Kinetic dielectric decrement revisited: phenomenology of finite ion concentrations†

Marcello Sega,*a Sofia Kantorovich,b,‡ and Axel Arnoldc

With the help of a recently developed non-equilibrium approach, we investigate the ionic strength dependence of the Hubbard–Onsager dielectric decrement. We compute the depolarization of water molecules caused by the motion of ions in sodium chloride solutions from the dilute regime (0.035 M) up close to the saturation concentration (4.24 M), and find that the kinetic decrement displays a strong nonmonotonic behavior, in contrast to the prediction of available models. We introduce a phenomenological modification of the Hubbard–Onsager continuum theory, that takes into account the screening due to the ionic cloud at mean field level, and, is able to describe the kinetic decrement at high concentrations including the presence of a pronounced minimum.

More than thirty years ago, in what was one of the last articles written by L. Onsager, he and J. P. Hubbard made a captivating prediction that has eluded direct observation until now. They stated that in a saline solution, due to the motion of ions, polar solvent molecules should show a tendency to orient against any external, static electric field, in apparent contradiction with electrostatics.1–3 According to the continuum model of Hubbard and Onsager, the rotational current induced in the solvent by ionic currents should generate a net solvent depolarization that survives in the zero frequency limit. As a consequence, a decrement of the static permittivity of the solution should be observed, even though the effect is purely dynamic, and as such can not be explained in terms of molecular configurations only. To date, however, no direct experimental proof of the kinetic decrement exists, because its detection is complicated by the presence of dielectric saturation, from which it can not be easily separated.4,5 A quantitative picture of the kinetic contribution to the dielectric decrement is therefore key to the investigations of ion solvation properties, which rely on a correct estimate of the static contribution of the decrement.6,7

The continuum theory of the kinetic decrement predicts that the static permittivity ε0 of a solvent should change upon addition of salt by an amount

\[ \Delta \epsilon_{\text{HO}} = -4\pi p\sigma \tau (\epsilon_0 - \epsilon_\infty)/\epsilon_0, \]

due to a subtle interplay between ion motion and rotational orientation of the solvent molecules. Here, \( \sigma \) denotes the conductivity of the solution and \( \tau \) is the time constant of the Debye relaxation process that characterizes the dielectric susceptibility of the solvent, and \( \epsilon_\infty \) is the infinite frequency dielectric constant.8 The factor \( p \) can take values between 2/3 and 1, depending on the type of boundary condition at the surface of the ion (full slip and no slip, respectively). Strictly speaking, the continuum theory is valid only in the infinite dilution limit, and for large ionic radii.9

Despite these limitations, the formula for the decrement bears an enthralling elegance, and explains qualitatively the dependence of the dielectric permittivity of electrolyte solutions on their conductivity, even well within the concentrate solution regime.10 However, the kinetic decrement is not the only effect that is expected to lower the dielectric permittivity of electrolyte solutions. The strong local electric field in the vicinity of the ions tends to polarize solvent molecules more than any external electric field in the linear regime. Such a high field saturates the dielectric response of solvent molecules next to ions, effectively reducing the dielectric permittivity of the solution. This effect depends on the salt concentration \( c \) and, implicitly, on the conductivity \( \sigma \). For this reason it becomes hard, if not impossible, to separate the kinetic contribution from dielectric saturation experimentally.11,12

This situation prevents not only a direct observation of the kinetic decrement, but also a precise evaluation of the effect of saturation.13,14

Here, we use a non-equilibrium molecular dynamics approach to compute the kinetic decrement over an unprecedented wide range of concentrations, which is not accessible with conventional, equilibrium approaches.15 Moreover, we present a simple phenomenological theory that gives a quantitative account of the features of the kinetic decrement at higher concentrations.

The kinetic decrement can be seen as the sum of two complementary contributions: the first is the depolarization due to the moving ions, which exerts a torque on the solvent molecules; the second, more subtle effect, is a change in the imaginary part of the ion conductivity, a lag in the response.
of ions induced by the rotation of solvent molecules which are orienting along the external electric field. The two contributions must have exactly the same value, as a consequence of Onsager reciprocal relations. A straightforward way to see this is through the Green–Kubo expression for the kinetic decrement. The change in solvent polarization current is through the Green–Kubo expression for the kinetic decrement, which originates from the action of the rotating solvent molecules on the ions, is \[ \Delta \varepsilon = \alpha \Delta \varepsilon_{\text{DH}}(c) \], with \( \alpha = 2 \).

However elegant, the Green–Kubo expression is not very much suited for the computation of the kinetic decrement, because the signal-to-noise ratio at extreme dilutions would be too small for any practical purposes. A much more efficient way to compute \( \Delta \varepsilon \) consists instead in applying an external fictitious field \( \mathbf{E}_f \), that couples to the ions only, and in measuring the resulting polarization of the solvent \( \mathbf{P} \), so that \[ \Delta \varepsilon_{\text{PI}} = 4\pi \rho / (V \mathbf{E}_f) \]. This is evidently the out-of-equilibrium counterpart of the Green-Kubo formula for \( \Delta \varepsilon_{\text{PI}} \), because \( \mathbf{J}_p \) is the current that couples to the external field \( \mathbf{E}_f \), and \( \mathbf{J}_p \) the one generating the polarization \( \mathbf{P} \). Even rather intense fictitious fields do not drive the system out of the linear regime, and allow to collect meaningful statistics also for very dilute solutions with relatively short simulation runs, making this non-equilibrium approach the key to calculating the kinetic decrement over an unprecedented wide range of concentrations. We applied this non-equilibrium calculation to an aqueous solution of sodium chloride at 11 different salt concentrations. In our simulations we model water molecules using the three-sites SPC/E potential and sodium and chloride ions using the thermodynamics consistent Kirkwood–Buff potential. The salt concentration \( c \) varies from 0.035 to 4.24 M, keeping the water content fixed at 1621 molecules per simulation box and changing the number of salt pairs from 1 to 140. We kept constant temperature (300 K) and pressure (1 atm) using the Nosé–Hoover and Parrinello–Rahman algorithms with relaxation times of 5 ps. Electrostatic interactions were computed using the smooth particle mesh Ewald method with tin-foil boundary conditions, a 4-th order interpolation spline on a grid with spacing not larger than 0.12 nm and a relative interaction strength of \( 10^{-5} \) at 0.9 nm. We switched the short range part of the electrostatic interaction and the Lennard-Jones smoothly to zero between 0.9 and 1.2 nm using a fourth-degree polynomial. Simulations were performed with an in-house modified version of gromacs for the on-line calculation of the currents associated to the different species, and used an integration time step of 1 fs.

In Figure 1 we show the kinetic decrement as a function of the salt concentration, as measured in our simulations. The kinetic decrement shows a marked non monotonous dependence on the concentration, with a clear minimum right before \( c = 2 \) M. To test the Hubbard–Onsager formula, Eq. (1), we calculated also the molar conductivity \( \lambda \) of the solution at the different concentrations, as reported in Figure 2. A best fit to the Kohlraush law, \( \lambda(c) = \lambda_0 - K \sqrt{c} \), allows us to extrap-
icate the molar conductivity to infinite dilution, and estimate the limiting molar conductivity $\lambda_0$ separately for the sodium and chloride ions. Therefore, we can write the Hubbard–Onsager decrement for the mixture of sodium and chloride in the form $\Delta \varepsilon_{HO} = -4\pi \sigma \varepsilon_0 \left( \lambda_0^N + \lambda_0^C \right) c (\varepsilon_0 - \varepsilon_m)/\varepsilon_0$. The Hubbard–Onsager decrement so calculated (Fig. 1 light line) is not compatible with the simulation data above a concentration of 0.2 M. The presence of a pronounced minimum and the subsequent increase of $\Delta \varepsilon$ can not be explained even qualitatively with the continuum Hubbard–Onsager theory.

Physical intuition suggests that the local field of the ions, which determines the torque on water molecules, should be screened by the presence of oppositely charged ions in its vicinity. To formalize this, we introduce a mean-field correction to the Hubbard–Onsager theory, along the lines of the Debye–Hückel theory. The crucial step in the Hubbard–Onsager theory is the calculation of the rotational current $J_R$ induced in the polar medium by an ion travelling with a speed $u$. The coupling between electrostatics and Navier–Stokes equations allows to express the rotational current as a function of the local field generated by the ion, $\mathbf{E}_0$, as $J_R = \int (\chi/2\varepsilon_0) \mathbf{E}_0 \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{v}) \, dV$, where $\mathbf{v}$ is the velocity field of the solvent surrounding the ion and $\chi$ its dielectric susceptibility. For large ionic radii $R$, the velocity field can be approximated by the Stokes solution, $\mathbf{v}(r) = (3R/4r^3) \left[ r^2 \mathbf{u} + (r \cdot \mathbf{u}) \mathbf{r} \right]$. If, instead of using the Coulomb field, we use the Debye–Hückel one, $\mathbf{E}_0 = (q/\varepsilon_0 r^3) \exp(-\kappa r)(1 + \kappa r) \mathbf{r}$, the rotational current can be evaluated analytically as $J_R = (2\pi/\varepsilon_0) a \chi q \exp(-\kappa R)$. Here $\kappa = \sqrt{\beta e^2/(2\pi \varepsilon_0)}$ is the inverse Debye screening length.

Since the ratio between the ion speed $u$ and the driving electric field $E_0$ is $u/E_0 = \alpha/q$, it is possible express the dielectric decrement (which we denote here as $\Delta \varepsilon_{DH}$, the suffix standing for Debye–Hückel) in terms of the rotational current

$$\Delta \varepsilon_{DH} = \lim_{\omega \to 0} 4\pi \varepsilon_0''/\omega = \lim_{\omega \to 0} 4\pi \varepsilon_0''/\varepsilon_0. \quad (2)$$

Here, the imaginary part of a quantity is denoted by double-primes. The susceptibility of the dipolar medium is assumed to be characterized by a single Debye relaxation, so that $4\pi \chi(\omega) = (\varepsilon_0 - \varepsilon_m)(1 + i\omega \tau_P)$, from which one derives

$$\Delta \varepsilon_{DH} = 4\pi \sigma \tau_p \frac{\varepsilon_0 - \varepsilon_m}{\varepsilon_0} e^{-\kappa R}. \quad (3)$$

The solution resembles the classical Hubbard–Onsager one, but features an additional factor $\exp(-\kappa R)$ which depends on the effective ion size. This difference is an important one, because it shows that even at the mean field level there is an additional length scale, the screening length $\kappa^{-1}$, that governs the non-monotonous behaviour of the kinetic decrement.

In Figure 1 we compare the simulation results with the mean field result Eq. (3), summed over the contributions of the two ionic species, and multiplied by a scaling factor $\alpha$. The parameter $\alpha$ takes into account in a phenomenological way the effect of ionic correlations arising at high salt concentration. Very good agreement at high concentration has been achieved when $\alpha = 2$ (dark curve). As an effective ionic radius we used the size of the first hydration shell of the ion, defined as the sum of the position of the first minimum in the ion-water radial distribution function and of the Lennard-Jones diameter of a water molecule. The relaxation time $\tau$ has been computed from a fit of the Debye process $\chi(\omega)$ to the spectrum of the pure solvent, and the solution conductivity has been calculated from the limiting molar ones as for the Hubbard–Onsager case. One should notice that the relaxation of water is not described by a single Debye process, and often a Cole– Cole relaxation or two Debye processes are used to fit experimental data. However, the dominant contribution at lower frequencies comes from the main Debye relaxation, which is the one we are using here to calculate the decrement.

As a final remark, we note that due to the presence of the scaling factor $\alpha$, the curve does not converge, for $\kappa R \ll 1$, to the solution of Hubbard and Onsager, the latter being a better approximation at low concentrations. Nevertheless, the simulation data shows that the applicability range of the Hubbard–Onsager theory is limited to concentration smaller than approximately 0.2 M, a condition which has been often not fulfilled when searching for experimental evidences of the kinetic decrement. Our simulation results thus resolve the doubts which were cast on the attribution of the measured dielectric decrement in favor of the hypothesis of a static effect arising from dielectric saturation, which is definitely the largest contribution to the dielectric decrement.

M.S. acknowledges support from the European Community’s Seventh Framework Programme (FP7-People-2012-IEF) funded under grant Nr. 331932 Sidis. S.S.K. acknowledges support from RFBR grants mol-a 1202-31-374 and mol-a-ved 12-02-33106, from the Ministry of Science and Education of RF 2.609.20111 and, from Austrian Science Fund (FWF): START-Projekt Y 627-N27. The authors thank Christian Schröder and Othmar Steinhauser for useful discussions. A.A. would like to thank the German Research Foundation (DFG) for financial support through the Cluster of Excellence in Simulation Technology (EXC 310/1) at the University of Stuttgart.

References

1. J. B. Hubbard and L. J. Onsager, J. Chem. Phys., 1977, 67, 4850.
2. J. B. Hubbard, J. Chem. Phys., 1978, 68, 1649.
3. J. B. Hubbard, P. Colonomos and P. G. Wolynes, J. Chem. Phys., 1979, 71, 2652–2661.
4. P. Winsor IV and R. H. Cole, J. Chem. Phys., 1982, 66, 2491–2494.
5. Y.-Z. Wei, P. Chiang and S. Sridhar, J. Chem. Phys., 1992, 96, 4569.
6 K. Nörtemann, J. Hilland and U. Kaatze, *J. Phys. Chem. A*, 1997, **101**, 6864–6869.

7 U. Kaatze, *J. Solution Chem.*, 1997, **26**, 1049–1112.

8 U. Kaatze, *J. Mol. Liq.*, 2011, **162**, 105–112.

9 K. Tielrooij, N. Garcia-Araez, M. Bonn and H. Bakker, *Science*, 2010, **328**, 1006–1009.

10 R. Buchner, G. T. Hefter and P. M. May, *J. Chem. Phys. A*, 1999, **103**, 1–9.

11 N. Nandi, K. Bhattacharyya and B. Bagchi, *Chem. Rev.*, 2000, **100**, 2013–2046.

12 J. Hubbard, L. Onsager, W. Van Beek and M. Mandel, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, 1977, **74**, 401–404.

13 A. Chandra, *J. Chem. Phys.*, 2000, **113**, 903.

14 J. P. Hansen and I. R. McDonald, *Theory of Simple Liquids*, Academic Press, London, 1986.

15 M. Sega, S. Kantorovich, C. Holm and A. Arnold, *J. Chem. Phys.*, 2014, **140**, 211101.

16 H. J. C. Berendsen, J. R. Grigera and T. P. Straatsma, *J. Phys. Chem.*, 1987, **91**, 6269–6271.

17 S. Weerasinghe and P. E. Smith, *J. Chem. Phys.*, 2003, **119**, 11342–11349.

18 S. Nosé, *Mol. Phys.*, 1984, **52**, 255–268.

19 W. G. Hoover, *Phys. Rev. A*, 1985, **31**, 1695–1697.

20 M. Parrinello and A. Rahman, *J. Appl. Phys.*, 1981, **52**, 7182–7190.

21 U. Essmann, L. Perera, M. L. Berkowitz, T. Darden, H. Lee and L. Pedersen, *J. Chem. Phys.*, 1995, **103**, 8577.

22 B. Hess, C. Kutzner, D. Van Der Spoel and E. Lindahl, *J. Chem. Theory Comput.*, 2008, **4**, 435–447.

23 J. Barthel, K. Bachhuber, R. Buchner and H. Hetzenauer, *Chemical physics letters*, 1990, **165**, 369–373.