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1 Sodium Alginate-Grafted Submicrometer Particles

2 Display Enhanced Reversible

3 Aggregation/Disaggregation Properties

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18 **ABSTRACT.** In this article, we demonstrate that submicrometer particles with surface-grafted  
19 sodium alginate (SA) display enhanced and reversible aggregation/disaggregation properties in  
20 aqueous solution. 300 nm silica particles were first functionalized with an aminosilane coupling  
21 agent, followed by the grafting of pH-sensitive SA, as confirmed by zeta potential, XPS and FTIR  
22 analyses. The SA-modified particles show enhanced aggregation properties at acidic pH compared  
23 to unmodified silica, with a 10 times increase in average aggregate diameter. The process is  
24 reversible, as the aggregates can be broken and dispersed again when the pH is increased back to  
25 7.0. As a result, the sedimentation rate of SA-modified particles at pH 3.0 is both significantly  
26 faster and complete compared to the unmodified particles. This enhanced aggregation is most  
27 likely due to the formation of intermolecular hydrogen bonds between neighboring SA-modified  
28 particles. This work illustrates how surface-grafted macromolecules of natural origins can be used  
29 to tune interparticle interactions, in order to improve separation processes.

30 **KEYWORDS:** submicrometer particle, surface modification, sodium alginate, pH sensitive,  
31 aggregation.

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## 34           **1. Introduction**

35           The controlled aggregation and dispersion of colloids is a key step in separation processes  
36 involving complex fluids comprised of immiscible liquids and/or micro/nanoparticles (*e.g.*  
37 Pickering emulsions), in fields such as petrochemistry (Doshi, Repo, Heiskanen, Sirvio, &  
38 Sillanpaa, 2017; Hosseini et al., 2016; Mohammadi, Rashidi, Mousavi-Dehghani, & Ghazanfari,  
39 2016) and waste water treatment (Bakhteeva et al., 2016; Chai et al., 2015; Leudjo Taka, Pillay,  
40 & Yangkou Mbianda, 2017). When particle separation is required, it is often desirable to form  
41 aggregates and flocs as large as possible, in order to ease the separation process and decrease costs.  
42 Furthermore, if those particles were originally added to the process, for example as supports for  
43 much smaller catalytic nanoparticles (Ballauff & Lu, 2007), reversible aggregation/disaggregation  
44 behavior would be a desirable feature for recycling purpose.

45           The Derjaguin–Landau–Verwey–Overbeek (DLVO) theory is a classical framework to  
46 understand and analyze the stability of colloidal suspensions (Chin, Yiacoumi, & Tsouris, 2001;  
47 Ohki & Ohshima, 1999). It models particle-particle interactions as a combination of repulsive  
48 double-layer overlap forces and attractive dispersion (van der Waals) forces (Verwey, 1947). In  
49 the energy landscape, the contribution of the electrostatic repulsion superimposes to the Van der  
50 Waals attraction and generates an energy barrier that can reduce or inhibit particle aggregation in  
51 a suspension (Rodgers, Velicky, & Dryfe, 2015). Other forces that can also enhance or inhibit  
52 aggregation include the hydrophobic effect, hydrogen bonding, steric interactions, and depletion  
53 forces (Durand-Gasselin, Sanson, & Lequeux, 2011). As a result, the typical ways to control the  
54 aggregation level of micro/nanoparticles in a suspension are via pH and/or ionic strength (salt  
55 addition) adjustments (Yan et al., 2013), which control the electrical double layer properties.  
56 Grafting water-soluble polymer/polyelectrolyte chains on particle surface, which promote

57 stabilization via steric interactions (Hemraz, Lu, Sunasee, & Boluk, 2014), and/or adding  
58 polyelectrolytes (Borkovec & Papastavrou, 2008) or water-soluble macromolecules (Bakumov &  
59 Kroke, 2008) are two other approaches.

60 Recently, nanoparticles responding reversibly to external stimuli, such as changes in pH (Chen et  
61 al., 2017; Jia et al., 2016; Stular, Jerman, Naglic, Simoncic, & Tomsic, 2017; Xu et al., 2015) or  
62 temperature (Abreu et al., 2016; Qiao, Niu, Wang, & Cao, 2010), have generated an interest for  
63 chemical engineering processes, drug delivery and biomedical applications. For example, thermo-  
64 and pH-sensitive particles have been employed to stabilize (Kawaguchi, 2007; Morelli, Holdich,  
65 & Dragosavac, 2016) and destabilize Pickering emulsions (Binks, Murakami, Armes, & Fujii,  
66 2005) – allowing separation of the liquid constituents. They were also used as carriers for  $\approx$  1-10  
67 nm catalytic nanoparticles, easing their separation and recovery process (Ballauff & Lu, 2007).  
68 However, separating particles from a liquid phase remains an energy intensive process. As a result,  
69 the formation of flocs or aggregates facilitates separation and, if reversible, allows re-dispersion  
70 for multiple reuse.

71 We hypothesize that grafting sodium alginate (SA) polymer chains onto the surface of  
72 submicrometer particles can increase interparticle interactions and enhance their aggregation  
73 properties reversibly, since SA undergoes reversible gelling at low pH due to the protonation of  
74 its carboxylate groups and the formation of intermolecular hydrogen bonding. The main objective  
75 of this work is to design, synthesize and evaluate the stabilization and aggregation properties of  
76 model submicrometer silica particles modified with SA, and to compare the results to unmodified  
77 particles in order to confirm if the aggregation/disaggregation process is enhanced.

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## 80 2. Experimental Section

### 81 2.1 Materials

82 Sub- $\mu\text{m}$  silica particles (SP) were supplied by Nippon Shokubai Trading Co., Ltd (average  
83 diameter  $d = 290 \pm 13.2$  nm by SEM, see Supporting Information **Figure S1**; specific surface area  
84  $S = 42 \pm 2$   $\text{m}^2\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ , measured by BET with an ASAP 2020 instrument from Micromeritics Instrument  
85 Corporation). Sodium alginate (SA) from brown algae was supplied by Sigma-Aldrich (CAS.  
86 9005-38-3, low viscosity, molecular weight  $\approx 60$  kDa,  $\text{pK}_a = 3.5$ ) (Harnsilawat, Pongsawatmanit,  
87 & McClements, 2006). The M/G ratio ( $= 1.83$ ) was measured at  $80$   $^\circ\text{C}$  with a  $10$   $\text{mg}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}$  solution  
88 in  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$  for the  $^1\text{H}$  NMR using a Bruker Avance 500 instrument ( $11.7$  T) at a frequency of  $500$   
89 MHz (Rahelivao, Andriamanantoanina, Heyraud & Rinaudo, 2013). 128 scans using 32 000 data  
90 points were acquired with a relaxation time (D1) of  $5$  s, a  $4$  kHz spectral window and a  $30^\circ$   
91 impulsion. (3-Aminopropyl) trimethoxysilane (APTMS, 97%), *N*-(3-Dimethylaminopropyl)-*N'*-  
92 ethylcarbodiimide hydrochloride (EDC,  $> 98\%$ ), *N*-Hydroxysuccinimide (NHS, 98%) and urea ( $>$   
93 98%) were all purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used without further purification. Ethanol  
94 (99.8%) was obtained from Thermo Fisher Scientific. HCl 1N and NaOH 12N solutions were of  
95 analytical grade and prepared without further purification with Milli-Q water (DI water,  $18.2$   $\Omega$ ,  
96 Synergy 185 system by Fisher Scientific).

### 97 2.2 Particle Surface Modification

#### 98 2.2.1 Silane Coating Grafting

99 In order to graft SA on silica sub- $\mu\text{m}$  particles, a silane coupling agent was first covalently grafted  
100 on its surface. In a typical batch,  $10$  g of SP particles were added in a hydrophobized Erlenmeyer  
101 flask containing  $100$  ml of a 95% v/v ethanol solution and DI water, while stirring at  $600$ - $700$  rpm  
102 with a magnetic stirrer (Arkles, 2006). The pH was then adjusted to  $4.5$  -  $5.5$  using HCl 1N.

103 APTMS was then added dropwise while stirring at room temperature, following three targeted  
104 surface concentrations: 0.01 (SP-A), 0.1 (SP-B) and 1 (SP-C) APTMS molecule·nm<sup>-2</sup> (based on  
105 particle specific surface) (Pickering, Khimi, & Ilanko, 2015). For example, to treat 10 g of particles  
106 with a desired surface APTMS density of 1 molecule·nm<sup>-2</sup> (SP-C), 0.131 ml of APTMS was added  
107 to the reaction medium. The reaction was then carried for 12 h. The particles were collected by  
108 centrifugation (Sorvall RC 6+, Thermo Fisher Scientific) at 8000 rpm for 15 min, and cleaned by  
109 washing twice with ethanol in order to rinse off any remaining unreacted silane. The particles were  
110 finally dried in a vacuum oven at 70 °C for 2 hrs.

### 111 **2.2.2 Sodium Alginate Grafting**

112 A fraction of the APTMS modified SPs were further modified by grafting SA using two different  
113 solution concentrations (**Table 1**): 0.1% (1) and 1% (2) w/v. As an example, following this  
114 terminology, SP-C-2 particles were modified with a silane coating targeting an APTMS surface  
115 density of 1 APTMS molecule·nm<sup>-2</sup>, followed by grafting of SA with a 1% w/v solution. In a  
116 typical experiment for the preparation of SP-((B-2) or (C-2)) particles, 0.2 g of SA was first  
117 dissolved in 20 ml of DI water (1% w/v). 0.29 g of EDC and 0.17 g of NHS (EDC/NHS molar  
118 ratio = 1) were then added to the solution (EDC/-COOH molar ratio = 0.5, relative to the -COOH  
119 groups of alginate) (Giani, Fedi, & Barbucci, 2012). Then, 2 g of APTMS modified SPs were  
120 added to the mixture and the pH was adjusted to 4.5 with HCl 1N. The reaction proceeded for 15  
121 hrs at room temperature and the mixture was subsequently centrifuged at 8000 rpm to collect the  
122 modified particles, which were washed with DI water 3 times. Finally, the particles were dried in  
123 a vacuum oven at 70 °C for 10 hrs. The synthesis conditions of the surface-modified SPs are  
124 summarized in **Table 1**.

125 **Table 1.** Synthesis conditions of surface modified particles with APTMS and SA

Particle ID	Targeted APTMS density (molecule·nm <sup>-2</sup> )	APTMS (ml) <sup>a</sup>	EDC <sup>b</sup> (g)	NHS <sup>b</sup> (g)	SA solution concentration/volume <sup>b</sup> ((%w/v)/ml)
SP-A	0.01	1.31×10 <sup>-3</sup>	-	-	-
SP-B	0.1	1.31 ×10 <sup>-2</sup>	-	-	-
SP-C	1	1.31×10 <sup>-1</sup>	-	-	-
SP-A-1	0.01	1.31×10 <sup>-3</sup>	0.29×10 <sup>-2</sup>	0.17×10 <sup>-2</sup>	0.1/20
SP-B-2	0.1	1.31×10 <sup>-2</sup>	0.29×10 <sup>-1</sup>	0.17×10 <sup>-1</sup>	0.1/20
SP-C-2	1	1.31×10 <sup>-1</sup>	0.29	0.17	1/20

126 <sup>a</sup>For the modification of 10 g of silica particles (SP) with (3-Aminopropyl)trimethoxysilane  
127 (APTMS); <sup>b</sup>For 2 g of APTMS-grafted SP with *N*-(3-Dimethylaminopropyl)-*N*'-  
128 ethylcarbodiimide hydrochloride (EDC) and *N*-Hydroxysuccinimide (NHS).

## 129 2.3 Particle Surface Characterization

### 130 2.3.1 Zeta Potential Measurements

131 Particle zeta potential ( $\zeta$ ) was measured with a Zetasizer Nano ZSP instrument (Malvern  
132 Instruments Ltd., Worcestershire, UK). Samples were dispersed in DI water at pH 7.0 (adjusted  
133 by adding NaOH 12N), and the measurements were performed at 25 °C.  $\zeta$  after modification with  
134 APTMS and SA, at different pHs (3.0, 7.0 and 10.0), were measured on at least three different  
135 samples by microelectrophoresis at a particle concentration of 0.001 g·ml<sup>-1</sup>. Disposable zeta  
136 potential folded capillary cells (DTS1070) were used and all samples tested were freshly prepared.  
137 The instrument determined the electrophoretic mobility, and the Smoluchowski model was then  
138 applied by the software for the calculation of  $\zeta$  (Lattuada & Hatton, 2007).

### 139 2.3.2 High-resolution X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS) Analysis

140 Elemental analyses of unmodified and modified silica particles with APTMS were realized with a  
141 VG ESCALAB 3 MKII X-ray photoelectron spectroscope (XPS) equipped with a non-  
142 monochromatic Mg K $\alpha$  radiation source operated at 300 W (15 kV, 20 mA). XPS analyses were  
143 conducted to detect electrons with a takeoff angle normal to the surface of the sample, yielding a  
144 probed depth around 10 nm. The pass energy was 100 eV for survey scans and 20 eV for high-  
145 resolution scans, at 1.00 and 0.05 eV increments, respectively. The pressure during analysis was  
146 kept under  $5 \times 10^{-9}$  Torr ( $6.67 \times 10^{-11}$  Pa). Particles were stored under vacuum overnight prior to  
147 analysis. The results were analyzed using the Avantage XPS software package. The elemental  
148 distribution of the samples was determined on the basis of peak area comparison (C1s, O1s, etc.),  
149 normalized to their corresponding sensitivity factors, after the removal of the scattered electron  
150 background. In the case of higher resolution spectra, binding energies were referenced to the C1s  
151 peak at 285.0 eV to adjust for possible charging effects, and the Shirley method was applied for  
152 background noise subtraction. According to the data trend for each distribution of binding energy,  
153 the baseline was manually placed. Each curve is represented by its maximum binding energy (BE)  
154 in the Supporting information (**Figure S2**). The species' elemental distributions are obtained via  
155 Gaussian/Lorentzian curve fitting on the original curve. The number of sub-curves and their  
156 corresponding species were obtained with full width at half maximum (fwhm) = 1.6, 1.8, 2.2, and  
157 2.4 eV for C, O, Si, and N, respectively.

### 158 **2.3.3 Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR) Spectroscopy Analysis**

159 A Perkin Elmer Spectrum 65 FTIR spectrometer operating in attenuated total reflectance mode  
160 (Zn/Se crystal) in the range of 650-4000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  was used to characterize unmodified SiO<sub>2</sub> sub- $\mu\text{m}$   
161 particles, as well as modified particles with APTMS and SA. For each sample, 32 scans were

162 recorded at a resolution of  $4\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The spectra of SP, SP-C and SP-C-2 are presented as Supporting  
163 Information (**Figure S3**).

## 164 **2.4 Characterization of Aggregation and Disaggregation Properties**

### 165 **2.4.1 Visual Inspection of Sedimentation Kinetics**

166 0.2 g of each particle type was dispersed in 10 ml of DI water using an ultrasonic homogenizer  
167 equipped with a microtip (Cole-Parmer, instrument model CP505, 500 watts) at an amplitude of  
168 20 % for 1 min (approximately  $60\text{ J}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}$ ). The pH was then adjusted to 3.0 with HCl 1N when  
169 required. Particle sedimentation was monitored by taking photographs (Nikon DX equipped with  
170 an AF-S DX NIKKOR 18-55mm f/3.5-5.6G VRII objective) every 3 min after dispersion, for a  
171 total duration of 60 min. For all particle types, three samples were tested.

### 172 **2.4.2 Optical Microscopy Observations**

173 Unmodified and surface modified particles were observed by dark field optical microscopy  
174 (Olympus BX51 by Cytoviva, Objectives = 10x and 50x Plan Fluorite, and 60x UPL Fluorite Oil,  
175 and 100x UPL Fluorite Oil camera Q imaging, Retigna 2000R fast 1394, cooled color 12 bit). For  
176 each type of particle, 0.02 g of particles was dispersed in 2.0 ml of DI water at pH 7.0 using the  
177 ultrasonic homogenizer at a 20% amplitude for 1 min ( $\approx 300\text{ J}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}$ ); the pH was subsequently  
178 adjusted to 3.0 with HCl 1N when required. Solutions were subsequently diluted by adding 3  
179 droplets into 5 ml of water at the corresponding pH while stirring with a magnetic stirrer for 30 s  
180 at 600 rpm. Finally, three drops of freshly prepared samples were placed on microscope glass  
181 slides and observed at different locations and magnifications. The images were analyzed using the  
182 ImageJ software, to calculate the average size (Ferret diameter) of the observed aggregates  
183 (between 200 and 4000 aggregates were analyzed for each condition).

### 184 **2.4.3 Measurement of Sedimentation Rate by UV-Vis Spectroscopy**

185 UV-Vis transmittance measurements as a function of time were performed to determine the  
186 sedimentation rate of unmodified and surface modified particles, using a UV-Vis spectrometer  
187 (Model DH-2000 from Ocean Optics, 10 ms integration time). For each particle type, one  
188 concentration was analyzed ( $0.01 \text{ g}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}$ ) at 2 different pHs (3.0 and 7.0), by dispersing the required  
189 amount of particles in 2 ml of DI water (pH 7.0) using an ultrasonic homogenizer, as described  
190 previously; the pH was subsequently adjusted to 3.0 with HCl 1N when required. Then, 1 ml of  
191 each sample was transferred into a disposable polystyrene cuvette with a 1 cm path length for  
192 transmittance measurements at 656 nm every 3 min for a total duration of 60 min. The height of  
193 the beam path was located at 1.3 cm from the bottom of the cuvette. For each particle type, the  
194 transmittance measurements were repeated 3 times. The spectral measurements were normalized  
195 with the DI water transmittance values at pH 3.0 and 7.0 respectively.

#### 196 **2.4.4 Aggregation/Disaggregation Reversibility Evaluation**

197 Each sample was prepared by dispersing 0.01 g of particles (SP, SP-A or SP-A-1) in 1 ml of DI  
198 water at pH 7.0. UV-Vis transmittance at 656 nm was then measured as a function of time for 60  
199 min, using 1 ml disposable polystyrene cuvettes. Subsequently, the sample was transferred back  
200 into a vial and the pH was adjusted to pH 3.0 with HCl 1N. The sample was again transferred into  
201 a disposable cuvette for transmittance measurements at 656 nm for 60 min. Once the experiment  
202 was completed, the sample was transferred back again into a vial and the pH was again brought  
203 back to 7.0 with NaOH 12.0N. The particles were next re-dispersed by ultrasonication (20%  
204 amplitude for 20 sec). This whole cycle process was repeated 4 times. The spectral measurements  
205 were normalized with DI water transmittance values at pH 3.0 and 7.0 respectively.

206

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### 2.4.5 Effect of urea on sodium alginate solubility as a function of pH

Two vials, each containing 10 ml of 0.05% (w/v) SA in DI water solution at pH 7.0, were prepared. Then, urea was added into one of the vial ( $1.0 \text{ mol}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$ ), and the pH of both vials was adjusted to 3.0 with HCl 1N. Pictures were taken before and after pH adjustment.

## 3. Results

### 3.1 Surface Modification Analyzed by Zeta Potential, XPS and FTIR

The particles zeta potential  $\zeta$  was measured as a function of pH for bare silica particles (SP), modified particles with APTMS (SP-A to C), and with SA (SP-(A-1), (B-2), and (C-2)) (Table 2).

**Table 2.**  $\zeta$  of silica particles: untreated (SP), APTMS treated (SP-A to C), and APTMS+SA treated particles (SP-(A-1), (B-2) and (C-2)), as a function of pH (3.0, 7.0 and 10.0).

Particle ID	$\zeta$ (mV)		
	pH = 3.0	pH = 7.0	pH = 10.0
SP	$5.7 \pm 0.8$	$-56.4 \pm 1.4$	$-57.0 \pm 1.4$
SP-A	$11.0 \pm 1.2$	$-58.4 \pm 1.1$	$-57.0 \pm 1.3$
SP-B	$49.4 \pm 4.7$	$24.7 \pm 0.7$	$-24.2 \pm 0.7$
SP-C	$52.1 \pm 1.4$	$13.3 \pm 0.3$	$8.4 \pm 0.4$
SP-A-1	$6.5 \pm 1.0$	$-50.9 \pm 1.1$	$-49.4 \pm 0.6$
SP-B-2	$3.4 \pm 0.8$	$-45.6 \pm 0.6$	$-45.1 \pm 1.6$
SP-C-2	$-0.8 \pm 0.3$	$-43.2 \pm 1.0$	$-43.8 \pm 1.4$

SP particles display a slightly positive  $\zeta$  at pH 3.0 that decreases to negative values at pHs 7.0 and 10.0. This behavior is expected due to the deprotonation of hydroxyl groups on the SP surface as the pH increases (Knoblich & Gerber, 2001). SP particles modified with APTMS (SP-A SP-B,

223 SP-C) generally display higher positive values at pH 3.0. Increasing the initial concentration of  
224 APTMS in solution results in an increasing positive  $\zeta$ , from +11.0 mV to +52.1 mV. At pH 3.0,  
225 SP-A particles present a similar behavior as compared to unmodified SP particles due to low  
226 APTMS surface density. For SP-B and SP-C,  $\zeta$  increases significantly (49.4 and 52.1 mV) due to  
227 the expected higher APTMS surface density, confirming grafting of APTMS. Grafting of APTMS  
228 was also confirmed by XPS, the spectra revealing two different components related to N-H bonds  
229 (revealed from the N1s peak using high resolution XPS), and one component related to C-N bonds.  
230 The component at a BE  $\cong$  399.8 eV corresponds to  $-\text{NH}_2$  and the component at BE  $\cong$  401.5 eV  
231 corresponds to  $-\text{NH}_3^+$  groups (see Supporting Information, **Figure S2**). Grafting of APTMS was  
232 independently confirmed by FTIR with the appearance of a band at  $1450\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , associated with N-  
233 H bond asymmetrical deformation vibration (**Figure S3**).

234 When the pH increases to 7.0 and 10.0,  $\zeta$  of SP-A, SP-B and SP-C all shift towards lower positive  
235 (almost neutral) or negative values. This is explained by (1) the significant deprotonation of surface  
236 bound hydroxyl groups, yielding negatively charged  $-\text{O}^-$  (Knoblich & Gerber, 2001), and (2) the  
237 gradual deprotonation of APTMS  $-\text{NH}_3^+$  groups.

238 At pH 3.0, SA modified particles (SP-A-1, SP-B-2 and SP-C-2) display nearly neutral  $\zeta$  values  
239 (slightly positive or negative). This behavior is due to the protonation of the SA carboxylic acid  
240 groups ( $\text{pK}_a = 3.5$ ) (Harnsilawat et al., 2006) – confirming grafting of SA with APTMS. At pH  
241 7.0 and 10.0, SP-A-1, SP-B-2 and SP-C-2 particles display almost identical and nearly constant  $\zeta$   
242 values. At pH 7.0,  $\zeta$  drops to negative values ranging from -43.2 mV to -50.9 mV, while at pH  
243 10.0 it reaches nearly -50 mV. This is expected since at pH 7.0 and 10.0, above the  $\text{pK}_a$  of SA, the  
244  $-\text{COOH}$  groups on the surface are deprotonated and become negatively charged, like a number of  
245 other polysaccharides (*e.g.* xanthan gum) (Wang, Natale, Virgilio, & Heuzey, 2016). Grafting of

246 SA was also confirmed by FTIR (see **Figure S3**). Observed bands at 1649 and 1460  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  were  
247 attributed to asymmetric and symmetric stretching vibrations of carboxylate  $-\text{COO}-$ . Finally, the  
248 disappearance of the N-H band at 1450  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  is attributed to the grafting of SA and the formation  
249 of N-C=O bonds.

250 Zeta potential measurements, XPS and FTIR analyses confirm graftings of the silane coupling  
251 agent and sodium alginate. The next section will look at the aggregation state of the particles as a  
252 function of pH and surface chemistry.

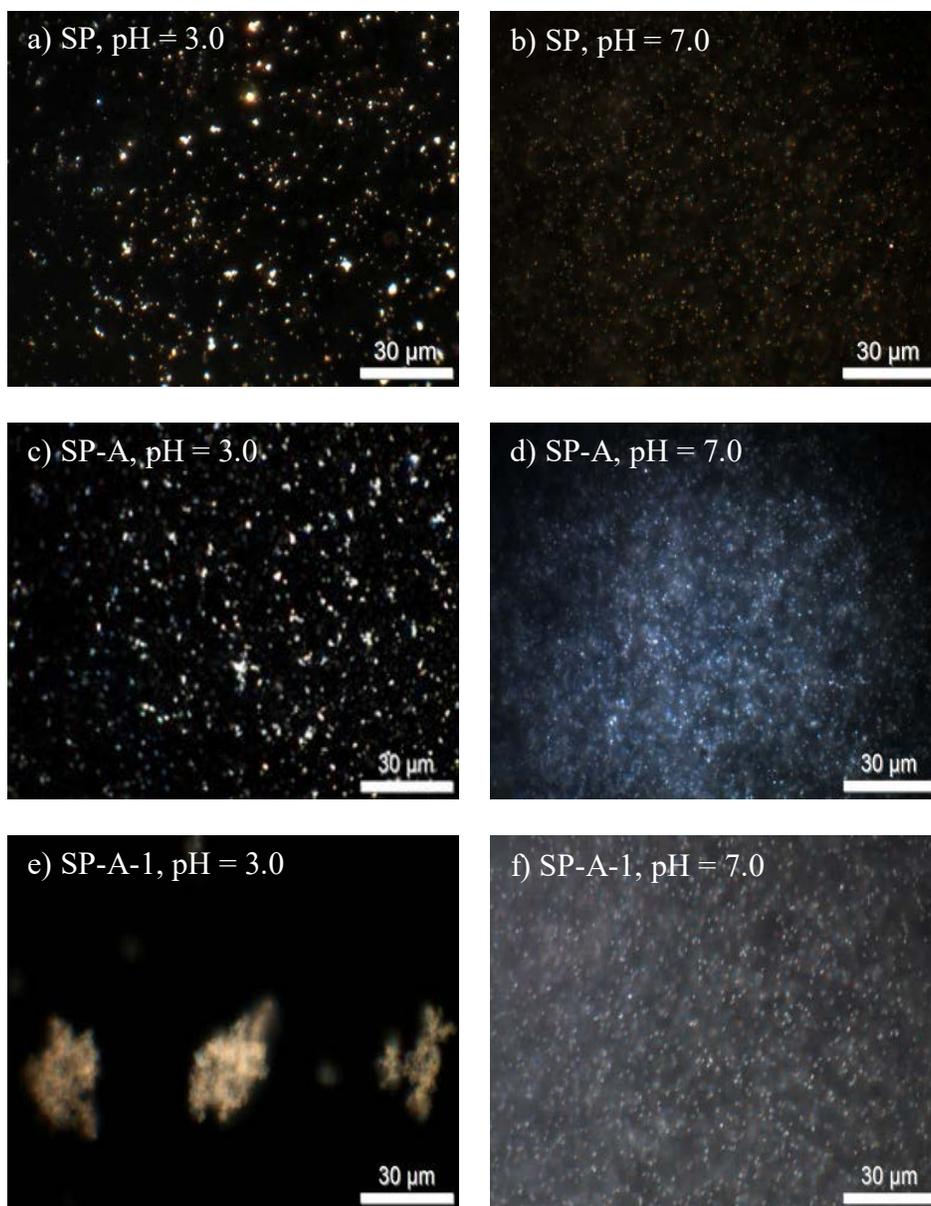
### 253 **3.2 Particle aggregation behavior**

254 **Figure 1** displays the aggregation behavior of SP, SP-A, and SP-A-1 particles at pH 3.0 and  
255 7.0, respectively. At pH 3.0, unmodified SP particles tend to form small aggregates due to their  
256 slightly positive charge (**Figure 1a**), while at pH 7.0 they are almost individually dispersed  
257 (**Figure 1b**). These observations agree with the  $\zeta$  measurements reported in **Table 1**: at pH 3.0,  
258 the small positive value results in an unstable dispersion, while at pH 7.0, the significant negative  
259 value leads to a stable dispersion.

260

261

262



263 **Figure 1.** Dark field optical microscopy micrographs showing the aggregation state, as a function  
 264 of pH (3.0 or 7.0), of SP (a, b), SP-A (c, d), and SP-A-1 (e, f) particles.

265 Grafting APTMS at the surface of SP changes their electrostatic surface potential (**Table 2**) and  
 266 their state of aggregation (**Figure 1c and d**). **Table 3** reports arithmetic mean diameter  $\pm$  mean  
 267 absolute deviation, as a function of particle type – the size distributions are reported in **Figure S4**.  
 268 For SP-A, at pH 3.0 (**Figure 1c**), the aggregates' average diameter ( $D = 1.5 \pm 0.9 \mu\text{m}$ , **Table 3**) is

269 comparable to unmodified SP particles ( $D = 1.7 \pm 1.0 \mu\text{m}$ ), SP-B and SP-C particles ( $D = 0.9 \pm$   
 270  $0.4 \mu\text{m}$  and  $D = 0.8 \pm 0.5 \mu\text{m}$ , respectively). At pH 7.0, the presence of APTMS at the surface  
 271 increases the average aggregate size (**Figure 1d**), as compared to unmodified SP at pH 7.0, due to  
 272 the low zeta potential value.

273  $D$  approximately increases by an order of magnitude, at pH 3.0, when SA is subsequently grafted  
 274 onto the particles' surface (**Figure 1e, Table 3**), as compared to unmodified particles (**Figure 1a,**  
 275 see also **Figure S5**) – the effect is quite striking. At pH 7.0 however (**Figure 1f**), SA grafted  
 276 particles form much smaller aggregates ( $D = 1.3 \pm 0.3 \mu\text{m}$ ) due to the deprotonation of SA  
 277 carboxylate groups.

278

279 **Table 3.** Average aggregate diameter  $D$  as a function of particle type, at pH 3.0 (N = number of  
 280 analyzed aggregates).

Particle type	Aggregate average diameter $D$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Average number of particles per aggregate <sup>a</sup>
SP	$1.7 \pm 1.0$ (N = 659)	182
SP-A	$1.5 \pm 0.9$ (N = 917)	128
SP-B	$0.9 \pm 0.4$ (N = 3634)	28
SP-C	$0.8 \pm 0.5$ (N = 1979)	22
SP-A-1	$17 \pm 10$ (N = 231)	$18.2 \times 10^4$
SP-B-2	$12 \pm 7$ (N = 1124)	$5.8 \times 10^4$
SP-C-2	$12 \pm 8$ (N = 915)	$6.4 \times 10^4$

281 <sup>a</sup>average number of particles per aggregate was obtained from  $(D_{\text{aggregate}}/D_{\text{particle}})^3$

282

### 283 3.3 Sedimentation Kinetics

284 **Figure 2** displays the sedimentation behavior of SP, SP-A and SP-A-1 particles dispersed in water  
285 at pHs 3.0 and 7.0, respectively. At pH 3.0, SP particles display a clear sedimentation onset after  
286 3 min – the process is fast for the first 9 min, and then slows down since most of the particles have  
287 then sedimented. In contrast, no sedimentation is observed at pH 7.0 even after 60 min (**Figure 2a**  
288 **and b**). This difference is consistent with the measured  $\zeta$  values. SP-A particles do not display any  
289 significant sedimentation over the whole duration of the experiment, for both pHs tested (**Figure**  
290 **2 c and d**). At pH 3.0, the positively charged protonated amino groups' repulsive forces lead to a  
291 stable dispersed state, while at pH 7.0 the remaining negatively charged deprotonated hydroxyl  
292 groups stabilize the dispersion. However, as the surface density of APTMS increases (SP-B and  
293 SP-C), sedimentation occurs at pH 7.0 (results not shown).

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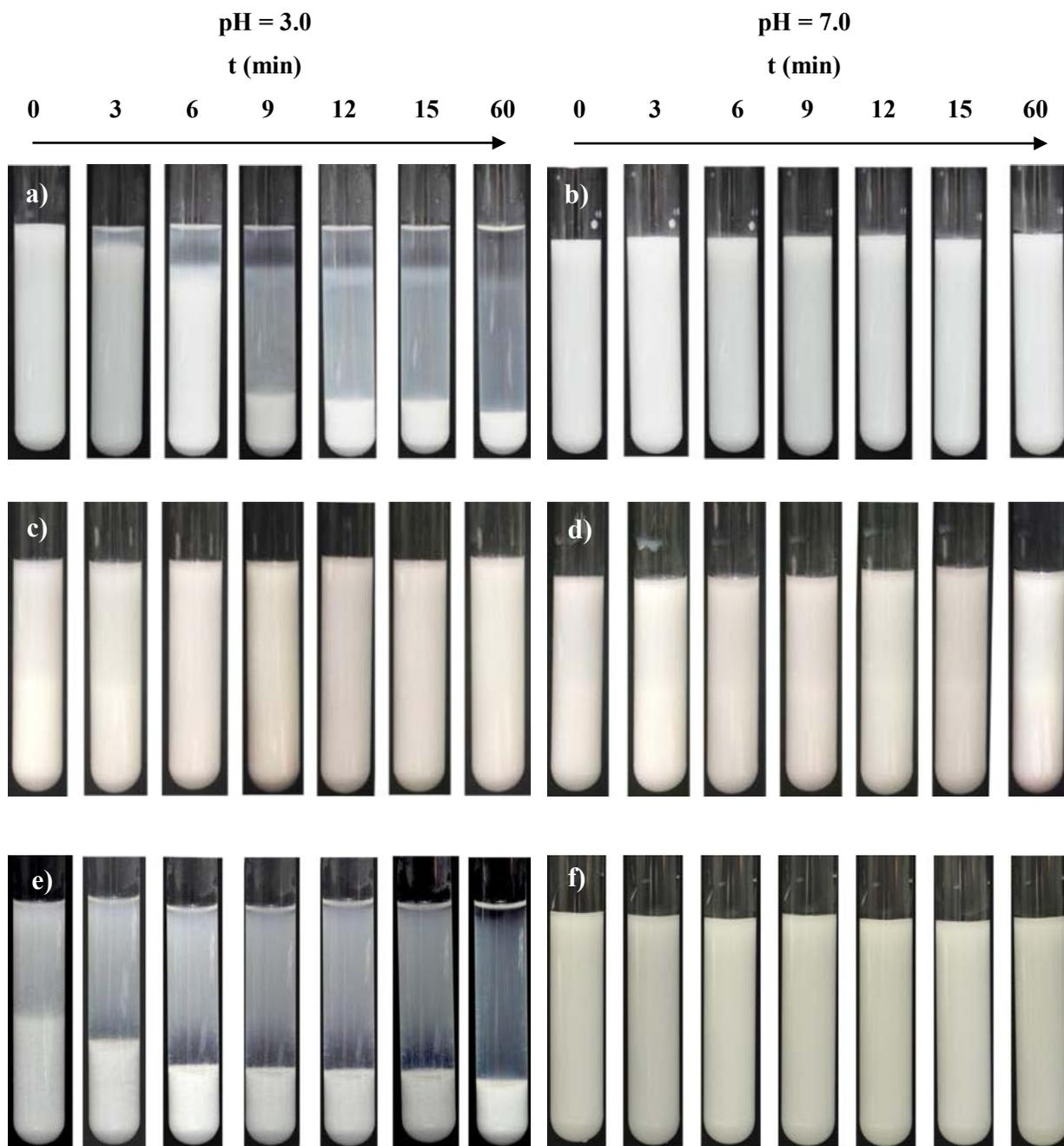
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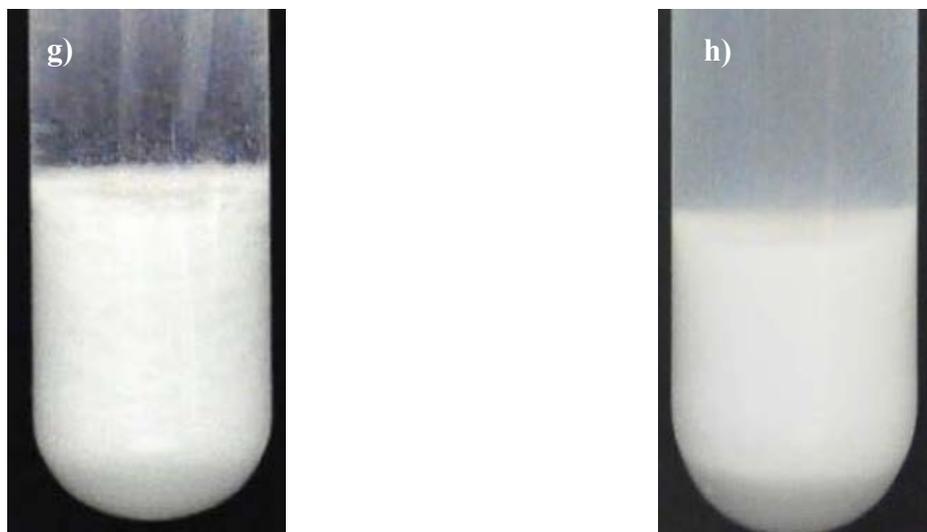
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301





302 **Figure 2.** Pictures of the sedimentation process (height of test tube = 15.3 cm) for SP (a, b), SP-A  
303 (c, d), and SP-A-1 (e, f) particles over 60 min at pHs 3.0 and 7.0 respectively; g, h) close-ups of  
304 SP-A-1 and SP sedimented particles, showing a clear difference in particle texture. Additional  
305 results for SP-B-2 and SP-C-2 particles are displayed in Figure S6.

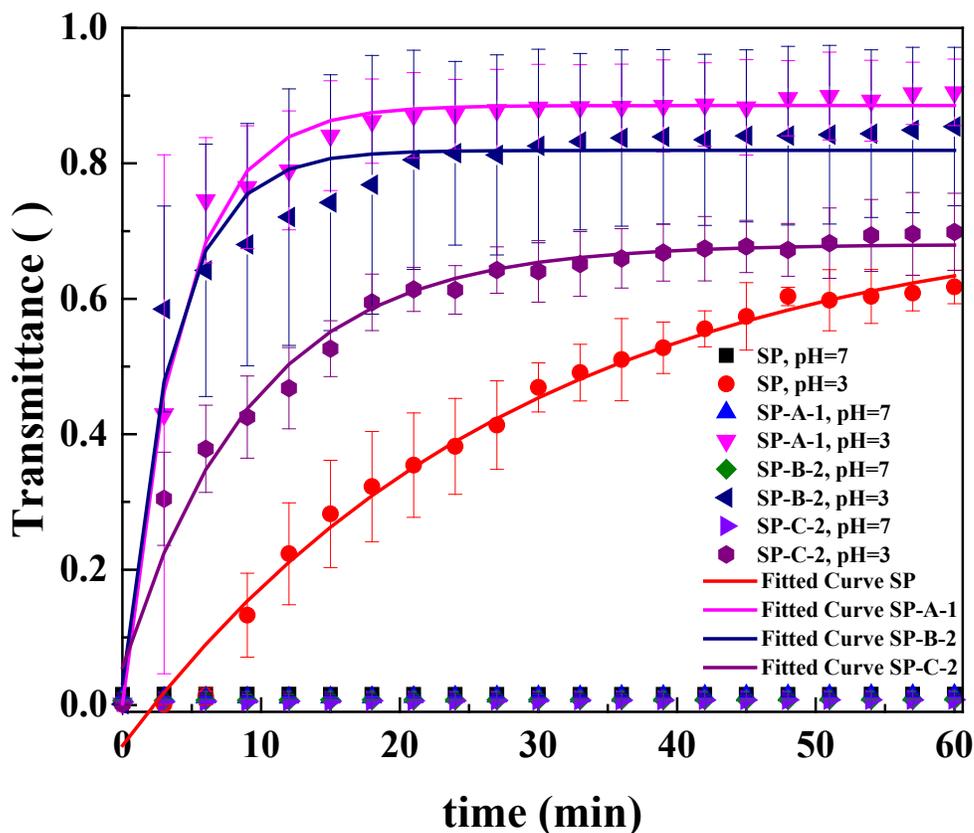
306 For SP-A-1 particles, shown in **Figure 2e-f**, sedimentation starts right away at pH 3.0 and after  
307 3 minutes, it is already fairly advanced. After 6 min, the process significantly slows down, whereas  
308 at pH 7.0, SP-A-1 particles stay well dispersed for the whole duration of the experiment, as shown  
309 in **Figure 2f**. Note that a similar behavior was observed for SP-B-2 and SP-C-2 particles (results  
310 not shown). Another distinct feature is the “grainy” texture of the sedimented SP-A-1 particles  
311 (**Figure 2g**), as compared to unmodified SP particles (**Figure 2h**) – indicating the presence of large  
312 aggregates at pH 3.0, which is not the case for SP particles.

### 313 **3.4 Kinetic test by UV-Visible spectroscopy**

314 **Figure 3** displays the normalized UV-Vis transmittance results  $T$  of the solutions during 60 min,  
315 right after processing, at both pHs 3.0 and 7.0. The results at pH 3.0 were fitted with power laws  
316 ( $T = A+B \exp(-t/C)$ ). SP particles sediment moderately fast at pH 3.0 (as indicated by the initial

317 transmittance slope ( $-B/C$ ) = 0.03,  $R^2 = 0.98$ ), while no net sedimentation is detected at pH 7.0 ( $T$   
318 = 0). These results are consistent with the behavior expected based on zeta potential results (**Table**  
319 **1**) and visual observations (**Figure 2**). After  $\approx 35$  min,  $T$  has increased up to 50 % for SP particles,  
320 and to 60 % after 60 min, with sedimentation still in progress. In contrast, sedimentation is  
321 occurring significantly faster at pH 3.0 for SA modified particles (initial slope ( $-B/C$ ) = 0.22 ( $R^2 =$   
322 0.98), 0.22 ( $R^2 = 0.95$ ) and 0.07 ( $R^2 = 0.98$ ) for SP-A-1, SP-B-2 and SP-C-2 particles respectively).  
323 For SP-A-1,  $T$  increases up to 50 % after only  $\approx 5$  min, and reaches a plateau value of nearly 90 %  
324 after 30 min. Similar results are obtained for SP-B-2 particles, while SP-C-2 particles show a  
325 slower sedimentation process compared to SP-A-1 and SP-B-2, but still faster compared to SP.  
326 Finally, note that all solutions at pH 7.0 displayed no significant UV-Vis  $T$  increase.

327



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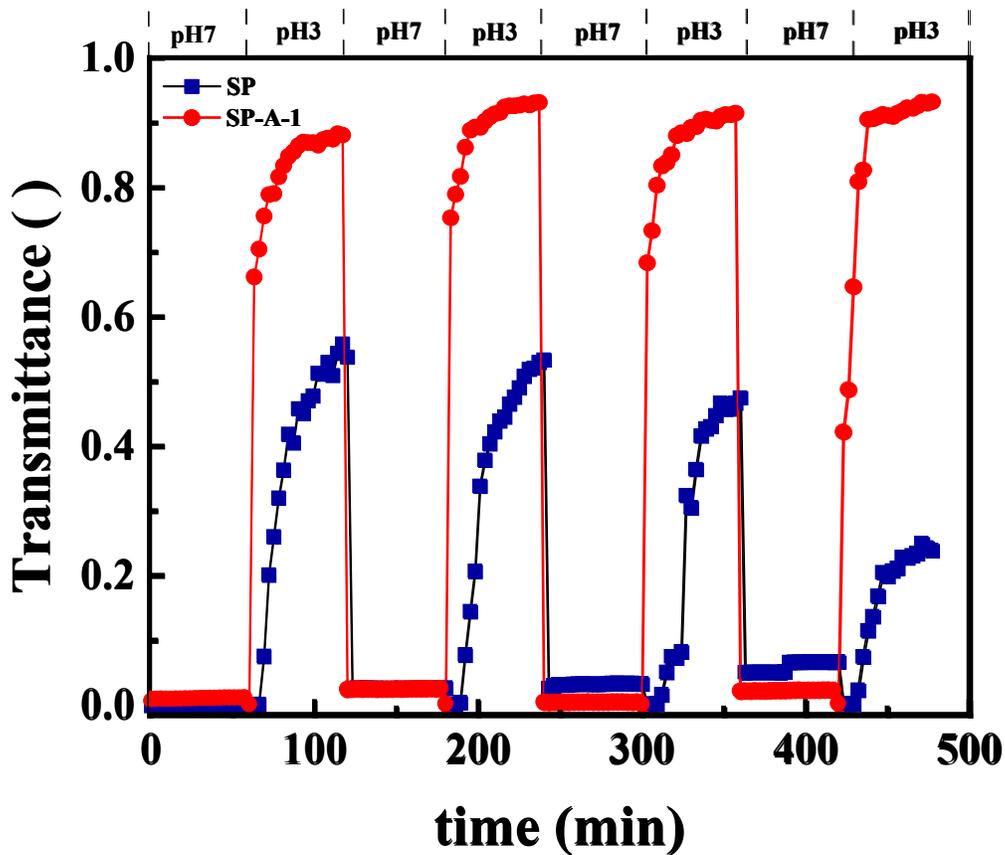
329 **Figure 3.** Normalized transmittance  $T$  as a function of time for SP, SP-A-1, SP-B-2 and SP-C-2  
 330 particles at pH 3.0 and 7.0, and fitted curves for SP, SP-A-1, SP-B-2 and SP-C-2 particles at pH  
 331 3.0 over 60 min.

### 332 3.5 Aggregation/disaggregation Reversibility

333 **Figure 4** illustrates the reversible nature of the aggregation process for SP and SP-A-1 particles  
 334 over 4 pH-swing cycles using UV-Vis spectroscopy, starting at pH 7.0, for 60 min. After that time,  
 335 the pH is decreased to 3.0 for 60 min, and the cycle is repeated 3 other times. Both SP-A-1 and  
 336 SP particles are able to aggregate and disaggregate reversibly over the course of the 4 tested cycles.  
 337 At pH 3.0, SP-A-1 particles sediment rapidly within minutes and form aggregates, with UV

338 transmittance reaching a maximum near 90% each time the pH is brought down to 3.0. When the  
339 pH is increased to 7.0 and the solution is sonicated, the dispersion remains stable ( $T \approx 0\%$ ).

340 SP particles also display a reversible aggregation behavior, but the maximum transmittance after  
341 60 min never goes over 60% - in fact, it decreases as the process is repeated. Furthermore, slight  
342 aggregation is also observed at pH 7.0 as the process is repeated. It should be noted however that  
343 if the pH is just increased without any sonication, the disaggregation process is very slow.



344

345 **Figure 4.** Reversibility test for SP (■) and SP-A-1 particles (●) over 4 cycles, during which the  
346 pH jumps back and forth from 7.0 to 3.0.

347

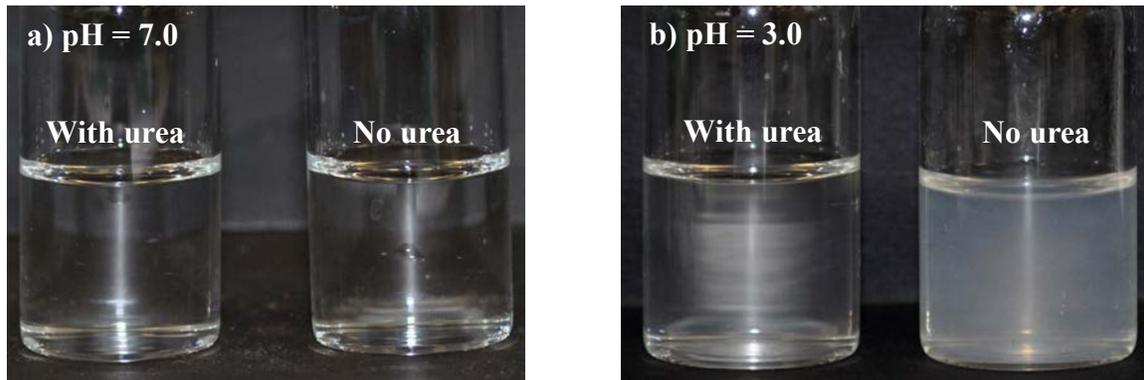
348 **4. Discussion**  
349

350 The  $\zeta$  measurements, along with the XPS and FTIR results, confirm that the SP particles have  
351 been modified sequentially with covalently grafted APTMS and SA. The average diameter of  
352 individual silica particles is  $d \approx 300$  nm - in contrast, the average diameter  $D$  of particle aggregates  
353 at pH 3.0, for SA modified particles, is about 10 times superior as compared to aggregates of  
354 unmodified particles. Since the volume of an aggregate  $\sim D^3$ , there is approximately  $10^3$  more  
355 particles in an aggregate of SA modified particles as compared to an aggregate comprising  
356 unmodified particles, as reported in the third column of **Table 3** – a significant difference.

357 We propose that the main mechanism leading ultimately to the reversible, enhanced aggregation  
358 properties of SA modified particles, compared to unmodified particles, originates from hydrogen  
359 bonding between neighboring particles grafted with SA. At pH 7.0, SA carboxylic acid groups are  
360 deprotonated and maintain the particles in suspension. However, once the pH is brought down to  
361 3.0, the carboxylate groups are protonated and  $\zeta$  is in-between 0-10 mV, which leads to an unstable  
362 suspension and particle agglomeration. This gives rise to SA intermolecular interactions via  
363 hydrogen bonding, enhancing aggregate formation. Recently, Chen et al. (K. Chen et al., 2017)  
364 used SA-modified nanoparticles to prepare pH-sensitive Pickering emulsions. Their work  
365 demonstrated that SA significantly alters the emulsions' rheological behavior due to pH-dependent  
366 interparticle interactions.

367 **Figure 5a and b** illustrate the effect of urea on alginate association in solution at pHs 7.0 and  
368 3.0, respectively. Urea is a well-known hydrogen bond disruptor, which should then limit or inhibit  
369 hydrogen bonding and aggregate formation. At pH 7.0, urea has no visible effect on solution

370 turbidity. However, when the pH is brought down to 3.0, alginate phase separate (and can  
371 ultimately form a gel when the SA concentration is high enough), a phenomena that is not observed  
372 when urea is added to the solution.



373 **Figure 5.** Pictures of 0.5 % solution of pure SA in DI water at pH 7.0 (a) and at pH 3.0 (b), with  
374 and without urea (16 M). Solution with urea at pH 3.0 remains clear, while without urea it becomes  
375 turbid.

376 Furthermore, investigating the effect of SA molecular weight and architecture  
377 (guluronic/mannuronic ratio), and other gelling polysaccharides, is currently in progress.

## 378 **5. Conclusion**

379 This article demonstrates that submicrometer silica particles functionalized with a pH sensitive  
380 polysaccharide, sodium alginate, display enhanced aggregation properties at low pH, and  
381 reversible aggregation/disaggregation properties in aqueous solutions. The aggregation properties  
382 are due to interparticle hydrogen bonding between neighboring sodium alginate modified particle.  
383 The particles surface modification was characterized by zeta potential measurements, XPS and  
384 FTIR analyses, and UV-Vis was used to characterize the sedimentation kinetics. The results

385 illustrate how stimuli sensitive surface modified particles can be used as a potential approach to  
386 facilitate the aggregation of particles, and to ease separation processes.

387

388 **Supporting Information.** Silica particles SEM micrographs, XPS and FTIR spectra of  
389 unmodified and modified particles; particle aggregates size distribution; optical microscopy and  
390 sedimentation test results.

391

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395 **Author Contributions**

396 The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors have given approval  
397 to the final version of the manuscript.

398

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408

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