

1 **Published in Journal of Molecular Liquids 425 (2025) 127273**

2 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molliq.2025.127273>

3 **Interfacial Dilational Rheology of Chitosan-Silica Nanocomposite Films at the Aqueous**
4 **Dispersion/Air Interface**

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Abstract.

This study investigates the interaction between positively charged chitosan and anionic hydrophilic silica nanoparticles in aqueous media, resulting in the electrostatic formation of chitosan-capped silica nanoparticles. Optimal conditions for the formation of stable dispersions were determined, highlighting that the adsorption of chitosan on silica nanoparticles, as well as its solubility, is enhanced in acidic medium (pH=4.5). Electrophoretic mobility measurements confirmed the positive zeta potential of chitosan-capped particles, indicating charge inversion due to chitosan adsorption on negatively charged silica surfaces. Adsorption at the dispersion/air interface significantly reduces the interfacial tension, with a synergistic effect observed between chitosan and silica. Capillary wave experiments demonstrated the formation of viscoelastic layers with the dilatational elastic modulus of the nanocomposite layers exceeding their viscous modulus. The frequency dependence of the interfacial dilatational moduli showed that increasing particle concentration enhanced the viscoelastic properties of the interface. This study provides novel insights into the dilatational rheological response of chitosan-capped silica nanoparticle layers, revealing the interplay between surface charge neutralization, adsorption dynamics, and the viscoelastic properties of the interface. The results suggest potential applications in the stabilization of liquid and solid foams and highlight the importance of chitosan-capped particles in modifying water/air interface properties and improving the rheological behavior of particle-laden interfaces.

Keywords: chitosan; electrocapillary waves; interfacial rheology; interfacial tension; silica nanoparticles

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1. Introduction

Particle-laden liquid/fluid interfaces are widely studied systems in academia and industry. This is partly due to their key role in the stabilization of dispersed systems such as foams, Pickering emulsions and thin films [1–4]. However, even though particle trapping at the liquid/fluid interface can be considered nearly irreversible in most cases with a trapping energy exceeding the thermal energy,[5,6] the formation of particle-laden films is not always trivial because the transport and trapping of particles at the interface depends on several variables, including the particle density, which can force particle sedimentation. This hydrophilic/hydrophobic balance is defined by their wettability, which determines their penetration at the interface.[6–8] The latter is accounted for by the particle contact angle at the fluid interface, which strongly influences the equilibrium situation of the particle-laden interface.[8–10] Unfortunately, many particles exhibit extreme wettability, such as silica nanoparticles, and commonly remain dispersed in one of the continuous phases rather than adsorbing at the fluid/fluid interface,[7,11–14] requiring their surface modification to provide optimal wettability for adsorption at the fluid/fluid interface.[9,14]

Surface modification of colloidal particles is often based on the binding of ligands to the particles to impart a new functionality.[14,15] There is a wide range of ligands that have been used to modify the surface properties of colloidal particles. These can be attached to the particle surface by a true chemical bond, i.e., covalently, as in the case of silanization of silica surfaces or thiolation of noble metals,[16,17] or they can be bound by weaker molecule-particle interactions, such as electrostatic interactions, hydrogen bonding, or van der Waals forces.[18–20] In the particular case of silica nanoparticles, the electrostatic interaction of dissociated silanol groups with cationic surfactants or polymers, or the interaction by hydrogen bonding between the non-dissociated silanol group on the silica surface and the agent used to modify the silica surface can help to modify the wettability of silica surfaces.[20–27] In the last two decades, health and environmental issues have become increasingly important, so companies are looking to use particles and polymers of natural origin.[28–30]

Chitosan, a natural polysaccharide derived from chitin (the second most abundant polymer on Earth), has been shown to be an effective modifier of the surface properties of materials due to its biocompatibility, biodegradability, and functional versatility.[31,32] When applied to silica surfaces, chitosan can introduce amino and hydroxyl groups, thereby modifying the particle wettability, adsorption capacity, and interaction with biological molecules. Therefore, the use

103 of chitosan as a capping agent not only improves nanoparticle dispersibility and stability but
104 also enables surface modification, which is critical for applications. The result of the surface
105 functionalization tailored by selecting the fraction and distribution of monomers containing
106 amino and acetamide groups, as well as the pH of the medium, which is very suitable to obtain
107 particles with characteristic selected at will for applications in drug delivery, catalysis, and
108 environmental remediation.[33] Furthermore, the ease of chitosan's chemical modifications
109 allows for tunable surface characteristics, making it an attractive option for improving the
110 performance and functionality of silica-based materials in diverse fields.[34] For instance,
111 Allison et al.[27] proposed the use of chitosan to modify the wettability of silica nanoparticles
112 as a tool for stabilization of edible Pickering emulsions. They found that the electrostatic
113 interaction between cationic chitosan and silica nanoparticles contributes to increase the
114 hydrophobicity of silica nanoparticles and their adsorption to oil/water interfaces. This finding
115 agrees with the modification of the zeta potential (ζ potential) reported by Heidari et al.[35]
116 Furthermore, chitosan-capped silica nanoparticles can organize with different structures at the
117 oil/water interface, resulting in viscoelastic films or agglomerated particle networks depending
118 on the chitosan concentration. This has a significant effect on the rheological properties of the
119 particle-laden fluid/fluid interface. In a more recent work, Allison et al.[26] demonstrated that
120 the stabilization of Pickering emulsions stabilized by chitosan-capped particles can be tuned by
121 pH changes, allowing for the modulation of the chitosan-silica interaction, and consequently
122 the adsorption of the modified particles at the water/oil interface. It is important to note that
123 while the capacity of chitosan-capped particles to adsorb at fluid/fluid interfaces is well
124 documented, particularly in the context of Pickering emulsion stabilization,[26,27,35–38] there
125 is a lack of knowledge regarding the interaction of this type of colloidal system with water/air
126 interfaces. In addition to their utility in the stabilization of interface-dominated systems,
127 chitosan-capped silica nanoparticles may also be employed as drug carriers, taking advantage
128 of their pH-responsive nature.[39]

129 Based on the above discussion, the adsorption of chitosan onto silica nanoparticles may be used
130 to modulate the hydrophobicity and surface charge of the resulting chitosan-capped
131 nanoparticles. This modification may enhance nanoparticle dispersion stability, thereby
132 allowing the creation of stable, nanoparticle dispersions. Moreover, these stable chitosan-
133 capped silica nanoparticles may present enhanced adsorption at the air/water interface due to
134 increased surface activity compared to either component alone. In this context, the objective of
135 this study is to investigate the adsorption of chitosan-modified hydrophilic silica nanoparticles
136 at the aqueous dispersion/air interface. It is expected that the adsorption of chitosan-capped

137 silica nanoparticles at the aqueous dispersion/air interface may result in a significant decrease
138 in the interfacial tension and the formation of viscoelastic layers, which make this system a
139 promising candidate for stabilizing foams. By forming robust viscoelastic layers, these
140 nanoparticles can prevent film rupture, retard drainage, and inhibit coalescence, which are
141 essential mechanisms for stabilization. Therefore, understanding the interplay between
142 adsorption and the interfacial rheology of these systems is key to optimizing the performance
143 of particle-laden interfaces. To this aim, silica nanoparticles are modified via direct electrostatic
144 interactions with chitosan chains. This requires the evaluation of the optimal conditions under
145 which chitosan and silica can interact to form stable dispersions, which can be influenced by
146 the strong pH-responsiveness of chitosan. Indeed, the solubility of chitosan in water is very
147 limited, necessitating acidic conditions for its solubilization. Furthermore, increasing the pH to
148 values close to neutrality results in a reduction of the quality of water as a solvent for
149 chitosan.[40] Conversely, silica nanoparticles maintain a negative charge over a pH range of 4
150 to 9 due to deprotonation of their surface silanol groups. Based on the above discussion, we
151 first evaluate the interaction between chitosan and silica nanoparticles, and the stability of the
152 resulting dispersions at different pH conditions, and then, once the optimal conditions are
153 selected, we study the adsorption of the chitosan-capped particles at the aqueous dispersion/air
154 interface and the high-frequency dilatational rheological response of the formed layers by using
155 electrocapillary wave damping measurements. This systematic study can pave the way for the
156 use of chitosan-capped particles to modify the properties of water/air interfaces, which could
157 have significant on the stabilization of liquid and solid foams.

158

159 2. Materials and Methods

160 2.1. Chemicals

161 Commercial chitosan (reference 448869) with a molecular weight around (83 ± 14) kDa
162 determined from viscosity measurements, and a deacetylation degree in the range 75-85% was
163 purchased from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany). Silicon dioxide nanoparticles (Levasil[®] CS30-
164 316P) was supplied by Nouryon (Amsterdam, The Netherlands). It consists of a stable, aqueous
165 dispersion (pH=8-9) of negatively charged amorphous silicon dioxide colloidal nanoparticles
166 (concentration 30% w/w) with an average diameter in the range 10-15 nm. Acetic glacial acid
167 and sodium hydroxide (purity >99.9%) for adjusting pH were purchased from Fisher Scientific
168 (Hampton, NH, USA).

169 Ultrapure deionized water of Milli-Q quality, with resistivity >18 M Ω -cm, and a total organic
170 content of <6 ppm, obtained using a AquaMAX[™]-Ultra 370 Series multi-cartridge purification

171 system (Young Lin Instrument Co., Ltd., Gyeonggi-do, South Korea) was used for cleaning and
172 solution preparation.

173 2.2. Chitosan solution preparation

174 A stock solution of chitosan with a concentration of 20 mM was prepared. The required amount
175 of chitosan was weighed and poured into a flask, which was then partially filled with water.
176 Then, 100 μ L of glacial acetic acid was added to the flask to lower the pH and ensure complete
177 dissolution of the chitosan. The pH of the resulting aqueous chitosan solution was then adjusted
178 to 4.5 by dropwise addition of 10^{-2} mM sodium hydroxide solution. Finally, the volume of the
179 solution was brought to the desired final value by adding the required amount of dilute aqueous
180 acetic acid solution at pH=4.5.

181 2.3. Chitosan-silica nanoparticles dispersion preparation

182 The mixed chitosan-silica dispersion was prepared by a 1:1 dilution according to the procedure
183 described by Ravera et al.[41] Briefly, a chitosan solution (pH=4.5) at twice the concentration
184 of the final mixed dispersion was added dropwise to a stirred suspension of silica nanoparticles
185 at twice the concentration of the final mixed dispersion. This method minimizes potential
186 concentration gradients that could drive the system out of equilibrium.[42,43] Once the mixed
187 dispersion is prepared, the pH is adjusted to 4.5 by adding acetic acid or sodium hydroxide. The
188 dispersion obtained is stirred at 1000 rpm for 30 minutes to ensure thorough homogenization
189 and then allowed to stand overnight. The single-phase or phase-separated character of the
190 dispersions was then assessed by the absence or presence of a sedimented solid phase at the
191 bottom of the container together with a diluted aqueous phase. For the purpose of the present
192 study, only single-phase dispersions were considered.

193 2.4. Techniques

194 The effective charge density of the chitosan-capped silica particles was determined from
195 electrophoretic mobility (u_e) measurements using laser Doppler velocimetry. These
196 measurements were performed using a Nanosizer ZS (Malvern Instruments, Malvern, UK).
197 According to Henry's equation, electrophoretic mobility is directly related to the zeta potential
198 (ζ).[44]

199 The bulk viscosity of the samples was measured using an Ubbelohde viscometer. The liquid
200 samples were placed in a glass viscometer maintained at 23°C. The liquid was then drawn up
201 through a capillary and a measuring bulb, and the time taken for the liquid to fall through the
202 bulb was recorded. The viscometer was calibrated using filtered Milli-Q water, and each sample
203 was filtered prior to testing. The determination of viscosity is based on the principle that the

204 flow time is directly proportional to the viscosity and inversely proportional to the density of
205 the solution.

206 The interfacial tension at the air/dispersion interface was determined using a K10T Digital
207 Tensiometer (KRÜSS GmbH, Hamburg, Germany) equipped with a platinum Wilhelmy plate
208 contact probe (contact area of 40.5 mm). Prior to each measurement, the platinum plate was
209 cleaned with ethanol and Milli-Q water, followed by burning with an ethanol torch to remove
210 any residual organic matter. Samples were placed in a glass cuvette that was cleaned with
211 ethanol and Milli-Q water prior to use. The temperature was maintained at 23°C using a
212 thermostatic bath for all measurements. Each data point reported represents the average of at
213 least three independent measurements. Experiments were run long enough to ensure that a
214 steady state interfacial tension was reached.

215 A home-built electrocapillary wave device was used to determine the dilational rheological
216 properties of the particle-laden fluid/fluid interface at high frequencies (in the range of 10-10³
217 Hz). Further details on this technique can be found in previous works.[45,46], and a detailed
218 description of the instrument is reported in reference [47].

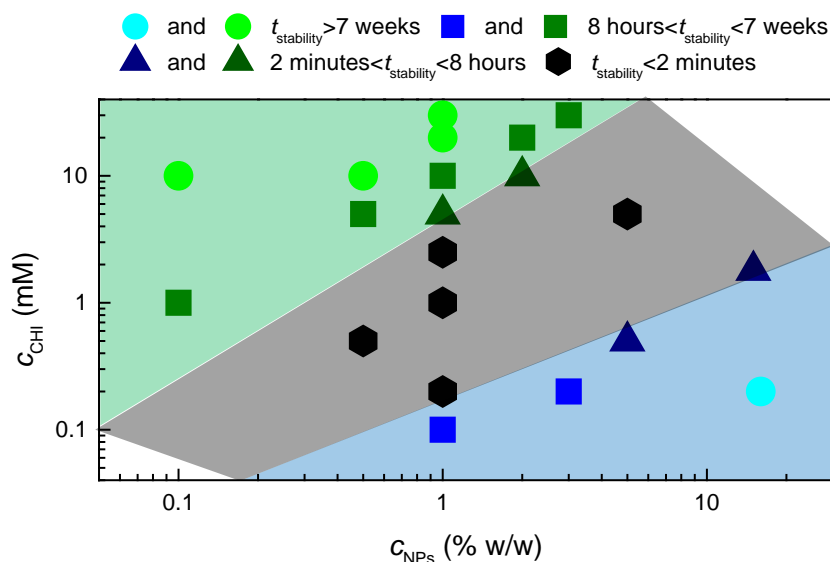
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220 3. Results and Discussion

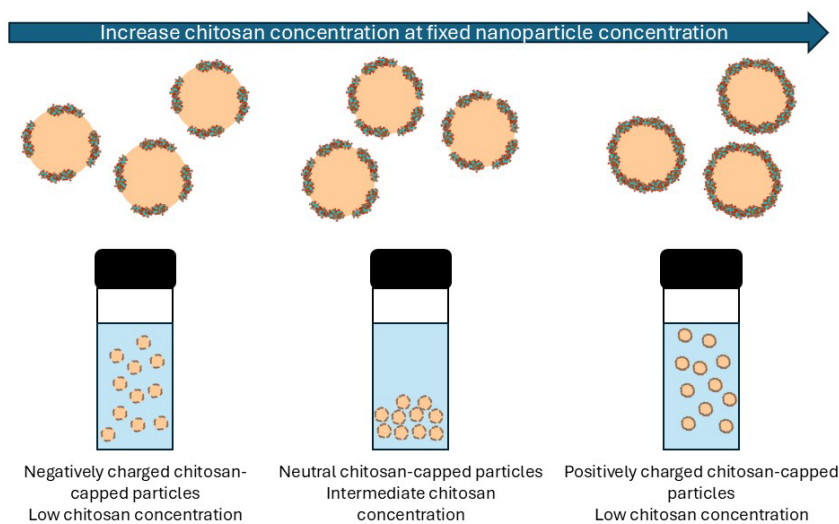
221 3.1. Chitosan Adsorption on Silica Nanoparticles

222 The adsorption of chitosan on silica nanoparticles results in a modification of the
223 hydrophobicity of the nanoparticles. This phenomenon is dependent on the pH value which
224 modulates the charge of the chitosan capping layer. Indeed, a decrease in the pH from values
225 close to 9 down to 4 results in an increase in the cationicity of the chitosan, i.e., the degree of
226 positive charge. This is due to the protonation of the amine groups. Accordingly, an effective
227 approach to investigating the binding of chitosan to silica nanoparticles is to work at a pH below
228 the pK_a of chitosan (5.5), where chitosan is highly charged and soluble in water, given that silica
229 nanoparticles are negatively charged within the pH range of 4-9.[26] Based on the above
230 discussion, a pH=4.5 was selected for evaluation the adsorption of chitosan on silica
231 nanoparticles, and the stability of the resulting dispersions. It is therefore possible to select the
232 optimal compositions that result in stable dispersions of particles that can adsorb at the
233 fluid/fluid interface. It is important to note that the maximum adsorption of chitosan on silica
234 surfaces is expected to occur within the pH range 4-pK_a. [26] **Figure 1a** shows the compositional
235 map as a function of chitosan concentration (c_{CHI}) and silica nanoparticle concentration (c_{NPs})
236 diagram for dispersions of chitosan-capped silica nanoparticles at pH=4.5. The stability of the
237 samples is indicated in terms of the stability time ($t_{stability}$). Thus, the smaller the value of $t_{stability}$

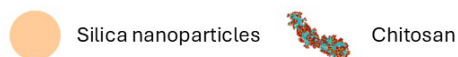
238 the lower the stability of the dispersions. In the case of the most stable dispersions, they do not
239 show any evidence of phase separation/sedimentation even after 7 weeks of aging. It must be
240 stressed that there are available a series of tools, including measurements of the turbidity or
241 optical density of the samples, that may allow a semiquantitative determination of the phase
242 boundaries in the here studied mixture. However, we consider that for the context of the work,
243 it is enough to identify the compositional regions where the mixtures exhibit instability as
244 instable systems are not suitable for the stabilization of the interface. Therefore, including a
245 more detailed quantification of turbidity or compositional mapping would not significantly
246 advance our understanding of interfacial behavior, which remains the central focus of the work.
247 The compositional map shows that the interaction between chitosan and silica nanoparticles
248 results in the formation of two regions of stability, which are characterized by the single-phase
249 character of the dispersions obtained for the corresponding compositions. The composition of
250 the first region is characterised by a relatively low concentration of chitosan, which results in
251 an incomplete neutralisation of the charges corresponding to the nanoparticles. Therefore, it is
252 expected that the properties of particles obtained in this region can be reminiscent from that of
253 bare silica. Thus, considering their relative highly hydrophilicity, particle belonging to this
254 region will not be considered in this work due to their limited potential to adsorb at the
255 air/dispersion interface. In contrast, within the second region, there is a high concentration of
256 chitosan, which results in the formation of complexes with their charges determined by the
257 excess of chitosan adsorbed on the surface of the silica nanoparticles (see **Figure 1b**). The two
258 regions, which result in the formation of stable dispersions, are separated by a region where the
259 dispersions obtained are not stable and undergo a rapid phase separation within 2 minutes after
260 preparation. This aging process is particularly important in dispersions with compositions
261 situated at the boundary between single-phase regions and phase separation region (represented
262 by triangles and squares in Figure 1a). These dispersions may initially appear to be single-phase
263 mixtures, but they undergo phase separation within a time-scale that range from a few hours
264 after their preparation to several weeks. In Figure 1a, the worsening of the stability as the
265 composition is close to the region where samples undergo a rapid phase-separation is indicated
266 by symbols with darker green or blue tones for the compositional region where chitosan and
267 silica nanoparticles dominate the properties of the dispersions, respectively. The most stable
268 dispersions, represented in Figure 1a by circles with bright green or blue tones, remain stable
269 for more than 7 weeks after their preparation. It is worth noting that both chitosan solutions and
270 silica dispersions at pH=4.5 remain stable across the entire compositional range studied.



271 (a)

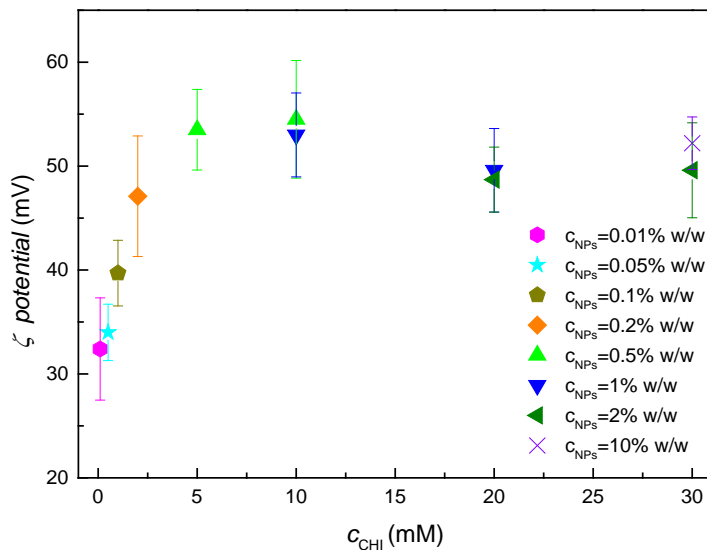


272 (b)



273 **Figure 1.** (a) $c_{\text{CHI}}-c_{\text{NPs}}$ compositional maps where the stable or instable characters of mixed
 274 dispersions including chitosan and silica nanoparticles at pH=4.5 are shown as function of the
 275 stability time ($t_{\text{stability}}$). Different symbols and colour tone are used for represent dispersions with
 276 different $t_{\text{stability}}$. Green and blue symbols correspond to dispersions that mantain if single-phase
 277 mixtures for more than 2 minutes and grey symbols correspond to phase-separated mixtures
 278 that undergo phase-separation in a time smaller than 2 minutes. The shadowed regions indicate
 279 the different stability/instability regions in the compositional map, the colour code is the same
 280 that for the symbols. Note that the defined timescale represents the maximum stability observed
 281 for the samples when considering unstable dispersions. For stable samples, it indicates the
 282 longest experimental observation period, after which the samples remain stable. (b) Sketch of
 283 the different association and stability of chitosan-capped silica nanoparticles with the increase
 284 in the chitosan concentration at a fixed particle concentration.

285 A better understanding of the characteristics of the chitosan-capped nanoparticles can be
 286 obtained by studying their surface charge. This is possible through measurements of
 287 electrophoretic mobility that give information on the ζ potential of the particles. **Figure 2** shows
 288 the dependence of the ζ potential on the silica nanoparticles concentration for dispersions with
 289 different chitosan concentrations. It is crucial to highlight that the determination of the ζ
 290 potential is only feasible for dispersions that are stable. This can be rationalized by considering
 291 that samples with a composition corresponding to the phase separation region undergo a
 292 sedimentation process that competes with their electrophoretic motion, which in turn leads to
 293 the occurrence of physically unsound ζ potential values. This substantially reduces the number
 294 of measured data in relation to the extension of the compositional map.



295
 296 **Figure 2.** Dependence of the ζ potential on the chitosan concentration for dispersions with
 297 different silica nanoparticles concentrations at pH=4.5. The data reported correspond to the
 298 average of five independent measurements.

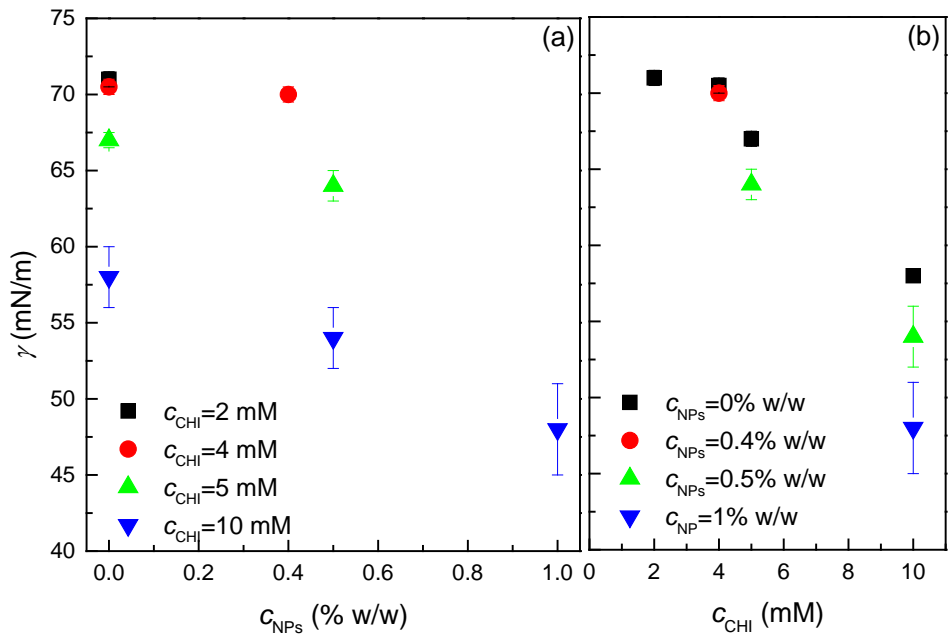
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 300 A more detailed examination of the compositional map in terms of the ζ potential indicates that
 301 the binding of chitosan to silica nanoparticles is mediated by a process of charge neutralization.
 302 Indeed, given that pristine silica nanoparticles possess a negative charge, as evidenced by the
 303 value of the ζ potential around (-42 ± 5) mV, and the positive values of the ζ potential for the
 304 dispersions of the mixed systems, it is evident that chitosan is adsorbed on the surface of the
 305 negatively charged silica nanoparticles. Therefore, for a fixed particle concentration, as the
 306 chitosan concentration increases, the adsorption of chitosan on the silica surface results in the
 307 neutralization of the negative charge of the nanoparticle surface up to the state of zero net charge,
 308 i.e., the isoelectric point. At this point, the nanoparticles lack colloidal stability and therefore

309 the chitosan-capped particles sediment as a solid phase, leaving a dilute liquid phase, which
310 mainly contains chitosan as supernatant (see **Figure 1b**).[26] Further increases in the chitosan
311 concentration beyond the isoelectric point result in a charge inversion process leading to the
312 production of overcharged chitosan-capped particles, which are characterized by their positive
313 charge. This scenario, sketched in **Figure 1b**, explains the phase behavior of aqueous
314 dispersions of chitosan-capped silica nanoparticles at pH=4.5 at a fixed nanoparticles
315 concentration. The increase in nanoparticle concentration shifts the phase transitions between
316 the different regions of the compositional map to higher values of the chitosan concentration.
317 This may be understood by considering that the increase in the concentration of nanoparticles
318 results in a number of negative charge to neutralize by chitosan addition. This makes it
319 necessary that the number of chitosan charged monomers also increases. It is noteworthy that
320 analogous behavior has been observed in a multitude of colloidal systems assembled through
321 electrostatic interactions, including polyelectrolyte multilayers, oppositely charged
322 polyelectrolyte-surfactant mixtures and interpolyelectrolyte complexes, among others.[42,48–
323 50]

324 3.2. Adsorption on chitosan-capped silica nanoparticles at the dispersion/air interface

325 The characterization of the adsorption of chitosan-capped silica nanoparticles at the aqueous
326 dispersion/air interface was conducted through the measurement of the equilibrium interfacial
327 tension of the aqueous dispersion/air interface and the evaluation of the dilational properties of
328 the particle-laden interface, which was obtained by evaluating the interfacial damping of
329 electrocapillary waves. It should be noted that the bulk characterization was performed over a
330 broader range of particle and chitosan concentrations compared to the interfacial studies. This
331 reduction in the experimental window for interfacial studies results from the experimental
332 challenges associated with interfacial measurements at high concentrations, particularly due to
333 the increased viscosity of the samples and the potential for phase separation. Such aspects can
334 affect the accuracy and reliability of interfacial measurements. Therefore, the concentration
335 ranges explored by each technique have been to ensure meaningful and precise results for each
336 technique. **Figure 3a** shows the dependence of the interfacial tension of the aqueous
337 dispersion/air interface on the silica nanoparticles concentration in dispersions with varying
338 chitosan concentrations. It is noteworthy that bare silica nanoparticles are extremely hydrophilic,
339 and their surface activity is almost negligible. On the other hand, it should be noted that the
340 present study was limited to the investigation of the adsorption of stable dispersions. This can
341 be understood by considering that samples undergoing phase separation present an interfacial
342 tension that depends on their age. In particular, when a complete sedimentation occurs, the

343 interfacial tension will be close to that corresponding to a diluted chitosan solution from which
 344 particles are completely depleted. Therefore, for the purposes of our work on particle-laden
 345 interfaces, these measurements do not provide any additional insight into the understanding of
 346 the behavior of capped particles at the dispersion/air interface.



347 **Figure 3.** (a) Dependence of the interfacial tension of the aqueous dispersion/air interface on
 348 the silica nanoparticles concentration for dispersions at pH=4.5 with different chitosan
 349 concentrations. (b) Dependence of the interfacial tension of the aqueous dispersion/air interface
 350 on the chitosan concentration for dispersions at pH=4.5 with different silica nanoparticles
 351 concentrations. The data reported correspond to the average of three independent measurements.
 352

353
 354 In contrast to the aforementioned phenomenon for silica nanoparticle adsorption, chitosan
 355 exhibits a concentration-dependent surface activity (see **Figure 3b**). The adsorption of chitosan
 356 at the aqueous solution/air interface results in a decrease in the interfacial tension, which varies
 357 from values close to those corresponding to a pure water/vapor interface (~ 72 mN/m) for the
 358 lowest chitosan concentrations to values below 60 mN/m for the highest concentration studied
 359 (10 mM). This can be understood by considering that chitosan presents a certain degree of
 360 amphiphilicity as a result of the two types of monomers existing within the chains. The chitosan
 361 utilized in this study is a random copolymer comprising, in a molar ratio of 80:20, hydrophilic
 362 2-amino-2-deoxy- β -D-glucose monomers, which are positively charged at the pH of this study,
 363 and a series of more hydrophobic N-acetyl-2-amino-2-deoxy- β -D-glucose monomers, which
 364 do not present a charge. The latter plays a pivotal role in regulating the adsorption of chitosan
 365 at the aqueous solution/air interface.[51] The findings concerning to the adsorption of chitosan

366 at the water/vapor interface are in agreement with those previously reported by Babak et al.[52]
367 Their results indicated minimal adsorption at highly dilute concentrations and a notable increase
368 in adsorption as the concentration exceeded 10^{-2} mM.

369 The results demonstrate that the adsorption of chitosan-capped particles at the aqueous
370 dispersion/air interface is enhanced when both the particle and chitosan concentrations are
371 increased at a fixed concentration of the other component. This leads to an enhancement on the
372 ability of the dispersions to reduce the interfacial tension. Furthermore, the results show a
373 pronounced synergistic impact of the interaction between chitosan and silica nanoparticles on
374 the reduction of the interfacial tension. This means that the adsorption of the mixed dispersions
375 results in a more pronounced in the interfacial tension of the liquid/air interface than that
376 observed for the adsorption of the individual components. This synergistic adsorption is
377 analogous to that observed by Maestro et al. [53] and Arriaga et al. [54] for the adsorption at
378 the dispersion/air interface of silica nanoparticles decorated with an alkyltrimethylammonium
379 bromide surfactant and silica nanoparticles decorated with n-amylamine, respectively. However,
380 this synergistic adsorption contrasts with the findings by Eftekhari et al. [55] for silica
381 nanoparticles decorated with an alkyltrimethylammonium bromide surfactant. They observed
382 that the addition of particles increases the interfacial tension in relation to the values
383 corresponding for the surfactant.

384 At low chitosan concentration and fixed nanoparticle concentration, chitosan-capped silica
385 nanoparticles shows a very reduced surface activity, and therefore a reduced interfacial
386 coverage can be expected. This results in an almost negligible reduction of the interfacial
387 tension in comparison to that of the pristine water/air interface. However, an increase in the
388 chitosan concentration in the dispersion, with a fixed silica concentration, results in a significant
389 enhancement of the surface activity of the capped-silica nanoparticles. This can be explained
390 by the fact that as the chitosan concentration increases, the hydrophobization of the
391 nanoparticles is enough to increase their surface activity and promote their adsorption to the
392 aqueous dispersion/air interface.[27]

393 3.3. Surface dilational response of chitosan-capped silica nanoparticle layers at the
394 dispersion/air interface

395 The study of the damping of electrically excited capillary waves the dispersion/air interface,
396 caused by the presence of chitosan-capped nanoparticle layers, offers valuable insights into the
397 dilational interfacial rheological behavior at frequencies exceeding 50 Hz. These measurements
398 provide critical information on the kinetic processes occurring within the adsorbed layer, such
399 as the redistribution of chitosan molecules between the nanoparticles and the fluid/fluid

400 interface, or the structural reorganization within the adsorbed layer.[45] To investigate these
401 phenomena, electrocapillary wave experiments were performed across a frequency range of 60-
402 450 Hz. Frequencies beyond 450 Hz could not be explored due to a significant decrease in
403 signal intensity, which substantially impacted the sensitivity of the measurements.

404 The spatial profile of a capillary wave excited at an arbitrary point on a fluid/fluid interface (xy
405 plane), which is defined as coordinate $x = 0$, can be described in terms of a damped cosine wave,
406 given by the following expression,

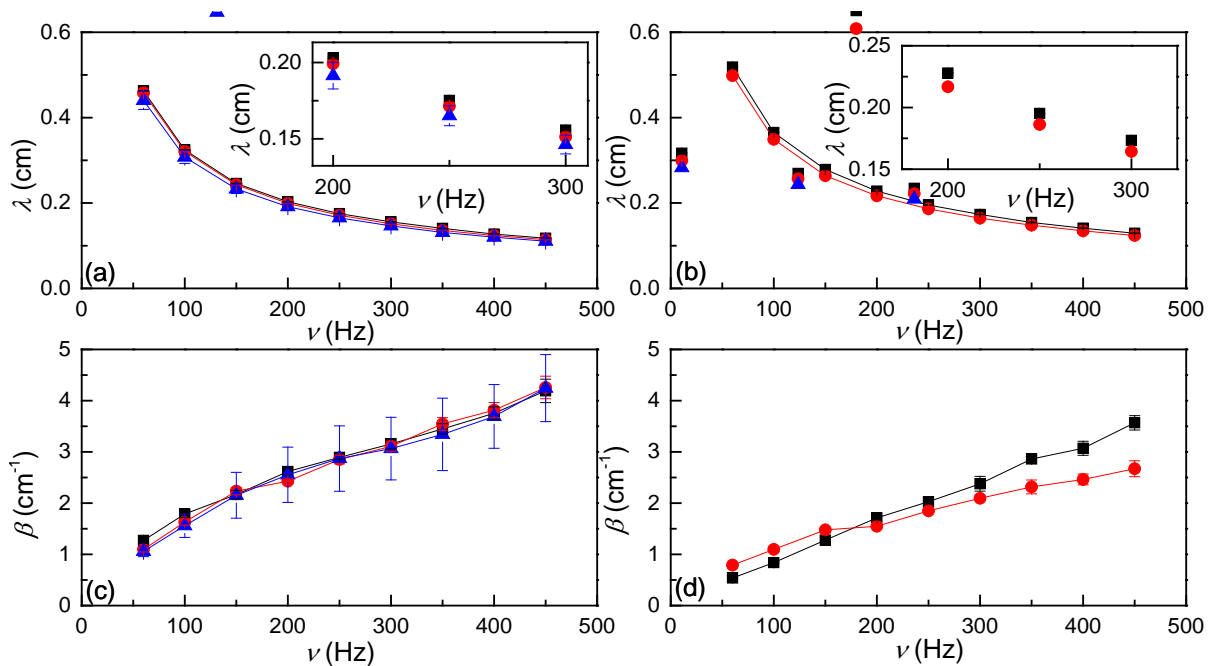
$$407 \quad u_z = u_z^0 e^{-\beta x} \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} x + \phi\right), \quad (1)$$

408 where u_z^0 is the wave amplitude, and β and λ are the damping coefficient and the characteristic
409 wavelength of the capillary wave, respectively. ϕ accounts for the phase lag. **Figure 4** shows
410 the frequency (ν) dependence of the damping coefficients and the characteristic wavelengths
411 corresponding to layers of chitosan-capped silica nanoparticles adsorbed at the dispersion/air
412 interface.

413 The results suggest that at a constant frequency, the capillary wavelength λ , exhibits minimal
414 variation with increasing particle concentration, regardless of the chitosan concentration.
415 However, this variation becomes more pronounced as the chitosan concentration increases (see
416 inserted panels in **Figures 4a and 4b**). These observations can be interpreted using Kelvin's
417 law ($\lambda^3 = 2\pi\gamma/\nu^2\rho$, where ρ represents the bulk density). Kelvin's law is a first-order
418 approximation valid strictly for low-viscosity simple liquid surfaces [56]. Indeed, the higher
419 the particle concentration, the lower the interfacial tension, which in turn results in a lower
420 value of the capillary wavelength. Conversely, the layers obtained from dispersion with lower
421 values of $c_{\text{CHI}}=5$ mM yield higher λ values than when the chitosan concentration is higher
422 ($c_{\text{CHI}}=10$ mM). This phenomenon can also be explained by considering that for fixed
423 nanoparticle concentration, the interfacial tension assumes higher values as the polymer
424 concentration decreases (see **Figure 3**).

425 The interpretation of the frequency dependencies of the damping coefficient is less
426 straightforward (see **Figures 4c and 4d**). For the damping coefficient at the highest chitosan
427 concentration studied ($c_{\text{CHI}}=10$ mM), there are no effect of the particle concentration. In contrast,
428 for dispersions with a chitosan concentration of 5 mM, the damping coefficient values remain
429 relatively constant at low frequencies, showing no significant variation (i.e., they overlap within
430 the combined error bars) as the particle concentration changes. However, at higher frequencies,
431 the damping coefficient decreases as the particle concentration increases. Furthermore, an
432 increase in polymer concentration results in an increase in the value of the damping coefficient
433 for a fixed silica nanoparticle concentration. This can be understood by considering a derivation

434 of Stokes's law ($\beta = 4\eta\omega/3\gamma$, where η represents the solution viscosity). This predicts, for the
 435 surface of low viscosity pure liquids, an increase in the damping coefficient with the increase
 436 in the viscosity (viscosity data for chitosan solutions and chitosan-capped silica nanoparticle
 437 dispersions are reported in Table 1). In addition, the reduction in the interfacial tension resulting
 438 from the increase in the polymer concentration should consequently result in an increase in the
 439 damping coefficient. Additionally, it must be expected that the increase in the surface
 440 concentration will also contribute to the enhanced damping coefficient due to the viscoelastic
 441 character of the monolayer.



442
 443 **Figure 4.** Frequency dependences of the wavelength (λ) and damping (β) for layers obtained
 444 from the adsorption of dispersions of chitosan-capped silica nanoparticles, with different
 445 chitosan and silica nanoparticles concentrations, at the dispersion/air interface (pH=4.5). (a, b)
 446 λ values for layers obtained from the adsorption of dispersions with chitosan concentrations 10
 447 mM and 5 mM, respectively, and (c,d) β values for layers obtained from the adsorption of
 448 dispersions with chitosan concentrations 10 mM and 5 mM, respectively. The figures inserted
 449 in panels a and b represent a zoom of the frequency dependences of the wavelength (λ) in the
 450 frequency range 200-300 Hz. In the different panels, the lines are guides for the eyes, and the
 451 different symbols refer to different nanoparticle concentrations: (■) $C_{NPs}=0$ % w/w, (●)
 452 $C_{NPs}=0.5$ % w/w and (▲) $C_{NPs}=1$ % w/w. The data reported correspond to the average of three
 453 independent measurements.

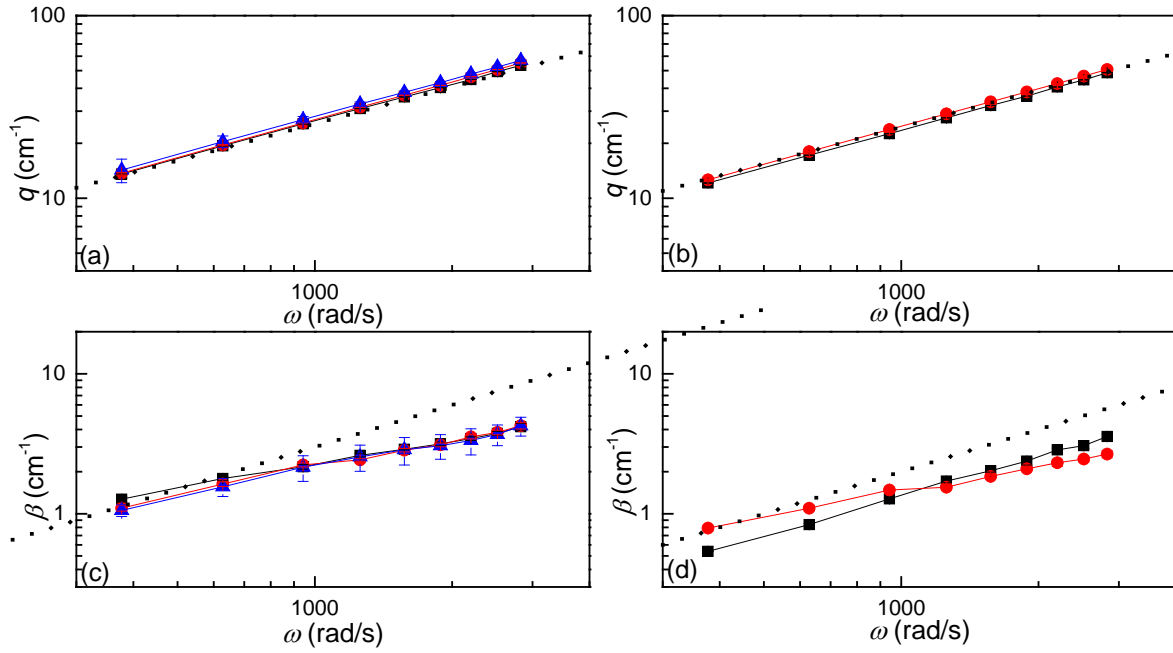
454

455 **Table 1.** Viscosity data for chitosan solutions and chitosan-capped particle dispersions at
 456 pH=4.5 as were obtained by using a Ubbelohde viscometer. Notice that only stable chitosan-
 457 capped particle dispersions were measured. The data reported correspond to the average of three
 458 independent measurements.

| c_{CHI} (mM) | η (mPa.s) $c_{\text{NPs}}=0\%w/w$ | η (mPa.s) $c_{\text{NPs}}=0.4\%w/w$ | η (mPa.s) $c_{\text{NPs}}=0.5\%w/w$ | η (mPa.s) $c_{\text{NPs}}=1.0\%w/w$ |
|-----------------------|---|---|---|---|
| 2 | 1.5±0.1 | - | - | - |
| 4 | 3.04±0.2 | 2.01±0.1 | - | - |
| 5 | 3.5±0.3 | - | 2.4±0.2 | - |
| 10 | 5.1±0.5 | - | 4.5±0.5 | 4.1±0.5 |

459
 460 The modification of the damping coefficient with the particle concentration reveals the
 461 existence of two different regimes, as evidenced by the results. At a high chitosan concentration
 462 ($c_{\text{CHI}}=10$ mM), the damping coefficient remains almost constant regardless of the silica
 463 nanoparticles concentration. This can be understood by considering that at such high chitosan
 464 concentration, the variation of the solution viscosity is minimal with the increase in the particle
 465 concentration. Conversely, when the concentration of chitosan is reduced to 5 mM, the viscosity
 466 exhibits a more pronounced decrease with the increase in the particle concentration, resulting
 467 in a corresponding decrease in the damping coefficient with the particle concentration.

468 A more detailed examination of the frequency dependence of the capillary wavelength and the
 469 damping coefficient (see **Figure 5**) reveals that the experimental data are consistent with the
 470 predictions of simple scaling laws: $q \sim \omega^a$ and $\beta \sim \omega^b$, where $\omega=2\pi\nu$ represents the angular
 471 frequency and $q=2\pi/\lambda$ is the wavevector. In this analysis, the exponent a was found to be in the
 472 range 0.67-0.69 under all conditions studied, which is in close agreement with the prediction of
 473 Kelvin's law: $q \sim \omega^{2/3}$. In contrast, the exponent for the scaling law describing the frequency
 474 dependence of β differs from the predicted value derived from the Stoke's law ($b \sim 1$).^[56] This
 475 is undoubtedly related to viscoelastic character of the interfacial layer.



476

477 **Figure 5.** Representation of the dependences of q and β on the angular wavelength for layers
 478 obtained from the adsorption of dispersions of chitosan-capped silica nanoparticles, with
 479 different chitosan and silica nanoparticles concentrations, at the dispersion/air interface
 480 (pH=4.5). (a, b) q values for layers obtained from the adsorption of dispersions with chitosan
 481 concentrations 10 mM and 5 mM, respectively, and (c,d) β values for layers obtained from the
 482 adsorption of dispersions with chitosan concentrations 10 mM and 5 mM, respectively. In the
 483 different panels, the solid lines are guides for the eyes, and the different symbols refer to
 484 different nanoparticle concentrations: (■) $C_{NPs}=0$ % w/w, (●) $C_{NPs}=0.5$ % w/w and (▲)
 485 $C_{NPs}=1$ % w/w. On the other hand, the dotted black line represents the ideal scaling behavior
 486 described by Kelvin ($q \sim \omega^a$ with $a \sim 2/3$) and Stokes laws ($\beta \sim \omega^b$ with $b \sim 1$) for q and β ,
 487 respectively. The data reported correspond to the average of three independent measurements.

488

489 To determine the dilational response of a monolayer from electrocapillary wave experiments,
 490 it is essential to numerically solve the dispersion equation, $D(q, \omega) = 0$. This equation connects
 491 the characteristics of transverse wave propagation —angular frequency ω , wavelength λ , and
 492 damping coefficient β — with the monolayer's constitutive parameters, including interfacial
 493 tension (γ), dilational storage modulus (ε_r), and dilational viscosity (κ) [57,58,59].

$$494 \quad D(q, \omega) = T(q, \omega, \gamma)L(q, \omega, \varepsilon) + C(q, \omega). \quad (2)$$

495 The underlying premise is that the dilational rheological behavior of layers at the water/air
 496 interface can be characterized in terms of the interaction between the transverse or capillary
 497 component, $T(q, \omega, \gamma)$, and the longitudinal or dilational component $L(q, \omega, \varepsilon)$. In this context,

498 $C(q, \omega)$ accounts for the coupling between transverse (capillary) and longitudinal (dilatational)
 499 waves.[59] By solving the dispersion equation, it becomes possible to compute the dilatational
 500 viscoelastic modulus as

$$501 \quad \varepsilon(\omega) = \varepsilon_r(\omega) + i\varepsilon_i(\omega) = \varepsilon(\omega) = \frac{-(\eta\omega(q-m))^2}{\gamma q^2 + i\eta\omega(q+m) - \frac{\rho}{q}\omega^2} - i\eta\omega(q+m) / q^2, \quad (3)$$

502 with $q = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} - i\beta$ being the complex wavevector and $m = \sqrt{q^2 + i\omega \frac{\rho}{\eta}}$ the capillary penetration
 503 depth ($\text{Re}(m) > 0$). Accurately extracting the constitutive parameters of monolayers from
 504 electrocapillary wave measurements presents significant challenges. These challenges
 505 primarily arises from the varying sensitivity of capillary waves to the dilatational properties of
 506 the interface. The resonance condition suggests that when the frequency of dilatational modes is
 507 close to that of the capillary modes, the sensitivity of capillary waves in determining the
 508 interfacial dilatational elastic modulus (ε_r) and the interfacial dilatational viscous modulus (ε_i) is
 509 maximized. In first approximation, the resonance occurs under the following condition,

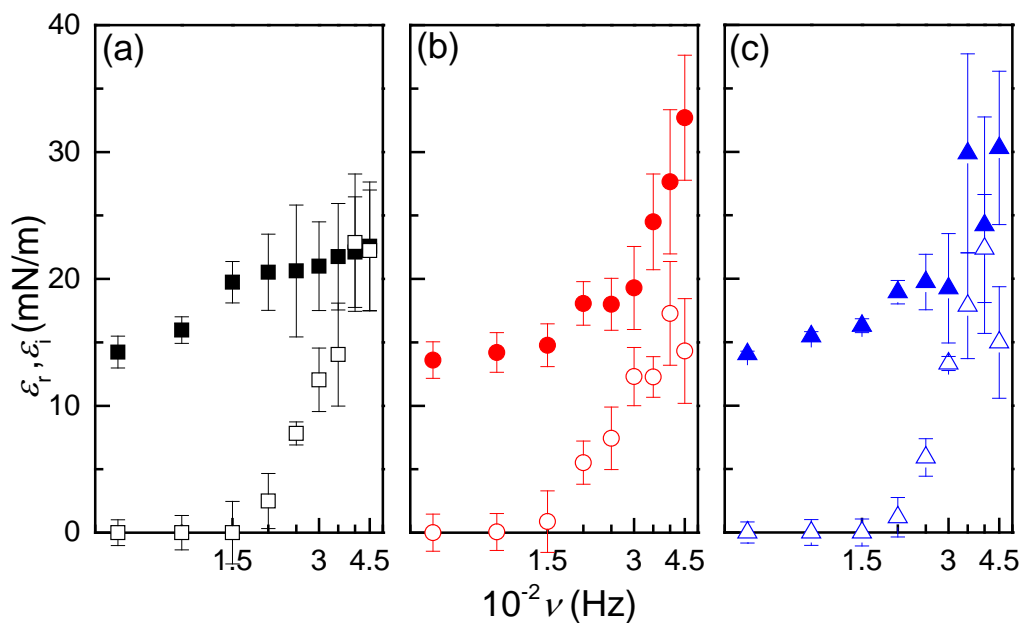
$$510 \quad \left(\frac{\varepsilon_r}{\gamma}\right)_R = 0.10 - 0.15. \quad (4)$$

511 The subscript R denotes the resonance condition, which is crucial for the accurate determination
 512 of dilatational parameters from electrocapillary wave experiments. When the ε_r/γ ratio deviates
 513 from the resonance condition, the uncertainty in the dilatational parameters obtained from the
 514 experimental data analysis increases significantly. In the case of the experiments performed in
 515 this work, $\varepsilon_r/\gamma > (\varepsilon_r/\gamma)_R$, which introduces a large uncertainty in the determination on the
 516 determination of the viscoelastic parameters of the interface. This uncertainty increases as the
 517 ε_r/γ increases. Therefore, assuming that the interfacial tension is a constant for a specific
 518 dispersion of capped particles, the uncertainty in the determination is expected to increase as
 519 the in the interfacial dilatational elastic modulus increases. This can be understood by considering
 520 that, far from the resonance, a small variation in the input values of γ and η introduces a large
 521 uncertainty in the determination of the interfacial dilatational viscoelastic moduli.

522 **Figure 6** shows the frequency dependence of the interfacial dilatational elastic (ε_r) and viscous
 523 (ε_i) moduli corresponding to layers of chitosan-capped silica nanoparticles at the dispersion/air
 524 interface. These were obtained for the adsorption of dispersions with increasing concentrations
 525 of silica nanoparticles and a fixed concentration of chitosan (10 mM).

526 The experimental data indicates that, except for chitosan solutions ($C_{NPs}=0\%$ w/w), the storage
 527 component of the dilatational viscoelastic response, i.e., the elastic modulus, of the
 528 nanocomposite layer is higher than the viscous modulus within the entire frequency range. In

529 the particular case of chitosan layers, $\varepsilon_r > \varepsilon_i$ at the lowest frequencies, where ε_r becomes
 530 comparable to ε_i at the highest frequencies probed. Therefore, it can be assumed that chitosan
 531 layers pass from a mainly elastic behavior to a gel-like one with the increase of the frequency.
 532 On the other hand, the storage contribution for nanocomposite layers is higher than that
 533 observed for chitosan (see **Figure 6a**), whereas the opposite is true for the viscous modulus.
 534 This can be assumed to be the result of the different structure of the layers. Pure chitosan layers
 535 at the solution/air dispersion present the capacity to reorganize at the interface and dissipate the
 536 energy associated with the interfacial deformation through the reorganization of the polymer
 537 chains. This phenomenon is less pronounced when the nanocomposite layers are considered, as
 538 most of the chitosan is expected to be attached to the particles, and therefore its reorganization
 539 within the interface is very limited. Additionally, the dilational deformation of the interface is
 540 expected to contribute to the packing of the particles at the interface, which presents a more
 541 limited capacity to reorganize. This, in turn, contributes to the increase of the importance of the
 542 elastic component of the dilational response.



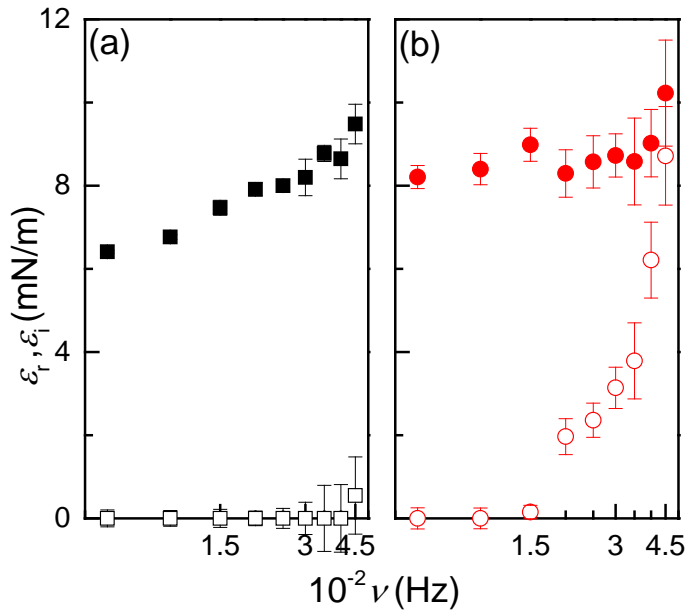
543
 544 **Figure 6.** Frequency dependences of the interfacial elastic (ε_r) and viscous (ε_i) moduli obtained
 545 from electrocapillary wave experiments for layers obtained from the adsorption of dispersions
 546 of chitosan-capped silica nanoparticles, with different silica nanoparticles concentrations and a
 547 fixed chitosan concentration (10 mM), at the dispersion/air interface (pH=4.5). (a) C_{NPs} =0% w/w.
 548 (b) C_{NPs} =0.5% w/w. (c) C_{NPs} =1.0% w/w. In all the panels solid symbols represent ε_r values and
 549 open symbols represent ε_i . The data reported correspond to the average of three independent
 550 measurements.

551

552 The aforementioned scenario differs when the chitosan concentration is reduced to 5 mM, as
553 shown in **Figure 7**. Indeed, under these conditions, the chitosan layer displays predominantly
554 elastic behavior ($\varepsilon_i \sim 0$, irrespectively of the probed frequency), whereas in the case of the
555 chitosan-silica nanoparticle composite layer, the elastic and viscous moduli differ significantly
556 at low frequencies. However, they assume very similar values at the highest probed frequencies.
557 This can be understood by considering that in the case of chitosan layer, the low chitosan
558 concentration allows the chitosan to attach at the interface in an extended conformation.
559 Consequently, the viscous dissipation resulting from the presence of segments protruding into
560 the air phase is strongly hindered. On the other hand, the different behavior on the viscoelastic
561 response of the composite layer in relation to layers with higher chitosan concentration can be
562 ascribed to the fact that the higher the concentration of chitosan in the mixed dispersion, the
563 more pronounced the interparticle packing at the interface, which is a consequence of the cross-
564 linking between the chitosan-capping layers. This results in an increase in the values of the
565 elastic modulus as the chitosan concentration increases in the mixed dispersion. On the other
566 hand, the viscous modulus increases with the chitosan concentration for chitosan layers,
567 whereas it appears relatively independent on the chitosan concentration with the nanocomposite
568 layers are considered. It is important to note that the values of the dilational elastic modulus,
569 which exceeds the viscous modulus across the studied frequency range, suggest that these layers
570 can resist deformation and maintain structural integrity under dynamic conditions. Such
571 properties play a very important role for stabilizing foams, where the elastic nature of the
572 interfacial film is critical for preventing bubble coalescence and collapse.

573 A more detailed analysis of the dilational viscoelastic moduli reveals the existence of a
574 relaxation process with a characteristic frequency in the range of 10^2 Hz for particle-laden films.
575 Given the frequency range in which this relaxation occurs, it cannot be ascribed to a diffusion-
576 controlled adsorption of the particles at the interface, which should appear in the frequency
577 region below 1 Hz.[45] Consequently, the relaxation observed in the dilational response is
578 likely associated with a kinetic process occurring within the interface. This may be attributed
579 to the reorganization of the chitosan chains attached to the particles, or even to free chitosan
580 molecules co-adsorbed at the interface together with the chitosan-capped particles. It is unlikely
581 that this kinetic process at the interface can be associated with a time-dependent reorganization
582 of the particles at the interface, which may appear at frequencies closer to that corresponding
583 to the diffusion from the bulk to the interface.[45] Unfortunately, the limited accessible
584 experimental window provided by the electrocapillary measurements performed in this work
585 does not allow for a more detailed analysis of the relaxation process occurring within the

586 interfacial films. To overcome the limitations imposed by the experimental window of ECW
 587 measurements, future studies could integrate complementary techniques in the low frequency
 588 range (oscillatory interfacial rheology or capillary pressure tensiometry) and high frequency
 589 ranges (surface quasi-elastic light scattering) to capture a broader range of relaxation processes
 590 [60]. Additionally, advancements in instrumental sensitivity and theoretical modeling would
 591 enhance the precision and applicability of ECW data for analyzing complex interfacial systems,
 592 allowing the extension of the experimental window.



593
 594 **Figure 7.** Frequency dependences of the interfacial elastic (ϵ_r) and viscous (ϵ_i) moduli obtained
 595 from electrocapillary wave experiments for layers obtained from the adsorption of dispersions
 596 of chitosan-capped silica nanoparticles, with different silica nanoparticles concentrations and a
 597 fixed chitosan concentration (5 mM), at the dispersion/air interface (pH=4.5). (a) $C_{NPs}=0\%$ w/w.
 598 (b) $C_{NPs}=0.5\%$ w/w. In all the panels solid symbols represent ϵ_r values and open symbols
 599 represent ϵ_i . The data reported correspond to the average of three independent measurements.

600
 601 **4. Conclusions**

602 The adsorption of chitosan on silica nanoparticles has a significant impact on the
 603 hydrophobicity and charge properties of the nanoparticles. At pH 4.5, optimal adsorption occurs
 604 due to the strong positive charge of chitosan and the negative charge of silica nanoparticles,
 605 which facilitate electrostatic interactions. This optimal pH was selected for the evaluation of
 606 the stability of chitosan-silica nanoparticle dispersions and their capacity to adsorb at the
 607 water/air interface. The compositional map at pH 4.5 indicated the presence of two distinct
 608 stability regions for these dispersions, separated by an instability region prone to rapid phase

609 separation. This instability is attributed to the neutralization of the silica nanoparticle surface
610 charge by adsorbed chitosan, which reaches an isoelectric point where colloidal stability is lost,
611 resulting in sedimentation of the particles. Furthermore, an increase in chitosan concentration
612 beyond this point results in charge inversion and the formation of positively charged chitosan-
613 capped nanoparticles, as evidenced by electrophoretic mobility measurements. Pristine silica
614 nanoparticles exhibited a negative ζ potential, whereas those capped with chitosan displayed
615 positive values, confirming the chitosan adsorption and resulting charge alterations.

616 The adsorption studies conducted at the aqueous dispersion/air interface showed that chitosan
617 has a significant impact on reducing interfacial tension, which contrasts with the negligible
618 surface activity observed for bare silica nanoparticles. The interfacial tension was observed to
619 decrease with increasing chitosan concentration, which serves to illustrate chitosan's
620 amphiphilic nature and its role in enhancing the surface activity of the nanoparticles. This
621 synergistic effect results in a more pronounced reduction in interfacial tension than would be
622 expected from the individual components.

623 The damping of electrocapillary waves experiments provided insights into the interfacial
624 rheology of chitosan-capped nanoparticle layers. The presence of these nanoparticles resulted
625 in alterations to both the capillary wavelength and the damping coefficient. At higher
626 concentrations of particles, a reduction in interfacial tension and capillary wavelength was
627 observed. The damping coefficient exhibited a dependence on both particle and chitosan
628 concentrations. At elevated chitosan concentrations, the viscosity of the dispersions increased,
629 resulting in an enhanced damping. Additionally, the surface excess of the layer formed was
630 expected to be higher, contributing to the observed increase in damping. The frequency
631 dependence of the interfacial dilatational elastic and viscous moduli revealed that
632 nanocomposite layers exhibited a higher elastic modulus in comparison to pure chitosan layers.
633 This can be attributed to the restricted capacity of composite layers at the interface for
634 reorganization, which consequently increases the importance of the elastic response. Overall,
635 the study highlights the critical role of pH in modulating chitosan adsorption on silica
636 nanoparticles, the resulting phase behavior, surface charge modifications, and enhanced
637 interfacial properties of the composites. In addition, the mainly elastic character of the formed
638 layers and the enhanced adsorption capabilities observed suggest that these nanocomposite
639 layers are well-suited for stabilizing foams and emulsions, where interfacial viscoelasticity and
640 tension reduction are critical factors. Potential applications include food-grade foams,
641 pharmaceutical emulsions, and cosmetic formulations, where stability and biocompatibility are
642 paramount.

643

644 Acknowledgements

645 This work was performed in the framework of the European Innovative Training Network-
646 Marie Skłodowska-Curie Action NanoPaInt (grant agreement 955612) funded by the E.U. The
647 work by the group in Madrid was also supported under grants PID2023-147156NB-I00, funded
648 by MCIN/AEI/10.13039/501100011033 (Spain), and PR12/24-31566 (Ayudas para la
649 financiación de proyectos de investigación UCM 2023). We thank the Unidad de
650 Espectroscopía y Correlación (CAI de Técnicas Químicas of the UCM) for the use of their
651 facilities.

652

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