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PII: S1090-7807(11)00040-1
DOI: 10.1016/j.jmr.2011.01.024
Reference: YJMRE 4616

To appear in: Journal of Magnetic Resonance

Received Date: 6 November 2010
Revised Date: 19 January 2011
Accepted Date: 27 January 2011

Please cite this article as: I. Åslund, B. Medronho, D. Topgaard, O. Söderman, C. Schmidt, Homogeneous length scale of shear-induced multilamellar vesicles studied by diffusion NMR, Journal of Magnetic Resonance (2011), doi: 10.1016/j.jmr.2011.01.024

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Homogeneous length scale of shear-induced multilamellar vesicles studied by diffusion NMR

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Abstract

A recently developed protocol for pulsed gradient spin echo (PGSE) NMR is applied for the size determination of multilamellar vesicles (MLVs). By monitoring the self-diffusion behavior of water, the technique yields an estimate of the homogeneous length scale $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$, i.e. the maximum length scale at which there is local structural heterogeneity in a globally homogeneous material. A crossover between local non-Gaussian to global Gaussian diffusion is observed by varying the experimentally defined length- and time-scales. Occasional observation of a weak Bragg peak in the PGSE signal attenuation curves permits the direct estimation of the MLV radius in favorable cases, thus yielding the constant of proportionality between $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$ and radius. The microstructural origin of the Bragg peak is verified through Brownian dynamics simulations and a theoretical analysis based on the center-of-mass diffusion propagator. $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$ is decreasing with increasing shear rate in agreement with theoretical expectations and results from $^2$H NMR lineshape analysis.

Key words: diffusion, pulsed-gradient-spin-echo NMR, lamellar phase, shear

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1. Introduction

Multilamellar vesicles, MLVs, also known as onions, spherulites or liposomes, can be formed when shear is applied to a lamellar phase. When using steady shear at a constant rate the MLVs are fairly monodisperse in size and their radius can be controlled by the applied shear rate.\cite{1-3} Since the first reports on such monodisperse shear-induced MLVs they have been found in many other lamellar systems.\cite{4-13} Generally, the vesicle radius decreases with the shear rate; it is often approximately proportional to the square root of the inverse rate.\cite{2,14} Sometimes the polydispersity of the MLV size is so low that periodic structures are formed.\cite{13,15-18} However, the simple picture of densely packed spheres is misleading since there are no solvent-filled voids in the system; electron microscopy has shown that space is completely filled by the lamellar phase and that the onions have polyhedral shape.\cite{19} Therefore, the onion structure is better characterized as a defect structure of the lamellar phase with a topology similar to that of a foam. A schematic picture is shown in Fig. 1.

Shear-induced MLVs can be metastable for a long time and the closed-shell structure of the bilayers allows for both hydrophilic and hydrophobic molecules to be trapped in the onions. Hence they may be useful, for instance, as carrier systems for drugs.\cite{20} In addition, there is also a fundamental interest di-
rected towards a physical understanding of the processes of onion formation and destruction and the elucidation of any intermediate structures during these processes.\textsuperscript{[10,13,14,21–27]}

One technique that can be used to investigate shear-induced structural changes of the lamellar phase is measurements of diffusion by NMR. Using flow-compensated multi-echo pulsed gradient NMR Lutti and Callaghan measured the diffusion spectra of lamellar samples under shear.\textsuperscript{[28–32]} Based on models of the phase structure they could fit the experimental diffusion spectra and obtain structural parameters such as the onion dimensions at various shear rates.\textsuperscript{[30]}

Pulsed gradient spin echo (PGSE) NMR is a well-established technique for studying structure and molecular transport in microheterogeneous systems in general.\textsuperscript{[33–35]} The NMR signal is encoded for molecular displacements using pairs of magnetic field gradient pulses. The time- and length scales, and also the direction in which motion is monitored, can be adjusted by varying the properties of the gradient pulse pair. Typically, molecular motion is studied on the $1 – 1000$ ms time scale and the $1 – 100$ $\mu$m length scale. For bulk liquids the gradual spreading out of molecules from their starting position obeys Gaussian statistics and can be characterized with the bulk self-diffusion coefficient $D_0$. The low solubility of water in the hydrocarbon domains in a lamellar phase renders the water diffusion highly anisotropic; the ratio between the diffusivities perpendicular to and parallel with the lamellar director is usually above 10.\textsuperscript{[36]} For a macroscopically aligned lamellar phase the experimentally observed diffusion coefficient depends on the angle between the lamellar director and the magnetic field gradient. Considering the schematic picture of the MLVs in Fig. 1, it is clear that the outcome of the PGSE NMR experiment will depend strongly on the scales of observation. When motion is followed on a length scale smaller than the onion radius $R_{MLV}$, a broad distribution of diffusion coefficients will be observed since each lamellar orientation with respect to the field gradient gives rise to a separate diffusion coefficient. At very long scales of observation, the molecules will sample all lamellar orientations and the effect of the local anisotropy is averaged, yielding an effective diffusion coefficient $D_\infty$ describing the long-range diffusion in the globally isotropic medium. In a previous publication\textsuperscript{[37]} some of us have described an experimental protocol for determining the length scale at which there is a cross-over from locally anisotropic to globally isotropic diffusion. This length scale is denoted the homogeneous length scale $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$ in analogy with the parameter used to characterize microstructural heterogeneity through image analysis.\textsuperscript{[38]} The concept of $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$ can also be compared to the representative elementary volume (REV) used in the field of porous materials as the smallest volume in which the locally evaluated properties, e.g. porosity, are the same as the global ones.\textsuperscript{[39]} The linear extension of the REV can be identified as $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$. 
In this contribution, we demonstrate that $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$, which is obtained as a model-free parameter from a set of PGSE attenuation curves, can be used as a measure for the structural length scale of shear-induced MLVs. This is exemplified by a well-studied model system, the 40 wt% aqueous solution of the nonionic surfactant $\text{C}_{10}E_3$.\cite{21,23,24,26,27,40–43} Complementary characterization of the system is carried out with $^2\text{H}$ NMR.\cite{43} PGSE NMR applied to MLV systems is explored in some detail, both with Brownian dynamics simulations and from a theoretical perspective. While the basic theory for PGSE NMR can be found in several textbooks and reviews, e.g. refs 33–35 and 44, we here derive the theory in a somewhat unconventional way based on the work of Mitra and Halperin,\cite{45} the reason being that the experimental observations for MLV systems can be conveniently explained using their concepts of the center-of-mass (COM) density and COM diffusion propagator as replacements for the more commonly used spin density and diffusion propagator.

2. Theoretical considerations

2.1. PGSE signal and center-of-mass displacements

A time-varying magnetic field gradient $g(t)$ imparts a temporal and spatial dependence to the NMR precession frequency $\omega(r,t)$ according to

$$\omega(r,t) = -\gamma g(t) \cdot r,$$

(1)

where $\gamma$ is the magnetogyrnic ratio ($2.675 \cdot 10^8$ rad/Ts for $^1\text{H}$) and $r$ is the position. Consider a nuclear spin performing a random walk $r(t)$ in the time interval from $t = 0$ to $t = \tau$. The time-dependent phase $\phi(t)$ is at $t = \tau$ given by

$$\phi(\tau) = \int_0^\tau \omega(t)dt = -\gamma \int_0^\tau g(t) \cdot r(t)dt$$

(2)

if $\phi(0) = 0$. The NMR signal $E(t)$ results from the ensemble average

$$E(t) = \langle e^{i\phi(t)} \rangle.$$

(3)

In the pulsed gradient spin echo (PGSE) experiment, the NMR signal is encoded for molecular displacements employing two magnetic field gradient pulses of equal amplitude and direction, but opposite effective polarity. We can in Eq. 2 separate the gradient temporal profile $f(t)$ and the gradient vector $g$, thus making the substitution $g(t) \rightarrow g f(t)$, yielding

$$\phi(\tau) = -\gamma g \cdot \int_0^\tau f(t)r(t)dt.$$

(4)
With pulse duration \( \delta \) and separation \( \Delta \) between the onset of the pulses, \( f(t) \) is given by

\[
f(t) = -H(t) + H(t - \delta) + H(t - \Delta) - H(t - \Delta - \delta),
\]

as shown in Fig. 2. In Eq. 5, \( H(t) \) is the Heaviside step function. Insertion of Eq. 5 into Eq. 4 yields

\[
\phi(\Delta + \delta) = -\gamma g \cdot \left(-\int_0^\delta r(t)dt + \int_\Delta^{\Delta + \delta} r(t)dt\right),
\]

which can be rearranged to

\[
\phi(\Delta + \delta) = -\gamma g \delta \cdot \left(\frac{1}{\delta} \int_\Delta^{\Delta + \delta} r(t)dt - \frac{1}{\delta} \int_0^\delta r(t)dt\right).
\]

Defining \( r'(t_1, t_2) \) as the center-of-mass (COM) of the random walk \( r(t) \) in the time interval \( t_1 < t < t_2 \) according to

\[
r'(t_1, t_2) = \frac{1}{|t_2 - t_1|} \int_{t_1}^{t_2} r(t)dt
\]

and the wave vector \( \mathbf{q} \) as
Eq. 7 can be written as

\[ \phi(\Delta + \delta) = -2\pi q \cdot \left[ \mathbf{r}'(\Delta, \Delta + \delta) - \mathbf{r}'(0, \delta) \right]. \] (10)

Let \( \mathbf{R}'(\Delta, \delta) \) denote the COM displacement, i.e. the distance between the COMs of \( \mathbf{r}(t) \) in the intervals \( \Delta < t < \Delta + \delta \) and \( 0 < t < \delta \),

\[ \mathbf{R}'(\Delta, \delta) = \mathbf{r}'(\Delta, \Delta + \delta) - \mathbf{r}'(0, \delta). \] (11)

A one-dimensional trajectory, with COM positions and displacement indicated, is displayed in Fig. 2.

Combining Eqs. 3, 10, and 11 yields

\[ E(\Delta + \delta) = \langle e^{-i2\pi q \cdot \mathbf{R}'(\Delta, \delta)} \rangle \] (12)

for the signal in the end of the PGSE experiment, \( t = \Delta + \delta \). In order to calculate the PGSE signal using Eq. 12, we need the probability distribution of \( \mathbf{R}' \). Let us denote this quantity as the ”COM displacement probability”, \( P'(\mathbf{R}, \Delta, \delta) \). Now writing the PGSE signal as a function of \( q, \Delta, \) and \( \delta \), Eq. 12 can be expressed as

\[ E(q, \Delta, \delta) = \int P'(\mathbf{R}, \Delta, \delta)e^{-i2\pi q \cdot \mathbf{R}} d\mathbf{R}. \] (13)

Eq. 13 can be recognized as a Fourier transform with the conjugate variables \( q \) and \( \mathbf{R} \).

2.2. Free diffusion

For diffusion with the self-diffusion coefficient \( D \) in an isotropic and homogeneous medium, both \( P'(\mathbf{R}, \Delta, \delta) \) and \( E(q, \Delta, \delta) \) are Gaussian:

\[ P'(\mathbf{R}, \Delta, \delta) = \left[ 4\pi^2 D(\Delta - \delta / 3) \right]^{-3/2} e^{-\mathbf{R}^2 / 4D(\Delta - \delta / 3)} \] (14)

\[ E(q, \Delta, \delta) = e^{-4\pi^2 q^2 q D(\Delta - \delta / 3)} \] (15)

The factor \( (\Delta - \delta / 3) \) in Eqs. 14 and 15 can be used to define an effective diffusion time \( t_d \) through

\[ t_d = \Delta - \delta / 3. \] (16)
2.3. Closed pores

The diffusion propagator \( P(r_0|r, \tau) \), i.e. the probability density for spin displacement from \( r_0 \) to \( r \) over the time interval \( \tau \), is often used to describe diffusion in a pore space. Apart from the case of free diffusion, analytical expressions for \( P(r_0|r, \tau) \) are known only for simple closed geometries such as cylinders and spheres.\(^{[46–49]} \). The probability distribution of displacements \( R = r - r_0 \), the "average propagator" \( \overline{P}(R, \tau) \), is given by integration over all starting positions, weighted with local spin density \( \rho(r_0) \), according to

\[
\overline{P}(R, \tau) = \int \rho(r_0) P(r_0|r_0 + R, \tau) dr_0.
\]  

(17)

When the PGSE experiment is performed in the limit as \( \delta \to 0 \), then \( \overline{P}(R, \Delta) \) can replace \( \overline{P}'(R, \Delta, \delta) \) in Eq. 13. For spins diffusing in a closed pore space, \( P(r_0|r, \tau) \) becomes independent of \( r_0 \) in the limit \( \tau \to \infty \); the spin "loses memory" of its initial position. In this case \( P(r_0|r, \tau) = \rho(r) \), and \( \overline{P}(R, \infty) \) is the autocorrelation function of \( \rho(r) \) which we denote \( \tilde{\rho}(R) \):

\[
\overline{P}(R, \infty) = \int \rho(r) \rho(r + R) dr = \tilde{\rho}(R).
\]  

(18)

Let us define a COM propagator \( P'(r_0|r, \tau) \), being the probability density for a spin starting at \( r_0 \) having the COM position \( r' = r \) over the time interval \( \tau \). Averaging over all starting positions yields the COM density \( \rho'(r, \tau) \) according to

\[
\rho'(r, \tau) = \int \rho(r_0) P'(r_0|r, \tau) dr_0.
\]  

(19)

In analogy with Eq. 18, \( \overline{P}'(R, \infty, \delta) \) is in the limit \( \Delta \to \infty \) given by\(^{[45]} \)

\[
\overline{P}'(R, \infty, \delta) = \int \rho'(r, \delta) \rho'(r + R, \delta) dr = \tilde{\rho}'(R, \delta)
\]  

(20)

for closed pores. \( E(q, \infty, \delta) \) is the Fourier transform of \( \overline{P}'(R, \infty, \delta) \), which is the autocorrelation function of \( \rho'(r, \delta) \). Then, according to the Wiener-Khinchin theorem, \( E(q, \infty, \delta) \) is the power spectral density of \( \rho'(r, \delta) \):

\[
E(q, \infty, \delta) = |S'(q, \delta)|^2, \]

(21)

where \( S'(q, \delta) \) denotes the Fourier transform of \( \rho'(r, \delta) \). To summarize, Eq. 21 states that the PGSE signal \( E(q, \infty, \delta) \) is the "diffraction pattern" of the COM density \( \rho'(r, \delta) \), which is equal to the true spin density \( \rho(r) \) in the limit \( \delta \to 0 \).
2.4. Microheterogeneous medium

Now consider a microscopically heterogeneous, but macroscopically isotropic and homogeneous, material with local spin density $\rho(r)$ and local diffusion tensor $D(r)$, e.g. the MLV system of interest here. All variations of $\rho(r)$ and $D(r)$ occur on a length scale smaller than the homogeneous length scale $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$. In the limit $\Delta \to \infty$, such that the typical displacement during $\Delta$ is much larger than $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$, we expect $\mathcal{P}(R, \Delta, \delta)$ to be Gaussian, with a width given by an effective, long-range self-diffusion coefficient $D_\infty$, modulated by $\tilde{\rho}'(R, \delta)$:

$$
\mathcal{P}(R, \Delta, \delta) = \tilde{\rho}'(R, \delta) \left[ 4\pi D_\infty (\Delta - \delta/3) \right]^{-3/2} e^{-\frac{R \cdot R}{4D_\infty (\Delta - \delta/3)}} \quad (22)
$$

Note that the factor originating from the COM density is a function of $\delta$, while the Gaussian envelope depends on $t_d = \Delta - \delta/3$. Changing $\delta$ at constant $t_d$ leads to a modulation of $\mathcal{P}(R, \Delta, \delta)$ on a length scale smaller than $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$, while preserving the overall Gaussian shape.

Fourier transform of Eq. 22 yields

$$
E(q, \Delta, \delta) = |S'(q, \delta)|^2 \otimes e^{-4\pi^2 q^2 q D_\infty (\Delta - \delta/3)}, \quad (23)
$$

where $\otimes$ denotes a convolution. Variation of $\mathcal{P}(R, \Delta, \delta)$ on length scales smaller than $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$ for constant overall shape corresponds to a variation of $E(q, \Delta, \delta)$ at values of $q$ larger than $1/\lambda_{\text{hom}}$. As suggested and demonstrated in a previous publication,[37] and further demonstrated with Brownian dynamics simulations below, the smallest value of $q$ for which $E$ is changing when varying $\delta$ at constant $\Delta - \delta/3$ can be used to estimate $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$.

In cases where the displacement probability and PGSE signal depend on $t_d$ rather than $\Delta$, it is more convenient to write them as functions of $t_d$ and $\delta$. Such notation will be used for the remainder of this paper.

3. Brownian dynamics simulations

3.1. Simulation details

A two-dimensional model of the MLV phase is shown in Fig. 3. The unit cell of the periodic structure is a single MLV, which consists of a central core, a middle layer, and an outer layer. A square lattice, with distance $d_x$ between adjacent lattice points, defines the allowed positions of the random walkers. The distance between the centers of neighboring MLVs is $2R_{\text{MLV}} = 5d_x$. For each time step $dt$, a random number determines if the walker takes a step to one of the four nearest neighboring lattice points, or stays at the starting point. A jump between lattice points within the same layer occurs with the probability $P_\parallel$, while a step across layer boundaries has the probability $P_\perp$. The jump probabilities are
related to the diffusion coefficients parallel and perpendicular to the layers, $D_\parallel$ and $D_\perp$, via $D_\parallel/\perp = P_\parallel/\perp \cdot dx^2/d\tau$. A total of $2.5 \cdot 10^5$ walkers were released at the 25 lattice points in the central unit cell, and their trajectories $r(t)$ during $10^4$ time steps were stored for further analysis. The propagator $P(r_0|r, \tau)$, the COM propagator $P'(r_0|r, \tau)$, and the COM displacement probability $P'(R, t_d, \delta)$ were evaluated by first calculating the COM positions $r'$ and displacements $R'$ with Eqs. 8 and 11, and then constructing two-dimensional histograms using the lattice points as centers of the bins. The COM density $\rho'(r, \tau)$ was calculated with Eq. 19 and the PGSE signal $E(q, t_d, \delta)$ was evaluated using Eq. 12 for 256 geometrically spaced $q$-values. Values of $\delta$ and $t_d$ are reported in the figure captions.

The simulations were implemented in MATLAB R2009b on a Mac with double 2.26 GHz Quad-Core Intel Xeon processors, 6 GB RAM, and 64-bit operating system. With the simulations running in the background on a single processor core, the entire set of data presented here required about one hour of CPU time.

3.2. Probability distributions

In Fig. 4 simulated $P(r_0|r, \tau)$, $P'(r_0|r, \tau)$, and COM density $\rho'(r, \tau)$ are displayed. A system where the walkers cannot cross the boundaries between the layers ($P_\perp = 0$ and $P_\parallel = 0.25$) is shown in Fig. 4(a). In the top row, $P(r_0|r, \tau)$ illustrates the gradual spreading of the walkers from the starting position $r_0$ (labeled with a red box) to an even distribution in the outer layer of the central MLV at long $\tau$. 
Figure 4: Simulated propagator $P(r_0|r, \tau)$, COM propagator $P'(r_0|r, \tau)$, and COM density $\rho'(r, \tau)$ for the "2D square onion" geometry (see Fig. 3) as a function of position $r = (x, y)$ and time $\tau$ (given in units of the simulation time step $d\tau$). Blue lines show the MLV layers and the red square indicates the initial position $r_0$ of the random walkers when simulating $P(r_0|r, \tau)$ and $P'(r_0|r, \tau)$. Data is shown for three levels of anisotropy: (a) high anisotropy, $P_\perp = 0$ and $P_\parallel = 0.25$, (b) low anisotropy, $P_\perp = 0.016$ and $P_\parallel = 0.234$, (c) isotropic, $P_\perp = P_\parallel = 0.125$, where $P_\perp/\parallel$ is the probability of taking a step across/along an MLV layer boundary for each time step. The grayscale is linear between zero (black) and the maximum value (white), being rescaled for each sub-figure.
While \( P(\mathbf{r}_0|\mathbf{r}, \tau) \) shows where the walkers are at the instant \( t = \tau \), \( P'(\mathbf{r}_0|\mathbf{r}, \tau) \), in the second row of Fig. 4(a), shows the COMs of the paths taken by the walkers in the time interval \( 0 < t < \tau \). \( P'(\mathbf{r}_0|\mathbf{r}, \tau) \) is a \( \delta \)-function at \( \mathbf{r}_0 \) for small \( \tau \), spreads out and moves toward the center of the MLV with increasing \( \tau \), and finally becomes a \( \delta \)-function in the center of the MLV for long \( \tau \). At such long \( \tau \), each random walker starting at \( \mathbf{r}_0 \) has explored the entire outer layer repeatedly, thus having a COM of the trajectory in the very middle of the MLV. The spin phase \( \phi \) acquired during the first gradient pulse of the PGSE experiment is a label of the COM of the path during the application of the pulse. As illustrated with \( P(\mathbf{r}_0|\mathbf{r}, \tau) \) and \( P'(\mathbf{r}_0|\mathbf{r}, \tau) \) at long \( \tau \), the spins starting in the outer layer of the MLV will acquire a phase label characteristic for the MLV center, although not a single one of them has actually been there.

The bottom row in Fig. 4(a) shows \( \rho' (\mathbf{r}, \tau) \), which equals \( P'(\mathbf{r}_0|\mathbf{r}, \tau) \) averaged over all starting positions according to Eq. 19. The importance of \( \rho' (\mathbf{r}, \tau) \) lies in the straightforward relation between its Fourier transform and the PGSE signal, see Eqs. 21 and 23. With increasing \( \tau \), \( \rho' (\mathbf{r}, \tau) \) changes from being independent of \( \mathbf{r} \) to a set of \( \delta \)-functions at the MLV centers. Since the Fourier transform of a periodic set of \( \delta \)-functions in real space is another set of \( \delta \)-functions in reciprocal space, these results show that the PGSE signal may display Bragg peaks related to the distance between MLV centers. It is worth emphasizing that the periodicity of the COM density \( \rho' (\mathbf{r}, \tau) \) originates from the periodicity of the local diffusion tensor \( \mathbf{D} (\mathbf{r}) \) while the true spin density \( \rho (\mathbf{r}) \) is homogeneous.

Results from a system with finite permeability across the layer boundaries \( (P_\perp = 0.016 \text{ and } P_\parallel = 0.234) \) are shown in Fig. 4(b). Also in this case \( P(\mathbf{r}_0|\mathbf{r}, \tau) \) initially spreads along the outer layer in which \( \mathbf{r}_0 \) is located, but at later times moves into the inner layers and adjacent MLVs. At even longer \( \tau \), \( P(\mathbf{r}_0|\mathbf{r}, \tau) \) assumes an overall Gaussian shape. Since \( P(\mathbf{r}_0|\mathbf{r}, \tau) \) initially follows the MLV layers, \( P'(\mathbf{r}_0|\mathbf{r}, \tau) \) moves towards the MLV center, although the effect is not as pronounced as for the \( P_\perp = 0 \) case. At long \( \tau \), \( P'(\mathbf{r}_0|\mathbf{r}, \tau) \) extends far beyond the limits of the MLV in which \( \mathbf{r}_0 \) is located. Hence, uniform \( \rho' (\mathbf{r}, \tau) \) are obtained in both the short- and long-\( \tau \) limits. Maximally peaked \( \rho' (\mathbf{r}, \tau) \) at the MLV centers are obtained for intermediate values of \( \tau \).

As a reference, results from an isotropic system \( (P_\perp = P_\parallel = 0.125) \) are displayed in Fig. 4(c). Both \( P(\mathbf{r}_0|\mathbf{r}, \tau) \) and \( P'(\mathbf{r}_0|\mathbf{r}, \tau) \) are Gaussian having widths increasing with \( \tau \). Since the medium is homogeneous with respect to both \( \mathbf{D} (\mathbf{r}) \) and \( \rho (\mathbf{r}) \), \( \rho' (\mathbf{r}, \tau) \) remains constant irrespective of the value of \( \tau \).

### 3.3. PGSE signal

Fig. 5 shows simulated \( \rho' (x, \delta) \), \( \overline{P'} (X,t_d, \delta) \), and \( E(q,t_d, \delta) \) for a system with \( P_\perp = 0.016 \text{ and } P_\parallel = 0.234 \). \( \rho' (x, \delta) \) equals the projection of \( \rho' (\mathbf{r}, \tau) \) in Fig. 4(b)
Figure 5: Simulation results for the "2D square onion" geometry in Fig. 3 with \( P_\perp = 0.016 \) and \( P_\parallel = 0.234 \). (a) COM density \( \rho'(x, \delta) \) vs. position \( x \) for the gradient pulse lengths \( \delta = 10 \) (blue) and 100 (red). (b) COM displacement probability \( \mathcal{P}(X, t_d, \delta) \) vs. displacement \( X \) for \( \delta = 10 \) (blue) and 100 (red), and effective diffusion times \( t_d = \Delta - \delta / 3 = 114 \frac{2}{3} \) (dashed) and \( 349 \frac{2}{3} \) (solid). (c) PGSE signal \( E(q, t_d, \delta) \) vs wave vector \( q \) for \( \delta = 10 \) (blue) and 100 (red), and \( t_d = 114 \frac{2}{3} \) (dashed) and \( 349 \frac{2}{3} \) (solid). The vertical line and arrow indicate the homogeneous length scale \( \lambda_{\text{hom}} \) and the MLV center-to-center distance \( 2R_{MLV} \), respectively. The times are reported in units of the simulation time step \( dt \).
onto the $x$-axis. Increasing $\delta$ from 10$d$ (blue) to 100$d$ (red) leads to sharper peaks at the MLV centers, $x/2R_{MLV} = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots$. According to Eq. 22, $\overline{P}(X,t_d,\delta)$ in Fig. 5(b) equals the autocorrelation function of $\rho'(r,\tau)$ weighted with a Gaussian corresponding to the long range diffusion. Increasing $\delta$ from 10$d$ (blue) to 100$d$ (red) at constant $t_d = \Delta - \delta/3$, either $114^2/3$d (dashed) or $349^2/3$d (solid), leads to a small-scale modulation of $\overline{P}(X,t_d,\delta)$ while preserving the Gaussian envelope, the width of which is proportional to $t_d^1/2$.

The modulation of $\overline{P}(X,t_d,\delta)$ is even more visible in its Fourier transform, $E(q,t_d,\delta)$ in Fig. 5(c). The $q$-range can be divided into two regions with respect to the effect of varying $\delta$ at constant $t_d$. At low $q$, $E(q,t_d,\delta)$ is decaying faster for longer $t_d$, but is independent of $\delta$ as expected for a homogeneous medium, see Eq. 15. An apparent diffusion coefficient $D(t_d,\delta)$ can be estimated by fitting Eq. 15 to the low-$q$ part of the data.[37] With increasing $t_d$ and $\delta$, $D(t_d,\delta)$ approaches the long-time value $D_{\infty}$. The variation of $E(q,t_d,\delta)$ at high $q$ corresponds to the small-scale modulation of $\overline{P}(X,t_d,\delta)$. The border between the two regions of $q$, indicated with the vertical line in Fig. 5(c), defines the homogeneous length scale $\lambda_{hom}$, i.e. the smallest length scale at which the material appears homogeneous. A numerical estimate of $\lambda_{hom}$ is obtained by evaluating the ratio between the highest and lowest values of $E(q,t_d,\delta)$ when varying $\delta$ at constant $t_d$ and $q$. The largest value of $q$ for which this ratio is below a certain threshold is taken as the inverse of $\lambda_{hom}$.[37] Here we have chosen to use a threshold value of 1.1. Increasing the threshold value makes the analysis more robust with respect to the influence of experimental noise at the expense of inducing systematic deviations.

The Bragg peak in $E(q,t_d,\delta)$ at $q \cdot 2R_{MLV} = 1$ for $\delta = 100$d and $t_d = 349^2/3$d (red, solid), shown with the arrow in Fig. 5(c), corresponds to the set of local maxima of $\overline{P}(X,t_d,\delta)$ at $X/2R_{MLV} = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots$, originating from the local maxima of $\rho'(x,\delta)$ at $x/2R_{MLV} = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots$. The amplitude of the Bragg peak can be maximized by choosing an optimum value of $\delta$ for which the maxima of $\rho'(r,\delta)$, as shown in Fig. 4(b), are as sharp as possible. For the Bragg peak to be visible, $t_d$ has to be long enough for the envelope of $\overline{P}(X,t_d,\delta)$ to cover a range of at least a few $R_{MLV}$. Thus, for favorable choices of $\delta$ and $t_d$ the MLV radius $R_{MLV}$ can be directly deduced from the position of the Bragg peak.

To summarize, small-scale heterogeneity of the local spin density $\rho(r)$ and/or the local diffusion tensor $D(r)$, both being structural properties of the material, gives rise to small-scale modulation of the COM spin density $\rho'(r,\delta)$ and, consequently, the COM displacement probability $\overline{P}(R,t_d,\delta)$ when varying $\delta$. In the PGSE experiment, the small-scale modulation of $\overline{P}(R,t_d,\delta)$ is detected as a variation of $E(q,t_d,\delta)$ at high $q$. From the maximum value of $q$ for which $E(q,t_d,\delta)$ is independent of $\delta$, the homogeneous length scale $\lambda_{hom}$ can be inferred.
4. Materials and methods

4.1. Materials

Tri-ethylene glycol mono n-decyl ether (C\textsubscript{10}E\textsubscript{3}) with a purity higher than 99.8\% was purchased from Nikko Chemical Co. (Tokyo, Japan). Deuterium oxide (D\textsubscript{2}O) was obtained from Sigma Chemicals (Steinheim, Germany). Samples containing 40 wt\% surfactant were prepared by weighing the desired amounts of surfactant and water into vials, mixing them in a vortex mixer and centrifuging them in order to remove air bubbles. All samples were prepared with D\textsubscript{2}O as a probe for deuterium NMR spectroscopy. The residual protons in D\textsubscript{2}O together with protons originating from the hydroxy group of the surfactant resulted in a signal sufficient for \textsuperscript{1}H diffusion measurements as well. The samples were sheared in a Physica UDS 200 rheometer using the cone-and-plate geometry (MK22/M, 1° cone angle). The instrument is equipped with a temperature control unit that was calibrated to give a temperature in the sample chamber within 0.1°C of the set value. A solvent trap was used to prevent water evaporation. MLVs were generated by applying a constant shear rate until reaching a steady state in viscosity. Then, the shear-induced MLVs were gently transferred to a 5mm NMR tube with the help of a syringe. The mechanical stress imposed during this procedure is not high enough to destroy the MLVs and they maintain their integrity as confirmed by \textsuperscript{2}H NMR. It should be noted, however, that the 'relaxed' MLV structure observed for our samples at rest might differ slightly from the MLV structure under shear, but a difference in the size of the MLVs is not expected. The structure under shear could be investigated using a rheo-NMR probe as in the investigations reported by Lutti and Callaghan.\textsuperscript{[28–32]}

The same sample was used for both \textsuperscript{2}H spectroscopy and \textsuperscript{1}H diffusometry. The two experiments were carried out immediately after each other to avoid sample changes.

4.2. NMR experiments

\textsuperscript{2}H NMR spectra were recorded at a magnetic field of 2.3 T on a Bruker DMX100 spectrometer operating at a \textsuperscript{2}H resonance frequency of 15.35 MHz. Spectra were obtained by Fourier transformation of the signal following a single 90°-pulse of 10.5 \textmu s. The temperature of the sample, which was controlled using an air-flow system, was set to 25°C.

NMR diffusometry measurements were performed at 25°C on a Bruker AVII-200 spectrometer operating at a resonance frequency of 200.13 MHz for \textsuperscript{1}H. Gradient pulses with a maximum strength 9.6 Tm\textsuperscript{-1} were generated by a Bruker DIFF-25 gradient probe controlled by a Great Master Unit. The water \textsuperscript{1}H signal was recorded with a stimulated echo sequence\textsuperscript{[50]} for an array of \textit{q}-, \textit{t}\textsubscript{d}-, and
δ-values as reported in Fig. 6. For each value of δ, the gradient strength was adjusted to yield the same range of q. The accuracy of this procedure was tested as described in ref 51.

5. Results and Discussion

In the following we first present the results from 2H NMR spectroscopy, yielding independent estimates of the MLV size. Subsequently we move on to the PGSE NMR results, first focusing on the long-range diffusion coefficient \( D_\infty \), and then the determination of the homogeneous length scale \( \lambda_{\text{hom}} \). Finally, we compare our results with various estimates of the MLV size found in the literature.

5.1. 2H NMR Spectroscopy

The 2H NMR technique probes the motionally averaged electric quadrupole couplings between the deuterium nuclei (spin \( I = 1 \)) and the electric field gradients at the sites of the observed nuclei.\[^{52}\]

When the \( \text{D}_2\text{O} \) molecules experience a macroscopically anisotropic environment the quadrupolar interaction has a non-zero average, generating a splitting of the signal into two peaks. In the case of uniaxial symmetry, as is the case for the \( \text{L}_\alpha \) phase, the 2H spectrum consists of a doublet with a frequency separation \( \Delta \nu \) given by\[^{53}\]

\[
\Delta \nu = \frac{3}{4} \delta Q \left( 3\cos^2 \theta - 1 \right),
\]

where \( \theta \) is the angle between the director (the symmetry axis of the phase) and the magnetic field, \( \delta Q = e^2 \bar{q} Q / h \) is the motionally averaged quadrupole coupling constant, \( e \) is the elementary charge, \( e \bar{q} \) is the largest principal value of the electric field gradient, \( Q \) is the nuclear quadrupole moment and \( h \) is Planck’s constant. According to Eq. 24, the deuterium NMR line shape depends on the distribution of director orientations. A disordered lamellar phase consisting of many domains of extended flat layers whose orientations are isotropically distributed in space gives rise to the characteristic line shape of a polycrystalline sample also known as powder or Pake pattern.\[^{54}\]

As long as the lamellae are planar the diffusive motion of the probe molecule \( \text{D}_2\text{O} \) has no extra rotational component besides the anisotropic local tumbling and the characteristic quadrupole coupling of the \( \text{L}_\alpha \) phase is entirely given by the motional averaging caused by the local, anisotropic motion. However, when the layers are curved, the preferred diffusion parallel to the layers is connected to a rotation and therefore leads to an additional motional narrowing of the spectrum. This results in a decrease and eventually a collapse of the quadrupolar splitting.
Observing the transformation of the deuterium NMR line shape from a quadrupole doublet to a single peak can be used to monitor the formation of shear-induced MLVs in situ.\textsuperscript{[14,26,55]}

In this work shear was applied before the sample is filled into the NMR tube, and measurement of the $^2$H NMR line shape is used as a means to monitor the morphology of the lamellar phase, on which the diffusion experiments are performed. A broad single deuterium line from the D\textsubscript{2}O is observed for the three shear rates used in this study, confirming that the shear-induced MLVs have remained intact during the transfer to the NMR tubes. The line widths decrease with increasing shear rate, reflecting the shear-rate dependency of the vesicle radius: the vesicles become smaller when the shear rate is increased and smaller vesicles lead to narrower NMR bands.\textsuperscript{[43]} In order to predict the vesicle radius from the spectra, one requires a model for the $^2$H relaxation. Such a model was presented in ref 43. This model assumes that the exchange of water between adjacent shells in an MLV is negligibly slow and that the vesicles are small enough for the NMR spectrum to be in the regime of isotropic motional narrowing. Each shell then yields a Lorentzian line whose width depends on the shell radius. Using this model on the present data the radius obtained for the shear rates 5, 10 and 15 s\textsuperscript{-1} were about 3.9, 2.7 and 1.8 \(\mu\)m, respectively. An alternative model would be to assume that the heavy water molecules sample all the layers. For such a case, the overall bandshape becomes Lorentzian. A fit of a Lorentzian band shape to the data, yields radii of 2.3, 1.7 and 1.3 \(\mu\)m for shear rates of 5, 10 and 15 s\textsuperscript{-1}, respectively. In fact, the calculations show that the situation in the shear induced MLVs studied here lies between these two extreme cases. It is beyond the scope of this paper to develop a more realistic model in which the water molecules sample a few water layers.

In conclusion, the $^2$H NMR line shapes obtained show similar features to those presented previously\textsuperscript{[43]}, showing that the integrity of the onions were preserved when the samples were transferred to the NMR tubes, and that the diffusion experiments indeed were carried out on shear-induced MLVs.

5.2. PGSE NMR

The experimental PGSE NMR results are displayed in Fig. 6. In agreement with the simulation results in Fig. 5(c), the range of $q$ can be separated into two regions with respect to the behavior of the PGSE signal $E(q,t_d,\delta)$ when varying the effective diffusion time $t_d$ and the gradient pulse length $\delta$. For the origin of the different behaviors, see the discussion of the simulation results above.

We first consider the long-time diffusion coefficients of water in the MLV systems $D_\infty$. These can, as noted above, be obtained from the echo intensities at low $q$-values. Using the initial decay ($E$ values of 0.9 to 1, generally the first five
Figure 6: Experimental PGSE signal $E(q,t_d,\delta)$ vs wave vector $q$ for water in MLVs formed at the shear rates (a) 15, (b) 10, and (c) 5 s$^{-1}$, using the timing variables $\delta = 1$ (dashed), 4.5 (solid), 20 (dash-dotted) ms, and $t_d = 40$ (circles) and 118 (squares) ms. The vertical lines indicate the homogeneous length scale $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$ evaluated with a 1.1 threshold for the variation of $E(q,t_d,\delta)$ with $\delta$. The arrow in (b) shows a Bragg peak related to the MLV center-to-center distance $2R_{\text{MLV}}$. 
to ten data points), the obtained value for $D_\infty$ was $1.7 \pm 0.06 \cdot 10^{-10}$ m$^2$s$^{-1}$, for all samples and diffusion times. Since there is no dependence of $D_\infty$ on the diffusion times, the long-time limit has been reached. We note that the long-range diffusion coefficients are independent of the onion radius.

To rationalize these findings we use the cell-model approach put forth by Jönsson et al.\cite{56} Consider the system depicted in Fig. 7. It consists of a sphere embedded in a different medium. The volume fraction of the enclosed central region is $\Phi$. $D_i$ and $C_i$ denote the diffusion coefficient and concentration of molecules, respectively, in region $i$. The effective (or long-time) diffusion in a system as in Fig. 7 is given by:

$$D_\infty = D_2 \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \frac{C_1}{C_2})\Phi} \frac{1 - \beta \Phi}{1 + \frac{\beta \Phi}{2}}$$

where $\beta$ is given by:

$$\beta = \frac{D_2 C_2 - D_1 C_1}{D_2 C_2 + \frac{D_1 C_1}{2}}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (26)

Clearly, the effective diffusion coefficient is given by the solubilities and the diffusion coefficients in the two regions as well as the volume fraction of each region. The model defined by Eqs. 25 and 26 can now be extended to treat also multilamellar vesicles. This is done by assuming that there is a central water core in the onion, and that successive concentric shells of bilayers and water are added step by step. First, the effective diffusion coefficient is calculated for a system...
Figure 8: Theoretical long-range diffusion coefficient $D_\infty$ of water in an MLV system as a function of MLV radius $R_{\text{MLV}}$ calculated with the cell-model approach as described in the text. The parameters used are: $C_1 = 30$ M, $D_1 = 1 \cdot 10^{-9}$ m$^2$s$^{-1}$, and $C_2 = 20$ mM, $D_2 = 2 \cdot 10^{-9}$ m$^2$s$^{-1}$. The inner water core is taken to have a radius of 25 Å, while the bilayer thickness is 25 Å and the thickness of the water shell is 40 Å. Each circle corresponds to the addition of a layer of either water or a bilayer. Depending on the type of the outermost layer the calculated diffusion coefficient is either on the upper (water) or lower curve (bilayer).

with a water core surrounded by a single bilayer (as in Fig. 7) using Eqs. 25 and 26 above. Then an effective concentration of water is calculated for this entire system by dividing the total amount of water in the system by the total volume. In the next step, the entire system with its effective values of $D$ and $C$ is taken as the enclosed region 1, a layer of water is added as region 2, and the calculation is repeated to obtain $D$ and $C$ for this enlarged system. The process is then repeated successively after addition of each shell of bilayer and water, respectively. The result of such a calculation is given in Fig. 8, with the parameter values given in the caption.

With only a few layers the long-time diffusion depends substantially on whether the outer layer is water or a bilayer; the diffusion being much faster if the outer layer is water. This result is expected. For instance, a system with two added layers, i.e. a water core surrounded by a bilayer and finally a water shell, represents a single wall vesicle with a vesicle volume fraction of 0.17 for the parameters defined in the caption to Fig. 8. Here the diffusion coefficient is only slightly reduced from the bulk value used ($D_1$ in Fig. 7). As the number of layers increases the water diffusion depends less on whether the outer layer is water or bilayers and also less on the total size (i.e. the number of shells added) of the onion. This is due to the fact that the effective diffusion coefficient in the interior (i.e. the vol-
ume surrounded by the outermost layer) reaches a steady state, while the volume fraction of the outer layer becomes very small. For the parameter values used to obtain the data in Fig. 8, the diffusion coefficient calculated for a 1.5 µm onion is $1.1 \cdot 10^{-10}$ m²s⁻¹ with water as the outer layer and approximately 10% smaller if the outer shell is a bilayer. Thus the model calculation gives a slightly smaller value than the experimentally obtained value of $D_\infty$. Given the uncertainty in the parameter values, this is perhaps not surprising. The model does however predict that the long-time diffusion of water is independent of the onion size.

Returning to Fig. 6, we now consider the region of high $q$ in which the PGSE signal $E(q, t_d, \delta)$ depends on $\delta$. For the shear rate of 10 s⁻¹, $E(q, t_d, \delta)$ features a shoulder at $q \approx 3.5 \cdot 10^5$ m⁻¹ for $\delta = 20$ ms and $t_d = 118$ ms as indicated by the arrow in Fig. 6(b). As previously discussed for the simulations, Bragg peaks can be expected to occur for locally ordered materials at favorable combinations of $t_d$ and $\delta$. The main reasons for just a small shoulder appearing (instead of a maximum) is, apart from the choice of time parameters, the fact that for a periodic three-dimensional array of onions (cf. Fig. 1 or the real system) more than one characteristic distance occurs in the direction of the measured diffusion when all lattice vectors are projected onto this direction. Based on these considerations we can regard the shoulder as a Bragg peak and derive from it an MLV radius of about 1.5 µm for the shear rate of 10 s⁻¹. There are a few possible reasons for the absence of a Bragg peak at the other shear rates, apart from an inadequate choice of time parameters. For the highest shear rate, 15 s⁻¹, the MLVs are probably too small to observe a maximum within the $q$-range used in these experiments. For the lowest shear rate, 5 s⁻¹, the missing maximum could be caused by a less ideal structure, for example, polydisperse MLVs or an incomplete transformation of planar lamellae into MLVs at this low shear rate.

While the Bragg peak can be expected to occur only in very favorable circumstances, a clear dependence of the size of the MLVs on shear-rate can be inferred from the more easily estimated $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$, as shown with vertical lines in Fig. 6. For the high shear rate $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$ is 7.7 µm, for the intermediate shear rate it is 8.3 µm and for the low shear rate it is 12 µm. With increasing shear rate, $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$ is decreasing in agreement with the $^2$H NMR results and previous observations.[2,23,40]

The shoulder in Fig. 6b is located at $q \approx 3/\lambda_{\text{hom}}$. As previously verified by simulations[37], $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$ is directly proportional to the length of the periodicity of a microheterogeneous medium. Based on the data in Fig. 6, we assume a ratio of 3 between $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$ and the vesicle diameter $2R_{\text{MLV}}$. Hence we can estimate the $R_{\text{MLV}}$ from $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$ even if no Bragg peak can be observed. Such a procedure yields $R_{\text{MLV}} = 1.4, 1.5, \text{and } 2.0$ µm for the shear rates of 15, 10, and 5 s⁻¹.

A comparison between literature data and our estimate of $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$ is made in Fig. 9. As expected, $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$ is consistently larger than $R_{\text{MLV}}$ and follows the same
Figure 9: Experimentally determined MLV radius $R_{\text{MLV}}$ and homogeneous length scale $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$ vs. shear rate $\dot{\gamma}$. Data is taken from this study ($\lambda_{\text{hom}}$ from PGSE NMR $\bigcirc$, $R_{\text{MLV}}$ from $^2\text{H}$ NMR $\bigtriangledown$) and the literature ($R_{\text{MLV}}$ from light scattering $\square^{[23]}$, $\nabla^{[24]}$, or $^2\text{H}$ NMR $\triangle^{[43]}$). Errors in $R_{\text{MLV}}$ are typically between 10 and 25%; the scattering is mainly due to variations in the mechanical history of the samples. Note that only the PGSE results ($\bigcirc$) are presented as $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$ whereas all other data points represent values of $R_{\text{MLV}}$. The solid line indicates a fit of $\lambda_{\text{hom}} = \beta \dot{\gamma}^\alpha$ to the $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$ data, yielding $\alpha = -0.4$ (see Table 1).

trend when varying the shear rate $\dot{\gamma}$. According to theory, $R_{\text{MLV}}$ depends on $\dot{\gamma}$ as $R_{\text{MLV}} \propto \dot{\gamma}^{-0.5}$. As can be seen in Table 1, keeping in mind the limited number of data points, $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$ determined with PGSE NMR follows the expected relation to the same extent as light scattering and $^2\text{H}$ NMR lineshape analysis.

Table 1: Exponent $\alpha$ obtained from fitting $\lambda_{\text{hom}}, R_{\text{MLV}} \propto \dot{\gamma}^\alpha$ to the data shown in Fig. 9.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technique</th>
<th>$\alpha$</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>light scattering$^{[23]}$</td>
<td>-1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>light scattering$^{[24]}$</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$^2\text{H}$ line shape$^{[43]}$</td>
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<tr>
<td>$\lambda_{\text{hom}}$</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
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<td>$^2\text{H}$ line shape</td>
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6. Conclusions

In this paper we have for nonionic surfactant MLV systems produced at different shear rates applied a recent PGSE NMR protocol for determining the homogeneous length scale $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$. Brownian dynamics simulations showed that the PGSE NMR Bragg peak observed for a well-ordered MLV system is related to
the center-to-center distance between adjacent MLVs. Comparison with literature data and theory indicated that $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$ displays the expected scaling behavior with respect to the shear rate of formation. We anticipate $\lambda_{\text{hom}}$ to become a useful, model-independent measure of the structural length scale of microheterogeneous media in general, especially so for systems not displaying PGSE NMR or small-angle light scattering Bragg peaks due to less well developed micrometer-scale order.

7. Acknowledgements

Felix Kleinschmidt is acknowledged for the experimental data which initiated this project. This work is financially supported by the Swedish Foundation for Strategic Research (SSF) and the Swedish Research Council (VR) through the Linnaeus Center of Excellence on Organizing Molecular Matter (OMM). The Colloid Group in Coimbra University is supported by grants from Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia (FCT) (projects ref: POCTI / QUI / 45344 / 2002 and POCTI / QUI / 58689 / 2004). Bruno Medronho thanks FCT (project ref: SFRH / BD / 21467 / 2005).

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