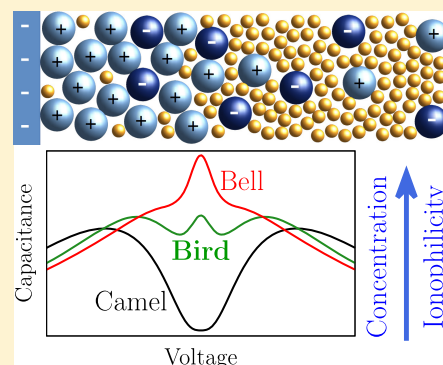


Electrical Double Layers Close to Ionic Liquid–Solvent Demixing

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ABSTRACT: Electrical double layers (EDLs) play a key role in energy storage and have been suggested to have applications in energy generation. Recently, there has been an expansion of interest in EDLs, but EDLs with ionic liquid–solvent mixtures (ILSMs) received less attention. Herein, we study the temperature dependence of EDLs with ILSMs, in particular, close to demixing. We demonstrate the emergence of a bird-shaped capacitance, in addition to the well-known camel and bell shapes, which manifests the fine interplay between the electrostatic and wetting properties of ILSMs. We find that the capacitance increases appreciably as the system approaches demixing and this increase is accompanied by a sizeable enhancement of the energy storage, which can be utilized for generating electricity from waste heat.



INTRODUCTION

The last decades witnessed an explosion of interest in properties of ionic liquids (ILs) and ionic liquid solutions. Room-temperature ILs have large electrochemical windows, low vapor pressure, and high thermal stability,^{1,2} finding their applications in numerous fields, such as energy storage and generation,^{3–6} lubrication,⁷ catalysis,^{8,9} etc. One of the key applications is in electrical double-layer capacitors, also known as supercapacitors or ultracapacitors, which store energy by a potential-driven accumulation of countercharge in an electrical double layer (EDL), formed at an IL–electrode interface.¹⁰ Theories developed for EDLs have demonstrated that excluded-volume (steric) interactions are essential to describe the EDL properties.^{11–18} Steric interactions were shown to lead to the so-called camel and bell-shape capacitances, obtained at low and high IL concentrations, respectively, instead of the U-shaped capacitance of the classical Gouy–Chapman model.¹⁶ These predictions were confirmed by molecular simulations^{19–23} and experiments.^{24–26}

Temperature dependence of EDLs has also attracted much attention recently.^{22,25,27–38} The main focus was on neat ILs, whereas IL–solvent mixtures (ILSMs) received less attention. However, ILSMs often have lower viscosity^{39,40} (than that of neat ILs) and were shown to have an overall positive effect on the supercapacitor performance.^{41–43} Very recently, Gavish et al.⁴⁴ introduced a spatiotemporal theoretical framework to study bulk and interfacial phenomena with ILSMs and McEldrew et al.⁴⁵ extended the modified Poisson–Fermi theory for highly concentrated (water-in-salt) electrolytes. Here, we use an approach similar in spirit to refs 44 and 45 but we focus on the capacitance and energy storage in double layers with ILSM close to demixing. We unveil a new type of the capacitance shape emerging in such systems and demonstrate that the capacitance and stored energy increase

considerably as the system approaches demixing, which can have practical applications.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We place an ILSM at a flat metallic surface at $z = 0$ (Figure 1a) and write for the grand canonical thermodynamic potential of the system

$$\begin{aligned} \beta\Omega/A = & \int_0^\infty dz [\rho_+ \ln(a^3 \rho_+) + \rho_- \ln(a^3 \rho_-) + \beta f_{\text{ex}}(\rho_\pm)] \\ & + \int_0^\infty dz \left[cu - \frac{1}{8\pi\lambda_B} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \right)^2 \right] \\ & + \beta K \left\{ \int_0^\infty dz \left[\frac{\xi_0^2}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial z} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{2} \rho^2 \right] + \frac{\xi_0}{2} \rho_0^2 \right. \\ & \left. - h_1 \rho_0 \right\} - \beta \mu \int_0^\infty \rho \, dz \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where $\beta = 1/k_B T$, k_B is the Boltzmann constant, T is the temperature, A is the surface area of the electrode, ρ_\pm are the cation and anion densities, $c = \rho_+ - \rho_-$ is the charge density (per elementary charge e), $\rho = \rho_+ + \rho_-$ is the total ion density, and a is the ion diameter (we assume cations and anions of the same size). The first two terms are the ideal gas entropy, and f_{ex} is the free-energy density due to excluded-volume interactions (see below). The fourth term is the electrostatic energy; here, u is the electrostatic potential in units of thermal voltage ($V_T = k_B T/e$) and $\lambda_B = e^2/(k_B T \epsilon)$ is the Bjerrum length, where ϵ is the dielectric constant. To single out the effects related to

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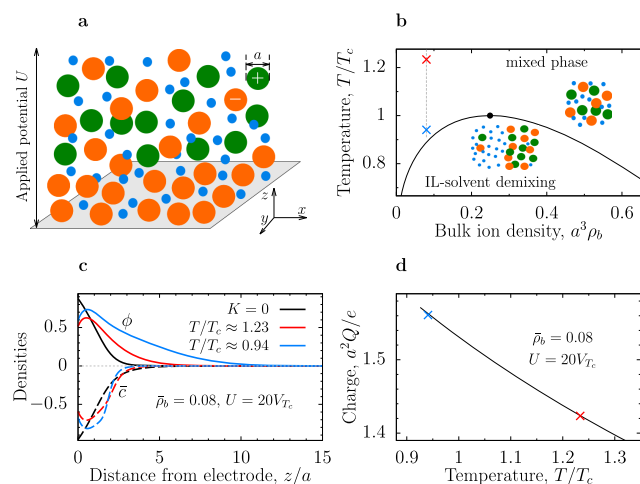


Figure 1. Effect of proximity to demixing on electrical double layers (EDLs). (a) Electrostatic potential U is applied between a flat electrode and the bulk of electrolyte. The ion diameter a is the same for cations (green spheres) and anions (orange spheres). Blue spheres represent the solvent. (b) Bulk phase diagram of an ionic liquid (IL)–solvent mixture predicted by the mean-field model of eq 1. The solid line shows the boundary of the region in which the electrolyte is in the demixed state. The filled circle denotes a (upper) critical point. Temperature is expressed in terms of the critical temperature T_c . The symbols denote the values of T and ρ used in (c), and the thin vertical line shows the value of $a^3\rho_b = 0.08$ used in (d). (c) Order parameter $\phi = a^3(\rho - \rho_b)$, where $\rho = \rho_+ + \rho_-$ is the total ion density (solid lines) and the charge density $\bar{c} = a^3(\rho_+ - \rho_-)$ (dash lines) at various temperatures. The $K = 0$ profiles were obtained by setting $K = 0$ in eq 1. (d) Charge Q per surface area accumulated in the EDL versus temperature. Q is expressed in units of e/a^2 ($\approx 2e/\text{nm}^2 \approx 32 \mu\text{C}/\text{cm}^2$ for the ion diameter $a = 0.7 \text{ nm}$). The surface field $a^3h_1/\xi_0 = 0.08$ and applied potential $U = 20V_{T_c}$, where thermal voltage $V_{T_c} = k_B T_c/e$ ($k_B T/e \approx 26 \text{ mV}$ at room temperature).

demixing, we assume ε as temperature independent and comment on it later.

Parameter K describes ion–ion and ion–solvent dispersion (van der Waals) interactions and ξ_0 characterizes the spatial extension of these interactions^{46,47} (note that K has a unit of energy times volume). The surface term $\xi_0\rho_0^2$, where $\rho_0 = \rho(z=0)$, arises because of missing neighbors caused by the presence of an electrode, and h_1 is the electrode’s ionophilicity: negative h_1 means that an electrode favors solvent, whereas positive h_1 corresponds to an electrode favoring ions (but see below eq 3b), and we assume this preference the same for cations and anions. In the last term, μ is the chemical potential of an ionic liquid with respect to the solvent. Note that eq 1 is also applicable to neat ILs, in which case μ is the bulk chemical potential of ions.

If we set $K = 0$ in eq 1, then our model reduces to the one with pure steric and electrostatic interactions. Such models, with various expressions for f_{ex} , have been extensively studied in the literature.^{12,14–18,32,33,48,49} A particularly popular approach is the lattice-gas model, also known as the Bikerman or Kornyshev model in the context of ionic liquids.^{16,20,50,51} This model captures well the physics of electrical double layers^{19–22} but overestimates steric repulsions.⁵² We therefore decided to use the Carnahan–Starling (CS) approximation for the excluded-volume free energy, to give our discussions a more quantitative flavor;⁵³ the CS free energy is

$$f_{\text{ex}}(\rho) = k_B T \rho \left[\frac{4\eta - 3\eta^2}{(1 - \eta)^2} - 1 \right] \quad (2)$$

where $\eta = \pi a^3 \rho / 6 = \pi \bar{\rho} / 6$ is the ion packing fraction. This choice of f_{ex} in eq 1 describes ILSMs with the ion size larger than that of the solvent so that the solvent can be treated as an effective homogeneous medium (for comparative ion–solvent sizes, the solvent entropy must be explicitly taken into account). Although we focused here on low ion densities, our approach can also be extended to study highly concentrated electrolytes.^{45,54,55}

For a bulk system (i.e., without an electrode), eq 1 reduces to $\beta a^3 \Omega(\bar{\rho}) / V = -\bar{\rho}^2 / 2\bar{T} + \bar{\rho} \ln(\bar{\rho}/2) + \beta f_{\text{ex}}(\bar{\rho}) - \beta \mu \bar{\rho}$, where V is the system volume and $\bar{T} = k_B T a^3 / K$ is dimensionless temperature. This model predicts demixing phase transitions. The phase diagram consists of a region where solvent and IL are in the demixed state, which shrinks and ends at a (upper) critical point as temperature increases (Figure 1b). We found for the critical density $\rho_c a^3 \approx 0.25$ and temperature $\bar{T}_c \approx 0.09$; the critical density proves to be in good agreement with the experimental values.⁵⁶ Since we are interested in temperature-induced effects, we shall use the critical temperature as a reference point and take the temperature-dependent “constants” at T_c .

It turned out convenient to introduce an “order parameter” $\phi = \bar{\rho} - \bar{\rho}_b$, where $\bar{\rho}_b = a^3 \rho_b$ is the equilibrium ion density in the bulk. Minimizing eq 1 with respect to ϕ and making use of the bulk condition $c(\infty) = \phi(\infty) = 0$, we found

$$\xi_0^2 \phi'' + \phi = \bar{T} [\ln(1 + \phi/\bar{\rho}_b) - \ln \cosh(u) + \Delta\mu_{\text{ex}}] \quad (3a)$$

where primes denote the derivatives with respect to z coordinate and $\Delta\mu_{\text{ex}} = \mu_{\text{ex}} - \mu_{\text{ex}}^b$ with $\mu_{\text{ex}} = \beta \partial f_{\text{ex}} / \partial \rho$ and $\mu_{\text{ex}}^b = \mu_{\text{ex}}(z = \infty)$. The boundary conditions are $\phi(\infty) = 0$ and

$$\xi_0 \phi'(0) - \phi(0) + \tilde{h}_1 = 0 \quad (3b)$$

where $\tilde{h}_1 = a^3 h_1 / \xi_0 - \bar{\rho}_b$. The value $\tilde{h}_1 = 0$, which corresponds to $h_1 = \rho_b \xi_0$, means that at no applied potential the surface prefers the same ion density as that in bulk, i.e., $\phi = 0$ and $\rho_0 = \rho_b$. For $h_1 < \rho_b \xi_0$, the preferred IL density at the surface is lower than the bulk value even if the surface is “ionophilic” according to our definition ($h_1 > 0$).

Minimization of eq 1 with respect to u and c yields

$$\lambda_D^2 u'' = (1 + \phi/\bar{\rho}_b) \tanh(u) \quad (4)$$

where $\lambda_D = (4\pi\rho_b \lambda_B)^{-1/2}$ is the Debye screening length in bulk electrolyte. The boundary conditions are $u(\infty) = 0$ and $u(0) = eU/k_B T$, where U is the applied potential (Figure 1a).

To study the effect of demixing, we solved the system of eqs 3a, 3b, and 4 numerically for various temperatures and IL concentrations. We took a typical example $\xi_0 = a$ and the Bjerrum length $\lambda_B^c = a$.

Density Profiles and Charge Storage. Figure 1c shows that in the absence of dispersion interactions ($K = 0$ in eq 1), the thickness of the surface layer is comparable to the ion diameter and, at sufficiently high potentials, consists predominantly of counterions. At a finite temperature, the surface layer grows by accumulating more coions so that the total ion density at the electrode increases. This is because dispersion interactions favor higher ion densities, partially compensating the electrostatic repulsions. A small peak developed in ρ and c at short distances arises due to “missing

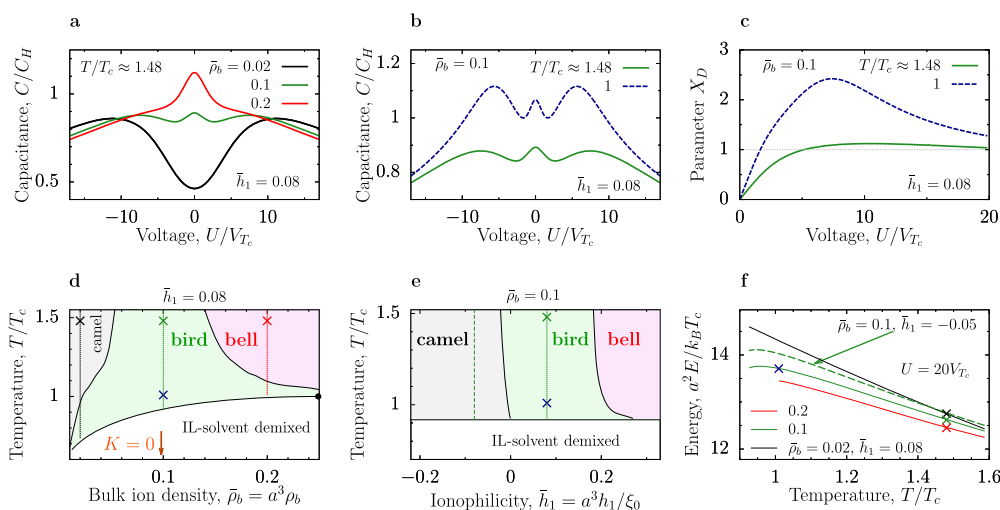


Figure 2. Capacitance and energy storage close to demixing. (a) Differential capacitance as a function of applied potential for constant temperature and various IL concentrations, demonstrating the camel, bird, and bell-shaped capacitances. Voltage is measured in terms of thermal voltage $V_{T_c} = k_B T_c / e$ (≈ 26 mV at room temperature), and capacitance is measured in unit of $C_H = \epsilon / 4\pi a$ ($\approx 8 \mu\text{F}/\text{cm}^2$ for $a = 0.7$ nm with the permittivity of water at room temperature). (b) Effect of temperature on the bird-shaped capacitance. (c) Charging parameter X_D , eq 6, as a function of voltage. (d) Capacitance diagram showing the regions with camel, bird, and bell-like capacitances. The thin vertical lines denote the values of ρ used in (f), and the symbols show the values of the temperature and density used in (a)–(c). The arrow shows the location of the bell-to-camel transformation in the absence of dispersion forces ($K = 0$ in eq 1). (e) Capacitance diagram in the plane of temperature and electrode's ionophilicity (surface field $\bar{h}_1 = a^3 h_1 / \xi_0$). (f) Stored energy per surface area as a function of temperature for various IL concentrations and surface fields at an applied potential of $U = 20V_{T_c}$. Energy density is measured in units of $E_T = k_B T / a^2$ ($\approx 0.84 \mu\text{J}/\text{cm}^2 \approx 0.23$ nW h/cm² for $a = 0.7$ nm at room temperature).

neighbors" created by the electrode (the $\xi_0 \rho_0^2$ term in eq 1); clearly, this is not captured by the pure steric-electrostatic model ($K = 0$ in Figure 1c).

In the vicinity of demixing, dispersion forces begin to play an increasingly important role and the surface layer grows to become macroscopically thick, reminiscent of electrowetting. Remarkably, the charge accumulated in an EDL, $Q = e \int_0^\infty c(z) dz$, increases as the temperature decreases toward demixing (Figure 1d), which may have practical applications.

Capacitance and Charging Mechanisms. An important characteristic of EDLs is differential capacitance

$$C(U) = \frac{dQ}{dU} \quad (5)$$

Figure 2a shows that $C(U)$ can have multiple peaks as a function of an applied potential U , depending on the IL concentration. The case of low concentrations was extensively studied in the literature.^{12,14–22} In accord with the previous work, here we observed a so-called camel-shaped capacitance (the $\bar{\rho} = 0.02$ curve in Figure 2a), i.e., a minimum at the potential of zero charge (PZC) and two symmetric maxima. At a high density, we obtained a bell-shaped capacitance, which exhibits a single peak at the PZC and decreases monotonically for increasing voltage. Also, this behavior was well studied theoretically^{12,14–22} and by experiments.^{24–26}

However, our calculations revealed that the capacitance can exhibit three peaks at intermediate IL concentrations. The first peak is at the PZC, characteristic of high densities, whereas the two other peaks at the positive and negative potentials bear a resemblance to the camel-shaped capacitance. Inspired by Kornyshev's bells and camels,¹⁶ we shall call it a bird-shaped capacitance, in view of the similarity of its shape to a flying bird (Figure 2b).

To achieve a deeper insight into the charging process close to demixing, we calculated the charging parameter^{57,58}

$$X_D(U) = \frac{e}{C(U)} \frac{d\Gamma}{dU} \quad (6)$$

where $\Gamma = \int_0^\infty \phi(z) dz$ is the surface coverage (by an ionic liquid). $X_D(U) = 0$ means that, at a potential U , the charging is due to swapping coions for counterions. $X_D = 1$ corresponds to counterion electrosorption (or simply adsorption), and $X_D > 1$ implies that both counterions and coions are adsorbed into the surface layer; a negative X_D means desorption of ions from the surface layer.

Far from demixing, charging mechanisms are qualitatively similar for all three types of capacitance (for a typical curve, see the green line in Figure 2c). However, we found that approaching demixing has a vivid effect on the charging mechanisms and capacitance. In particular, for a birdlike capacitance, the capacitance increases and its shape becomes more pronounced (Figure 2b). The enhanced capacitance is due to the increased ion density at the surface occurring close to demixing (Figure 1c), and this is reflected in the charging parameter, which becomes significantly greater than unity (Figure 2c).

The diagram in Figure 2d shows the regions in which our theory predicted the camel, bird, and bell-shaped capacitances. Remarkably, the bird-shaped capacitance occupies a relatively large domain, which extends upon approaching the line of demixing transitions. The transformation between different types of capacitance can be induced by changing temperature or concentration.

In the absence of dispersion forces ($K = 0$ in eq 1), a transformation between the camel and bell shapes was found at $\rho_b = \rho_{b,1} \approx 0.098a^{-3}$ (the arrow in Figure 2d; there is no bird-shaped capacitance for $K = 0$). This means that the bird-shaped capacitance can emerge either from the camel shape by developing another hump or by developing two wings in the bell shape. In the former case, a hump appears at $u = 0$ if an electrode is sufficiently ionophilic to keep a high ion density at

the electrode. Referring to Figure 2d, \tilde{h}_1 in eq 3b increases as the bulk ion density, ρ_b , is reduced and so the electrode can maintain a high density in its vicinity also for $\rho_b < \rho_{b,1}$.

The appearance of wings in the bell-shaped capacitance is more interesting and can be related to electrowetting-like phenomena and charging mechanisms. Figure 2c demonstrates that X_D develops a peak at $u = u_1$ ($\approx 6V_T$), whose value can be well above unity. This means that both counter and coions enter the surface layer in response to the applied potential. The increased ion density at the electrode enhances ionic screening and leads to a peak in the capacitance at $u \approx u_1$ (Figure 2b).

Figure 2e shows that, at a fixed ion concentration, the capacitance shape can be changed by varying the affinity of electrodes toward ions, controlled by the parameter h_1 . An ionophobic electrode (low or negative h_1) favors the camel shape, and a strongly ionophilic electrode produces the bell shape. The bird shape emerges in the intermediate regime, defining the border zone between ionophilic and ionophobic.

It is interesting to note that Alam et al.⁵⁹ have observed experimentally the appearance of humps at the potential of zero charge in the parabolic capacitance–voltage curves for some N_2 -saturated room-temperature ILs; the cause of this appearance was unknown.⁵⁹ Our theory suggests that it is related to IL–electrode wetting properties, with the humps appearing for ILs with higher affinity for electrodes (Figure 2e); clearly, this effect cannot be captured by the pure steric-electrostatic theories.

The emergence of wings in the bell-shaped capacitance has been observed⁶⁰ in molecular dynamics simulations of neat 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium hexafluorophosphate (commonly known as BMIM-PF₆) on a gold surface; also this behavior was not rationalized. Our analysis suggests that it is likely related to a voltage-triggered adsorption of ions at the electrode at intermediate voltages, as manifested by the charging parameter X_D (Figure 2c).

Energy Storage. We next calculated the energy density stored in an EDL, $E(U) = \int_0^U C(u)u \, du$. Figure 2f shows that E increases significantly as the system approaches demixing. Such an enhanced energy storage is consistent with the increased capacitance (Figure 2b) and accumulated charge (Figure 1d). Interestingly, the largest enhancement was obtained at low IL concentrations. In this case, the applied potential has a stronger effect on the near-surface structure, providing a comparably higher increase of the IL density at the electrode for decreasing temperature. Similarly as in nanoconfinement,^{61–63} making an electrode ionophobic enhances the energy storage, but the relative increase of the energy obtained by decreasing temperature is comparable to that of the ionophilic electrode (the solid and dashed green lines in Figure 2f).

For many ILSMs, the demixing critical temperature, T_c , is in the range of 300–400 K,^{56,64,65} which means that $\Delta T = 0.1T_c$ corresponds to 30–40 K. Figure 2f suggests that the energy stored in an EDL changes significantly in this temperature range, which can be used to generate electricity from waste heat. This can be done, for instance, by using a capacitor with ILSM close to demixing as a “buffer” capacitor to be charged from a “permanent” storage (battery) when a device is heated up (to T_h) and to discharge it back to the permanent storage when it cools down (other realizations are also possible). Then, for a temperature jump $\Delta T = 0.1T_c$ and taking $T_h = T_c$, we estimated the energy gain ΔE to be about 0.1 nW h/cm² at

$U = 20V_{T_c} \approx 0.5$ V for $a^3\rho = 0.02$ (about 0.095 M for ion diameter $a = 0.7$ nm; note that the density is off critical and the ILSM is in the mixed state during the whole cycle). Taking a macroporous electrode with a modest 100 m²/g surface area, we obtained the gain from a single cycle $\Delta E \approx 0.1$ W h/kg.

We recall now that we deliberately did not take into account the temperature variation of the dielectric constant, ϵ , which can be significant for polar solvents. It is not difficult to see, however, that in doing so we underestimated ΔE . Taking the Gouy–Chapman capacitance for simplicity, one finds that $C \sim \epsilon^{1/2}$ increases as ϵ increases for decreasing temperature, and hence ΔE shall increase correspondingly. We confirmed by explicit numerical calculations that this is indeed the case; the details will be published elsewhere.

Finally, we stress that our heat-to-electricity converter (HTEC) differs from other HTECs, which rely on enhancing Faraday processes³⁴ or increasing voltage^{32,33} for increasing temperature. In contrast to them, the demixing-based HTECs exploit the collective behavior and metastability of an IL-rich phase close to demixing, which leads to the rise of capacitance and energy storage.

CONCLUSIONS

We have studied electrical double layers (EDLs) with ionic liquid–solvent mixtures close to demixing. We revealed the emergence of a bird-shaped capacitance, in addition to the well-known bell and camel shapes. The camel and bell shapes appear for ionophobic and ionophilic electrodes, respectively, while the bird shape separates these two extremes; this suggests that the capacitance shape may serve as an electrochemical signature of the electrode’s affinity for ions. Our findings suggest a plausible explanation for the appearance of humps in the capacitance–voltage curves observed for some water and N_2 -saturated room-temperature ionic liquids.⁵⁹ We also demonstrated that EDLs experience vivid changes upon approaching ionic liquid–solvent demixing at low concentrations. Particularly, the energy stored in an EDL can be considerably enhanced, which can be utilized to generate electricity from heat.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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