Colloidal Spherocylinders at an Interface: Flipper Dynamics and Bilayer Formation

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We study the response of a film of colloidal spherocylinders to compression by combining pressure-area isotherm measurements, microscopy, and computer simulations. We find that the behavior of the film depends strongly on the geometry of the particles. For a small aspect ratio, a uniform monolayer forms and then buckles. For a higher aspect ratio, particles flip to orient perpendicular to the interface; we show that flipping occurs in locations where the nematic ordering is low. Our experiments and simulations further demonstrate that the longest particles rearrange to self-assemble a colloidal bilayer, which is stable due to the unique geometry of spherocylinders at an interface.

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The physics of particle-laden interfaces has been an intense focus of research within physics for some time [1]. These structures are created by dispersing spherical particles close to an interface between two immiscible fluids, such as oil and water. Particles get trapped at the fluid-fluid interfaces, because this reduces the energetically costly interfacial area. The free energy gained in doing so is $\sim 10^3 - 10^6 k_B T$ for a particle of size $\sim 100 \text{ nm} - 1 \mu \text{m}$; hence, adsorption on the interface is virtually permanent [2]. This principle is the basis of the stability of so-called "Pickering emulsions," comprised of particle-covered droplets [3]. Once on the interface, colloidal particles can further self-assemble into ordered two-dimensional structures, by virtue of interparticle interactions, often dependent on capillary effects [4].

Recently, the development of new synthesis techniques has allowed advances beyond spherical colloids launching the study of anisotropic micron-sized particles, such as cylinders and ellipsoids [5]. These rodlike building blocks have a richer self-assembly potential compared to their spherical counterparts, both in the bulk and when adsorbed onto an interface, due to the packing constraints and the more complex capillary interactions that arise. For example, rodlike particles were shown to produce foams and Pickering emulsion with unprecedented stability [6–8].

Previous work on anisotropic particles at fluid-air or fluid-fluid interfaces has focused on cylinders and ellipsoids (with aspect ratio > 1). In the absence of an external field, the free energy minimum for an isolated cylinder or ellipsoid on an interface is realized when they lie with their major axes parallel to the interface, so as to cover as much interfacial area as possible. Unlike for spherical particles, the contact line around a cylinder or ellipsoid is no longer flat, since the condition of a constant contact angle θ at a three-phase contact line, required for the derivation of Young's equation, cannot be met [9–11]. The ensuing distortions to the interface cause capillary interactions between particles, which favor an end-to-end configuration for cylinder pairs and a side-to-side configuration for ellipsoid pairs [12].

Here, we analyze the self-assembly and compression dynamics of a suspension of colloidal spherocylinders (cylinders capped by hemispherical ends) at a fluid-air interface by combining experiments and simulations. Dynamic compression is a popular practical method to determine the mechanical response of different materials, from hydrogels [13] to the bacterial cell wall [14]. In 2D monolayers, this method allows simultaneous monitoring of the microscopic structure of the system and of the macroscopic surface pressure. Basavaraj et al. studied monolayers of monodisperse ellipsoids in this way [15] and observed a series of structural transitions. They also found that, once compression creates a percolating particle network, some of the ellipsoids can flip their long axes to be perpendicular to the interface. This "flipping" process helps relieve some of the compression stress; it was also observed in water-in-oil emulsions stabilized by ellipsoids, when the droplet surface shrinks due to limited coalescence [8].

Our experiments and simulations provide a mechanistic insight into the physics of flipping, which had, thus far, remained elusive. We find that "flippers" appear only for a range of aspect ratios (ARs), and they do so close to the boundary between nematic domains with conflicting orientations. We also show that spherocylinders (but not ellipsoids) of sufficiently high ARs self-assemble into a colloidal multilayer under compression. This behavior is due to the unique geometry of spherocylinders, which does not induce any interface deformation when the wetting angle is 90°. In other words, capillary interactions between interfacial particles are absent for ideal spherocylinders [16]. Our multilayer provides an experimental realization of a self-assembling nematic shell of tunable thickness, a system of interest per se and as a biomimetic analogue of a cytoskeletal actin cortex (with tangential ordering of actin fibers [17]).



FIG. 1. The Π -A isotherms of monolayers containing silica spheres (pink curve) and rods with different aspect ratios: AR \approx 3 (blue curve), AR \approx 9 (black curve), and AR \approx 15 (red curve). Insets: TEM images of the particles. Scale bars = 1 μ m.

We begin by reporting the measured surface pressurearea curves, or Π -A isotherms (Fig. 1). Monolayers were created by spreading the particles at an air-water interface in a Langmuir trough, and a compression study followed. We analyze three ARs: 2.9 ± 0.3 , 9.2 ± 0.1 , and 14.8 ± 0.1 (see [18] for fabrication details). Silica spheres (0.48 μ m in diameter, inset in Fig. 1) were used as a spherical particle control. The isotherm for spheres shows three possible states (pink line in Fig. 1). There is a gas state, where the surface pressure is close to 0, followed, for a smaller trough area, by a solid phase, where particles form a monolayer and the surface pressure increases sharply with the density. For very high compaction, particles cannot rearrange within the monolayer, so the interface buckles and the monolayer collapses.

The pressure-area isotherms for anisotropic particles have a more gradual evolution. In particular, in the films containing longer spherocylinders (AR \approx 9 and 15, black and red curves, respectively, in Fig. 1), a liquid state appears between the gas and the solid states: This is characterized by a finite small slope in the isotherm. This liquid state arises due to residual capillary attractions between spherocylinders favoring local alignment and corresponds to the gentle increase observed in the surface pressure. Furthermore, the isotherm shows that compression induces another state transition after the solid phase, where the slope of the isotherm decreases and the surface pressure steadily rises to higher values without a collapse. From our own observations (see below) and by comparison with Ref. [15], we interpret this apparent transition as due to the combined effects of buckling, flipping, and bilayer formation. Shorter particles $(AR \simeq 3, blue curve in Fig. 1)$ show no sign of a liquid state, and their isotherm resembles that of spherical particles, presumably due to weaker capillary attractions [19].



FIG. 2. Morphological transitions in compressed monolayers, observed via microscopy. (a)–(c) Rods with AR \simeq 3. The trough area is 80 (a), 60 (b), and 30 cm² (c), respectively. (d)–(f) Rods with AR \simeq 9. The trough area is 80 (d), 60 (e), and 30 cm² (f), respectively. Flippers are marked in red. (g)–(i) Rods with AR \approx 15. The trough area is 80 (g), 30 (h), and 25 cm² (i), respectively. Bilayer aggregates are marked in red, locally ordered structures in green, and voids in yellow. Scale bar = 10 μ m. The insets in (a) and (f) are enlarged views.

We next analyze the results of our microscopy studies (see [22] for details). These images (Fig. 2) help us interpret the isotherm results and provide more information about the series of state transitions discussed above. For AR \approx 3, our data are suggestive of at least two state transitions. For low surface coverage, the monolayer has not yet formed, and we observe isolated aggregates of particles [Fig. 2(a), trough area = 80 cm^2 , gas state]. These are likely kept together by residual weak capillary interactions. As the area is decreased, the aggregates form a percolating network, and when the density is sufficiently large, we observe a uniform monolayer [Fig. 2(b), trough area = 60 cm^2 , solid state]. As the density increases to approach random close packing, particles jam. Here, further compression does not trigger any more in-plane particle rearrangement; instead, the monolayer buckles, forming folds perpendicular to the compression direction [visible as darker regions in Fig. 2(c), trough area = 30 cm^2].

For spherocylinders with AR ≈ 9 [Figs. 2(d)–2(f)], at low surface coverage we observe that particles pair either end to end or side to side (Fig. S1) due to capillary interactions (Fig. 1, gas state). At a higher density, an inhomogeneous monolayer forms [Fig. 2(d), trough area = 80 cm², liquid state]. Microscopy shows that, in this regime, dense rafts of jammed spherocylinders with local nematic ordering coexist with long-lived voids. Upon further compression, the voids shrink [Fig. 2(e), trough area = 60 cm², solid state], and we observe particle flipping [Fig. 2(f), trough area 30 cm²]. Flippers often form in clusters—some of these are highlighted in red in Fig. 2(f). Even when flippers appear, some voids are surprisingly still present: This may be linked to the previous finding of an inhomogeneous compressive stress in an ellipsoid monolayer [15]. As for shorter spherocylinders [Fig. 2(c)], buckling eventually occurs also for AR \approx 9. Buckling is nucleated at the monolayer edges (Fig. S2), indicating that the compressional stress is stronger close to the approaching barriers.

Figure S3 shows more images of compressed monolayers with AR \approx 9, comparing the microscopic features of the same field of view at trough areas 50 and 32 cm². Flipper clusters (highlighted in red) localize in regions with low nematic ordering, where they reduce particle coverage, which relieves compressional stress. These clusters are usually stringlike and perpendicular to the compression direction. Particles in more ordered domains seem to be on average less likely to flip (highlighted in green). Void regions have different shapes: Some are irregular, and others are triangular (highlighted in yellow and white, respectively); the latter are stable, presumably because their higher symmetry corresponds to a locally homogeneous compressional stress.

Spherocylinders with the largest AR, 15 [Figs. 2(g)-2(i)], form a more open network at the interface [Fig. 2(g), trough area $= 80 \text{ cm}^2$, close to the gas-liquid transition]. Dynamic compression drives particle rearrangement and a transition to a final state with locally ordered particle rafts [Figs. 2(h) and 2(i), trough area 30 and 25 cm², respectively]. This transition is superficially similar to the one described above, for $AR \simeq 9$. There are some important differences though. First, the void regions and ordered domains are much more stable and survive through to the end of the compression [highlighted in yellow and green in Fig. 2(i), trough area 25 cm^2]. Second, we observe no flipping for these longer spherocylinders. Instead, particles in dense and disordered regions appear to form a bilayer [Figs. 2(h) and 2(i), highlighted in red]. The formation of regular layers provides another route to relieving compressional stress, alternative to flipping.

To understand our experiments more quantitatively, we performed computer simulations by dissipative particle dynamics (DPD; see [22] for details); all simulations were performed using the program LAMMPS [34]. We modeled colloidal spherocylinders as rigid bodies, built from spherical beads, adsorbed on a flat water-oil interface, while water and oil molecules are modeled explicitly at a mesoscopic level as spherical beads of mass *m* and effective radius r_c interacting with a suitable force field [22]. The surface tension of the interface in our simulations is

 $\gamma = 4.2k_BT/r_c^2$, which maps to ~17 mN/m for nanoparticles ($r_c \sim 1$ nm). As in experiments, spherocylinders spontaneously cover the interface, because by doing so they decrease the system free energy (Fig. S4).

We considered spherocylinders of ARs 3, 6, 9, and 15the corresponding adsorption energies are 25.4, 50.1, 69.8, and 119.2 k_BT , respectively. Even if these are smaller than in experiments, they still lead to irreversible adsorption, unless under very high compaction (see [22] for a discussion of the limitations of our simulations). In what follows, energy, length, and time are expressed in units of $k_B T$, r_c , and $\tau = \sqrt{m r_c^2/(k_B T)}$, respectively. For each AR, we simulate dynamic compression by reducing the size of the simulation box along the x and y directions (at a constant speed $v_c = 0.0003 r_c/\tau$) while expanding it along z to keep the volume constant; this is done in a system where water and oil are phase separated along z, with periodic boundary conditions along all three directions (so there are two interfaces in the simulation domain). We consider N = 100 spherocylinders initially adsorbed at one interface, with an initial surface coverage θ [22] equal to 0.3. A convenient coordinate to describe the progression of compression is θ_{max} , which measures the theoretical maximal packing for a given trough area, computed assuming all particles lie on the interface keeping their optimal orientation parallel to it. For $\theta_{max} > 1$, spherocylinders cannot form a single monolayer while remaining in this optimal configuration: they need to either desorb, flip, or form a bilayer.

We first discuss the simulation results for AR up to 9 [snapshots in Figs. 3(a)-3(c) and 3(d)-3(f) correspond to AR 3 and 6, respectively]. For the shorter particles, compression leads to jamming, without appreciable nematic ordering; when θ_{max} increases, we also observe desorption (Fig. S5 and Ref. [22]). The absence of orientational ordering is apparent from Fig. 3(g), where the average coordination number within locally aligned domains is plotted versus time. This result explains the absence of the liquid state in the isotherms in Fig. 1 for AR 3; it is further consistent with simulations of two-dimensional rodlike particles which show an isotropic-to-nematic transition for an AR close to 7 [35].

For AR = 6, local nematic domains appear [Figs. 3(e) and 3(f)], in line with our observation of a liquid state in the isotherm (Fig. 1). Importantly, when increasing θ_{max} , desorption is much less frequent (Fig. S5), and before this occurs we observe flipping [Fig. 3(f) and Movie S1]. Flipping is also found for AR = 9, albeit at a smaller rate [Fig. 4(c) and Movie S2]. We correlate the onset of flipping with the onset of nonzero global nematic order. Therefore, our simulations suggest that the four states observed in the isotherms in Fig. 1 for longer particles respectively correspond to gas, liquid with local (nematic) order, solid with local order, and solid with global order (with or without flipping).



FIG. 3. Compression of rod monolayers with ARs 3 and 6 studied by DPD simulations. (a)–(c) Snapshots of the AR = 3 monolayer at $\theta_{max} = 0.3$ (a), $\theta_{max} = 0.7$ (b), and $\theta_{max} = 1.4$ (c). (d)–(f) Snapshots of the AR = 6 monolayer at $\theta_{max} = 0.3$ (d), $\theta_{max} = 0.7$ (e), and $\theta_{max} = 1.4$ (f). We can notice the flipper in (f) in pink. (g) Average coordination number (see the text) versus θ_{max} for different ARs. (h) The differential order ΔC [22] versus time. Flipping events are correlated with the local order for AR = 6 and 9 but not for AR = 3.

Visual inspection of flipping events suggests these occur at the boundary between ordered domains or, equivalently, in a locally disordered region. To quantify this, we identify all flippers and compute the local orientational order around them. It is convenient to define the differential order ΔC [22], which is negative for rods having less local order than the average and positive otherwise. We find ΔC just before flipping is negative for AR = 6 or 9 [Fig. 3(h)]. For a shorter AR, there are no flippers, but we can still track desorbing particles: These do not have a different local order, and $\Delta C \sim 0$ —reflecting the very weak nematic ordering in those monolayers.

We next examine our simulation results for the largest AR, 15. Here, flipping is absent (there is also no desorption, Fig. S5); the spherocylinders instead respond to compression by forming a bilayer, just as in our experiments [Fig. 4(f)]. Figure 4(g) shows that the effective surface coverage may exceed 1 (the largest possible in 2D), which signals bilayer formation; this phenomenon occurs for AR = 15, and partially for AR = 9, but not for AR \leq 6. Pleasingly, therefore, in both simulations and experiments we find bilayer formation for particles with a higher AR. It is important to determine which physical mechanism may underlie this phenomenon. A key clue is that bilayers are not



FIG. 4. Compression of rod monolayers with ARs 9 and 15 studied by DPD simulations. (a)–(c) Snapshots of the AR = 9 monolayer at $\theta_{max} = 0.3$ (a), $\theta_{max} = 0.7$ (b), and $\theta_{max} = 1.4$ (c). (d)–(f) Snapshots of the AR = 15 monolayer at $\theta_{max} = 0.3$ (d), $\theta_{max} = 0.7$ (e), and $\theta_{max} = 1.3$ (f). We note a flipper in (c) in gray and bilayer regions in (c) and (f). (g) Effective surface coverage θ (measured by assuming all adsorbed particles lie parallel to the interface) versus θ_{max} for different ARs: $\theta > 1$ signals bilayer formation. (h) Schematics of the mechanism underlying bilayer formation. For a wetting angle equal to 90°, bilayer formation does not require any extra interfacial area.

observed with ellipsoidal particles, either in our simulations (Fig. S6) or in experiments (at least prior to buckling) [15]. At least for neutral wetting (90° contact angle at the interface, as for our DPD simulations), a possible reason is that ideal, infinitely long, spherocylinders can be arranged in a bilayer remaining in their optimal configuration parallel to the interface, without the creation of any extra interfacial area [Fig. 4(h)]. This is not true for either ellipsoids or cylinders, which cannot fit snugly close to each other and also experience substantial capillary interactions favoring aggregation [12].

In summary, we studied the compression dynamics of a suspension of spherocylinders at an interface, by means of experiments and computer simulations. The response of spherocylinders depends strongly on their AR, as this quantity, together with the packing density, determines the magnitude of local and global nematic ordering and the energetics of flipping. Short particles respond similarly to spherical particles, forming a uniform monolayer which buckles upon compression. Longer spherocylinders may respond by flipping their long axes perpendicular to the interface. By combining our microscopy observations and our simulations, we elucidated the physics behind this previously elusive flipping: it occurs at regions where the nematic ordering is low or at boundaries between nematic domains. We have further shown that the longest particles display a qualitatively different phenomenon: upon compression, the spherocylinders rearrange to form locally a bilayer structure. Bilayer formation is unique to the spherocylindrical geometry and is not observed, for instance, with ellipsoids. Besides uncovering new interfacial soft matter physics, our results provide a physical principle design exotic Pickering emulsions and foams to based on anisotropic colloids. We also expect that our self-assembling colloidal bilayers will provide a useful model system to study the physics of nematic shells with tunable thickness.

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