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Electromagnetic Interference Shielding Polymers and Nanocomposites - A Review

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Intrinsically conducting polymers (ICP) and conductive fillers incorporated conductive polymer-based composites (CPC) greatly facilitate the research in electromagnetic interference (EMI) shielding because they not only provide excellent EMI shielding but also have advantages of electromagnetic wave absorption rather than reflection. In this review, the latest developments in ICP and CPC based EMI shielding materials are highlighted. In particular, existing methods for adjusting the morphological structure, electric and magnetic properties of EMI shielding materials are discussed along with the future opportunities and challenges in developing ICP and CPC for EMI shielding applications.

1. Introduction

Electromagnetic interference (EMI) has become a severe concern owing to rapid advancement in technology and widespread usage of electronic devices. Electromagnetic interference is an electromagnetic pollution caused by electromagnetic noise originated either from natural source (lighting, solar flares, etc.) or man-made devices (electrical circuit, electronic devices,
etc.) over a frequency range (depends on the source) that affects or degrades the performance of another electronic device/electrical circuit and loss of stored data. The disturbance may be caused by electromagnetic coupling, electromagnetic induction or conduction. Anthropogenic electromagnetic noise also affects biological processes, including human health. These major issues have spurred researchers to develop materials for EMI shielding (or EMI attenuation), having a broad range of applications ranging from the electronic systems to biological systems. In order to avoid serious problems of EMI, some organizations have standardized electromagnetic compatibility (EMC) regulations. Electromagnetic compatibility refers to the ability of an equipment or an EMI shielding material that does not affect itself or any other equipment due to EM radiation. The usage of traditional metal and metallic composites as an EMI shielding materials is restricted by their high density, poor mechanical flexibility, corrosiveness, and tedious and expensive processing costs. Hence, the advanced EMI shielding materials are now mainly focused on carbon matrix, polymeric matrix, and ceramic matrix composites. The necessities for a standard EMI shielding material are high electrical conductivity, excellent thermal stability, and low density. Carbon nanostructures have extended their interests over metals due to their good electrical conductivity, corrosion resistance, and flexibility. Even though carbon nanostructures suffer from high cost, tedious synthesis procedures, and poor EM absorption properties, the dielectric loss of carbon nanostructures is ascribed to electron polarization rather than natural resonance and Debye dipolar relaxation. Also, their high electron mobility causes considerable skin effect on EM wave irradiation. It has been reported that the addition of polymers to the carbon nanostructures can overcome these limitations and improve their EM absorption properties. For example, Yu et al. demonstrated that deposition of polyaniline (PANI) nanoarray onto the graphene improved their EM absorption. Bera et al. demonstrated that the electromagnetic wave absorption of the FRS [Fe$_3$O$_4$ coated reduced graphene oxide (RGO)/single wall carbon nanohorn (SWCNH)] was increased after incorporation into polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) matrix. The dipole polarization and interfacial polarization along with the reduction in surface reflectivity due to skin effect contributed to this enhanced EM absorption.

In that context, the intrinsic conducting polymers (ICP) and the conductive polymer composites (CPC) (insulating polymers filled with conducting fillers) play an important role in the development of commercially viable EMI shielding materials. The radar plots representing the properties of ICP based composites and CPC are given in Figure 1. To be more specific, ICP and CPC based EMI shielding materials with both corrosion resistance and lightweight have desirable electrical conductivity and excellent properties for the absorption or reflection of the electromagnetic radiation over a wide range of frequency. Eventually, polymers composited with nanostructured materials have also enhanced their physical properties and prevent their agglomeration, without affecting EMI shielding performance.

The number of publications associated with EMC shows an increasing trend in the last 5 years (2013–2018) by ~64% (Fig. 2a). This indicates the importance in the development of EMI shielding material. Figure 2b presents the importance of polymer in EMI shielding as it comprises more than the half of EMI shielding publication.

Although there are many reviews on ICP- and CPC- based EMI shielding materials, reviews on the effects of process parameters on the physical as well as EMI
shielding properties of ICP and CPC have not been reported. In this review, the interaction between the polymer and conductive fillers, filler concentration and their arrangement in the polymer matrix, percolation threshold theory, thermodynamics of polymer blends, and EMI mechanism of various advanced polymeric materials are introduced in detail. Besides, current research on ICP and CPC based EMI shielding materials are also discussed.

2. Basic principles of EMI shielding

2.1. EMI shielding effectiveness (EMI SE)

The capability of an EMI shielding material in attenuation or reduction of EM signal is defined by the term electromagnetic shielding effectiveness (SE). It is the ratio between incident field strength and transmitted field strength and expressed as in Equations (1–3):\(^{51}\)

\[
SE_p = 10 \log(P_{in}/P_{out})
\]  

Figure 1. Radar plots representing the performance of (a) ICP based composites and (b) conductive polymer composites (CPC).

Figure 2. Graph representing a number of publications containing the keywords (a) “electromagnetic compatibility”, (b) “electromagnetic interference shielding” and Electromagnetic interference shielding and polymers” in the last 5 years (“Till July 2018) obtained from Scopus.
\[ SE_E = 20 \log(E_{\text{in}}/E_{\text{out}}) \]  
\[ SE_H = 20 \log(H_{\text{in}}/H_{\text{out}}) \]

where \( P, E, \) and \( H \) are the strength of plane wave, electric field, and magnetic field, respectively of the EM wave. The subscripts \( \text{in} \) and \( \text{out} \) represent the magnitude of the field strength that is incident on and transmitted through an EMI shielding material, respectively. EMI SE is expressed in decibels (dB). All electromagnetic waves include an electric (\( E \)) and a magnetic (\( H \)) fields orthogonal to each other. An EM wave propagates at a right angle to the plane containing electric field and magnetic field, and its characteristics depend on their frequency and associated photon energies. The ratio between the electric field strength and the magnetic field strength is called wave impedance. Based on the distance \( r \) of the EMI shielding material from an EM wave source, the region of measurement is separated into the far-field and the near-field region. In the far-field region, where the distance between EM wave source and shielding material \( r \) is greater than \( \lambda/2\pi \), the ratio of the \( E \) to \( H \) (EM wave impedance) is equal to the intrinsic impedance of free space \( (Z_o = 377 \, \Omega) \). So in the far-field region, plane wave exists and \( SE_E = SE_H \). In the near-field region where \( r \) is less than \( \lambda/2\pi \), the EM wave impedance is not equal to the intrinsic impedance of the free space. In this region, an EM wave is either electrical field dominant (large EM wave impedance) or magnetic field dominant (small EM wave impedance) that depends on its source and distance. If the EM wave impedance is higher than the \( Z_o \), then it is electric field dominant and vice-versa. Thus \( SE_E \neq SE_H \). The transition point occurs where the distance is less than \( \lambda/2\pi \). The region of a transition is known as the transition region at which \( r \) is approximately equal to \( \lambda/2\pi \).\(^{52,53}\)

### 2.2. EMI shielding mechanism

For an EMI shielding material, the total EMI SE is contributed from three mechanisms, namely, absorption, reflection, and multiple-internal reflections as illustrated in Figure 3. When an EM wave approaches the shielding material’s surface, whose intrinsic impedance is different from the impedance of EM wave propagating medium, the wave gets reflected away from the surface and also transmitted inside the material. The strength of the reflected and transmitted waves is governed by the impedance of the medium and material. Further, the strength of the transmitted waves will decrease exponentially as it travels inside the material. The distance at which its strength becomes equal to \( 1/e \) (\( e \) is the Euler’s number and \( 1/e = 0.37 \)) is known as skin depth (\( \delta \)). When the transmitted reaches another surface of the material, a portion of it will get re-reflected (multiple-internal reflection) and another portion will get transmitted.

The skin depth of a good conductor (i.e., when \( \sigma \gg 2\pi\omega\varepsilon_o \)) can be expressed as Equation (4);

\[ \delta = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\pi\sigma\mu\omega}} \]  

where \( \omega \) is the frequency, \( \mu \) is the relative magnetic permeability of shielding material, \( \sigma \) is electrical conductivity of shielding material, \( \varepsilon_o \) is the permittivity of free space \((8.854 \times 10^{-12} \, \text{F/m})\). According to Equation (4), the skin depth will vary inversely with respect to electric conductivity, magnetic permeability, and frequency. This implies that
an increase in the electric conductivity, magnetic permeability, and frequency increases the reflection rather than the absorption.\textsuperscript{54}

Thus, the total $SE$ of an EMI shielding material ($SET$) is the total of three $SE$ contributed from reflection ($SER$), absorption ($SEA$), and multiple-internal reflections ($SEM$) as depicted in Equation (5);

\[
SET = SEA + SER + SEM \tag{5}
\]

The losses due to reflection and multiple-internal reflection mechanisms are the function of impedance and hence their values are different for the electric field, magnetic field, and a plane wave. On contrary, absorption phenomenon does not depend on the impedance and hence the absorption loss will have the same value for all these three fields.\textsuperscript{55} $SEM$ is negligible when $SEA$ is greater than 10 dB.

**2.3. Properties governing EMI shielding mechanism**

EMI shielding mechanisms of an EMI shielding material can be understood by measuring their dielectric (relative complex permittivity, $\varepsilon_r = \varepsilon'_r - j\varepsilon''_r$) and magnetic (relative complex permeability, $\mu_r = \mu'_r - j\mu''_r$) properties.\textsuperscript{56} The real parts $\varepsilon'_r$ and $\mu'_r$ indicate the charge storage and magnetic storage of the EM waves, whereas their imaginary parts $\varepsilon''_r$ and $\mu''_r$...
and $\mu'$ indicate dielectric loss and magnetic loss during the interaction with EM waves, respectively. The amount of losses can be calculated from the tangent of dielectric loss ($\tan\delta_e = \frac{\varepsilon''}{\varepsilon'}$) and magnetic loss ($\tan\delta_\mu = \frac{\mu''}{\mu'}$).57

2.3.1. Dielectric property

The dielectric loss is mostly governed by ionic, orientational, electronic, and interfacial polarization. The ionic and orientational polarization attributed to the bound charges in the material. Interfacial polarization arises from space charges that mount up owing to the dissimilarity in the electrical conductivity/dielectric constant at the interface of two different materials, according to Maxwell-Wagner-Sillars (MWS) theory.58

The $\varepsilon'$ and $\varepsilon''$ can be related by the following Cole-Cole Equation (6);59

$$\left( \frac{\varepsilon' - \varepsilon_s + \varepsilon_\infty}{2} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{\varepsilon''}{\varepsilon_s - \varepsilon_\infty} \right)^2 = \left( \frac{\varepsilon_s - \varepsilon_\infty}{2} \right)^2$$

(6)

where $\varepsilon_s$ is the static dielectric constant and $\varepsilon_\infty$ is the relative dielectric constant.

When the Cole-Cole plot is a semicircle, then the semicircle is related to a Debye relaxation process. For composite materials, more than one semicircle or distorted semicircle may be observed. These are attributed to more than one Debye relaxation and other mechanisms such as interfacial polarizations. For highly conducting materials, semicircle may not be observed, as the loss results mainly from conduction loss, which can be expressed as Equation (7);

$$\varepsilon'' = \frac{\sigma}{2\pi\omega\varepsilon_0}$$

(7)

The $\varepsilon'$ and $\varepsilon''$ values will decrease with an increase in the frequency as shown in Figure 4 and obey the relation given by Equation (8),60

$$\varepsilon'' = \sigma_{AC} - \sigma_{DC}(\varepsilon' \times \omega)$$

(8)

where $\sigma_{AC}$ is AC electrical conductivity, $\sigma_{DC}$ is DC electrical conductivity, and $\omega$ is frequency. This is because of both the decrease in the space charge polarization and the lack of dipole orientation with varying the field at higher frequencies.61
2.3.2. Magnetic property

The magnetic loss arises from domain wall loss, hysteresis loss, eddy current loss, and residual loss. The hysteresis loss results from the hysteresis (i.e., time lag of magnetization vector M, behind the magnetic field vector H), where magnetic energy is dissipated as heat. The eddy current loss is expressed as Equation (9); where $\mu_0$ is vacuum permeability and $D$ is the diameter of the magnetic nanoparticle. The eddy current loss remains constant with changing the frequency. For highly conducting materials, the eddy current loss is negligible and expressed as in Equation (10);

$$\frac{\mu''}{\mu'} \propto \frac{\mu''D^2\omega}{\rho}$$

where $\rho$ is the electrical resistivity. The other losses include natural resonance and exchange resonance. The natural resonance usually occurs at a lower frequency and nano-sized particles will enhance the exchange resonance. Ferromagnetic resonance theory states that the effective magnetic field (anisotropic energy) governs the natural resonance as expressed in Equations (11 and 12);

$$\omega_r = \frac{\gamma}{2\pi} H_e$$
$$H_e = \frac{4\kappa_1}{3\mu_0M_s}$$

where $\frac{\gamma}{2\pi}$ is the gyromagnetic ratio (equals to 28 GHz T$^{-1}$), $H_e$ is the effective magnetic field, $\kappa_1$ is magnetic crystalline anisotropy coefficient for a magnetic material, and $\mu_0M_s$ is the saturation magnetization. A higher the effective magnetic field (Anisotropic energy) favors a higher the EM wave absorption in the higher frequency range. A lower value of $\mu'_i$ (magnetic storage) than the value of $\mu''_i$ (magnetic loss) is desirable for the absorption of EM wave.

The reflection loss of a material depends on the mobile charge carriers. Reflection does not need interconnected conducting filler network, but it possibly will improve with the presence of the interconnected network. On the other hand, electric and magnetic dipoles dominate the absorption loss. In absence of magnetic property, the EMI shielding depends solely on dielectric property and vice versa. Multiple-internal reflections originate from the reflections at the interfaces and in-homogeneities of the shielded material.

2.4. EM absorption

Since the reflection loss causes secondary EM pollution, EMI shielding materials exhibiting strong absorption have attracted the research interests. For the EMI shielding materials, $SE_A$, $SE_R$, and $SE_M$ as a function of their electromagnetic properties can be expressed as Equations (13–15).
\[ SE_A = 20d\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_{AC}}{\mu_{\varepsilon}}} \]  
\[ SE_R = 10\log \left[ \frac{\sigma_{AC}}{16\varepsilon_0\mu_{\varepsilon}\omega} \right] \]  
\[ SE_M = 20\log 1 - e^{-2\delta} \cdot e^{-\beta\delta} \]  

where \( d \) is the distance traveled by the EM waves inside the EMI shielding material.

The above Equations (13–15) imply that the reflection of an EMI shielding material is a function of \( \sigma_{AC} \) and will decrease with an increase in frequency, whereas the absorption loss is a function \( \sigma_{AC}\mu_\varepsilon \) and will increase with an increase in frequency. Multiple-internal reflection can be neglected for the EMI shielding materials whose thickness is larger than its skin depth (\( \delta \)).\(^7\) For a shielding material with a thickness less than the value of \( \delta \), the multiple-internal reflection decreases the EMI \( SE \). Their EMI \( SE \) will increase with an increase in thickness.\(^7\)

As per the transmission line theory, for an EMI shielding material having a perfect conductor at its back, reflection loss (RL) at its surface as a function of impedance is defined as Equation (16),

\[ RL\, (dB) = 20\log \left[ \frac{Z_{in}-Z_o}{Z_{in}+Z_o} \right] \]  

where \( Z_{in} \) is the input impedance of the EMI shielding material at the surface and \( Z_o \) is the intrinsic impedance of free space (377 \( \Omega \)). The \( Z_{in} \) is given by Equation (17);

\[ Z_{in} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_\varepsilon}{\varepsilon_0}}\tanh \left[ j(2\pi\omega d/c)\sqrt{\frac{\mu_\varepsilon}{\mu_\varepsilon}} \right] \]  

where \( c \) is the velocity of light.

EM absorption ability of an EMI shielding material can be confirmed by calculating the attenuation constant (\( \alpha \)) using Equation (18);

\[ \alpha = \frac{\sqrt{2\pi\varepsilon_0 c}}{c} \times \sqrt{\left( \varepsilon'' \mu' - \varepsilon' \mu' \right) + \sqrt{\left( \varepsilon'' \mu' - \varepsilon' \mu' \right)^2 + \left( \varepsilon'' \mu' + \varepsilon' \mu' \right)^2}} \]  

These above equations imply that to achieve good EMI absorbing materials, the following two criteria needed be satisfied: (1) excellent impedance matching and (2) good balance between the dielectric loss (\( \tan \delta_\varepsilon = \varepsilon'' / \varepsilon' \)) and magnetic loss (\( \tan \delta_\mu = \mu'' / \mu' \)). Figure 5 represents the attenuation constant in the X-band range for PVdF/TPU blends (50/50) containing different loadings of Fe-Ni alloy\(^@\) MWCNT. It can be observed that the EM attenuation for polymer blends containing pristine MWCNT and pristine Fe-Ni alloy is lower than other composites containing both Fe-Ni alloy\(^@\) MWCNT due to their poor permeability and poor permittivity, respectively. The PVdF/TPU polymer blend containing Fe-Ni alloy\(^@\) MWCNT in the 3:1 ratio exhibited a higher \( \alpha \) attributed to the impedance matching and a balance between the dielectric and magnetic properties. These results portrayed that the importance of energy conservation and impedance matching instead of materials’ superior property.\(^7\)

For highly conducting materials, its electrical conductivity (\( \sigma \)) is the only key parameter for \( SE \) because of their high \( \tan \delta_\varepsilon \) (greater than 1). On the other hand, for the materials whose conductivity is weak (\( \tan \delta_\varepsilon \ll 1 \)), both electrical conductivity and permittivity are important parameters for ICP and CPC.\(^7\) Therefore, optimizing the
thickness and electromagnetic properties of EMI shielding materials is important to achieve effective EMI shielding and to govern the corresponding mechanism. Figure 6 depicts the influence of shielding material’s thickness on its $SE_T$ of thermoplastic polyurethane (TPU) based CPC. It is apparent that the $SE_T$ increases with an increase in the thickness of the shielding material. The higher EMI $SE$ for the montmorillonite/DBSA doped PPy (Mt-PPy.DBSA) is attributed to a better dispersion of Mt-PPy. DBSA that provides enhanced dipole and interface polarization and improved electrical conductivity.

Figure 5. Attenuation constant of the PVdF/TPU (50/50) blends containing a different ratio of Fe-Ni@MWCNT in the X-band range. Reproduced with permission from ref.73 Copyright © Wiley-VCH Verlag GmbH & Co. KGaA, Weinheim.

Figure 6. EMI SE of TPU based CPC incorporated with HCl doped PPy (PPy.Cl); Montmorillonite/HCl doped PPy (Mt-PPy.Cl), DBSA doped PPy (PPy.DBSA) and Montmorillonite/DBSA doped PPy (Mt-PPy.DBSA) with respect to the shielding material thickness. *DBSA: Dodecyl benzene sulfonic acid. Reproduced with permission from ref.76 Copyright © 2018 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.
2.5. Experimental determination of shielding effectiveness

Experimentally, EMI $SE_T$ of an EMI shielding material is obtained from complex scattering parameters (S-parameters), $S_{11}$ (or $S_{22}$), and $S_{12}$ (or $S_{21}$), of a network analyzer. (1) Shield box method (dual chamber method), (2) Shield room method, and (3) Coaxial transmission line test are three methods that have been employed for investigating the EMI shielding performance of a material. The shield box method (dual chamber) is used to compare the EMI shielding performance of different test samples made up of different materials. This method comprises of a receiving antenna inside a metal box having a sample port in one wall and a transmitting antenna outside the box. The shield box method is preferred for near-field measurements. However, it is limited by its small frequency ranges for measurement (up to 500 MHz) and poor correlations between the results. The shield room method is similar in principle to the shield box method that is designed in such a way to overcome the limitations of a shield box method. In this method, the components such as receiving antenna, transmitting antenna, and EM source generator are isolated to eliminate the possibilities of interference and thereby improve the reliability of data. The coaxial transmission line setup comprises of two sample holders (or coaxial adapters) and a network analyzer with the signals transmitted through a coaxial cable that is coupled with the attenuators. It is based on transmission line theory and preferred for far-field measurements. In addition to the above-mentioned methods, Open shield (or) Free space method is used to measure the EMI $SE$ for a designed shielding of an electronic system. This method is widely used to evaluate the EMI $SE$ for an assembled electronic system rather than a specific material. Figure 7 illustrates the S-parameters from a two-port vector network analyzer (VNA) representing the incident and transmitted EM waves.

From the S-parameters, the absorption factor ($A$), transmission factor ($T$), and reflection factor ($R$) of EM wave through an EMI shielding material can be expressed as Equations (19–21):\textsuperscript{77}

\begin{align*}
R &= S_{11}^2 \\
T &= S_{21}^2 \\
A &= 1 - R - T
\end{align*}

Equations (19–21)

Figure 7. Complex scattering parameters of an EMI shielding material from a two-port VNA.
The corresponding $SE_A$, $SE_R$, and $SE_T$ can be calculated from Equations (22–24):

$$SE_R = -\log_{10}(1-R)$$  \hspace{1cm} (22)

$$SE_A = -\log_{10}\left(\frac{T}{1-R}\right)$$  \hspace{1cm} (23)

$$SE_T = SE_A + SE_R \quad (SEM \text{ is negligible}).$$  \hspace{1cm} (24)

A better understanding of the absorption by an EMI shielding material can be obtained by calculating its effective absorption ($A_{eff}$) percentage using Equation (25):

$$A_{eff} = \frac{(1-R-T)}{(1-R)} \times 100 \%$$  \hspace{1cm} (25)

while, $A_{eff}$ determines the power that is absorbed by the EMI shielding material.

3. Intrinsically conducting polymers (ICPs)

Delocalization of $\pi$-electrons in a conjugated structure of ICP such as polyacetylene (Pan), polyaniline (PANI), polypyrrole (PPy), etc. has drawn their attention for EMI applications, as it provides a unique electronic property which can be tuned by doping/dedoping during their synthesis. However, extensive delocalization of $\pi$-electrons hinders their processability.\(^{79}\) Also, they suffer from swelling, contraction, cracking, or softening that in turn affect their mechanical and electrical properties. These properties can be improved by introducing a second phase materials such as metal nanoparticles, magnetic materials, carbon nanostructures, metal oxides, etc.\(^{80}\) The second phase materials improve the dielectric and magnetic property and thermal stability of the ICP without deteriorating their electrical conductivity, thereby enhancing the EMI SE or EM wave absorption. The $\varepsilon_e$ of the ICP composites is greater than that of pristine ICP. This increment is the result of enhanced interfacial polarization of large interfacial area and incongruity in the dielectric property between the ICP and second phase materials.

3.1. Parameter influencing the properties of ICP for EMI shielding

The EMI shielding ability of the ICP (both reflection and absorption) arises from the mobile charges (polarons and bipolarons) and bound charges (dipoles) at their backbone.\(^{81}\) The ability to control their electrical conductivity by governing their oxidation state, doping, chemical structure, and morphology makes them an efficient candidate for EMI shielding.\(^{82}\)

The electrical conductivity for the ICP composites depends on the reaction conditions during polymerization. For example, Wan et al. demonstrated that the electrical conductivity of bacterial cellulose/graphene/PANI (BC/GN/PANI) nanocomposites decreases from 0.82 to 0.74 S.cm\(^{-1}\) on increasing the reaction temperature from 0 to 25°C, whereas, increases from $8.5 \times 10^{-5}$ to $\sim1$ S.cm\(^{-1}\) on increasing the reaction time from 2 to 10 hr.\(^{83}\) The tendency of conducting polymers to agglomerate at a higher reaction temperature decreases their electrical conductivity. On contrary, an increased electrical conductivity at a longer reaction time is attributed to the increase in the amount of conducting polymers.\(^{84}\) Doping of surfactants onto conducting polymers
improves the electron mobility by increasing the polarons and bipolarons concentration. For example, Bhardwaj et al. reported that sodium lauryl sulfate (SLS) doping restricts the bias dependency for interchain hopping of charge carriers and thereby enhances the electrical conductivity and EMI SE.81 The morphology, chemical composition, and electrical conductivity can be modified by doping acids, that in turn affect the EMI SE.85,86 Qiu et al. demonstrated that the phosphoric acid (H₃PO₄) yielded nanofiber-like structure whereas hydrochloric acid (HCl), and L(-)-camphor sulfonic acid (CSA), yielded holothurian-like structures for PANI.87 The CSA doped PANI exhibited highest electrical conductivity that results from the increased delocalization of electrons by their hydroxyl group and morphological effect. He et al.88 demonstrated that the σ of wood/PANI composites increased with increasing the concentration of phosphoric acid (PA). Here, the wood refers to the Wood veneers obtained from the tree, Entandrophragma cylindricum. However, the addition of PA beyond the optimum concentration of 0.6 M, decreased their electrical conductivity. The wood/PANI composites with 0.6 M PA exhibited the σ of 9.53 × 10⁻³ S cm⁻¹ and EMI SE of ~45–60 dB between 10 and 1.5 GHz.88 Tantawy et al. demonstrated that HCl doped PANI prepared by the solid-state reaction exhibited higher range of σ and EMI SE than that are prepared by conventional solution method.89 Gahlout et al. demonstrated the effect of oxidant (FeCl₃) and concentration of dopant on the σ and EMI SE of PPy. Various dopants such as sodium lauryl sulfate (SLS), sodium dodecylbenzene sulfonate (SDBS), and naphthalene disulphonic acid (NDSA) were used. PPy prepared at pyrrole: oxidant: dopant ratio of 1:2:1 with SLS as dopant exhibited the highest σ of 42 S.cm⁻¹. The EMI SE exhibited by the same is ~126 dB in the X-band range.90 Kaur et al. found that the increase in the surfactant concentration (SLS) from 5 to 30 mM, decreased the particle size from 53 to 28 nm, increased the electrical conductivity from 3 to 22 S.cm⁻¹ and increased the EMI SE from 23 to 49 dB for PPy nanoparticles.91 The observation from these studies revealed that the chemical formulation also can influence the properties of conducting polymers. Ebrahimi et al. compared σ and EMI SE of Ag incorporated PPy-MWNCTs composites prepared by UV-reduction and chemical reduction method. The composites prepared by UV-reduction methods exhibited higher σ and EMI SE due to higher content (57%) and homogenous distribution of silver nanoparticles at the PPy-MWCNT interfaces in comparison to that prepared by chemically reduced composites (40%).92

### 3.2. ICP based composites in EMI shielding

Metal nanoparticles such as copper, nickel, etc. were used as a second phase material with the ICP.93 20 wt% of silver nanowires has been incorporated into PPy to achieve a flexible EMI shielding film. The conductivity of PPy/AgNWs film increased from 0.02 S/cm for pure PPy to 62.73 S/cm, and thus its SE_T increased to 22.38 dB.94 The higher SE_T is attributed to the electron scattering at the interfaces and surface plasmon resonances of the metal nanoparticles. However, metal nanoparticles suffer from heavy-weight and corrosion.

Metal oxides are used as the second phase material in the ICP matrix for enhancing their dielectric properties. A modified phase generated by the metal oxides at the interface restricts the movement of charge carriers in the ICP backbone. This accumulation
of charges will enhance the capacitance of ICP/metal oxide composites thereby increases the dielectric constant. Further, metal oxide fillers can overcome the drawbacks of metal fillers such as heavyweight and poor corrosion resistance, as they possess excellent corrosion resistance and thermal stability. For example, Faisal et al. reported PANI/Sb2O3 composites with the EMI SE ranging from −18 to −21 dB in the X-band and ranging from −17.5 to −20.5 dB in the Ku band.\textsuperscript{95} Figure 8 shows the EMI SE of various wt% of SnO dispersed PANI. It is observed that the EMI SE increased with the increase of SnO up to a critical concentration and then decreased at a higher concentration of SnO in both X-band and Ku-band.\textsuperscript{96} This may be due to the deterioration in the continuity of polymer chains at a higher loading of SnO.

PANI incorporated with 20 wt% Y2O3 exhibited an EMI SE of 19–20 dB in the frequency between 12.4 and 18 GHz. The anisotropy generated by the incorporating Y2O3 contributed to various polarization loss with a subsequent increase in the EM absorption.\textsuperscript{97} Saini et al. demonstrated that the introduction of tetragonal BaTiO3 improved the EM absorption of the DBSA-doped PANI nanocomposites. The suppression of reflection resulted from the decrement in the concentration of polarons with the addition of BaTiO3 as it decreased the static conductivity.\textsuperscript{98}

Carbon nanostructures are used as efficient second phase material with ICP due to their lightweight, well-regulated aspect ratio, and flexibility.\textsuperscript{81} Saini et al. reported the enhancement in the $\sigma$ of PANI by coating it onto the multi-walled carbon nanotube (MWCNT) by the in-situ polymerization technique. The nanotubes acted as an interconnecting bridge for the PANI grains coated on the MWCNT. This increased the coherence and coupling between the chains and enhanced the interchain transport. The $\pi-\pi^*$ interaction between the MWCNT and PANI quinoid rings increased the delocalized electrons in the composites and thereby improved the $\sigma$.\textsuperscript{99} The $\sigma$ achieved with 25% MWCNT-polyaniline nanocomposites (19.7 S.cm$^{-1}$) is higher than that of pristine MWCNT (19.1 S.cm$^{-1}$) and PANI (2.0 S.cm$^{-1}$). The highly entangled tubes with poor packing are the reason for the lower conductivity of bulk MWCNT. The uniform coating of PANI improved the intertubular charge transport by reducing the void/disorder

\begin{figure}[h!]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure8.png}
\caption{EMI SE of the different PANI/SnO composites in (a) X-band and (b) Ku-band. Reproduced with permission from ref.\textsuperscript{96} Copyrights © Springer Science + Business Media New York 2013.}
\end{figure}
in the composites. The absorption dominated $SE_T$ of $-27.5$ to $-39.2$ dB was achieved in the frequency range of 12.4–18.0 GHz.\textsuperscript{100}

The $\sigma$ of ICP/magnetic material composites is lower than that of pristine ICP. This is due to the dissociation in the conducting chains of the ICP upon the addition of magnetic material. Similarly, the saturation magnetization ($M_s$) and coercivity field ($H_c$) of the ICP/magnetic material composites are lower than that of the pristine magnetic material due to the separation of magnetic particles by the intermittent non-magnetic ICP. Despite these, the ICP/magnetic material composites exhibited higher thermal stability and EMI $SE$ than that of pure ICP. The increased thermal stability of the ICP/magnetic material composites is attributed to the inhibition of polymer chain motion at a higher temperature by magnetic particles. The increased EMI $SE$ of ICP/magnetic material composites is the result of the synergic effect of dielectric loss (contributed by ICP) and magnetic loss (contributed by magnetic material).\textsuperscript{101,102} Hence, the optimization of the $\sigma$ and $\mu$ of ICP/magnetic material composite is significant to achieve efficient EMI attenuation. The optimization can be achieved by choosing the appropriate concentration of the materials. Belaabed et al. demonstrated that the reflection loss ($RL$) of PANI/Fe$_3$O$_4$ in the epoxy matrix (1 mm thick) varied with changing the wt% of either PANI or/and Fe$_3$O$_4$. The composites with 15 wt% PANI and 10 wt% Fe$_3$O$_4$ exhibited a $RL$ of $-42$ dB at 16.3 GHz, whereas it is $-37.4$ dB at 14.85 GHz for 15% of PANI and 25% of Fe$_3$O$_4$. The composites containing only 20% of PANI showed a $RL$ of $-11$ dB at 18 GHz.\textsuperscript{103} Choudhary et al.\textsuperscript{104} investigated the EMI behavior of coral–shaped yttrium–iron–garnet (YIG) particles/PANI-wax and found that the values of $\varepsilon_r'$ and $\varepsilon_r''$ increased with an increase in the weight percentage of YIG, but become zero at higher concentrations (50 wt.%) as shown in Figure 9. The incorporated magnetic material enhanced the orientation polarization and accumulation of space charge due to the variation in the relative dielectric constant between them and ICP. This in turn led to the increased dielectric values.\textsuperscript{105} The PANI/YIG composites exhibited higher values at 15 wt% and 20 wt%. The composites with 15 and 20 wt.% of YIG also exhibited resonance peaks at 9 and 14.8 GHz. Garnets are soft ferrimagnetic materials and exhibits a high saturation magnetization (contribute to anisotropic magnetic loss) and narrow

![Figure 9](image-url)
ferromagnetic resonance and hence contributes to the magnetic loss. At a critical concentration of 20 wt%, maximum SET of -44.8 dB was achieved for PANI/YIG composites. Further, the Cole–Cole plot of 20 wt% YIG loaded PANI (Fig. 10) displayed many semicircles resulting from the inhomogeneity-induced large interfacial polarization.

Zhang et al. found that the coating of PANI on to Fe₃O₄ provided an appropriate dielectric loss while preserving the magnetic loss of the Fe₃O₄/polyaniline core/shell microspheres. Also, the RL varies with changing the PANI shell thickness, which increased from -17.2 dB (15.6 GHz) at 60 nm to -37.4 dB (15.4 GHz) at 100 nm and decreased at 120 nm to -24.7 dB (14.8 GHz). The maximum RL shifted towards a lower frequency with an increase in the shell thickness.¹⁰⁶

Wu et al. studied the influence of carbon black (CB) content on the EMI shielding properties of PANI and demonstrated that PANI/CB (20 and 30 wt%) composites exhibited absorption dominant performances over the radar band (2–40 GHz).¹⁰⁷ Gopakumar et al. adopted the in-situ polymerization technique to prepare flexible cellulose nanofiber/PANI composites.¹⁰⁸ The cellulose nanofiber solution provided adequate hydrogen bonding for the formation of flexible film. The 1.0 mm thick cellulose nanofiber/PANI composites (1:1) exhibited $\sigma$ and EMI SE of 0.831 S.cm⁻¹ and -23 dB, respectively. The EMI absorption properties of various ICP composites are tabulated in Table 1.

4. Conductive polymer composite (CPC)

Nonconducting polymers containing conductive fillers, known as extrinsic conducting polymer composite/conductive polymer composite (CPC), are excellent materials for EMI shielding because of their lightweight, corrosion resistance, appropriate electrical, and dielectric characteristics to avert electrostatic discharge, disturbance, and interference between the electronic systems. It has also been reported that the uniquely structured CPCs, such as segregated structures,¹³⁴ double percolation structures,¹³⁵ layer-by-layer assembly,¹³⁶ multilayer structures,¹³⁷ and foam structures,¹³⁸ help to enhance the EM absorption. Among various conducting fillers, such as ICP, metal nanoparticles, and carbon nanostructures, nanocarbons are widely used as effective fillers due to their large surface area, high aspect ratio, high $\sigma$, and easy processability.⁷⁵,¹³⁹

In this section, we discuss the parameters influencing the properties CPC,
thermodynamics, and morphological evolution in biphasic polymer blends and EMI performance and corresponding mechanism of various CPC.

### 4.1. Parameter influencing the properties of CPC for EMI shielding

A substantial enhancement in the permittivity of insulator matrices can be attained by adding electrically conducting materials as fillers. The conducting fillers distributed in insulating mediums act as “micro-capacitors”, thereby improve their ability to store the electric energy. When the conducting fillers are added to insulator matrices, they are linked with each other and form a conducting network. The formation of an interconnected conducting network in CPC is explained by the theory of electrical percolation threshold. When the amount of conducting fillers in the insulating polymer reaches a critical concentration, the interconnected network of conducting fillers is constructed up, and the corresponding insulating polymer is converted to a conducting polymer composite. This transition is termed as “percolation transition” and the critical concentration of conducting fillers at percolation transition is known as “percolation threshold”. \( \sigma \) of the CPC at the percolation threshold can be described as Equation (26 and 27):

\[
\sigma = \begin{cases} 
\sigma_1 (\varphi_c - \varphi)^t, & \text{when } \varphi < \varphi_c \\
\sigma_2 (\varphi - \varphi_c)^s, & \text{when } \varphi > \varphi_c
\end{cases}
\]  

where \( \sigma_1 \) and \( \sigma_2 \) are the conductivities of fillers and insulating polymer matrix, \( \varphi \) is the filler concentration (volume fraction), \( \varphi_c \) is the filler concentration at percolation transition, and \( t \) and \( s \) are the parameters (describing the number of connections between the fillers at the percolation threshold along with the arrangement of the conductive network, i.e., the particles dispersion and 2-, or 3- dimensional systems). Generally, \( t = 1.1–1.3 \) and \( s = 1.1–1.3 \) for 2- dimensional network and \( t = 1.6–2.0 \) and \( s = 0.7–1.0 \) for 3- dimensional networks. But the experimental \( t \) values are in the range of 1–12. The reason for this deviation still remains unclear. The most satisfactory elucidation is that the \( t > 2 \) represents 3- dimensional networks while \( t < 2 \) represents 2-dimensional networks of conducting fillers in the CPC.

For the CPC having a filler content below \( \varphi_c \), the influence of the frequency on their dielectric constant and dielectric loss factor in a measured frequency range is very limited and their values increase as the content of the conductive filler increases. However, they are frequency dependent beyond the \( \varphi_c \). Furthermore, the \( \varphi_c \) is closely associated to the geometrical parameters of the conducting fillers, such as size, shape and orientation, and their electrical conductivity. For the CPC with randomly distributed fillers, the \( \varphi_c \) decreases with an increase in the fillers’ aspect ratio. In the conductive network of an insulating polymer, the \( \sigma \) occurs by the migrating transport of electron in the conductive nanofillers, hopping/tunneling transport of electrons between the conductive fillers separated by the polymer matrix.

The potential required to hop/tunnel between the conductive fillers depends on the polymer properties and processing/fabrication conditions of the composites. After an optimum concentration of conductive fillers, the \( \sigma \) remains the same while the current
The carrying capability of the polymer composites increases. The dependency of the $\sigma$ on the distance between the two conductive fillers in a polymer matrix is given by Equation (28):\(^{146}\)

$$\sigma \sim x \exp \left( -\frac{x}{a} \right)$$  \hspace{1cm} (28)

where $x$ is the gap between the two conducting fillers in a polymer matrix and $a$ is the characteristic tunneling distance. Figure 11 shows the change in $\sigma$ and the EMI SE with respect to the filler loading for Printex black (P-CB) loaded polymer blend of two

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**Table 1. EMI Absorption characteristics of ICP and their composites.**

| Materials                                  | Absorber loading (wt.%) | Maximum RL (dB) | Frequency at Maximum RL (GHz) | Bandwidth range (GHz) RL < -10 dB & < -20 dB & \(|< -10 dB) & (|< -20 dB) | d \(\times\) RL Maxima (mm) | Ref. |
|--------------------------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|------|
| Epoxy-PPy/Fe$_3$O$_4$-ZnO                 | —                       | -32.53 dB       | 9.96                          | 8.8-12.4                     | 9.7-10.9                    | 2.0  |
| Fe$_3$O$_4$/GnP$_5$-NH-PANI               | —                       | -40.31          | —                             | 7.85-17.47                   | 7.6-17.14                   | 2.6  |
| GN-PANI-Fe$_3$O$_4$ in paraffin           | 50%                     | -43.9           | 11.4                          | 5.4-16.4                     | 8.0-12.5                    | 3.0  |
| Ni/PANI/GO                                 | —                       | -51.3           | 4.9                           | 3.3-6.4                      | 3.0-6.4                     | 3.5  |
| PANI-rGO-Co$_2$O$_4$ in paraffin          | 50%                     | -32.6           | 6.3                           | 3.4-11.8                     | 7.8-11.6                    | 3.0  |
| PPy-rGO-Co$_2$O$_4$ in paraffin           | 50%                     | -33.5           | 15.8                          | 6.6-18.0                     | 7.8-11.6                    | 3.0  |
| PPy-BaFe$_{12}$O$_{19}$/Ni$_{0.8}$Zn$_{0.2}$Fe$_2$O$_4$ in paraffin | 70%                     | -25.5           | 9.8                           | 7.8-11.6                     | 2.6-7.7                     | 3.0  |
| RGO/Co$_2$O$_4$/MWCNT                     | 25%                     | -40.18          | 14.0                          | 10.08-10.8                   | & 12.08-18.0                | 2.4  |
| GN@Fe$_3$O$_4$/rGO-PANI                   | —                       | -39.8           | 6.4                           | 4.6-7.7                      | & 12.08-18.0                | 3.0  |
| FeCo@SnO$_2$/GNi@PANI                    | 25%                     | -44.2           | 11.4                          | 9.7-15.5                     | & 12.8-15.6                 | 3.0  |
| N-GNi@PANI nanorod in paraffin           | 25%                     | -38.8           | 7.3                           | 6.5-8.8                      | 2.6-7.7                     | 3.0  |
| GN@Fe$_3$O$_4$/PANi@TiO$_2$ nanosheets in paraffin | 50%                     | -41.8           | 14.4                          | 7.0-8.5                      | & 10.2-16.2                 | 1.4  |
| FeCo@GNe@PPy in paraffin                 | 30%                     | -40.7           | 5.7                           | 3.1-6                        | & 12.8-15.6                 | 2.5  |
| CI/RGO/PVP in paraffin                   | 50%                     | -27.59          | 6.88                          | 4.2-18                       | 2.6-7.7                     | 2.5  |
| GN/PEDOT/CoFe$_2$O$_4$                    | 50%                     | -43.2           | 9.4                           | 8.2-11.3                     | 2.6-7.7                     | 3.0  |
| in paraffin                               | 15%                     | -54.4           | 12.76                         | 10.20-16.96                  | 3.0                         |
| RGO/p-Fe$_3$O$_4$/PANI in paraffin        | 70%                     | -29.51          | 14.69                         | 11.0-16.3                    | 2.5                         |
| Cubic NiFe$_3$O$_4$/GN-PANI               | —                       | -50.5           | 12.5                          | 11.0-16.3                    | 2.5                         |
| GN@CoFe$_2$O$_4$/polyaniline in paraffin | 50%                     | -47.7           | 14.9                          | 12.3-18                      | 2.5                         |
| FeCo@GNe@PPy in paraffin                 | 30%                     | -40.7           | 5.7                           | 3.1-6                        | & 12.8-15.6                 | 2.5  |
| Cl/RGO/PVP in paraffin                   | 50%                     | -27.59          | 6.88                          | 4.2-18                       | 2.6-7.7                     | 2.5  |
| GN/PEDOT/CoFe$_2$O$_4$                    | 50%                     | -43.2           | 9.4                           | 8.2-11.3                     | 2.6-7.7                     | 3.0  |
| in paraffin                               | 15%                     | -54.4           | 12.76                         | 10.20-16.96                  | 3.0                         |
| RGO/p-Fe$_3$O$_4$/PANI in paraffin        | 70%                     | -29.51          | 14.69                         | 11.0-16.3                    | 2.5                         |
| Cubic NiFe$_3$O$_4$/GN-PANI               | —                       | -50.5           | 12.5                          | 11.0-16.3                    | 2.5                         |
| GN@CoFe$_2$O$_4$/polyaniline in paraffin | 50%                     | -47.7           | 14.9                          | 12.3-18                      | 2.5                         |
| FeCo@GNe@PPy in paraffin                 | 30%                     | -40.7           | 5.7                           | 3.1-6                        | & 12.8-15.6                 | 2.5  |
| Cl/RGO/PVP in paraffin                   | 50%                     | -27.59          | 6.88                          | 4.2-18                       | 2.6-7.7                     | 2.5  |
| GN/PEDOT/CoFe$_2$O$_4$                    | 50%                     | -43.2           | 9.4                           | 8.2-11.3                     | 2.6-7.7                     | 3.0  |
| in paraffin                               | 15%                     | -54.4           | 12.76                         | 10.20-16.96                  | 3.0                         |
| RGO/p-Fe$_3$O$_4$/PANI in paraffin        | 70%                     | -29.51          | 14.69                         | 11.0-16.3                    | 2.5                         |
| Cubic NiFe$_3$O$_4$/GN-PANI               | —                       | -50.5           | 12.5                          | 11.0-16.3                    | 2.5                         |
| GN@CoFe$_2$O$_4$/polyaniline in paraffin | 50%                     | -47.7           | 14.9                          | 12.3-18                      | 2.5                         |
copolymers, namely ethylene-vinyl acetate (EVA) and acrylonitrile-butadiene (NBR) in the ratio of 75:25. It is found that the relative increase in the $\sigma$ (6.93%) is less than that of EMI SE (46.01%). This signifies that apart from $\sigma$ there are many factors that are crucial for controlling the EMI SE.

The migration of electrons depends on the intrinsic conductivity of the fillers. Also, it has been reported that the reflection or absorption mechanisms of the CPC are associated with the properties of the fillers. For example, Yilmaz et al. claimed that the increasing concentration of vapor grown carbon nanofibers (VGCNF) in PVdF matrix improved their absorption capability towards the EM waves rather than the reflection, attributed to the absorption capability of VGCNF. Additionally, the decrease in the gap between fillers at higher concentration contributed to the absorption rather than reflection. Arjmand et al. compared the EMI SE of the polystyrene/MWCNT composites fabricated by the compression molding technique with the same composites prepared by the injection molding technique. It has been observed that the EMI shielding by reflection was almost the same for both composites, and it increased with increasing the concentration of MWCNT. But composites prepared by compression molding technique exhibited a better EMI shielding by absorption than that of the composites prepared by injection molding. This is due to the increased connectivity between the fillers in the composites prepared by compression molding technique. The increase in connectivity led to a higher polarization of thinner polystyrene matrix region between the MWCNT. Therefore, the composites prepared by compression molding showed higher values of real permittivity than the composites prepared by injection molding. Higher polarization results increased EMI shielding by absorption for the compression molded composites. The decrease in the connectivity of MWCNT for injection molded composites is due to the increased MWCNT alignment. From the above results, it can be seen that the absorption of the EM wave depends on the gap/connectivity between the conductive fillers, whereas the reflection of EM wave is influenced by the concentration of conductive fillers.
However, the addition of conducting fillers reduces the mechanical performance of CPC, because the conductive network formed by the conducting fillers greatly constrains the motion of the polymers’ molecular chain, resulting in the inferior toughness and ductility of the CPC. Some works are focused on using the hybrid fillers to enhance the mechanical performance of CPC as the incorporation of hybrid fillers with better conductivity decreases the $\varphi_c$. The shape, size, and dispersibility of the conductive fillers also play a vital role in defining the $\varphi_c$. For example, Joseph et al. demonstrated that the 2 wt% carbon nanofiber (CNF) filled silicone rubber (SR) exhibited an EMI SE higher than the 2 wt% of MWCNT filled SR in the frequency range of 2.0–18.4 GHz. This is due to that in the measured frequency region, the wavelength is nearly equal to the length of CNF but higher than the length of MWCNT. The SR filled with CNF wafer exhibited a higher EMI SE than SR filled with 2 wt% of CNF due to the improved electrical contact. Also, when the thickness of the CNF wafer was increased from 0.73 to 0.75 mm, an increase in EMI SE from 35.08 to 38.95 dB was observed. For the composites containing the fillers whose length is less than the wavelength of EM wave, the EMI SE depends more on conductivity than the imaginary permittivity due to the lack of interaction between them. Satisfactory dispersion of the conducting filler in the polymer is associated with the appropriate selection of process parameters and the filler-polymer compatibility. The efficient filler-polymer interaction prevents the aggregation of conducting fillers, which in turn provides superior EMI SE. The filler-polymer interaction can be investigated by a parameter, Bound Rubber content (BRC), which can be calculated using the Equation (29):

$$\text{BRC} = 100 \times \left[ \frac{W_{fg} - W_t \{m_f / (m_f + m_r)\}}{W_t \{m_f / (m_f + m_r)\}} \right]$$

(29)

where $W_{fg}$ and $W_t$ are the weight of rubber filler gel and rubber sample, respectively, and $m_f$ and $m_r$ are weight fraction of the filler and rubber, respectively. A higher BRC value corresponds to a higher interaction between the polymers and conducting fillers. The BRC will increase with the increase in weight percentage of the conductive fillers. Figure 12a and b shows that BRC of chlorinated polyethylene and ethylene

![Figure 12. BRC of (a) chlorinated polyethylene and (b) ethylene methyl acrylate as a function of wt.% of MWCNT and K-CB, respectively. Modified from ref. 153,155](image-url)
methyl acrylate increases with an increase in the weight percentage of the corresponding fillers (MWCNT and Ketjen carbon black (K-CB), respectively). More interaction will increase the permittivity of the CPC due to the collected charges at their interface, attributed to the alteration in relaxation time of polymer and fillers.156

Altering the chemical vicinity and the functionalization of the carbonaceous fillers improves their dispersion and interaction with the polymer matrices which in turn influence the $\phi_c$, impedance matching as well as EMI shielding performance.157–161 For example, Bose et al. constructed a ternary continuous structure in which the pristine MWCNTs (p-MWCNTs) were confined in the PVDF phase whereas, PMMA wrapped MWCNTs (PMMA-MWCNTs) were confined at the interface of PVDF/ABS (50/50) co-continuous blends. An EMI SE of $-24$ dB (at 18 GHz frequency) was obtained for 50/50 blends with 3 wt% MWCNTs.162 The same group also reported a high RL of $-61$ dB at 12.7 GHz for PVdF/PC blends containing PMMA-MWCNT. Higher dielectric relaxation losses due to the accumulation of virtual charges in the interfacial region of heterogeneous dielectrics increase the complex permittivity and result in higher reflection losses.163 Wu et al. functionalized the graphene foam (GF) with DBSA to improve its wettability and bond formation with PEDOT: PSS.164 The prepared PEDOT: PSS/GF exhibited negative permittivity ascribed to the delocalization of polarized charges at the interfaces.165 The optimized PEDOT: PSS/GF composites exhibited the largest EMI SEs of 91.9 dB, attributed to the enhanced interaction between the constituents by the addition of DBSA. Liang et al. revealed that the functionalized graphene exhibited low $\phi_c$ of 0.52 vol.% in the epoxy matrix and achieved an EMI SE of $\sim21$ dB at 8.8 vol.% in X-band.166 Zhang et al. studied the effect of carbon to oxygen (C/O) ratio on the dispersion of graphene in PMMA matrix and their corresponding EMI SE.167 The graphene with highest C/O ratio (13.2) displayed a better dispersion in PMMA than the graphene with the lowest ratio, with an EMI SE of $\sim30$ dB at 4.2 vol%. Li et al. prepared thermally reduced functionalized graphene incorporated polystyrene foam and achieved $\sigma$ and EMI SE of $1.1 \times 10^{-2}$ S.m$^{-1}$ and $\sim18$ dB, respectively at 10 wt%.168 Hsiao et al. achieved homogenous dispersion of graphene in a waterborne polyurethane (WPU) matrix by covalently modification using aminoethyl methacrylate. At 5 vol.% loading, the prepared CPC exhibited an $\sigma$ of 43.64 S.m$^{-1}$ and EMI SE of 38 dB in X-band.169 They also demonstrated that the noncovalent functionalization of graphene sheets (GNS) with stearyl trimethyl ammonium chloride improved their interaction with sulfonated WPU and decreased the $\phi_c$. At 5 vol.% of GNS, the CPC achieved an EMI SE of 32 dB.170 Further, the same research group also composited positively charged cationic surfactant (didodecyl dimethyl ammonium bromide, DDAB) adsorbed graphene oxide and negatively charged sulfonated functional group containing electrospun WPU using electrostatic attraction between them by layer-by-layer assembly method, which exhibited EMI SE of $\sim34$ dB in the X-band for a sample with a thickness of 1.0 mm.171 Poothanari et al. used polar copolymer, polypropylene-grafted maleic anhydride (PP-g-MA), as compatibilizer for polycarbonate (PC)/polypropylene (PP) polymer blend.172 The addition of PP-g-MA provided co-continuous morphology for PC/PP blend due to the reduced interfacial tension and diffused interface, which is unaffected by the inclusion of MWCNT. Also, it improved the dispersion of MWCNT. The compatibilized
PC/PP blend of 2 mm thickness displayed an EMI $SE$ of 54.78 dB at 3 GHz for 10 wt% MWCNT loading. Tian et al. described that the nitrogen-doped reduced graphene oxide (N-RGO) obtained using diethylenetriamine (DETA) exhibited uniform dispersion in WPU matrix with $\sigma$ of 0.08 S.cm$^{-1}$ and EMI $SE$ of 28.3 dB at 9 GHz at 12 wt% N-RGO content. However, the chemical modifications depreciate the intrinsic properties of the CPC’s constituents.

Distribution of conducting fillers in the polymer matrix is influenced by filler loading and filler-polymer interaction. There will be no specific interaction between the filler and polymer at lower concentrations, whereas higher concentrations will greatly change the distribution, polarity matching, polymer-filler interactions, and resulting in conductive network structures. But the aggregation of fillers due to the Vander Waals’ interaction at the higher loading will negatively affect the mechanical and thermal properties, processing and cost. Interestingly, the $\phi_c$ can be reduced by selective/preferential localization of conducting fillers in the polymer system, which is based on classical thermodynamics. The preferential localization of the conductive fillers increases their concentration at the local level and thereby generates effective conductive networks. The segregated structure and double percolation structure are two main strategies to achieve selective localization, thereby depress the concentration of conductive fillers. Yan et al. achieved EMI $SE$ ranging between 28.3 and 32.4 dB for polyethylene/graphene composites with the segregated structure at an ultralow filler content of 0.660 vol.%. Multi-facet segregated structured RGO/polystyrene composites presented an admirable EMI $SE$ of 45.1 dB than their conventional structures at 2.5 mm sample thickness and 3.47 vol.% of filler loading. The multi-facet segregated structure provides more interfaces that enhance the EM attenuation. In segregated structure, the conducting fillers are found at the polymer interfaces and form compact conductive structure, whereas, in double percolation structures, the conductive fillers are added to one continuous component of two immiscible polymer blend to form complicated conductive structures. In spite of the advantages, the segregated and double threshold CPCs suffer from following demerits: (a) In segregated CPC, the conductive layers formed by the conductive fillers hinder the molecular diffusion between the polymer matrix granules, resulting in an extremely weak adhesive interaction, (b) In double threshold structures, the immiscible interface between the polymer blends leads to poor interfacial interactions in CPC with a double-percolated structure. It is, therefore, necessary to eliminate the structural defects at the interfaces, which can be achieved by varying process/fabrication conditions. Wu et al. demonstrated that segregated CNT/PP prepared at the elevated temperature and pressure of 180°C and 100 MPa, respectively using solid phase molding suppressed the interfacial defects and improved the connectivity of CNT than that prepared by melt mixing. The segregated CNT/PP composites prepared by solid phase molding exhibited a $SE_T$ of 17.1 dB at 0.3 wt% CNT, whereas CNT/PP prepared by melt mixing exhibited a similar $SE_T$ at 5 wt% CNT/PP composites with segregated structures. Compared to the single-phase CPCs, two-phase CPCs has a lower $\phi_c$ and higher $\sigma$ along with higher EMI $SE$. The blend of two polymers having different polarity can form a well-defined interface where the fillers were expected to accumulate easily.
4.1.1. Conditions for miscibility of two polymers

The condition for miscibility of the two polymers can be inferred from the Gibbs energy of mixing ($\Delta G_m$) by Equation (30):

$$\Delta G_m = \Delta H_m - T \Delta S_m$$  (30)

where $\Delta H_m$ and $\Delta S_m$ are enthalpy and entropy of mixing, respectively. For miscibility of the polymer blend, the following conditions must be satisfied: $\Delta G_m < 0$ and $(\theta_i)_{T,P} > 0$ where $\theta_i$ is the amount (volume fraction) of the component $i$ in the mixture.

In the equilibrium state, the distribution and position of fillers in CPC are controlled by their interfacial energy. The thermodynamic tendency of the conducting fillers at the polymer interface was reported by Sumita et al. as Equation (31):

$$\omega_{12} = \frac{\gamma_{\text{Filler-Polymer}_1} - \gamma_{\text{Filler-Polymer}_2}}{\gamma_{\text{Polymer}}}$$  (31)

where $\gamma$ in the numerator indicates different interfacial tension between constituent fillers and polymers, and the denominator is the interfacial tension between the constituents. When $\omega_{12} > 1$, filler would prefer polymer 2, when $\omega_{12} < -1$, the filler would prefer polymer 1, when $-1 < \omega_{12} < 1$, the filler is expected to confine at the interface. 184–186 Interfacial tension between the components is given by Wu’s Equation as follows:

$$\gamma_{AB} = \gamma_A + \gamma_B - 4 \left[ \frac{\gamma^d_A \gamma^d_B}{\gamma_A + \gamma_B} + \frac{\gamma^p_A \gamma^p_B}{\gamma_A + \gamma_B} \right]$$  (32)

where $\gamma$, $\gamma^d$ and $\gamma^p$ are total surface tension, the dispersive and polar components of the surface tension, respectively.

Biswas et al. investigated the influence of conducting filler localization on the EMI SE of the PC and polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) (50/50) blends. 188 The localization of two different fillers separately in two polymer phases enhanced the SET comparing to that of composites containing two different fillers in the same polymer or in both the phases. This enhancement in the SET accounts for $S_{SEA}$ while $S_{SER}$ remains for all the samples remain the same. Figure 13 demonstrates the above-explained conception. The polymer blend composites that contain 3 wt% MWCNT in PVdF phase and BaTiO$_3$ (BT) in PC phase (Fig. 13a) and 3 wt% MWCNT in PVdF phase and NiFe$_2$O$_4$ (NF) in PC phase (Fig. 13b) exhibited a maximum $S_{ET}$ than the composites that are containing BT/NF in PVdF phase and BT/NF in both PVdF phase or PC. This is attributed to the synergetic effect arising from both phases containing nanosized fillers. Figure 13c and d displays that the percentage of absorption follows the same trend as $S_{SET}$.

Further, the conducting fillers can easily form a closely packed interconnect conductive network in a polymer with amorphous phase compared with their semi-crystalline counterparts. 147 Figure 14 shows the morphological evolution and preferential localization of the biphasic polymers with respect to their mass ratio. It can be observed that the co-continuous phases exist and double percolation structures are formed for the polymer blends with a mass ratio close to 1 (Fig. 14b–d). For higher mass ratio (Fig. 14a and e), both the polymers are existing as droplets. More details on the
Figure 13. (a) SET values of MWCNT and BaTiO$_3$ containing PVdF/PC blend, (b) SET values of MWCNT and NiFe$_2$O$_4$ containing PVdF/PC blend, (c) Absorption percentage of MWCNT and BaTiO$_3$ containing PVdF/PC blend and (d) Absorption percentage of MWCNT and NiFe$_2$O$_4$ containing PVdF/PC blend. Reproduced with permission from ref. 188 Copyright © The Royal Society of Chemistry 2015.

Figure 14. Morphological evolution and preferential localization of the biphasic polymers (PVDF/LDPE) blend with respect to their mass ratio. Reproduced with permission from ref. 138 Copyrights © 2011 American Chemical Society.
thermodynamics, morphologies of the polymer blends, and their dependency on polymer ratio are found in the earlier works.\textsuperscript{189–193} Further, an ultra-high-density polymer matrix conductive fillers have also been reported. In this type, the conductive filler containing polymer phase can also act as an effective binder that attributes to the reduced interfacial flaws.\textsuperscript{194}

### 4.2. Single-phase CPCs

Schmitz et al. prepared poly(acrylonitrile-co-butadiene-co-styrene) (ABS) based CPCs comprising CB/MWCNT hybrid as a conducting filler and compared their properties with ABS/MWCNT and ABS/CB. The hybridization of MWCNT with CB reduced the quantity of MWCNT required to attain good EMI SE. It was reported that CNTs can exhibit reduced percolation threshold than CB in the ABS matrix. This is because the CNTs prefer styrene-acrylonitrile phase to butadiene phase for distribution that arises from thermodynamic affinity.\textsuperscript{195} In this study, the MWCNT: CB hybrid fillers are distributed in both the phases with a stronger influence on butadiene phase. The 3 wt% loaded ABS comprising MWCNT.CB hybrid fillers in the 50:50 ratio showed a good amalgamation of melt flow index (MFI) and EMI SE, 12.10 g/10 min and 23.77 dB, respectively. In addition, a higher EMI SE of 29.37 dB was achieved for ABS comprising 3 wt% MWCNT.CB hybrid fillers in the 75:25 ratio, without compromising the MFI.\textsuperscript{196}

This research group also prepared ABS/carbon composites by fused deposition modeling (FDM), where CNTs, CB, and CNT/CB hybrid are carbon conducting fillers. At 3 wt% of filler loading, the EMI SE of the CPC follows the order of ABS/CNT > ABS/HYB > ABS/CB > neat ABS regardless of the growing direction. $SE_T$ of ABS CPCs with respect to the growing direction is shown in Figure 15. It can be observed that when the EM waves incident at the respective faces of the ABS/carbon composites, the samples prepared along the PC direction exhibited an enhanced attenuation, because of their highest volume electrical conductivity.\textsuperscript{197}

Ji et al. achieved selective localization of MWCNT in thermoplastic polyurethane (TPU) using intumescent flame retardant (IFR) particles. The IFR forms solid phases in the polymer matrix, and hence the localization of MWCNT is achieved at the remaining space. The IFRs also contributed to the uniform distribution of MWCNT without agglomeration. This, in turn, established a continuous conductive network between the IFR particles. With 1% of CNT and 10 wt% of IFR, the TPU exhibited an EMI SE of 20 dB.\textsuperscript{198} Xu et al. prepared CPC comprises furan-grafted poly (styrene-(ethylene-co-butylene)-styrene) (Fur-SEBS) containing furan-grafted-graphene (FG) and MWCNTs as conducting fillers. The introduction of FG also improves chemical resistance and EM absorption without the loss of CPC moldability. The CPC with 4 wt% FG and 12 wt% MWCNTs achieved an EMI SE of 36 dB.\textsuperscript{199} Flexible sponge-like CNTs consisting of self-assembled CNTs with interconnected structures and their composites with polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) (CNT/PDMS) exhibited an excellent EMI shielding performance.\textsuperscript{200} The freestanding sponge-like CNTs at a thickness of 1.8 mm reached the $SE_T$ of 54.8 dB in the entire 8–12 GHz range, with very small $SE_R$ (about 0.3–0.7 dB). 1.0 wt% CNT sponge loaded PDMS exhibited the $SE_T$ value of 46.3 dB (with $SE_R$ of about 0.5dB). Figure 16a shows the $SE_T$, $SE_A$, and $SE_R$ values of both the CNT sponge and
CNT/PDMS composites almost constant for the entire frequency range of X-band. Figure 16b shows the SET, SEA, and SER values for the samples of different thickness. It can be observed that the SET and SEA increases as the thickness is increased, while the SER deviations are comparatively negligible. This is because, with the increase in
thickness, the amount of CNT in the sponges gradually increases, which improves the internal multi-reflection, scattering, and absorption that lead to an improved $SE_A$. The infiltration of PDMS into the sponge had a very little effect on the internal connection structure of CNTs. Interfacial effects and dielectric relaxations are the attenuation mechanisms of the CNT/PDMS film. After repeated stretching or bending for 1000 cycles, the EMI $SE$ of the CPC hardly changed.\(^{200}\)

Ma et al. reported porous super-hydrophobic PVdF/MWCNT/graphene composites (PMGC) as self-cleaning EMI shielding material. PMGC having multi-scaled raspy-like morphology exhibited a water contact angle of $155.4^\circ \pm 2.7^\circ$ and $SE_T$ of $\sim 28.5$ dB at 4.5 vol.% of carbon fillers (MWCNT: Graphene = 1:1) and $\sim 2$ mm thickness. Figure 17a and b shows that their contact angle and EMI shielding performance of PMGC are not affected under UV-radiation.\(^{201}\) Wu et al. prepared a segregated CNT/PP composite with an excellent EMI SE of 48.3 dB at 5.0 wt.% of filler loading and 2.2 mm thickness.\(^{182}\) Nimbalkar et al. described that the EMI $SE$ of the polycarbonate (PC)/graphite nanoplatelets (GNP) increased with increasing the GNP content and the thickness of nanocomposite samples. The EMI $SE$ was 35.0 and 47.2 dB for 1 and 2 mm thick PC/GNP nanocomposites in the X-band. The increased EMI $SE$ is due to the increased interfacial polarizations and multiple-internal reflections at the higher GNP content and thickness.\(^{202}\)

Bai et al. demonstrated that poly(ethylene oxide) (PEO) matrix dispersed with 2.6 Vol.% chemically reduced graphene exhibited a min. $RL$ of $-38.8$ dB for 1.5 mm thick sample as depicted in Figure 18. It has been observed that the peak frequency varies with varying the thickness (1.8–4.0 mm). At 2 mm thickness, the bandwidth of $RL < -10$ dB covers a broad range between 12.4 and 18 GHz with a maximum $RL$ of $-32.4$ dB. The excellent microwave absorption was attributed to the conduction loss arising from the interconnected network of large surface area graphene and dielectric loss arising from the dipole relaxation, interfacial polarization, and multiple scattering at the heterogeneous interface.\(^{203}\)

Nasouri et al. demonstrated an EMI $SE$ of 22 dB in the X-band for the 4 wt% Fe$_3$O$_4$ incorporated electrospun polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP).\(^{204}\) Chauhan et al. studied the performance of poly(ether ketone) (PEK)/BaTiO$_3$ in X-band region.\(^{205}\) The dielectric
constant of the prepared PEK/BaTiO3 increases with an increase in the filler loading (BaTiO3). The rate of increment is significant at a lower loading whereas it becomes negligible at higher loadings. This is because of the aggregation of fillers at the higher wt% (Fig. 19a). Figure 19b shows that the experimental value of dielectric constant fits well with modified Lichtenecker equation. The PEK containing 16 wt% of BaTiO3 exhibited a $SE_T$ of 11 dB with absorption as the dominant mechanism ($SE_A = 8.1$ dB), due to enhanced dielectric properties attributed to BaTiO3.

4.3. Polymer blend-based CPCs

Wang et al. fabricated hollow glass microspheres (HGMs) incorporated poly(vinylidene fluoride) (PVDF)/polystyrene (PS)/MWCNT composites. The prepared samples with 10 wt% MWCNT and 2 wt% HGMs displayed an average EMI SE of 43.03 dB, which is
greater than that for the composites with no HGMs (25.27 dB) in the frequency range between 8.0 and 12.0 GHz (X-band). The porous composites showed better EMI shielding performance than the solid composites (Fig. 20a). It was observed that the incorporated HGMs endorsed the interlink between conducting fillers along with the scattering and reflection of the electromagnetic incident wave (Fig. 20b), that improved its EMI SE. The segregated PVDF/MWCNT composites fabricated by mechanical mixing followed by hot compaction exhibited high electrical conductivity and EMI SE of 6 S m$^{-1}$ and 30.89 dB with absorption as dominant mechanism in the X-band. A significant increase in EMI SE was observed over the entire frequency range as the sample thickness increased from 0.6 to 3.0 mm.

Wang et al. demonstrated a morphological control of the MWCNT conducting network in two phasic blends of poly(L-lactide) [PLLA] and poly(ε-caprolactone) [PCL] by the formation of stereo-complex crystallites (SC) during melt processing. The composites of (48PLLA +12PDLA)/PCL/MWCNT containing 0.2 wt% and 0.8 wt% MWCNTs, displayed the EMI SE of about 7.2–11.4 dB and ~17 dB, respectively. The improved EMI shielding performance is mainly related to the enhanced electrical conductivity of the (48PLLA +12PDLA)/PCL/MWCNT composites with co-continuous morphology and the increased MWCNT loadings. However, the poor compatibility between these two different polymers limits their mechanical properties. To address this problem, the same research group constructed segregated CPCs with two polymers of the same molecular structures and different viscosities. They prepared biodegradable with segregated PLLA/MWCNT nanocomposites (S-PLLA/MWCNT) using PLLA polymers of two different viscosities and compared their EMI shielding performance with a random PLLA/MWCNT nanocomposites (R-PLLA/MWCNT). The dimensional parameter value ($t$) of the threshold percolation equation for the S-PLLA/MWCNT and R-PLLA/MWCNT was found to be 1.63 and 3.89, respectively. Thus, S-PLLA/MWCNT exhibited superior electrical conductivity at an ultra low $\varphi_c$ of 0.019 vol.% than that of the R-PLLA/MWCNT ($\varphi_c \sim$0.22 vol.%). At 0.8 vol.% of MWCNT loading, S-PLLA/MWCNT displayed three orders and 36% higher values for electrical conductivity (25 S m$^{-1}$) and
EMI SE (~30 dB), respectively, compared to R-PLLA/MWCNT. The calculated skin depth values of S- PLLA/MWCNT are lower than the sample thickness, indicating their high efficiency for attenuating microwaves. Liu et al. prepared segregated CPC comprising of isotactic polypropylene (iPP) and poly(ethylene-co-1-octene) [POE] blends having MWCNT dispersed in continuous iPP phase by melt binding technique. Figure 21 explains the construction of S-POE/iPP/MWCNT CPC. A high-efficiently conductive network was formed with a low $\phi_c$ of 0.24 vol.%. The EMI SE of ~25 dB was achieved with 3.0 vol.% MWCNTs and a thickness of 1.2 mm.

Bizhani et al. prepared double percolated CPCs containing PC and SAN loaded with MWCNT by melt compounding technique at 260°C, as shown in Figure 22 and achieved a maximum SE of 25–29 dB for 10 mm thick sample loaded with 1 wt% of MWCNT over the X-band.

Yu et al. prepared CNT/UHMWPE composites with oriented segregated structure by a solid extrusion method and compared its electrical conductivity, percolation threshold, tensile strength, and EMI SE with CNT/UHMWPE composites prepared by compression molding having conventional segregated structure. The oriented segregated structure results from the strong shear flow produced in the solid extrusion method.
The strong shear force causes deformation of the UHMWPE particles in the extrusion direction, resulting in the formation of an oriented segregated structure. Li et al. revealed the selective distribution of Fe$_3$O$_4$ nanoparticles and MWCNT in the ternary polymer blend of PVdF/PS/HDPE by melt blending technique. MWCNT are localized in the PS shell of PS/HDPE core-shell structure and Fe$_3$O$_4$ nanoparticles are localized in the PVdF matrix (F-F) and HDPE core (E-F). The conductive network was formed at 1 vol.% and unaffected by the volume percentage of Fe$_3$O$_4$ and their localization either in PVdF or HDPE. However, the F-F composites with Fe$_3$O$_4$ nanoparticles localized in the PVdF matrix exhibited higher permittivity values than the E-F composites with Fe$_3$O$_4$ nanoparticles localized in HDPE core as shown in Figure 23. This is due to the increased interaction between the Fe$_3$O$_4$ and PVdF than that of Fe$_3$O$_4$ and HDPE. It can also be observed that the values of permittivity vary linearly with the vol.% of Fe$_3$O$_4$ from 0 to 2.0 vol.%. Subsequently, F-F composites have shown a higher EMI SE (20.5 dB–26.5 dB) than E-F composites (17 dB–23.7 dB) at the same Fe$_3$O$_4$ loading (2 vol.%) in X-band range.

Figure 23. $\varepsilon'$ and $\varepsilon''$ of F-F (a & b) and E-F composites (c & d), respectively, for different vol.% of Fe$_3$O$_4$ loading in the X-band. Reproduced with permission from ref. 213 Copyrights © 2018 Elsevier B.V.
Zha et al. described that the selective confinement of MWCNT at the interface of PVDF and OBC (ethylene-octene block copolymer) reduces the $\varepsilon_r$ by 23% compared to the PVdF/MWCNT nanocomposites. Figures 24 shows that the $\varepsilon'_r$ (Fig. 23a) and $\tan \delta$ (Fig. 23b) increases with increase in the MWCNT content and their values are higher for PVDF/OBC/MWCNT nanocomposites than the PVdF/MWCNT nanocomposites. An EMI SE of $\sim$34 dB was attained for PVDF/OBC/MWCNT at 2.7 vol.% MWCNT. The enhancement in the dielectric property and EMI SE is attributed to the strong interfacial polarization arising from the charge carrier built up at the interfaces.

### 4.4. Conductive anisotropic CPC

Normally, CPCs exhibit conductive (electrical) isotropy because of the randomly distributed conducting fillers in their polymer matrix. Conductive anisotropy can be achieved by alignment of fillers using a magnetic or shear or electric field. Conductive anisotropy results in electrical conductivity in one direction and insulating in another direction. The percolation threshold for conductive filler concentration in CPCs can be further reduced by achieving conductive anisotropy. For example, Mao et al. demonstrated that the graphene stripes aligned in the polypropylene/(styrene-ethylene/butadiene-styrene) triblock by using shear force exhibited the four orders of higher $\sigma$ in parallel direction than the perpendicular direction. Shi et al. achieved conductive anisotropy in S-PLLA/PCL/MWCNT/Ni CPC by applying a magnetic field of $\sim$47.5 mT for 30 min at 100 $^\circ$C. After achieving conductive anisotropy, higher values of $\sigma$ was observed in the direction parallel to the alignment attributed to the Ni-particle chains. This alignment also enhanced the value of EMI SE as depicted in Figure 25. The segregated structured composites with a random distribution of nickel exhibited an EMI SE of 7–9 dB, whereas the composites with aligned nickel chains exhibited an EMI SE of 24–19 dB. This enhanced EMI shielding with respect to the alignment of nickel particles was attributed to the increased absorption and reflection of EM radiation inside the nanocomposites, which were caused by the formation of Ni particle chains and higher electrical conductivity. The segregated structured PLLA/PCL/MWCNT/Ni
nanocomposites exhibited higher mechanical properties than the conventionally structured nanocomposites.

Hashemi et al. achieved epoxy/SWCNT composites with aligned SWCNT using DC electric field. Figure 26 shows the change in the values of $\sigma$ for electrified and nonelectrified epoxy composites with respect to wt% of SWCNT. The $\sigma$ of the epoxy composites with aligned SWCNT is higher than that of randomly distributed SWCNT. SWCNT showed higher tendency to align in a parallel direction on electrifying with DC electric field and hence higher electrical conductivity in the parallel direction ($4.6 \times 10^{-6}$ S.m$^{-1}$) than that of perpendicular direction ($9.3 \times 10^{-9}$ S.cm$^{-1}$) at 0.5 wt% of SWCNT. The EMI SE of 12.8 and 9.1 dB was achieved for the electrified and nonelectrified composites with 0.6 wt% SWCNT loading and 3.0 mm thickness.\textsuperscript{217}
5. Lightweight polymer composites

Further, low density, flexibility, thermal insulation, impact damping, and good structural stability have attracted the applications of conductive fillers filled polymer foam for EMI shielding applications.\textsuperscript{218,219} Flexible materials possess high recovery properties with a low percolation threshold whereas rigid materials have less recovery.\textsuperscript{220,221}

Ghosh et al. prepared Ketjen carbon black (K-CB) incorporated PU foam by dip coating. Further, PEG 4000 has been used as the ionic surfactant to prevent the coalescence of K-CB during the dipping of PU foam. The surfactants are found to have a negligible effect on the $\sigma$ of PU foam nanocomposite. At 2 wt% K-CB loading, PU foam composites exhibited an EMI SE of 65.6 dB.\textsuperscript{222} Eswaraiah et al. demonstrated an EMI SE of $\sim$20 and 18 dB over the frequency range of 1–8 GHz for 5 wt% of functionalized graphene(fG) in fG-PVdF foam in the X-band.\textsuperscript{223} Thomassin et al. showed that the foaming of the nanocomposites allowed to significantly decrease the reflectivity below $-15$ dB (only 3% of the initial radiation is reflected).\textsuperscript{224} Xu et al. reported that the density influenced the microstructure of the CNT-PU composites.\textsuperscript{225} The decrease in the density decreases the cell wall thickness and changes the three-dimensional conduction to two dimensional (Fig. 27). This, in turn, increases the $\varphi_c$ and decreases the $\sigma$ of the cell.\textsuperscript{226,227} The CNT content in the cell walls decreases with a decrease in the density of the foam that attributes to the decrease in the electrical conductivity.\textsuperscript{228}

![Figure 27](image-url) Schematic illustration of changes in the microstructural changes with the gradually from (a) to (d) for CNT/PU foam composites. CNT is represented by the thin black lines and the cell boundaries are represented by wide lines. The growth directions of the air bubbles during foaming are represented by the arrows. Reproduced with permission from ref.\textsuperscript{225} Copyright © 2007 Wiley-VCH Verlag GmbH & Co. KGaA, Weinheim.
Wang et al. compared the foaming behavior and EMI SE of PLA/graphite prepared by regular foam injection molding (RFIM) and mold-opening foam injection molding (MOFIM).\(^2\) The foams fabricated using the MOFIM method possess a uniform microcellular structure, whereas foams fabricated using the RFIM possess a collapsed microcellular structure. The EMI SE of the MOFIM foams is \(\sim 45\) dB, which is higher than that RFIM foams (\(\sim 30\) dB). Yang et al. reported that the CNT/PS and CNF/PS foam exhibited the EMI SE of 18.56 and 20.51 at 7 wt% and 20 wt%, respectively.\(^3\) Chen et al. demonstrated that the 0.8 wt% graphene (GN) incorporated PDMS foam exhibited the nearly similar EMI SE (\(\sim 20\) dB) to the 7 wt% of CNT incorporated polystyrene foam.\(^4\) Xu et al. demonstrated that the CNT/HDPE foam exhibited an \(SE_T\) of 21.2 dB at low \(\varphi_c\) of 1.66 vol.%, whereas solid CNT/HDPE required a higher CNT content of about 2.31 vol.%.\(^5\) Chen et al. demonstrated that the 0.8 wt% graphene (GN) incorporated PDMS foam exhibited the nearly similar EMI SE (\(\sim 20\) dB) to the 7 wt% of CNT incorporated polystyrene foam.\(^4\) Xu et al. demonstrated that the CNT/HDPE foam exhibited an \(SE_T\) of 21.2 dB at low \(\varphi_c\) of 1.66 vol.%, whereas solid CNT/HDPE required a higher CNT content of about 2.31 vol.%.\(^5\) Yan et al. prepared porous graphene/polystyrene foams (GPS) using CaCO\(_3\) particles using compression molding followed by the salt-leaching method.\(^6\) The average EMI SE of the GPS samples of 2.5 mm thickness at 0.45 and 0.27 g cm\(^{-3}\) are found to be approximately 29.3 and 17.3 dB, respectively. Zhang et al. demonstrated \(SE_T\), \(SE_A\), and \(SE_R\) of 19, 18, and 1 dB, respectively, for 1.8 vol.% of GN loaded microcellular PMMA foam using subcritical CO\(_2\).\(^7\) Zheng et al. prepared low density (0.28–0.4 g/cm\(^3\)) polyetherimide (PEI) composites containing GN@Fe\(_3\)O\(_4\) by phase inversion method with outstanding specific shielding effectiveness (SSE) of \(\sim 41.5\) dB/(g/cm\(^3\)) in the X-band at 10 wt% loading.\(^8\) The excellent EMI SE attributed to the spherical micro-scale bubbles in the foam that can depreciate the EM waves by scattering and multi-internal reflection between the nanofillers and the cell walls. In addition, the micro-scale bubbles of the foam prevent the EM waves from escaping easily before being attenuated by absorption and heat transfer as illustrated in Figure 28a–b. TEM image (Fig. 28c) showing two parallel G@Fe\(_3\)O\(_4\) in PEI matrix supports the illustrated shielding mechanism of multi-internal reflection. The same research group has also demonstrated a higher SE value of 57.7 dB for the 10 wt% graphene loaded PU foam of \(\sim 6\) cm thick. Also, the G/PU foams exhibited excellent compressibility. It is also observed that their shielding performance can be modified by compressing the foams. Figure 29 shows that the \(SE_T\) of the 6 mm thick G(10 wt.%)/PU foam decreases with increasing the compression percentage. It can be observed that the \(SE_R\) remains almost the same for all compression rates, whereas \(SE_A\) decreases. This can be ascribed to the decrease in the cell-matrix interface area during compression that deteriorates the multiple-internal reflection and scattering of EM waves.\(^9\) Ling et al. reported low-density microcellular PEI/GN foams with accumulation and alignment of graphene on the cell wall and SSE ranging from 17 to 44 dB/(g/cm\(^3\)).\(^2\) Zheng et al. assembled an aligned porous MWCNT/WPU composites with low and well-regulated densities by the unidirectional freeze-drying and demonstrated an outstanding SSE up to 1148 dB cm\(^{-3}\) g\(^{-1}\).\(^2\) Fu et al. fabricated self-healing hydrogel by dispersing MWCNT into the hydrophobic polyacrylamide (PAM) and demonstrated a \(SE_T\) of \(\sim 28.5\) dB. The cellulose nanofiber (CNF) is used as the dispersant. The prepared hydrogels (Fig. 30a) exhibited excellent capacity to withstand deformations such as convolving (Fig. 30b), bending (Fig. 30c), knotting (Fig. 30d), and knotted stretching (Fig. 30e), without change in its shape (Fig. 30f).\(^2\) However, since it is difficult to control the porous shape by these preparation methods, the preparation of prevailing pores is still unsatisfactory.
Xing et al. assembled flexible sandwich structures by laminating Ni-coated carbon fibers in between polycarbonate films. The resultant structures exhibited an EMI SE of 72.7 dB at the thickness of 0.31 mm. The density and electrical conductivity of the structures prepared at an optimum condition is 1.7 g.cm\(^{-3}\) and 376.6 S.cm\(^{-1}\), respectively.\(^{240}\)

Na et al. fabricated poly(ether ether ketone) (PEEK) composite flexible films comprised of MWCNT. To improve the dispersion of MWCNT, the MWCNT were coated with poly(ether sulfone) (PES). The PES coating prevented the agglomeration of MWCNT and improved

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**Figure 28.** (a) Schematic illustration of EM attenuation and (b) multi-internal reflection route in the PEI/G@Fe\(_3\)O\(_4\) foams; (c) TEM image demonstrating the illustrated EM attenuation mechanism. Reproduced with permission from ref.\(^{235}\) Copyright © 2013 American Chemical Society.

**Figure 29.** SET, (b) SEA, (c) SER of the 6 mm thick G (10 wt.%)/PU under various compression strain in the frequency range of 8–12 GHz. Modified from ref.\(^{236}\)
the dispersion as their molecular structure was similar to that of PEEK. Further, GENIOPLAST™ pellets (GPPS) were added to improve the dispersion and to reduce the melt viscosity of PEEK for easy processing. The PEEK/MWCNT-GPPS exhibits a higher electrical conductivity than PEEK/MWCNT. At a critical concentration of 1.0 wt.% for GPPS, an EMI SE of about 10.5 dB over 8.2–12.4 GHz and 16.2 dB at 40 GHz was achieved. Jia et al. fabricated a flexible and transparent EMI shielding film of PU containing calcium alginate (CA) and silver nanowires (Ag NW). The PU and CA are transparent to EM wave and hence the EMI SE depends on the Ag NW. The highest EMI SE of 31.3 dB in between the 4 and 18 GHz was achieved for the CA/Ag NW/PU film, whose area density of Ag NW and transmittance were 174 mg·m⁻² and 81%, respectively. Oh et al. investigated the EMI shielding performance of silver nanoparticles (Ag-NP) coated polyethylene terephthalate (PET) film between 0.1 and 1 GHz. The Ag NP/PET film exhibited the highest SET values of 60.49 at 0.1 GHz and 54.72 dB at 1.0 GHz. Ozen et al. prepared Ag-NP deposited polyamide (PA66) nonwoven fabrics with excellent weight normalized SSE of over 1200 dB·cm⁻³·g⁻¹ in the 0.015–3 GHz range. Sabira et al. reported freestanding and flexible PVdF-Graphene film of thickness 20 μm and 15 wt% graphene, exhibiting an absorption dominant EMI SE of 47 dB (SEₐ = 45.36 dB; SEᵣ = 2.17 dB) in the X-band. Kim et al. demonstrated thin and flexible CPC composed of 40 wt% of MWCNT containing Fe catalyst and PMMA with an EMI SE of ~27 dB. Xu et al. prepared nickel (Ni)/nylon porous membrane (NPM) composite film, in which nickel is deposited on both sides of the NPM to get sandwich structure by electroless deposition technique. The prepared Ni/NPM film exhibited

Figure 30. Pictures displaying outstanding mechanical property of PAMF₀.₃T₁: (a) original shape, (b) convolving, (c) twisting, (d) knotting, (e) stretching, and (f) recovering. Reproduced from ref. 239 Copyright © 2018 American Chemical Society.
an EMI $SE$ of 77 dB and retained 85% of its initial value after 300 bending cycles. Figure 31a–d shows that $S_E$ increases with an increase in the deposition time of nickel films, while the $S_A$ increases whereas $S_R$ remains the same. The EMI SE values are not changing with increasing the frequency in the entire range.

Thus, the polymer/carbon composites could serve as lightweight, economic, processable, and mechanically strong composites. EMI shielding performance of the various CPC is summarized in Table 2.

### 6. Multicomponent systems

The amalgamation convention has recently changed from simple to hybrid nanomaterials to accumulate every single fundamental property in a solitaire composite for better shielding efficiency. Sambyal et al. prepared PPy/RGO/barium strontium titanate (BST)/Fe$_3$O$_4$ as demonstrated in Figure 32a, adopting chemical oxidative polymerization. The nonuniformities (heterogeneities) in the prepared multi-component composites led to space charge polarization. The charge accumulation at the interface between components promoted the formation of dipole and interfacial polarization as presented in Figure 32b. The value of EMI SE for the prepared PPy/RGO/BST/Fe$_3$O$_4$ composites is $\sim$48 dB in the X-band, with absorption as the dominant mechanism.

Zhan et al. prepared flexible segregated CPCs comprising natural rubber (NR), Fe$_3$O$_4$, and RGO (S-NRMG) by self-assembly technique in NR as displayed in Figure 33. The highest $\sigma$ values for NRG-10 and NRMG-10 composites respectively are achieved after
thermal treatment at 150 °C, which is ascribed to the established perfect conducting network of RGO sheets. However, the electrical conductivity of NRMG-10 is slightly less than that of NRG-10 due to the negative effect of iron oxide nanoparticles. The

Table 2. EMI shielding performance of various CPC.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Materials</th>
<th>Filler loading (wt.%)</th>
<th>σ (S.cm⁻¹)</th>
<th>SE_T (dB)</th>
<th>SE_A (dB)</th>
<th>SE_R (dB)</th>
<th>d (mm)</th>
<th>Investigated Frequency range</th>
<th>Ref.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MWCNT/chlorinated PE</td>
<td>15 %</td>
<td>~0.01</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>X-band</td>
<td>[153]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TPV/NCGF</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>30.1</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>X-band</td>
<td>[248]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABS/ CB/CNT (25:75)</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>29.37</td>
<td>23.99</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>X-band</td>
<td>[196]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-PLLA/MWCNT</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>X-band</td>
<td>[209]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-PLLA/MWCNT</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>3 × 10⁻⁵</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>X-band</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-PLLA/PCL/MWCNT/Ni</td>
<td>6.0% (Ni)</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>24–29</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>X-band</td>
<td>[215]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RGO-GF/UP</td>
<td>20.0% (GF)</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>X-band</td>
<td>[249]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microcellular Polymide (Pi)/RGO/MWCNTs composite</td>
<td>8% (RGO &amp; MWCNT)</td>
<td>18.7 × 10⁻³</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>X-band</td>
<td>[250]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CF/polyacrylamide/wood fiber</td>
<td>7.5% (CF)</td>
<td>10⁻³</td>
<td>41.03</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>X-band</td>
<td>[251]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PVDF/PS/HDP-MWCNTs</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
<td>0.9 × 10⁻³</td>
<td>31.7</td>
<td>29.1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>X-band</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>MWCNTs/waterborne polyurethane</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>0.124</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>X-band</td>
<td>[252]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PPCP/MWCNT</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>7.2 × 10⁻³</td>
<td>47.8</td>
<td>42.5</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>X-band</td>
<td>[253]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microcellular Pi/MWCNTs</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>0.0187</td>
<td>16.6–18.2</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>X-band</td>
<td>[250]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ni coated RGO/PC/SAN</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>8–18 GHz</td>
<td>[254]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MWCNT/PP</td>
<td>7.5 vol.%</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>34.8</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>X-band</td>
<td>[255]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polyamide 6/EG</td>
<td>2.27 vol.%</td>
<td>5.5 × 10⁻³</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>23.54</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>X-band</td>
<td>[236]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PP/MWCNT</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>57.0</td>
<td>39.9</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>S-band</td>
<td>[257]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>47.0</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>X-band</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>Ku-band</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PMMA/Graphene foam</td>
<td>1.8 vol.%</td>
<td>31.1 × 10⁻³</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>X-band</td>
<td>[234]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PI/RGO</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>8.0 × 10⁻³</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>X-band</td>
<td>[258]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*X- band: 8–12 GHz.

Figure 32. (a) Pictorial illustration of the synthesis of PPy/RGO/BST/Fe₃O₄ composite by chemical oxidative polymerization process and (b) Schematic representation of possible mechanism of EMI Shielding in PBRF composite. Reproduced with permission from ref.260 Copyright © 2018 Published by Elsevier B.V. on behalf of Korean Physical Society.
heat treatment also contributed to the enhanced EMI. However, the S-NRMG exhibited an EMI SE (42.4 dB) higher than the NRG (34.0 dB) at 10 phr of RGO. The SE values vary directly with the content of RGO. The higher SE values are accredited to the combination of numerous free charge carriers, electric dipoles, and an excellent conducting network of RGO and the magnetic resonances and eddy currents of Fe₃O₄ magnetic nanoparticles. In NRMG, the large interfacial area between the RGO and Fe₃O₄ provided an extensive interfacial polarization and thereby proliferated the pathway for EM waves which consecutively upturned the EM attenuation. NRMG-10 exhibited excellent bending stability, injecting brilliance into the next generation of flexible EMI shielding materials.²⁶¹

Biswas et al. demonstrated “absorption–multiple reflections–absorption” multi-layered structure in which absorption layer (top and bottom) composed of MWCNT-MnO₂ and RGO-Fe nanostructures in the PVdF matrix and the reflection layer (middle) composed of MWCNT in PC/PVdF blend. These multilayered structures exhibited a SET of 57 dB at a thickness of 0.9 mm with 92% absorption.²⁶² In another study, the SET was improved to 64 dB by improving impedance matching of the top layer using functionalized MWCNT.²⁶³ Xu et al. demonstrated “absorb-reflect-reabsorb process” by generating gradient layered structure in WPU comprising of RGO@Fe₃O₄ distributed throughout the matrix and a thin tetraneedle-like ZnO (T-ZnO)/Ag bottom layer.²⁶⁴ The thick layer of rGO@Fe₃O₄ distributed throughout the PU matrix contributed to the impedance matching and EM absorption and the thin T-ZnO/Ag layer at the bottom re-reflected the EM wave and thereby increased the absorption further, as illustrated in Figure 34. At 0.8 vol.% of rGO@Fe₃O₄ and 5.7 vol.% of rGO@Fe₃O₄, the prepared PU gradient structured composites exhibited an extraordinary SET of 87.2 dB with only 2.4 dB of SER with a sample thickness of 0.5 mm.

Figure 33. Schematic illustration of the preparation process of NRMG composites. Reproduced with permission from ref.²⁶¹ Copyright © 2018 Elsevier B.V.
Wang et al. prepared silver (Ag)/RGO coated polyester (PET) fabric. Prior to the addition of silver and RGO, PET fabric surface was functionalized with poly (diallyl dimethyl ammonium chloride) (PDDA) to improve the adhesive strength between the PET fabric substrate and the additives. The weight of Ag/RGO deposited on the PET fabric surface with and without PDDA functionalization was found to be 2.47 and 3.68 mg/cm², respectively. Also, the PDDA functionalized PET fabric retained 85.6% of Ag/RGO after washing, whereas bare PET fabric retained only 38.5%. The positive charges offered by the PDDA on the surface of PET fabric are due to the increased particle loading and adhesion. Subsequently, PDDA modified PET-Ag/RGO exhibited relatively higher EMI SE that ranges from 52 to 57 dB between 1 and 18 GHz. Vyas et al. investigated the EMI shielding performance of inorganic salt (LiBF₄) and organic salt (EMIMBF₄) containing PVdF-HFP polymer gel electrolyte with Fe₃O₄ and MWCNT as fillers. The ion conducting salts in the PVdF-HFP increased the charge storage capacity of the polymer matrix by generating more mobile ions and thereby improved the dielectric property. MWCNT contributed to dielectric loss and Fe₃O₄ contributed to the magnetic loss. The SET of the polymer nanocomposite gel electrolytes reached ~43.5 dB.

Jin et al. prepared methyl vinyl silicone rubber (VMQ) based nanocomposites that consisted of MWCNT decorated graphene nanoplatelet/Fe₃O₄@BaTiO₃ (GFBTM) as conductive fillers. The VMQ/16 wt% GFBTM exhibited a σ of 1 S.m⁻¹ and EMI SE of 26.7 dB over a broad bandwidth ranging from 1.0 to 20.0 GHz. Zhang et al. reported that 5 wt% RGO/MnFe₂O₄ containing PVdF nanocomposites exhibited a min. RL of ~29.0 dB at 9.2 GHz with a wide band of 8.00–12.88 GHz for RL < −10 dB. The improved EM absorption is the result of dielectric loss (PVdF and RGO), magnetic loss (MnFe₂O₄) and synergetic effect (PVdF + RGO; PVdF + MnFe₂O₄ and MnFe₂O₄ + RGO). Hua et al. reported that 2.6 mm thick sample of CPCs composed of GN/MWCNT/poly(p-phenylenebenzoisoxazole) [GMP] exhibited a RL of −50.17 dB at 12.58 GHz. The improved EM absorption was attributed to the impedance matching at the interface of free space and surface of the multi-phase composites and the heterogeneities along with strong dielectric properties.
7 Conclusion and future perspectives

Recent advances in EMI shielding using ICP and CPC have clearly indicated that polymers and their hybrids/multi-structural composites are very promising for EMI shielding applications. The frequency-dependent characteristics, as well as the adjustment of the morphological structure and processing parameters, are discussed to achieve enhanced EMI shielding along with understanding its corresponding mechanisms. It is worth mentioning that all of these studies aim to introduce nonuniformities (heterogeneities) inside the EMI shielding materials to enhance EM absorption. In the case of biphasic polymer blends, engineering of filler localization and morphology greatly improved the EM absorption. The attractive features of the polymer-based materials such as lightweight and high EM absorption demonstrated their potentials in EMI shielding.

Despite considerable advancements, they face many obvious challenges. The significant limitations include: Insulating nature of polymers that may lead to the enlargement of skin depth for EM attenuation (if sufficient conducting network is not established by the conductive fillers); Difficult in processing and reconstruction of defects; Surface-functionalization of fillers that harms the physical properties of the composites and processing; Poor thermal stability that hinders their applications in high-temperature operation; Understanding the thermodynamics of polymer blends and corresponding preferential localization of fillers; tailoring of morphology and physical properties of the fillers, etc. Even though, multi-component structures and lightweight foams are reported as efficient EM absorbers, the factors that determine their bandwidth of EM absorption and skin depth are still not clearly explained and it is not clear how the temperature influences the electromagnetic properties of materials in the nanoscale polymer nanocomposites or nanohybrids. Hence, more investigations are needed in this direction. However, we envision that light-weight multi-component nanostructures and three-dimensional architectures of polymer-based materials with good mechanical properties and high thermal stability will lead toward the realization of highly efficient EMI shielding for various applications.

Acknowledgments

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