Investigation of Surfactant Efficiency Using Dissipative Particle Dynamics

Rekvig, L.; Kranenburg, M.; Vreede, J.; Hafskjold, B.; Smit, B.

Published in:
Langmuir

Citation for published version (APA):

General rights
It is not permitted to download or to forward/distribute the text or part of it without the consent of the author(s) and/or copyright holder(s), other than for strictly personal, individual use, unless the work is under an open content license (like Creative Commons).

Disclaimer/Complaints regulations
If you believe that digital publication of certain material infringes any of your rights or (privacy) interests, please let the Library know, stating your reasons. In case of a legitimate complaint, the Library will make the material inaccessible and/or remove it from the website. Please Ask the Library: http://uba.uva.nl/en/contact, or a letter to: Library of the University of Amsterdam, Secretariat, Singel 425, 1012 WP Amsterdam, The Netherlands. You will be contacted as soon as possible.
Investigation of Surfactant Efficiency Using Dissipative Particle Dynamics

Live Rekvig,*† Marieke Kranenburg,‡ Joceyln Vreede,‡ Bjørn Hafskjold,† and Berend Smit‡

Department of Chemistry, Norwegian University of Science and Technology, N-7491 Trondheim, Norway, and Department of Chemical Engineering, University of Amsterdam, Nieuwe Achtergracht 166, 1018 WV Amsterdam, The Netherlands

Received April 15, 2003. In Final Form: July 9, 2003

We have used dissipative particle dynamics (DPD) to simulate surfactant monolayers on the interface between oil and water. With a simple surfactant model, we investigate how variations in size and structure of surfactants influence their ability to reduce the interfacial tension. In particular, we studied the effect of branching of the hydrophobic tail. We found that branched surfactants are more efficient at the interface than linear ones only if the head groups are sufficiently hydrophilic to prevent the molecules from staggering. By combining DPD with a Monte Carlo method, we have imposed constant surfactant chemical potential and (normal) pressure in separate simulations of bulk and interface. From this, we can determine the bulk concentration needed to obtain a given interfacial tension. We found that higher concentrations of branched surfactants are required to obtain the same reduction of the interfacial tension. We argue that the stronger excluded volume interactions which make branched surfactants more efficient at the interface compared to their linear isomers at the same time make them less inclined to adsorb at the interface.

1. Introduction

Surfactants are of importance in many industrial applications. They adsorb on the interface between oil and water, lowering the interfacial tension and promoting mixing. This is sometimes an undesired side effect, but usually the surfactants are added for this purpose. When choosing between the many surfactants available, both natural and artificially prepared, or designing new ones, one would often like surfactants which reduce the interfacial tension efficiently by adding as little surfactant as possible.

The amount of surfactants required to obtain a given interfacial tension reduction depends on several factors: The efficiency at the interface, the partitioning between bulk and interface, and the tendency to form micellar aggregates. Experimentally, it is common to distinguish between efficiency and effectiveness.1 The efficiency of a surfactant is defined as the negative logarithm of the surfactant concentration in bulk needed to reduce the interfacial tension by a given amount. In analogy with this, we define efficiency at the interface to reflect the interfacial densities (i.e., molecules per area) required to obtain a given interface effect. Surfactant effectiveness is defined as the maximum reduction of the interfacial tension a surfactant can produce, regardless of amount used.

The efficiency and effectiveness of a surfactant are related to its chemical structure.1 Many of the surfactants prepared from petroleum feedstocks have branched hydrocarbon chains. Whereas, for example, the effect of increasing tail length on the interfacial tension is well-known and understood (Traube’s rule),2,3 there are no such clear rules concerning the effect of branching the hydrophobic tail. Although Rosen1 summarizes that linear surfactants are more efficient than branched isomers, both positive4,5 and negative6,7 effects of branching on surfactant efficiency are reported in the literature and the effect is still not fully understood.

The degree of branching can vary from the double chain obtained by moving the hydrophilic head group along the chain, to Guerbet branched surfactants, where the second chain is attached to the alpha or beta carbon of the main chain, to highly branched surfactants, where methyl groups are attached at several sites along the single or double chains. For example, Varadaraj et al. investigated linear, Guerbet branched, and highly branched surfactants.4,5,8,9 They found that for ethoxy sulfate surfactants, both efficiency and effectiveness increase with Guerbet branching on an oil/water interface (although less pronounced than on an air/water interface), and they attribute this to the efficient packing at the interface.4 Wormuth et al. found Guerbet branched surfactants to be less efficient in mixing oil and water than the linear surfactants of the same number of carbon atoms and with head groups of either five ethoxy groups or a sulfate head group.6 They ascribed this to less efficient packing and more flexible monolayers. Further branching was found to lower the
efficiency significantly$^{8,10}$ due to a less compact monolayer. Aspe`e and Lissi, investigating alcohols of different topology and chain lengths, concluded that the branched isomers have a larger tendency to adsorb at the interface at low surface pressures, whereas linear surfactants are more efficient at higher surface pressure.$^7$

Although the interfacial tension measurements are relatively straightforward, it is difficult to obtain detailed information on the behavior of the amphiphilic molecules and their concentration at the interface as this requires expensive neutron scattering experiments.$^{11}$ Therefore, molecular simulations are an attractive alternative to provide additional information on distributions and ordering of the amphiphiles, enhancing our understanding of surfactant efficiency at the interface. In the process of designing or choosing new surfactants, it is valuable to know whether a surfactant is more efficient than another because of a greater tendency to adsorb on the interface or because it is better at reducing the interfacial tension.

To investigate both effects separately, we perform some simulations for two types of surfactants, one DPD particle represents a group of atoms or a liquid bead. In these units, the forces are of the form

$$F_{ij}^C = a_{ij}w^C(r_{ij})\hat{r}_{ij}$$

$$F_{ij}^R = \omega w^R(r_{ij})\hat{r}_{ij}$$

$$F_{ij}^D = -\eta w^D(r_{ij})\hat{r}_{ij}$$

where the forces are of the form

$$w^C(r) = w^R(r) = \sqrt{w^D(r)} = w(r)$$

where

$$w(r) = \begin{cases} 1 - \frac{r}{r_c} & \text{for } r < r_c \\ 0 & \text{for } r \geq r_c \end{cases}$$

Throughout this paper we use reduced units. $r_c$ is the unit of length, $kT$ (the temperature of the thermostat) is the unit of energy, and the mass unit is the mass of a DPD bead. In these units, $\sigma = 3.0$ and $\eta = 4.5$.

2.2. Model. We use a coarse-grained approach where one DPD particle represents a group of atoms or a liquid volume. Water beads, oil beads, head groups, and tail groups are denoted by $w$, $o$, $h$, and $t$, respectively. The tail beads are identical to the oil beads. Some of the model surfactants investigated are shown in Figure 1. A surfactant consists of head groups and tail groups connected by harmonic springs:

$$F_{ij}^{\text{Bond}} = -k_s\left(r_{ij} - r_0\right)\hat{r}_{ij}$$

We choose $k_s = 100$ and $r_0 = 0.7$. Water and oil are represented by a single bead for simplicity. Natural oil, however, is composed of hydrocarbon chains. To investigate if the results depend on the oil chain length, we performed some simulations for two types of surfactants at different oil chain lengths. Since these simulations do not show qualitative differences, we focus in the remainder of the text on

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{figure1.jpg}
\caption{Some of the model surfactants investigated in this study and the nomenclature used. The yellow particles are hydrophilic beads (h), and the gray particles are hydrophobic tails (t).}
\end{figure}
of this work on oil molecules that are represented by a single bead.

In some simulations, we study the effect of changes in the repulsion parameters \( a_i \) and mention their values explicitly. For the rest, we use the repulsion parameters shown in Table 1. These are taken from Groot,\(^{16}\) except that we used \( a_w = 25 \) instead of 15. This change has been made to obtain similar bulk densities in the oil and in the water phase.

2.3. Constant \( \mu_{\text{surf}} \), \( P \), \( T \) Conditions. Experimentally, it is well-known that even if the oil/water interface is saturated with surfactant, the concentration of surfactant in bulk can be very small. One therefore needs to simulate a very large system to obtain a few surfactants in the bulk phase. Here we avoid these difficulties by simulating the setup shown in Figure 2. This setup is comprised of two systems: an inhomogeneous system which contains oil, water, and surfactants and a homogeneous system with water and surfactants only. The inhomogeneous system is used to determine the surfactant concentration at the interface and the interfacial tension. The homogeneous system is used to compute the bulk concentration of surfactants in the water phase. To ensure that the two systems are in equilibrium, both are coupled to a reservoir that imposes the (normal) pressure, temperature, and chemical potential of the surfactants.

In the simulations, this is achieved by combining DPD with a Monte Carlo scheme.\(^{17}\) The inhomogeneous system consists of a fixed number of water particles \( N_{\text{water}} \) and oil particles \( N_{\text{oil}} \) and a fixed area \( A \). The box length and the number of surfactants in the system are varied by imposing \( \mu_{\text{surf}} \) and the normal pressure \( P \). In a separate simulation, we determine the bulk concentration \( c_{\text{bulk}} \), corresponding to the same \( \mu_{\text{surf}} \). Here, \( N_{\text{water}} \) is kept constant and \( P \) and \( \mu_{\text{surf}} \) are imposed.

In a one-component system, imposing \( \mu \), \( P \), and \( T \) yields an unbound system since no extensive variables are specified. There is an infinite number of combinations of \( N \) and \( V \) that give the equilibrium density. When this density is obtained, the rest of the simulation will be a random walk in system size with \( N \) and \( V \) growing toward infinity. In our systems, the number of particles of at least one component is fixed; therefore, the systems will be bound as long as the imposed \( \mu_{\text{surf}} \) is sufficiently low such that a separate surfactant layer is avoided.

2.3.1. The Henry Regime. When the surfactant concentration in bulk is sufficiently low such that the surfactants do not interact, \( c_{\text{bulk}} \) can be estimated from Henry's law,

\[
c_{\text{bulk}} = \frac{N_{\text{surf}}}{V} = K_{H} P_{\text{surf}}
\]

The Henry coefficient \( K_{H} \) is related to the excess chemical potential as

\[
K_{H} = \beta \exp(-\beta \mu_{\text{surf}}^{\text{ex}})
\]

\( P_{\text{surf}} \) is the partial pressure of a surfactant in the ideal gas reservoir, which is directly related to the reservoir chemical potential (see Figure 2).

\[
\beta \mu_{\text{surf}} = \beta \mu_{\text{id, gas}} + \ln(\beta P_{\text{surf}})
\]

Combining eqs 8–10 gives the expression which relates the imposed chemical potential, \( \mu_{\text{surf}} \), to the concentration in the bulk water in the Henry regime:

\[
c_{\text{bulk}} = \exp(-\beta \mu_{\text{surf}}^{\text{ex}}) \exp[\beta(\mu_{\text{surf}} - \mu_{\text{id, gas}}^{0})]
\]

\( \mu_{\text{surf}}^{\text{ex}} \) is calculated using the Widom insertion method:\(^{18}\)

\[
\beta \mu_{\text{surf}}^{\text{ex}} = -\ln \int d^{N+1} \langle \exp(-\beta U) \rangle_{N}
\]

where \( \Delta U \) is the energy associated with the insertion of a test molecule into the \( N \)-particle system.

2.3.2. Monte Carlo Algorithm. For the bulk system, simulations under constant \( \mu_{\text{surf}} \), \( N_{\text{water}} \), \( P \), \( T \) conditions involve three different types of Monte Carlo moves: (1) a series of DPD steps, (2) a change of volume, and (3) addition or removal of surfactants.

These are done independently (the volume is kept constant during an attempt to add or remove particles, and vice versa), which implies that the standard acceptance rules\(^{18}\) for the isobaric–isothermal ensemble and the grand canonical ensemble can be used, respectively.

In the inhomogeneous system, the interfacial area is kept constant and only the box length is varied in order to impose a normal pressure. Let \( o \) denote the old and \( n \) the new configuration. As for the homogeneous system, the volume change \( \Delta V \) is drawn from a uniform distribu-

---


tion and the acceptance rules remain the same. However, the new box lengths in this system are

\[ L_{x,n} = L_{x,o} \]
\[ L_{y,n} = L_{y,o} \]
\[ L_{z,n} = L_{z,o} \left( \frac{V_n}{V_o} \right) \]

instead of

\[ L_n = L_o \left( \frac{V_n}{V_o} \right)^{1/3} \]

for the bulk system.

2.3.3. Demonstration of the Method: A Simple Surfactant. We demonstrate the method by applying it to the simple dumbbell surfactant ht. Figure 3 shows how the interfacial tension is reduced with increasing surfactant concentration in the bulk (a) and at the interface (b). The interfacial tension was calculated by dividing the simulation box into 100 slabs parallel to the interface and calculating the pressure tensor in each slab:

\[ \gamma = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^L \left[ \rho_{zz}(z) - \frac{1}{2}(\rho_{xx}(z) + \rho_{yy}(z)) \right] \, dz \]

The interfacial tension without surfactants present, \( \gamma_0 \), is 3.45 ± 0.03.

To determine the surfactant density at the interface, \( \rho(z) \), we assume a simple adsorption model.

\[ \Gamma = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^L [\rho_{surf}(z) - \rho_{bulk}] \, dz \]

\( \Gamma \) almost coincides with the surfactant density at the interface because the bulk concentration is very low.

Figures 3a and 4b both show an abrupt change in interfacial tension and interfacial density curves, respectively, at a specific bulk concentration. The surfactants in the bulk start to interact with each other only at sufficiently high imposed chemical potentials. This corresponds to a bulk concentration of \( \approx 2 \times 10^{-4} \) surfactants per volume unit and a 50% reduction of the interfacial tension. At higher concentrations, the surfactant density at the interface increases much slower because more surfactants go into micelles rather than to the interface. This causes the abrupt change in the \( \gamma(c_{surf}) \) curve. For higher chemical potentials, the surfactants form a separate phase. In this phase, the fixed number of water particles does not limit the total amount of surfactants. Therefore, the box volume and the number of surfactants perform a random walk while the equilibrium mass density is maintained, that is, the system size grows toward infinity. This limits our method to concentrations up to just beyond the critical micelle (or aggregation) concentration.

2.4. Configurational-Biased Monte Carlo for Chain Molecules. Our method to compute the bulk densities relies on the successful insertion and deletion of the
surfactant molecules. As we have shown in the previous section, for dumbbell surfactants this can be achieved using conventional Monte Carlo simulations. For longer chain molecules, however, the probability to successfully insert a molecule is prohibitively small. To improve the acceptance ratio, we use configurational-biased Monte Carlo (CBMC). The idea of CBMC is to grow the chain segments one by one and, for each bead, choose an energetically favorable position.

The energy associated with each bead is separated into internal and external contributions, denoted $U^{\text{int}}$ and $U^{\text{ext}}$, respectively. A natural choice for our model is to let $U^{\text{int}}$ account for the harmonic bond potential and let $U^{\text{ext}}$ contain the repulsive potential. A CBMC simulation involves the generation of trial conformations by growing a chain bead by bead and the computation of the Rosenbluth factor, which is needed to correct for the bias.

The procedure to generate a trial insertion is as follows:

1. For the first monomer, generate $f$ trial positions at random and for each position $i$ calculate the energy $U^{\text{ext}}(i, 1)$ and the factor $w_i = \sum_{i=1}^{f} \exp[-\beta U^{\text{ext}}(i, 1)]\] (19)

   One of the trial positions is chosen with probability

   \begin{equation}
   p_i^{\text{ext}} = \frac{\exp[-\beta U^{\text{ext}}(i, 1)]}{w_1}
   \end{equation}

   (20)

2. To place the next segment $k$, $g$ trial positions are generated satisfying the probability distribution

   \begin{equation}
   p_k^{\text{int}}(i) \propto \exp[-\beta U^{\text{int}}(k, i)]
   \end{equation}

   where $U^{\text{int}}(k, i)$ is the internal interactions of monomer $k$ in the $i$th trial position with the already placed $k - 1$ monomer(s). The factor

   \begin{equation}
   w_k = \sum_{i=1}^{g} \exp[-\beta U^{\text{ext}}(k, i)]
   \end{equation}

   (22)

   is calculated where $U^{\text{ext}}(k, i)$ includes all external interactions between monomer $k$ and the previously placed $k - 1$ monomers of the same chain plus all other molecules. One of the $g$ trial positions is chosen with the probability

   \begin{equation}
   p_k^{\text{ext}}(i) = \frac{\exp[-\beta U^{\text{ext}}(k, i)]}{w_k}\]

   (23)

3. Step 2 is repeated until all $K$ segments of the molecule are grown. Then its Rosenbluth factor $W^{\text{ext}}$ is calculated as

   \begin{equation}
   W^{\text{ext}} = \prod_{k=1}^{K} W_k
   \end{equation}

Figure 5. A snapshot of the simulation of oil, water, and the h₄ surfactants (top), the average density profiles (middle), and the average density profile of the head groups only (bottom). Oil beads are shown in red, water beads in blue, head groups in yellow, and tail groups in gray.

Figure 6. Cartoon of a situation in which the same interfacial tension reduction can be obtained with two different surfactant types: A surfactants adsorb more easily at the interface (top), but B surfactants yield the same interfacial tension because they are more efficient at the interface (bottom).

4000 water particles, and an imposed pressure of 23.64 was applied in all three directions. Sampling of the chemical potential is computationally very expensive. We performed 80 trial insertions per Monte Carlo step for more than 10⁶ steps, where the step consists of either some DPD steps (on average 100) or an attempt to change the volume.

3. Results and Discussion

A surfactant is more efficient than another if fewer surfactant molecules are needed to obtain a given reduction of the interfacial tension. Experimentally, interfacial tension can be measured using for example a film balance (Langmuir trough) or the Wilhelmy slide method. However, it is difficult to estimate the partition of the surfactants between the bulk and the interface. Possible methods include ellipsometry, neutron scattering, or the use of radioactive tracers. The film balance is mostly used to study monolayers of poorly soluble molecules, and the molecules in the bulk are usually neglected when the interfacial density is estimated. In studies of surfactant efficiency, experiments of the Wilhelmy slide type are often conducted and the bulk concentration is determined from the total amount of surfactants added. Especially if the second phase is oil rather than air, the surfactant concentration in water at equilibrium can differ significantly from that of the initial solution. Moreover, curves of γ as a function of bulk concentration can give different indications than curves of γ as a function of interfacial density. Figure 6 shows a hypothetical example: One can imagine two systems with different types of surfactants A and B, but with the same interfacial tension reduction. A has a stronger preference for the interface compared to the bulk than B, but a smaller number of B surfactants at the interface can give the same effect. Comparison of plots of γ versus bulk concentration for the two systems would indicate that A is more efficient, whereas comparison of γ versus interfacial density curves would show that at the interface, B is the better surfactant. In the following sections, we study both of these effects separately. In section 3.1, we investigate the efficiency at the interface for some model surfactants, and in section 3.2,
we determine the bulk concentration required to produce a given interfacial tension reduction.

3.1. Surfactant Efficiency at the Interface. In this section, we investigate the effects of changes in the chemical structure on the efficiency at the interface. In particular, we investigate the influence of tail length, head group size, topology, and some model parameters.

3.1.1. Influence of Surfactant Size. Figure 7 shows the reduction of the interfacial tension versus surfactant density at the interface for linear surfactants with the length of the hydrophobic tail increasing from two to six beads. It shows that increasing the tail length enhances the interfacial efficiency of a surfactant. This is in agreement with the well-established Traube’s rule and both experiments\(^1\) and molecular simulations.\(^3\)

If we assume that the monolayer behaves as a two-dimensional gas, the findings can be interpreted in terms of the chain–chain interactions.\(^{22}\) The interfacial tension reduction \(\gamma_0 - \gamma\) is the two-dimensional analogy to the pressure in three dimensions. For low interfacial densities, there is little interaction between surfactants and the surface pressure is low and approximately the same for all surfactant types, corresponding to the two-dimensional ideal gas limit. At higher surfactant densities, the excluded volume interactions and lower conformational entropy yield a higher effective repulsion between surfactants, leading to a higher lateral pressure. This model illustrates why changes in the chemical structure which increase the effective repulsion between surfactants will improve their efficiency.

Figure 8 shows the effect of larger head groups on the interfacial tension. Increasing the size of the head groups also implies increased effective repulsion between surfactants, and these results can be understood with the same model. Also for surfactants with two hydrophobic tails, an increase in head group or tail length was found to enhance the efficiency.

3.1.2. Effect of the Repulsion Parameters. In our model, we can mimic variation in surfactant properties such as ionic head groups, screening by the addition of salt, and degree of hydrophilic and lipophilic strength by varying the head–head, head–water, and oil–head repulsion parameters. Decreasing the repulsion between head groups corresponds, for example, to adding salt to the solution. Figure 9 shows the effect of increased head–head repulsion on the interfacial tension. There is a (small) increase in efficiency at the interface, as expected and in agreement with surface pressure–area experiments by Chattopadhyay et al.\(^{23}\)

Figure 10 shows that decreasing the head–water repulsion parameters has a similar effect. In this system, the tendency for the head groups to be surrounded by water rather than other head groups is enhanced, thus lowering the effective repulsion between surfactants and decreasing their interfacial efficiency.

A decrease in the oil–head repulsion increases the oil solubility of the surfactant. Figure 11 shows that this has a negative effect on the efficiency. Investigations of the density profiles show that the surfactants with lower oil–head repulsion stagger more at the interface, as demonstrated by the broader distribution of the surfactants at

---


the interface in Figure 12a. By such an arrangement, the effective lateral repulsion decreases, yielding lower surface pressure and efficiency. We stress that in the surfactant density on the $x$-axis in Figure 11, we have not taken into account the surfactants in the bulk phases. The staggered surfactants are still at the interface, only arranged in a way which reduces the interfacial tension less than those that are more aligned.

3.1.3. Effect of Branching. While the effects of variations in chain length have been known for a long time, the effect of branching the hydrophobic chain is not so well understood. For the repulsion parameters from Groot (Table 1), branched surfactants are significantly more efficient than linear ones, see Figure 11. For another set of repulsion parameters taken from Groot and Rabone, however, we observed no difference in interfacial efficiency between the linear and the branched surfactants containing the same number of beads. Systematic variation of the repulsion parameters revealed that the necessary condition for a branched surfactant to be more efficient than its linear isomer is a sufficiently high oil–head repulsion parameter (Figure 11). In other words, branched surfactants are efficient if their head groups are strongly hydrophilic, whereas branched surfactants with less hydrophilic head groups are the least efficient and significantly worse than their linear counterparts.

As the effect of the oil–head repulsion on the interaction between surfactants is not obvious, we investigated the structure and alignment of the surfactants at the interface. The density profiles indicated that the distribution of the branched surfactants with low oil–head repulsion, that is, the least efficient ones, is significantly broader than the rest. Figure 12a shows the width of the distribution versus surfactant density at the interface for the linear and branched surfactants with low and high oil–head repulsion. The surfactants with lower oil–head repulsion

---

**Table 1. Repulsion Parameters $a_{ij}$ from Groot, Except That We Have Used $a_{wo} = 25$ Rather Than Their Value of 15**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$w$</th>
<th>$o$</th>
<th>$h$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $^a$ Reference 16. $^b$ $w =$ water bead, $o =$ oil or tail group, and $h =$ head group.
have a broader distribution. This is the result of the molecules staggering at the interface. Moreover, this is much more pronounced for the branched molecules than the linear ones. Figure 12b shows a decrease in the order parameter of the bond(s) between head and tail group when the head group becomes more oil soluble.

It is known that branched molecules pack in a different way than linear ones. However, a molecular description of their tension-reducing properties has, to the best of our knowledge, been lacking. Based on the simulation results, we can draw a qualitative picture of the interfacial packing (Figure 13).

The branched surfactants with less hydrophilic head groups are more efficient than the linear ones because they require more space and have stronger excluded volume interactions. Their strongly hydrophilic head groups force them into a high-entropy arrangement. In this situation, it becomes more beneficial to increase the interfacial area, leading ultimately to a low interfacial tension. However, the branched molecules with more oil-soluble head groups stagger more than the corresponding linear ones such that they yield lower lateral pressure than the linear ones.

It is interesting to compare these results with theoretical calculations. In mean-field theories, it is usually assumed that the head groups are fixed in the plane of the interface. Hence, these theories would not allow surfactants to adopt a staggered conformation, and our results suggest that this assumption might lead to an overestimation of the efficiency of branched surfactants.

In the simulations reported here, the tail beads and oil beads have identical properties. However, we also performed simulations in which we lowered the oil-head and head-tail repulsion independently. This showed that indeed the oil-head repulsion was crucial for obtaining linear surfactants that were more efficient at the interface than the branched ones. The same results were observed for longer surfactants (h₂t) compared to (h₃t) and for oil chains of two and three oil beads.

3.2. Interfacial Tension versus Bulk Concentration

The overall efficiency of a surfactant depends on two factors: the tendency to adsorb on the interface and its efficiency at the interface. By using the method described in sections 2.3–2.4, we determined the bulk surfactant concentration required to produce a given interfacial tension. Simulations were performed with four different surfactants: the linear h₄t, its branched isomer h₂t₂, and two larger surfactants, h₂t₅ and h₃t₂. The two tails of h₂t₂ are connected to a hydrophilic rather than a hydrophobic bead, to resemble Guerbet surfactants, see Figure 1.

The reduction of the interfacial tension versus bulk concentration is shown in Figure 14. For these surfactants, the bulk concentrations remain in the Henry regime even for imposed chemical potentials corresponding to very low interfacial tension. The bulk concentration as a function of surfactant chemical potential can therefore be estimated from Henry's law.

We found little difference in μ_{surf} between h₄t and h₂t₂. The Henry coefficients were 8 × 10⁻⁶ and 2 × 10⁻⁵, respectively. For the seven-beaded surfactants, the Henry coefficient is 2 orders of magnitude higher for the linear than the branched one: 4 × 10⁻⁶² compared to 4 × 10⁻⁶⁴. Nevertheless, much higher bulk concentrations of the branched isomers are needed to obtain the same interfacial tension compared to the linear ones. This is because, to obtain a certain interfacial tension, a higher chemical potential must be applied in order to reduce the interfacial tension to zero. At the corresponding chemical potentials, we do not observe surfactants in the water system; that is, no insertions are accepted in the Monte Carlo scheme. We performed several simulations starting with surfactants and micelles in water and found that significantly higher chemical potentials must be applied in order to...
that corresponds to the critical aggregation concentration. Figure 14 locate the surfactant concentration in water. For clarity, water particles are not shown. (a) 12 $h_4$ surfactants. (b) 20 $h(t_2)$ surfactants.

Because the lipophilic parts of the $h_4$ and $h(t_2)$ surfactants are more dominating than the hydrophilic parts, it is not surprising that the surfactant concentration in the oil phase is considerable at high chemical potentials. We observe both single surfactants and aggregates. For the linear molecules, the concentration at the interface continues to increase with higher chemical potential together with increasing concentration in the oil phase. Figure 16a shows a snapshot with a curved interface and an inverse micelle in the oil phase, from the simulation of $h_4$ which gave $\gamma = 0$.

The $\gamma(C_{crit})$ curves for $h(t_2)$, however, flatten out at a certain chemical potential. Since this is still in the Henry regime in the water phase, it does not indicate the critical micelle concentration in water. Rather it reflects that surfactants start to aggregate in the oil phase. A snapshot of this is shown in Figure 16b. We can therefore from Figure 14 locate the surfactant concentration in water that corresponds to the critical aggregation concentration in the oil. The inverse micelles are observed in the inhomogeneous system. As the system is relatively small and dominated by the interface, the surfactant concentration in the oil phase cannot be determined very accurately. This could be solved by performing the same $\mu_{surfPT}$ simulations in a bulk oil system.

The negative interfacial tension values in Figure 14 indicate a metastable system. We suggest that this is a finite-size effect because the size of (inverse) micelles is comparable to the size of the bulk phases in the inhomogeneous simulation box. Although we did not observe stable micelles in bulk water at these chemical potentials, we expect inverse micelles in oil. One inverse micelle is indeed observed in the inhomogeneous system (Figure 16a).

The low Henry coefficients in water are partly due to the dominating hydrophobic tails. In oil we found Henry coefficients $10^{14} - 10^{15}$ times larger than in water. The main reason for such low solubility is the large hydrophilic–hydrophobic repulsion (80 compared to $a_{ww} = 25$). To convert the concentrations in Figure 14 to mol/dm$^3$, the reduced units must be multiplied by a factor of 40 if we map three CH$_2$ groups onto one bead. These values are very low compared to the experimental values. A lower hydrophilic–hydrophobic repulsion parameter compared to that of water–water, such as in ref 24, will reproduce the solubility better.

Our simulations show that lower bulk concentrations of linear surfactants than branched ones are needed to obtain the same interfacial tension reduction. This is in agreement with the results of Aspé and Lissi, who concluded that when the surface coverage is high enough for steric repulsion to be important, branched isomers of nonanol will have a higher free energy at the interface. Our results agree also qualitatively with experimental work on Guerbet branched surfactants with ionic or nonionic head groups. Our results indicate that, given the ingredients of the model, one cannot design a surfactant for which the branched isomer gives the lowest $\gamma(C_{crit})$ curves, although this is reported in the literature. This might be a limitation of the simple model we have used. However, our results do agree with the majority of the experimental record. We also note that the experimental conditions in refs 4 and 5 are not directly comparable to our simulations. Varadaraj et al. measured instantaneous interfacial tension values on nonequilibrated samples using the spinning drop technique. Pitt et al. compared surfactants that have the same critical aggregation concentration, rather than the same number of methylene groups.

4. Conclusion

We have shown that DPD simulations of simple oil/water/surfactant systems can predict surfactant behavior at interfaces. The higher efficiency at the interface for increasing chain lengths and larger or more ionic head groups is in agreement with the literature. Our simulations reveal that branching has a positive effect on the efficiency at the interface only if the head group is hydrophilic enough to maintain a compact layer despite the steric repulsion between the chains.

Furthermore, we have shown a method to determine the bulk concentrations in equilibrium with the interface. For the model surfactants investigated, higher bulk concentrations of branched isomers are required to reduce the interfacial tension by a given amount, compared to the linear ones. We found that the same reasons that make branched surfactants efficient at the interface make them
less inclined to adsorb at the interface. Although our model is simple and only a limited number of surfactant models have been investigated, we could point out the mechanisms and surfactant properties which determine surfactant efficiency at the interface and tendency to adsorb at the interface. Our findings do not suggest any branched surfactants to be more efficient than their linear isomers at concentrations in the Henry regime.

Acknowledgment. These investigations are supported in part by the Norwegian Research Council (Grant No. 145184/432), by The Netherlands Research Council for Chemical Sciences (CW), and by The Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (NWO) through PIONER.

LA0346346