

Structure and diffusion of molten alkali carbonate salts at the liquid-vacuum interface

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The liquid-vacuum interface of molten alkali carbonate salts is studied with molecular dynamics simulations. Three salts comprised of $\text{Li}_x\text{Na}_y\text{K}_z\text{CO}_3$ near their respective eutectic concentrations are considered to understand the distribution of ions relative to a liquid-vacuum interface and their diffusivity. These simulations show that each of the cations accumulate at the interface preferentially compared to carbonate. The cation ordering is found to inversely correspond to cation radius, with K being the most likely occupant at the surface, followed by Na, Li, and then the anion. Similar to other studies, the carbonate is found to diffuse more slowly than the cations, but we do observe small differences in diffusion between compositions that present opportunities to optimize ion transport. These results hold consequences for our understanding of ion behavior in molten carbonate salts and the performance of devices employ these electrolytes.

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8 9 Abstract

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11 dynamics simulations. Three salts comprised of $\text{Li}_x\text{Na}_y\text{K}_z\text{CO}_3$ near their respective
12 eutectic concentrations are considered to understand the distribution of ions relative to a
13 liquid-vacuum interface and their diffusivity. These simulations show that each of the
14 cations accumulate at the interface preferentially compared to carbonate. The cation
15 ordering is found to inversely correspond to cation radius, with K being the most likely
16 occupant at the surface, followed by Na, Li, and then the anion. Similar to other studies,
17 the carbonate is found to diffuse more slowly than the cations, but we do observe small
18 differences in diffusion between compositions that present opportunities to optimize ion
19 transport. These results hold consequences for our understanding of ion behavior in
20 molten carbonate salts and the performance of devices that employ these electrolytes.

21
22 **Keywords:** molten alkali carbonate salts, liquid-vacuum interface, molecular dynamics

23 Introduction

24 Molten carbonate salts have been studied in many contexts because of their occurrence in
25 natural environments, in many engineered materials, and as components in various devices
26 (Gaune-Escard & Haarberg, 2014). Alkali carbonate melts are specifically attractive for use in
27 many applications because they have low vapor pressures, are easy to contain, and are generally
28 environmentally safe (Maru, 1984; Gaune-Escard & Haarberg, 2014). A significant amount of
29 interest has been motivated by electrochemical devices and chemical separation technologies,
30 which can be designed to have high efficiency, resilience from fouling, and low material costs
31 (Maru, 1984; Dicks, 2004; Kirubakaran, Jain & Nema, 2009; Wade et al., 2011; Roest et al.,

32 2017). The performance of such devices have been studied in addition to the bulk behavior of
33 individual components of relevant systems, but the thermodynamics and dynamics of alkali
34 carbonate electrolytes near the relevant interfaces are not as well understood. The behavior of
35 interfaces generally, and ions at liquid-vacuum interfaces, have received significant attention as
36 regions featuring interesting manifestations of physical principles and as domains where distinct
37 chemistries can occur (Allara, 2005; Kumar, Knight & Voth, 2013; Soniat, Kumar & Rick, 2015;
38 Tse et al., 2015; Bastos-González et al., 2016; Gutiérrez et al., 2018). The purpose of this work is
39 to apply similar methods to characterize the liquid-vacuum interface of three molten alkali
40 carbonate electrolytes.

41 These electrolytes present many aspects that are of a general interest to chemists in many
42 subdisciplines. Their performance and feasibility for use in molten carbonate fuel cells is of
43 particular relevance because the operation of such devices relies on both the structure and
44 transport of molecules at interfaces and the bulk within the device. In a typical molten carbonate
45 fuel cell oxygen and carbon dioxide gases are fed to the cathode where O_2 is reduced and
46 carbonate is formed. The carbonate ion is then transported through the electrolyte to the anode
47 where carbonate reacts with hydrogen gas. The hydrogen is reduced, carbon dioxide is reformed,
48 and water is produced. Therefore, the performance of these fuel cells depend on the efficient
49 uptake of feed gases at an interface, transport of carbonate through the bulk electrolyte, and
50 release of product gases at an interface. It is therefore important to characterize the bulk and
51 interfacial behavior of these electrolytes.

52 Numerous computational studies have considered the bulk behavior of ion transport in
53 these electrolytes (Habasaki, 1990; Koishi et al., 2000; Costa, 2008; Vuilleumier et al., 2014;
54 Ottochian et al., 2016; Corradini, Coudert & Vuilleumier, 2016). Habasaki studied carbonate
55 salts with Li or Na cations and found that the anion is significantly more mobile with the smaller
56 cation, which they found is related to the ionic radii (Habasaki, 1990). Koishi and coworkers
57 looked at carbonate salts with Li and K cations and found that carbonate diffusion is maximized
58 when Li proportion is highest (Koishi et al., 2000). Costa and Ribeiro also found that carbonate
59 diffuses fastest when there is more Li than K, but their trend is less clear, which they attribute to
60 a small box size and higher system density (Costa, 2008). Corradini and coworkers generally
61 found behavior of Li and K carbonate salts similar to other works, but interestingly postulated
62 that ionic diffusion of cations and anions might be anticorrelated resulting in smaller ionic

63 conductivities than would be anticipated from the diffusion constants and the Nernst-Einstein
64 relationship (Tissen, Janssen & Eerden, 1994; Corradini, Coudert & Vuilleumier, 2016), which
65 was also observed by Vuilleumier et al. (Vuilleumier et al., 2014). These studies, however, do
66 not consider the thermodynamics or transport of alkali carbonate salts in the interfacial regions
67 that are important for the transport of ions through electrochemical devices.

68 Interfacial behavior of these molten alkali carbonate salts has been considered in a few
69 studies (Roest et al., 2017; Gutiérrez et al., 2018, 2019). Roest and coworkers studied the
70 behavior of Li, Na, and K carbonate salts at charged and neutral interfaces (Roest et al., 2017).
71 They have identified distinct mass and charge profiles in the molten liquid near the interface and
72 the ions are found to diffuse more slowly in close vicinity of the interface. Gutiérrez et al. have
73 studied molten LiCO_3 and a eutectic mixture of LiNaKCO_3 at an interface with carbon solids,
74 gases, and vacuum (Gutiérrez et al., 2018, 2019). They find that the ions do arrange at the
75 interface as defined by the Gibbs dividing surface. The Li and carbonate ions are found to have
76 similar profiles outside of the Gibbs dividing surface (in the vacuum region), but Li and
77 carbonate are found to be weakly layered below the interface in the liquid. In molten LiNaKCO_3 ,
78 they find a more complicated distribution of ions. The K is found to be most prevalent in the
79 region outside the Gibbs dividing surface, and Li and Na are found just inside the Gibbs dividing
80 surface. These studies leave questions about how salt composition affect ion and interface
81 structure and dynamics.

82 It is with this in mind that this study examines the behavior of carbonate ions at a liquid-
83 vacuum interface. The liquid-vacuum interface has been selected because sorption and
84 desorption processes of feed and waste gases is poorly understood at a molecular scale, but
85 crucial to the operation of devices using these materials. In this work, the structure and transport
86 of molten Li, Na, and K containing carbonate salts are examined at the liquid-vacuum interface.
87 We carefully examine local density profiles with respect to the interface using two definitions of
88 the divide between the liquid and vacuum. These two definitions provide complementary
89 perspectives on ion behavior at the boundary between the two phases, which will likely be useful
90 for future studies. We also estimate the slab width, surface tension, and self-diffusion constant,
91 and relate the observed values to the system composition.

92

93 **Methods**

94 Simulations were performed of three eutectic systems with chemical formulas of the form
95 $\text{Li}_x\text{Na}_y\text{K}_z\text{CO}_3$, where $x + y + z = 2$. Redox processes are not considered in this work, so Li, Na,
96 and K always refer to the cations and C and O to the constituents of the carbonate anion, which
97 comprise the electrolyte. The fractions of each cation in each system considered in this work are
98 listed in Table 1. Cation fractions instead of mole fraction or concentration are used to emphasize
99 the relative cation amounts in each system. The three systems considered have unique elemental
100 compositions (LiNaCO_3 , LiKCO_3 , or LiNaKCO_3), so the alkali metal subscripts are dropped to
101 simplify identification. These systems have been selected because they are near the eutectic
102 compositions (Janz, 1967), which permits for the salt to be molten and for device operation at the
103 lowest temperatures.

104 Initial configurations were prepared by placing 1000 cations (according to the fractions in
105 Table 1) and 500 carbonate anions randomly on a grid in a simulation cell with dimensions of 40
106 Å x 40 Å x 100 Å. Ions were placed on evenly spaced, 4 Å grid points by choosing a species
107 randomly within the constraints of the particular composition of interest. Cations were placed on
108 the grid points and the carbon from carbonate was placed at the grid points with the oxygen
109 atoms placed around it. The ions were positioned just below the liquid density so they form a so-
110 called *slab* of liquid surrounded by a large vacuum region. The system is constructed so that the
111 average liquid-vacuum interface is perpendicular to the z-axis (Fig. 1). This study uses the
112 interaction parameters developed by Tissen and Janssen (Tissen & Janssen, 1990; Janssen &
113 Tissen, 1990), sometimes called the JT model, which have been employed for many similar
114 studies of molten alkali carbonate salts and as such provides a robust body of literature for
115 validation and reference (Tissen & Janssen, 1990; Janssen & Tissen, 1990; Tissen, Janssen &
116 Eerden, 1994; Koishi et al., 2000; Ottochian et al., 2016; Wilding et al., 2016; Roest et al., 2017;
117 Du et al., 2017, 2019; Ding et al., 2018; Gutiérrez et al., 2018). The JT model employs
118 coulombic interactions with long-ranged interactions described by Ewald summation and Born-
119 type repulsion parameterized from quantum mechanical calculations (Tissen & Janssen, 1990).
120 Simulations were performed with the LAMMPS molecular dynamics package (Plimpton, 1995).
121 Electrostatic interactions beyond 11.4 Å were calculated with the particle-particle particle-mesh
122 with an accuracy of 10^{-5} . The temperature was held constant using the Nosé-Hoover algorithm
123 with a damping parameter of 500 fs and carbonate was kept rigid using the SHAKE algorithm as
124 implemented in LAMMPS. Each system was heated from 0 to 1200 K in 50 ps and then

125 equilibrated at 1200 K for 50 ps with a time step of 0.05 fs in the constant number of particles,
126 temperature, and volume (NVT) ensemble. They were then further equilibrated in the NVT
127 ensemble for 20 ns with a timestep of 0.5 fs. Therefore, the thermodynamic data presented was
128 extracted from 10 ns NVT production simulations and the diffusion constants from 10 ns
129 constant number of particles, volume, and energy (NVE) simulations. In these production
130 simulations, configurations were saved every 0.5 ps and analysis included all frames from the
131 corresponding NVT or NVE trajectory.

132 Molecular visualization was performed with Visual Molecular Dynamics (VMD)
133 (Humphrey, Dalke & Schulten, 1996). Density profiles were calculated with in house scripts.
134 Densities are normalized by dividing by the average density in the center of the respective slab to
135 facilitate comparison between systems with different compositions. The Gibbs dividing surfaces
136 are determined from the z-dimension density profile to find the two planes (one on each side of
137 the slab) where the density is half the average bulk liquid density (Gochenour, Heyert &
138 Lindberg, 2018). The interface, however, need not be viewed as a static plane, but can also be
139 viewed as a dynamic, three-dimensional region specific to the underlying molecular
140 configuration. This is similar to the distinction between ‘sea level’ and waves on the sea, where
141 sea level is determined by averaging over local fluctuations to obtain a useful, but dramatically
142 simplified, description. Analogously, it is useful to consider an interpretation of the interface that
143 captures the local molecular-scale undulations. In this work, we utilize the instantaneous
144 interface scheme developed by Willard and Chandler (Willard & Chandler, 2010). Briefly, this
145 method involves creating a coarse-grained density field and identifying points in this coarse
146 grained density field at a density halfway between that of the two phases. These points can then
147 be connected to identify the interface that separates the two phases. The long time average of the
148 instantaneous interface is analogous to the Gibbs dividing surface. The instantaneous interfaces
149 were calculated with an in-house script using a coarse graining length, ξ , of 1.5 Å. Self-diffusion
150 constants are determined from the mean-squared displacement as calculated by CPPTRAJ with
151 the Einstein relation (Roe & Cheatham, 2013).

152

153 **Results**

154 A snapshot of the equilibrated simulation setup for the LiKCO_3 system is shown in Fig.
155 1. The distribution of ions within each system are examined with density profiles perpendicular

156 to the interface in Fig. 2. The organization of each element is isolated with atomic density
157 profiles for each system in Fig. 3. The contribution of each element to the whole density profile
158 is examined in Fig. 4. An example instantaneous interface for the LiKCO_3 system is shown in
159 Fig. 5 and the distribution of instantaneous interface sites relative to the Gibbs dividing surface
160 for each system are shown in Fig. 6. Finally, a histogram of the nearest distance between each
161 element and the closest point on the instantaneous interface is shown in Fig. 7.

162

163 Discussion

164 Density profiles reveal interface-induced structure.

165 Ion behavior in the vicinity of the liquid-vacuum interface was first examined with
166 density distributions perpendicular to the plane of the interface. Fig. 2 shows the normalized
167 density along the coordinate perpendicular to the interface for each system considered. The most
168 obvious difference observed in the simulations is an increase in slab width. This change in width
169 is directly related to the amount of K, the largest cation considered, in the solution (Fig. 2). Near
170 the interface there is structure in the densities. The liquid region is flat indicative of
171 homogeneous liquid structure, the intermediate region between the liquid and vacuum shows two
172 peaks, and finally there is a drastic decrease in density when moving into the vacuum. The peaks
173 are most well-defined in the Na-containing systems (red and blue curves in Fig. 2), but these
174 features are present in each system.

175

176 Slab width and surface tension are highly correlated with system composition.

177 The width of the slab can be defined as the distance between the Gibbs dividing surface
178 on each side of the slab (Table 2). The slab width is found to be highly correlated with the size of
179 the cations. Using ionic radii of 0.68, 0.97, and 1.33 Å for Li, Na, and K cations (Weast, 1968),
180 an average cation radius can be calculated for each system

$$181 \quad \langle r_{ion} \rangle = \chi^{Li} r_{ion}^{Li} + \chi^{Na} r_{ion}^{Na} + \chi^K r_{ion}^K \quad (1)$$

182 where $\langle r_{ion} \rangle$ is the average cation radius, χ^X is the fraction of the cations that are X, and r_{ion}^X is
183 the ionic radius of X. The slab width is found to be highly correlated with the average cation
184 radius, with a linear coefficient of correlation (R^2) of 0.999. The individual cation sizes,
185 however, are less correlated with slab width. The width is most weakly correlated with the cation
186 fraction of Li, but significantly stronger correlation is observed with Na and K cation fractions.

187 The correlation coefficients are 0.780, 0.975, and 0.998 for Li, Na, and K, respectively. These
188 conclusions are similar to the observation by Habasaki that anion-cation spacing is correlated
189 with the cationic radii of Li and Na in carbonate salts (Habasaki, 1990), which indicates that
190 molecular-scale spatial correlations can provide a good indication of larger bulk densities.

191 The surface tension can be estimated from the cell width and the diagonal components of
192 the pressure tensor according to the expression

$$193 \quad \gamma = \frac{L_z}{2} \left(P_{zz} - \frac{1}{2} (P_{xx} + P_{yy}) \right) \quad (2)$$

194 where γ is the surface tension, L_z is the simulation cell width in the z dimension, P_{zz} is the
195 component of the pressure tensor normal to the interface, and P_{xx} and P_{yy} are the tangential
196 components of the pressure tensor (Kirkwood & Buff, 1949). This is similar to the surface
197 tension protocol used by others (Bhatt, Newman & Radke, 2004; Desmaele et al., 2019). Surface
198 tension values are shown in Table 2 and have not been reported previously for the JT model.
199 Similar to the slab width discussed previously, the surface tension is found to be highly
200 correlated with K concentration, slightly less with Na, and significantly less with Li. The surface
201 tensions measured here seem to be systematically less than reported in the experimental literature
202 (Ward & Janz, 1965; Kojima et al., 2008). For example, Kojima et al. report the surface tension
203 of LiNaKCO₃ at 1200 K to be approximately 200 mN/m while the JT model yields a surface
204 tension of 130±10 mN/m (Kojima et al., 2008). Therefore, the JT model yields surface tension
205 values that are about 35% smaller than those reported in the experimental literature (Ward &
206 Janz, 1965; Kojima et al., 2008). The JT model appears to underestimate cohesive interactions,
207 which is similar to previous studies that have shown a similar disagreement when the model
208 density is compared to experiment (Ottochian et al., 2016; Roest et al., 2017; Desmaele et al.,
209 2019). Some works have compensated for this discrepancy by performing their simulations at
210 elevated pressure (Ottochian et al., 2016; Roest et al., 2017), but this is not possible here because
211 the liquid is in contact with vacuum and therefore free to expand. Nevertheless, the literature
212 provides significant evidence that this model provides a generally faithful description of molten
213 alkali carbonates and as such lends confidence that the trends reported here are reliable.
214 Additionally, the JT model has received such widespread usage that characterization of the
215 surface tension provides important perspective on strengths and weaknesses of the model.

216 **Elemental structure at the Gibbs dividing surface.**

217 The normalized density in Fig. 2 includes all species in the system. It is interesting to
218 decompose the density into the contributions from each elements to see if the ions accumulate
219 differently at the interface. Therefore the density profile of each element was calculated to
220 resolve these distributions near the interface. For example, the complete density distribution of
221 each element in the LiNaKCO₃ system is shown in Fig. 3a. Similar to Fig. 2, the densities in Fig.
222 3 are normalized by dividing by the average density in the middle of the slab. Fig. 3a reveals the
223 anticipated general trend of high density within the slab and no density outside it in the vacuum
224 and the peaks and valleys indicate interfacial ordering of the individual ions in the elemental
225 density profiles. This is similar to the entire system density profiles shown in Fig. 2. These
226 features are difficult to resolve because of the large density difference between the liquid and
227 vacuum, so Figs. 3b, c, and d show detailed views of the liquid region of the elemental density
228 profiles for each system. Each element is observed to have maxima and minima induced by
229 proximity to the interface that are much larger than the subtle, apparently random wiggles in the
230 middle of the slab. The similarity of the right and left interfaces indicates that the profiles are
231 converged. Most notably, Na is observed (red lines) to be depleted compared to the other
232 elements near the Gibbs dividing surface (Figs. 3b and d). In the electrolyte without Na (Fig. 3c),
233 K is also found to be depleted near the Gibbs dividing surface. The other K-containing solution
234 (Fig. 3d) does not show similar depletion, but instead K has a significant maximum about 7 Å on
235 the liquid side of the Gibbs dividing surface. Lithium is generally observed to be the cation with
236 a maximum closest to the interface, which is generally similar in shape and location to the C
237 peak of the anion. The C and O peaks are generally similar, with the O showing slightly less
238 structuring. While some information about ordering of each element relative to the interface is
239 observed, these features are nevertheless difficult to resolve. Therefore, it would be useful to
240 further examine the local enrichment or depletion of each species relative to the interface for a
241 clearer picture of ion distributions.

242 While Fig. 3 shows the structure of each atom at the Gibbs dividing surface in the liquid
243 region, it is difficult to identify the atomic contributions to the total density profile and more
244 specifically to see the atomic ordering within the interfacial region. Therefore, Fig. 4 depicts the
245 difference between Fig. 3b, c, and d and the corresponding total density profiles in Fig. 2. Fig. 4
246 shows that K has significant density at the surface and is the most prominent, when it is present.
247 Conversely, as was observed in the analysis of Fig. 3, Na has a major depletion near the interface

248 compared to its bulk density. The behavior of Li is less dramatic. When K is present, Li has a
249 peak near the same distance from the interface. When K is not in the solution (Fig. 4a), then Li is
250 the predominant cation at the Gibbs dividing surface. In all cases, C is depleted at the surface
251 compared to the cations, but has a maximum just inside the surface. The error in these density
252 profiles was estimated by breaking up the simulations into ten segments of equal length and
253 calculating the error in the mean from these segments. Fig. S1 depicts the normalized atomic
254 density profiles with error for each element in the LiNaKCO₃ system. This shows that the error is
255 smaller than peaks and valleys discussed, which indicates that the observed features are
256 physically meaningful. Additionally, the error would be estimated to be even smaller than
257 depicted because of agreement between the left and right sides of the interface, which are
258 independent from each other. These findings are similar to those reported by Gutiérrez et al. who
259 also showed ionic structuring near the Gibbs dividing surface (Gutiérrez et al., 2018). Next, these
260 ionic arrangements will be examined further using a local definition of the interface.

261

262 **Instantaneous interface analysis reveals local fluctuations of the liquid surface.**

263 The interfacial analyses so far have been performed with respect to the Gibbs dividing
264 surface. The Gibbs dividing surface is the plane that on average separates two distinct phases
265 (Gochenour, Heyert & Lindberg, 2018), but the instantaneous interface method can provide a
266 description of the interface with molecular features of the surface. An example of such an
267 instantaneous interface is shown for the LiKCO₃ system in Fig. 5. In this work, we use the
268 instantaneous interface to characterize fluctuations of the surface and elemental distributions in
269 the vicinity of the instantaneous interface.

270

271 **Elemental structure at the instantaneous interface shows cations preferentially populate** 272 **the surface.**

273 The instantaneous interface corresponds to the boundary between the molten salt liquid
274 and vacuum for a particular molecular configuration. Therefore, analysis of the instantaneous
275 interface and the underlying atomic distribution provides details about the behavior of the system
276 in light of a specific arrangement of the atoms, rather than the time-averaged, global behavior
277 described by the Gibbs dividing surface. Fig. 6 shows a histogram of the instantaneous interface
278 with respect to the Gibbs dividing surface. The instantaneous interface is found to not be

279 symmetric or symmetrically distributed around the Gibbs dividing surface. Instead the
280 asymmetric distribution has a maximum beyond the Gibbs dividing surface with a long tail
281 extending into the liquid regime. Depending on the system, the instantaneous interface is found
282 to extend between 5 to 10 Å into the liquid region. This is in agreement with the structure
283 observed in Fig 3, which shows structure in the atomic density distributions to approximately 10
284 Å into the liquid. There are differences between the solutions considered, with the LiNaCO_3
285 solution having the least pronounced skewness extending into the liquid and LiKCO_3 the most,
286 which provides an estimate of the size of the interfacial region. It would be expected that larger
287 solution surface tensions would correspond to a greater energy associated with deformation from
288 a minimum surface area, but it appears that the subtle differences in surface tension are not large
289 enough to have a clear effect on the distribution of instantaneous interface sites.

290 Fig. 7 shows a histogram of the shortest distance between each element and the
291 instantaneous interface. The curves are normalized so they all have maximum values of 1 to
292 simplify comparisons between species, despite different concentrations. The density profiles
293 relative to the instantaneous interface in Fig. 7 provide a complementary perspective on ion
294 structure near the interface to those observed with respect to the Gibbs dividing surface in Figs. 3
295 and 4. In Fig. 7, the cations are always more likely to be closer to the instantaneous interface
296 than the anions. The ordering is distinct, with K being closest, then Na, Li, O, and finally C. It is
297 interesting to note that the cation trend inversely follows the ionic radii. This indicates that the
298 cations preferentially populate the surface of the instantaneous interface. Interestingly, these
299 distributions are apparently independent of the electrolyte composition, and therefore possibly
300 indicative of broader trends in ion behavior in these molten alkali carbonate electrolytes. The
301 uniformity of the elemental distributions in each panel of Fig. 7 is distinct from the behavior
302 observed with respect to the Gibbs dividing surface shown in Figs. 3 and 4. This indicates that
303 the dynamics of the interface can be affected by the composition, but the actual arrangement of
304 the atoms is less sensitive.

305

306 **Anions diffuse slower than the cations.**

307 Finally, the transport of the ions is evaluated using the self-diffusion constants. Table 3
308 shows the diffusion constant of each species in each system. The diffusion constants are in
309 general agreement with previous, similar studies (Habasaki, 1990; Koishi et al., 2000; Costa,

310 2008; Vuilleumier et al., 2014; Ottochian et al., 2016; Corradini, Coudert & Vuilleumier, 2016;
311 Roest et al., 2017), however exact comparison with bulk diffusion constants is difficult since the
312 systems described here are heterogeneous. Nevertheless, this work shows that carbonate diffuses
313 slower than all of the cations. The cation self-diffusion is found to be proportional to cation size,
314 with the larger ions diffusing faster. This is attributed to each cation having the same charge, so
315 larger radii ions experience correspondingly weaker electrostatic interactions.

316

317 CONCLUSIONS

318 Molecular dynamics simulations have revealed thermodynamic and dynamic properties
319 of molten alkali carbonates near a liquid-vacuum interface. This work has shown that in three
320 alkali carbonate salts, the alkali cations preferentially accumulate at the interface more than the
321 anion. Additionally, the anions are found to diffuse much more slowly than the cations.
322 Nevertheless, subtle differences are seen between the three solutions considered, which may be
323 helpful in the selection of electrolyte compositions that yield the best performance in an
324 electrochemical device. Intriguingly, the LiKCO_3 solution is found to yield the fastest carbonate
325 diffusion while also permitting the closest approach of the anion to the interface. These
326 differences could have significant effects on the performance of devices employing such
327 electrolytes and therefore warrant study to understand and confirm these results.

328

329 CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

330 There are no conflicts to declare.

331

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335

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Table 1 (on next page)

Salt cation fractions used in this work.

1 Table 1: Cation fractions for the eutectic salts used in this work.

System	Li	Na	K
LiNaKCO ₃	0.435	0.315	0.25
LiNaCO ₃	0.53	0.47	0
LiKCO ₃	0.427	0	0.573

2

Table 2 (on next page)

Width and surface tension for each of the systems studied.

1 Table 2: Width and surface tension for each of the systems studied.

System	Width (Å)	Surface tension (mN/m)
LiNaCO ₃	30.7	137±9
LiKCO ₃	39.0	125±9
LiNaKCO ₃	34.6	130±10

2

Table 3 (on next page)

Self-diffusion constants of each ion in each of the systems studied.

1 Table 3: Self-diffusion constants of each ion in each of the systems studied.

System	Li ($\text{\AA}^2/\text{ps}$)	Na ($\text{\AA}^2/\text{ps}$)	K ($\text{\AA}^2/\text{ps}$)	C ($\text{\AA}^2/\text{ps}$)
LiNaCO ₃	4.0±0.3	4.4±0.4	--	1.5±0.1
LiKCO ₃	3.3±0.3	--	4.5±0.3	1.8±0.2
LiNaKCO ₃	3.2±0.3	3.8±0.3	4.2±0.4	1.5±0.1

2

Figure 1

Snapshot of the LiNaKCO_3 simulation cell.

Snapshot of the equilibrated LiNaKCO_3 system with the simulation cell depicted with black lines.

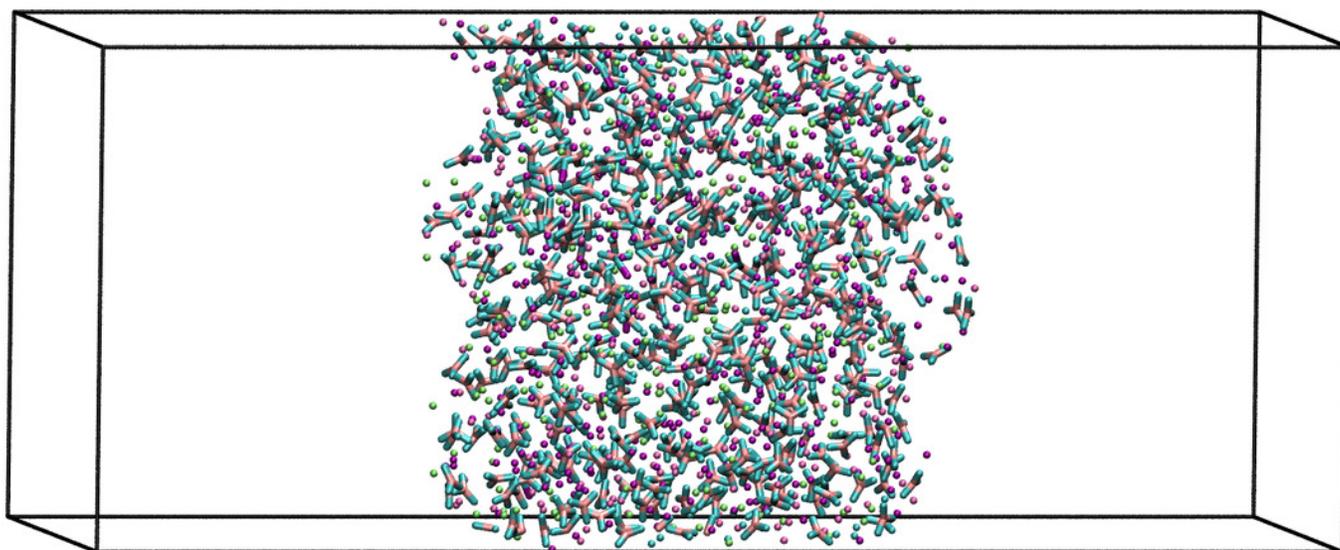


Figure 2

Normalized total density profile in the dimension perpendicular to the interface.

The densities are normalized by dividing by the average liquid density. For each system, the right Gibbs dividing surface is positioned at 0 Å and the left interface provides a sense of the slab width because the xy area of the slab remains constant. Expansion of the slab is highly correlated with increasing concentration of the larger radius K ion. Each system shows structure near each interface that corresponds to structure within the liquid.

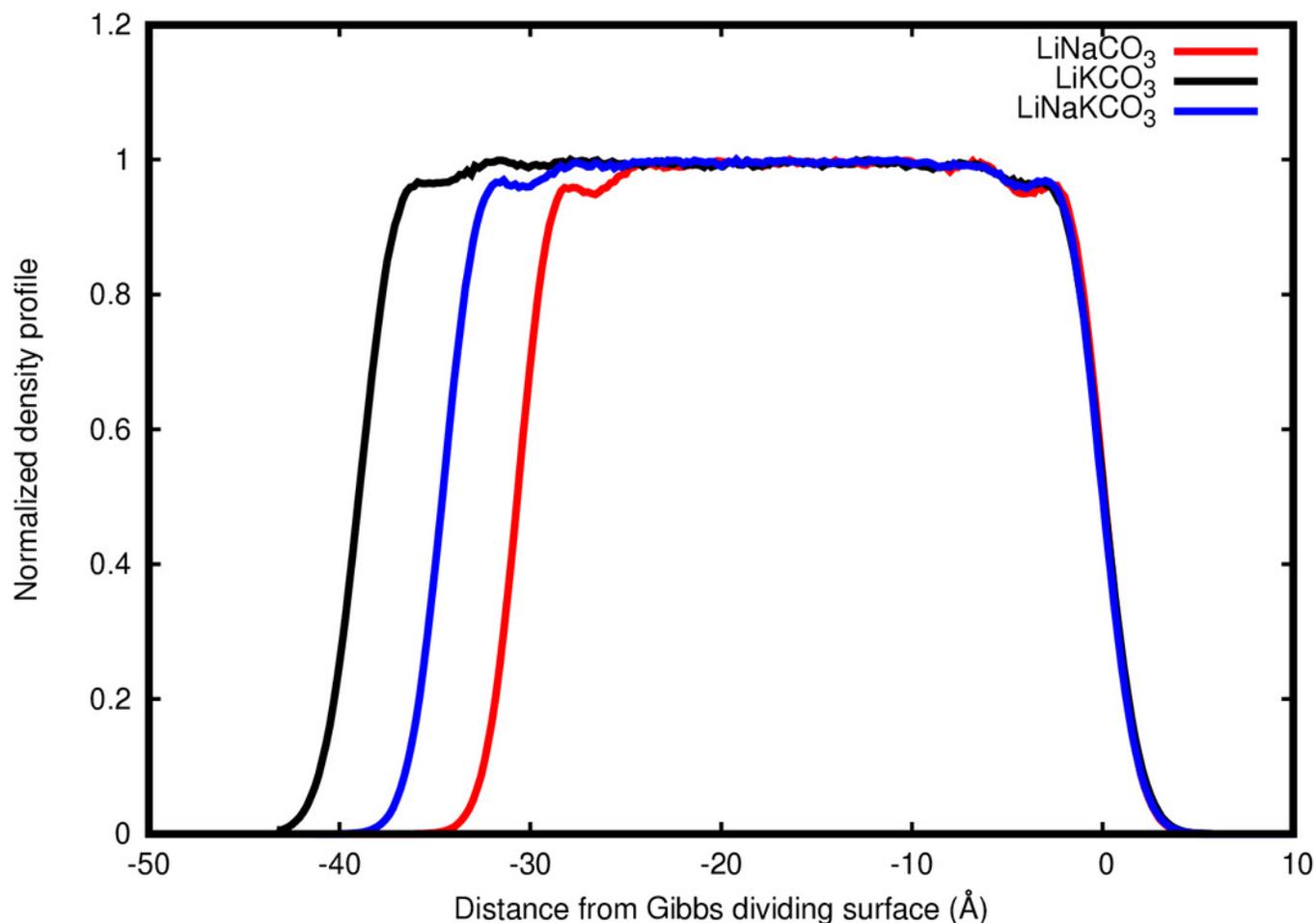


Figure 3

Normalized densities with respect to the right Gibbs dividing surface.

Shown for Li (green), Na (red), K (black), C (orange), and O (blue) in the a) entire LiNaKCO_3 system and detailed views of the liquid region for b) LiNaCO_3 , c) LiKCO_3 , and d) LiNaKCO_3 . For each system, the right Gibbs dividing surface is positioned at 0 Å. The peaks and valleys are indicative of the atomic structuring near the surface.

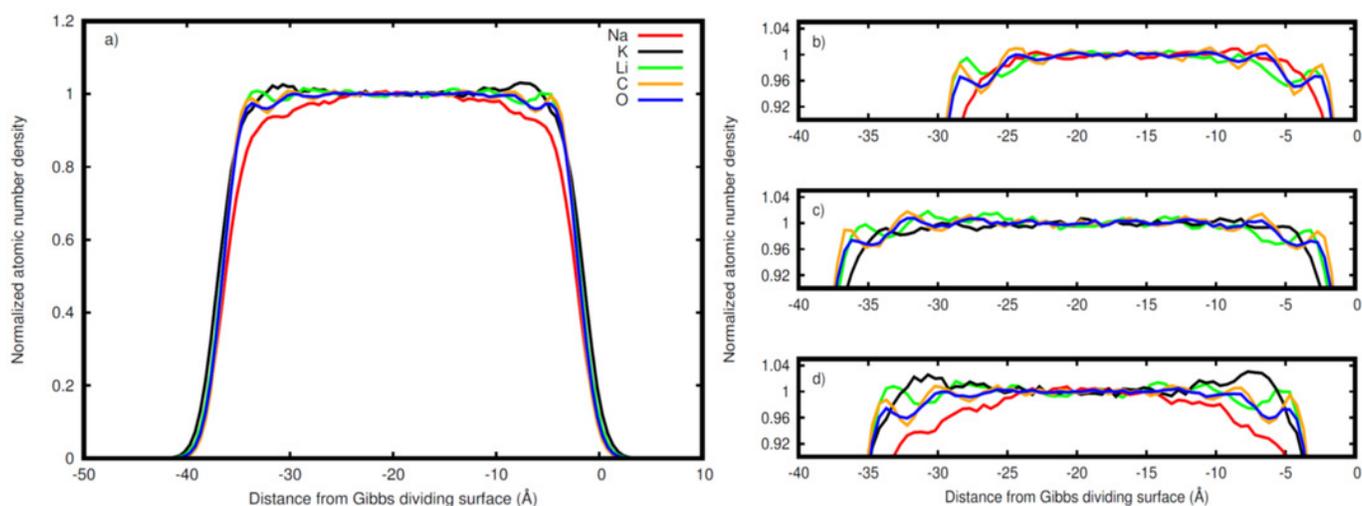


Figure 4

Atomic density differences from the total density profile in the dimension perpendicular to the Gibbs dividing surface.

Shown for Li (green), Na (red), K (black), C, (orange), and O (blue) for the a) LiNaCO_3 , b) LiKCO_3 , and c) LiNaKCO_3 systems. These are the profiles in Fig. 2 with the whole system profiles in Fig. 1 subtracted. These plots emphasize the contributions of each element to the total density profile. For each system, the right Gibbs dividing surface is positioned at 0 Å.

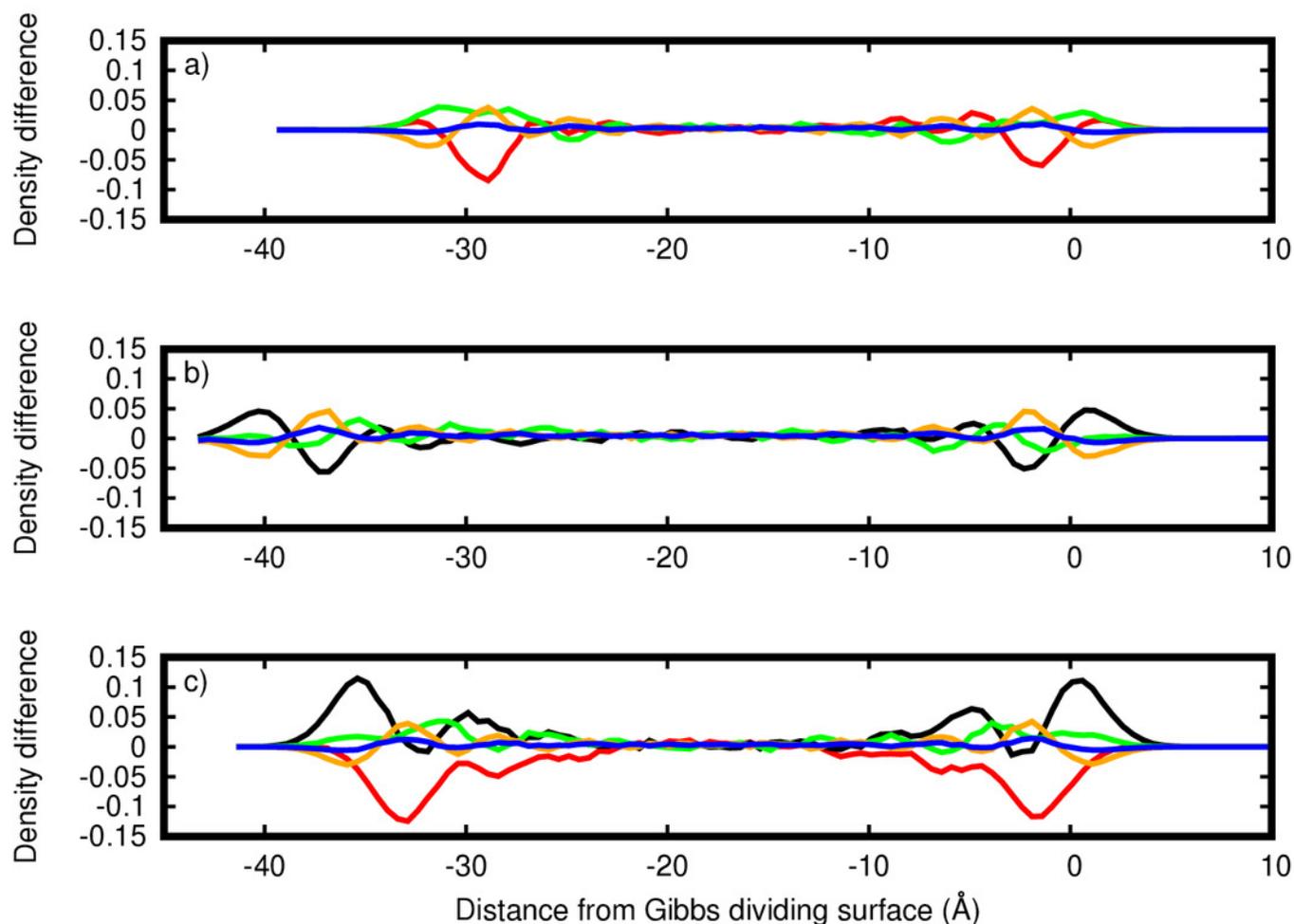


Figure 5

A representative snapshot of the LiKCO_3 system with the corresponding instantaneous interface.

The atoms comprising the salt are depicted in green, purple, blue, and pink and the instantaneous interface is shown in gold.

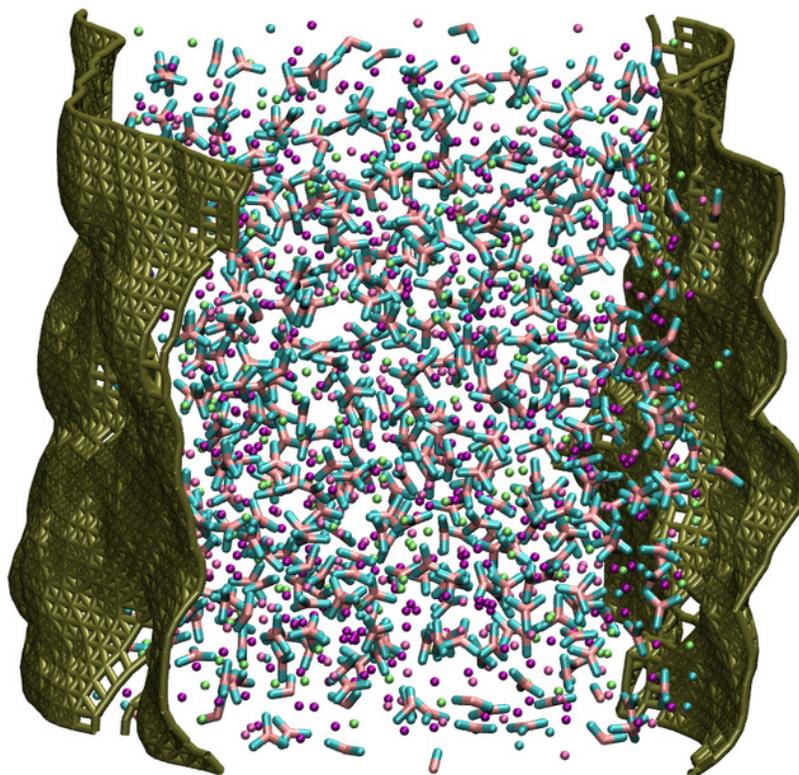


Figure 6

Distribution of instantaneous interface sites relative to the Gibbs dividing surface.

Shown are LiNaCO_3 (red), LiKCO_3 (black), and LiNaKCO_3 (blue).

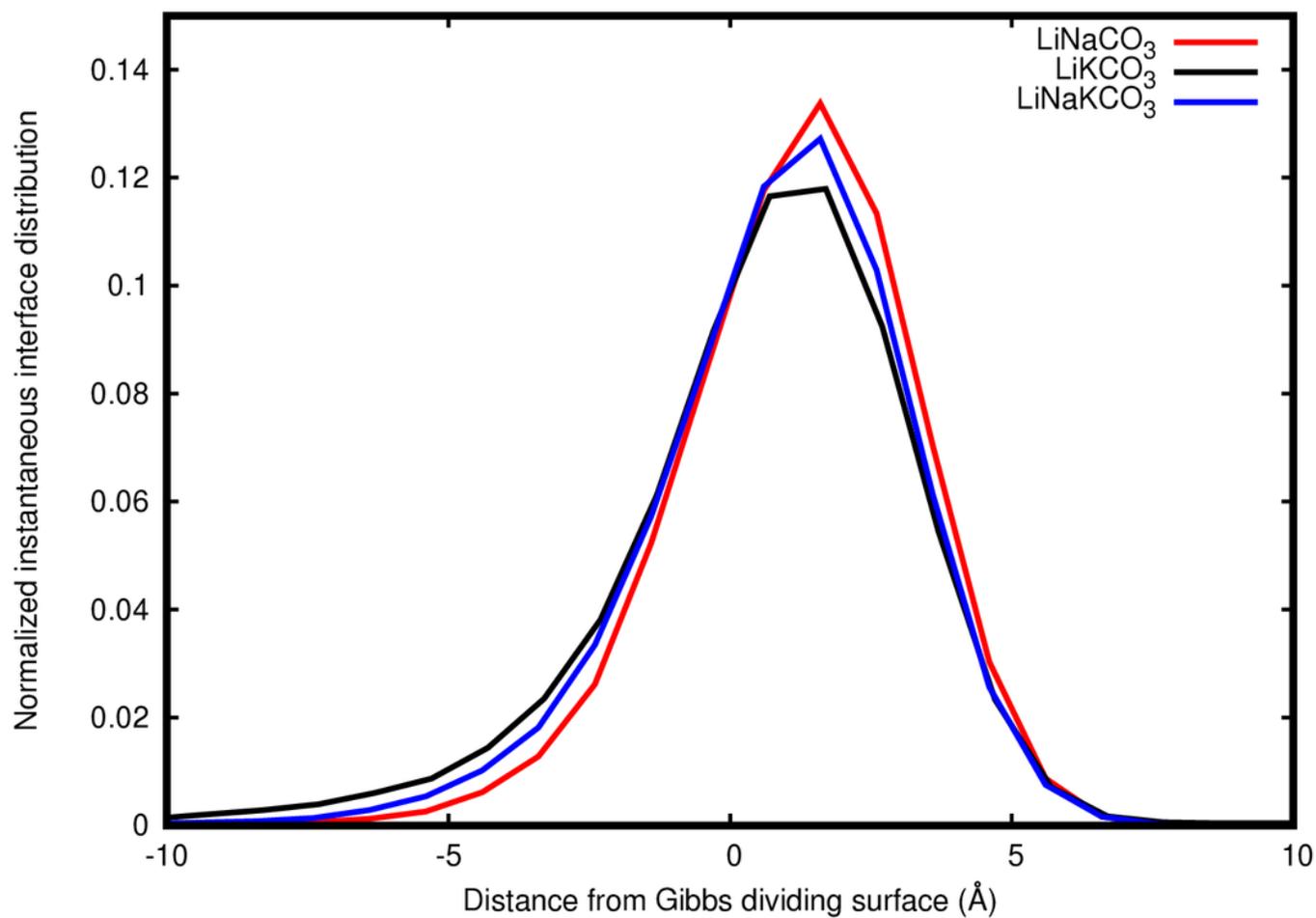


Figure 7

Normalized histogram of the distance of each element from the closest point on the instantaneous interface.

Shown Li (green), Na (red), K (black), C (orange) and O (blue) for the a) LiNaCO_3 , b) LiKCO_3 , and c) LiNaKCO_3 systems.

