# Atomic Force Microscopy: Principles, Instrumentation, and Applications

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Literature:

1) V. L. Mironov, Fondamenti di Microscopia a Scansione di Sonda, tutto

Additional

2) A. Foster, W. Hofer, Scanning Probe Microscopy
3) B. Bhushan, Scanning Probe Microscopy in Nanoscience and Nanotechnology

# Outline

# Part 1: AFM, instrumentations, principles and mode of operations

 SPM: The principle of a local probe
 Scanning Tunneling Microscopy (STM): the basis for the AFM

3) Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM): basic ideas and concepts

Part 2: Applications to Nanoscale Characterizations, Manipulation and Fabrications

1) "Physical Applications":

2) "Chemical Applications":

3) "Biological and medical Applications":

# Part 1: A Review of Scanning Probe Microscopy

## 1) SPM: The principle of a local probe



G. Binning, H. Rohrer, Rev. Mod. Phys. 71, S324 (1999)

Needs for SPM:

- 1) Characterization of the basic properties of the matter at atomic and molecular scale:
  - Structural (imaging);
  - Electrical;
  - Mechanical;
  - Magnetic
- 2) Manipulation of the matter at atomic and molecular scale (Manipulation, Nanofabrication,....).

The "Touch" of a local probe with the nanoobject is given by the type of interaction, which addresses a distinct property, process or function by the strenght of the interaction.



B: Macroscopic parameter A: Microscopic parameter

## 2) History of Scanning Probe Microscopes

1981: Scanning Tunneling Microscope (STM) invented by Gerd Binnig & Heinrich Rohrer



7x7 reconstruction of Si(111). (a) Relief assembled from the original recorder traces, from Binning et al. (b) Processed image of the 7x7 reconstruction of Si(111). Characteristic of the rhombohedral surface unit cell are the corner hole and the 12 maxima, the adatoms. In the processed images, the six adatoms in the right half of the rhombi appear higher. (Phys. Rev. Lett. 50, 120, 1983)



## 1985: Atomic Force Microscope (AFM) invented by: Gerd Binnig, Calvin Quate & Christoph Gerber



Science Museum (London)

### 1986: Gerd Binnig and Heinrich Rohrer shared the Nobel Prize

3) Scanning Tunneling Microscope (STM)

3.1) System Components and Principles of Operation:

- Tunneling Current

- Scansion (Piezoelectric Tube)

- Feedback system

3.2) Operating modes

3.3) Applications

3.4) Advantages & Disadvantages

### 3.1) STM System Components and Principles of operation

When the tip of the STM probe is sufficiently close to the surface of the specimen ( $\sim 1$ nm) a tunneling current can become established Ζ Х-X+ Piezoelectric tube Y+ Scanning & Feedback Control Tunneling Current Tip Amplifier Sample Data processing Tunneling & Display Voltage

#### Principles of STM: A) Tunneling Current



Microscopy", Rev. Mod. Phys. 75, 949 (2003)

The probe is <u>scanned</u> over the surface in a raster pattern similar to that of a SEM. Each coordinate (X,Y, & Z) is recorded by a computer.



The ability to precisely position the probe of an STM is made possible by an XYZ Piezo-Scanner which coupled to a feedback regulator keeps track of the tunneling current and precisely positions the tip accordingly.

# X+ Y+ X-

#### Piezoelectric tube scanner

Piezoelectric materials are used to create a tube scanner. This forms one of the basic components of scanning probe microscopes. These can be used to manipulate an object in three dimensions under electronic control.

## Piezoelectric Effect

- Certain materials exhibit what is called the piezoelectric effect.

- This is an effect where changing the size of an object results in a voltage being generated by the object.

- Conversely when a voltage is applied to a piezoelectric object then the size of the object changes.

Crystals which acquire a charge when compressed, twisted or distorted are said to be piezoelectric. Piezoelectric ceramic materials have found use in producing motions on the order of nanometers in the control of STMs and other devices.

Deformation tensor



components

Electric field components

 Lead zirconium titanate is one of the most common piezoelectric materials. Resolution: 1nm/V

 a.)
 b.)
 c.)

 Image: Common piezoelectric materials. Resolution: 1nm/V

 a.)
 b.)
 c.)

 Image: Common piezoelectric materials. Resolution: 1nm/V

 Image: Common piezoelectric materials. Resolectric materials. Resolution: 1nm/V





Drawback 1: non-linearity of the piezoelectric effect



So, in general, real systems work at E<E\*

#### Drawback 2: Hysteresis



Z depends on the value and sign of the control signal V $\rightarrow$ distorsion of the acquired image. It is important to minimize the hysteresis effect



#### Feedback system



The FS maintains constant the value of a P parameter (equal to a value  $P_0$  chosen by the operator). If the tip-sample surface changes then P changes. In the FS the  $\Delta P=P-P_0$  is amplified and transmitted (by a transducer) to the piezoelectric system (PT) which controls the tip-sample distance. The transducer exploits the  $\Delta P$  signal to change the tip-sample distance in order to reestablish the condition  $\Delta P=0$ . In such a way the tip-sample distance can be controlled, potentially, with ~0.01  $\bar{X}$ .

# 3.2) Operating modes

- Constant height mode
  - Current changes exponentially
  - Requires a smooth surface
- Constant current mode
  - Beware of insulators



Constant\_height\_mode\_en\_n.swf



Constant Current mode\_en\_n.swf



Constant Height mode: If the Z position of the tip is kept constant the tunneling current will change as it moves across the surface. If the changes in current are recorded the then the topography of the specimen can be inferred. Constant Current mode: If the tunneling current is kept constant the Z position of the tip must be moved up and down. If this movement is recorded then the topography of the specimen can be inferred.

# 3.4) STM Advantages & Disadvantages

## Advantages

- Able to obtain very high resolution images of conductors and semiconductors.
  - Inexpensive to purchase
  - Disadvantages
  - Will not work with insulators.
- <u>If there are insulating materials present on the sample you</u> <u>can crash the tip.</u>

- Often need to be used under vacuum.

4) Atomic Force Microscope

4.1) System Components and Principles of Operation:

- Tip, Laser, Piezoelectric Tube
  - Force vs Distance
  - 4.2) Operating modes
- 4.3) AFM Cantilevers and Tips

4.4) Applications

4.5) Advantages & Disadvantages

## 4.1) AFM System Components and Principles of Operation



The atomic force microscope (AFM), uses a sharp tip attached to the end of a cantilever rasters across an area while a laser and photodiode are used to monitor the tip force on the surface. A feedback loop between the photodiode and the piezo crystal maintains a constant force during contact mode imaging and constant amplitude during intermittent mode imaging.

# <u>As with STM the probe is rastered by the</u> <u>movement of a Piezo-electric device</u>

## Force vs Distance



Microscopy", Rev. Mod. Phys. 75, 949 (2003)



- The probe is actually in contact with the specimen and is physically moved up and down due to the repulsion of van der Waals forces

- As with the STM the probe tip of an AFM must be very small but because there is no need to establish a tunneling current one can use a variety of materials, not just those with a low workfunction.

- The AFM records the position of the probe by bouncing a laser off the back surface of the probe and recording how the light is deflected









Two types of force can be recorded by this configuration: The attractive or repulsive force in the z-direction or the or the lateral force.



By using a four quadrant detector the relative amount of laser light hitting each quadrant can be used to determine how the tip has been deflected as it moves over the surface of the specimen Photodetector



Second: Adjust detector alignment until red lights are out and green light is on.

# SPM Scan Head



First: Adjust cantilever alignment so laser is aligned on the cantilever



#### Contact mode









# 4.3) AFM cantilevers and tips













## Influence of the tip shape and dimension



# 4.4) AFM Applications

a) High resolution (atomic) topography: Contact and Non-contact





#### b) Lateral Force Microscopy (or Phase Imaging)

- Lateral Force Microscopy (LFM) is a secondary contact AFM mode that detects and maps relative differences in the frictional forces between the probe tip and the sample surface. In LFM, the scanning is always perpendicular to the long axis of the cantilever. Forces on the cantilever that are parallel to the plane of the sample surface cause twisting of the cantilever around its long axis. This twisting is measured by a quad-cell Position Sensitive PhotoDetector (PSPD).

-<u>This mode goes beyond topographical data</u> to detect variations in composition, adhesion, friction, viscoelasticity, and other properties, including electric and magnetic. Applications include contaminant identification, mapping of components in composite materials, differentiating regions of high and low surface adhesion or hardness and regions of different electrical or magnetic properties.



c) Conductive Atomic Force Microscopy



d) Surface Potential Microscopy



TappingMode Topography (left) and Surface Potential (Right) images of an area on a CD-RW. The bits are depicted only in the Surface Potential image. 5Čm scans

#### e) Electric Force Microscopy



f) Magnetic Force Microscopy



MFM maps the magnetic domains of the sample surface.

#### g) Scanning Capacitance Microscopy



Contact Mode topography (left) and SCM dC/dV images of a cross-sectioned transistor in a Pentium-II chip. 1.25Čm scans.

#### h) Scanning Spreading Microscopy



SSRM (left) and contact mode topography (right) scans of an InP based heterostructure. 7mm scans. The contrast in the SSRM imag shows the different regions of the heterostructure: alternating Zndoped p-type and S-doped n-type layers.

#### i) Scanning probe thermal microscopy





# 3.4) AFM Advantages & Disadvantages

- The piezoelectric tubes have a movement resolution of 1 nm/volt (Resolution of 10 pm).
- Can operate in air and under liquids
- Atomic force microscopes can be used on many different surfaces (conductive, non-conductive, hard, soft,....)
- AFM is a versatile tool.
- In all three resolution is largely dependent on <u>probe</u> size and the ability to control scanning.
- AFM is, mainly, a surface technique.



Watch the AFM tip at work, with the DME BRR, a fully integrated hybrid SEM AFM system.mp4

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yvZIeHfF364

# Part 2: Applications to Nanoscale Characterization of Surfaces and Interfaces
- Materials and manufacturing
- Nanoelectronics and computer technology
- Medicine and health
- · Aeronautics and space exploration
- · Environment and energy
- · Biotechnology and agriculture
- National security and other government applications
- Science and education
- Global and trade competitiveness

## 1) "Physical Applications"

## a) Atomic resolution imaging of metal, semiconductos and insulator surfaces



#### Atom recognition using AFM:

(a) Schematic illustration of the dynamic AFM; (b) The atomic contrast originates from the chemical bonding between the outermost tip atom and the surface atom; (c) Force curves showing the calculated vdW force, the measured short-range chemical force and the total force. (d) The topographic image of a single atom layer of Sn grown over a Si (111) substrate. The Pb layer. The diminished topographic contrast indicate substitutional Si defects. Image size 4.3 nm.



2x1 reconstruction of Si(001)







7x7 reconstruction of Si(001)









### 1 monoatomic layer of Ag on Si(111)



#### b) Imaging of nanostructures on surfaces





c) Probing nanoscale electrical properties and single electron phenomena

Electric probe of quantum confined systems



I=VG

I~VG

Macroscpic physics (macroscopic electron transport)

 $G=(2\pi/h)T$ 

Mesoscopic physics (nanoscopic electron transport)

*E. Bar-Sadeh et al., Phys. Rev. B* 50, 8961(*R*) (1994)



FIG. 1. A schematic of the experimental setup; a granular  $Au/Al_2O_3$  film sandwiched between a STM tip and a metal substrate. A tunneling path across a triple-barrier tunnel junction is indicated by arrows. The equivalent electrical circuit is shown to the right.



## Conductive AFM (C-AFM)



 $U = U_0 + U_1 \cdot \sin(\omega t) - \varphi(x, y)$  Potential difference between tip and sample

$$E = \frac{CU^2}{2}$$
 Electrostatic energy (C=tip-sample capacitance)  

$$F_z = -\frac{1}{2} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} U_0 - \varphi(x,y) \end{bmatrix}^2 + 2\begin{bmatrix} U_0 - \varphi(x,y) \end{bmatrix} U_1 \sin(\omega t) + \frac{1}{2} U_1^2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \cos^2(\omega t) \end{bmatrix}^2 \frac{\partial C}{\partial z}$$
 Electrostatic force in the z-direction  

$$F_{z(\omega=0)} = -\left\{ \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} (U_0 - \varphi(x,y))^2 + \frac{1}{2} U_1^2 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \frac{\partial C}{\partial z}$$
 
$$F_{z(\omega)} = -\begin{bmatrix} (U_0 - \varphi(x,y)) \cdot U_1 \sin(\omega t) \end{bmatrix} \frac{\partial C}{\partial z}$$
 
$$F_{z(2\omega)} = \left\{ \frac{1}{4} U_1^2 \cos(2\omega t) \right\}$$



Topography (A) and current (B) image of a Europiumdoped ZnO sample at a bias of 1.5 volts, 2µm scan. Corresponding IV curves (C) recorded at three specific positions from those indicated in B. The curves are consistent with the current contrast observed in 2B. Specifically, the conductance is highest at the black location, in between at the red, and lowest at the blue.

http://www.asylumresearch.com/Gallery/Mate rials/Conductive/Conductive5.shtml



4, 534 (2005)

L (nm)



FIG. 10. Contact potential image of a palladium line on gold showing a 65 mV difference in contact potential between palladium and gold; field of view is  $8 \mu m \times 6 \mu m$ .

### Surface potential imaging

S. Kalinin, A. Gruverman (Eds.), Scanning probe microscopy: electrical and electromechanical phenomena at the nanoscale, Springer 2007

#### oxide







## d) Nanoscale capacitive mapping (scanning capacitance microscopy)

Nano-MOS

S (semiconductor)

M (metal, tip)

O (oxide)



FIGURE 1. Block diagram of a scanning capacitance microscope configured for constant  $\Delta V$  mode operation [16]. (Copyright American Institute of Physics 1996, used with permission.)







FIGURE 10. (a) SCM image of the IMEC n-step staircase structure. Lowest dopant concentration is on the right side of the image [57]. (b) One-dimensional dopant profile extracted from the center of the SCM image of the staircase structure [57].

S. Kalinin, A. Gruverman (Eds.), Scanning probe microscopy: electrical and electromechanical phenomena at the nanoscale, Springer 2007



Figure 2. Scanning Capacitance Microscopy of a 0.18 nm FET. Contrast in capacitance is related to local dopant concentration. Source, drain and gate are indicated, along with the channel. This data demonstrates that spatial resolution on the order of tens of nms is necessary to characterize variations in this device. (courtesy of C. C. Williams)

## e) Nanoscale probing of magnetic and spin-dependent properties







### $5x5\;\mu m$



http://archives.sensorsmag.com/articles/10 99/6/ An array of nanomagnets (Co) as seen by a magnetic force microscope. This is a false-color image of the magnetic fields, rather than of the actual dots of magnetic material. White areas indicate magnetic field lines coming up out of the plane of the image, and dark areas indicate field lines going down into the plane. Each magnet appears as a dipole with a pole at each end and field lines curving up and around between the poles. All the dipoles here are aligned in the same direction except one.

### f) Nanoscale probing of mechanical properties: force-distance spectroscopy





Fig. 16.10. (a) Friction-type measurements on top of a ZnO NW. (b) The initial slope of lateral force-displacement curves is used to calculate the tangential shear modulus. The arrows on the friction loops indicate the scan direction. As illustrated in (a), the lateral force is proportional to the lateral signal from the photodiode (Reprinted with permission from Stan et al. [41]. Copyright 2007 American Chemical Society)

G. Stan et al., Nano Lett. 7, 3691 (2007)



Fig. 16.11. Elastic moduli  $E_{\rm NW}$  and  $G_{\rm NW}$  as determined from CR-AFM and friction-type measurements on ZnO NWs of various diameters. The fitting curves were obtained by modeling the NW structure as composed of two coaxial cylindrical parts: a core made of bulk material and a shell of stiffer material relative to the bulk (Reprinted with permission from Stan et al. [41]. Copyright 2007 American Chemical Society)

## g) Manipulation of atoms and nanostructures



Figure 20. Schematic models of elementally processes of (a) atom extraction, (b) atom deposition, and (c) lateral manipulation of Si adatom on Si(111)7×7 sample by mechanical contact.







Figure 15. NC-AFM images of Si(111)7×7 at 9.3 K (a) before Si and (b) after Si adatom extraction by mechanical contact.



Figure 16. Elementally processes of vertical atom manipulation by mechanical contact. (a) Pull up process under strong attractive force and (b) push out process under weak attractive force.

K. S. Birdi, Scanning probe microscopes: application in science and technology, CRC Press 2003





(c)





Xe atoms on Ni

Fig. 1. Quantum corral construction. 3D STM images show (a) during construction and (b) after completion of the corral. 36 Ag atoms (white protrusions) are used (diameter = 31.2 nm). A STM image (c) and a sphere model (d) demonstrate the tip-paths and the surface geometry encountered during manipulations. Reprinted with permission from Ref. 13, © 2003, The American Physical Society.

A. S. Foster, W. A. Hofer, Scanning probe microscopy: atomic scale engineering by j and currents, Springer 2007



A. S. Foster, W. A. Hofer, Scanning probe microscopy: atomic scale engineering by forces and currents, Springer 2007

Left image: Manipulation of a nanotube on a silicon substrate. The AFM tip is used to create the Greek letter "theta" from a 2.5 micron long nanotube.

## h) Nanofabrication: Scanning Probe Litography

A. S. Foster, W. A. Hofer, Scanning probe microscopy: atomic scale engineering by forces and currents, Springer 2007



Lithographic techniques	Patterning methods	Operation conditions	Resolution	Advantages	Limitations
SPM	Based on tip-sample interaction	Ambient vacuum or liquid phase	Single atom, A few Å	<ul> <li>Easy to operate</li> <li>Low cost</li> <li>Applicable to wide range of materials</li> <li>High sensitivity and site-specific</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>— Serial patterning</li> <li>— Controllability and accessibility for large scale production</li> </ul>
Photolithography	Selectively exposing parts of substrate to light (often Ultraviolet)	Vacuum	Usually sub 100 nm <sup>4</sup>	<ul> <li>Parallel patterning</li> <li>Good controllability</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>High operation cost</li> <li>Multiple process steps</li> <li>Poor accessibility</li> </ul>
Electron-beam lithography	Interaction between e-beam and substrate	Vacuum	$\leq 50  \mathrm{nm}^5$	<ul> <li>Well developed for research</li> <li>Good controllability</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>High operation cost</li> <li>Multiple process steps</li> <li>Poor accessibility</li> </ul>
Focus ion beam (FIB) lithography	Interaction between ion-beam and substrate	Vacuum	$\sim 50{\rm nm}^6$	<ul> <li>High sensitivity</li> <li>Good controllability</li> <li>Well developed for research</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>High operation cost</li> <li>Multiple process steps</li> <li>Poor accessibility</li> </ul>
Nanoimprint lithography (NIL)	Mechanical deformation of imprint resist	Vacuum or ambient	$\sim 100 nm^7$	— Low cost — High throughput — Parallel writing	<ul> <li>Precision issue</li> <li>Multiple steps for large scale production</li> </ul>

Table 5. Applications of AFM nanoxidation on different substrates.<sup>1,24-33</sup>

Type of substrate	Nanostructures fabricated		
Semiconductors	<ul> <li>Fabrication of nanometer-scale side-gated silicon field-effect transistors</li> <li>High speed and large area writing, e.g. fabrication of 0.1 mm metal oxide semiconductor field effect transistors on amorphous silicon (α:Si) films</li> <li>Fabrication of high quality antidot lattices, e.g. 20 × 20 antidot array with a lattice period of 300 nm</li> <li>Electrical conduction on hydrogenated diamond</li> </ul>		
Metals	<ul> <li>Fabrication of metal-axide devices on thin Ti films         ~ 7 nm)</li> <li>Probe-grown nickel axide as a catalytic template for         selective growth of CNTs</li> <li>Oxidation of molybdenum (Mo) film to form MoO3         patterns</li> </ul>		
Molecularly functionalized/passivated surfaces	<ul> <li>Oxidation of Si covered by organosilane TMS monolayer.</li> <li>Poly(benzylether) dendrimers terminated with both benzyl and tert-butyldiphenylsilyl ether groups as resists for AFM oxidation lithography</li> <li>Oxidation of surfaces passivated by mixed SAM layer comprising 1,12-diaminododecane dihydrochloride (DAD · 2HCl) and <i>n</i>-tridecylamineahydrochloride (TDA · HCl)</li> </ul>		

Table 1. Comparison of SPM nanolithography with other lithographic techniques.

Fig. 21.1. Schematic representation of the lithography process



Figure 6. AFM topography (a) and three-dimensional view (b) of a series of lines patterned on the aluminium mask with different amount of force applied. The section profile along the aa' direction (c) shows the increasing average depth of the grooves. In the section profile along the bb' direction (d) a well-defined depth with small roughness is the main feature of AFM lithographed lines.



A. Notargaicomo et al., Nanotechnology10, 458 (1999) K. Wiesaur, J. Appl. Phys.. 88, 7289 (200)

AFM lithography-scratching\_en\_n.swf

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AFM lithography-dynamic\_plowing\_en\_n.swf

#### Nanoscratching



Figure 1. Schematic diagram of the experimental procedure. Note that the contact pads can also be defined first if a specific wire length is not required.

Y. –J. Chen et al, Nanotechnology16, 1112 (2005)



Figure 4. SEM images of (a) a pair of Au nanoelectrodes with a gap of 40 nm made by a cutting on an Au nanowire, and (b) rectangular nanostructures made by repeated cuttings.



Figure 2. (a) AFM images of the PMMA film, and (b) the result of a nanogroove array after nanoscratching. (c) A zoomed image of a nanogroove, and (d) the corresponding cross-section plot. (e) The SEM image of the Au nanowires fabricated from the pattern, and (f) a zoomed image showing that the width is around 70 nm.



Figure 2. Schematic of SPM-Based oxidation of Si, showing growing SiO<sub>2</sub> dot, and relevant processes.



P. Avouris et al, Appl. Phys. Lett. 71, 285 (1997) A. A. Tseng et al., J. Vac. Sci. Technol. B23, 877 (2005)

Nano-oxidation



## 2) Chemical Applications

### a) Molecules imaging and manipulation



FIGURE 13. Schematic showing the possible mechanism for bias-induced switching via a polar host matrix.



FIGURE 1. Schematic picture of conformation for molecules bridging tip and surface. In (a) it is seen that a variety of molecular conformations should exist in the contact zone under a compressive situation. Comparison of (b) and (c) for stretching or break-junction configurations shows that even a single molecule could have different bond orientation at the surface.



W. Richard Bowen, Nidal Hilal, Atomic Force Microscopy in Process Engineering: An Introduction to AFM for improved processes and products, Elsevier 2009



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Fig. 10.4. Raw data of an amplitude-distance and a force-distance cycle showing a single avidin-biotin unbinding event. (a) In the amplitude-distance cycle, a single unbinding event is shown at 14 nm, resulting in an amplitude reduction of 1 nm at 8 nm free amplitude. (b) The simultaneously acquired force-distance cycle exhibits the same unbinding event with an unbinding force of 80 pN. Figure taken from [58]



Fig. 10.11. (a) Scheme of the simultaneous topography and recognition AFM imaging of antibiotin antibodies adsorbed on pentacene islands. Time Series of topography (b), (d), (f), (h) and recognition image (c), (e), (g), (i) of antibiotin antibodies adsorbed on pentacene-islands obtained using a biotin-functionalized tip. (Gray scale range: topography images: 0 to 13 nm; recognition images: -0.5 to 0.7 nm). (j) and (k), show the cross section indicated by the lines in (b) and (c). (l)-(o) Topography (top) and recognition images (bottom) of antibiotin antibodies adsorbed on pentacene islands. Different shapes of recognition spots were observed that can be attributed to different orientations of the Fab fragments of the adsorbed antibodies. (Gray scale range: topography images: 0 to 13 nm; recognition images -0.5 to 0.7 nm). Figures taken from [91]



### b) Polvmeric surfaces



FIGURE 8.1 (a) A polymer chain chemically attached by one of its ends to a solid surface 'swollen' in a good solvent. (b) A polymer chain physisorbed on a solid surface by nonspecific (physical) interactions along its backbone (four contact points), forming three loops and two tails. (c) Diblock copolymer in a solvent attached on a solid surface by adsorption of one of its two blocks.



FIGURE 8.3 Schematic drawing of a polymer brush in (a) good solvent conditions and (b) poor solvent conditions. Upon the change of the solvent conditions, the polymer chains could self-organise in nanoscale aggregates of small groups of polymer chains instead of collapsing individually.





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height

phase



Fig. 19. AM-AFM images of a block copolymer mesophase. (a) Topography and (b) phase image. The phase image allows to resolve the individual spheres (12 nm in diameter). It also allows to distinguish between the crystalline (light) and molten (dark) PEO micelles. Image size  $1 \text{ mm} \times 1 \text{ mm}$ . The maximum height variation in (a) is 10 nm. By courtesy of Dr. G. Reiter.

## c) Imaging in liquids (for several biological samples. Living organisms,....)





Figure 8. Tapping Mode image of biological sample, in this case nucleosomal DNA.

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# 3) "Biological and Medical Applications"

### a) SPM of biomolecules and DNA on surfaces and at interfaces



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Fig. 20.7. Schematic presentation of the hierarchical architecture of eukaryotic chromatin/chromosomes. Physical properties of DNA, chromosomal proteins, and local salt concentrations are critical for the formation of higher-order structures. First, DNA interacts with core histones, forming a beads-on-a-string structure, in which negative supercoiling of DNA promotes formation of nucleosomes. Second, linker histone H1 converts the beads-on-a-string into a 20–30-nm fiber. Salt concentrations affect the interaction between nucleosomes. By increasing the concentration of NaCl from 50 to 100 mM, well-separated beads-on-a-string convert to aggregates, and H1-induced fibers thicken from 20 to 30 nm in diameter. As shown in Fig. 20.6a, topoisomerase II, a component of the nuclear scaffold, makes loop structures in H1induced fibers. Finally, mitotic chromosomes are formed with help from condensin complexes and other cellular components

Fig. 20.6. AFM images of higher-order structures of chromatin and cytoskeleton. (a-1) Chromatin fibers were reconstituted from 186-kb plasmid DNA, core histones, and linker histone H1, and their structures were observed by AFM in air. H1-induced 30-nm fibers were detected. (a-2) Addition of topoisomerase II to the reconstituted 30-nm fibers induced loop structures. (b-1) AFM image of HeLa cells depleted of plasma membrane and cytoplasm. HeLa cells on a coverslip were sequentially treated with buffer A containing 0.5% Triton X-100, buffer B containing 250 mM (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, and 10U/ml DNaseI (b-1). Cytoskeletal fibers (b-2) and chromatin fibers (b-3) were clearly observed in enlarged images. The interphase chromatin is composed of granular fibers with a width of  $78.1 \pm 8.1$  nm



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100

100 nm

20 nn

Figure 8. Tapping Mode image of biological sample, in this case nucleosomal DNA.



Fig. 15. (a) (top) AM-AFM image of a DNA fragment deposited on mica. (b) (bottom) Cross-section along the dashed line: ecconstituted by an extract from fly embryo shown in (a)

## b) Real-time evolution of in-vitro cells, virus, proteins





FIGURE 7.1 Schematic drawing of cell adhesion to an ECM or substrate. The cell adheres firmly to the ECM through focal adhesions (a multiprotein complex). The focal adhesions are the sites for the attachment of F-actin stress fibres – one type of cytoskeleton protein. Filopodium and lamellopodium are located at the leading edge for cell to migrate.

Fig. 1 Schematic diagram depicting key components of an AFM.



FIGURE 7.7 Optical images of an AFM cantilever positioned over a cell on (a) a planar substrate and (b) a structured substrate.

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# Cell (fibroblast) structure on nanostructured substrate

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# Healthy Lymphocite membrane

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#### Cancer infected Lymphocite membrane





## c) Electromechanical behaviour in biological systems at the nanoscale



Properties of bones



#### Elasticity maps

 $10 \mu m$ 

b

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C
# Conclusions

 Wide range of properties characterizations: Morphological, Mechanical, Electrical, Magnetic, Thermal, local properties (nanoscale), and much more.

2) Beyond characterizations: Manipulation and Fabrication

3) Intimate correlation SPM↔Nanoscience and Nanotechnology

AFM: some measurements

### Formation and evolution of self-organized Au nanorings on indium-tin-oxide surface

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FIG. 1. (Color online) 10  $\mu$ m × 10  $\mu$ m AFM image of (a) the starting ITO surface, (b) 25 nm of Au sputter-deposited on the ITO surface, (c) 25 nm of Au sputter-deposited on the ITO surface annealed at 573 K-3600 s. (d) Cross-sectional AFM line-scanning profile of three NCs labeled as 1, and 2 in (b). (e) Cross-sectional AFM line-scanning profile of the NR labeled as 3 in (c).

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Atomic force microscopy investigation of the kinetic growth mechanisms of sputtered nanostructured Au film on mica: towards a nanoscale morphology control

Francesco Ruffino<sup>1,2</sup>, Vanna Torrisi<sup>3\*</sup>, Giovanni Marletta<sup>3</sup>, Maria Grazia Grimaldi<sup>1,2</sup>



**Figure 4** AFM images and section masurements of the thermally processed Au film: (a, c) 1  $\mu$ m × 1  $\mu$ m AFM scans of the Au film thermally processed at 573 K-15 min; (b) section measurement to estimate the height (11.2 nm) of a nucleated Au cluster; (d) section measurement to estimate the depth (7.4 nm) of a hole in the Au film.



**Figure 6** AFM image of a single Au cluster: (a) 7  $\mu$ m × 7  $\mu$ m AFM scan of the Au film thermally processed at 773 K-60 min, focusing, in particular, on an Au cluster; (b) 1  $\mu$ m × 1  $\mu$ m AFM scan of the underlaying Au film; (c) 1  $\mu$ m × 1  $\mu$ m AFM scan on the Au cluster, evidencing its granular structure.

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# Memory effects in annealed hybrid gold nanoparticles/block copolymer bilayers

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Figure 2 AFM images of the three steps of sample preparation: (a) HP-LB film of PnBuA-b-PAA; (b) HP-LB film covered with Au nanoparticles deposited by sputtering; (c) annealed bilayer (115°C, 15 min).



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> Science of Advanced Materials Vol. 4, pp. 708–718, 2012 (www.aspbs.com/sam)

# Formation and Evolution of Nanoscale Metal Structures on ITO Surface by Nanosecond Laser Irradiations of Thin Au and Ag Films

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Fig. 2. AFM ((a)–(c)) and SEM ((d)–(f)) images of the 5 nm thick Au film on ITO irradiated by 500 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup> ((a) and (d)), 750 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup> ((b) and (e)), 1000 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup> ((c) and (f)).



Fig. 3. AFM ((a)–(c)) and SEM ((d)–(f)) images of the 5 nm thick Ag film on ITO irradiated by 500 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup> ((a) and (d)), 750 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup> ((b) and (e)), 1000 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup> ((c) and (f)).







Fig. 8. 0.5  $\mu$ m × 0.5  $\mu$ m AFM images of the samples and line profile sections of representative isolate NCs for the contact angle measurements: (a)–(c) Au film irradiated by 500 (a), 750 (b), and 1000 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup> (c); (d)–(f) Ag film irradiated by 500 (d), 750 (e), and 1000 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup> (f).

# Structural and optical properties of highly Er-doped Yb-Y disilicate thin films

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Fig. 2. (a) Cross sectional SEM image of an as deposited Yb-Y disilicate. (b) AFM measurements on an as-implanted sample, after removing a masking grating. (c) AFM zoom-in reporting the step height in a 3D picture. (d) Analytical measurement of the step height.





Fig. 3 a Two-dimensional AFM scan (20  $\mu$ m  $\times$  20  $\mu$ m) of the 40 nm-thick Au film deposited through the lithographic mask in normal condition ( $\alpha = 0^{\circ}$ ). b Threedimensional reconstruction of the AFM image in (a). c Crossline profile of a Au square corresponding to the red line in (a). From this symmetric crossline profile, from the center to the edge the square is divided in four regions assigning to each region an effective height  $\langle h_{ii} \rangle$ (d)



Fig. 4 a Two-dimensional AFM scan (40  $\mu$ m × 40  $\mu$ m) of the 40 nm-thick Au film deposited through the lithographic mask in oblique condition ( $\alpha = 42^{\circ}$ ). b Threedimensional reconstruction of the AFM image in (a). c Crossline profile of a Au square corresponding to the red line in (a). From this asymmetric crossline profile, from the center to the edges the square is divided in height regions assigning to each region an effective height  $\langle h_{ij} \rangle$  (d)



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## Roughness evolution in dewetted Ag and Pt nanoscale films



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Fig. 1. Representative three-dimensional AFM images ( $2 \ \mu m \times 2 \ \mu m$ ) of: (a) the bare SiO<sub>2</sub> surface, (b) the surface of 15 nm-thick Ag film deposited on the SiO<sub>2</sub> surface, (c) the surface of 15 nm-thick Pt film deposited on the SiO<sub>2</sub> surface. Each image is accompained by the corresponding value of the roughness  $\sigma$ .



Fig. 2. Representative three-dimensional AFM images ( $2 \mu m \times 2 \mu m$ ) of the 15 nm-thick Ag film deposited on the SiO<sub>2</sub> surface and thermally processed at: (a) 573 K-3600 s, (b) 673 K-3600 s, (c) 773 K-3600 s, (e) 973 K-3600 s, (f) 1173 K-3600 s. These images allow to follow the evolution of the Ag film morphology versus the annealing temperature.



Fig. 3. Representative three-dimensional AFM images ( $2 \mu m \times 2 \mu m$ ) of the 15 nm-thick Pt film deposited on the SiO<sub>2</sub> surface and thermally processed at: (a) 573 K-3600 s, (b) 673 K-3600 s, (c) 773 K-3600 s, (d) 873 K-3600 s, (e) 973 K-3600 s, (f) 1173 K-3600 s. These images allow to follow the evolution of the Pt film morphology versus the annealing temperature.



Fig. 4. Plots of the roughness  $\sigma$  versus the annealing temperature T when fixed the annealing time t = 3600 s, for the 15 nm-thick Ag film (a) and the 15 nm-thick Pt film (b). The insets report  $\sigma$  versus T restricted to the linear regions and the blue lines represent the corresponding linear fits of the experimental data.



Fig. 5. Representative three-dimensional AFM images ( $2 \mu m \times 2 \mu m$ ) of the 15 nm-thick Ag film deposited on the SiO<sub>2</sub> surface and thermally processed at: (a) 1173 K-600 s, (b) 1173 K-1200 s, (c) 1173 K-1800 s, (d) 1173 K-2400 s, (e) 1173 K-3000 s, (f) 1173 K-3600 s. These images allow to follow the evolution of the Ag film morphology versus the annealing time.



Fig. 6. Representative three-dimensional AFM images (2  $\mu$ m  $\times$  2  $\mu$ m) of the 15 nm-thick Pt film deposited on the SiO<sub>2</sub> surface and thermally processed at: (a) 1173 K-600 s, (b) 1173 K-1200 s, (c) 1173 K-1800 s, (d) 1173 K-2400 s, (e) 1173 K-3000 s, (f) 1173 K-3600 s. These images allow to follow the evolution of the Pt film morphology versus the annealing time.



Fig. 7. (a) Plots of the roughness  $\sigma$  versus the annealing time t when fixed the annealing temperature T = 1173 K, for the 15 nm-thick Ag film and the 15 nm-thick Pt film. (b) Reports the same experimental data (apart the value for t = 0 s) plotted in Log-Log scale and the continuous lines indicate the fit of the experimental data by  $\sigma(t) = \alpha t^{\beta}$  from which values for the fitting parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are extracted.

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# Nanoscale electrical characteristics of metal (Au, Pd)–graphene–metal (Cu) contacts



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Fig. 2. Picture of the analyzed samples and conductive atomic force microscopy measurement setup configuration.



Fig. 3. Representative scanning electron microscopy images of: (a)-(c) graphene/Cu surface at different magnifications, (d)-(f) Au films deposited on the graphene/Cu surface with thickness of 5 nm (d), 25 nm (e) and 50 nm (f), (g)-(i) Pd films deposited on the graphene/Cu surface with thickness of 5 nm (g), 25 nm (h) and 50 nm (i).

#### Table 1

 $W_{\rm M}$ : metal work-function,  $W_{\rm G}$ : free-standing graphene work-function (4.48 eV) and graphene work-function when in contact with a specific metal. Adapted from [18].

	Gr	Pd	Cu	Au	Pt
W <sub>M</sub> (eV)	4.48	5.67	5.22	5.54	6.13
W <sub>G</sub> (eV)		4.03	4.40	4.74	4.87



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# Emerging interface dipole *versus* screening effect in copolymer/metal nano-layered systems



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AFM: surface roughness

ence surface. Films grown under nonequilibrium condition are expected to develop self-affine surfaces [7, 14], whose rms widths scale with time *t* and the length *L* sampled as [15]

$$\sigma(L,t) = L^{\alpha}F\left(t/L^{\alpha/\beta}\right) \tag{1}$$

where  $\sigma(L) \propto L^{\alpha}$  for  $t/L^{\alpha/\beta} \to \infty$  and  $\sigma(t) \propto t^{\beta}$  for  $t/L^{\alpha/\beta} \to 0$ . The parameter  $0 < \alpha < 1$  is defined as the roughness exponent [16], and the parameter,  $\beta$ , as the growth exponent. Actual self-affine surfaces are characterized by an upper horizontal cutoff to scaling, or correlation length,  $\xi$ , beyond which the surface width no longer scales as  $L^{\alpha}$ , and eventually reaches a saturation





value,  $\sigma$ . Implicit in Eq. 1 is a correlation length which increases with time as  $\xi \propto t^{1/z}$ , where  $z = \alpha/\beta$  is the dynamic scaling exponent.

In thin films deposition methodologies in which the film thickness, h, is proportional to the time of deposition, t, then, in the asymptotical limits,

$$\sigma(h) = ah^{\beta} \tag{2}$$

$$\xi(h) = bh^{1/z} \tag{3}$$

where a and b are the opportune proportionality constants.

The global surface morphology thus proceeds to a steady growth with the evolution of vertical roughening and lateral coarsening. Two correlation lengths are assigned to describe the interface growth process: the mean surface height fluctuations  $\sigma$ , which is a measure of the vertical interface roughness, and the lateral correlation length  $\xi$ , which characterizes the coarsening size. In particular, the roughness function is defined by<sup>30</sup>

$$\sigma = \langle z(x,y)^2 \rangle^{1/2} = \langle [h(x,y) - \langle h(x,y) \rangle]^2 \rangle^{1/2}, \tag{6}$$

where h(x,y) is the height function and  $\langle \cdots \rangle$  is the spatial average over a planar reference surface. The roughness  $\sigma$  of a real self-affine surface must saturate at large length scales, and the correlation length  $\xi$  is the horizontal cutoff associated with the saturation value of  $\sigma$ . For a growing film, the time evolution of the saturated  $\sigma$  is characterized by the "growth" exponent<sup>30</sup>  $\beta$ ,

 $\sigma \propto \langle h \rangle^{\beta}$ .





Fig. 25. For self-affine surfaces, the slope of the unsaturated region of roughness is the roughness exponent (Cruz T.G.S., 2002).

(7)

# Atomic force microscopy study of the growth mechanisms of nanostructured sputtered Au film on Si(111): Evolution with film thickness and annealing time

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FIG. 1. (Color online) (a)  $1 \times 1 \ \mu m^2$  AFM image of the Si(111) substrate;  $1 \times 1 \ \mu m^2$  AFM images of the Si(111) substrate sputter-deposited with Au of different thickness *h*: (b)  $h=1.7\times 10^{17} \ \text{Au/cm^2}$ , (c)  $h=2.1\times 10^{17} \ \text{Au/cm^2}$ , (d)  $h=3.0\times 10^{17} \ \text{Au/cm^2}$ , (e)  $h=5.2\times 10^{17} \ \text{Au/cm^2}$ , (f)  $h=6.8\times 10^{17} \ \text{Au/cm^2}$ , (g)  $h=7.7\times 10^{17} \ \text{Au/cm^2}$ , (h)  $h=9.4\times 10^{17} \ \text{Au/cm^2}$ , and (i)  $h=1.0\times 10^{18} \ \text{Au/cm^2}$ . The inset shows a schematic of the horizontal, *D*, and vertical, *R*, dimensions of the Au clusters.


FIG. 2. Distributions of the clusters vertical size *R* for samples with different amount *h* of Au: (a)  $h=1.7\times10^{17}$  Au/cm<sup>2</sup>, (b)  $h=2.1\times10^{17}$  Au/cm<sup>2</sup>, (c)  $h=3.0\times10^{17}$  Au/cm<sup>2</sup>, (d)  $h=5.2\times10^{17}$  Au/cm<sup>2</sup>, (e)  $h=6.8\times10^{17}$  Au/cm<sup>2</sup>, (f)  $h=7.7\times10^{17}$  Au/cm<sup>2</sup>, (g)  $h=9.4\times10^{17}$  Au/cm<sup>2</sup>, and (h)  $h=1.0\times10^{18}$  Au/cm<sup>2</sup>. The continuous lines are the fits by the lognormal function.



FIG. 3. Distributions of the clusters vertical size *D* for samples with different amount *h* of Au: (a)  $h=1.7\times10^{17}$  Au/cm<sup>2</sup>, (b)  $h=2.1\times10^{17}$  Au/cm<sup>2</sup>, (c)  $h=3.0\times10^{17}$  Au/cm<sup>2</sup>, (d)  $h=5.2\times10^{17}$  Au/cm<sup>2</sup>, (e)  $h=6.8\times10^{17}$  Au/cm<sup>2</sup>, (f)  $h=7.7\times10^{17}$  Au/cm<sup>2</sup>, (g)  $h=9.4\times10^{17}$  Au/cm<sup>2</sup>, and (h)  $h=1.0\times10^{18}$  Au/cm<sup>2</sup>. The continuous lines are the fits by the lognormal function.

## **Stage 1: Nucleation**



Stage 4: Vertical growth





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## Quantitative evaluation of surface topographical changes of Au thin films after DNA immobilization



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Figure 1. Schematic pictures of the analyzed samples: (a) bare Au surface, (b) Au surface after ssDNA immobilization, (c) Au surface after dsDNA hybridization.



ssDNA dsDNA

Figure 2. (a)-(c) Representative 5 µm × 5 µm 2D AFM images corresponding to the bare Au surface (a), the Au surface after ssDNA immobilization (b), and the Au surface after dsDNA hybridization (c). (d)-(f) Representative 1  $\mu$ m × 1  $\mu$ m 3D AFM images corresponding to the bare Au surface (d), the Au surface after ssDNA immobilization (e), and the Au surface after dsDNA hybridization (f). (g)-(i) Representative cross-line section profiles of the corresponding  $1 \,\mu$ m ×  $1 \,\mu$ m scan of the surfaces.

Fig. 13. Different profiles of surfaces, with the same roughness average (adapted from Predev, 2011).



Fig. 26. Example of a wave decomposed by PSD. The sum of the four waves results in the composed wave (adapted from Freitas, A. C. P., 2010).

The power spectral density (PSD) is a complementary analysis of surface roughness which gives information related to parameters of the roughness height and spacing. The PSD is a parameter used in micrographs which relates the Fourier Transform (FT) with the root mean square roughness (RMS). The relationship between the PSD, FT and RMS is described by (Park, 2011):

$$PSD = FT^2 \tag{22}$$



**Figure 4.** Representative two-dimensional PSD spectra for (a) the bare Au surface obtained by the analysis of  $1 \ \mu m \times 1 \ \mu m \ scans$ , (b) the Au surface after ssDNA immobilization and obtained by  $1 \ \mu m \times 1 \ \mu m \ scans$ , (c) the Au surface after dsDNA immobilization and obtained by  $1 \ \mu m \times 1 \ \mu m \ scans$ , (d) the bare Au surface and obtained by the analysis of  $5 \ \mu m \times 5 \ \mu m \ scans$ , (e) the Au surface after ssDNA immobilization and obtained by  $5 \ \mu m \times 5 \ \mu m \ scans$ , (f) the Au surface after dsDNA immobilization and obtained by  $5 \ \mu m \times 5 \ \mu m \ scans$ , (f) the Au surface after dsDNA immobilization and obtained by  $5 \ \mu m \times 5 \ \mu m \ scans$ , (f) the Au surface after dsDNA immobilization and obtained by  $5 \ \mu m \times 5 \ \mu m \ scans$ .

However, the roughness  $\sigma$  of a surface might not correctly represent the anisotropy of the topography. In fact, for example, almost similar  $\sigma$  values can be found for surfaces containing either few high-amplitude features or many low-lying features. Thus, we evaluated the two-dimensional fractal dimension  $D_{\rm f}$  for the examined surface.

Mathematically, a surface exhibits fractal behavior when the dimension is non-integer, having fractional values [40]. For real surfaces, the fractal dimension,  $D_f$ , is  $2 \le D_f \le 3$  and a smooth surface has a D<sub>f</sub> value near 2, and an increasing surface roughness, either by porosity and/or relief increments, should increase the  $D_{\rm f}$ value without exceeding the value of 3 [41]. At nanometric scale, most surface structures of materials have complicated shapes and surface topography is generally quantified by the roughness. Such parameter is useful to describe the surface quality, but its values can be ambiguous because the surface topography is, in general, multiscaled [42]. More information can be achieved by using a fractal approach in which the fractal dimension  $D_{\rm f}$  is the parameter used to characterize the surface morphology. Furthermore, Df should be, in principle, independent from the magnification values, going from macro or micro to nanoscale [42]. The power spectrum density (PSD) algorithm allows to estimate  $D_{\rm f}$  for a surface. Each spectrum is the square of the surface roughness amplitude per spatial frequency k. The integral over all frequencies is the mean-square surface roughness within the measured bandwidth ( $\sigma^2$ ). For exama power spectrum has two distinct regions: the flat, low and very

low frequency part resembling uncorrelated white noise and the sloped portion representing the correlated portion of the surface roughness. In the power spectral density showed in Figure 4, *k* values ranges from  $5 \,\mu\text{m}^{-1}$  to  $100 \,\mu\text{m}^{-1}$ ; in this range only medium and high *k* frequencies are considered and a correlated behavior is evident. The PSD of an isotropic 2D fractal Brownian function varies as [14,15,38]

$$PSD \propto k^{-B}$$
 (1)

with  $k = (x^2 + y^2)^{1/2}$  the radial frequency and  $B \ge 0$  a characteristic exponent related to the fractal dimension [14,15,40,43]. So, *B* can be easily obtained plotting the PSD versus 1/k in an Arrhenius-type plot and fitting linearly the linear sloped portion of the spectrum. Appropriate values of *k* (from 30 to 90  $\mu$ m<sup>-1</sup> and from 10 to



Now, the exponent B in Eq. (1) is related to the fractal dimension  $D_{\rm f}$  by [14,15,43]

 $B = 8 - 2D_{\rm f}.$ 



Figure 1. Schematic pictures of the analyzed samples: (a) bare Au surface, (b) Au surface after ssDNA immobilization, (c) Au surface after dsDNA hybridization.

(2)

Fig. 13. Different profiles of surfaces, with the same roughness average (adapted from Predev, 2011).



theory [40-42] we known that for a self-affine surface the fractal dimension D<sub>f</sub>, should not be influenced by the magnification of the AFM images and it should be  $2 \le D_f \le 3$  (2 for a GAUSS-IAN smooth surface). In spite of this, it is known that deposited metallic films on a surface growing by a Volmer-Weber mode (which is the case of Au on SiO<sub>2</sub> [44]) often present  $D_f < 1.5$  [45]. A theory, developed by Fiorentini et al. [46], calculate a 1.2 value for film growing in a purely Volmer-Weber mode and it is verified, for example for deposited Al thin films by  $3 \mu m \times 3 \mu m$ AFM scans [45]. In particular deposition conditions, Au films have shown such a low  $D_{\rm f}$  value: Gómez-Rodríguez et al. [47], used scanning tunneling microscopy to study the fractal dimension of vacuum-evaporated Au film. Their films grow by a Volmer-Weber mechanism originating nano-granular Au film composed of small clusters (<30 nm) corresponding to rounded shapes with Euclidean character. In this case, for such a film, they evaluated the fractal dimension  $D_{\rm f}$  = 1. In other deposition conditions, they obtained a film composed by bigger and ramified clusters exhibiting fractal dimension  $D_{\rm f}$  = 1.72. Similar results were obtained by Word et al. [48] they obtained a fractal dimension  $D_{\rm f} \approx 1.3$  for ramified Au film on surface.



