

1 THE ZWITTERION ISOMER OF ORTHOSILICIC ACID AND ITS ROLE IN  
2 NEUTRAL pH DIMERIZATION FROM DENSITY FUNCTIONAL THEORY

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11 **ABSTRACT.** Using density functional theory, the plausible existence of the zwitterion  
12 isomer of orthosilicic acid is proposed to account for some of the properties of silica in  
13 water. Explicit hydration and explicit addition of salt are used in modeling the zwitterion  
14 and the dimerization reaction. Paths between orthosilicic acid, the zwitterion and the  
15 autoionization products are presented. The  $pK$  for the formation of the aqueous zwitterion  
16 species is calculated to be 7.78 in dilute silica solutions and the activation energy for the  
17 dimerization reaction ranges from 59.8 kJ/mol to 70.7 kJ/mol depending on salt  
18 concentration.

19  
20 INTRODUCTION

21 Orthosilicic acid is the most fundamental building block of dissolved silica, which are  
22 themselves among the most ubiquitous classes of compounds found in surface waters. A  
23 thorough understanding of the chemistry of orthosilicic acid is therefore vital to elucidate  
24 phenomena involving silica such as mineralization, nutrient bioavailability, and geothermal well



scaling. Unfortunately, although great effort has been expended in experiments and simulation, the dimerization reaction, which is one of the simplest of its reactions, is still not very well understood; the same can be said about the reverse reaction, or the hydrolysis of the dimer.

Studies on the reaction order are conflicting and indicate that much is not known about the dynamics of silica in solution at the atomic scale. Studies at pH 4 by Alexander and others (1954) showed third order kinetics in agreement with Goto (1956) who conducted work at pH 7 to 10. However, Rothbaum and Rohde (1979) found the oligomerization at pH 7 to 8 to be second order and Icopini and others (2005) reported fourth order rates from pH 3 to 11. Gorrepati and others (2010) found second order rates below pH 0. The activation energies from these studies vary from 12.6 kJ/mol (Rothbaum and Rohde, 1979), to 58 kJ/mol (Harrison and Loton, 1995), to 71 kJ/mol (Makrides and others, 1980).

The dependence of the kinetics on ionic strength, or alternatively cation concentration, is just as puzzling (Rimstidt, 2015). Sodium ion has been shown to decrease the reaction rate of silica condensation at early stages (Harrison and Loton, 1995) yet increase crystallization and growth at later stages (Burkett and Davis, 1995). Icopini and others (2005) found an exponential increase in oligomerization rates with ionic strength. Gorrepati et al (2010) found rates that varied with the salt added according to the following relationship:  $\text{AlCl}_3 > \text{CaCl}_2 > \text{MgCl}_2 > \text{NaCl} > \text{CsCl} > \text{no salt}$ . How these phenomena happen is unresolved. The complex relationships between rates and pH and ionic strength open the question of the existence of yet unidentified reactive species or class of species that favor neutral pH and high ionic strength.

Simulation has been providing immense insight to understanding the dimerization process, aiding in the discovery of species that would not otherwise have been easily identified by



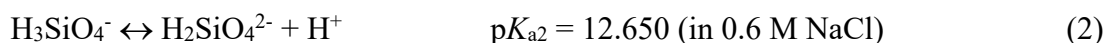
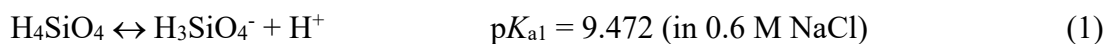
experiment, and allowing the examination of molecular scale local effects. Simulation methods have grown in sophistication in parallel with the development of computing memory and processing power. The primary emphasis in the present study is on density functional theory methods (DFT) specifically, although other schemes that are in active development and application such as molecular dynamics (Iztova et al, 2020; Kirk and others, 2011; Jorge and others, 2009) and Monte Carlo (Martin and others, 2021; Zhang and others, 2012; Malani and others 2010) have also been applied to investigate these mechanism. These other schemes are able to model chemical systems up to the micrometer scale that would not be practicable with DFT. However, the elucidation of chemical reactivity is still principally a question that is best handled on the atomic-length scale by DFT and ab initio methods in general because of the changes in bonding, and therefore electronic structure, during the course of a reaction. At the same time, it is worth noting that there are methods that algorithmically combine the strengths of both ab initio and molecular dynamics aptly named ab initio molecular dynamics (Pavlova and others, 2013; Trinh and others, 2009; Car and Parinello, 1985).

The impetus of these simulations is to model the real system as closely as computationally practical, and to incorporate all physical influences on the reaction center. In this regard, the nascent ab initio work by Xiao and Lasaga (1996, 1994) on acid and base catalyzed hydrolysis of the dimer were attempts to draw silica solution chemistry from dry, gas-phase simulations. Subsequently, the utilization of implicit solvation improved the energy calculations taking into account long range effects that the solvent imparts on the reacting ensemble (Mora-Fonz and Catlow, 2007; Pelmeshnikov and others, 1997; Tossel, 2005) without significant computational overhead. However, the explicit addition of water molecules revealed that favorable reaction paths may be starkly different from the dry, gas-phase simulations, even with implicit solvation



included (Trinh and others, 2009; Heenan and others, 2020; Zhang and others, 2017) suggesting that long range interactions have a less influential role on the mechanisms than short range electrostatics and, more specifically, than hydrogen bonding. These effects are predominantly due to the ease of formation of hydrogen bonds by water molecules, which lowers energies significantly (12.6-33.4 kJ/mol, Huš and Urbic, 2012), and the ability of water to form proton wires where hydrogens can concertedly move around and participate in the so-called Grotthus mechanism (van Grotthus, 1806; for example, Liu and others, 2019). Furthermore, the hydroxides of  $\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4$  themselves have been shown to participate in mobilizing hydrogen through similar mechanism (Felipe and others, 2004) in aqueous environments.

It is interesting to note that so far studies on the neutral pH dimerization have primarily focused on the reactivity of  $\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4$ , and in particular on the nucleophilicity of hydroxide oxygens and the electro-positivity of the central silicon. For example, Trinh and others (2006) arrived at a one-step dimerization mechanism where the hydroxide oxygen of one orthosilicic acid attacks the silicon of another directly. However, this mechanism yielded a high activation energy of 127 kJ/mol and the energetics have been corroborated by succeeding simulation studies with only minor modifications (Hu and others, 2013; Liu and others, 2019). Furthermore, it does not explain why there is dependence of the kinetics on the ionic strength. It has increasingly become apparent that this mechanism cannot account for the empirical activation energies observed. These open the possibility of whether the canonical equations of orthosilicic acid speciation in water (Iler, 1979; Rimstidt and Barnes, 1980; Sjöberg and others, 1981), or





represent all the relevant species in solution. In particular, some molecules that have appeared in simulations and that were considered reaction intermediates are more energetically stable than the auto-ionization products given by equations (1) and (2). Also, these reaction intermediates are intriguing compounds in themselves from the standpoint of biochemical reactions, as well as their potential uses in industry and manufacturing.

The present work aims to accomplish three things. First, a zwitterion form of orthosilicic acid is examined in the neutral pH regime. This zwitterion is derived from similar reaction intermediates reported by Mondal and others (2009) and Zhou and others (2002). Second, its relevance in the dimerization reaction of silica through representative reactions is investigated. Third, the effects of explicitly adding sodium chloride to the system are evaluated. It is therefore envisaged that the dimerization proceeds as depicted in figure 1 and is positively influenced by the ionic strength.

## METHODOLOGY AND THEORY

Density functional theoretical calculations were performed on constructed model systems using the Gaussian 16 suite of programs (Frisch and others, 2016) running in Dell PowerEdge M620 servers. The three-parameter hybrid functional B3LYP method was utilized and two types of basis sets were used: one which purely uses 6-311++G(d,p) on all atoms, and another which is a customized combination of 6-311++G(d,p) and 6-31+G(d) on specified atom centers, henceforth designated 6-311++G(d,p)[36]/6-31+G(d), where “[36]” represents the number of atom centers to which 6-311++G(d,p) are applied. The use of the B3LYP method and the 6-311++G(d,p) basis set together is mainly because they are known to produce good estimates of thermochemistry for silicate systems (Cypriak and Gostynski, 2016) and because their use would facilitate the ease of comparison with previous studies (for example, Cheng and others, 2012; Criscenti and others,



2006; Alkorta and others, 2001). The use of 6-311++G(d,p)[36]/6-31+G(d) was used for the bigger chemical systems for computing tractability, and is similar to the method that was evaluated by Yang and others (2009).

The initial model systems, or configurations of atoms, were prepared as follows:

1. The starting configuration of the “pure-water” model simulation was constructed first.

Twenty-seven water molecules were added randomly and evenly around an  $\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4$  molecule.

The resulting system was optimized at 6-31+G(d) and subsequently to the desired level of 6-311++G(d,p).

2. Another  $\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4$  was added to the system above and thirty-one water molecules were added randomly and evenly around. The resulting system was optimized at 6-31+G(d) and subsequently to the desired level of 6-311++G(d,p)[36]/6-31+G(d). The choice of the thirty-six atoms that made use of the higher 6-311++G(d,p) basis sets was done from defining a reaction center – the set of molecules with the anticipated bond-breaking and bond formation and the immediately neighboring water molecules. This is the starting configuration of the pure-water model for dimerization.

3. Atoms of Na and Cl were added to the two systems above, leading to two additional systems. The placements of the two atoms were arbitrary but juxtaposed to each other. These systems were likewise optimized to the respective desired basis sets.

The four resulting systems from the procedure described above were clusters of molecules that had 90, 92, 195 and 197 atoms each. Constrained optimizations were performed on the structures to determine other minima and first order saddle-points in between them. Transition state



optimizations were done with the synchronous transit-guided quasi-Newton method at the respective basis sets mentioned above, followed by vibrational frequency calculations to establish that structures are true saddle points. All minima were fully optimized and analyzed for harmonic vibrational frequencies and zero-point energies. Optimization calculations yield stationary points that are internal energy minima along a potential energy surface (PES), which is a hypothetical surface where vibrations are absent. However, even in the ground state, a chemical system would have a ground state energy or zero-point energy. Hence, internal energies need to be corrected and form another surface that is elevated in energy from the PES, or a zero-point energy corrected PES. While the two surfaces might have similar topologies, this may not always be the case particularly in the case of shallow potential energy wells.

Atomic charge distributions were accomplished by Hirshfeld population analysis (Hirshfeld, 1977), and CM5 calculations (Marenich and others, 2012; Wiberg and Rablen, 2018). The more common Mulliken (1955) population analyses results were not reported as it is considered sensitive to basis set size and to the choice of basis (Marenich and others, 2012) and deemed less reliable than either Hirshfeld or CM5.

## RESULTS

The computations in this study resulted in a total of eighteen fully optimized energy minima and thirteen associated intervening fully optimized first-order saddle points that connect the paths of the reactions of interest; these are all referred to as “stationary points”. The fully optimized minima represent reactants, products, and intermediates, and the first-order saddle points



represent transition states. These stationary points are in four distinct systems each with their own elemental compositions and assigned basis sets. Relative energy changes were calculated between stationary points along a reaction path within each system only. The complete set of configurations are listed in the supplement. Note that these discovered pathways determine the current best upper bounds to activation energies because competing pathways would need to have reaction rates that are equal to or greater than these mechanisms.

*Pure water:  $H_4SiO_4 + 27H_2O$  system*

There were two species of silica that can be identified in this system through following reaction paths and exploring the PES. As expected from numerous previous DFT and ab initio studies, one of these species is orthosilicic acid. The other species is a zwitterion isomer of orthosilicic acid, which henceforth will be referred to as orthosilicic acid zwitterion ( $SiO^-(OH)_2(H_2O)^+$ , or OSAZ). Initial configurations representing auto-ionization of the silica to  $H_3SiO_4^-$  and free  $H^+$  or  $H_3O^+$  did not stabilize but optimized to either OSAZ or  $H_4SiO_4$ .

There are twelve possible tetrahedral arrangements for two  $-OH$  groups, one  $-O^-$  group and one  $-OH_2^+$  group around a silicon atom. For computational practicality therefore, only one of these combinations was arbitrarily chosen for determining the isomer transformation path. An energetically viable path for the transformation between the two minima was determined and is shown in figure 2; the corresponding change in energies for the elementary and net reactions are listed in table 1.

Presented are the internal energy changes ( $\Delta U$ ), the internal energy changes corrected for zero-point energies ( $\Delta U_{zpc}$ ) and the Gibbs free energy changes at 298K ( $\Delta G_{298}$ ). Free energies were



177 evaluated by frequency calculations at 298.15K and 1 atm. Note that the equilibrium constant  $K$ ,  
178 and  $pK$  are related to the  $\Delta G$  of the net overall reactions by

$$179 \quad K = - \exp(-\Delta G/RT) \text{ and} \quad (3)$$

$$180 \quad pK = - \log (K) \quad (4)$$

181 The computed net free energy indicates that the forward reaction from orthosilicic acid to OSAZ  
182 is less favored than the reverse reaction.

183 No stationary points that represent free protons ( $H^+$ ), hydronium ion ( $H_3O^+$ ) or dihydroxonium  
184 ions ( $H_5O_2^+$ ) were found in the pure water system. While this does not demonstrate non-  
185 existence of these local minima, it suggests that if these positively charged aqueous species ever  
186 do exist, they may be occurring in very shallow PES wells where configurations can easily  
187 evolve to more energetically favorable species such as OSAZ, or the system size constrains the  
188 separation of  $H^+$  and  $H_3SiO_4^-$  preventing the optimization to a stable configuration where they  
189 are far apart. In the system size under consideration, it suggests that the pure water case is less  
190 conducive to their formation.

191 *Salt-present:  $H_4SiO_4 + 27H_2O + NaCl$  system*

192 There were two species of silica that can be identified in this system through following reaction  
193 paths and exploring the PES. Again and as expected, orthosilicic acid is one of them. The other  
194 species is  $H_3SiO_4^-$  that is charge balanced by a hydronium ion ( $H_3O^+$ ) with a water molecule in  
195 between them, denoted by  $H_3O^+ \cdot H_2O \cdot H_3SiO_4^-$ , where the dot  $\cdot$  refers to hydrogen bonding. The



two hydrogen bonds are from 1.4Å to 1.7Å in length. This structural configuration would be referred to as “dipolar complex I”, from hereon.

The reaction path from orthosilicic acid to dipolar complex I was computed. Because there are several possible configurations of  $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}\cdot\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^-$ , a representative transformation path from one dipolar complex I configuration to another was computed. The results are shown in figure 3 and the corresponding energies are listed in table 1. Attempts to optimize OSAZ to an energy minimum were not successful in this system. Instead, OSAZ-like structures manifest as transition states between different dipolar complex I configurations.

To estimate the concentration of NaCl in the system being modeled, gross volume calculations were performed by defining the surface as the contour of 0.001 electrons/Bohr<sup>3</sup> density and using a Monte Carlo integration method (Parsons and Ninham, 2009). This method yielded volumes of 490 cc/mole and 460 cc/mole for figure 3C and 3D respectively, corresponding to concentrations of 2.0M and 2.2M of NaCl. In comparison, saturated brine is 6.14M NaCl and seawater is 0.469 moles/kg NaCl (Culkin and Cox, 1966)

#### *Dimerization in pure water: $2\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 + 60\text{H}_2\text{O}$ system*

Four species of silica were identified in this system through following the reaction paths and exploring the PES. Namely, these species are orthosilicic acid, OSAZ,  $\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^-$ , and  $\text{H}_6\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7$ . Hence, there are potentially at least six reaction paths that can be explored in this system. The focus however is to find the relevance of OSAZ to the dimerization reaction and to the other three species, and therefore not all reaction paths were investigated. The results are shown in table 2.



Table 2A and figure 4 show the possible mechanism to dimerization under neutral pH in pure water. The process begins with two  $\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4$  molecules sitting side-by-side. Next, one of the  $\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4$  molecules transforms to OSAZ. Subsequently, H-bonding draws the two different silica molecules closer together. Finally, the  $\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4$  molecule simultaneously donates a proton, performs a nucleophilic attack on the silicon of OSAZ, and causes the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  group of OSAZ to eject.

Figure 5 shows the formation of  $\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^-$  from OSAZ. Note that the  $\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^-$  species is charge balanced by the immediately neighboring  $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$  formed from the freed proton (fig. 5E) and will be referred to as “dipolar complex II” from hereon. A second configuration where  $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$  is more distant (fig. 5F) but much higher in energy was also found. The energy profiles corresponding to the configurations in figures 4 and 5 are shown in figure 6.

Because the bond breaking and bond formation during  $\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^-$  production (figs. 6C, 6E, 6F) involve atoms that were not among the thirty-six that were initially assigned the high basis set, a test on the reliability of the results was performed by reassignment of basis sets on atom centers. Optimization and frequency calculations were performed producing a second, generally similar, energy curve (eqs A7 to A10 in table 2) and to nearly identical configuration geometries, based on RMSD of 0.020Å-0.028Å; here, the RMSD was determined by Kabsch algorithm (Kabsch, 1976). Equation (A9) in table 2 was the most sensitive to this reassignment and change in basis, but exhibiting a free energy difference of only 3.1 kJ/mol.

Net reactions and thermodynamic quantities are shown in table 3. It should be emphasized that because of the size of the systems used in the models, the thermodynamic quantities listed here do not describe the global thermodynamics of the solution but of the local environment in the



vicinity of the reaction zone. The quantities are however useful in comparing the relative favorability of the different molecular configurations where the dimerization reaction is occurring. Note that the free energies indicate that the dimerization reaction (eq A1 in table 3) is thermodynamically favored.

*Dimerization with salt present:  $2\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 + 60\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{NaCl}$  system*

As with the dimerization in pure water system, four species of silica were identified in this system through following the reaction paths and exploring the PES: orthosilicic acid, OSAZ,  $\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^-$ , and  $\text{H}_6\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7$ . Similar to the previous section, only the dimerization reaction of OSAZ is pursued. The calculated paths are shown in table 2.

Table 2B and figure 7 show one possible mechanism to dimerization in neutral pH with NaCl present. The process begins with two  $\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4$  molecules sitting side-by-side. Next, one of the  $\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4$  molecules transforms to OSAZ. Finally, the  $\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4$  molecule simultaneously performs a nucleophilic attack on the silicon of OSAZ, transfers a proton via concerted reaction to the OSAZ oxygen, and causes the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  group of OSAZ to eject.

Figure 8 shows the formation of  $\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^-$  from OSAZ. Note that the  $\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^-$  species is charge balanced by a distant  $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$  formed by concerted transfers from the freed proton (fig. 8J) and is analogous to figure 5F. The energy profiles corresponding to the configurations in figures 7 and 8 are shown in figure 9. Neither dipolar complex I nor dipolar complex II was successfully optimized in this system.

Although the production of  $\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^-$  involved bond breaking and formation between atom centers that were not initially assigned the higher basis set, and no reassignment of atom centers to the



higher basis set was deemed necessary. This was decided because the reassignment procedure in the previous section (pure water case) did not significantly modify the reaction direction or the optimized geometries and, therefore, it is surmised that the additional computational effort of altering the atom centers of the basis sets was unnecessary as it would not change the general findings regarding OSAZ reactivity.

Computing the molar volumes using the method of Parsons and Ninham (2009) yielded volumes of 1,033 cc/mole and 1,069 cc/mole for figures 7G and 7I respectively, corresponding to NaCl concentrations of 0.967M and 0.935M of NaCl. Likewise,  $\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4$  concentrations are double these numbers at 1.934M and 1.870M and are 3 orders of magnitude higher than saturation ( $1.25 \times 10^{-3}\text{M}$ ; Alexander and others, 1954).

Similar to the previous section, the thermodynamic results listed in table 3 should not be taken to represent the global thermodynamics of the solution but of the local thermodynamics of the reaction zone. The free energies indicate that the dimerization reaction (eq B1 in table 3) is thermodynamically favored. It is also observed that there is enhancement in the favorability in the formation of OSAZ compared to the pure water case.

## DISCUSSION

### *The orthosilicic acid zwitterion*

Configurationaly, OSAZ is what would result if one of the hydrogen atoms from a hydroxide group was moved to another hydroxide in orthosilicic acid resulting in a molecule with an  $\text{O}^-$



280 group and a  $\text{-H}_2\text{O}^+$  group. This is essentially the reaction in figure 2, where the movement of  
281 proton occurs through concerted transfers facilitated by surrounding water molecules.

282 An examination of Lewis formal charges of OSAZ (fig. 2) yields a positive charge on the  $\text{-OH}_2$   
283 group and a negative charge on the  $\text{-O}$  group. This doubly charged molecule is the zwitterion  
284 state. To confirm the zwitterion characteristics of OSAZ, Hirshfeld and CM5 calculations were  
285 conducted on the configurations exhibited in figures 2A and 2B. The results are shown in table 4.  
286 Upon transformation to OSAZ, the  $\text{-OH}_2$  group assumes a positive charge and the  $\text{-O}$  group  
287 takes on a relatively high negative charge.

288 Note that the magnitude of the charges differs between the Hirshfeld and CM5 results for the  
289  $\text{-OH}_2$  group. The CM5 method is considered a more reliable estimate than the Hirshfeld method  
290 (Marenich and others, 2012) and what is crucial is the direction of change. The sums of the  
291 charges are non-zero and slightly negative, whereas the molecule is expected to be neutral. This  
292 is likely due to a numerical artifact because the electron density distribution disperses the charges  
293 throughout the 90-atom system.

294 While the recognition of the zwitterion characteristics of OSAZ is new, similar structures have  
295 been seen in previous work (Zhou and others, 2002; Mondal and others, 2009). Table 5 compares  
296 Si-O bond lengths of these similar structures to the bond lengths in this study.

297 Orthosilicic acid and OSAZ differ in their intramolecular Si-O bond lengths and O-Si-O bond  
298 angles. In general, orthosilicic acid has tetrahedral symmetry having  $\angle\text{O-Si-O}$  of  $109.5^\circ$  and  
299 uniform Si-O bond lengths of 1.630Å-1.663Å. For OSAZ, the  $\angle\text{O-Si-O}$  angles are  $105.8^\circ$  for



HO-Si-OH, 103.4° on average for  $\text{H}_2\text{O}^+-\text{Si-OH}$ , and 111.8° for  $\text{H}_2\text{O}^+-\text{Si-O}^-$ ; the bond lengths vary significantly from 1.587Å for Si-O<sup>-</sup>, 1.653Å-1.666Å for Si-OH, and 1.715Å for Si-OH<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup>.

OSAZ has a superficial resemblance to mono-hydrated metasilicic acid  $\text{H}_2\text{O} \cdot (\text{SiO}(\text{OH})_2)$  with key differences. In OS AZ, four oxygens are covalently bonded around a silicon atom in a distorted tetrahedron, whereas in metasilicic acid, three covalently bonded oxygen atoms are trigonal planar with silicon (Chelikowsky, 1998). Interestingly, metasilicic acid is observed in gas phase ab initio studies, whereas OS AZ-like structures are observed when water molecules are explicitly added to simulations (for example, Mondal and others, 2009; Zhou and others, 2002). Ab initio studies of gas phase metasilicic acid (Mondal and others, 2009) show a  $\text{H}_2\text{O-Si}$  bond that is significantly longer (~1.9Å) compared to OS AZ (~1.7Å) for OS AZ. These seem to suggest that relaxation of the structure to a more tetrahedral geometry from a trigonal planar one is facilitated by the hydrogen bonds provided by water molecules surrounding the molecule. Furthermore, metasilicic acid is not known to experimentally exist in the aqueous phase, although it has been identified in steam (Hildenbrand and Lau, 1994).

#### *Zwitterion and dipolar complex formation: $\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 + 27\text{H}_2\text{O} \pm \text{NaCl}$ systems*

The models in these systems, where a lone  $\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4$  interacts with its aqueous environment, are intended to represent silica in dilute concentrations. Hence, the results of the calculations suggest that, in dilute silica concentrations, the zwitterion is more likely to be observed as a stable species where salts are in low concentration while dipolar complex I is more likely to be observed in elevated salt concentrations. This can be interpreted to mean that the polarizing effect of NaCl perturbs the stability of OS AZ and stabilizes the auto-ionization product. (The preference is reversed in environments of higher concentrations of silica, and will be discussed in



the next section.) It should be observed that the formation of OSAZ does not depend on pH (table 1A).

The results predict that the auto-ionization products at 2M NaCl and very dilute silica concentrations is dipolar complex I, where the hydronium ion  $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$  sits one water molecule away from the  $\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^-$  ion. This configuration is consistently reproducible, for example, in figures 3D and 3D'. The existence of  $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$  is corroborated by theoretical (Meraj and Chaudhari, 2014) and empirical studies (Amir and others, 2007; Artemov and others, 2020).

Note that the  $\text{pK}_a$  of 6.694 for the net reaction in table 1B is much lower than values for the auto-ionization of  $\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4$  reported by Sjöberg and others (1981;  $\text{pK}_{a1}=9.472$ ) and similarly by Fleming and Crerar (1982;  $\text{pK}_{a1}=9.687$ ). However, the  $\text{pK}_a$  value is in close agreement to that derived from amorphous silica titration experiments by von Schindler and Kamber (1968;  $\text{pK}_{a1}=6.8$ ) and near the calculated values of  $-\text{OH}$  groups on the surface of quartz (Sulpizi and others, 2012;  $\text{pK}_a=5.5$ ). These relationships need further investigation especially since different sites in silica appear to have different acidities (Ostroverkhov and others, 2005; Ong and others, 1992). The dipolar complex may be another silica species in dilute solutions whose concentration is three orders more than the fully ionized  $\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^-$ . Observe that the  $\text{pK}$  of the formation of the zwitterion ( $\text{pK}=7.776$ ) is within these ranges and that therefore the concentration of zwitterion is only about one order of magnitude less than dipolar complex I at these concentrations of silica.

The kinetics can be evaluated using transition state theory from the Gibbs free energy of activation, which is related to the rate constant by

$$k = k_B T / h \exp(-\Delta G^\ddagger / RT) \quad (5)$$



where  $k_B$  is Boltzmann's constant,  $R$  is the gas constant,  $T$  is the temperature and  $h$  is Planck's constant. The rate constants indicate that at the neutral pH regime, dilute silicate concentrations and low salt concentrations, OSAZ is present as an isomer of  $H_4SiO_4$  because equilibration achieves completion in most surface conditions. The rate constant corresponding to the forward reaction equation (A1) in table 1, with a free energy of 56.8 kJ/mol at 298K, is  $677\text{ s}^{-1}$  indicating an equilibration time of 1.48 milliseconds. Likewise, the rate constant of the reverse reaction equation (A2) in table 1, with a free energy of 12.5 kJ/mol, is  $4.04 \times 10^{10}\text{ s}^{-1}$ , indicating and equilibration time of  $2.47 \times 10^{-11}$  seconds. Rate constant calculations for the auto-ionization reactions, equations (B1) and (B2) in table 1, are of similar magnitudes and therefore the reaction completion times are also rapid.

*Dimerization by zwitterion:  $2H_4SiO_4 + 60H_2O$  (+/-) NaCl systems*

The models in these systems, where two  $H_4SiO_4$  molecules are mutually interacting in an aqueous environment, are intended to explore the dimerization reaction, and therefore to investigate energetics of configurations where the local concentration of silica is sufficient to enable encounters between  $H_4SiO_4$  molecules. This scenario can occur at super-saturation, at the water-mineral interface, or during chance encounters due to diffusion. The results of the calculations show that in the presence of a neighboring  $H_4SiO_4$ , OSAZ, dipolar complexes, as well as farther separated auto-ionization products,  $H_3SiO_4^-$  and  $H_3O^+$ , simultaneously occur with or without the presence of NaCl. This is in contrast with the results of the "dilute" system from the previous section where the occurrence of OSAZ is exclusive of the occurrence of dipolar complex I, and vice versa. Another, and more significant, difference is that in the dilute system,



auto-ionization is favored over zwitterion formation, whereas the reverse is true in the vicinity of two silica monomers.

The dimerization mechanism in this study proceeds differently from previous mechanisms proposed. Instead of forming a chemically reactive nucleophile such as  $\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^-$ , or forcing two monomers to bond together, the conversion to the zwitterion isomer turns one monomer into a target for nucleophilic attack by a neighboring  $\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4$ . This mechanism can be more easily extended to oligomerization since it only requires a dangling  $-\text{OH}$  group from the other reactant (fig. 1). The relative rates between pure water and salt present cases that are expected from their activation energies are in agreement with the observed enhancement of rates with ionic strength.

The rate determining step for the neutral pH dimerization process has a zero-point corrected activation energy of 70.7 kJ/mol for the pure water system and 59.8 kJ/mol for the salt-present system (eqns A1 and B2 in table 2), which strongly suggests that the zwitterion pathway is a good candidate for the dimerization mechanism in neutral pH. According to experimental studies (Rothbaum and Rohde, 1979; Makrides and others, 1980), the activation energy for this reaction should be between 12.6 kJ/mol and 71 kJ/mol and therefore, the results of this study are in excellent agreement with experiment. In comparison, the mechanism previously reported by Trinh and others (2006) has an activation energy of 127 kJ/mol for the rate-determining step, while that of Liu and others (2019) has an activation energy of 133 kJ/mol.

It might be argued that OSAZ is an insignificant species by virtue of its low concentration upon equilibrium. However, its pH neutrality, its dependence on ionic strength, its dimerization activation energy, and its thermodynamic favorability in the reaction zone all strongly suggest that OSAZ is the key reactive species in the dimerization mechanism and therefore conditions



affecting its formation influences the rate of dimerization. Hence, regulating its concentration influences the dimerization mechanism. It is yet to be demonstrated that this can be extended to oligomerization in general.

Note that in the pure water case, the occurrence of OSAZ is thermodynamically slightly more preferred over  $\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^-$  (eqs A3 and A4 in table 3) and this preference is enhanced when NaCl is present (eqs B2 and B3 in table 3). These local thermodynamic preferences are crucial in determining which mechanism predominates because while the slow step in the OSAZ mechanism is the formation of OSAZ itself, the slow step in the next competing mechanism is the attack by  $\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^-$  on another monomer (Trinh and others, 2006; Xiao and Lasaga) and is therefore directly dependent on the concentration of  $\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^-$ . This is why the latter mechanism predominates in higher pH ranges.

Equations (A1) and (B1) in table 3 indicate that the dimer is slightly thermodynamically more favored than two monomers. The direction of reaction favorability is similar to Noguera and others (2015) who computed  $\text{p}K_{303} = -0.69$ . Some workers (Exley and Sjöberg, 2014; Sjöberg and others, 1981) have however implied that the monomer should be slightly more preferred. This deserves further exploration in the future.

Comparison with the experimental values of the reverse mechanism, or hydrolysis, is also interesting. The activation energies of the rate-determining step in this study are 126 kJ/mol for the pure water system and 111 kJ/mol for the salt-present system (eqs A6 and B4 in table 2), and are slightly lower than the results of Trinh and others (2006) and Xiao and Lasaga (1994), who got activation energies of 137 kJ/mol and 119 kJ/mol, respectively. However, according to experimental studies (Walther, 1996; Knauss and Wollery, 1988; Brady and Walther, 1990;

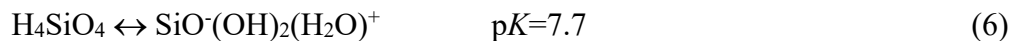


Dove and Crerar, 1990), the activation energy for the hydrolysis reaction should be between 67 and 92 kJ/mol, and therefore, the related activation energies in this study (eqs A6 and B4 in table 2) are still too high. Thus, it is for future work to show that the  $D \rightarrow [CD]^{\ddagger}$  (pure water) step and the  $I \rightarrow [HI]^{\ddagger}$  (salt-present) step can be broken up into smaller lower activation energy steps.

One intriguing aspect of the simulation is that, although all the points were optimized to local minima and transition states, and while all paths to transition states from their respective local minima yield positive changes in internal energy changes ( $\Delta U^{\ddagger}$ ), the zero-point corrected activation energies ( $\Delta U_{\text{zpc}}^{\ddagger}$ ) in equations (A7), (A8) and (A10) in table 2 yield negative values and the Gibbs free energy of activation ( $\Delta G_{298}^{\ddagger}$ ) for equations (A8) and (A10) are also negative. These are likely due to the shallowness of the potential energy wells of the configurations of  $H_3O^+$ ; it may also be a consequence of the mobility of the proton. However, the true PES is a surface of zero-point corrected points by virtue of the Uncertainty Principle. Therefore, the energy optimized nature of the stationary points in figures 5E, 5F,  $5[CE]^{\ddagger}$  and  $5[EF]^{\ddagger}$  need to be approached with caution.

## CONCLUSION

The speciation of silica in surface waters is almost universally acknowledged to be predominantly defined by equations (1) and (2), and hence, the recognized main species of monomeric silica are  $H_4SiO_4$ ,  $H_3SiO_4^-$  and  $H_2SiO_4^{2-}$ . The results of this study suggest that there is at least a third reaction that needs to be considered,





and that therefore there is a fourth monomeric silica species,  $\text{SiO}^-(\text{OH})_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})^+$  or OSAZ, which is present in solution in amounts significant enough to influence silica chemistry.

The kinetic and thermodynamic simulations suggest that the dimerization process in neutral waters is facilitated by this fourth species. In the reaction zone, the formation of OSAZ was found to be energetically more favored than  $\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^-$ . Thus, it is proposed that the neutral pH dimerization rate depends on the formation of OSAZ, whose concentration is influenced mainly by ionic strength. Only upon the elevation of pH where the concentration of  $\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^-$  attains a sufficient level that the basic mechanism takes over.

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# TABLES

	$\Delta U$	$\Delta U_{\text{zpc}}$	$\Delta G_{298}$	$\text{p}K_{298}$
<b>A. pure water: <math>\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 + 27\text{H}_2\text{O}</math> system</b>				
Elementary reactions:				
(1) $\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4$ (A) $\rightarrow [\text{AB}]^\ddagger$	59.2	46.4	56.8	
(2) $\text{SiO}^-(\text{OH})_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})^+$ (B) $\rightarrow [\text{AB}]^\ddagger$	16.2	8.39	12.5	
Net reaction:				
$\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 \leftrightarrow \text{SiO}^-(\text{OH})_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})^+$	43.0	38.0	44.4	7.78
<b>B. salt present: <math>\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 + 27\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{NaCl}</math> system</b>				
Elementary reactions:				
(1) $\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4$ (C) $\rightarrow [\text{CD}]^\ddagger$	31.3	23.4	41.8	
(2) $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}\cdot\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^-$ (D) $\rightarrow [\text{CD}]^\ddagger$	5.64	-4.55	3.63	
(3) $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}\cdot\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^-$ (D') $\rightarrow [\text{DD}']^\ddagger$	39.3	24.5	20.6	
Net reaction:				
$\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 \leftrightarrow \text{H}_3\text{O}^+\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}\cdot\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^-$	25.6	28.0	38.2	6.69

Table 1. Energies for elementary reactions and net reaction. Units are kJ/mol. All are computed in the B3LYP/6-311++G(d,p) level. The dot ( $\bullet$ ) signifies hydrogen bonding. Elementary reaction energy changes are pseudo-thermodynamic and are denoted by a double-dagger superscript  $^\ddagger$  (e.g.  $\Delta U^\ddagger$ ).



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	$\Delta U^\ddagger$	$\Delta U^\ddagger_{\text{zpc}}$	$\Delta G^\ddagger_{298}$	
<b>A. pure water <math>2\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 + 60\text{H}_2\text{O}</math></b>				
Elementary reactions:				
(1) $2\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 \text{ (A)} \rightarrow [\text{AB}]^\ddagger$	90.6	70.7	73.1	
(2) $\text{SiO}^-(\text{OH})_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})^+ + \text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 \text{ (B)} \rightarrow [\text{AB}]^\ddagger$	22.9	7.30	7.95	
(3) $\text{SiO}^-(\text{OH})_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})^+ + \text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 \text{ (B)} \rightarrow [\text{BC}]^\ddagger$	19.1	18.7	24.5	
(4) $\text{SiO}^-(\text{OH})_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})^+ \cdot \text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 \text{ (C)} \rightarrow [\text{BC}]^\ddagger$	5.91	11.2	16.6	
(5) $\text{SiO}^-(\text{OH})_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})^+ \cdot \text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 \text{ (C)} \rightarrow [\text{CD}]^\ddagger$	40.4	44.6	49.6	
(6) $\text{H}_6\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7 \text{ (D)} \rightarrow [\text{CD}]^\ddagger$	131	126	134	
(7) $\text{SiO}^-(\text{OH})_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})^+ \cdot \text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 \text{ (C)} \rightarrow [\text{CE}]^\ddagger$	0.811	-2.50	0.785	
	0.358	-2.70	0.438	*
(8) $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+ \cdot \text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^- \cdot \text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 \text{ (E)} \rightarrow [\text{CE}]^\ddagger$	0.328	-3.92	-2.31	
	0.875	-4.21	-3.15	*
(9) $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+ \cdot \text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^- \cdot \text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 \text{ (E)} \rightarrow [\text{EF}]^\ddagger$	29.7	21.9	24.9	
	28.5	19.3	21.7	*
(10) $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+ + \text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^- \cdot \text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 \text{ (F)} \rightarrow [\text{EF}]^\ddagger$	0.806	-5.73	-3.81	
	1.41	-6.43	-4.44	*
<b>B. salt present: <math>2\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 + 60\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{NaCl}</math></b>				
Elementary reactions:				
(1) $2\text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 \text{ (G)} \rightarrow [\text{GH}]^\ddagger$	76.2	59.7	63.8	
(2) $\text{SiO}^-(\text{OH})_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})^+ + \text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 \text{ (H)} \rightarrow [\text{GH}]^\ddagger$	22.8	12.0	13.9	
(3) $\text{SiO}^-(\text{OH})_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})^+ + \text{H}_4\text{SiO}_4 \text{ (H)} \rightarrow [\text{HI}]^\ddagger$	42.3	50.1	61.2	
(4) $\text{H}_6\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7 \text{ (I)} \rightarrow [\text{HI}]^\ddagger$	107	111	124	
(5) $\text{SiO}^-(\text{OH})_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})^+ + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \text{ (H)} \rightarrow [\text{HJ}]^\ddagger$	32.7	27.3	34.1	
(6) $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+ + \text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^- \text{ (J)} \rightarrow [\text{HJ}]^\ddagger$	28.8	19.2	20.8	

Table 2. Energies for elementary reactions. Units are kJ/mol. All are computed with the B3LYP method and a custom basis set from a combination of 6-311++G(d,p) and 6-31+G(d) basis sets. The dot (•) signifies hydrogen bonding. The asterisk “\*” indicates recalculation in a new basis set with a reassignment on atom centers.



	$\Delta U$	$\Delta U_{\text{zpc}}$	$\Delta G_{298}$	$\text{p}K_{298}$
<b>A. pure water: 2H<sub>4</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub> + 60H<sub>2</sub>O</b>				
Net reactions:				
(1) 2H <sub>4</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub> (A) $\leftrightarrow$ H <sub>6</sub> Si <sub>2</sub> O <sub>7</sub> + H <sub>2</sub> O (D)	-9.54	-10.7	-11.9	-2.09
(2) 2H <sub>4</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub> (A) $\leftrightarrow$ SiO <sup>-</sup> (OH) <sub>2</sub> (H <sub>2</sub> O) <sup>+</sup> + H <sub>4</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub> (B)	67.7	63.4	65.1	11.4
(3) 2H <sub>4</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub> (A) $\leftrightarrow$ SiO <sup>-</sup> (OH) <sub>2</sub> (H <sub>2</sub> O) <sup>+</sup> •H <sub>4</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub> (C)	80.8	70.8	73.0	12.8
(4) 2H <sub>4</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub> (A) $\leftrightarrow$ H <sub>3</sub> O <sup>+</sup> •H <sub>3</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub> <sup>-</sup> •H <sub>4</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub> (E)	77.5	69.0	73.3	12.8
(5) 2H <sub>4</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub> (A) $\leftrightarrow$ H <sub>3</sub> O <sup>+</sup> + H <sub>3</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub> <sup>-</sup> •H <sub>4</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub> (F)	106	96.7	102	17.9
<b>B. salt present: 2H<sub>4</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub> + 60H<sub>2</sub>O + NaCl</b>				
Net reaction:				
(1) 2H <sub>4</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub> (G) $\leftrightarrow$ H <sub>6</sub> Si <sub>2</sub> O <sub>7</sub> + H <sub>2</sub> O (I)	-11.6	-13.1	-12.8	-2.25
(2) 2H <sub>4</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub> (G) $\leftrightarrow$ SiO <sup>-</sup> (OH) <sub>2</sub> (H <sub>2</sub> O) <sup>+</sup> + H <sub>4</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub> (H)	53.4	47.7	49.8	8.73
(3) 2H <sub>4</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub> (G) $\leftrightarrow$ H <sub>3</sub> O <sup>+</sup> + H <sub>3</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub> <sup>-</sup> + H <sub>4</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub> (J)	57.3	55.8	63.2	11.1

Table 3. Energies for net reactions. Units are kJ/mol. All are computed with the B3LYP method and a custom basis set from a combination of 6-311++G(d,p) and 6-31+G(d) basis sets. The dot (•) signifies hydrogen bonding.



Orthosilicic Acid:				Orthosilicic Acid Zwitterion:			
Center	Group	Hirshfeld	CM5	Group	Hirshfeld	CM5	
Si	=Si=	0.5414	0.4921	=Si=	0.5095	0.4629	
O	-OH	-0.1595	-0.1443	-O <sup>-</sup>	-0.3679	-0.4599	
O	-OH	-0.1505	-0.1479	-OH <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup>	0.05479	0.1868	
O	-OH	-0.1457	-0.1377	-OH	-0.1488	-0.1431	
O	-OH	-0.1475	-0.1421	-OH	-0.1423	-0.1405	

Table 4 Charges on atom centers of orthosilicic acid and OSAZ in the pure water system from Hirshfeld population analysis and charge model 5. (Hirshfeld, 1977; Wiberg and Rablen, 2018) Hydrogen charges are summed into the oxygen atoms. Units are atomic units.



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720	H <sub>2</sub> O-Si	Si-OH	Reference
721	1.978	1.653	Zhou et al. (2002)
722	1.986	1.633-1.651	Mondal et al. (2009)
723	1.715/1.758	1.653-1.666	This study

724 Table 5. Bond lengths of OSAZ compared to similar structures in previous studies. Units are in atomic units.

725

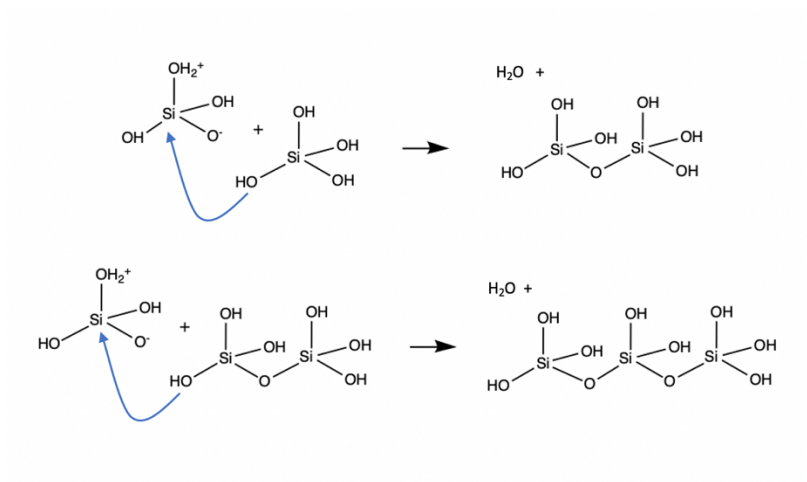
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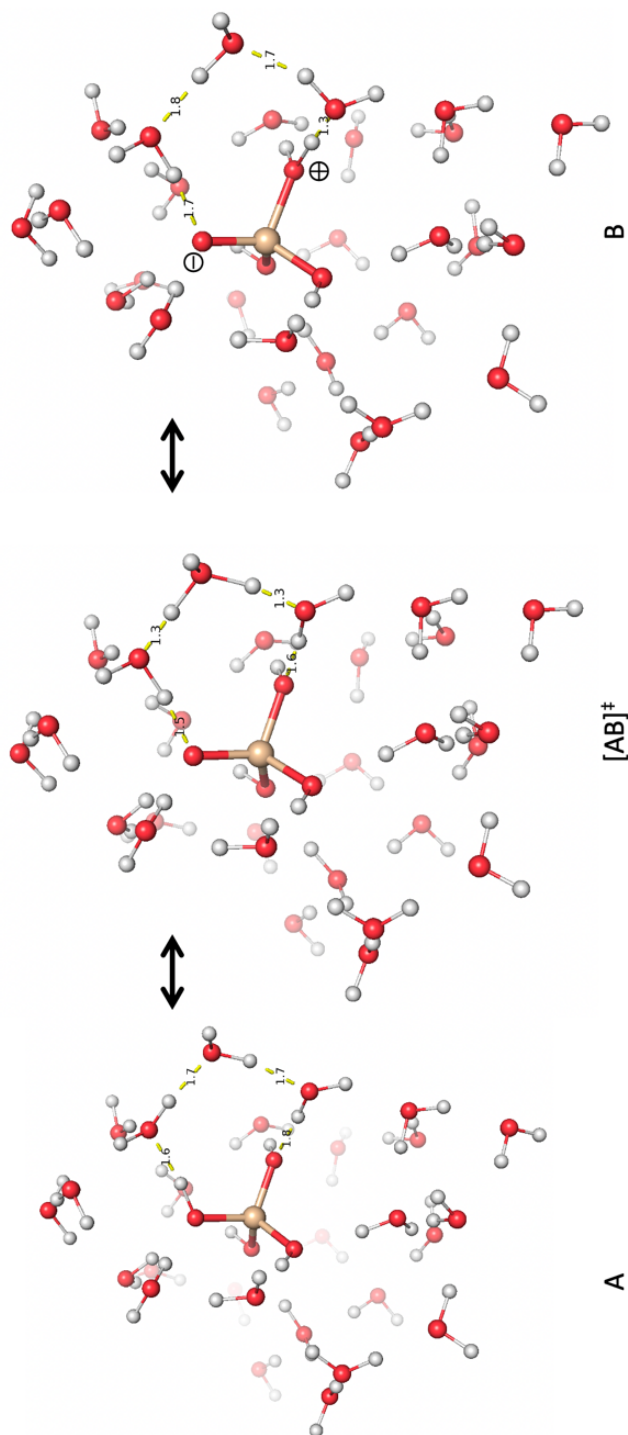
729 Figure 1. Proposed dimerization reaction and the analogous generalized oligomerization reaction.



730



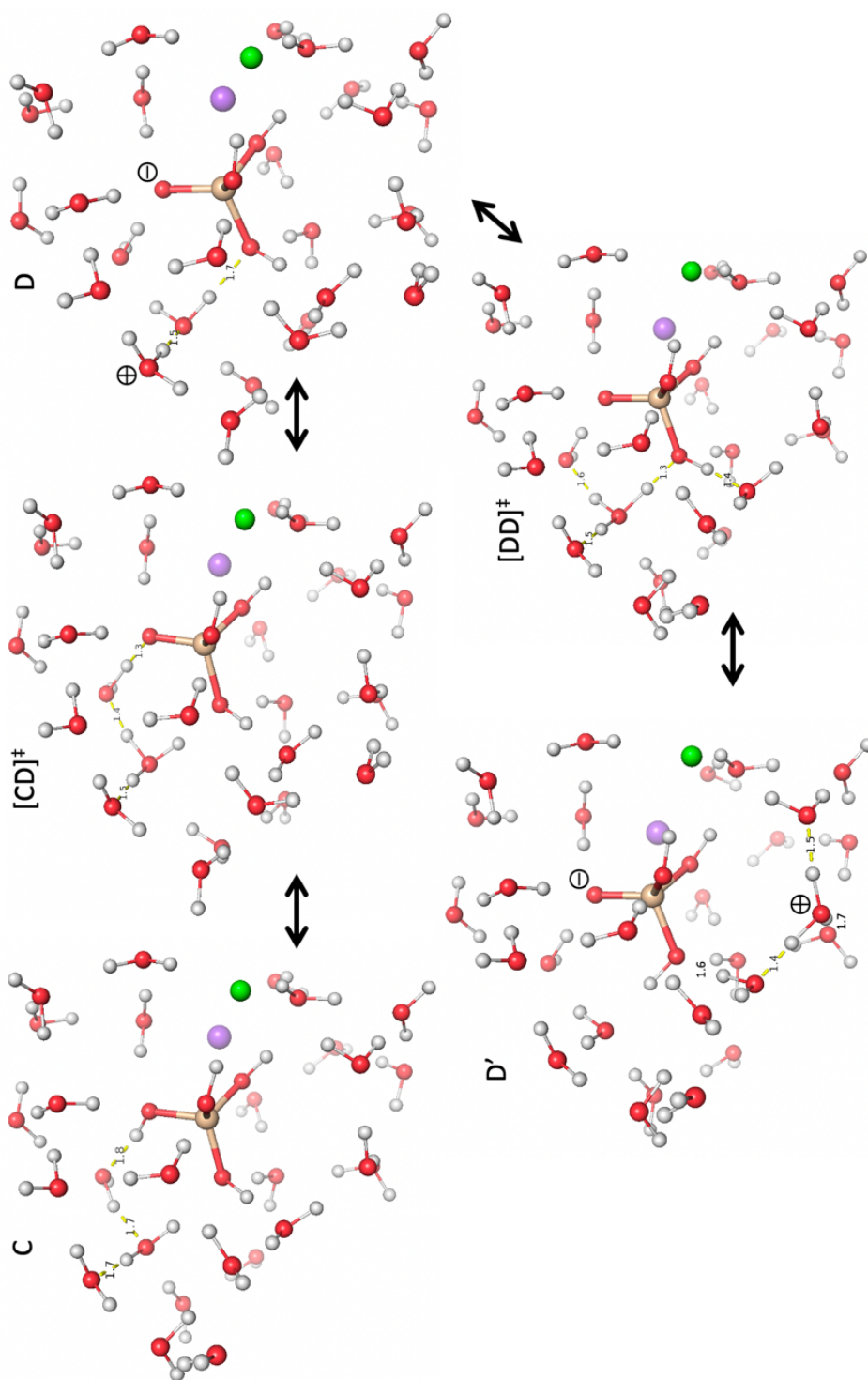
731 Figure 2. OSAZ formation. Pure water mechanism from orthosilicic acid (A) to OSAZ (B)  
 732 optimized at the B3LYP/6-311++G(d,p) level. The corresponding energy changes are shown in  
 733 Table 1.



734



735 Figure 3. Auto-ionization. Salt present mechanism from orthosilicic acid (C) to its auto-  
 736 ionization products (D and D') optimized at the B3LYP/6-311++G(d,p) level. The corresponding  
 737 energy changes are shown in Table 1.





739 Figure 4. Dimerization in pure water. Mechanism from orthosilicic acid (A) to the dimer (D)  
 740 optimized with the B3LYP method with customized basis sets. Atoms depicted by ball-and-stick  
 741 are centers that use the higher level 6-311++G(d,p) basis sets. The rest of the atom centers use 6-  
 742 31+G(d) basis sets. Corresponding energy changes are shown in Table 2.

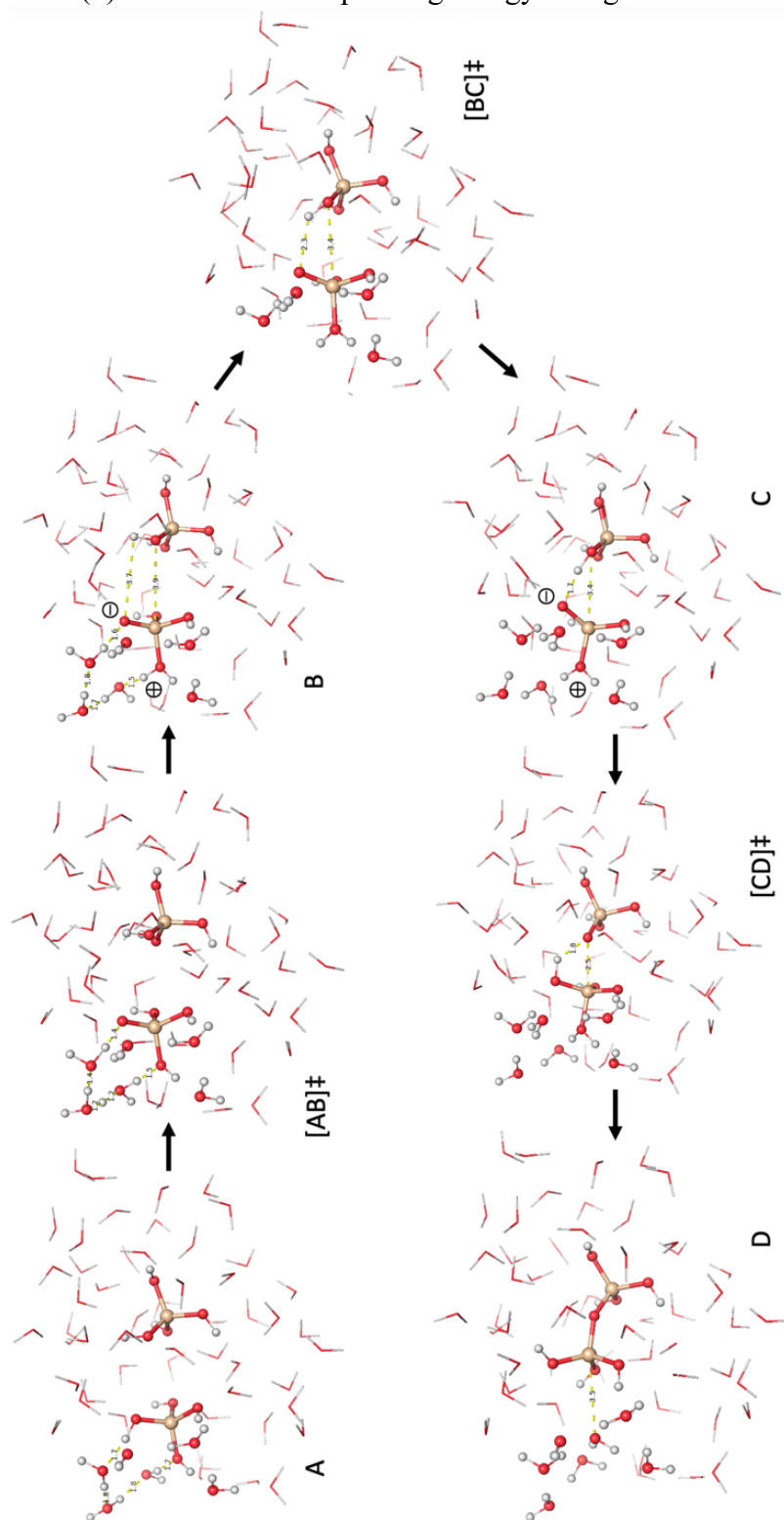




Figure 5. Auto-ionization in pure water. Mechanism from OSAZ (C) to  $\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^- + \text{H}_3\text{O}^+$  (D) optimized with the B3LYP method. Atoms depicted by ball-and-stick are centers that use the higher level 6-311++G(d,p) basis sets. The rest of the atom centers use 6-31+G(d) basis sets. Corresponding energy changes are shown in Table 2.

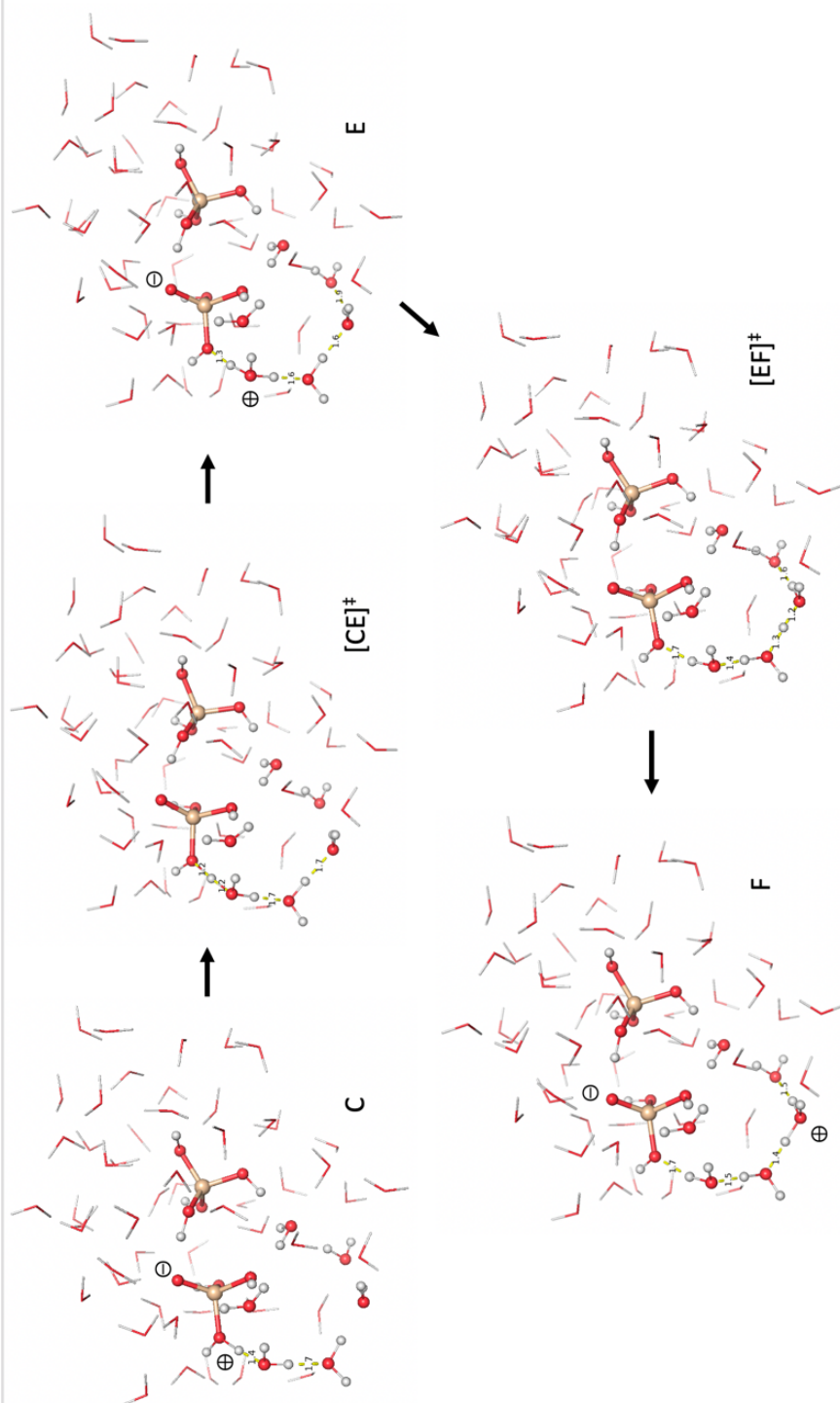




Figure 6. PES Diagram. The letters correspond to configurations in Figure 4 and 5. Energies are in kJ/mol. Solid lines are for uncorrected internal energies and dashed lines are for zero point corrected internal energies. The blue curve corresponds to a recalculation with different atom centers for the higher level basis set. All energies are referenced to the internal energy of configuration A.

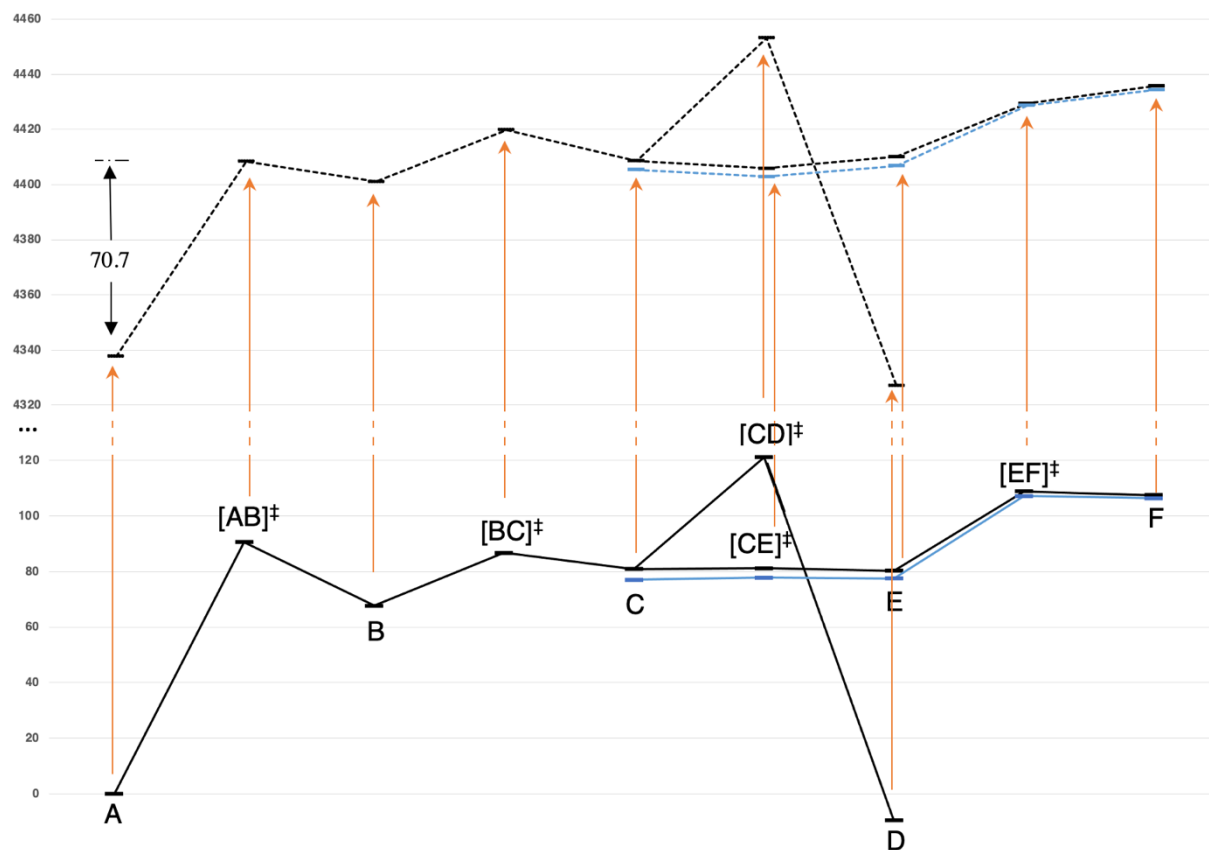




Figure 7. Dimerization with salt present. Mechanism from orthosilicic acid (G) to the dimer (I) optimized with the B3LYP method with customized basis sets. Atoms depicted by ball-and-stick are centers that use the higher level 6-311++G(d,p) basis sets. The rest of the atom centers use 6-31+G(d) basis sets. Corresponding energy changes are shown in Table 4.

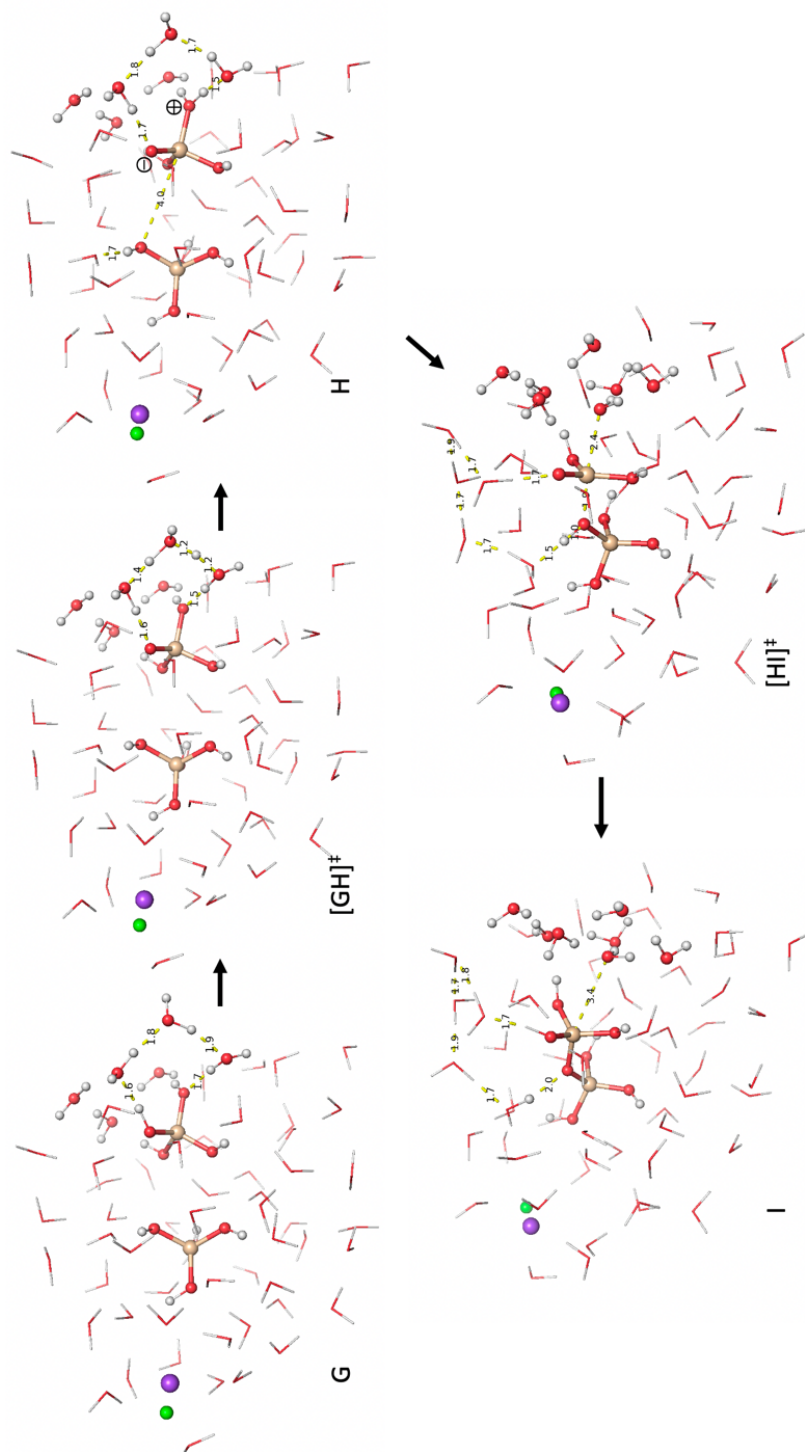
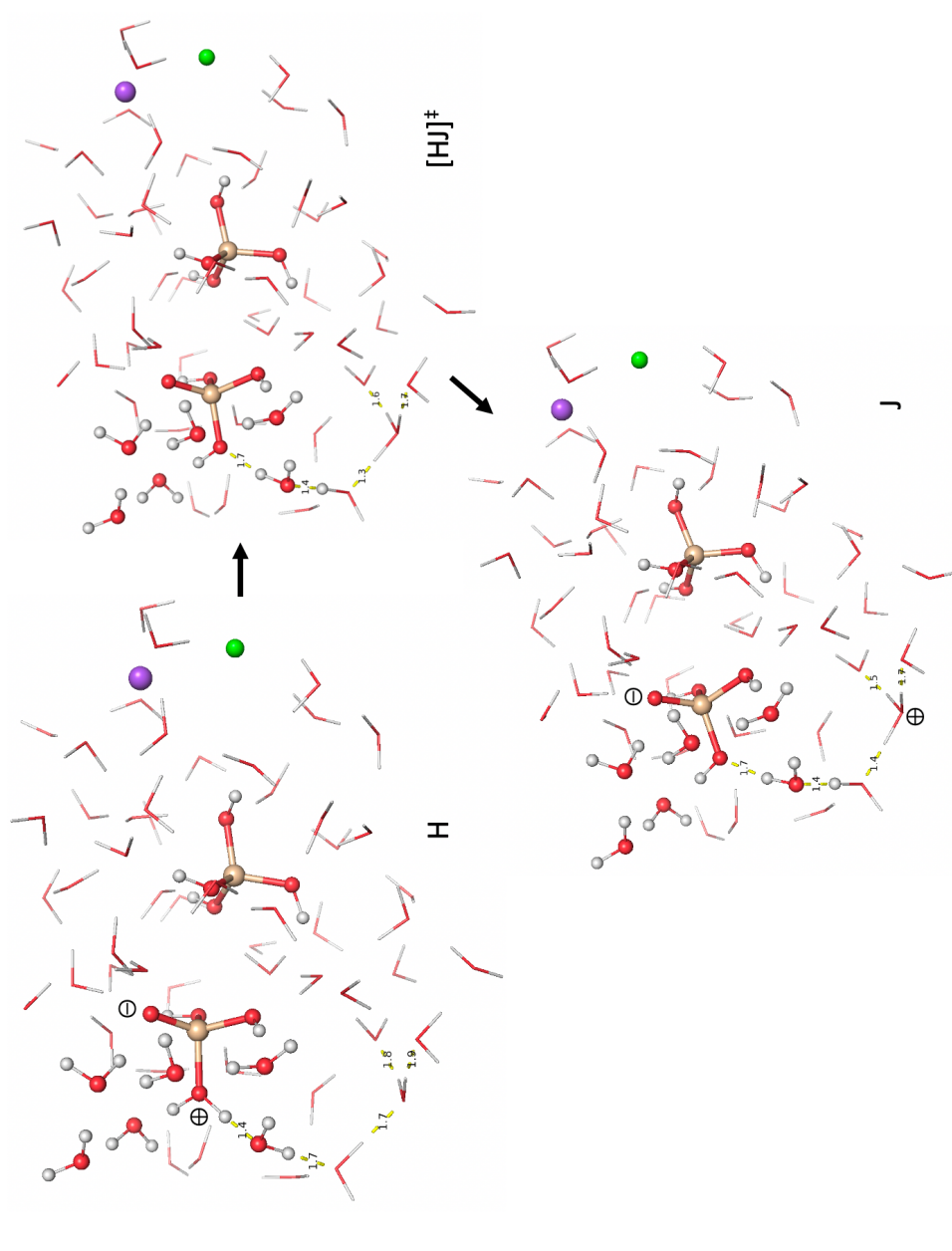


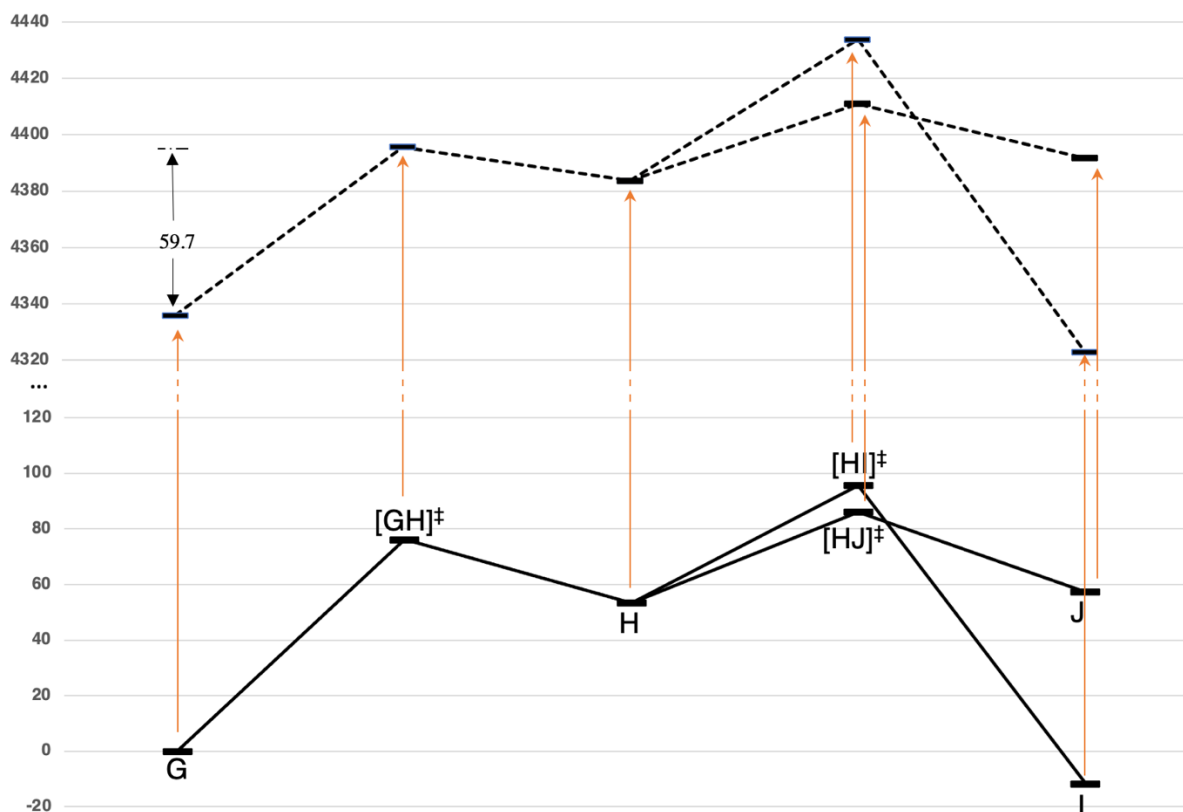


Figure 8. Auto-ionization with salt present. Mechanism from OSAZ (H) to  $\text{H}_3\text{SiO}_4^- + \text{H}_3\text{O}^+$  (J) optimized with the B3LYP method. Atoms depicted by ball-and-stick are centers that use the higher level 6-311++G(d,p) basis sets. The rest of the atom centers use 6-31+G(d) basis sets. Corresponding energy changes are shown in Table 4.





773  
 774 Figure 9. PES Diagram. The letters correspond to configurations in Figure 7 and 8. Energies are  
 775 in kJ/mol. Solid lines are for uncorrected internal energies and dashed lines are for zero point  
 776 corrected internal energies. All energies are referenced to the internal energy of configuration G.  
 777  
 778



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