

Molecular dynamics simulations of uranyl adsorption and structure on the basal surface of muscovite

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Anthropogenic activities have led to an increased concentration of uranium on the Earth's surface and potentially in the subsurface with the development of nuclear waste repositories. Uranium is soluble in groundwater, and its mobility is strongly affected by the presence of clay minerals in soils and in subsurface sediments. We use molecular dynamics simulations to probe the adsorption of aqueous uranyl (UO_2^{2+}) ions onto the basal surface of muscovite, a suitable proxy for typically ultrafine-grained clay phases. Model systems include the competitive adsorption between potassium counterions and aqueous ions (0.1 M and 1.0 M UO_2Cl_2 , 0.1 M NaCl). We find that for systems with the presence of potassium and uranyl ions, potassium ions dominate the adsorption phenomenon. Potassium ions adsorb entirely as inner sphere complexes associated with the ditrigonal cavity of the basal surface. Uranyl ions adsorb in two configurations when it is the only ion species present, and in a single configuration in the presence of potassium. The majority of adsorbed uranyl ions are tilted $<45^\circ$ relative to the muscovite surface, and are associated with the Si_4Al_2 rings near the aluminium substitution sites.

Keywords: mica; uranium; surface charge; electrolyte

1. Introduction

Uranium is a naturally occurring element that is found at average levels of two parts per million in the Earth's crust, with higher concentrations in certain minerals associated with granitic rocks.[1] Increased concentrations of uranium, many times greater than background level, are associated with anthropogenic activities, and contamination has primarily accumulated due to mining activities for weapons manufacturing and fuel material for electricity production.[2] Understanding the fate of uranium contamination in the environment is important due to its high toxicity and long-lived radioactive isotopes.[3]

Once separated from the ore, the transport of uranium in the environment is mediated by the flow of groundwater. In the presence of oxygen, uranium occurs in the +6 oxidation state as the aqueous-soluble uranyl ion, UO_2^{2+} . [3] The presence of clays and other adsorbing minerals strongly influences the mobility of uranyl species and its migration from the contamination source.[4–6] Therefore, understanding the interactions between mineral surfaces and uranyl ions is important in developing remediation strategies for contaminated sites and developing risk assessments for long-term radioactive waste storage.

In this work, we investigate the adsorption of uranyl ions onto the basal surface of the layered mineral muscovite using molecular dynamics (MD) simulation. Muscovite is a highly charged phyllosilicate mineral composed of a single octahedral (O) alumina sheet

sandwiched between two tetrahedral (T) aluminosilicate sheets to form a TOT layer structure. Permanent negative charge results from isomorphic substitution (aluminium for silicon) in the tetrahedral sheets. Charge-balancing potassium ions are located between TOT layers which electrostatically bind adjacent layers together.[7] Because of its highly ordered stacking layer structure, muscovite can be easily cleaved along its layers to produce large single crystals that are amenable to microscopic and spectroscopic investigation of its basal surface properties. In addition, the availability of single-crystal X-ray structures [8–12] provides an opportunity to validate MD simulation and other computational methods used to model bulk and interfacial structures of muscovite. Clay minerals, which are ultrafine-grained and typically dominate many sediment environments, have TOT layer structures similar to muscovite but with lower layer charge.

Uranyl adsorption on clay minerals has been studied previously with both experimental and simulation techniques.[13–16] Greathouse and Cygan [13,17] have studied uranyl adsorption on external basal surfaces of clay minerals in the presence of carbonate and sodium ions using MD simulations. Experimentally, uranyl adsorption onto muscovite has been studied using various techniques. Second harmonic generation (SHG) has been used to determine the free energies of adsorption and the surface-active uranyl species bound to muscovite over a range of environmentally relevant pH values and carbonate concentrations.[15,18,19] Also, SHG methods can assess

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the charge density of the muscovite surface and response of the charged solution species. Moyes et al. [11] used X-ray adsorption spectroscopy to show that, at concentrations ranging from 0.025 to 1.0 mM, uranyl ions adsorb to the muscovite surface potentially forming a new phase. Arnold et al. [20] used time-resolved laser-induced fluorescence spectroscopy and high-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy to examine the adsorption of uranyl ions onto muscovite platelets and suspensions. In contrast to Moyes et al., Arnold et al. found that uranyl only adsorbed to the basal surface of muscovite, which was attributed to the lower concentration (1×10^{-5} M) used to obtain the fluorescence spectra. Clearly, there are still questions remaining as to how uranyl ions adsorb to muscovite surfaces.

In this work, we use MD simulation to explore the adsorption of uranyl ions on the muscovite basal surface, specifically the structure of uranyl surface complexes in the presence of electrolyte solutions.

2. Molecular model

Our model of the muscovite–solution interface (Figure 1) was created as follows. First, the ideal monoclinic $C2/c$ ($2M_1$ polytype) muscovite structure was constructed from the single-crystal X-ray data of Kuwahara [9] and Catti et al. [8]. The experimentally derived structures do not locate charge substitution sites, therefore, we replaced aluminium for silicon in the tetrahedral sheet to produce a unit-cell formula of $\text{KAl}_2(\text{Si}_3\text{Al})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$ with a layer charge of $-1.0e/\text{unit cell}$, where e is the electron charge. Lowenstein's [21] rule was obeyed in the selection of charge sites, and, accordingly, no oxygen atoms bridged two tetrahedrally substituted aluminium ions. This resulted in a tetrahedral sheet structure having equal proportions of Si_4Al_2 and Si_5Al_1 rings that form ditrigonal cavities on the muscovite surface. Charge-balancing potassium ions were positioned in the interlayer between a Si_4Al_2 ring and a Si_5Al_1 ring.

Following construction of the unit cell, a larger muscovite model was created by expanding the unit cell by $8 \times 4 \times 2$ in the a , b and c dimensions. The simulation cell was then equilibrated using MD in the isothermal-isobaric ensemble at 298 K and 1 atm. The equilibrated bulk muscovite structure had final dimensions of $a = 5.20 \text{ \AA}$, $b = 9.02 \text{ \AA}$, $c = 20.08 \text{ \AA}$ and $\beta = 95.76^\circ$, which are in good agreement with the experimentally reported values of $a = 5.21 \text{ \AA}$, $b = 9.04 \text{ \AA}$, $c = 20.02 \text{ \AA}$ and $\beta = 95.76^\circ$. [8] The simulation cell was then orthogonalised, resulting in final cell dimensions of $41.6 \text{ \AA} \times 36.1 \text{ \AA} \times 40.0 \text{ \AA}$.

An external basal surface was created by cleaving the bulk muscovite structure, and the interlayer potassium counterions were distributed equally across the two exposed basal surfaces. An aqueous region was created

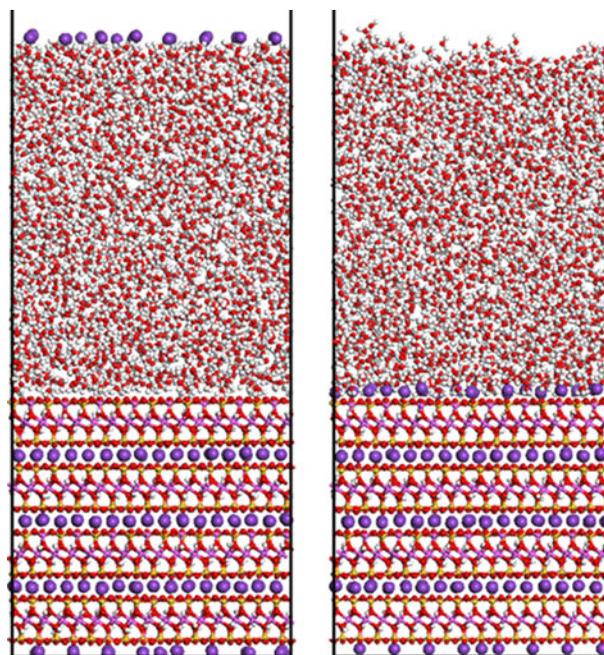


Figure 1. (Colour online) Snapshots from MD trajectories illustrating the initial configuration (left) and after equilibration (right) for the muscovite–aqueous solution model as viewed along the original b -axis of the muscovite. The simulation cell contains 2520 water molecules above the basal surface of a $8 \times 4 \times 2$ muscovite supercell. Aqueous potassium counterions were initially placed above the water layers. Colour scheme: oxygen (red), aluminium (pink), silicon (yellow), hydrogen (white) and potassium (purple).

by placing 2520 randomised, flexible simple point charge (SPC) water molecules [22] above the uppermost basal surface. Counterions in the aqueous region were initially placed above the water layer far from the muscovite surface (Figure 1) to minimise any biasing effects from the initial configuration, since the potassium ions bind quite strongly to the muscovite surface even in the presence of water. [18] The bottom muscovite layer was held fixed during the simulation to prevent unwanted collective translation of the system.

3. MD simulation method

MD simulations of muscovite–aqueous solution interfaces were carried out in the canonical ensemble using the LAMMPS software code. [23] A slab geometry was used, leaving the system fully periodic in the x and y directions but non-periodic in the z direction. [24] The slab was terminated by a Lennard-Jones (LJ) 9-3 wall above the water region, and a (virtual) vacuum gap equal to three times the c dimension ensures no long-range electrostatic interactions between adjacent slabs. The location of the LJ wall is set such that the water density is equal to 1.0 g cm^{-3} . Long-range electrostatics were treated with

the particle-particle particle-mesh method [25] using a precision of 0.0001, and inter-slab dipole interactions were removed. The reversible reference system propagator algorithm [26] was used to evaluate the intramolecular and short-range intermolecular interactions at 0.5 fs, while the k -space interactions were evaluated every 1.0 fs. The Nosé–Hoover thermostat was used with a relaxation time of 100 fs at a temperature $T = 298$ K. Cutoffs for both LJ and real-space electrostatic interactions were set to 10.0 Å.

Muscovite and monovalent ions (Na^+ , K^+ and Cl^-) were modelled using Clayff – a flexible force field that describes hydrated mineral systems through primarily non-bonded electrostatic and LJ interactions.[27] Clayff also incorporates the flexible SPC water model of Teleman et al. [22], which was used to model the water molecules in our system. Uranyl ions (UO_2^{2+}) were modelled using the parameters of Guilbaud and Wipff [28].

Five muscovite–aqueous solution systems were simulated in this study and are distinguished by the composition of the counterion and electrolyte solution, as listed in Table 1. In this context, ‘counterion’ refers to the aqueous ion whose net positive charge balances the net charge of the muscovite supercell (charge density of -0.346 C m^{-2}). This results in either 32 potassium counterions or 16 uranyl counterions in the aqueous region to maintain charge neutrality. Additional electrolyte was added to create either a 0.1 M (five ion pairs) or 1.0 M (45 ion pairs) electrolyte concentration. Each simulation was initially energy-minimised before a 10-ns MD simulation was carried out. Atomic coordinates were collected every 2 ps over the final 8-ns simulation time.

4. Results and discussion

Interfacial structure and trends in ion adsorption can be explored by examining one-dimensional density profiles. Figure 2 includes atomic density profiles and surface charge profiles generated by time-averaged distributions of ions near the muscovite basal surface. The muscovite surface is defined by the average z position of the basal aluminosilicate oxygen atoms. Data are plotted up to 8 Å away from

the surface, marking the boundary between the adsorbed and diffuse aqueous regions. Charge density profiles illustrate both the instantaneous charge density and the cumulative charge density (including the surface charge).

The high electric field created by adsorbed divalent uranyl ions (with a +2.5 partial charge on uranium) resulted in localised distortions of the muscovite surface at the tetrahedral aluminium sites, indicating that the force field was unable to maintain the structural integrity of the mineral basal structure in this case. No local structural distortions were observed for systems with the adsorbed singly charged potassium ions. Therefore, for the MD simulation with uranyl counterions and no other aqueous ions, the entire clay substrate was constrained to remain rigid. For all other simulations, there was no observed distortion of the clay surface and the conventional implementation of Clayff was followed.

The model system denoted ‘ K^+ ’ in Figure 2 represents a cleaved, hydrated muscovite surface and has been studied by X-ray reflectivity experiments,[10,12] classical simulation [29–33] and *ab initio* MD.[34] In particular, comparison with the interfacial structure obtained from X-ray reflectivity experiments serves to validate our simulation methods. The potassium peak at 1.5 Å indicates a single layer of adsorbed potassium ions forming inner sphere surface complexes. These potassium ions are centred over ditrigonal cavities on the surface, as discussed below. Our potassium–surface distance is slightly shorter than the value of 1.7 Å obtained from a similar MD simulation using Clayff,[33] but the model systems differ in the arrangement of tetrahedral aluminium sites and system size. X-ray reflectivity experiments indicate the same surface structure, with the potassium–surface distance varying from 1.6 to 1.9 Å depending on the aqueous potassium concentration.[12,35] Other classical simulations show varying results depending on the potential parameters used for ion–water and ion–clay interactions. The surface structure reported by Sakuma and Kawamura [32] is consistent with our results, with a potassium–surface distance of 1.7 Å. However, atomic density profiles based on the potassium–water potential of Bounds [36] and either the water model developed by

Table 1. Summary of instantaneous charge (C m^{-2}) and percent ion adsorption.

Counterion	Electrolyte	Charge at 8 Å ^b	Instantaneous % adsorbed ^a			
			K^+	UO_2^{2+}	Na^+	Cl^-
K^+	–	–0.02	93	–	–	–
K^+	1 M NaCl	–0.001	75	–	9 (22)	13 (6)
K^+	0.1 M UO_2Cl_2	–0.02	91	16	–	6 (14)
K^+	1.0 M UO_2Cl_2	–0.19	89	5	–	3 (4)
UO_2^{2+}	–	–0.01	–	55 (40)	–	–

^a Percentage of ions contributing to the first peak in the atomic density profiles (Figure 2) with the percentage of ions forming the second peak shown in parentheses where appropriate.

^b Cumulative charge at 8 Å including the surface charge density.

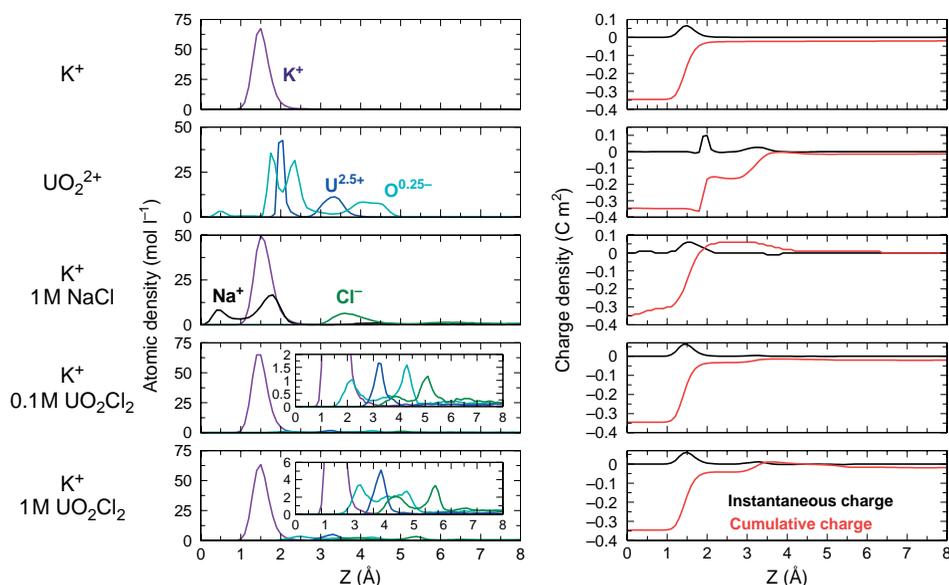


Figure 2. (Colour online) MD-equilibrated atomic density profiles of aqueous species (left) and corresponding charge densities (right) as a function of distance from basal surface of muscovite. Inset graphs show the behaviour of species in greater detail. Colour scheme for atoms: potassium (purple), uranyl uranium (blue), uranyl oxygen (turquoise) and chlorine (green). For all plots, $z = 0$ corresponds to the average z position of the oxygen atoms of the basal aluminosilicate surface.

Matsuoka, Clementi, and Yoshimine (MCY) [37] or TIP4P [38] water model vary considerably. For the MCY-based model, both inner sphere and outer sphere potassium–surface complexes are seen at 2.1 and 2.5 Å, respectively. [30] Results based on the TIP4P water model show inner sphere potassium adsorption directly over tetrahedral substitution sites at 1.9 Å. [29] Potassium interactions in Clayff are taken from the potassium–water potential of Koneshan et al. [39], which was derived from cluster models and successfully reproduces dynamical properties of hydrated potassium ions. Our results showing that potassium adsorbs as an inner sphere surface complex centred over ditrigonal cavities are consistent with available experimental data and provide a validated underpinning for extending our simulation methods to study uranyl adsorption.

When uranyl ions are the sole aqueous species (denoted ‘ UO_2^{2+} ’ in Figure 2), two distinct uranyl surface complexes are observed in the simulations. The first uranium peak is located approximately 2.0 Å from the surface while the second broader peak is located at approximately 3.25 Å. The accompanying oxygen peaks indicate a complex adsorption structure, which is investigated in detail below using angular orientations and two-dimensional surface densities.

The remaining density profiles shown in Figure 2 represent competitive adsorption between potassium counterions and either sodium chloride or uranyl chloride solutions. The potassium peak at 1.7 Å is unaffected by the presence of other aqueous ions, even when these ions are present at a higher concentration (1.0 M). Adsorbed

sodium ions form two peaks, each corresponding to inner sphere surface complexes within the ditrigonal cavities. The first peak at 0.5 Å indicates sodium ions centred in the cavity similar to adsorbed potassium ions, while sodium ions at 1.8 Å are more closely coordinated to tetrahedral charge sites. The non-zero density between sodium peaks indicates that these ions move between the two adsorption sites, while the near-zero density above $z = 2.5$ Å indicates infrequent exchange between adsorbed and diffuse sodium ions. In the mixed potassium–uranyl systems, the uranium peak at 2.0 Å is not present, leaving only the peak at 3.25 Å.

The complex structure of adsorbed uranyl ions can be resolved by examining the angle of elevation made by the approximately linear uranyl oxyanion relative to the muscovite surface (Figure 3). If the uranyl ion lies flat on the muscovite surface, the elevation angle is defined as 0° , while for a uranyl that is normal to the muscovite surface the elevation angle is 90° . The distribution of uranyl orientations is signified by a broad peak at approximately 40° and sharper peaks at approximately 10° and 70° . Uranyl ions oriented at 40° exhibit a difference of about 1.85 Å between the z coordinates of the uranyl oxygen atoms. This distance corresponds to the observed difference in peak positions between the third and fourth oxygen peaks centred about the second uranium peak (3.25 Å). Similarly, uranyl ions oriented at 10° lie nearly parallel to the muscovite surface and exhibit a difference of 0.65 Å for the z coordinates of their component oxygen atoms. This distance corresponds to the observed distance between the second and third uranyl oxygen peaks centred

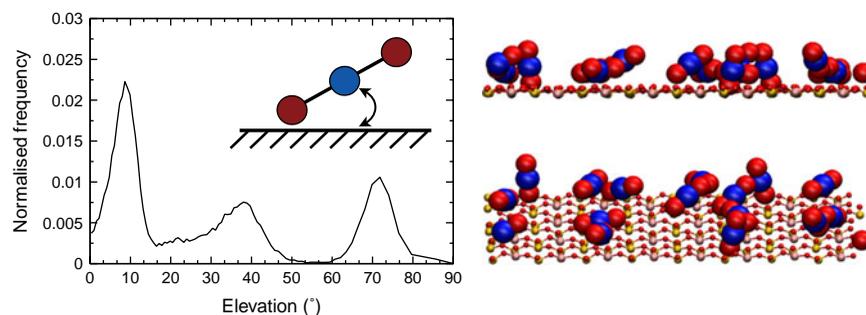


Figure 3. (Colour online) Elevation of the uranyl oxyanion relative to the muscovite surface with uranyl ions as the sole aqueous species (denoted ‘UO₂²⁺’ in Figure 2). The schematic illustrates how the elevation angle is measured. The larger peaks at 10° and 70° are associated with uranyl ions adsorbed closest to the muscovite surface, while the shorter peak at 40° is associated with uranyl ions farther from the surface as described in Figure 2. Molecular models show projection and oblique views of a snapshot from the equilibrated MD.

on the first uranium peak (2.0 Å). Finally, uranyl ions oriented at 70° are nearly perpendicular to the muscovite surface and exhibit a difference of about 3.5 Å in the *z* coordinates of the oxygen atoms. This distance corresponds to the distance between the first oxygen peak and the beginning of the fourth oxygen peak, which is quite broad, and centred about the second uranium peak (3.25 Å). Examples of these three uranyl-surface orientations are shown in Figure 3.

In both systems with UO₂Cl₂ solutions and potassium counterions, potassium ions are the predominant ions adsorbed directly onto the surface. For the 0.1 M UO₂Cl₂ system, only one of the three possible uranyl surface complexes (Figure 3) is observed. The single uranium peak is located at approximately 3.25 Å from the muscovite surface. As the concentration is increased to 1 M UO₂Cl₂, the uranium peak remains at approximately the same distance from the muscovite surface. At both concentrations, uranyl ions are tilted at an angle of 36°, consistent with the associated uranyl orientation shown in Figure 3. Two peaks representing co-adsorbed chloride ions are seen at each UO₂Cl₂ concentration. The second chloride peak shifts closer to the surface along with the uranium peak, indicating ion pairing between uranyl ions and one or two chloride ions.

Areas under the atomic density peaks shown in Figure 2 were integrated to quantify ion adsorption for each model system (Table 1). The *z* limits for integration were determined from minima in the atomic density profiles. It is evident from these results that potassium is the dominant ion adsorbed onto the muscovite basal surface for all solution compositions. For the systems with no additional electrolyte, nearly all of the counterions are adsorbed. The large electrolyte concentrations used in this study are necessary due to the extremely large system sizes required to model ion concentrations in the millimolar (or less) range often seen in adsorption experiments. As a result, the muscovite surface charge is neutralised within 4 Å for all systems studied. Although X-ray reflectivity experiments indicate that the degree of charge balance

depends on electrolyte concentration,[12,35] the effective concentrations modelled here are much larger than those required for partial surface coverage.

The charge density profiles presented in Figure 2 for each of the solution compositions exhibit the instantaneous and cumulative charges as a function of distance from the muscovite surface. Each profile exhibits the initial charge density at the muscovite surface (-0.346 C m^{-2} at $z = 0$) and the electrical response to the adsorption of various charged species from the interface to the diffuse region of the aqueous solution near 8 Å, where both instantaneous and cumulative charges approach zero values. Charge density values for the 0.1 M uranyl chloride system are consistent with the experimental conditions from a recent SHG study of uranyl adsorption on basal surface of muscovite.[18] The occurrence, orientation (for uranyl) and sequence of adsorbate species control the charge density profile. For example, the simple ‘UO₂²⁺’ system exhibits two steps in the cumulative charge density in response to the two distinct uranyl configurations. Similarly, for simulations with aqueous potassium as the primary counterion, we observe neutralisation of the muscovite surface charge by inner sphere potassium adsorption, resulting in a sharp increase in the cumulative charge density and a slight positive instantaneous charge density (0.06 C m^{-2}). This charge density is similar to that reported in SHG experiments of uranyl adsorption on muscovite.[18] Chloride ions involved in ion pairing with the adsorbed potassium (or uranyl) cations occur at distances $> 3 \text{ Å}$ and contribute to balancing any net charge, as the diffuse region dominates the interfacial region beyond 8 Å from the basal surface. Table 1 provides cumulative charge densities for each of the aqueous systems evaluated at distances of 8 Å, which include a correction for the intrinsic surface charge of the muscovite surface.

We also investigated the surface distribution of adsorbed ions to identify adsorption sites relative to tetrahedral charge sites and ditrigonal cavities on the muscovite surface. Potassium ions primarily adsorb in

the centre of the ditrigonal cavities (Figure 4(a)). Because the MD simulation cell was created by expanding a muscovite unit cell, the charge substitution sites exhibit ordering in the simulation cell with half the ditrigonal rings having two substitution sites (Si_4Al_2) and the other half with one substitution site (Si_5Al_1). As expected, potassium ions predominately bind to cavities with two

aluminium substitution sites. This trend is observed for every system containing potassium ions (see Figure 4). For the system with 1 M NaCl, sodium ions at $z = 0.5 \text{ \AA}$ are also observed in the centre of the Si_4Al_2 rings. The more diffuse contour lines of the more distant sodium ions ($z = 1.8 \text{ \AA}$) indicate a relative mobility in the x and y directions compared with the closer sodium ions, and these

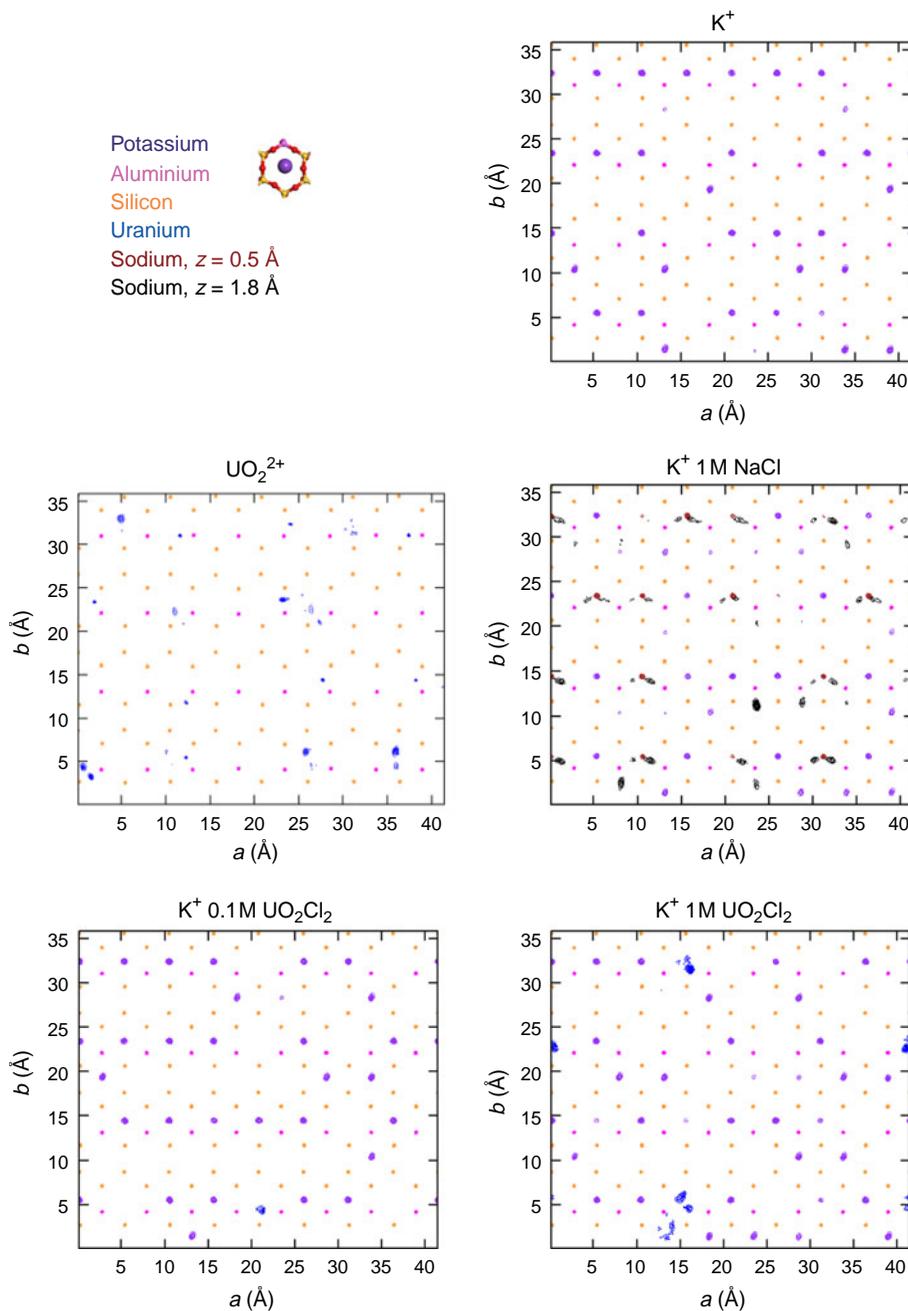


Figure 4. (Colour online) Two-dimensional atomic density distributions of adsorbed cations and tetrahedral silicon and aluminium ions derived from equilibrated MD trajectories. The colour scheme is shown in the upper-left-hand corner and is as follows: potassium (purple), aluminium (pink), silicon (yellow), uranium (blue), sodium at $z = 1.8 \text{ \AA}$ (black) and sodium at $z = 0.5 \text{ \AA}$ (dark red). An atomistic snapshot representing a potassium ion adsorbed in the middle of a ditrigonal cavity is provided for reference. Contour lines represent time-averaged atomic distributions averaged in the x - y plane over the peak width from the one-dimensional atomic profiles.

ions adsorb between the centre of the ditrigonal cavities and the aluminium substitution sites. As indicated in Table 1, very few uranyl ions adsorbed on the muscovite surface when competing with potassium ions for the same adsorption sites. Those uranyl ions are associated with the Si_4Al_2 rings near both aluminium substitution sites.

Lateral diffusion at the surface for the uranyl ions is negligible as shown by the tight distribution of the two-dimensional atomic density profiles in Figure 4. This is consistent with the diffusion of uranyl on a feldspar surface investigated by Kerisit and Liu [14]. The calculation of uranyl adsorption energies and residence times – in addition to diffusion as a function of distance from the mica surface – would provide valuable insight into deriving transport properties for macro-scale modelling of contaminant transport in the environment.

5. Conclusions

We have completed a series of MD simulations to investigate ion adsorption, including uranyl ions, onto the basal surface of muscovite. Potassium ions bind as inner sphere complexes in a single adsorption peak as illustrated by atomic density profiles, while two distinct adsorption peaks of inner sphere sodium ions are seen. In the presence of potassium ions, uranyl ions exhibit greatly reduced adsorption than in the absence of potassium ions. Although three possible uranyl-surface orientations are seen in the absence of potassium ions, only the 36° orientation is seen in the presence of potassium ions. Both potassium and uranyl ions adsorb above the Si_4Al_2 rings near the aluminium substitution sites. Analysis of adsorbed charge density indicates that inner sphere potassium adsorption effectively neutralises the muscovite surface charge, which in the presence of other adsorbed cations and anions causes fluctuations in the solution charge density. Ultimately, our MD simulations provide a basis for interpreting spectroscopic data and improving surface adsorption and surface complexation models.

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