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Publication Date

1977-04-01

00004710569

Submitted to Accounts of Chemical
Research

LBL-6218
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Kenneth S. Pitzer

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Electrolyte Theory - Improvements since Debye and Hückel

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In 1923 Debye and Hückel¹ provided, in a simple theory, the correct equation for the behavior of electrolyte solutions in the limit of very low concentration. This eliminated an anomaly that had troubled physical chemists and allowed a great advance in the semi-empirical, semi-theoretical treatment of dilute electrolytes at finite concentrations. While the severe approximations of Debye and Hückel were found not to affect the limiting-law, great uncertainty² remained concerning any higher-order terms.

There were many intermediate advances³ through the years, especially in the work of Mayer, Kirkwood, Poirier and Friedman. However, a really sound and fruitful theory for electrolytes at substantial concentration has only emerged in the last decade. While these contributions have been summarized in reviews^{4,5} addressed to specialists in statistical mechanics and electrolyte theory, it seemed desirable to call this advance to the attention of physical chemists and solution chemists more generally. This more recent theory may be too complex for use or for presentation in some cases, but even then it should be realized that a rigorous theory now exists. Thus one should evaluate the accuracy of the traditional Debye-Hückel theory by comparison with the rigorous theory for the same model.

It is also possible to extend the Debye-Hückel theory in a simple manner to yield a relatively simple equation which is an excellent approximation.⁶ The recent theory suggests new forms of semi-empirical equations which have proven to be remarkably successful in representing experimental results and in thermodynamic calculations.

In reviewing and summarizing the recent development it is desirable to divide the complete theory into three parts. This division is equally applicable to Debye-Hückel theory; hence, we can discuss the improvements in each part. The three parts are: (1) the selection of the molecular model, i.e., the interionic potentials of mean force, (2) the calculation of the interionic radial distribution functions from this model, and (3) the calculation of thermodynamic functions from the potentials and the radial distribution functions.

Interionic Potentials

In principle one would like to have an adequate theoretical treatment for water and to use it together with the properties of the ions to derive⁷ the interionic potentials of mean (or average) force in water. But there is not yet an adequate model for water. Hence one must start with a model for the interionic potentials of mean force.

Any plausible model can be described by the interionic potential equation

$$u_{ij}(r) = u_{ij}^*(r) + z_i z_j e^2 / Dr \quad (1)$$

where $z_i e$ is the charge on the i -th ion, r the distance between the i and j ions, D the dielectric constant of the solvent, and $u^*(r)$ is a short-range function giving the difference between the true interionic potential of mean force and the electrostatic term.

There is no question concerning the effect of the dielectric constant of the solvent in yielding the last term in equation (1) for sufficiently large interionic separation. All effects yielding departures from this electrostatic term are combined in $u_{ij}^*(r)$. These include at intermediate distances a variety of effects related to the molecular nature of the solvent (solvation, dielectric saturation, etc.) as well as dispersion forces between the ions and at shorter distances the direct repulsion of ions as their electron shells begin to overlap.

The simplest assumption for u^* , used by Debye and Hückel and frequently called the primitive model, is

$$\begin{aligned} u_{ij}^* &= +\infty, & r < a \\ u_{ij}^* &= 0, & r > a \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where the hard-core diameter a is the same for all ions. A first improvement is to make the hard core distance in (2) the sum of radii which may differ for the positive and negative ions in a salt. Further improvements are continuous functions reflecting the softness of the direct interionic repulsion and the short-range effects of the solvent. Since there has been a major advance in the correct solution of the primitive model, we will proceed at once in describing that theory. But we will describe equations valid for other forms of u^* and will discuss eventually, some results for other models.

While improvements in part 2, the calculation of the radial distribution function, were important, the most critical advance was for part 3; hence we discuss part 3 next. Debye and Hückel were unable to include the direct effect of the short range potential u^* on thermodynamic properties, they included only the indirect effect of u^* on the electrostatic term (and even that only partially).

Equations Yielding Thermodynamic Functions

An adequate theory relating intermolecular potentials and radial distribution functions to thermodynamic functions was first developed for simple fluids such as argon. For the energy content the result is rather easily derived

$$\frac{E}{N} = \frac{3}{2} kT + \frac{1}{2} \frac{N}{V} \int_0^{\infty} u(r) g(r) 4\pi r^2 dr \quad (3)$$

where $g(r)$ is the radial distribution function and $u(r)$ is the intermolecular potential. It is considerably more difficult to obtain a useful relationship for a free-energy, but somewhat indirect approaches were successful. The most direct and useful gives the pressure

$$\frac{PV}{NkT} = 1 - \frac{N}{6VkT} \int_0^{\infty} r \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} g(r) 4\pi r^2 dr. \quad (4)$$

Given the pressure as a function of volume, other functions can be calculated from thermodynamic relationships. There is also an equation for the compressibility which provides a useful check, but the pressure equation is ordinarily the most convenient.

This theory for simple fluids can be found in a number of books on statistical mechanics, for example Fowler⁸ and Henderson and Davison⁹ give derivations based on the virial theorem. A different and relatively simple derivation based on the volume derivative of the partition function is given by Davidson¹⁰ and by Hill.¹¹ Still another derivation has been given by Hill.¹²

The generalization of these equations to multicomponent fluids is relatively straightforward. But we can hardly deal in detail with all of the solvent molecules as well as the solute, hence some method of averaging over solvent effects is essential. This was provided by McMillan and Mayer¹³ who considered a solution in osmotic equilibrium with pure solvent through a solvent-permeable, solute-impermeable membrane, see figure 1. They showed that the entire array of equations for molecules in imperfect gases (fluids) applied to the solute in this system provided one used potentials of mean force at infinite dilution in the solvent and interpreted the pressure as the osmotic pressure. There are some questions of convergence for long-range electrical forces, but these have been answered.

Hill¹⁴ gives both a simplified and a more rigorous account of the McMillan-Mayer theory.

Rasiah and Friedman¹⁵ were the first to take full advantage of this theory for application to electrolytes. The pressure equation now yields the osmotic coefficient for the solution

$$\begin{aligned}\phi-1 &= (P_{os}/ckT) - 1 \\ &= -(6ckT)^{-1} \sum_i \sum_j c_i c_j \int_0^\infty r \frac{\partial u_{ij}}{\partial r} g_{ij}(r) 4\pi r^2 dr\end{aligned}\quad (5)$$

where c_i is the concentration of the i -th ion and c is the total concentration of solute species, $c = \sum c_i$. Once ϕ is known as a function of concentration, the activity coefficient can be calculated from the Gibbs-Duhem equation.

It should be noted, see figure 1, that these functions apply to the solution under a pressure equal to its own osmotic pressure plus the pressure on the pure solvent rather than to the usual standard pressure of one atmosphere. Friedman¹⁶ has discussed the conversion between these states and provides the needed equations. The differences are negligible for our purposes.

Rasaiah and Friedman¹⁵ also derived the analog of the compressibility equation for the electrolyte system and used it to verify certain calculations.

Although the complete theory underlying equation (5) is complex and lengthy, it is rigorous and provides a valid means to obtain thermodynamic properties provided both the potentials of mean force and the radial distribution functions are available.

Radial Distribution Functions

We turn now to the problem of obtaining the radial distribution functions from the potentials. The basic equation of statistical mechanics¹⁷ for the radial distribution function (or pair correlation function) yields for a pair of like ions

in a binary electrolyte

$$g_{ii}(r) = V^2 \frac{\int \cdots \int \exp(-\Phi/kT) dr_{i3} \cdots dr_{iN} dr_{j1} \cdots dr_{jN}}{\int \cdots \int \exp(-\Phi/kT) dr_{i1} \cdots dr_{iN} dr_{j1} \cdots dr_{jN}} \quad (6)$$

here Φ is the total potential energy for all pairs of ions interacting in accordance with the potentials $u_{ij}(r)$ of equation (1). Note that the numerator differs only in that the first two coordinates for the i -th type of ions are not integrated.

For the radial distribution function for a pair of unlike ions the analogous equation is

$$g_{ij}(r) = V^2 \frac{\int \cdots \int \exp(-\Phi/kT) dr_{i2} \cdots dr_{iN} dr_{j2} \cdots dr_{jN}}{\int \cdots \int \exp(-\Phi/kT) dr_{i1} \cdots dr_{iN} dr_{j1} \cdots dr_{jN}} \quad (7)$$

where now the integral in the numerator omits the integration over the coordinates of one ion of each type.

These basic equations may be evaluated directly by Monte Carlo methods.¹⁸ Such calculations involve numerical approximations and various technical features, but they may be made as accurate as desired with the expenditure of sufficient care and computer time. Vorontsov-Veliaminov, et al,^{19,20} and Card and Valleau²¹ have made significant Monte Carlo calculations for electrolytes. We shall present the results of Card and Valleau which are based on the primitive model appropriate for aqueous solutions at room temperature and for a uni-univalent solute with $a = 4.25 \text{ \AA}$. The results shown as points on figures 2 and 3.

In addition to the combination of Monte Carlo calculations with equation (5) to obtain thermodynamic quantities, the method of "molecular dynamics" would also provide a rigorous numerical solution for an electrolyte within the McMillan-Mayer solution theory framework. In this method¹⁸ the motions of a number of particles are followed by integration of the equations of motion subject to the potentials assumed. Then the desired quantities determined from averages over the motion. It has been successfully applied to non-electrolyte fluids with results comparable to those of the Monte Carlo method and it should be equally applicable to electrolytes.

While we shall presently discuss some other recent theories, let us first compare results which can be derived from the Debye-Hückel treatment with the Monte Carlo results.

In the conventional Debye-Hückel treatment²² the concentration of ionic species i near an ion of species j is given by the Boltzmann expression

$$c'_i = c_i \exp(-z_i e \psi_j / kT) \quad (8)$$

where c_i is the average concentration and $\psi_j(r)$ is an electrostatic potential associated with the ion j . This implies a radial distribution function

$$g_{ij}(r) = \exp(-z_i e \psi_j(r) / kT) \quad (9)$$

The Debye-Hückel treatment then combines the concentrations of all charged species to yield the charge density

$$\begin{aligned}\rho_j(r) &= \sum_i z_i e^{c_i} \\ &= \sum_i z_i e^{c_i} \exp(-z_i e \psi_j / kT)\end{aligned}\quad (10)$$

The exponentials are expanded, yielding

$$\begin{aligned}\rho_j(r) &= e \sum_i z_i c_i - (e^2 \psi_j / kT) \sum_i z_i^2 c_i \\ &\quad + (e^3 \psi_j^2 / 2k^2 T^2) \sum_i z_i^3 c_i \dots\end{aligned}\quad (11)$$

From electrical neutrality the first term on the right is zero. The second term is clearly non-zero and is the only term used for ρ in the usual treatment, where the Poisson equation now takes a linear form

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla^2 \psi &= -(4\pi/D) \rho \\ &= (4\pi e^2 / DkT) \psi\end{aligned}\quad (12)$$

Appropriate boundary conditions then yield

$$\psi_j(r) = \frac{z_j e \exp(\kappa a)}{D(1+\kappa a)} \cdot \frac{\exp(-\kappa r)}{r}\quad (13)$$

where

$$\kappa^2 = (4\pi e^2 / DkT) \sum_i z_i^2 c_i\quad (14)$$

and a is the diameter of the hard core in equation (2).

Let us return to the distribution function which now becomes

$$g_{ij} = \exp(-q_{ij})\quad (15)$$

$$q_{ij} = \frac{z_i z_j e^2 \exp(\kappa a)}{DkT(1+\kappa a)} \frac{\exp(-\kappa r)}{r} \quad (16)$$

Clearly the required symmetry to exchange of i and j is present. However, for the Poisson equation the exponentials in ρ were expanded and only the second term used. Thus it can be argued that it is inconsistent to retain the exponential form for g_{ij} . Since this entire treatment is approximate, this objection has limited significance. Alternatively one may note that the third term in the expanded form for the charge density is zero for a symmetrical electrolyte. Thus, without any inconsistency for symmetrical electrolytes, one may retain the third term in the expansion and the corresponding expression for the radial distribution function is

$$g_{ij}(r) = 1 - q_{ij} + q_{ij}^2/2 \quad (17)$$

The original Debye-Hückel approximation can be regarded as the first two terms

$$g_{ij}(r) = 1 - q_{ij} \quad (18)$$

In figures 2 and 3 we compare the exponential form (15), the three-term form (17) and the two-term form (18) for g_{ij} with the "exact" results of the Monte Carlo calculations for the case $a = 4.25 \text{ \AA}$ and solvent properties for water at 25°C . For the dilute solution, 0.00911 M , in figure 2 one notes that the exponential form is indeed, an excellent approximation which agrees with the Monte Carlo results essentially within the computational uncertainty of the latter. The three-term

"extended D-H" approximation agrees very well except for r -values just above a . Here g_{+-} is a little too small and g_{++} shows a false increase as r decreases below $6 \text{ \AA}$. But it is evident that integrals across all of r for thermodynamic functions will be well approximated by the three-term formula.

The two-term approximation is satisfactory for large r but deviates considerably at small r . The function for like ions even goes negative below about $6 \text{ \AA}$ which is quite unacceptable. Since the three-term formula involves no inconsistency with the original derivation (for symmetrical electrolytes), there would appear to be no reason for further use of the much poorer two-term approximation.

Figure 3 gives the same functions for a moderately concentrated solution 0.425 M. The same comments apply as for the dilute solution although the differences in the various D-H approximations are somewhat reduced.

We can now bypass the many objections² to the formulation of D-H theory by noting that it yields good agreement with the correct radial distribution function, particularly in the exponential form.

In applying any of these radial distribution functions with hard-core potentials to equation (5), one faces an anomaly in the integral at $r = a$ where $\partial u / \partial r$ is infinite. This has been resolved mathematically and yields²³ for the osmotic coefficient

$$\begin{aligned}
\phi-1 &= (P_{os}/ckT) - 1 \\
&= (6ckT)^{-1} \sum_i \sum_j c_i c_j \int_a^\infty r \frac{\partial u_{ij}}{\partial r} g_{ij} 4\pi r^2 dr \\
&\quad + \frac{2\pi a^3}{3c} \sum_i \sum_j c_i c_j g_{ij}(a)
\end{aligned} \tag{19}$$

where $g_{ij}(a)$ is the value of $g_{ij}(r)$ for r infinitesimally greater than a .

For the Monte Carlo calculations $g_{ij}(r)$ must be extrapolated to $r = a$ which adds some numerical uncertainty. The various D-H expressions are unambiguous for $g_{ij}(a)$; hence, there is no difficulty in evaluation the expressions in equation (19). For the exponential form, the integral can be evaluated only numerically, but for the two- or three-term approximations the integration yields simple functions. The latter result is

$$\phi-1 = \frac{-\kappa^3}{24\pi c(1+\kappa a)} + c \left[\frac{2\pi a^3}{3} + \frac{\kappa^4 a}{48\pi c^2(1+\kappa a)^2} \right] \tag{20}$$

It is convenient to define

$$w = \sum_i z_i^2 (c_i/c) \tag{21}$$

which is an average value of z_i^2 and becomes z^2 for a symmetrical electrolyte. Then

$$\phi-1 = \frac{-w\ell\kappa}{6(1+\kappa a)} + c \left[\frac{2\pi a^3}{3} + \frac{\pi a w^2 \ell^2}{3(1+\kappa a)^2} \right] \tag{22}$$

where $\ell = e^2/DkT$ and $\kappa^2 = 4\pi\ell wc$. In both equations (20) and (22) the first term, which contains the D-H limiting law, arises

from the second term in the expansion of g_{ij} . This is the term that leads to non-zero charge density; it can be thought of as the primary electrostatic term. The first term, unity, in the expressions for g_{ij} yields the term $c(2\pi a^3/3)$ which would be the kinetic effect of the hard core in the absence of electrical effects. The last term in (20) and (22), arises from the third term in the expressions for g_{ij} and would be absent if only the D-H two-term expression were used. This term gives the increased hard-core repulsive effect caused by the electrical interactions.

Figure 4 shows, for the case $a = 4.25 \text{ \AA}$ and a 1-1 aqueous electrolyte, the osmotic coefficient from the Monte Carlo calculations, that from the three-term D-H approximation of equation (22), and that from the original D-H formula which was derived by a charging process

$$\phi - 1 = -(\kappa^3/24\pi c) \sigma(\kappa a) \quad (23)$$

where

$$\sigma(x) = (3/x^3) [1+x-(1+x)^{-1} - 2 \ln (1+x)] \quad (24)$$

This model fits the observed data for HBr very well and the experimental osmotic coefficients for HBr are also shown on figure 4. The three-term D-H expression is an excellent approximation. The original D-H equation is a useful approximation, however, only below 0.01 M. The three-term D-H expression for g_{ij} had been recognized earlier²² as a good approximation, but so long as the charging process was used

to calculate thermodynamic properties it did not yield any improvement over the two-term expression.

Thermodynamic equations may be used to transform equation (22) to the forms for the activity coefficient and the excess Gibbs energy. With the assumption that concentration is proportional to molality, the results are

$$\ln \gamma_{\pm} = -\left(\frac{w\ell}{6}\right) \left[\frac{2\kappa}{1+\kappa a} + \frac{1}{a} \ln (1+\kappa a) \right] + c \left[\frac{4\pi a^3}{3} + \frac{\pi a w^2 \ell^2}{3(1+\kappa a)^2} \right] \quad (25)$$

$$G^{\text{ex}}/ckT = -\frac{\ell w}{6} \left[\frac{\kappa}{1+\kappa a} + \frac{1}{a} \ln (1+\kappa a) \right] + c \left(\frac{2\pi a^3}{3} \right) \quad (26)$$

In addition to the Monte Carlo method, which is exact in principle, a number of approximate equations or methods²⁴ have been proposed and applied recently to the calculation of the radial distribution functions for electrolytes. While these yield equations which usually require less computation than the Monte Carlo method, their derivation is more complex and the evaluation of possible errors from the approximations is even more complex. Indeed, now that Monte Carlo solutions are available, these other methods are tested²⁵ by comparison with the Monte Carlo results for identical potential models.

The principal advantage of these other methods arises from the possibility of exploring a variety of interionic potentials with less computational cost than the Monte Carlo method would require. This has been done by Friedman and Rasaiah and collaborators.^{26,27} They used the "Hypernetted

Chain Equation" and tested its accuracy in various ways including comparison with Monte Carlo results.²⁵ We shall not discuss these results in detail but show in figure 5 the radial distribution function for LiBr obtained by Ramanathan and Friedman.^{26,28} They assumed the bare-ion repulsive potentials obtained in studies of ionic crystals and adjusted the potentials at intermediate distances to obtain agreement with experiment. The final potentials are smooth functions of radius. It was found that the selection of the three potentials (Li^+-Li^+ , Li^+-Br^- , and Br^--Br^-) at intermediate distances was not unique; many alternatives fitted the osmotic coefficients equally well.

For comparison, the D-H exponential radial distribution functions are also shown on figure 5 for a value of $a = 4.0 \text{ \AA}$ which fits the experimental data for LiBr reasonably well. There are Monte Carlo results²⁰ for $a = 4.0 \text{ \AA}$ but not at the molality 0.4 of the other curves in figure 5. The Monte Carlo results at other concentrations, however, show agreement with the D-H exponential functions.

Equations for Use in Chemical Thermodynamics

For chemical thermodynamic calculations for electrolytes it is usually preferable to use semi-empirical equations rather than purely theoretical equations since the latter are either very complex or contain significant approximations. Also at present any theoretical equation is based on a model whose accuracy is subject to argument. The semiempirical equations include the D-H limiting law and such other features taken from theory as seem useful.

The traditional D-H result, equation (23) for ϕ or the more familiar

$$\ln \gamma_{\pm} = -w\ell\kappa/2(1+\kappa a) \quad (27)$$

is seen from figure 4 to become inadequate at very low concentration. Equation (27) is commonly extended with a term analogous to the second term in equations (20) and (22). After rearrangement and for a symmetrical electrolyte, this becomes

$$\ln \gamma_{\pm} = - \frac{z^2 A_Y I^{1/2}}{(1+\rho I^{1/2})} + 2\beta m \quad (28)$$

where A_Y is the traditional D-H parameter, m the molality, and I is the ionic strength. Also $\rho = \kappa a/I^{1/2}$ and β are parameters generally related to the diameter of the ions. The corresponding form for the osmotic coefficient is

$$\phi - 1 = -z^2 A_{\phi} I^{1/2} \sigma(\rho I^{1/2}) + \beta m \quad (29)$$

Guggenheim²⁹ proposed taking $\rho = 1$ for all solutes and letting the specific properties of each solute appear in β . This system has been widely used³⁰ with considerable success. But with β a constant this equation still does not fit the better quality data within experimental accuracy over a substantial range in m .

The needed improvement⁶ is suggested by the last term in equations (20), (22), and (25). One notes that this term which decreases with increasing ionic strength (increasing κ) is added to the constant term, $2\pi a^3/3$ in (22), to yield the

quantity equivalent to β in equations (28) and (29). A directly analogous form would be

$$\beta = \beta^{(0)} + [\beta^{(1)}/(1+\alpha I^{1/2})^2] \quad (30)$$

while a somewhat simpler form with similar properties is

$$\beta = \beta^{(0)} + \beta^{(1)} \exp(-\alpha I^{1/2}) \quad (31)$$

These forms were tested⁶ with a wide range of accurate osmotic coefficient data and the second (31) was found to be slightly better. In each case $\beta^{(0)}$ and $\beta^{(1)}$ were freely adjusted for each electrolyte while α was optimized but to a single value for all solutes. Similarly the two forms for the electrostatic term, in equations (22) and (23), were compared⁶ and the more recent (22) was slightly superior. The resulting practical equation for the osmotic coefficient of a single symmetrical electrolyte is

$$\begin{aligned} \phi - 1 = & -z^2 A_{\phi} I^{1/2}/(1+bI^{1/2}) \\ & + m[\beta_{MX}^{(0)} + \beta_{MX}^{(1)} \exp(-\alpha I^{1/2})] + m^2 C_{MX}^{\phi} \end{aligned} \quad (32)$$

where b is kept the same for all solutes with a best value of 1.2, α is 2.0 for all 1-1 and many other electrolytes, and an additional term in m^2 has been added to extend the equation to very high concentrations. Equation (32) fits the experimental osmotic coefficients for over 200 pure aqueous electrolytes essentially within experimental accuracy.³¹

The corresponding equation for the activity coefficient is

$$\begin{aligned}
\ln \gamma_{\pm} = & -z^2 A_{\phi} [I^{1/2}/(1+bI^{1/2}) + (2/b) \ln(1+bI^{1/2})] \\
& + m \{ 2\beta_{MX}^{(0)} + (2\beta_{MX}^{(1)}/\alpha^2 I) [1 - (1+\alpha I^{1/2} - \alpha^2 I/2) \\
& \exp(-\alpha I^{1/2})] \} + m^2 (3C_{MX}^{\phi}/2)
\end{aligned} \tag{33}$$

These equations become only a little more complex for unsymmetrical solutes. Even for mixed electrolytes³² the corresponding equations are relatively simple and all of the more important parameters are determined from the data on single solutes. The result is an extremely general and compact representation of the known properties of aqueous electrolytes which also has the capacity of prediction of properties of mixtures to useful accuracy.

Summary

First we recall that there is not yet an adequate theory for water (or for other ionizing solvents); hence any theory must start with assumptions concerning the interionic potentials of mean force in the solvent. From that point, however, we now have an exact theory which can be applied numerically to obtain as accurately as desired the interionic radial distribution functions and thermodynamic properties.

There is no longer any need to speculate about the net inaccuracies in the Debye-Hückel theory, or extensions thereof, or of other approximate theories. These questions can be answered by comparison with calculations based on exact theories. The original D-H expression which contained no contribution from the direct effects of short-range forces

is seriously inadequate outside of the range of the limiting law. But the D-H calculation of interionic distribution functions is found to be surprisingly accurate in either the exponential or three-term expansion form (at least for the model for aqueous 1-1 electrolytes with ionic diameters near 4 Å). The three-term expansion form of these distributions can be used in the "pressure" equation to yield a simple but relatively accurate expression for the osmotic coefficient up to about 1 M for this model.

It is now feasible also to investigate more realistic interionic potentials. This should be very valuable in the future, although the requirement of fitting osmotic and activity coefficient data is not likely to yield a unique determination of the short-range potential.

Also the recent theory suggested important improvements in the form of semi-empirical equations. Reasonably simple equations are now available which fit within experimental accuracy a wide variety of data on pure and mixed electrolytes. Also, since the more important parameters are determined from the single solutes, the equations allow prediction of the properties of mixtures.

Financial support of the U. S. Atomic Energy Commission and of the Energy Research and Development Administration is gratefully acknowledged.

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FIGURE CAPTIONS

- Figure 1. Osmotic equilibrium for the McMillan-Mayer theory. The solute is component 2 and the total pressure on the solution in the right side is $P + \pi$.
- Figure 2. The radial distribution functions (g_{+-} above, $g_{++} = g_{--}$ below) for 0.00911 M aqueous solution (1-1 type, $a = 4.25 \text{ \AA}$). The points are Monte Carlo calculations, the solid curve is the exponential D-H expression, the dotted and dashed curves are, respectively, the three-term and two-term D-H expressions.
- Figure 3. The radial distribution functions for 0.425 M solution; other aspects the same as in figure 2.
- Figure 4. The osmotic coefficient for a 1-1 type aqueous electrolyte at 25°C . Solid circles are experimental values for HBr. Open circles are calculated by the Monte Carlo method ($a = 4.25 \text{ \AA}$). The solid curve is based on the three-term D-H expression and the "pressure" equation while the dashed curve is the traditional D-H expression based on the "charging process."
- Figure 5. Radial distribution functions for LiBr at 0.4 M. The solid curves are based on a refined model, see text; the dashed curves on the primitive model.

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Fig. 1

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Fig. 2

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Fig. 3

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Fig. 4

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Fig. 5

This report was done with support from the United States Energy Research and Development Administration. Any conclusions or opinions expressed in this report represent solely those of the author(s) and not necessarily those of The Regents of the University of California, the Lawrence Berkeley Laboratory or the United States Energy Research and Development Administration.

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