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Thermodynamic study of water confinement in hydrophobic zeolites by Monte Carlo simulations

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Thermodynamic study of water confinement in hydrophobic zeolites by Monte Carlo simulations

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We report a Grand Canonical Monte Carlo simulation study of water condensation in 4 different hydrophobic, all-silica, zeolites. In all cases, water condensation takes place above the saturation vapour pressure through a first-order like phase transition, with a hysteresis loop. This is at odds with the common belief that conventional phase transitions cannot take place in microporous solids such as zeolites. Forced fluid intrusion experiments, have long been interpreted in terms of irreversibilities. What we show here is that the most important features of this process can be understood in terms of equilibrium thermodynamics considerations. Finally, a strong depletion of confined water is predicted in these nanoporous solids.

INTRODUCTION

The concept of *hydrophobicity* was first used in aqueous solution thermodynamics in order to explain the solubility of small non polar species in water [1]. Such species can be accommodated in small quantities in liquid water without much perturbation of its hydrogen-bonded (HB) network. As the species gets larger, it becomes impossible to maintain the integrity of the HB network. For a large enough solute, it has been suggested that this could lead to the formation of a very thin layer of vapour separating the non polar surface from the liquid (an effect called “surface dewetting”) [2]. Lum *et al* [3] have argued that this qualitative change in behaviour from a “small” to a “large” solute could be characterized by a crossover length of the order of 1 nm. A comprehensive review on this subject, and its link with the role of water in biology, was provided by P. Ball very recently [4].

The term hydrophobic is somewhat misleading since it literally means “water repelling”. Indeed, in several theoretical studies, hydrophobic species were simply modeled as

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6 purely repulsive [3]. In real life, the water-hydrophobe interaction is attractive but less than
7 the mutual water-water attraction. We shall use here this very simple and straightforward
8 definition of a hydrophobic species, based on the comparison between the hydrophobe-water
9 and the water-water interaction potential energy.
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13 More recently, the notion of *surface hydrophobicity* was used [5,6]. It should be
14 understood as a simple extension of the concept of hydrophobicity for large solutes described
15 above. When a water molecule approaches a purely graphitic carbon surface, for instance, it
16 experiences a weaker potential interaction energy than in the bulk liquid state, which is due to
17 the lack of HB between water and carbon atoms. A similar situation is encountered when
18 water is interacting with a protein surface made of nonpolar residues.
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24 The behaviour of water confined to spaces of nanoscopic dimensions is an important
25 issue in many areas of science and technology. The special situations in which the confining
26 surfaces are hydrophobic have attracted a lot of interest in the past decade. Understanding the
27 changes in water properties due to interactions with a hydrophobic substrate is relevant to
28 such problems as selective adsorption using activated carbons or all-silica zeolites [7] (waste
29 water treatment for instance). Similar questions arise when considering the issue of confined
30 water in biological channels and protein cavities [4]. We shall use for the rest of this article
31 the term *hydrophobic solid* to depict a porous solid, the internal surface of which is
32 hydrophobic.
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40 Porous carbon materials are archetypical hydrophobic solids. They have been
41 extensively studied for fundamental as well as practical reasons [8]. Still, a more detailed
42 understanding is hampered by the intrinsic disorder of the amorphous porous carbons as well
43 as by the difficulty in obtaining samples free of active surface defects. All-silica zeolites have
44 also proven recently to behave like hydrophobic solids. In contrast to porous carbons and
45 mesoporous silica, zeolites are well-characterized crystalline materials. The primary building
46 unit of such solids is a tetrahedron with a silicon atom in the center and four oxygen atoms at
47 its apexes. The zeolite framework consists of a 3-dimensional network of SiO₄ tetrahedra
48 connected to each other by shared oxygen atoms. This enables to build up a variety of purely
49 siliceous open framework materials containing cages and channels of 0.4 to 2 nm width, with
50 essentially no internal surface defects. In the all-silica frameworks such as silicalite-1 or
51 β zeolite, water uptake in the gas phase at ambient conditions was found to be extremely
52 small [6]. For this reason, these nanoporous materials were termed hydrophobic. In an
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6 experiment similar in nature to mercury porosimetry, Patarin and coworkers [9,10] observed
7 water intrusion taking place in silicalite-1 at a hydraulic pressure of about 100 MPa at room
8 temperature. A spontaneous extrusion (capillary evaporation, or drying) took place upon
9 release of the pressure. All-silica zeolites were thus proven to be highly *hydrophobic* as well
10 as *non wetting* nanoporous materials.
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15 Recently, the water intrusion-extrusion transition in silicalite-1 was reproduced for the
16 first time by equilibrium molecular simulations [11,12]. This phenomenon was tentatively
17 interpreted in terms of an equilibrium first-order vapour-liquid condensation, following
18 Porcheron *et al* [13], who pointed out the similarity between capillary condensation of a
19 wetting fluid and forced intrusion of a non wetting fluid.
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24 In what follows, we report a water intrusion/extrusion study of faujasite, LTA and β
25 zeolites. These results are compared with the previously published silicalite-1 data. The nature
26 of the intrusion/extrusion transitions is investigated using a thermodynamic potential
27 computation. We find that the equilibrium vapour-liquid transition state is shifted to high
28 pressure as confinement is increased. We conclude that the main features of the experimental
29 intrusion/extrusion experiments can be understood in terms of equilibrium thermodynamics
30 considerations.
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38 **SIMULATION MODELS AND METHODS**

39 **Zeolite models and forcefields**

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42 Atomic coordinates of the orthorhombic (Pnma) structure determined by van Koningsveld
43 and coworkers [14] have been used for silicalite-1. The unit cell parameters are $a=20.022\text{\AA}$,
44 $b=19.899\text{\AA}$, and $c=13.383\text{\AA}$. Zeolite β structure has been determined by Newsam *et al* [15].
45 This crystal structure is composed of the intergrowth of two polytypes. Polytype A has a
46 quadratic (P4₁22) symmetry, whereas polytype B exhibits a monoclinic (C2/c) symmetry. We
47 have studied the polytype A only, unit cell parameters of which are $a=12.6614\text{\AA}$,
48 $b=12.6614\text{\AA}$, and $c=26.4061\text{\AA}$. For LTA (Linde Type A) zeolite, atomic coordinates have
49 been taken from the *Atlas of Zeolite Framework Types* [16]. The unit cell is cubic with a cell
50 parameter of $a=11.9189\text{\AA}$, which corresponds to the all-silica form of A zeolite. All-silica
51 faujasite has never been synthesized so far. Indeed, crystalline faujasites are always found
52 with a significant amount of aluminium atoms. The highest Si/Al ratio that can be obtained is
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6 around 44, and these faujasites exhibit an important amount of crystalline defects. Our all-
7 silica faujasite is thus a speculative model, based on atomic coordinates that correspond to
8 crystallographic data obtained by Fitch *et al.* for a faujasite with a Si/Al ratio of 2.43 [17].
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10 We used a rigid zeolite framework in each case, and we simulated a box of eight to twelve
11 unit cells with periodic boundary conditions. Molecular simulations were performed in the
12 classical limit (no bond breaking taking place, for instance). This is justified by the fact that
13 no structural or chemical changes seem to occur in these systems upon water condensation,
14 even after several intrusion-extrusion cycles [6]. The forcefield used here was described in
15 details earlier [6,12,18]. It has been used in previous water adsorption studies in either
16 cationic [18] or all-silica frameworks [6,12]. **The framework-fluid potential consists of
17 standard coulombic + Lennard-Jones terms that act between the zeolite and the water centres
18 of forces. The TIP4P model was used for water.** All the potential parameters used in this work
19 are identical to those reported in Ref 6. Finally, Ewald sums were used to calculate the
20 coulombic terms of the interaction potential energy.
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31 32 **Simulation methods**

33 Adsorption isotherms were computed using bias Grand Canonical Monte Carlo (GCMC)
34 simulations [19,20] to compute the average number of adsorbed water molecules for several
35 values of the chemical potential of the (fictitious) vapour reservoir at a given temperature. In
36 the gas phase adsorption simulations, the water chemical potential was related to the vapour
37 pressure by using the ideal gas law. Liquid phase adsorption data were obtained using the
38 $\mu(P)$ relation, in a way previously described [12]. Other details such as the statistical bias
39 moves, used to accelerate the convergence of the Monte Carlo runs, were also described in
40 previous articles [6,18]. Each GCMC run lasted for some 10 million steps in order to
41 equilibrate the system, followed by at least 40 million steps for the data acquisition.
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53 **Grand Potential computation**

54 The question of the nature of the transition in adsorption/desorption experiments is often
55 subject to debate. Is this transition a real phase transition, between a gas-like and a liquid-like
56 fluid? Likewise, when hysteresis occurs, its origin also raises several questions. Is it due to a
57 bad sampling of the system or can it be related to the existence of multiple metastable states?
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6 In order to provide an answer to these issues, knowledge of the thermodynamic potential of
7 the system is necessary. Such a quantity is not straightforward to obtain and requires the use
8 of sophisticated techniques. Recently, Wang and Landau developed such a technique based on
9 of sophisticated techniques. Recently, Wang and Landau developed such a technique based on
10 the computation of the density of states (DOS) on-the-fly, using Monte Carlo simulations with
11 non-Boltzmann sampling [21,22] (Once the DOS is known, the calculation of the
12 thermodynamic potential is straightforward). This method has been revisited in the context of
13 expanded ensembles [23-26]. In expanded ensembles, substates of the system are defined by
14 the introduction of a new variable often called the reaction coordinate. **We shall use here the**
15 **number of water molecule, N, as the reaction coordinate.** The aim of those EXEDOS
16 (Expanded Ensemble Density Of States) simulations is not to determine the density of states
17 as a function of the energy, as in the original Wang-Landau algorithm, but as a function of the
18 reaction coordinate, in order to compute variations of thermodynamic quantities with N.
19 When dealing with adsorption, the thermodynamic potential is the Grand Potential Ω , since
20 simulations are conducted in the Grand Canonical ensemble. We have applied the EXEDOS
21 methodology to compute Ω as a function of the number of adsorbed water molecules in the
22 zeolite framework. To this end, we have computed the density of states of the system as a
23 function of N, noted Q(N).

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36 The probability to generate randomly a configuration with N water molecules is
37 proportional to Q(N). A flat distribution is thus obtained if each state is visited with
38 probability proportional to 1/Q(N). The acceptance probabilities of insertion and destruction
39 moves have been modified accordingly (rotations, translations, and jump moves are still
40 accepted according to the conventional Metropolis criteria):

$$41 \quad p(N \rightarrow N + 1) = \min\left(1, \frac{V}{(N + 1)\Lambda^3} \frac{Q(N)}{Q(N + 1)} e^{-\beta\Delta E}\right) \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

$$42 \quad p(N \rightarrow N - 1) = \min\left(1, \frac{N\Lambda^3}{V} \frac{Q(N)}{Q(N - 1)} e^{-\beta\Delta E}\right) \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

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where Λ is the de Broglie wavelength and ΔE is the energy change between the new and the old configuration. Q(N) is determined iteratively during the simulation. Initially, Q is uniformly set to 1 for the entire range of values accepted for N. Q is then updated at each insertion or destruction trial move between two configurations containing respectively N_1 and

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N_2 water molecules. If the move is accepted, $Q(N_2)$ is multiplied by a factor f (with $f > 1$); if the move is rejected, $Q(N_1)$ is multiplied by f . At the same time, a N -histogram $H(N)$ is accumulated. The simulation is stopped when each bin has been visited at least $100/\sqrt{\ln f}$ times, following Zhou and Batt [26]. At this time, the multiplicative factor is decreased, so that $f \rightarrow \sqrt{f}$. The histogram is reset to zero and a new cycle is started, until the histogram is flat again. This process is repeated until f reaches a small enough value. f is set to e^1 for the initial cycle, and 20 cycles are made, so that the last value of f is approximately equal to $\exp(10^{-6})$. For small values of f (typically $f < \exp(10^{-4})$), the “minimum visit per bin” criterion may be too restrictive and the simulation is stopped if the total number of MC moves is superior to $200000/\sqrt{\ln f}$.

Once $Q(N)$ has been determined, one is able to compute Ω for the system, using:

$$\Omega(\mu, V, T) = -k_B T \ln \left(\sum_N Q(N) e^{\beta \mu N} \right) \dots\dots\dots (3)$$

For a given value of the chemical potential μ , the Landau free energy Ω_L between two states containing respectively N_1 and N_2 molecules is:

$$\Omega_L(\mu, N_2) - \Omega_L(\mu, N_1) = -k_B T \ln \left(\frac{Q(N_2)}{Q(N_1)} e^{\beta \mu (N_2 - N_1)} \right) \dots\dots\dots (4)$$

This allows to determine Ω_L to within an additive constant. In our particular case it turns out that $\Omega_L(\mu, 0) = 0 \text{ kJ.mol}^{-1}$, since $N = 0$ corresponds to only one configuration for any value of μ . In what follows, we will be using the known $\mu(P)$ relationship for bulk water [6], in order to compute Ω (or Ω_L) as a function of the external pressure of the reservoir.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Equilibrium Monte Carlo simulations

In Figure 1, we report the results of the GCMC simulations for faujasite, LTA and β zeolites. For comparison sake, we also report the previously published data obtained in the case of silicalite-1 [6]. In all cases, a hysteresis loop is observed. The intrusion-extrusion

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6 phenomenon in the silicalite-1 has been studied earlier in some details [6,12], and the
7 simulation results were found to agree well with the available experiments. Experimental
8 work is still in progress for the other zeolites. As seen in Figure 1, water intrusion is shifted to
9 higher pressure, in going from faujasite to LTA, β and then silicalite-1. This can be
10 understood in terms of an increased water confinement. In what follows we examine in more
11 details the nature of the condensation transitions, in order to better understand the underlying
12 physics that causes intrusion to be such an abrupt process.
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20 **Thermodynamic analysis of the intrusion transition**

21 We report in Figure 2 the free energy Ω_L as a function of the number of intruded water
22 molecules for various pressure, at 300 K. All systems are characterized by the existence of a
23 double potential well. At low pressure, the most stable state corresponds to the empty zeolite,
24 and the filled state is metastable. Above a certain pressure, the filled state becomes the most
25 stable one. The existence of two stable states is characteristic of a first-order transition
26 between gas-like and liquid-like phases. The conversion between those two states is possible
27 on a wide range of pressure as seen in Figure 3, but the system has to overcome a
28 macroscopic energy barrier. Monte Carlo simulations proceed via microscopic moves. In a
29 finite time Monte Carlo run, the most stable state may not be reached, and this is why
30 hysteresis loops are observed.
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40 It might appear surprising that a bulk fluid phase diagram can be extended in such a
41 way, down to the nanoscale range. Indeed, it is common wisdom, in the adsorption
42 community, that the usual bulk phase transitions do not exist anymore in micropores [27], and
43 especially so in zeolites. This view is presumably valid for the adsorption of fluids that have a
44 strong affinity with the adsorbent walls. It is typically the case in aluminosilicate zeolites
45 **which are archetypical hydrophilic solids¹⁸. In this latter case adsorption is characterized by a**
46 **Langmuir Type I isotherm and not real phase transition takes place because the whole process**
47 **is dominated by the water-surface interaction.** The situation in which the fluid does not fully
48 wet the pore surface is different. In this case, we believe that a first-order like condensation of
49 the fluid can be observed, provided that the interconnected pore structure is 3-dimensional. In
50 our first study of water condensation in silicalite-1, we observed that the transition occurred
51 *everywhere* in the porous solid, at the same pressure. Even though each channel portion of the
52 presently studied zeolites forms a pseudo 1D confined system, in which a first-order transition
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is theoretically forbidden, the interconnected nature of the porous structure and the correlation between adjacent pores [28] ensures a 3D-like behaviour of confined water. The occurrence of such a first order-like transition has actually been predicted by Bichara and Pellenq [29,30] in the case of selenium adsorption in silicalite-1 zeolite.

As seen in Figure 3, the equilibrium vapour-liquid state at 300K increases from faujasite to LTA, β and silicalite-1. This can be accounted for in the following way. In sufficiently wide pores the intrusion process can be described by the so-called Washburn equation [31]:

$$P = -\frac{2\gamma_{LV} \cos\theta}{r_p} \dots\dots (5)$$

where P is the hydraulic pressure that must be applied to the nonwetting liquid to penetrate a cylindrical pore of radius r_p . γ_{LV} is the fluid-wall interfacial tension and θ the contact angle. One does not *a priori* expect that such a macroscopic equation be valid for pore radius in the nanometer scale. The qualitative trend however should be valid: the intrusion pressure should increase with the fluid confinement, *i.e.* with a decreasing pore radius. The porous volume in zeolites is irregular (channels and cages of different diameters). Given that we are dealing here with an equilibrium condensation transition that takes place above the bulk vapour pressure, we characterise the fluid confinement by computing the *largest* available spherical void in a given zeolitic framework. For the “cage” zeolites, the corresponding pore radius is $r_p = 5.5 \text{ \AA}$ for faujasite, and $r_p = 5.2 \text{ \AA}$ for LTA. For the “channel” zeolite, $r_p = 3.0 \text{ \AA}$ for β and $r_p = 2.5 \text{ \AA}$ for silicalite-1. The decreasing r_p values, in going from faujasite to silicalite-1, are thus consistent with the increasing computed equilibrium transition pressures (faujasite: 4300 Pa; LTA: 64 MPa; β : 82 MPa; Silicalite-1: 122 MPa).

Confined water density

The density of confined water at full loading can be computed, using the equilibrium adsorption data and the knowledge of the available pore volume. The latter quantity can be computed using an approach similar to that of the calculation of Connolly surfaces [12,32]. Briefly, the simulation cell is mapped with a grid, and every single point of this grid is tested to see whether a test particle of radius R_p can be inserted, without bumping into the pore walls

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6 (represented by the oxygen atoms, with a radius R_O). If so, this point is counted as part of the
7 pore volume, as well as all the points of the grid located within R_P of the tested point. The
8 values of R_O and R_P are chosen to be half of the Lennard-Jones diameter, *i.e.*: $R_O=1.5\text{\AA}$ for the
9 framework oxygen and $R_P=1.577\text{\AA}$ for water. The density of the liquid-like phase of confined
10 water within the different zeolites studied here is displayed in Table 1. Note that in the case of
11 faujasite and LTA, only supercages are taken into account to compute the pore volume, since
12 no water molecule was found in the sodalite cages in our simulations.
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18 In all cases here, water density is less than that of bulk water for the same conditions
19 of temperature and pressure. This is due to the fact that confinement prevents a regular 3-D
20 ordering of water molecules. The most strongly depleted liquid-like fluid is observed in
21 silicalite-1, which corresponds to the higher level of confinement, while the fluid density
22 approaches the bulk value in the large cage faujasite zeolite. Intermediate values of the order
23 of 0.85 are observed in the case of LTA and β zeolites. Water depletion near a hydrophobic
24 wall is a feature that was theoretically predicted some time ago [33] but it is the first time, to
25 our knowledge, that such a depletion of water in ultra-confined zeolite spaces is reported. This
26 finding awaits direct experimental confirmation. However, the water density obtained using
27 the computed adsorption data and the experimental porous volume extracted from nitrogen
28 gas adsorption yields the same value of $\sim 0.7\text{ g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$ for confined water in silicalite-1 [11].
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41 5. Summary and conclusions

42 The behaviour of water in nanoporous hydrophobic solids was mostly studied up to now in
43 the special (and important) case of porous carbon materials. **The all-silica zeolites that solid-**
44 **state chemists have been able to synthesize (faujasite for instance still awaits to be**
45 **synthesized in its pure silica form) are well characterized solids, and can be prepared with**
46 **almost no internal surface defects [6].** A combination of experiments [6,11] and molecular
47 simulations, using such materials, enables to shed some new light on the water condensation
48 process that takes place in hydrophobic solids.
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55 The main conclusion of this study is that water condensation takes place through a
56 genuine first-order phase transition, provided that the interconnected pores structure is 3-
57 dimensional. We believe that this finding is very general for hydrophobic solids, *i.e.* for both
58 nonwetting as well as wetting water-solid interface systems (the condensation transition being
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6 an *intrusion* transition in the first case and a classical *capillary condensation* in the second
7 one). In the intrusion experiments, a rather high hydraulic pressure must be applied until the
8 sudden fluid penetration takes place. This has led to several interpretations of this
9 phenomenon in terms of irreversibilities [9,10,34], especially since hysteresis was often
10 observed in standard experiments such as mercury intrusion. Only recently has this process
11 been examined in the light of equilibrium statistical thermodynamics. The similarity between
12 capillary condensation of a wetting fluid and forced intrusion of a non wetting fluid was, for a
13 long time, overlooked [13].

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What we have shown here is that the most important features of the intrusion/extrusion
process can be understood in terms of equilibrium thermodynamics considerations. Water
intrusion is a first order vapour-liquid transition that takes place above the saturation vapour
pressure because the water-solid interface is non-wetting. Finally, a strong depletion of
confined water was predicted.

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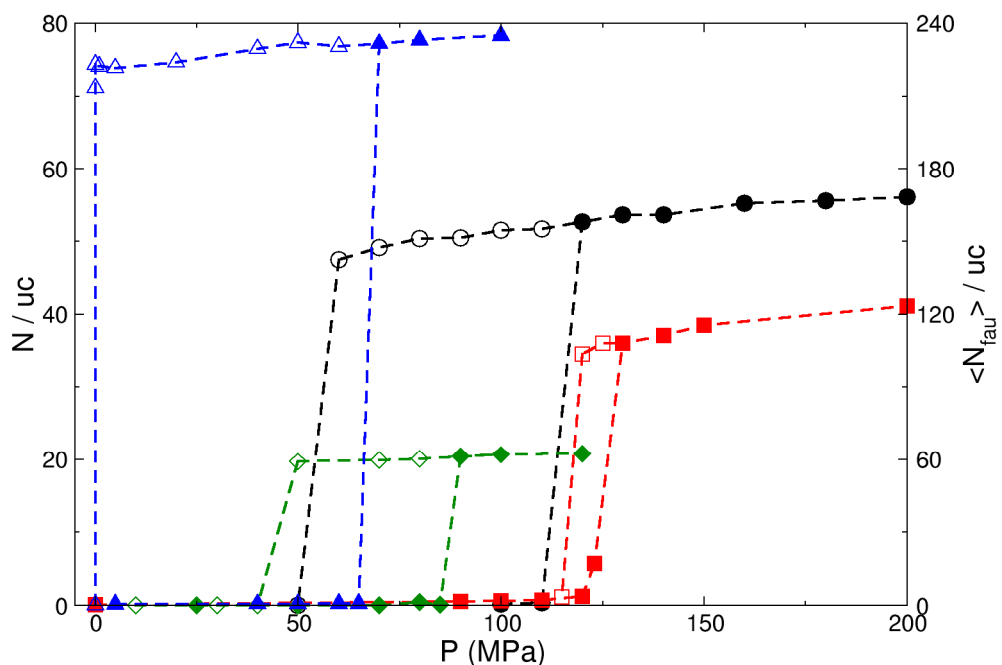


Figure 1. Water intrusion-extrusion isotherms computed through GCMC simulations at 300 K. Filled symbols refer to intrusion and open symbols to extrusion. Blue triangle curves: faujasite; green diamonds: LTA; black circles: β zeolite; red squares: silicalite-1. For sake of clarity, the adsorbed quantities N in the case of faujasite is shown on the right axis.

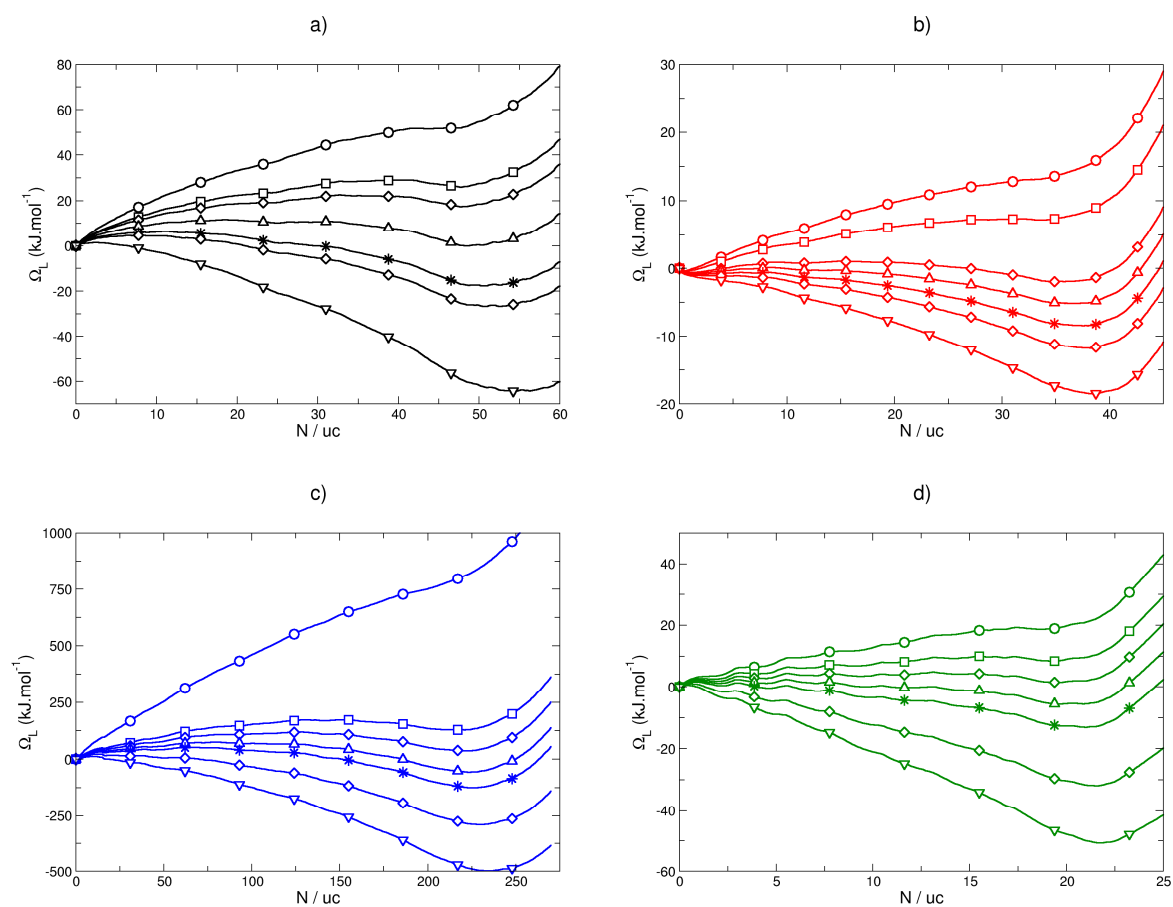


Figure 2. Computed free energy Ω_L of the water-zeolite system for various pressure at 300K, as a function of the amount of intruded water;

a) β zeolite. The free energy profiles correspond to 20 MPa (upper curve), 50, 60, 80, 100, 110, and 150 MPa (lower curve)

b) Silicalite -1: the free energy profiles correspond to 100 MPa (upper curve), 110, 125, 130, 135, 140 and 150 MPa (lower curve)

c) Faujasite: the free energy profiles correspond to 1000 Pa (upper curve), 3450, 4050, 4800Pa, 10MPa, 50 and 100MPa (lower curve)

d) LTA: the free energy profiles correspond to 10 MPa (upper curve), 40, 60, 80, 100, 150 and 200 MPa (lower curve)

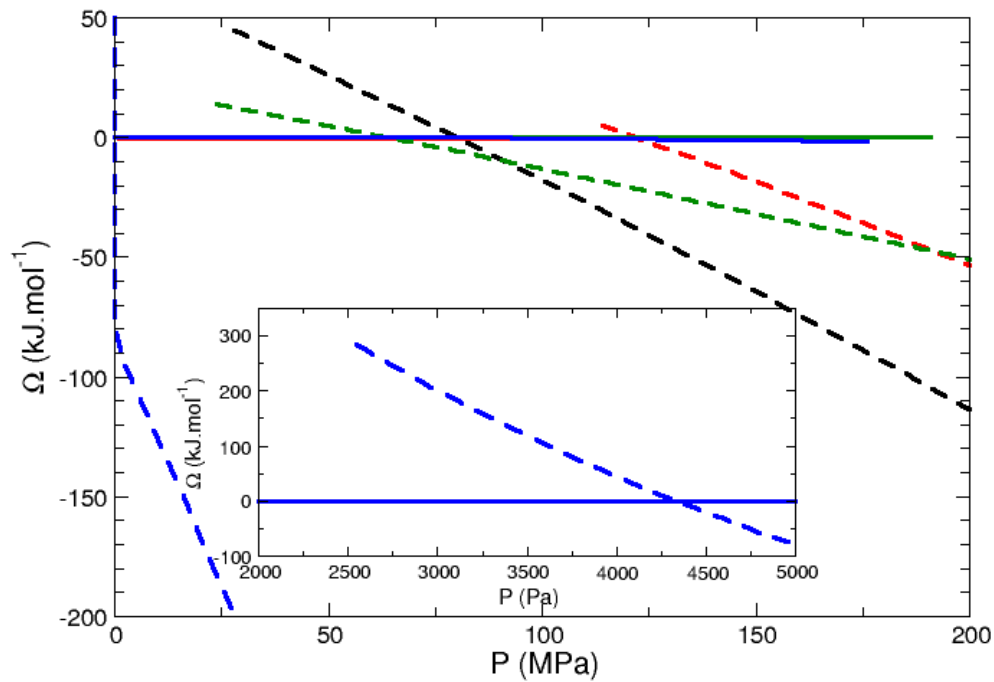


Figure 3: Free energy minima of the water-zeolite systems as a function of pressure at 300K. Full lines: empty states, dashed lines: filled states. Blue: faujasite; green: LTA; black: β ; red: silicalite-1.

Table 1: Number of adsorbed water molecules per unit cell at full loading, computed pore volume with $R_p=1.577\text{\AA}$, and computed density of the confined water.

Zeolite	$\langle N \rangle / \text{uc}$	$V_P (\text{\AA}^3 \cdot \text{uc}^{-1})$	$\rho_{\text{conf}} (\text{g} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3})$
Silicalite-1	41	1796	0.68
Zeolite β	56	1885	0.89
LTA *	21	754	0.83
Faujasite *	235	7256	0.97

* Only supercages are taken into account to compute the pore volume