Introduction to surfactants

- What are surfactants and why do we need them?
- Thermodynamics of interfaces
 - Surface Excess
 - Gibbs adsorption equation
- Adsorption from solution
 - Adsorption isotherms
- Equations of state
- States of monolayers
- Self-assembly of amphiphiles
- Effect of surfactants on wetting

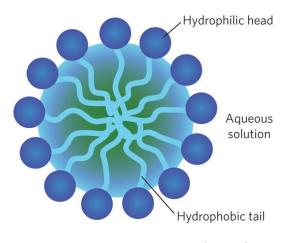


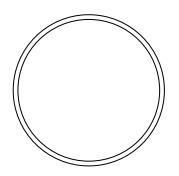
image: www.nature.com/nmat/

Soap films and soap bubbles



Soap bubbles

- Why is it not possible to make stable bubbles with pure water? What is the role of soap?
- Estimate the % reduction in energy cost of a soap bubble with soap compared to no soap



radius of the bubble: R = 5 cm

thickness of the liquid film: $h = 10 \mu m$

surface tension water-air: $\gamma_{\text{water}} = 70 \text{ mN/m}$

surface tension soap water: $\gamma_{\text{soap}} = 25 \text{ mN/m}$

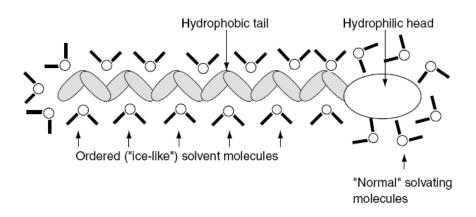
- To make a soap bubble we blow air onto a soap film suspended onto a wire. Why do we get no bubbles if we don't blow sufficiently strongly?
- What happens to the liquid when you burst a soap bubble? Sketch the situation

Now watch the slow motion video of bursting bubbles:

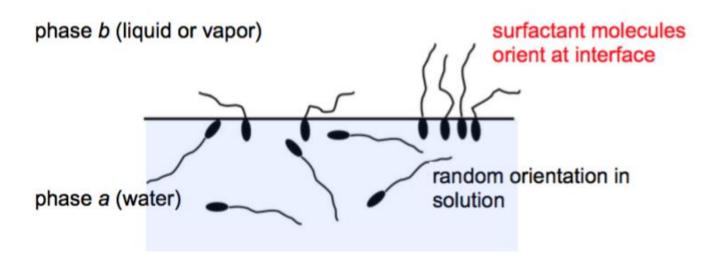
Surface Active Agents

"Surface active" = surfactant molecules **adsorb** at liquid-gas or liquid-liquid interfaces

Energetically favorable to be at interface because of molecular structure: typical surfactant is **amphiphilic**, i.e., it combines hydrophilic groups and hydrophobic groups



Surfactants adsorb at fluid interfaces

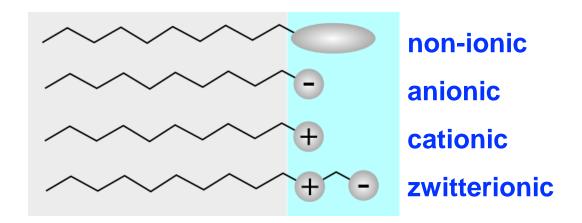


surfactants adsorbing at interfaces (e.g. air/water or oil/water) take a preferred orientation so as to minimise unfavourable interactions between aqueous phase and hydrophobic "tails"

Molecular structure of surfactants

The major applications of surfactants are in aqueous media

The classification depends on the nature of the hydrophilic group



The hydrophilic group determines the main differences between surfactants, and therefore the effect of the surfactant type:

- NON-IONIC: stability in varying pH
- ANIONIC: detergents, adsorption on polar surfaces
- CATIONIC: adsorption on surfaces
- ZWITTERIONIC: found in cell membranes

Major applications of surfactants

Industrial	Consumer
Agricultural crop applications	Adhesives
Building materials	Cleaning fluids
Cement additives	Cosmetics
Coal fluidization	Disinfectants
Coating and leveling additives	Foods and beverages
Electroplating	Household cleaning and laundering
Emulsion polymerization	Paints
Graphic arts	Pharmaceuticals
Industrial cleaning	Photographic products
Leather processing	Soaps, shampoos, creams
Lubrication	Waxes and polishes
Mold release agents	_
Ore flotation	
Paper manufacture	
Petroleum recovery	
Printing and printing inks	
Surface preparations	
Textiles	
Waterproofing	

Molecular structure – Hydrophilic group (*head*)

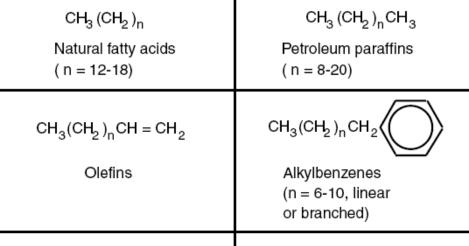
Surfactants are classified according to their head group. Most commonly used hydrophilic compounds in commercial surfactants:

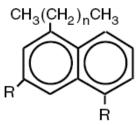
Class	General structure
Sulfonate	R-SO ₃ -
Sulfate	R-OSO ₃ -
Carboxylate (soap)	R-C00-
Phosphate	R-OPO ₃ ²⁻
Hydroxyl	R-OH
Ether	R-O-R'
Polyoxyethylene (POE)	R-OCH ₂ CH ₂ (OCH ₂ CH ₂) _n OH
Polyols	Sucrose, glycerol, ethylene glycol, etc
Ammonium	$R_x H_{4-x} - N^+, x = 1-3$
Quaternary ammonium	$R^{1}R^{2}R^{3}R^{4}-N^{+}$

$$R^{1}$$
 R^{3}
 N
 R^{4}
 R^{2}

Molecular structure – Hydrophobic group (tail)

- The hydrophobic group of most surfactants is made up of hydrocarbons
- Typically linear chain
- Also aromatic groups
- Most commonly used hydrophobic materials in commercial surfactants:

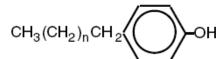




Alkylaromatics (n = 1-2 for water soluble, = 8 or 9 for oil soluble surfactants)

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \operatorname{CH}_3 \operatorname{CHCH}_2 \! \operatorname{O} \left(\operatorname{CH} \operatorname{CH}_2 \right)_{\operatorname{n}} \\ \mathbf{X} & \operatorname{CH}_3 \end{array}$$

Polyoxypropylene (n = degree of oligomerization, X = oligomerization initiator)



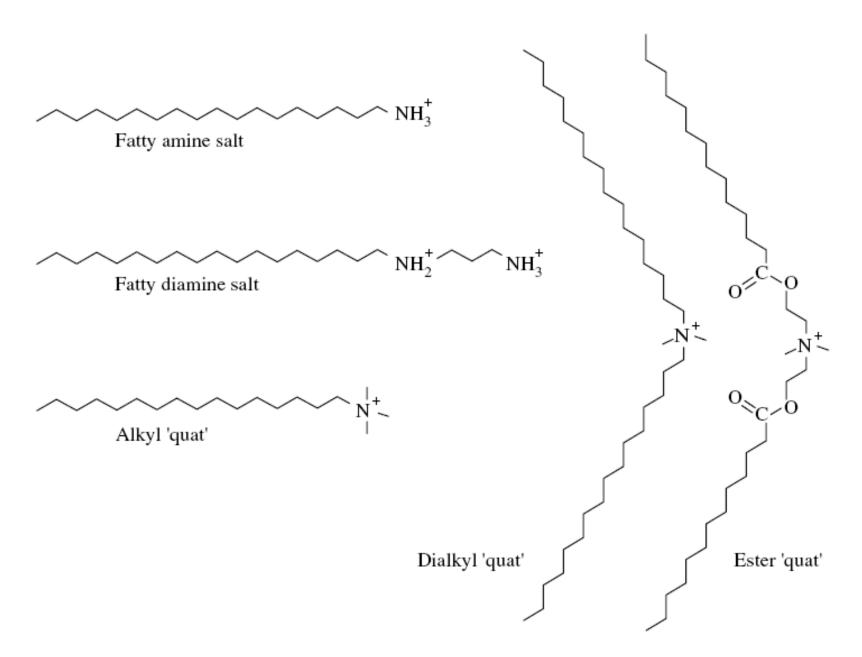
Alkylphenols (n = 6-10, linear or branched)

Fluorocarbons (n = 4-8, may be branched or H-terminated)

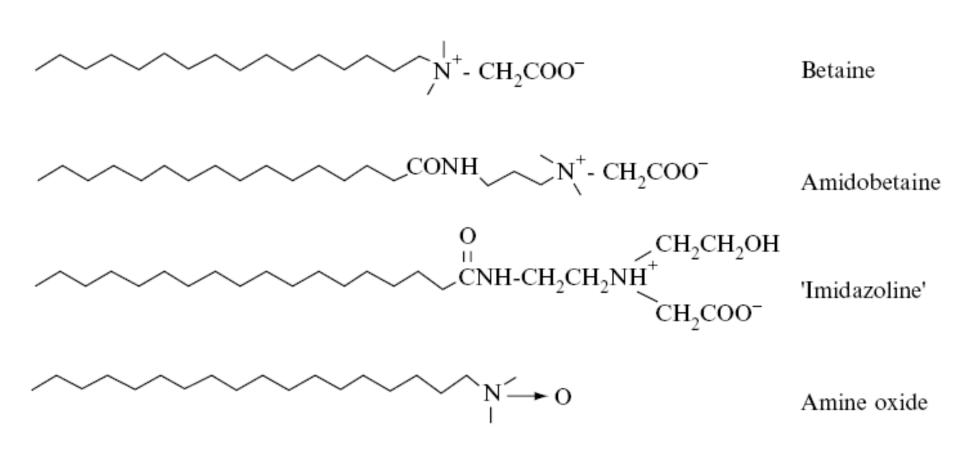
Non-ionic surfactants: Used in detergents, food products, pharmaceuticals, cosmetics, pesticides, etc.

Anionic surfactants: used in pesticide formulations and toothpastes

Cationic surfactants: used in hair and fabric conditioners



Zwitterionic Surfactants: found in cell membranes and used in drug delivery and cosmetics



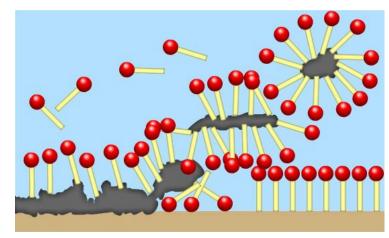
Why do we need surfactants?

Surfactants are used as detergents, emulsifiers, encapsulants, lubricants, etc

Grease does not mix with water because the main interactions between water molecules are hydrogen bonding, whilst those between molecules of oils and fats are disperion forces.

To get water and grease to mix we use surfactants as detergents. The hydrophobic 'tail' can form van der Waals bonds with non-polar grease molecules, whilst the polar 'head' can form hydrogen bonds with water.

This is an example of the 'like dissolves like' rule.



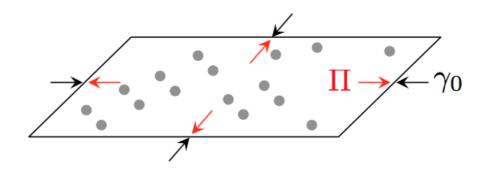
The non-polar tails of detergent molecules mix with grease, while the polar heads mix with water, thus forcing the grease and water to mix

Problems with surfactants

- dermatological problems (emulsification of lipids on skin can cause removal of protective layer; loss of water by the skin)
- biocidal effects
- environmental issues
 - aquatic toxicity
 - biodegradability
 - bioaccumulation
- research into "green" surfactants or alternatives

Thermodynamics of interfaces

Surfactants decrease the surface tension



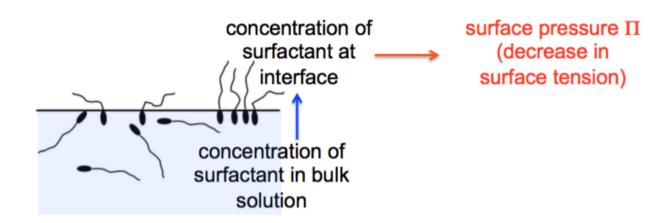
$$\gamma = \gamma_0 - \Pi$$

 γ : surface tension (function of surfactant concentration)

 γ_0 : surface tension of fluid-fluid interface (no surfactants)

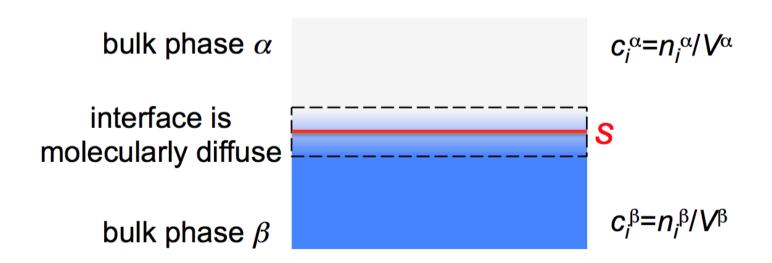
П: surface pressure of surfactant monolayer

Thermodynamics of interfaces



- Surfactants adsorbing from solution: Gibbs monolayer
- How much surfactant adsorbs at a fluid/fluid interface from a solution of concentration c?
 - Can we increase c indefinitely?
- How much does the surface tension decrease as a function of concentration of surfactant at interface?

Thermodynamics of interfaces



define: Gibbs dividing surface

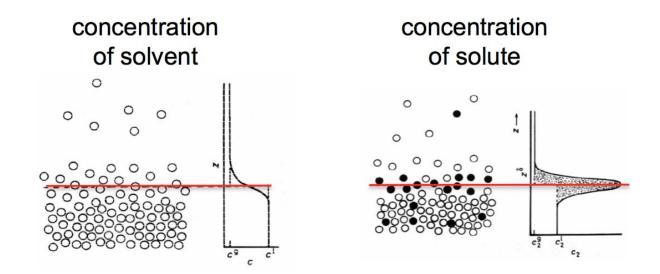
with volume $V^s = 0$

and area A

 n_i^s number of moles of component *i* on surface

 $\Gamma_i = n_i^s/A$ surface excess of component *i*

Thermodynamics – Surface excess



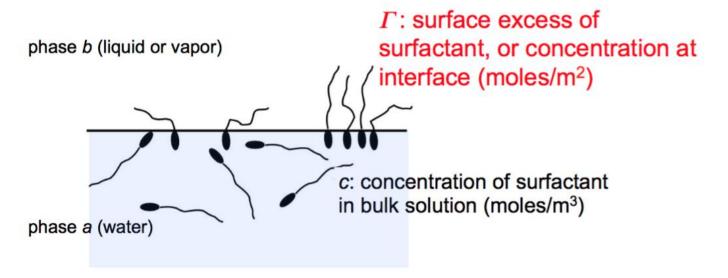
The surface excess Γ is the excess material at the interface compared to the bulk:

 $\Gamma_i > 0$ interfacial excess (e.g. surfactant)

 $\Gamma_i < 0$ interfacial depletion (e.g. salt)

The location of the Gibbs dividing surface can be chosen so that the surface excess of solvent is = 0.

Adsorption from solution

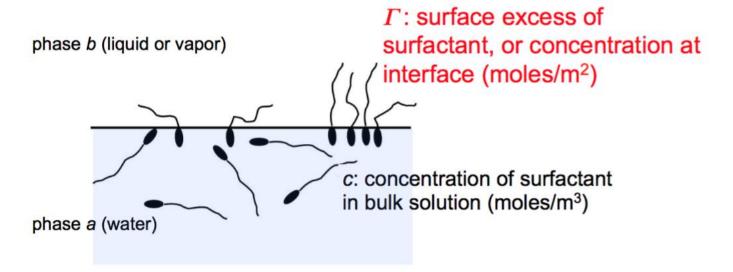


$$d\gamma = -\sum_{i} \Gamma_{i} d\mu_{i}$$

Gibbs adsorption equation

relates change in surface tension to surface excess and change in chemical potential (i.e. concentration) of the bulk surfactant solution

Adsorption from solution

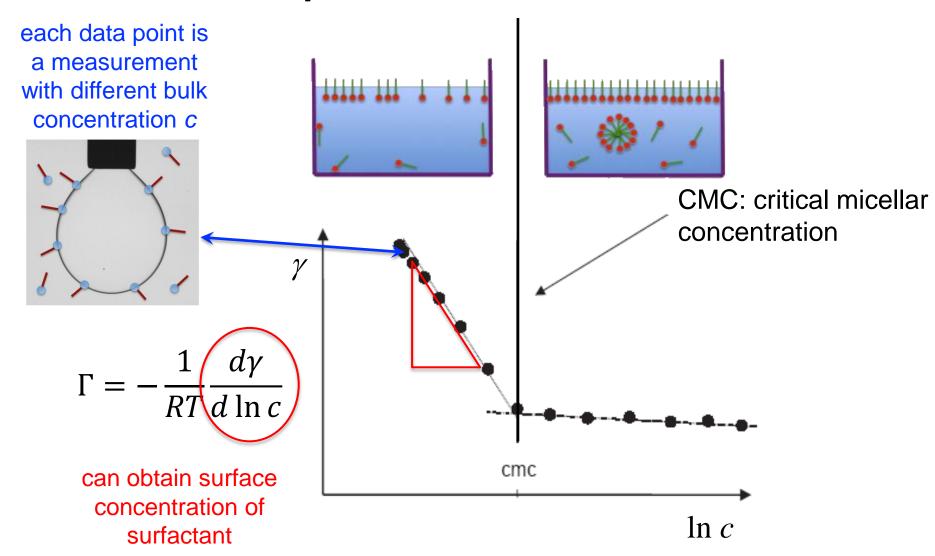


$$d\gamma = -\Gamma d\mu \qquad \mbox{Gibbs adsorption equation} \\ (\mbox{one component}) \\ \mu = RT \ln a = RT \ln c$$

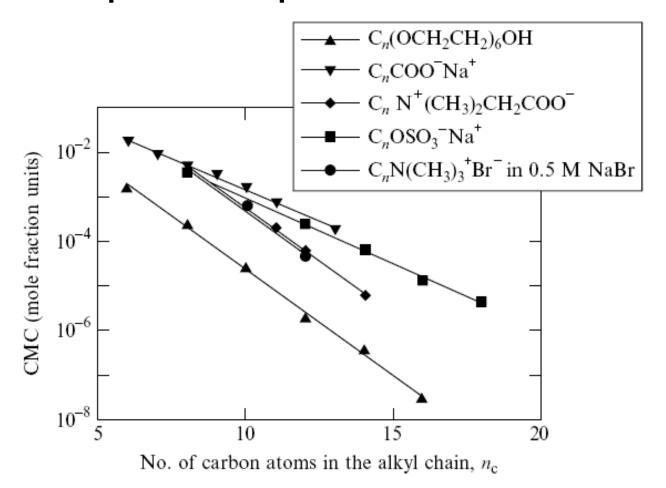
a: activity; for dilute solution $a \approx c$ concentration

$$\Gamma = -\frac{1}{RT} \frac{d\gamma}{d \ln c}$$
 adsorption isotherm $\Gamma(c)$

Adsorption from solution



CMC depends upon chemical structure



- CMC decreases exponentially with alkyl chain length
- for a variety of headgroups

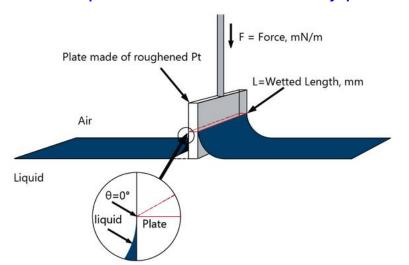
Insoluble monolayers

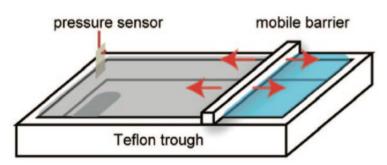
- Some amphiphiles have very low CMC → always form micelles in water (example: phospholipids)
- They are called insoluble surfactants
- Can form monolayers at water/air or water/oil interface
- Can be deposited on interface from a volatile spreading solvent (e.g. chloroform)
- Spread monolayers are called Langmuir monolayers
- (in contrast with monolayers formed by spontaneous adsorption, called Gibbs monolayers)
- https://wordhistories.net/2017/10/06/oil-ontroubled-waters/

Langmuir trough

- trough (Teflon) containing the aqueous subphase
- moving barrier: change area A and compress the surfactant monolayer
- surface pressure sensor to measure γ continuously
- n^s is constant, A changes $\rightarrow \Gamma = n^s/A$ changes
- Used to determine Π as a function of Γ









$$F = L\gamma \cos \theta \approx L\gamma$$
$$\gamma = \gamma_0 - \Pi$$

Surface equation of state $\Pi(\Gamma)$

How much does the surface tension decrease as a function of the concentration of surfactant on the interface?

$$\gamma = \gamma_0 - \Pi$$

 $\Pi(\Gamma)$ is the surface equation of state:

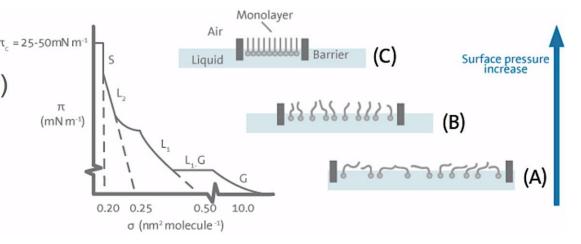
$$\gamma(\Gamma) = \gamma_0 - \Pi(\Gamma)$$

surface excess (or area density)

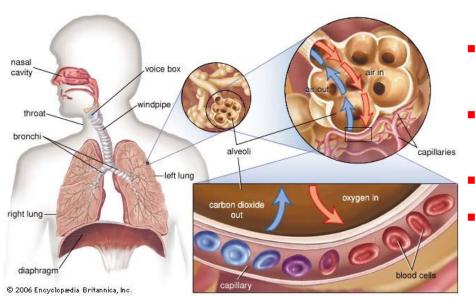
$$\Gamma = n^s/A$$

area per molecule

$$\sigma = 1/\Gamma = A/n^{s}$$

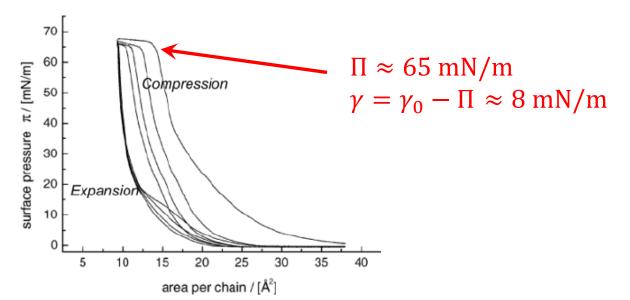


Example: lung surfactants



- Alveoli: sites of gas exchange at water-air interface (O₂ comes in; CO₂ goes out)
- During breathing: compression/expansion of water-air interface
- Work against surface tension!
- Alveoli are lined with surfactant monolayer, which reduces surface tension, hence reduces work of breathing

Typical isotherm of a model lung surfactant lipid mixture DPPC/POPG/PA on water at 23 C



Models for surface equation of state

At infinite dilution: $\Pi A = n^S RT$ $\Pi = \Gamma RT$

2D analogue of ideal gas equation pV = nRT

At higher concentrations: $\Pi(A - A_0) = n^S RT$

Volmer equation. Ao is molecular co-area (measures effective cross-sectional area of adsorbed molecule).

At even higher concentrations: $\left(\Pi - \frac{\alpha}{A^2}\right)(A - A_0) = n^S RT$

In analogy to the **van der Waals** equation of state for gases, it accounts for intermolecular interactions through parameter α .

Gibbs adsorption equation

Adsorption isotherm is related to surface equation of state through Gibbs adsorption equation $-d\gamma = \Gamma d\mu$

Example: Infinite dilution case (ideal gas)

$$\Pi = \Gamma RT$$

Recast Gibbs adsorption equation in terms of Π :

$$-d\gamma = -d(\gamma_0 - \Pi) = d\Pi = \Gamma d\mu$$

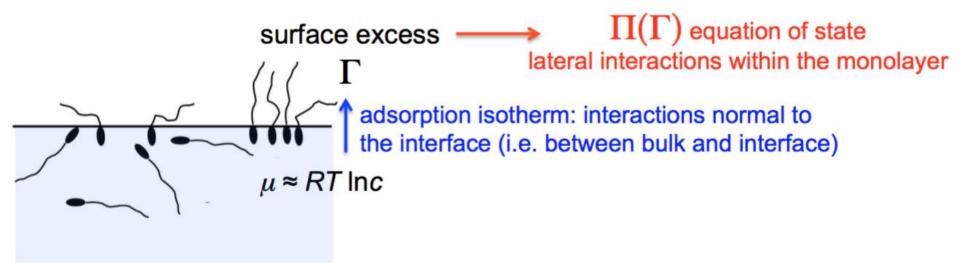
Use relationship between μ and c at low c: $\mu \approx RT \ln c$

$$d\Pi = \Gamma d\mu = \Gamma RTd(\ln c)$$

Adsorption isotherm:

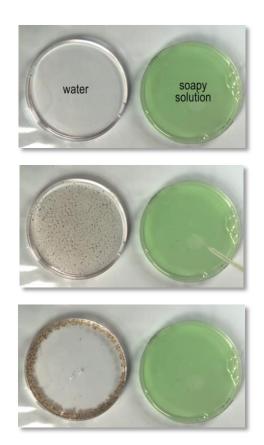
$$\Gamma = \frac{1}{RT} \frac{d\Pi}{d(\ln c)} = -\frac{1}{RT} \frac{d\gamma}{d(\ln c)} :$$

Thermodynamics of interfaces – SUMMARY



- How much surfactant adsorbs at a fluid/fluid interface from a solution of concentration c? Adsorption isotherm
 - Can we increase c indefinitely? NO: critical micellar concentration
- How much does the surface tension decrease as a function of concentration of surfactant at interface? Equation of state

Surface tension gradients and the Marangoni effect



http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gTGr25ypiDQ

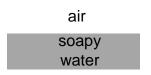
The Marangoni effect



Why does the addition of soap cause the pepper particles to move? Let's find out:



- 1. First consider the surface of water. In what direction(s) does the force on the water-air interface due to surface tension point? Draw the vectors.
- 2. Now consider the surface of soapy water. Is the force on the soapy water-air interface due to surface tension larger or smaller than for pure water? Draw the vectors:

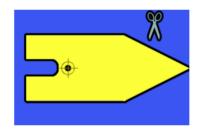


air

soapy water water 3. In the experiment, a region of the interface has the surface tension of soapy water, and the other region has the surface tension of pure water. Use (1) and (2) to draw the vectors for the two regions of the interface (pay attention to direction and magnitude). There is a net force on the interface. In which direction?

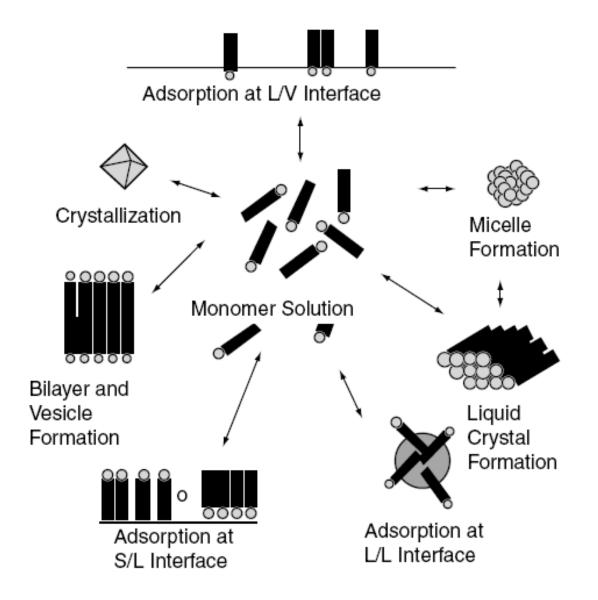
Surface tension gradients and the Marangoni effect

Try this at home: the soap boat experiment



http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=rq55eXGVvis

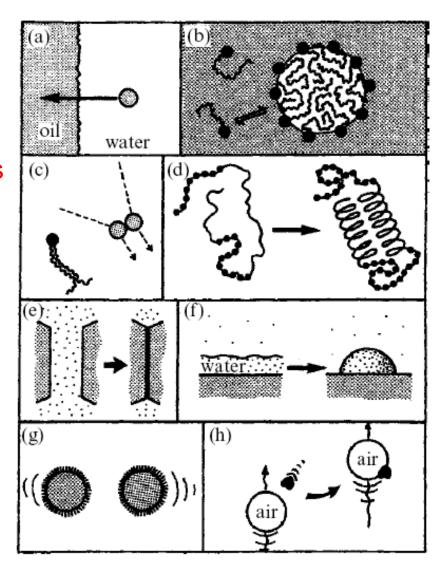
Self-assembly of surfactants



Why do micelles form? – Hydrophobic Interaction

Examples of hydrophobic interaction

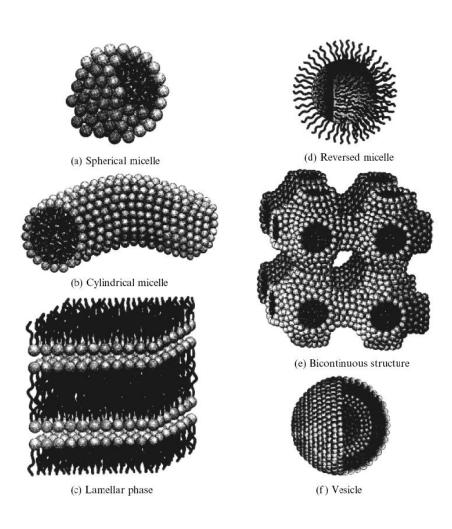
- a) water and oil are immiscible, with strong driving force to expel hydrocarbons from water
- b) self-assembly of surfactants
- c) other types of hydrocarbon chain association
- d) strong adhesion between hydrophobic surfaces in water
- f) non-wetting of water on hydrophobic surfaces
- g) rapid coagulation of hydrophobic particles in water
- h) attachment of hydrophobic particles to air bubbles



Self-assembly of surfactants

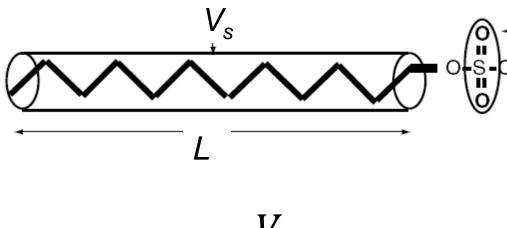
 surfactant self-assembly leads to different structures

- which depend on:
 - shape, type & concentration of surfactant
 - ratio of polar/non-polar solvent



Surfactant packing parameter

Surfactant packing parameter *P* allows prediction of shape & size of surfactant aggregates that will produce a minimum in free energy for a given surfactant structure

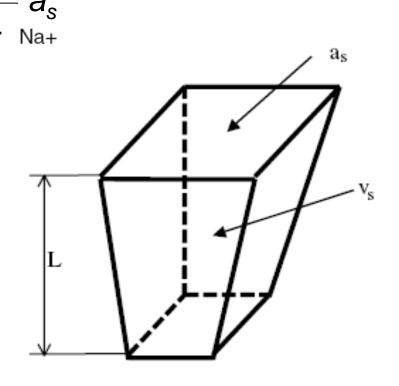


$$P = \frac{V_S}{a_S L}$$

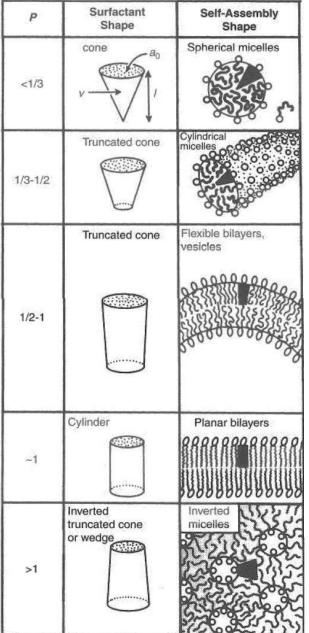
 $V_{\rm s}$ = volume of hydrophobic tail,

 a_s = optimal surface area occupied by surfactant monomer at the micelle-water interface

L = maximum extended chain length



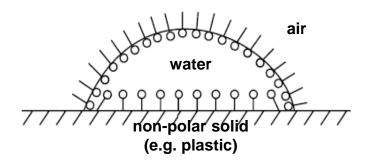
Surfactant shape and self-assembly shape



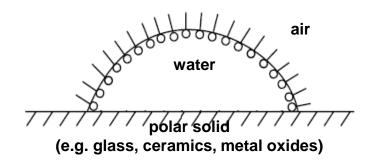
Expected aggregate characteristics in relation to surfactant packing parameter P (critical value P_c)

$P_{\rm c}$	General Surfactant Type	Expected Aggregate Structure
< 0.3	33 Simple surfactants with single chains and relatively large head groups	Spherical or ellipsoidal micelles
0.33-	-0.5 Simple surfactants with relatively small head groups, or ionics in the presence of large amounts of electrolyte	Relatively large cylindrical or rod-shaped micelles
0.5-1	.0 Double-chain surfactants with large head groups and flexible chains	Vesicles and flexible bilayer structures
1.0	Double-chain surfactants with small head groups or rigid, immobile chains	Planar extended bilayers
> 1.0	Double-chain surfactants with small head groups, very large and bulky hydrophobic groups	Reversed or inverted micelles

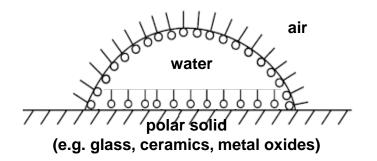
Surfactant adsorption on solid surfaces



1. Non-polar surface: surfactant adsorbs at SL (due to hydrophobic effect) and LV interfaces. Result: decrease in θ ; increased wetting.



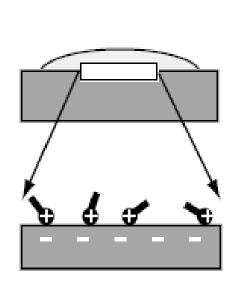
2. Polar surface. (a) Surfactant and surface have same charge. Surfactant adsorbs at LV interface. Surfactant is repelled by like-charged surface. Result: decrease in θ ; increased wetting.



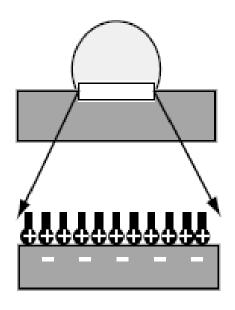
2. Polar surface. (b) Surfactant and surface have opposite charge. Surfactant adsorbs to SL (due to opposite charge) and LV interface. Result: increase in θ ; decreased wetting. Autophobic effect.

Surfactant adsorption on solid surfaces

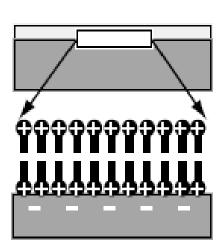
When an **ionic surfactant** in water adsorbs on an **oppositely charged** solid surface, the orientation of molecules will be such that one may observe a contact angle cycle as the adsorption increases:



The initial surface will be hydrophilic and have a small contact angle



As adsorption proceeds, surface becomes more hydrophobic and contact angle increases to a maximum

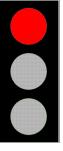


Further adsorption (if it occurs) will reverse the process leading to more polar surface and smaller contact angle.

Introduction to surfactants

- recall: definition of surfactant
- understand: mechanism of surfactant adsorption at interfaces
- understand: difference between non-ionic, ionic, zwitterionic surfactant
- understand: surface pressure and surface tension reduction
- recall: definition of Gibbs dividing surface and surface excess
- understand: significance of Gibbs adsorption equation
- apply: adsorption isotherm $\Gamma(c)$
- understand: effect of critical micellar concentration on adsorption from solution
- recall: difference between Gibbs monolayer and Langmuir monolayer
- understand: surface equation of state of monolayers
- apply: surface equations of state to compute Π from surface excess Γ
- understand: Marangoni effect
- recall: structures formed by surfactant self-assembly
- understand: effects of surfactants on wetting of solids

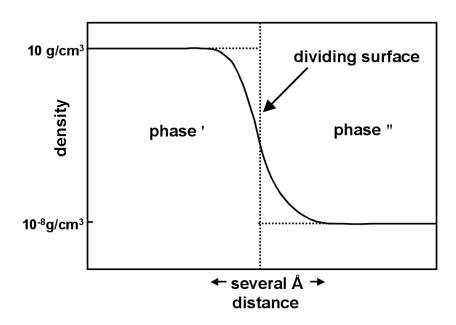
Some extra notes on derivation of Gibbs Eqn



Interfacial Thermodynamics

The Interfacial energy is denoted by γ (with typical units of [mJ/m²]) note its an alternative representation of the surface tension. It is defined as the reversible work needed to create unit area of surface, at constant temperature, volume (or pressure), and chemical potentials.

Use liquid-vapor surface as an example, i.e., consider a system composed of a liquid and a vapor phase at equilibrium, separated by an interface.



dividing surface, hypothetical system

Interfacial excess properties

Examples:

interfacial excess internal energy, U^s :

$$U^{s}=U-U'-U''$$

and interfacial excess no. of moles of component i: $n_i^s = n_i - n_i' - n_i''$

Exception: no interfacial excess volume,

$$V = V' + V''$$

Internal energies of phases ' and " are written (as usual):

$$dU' = TdS' - PdV' + \sum_{i} \mu'_{i} dn'_{i}$$

$$dU'' = TdS'' - PdV'' + \sum_{i} \mu''_{i} dn''_{i}$$

and interfacial excess internal energy (no volume change) is written:

$$dU^{s} = TdS^{s} + \gamma dA + \sum_{i} \mu_{i}^{s} dn_{i}^{s}$$

$$dU = T(dS' + dS'' + dS'') - P(dV' + dV'') + \gamma dA + \sum_{i} \mu_{i} (dn'_{i} + dn''_{i} + dn''_{i})$$

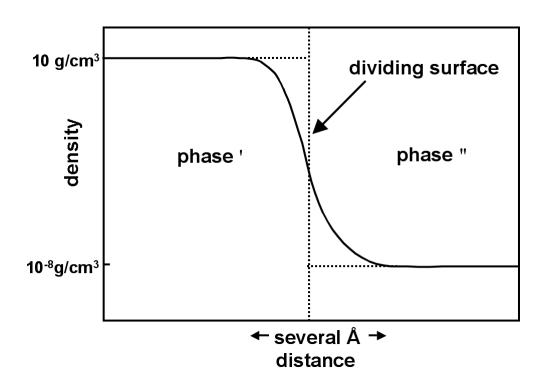
$$dU = TdS - PdV + \gamma dA + \sum_{i} \mu_{i} dn_{i}$$

All other thermodynamic properties can be written from the previous relation: e.g. Gibbs free energy, *G*

$$= U+PV-TS$$

$$dG = dU + PdV + VdP - TdS - SdT = -SdT + VdP + \gamma dA + \sum_{i} \mu_{i} dn_{i}$$

Note! The surface excess quantities are *arbitrary*, since they depend on precisely where the dividing surface is located within the diffuse region associated with the interface. We shall see later how this issue may be addressed.





Gibbs adsorption equation and isotherm

The expression for dU^s , is written only in terms of extensive independent variables (dS^s, dA, dn_i^s) , while the intensive variables (T, y, μ_i) are constant in the equilibrated system. This makes integration of dU^s straightforward:

$$U^{s} = TS^{s} + \gamma A + \sum_{i} \mu_{i} n_{i}^{s}$$

Re-differentiating yields:

$$dU^{s} = TdS^{s} + S^{s}dT + \gamma dA + Ad\gamma + \sum_{i} \mu_{i} dn_{i}^{s} + n_{i}^{s} d\mu_{i}$$

Comparing with the expression for dU^s , we conclude:

$$S^{s}dT + Ad\gamma + \sum_{i} n_{i}^{s} d\mu_{i} = 0$$

We now define the following specific interfacial excess quantities:

$$s^s \equiv S^s / A$$
 and $\Gamma_i \equiv n_i^s / A$

where Γ_i is referred to as the adsorption of component i

equation

and obtain:
$$d\gamma = -s^s dT - \sum_i \Gamma_i d\mu_i$$
 equation

Gibbs adsorption

At constant temperature, this simplifies to the Gibbs adsorption isotherm. For a two-component system, at constant T it can be written:

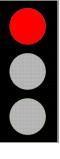
$$d\gamma = -\Gamma_1 d\mu_1 - \Gamma_2 d\mu_2$$

This may be simplified further by the use of the Gibbs-Duhem equation: $n_1'd\mu_1 + n_2'd\mu_2 = 0$

It is conventional to take components 1 and 2 to be the solvent and solute, respectively, and to eliminate μ_i from the adsorption equation:

$$\frac{d\gamma}{d\mu_2} = \left(\Gamma_1 \frac{n_2'}{n_1'} - \Gamma_2\right)$$

The l.h.s. of the above equation is measurable, therefore the r.h.s. cannot be arbitrary.



Approximate forms of the Gibbs adsorption isotherm

The chemical potential may be expressed as: $\mu_2 = \mu_2^{\circ} + kT \ln a_2$, where a, is the activity and μ° is the standard state chemical potential. For ideal solutions, $a_2 = c_2$, where c_2 is the molar concentration. For dilute solutions, $a_2 = k_0 c_2$, where k_0 is Henry's Law constant. In both of these cases, $d\mu_2 = RT \ d(\ln c_2)$. Thus, in both those cases the Gibbs isotherm may be written:

$$\frac{1}{RT} \frac{d\gamma}{d \ln c_2} = \left(\Gamma_1 \frac{n_2'}{n_1'} - \Gamma_2 \right)$$

In particular, in dilute solutions, $n'_2 << n'_1$, so that we can write:

$$\frac{1}{RT} \frac{d\gamma}{d \ln c_2} = -\Gamma_2$$

This is the most commonly used form of the Gibbs adsorption isotherm.