

1 *Conference Proceedings Paper*

2 **Nanomaterials in liquid crystals as ion-generating** 3 **and ion-capturing objects**

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5 Published: date

6 Academic Editor: name

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10 **Abstract:** The majority of tunable liquid crystal devices are driven by electric fields. The
11 performance of such devices can be altered by the presence of small amounts of ions in liquid
12 crystals. Therefore, the understanding of possible sources of ions in liquid crystal materials is very
13 critical to a broad range of existing and future applications employing liquid crystals. Recently,
14 nanomaterials in liquid crystals have emerged as a hot research topic promising for its
15 implementation in the design of wearable and tunable liquid crystal devices. An analysis of
16 published results revealed that nanodopants in liquid crystals can act as either ion-capturing agents
17 or ion-generating objects. In this presentation, a recently developed model of contaminated
18 nanomaterials is analyzed. Nanoparticle-enabled ion capturing and ion generation regimes in liquid
19 crystals are discussed within the framework of the proposed model. This model is in a very good
20 agreement with existing experimental results. Practical implications and future research directions
21 are also discussed.

22 **Keywords:** liquid crystals; ions; nanomaterials; contaminated nanoparticles; ionic contamination;
23 ion generation; ion trapping; adsorption/desorption
24

25 **1. Introduction**

26 A great variety of existing liquid crystal devices relies on reorientation effects when applied
27 electric fields change the orientation of mesogenic molecules [1]. These devices include liquid crystal
28 displays (LCD) [2], tunable optical elements such as filters [3], retarders [3], waveplates [4], and lenses
29 [5], and optical switches [6], to name a few. The performance of the afore-mentioned devices can be
30 altered by mobile ions, typically present in liquid crystals, through the screening effect [2,7,8]. In the
31 case of liquid crystal displays, this screening effect can result in an image sticking, image flickering,
32 reduced voltage holding ration, and overall slow response of the display [2,8]. That is why it is of a
33 paramount importance to understand possible sources of ion generation in liquid crystals [7,8,9].

34 Sources of ions in liquid crystals can be of different origin [7,8,9,10]. Ionic species can be
35 deliberately added to liquid crystals [10,11,12]. Such ionic dopants (for example, tetrabutyl-
36 ammonium tetraphenyl-boride) in liquid crystals were extensively studied back in 1970s [11,12].
37 Small traces of ions (metal ions and inorganic anions) in liquid crystals can originate during chemical
38 synthesis [13,14]. Alignment layers and glue used to seal liquid crystal cells are also important sources
39 of ions in liquid crystals [15,16,17,18]. External factors such as electric fields [19,20,21,22] and ionizing
40 radiation [23,24] can enrich liquid crystals with ions. Electrochemical reactions taking place in the
41 near-electrode areas can also generate ions in liquid crystals [25,26,27].

42 Recently, nanomaterials in liquid crystals became a hot research topic with a rapidly increasing
43 number of publications (more details can be found in numerous review papers [28-38], and collective

44 monographs [39,40]). Accumulated research data reviewed in paper [41] indicate that nanomaterials
45 in liquid crystals can alter the behaviour of ions in liquid crystals. It was reported by different
46 research groups that carbon-based nano-objects [41,42,43,44], metal [41,45,46,47,48], dielectric
47 [41,49,50,51,52], semiconductor [41,53,54], ferroelectric [41,55,56,57,58,59,60], and other
48 nanomaterials [41 and references therein] can change the concentration of ions in liquid crystals. In
49 many reported cases, nano-objects in liquid crystals can behave as ion-capturing objects thus
50 decreasing the concentration of mobile ions in liquid crystals [41]. Interestingly, in many other cases,
51 nanodopants in liquid crystals act as a source of ions increasing the concentration of mobile ions [41].

52 In an attempt to explain different, even seemingly contradictory reported results, a concept of
53 contaminated nanomaterials was introduced [61]. In short, nanoparticles were considered
54 contaminated with ions in liquid crystals prior to dispersing them in liquid crystals [61]. This simple
55 approach applied to a variety of existing experimental results shows a very good agreement between
56 the modelled and experimental data [61,62]. By dispersing contaminated nanodopants in liquid
57 crystals, three different regimes, namely, the ion capturing regime (nanoparticles decrease the
58 concentration of mobile ions in liquid crystals), the ion releasing or ion generation regime
59 (nanomaterials increase the concentration of mobile ions in liquid crystals), and no change regime
60 can be achieved [61]. The model of contaminated nanomaterials was extended to account for several
61 types of dominant ions in liquid crystals [63,64], for possible temperature-induced effects [65,66], for
62 weakly-ionized ionic species [67] and for the presence of substrates [68]. In addition, the kinetics of
63 ion-capturing/ion releasing processes in liquid crystals doped with nanomaterials [69] and ion
64 trapping coefficients of nanodopants [70] were also discussed.

65 All these results indicate that, generally, we have to consider nanomaterials as a very important
66 source of ions or ion traps in liquid crystals [71]. The goal of this conference paper is to summarize
67 the most important features of the model of contaminated nanomaterials in liquid crystals [61-72] in
68 a form of a brief tutorial accessible to a broad scientific audience.

69 2. Results and Discussion

70 2.1. Model

71 Consider nanoparticles in a liquid crystal host. In the most general case, these nanoparticles can
72 be contaminated with ions prior to dispersing them in liquid crystals. To account for this ionic
73 contamination of nanoparticles, a contamination factor ν_{NP} is introduced [61]. It equals a ratio of
74 the number of surface sites of nanoparticle occupied by ionic contaminants to the total number of all
75 surface sites of nanoparticle [61]. Typically, the number of surface sites can be characterized by their
76 surface density σ_S^{NP} . Once contaminated nanoparticles are dispersed in liquid crystals, some
77 fraction of ions can be released from their surface whereas some fraction of ions present in liquid
78 crystals can be captured by nanoparticles. To simplify the discussion, consider the case of fully
79 ionized ionic species characterized by their volume concentration $n = n^+ = n^-$. In this case, the
80 competition between ion-capturing and ion-releasing processes will result in the change of the
81 concentration of mobile ions in liquid crystals doped with nanoparticles. In many practical cases, ion-
82 releasing process can be associated with desorption of ions from nanoparticles and ion-capturing
83 process can be described as adsorption of ions onto surface of nanoparticles. As a result, the following
84 rate equation (1) can be applied [69]:

$$85 \quad \frac{dn}{dt} = -k_a^{NP} n_{NP} A_{NP} \sigma_S^{NP} n (1 - \Theta_{NP}) + k_d^{NP} n_{NP} A_{NP} \sigma_S^{NP} \Theta_{NP} \quad (1)$$

86 In this equation, n is the concentration of mobile ions in liquid crystals doped with
87 nanoparticles; t denotes time; n_{NP} is the volume concentration of nanoparticles in liquid crystals;

88 σ_s^{NP} is the afore-mentioned surface density of all adsorption sites of a single nanoparticle; A_{NP} is its
89 surface area (for simplicity, spherical nanoparticles of a radius R_{NP} are assumed); Θ_{NP} is the
90 fractional surface coverage of nanoparticles; k_a^{NP} is the adsorption rate constant; and k_d^{NP} is the
91 desorption rate constant. In the majority of reported experimental studies, weight concentration of
92 nanoparticles ω_{NP} is used instead of their volume concentration n_{NP} . They are related as
93 $n_{NP} \approx \omega_{NP} \frac{\rho_{LC}}{\rho_{NP}} \frac{1}{V_{NP}}$ where ρ_{LC} (ρ_{NP}) is the density of liquid crystals (nanoparticles) and V_{NP} is
94 the volume of a single nanoparticle.

95 The first term of equation (1) accounts for the ion-capturing process whereas the second term
96 originates from the ion-releasing phenomenon. This equation should be solved considering the
97 conservation law of the total number of ions (equation (2)):

$$98 \quad n_0 + n_{NP} A_{NP} \sigma_s^{NP} \nu_{NP} = n + n_{NP} A_{NP} \sigma_s^{NP} \Theta_{NP} \quad (2)$$

99 In equation (2), n_0 is the initial concentration of mobile ions in liquid crystals (prior to doping
100 them with nanomaterials); and ν_{NP} is the afore-mentioned contamination factor of nanoparticles. It
101 accounts for possible contamination of nanodopants with ions [61].

102 It should be stressed that equation (1) is an approximation which can be applied to liquid crystals
103 doped with nanoparticles with certain restrictions discussed in recent papers [64,67,72]. In a general
104 case, a more rigorous approach based on Boltzmann-Poisson equation should be considered
105 [73,74,75,76].

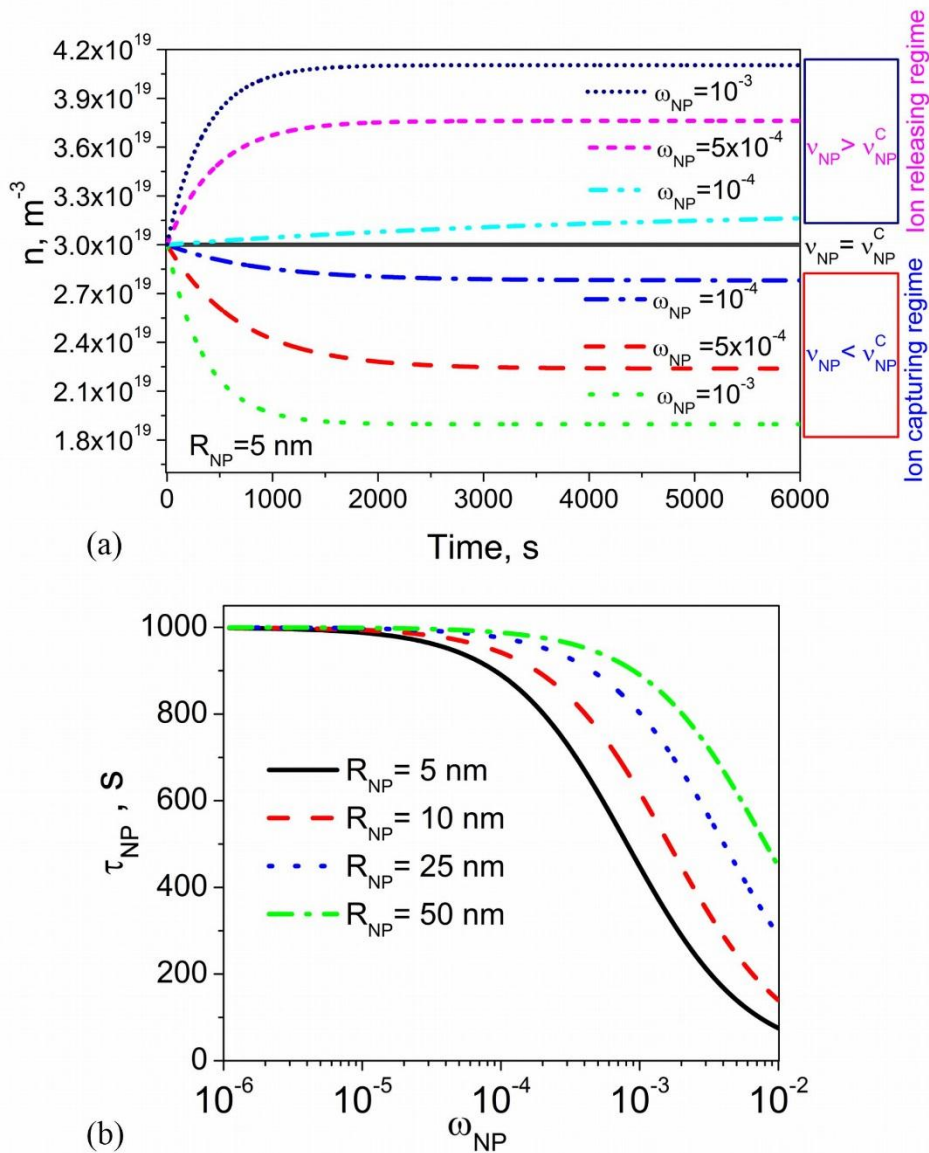
106 Equations (1)-(2) can also be generalized to account for several types of dominant ions in liquid
107 crystals [63,64]. In the simplest case of two dominant types of fully ionized ionic species characterized
108 by their volume concentrations $n_1 = n_1^+ = n_1^-$ and $n_2 = n_2^+ = n_2^-$, the system of equations (3)-(4)
109 can be used ($j = 1, 2$; the meaning of physical quantities entering these equations are similar to that
110 of equations (1)-(2) [61,63,64]):

$$111 \quad \frac{dn_j}{dt} = -k_{aj}^{NP} n_j n_{NP} A_{NP} \sigma_{Sj}^{NP} (1 - \Theta_{NP1} - \Theta_{NP2}) + k_{dj}^{NP} n_{NP} A_{NP} \sigma_{Sj}^{NP} \Theta_{NPj}^{\pm} \quad (3)$$

$$112 \quad n_{0j} + n_{NP} \sigma_{Sj}^{NP} A_{NP} \nu_{NPj} = n_j + n_{NP} \sigma_{Sj}^{NP} A_{NP} \Theta_{NPj} \quad (4)$$

113 2.2. Kinetics of ion-capturing and ion-releasing processes

114 The kinetics of ion-capturing and ion-releasing processes in liquid crystals doped with
115 nanoparticles was analyzed in a recent paper [69]. This analysis was based on equations (1)-(2) and
116 the results are shown in Figure 1 [69].



117

118 **Figure 1.** (a) The volume concentration of mobile ions n versus time calculated using different values of the
 119 weight concentration of nanoparticles ω_{NP} and their contamination factor ν_{NP} ($\nu_{NP} = 10^{-4}$ (dotted,
 120 dashed, and dotted-dashed curves); $\nu_{NP} = 3 \times 10^{-4}$ (solid curve); $\nu_{NP} = 5 \times 10^{-4}$ (dashed-dotted-dotted,
 121 short-dashed, and short-dotted curves)). The radius of nanoparticles R_{NP} is 5 nm. (b) The time constant τ_{NP}
 122 as a function of the weight concentration of nanoparticles ω_{NP} calculated at different values of the nanoparticle
 123 radius R_{NP} ($R_{NP} = 5 \text{ nm}$ (dashed-dotted curve); $R_{NP} = 10 \text{ nm}$ (dashed curve); $R_{NP} = 25 \text{ nm}$ (dotted
 124 curve); $R_{NP} = 50 \text{ nm}$ (solid curve)). Other parameters used in simulations: $K_{NP} = 10^{-23} \text{ m}^3$,
 125 $k_d^{NP} = 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$, $\sigma_S^{NP} = 0.8 \times 10^{18} \text{ m}^{-2}$, $n_0 = 3 \times 10^{19} \text{ m}^{-3}$, $\rho_{NP}/\rho_{LC} = 3.9$. Reproduced from
 126 *Nanomaterials* 2018, 8(2), 59; <https://doi.org/10.3390/nano8020059> [69], under the [Creative Commons Attribution](#)
 127 [License](#).

128 According to Figure 1(a), depending on the level of ionic contamination of nanoparticles, three
 129 different regimes can be achieved: the ion releasing regime, $\frac{dn}{dt} > 0$ (dashed-dotted-dotted,

130 short-dashed, and short-dotted curves); ion capturing regime, $\frac{dn}{dt} < 0$ (dotted, dashed, and
 131 dashed-dotted curves); and no change regime, $\frac{dn}{dt} \equiv 0$ (solid curve). The ionic contamination of
 132 nanoparticles quantified by the contamination factor ν_{NP} governs the switching between these
 133 regimes. The ion releasing regime is observed if $\nu_{NP} > \nu_{NP}^C$, the ion capturing regime holds true if
 134 $\nu_{NP} < \nu_{NP}^C$, and no change regime is reached if $\nu_{NP} = \nu_{NP}^C$, where ν_{NP}^C is the critical contamination
 135 factor of nanoparticles. It is defined as $\nu_{NP}^C = \frac{n_0 K_{NP}}{1 + n_0 K_{NP}}$ where $K_{NP} = \frac{k_a^{NP}}{k_d^{NP}}$ [69]. Figure 1(a)
 136 also indicate that both ion capturing and ion releasing regimes depend on the concentration of
 137 nanoparticles: they are more pronounced if higher concentrations are used.

138 The time constant τ_{NP} characterizing the kinetics of ion-capturing / ion-releasing process
 139 shown in Figure 1(a) can be defined through equation (5):

$$140 \quad n(\tau_{NP}) - n_0 = (1 - 1/e)(n_\infty - n_0) \quad (5)$$

141 where $n_0 = n(t = 0)$ and $n_\infty = n(t \rightarrow \infty)$. In the regime of low surface coverage ($\Theta_{NP} \ll 1$)
 142 this time constant is given by equation (6):

$$143 \quad \tau_{NP} = 1/k_d^{NP} (K_{NP} n_{NP} A_{NP} \sigma_S^{NP} + 1) \quad (6)$$

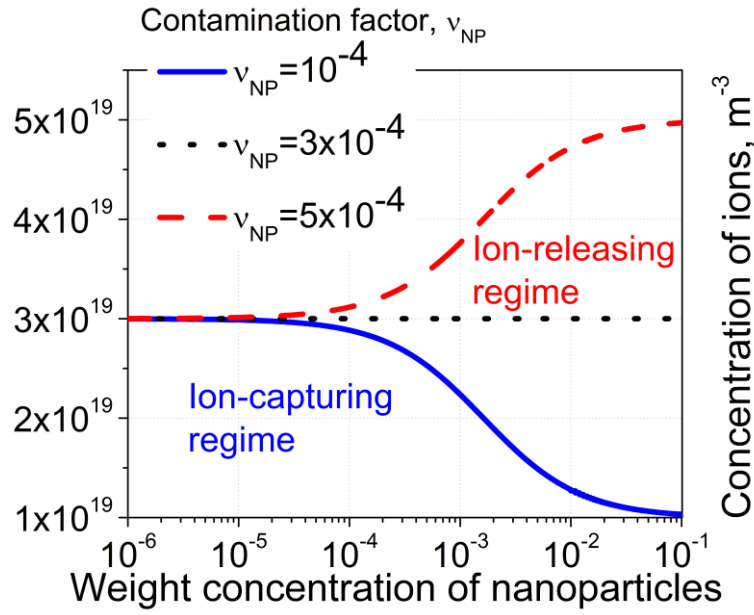
144 In the case of spherical nanoparticles of radius R_{NP} , the dependence of the time constant on the
 145 weight concentration of nanodopants is shown in Figure 1(b). As can be seen, by using smaller
 146 nanoparticles and their higher concentrations one can decrease time needed to achieve the steady-
 147 state. However, it should be noted that this decrease is diffusion-limited. In other words, equation (6)
 148 is correct as long as $\tau_{NP} \gg \tau_D$. The characteristic time τ_D can be estimated by means of equation
 149 (7):

$$150 \quad \tau_D = \frac{l_D^2}{6D} \approx \frac{1}{6D^3 \sqrt{n^2}} \quad (7)$$

151 where l_D is the average distance between mobile ions in liquid crystals, and D is the
 152 diffusion coefficient of ions. By using typical values ($n \approx 10^{20} \text{ m}^{-3}$ and $D = 10^{-12} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ [13]) this time
 153 can be estimated as $\tau_D \approx 8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}$. By comparing it to data shown in Figure 1(b) it can be seen that,
 154 indeed, $\tau_{NP} \gg \tau_D$.

155 2.3. Steady-state regime

156 In the majority of the reported experimental studies, steady-state measurements are performed
 157 ($\frac{dn}{dt} = 0$). In regard to the concentration of mobile ions in liquid crystals doped with nanomaterials,
 158 an analysis of possible regimes achieved in such systems was done in paper [61]. Three regimes,
 159 namely, the ion capturing regime (solid curve), ion releasing regime (dashed curve), and no change
 160 regime (dotted curve) are shown in Figure 2 where the concentration of mobile ions in liquid crystals
 161 is plotted as a function of the weight concentration of nanoparticles.



162

163 **Figure 2.** The volume concentration of mobile ions n in liquid crystals versus the weight concentration of
 164 nanoparticles ω_{NP} calculated at different values of their contamination factor v_{NP} ($v_{NP} = 10^{-4}$ (solid
 165 curve); $v_{NP} = 3 \times 10^{-4}$ (dotted curve); and $v_{NP} = 5 \times 10^{-4}$ (dashed curve)). The radius of nanoparticles
 166 R_{NP} is 10 nm. Other parameters used in simulations: $K_{NP} = 10^{-23} \text{ m}^3$, $\sigma_s^{NP} = 0.8 \times 10^{18} \text{ m}^{-2}$,
 167 $n_0 = 3 \times 10^{19} \text{ m}^{-3}$, $\rho_{NP}/\rho_{LC} = 3.9$. This image is also posted on Nanowerk Spotlight [77].

168 In the case of ion capturing regime, the concentration of mobile ions in liquid crystals decreases
 169 as the weight concentration of nanodopants goes up ($dn/d\omega_{NP} < 0$). This regime is achieved if
 170 $v_{NP} < v_{NP}^C$. The ion releasing regime is characterized by the increase in the concentration of mobile
 171 ions with an increase in the weight concentration of nanoparticles ($dn/d\omega_{NP} > 0$). It is observed if
 172 $v_{NP} > v_{NP}^C$. The concentration of mobile ions in liquid crystals doped with nanoparticles does not
 173 change if $v_{NP} = v_{NP}^C$. Switching between these three different regimes can be achieved by changing
 174 the level of ionic contamination of nanomaterials v_{NP} , the ionic purity of liquid crystals (an initial
 175 concentration of mobile ions n_0), and by varying materials used in experiments (constant
 176 $K_{NP} = k_a^{NP}/k_d^{NP}$) as shown in Table 1 (this table is created using similar table published in paper
 177 [61]).

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Table 1. Ion-capturing, ion-releasing, and no change regimes in liquid crystals doped with contaminated nanoparticles [61].

	Ion-capturing regime	No change regime	Ion-releasing regime
Contamination level of nanomaterials, v_{NP}	$v_{NP} < \frac{K_{NP}n_0}{1 + K_{NP}n_0}$	$v_{NP} = \frac{K_{NP}n_0}{1 + K_{NP}n_0}$	$v_{NP} > \frac{K_{NP}n_0}{1 + K_{NP}n_0}$
Initial concentration of ions in liquid crystals, n_0	$n_0 > \frac{1}{K_{NP} \left(\frac{1}{v_{NP}} - 1 \right)}$	$n_0 = \frac{1}{K_{NP} \left(\frac{1}{v_{NP}} - 1 \right)}$	$n_0 < \frac{1}{K_{NP} \left(\frac{1}{v_{NP}} - 1 \right)}$
Constant, K_{NP}	$K_{NP} > \frac{1}{n_0 \left(\frac{1}{v_{NP}} - 1 \right)}$	$K_{NP} = \frac{1}{n_0 \left(\frac{1}{v_{NP}} - 1 \right)}$	$K_{NP} < \frac{1}{n_0 \left(\frac{1}{v_{NP}} - 1 \right)}$

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188 2.3. Temperature-induced effects

189 Constants describing ion-capturing (k_a^{NP}) and ion-releasing (k_d^{NP}) processes in liquid crystals doped
190 with nanomaterials are temperature-dependent [65,66]. By approximating this temperature
191 dependence through equations (8)-(9), temperature-induced ionic effects in liquid crystals doped
192 with nanoparticles can be analysed [65,66].

$$193 \quad k_a^{NP} = k_a^0 e^{-E_a/kT} \quad (8)$$

$$194 \quad k_d^{NP} = k_d^0 e^{-E_d/kT} \quad (9)$$

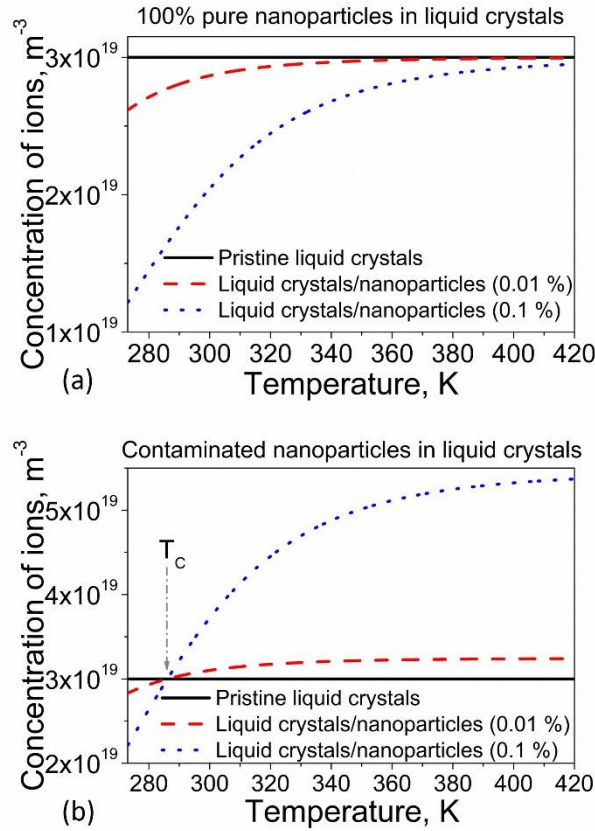
195 where E_a is the adsorption activation energy; E_d is the desorption activation energy; k_a^0 and k_d^0
196 are pre-exponential factors; $k = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$, and T is temperature [65,66].

197 By applying equations (8)-(9), constant K_{NP} can be written as expression (10):

$$198 \quad K_{NP} = \frac{k_a^{NP}}{k_d^{NP}} = K_0^{NP} e^{\Delta E/kT} \quad (10)$$

199 In this equation, $K_0^{NP} = k_a^0/k_d^0$ is the pre-exponential factor, and $\Delta E = E_d - E_a$ [65,66].

200 Temperature dependence $K_{NP}(T)$ (equation (10)) can result in temperature-induced release of
201 ions experimentally observed in liquid crystals doped with nanoparticles [65]. Typical dependence
202 calculated using equations (1), (2), (10) is shown in Figure 3.



203

204 **Figure 3.** The volume concentration of mobile ions n in liquid crystals doped with nanoparticles plotted as a
 205 function of temperature for two cases: (a) 100% pure nanoparticles in liquid crystals; and (b) contaminated
 206 nanoparticles in liquid crystals. Physical parameters used in simulations: $v_{NP} = 0$ (a) and $v_{NP} = 4 \times 10^{-4}$
 207 (b); $K_{NP}(T = 293K) = 10^{-23} \text{ m}^3$; $\Delta E = +0.3 \text{ eV}$; $\sigma_s^{NP} = 0.8 \times 10^{18} \text{ m}^{-2}$; $n_0 = 3 \times 10^{19} \text{ m}^{-3}$;
 208 $\rho_{NP}/\rho_{LC} = 3.9$. The radius of nanoparticles R_{NP} is 10 nm. The weight concentration of nanoparticles is
 209 0.01 % (dashed curve) and 0.1% (dotted curve). This image is also posted on Nanowerk Spotlight [78].

210 Figure 3(a) illustrates the so-called temperature-induced release of ions in liquid crystals doped
 211 with nanoparticles. The concentration of mobile ions in liquid crystals doped with nanomaterials
 212 increases as its temperature goes up. In the case of 100% pure nanodopants, this increase saturates at
 213 higher temperatures approaching an initial concentration of ions in liquid crystals (it means at high
 214 enough temperature nanoparticles lose their ion-capturing properties, see Figure 3(a)). It should be
 215 stressed that if 100% pure nanoparticles are mixed with liquid crystals, the concentration of mobile
 216 ions in such systems is always less or equal the initial concentration: $n(T) \leq n_0$. In other words, the
 217 ion-capturing regimes is observed (and it approaches the “no change” regime ($n(T) \rightarrow n_0$) at
 218 elevated temperatures, Figure 3(a)). On a contrary, the $n(T)$ dependence of liquid crystals doped
 219 with contaminated nanomaterials, exhibits some interesting features (Figure 3(b)). There are two
 220 distinct regions (Figure 3(b)). At temperatures $T < T_C$ the concentration of mobile ions in liquid
 221 crystals doped with nanomaterials is less than the concentration of ions in pristine (without
 222 nanodopants) liquid crystals ($n(T) < n_0$) which corresponds to the ion-capturing regime. Above this
 223 temperature ($T > T_C$), an opposite inequality holds true $n(T) > n_0$ which corresponds to the ion-
 224 releasing regime (Figure 3(b)). No change regime corresponds to temperature T_C . Temperature T_C
 225 can be found using equation (11) [65]:

$$n_0 = \frac{v_{NP}}{K_{NP}(T_C)(1 - v_{NP})} \quad (11)$$

Thus, a temperature-induced switching between ion-capturing and ion-releasing regimes can be achieved in liquid crystals doped with contaminated nanomaterials [65].

Temperature-induced release of ions is observed in systems characterized by positive values of their parameter $\Delta E > 0$. Interestingly, liquid crystals doped with nanoparticles and characterized by negative values of this parameter ($\Delta E < 0$) should exhibit an opposite effect, namely, temperature-induced capturing of ions [66]. This unusual effect was analysed in paper [66].

3. Case studies: a brief survey

The proposed model of contaminated nanoparticles in liquid crystals [61] was successfully applied to existing experimental data [62,71]. Table 2 provides a summary of the observed experimental effects and physical parameters used in calculations to achieve a very good agreement between the model and experiments.

Table 2. Case studies: reported experimental data and physical parameters of the model.

Materials	Reported effects	Physical parameters
Anatase (TiO_2) nanoparticles in nematic liquid crystals (E44)	Ion capturing effect [49]	$K_{NP} = 10^{-23} \text{ m}^3$; $v_{NP} = 1.5 \times 10^{-4}$; $\sigma_S^{NP} = 0.8 \times 10^{18} \text{ m}^{-2}$; $R_{NP} = 5 \text{ nm}$; $\frac{\rho_{NP}}{\rho_{LC}} = 3.9$ [62]
Carbon nanotubes (CNT) in nematic liquid crystals (E7)	Ion capturing effect [42]	$K_{NP} = 0.7 \times 10^{-23} \text{ m}^3$; $v_{NP} = 9.5 \times 10^{-6}$; $\sigma_S^{NP} = 10^{18} \text{ m}^{-2}$; $R_{CNT} = 2.5 \text{ nm}$; $L_{CNT} = 500 \text{ nm}$ $\frac{\rho_{NP}}{\rho_{LC}} = 1.6$ [62]
Diamond nanoparticles in nematic liquid crystals (E7)	Ion capturing effect [43]	$K_{NP} = 10^{-22} \text{ m}^3$; $v_{NP} = 10^{-2}$; $\sigma_S^{NP} = 1.25 \times 10^{17} \text{ m}^{-2}$; $R_{NP} = 5 \text{ nm}$; $\frac{\rho_{NP}}{\rho_{LC}} = 3.3$ [62]
Diamond nanoparticles in nematic liquid crystals (E7)	Ion releasing effect [43]	$K_{NP} = 0.8 \times 10^{-25} \text{ m}^3$; $v_{NP} = 0.25$; $\sigma_S^{NP} = 1.25 \times 10^{17} \text{ m}^{-2}$; $R_{NP} = 5 \text{ nm}$; $\frac{\rho_{NP}}{\rho_{LC}} = 3.3$ [62]
Graphene nano-flakes (GNF) in nematic liquid crystals (8OCB)	Ion capturing effect [79]	$K_{NP} = 0.8 \times 10^{-23} \text{ m}^3$; $v_{NP} = 8.5 \times 10^{-6}$; $\sigma_S^{NP} = 0.33 \times 10^{18} \text{ m}^{-2}$; $R_{GNF} = 5 \text{ nm}$; $L_{GNF} = 10 \text{ nm}$; $\frac{\rho_{NP}}{\rho_{LC}} = 1.8$ [62]

Ferroelectric nanoparticles ($LiNbO_3$) in liquid crystals	Ion capturing effect [55]	$K_{NP} = 7 \times 10^{-23} \text{ m}^3$; $v_{NP} = 0.1075$; $\sigma_S^{NP} = 5 \times 10^{18} \text{ m}^{-2}$; $R_{NP} = 12.5 \text{ nm}$; $\rho_{NP} / \rho_{LC} = 4.65$ [62]
Ferroelectric nanoparticles ($BaTiO_3$) in nematic liquid crystals	Ion capturing effect [57]	$K_{NP} = 4 \times 10^{-20} \text{ m}^3$; $v_{NP} = 0.3$; $\sigma_S^{NP} = 10^{19} \text{ m}^{-2}$; $R_{NP} = 1000 \text{ nm}$; $\rho_{NP} / \rho_{LC} = 6.02$ [62]
Ferroelectric nanoparticles ($BaTiO_3$) in nematic liquid crystals (E44)	Temperature-induced release of ions [58]	$v_{NP} = 0$; $K_0^{NP} = 1.93 \times 10^{-30} \text{ m}^3$; $\Delta E = 0.4 \text{ eV}$; $\sigma_S^{NP} = 5 \times 10^{18} \text{ m}^{-2}$; $R_{NP} = 20 \text{ nm}$; $\rho_{NP} / \rho_{LC} = 6.02$ [65]
TiO_2 nanoparticles in nematic liquid crystals (ZhK1282)	Ion releasing effect [51]	$v_{NP} = 4.35 \times 10^{-4}$; $K_{NP} = 1.6 \times 10^{-23} \text{ m}^3$; $\sigma_S^{NP} = 0.8 \times 10^{18} \text{ m}^{-2}$; $R_{NP} = 25 \text{ nm}$; $\rho_{NP} / \rho_{LC} = 3.9$ [71]
TiO_2 nanoparticles in nematic liquid crystals (ZhK1282)	Ion capturing effect [51]	$v_{NP} = 0$; $K_{NP} = 3.65 \times 10^{-24} \text{ m}^3$; $\sigma_S^{NP} = 2 \times 10^{18} \text{ m}^{-2}$; $R_{NP} = 25 \text{ nm}$; $\rho_{NP} / \rho_{LC} = 3.9$ [71]
$CdSe/ZnS$ core/shell nanoparticles in nematic liquid crystals (ZhK1289)	Ion releasing effect [53]	$v_{NP} = 3.379 \times 10^{-3}$; $K_{NP} = 10^{-26} \text{ m}^3$; $\sigma_S^{NP} = 10^{18} \text{ m}^{-2}$; $R_{NP} = 3 \text{ nm}$; $\rho_{NP} / \rho_{LC} = 5.091$ [71]
Cu_7PS_6 nanoparticles in nematic liquid crystals (6CB)	Ion releasing effect [52]	$v_{NP} = 0.3075$; $K_{NP} = 10^{-23} \text{ m}^3$; $\sigma_S^{NP} = 7 \times 10^{18} \text{ m}^{-2}$; $R_{NP} = 58.5 \text{ nm}$; $\rho_{NP} / \rho_{LC} = 4.907$ [71]

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240 4. Conclusions

241 Existing experimental results (Table 2) unambiguously show that nanomaterials in liquid
 242 crystals can affect the concentration of ions in different ways. The dispersion of nanomaterials in
 243 liquid crystals can result in the ion capturing effect, ion releasing effect, or the combination of them.
 244 Therefore, nanomaterials in liquid crystals should be considered as new sources of ions or as ion
 245 trapping objects. The model of contaminated nanomaterials in liquid crystals reviewed in this
 246 conference paper can predict both ion capturing and ion releasing (or ion generation) regimes
 247 (Figures 1-3). Moreover, it also predicts a new effect, namely temperature-induced ion capturing
 248 effect [66]. This model is in a very good agreement with reported experimental data (Table 2).

249 So far, the origin of ionic contamination of nanomaterials is poorly understood. In many practical
 250 cases, this contamination can originate from particular chemical procedures utilized during chemical
 251 synthesis of nano-objects. Ionic contaminants can also originate from the contact of nanomaterials
 252 with environment and due to external factors such as ionizing radiation, high electric fields, excessive

253 heating and chemical degradation. The afore-mentioned possible causes of ionic contamination of
254 nanomaterials are caused by external factors and, therefore, are extrinsic in nature. This type of ionic
255 contamination is typically characterized by relatively low values of the contamination factor. It can
256 be reduced or even eliminated by improving physical/chemical procedures used to produce, storage,
257 and handle nanomaterials. There is also an intrinsic source of ionic contamination of nanoparticles.
258 For example, self-dissociating nanomaterials can generate ions because of their chemical/physical
259 composition. In this case, the contamination factor of nanoparticles is relatively high and cannot be
260 reduced by improving the purification procedure. Interestingly, both types of ionic contamination
261 (intrinsic and extrinsic) can be successfully analyzed by the model reviewed in this paper. Further
262 studies are needed to understand mechanisms of ionic contamination of nanomaterials and their
263 impact on the properties of liquid crystals.
264
265

266 **Acknowledgments:** The author would like to acknowledge the support provided by the UCCS BioFrontiers
267 Center at the University of Colorado.

268 **Author Contributions:** Y. G. conceived the idea of the paper, performed all simulations, and wrote the paper.

269 **Conflicts of Interest:** The author declares no conflict of interest.

270 **Abbreviations**

271 The following abbreviations are used in this manuscript:

272 MDPI: Multidisciplinary Digital Publishing Institute

273 DOAJ: Directory of open access journals

274 LCD: liquid crystal display

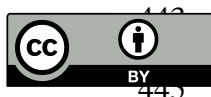
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