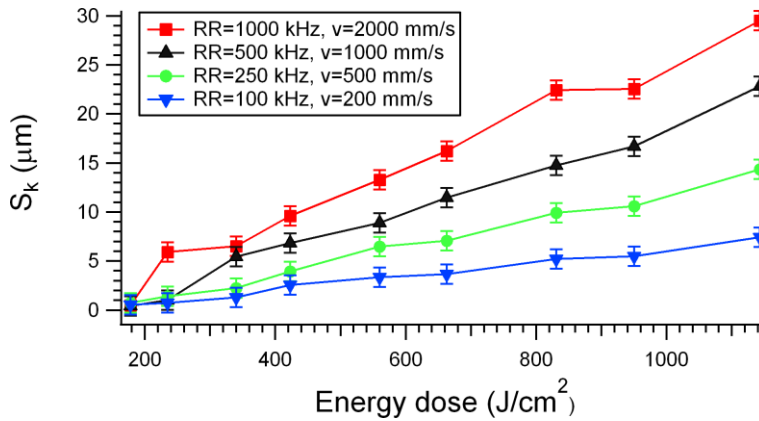


Figure 10. Evolution of the core roughness S_k with the energy dose E for ultrashort laser textured surfaces (evaluation area: $336 \times 336 \mu\text{m}^2$). The error bars associated to the values of E have the same size of the markers (standard deviation).

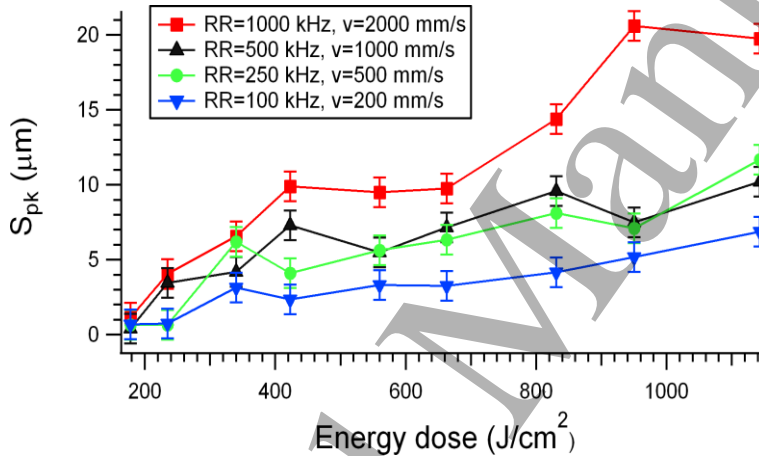


Figure 11. Evolution of the reduced peak height S_{pk} with the energy dose E for ultrashort laser textured surfaces (evaluation area: $336 \times 336 \mu\text{m}^2$). The error bars associated to the values of E have the same size of the markers (standard deviation).

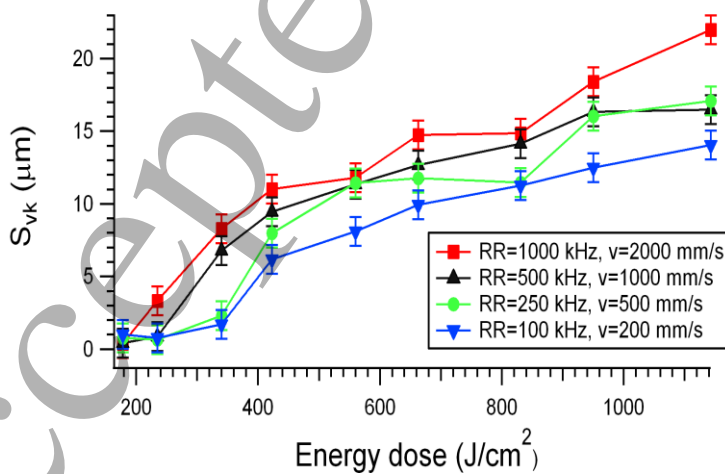


Figure 12. Evolution of the reduced valley depth S_{vk} with the energy dose E for ultrashort laser textured surfaces (evaluation area: $336 \times 336 \mu\text{m}^2$). The error bars associated to the values of E have the same size of the markers.

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7 402 According to the definitions of S_{pk} and S_{vk} , the graphs observed in figs. 11 and 12 show that the increase in E
8 403 causes an increase in the depth of the highest peaks (S_{pk} vs E) and an increase in the depth of the deepest dales
9 404 (S_{vk} vs E). However, S_{pk} seems to be more sensitive to the choice of RR than S_{vk} .

10 405 11 406 **6. Further development**

12 407
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14 408 According to the main theories on the correlation between surface roughness and cellular adhesion, outlined in
15 409 the section 2, the laser treatments regarding the surfaces obtained at energy doses greater than 235 J/cm^2 seem to
16 410 be not suitable for the realization of antibacterial surfaces, i. e. do not satisfy the condition outlined in the section
17 411 2 for antibacterial surfaces. Unfortunately, the resolution of the Coherence Scanning Interferometer employed to
18 412 perform the topographical analysis of the surfaces didn't allow full resolution of the surface structures obtained
19 413 at energy doses less than 235 J/cm^2 . Further investigations are needed in order to obtain topographical maps with
20 414 better resolution. Furthermore, concrete measurements of bacterial attachment have to be performed in order to
21 415 assess if these surfaces are antibacterial with respect to the non treated substrate and to quantify whether the
22 416 amount of biofilm is correlated with the specific processing conditions. In addition, it could be interesting verify
23 417 which parts of the surface texture bacterial cells adhere preferentially, in order to establish if the conditions
24 418 defined in the section 2, based on the so-called "sheltering effect" and on the contact area between a single cell
25 419 and the substratum are correct. However, the general conclusion that can be drawn from the overall
26 420 topographical analysis is that structures with smaller and denser surface structures have to be realized in order to
27 421 reach the size of bacterial cells. This aim could be reached with two strategies. First of all, one of the advantages
28 422 provided by ultrashort laser treatment is the possibility to obtain hierarchical surface structures with a relatively
29 423 low number of pulses. Therefore, for laser fluences well above the ablation threshold, a reduction in the number
30 424 of passes provided to the target could reduce the risk to partially cancel the structures created by the first pulses.
31 425 Secondly, according to the main theories on the formation of LIPSS [25], smaller structures could be obtained
32 426 with lower wavelengths, e. g. by working in the UV spectrum. Another open point is the influence of the surface
33 427 chemistry induced by the laser processing on the bacterial attachment. The laser treatment induces the formation
34 428 of a layer of oxide [51]. However, it isn't clear how the interaction between this layer and the cell wall or the
35 429 extracellular polymeric substance influences bacterial adhesion. Therefore, further investigations on chemical
36 430 nature of the surfaces realized, e. g. XPS spectrometry, could be useful to clarify this point.

37 431 38 432 39 433 40 434 **7. Conclusions**

41 435
42 436 In this work a detailed characterization of surface morphology of stainless steel surfaces textured by an ultrashort
43 437 pulsed laser was performed. The metrological parameters employed have been calculated within the framework
44 438 of the standard ISO 25178. It is evident however that the laser ablation increases the global level of roughness as
45 439 a function of the energy dose E . This trend means that there is an increase in the average height of surface

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7 440 structures, evident in the behaviour of S_a and S_q , an increase in the average peak spacing, as shown in the
8 441 behaviour of S_{pd} , and an increase in the core height, as shown by S_k , when the energy dose delivered to the
9 442 surface increases. The calculation performed indicates also S_{sk} is less easy to control by acting on the laser
10 443 parameters. However, the substantial behaviour of such parameter indicates that the laser ablation increases the
11 444 fraction of surface occupied by dales over the fraction occupied by peaks. The S_{dr} parameter reveals that, for
12 445 growing energy doses, the total surface area increases, due to the ablation process. As pointed out in the section
13 446 5, we cannot as yet establish if this property is deleterious in the attempt to realize an antibiofouling surface. In
14 447 particular further investigations on the power of trapping air bubbles and experiments on bacterial adhesion are
15 448 needed in order to clarify this point. Finally, the parameters S_{pk} and S_{vk} show that the increase in the structure
16 449 size corresponds to a relative decrease in the average heights of peaks and dales. In addition it was ascertained
17 450 that none of the surfaces examined seems to match the conditions on S_{pd} defined to grant an antibiofouling
18 451 property, at least from the measurement defined so far. Furthermore, the values of S_a observed in almost all the
19 452 surfaces analyzed are far greater than the thresholds of normally indicated in the commonly adopted ISO norms
20 453 for hygienic surfaces specified in the section 2. However, it is expected that sub-micrometric features
21 454 characterizing surface textures realized with ultrashort laser treatment, should lead to higher
22 455 values S_{pd} approaching the requested value of 4 peaks per squared micron. Analyses of biofilm formation will be
23 456 performed on larger areas textured with the parameters combinations hypothesized in this work in order to
24 457 clarify if the guidelines for the surface design are enough for a preliminary planning of anti-adhesion
25 458 functionalities for healthcare applications.

36 460 **Appendix: definitions of areal surface parameters**

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38 462
39 463 In the following, metrological parameters that have been employed to describe the topography of the surfaces
40 464 characterized in this article will be described. As already mentioned, all the parameters are included in the
41 465 standard ISO 25178. The correlation with the amount of cellular adhesion has already been observed for some of
42 466 the parameters presented here [52, 53, 54, 55], while for the others this correlation has to be verified with
43 467 experimental observations.

44 468 The topographical information consists in a real matrix, whose elements $\{z_{i,j}\}$, with $i=1,\dots,N_x$, $j=1,\dots,N_y$,
45 469 represent the local height with respect to the average plane.

46 470 The most commonly adopted parameter to characterize the global level of roughness is the so-called *average*
47 471 *roughness* S_a , defined as

$$48 472 \quad 49 473 \quad 50 474 \quad 51 475 \quad 52 476 \quad 53 477 \quad 54 478 \quad 55 479 \quad 56 480 \quad 57 481 \quad 58 482 \quad 59 483 \quad 60 484$$

$$S_a = \frac{1}{N_x N_y} \sum_{i=1}^{N_x} \sum_{j=1}^{N_y} |z_{i,j}| \quad (2)$$

Another widespread roughness parameter is the *RMS roughness* S_q , defined as

$$S_q = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N_x N_y} \sum_{i=1}^{N_x} \sum_{j=1}^{N_y} z_{i,j}^2} \quad (3)$$

478

479 Despite both S_a and S_q give a measure of the average deviation of the surface topography from the mean line
 480 from the mean plane, the RMS roughness is considered more meaningful than the average roughness, because it
 481 represents the standard deviation of the distribution of heights.

482 It's common for two surfaces with clearly different structures to have similar values of S_a and S_q [56].

483 Therefore, the description of surface topography is usually enriched by introducing moments of the height
 484 distribution of successive orders, in particular Skewness S_{sk} and Kurtosis S_{ku} [57]. However, in this work S_{ku} has
 485 been found weakly correlated with the processing parameters. For this reason, in this analysis, S_{ku} has been
 486 neglected.

487 The *skewness* parameter is defined as the moment of the 3rd order of the distribution of heights, and it is given
 488 by

489

$$S_{sk} = \frac{1}{S_q^3 N_x N_y} \sum_{i=1}^{N_x} \sum_{j=1}^{N_y} z_{i,j}^3 \quad (4)$$

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492 Skewness quantifies the asymmetry of the distribution of heights with respect to the mean value. In particular,
 493 $S_{sk} > 0$ indicates a dominance in peaks over valleys, while $S_{sk} < 0$ indicates a dominance in valleys over peaks.

494 One of the most relevant effects of laser treatment is the increase of the total interfacial area. To quantify this
 495 increase, the *developed area ratio* S_{dr} has been introduced. It is defined as

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$$S_{dr} = \frac{A_{interf} - A}{A} \quad (5)$$

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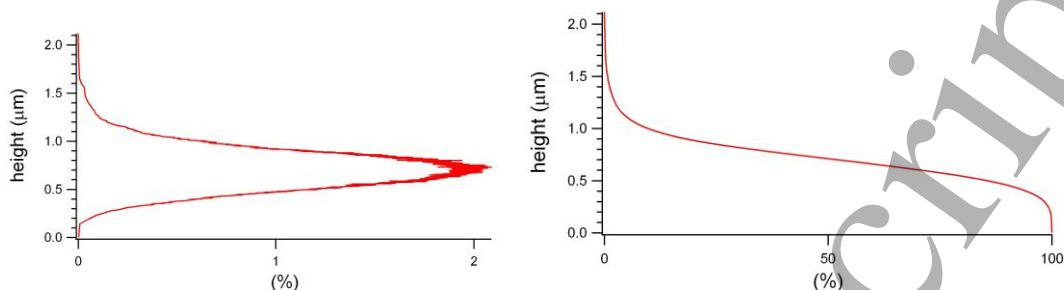
499 where A_{interf} is the total interface area, calculated with a process of triangulation, while A is the projection of
 500 A_{interf} on the mean plane. In other words, this dimensionless parameter increases with increases of the interfacial
 501 area.

502 The *density of peaks* S_{pd} is the number of peaks for unit of surface. One of the most relevant problems regarding
 503 the calculation of such parameter is the tendency to overestimate the number of hills and, therefore, the value of
 504 S_{pd} . According to the ISO standard employed, the S_{pd} parameter was calculated on the filtered maps by applying,
 505 in sequence, the watershed algorithm on the topographical map multiplied by -1, in order to segment the hills,
 506 and a Wolf pruning algorithm of $0.2 \mu\text{m}$, in order to exclude non significant peaks from the density
 507 calculations[58]. In particular, due to the limits in the resolution specified in the section 5, the surface analysis
 508 was limited to the micrometric motifs. All the calculations were performed on an evaluation area of 336×336
 509 μm^2 . This area was judged large enough to ensure a statistical significance to the calculations.

510 Finally, the so-called functional parameters, the *core roughness* S_k , the *reduced peak height* S_{pk} and the *reduced*
 511 *valley depth* S_{vk} have been analyzed. These parameters are derived from the so called *Abbott-Firestone curve*,

512 defined as the integral of the distribution of heights (see fig. 1).

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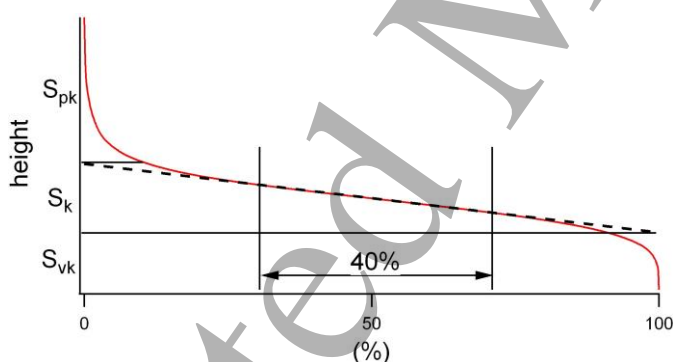
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515 Figure 1: Example showing the typical shape of an height distribution (left) and the corresponding Abbott-
516 Firestone curve (right).

517

518 According to the ISO 12178 standard, the three functional parameters studied in this work have been determined
519 by considering the secant to the Abbott-Firestone curve, passing through the points corresponding to the value of
520 of 0% and 40% on the horizontal axis. The procedure consists in translating these two points along the horizontal
521 axis by maintaining the horizontal relative distance of 40% until the absolute value of the slope of the secant to
522 the curve reaches a minimum [59]. This final situation is represented by the dashed line shown in the scheme in
523 fig. 2.

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527 Figure 2: Scheme showing the the Abbott-Firestone curve and the corresponding functional parameters S_k , S_{pk}
528 and S_{vk} .

529

530 At this point the functional parameters S_k , S_{pk} and S_{vk} are defined as the lengths shown in fig. 2.

531

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