

Article **Near-Infrared-Activated MoS2(S)–Ag3PO⁴ Coating for Rapid Bacteria-Killing**

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Abstract: Medical tools and implants used in clinics can be contaminated with bacteria even with disinfection treatment. To avert this situation, titanium (Ti) plates modified with a $\mathrm{Mo}_{2}(\mathrm{S})\text{--} \mathrm{Ag}_{3}\mathrm{PO}_{4}$ coating were designed to kill *Staphylococcus aureus* (*S. aureus*) and *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) effectively under near-infrared (NIR) light irradiation. The introduction of Ag_3PO_4 nanoparticles (NPs) reduced the bandgap of MoS₂ and suppressed the recombination of the photogenerated electron–hole pairs. Therefore, Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ exhibited a higher photocatalytic performance, leading to the generation of more radical oxygen species (ROS). Furthermore, cooperating with the good photothermal performance of MoS₂, the MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ coating exhibited a high antibacterial efficacy of 99.76 \pm 0.15% and 99.85 \pm 0.09% against *S. aureus* and *E. coli*, respectively, for 15 min in vitro. Moreover, the MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ coating had no apparent toxicity to cells. The proposed strategy may provide new insights for rapidly eradicating bacteria on medical tools and superficial implants.

Keywords: bacteria-killing; Ag₃PO₄; MoS₂; photocatalytic; photothermal

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1. Introduction

Titanium (Ti) and Ti-based materials have the advantages of being non-toxic and light weight, with high biocompatibility, and are ideal materials for implantation [\[1\]](#page-10-0). However, it is quite common for bacterial infection to lead to the failure of orthopedic implantation surgery, despite most of the surgical environments meeting the sterility standards [\[2,](#page-10-1)[3\]](#page-10-2). Even when systemic antibiotic therapy is given prophylactically before and after surgery, a second surgery is sometimes conducted to replace the infected implants. Therefore, it is urgent to endow medical tools and implants, including open surgery and superficial implants, with antimicrobial ability. Traditional strategies including loading antibiotics [\[4](#page-10-3)[,5\]](#page-10-4), antimicrobial peptides [\[6\]](#page-10-5), and inorganic nanoparticles [\[7\]](#page-10-6) have been carried out; however, the long-term use of these strategies may cause bacterial resistance $[8,9]$ $[8,9]$. To solve the bacterial resistance problem, both photodynamic and photothermal antibacterial strategies that can inactivate bacteria have emerged [\[10\]](#page-10-9). Reactive oxygen species (ROS)-based photodynamic therapy (PDT) and hyperthermia-based photothermal therapy (PTT) are effective methods to exterminate microorganisms (including viruses and bacteria) in the short term [\[11\]](#page-11-0). In particular, the energy of the photothermal effect is diffused to the surface of the instrument in the form of localized heat, thereby destroying microorganisms [\[12](#page-11-1)[,13\]](#page-11-2).

Since the emergence of graphene, 2D layered materials, including transition metal chalcogenides and other 2D compounds, have attracted attention [\[14\]](#page-11-3). Molybdenum disulfide ($MoS₂$) is a photoresponsive 2D layered material that has a similar structure to graphene. Moreover, MoS₂ has a large specific surface area, a wide spectral response, and a narrow bandgap, which favors light absorption [\[15\]](#page-11-4). Nevertheless, the photocatalytic effect of $MoS₂$ is severely limited by carrier recombination. Combining a wider bandgap semiconductor is an effective strategy to promote charge separation. Trisilver phosphate (Ag_3PO_4)

is a prospective candidate material with a direct bandgap (2.43 eV) [16]. Furthermore, Ag_3PO_4 is slightly soluble in water and can slowly release Ag^+ to inhibit bacterial growth. In addition, MoS₂ provides the advantage of photothermal properties, which, paired with photodynamic performances, can effectively kill bacteria in the short term [\[17\]](#page-11-6). It is known that Mo is one of the essential trace minerals and S is one of the essential chemical elements in the human body, which has enabled MoS2 to be applied μ in the human body, which has enabled MoS₂ to be applied in the biomedical field, including $\frac{1}{2}$ for anticancer therapy and antibacterial therapy [\[18\]](#page-11-7). However, the antibacterial therapy
the antical therapy of an MOS2(S)–Ag3PO4 coating on Times under 808 nm NIR National trace of an Ag3PO4 coating on Times under 808 nm of an MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ coating on Ti implants under 808 nm NIR light irradiation has not
been studied been studied.

semiconductor is an effective strategy to promote charge strategy to promote charge separation. The separation

In this study, an $MoS₂(S)$ coating was prepared by laser cladding processing and the chemical vapor deposition (CVD) method, and Ag_3PO_4 nanoparticles, which were prepared using the ion-exchange method, were loaded on the $Ti-MoS₂(S)$ to form the $MoS₂(S)-Ag₃PO₄ coating (Scheme 1). We hypothesized that the MoS₂(S)-Ag₃PO₄ coating$ $MoS₂(S)-Ag₃PO₄ coating (Scheme 1). We hypothesized that the MoS₂(S)-Ag₃PO₄ coating$ $MoS₂(S)-Ag₃PO₄ coating (Scheme 1). We hypothesized that the MoS₂(S)-Ag₃PO₄ coating$ could give the Ti implants excellent antibacterial activity. Under the irradiation of 808 nm NIR light, Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ eradicated *S. aureus* and *E. coli* in the short term. In addition, the Ag released by Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ was low and exhibited low toxicity to mammalian cells.

Scheme 1. The process of Ti-MoS₂(S)-Ag₃PO₄ coating synthesis.

2. Materials and Methods 2. Materials and Methods

Materials: Anhydrous ethanol, disodium hydrogen phosphate (Na₂HPO₄·12H₂O),
die and an and a ¹ M_a Colonial by the co sublimed sulfur (S, 99.95%), sodium molybdate (Na₂MoO₄), silver nitrate (AgNO₃), and
this asstemida (CU CSNU), were all assumed from Aladdin (Shanghai, China), Madiaslly t_{max} is all acquired (CH₃CSNH₂) were all acquired from Aladdin (Shanghai, China). Medically pure Ti plates were purchased from Baosteel Group Corp, (Shanghai, China). pure Ti plates were purchased from Baosteel Group Corp, (Shanghai, China). thioacetamide (CH3CSNH2) were all acquired from Aladdin (Shanghai, China). Medically

2.1. Pretreatment of Ti Plates

The Ti plates were mechanically polished using SiC sandpaper (grain sizes #80, #240, #400, and #800); then, they were rinsed with deionized water and absolute ethanol for $\frac{1}{2}$ min. 5 min.

min. *2.2. MoS² Coating Preparation*

The MoS₂ coating was prepared using the following steps [\[19\]](#page-11-8). Firstly, 40 mg CH₃CSNH₂ and 20 mg Na₂MoO4 were dispensed in 10 ml deformed water and their sonicated for 0 min.
The above solution was moved to a 100 mL Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave containing Ti plates and then heated to 200 °C for 24 h. After cooling, the Ti plates were lifted from the 100 mL Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave and washed with deionized water to gain a black MoS₂ coating, which was called Ti–MoS₂. Secondly, the precoated samples were placed on the working plate of the nanosecond pulse laser. Laser cladding was carried out by a CW 2 kW Nd: YAG laser, with the optimal parameters of scanning speed = 50 mm/s, and 20 mg $Na₂MoO₄$ were dispersed in 40 mL deionized water and then sonicated for 5 min. frequency = 20 kHz, and power = 35 W. After laser cladding, the corresponding Ti plates

were named Ti–MoS₂(L). Lastly, the Ti–MoS₂(L) was sulfureted using the CVD method [\[18\]](#page-11-7). The sulfur powder (0.3 g) and Ti–MoS₂(L) were set in a tube furnace, separately. The tube furnace was heated to 750 °C for 1 h in a N_2 atmosphere and then cooled to room temperature naturally. The corresponding Ti plate was named Ti–MoS₂(S).

2.3. Preparation of MoS2(S)–Ag3PO⁴ Coating

The $MoS₂(S)-Ag₃PO₄ coating was prepared using the following steps. Ti–MoS₂(S)$ was immersed in 7 mL of 1 mg/mL $Na₂HPO₄·12H₂O$ for 30 min. Then, 3 mL of 1 mg/mL AgNO₃ solution was dropped into the above solution and stirred for 30 min in the dark. The obtained Ti plates were then dried in an oven at 60 °C for 5 min. The corresponding Ti plates were named Ti- $MoS₂(S)-Ag₃PO₄$.

2.4. Characterization

An X-ray diffractometer (XRD, D8 Advanced, Bruker, Frankfurt, Germany) with Cu Kα radiation ($\lambda = 1.54051$ Å) was applied to measure the crystallization of the samples. Element analysis of the samples was measured by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, Axis Supra, Kratos, Manchester, UK). A scanning electron microscope (SEM, S-4800, Hitachi, Tokyo, Japan) equipped with an energy dispersive X-ray spectrum (EDS, X-max20, Oxford Instruments, High Wycombe, UK) was applied to observe the samples and bacteria morphologies. A Japanese Shimadzu UV-2700 (Kyoto, Japan) spectrophotometer in the measurement range from 200 to 850 nm was applied to measure the ultraviolet−visible light (UV-vis) diffuse reflectance (DRS) optical properties of all samples. A fluorolog-3 fluorescence spectrophotometer (HORIBA, Kyoto, Japan) with an excitation wavelength of 365 nm was applied to measure the steady state photoluminescence (PL) of the samples. Electron spin resonance (ESR, JES-FA200, JEOL USA, Peabody, MA, USA) spectroscopy was applied to detect the ROS of all samples by a capture agent (5,5-Dimethyl-1-pyrroline N-oxide). An electrochemical workstation (INTERFACE 1000, Gamry Instrument, Warminster, PA, USA) with a standard three-electrode system was applied to conduct transient photocurrent response measurement, electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS), and linear sweep voltammetry (LSV).

2.5. Photothermal Performance

The photothermal performance of the samples was measured using an FLIR thermal camera (E50, Teledyne FLIR, Wilsonville, OR, USA). Each sample (including Ti, Ti–MoS₂(S), and Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄) was irradiated with 808 nm NIR light for 3 min (0.4 W·cm^{−2}), with temperatures recorded every 10 s.

2.6. Ag Ions Release

Two Ti–MoS2(S)–Ag3PO⁴ samples saturated in 0.5 mL of deionized water were stored in the dark at 37 °C for 21 days. The solutions were removed at 0.5, 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 10, 14, and 21 d, and another 0.5 mL of deionized water was added. The concentration of the Ag ions' release was measured using an ICP-OES (Vista-MP, Varian, Palo Alto, CA, USA).

2.7. In Vitro Antimicrobial Tests

The spread plate method was conducted to assess the antimicrobial performance of the samples. The typical bacteria, including Gram-positive *S. aureus* (ATCC 25923) and Gram-negative *E. coli* (ATCC 8099), that were acquired from the typical strain preservation center in the United States, were cultured separately using Luria−Bertain (LB) media at 37 °C [\[17\]](#page-11-6). All samples (including Ti, Ti–MoS₂(S), and Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄) were sterilized with ultraviolet (UV) irradiation and medicinal alcohol for 0.5 h. Then, 10 μ L of the diluted bacterial solution (1×10^7 CFU/mL) was dropped on each sample (including Ti, Ti– $MoS₂(S)$, and Ti– $MoS₂(S)$ –Ag₃PO₄).

Each sample was irradiated by 808 nm NIR light (0.4 W/cm^2) for 5 min and then maintained at about 52 ◦C for another 10 min by lowering the light power. Each of the samples had a matched sample without irradiation. Lastly, each 20 μ L of the diluted liquid was coated on the agar plate and incubated at $37 \degree C$ for 20 h. The number of bacterial colonies on the plate was calculated to determine the antibacterial rate of each sample according to the following equation: Antibacterial ratio $\binom{9}{0}$ = (number of colonies on the Ti plate − number of colonies in experimental group)/(number of colonies on the Ti plate) \times 100%.

The bacterial morphology changes were scrutinized by SEM. After the above irradiation process, the corresponding samples with bacteria were placed in a 96-well plate with 200 μ L 2.5% glutaraldehyde for 4 h in the dark. After washing the samples with PBS ($pH = 7.4$) three times, the bacteria dehydration was conducted with 10%, 30%, 50%, 70%, 90%, and 100% ethanol solution for 15 min. After drying at 4 \degree C in a refrigerator, the bacterial morphology was observed by SEM.

2.8. Biocompatibility Evaluation In Vitro

The biocompatibility of the samples was assessed by an MTT method using MC3T3-E1 (ATCC CRL-2593) cells, which were acquired from Nankai University. All the samples (including Ti, Ti–MoS₂(S), and Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄) were sterilized in the same way as for the in vitro antibacterial test. Afterwards, all the samples were immersed in Dulbecco's modified eagle medium (DMEM), then the MC3T3-E1 cells (cell density 1×10^5 cells \cdot mL $^{-1})$ were cultured by the above extraction solution for 1, 3, and 7 days in a 5% CO₂ incubator at 37 ◦C. After culturing for different days, the medium was taken out, and MTT solution (0.5 mg/mL) was added; then, it was cultured for 4 h at 37 $°C$. The MTT solution was replaced by DMSO and then shocked to dissolve the crystals for 5 min. Finally, the absorption of the cell viability at 490 nm was examined on a microplate reader, which provided the optical density (OD).

2.9. Statistical Analysis

All the quantitative data were analyzed by one-way ANOVA (GraphPad Prism 8.0.2) and express ed as means \pm standard deviations with $n = 3$. *p* values < 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

3. Results

3.1. Morphologies and Structure

The morphologies of the Ti–MoS₂, Ti–MoS₂(L), Ti–MoS₂(S), and Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ are shown in Figure [1.](#page-4-0) The optical images of the above samples showed a range of color variations, as shown in Figure [2A](#page-4-1)–D. It was clearly observed that the MoS₂ nanospheres were spread evenly over the $MoS₂$ nanosheets, as shown in Figure [1A](#page-4-0). After the laser cladding, $Ti-MoS₂(L)$ became slightly white, and many small nanoparticles appeared over the $MoS₂$ nanospheres (Figure [2B](#page-4-1)); these may have been molybdenum oxide [\[17\]](#page-11-6). Therefore, it was necessary to revulcanize the Ti– $MoS_2(L)$. After the vulcanization process, Ti– $MoS_2(S)$ turned back to black to some extent, and it was obvious that the total quantity of small nanoparticles over the $MoS₂$ nanospheres was reduced (Figure [1C](#page-4-0)). The corresponding EDS spectra shown in Figure [2E](#page-4-1)–G further proved that the sulfuration of Ti–MoS₂(L) was successful. Figure [1D](#page-4-0),E shows that the Ag_3PO_4 nanoparticles were evenly distributed over the MoS₂ nanosheets and nanospheres, and the size of the Ag_3PO_4 nanoparticles was about 10–50 nm. According to the EDS spectra shown in Figure [2H](#page-4-1), it was observed that the Ag_3PO_4 nanoparticles successfully loaded on the MoS₂ coating. The cross- sectional image of Ti- $MoS₂(S)$ -Ag₃PO₄ is in Figure S1.

Figure 1. Morphologies of the synthesized materials: FE-SEM image of (A) Ti-MoS₂, (B) Ti-MoS₂(L), (C) Ti-MoS₂(S), and (D) Ti-MoS₂(S)-Ag₃PO₄; (Scale bar: 50 nm) (E) High magnification image of D. (Scale bar: 2 μm)**.** (Scale bar: 2 µm). (Scale bar: 2 μm)**.**

Figure 2. The images and elements of the synthesized materials: photographs of (A) Ti-MoS₂, (B) Ti–MoS₂(L), (C) Ti–MoS₂(S), and (D) Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄. Energy dispersive spectroscopy of (E) Ti-MoS₂, (F) Ti-MoS₂(L), (G) Ti-MoS₂(S), and (H) Ti-MoS₂(S)-Ag₃PO₄.

X-ray diffraction (XRD) and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) were carried out X-ray diffraction (XRD) and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) were carried out to determine the phase composition, elemental composition, and bonding information of the all samples. The characteristic peaks at 20 values of 14.4° corresponded to the (002) crystal planes of $MoS₂$ in the XRD pattern of Ti– $MoS₂$, as shown in Figure 3A, indicating successful synthesis of the MoS₂ on the Ti plates [\[20\]](#page-11-9). After the laser cladding and μ ₁ included the diffraction peaks of Ti–MoS₂(L) and Ti–MoS2(S) were almost unchanged. Then, the MoS₂ negative measurement of the MoS₂ negative measurement of the MoS₂ negative measurement of the MoS₂ negati the MoS₂ power was seen the MoS₂ powder of $\overline{11}$ –MoS₂. The characteristic poaks at 20, and was shown in $\overline{1}$ and was shown in $\overline{1}$ values of 33.3° corresponded to the (210) crystal planes of Ag₃PO₄ in the XRD pattern of Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄, suggesting the Ag₃PO₄ was successfully loaded onto Ti–MoS₂(S) [\[16\]](#page-11-5). The XPS survey scan, shown in Figure 3B, showed that the peaks of Mo, S, Ag, P, and O were found from the Ti-MoS₂(S)- \overline{Ag}_3PO_4 , whereas the Ti-MoS₂(S) was composed of Mo and S. As shown in [Fig](#page-5-0)ure 3C, the high-resolution scan of Ag 3d found from the Ti- $MoS_2(S)$ - Ag_3PO_4 demonstrated that the Ag 3d contained peaks of Ag $\text{3d}_{3/2}$ at 374.46 eV and Ag $3d_{5/2}$ at 368.48 eV, which belonged to the Ag [\[21\]](#page-11-10). No extra peaks belonging to the Ag⁰ appeared [\[22](#page-11-11)[,23\]](#page-11-12). The binding energy value of P_{2p} , as shown in Figure 3D, was 134.05 eV, which indicated the existence of phosphorus (P^{5+}) in Ag₃PO₄ [\[24\]](#page-11-13). The high-resolution the Mo 3d contained peaks of Mo $3d_{5/2}$ at 228.98 eV and Mo $3d_{3/2}$ at 230.68 eV, which belonged to the Mo^{4+} [\[25\]](#page-11-14). Combined with the S 2p detected from the Ti–MoS₂(S), as shown in Figure [3F](#page-5-0), this indicates that the MoS₂ synthesized by the hydrothermal process was the 2H phase. In addition, the peaks of \overline{M} at 231.98 eV and \overline{M} at 234.98 eV vulcanization, the diffraction peaks of Ti–MoS₂(L) and Ti–MoS₂(S) were almost unchanged. Then, the MoS₂ powder was scraped off from the Ti–MoS₂(S), as shown in Figure S2, and was almost the same as the MoS₂ powder of Ti–MoS₂. The characteristic peaks at 2θ

and was almost the same as the MoS₂ powder of Ti–MoS₂. The characteristic peaks at 2θ scans of the Mo 3d detected from the Ti–MoS₂(S), as shown in Figure [3E](#page-5-0), showed that $\frac{1}{2}$

belonged to the Mo^{5+} , and the peaks of Mo $3d_{5/2}$ at 232.58 eV and Mo $3d_{3/2}$ at 235.58 eV belonged to the Mo⁶⁺ [\[26\]](#page-11-15). The appearance of Mo⁵⁺ and Mo⁶⁺ can be caused by laser cladding. Meanwhile, the peaks of S 2p_{3/2} at 158.98 eV and S 2p_{1/2} at 162.88 eV belonged to the S^{2-} , and the peaks of S 2p_{3/2} at 164.28 eV and S 2p_{1/2} at 168.68 belonged to the S^{6-} , as shown in Figure 3F, suggesting that the sulfuration was successful [\[27\]](#page-11-16).

Figure 3. (A) XRD patterns of Ti, Ti–MoS₂, Ti–MoS₂(L), Ti–MoS₂(S), and Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄. (B) XPS survey spectrum of Ti–MoS₂(S) and Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄. (C) High-resolution scans for the Ag 3d electrons of the Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄. (**D**) High-resolution scans for the P 2p electrons of Ti–MoS₂(S)– Ag₃PO₄. (E) High-resolution scans for the Mo 3d electrons of Ti-MoS₂(S). (F) High-resolution scans for the S 2p electrons of Ti–MoS₂(S).

3.2. Photocatalytic Property 3.2. Photocatalytic Property

Figure [4A](#page-6-0). Ti–MoS₂(S) and Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ both exhibited a strong light absorption over 550 nm, and the absorption intensity of Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ was slightly lower. The bandgap of the samples can be calculated using the Tauc plot equation [\[28\]](#page-11-17). The UV–vis absorption spectra of Ti–MoS₂(S) and Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ are shown in

$$
(\alpha h\nu)^{1/n} = B(h\nu - E_g)
$$
 (1)

ν is the photon's frequency, E_g is the bandgap, and n is directly related to the type of semiconductor (n = $1/2$ and n = 2 for direct and indirect transitions, respectively). As shown in Figure 4B, although the direct bandgap was calculated as 2.37 eV for Ag₃PO₄ (inset curve in Figure 4B), the 808 nm laser could not excite the pure Ag_3PO_4 . Furthermore, the bandgap of the Ti–MoS₂(S) was 1.51 eV, and the bandgap of the Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ decreased to 1.39 eV due to the addition of the Ag₃PO₄ NPs, suggesting that Ti–MoS₂(S) combined with Ag_3PO_4 reduced the bandgap and enhanced the absorption edge of MoS₂.
Cincultaneously the expective and transfer expektive of the absorption edge of MoS₂. where α is the absorption coefficient, B is a proportionality constant, h is Planck's constant,

explanation and transfer explanaty of the photoniqueded enlarge car
rier is another critical factor affecting the photocatalytic properties of materials. Obviously, Ti–MoS₂(S) had a peak at 445 nm in the PL spectra (Figure [4C](#page-6-0)), and the PL intensity of Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ was lower, indicating the modification of Ag₃PO₄ on Ti–MoS₂(S) was propitious for the separation and transfer efficiency of the photoinduced charge carrier [29]. The photocurrent density under 808 nm NIR light illumination further proved this result. As displayed in Figure 4D, Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ showed t[he](#page-6-0) highest photocurrent response among the three samples, which was in line with the PL results. Both electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) and linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) are important pho-Simultaneously, the separation and transfer capability of the photoinduced charge cartoelectrochemical measurements to assess the interfacial electron transfer in the samples
 COP 2022, **2022**, **2022**, **2022**, **2022**, **2022**, **2022**, **2022**, **2022**, **2022** under 808 nm NIR light [\[30\]](#page-11-19). In Figure $4E$, Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ shows smaller semicircles than the Ti–MoS₂(S) and Ti groups, indicating that Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ had the lowest impedance. Ti– $MoS₂(S) – Ag₃PO₄$ under 808 nm NIR light irradiation exhibited lower impedance than that of non-NIR light irradiation, suggesting that Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ had the smallest charge transfer resistance, and the 808 nm NIR light enhanced the trans-fer efficiency of the photoinduced charge carriers. As can be seen from Figure [4F](#page-6-0), the
the current density of Ti–MoS²(S)–Ag³PO₄ under 808 nm NIR light in the LSV spectra was current density of Ti- $MoS₂(S)$ -Ag₃PO₄ under 808 nm NIR light in the LSV spectra was enhanced than that of the Ti–MoS₂(S) and Ti groups. According to the above results, $Ti-MoS₂(S)$ –Ag₃PO₄ can promote the movement of the photoinduced charge carrier and inhibit the photoinduced charge carrier recombination under the irradiation of 808 nm inhibit the photoinduced charge carrier recombination under the irradiation of 808 nm NIR light. NIR light.

Figure 4. (A) The UV–vis–NIR absorption curves and (**B**) bandgap of Ti–MoS₂(S) and Ti–MoS₂(S)– Ag₃PO₄. (C) Steady state photoluminescence spectra of Ti–MoS₂(S) and Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄. (D) Photocurrent curves, (E) electrochemical impedance spectroscopy, and (F) linear voltammetry sweep photocurrent curves of Ti, Ti–MoS₂(S), and Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄.

The photogenerated charges can react with the surrounding water or oxygen to gen-erate ROS, which is beneficial for materials to enhance the bacteria-killing ability [\[31,](#page-11-20)[32\]](#page-11-21). Figure [5A](#page-7-0) shows the amount of ROS production using the $2^{\prime}/7^{\prime}$ -Dichlorofluorescein diacetate (DCFH-DA), which can trap ROS and be detected by excitation with 488 nm irradiation; the emission was detected at 525 nm. Therefore, Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ further enhanced the production of ROS compared to Ti–MoS₂(S) and Ti, illustrating that 808 nm NIR light can excite Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ to produce ROS effectively. The electron spin resonance (ESR) spectrum is a useful way to ascertain ROS types $[33,34]$ $[33,34]$. As can be seen in Figure [5B](#page-7-0),C, •OH and \bullet O₂[−] were detected with 5,5-dimethyl-1-pyrroline N-oxide (DMPO) $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{2}$ are detected with $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{2}$ a in the dark, suggesting that 808 nm NIR light can excite Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ to produce
●OH and ●Oe[−] nals in the dark, suggesting that 808 nm NIR light can excite Ti–MoS2(S)–Ag3PO⁴ to pro-The photogenerated charges can react with the surrounding water or oxygen to genas a trapping agent under the irradiation of 808 nm NIR light, while both showed no signals •OH and \bullet O₂⁻.

Figure 5. (A) ROS generation with DCFH fluorescence probe (the error bars represent means \pm SD, $n = 3$); ESR spectra of the (**B**) superoxide radical and (**C**) hydroxyl radical obtained from Ti–MoS₂(S)–
 $\Delta \alpha$ -PO Ag_3PO_4 . $\frac{1}{2}$

3.3. Photothermal Property

duce •OH and •O2 and

− .

As can be seen in Figure [6,](#page-7-1) the photothermal properties of the samples were deter-
As can be seen in Figure 6, the photothermal properties of the samples were determined from the photothermal heating curves under the irradiation of 808 nm NIR light. After irradiation with 808 nm NIR light for 3 min (Figure 6A), the final temperatures of the Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ and Ti–MoS₂(S) were approximately 67.8 and 62.4 °C, respecthe 11–MoS₂(5)–Ag31 O₄ and Ti–MoS₂(5) were approximately 67.0 and 62.4 °C, respectively. Both Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ and Ti–MoS₂(S) exhibited better photothermal effects in comparison with Ti, indicating that the MoS₂ nanospheres and nanosheets displayed an extraordinary photothermal performance under the irradiation of 808 nm NIR light.
For the above results to the above results of the above results to the above results to the above results. Furthermore, Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ was subjected to 808 nm NIR light for three cycles, as s[ho](#page-7-1)wn in Figure 6B, demonstrating that Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ had a stable on–off and photothermal material mate tothermal effect. According to the above results, Ti- $MoS₂(S)$ -Ag₃PO₄ not only possesses excellent photothermal efficiency but also is a stable and recyclable photothermal material.

Figure 6. Photothermal properties of Ti, Ti–MoS₂(S), and Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ under 808 nm light irradiation, (power density: $0.4 \text{ W} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$): (**A**) photothermal heating curve of Ti, Ti–MoS₂(S), and Ti, MoS₂(S), and $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ is the error bars represent means \pm SD, n \pm 3); (\pm) temperature reading means cooling profiles of Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄. Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ (the error bars represent means \pm SD, n = 3); (**B**) temperature heating and

profiles of Ti–MoS2(S)–Ag3PO4. *3.4. In Vitro Antibacterial Activity*

3.4. In Vitro Antibacterial Activity against *S. aureus* and *E. coli*. As can be seen in Figure [7A](#page-8-0),C, the number of colonies in the plate reflected the strong antibacterial ability of the samples. Ti–MoS₂(S) and Ti–MoS₂(S)–
A.c. PO, had no antibacterial activity in the dark environment for 15 min because of the negligible reduction in the bacterial colonies. Under 808 nm NIR light radiation, the Ti group exhibited no antibacterial potency; it was evident that 808 nm NIR light had no effect on *L. coli and 5. aureus* in the short term. Furthermore, 11–M052(3) had an antibacterial efficiency of 61.70 \pm 7.03% and 63.40 \pm 2.51% against *S. aureus* and *E. coli*, respectively. Ti– ${\rm MoS_2(S)}$ –Ag $_3$ PO $_4$ had the highest antibacterial efficiency of 99.48 \pm 0.19% and 99.77 \pm 0.09% against *S. aureus* and *E. coli,* respectively (Figure 7B,D). It was evident that photothermy The antibacterial performance of all samples was evaluated by the spread plate method Ag_3PO_4 had no antibacterial activity in the dark environment for 15 min because of the on *E. coli* and *S. aureus* in the short term. Furthermore, Ti–MoS₂(S) had an antibacterial

and the ROS produced by Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ had a strong effect on *E. coli* and *S. aureus* in the short term. To explore the stability of the coating, image of Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ after the sterilization step was observed under SEM (Figure S3), and three circling antimicrobial tests in vitro was conducted with *S. aureus* (Figure S4).

Figure 7. The antibacterial ability of the samples after 808 nm NIR light irradiation or staying in the **Figure 7.** The antibacterial ability of the samples after 808 nm NIR light irradiation or staying in the dark for 15 min. The spread plate of (A) S. *aureus* and (B) E. coli; the antibacterial efficiency of the samples against (C) S. aureus and (D) E. coli. The error bars indicate means \pm SD, **** p < 0.0001.

in Figure [8.](#page-9-0) The bacteria in the dark groups had a smooth surface and intact morphology
without 808 am NIB light, assembly E-sali salla in the MeS-spasse indication that a small F_{max} and F_{max} and F_{max} and F_{max} are the dark groups of F_{max} and $F_{\text{$ short term. However, the *E. coli* cells in the Ti–MoS₂(S) group were dented in the middle of the cells and smooth at both ends. After 808 nm NIR light irradiation for 15 min, the
Ti–MoS-(S) and Ti groups had similar results for S, *aureus c*ells, suggesting that 808 nm NIR light and the photothermy of MoS₂ had little influence on the *S. aureus* cells. Furthermore, the *E. coli* cells in the Ti–MoS₂(S) group after 808 nm NIR light irradiation for 15 min had of MoS₂ may interfere with the growth of the *E. coli* cells. In contrast, the *E. coli* cells were obviously deformed more severely on the Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ with 808 nm NIR light (the area indicated by the red arrow), and some of the flattened *S. aureus* cell membranes were
laid an the Ti–MaC (S), A.s. PO after 808 nm NIR light (the area indicated by the red single) The surface wettability of the samples was investigated by contact angle measurements in Figure S5, indicating that *E. coli* exhibited larger on Ag₃PO₄ NPs coated samples. As In addition, SEM was carried out to observe the morphology of bacteria, as shown without 808 nm NIR light, except the *E. coli* cells in the MoS₂ group, indicating that a small Ti–MoS2(S) and Ti groups had similar results for *S. aureus* cells, suggesting that 808 nm NIR the same results as the Ti–MoS₂(S) group in the dark, suggesting that the nanostructure laid on the Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ after 808 nm NIR light (the area indicated by the red circle). described previously, these results were basically compatible with the spread plate results.

described previously, these results were basically compatible with the spread plate results.
Based on the results above, the antibacterial mechanisms of the Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ are as follows: during 808 nm NIR irradiation, the hyperthermia (about 52 °C) produced by the Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ appeared on the surface of Ti plates and the top solution, protein. Furthermore, the ROS (such as \bullet OH and \bullet O^{2−}) generated by the Ti–MoS₂(S)– Ag₃PO₄ entered the bacteria cell and induced oxidative stress, which disrupted bacterial metabolism and even caused cell death. which increased permeability of bacterial membranes and even destroyed the membrane

Figure 8. The FE-SEM images of bacteria cells after the irradiation of 808 nm NIR light or staying in the dark for 15 min. (A) S. *aureus* (B) E. *coli*. (Scale bar: $2 \mu m$).

3.5. In Vitro Cytotoxicity Test

Due to the Ag released by Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄, the sample biocompatibility was im-
close to the methyl thiogenetic totage lines. (MTT) method [25], As shown in Figure 0.4. plemented by the methyl thiazolyl tetrazolium (MTT) method [\[35\]](#page-11-24). As shown in Figure [9A](#page-9-1), $Ti-MoS_2(S)$ \rightarrow Ag₃PO₄ and Ti–MoS₂(S) both displayed good biocompatibility after coculturing for 1, 3, and 7 d. In detail, the viability of Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ was close to that of Ti, and the viability of Ti–MoS₂(S) was slightly higher than that of Ti after culturing for 1 and
² d. In particular, the viability of Ti–MoS-(S), A.c.PO, and Ti–MoS-(S) was further increased 3 d. In particular, the viability of Ti-MoS₂(S)-Ag₃PO₄ and Ti-MoS₂(S) was further increased compared to that of Ti after culturing for 7 d. Furthermore, the release concentration of Ag⁺ slowly reached 1.66 ppm after 7 days, as shown in Figure 9B, suggesting that $Ag⁺$ at this concentration did not have a cytotoxic effect and can allow the proliferation according to
the above results [36,37] the above results [\[36](#page-11-25)[,37\]](#page-11-26).

Figure 9. (A) Cell viability by MTT test for 1, 3, and 7 d; (B) release of Ag ions from Ti–MoS₂(S)– Ag₃PO₄ at 37 °C for 21 days (the error bars represent means \pm SD, n = 3, *** *p* < 0.001).

4. Conclusions

In summary, the synthesized Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ under the irradiation of 808 nm NIR term. Combining $MoS₂(S)$ and $Ag₃PO₄$ enhanced the separation efficiency of the photogenerated carriers and boosted the charge transfer, which improved the photodynamic light effectively eradicated bacteria on superficial implants or medical tools in the short

performance of Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄. In addition, the photothermal property of MoS₂ was not degraded after loading the Ag_3PO_4 nanoparticles on Ti–MoS₂(S). Relying on the photodynamic effect to cooperate with the photothermal performance of the $MoS₂(S)-Ag₃PO₄$ coating, Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ exhibited the best antibacterial efficiency of 99.48 \pm 0.19% and 99.77 ± 0.09% against *S. aureus* and *E. coli*, respectively, for 15 min. Furthermore, the MTT assay proved that $Ti-MoS_2(S)$ –Ag₃PO₄ had good biocompatibility in vitro, even compared to pure Ti. Therefore, the $MoS₂(S)-Ag₃PO₄$ coating can be regarded as a potential material to address the problem of implant infection in clinics.

Supplementary Materials: The following supporting information can be downloaded at: [https:](https://www.mdpi.com/article/10.3390/coatings12091263/s1) [//www.mdpi.com/article/10.3390/coatings12091263/s1,](https://www.mdpi.com/article/10.3390/coatings12091263/s1) Figure S1: XRD patterns of MoS₂ powder scraped off from Ti–MoS₂, Ti–MoS₂(S), and Ag₃PO₄ NPs prepared in the same condition without Ti–MoS₂(S); Figure S2: FE–SEM image of Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄ after the sterilization step. (scale bar: 500 nm); Figure S3: the antibacterial activities of the samples after 808 nm NIR light irradiation or staying in dark for 15 min. The antibacterial efficiency of the samples against *S. aureus* in the (A) second circle and (B) third circle. The error bars indicate means \pm SD, n = 3; Figure S4: contact angle of Ti, Ti–MoS₂(S), and Ti–MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄. (n = 3, *** *p* < 0.001, **** *p* < 0.0001); Figure S5: FESEM images of the cross-section of Ti-MoS₂(S)–Ag₃PO₄.

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