Insight into the electrical properties and chain conformation of spherical polyelectrolyte brushes by dielectric spectroscopy

To cite this article: Xiaoxia Guo and Kongshuang Zhao 2017 J. Phys.: Condens. Matter 29 055102

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1. Introduction

In the last two decades, spherical polyelectrolyte brushes (SPBs), which consist of a hard core with polyelectrolyte chains grafted onto it, have received tremendous attention because of their potential application in some fascinating fields [1–3]. According to the types of grafted polyelectrolyte chains, they could be divided into two classes of SPBs: quenched and annealed [4]. The polyelectrolyte chain of a quenched SPB is independent of the pH, while the annealed brush is responsive to pH. Normally it is achieved by attaching weak polyelectrolytes as poly (acrylic acid) (PAA) to the surface of polystyrene (PS). Because the amount of charging on the chains depends on pH, pH plays a key role in determining the chemical natures and conformation of annealed brushes. Moreover, the ionic strength of both quenched and annealed
SPB suspension affects the interaction between charged segments. Hence, smart SPBs with different stimuli response to the environment have been developed and widely used in protein separation, catalysis, drug delivery and other fields [2, 3, 5, 6]. Ballauff et al reported that SPBs can achieve the adsorption and separation of protein by controlling the solution conditions, and they are deemed to be a new class of colloidal carrier particles [5]. In order to improve the catalytic activity of nanoparticles, PS-PAA SPBs were used to synthesize Ag nanoparticles in situ by UV irradiation [6], and just recently, an interesting application of SPBs was reported by the same group, which was that the catalytic activity of Au/Pd nanoparticles carrier particles [5]. In order to improve the catalytic activity conditions, and they are deemed to be a new class of colloidal nanomaterials 

On the other hand, studies on the fundamental nature of SPBs have been reported [4, 7, 8]. SPBs create a model of a soft particle in which a hard particle core and bulk solution are separated by a polyelectrolyte chain layer. Such SPB suspension can be used as a model system to study colloidal stability. It is well known that the electrostatic repulsion between two charged particles can stabilize a colloid solution. Moreover, the space location-obstruct effect prevents the particles from approaching each other, and the two factors stabilize the colloidal suspension. Because the charged polyelectrolyte chains can prevent the condensation of particles, both the electrostatic and steric repulsion effects of SPBs contribute to the stability of a colloidal system [9]. Considering that special constitutions of SPBs and their adjustable brush layers (or soft layers) are made up of polyelectrolyte chains, the importance of SPBs is not only limited to colloid and interface science, but also stretches to many other fields, such as controlled synthesis and self-assembly in chemistry, materials and life science [2]. Hence, a comprehensive understanding of the essential properties of the brush layer of SPBs would be extremely beneficial. Fundamental studies of SPBs have been performed in recent years [10, 11]. Pincus studied the stability of colloid particles with grafted polyelectrolyte chains, and indicated that the stability can be controlled by changing the charge character of polyelectrolyte chains [9]. Subsequently, the studies mainly focused on the charge distribution in the brush layer [12], the effects of pH, ionic strength and valency of counterions on the chain configuration [4, 7]. Additionally, zeta potential has also been used to assess the strength of the repulsive force and thus the stability of the SPB dispersion [13].

Actually, although all studies on SPBs agreed on the existence of the potential distribution in the brush layer and the effect of ion concentration on the zeta potential, several questions remain unclear. The most important of which is that the long polyelectrolyte chains grafted onto the particle surface complicate the surface potential measurements. A reliable potential value is difficult to deduce considering the complicated morphology of the chain layer controlled by valence, concentration, and the distribution of counterions around the fixed charge on the chains [11]. To solve this problem, Dukhin and Zimmermann developed an approach to deduce the electrical parameter of the brush layer [14], as well as the structure, by measuring the surface conductivity [15, 16]. They found that pH and ionic strength in the brush layer strongly influence the values of zeta potential because of the conformation transition of the brush layer. Also, the surface conductivity at the grafted polyelectrolyte brush layer can be estimated using the mobility of counterions. The conformation of the polyelectrolyte chains, the charge distribution within the polyelectrolyte layer and the migration of the counterions in the brush layer will impact on the stability of SPB suspensions.

So far, various experimental methods have been adopted to characterize the SPBs, especially the brush layer. Enormous information about the electrical properties and conformational transformation inside the layer as the medium environment changes has been obtained. For example, dynamic light scattering (DLS) can directly obtain the overall dimensions of SPBs [7], cryogenic transmission electron microscopy collects images of SPBs with a well-outlined brush layer [8]. Dielectric relaxation spectroscopy (DRS) has been extensively applied to study the dynamic and structural properties of materials [17, 18]. In recent years, increasing interest has been attracted to the study of the dielectric properties of colloidal particles [19–22]. By analyzing DRS, valuable electrical and structural information about colloidal particles can be obtained with appropriate electrical models. Delgado et al studied the dielectric properties of SPB suspensions and found an enormous loss peak related to the dynamic mobility in the kHz frequency range [21]. In addition, they expounded that the huge dielectric increment was caused by the inhomogeneity of the counterion distribution in the brush layer [22]. Recently, Cametti et al studied the dielectric properties of several types of soft-particle suspension including ionic thiol-coated and PLGA-based nanoparticle suspensions. Valuable information about the electrical properties at the interface was obtained [23, 24].

Another advantage of studying SPBs is the well-defined core–shell structure, which is an exact model for soft particles. Except SPBs, soft particles cover many natural and synthetic systems, i.e. colloidal particles onto which block polymer, surfactant and biodegradable or biocompatible material are grafted or absorbed [25]. Therefore, fundamental research of soft particles has attracted much attention. Ohshima derived a general expression for conductivity of concentrated soft particles and revealed the potential distribution in the soft layer [26]. Moreover, he correlates the ionic strength, conductivity, and ionic strength with the Donnan potential, which is the surface potential of a spherical soft particle in the electrolyte solution [27, 28]. All of these colloidal features are highly related to the dielectric properties of the soft layer [26, 29].

Whether the dielectric theories and models for hard particles are suitable for the present soft-particle system is of major interest. It is well known that the dielectric theory of typical particle dispersion, developed nearly half a century ago, has been successfully applied in many practical systems [19, 20]. At present, well-developed dielectric theories and models can give a good explanation for the relaxation behaviors of most particle suspensions. In particular, their relaxation mechanisms have been attributed to surface diffusion [30] and volume diffusion for lower frequency [31] and interfacial polarization for higher frequency [32], respectively. However, although some soft-particle systems have been studied by dielectric spectroscopy, detailed analysis of the relaxations remains insufficient
for two reasons: dielectric behaviors of two relaxations are hard to observe experimentally; there are many uncertain factors to analyze in dielectric data of low frequency (LF) because of the introduction of polyelectrolyte chains onto hard particles. A key problem the detection of the relaxation caused by the polyelectrolyte brush. Fortunately, Delgado provided us with an instructive example: a low-frequency relaxation related to the polyelectrolyte brush layer [21].

Cametti elaborated how the structure of polymer soft layer alters the dielectric response and the electrokinetic properties of the system, as well as the electrokinetic properties of the soft layer, with the possibility of theoretical analysis pointed out in his review [33]. The soft layer, which is ion-permeable and distributive, like SPBs, can also be described by theoretical models. As far as we know, however, studies into the theoretical analysis of the observed dielectric data is inadequate, because current dielectric studies are not comprehensive. Detailed information on the electrical and structural properties of the constituent phases of SPBs (e.g. the permittivities and conductivities of the brush layer and polymer core, and the thickness of the brush layer) cannot be estimated. In our previous research, dielectric spectra with two relaxation processes observed in the PS-PAA SPB suspension were successfully analyzed by using Hanai equation and a typical model for hard-particle suspension [34]. The SPB is regarded as a particle dispersed in a continuous medium. However, the study did not elucidate the electrical properties of each constituent in the SPBs, i.e. the PS hard core and PAA polyelectrolyte chain layer. Moreover, the analysis failed to taking into account information about the varying soft-layer boundary in different medium environments due to the limited analysis model. In other words, the indistinct boundary of soft particles proposed by Cametti and Grosse has not been solved yet [33, 35].

As early as 1946, the spherical-shell model was proposed and proved as a valid model to describe conventional colloidal particle dispersion or biological cell suspension. Hanai–Asami et al have already established a quantitative analytical calculation method [36, 37]. However, such a model and corresponding computing approach are based on the object of a spherical-shell particle in which the shell is impermeable and non-conductive. Therefore, it is inappropriate for the SPB suspension. Dukhin and Shilove [38] proposed a model including the diffusion and exchange of ions between the electrical double layer and the bulk phase. Afterward, Grosse and Zimmerman [39] extended the Dukhin–Shilove model to a new one in which the sphere core is covered with a charged single shell, and presented a calculation method to obtain the analytical solution. Recently, Asami [40] successfully examined the dielectric dispersion of Escherichia coli cell suspensions by using the Gross–Zimmerman (G–Z) model.

In this work, the dielectric spectra of SPBs with an annealed brush is studied. The SPBs consisting of a nanoscale PS core and PAA chains of three kinds of different length are modeled as a PS core covered with an ion-permeable PAA layer. The dielectric data are recorded as a function of the mass fraction of SPBs and pH as well as chain length. Two relaxation processes observed around 100 kHz and 10 MHz, respectively, are analyzed based on the proposed model. For the analysis, we derive the theoretical formulas from the Gross–Zimmerman model, and deduce the electrical parameters of the PS core and PAA brush layer under different medium environments. With these parameters, the diffusion migration of counterions in the brush layer, conformation of PAA chains as the mass fraction of SPBs and pH of bulk solution changing is investigated. The dielectric behavior of SPBs of different PAA chain lengths and their corresponding electrical parameters are compared quantitatively.

2. Dielectric model of SPBs and relevant formulas

SPBs consist of polyelectrolyte chains densely grafted onto the surface of microspheres to constitute a special soft particle and have two basic features: the brush layer is charged and ion-permeable. Thus, SPB suspension contains three ‘phases’ of different electrical properties: polymer core, brush layer grafted onto the polymer, and medium solution. According to Maxwell–Wagner interfacial polarization theory, for such three-phase SPB suspensions two relaxations exist under the external AC electric field [41]. The electrical parameters of the three phases can be calculated by analyzing the two relaxations using the spherical-shell model, that is, a sphere covered with a shell of uniform electrical conductivity. However, this method is inappropriate for SPB suspension because of its special shell. Dukhin and Shilove [38] proposed a model to illuminate the diffusion and exchange of ions between the electrical double layer and the bulk phase. Following this, many modified models have been reported [20, 39]. Among these models, a soft-sphere model was developed along the lines of the Dukhin–Shilove model by Grosse and Zimmerman in 2005 [39] and is widely used. This model is similar to the traditional spherical-shell mode. Moreover, the surface conductivity on the soft layer was considered, as well as the features of this layer, i.e. that it is charged and ion-permeable. Additionally, the analysis formulas for the calculation of the electrical parameters of soft layer were derived. Therefore, the Gross–Zimmerman model is suitable for analyzing the present SPB suspensions.

In the present work, SPB suspension is modelized and depicted in figure 1(b). The suspended SPB particle with complex permittivity \( \varepsilon_r^* \) is modeled as an insulating PS sphere with radius \( a \) and complex permittivity \( \varepsilon_r^* \), which is surrounded by a conducting ion-permeable shell (polyelectrolyte chain layer) with thickness \( d \), and complex permittivity \( \varepsilon_r^* \), as schematically depicted in figure 1(b). Such SPB particles are dispersed in a salt-free continuous medium of complex permittivity \( \varepsilon_r^* \) with volume fraction \( \Phi \) and constitute SPB suspension (see figure 1(a)). The mobile counterions in SPB suspensions are mainly caused by the dissociation of the carboxyl group on PAA chains in the shell layer (see figure 1(c)) and bulk phase. And the ions can penetrate into the soft-shell layer, i.e. the exchange of ions between the shell layer and bulk phase can occur at the interface \( R_l = (a + d) \). This consideration is different from the conventional models, such as Hanai–Asami, previously adopted to describe microcapsules and biological cells.
We assume that: (a) the mass distribution of the polyelectrolyte chains in the shell phase is uniform and (b) the fixed charges of SPB particles are also uniformly distributed in the shell and that the permittivity of the shell should be equal everywhere.

Based on the above model, the complex permittivity of the SPB suspension \( \varepsilon^* \) is described by the following Wagner equation as

\[
\varepsilon^* = \varepsilon_a + \frac{3\omega d^*}{1 - \omega d^*},
\]

(1)

When the SPBs’ mass fraction is very low, e.g. \( \Phi < 1 \) (the present work follows this condition), equation (1) is simplified to

\[
\varepsilon^* = \varepsilon_a + \frac{3\omega d^*}{1 - \omega d^*},
\]

(2)

where \( \varepsilon_a = \varepsilon_a + \kappa_a/(j\omega\varepsilon_0) \) (\( \varepsilon_a \) and \( \kappa_a \) are the permittivity and conductivity of the medium respectively, \( \omega = 2\pi f \) is angular frequency (\( f \) is measuring frequency), \( \omega_0 = 1 \) and \( \varepsilon_0 \) are the permittivity of the vacuum); \( d^* \) is the dipole coefficient (or Clausius–Mossotti function) which is used to calculate effective dipole moment. The coefficient \( d^* \) depends on both the dielectric properties of the particle and medium and the frequency of the applied field, and \( d^* \) can be expressed as the sum of the dipole coefficients at low and high frequency (HF) [39, 40, 42]:

\[
d^*(\omega) = d^\infty - \frac{\Delta d_L}{j\omega\lambda_L + 1} - \frac{\Delta d_H}{j\omega\lambda_H + 1} = d^\infty + d^L_H.
\]

(3)

The dipole coefficients of LF \( d^L_H \) originate from the polarization due to the diffusion and permeation of the counterion in the soft layer [43], and can be written as

\[
d^L_H = \frac{\Delta d_L}{1 + \sqrt{2S/S} \sqrt{j2\omega\lambda_L}} + d_{hlb},
\]

(4)

where \( \Delta d_L = -6S \left( \frac{R - R_s}{R + R_s} \right)^2, \lambda_L = \frac{sR^2}{2D}, \) \( S, \) and \( d_{hlb} \) are given in the appendix. The dipole coefficient of HF \( d^H_H \) is related to interfacial polarization between the particles and the medium and is given by

\[
d^H_H = \frac{\varepsilon_p^* - \varepsilon_a^*}{\varepsilon_p^* + 2\varepsilon_a^*},
\]

(5)

where the complex permittivity \( \varepsilon_p^* \) of the dispersed particles is given by

\[
\varepsilon_p^* = \frac{1}{j2\pi\varepsilon_0} \left( \frac{2\lambda}{\varepsilon_0} + \varepsilon_0 \frac{\varepsilon_s^* + 2\varepsilon_s^*}{\varepsilon_0^* + 2\varepsilon_0^*} = \varepsilon_s + \frac{2\varepsilon_s^*}{\varepsilon_0^* + 2\varepsilon_0^*} \right),
\]

(6)

wherein \( \nu = [1 - d_s/(a + d_s)^3] \), which represents the volume fraction of the PS sphere in the whole SPB particle. According to Hanai’s method [44], the complex permittivity \( \varepsilon_s^* \) of the PS spheres and \( \varepsilon_a^* \) of the polyelectrolyte brush layer are expressed by the relaxation parameters \( (\varepsilon_m \) and \( \varepsilon_h \) are the limit of permittivity at the middle and high frequencies respectively, \( \kappa_s \) denotes LF limits of conductivity, and \( \nu_f \) is the characteristic relaxation frequency ) measured experimentally as:

\[
\varepsilon_s^* = \frac{\nu_f}{\nu_f^*} \left( \frac{\varepsilon_s^* + 2\varepsilon_s^*}{\varepsilon_0^* + 2\varepsilon_0^*} \right)
\]

(7)

Here, \( \varepsilon_s^* \) and \( \varepsilon_a^* \) are defined with their permittivity \( \varepsilon_s \) and conductivity \( \kappa_s \) as \( \varepsilon_s^* = \varepsilon_s + \kappa_s/(2\varepsilon_0^*) \) and \( \varepsilon_a^* = \varepsilon_a + \kappa_a/(2\varepsilon_0^*) \) (see figure 1).

There relaxation parameters are respectively expressed by phase parameters of SPB particles as follows:

\[
\nu_f = \frac{\varepsilon_s^* + 2\varepsilon_s^*}{\varepsilon_0^* + 2\varepsilon_0^*} = \frac{\varepsilon_s^* + 2\varepsilon_s^*}{\varepsilon_0^* + 2\varepsilon_0^*}
\]

(8)

\[
\Delta \varepsilon = \nu_f - \nu_a = \frac{9\nu(1 - \nu)(\nu_a - \nu_0)^2}{[2\varepsilon_a + \nu(s, \varepsilon_a) + [2\varepsilon_a + \nu(s, \varepsilon_a)]^2]
\]

(9)

\[
f_0 = \frac{2\kappa_a + \kappa_a + \nu(s, \varepsilon_a)}{2\nu(s, \varepsilon_a) + \nu(s, \varepsilon_a)}
\]

(10)

\[
\kappa_s = \frac{2\kappa_s + \kappa_s + \nu(s, \kappa_s)}{2\nu(s, \kappa_s) + \nu(s, \kappa_s)}
\]

(11)

The surface-charged state of SPB particles depends on spatial distribution of ions, and the surface-charge density \( \sigma_0 \) of SPBs determines the zeta potential \( \zeta \) of the SPB particles:

\[
\sigma_0 = \sqrt{8\pi R T \varepsilon_0 \varepsilon_a \sinh(F \zeta/2RT)}
\]

(12)

where \( \varepsilon_a \) is the concentration of the continuous medium in mM, F is the Faraday constant, R is the gas constant and T is the absolute temperature.
According to the interfacial polarization theory induced by surface conductance $\lambda$ [45], $\sigma_0$ is proportional to the relaxation strength $\Delta\varepsilon$. Hence, $\sigma_0$ is deduced by equation (8) with corresponding phase parameters and structure parameters given in figure 1. The phase parameters of various compositions of SPB particles are obtained by fitting equations (1)–(7) to the observed dielectric spectra. From $d_H^*$ and $d_L^*$ [39], the surface conductance $\lambda$ is an important parameter in the Grosse–Zimmerman model. It can be expressed as

$$\lambda = \frac{R^+ + R^-}{4} = \kappa_\sigma. \quad (13)$$

Here, the expressions of the intermediate variable $R^+$ and $R^-$ are in the appendix.

3. Experimental section

3.1. Materials and preparation of sample

3.1.1. Materials. All the chemicals used for this experiment were of analytical grade. Styrene (Sigma-Aldrich) and acrylic acid (Sigma-Aldrich) are distilled under a reduced pressure to remove the inhibitor, and stored at 4 °C in a refrigerator. Sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) (Merck) is recrystallized before being used as a surfactant in the synthesis of polymer cores. Potassium persulfate (KPS) (Merck) is used without further purification. Doubly distilled water is used in this experiment.

3.1.2. Synthesis and characterization of anionic SPBs. The anionic SPBs used in this work are synthesized by photo-emulsion polymerization, which is based on a ‘grafting-from’ technique, leading to a dense layer of chemically bound polyelectrolyte chains. First, HMEM photoinitiator is prepared by a Schotten–Baumann reaction. Second, styrene is polymerized in a certain amount of H$_2$O using SDS as surfactant and KPS as initiator [1]. Then, HMEM is added under starved conditions. Doubly distilled water is used in this experiment. Finally, functional monomers are grafted onto the PS core surface [46]. The whole reaction is carried out under magnetic stirring and nitrogen protection. This specific preparation method has been reported elsewhere [47].

The radius of SPBs ($R_s$) and the PS core ($a$) are determined by DLS (a Peters ALV 4000 light scattering goniometer). The thickness $d_s$ of SPBs is defined as the difference between $R_s$ and $a$. A sketch of the schematic and structural information of three kinds of SPBs used in this study, which are PS-PAA, PS-PAA-1 and PS-PAA-2, is shown in figure 2 and table 1.

3.1.3. Preparation of samples. SPBs with a PS core and brush-like PAA shell are prepared by photo-emulsion polymerization as described above. Then, the SPBs solution is freeze-dried (LGJ-18S freezing dryer, Beijing Songyuan Huaxing Technology Develop Co. Ltd) and diluted to a certain mass fraction by adding determined amount of deionized water. For PS-PAA-1, PS-PAA-2 suspensions, the mass fraction ranges from 9 to 0.1%, while for PS-PAA suspensions, the mass fraction ranges from 1.5 to 0.1%; the pH between 3 and 11 is adjusted by adding a different concentration of HCl or KOH aqueous solution. The pH is monitored by a microprocessor pH meter (UltraBASIC-7, Denver Instrument, China). Normally ionic strength is $10^{-4}$ M after the system has been adjusted carefully by adding different concentrations of KCl solution. Then, the sample is conducted in ultrasonic for 3 h and static for 24 h before dielectric measurements.
3.2. Dielectric measurements

Dielectric measurements of the SPB suspensions were carried out using an HP4294A Precision Impedance Analyzer (Agilent Technologies) over a frequency range from 40 Hz to 110 MHz, controlled by a personal computer. The amplitude of the applied alternating field was 500 mV. The measuring cell used in the test for the case of SPB suspensions is a parallel plate capacitor of platinum discs coated with platinum black and separated by a Lucite spacer (see figure S1 (stacks.iop.org/JPhysCM/29/055102/mmedia)). The geometric area of the electrodes is 13.72 mm² and the distance between the electrodes is 9.82 mm. To eliminate the errors from residual inductance (Lr) and stray capacitance (Cr) (the values of Lr, Cr and cell constant C1 have been determined by using several standard substances (air, ethanol, water) and KCl solution of different concentrations are 26.8 nF · S⁻², 0.337 pF and 0.034 pF, respectively), the raw experimental data, capacitance Cs and conductance Gs are corrected according to Schwan’s method [48] from the following equations:

\[
C_s = \frac{C_r(1 + \omega^2 L_r G_r)}{(1 + \omega^2 L_r C_r)^2 + (\omega L_r G_r)^2} - C_r \\
G_s = \frac{G_r}{(1 + \omega^2 L_r C_r)^2 + (\omega L_r G_r)^2}.
\]

The corrected capacitance Cs and conductance Gs are converted to the corresponding dielectric permittivity ε and conductivity κ through the equations ε = C_s/C1 and κ = G_s/ω/C1. All dielectric measurements are performed at (298 ± 0.5 K).

3.3. Determination of relaxation parameters

The dielectric response of a substance or system to applied AC electric field can be characterized by the complex permittivity ε*(ω) which is defined as:

\[
epsilon^*(\omega) = \varepsilon(\omega) - j\frac{\kappa(\omega)}{\varepsilon(\omega)} = \varepsilon(\omega) - \left(\varepsilon''(\omega) + \frac{\kappa_1}{\omega \varepsilon_0}\right),
\]

where ε(ω) and κ(ω) are the frequency-dependent real part of complex permittivity and complex conductivity, respectively, and ε''(ω) is the frequency-dependent dielectric loss. For aqueous solution systems with higher electrolyte contents, like our samples, a considerable electrode polarization (EP) generally occurs in a lower frequency range. The conductivity of the whole system contains two contributions, one from LF conductivity κ_l which can be obtained through the κ''-κ plot. The imaginary part κ'' of the conductivity can be calculated from the obtained dielectric parameters ε_l and κ_l = ε_lω(ε_l - ε_0), and the other from dielectric loss ε'' which is calculated from the conductivity spectra through the equation ε''(ω) = (κ(ω) - κ_l)/ω ε_0. The following empirical function, namely a combination equation of the i Havriliak–Negami (HN) function and the EP term, including i (the number of relaxations, usually i = 1, 2 or 3) Cole–Cole’s terms and an EP term Aω⁻ⁿ⁺ (A and m are adjustable parameters) is employed to analyze the experimental spectra:

\[
e\varepsilon^* = \varepsilon_h + \sum_{i} \frac{\Delta\varepsilon_i}{1 + (\omega f_0)^{\alpha_i}} + A\omega^{-m}.
\]

Here, Δε_i is the relaxation intensity (i.e. relaxation increment) of relaxation i, f_0 is the characteristic relaxation frequency, and α and β are the distribution parameters of relaxation times (0 < α ≤ 1, 0 < β ≤ 1). For systems with two dielectric relaxations (i.e. i = 2 in equation (17)), Δ\varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_m and Δ\varepsilon_2 = \varepsilon_m - \varepsilon_h (the subscripts 1 and 2 refer to the lower- and higher-frequency relaxation, and the l, m, and h are the low-, middle-, and HF limits of permittivity, respectively). The high- and middle-frequency limits of conductivity, κ_h and κ_m can be calculated using the following equations derived based on [49]:

\[
\kappa_m = \left(\varepsilon_m - \varepsilon_h\right)2\pi f_0 \varepsilon_0 + \kappa_l
\]

\[
\kappa_h = \left(\varepsilon_m - \varepsilon_h\right)2\pi f_0 \varepsilon_0 + \kappa_m.
\]

Figure 3 represents an example of the frequency dependence of permittivity (hollow red circles) of 1.5% PS-PAA SPB suspensions at pH = 3.27. It should be noted in figure 3 that the EP effect at the LF range (circled by a dashed ring) is well eliminated, and the corrected permittivity (hollow black circles) shows a clear-cut platform of the LF relaxation (the imaginary part of complex conductivity also shows the EP in the LF and two relaxations occur around 100kHz and 10 MHz, respectively; see figure S2(c)) [50]. We used the two HN and the EP terms (equation (17)) to fit the dielectric data; the cyan solid line is the fitting result in figure 3. After subtracting the EP term, we can display a measured spectra without the EP term (see the green solid line in figure 3). The values of Δε₁, Δε₂, f₀₁, f₀₂, and α₁, α₂, β₁, β₂, i.e. the relaxation parameters in equation (17), are determined by the non-linear least squares method to minimize the residual χ².
4. Results and discussion

4.1. Dielectric spectra of SPB suspensions of varying SPB mass fraction and pH

Figures 4(a) and (b) show the 3D representations for mass fractions of SPB dependence and pH dependence of the dielectric spectra, respectively. Note that figure 4 is the dielectric spectra after eliminating the EP effect. All of these dielectric spectra data were represented by equation (17) with the best-fit relaxation parameters (\( \Delta \varepsilon_1, \Delta \varepsilon_2, f_{01}, f_{02}, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \beta_1, \beta_2 \)). Obtained main parameters, such as the low-, middle-, and high-frequency limits of permittivity \( \varepsilon_0, \varepsilon_m, \varepsilon_1 \) and their characteristic frequency \( f_{01}, f_{02} \) are listed in tables S1 and S2 (see the SI in detail) together with \( \kappa_m \) and \( \kappa_h \) calculated from equations (18) and(19).

4.2. Dependency of relaxation parameters on mass fraction and pH

From the inspection of tables S1 and S2, there are significant differences among the three SPB suspensions (PS-PAA, PS-PAA-1 and PS-PAA-2, see table 1) in relaxation parameters. Such differences are independent of the mass fraction of SPBs or the pH of the suspension. To clarify this, the parameters, \( \Delta \varepsilon_1, \Delta \varepsilon_2, \Delta \kappa_1, \Delta \kappa_2, \tau_1 \) and \( \tau_2 \), are plotted against the mass fraction and pH in figures 5–7, respectively. As seen in figure 5(a), the dielectric increments (i.e. relaxation intensity, \( \Delta \varepsilon_1 \) and \( \Delta \varepsilon_2 \)) of LF and HF relaxations for PS-PAA-1, PS-PAA-2 suspensions (red and green points, respectively; the same below) show the same change tendency and their values are close, while \( \Delta \varepsilon_1 \) and \( \Delta \varepsilon_2 \) of PS-PAA (blue points; the same below) are much greater than that of PS-PAA-1 and PS-PAA-2 in each SPB mass fraction. The results mean that the relaxation intensity for the LF or HF relaxation is mainly determined by the size of the PS core of SPBs, but has a little relation with the length of the PAA chain or the thickness of the soft layer. The relaxation intensity is proportional to the radius of the PS core, namely \( \Delta \varepsilon \propto a \) (see figure 2 and table 1).

Interestingly, this result is not shown in the pH dependence of \( \Delta \varepsilon_1 \) and \( \Delta \varepsilon_2 \) for the three SPB suspensions when the pH of these suspensions changes from 3 to 11, as shown in figure 5(b). In acid media (\( pH < 7 \)), the LF relaxation intensity \( \Delta \varepsilon_1 \) of PS-PAA is greater than that of PS-PAA-1 and PS-PAA-2, which also manifests \( \Delta \varepsilon_1 \) as proportional to the radius of the PS core. However, the change tendency of \( \Delta \varepsilon_1 \) for PS-PAA-1 and PS-PAA-2 with pH does not remain consistent because of the relaxation in density of the particle suspension. This is not only related to the radius of the PS core, but is also influenced by the soft layer consisting of PAA chains under various pH conditions. As previously mentioned in the introduction, the conformation of an annealed polyelectrolyte chain in the soft layer evidently depends on the pH of the medium. This is proved in the later discussions about figure 14, which show PAA chains gradually tend toward stretching with increasing pH. Thus, it is concluded that the gradual stretching of PAA chains with increasing pH causes a much greater thickness of the soft layer of PS-PAA-2 compared with PS-PAA-1 in the range of pH 3–11. This suggests \( \Delta \varepsilon_1 \) is proportional to \( d_s \) (soft-layer thickness), in spite of the positive correlation between the \( \Delta \varepsilon_2 \) for three kinds of SPBs
(PS-PAA, PS-PAA-1 and PS-PAA-2) and the unobvious soft-layer thickness $d_s$ (see figure 5(b)).

Figures 6(a) and (b) show the mass-fraction dependence and pH dependence of relaxation time $\tau_1 (=1/2\pi f_{01})$ and $\tau_2 (=1/2\pi f_{02})$ for the three kinds of SPB suspensions (PS-PAA, PS-PAA-1 and PS-PAA-2). It is obvious that both $\tau_1$ and $\tau_2$ for the three SPB suspensions decrease sharply in very low mass fraction (about 0.1%–6.0%) and then exhibit a significant platform. This suggests that when the number of SPB particles reaches a certain level, the charge distributions inside polyelectrolyte layer and at the interface between SPB particles and bulk solution became independent of the number of particles. This is because the relaxation time of interfacial polarization depends mainly on the electrical properties of the interface or the constituent phases of a heterogeneous system. Similarly, $\tau_1$ and $\tau_2$ for PS-PAA-1 and PS-PAA-2 behave the same way in the experimental mass-fraction range including $\Delta \varepsilon_1$ and $\Delta \varepsilon_2$. Interestingly, the relaxation times of PS-PAA-1 SPBs with a relatively thin PAA layer (short-chain) are always slightly larger than PS-PAA-2 SPBs of thicker PAA layers (long-chain). Note that under the same mass fraction, the bigger the size of the SPB particle the fewer the SPB number needed to reach the same mass fraction, i.e. the larger size of particle requires a fewer number for the same volume fraction. From figure 6(a), we can roughly see that the relaxation time and the radius of SPB $R_s$ demonstrate a negative

Figure 5. Mass-fraction dependence of the dielectric increment (a) and the pH dependence of the dielectric increment when the mass fraction of SPBs is 0.3% (b).

Figure 6. Mass-fraction dependence of the relaxation time (a) and pH dependence of relaxation time when mass fraction of SPBs is 0.3% (b).
correlation (see figure 2). A slightly different result is found in the pH dependence of the LF and HF relaxation times, $\tau_1$ and $\tau_2$, shown in figure 6(b). It is clear that for the same pH, the relaxation times $\tau_1$ and $\tau_2$ are determined by the radius of the PS microsphere instead of SPBs in a sequence which is $\tau_1$ or $2$ (PS-PAA-2) $> \tau_1$ or $2$ (PS-PAA-1) $> \tau_1$ or $2$ (PS-PAA). This means that the relaxation times and the radius of PS show a negative correlation. The biggest difference in the two results shown in figures 6(a) and (b) is that the values of $\tau_1$ and $\tau_2$ for the same PS core with different chain length are different. This reflects the fact that the relaxation time is also related to the structural and electrical properties of the polyelectrolyte layer, and the layer is influenced by the pH of bulk solution.

In regard to the conductivity increment $\Delta \kappa_1$ and $\Delta \kappa_2$, in essence they are not independent and are closely related to dielectric increment $\Delta \varepsilon_1$ and $\Delta \varepsilon_2$ as defined by equations (17) and (18). Therefore, they behave in the same way as the dielectric increment shown in figures 7(a) and (b). It is worth stressing that the values of $\Delta \varepsilon_1$ for PS-PAA are much larger than that of PS-PAA-1 and PS-PAA-2, revealing that the conductivity increment is positively correlated with the size of PS microsphere. In addition, the number of counterions is proportional to the SPBs’ mass fraction, hence, $\Delta \varepsilon_1 \propto \text{wtSPB}\%$.

4.3. Theoretical analysis of dielectric spectroscopy based on the G–Z model

According to the method mentioned in section 2, the parameters (called 'phase parameters' in this work) reflecting the electrical properties and structural features of the constituent phases (PS core, shell phase (polyelectrolyte layer) and external medium) of the SPB suspensions are obtained by fitting equations (1)–(7) to the observed dielectric spectra (as shown in tables 2, 3, S3 and S4, with some parameter values relevant to SPB suspensions and the experimental conditions:

Table 2. Calculated phase parameters for PS-PAA SPB suspensions of different mass fractions based on the spherical-shell model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>wt%</th>
<th>$\varepsilon_1$</th>
<th>$\varepsilon_2$</th>
<th>$\varepsilon_a$</th>
<th>$\kappa_a$ (S m$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>$\Phi$ (%)</th>
<th>$\zeta$ (mV)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>77.2</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>$-20.0$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>77.6</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>$-22.1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>78.0</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>$-22.3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>78.2</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>$-22.6$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>78.4</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>$-23.0$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>78.6</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>$-23.2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>78.9</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>$-23.4$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>79.4</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>$-23.5$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>79.8</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Calculated phase parameters for 0.3% PS-PAA SPB suspensions of varying pH based on the spherical-shell model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>pH</th>
<th>$\varepsilon_1$</th>
<th>$\varepsilon_2$</th>
<th>$\varepsilon_a$</th>
<th>$\kappa_a$ (S m$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>$\Phi$ (%)</th>
<th>$\zeta$ (mV)</th>
<th>$d_s$ (nm)</th>
<th>$\nu$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>78.4</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>$-38.0$</td>
<td>176.0</td>
<td>7.19</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>78.4</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>$-39.5$</td>
<td>179.0</td>
<td>6.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>76.5</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>$-40.0$</td>
<td>216.0</td>
<td>4.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.84</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>76.4</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>$-41.2$</td>
<td>217.0</td>
<td>4.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.97</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>76.3</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>$-42.0$</td>
<td>219.0</td>
<td>4.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.29</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>76.3</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>$-42.1$</td>
<td>219.5</td>
<td>4.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.15</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>76.7</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>$-42.1$</td>
<td>219.5</td>
<td>4.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.87</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>77.2</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>$-42.2$</td>
<td>219.5</td>
<td>4.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.84</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>77.5</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>$-42.3$</td>
<td>219.0</td>
<td>4.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$T = 298 \, \text{K}, \ D = 6.72 \times 10^{-9} \, \text{m}^2 \, \text{s}^{-1}$ and $\eta$ (the viscosity of the medium) = $8.904 \times 10^{-4} \, \text{Pa} \cdot \text{s}$ [40]. Figure 8 shows an example of best-fit curve: the frequency dependence of the permittivity for PS-PAA SPB suspension at wtSPB% = 0.1% (hollow black circles) and at pH = 2.95 (hollow red circles), and the solid lines are the best-fit curves by equations (1)–(7).
4.3.1 Chain conformation of brush layer with different chain length. Figures 9 and 10 respectively show the SPBs’ mass fraction, pH dependence of permittivity of the PS core ($\varepsilon_i$), polyelectrolyte layer (soft-shell phase) ($\varepsilon_s$) and external medium ($\varepsilon_a$) for PS-PAA, PS-PAA-1 and PS-PAA-2 kinds of SPB suspensions. The permittivity of the PS core is 2.5. This is very close to a bare PS microsphere and independent of the number of SPBs and pH of the medium, as shown in figures 9(a) and 10(a). We focus on the shell phase, i.e. polyelectrolyte layer: whether changing the SPBs’ mass fraction or altering the pH, the $\varepsilon_s$ of the PS-PAA-1 is relatively larger ($105\sim120$), while the $\varepsilon_s$ of PS-PAA and PS-PAA-2 is between 72 and 78 (figures 9(b) and 10(b)), which is close to $\varepsilon_a$ of the external medium. The difference in $\varepsilon_s$ among the three kinds of SPBs (PS-PAA-1, PS-PAA and PS-PAA-2) suggests that magnitude of $\varepsilon_s$ is mainly determined by the length of the polyelectrolyte chains in the shell phase, while it has a little relation to the size of the PS core (see table 1 and figure 2). A detailed discussion now follows.

The average value of permittivity of the PS-PAA and PS-PAA-2 in figure 9(b) or in figure 10(b) ranges from 66 to 78, which is slightly less than pure water ($\varepsilon_{\text{water}} = 78.35$, 298 K). In general, the water composition in the polyelectrolyte layer is approximated to 90%. Therefore, the permittivity of the PAA layer for PS-PAA and PS-PAA-2 is reasonable. However, the permittivity of the PAA layer of PS-PAA-1, which is about 110–120, is much larger than PS-PAA and PS-PAA-2. This implies that a huge apparent dipole moment exists among the PAA layer in PS-PAA-1 SPBs. It originates from a strong orientational order of water molecules in the PAA layer and leads to an intriguingly high permittivity of about 110–120. The strong orientational order of water molecules from hydrogen bonds are more likely to occur in the shorter PAA chains. However, for the longer polymer chain with a higher flexibility, the water molecules (hydrogen bond) arranges randomly in the polyelectrolyte layer because of the flexibility of the chains. As a result, no apparent additional macro-dipole moment is formed (as shown in figure 11). As can be seen in figures 9(b) and 10(b), the permittivities of the PAA layer for PS-PAA and PS-PAA-2 are both slightly less than pure water.

The high permittivity of the PAA layer of PS-PAA-1 SPBs can be interpreted from microcosmic point of view. According to the research by Allen and Ballenegger [53, 54], the image-charge interactions exists in the interface where dielectric discontinuity exists between the two substances with different permittivities, such as polar solution and polymer chain. Essentially, the image-charge interaction originates in the arrangement of water molecules at the interface. The arrangement is normally recognized as the first layer of water molecules to align their dipoles parallel to the interface in terms of electrostatic interactions of these dipoles with their images.
Following this, there is a large dielectric discontinuity between water and the PAA chain in the brush layer. The water molecules alongside the PAA chains align their dipoles parallel to the hydrophobic chains as illustrated in figure 11 (see the caption for details). A larger value of dipole–dipole correlations (between red arrows and blue arrows) is favorable, as shown in figure 11. As a result, a high permittivity appears in the PAA polyelectrolyte layer for the PS-PAA-1 SPBs. This explanation concerning water molecule orientation is well supported by the works of Gawrisch. He found that the water molecules in the hydrophobic interface have a compact orientational orderliness. Therefore, the highly ordered molecules interact with the carbonyl dipoles of dipalmitoylphosphatidylcholine and contribute to the dipole potential [55].

Besides the flexible chain conformation, the carboxyl dipoles (or carbonyl dipoles at higher pH) on the PAA chains also contribute to the dipole moment (see red arrows in figure 11). This part of the dipole moment also influence the permittivity \( \varepsilon_s \) or polarity of the brush layer [55–57]. As illustrated in figure 11(b), in the soft layer of PS-PAA or PS-PAA-2, the dipoles between carboxyl groups present a disorderly orientation without an apparent dipole moment, while the orientation of the dipoles in the shorter PAA chain layer presents more order (figure 11(a)). The orientational order of water and the intrinsic dipoles of the carboxyl group (or carbonyl group at higher pH) result in the consequences shown in figures 9(b) and 10(b): the layer permittivity \( \varepsilon_s \) of PS-PAA-1 with a shorter chain is much larger than PS-PAA and PS-PAA-2 with longer polyelectrolyte chains.

4.3.2. Anomalous permittivity of water in alkaline media. The permittivity of the external medium \( \varepsilon_a \), which is calculated using equations (1)–(7), remains almost the same with the mass fraction of SPBs. Values of \( \varepsilon_a \) for the three suspensions, around 78 (figure 9(c)), are very close to water at 298 K (\( \varepsilon_{\text{water}} = 78.35 \)), showing the number of SPBs has limited impact on the polarity of external solutions of suspension. This also verifies the rationalities of the model used in this work. However, when the acid–base property, i.e. the pH of these suspensions is changed, the calculated permittivities of the external solutions \( \varepsilon_a \) are no longer a constant. In other words, the \( \varepsilon_a \) values for the three suspensions (PS-PAA, PS-PAA-1 and PS-PAA-2) change with pH; this is notable PS-PAA-2, as shown in figure 10(c). Normally \( \varepsilon_a \) of the acid medium is less than alkaline media. This implies that an extraordinary non-covalent-bond-associated structure of water molecules, which is an unsymmetrical oligomer of water clusters, forms in an alkaline medium because of its bigger dipole moment. The dipole moment of strong symmetric water was reported to be very low [58]. Hence, the structural water in alkaline media most likely has a higher polarity and larger permittivity than usual water clusters.

4.3.3. Migration of counterions in the brush layer. The conductivities of the polyelectrolyte brush layer \( \kappa_s \) for three kinds of SPBs (PS-PAA, PS-PAA-1 and PS-PAA-2) in tables 2, 3, S3 and S4 are plotted as a function of SPBs’ mass fraction or the pH in figure 12. It is reasonable to assume that in a low-salt medium, \( \kappa_s \) is dominated by the diffusion and migration of the counterions along the polyelectrolyte chains. The brush-layer conductivity \( \kappa_s \) of the three different brush thickness increases in different ways as their respective mass fractions increase (figure 12(a)). Thus, the conductivity variation in the polyelectrolyte chain layer is not only from the diffusion of the counterions along the chain, but is also determined by some complex electrical conduction mechanisms that are closely related to the thickness of polyelectrolyte layer and the chain conformation.

As the pH of the suspensions varies, the conductivities of the polyelectrolyte brush layer \( \kappa_s \) for the three SPBs transform in a similar way as the mass of the SPBs. As shown in figure 12(b), the values of \( \kappa_s \) for the three SPBs increase with an increasing pH, which indicates that reducing the acidity of the suspensions enhances the migration of the counterions.
along the PAA chains and results in an increase in conductivity of the brush layer. From the point of view of the deprotonation and electric neutrality, this can be interpreted in the following way: lowering the acidity of suspensions causes the H$^+$ on the carboxyl groups in PAA chains to decrease and fixed charge density to accumulate in the soft layer. Consequently, some charged sites are generated with more counterions K$^+$ permeating and becoming confined in the brush layer. Under external AC electrical field the fluctuations of these counter-ions around fixed charges on the PAA chain increase $\kappa_s$ [14].

It is worth noting that the three $\kappa_s$-pH curves have obvious inflection: the rates of increase of $\kappa_s$ for the three systems are inhibited when pH > 7 remains constant. Considering [34] the deformation of the chain conformation in the brush layer of SPBs induced by the alternative pH as well as collapse or stretch, full swelling (or full collapsing) of the polyelectrolyte brush layer generates such a platform of $\kappa_s$. No matter whether the layers fully stretch or collapse or not, the thickness of the brush layer remains unchanged when pH > 7. Consequently, the conductivity of the brush layer is a constant. It will be further clarify in this work that the PAA chains of anionic SPBs fully stretch in alkaline medium.

4.3.4. Stretch of polyelectrolyte brushes in alkaline medium. The volume fraction $\Phi$ of SPBs for three suspensions in different pH is numerically calculated based on equations (1)–(7), and plotted against pH in figure 13. It needs to be noted that $\Phi$ also depends on the acidity of the solution medium just like in the case of conductivity $\kappa_s$ of the brush layer (figure 12(b)). This pH response is a typical feature of the annealed brushes. Interestingly, in alkaline or strong alkaline medium, the volume fraction likewise remains unchanged as well as $\kappa_s$. From the configuration of SPBs illustrated in figure 2, it is clear that the change of SPB volume fraction depends entirely on the thickness of the brush layer because the PS core is unchanging. This can be further verified by the result of figure 13(b).
The pH dependence of the volume fraction $\nu$ of the PS core presents a completely opposite change trend, which shows a good agreement with the model (figure 1) and the configuration of SPB (figure 2). Therefore, the increase of $\Phi$ in a neutral or weakly basic medium indicates polyelectrolyte PAA chains stretches, i.e. the brush layer swells, while the unaltered $\Phi$ in a range of about 8–11 pH means that the PAA chains in the brush layer always remain well extended in stronger alkaline medium.

The thickness $d_s$ of the spherical shell of SPBs in model, which is calculated simultaneously using equations (1)–(7), directly reflects the change of chain conformation in the polyelectrolyte layer at different acidity–alkalinity ranges. Figure 14 shows the pH dependence of $d_s$ for three SPBs (PS-PAA, PS-PAA-1 and PS-PAA-2) at an SPB mass fraction of 0.3%. The thickness $d_s$ increases with an increase of pH in acid medium for PS-PAA, PS-PAA-1 and in acid and weak alkaline medium for PS-PAA-2, and then reaches its respective steady value. A study of the interaction between PAA brushes, as measured by optical tweezers and independent ellipsometric measurements, has been reported by Kremer et al. The study showed that the increase of the brush length is caused by the pH-induced augment of the PAA dissociation and results in a stretching of the grafted chains. The same result has been illuminated by laser light scattering, from which the rationality of the model and numerical calculation used in this work are reaffirmed.

The reasons that the shell thickness $d_s$ varies with the pH of solution can be explained as follows: the variation of $d_s$ is controlled by the dissociation degree of carboxyl groups on PAA chains. Due to the small dissociation degree at lower pH, there is less charge on the chains and weak electrostatic repulsion between the chains. Hence, the chains tend to collapse and lead to less $d_s$. As pH rises, the charges on the chains increase gradually with a large electrostatic repulsion. As a result, PAA chains within the brush layer tend to stretch and the brush layer thickens. Moreover, more counterions in the bulk solution permeate into the brush layer driven by Donnan potential because of higher electric charges in the layer. Hence, there is a high osmotic pressure within the brush layer. These two effects keep the shell phase in the swollen state. When pH is raised up to a certain value, the carboxyl group on the PAA chains is fully deprotonated and the electrostatic repulsion among the negatively charged polyelectrolyte chains reaches the maximum. The conformation of PAA chains in the layer are no longer affected by pH and shell thickness and $d_s$ is kept at a constant, as shown in figure 14. The above analyses can be confirmed by a study in which electrostatic interactions within the brush layer are screened at high ionic strength, and the brush has no response to pH.

4.3.5. Zeta potential ($\zeta$-potential) of SPB surface. It is well known that the stability of colloid particles depends on the net charge of the particle surface. To evaluate the net charge of the particle surface, including the PAA SPBs, $\zeta$-potential is a key parameter. The $\zeta$-potential of PAA SPBs is zero due to the dissociation of the monomer of PAA chains. Since the suspended SPB colloidal particle is regarded as an ideal spherical-shell structure, its $\zeta$-potential can be calculated using equations (1)–(7) as described previously. Figures 15(a) and (b) depict the mass-fraction dependence and pH dependence of $\zeta$-potential, respectively, for the three SPB suspensions (see tables 2, 3, S3 and S4 for the values of $\zeta$-potential). The $\zeta$-potential decreases with an increase in the mass fraction of SPBs, as $\zeta$-potential is related to the degree of dissociation of PAA chains. According to Le Châtelier’s principle, less mass fraction promotes the dissociation of the carboxyl groups on PAA chains. As a result, more charges generated in the shell phase, which consists of PAA polyelectrolyte chains, increase $\zeta$-potential. Thus, the $\zeta$-potential of PS-PAA SPBs is much greater than PS-PAA-1 and PS-PAA-2, even though the mass fraction of PS-PAA is lower. On the contrary, the $\zeta$-potential for three kinds of SPB (PS-PAA, PS-PAA-1 and PS-PAA-2) suspensions increases as pH rises above eight, due to the completeness of the deprotonation of the carboxyl groups on PAA chains in alkaline medium [4].
4.3.6. Force between PAA chains grafted onto the particle surface. In general, the surface charge of a colloid particle can generate repulsion energy between the particles, and the ζ-potential on the particle surface can also impact on the repulsive force and the stability of the whole suspension [13, 64]. Some researchers reported that a colloidal suspension is stabilized by the adsorption of polymer molecules onto the particles of the suspension [9, 65]. For the present SPB particle suspension, the stabilizing effect is achieved by the steric repulsive force between the grafted polyelectrolyte chains on the SPB surface as well as the electrostatic interactions.

To the best of our knowledge, there is no simple, comprehensive theory about steric forces to describe soft-particle systems due to their complex composition. The most important interaction among steric forces, the repulsive force, originates from the configuration entropy of the polymer chains. When two polymer-coated particles approach, the reduction in the number of available configurations of the polymer chains gives rise to an ‘entropic’ repulsive force [66]. The repulsion force $Π(x)$ among the particle surfaces formed by densely grafting linear polyelectrolyte chains follows the expression proposed by de Gennes [67]:

$$Π(x) = κ_B T Γ^{3/2} \left[ \left( \frac{2d_s}{x} \right)^{9/4} - \left( \frac{x}{2d_s} \right)^{3/4} \right]$$

where $κ_B$ is the Boltzmann constant, $T$ is the absolute temperature, $Γ$ is grafting density in number of molecules per unit area, $x$ is the distance between two separated colloidal particles, and $d_s$ is the thickness of the brush layer.

Figure 16(a) shows that the repulsion for PS-PAA-2 suspension changes as a function of inter-particle distance (mass fraction of SPBs), which is calculated using equation (21) with $d_s = 148.95$ nm ($Γ$ (approximate) $= 0.027$ nm$^{-2}$ [4] under different mass fractions (a) and the shell-phase thickness $d_s$ for PS-PAA-2 (with three grafting densities $Γ = 0.027$ nm$^{-2}$, 0.031 nm$^{-2}$, 0.039 nm$^{-2}$, see table (1) in [4]) under different pH values (b).

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where $κ_B$ is the Boltzmann constant, $T$ is the absolute temperature, $Γ$ is grafting density in number of molecules per unit area, $x$ is the distance between two separated colloidal particles, and $d_s$ is the thickness of the brush layer.

Figure 16(a) shows that the repulsion for PS-PAA-2 suspension changes as a function of inter-particle distance (mass fraction of SPBs), which is calculated using equation (21) with $d_s = 148.95$ nm ($Γ$ (approximate) $= 0.027$ nm$^{-2}$ [4] under different mass fractions (a) and the shell-phase thickness $d_s$ for PS-PAA-2 (with three grafting densities $Γ = 0.027$ nm$^{-2}$, 0.031 nm$^{-2}$, 0.039 nm$^{-2}$, see table (1) in [4]) under different pH values (b).

4.3.6. Force between PAA chains grafted onto the particle surface. In general, the surface charge of a colloid particle can generate repulsion energy between the particles, and the ζ-potential on the particle surface can also impact on the repulsive force and the stability of the whole suspension [13, 64]. Some researchers reported that a colloidal suspension is stabilized by the adsorption of polymer molecules onto the particles of the suspension [9, 65]. For the present SPB particle suspension, the stabilizing effect is achieved by the steric repulsive force between the grafted polyelectrolyte chains on the SPB surface as well as the electrostatic interactions.

To the best of our knowledge, there is no simple, comprehensive theory about steric forces to describe soft-particle systems due to their complex composition. The most important interaction among steric forces, the repulsive force, originates from the configuration entropy of the polymer chains. When two polymer-coated particles approach, the reduction in the number of available configurations of the polymer chains gives rise to an ‘entropic’ repulsive force [66]. The repulsion force $Π(x)$ among the particle surfaces formed by densely grafting linear polyelectrolyte chains follows the expression proposed by de Gennes [67]:

$$Π(x) = κ_B T Γ^{3/2} \left[ \left( \frac{2d_s}{x} \right)^{9/4} - \left( \frac{x}{2d_s} \right)^{3/4} \right]$$

where $κ_B$ is the Boltzmann constant, $T$ is the absolute temperature, $Γ$ is grafting density in number of molecules per unit area, $x$ is the distance between two separated colloidal particles, and $d_s$ is the thickness of the brush layer.

Figure 16(a) shows that the repulsion for PS-PAA-2 suspension changes as a function of inter-particle distance (mass fraction of SPBs), which is calculated using equation (21) with $d_s = 148.95$ nm ($Γ$ (approximate) $= 0.027$ nm$^{-2}$ [4] under different mass fractions (a) and the shell-phase thickness $d_s$ for PS-PAA-2 (with three grafting densities $Γ = 0.027$ nm$^{-2}$, 0.031 nm$^{-2}$, 0.039 nm$^{-2}$, see table (1) in [4]) under different pH values (b).
with two PS-PAA-2 approaching, the entropic repulsive force among SPBs become stronger and stronger. Similar results in relation to the interaction force between PAA brushes [59] or poly(2-vinylpyridine) brushes [68] are reported by Kremer et al. Their optical-tweezer measurement demonstrated that the interaction of polyelectrolyte brushes is dominated by entropic forces resulting from the counterions inside the brush layer. The force–distance curves was quantitatively described by the Jusufi model which also takes into account the entropic effect of the confined counterions. From the results of figure 16 and the analysis above, the conclusion can be drawn that lowering the acidity of the solution (i.e. raising pH) or increasing the number of SPBs (i.e. increasing the concentration of SPBs) improves the stability of the colloidal dispersion.

5. Conclusions

The dielectric behavior of three PS-core PAA SPB suspensions at varying SPB concentrations and pH is systematically studied in a frequencies ranging from 40 Hz to 110 MHz. Two unique relaxations are clearly identified. A spherical-shell dielectric model characterizing the structure and electrical properties of the constituent phases of SPBs is applied to quantitatively calculate the conductivity, permittivity, and thickness of the brush layer as well as the electrical properties of the solution with the relaxation parameters obtained from the fitting of the H–N equation. In particular, the ζ-potential of the SPB particle surface is determined simultaneously in this computing. The electrical properties of the core, brush layer, and external medium of the SPB suspension are quantified by modeling analysis for the first time.

Through analyzing the mass-fraction dependence and pH dependence of the relaxation parameters/phase parameters for three SPB suspensions, it is found that the chain conformation of PAA in the brush layer depends mainly on the acidity of the solution (i.e. pH), and the stretching of the chains remains relatively steady in alkaline medium. This result is consistent with previous experimental studies into SPBs. It is concluded that the model and calculation method used in this work are suitable for the SPB suspension. In addition, the existence of additional dipole moments in shorter PAA chains is revealed by the abnormal permittivity of the shell phase of PS-PAA-1 SPBs with a shorter PAA chain. The results of the conductivity for three kinds of SPBs suggest that the migration of counterions in the brush layer is affected dramatically by the thickness of the brush or chain conformation.

The calculated ζ-potential values indicate the amount of net charge of PAA brush layers with different thicknesses. The result of the pH dependence of ζ-potential supports the conclusion derived from the phase-parameter dependence of pH or the mass fraction mentioned in this work. Theoretical simulation of the repulsive force among SPB particles correlates pH or SPB concentration with the colloid stability: lowering the acidity of the solution or increasing the concentration of SPBs improves the stability of the colloidal dispersion. This finding may provide clues for the further application of SPB suspensions in many disciplines.

Acknowledgments

The authors wish to thank Prof. Xuhong Guo (State Key Laboratory of Chemical Engineering, East China University of Science and Technology, China) for supplying the SPBs sample. The financial support from the National Natural Scientific Foundation of China (No. 21173025, 21473012) and the Major Research Plan of NSFC (No. 21233003) are also gratefully acknowledged.

Supporting information description

The Supporting Information contains relaxation parameters \((\epsilon_\text{b}, \epsilon_\text{m}, \epsilon_\text{f}, f_{\text{f1}}, f_{\text{f2}}, \kappa_\text{b}, \kappa_\text{a}, \kappa_\text{h})\). The Supporting Information is available free of charge via the internet at: stacks.iop.org/JPhysCM/29/055102/mmedia

Appendix

The quantities \(S\) and \(d_{\text{sh}}\) in equation (4), given by Grosse and Zimmerman, are simplified by assuming a 1–1 electrolyte that has the same diffusion constant \(D\) for the anion and cation.

\[
S = \frac{2(R^+ + R^- + 4)}{(R^+ + R^- + 2 + U) + (R^+ + R^- + 2 - U)} \quad (A.1)
\]

\[
d_{\text{sh}} = \frac{R^+ + R^- - 2}{R^+ + R^- + 4} \quad (A.2)
\]

\[
R^\pm = \frac{1}{K_{\text{D}}R_\text{s}} \left[ 4\varepsilon_\text{a}^\pm \zeta^{\pm/2} - 1 \right] (1 + 3m) \pm 6m \zeta \quad (A.3)
\]

The reciprocal Debye screening length \(K_{\text{D}}\) is given by

\[
U = 48m \frac{\kappa_\text{h}}{K_\text{D}R_\text{s}} \ln \left[ \cosh \left( \frac{\zeta}{4} \right) \right] \quad (A.4)
\]

The dimensionless zeta potential is given by

\[
\zeta = F \zeta / (RT) \quad (A.5)
\]

\(\eta\) is the viscosity of the medium.

The conductivity of the external medium \(\kappa_\text{a}\) is given by

\[
\kappa_\text{a} = 2DF^2 \varepsilon_\text{a} / (RT) \quad (A.6)
\]

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