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4 **nanopores with Non-Local Density Functional Theory**
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Pore pressure and phase transitions of water confined in nanopores with Non-Local Density Functional Theory

In this paper, the non-local density functional theory is used in combination with SAFT-VR, to investigate the pore pressure behaviour of water confined in various nanopores. Due to the efficiency and low computational cost of the method, many configurations and thermodynamic conditions are explored. In particular, capillary condensation and evaporation of water, their impact on the pore pressure, and the effect of surface activation are evaluated. Successive first-order phase transitions of ultra-confined water monolayer are also highlighted.

Keywords: density functional theory; SAFT-VR; adsorption; phase transitions ; nanopores ; confinement.

1. Introduction

The static and dynamic physical properties of confined water are significantly different from their equivalent in bulk phase [1]. As an example, novel phases of ice have been discovered recently in carbon nanotubes by Koga and coworkers [2,3] and in other structures such as graphene slit pores [4]. Han *et al.* [5] have shown that water may freeze by means of both first-order and continuous phase transitions in hydrophobic nanopores. Ruiz-Barragan *et al.* [4] have already noticed the peculiar behaviour of highly confined water and found that its properties drastically change at the level of both H-bonding and electronic structure thanks to ab initio molecular dynamics simulations. In a recent review dedicated to the molecular simulation studies of water confined in slit geometries, Zangi [6] have summarized the major part of the recent works showing that, in that case, water stratifies into layers and exhibits an oscillatory stress response according to pore size. More recently, Bampoulis *et al.* [1] have reviewed the current knowledge of the structure and the dynamics of water in many confinement situations. It has thus been evidenced

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3 that water behaviour is extremely sensitive to the specific confinement conditions. The
4 major part of the current knowledge about confined water has been obtained from
5 simulations (molecular dynamics, *ab initio* and molecular simulations) [3–5, 7–11] and
6
7 from some experiments [12–15]. In this paper, we propose an alternative approach by
8 using a molecular density functional theory (DFT). Indeed, it has already been
9 demonstrated that non-local DFT could be as accurate as molecular simulations to
10 estimate the thermodynamic properties of confined model or real fluids [16–21] but with
11 two interesting key features: i) a much lower computational cost enabling to explore many
12 configurations, ii) a continuum framework that could be coupled with other continuum
13 theories, as for instance poromechanics to understand the effect of adsorption on
14 macroscopic deformation of porous materials. The efficiency of DFT in modelling
15 confined real fluids is controlled on the one hand by the non-local treatment of the
16 repulsive and short-range interactions. To that extent, the Modified Fundamental Measure
17 Theory [11,12], whose superiority over other treatments is unanimous, is used in the
18 present study. On the other hand, DFT must be based on an efficient description of the
19 bulk equilibrium properties and thus on the governing molecular interactions of the
20 considered fluid. To do so for water, NLDFT is used in this work in combination with the
21 SAFT framework with the original parametrization proposed by Clark *et al.* [24] for
22 water. The efficiency of the proposed NLDFT/SAFT-VR coupling in predicting confined
23 water density has already been assessed in a previous work [25] by comparison with
24 molecular simulations performed with the same water molecular model. The principal
25 objective of this study is to pursue the analysis of confined water with this thermodynamic
26 model by investigating the pore pressure behaviour of water confined in various
27 nanopores. Even if NLDFT is now widely used for simple fluids and especially for the
28 characterization of porous materials [26–28], its application to water – or at least to hard
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3 associating fluids [29–34] – is scarce because the inhomogeneous free energy related to
4 hydrogen bonding is far from easy to build. Solely very recently, Trejos *et al.* [35] have
5 used DFT to study the solvation force of water-like fluids in slit-like pores, which is the
6 only work related to the pore pressure induced by adsorption of water within a DFT
7 framework. The SAFT/DFT used by Trejos and his coworkers is similar to the one
8 proposed here for the terms related to the hard-sphere contributions but are different for
9 the attractive ones. They study the influence of parameters such as the range of the square-
10 well potential or the gas-solid potential depth on the solvation force, in the case of
11 supercritical water or liquid water at room temperature. Here, the application of DFT for
12 the computation of water pore pressure is essentially focused on subcritical water in order
13 to focus on capillary phase transitions. The effect of surface activation is also analysed,
14 which constitutes the other innovative point of this paper.

34 2. Theoretical Section

37 2.1. Brief overview of NLDFT-SAFT coupling for inhomogeneous water

38 The principal equations concerning the version of the coupled NLDFT-SAFT-VR model
39 used in this work to obtain the microstructure of confined water have been detailed
40 elsewhere [25]. Therefore, the discussion on this theory will be limited to its most
41 significant features.

42 In the DFT framework [7,8], the grand thermodynamic potential Ω of an inhomogeneous
43 fluid in the presence of an external potential V_{ext} , in the grand canonical ensemble (μ, V, T)
44 is assumed to be a functional of the molecular density $\rho(\vec{r})$ as

$$45 \Omega[\rho(\vec{r})] = \mathcal{F}[\rho(\vec{r})] + \int \{V_{ext}(\vec{r}) - \mu\}(\vec{r}) d\vec{r} \quad (1)$$

46 where $\mathcal{F}[\rho(\vec{r})]$ is the Helmholtz free energy of the fluid.

The equilibrium density distribution is calculated through the minimization of the grand potential by solving the corresponding Euler-Lagrange equation

$$\frac{\delta\Omega[\rho(\vec{r})]}{\delta\rho(\vec{r})} = \frac{\delta\mathcal{F}[\rho(\vec{r})]}{\delta\rho(\vec{r})} + V_{ext}(\vec{r}) - \mu = 0 \quad (2)$$

As in the bulk SAFT-VR framework, water is considered as one sphere with four identical associating sites placed in a tetrahedral geometry [24]. In order to describe this inhomogeneous spherical associative monomer, the Helmholtz free energy functional is separated in the following contributions

$$\mathcal{F}[\rho(\vec{r})] = \mathcal{F}^{ideal}[\rho(\vec{r})] + \mathcal{F}^{HS}[\rho(\vec{r})] + \mathcal{F}_1^{sr}[\rho(\vec{r})] + \mathcal{F}_2[\rho(\vec{r})] + \mathcal{F}^{att}[\rho(\vec{r})] + \mathcal{F}^{assoc}[\rho(\vec{r})] \quad (3)$$

where $\mathcal{F}^{ideal}[\rho(\vec{r})]$ is the ideal free energy [17]. The interaction between monomers is described by [20]: (i) the hard-sphere contribution $\mathcal{F}^{HS}[\rho(\vec{r})]$ of the Modified Fundamental Measure Theory [11,12]; (ii) a Barker-Henderson high-temperature perturbation expansion treated in a mean-field approximation where $\mathcal{F}_1^{sr}[\rho(\vec{r})]$ is the first-order short-range contribution, $\mathcal{F}_2[\rho(\vec{r})]$ the second-order contribution and $\mathcal{F}^{att}[\rho(\vec{r})]$ the classical attractive term in the DFT formalism.

The associating functional $\mathcal{F}^{asso}[\rho(\vec{r})]$ is [6,13] :

$$\mathcal{F}^{asso}[\rho(\vec{r})] = 4k_B T \int d\vec{r} n_0(\vec{r}) \zeta(\vec{r}) \left(\ln X(\vec{r}) - \frac{X(\vec{r})}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) \quad (4)$$

where $n_0(\vec{r})$ is one of the weighted densities of the MFMT formalism, $\zeta(\vec{r})$ is a proportional factor proposed by Yu *et al.* [32] to extend the bulk association free energy to inhomogeneous system. $X(\vec{r})$ is the fraction of not-bonded sites as introduced in Wertheim's theory [14,15] and is computed as proposed by Malheiro *et al.* [25].

In order to apply the NLDFT formalism, the external potential V_{ext} applied on the fluid must be specified. Here, water confined in slit-like pores is considered. Thus, the external potential applied to the fluid, due to the presence of the solid, is modeled by the “10-4-3” Steele’s potential [39] from both surfaces separated by the distance L :

$$V_{ext}(z) = V_{sf}(z) + V_{sf}(L - z) \quad (5)$$

with

$$V_{sf}(z) = 2\pi\rho_s\varepsilon_{sf}\sigma_{sf}^2\Delta\left[\frac{2}{5}\left(\frac{\sigma_{sf}}{z}\right)^{10} - \left(\frac{\sigma_{sf}}{z}\right)^4 - \frac{\sigma_{sf}^4}{3\Delta(z+0.61\Delta)^3}\right] \quad (6)$$

where ρ_s is the density of the solid, Δ is the spacing between two parallel layers of the molecules constituting the solid, σ_y and ε_y are the interaction parameters determined by the Lorentz-Berthelot rules: $\sigma_y = (\sigma_{ss} + \sigma_{ff})/2$ and $\varepsilon_y = (\varepsilon_{ss}\varepsilon_{ff})^{1/2}$ where the subscript ss refers to the solid while the subscript ff refers to the fluid.

In order to mimic the case of a surface containing adsorption sites, an integrated potential can be added to the previous external potential, following the same philosophy that transforms the Lennard-Jones intermolecular potential to the Steele’s one when integrated over the carbon planes. Thus, considering a virtual homogenous surface S with a number of sites per area ρ_{site} placed at a distance z_{site} inside the pore, the potential ϕ^{HB} resulting from this surface is given by

$$\phi^{HB} = \int_S \rho_{site} U_{O-H} dS \quad (7)$$

This potential ϕ^{HB} is the same SW intermolecular potential that describes hydrogen bond between water molecules in the fluid:

$$U_{O-H} = \begin{cases} -\varepsilon_{HB} & \text{if } r < \sigma_{HB} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

where we have defined σ_{HB} , from the site-site bonding volume κ_{HB} of SAFT-VR [24], by

$$\sigma_{HB} = \left(\frac{3}{4\pi} \kappa_{HB} \right)^{1/3} \quad (9)$$

Integration of Equation (7) gives

$$\phi^{HB} = \begin{cases} -\pi\rho_S\varepsilon_{HB}[\sigma_{HB}^2 - (z - z_{site})^2] & \text{if } |z - z_{site}| < \sigma_{HB} \\ 0 & \text{if } |z - z_{site}| > \sigma_{HB} \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

2.2. Pore pressure from NLDFT formalism

The pore pressure Π_f can be obtained from the grand thermodynamic potential [40] as:

$$\Pi_f = -\frac{1}{A_0} \left(\frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial L} \right)_{T, A_0, \mu} \quad (11)$$

where A_0 is the surface of one wall constituting the pore.

In a previous work [41], we had demonstrated that in the case of a Steele-type external potential, the pore pressure becomes :

$$\Pi_f = -\int_0^L \rho(z) \frac{\partial V^{Steele}}{\partial z}(z) dz \quad (12)$$

Here, the extension to activated surfaces modelled with the potential defined in Equation (10) is proposed. The pore pressure is, in that case, made of two contributions as :

$$\Pi_f = -\int_0^L \rho(z) \frac{\partial V^{Steele}}{\partial z}(z) dz - 2\pi\varepsilon_{HB}\rho_S \int_0^L \rho(z) (z - z_{site}) dz \quad (13)$$

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Pore pressure of water confined in graphitic micropores

Let us first consider water confined between two parallel graphitic surfaces separated by a distance L from carbon-center to carbon-center. The interaction parameters of the solid [42] are $\sigma_s = 0.34$ nm and $\varepsilon_s/k_b = 28$ K. The density of graphite is $\rho_s = 114$ molecules/m³ and the spacing between two parallel layers of graphite molecules constituting the wall is $\Delta = 0.335$ nm. The water interaction parameters : $\sigma = 0.3303$ nm, $\varepsilon/k_b = 300.43$ K, $\lambda = 1.718$, $\varepsilon_{hb}/k_b = 1336.9$ K and $\kappa_{hb} = 0.89369 \cdot 10^{-3}$ nm³ are the ones obtained by Clark *et al.* [24]. At thermodynamic conditions corresponding to bulk liquid water (*i.e.* here $T = 425$ K and $P = 0.52$ MPa), both the average density and pore pressure oscillate as a function of pore width for graphitic slit micropores as shown in Figure 1.

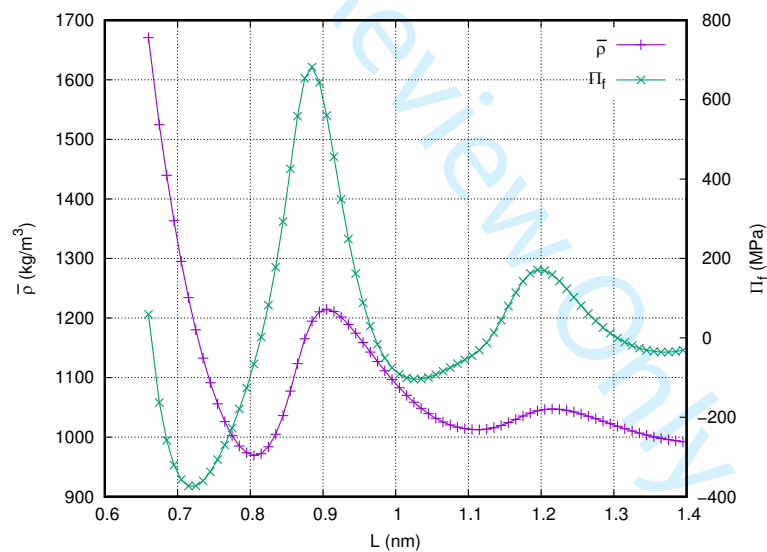


Figure 1. Average pore density and pore pressure as a function of pore size for water confined in slit graphitic pores at 425 K.

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3 The global variation and oscillatory behaviour of the average density of water in slit
4 micropores shown in Figure 1 is not surprising. It has already been described for other
5 non-polar and polar fluids with molecular simulations [20, 21] and DFT calculations [36].
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7 As a consequence of the layered structure, the pore pressure oscillates as a function of the
8 distance between the solid walls with a periodicity approximately equal to the molecular
9 diameter. It can be positive (effect of swelling due to repulsive forces) or negative (effect
10 of shrinkage due to attractive forces) as a function of pore size; *i.e.* the fluid oscillates
11 between alternative stable and instable configurations. The same behaviour has already
12 been observed for supercritical methane with NLDFT calculation [41]. As summarised in
13 Zangi's review [6], both experimental, molecular simulations and theoretical works have
14 evidenced the oscillatory nature of the solvation forces of water confined between
15 molecularly smooth surfaces. The NLDFT/SAFT-VR coupling is able to reproduce such
16 an oscillatory behaviour with a period comparable to the one observed with transverse
17 dynamic force microscopy [13].
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3.2. Capillary condensation, hysteresis and their effect on pore pressure

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40 Interesting pore pressure behaviour can also be observed when capillary condensation
41 occurs. As an example, Figure 2 depicts the capillary condensation and evaporation of
42 water in a slit graphitic pore of width $L = 0.9$ nm at 425 K, and the corresponding pore
43 pressure behaviour. As seen in Figure 2, water average pore density increases with
44 pressure upon adsorption until a capillary condensation due to confinement occurs at
45 nearly half the saturation pressure. After this phase change, density of water saturated
46 inside the pore continues increasing until bulk condensation at the bulk saturation
47 pressure. The average density behaviour is monotonic and in agreement with molecular
48 simulations. It can be well understood by looking at the density profiles plotted in Figure
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3 for selected pressures. In all cases, the density profiles reveal the stratification of the
 4 confined water perpendicular to the graphitic walls. The stratified structure and the high
 5 densities of the water layers are consistent with results obtained with molecular dynamics
 6 confined water perpendicular to the graphitic walls. The stratified structure and the high
 7 densities of the water layers are consistent with results obtained with molecular dynamics
 8 simulations for water/graphene systems [4, 24].

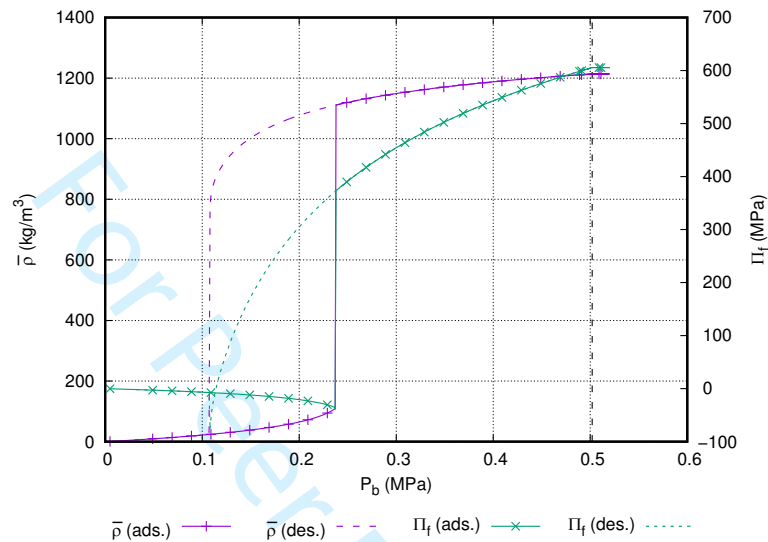


Figure 2. Average pore density and pore pressure as a function of bulk pressure for
 water confined in a slit graphitic pore of width 0.9 nm at 425 K. Solid lines: adsorption.
 Dashed lines: desorption. Vertical dotted line shows bulk saturation pressure.

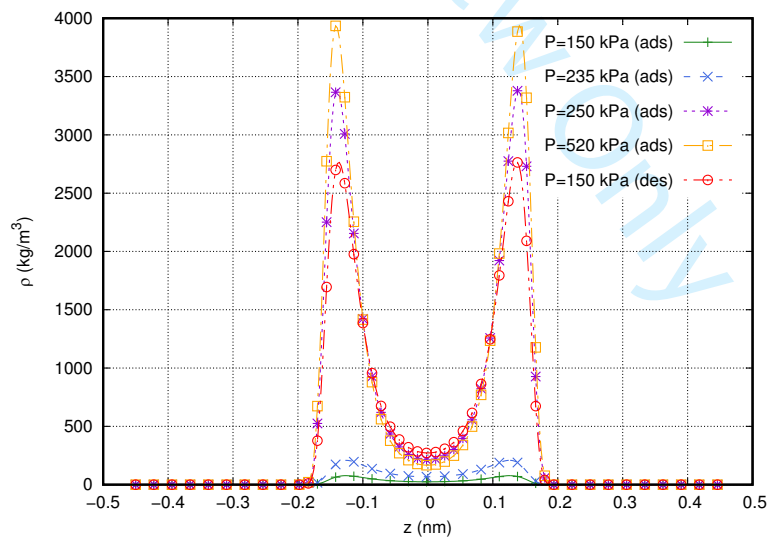
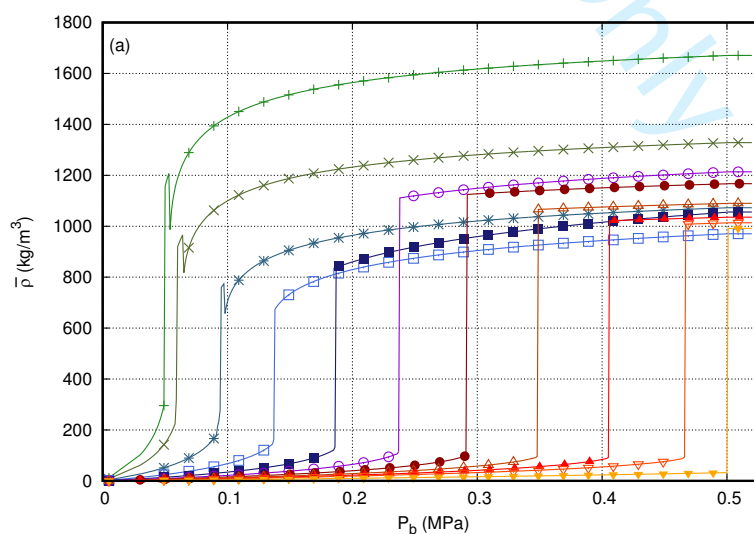
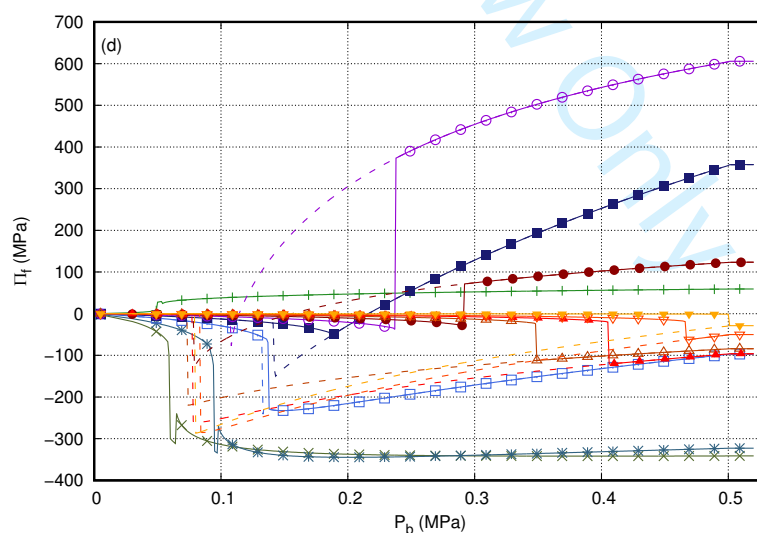
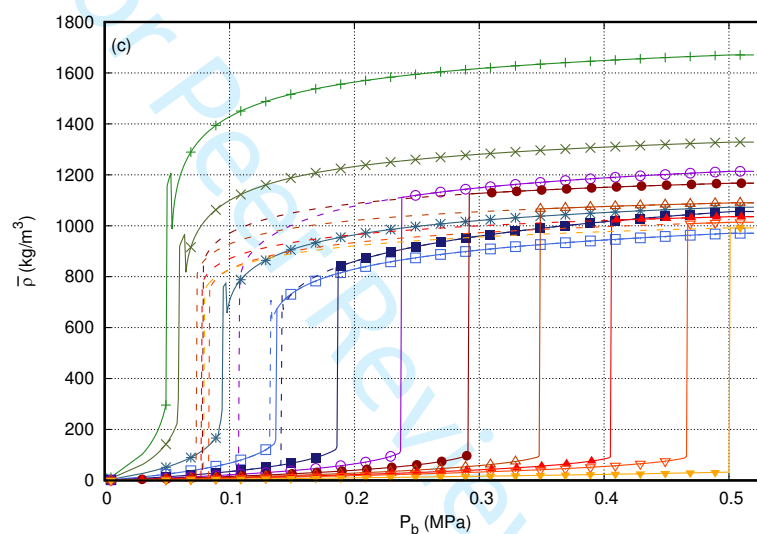
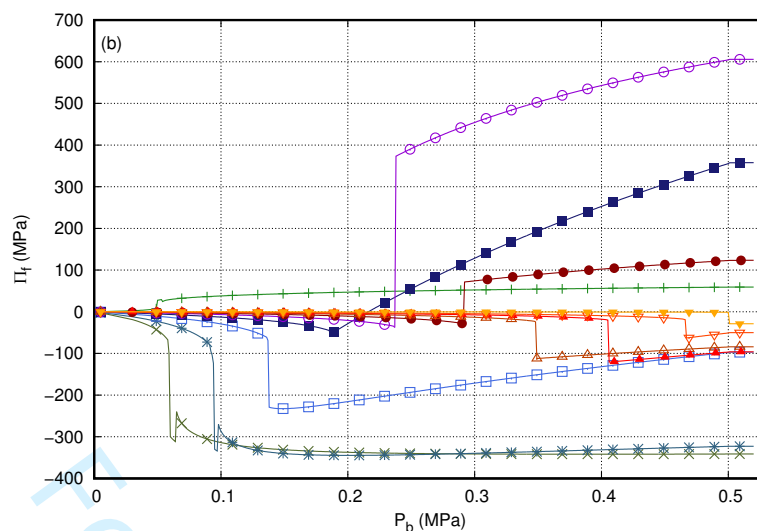


Figure 3. Water density profiles corresponding to some configurations of Fig 2.

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3 Unlike the density, the pore pressure variation is different before and after the capillary
4 phase transition, with negative decreasing values before condensation (suction effect on
5 the solid), and positive increasing values after capillary condensation (“pushing” effect
6 on the solid), and positive increasing values after capillary condensation (“pushing” effect
7 on the solid walls). This sudden change of pore pressure at condensation is interesting to
8 be evaluated as its intensity is directly linked to the capillary forces that can deform the
9 porous structure. The same analysis can also be performed during desorption. This time,
10 density in the pore is decreasing with decreasing bulk pressure until capillary evaporation.
11 This behaviour was already observed in a previous study [25]. The same kind of
12 hysteresis is observed for pore pressure, in relation with pore density, but with a change
13 in sign corresponding to the transition between repulsive and attractive configurations.
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26 The computational low-cost of NLDFT/SAFT-VR coupling allows exploring
27 many configurations. As observed in Figures 4a to 4d, detailed maps of density and pore
28 pressure can be drawn. They allow to notice that the pore pressure behaviour is much
29 more complex than the pore density one, passing from negative to positive values
30 according to pore size, bulk pressure and adsorption or desorption. This leads us to say
31 that, combined with water adsorption measurements, a measurable solvation pressure of
32 water could be used as a good *probe* for pore size distribution determination.
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3 Figure 4. Adsorption: average pore density (a) and pore pressure (b) as a function of
4 bulk pressure for water confined in slit graphitic micropores at 425 K. Adsorption +
5 desorption for the same configurations (c & d): Solid lines: adsorption. Dashed lines:
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10 desorption.

11 12 13 14 15 *3.3. Influence of surface activation on water pore pressure*

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17 The ability of the NLDFT/SAFT-VR coupling used in this work to capture the adsorption
18 of water in activated pores thanks to the modified external potential (see Equation (7))
19 has been demonstrated in a previous work [25]. Here, the effect of surface activation on
20 pore pressure is illustrated in Figure 5 in a graphitic slit pore of width 1.4 nm, with and
21 without activation sites. For this pore width, there is no capillary condensation for water
22 when the surfaces correspond to pure graphite. The pore pressure is always negative as
23 this pore size can accommodate two distinct layers of water whose global contribution is
24 attractive. When the surfaces of the pore are doped with active sites (surface sites density
25 of 2 nm^{-2}), capillary condensation occurs at 2.85 bar and is accompanied by an abrupt
26 change in pressure sign leading to a repulsive configuration. This means that surface
27 activation can have a drastic effect on water pore pressure and thus on the porous material
28 deformation. Otherwise, this result shows that, if possible, pore pressure or swelling
29 measurement could be used as an indirect measure of surface activation.
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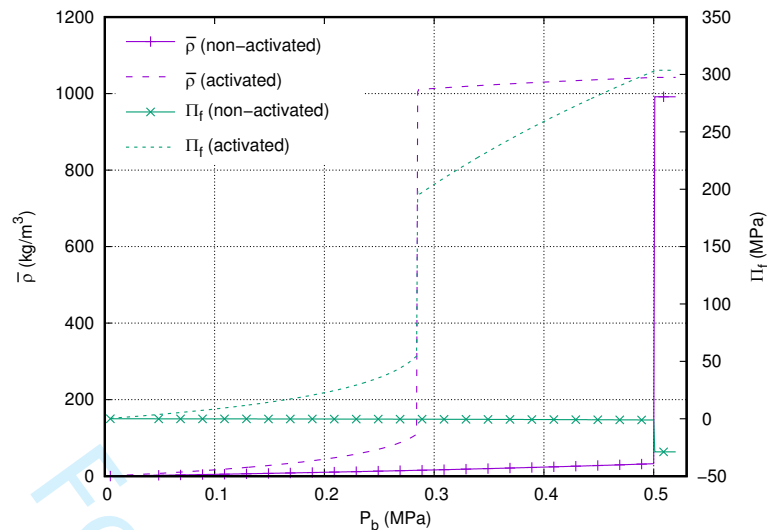
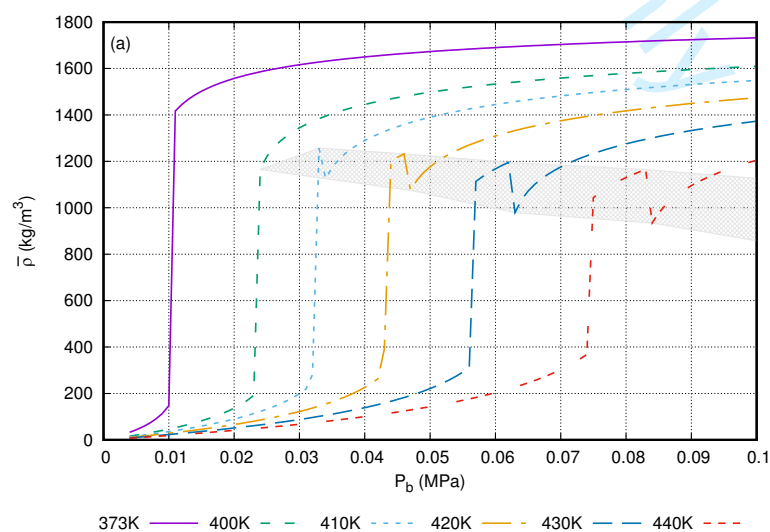


Figure 5. Average pore density (circles) and pore pressure (squares) as a function of bulk pressure for water confined in a slit micropore ($L=1.4$ nm) at 425 K. Solid lines: without activation. Dashed lines: with active sites (surface sites density of 2 nm $^{-2}$).

3.4. Successive capillary phase transitions

NLDFT allows to explore in detail the global phase diagram of confined water with small pressure and temperature steps and find interesting behaviours that occur in tight P-T ranges. As an example, a part of the phase diagram of water confined in a slit-slit graphitic ultramicropore of width 0.66 nm, able to accommodate only one monolayer of water, is presented in Figure 6.



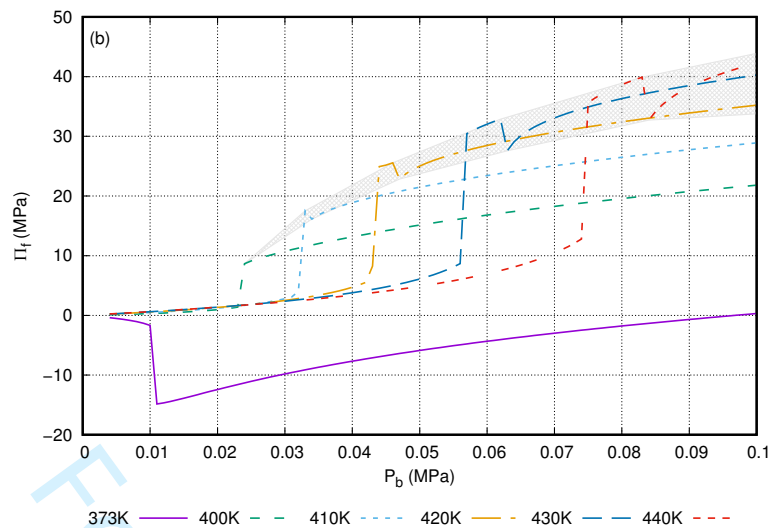


Figure 6. Average pore density (a) and pore pressure (b) as a function of bulk pressure for water confined in a slit graphitic micropore of width 0.66 nm for different temperatures.

One can see in this figure that ultra-confined water undergoes two successive first-order phase transitions for $T > 400$ K. The values of densities for the phase transitions are consistent with the phase diagram obtained by Han *et al.* [5] with MD simulations (TIP5P model for water). As NLDFT is a continuous formalism that does not allow access to the position of the molecules, it is difficult to know the *nature* of the intermediate phase obtained at these conditions. Indeed, the radial distribution function could be an efficient mean to distinguish between a solid-like or a liquid-like phase but here only one layer of water is accommodated within the pore and thus it is not possible to compute the long-ranged order that will enable us to distinguish between an ordered or a disordered phase. However, the calculation of the fraction of not-bonded sites X that corresponds actually to the fraction of free hydrogen bonding in water can give some insights into the organisation of confined water. Before the first transition, approximately 80% of the HB sites of water are not-bonded, which is a typical value of a gas phase for bulk water [24]. After the second transition, this value is nearly 60 %, this time in agreement with bulk

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3 liquid values [24]. The value for the intermediate phase (*i.e.* between the two transitions)
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5 is lower, corresponding to a degree of association of approximately 50 %, signing a more
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7 organised phase, such as an ice-like monolayer as already observed by several studies
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9 dedicated to the freezing of confined water. As an example, in a recent study, Agrawal *et*
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11 *al.* [7] have measured such freezing transition of water in carbon nanotubes at
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13 temperatures as high as 420 K with Raman spectroscopy. Klein and E. Kumacheva [46]
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15 observed with a surface force balance that the water monolayer undergoes an abrupt
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17 transition “to become solid-like” and Jinesh and Frenken [12] have observed with a high-
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19 resolution friction force microscope, at room temperature, that water confined between a
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21 tungsten tip and a graphite surface behaves like a solid. Mashl *et al.* [47] have shown with
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23 molecular dynamics simulations that water confined into carbon nanotubes under ambient
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25 conditions undergoes a transition into a state having an ice-like mobility. On the contrary,
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27 Zangi and Mark [8] have shown with molecular simulations that, for this confinement,
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29 water does not crystallize but forms a disordered liquid layer, which is also the conclusion
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31 of Bianco and Franzese [9] who observed a liquid-liquid phase transition ending in a
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33 critical point in the universality class of the two-dimensional Ising model.
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40 To conclude with these capillary transitions, Brovchenko *et al.* [48] have made
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42 molecular simulations for TIP4P water confined in various hydrophobic pores. For a slit-
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44 like pore of 0.6 nm width, they have found a critical point at $T = 402.5 \pm 2.5$ K, in perfect
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46 agreement with the value obtained here with the NLDFT/SAFT-VR model.
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50 **Conclusions**

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53 In this paper, we have used the non-local density functional theory, in combination with
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55 the SAFT-VR, to compute the pore pressure of water in various nanopores. We have
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57 shown that NLDFT is a relevant and tractable tool to characterize confinement effects in
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59 that case as it allows computing many configurations (simple or activated surfaces) at
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3 various thermodynamic conditions. It was shown that the pore pressure behavior of water
4 in graphitic slit pores is much more complex than pore density, passing from negative to
5 positive values according to pore size, bulk pressure and adsorption or desorption. This
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8 may have significant consequences at the macroscale such as volumetric swelling or
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10 shrinkage of nanoporous materials upon water adsorption/desorption. The capillary
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12 condensation and evaporation of water in nanopores and its impact on the pore pressure
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14 was also evaluated.
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19 Finally, the NLDFT/SAFT-VR coupling has allowed to highlight successive first-
20 order phase transitions of ultraconfined water monolayer, in agreement with recent
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22 experimental and simulations works.
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26 27 **Disclosure statement**

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29 The authors reported no potential conflict of interest.
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31

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34
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