

Hydroxide and Hydronium Ions Modulate the Dynamic Evolution of Nitrogen Nanobubbles in Water

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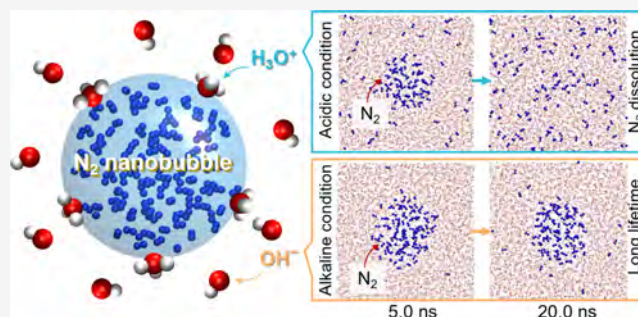
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ABSTRACT: It has been widely recognized that the pH environment influences the nanobubble dynamics and hydroxide ions adsorbed on the surface may be responsible for the long-term survival of the nanobubbles. However, understanding the distribution of hydronium and hydroxide ions in the vicinity of a bulk nanobubble surface at a microscopic scale and the consequent impact of these ions on the nanobubble behavior remains a challenging endeavor. In this study, we carried out deep potential molecular dynamics simulations to explore the behavior of a nitrogen nanobubble under neutral, acidic, and alkaline conditions and the inherent mechanism, and we also conducted a theoretical thermodynamic and dynamic analysis to address constraints related to simulation duration. Our simulations and theoretical analyses demonstrate a trend of nanobubble dissolution similar to that observed experimentally, emphasizing the limited dissolution of bulk nanobubbles in alkaline conditions, where hydroxide ions tend to reside slightly farther from the nanobubble surface than hydronium ions, forming more stable hydrogen bond networks that shield the nanobubble from dissolution. In acidic conditions, the hydronium ions preferentially accumulating at the nanobubble surface in an orderly manner drive nanobubble dissolution to increase the entropy of the system, and the dissolved nitrogen molecules further strengthen the hydrogen bond networks of systems by providing a hydrophobic environment for hydronium ions, suggesting both entropy and enthalpy effects contribute to the instability of nanobubbles under acidic conditions. These results offer fresh insights into the double-layer distribution of hydroxide and hydronium near the nitrogen–water interface that influences the dynamic behavior of bulk nanobubbles.



1. INTRODUCTION

Nanobubbles, characterized by their nanoscopic diameter, can be observed either adsorbed on submerged substrates, referred to as surface nanobubbles, or suspended in solutions, known as bulk nanobubbles.^{1–4} Over the past two decades, nanobubbles have garnered considerable attention and found applications in diverse fields such as agriculture,⁵ water treatment,^{6,7} medicine,⁸ mineral flotation,⁹ cleaning,¹⁰ food and beverage,¹¹ biochemistry,¹² enhanced reactions,¹³ and lower cavitation threshold.¹⁴

The aforementioned applications are all founded on the premise of the existence of nanobubbles, signifying the long-term survival of the nanobubbles. In the case of surface nanobubbles, their stability can be effectively elucidated by the pinning-oversaturation mechanism.^{15–19} When considering bulk nanobubbles, according to the classical Epstein–Plesset theory,²⁰ these nanobubbles should exhibit a brief lifetime, typically in the order of milliseconds. This contradicts the observed prolonged lifetimes in various studies.^{7,21–26} The abnormal dynamic behavior of bulk nanobubbles remains a subject of ongoing debate. Experimental technologies such as dynamic light scattering and nanoparticle tracking analysis^{25,27} face challenges in distinguishing between nanobubbles and

variations in liquid density. Recent studies have raised suspicions regarding the existence of bulk nanobubbles, suggesting that the observed bulk nanoentities in experiments could potentially be nanodroplets, contaminant micelles, or nanoparticles, rather than true bulk nanobubbles.^{28–30}

Considering that the existence of these bulk nanoentities, as evidenced, is closely tied to the saturation of dissolved gas,^{31,32} we have rationale to speculate that at least a portion of these nanoentities observed in experiments are gas-filled and can be designated as nanobubbles. By presuming their presence under the initial conditions, in this work, we aim to investigate the dissolution dynamics of nanobubbles, evaluate their long-term survival, and reveal the mechanism by molecular simulations and theoretical analyses. This endeavor will contribute to a comprehensive understanding of fundamental scientific in-

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Table 1. Details of the Simulation Systems

system	box size (\AA^3)	no. of H_2O	no. (molarity) of H_3O^+	no. (molarity) of OH^-	no. of N_2
A	$55.0 \times 55.0 \times 55.0$	5094	0	0	120
B	$55.0 \times 55.0 \times 55.0$	5074	20 (0.2 M)	0	120
C	$55.0 \times 55.0 \times 55.0$	5074	0	20 (0.2 M)	120
D	$55.0 \times 55.0 \times 55.0$	4994	0	100 (1.1 M)	120

quiries about bubble dynamics, encompassing nucleation, growth, coalescence, and dissolution.^{33–36} Ultimately, they are expected to contribute to numerous potential applications.

As known, multiple theories have been proposed in an attempt to elucidate the abnormal dynamic stability of bulk nanobubbles, including the skin model,^{37,38} dynamic equilibrium model,³⁹ surfactant adsorption model,^{40–42} surface charge model,^{7,43–48} etc. Among these, the surface charge effect of bulk nanobubbles has garnered significant attention and discussion. Since negative zeta potentials for bulk nanobubbles in pure water, typically ranging from -50 mV to -20 mV, were observed,^{4,7,49–51} it is often assumed that the surface charge of the bulk nanobubbles originates from surface-adsorbed OH^- ions, the only negatively charged species present in pure water. Furthermore, it has been noted that the nanobubble is more stable under alkaline conditions compared to acidic environments,^{7,52,53} and the nanobubble surface exhibits a more negative zeta potential as pH rises.^{54,55} Therefore, the adsorption of water self-ions (OH^- and H_3O^+) at the nanobubble surface is thought to be a contributing factor to modulating the dynamics of bulk nanobubbles. However, the distribution propensity of OH^- and H_3O^+ ions toward the bulk nanobubble surface and its impact on the dynamic stability of nanobubbles have not been conclusively understood. Further investigation is highly desired via atomic-level simulations, in particular, molecular dynamics (MD) simulations, to reveal a microscopic mechanism that elucidates the behavior of bulk nanobubbles in alkaline, acidic, or neutral environments.

To date, simulation research on bubble dynamics in water has predominantly employed classical all-atom MD^{25,56–62} and coarse-grained MD.^{57,60,61} These simulations have provided valuable insights into microscopic processes such as nucleation,²⁵ collision,⁵⁹ and dissolution^{56–58,60–62} of bubbles. However, there is a lack of MD simulations that explicitly consider the presence of OH^- and H_3O^+ ions in mimicking alkaline and acidic environments, respectively. The main challenge lies in accurately capturing the diffusion of OH^- and H_3O^+ in water using nonreactive force fields because proton hopping plays a crucial role in ionic diffusion.^{63,64} The proton hopping in water is a reactive process via the Grotthuss mechanism,^{65–67} involving the formation and breakage of oxygen–hydrogen bonds. Describing this process requires using *ab initio* MD methods, which are resource-intensive and constrained for nanoscale spatial and temporal resolutions.

In the present work, we conducted deep potential molecular dynamics (DPMD) simulations^{68,69} to investigate the behavior of nitrogen (N_2) nanobubbles in bulk water under neutral, alkaline, and acidic conditions. This approach combines the advantages of classical MD (efficiency) and *ab initio* MD (accuracy) methods by using deep potential (DP) trained by a neural network. Our findings qualitatively align with experimental results that the diffusion of N_2 molecules is slowed under alkaline conditions compared to pure water and acidic conditions. We reveal that the dynamic stability of N_2

nanobubbles is increased in alkaline environments due to a stable hydrogen bond (HB) network surrounding OH^- ions, which are accumulated near the nanobubble surface.

Recent investigations on oil droplets have explained the negative charge and stability of bare oil droplets in water with the charge transfer from water to oil via interfacial $\text{C}-\text{H}\cdots\text{O}$ hydrogen bonds,^{70,71} and the observation that nanobubbles are more (less) stable under alkaline (acidic) conditions mirrors the behavior of hydrophobic oily nano-objects in water, further enriching the parallelism and broadening the scope of the present study.

2. COMPUTATIONAL DETAILS

2.1. Deep Potential Model. In this work, the data sets for training the deep potential model were generated by a concurrent learning scheme with DP Generator (DP-GEN),⁷² which involves three iterative steps: DP training in DeePMD-kit,^{68,69} DPMD exploration in LAMMPS,⁷³ and density functional theory (DFT) labeling in VASP.^{74,75}

In the DFT labeling stage, the exchange–correlation interaction was treated by using a meta-generalized-gradient-approximation (meta-GGA) known as the strongly constrained and appropriately normed (SCAN) semilocal density functional,⁷⁶ which has been demonstrated to be able to well describe the electrical, structural, and dynamic properties of water molecules and water self-ions in previous tests.^{63,77–82} A plane wave basis set with a cutoff energy of 600 eV was employed. The Brillouin zone was sampled by using a single k-point. Gaussian smearing with a width of 0.05 eV was used for partial orbital occupancies.⁸³ The electronic self-consistent loop was terminated when the global break condition reached 1×10^{-5} eV.

During the DP-GEN iterations, the conformational space was sampled extensively by performing explorations with various combinations of thermodynamic parameters, including canonical ensemble and isothermal–isobaric ensemble, temperatures ranging from 270 to 600 K, and pressures from 0.2 to 900 bar. Finally, a total of 16 subsystem data sets, incorporating H_2O , H_3O^+ , OH^- , and N_2 , have been collected and segmented into the training and test data sets (refer to Table S1). The final DP model was trained based on the training data set containing 91,179 configurations and validated by the independent test data set containing 8978 configurations with energies and forces calculated by SCAN. The DP model has root-mean-square errors (RMSEs) of 0.91 meV/atom for energy and 39 meV/ \AA for atomic force as compared to the SCAN reference values, demonstrating its satisfactory precision. For additional details regarding the DP-GEN iteration and DP model training, please refer to Supporting Information.

2.2. DPMD Simulations. DPMD simulations were conducted using the LAMMPS software⁷³ to evaluate the dynamic behavior of N_2 nanobubbles in neutral, acidic, and alkaline environments. In the neutral system (labeled as system A in Table 1), an initial nanobubble comprising 120 N_2

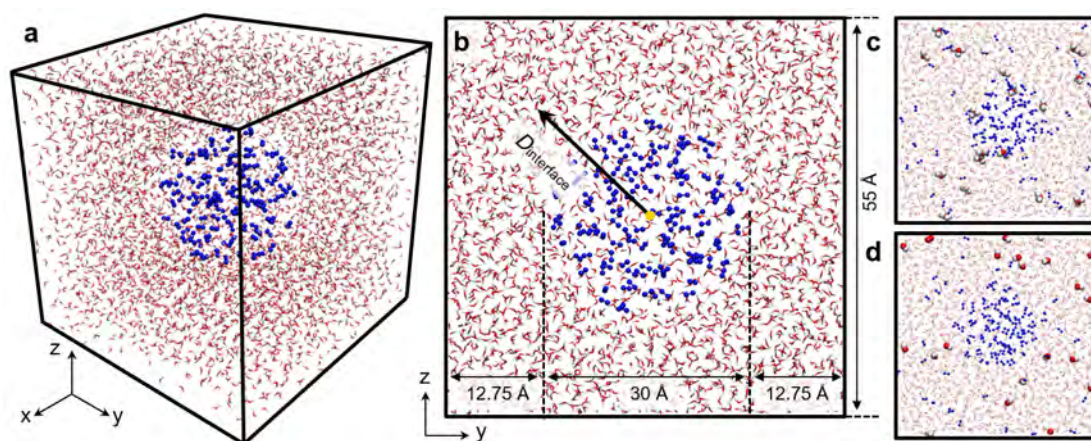


Figure 1. Schematic diagrams of bulk nitrogen nanobubbles. (a) Three-dimensional and (b) central cross-sectional views of system A (see Table 1), depicting the N_2 nanobubble positioned at the center of a periodic cubic box filled with pure water. (c) Snapshot of system B, showing the N_2 nanobubble immersed in water containing 20 H_3O^+ ions. (d) Snapshot of system C, illustrating the N_2 nanobubble surrounded by water and 20 OH^- ions. The H_3O^+ , OH^- , and N_2 species are represented by using a ball model, while the H_2O molecules are depicted by using a stick model. Color code: hydrogen, white; nitrogen, blue; oxygen, red.

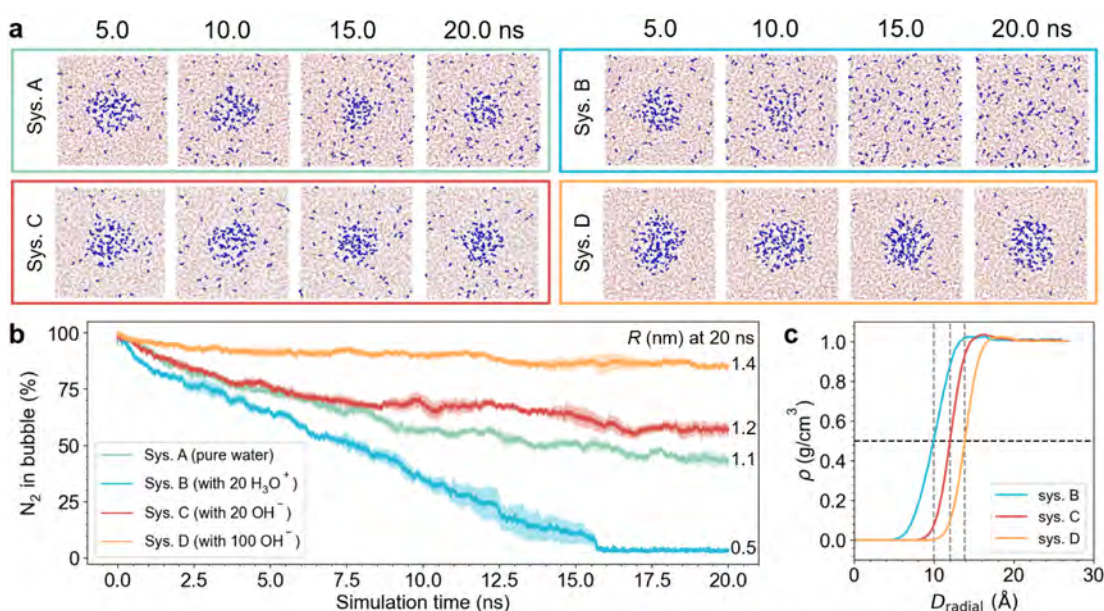


Figure 2. The dynamic evolution of nitrogen nanobubble in different systems. (a) Snapshots during 5–20 ns simulations for four systems, namely, A (pure water without self-ions), B (water with 20 H_3O^+), C (water with 20 OH^-), and D (water with 100 OH^-). (b) Time-evolution of the percentage of N_2 molecules in the nanobubble during 0–20 ns, with transparent colors indicating the standard deviations from four independent simulations. (c) Average water density along the radial distance from the nanobubble center during 5–12.5 ns.

molecules with a diameter of 3 nm was positioned within a periodic cube box containing around 5000 H_2O molecules, with a side length of 5.5 nm (Figure 1a,b). In the acidic system (labeled as system B) and the alkaline system (labeled as system C), 20 H_3O^+ and 20 OH^- ions are introduced into the bulk water, respectively, as illustrated in Figure 1c,d, corresponding to pH values of 0.66 and 13.34, respectively. Furthermore, in order to enhance the effect of OH^- during the limited simulation time, 100 OH^- ions were incorporated into the water bulk (referred to as system D in Table 1) to emulate a more alkaline environment.

All simulations were performed in the isothermal–isobaric ensemble (NPT) at a temperature of 330 K and a pressure of 1 atm. Here, we used a 30 K higher temperature in simulations than the target ambient conditions because it had been shown

that a temperature increase of 30–40 K in the SCAN-based classical simulations can better simulate various properties of liquid water,^{84–86} possibly by mitigating the overstructuring of intermolecular interactions.⁸⁷ This treatment helped align the diffusion coefficients of OH^- , H_3O^+ , and H_2O with their experimental values at ambient conditions.^{63,80,82} Temperature and pressure were maintained using the Nosé–Hoover thermostat and barostat^{88,89} with damping times of 0.1 and 1 ps, respectively. We ran four independent trajectories for each system, with each trajectory spanning 20 ns and a time step of 1 fs. Data analysis was performed at intervals of 1 ps.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Evolution of Nitrogen Nanobubbles. First, the time evolution of the number of N_2 molecules in the bulk

nanobubble was monitored during the 20 ns simulation. As depicted in Figure 2a,b, the nanobubble lifetime is significantly shorter under acidic conditions (system B) compared to the neutral and alkaline conditions, with all N_2 molecules dissolving into the water bulk after ~ 16 ns. In contrast, in systems A, C, and D, 42%, 54%, and 84% of N_2 molecules (corresponding to the nanobubble radii of 1.1, 1.2, and 1.4 nm, respectively) remain in the nanobubble after 20 ns. It indicates that alkaline conditions stabilize the bulk nanobubble, and increasing the number of OH^- ions from 20 to 100 remarkably extends its lifetime. This trend aligns with previous experimental observations that a higher number of nanobubbles are detected under alkaline conditions.^{7,48,52,53}

For 5–12.5 ns of simulations, during which the bulk nanobubble persists without complete dissolution, in all cases, we plotted the average water density along the radial distance from the nanobubble center to the water bulk in Figure 2c. The position where the water mass density is half that of the bulk water is usually approximately defined as the Gibbs dividing surface (GDS) separating the water phase and gas phase.^{63,90,91} Based on this definition of GDS, we estimate the averaged radius of the nanobubble during the 5–12.5 ns simulations to be 10, 12, and 14 Å in systems B, C, and D, respectively (Figure 2c), and we designate the region near the GDS as the nitrogen–water interface in the following analysis.

3.2. Ionic Double-Layer Distribution in the Interface and its Impact on the Nanobubble Stability. We now shift our focus to the microscopic effects of the ions. The spatial distribution analysis of H_3O^+ and OH^- ions surrounding the N_2 nanobubble is illustrated in Figure 3a, which shows that the H_3O^+ and OH^- ions prefer to enrich near the nitrogen–water interface, but in separate layers. A similar phenomenon has been observed and referred to as the interfacial double-layer distribution of self-ions in our recent

work for the flat air–water interface.^{63,92} In the nitrogen–water interface of the current bulk nanobubble system, H_3O^+ ions predominantly occupy the top layer of the water phase, with a high peak of distribution at ~ -1 Å relative to the GDS; in contrast to the observation in the flat air–water interface,^{63,92} OH^- ions show a weak interfacial propensity as compared to H_3O^+ , nevertheless, the maximum of volume normalized number distribution of OH^- along the normal distance to the nanobubble surface appears in a deeper interfacial layer on the water side, corresponding to a depth of 2–4 water-molecule layers (~ -5 Å) below the GDS. The thickness of such an ionic double-layer is approximately 4 Å based on the current simulations.

Figure 3b shows that the concentration distribution of OH^- ions at the nitrogen–water interface exhibits a notable degree of stability over 20 ns. Although the peak concentration of H_3O^+ ions is remarkably higher than that of OH^- ions, it gradually diminishes with the shrinking of the nanobubble after ~ 10 ns. Furthermore, the OH^- ions exhibit a more delocalized distribution throughout the interface region (within the range of -15 to -4 Å), compared to the narrow distribution of H_3O^+ ions. Therefore, it is plausible that in the pure water system, the positive charge associated with H_3O^+ ions is partly offset or screened by the neighboring OH^- layer characterized by a more pronounced negative charge. Besides, the outer OH^- layer of the nanobubble may be more possibly correspond to the experimental detection region,⁶³ also lending support to the macroscopic measurements of negative zeta potential of bulk nanobubble typically falling within the range of -50 mV to -20 mV.^{4,7,49–51}

The formation of this ionic double-layer near the bulk nanobubble surface is due to the different amphipathies of H_3O^+ and OH^- ions. As revealed in Figure 4a, the dipole vectors of H_3O^+ ions are predominantly aligned parallel to the interfacial normal vector with $\cos \theta = \sim 1.0$, where θ is the angle between the normal vector of the interface and the dipole vector of the self-ions. The orientation distribution can be attributed to the preference of H_3O^+ ions to lie flat on the uppermost water surface with their hydrophobic oxygen atom facing the N_2 nanobubble and their hydrophilic protons neighboring H_2O molecules.^{64,93,94} In contrast, the orientation of OH^- is more random ($\cos \theta = -1.0$ to 1.0) because its oxygen atom with more delocalized lone pair electrons is a much better HB acceptor than both oxygens of H_3O^+ and water molecule, and thus, OH^- ions can stay in a deeper water layer of the interface to form abundant HB network with surrounding water molecules.⁶³

The distribution of water self-ions near the bulk nanobubble surface and the corresponding HB network character determine the nanobubble dynamics. Under the acidic conditions, first, due to the orderly arrangement of H_3O^+ ions surrounding the nanobubble, the system has a low entropy, driving the nanobubble dissolution. Second, since the H_3O^+ ions prefer to occupy the inner layer of the nitrogen–water interface (at ~ -1 Å relative to the GDS), the hydrophobic nature of dissolved N_2 will make them preferentially pass through H_3O^+ , which also provides a more hydrophobic environment for H_3O^+ ions, consequently strengthening their and neighboring water's HB networks. It is evidenced by a very slight rise in the HB number of each H_3O^+ from ~ 3.04 to ~ 3.10 and a significant increase in the HB number of each neighboring H_2O from ~ 3.47 to ~ 3.64 within 20 ns (system B in Figure 4b). This lowers the enthalpy of the

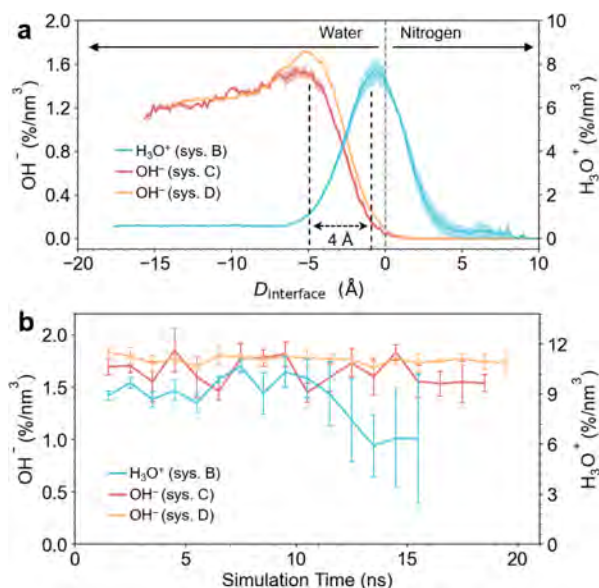


Figure 3. The distribution of hydronium and hydroxide ions. (a) Volume normalized number distribution of water self-ions along the normal distance to the nitrogen–water interface during 5–12.5 ns. The normal distance is defined as negative on the water side, zero at the GDS, and positive on the nanobubble side. (b) Maximum value change tendency of volume normalized number distribution of water self-ions.

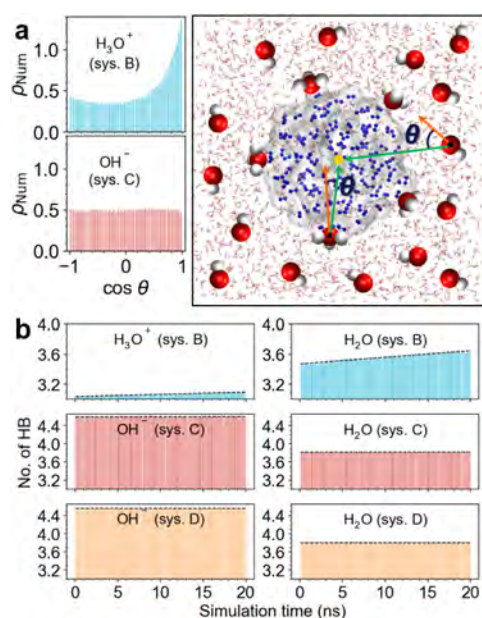


Figure 4. Orientation and HB network of water self-ions. (a) Orientation distributions of OH^- and H_3O^+ during 5–12.5 ns. Hist bars represent the cumulative number density, ρ_{Num} of self-ions within statistical intervals. The orientation of the ions is determined by the cosine of the θ angle, which is the angle between the normal vector (from the nitrogen–water interface to the nanobubble center, depicted by green arrows) of the interface and the dipole vector (from the hydrogen center to oxygen, depicted by orange arrows) of the self-ions. (b) Evolution of HB numbers for each OH^- , H_3O^+ , and neighboring H_2O (i.e., H_2O in the first shell of water self-ions) during 0–20 ns, where black dashed lines represent the linear fitting.

system and further promotes N_2 diffusion from the nanobubble into the water. Thereby, entropy and enthalpy effects contribute together to the instability of nanobubbles under acidic conditions. In alkaline conditions, the excess OH^- ions randomly enriching at a deeper interface layer on the water side establish a stable enough HB network by the hyper-coordinated solvation, just as what we notice for systems C and D in Figure 4b, and the HB number of OH^- remains almost unchanged during the 20 ns simulation. It implies that the stable HB network of surrounding OH^- ions may slow down the dissolution of N_2 nanobubble. In the neutral condition, the impacts of H_3O^+ and OH^- ions separately distributed in the different interface layers may compete with each other, rendering a compromised nanobubble stability as compared to that under the alkaline condition.

In summary, the dynamic behavior of the N_2 nanobubble is found to be closely correlated with the interfacial distribution and orientation of H_3O^+ and OH^- ions and their surrounding solvation environment. These microscopic-level details provide new insights into the stability of bulk nanobubbles. However, it is also important to acknowledge that bulk nanobubbles exhibit limited dynamic behavior during a brief 20 ns simulation time. To overcome this limitation, we next utilize theoretical models, incorporating simulation data from neutral and alkaline systems and experimental parameters, to further explore and analyze the thermodynamic and dynamic behaviors of bulk nanobubbles.

3.3. Theoretical Thermodynamic and Dynamic Analysis. The classical nucleation theory can describe the evolution of small gas nanobubbles from a thermodynamic aspect. In

particular, for the charged gas nanobubble in the *NPT* ensemble, changes of Gibbs free energy (dG) with the radius of R (related to the volume of the nanobubble (V_2) and the number of nitrogen molecules within the nanobubble ($N_{g,2}$)) can be expressed as

$$dG = \left(p_1 + \frac{2\gamma}{R} - p_2 - \frac{Q^2}{32\pi^2\epsilon R^4} \right) dV_2 + (\mu_{g,2} - \mu_{g,1}) dN_{g,2} \quad (1)$$

where p_1 and p_2 represent the pressures of the liquid and gas phases, respectively. The γ and ϵ denote, respectively, the surface tension and the dielectric constant of the medium. Q is the nanobubble surface charge, and $\mu_{g,2}$ and $\mu_{g,1}$ are the chemical potentials of the nitrogen molecule in the gas phase and liquid phase, respectively (see the Supporting Information for more details).

When $dG = 0$, the thermodynamic equilibrium of the nanobubble is reached. According to eq 1, the thermodynamic equilibrium also means the equations $(\mu_{g,2} - \mu_{g,1}) dN_{g,2} = 0$ and $\left(p_1 + \frac{2\gamma}{R} - p_2 - \frac{Q^2}{32\pi^2\epsilon R^4} \right) dV_2 = 0$, that is, they, respectively, satisfy the criterion for chemical equilibrium

$$\mu_{g,1} = \mu_{g,2} \quad (2)$$

and mechanical equilibrium^{44,95–97}

$$p_1 + \frac{2\gamma}{R} = p_2 + \frac{Q^2}{32\pi^2\epsilon R^4} \quad (3)$$

where the right side of eq 3 represents the expansion force, and the left side represents the collapse force acting on the nanobubble. When the electrostatic term $\frac{Q^2}{32\pi^2\epsilon R^4}$ is omitted, eq 3 simplifies to the classical Young–Laplace equation.⁹

It is usually assumed that mechanical equilibrium (eq 3) is reached more quickly than chemical equilibrium (eq 2),⁹⁸ that is, the thermodynamic equilibrium is dominantly controlled by the chemical equilibrium. We then simplify eq 1 by using a detailed expansion of the chemical potentials

$$dG = k_B T \ln \left(\frac{p_2 H}{c_{g,1}} \right) dN_{g,2} \quad (4)$$

where k_B is the Boltzmann constant, T denotes the simulation temperature, $c_{g,1}$ represents the actual concentration of nitrogen in the liquid phase, and H denotes the Henry coefficient of nitrogen gas. Next, by establishing a relationship between p_2 and R by solving the mechanical equilibrium equation (eq 3) and the van der Waals equation,⁹⁹ the free energy change with the evolution of nanobubble (namely, $\frac{dG}{dN_{g,2}}$) can be determined. See the Supporting Information for the details.

The numerical solution of eq 4 is presented in Figure 5a, which shows that in the neutral condition (system A), the free energy decreases monotonically with the decrease of the number of N_2 molecules in the nanobubble. This observation suggests that the N_2 nanobubble prefers to completely dissolve into the water to approach a more stable state. In system C containing 20 OH^- ions, the free energy decreases as the nanobubble dissolves until reaching a minimum when only two N_2 molecules are left, suggesting near-complete dissolution. In

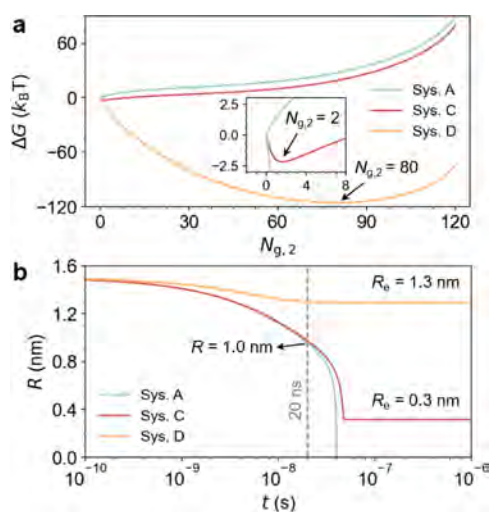


Figure 5. Theoretical thermodynamic and dynamic evolution of nitrogen nanobubble. (a) Evolution of the Gibbs free energy (ΔG) with the number of N_2 molecules ($N_{g,2}$) within the bulk nanobubble. The $N_{g,2}$ corresponding to the minimum of free energy is marked for systems C and D. (b) Dynamic evolution of nanobubble radius R in different systems, where the equilibrium radius R_e is given for systems C and D.

system D with 100 OH^- ions, the free energy gradually decreases, followed by an increase with decreasing number of N_2 molecules in the nanobubble. A distinct free energy minimum well of about $-115 k_B T$ is located when 80 N_2 molecules remain in the nanobubble. The corresponding equilibrium radius is around 1.3 nm.

We can further explore the nanobubble equilibrium from a dynamic aspect. For an individual spherical nanobubble, the dissolution dynamics can be estimated using the Epstein–Plesset equation²⁰

$$\frac{dR}{dt} = \frac{D}{\rho} (c_{g,1} - H p_2) \left(\frac{1}{R} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi D t}} \right) \quad (5)$$

where t represents the evolution time, ρ is the density of the gas inside the nanobubble, and D is the diffusion coefficient of nitrogen gas (for more information, please refer to [Supporting Information](#)).

The analysis results are presented in [Figure 5b](#). It is evident that in pure water (system A), the radius of the nanobubble exhibits a decreasing trend until ultimate extinction at ~ 40 ns. In system C with 20 OH^- ions, the decreasing nanobubble radius experiences a sudden cessation at ~ 47 ns and stabilizes at 0.3 nm, and thus the equilibrium radius R_e of nanobubble is estimated to be 0.3 nm, which corresponds to a nanobubble containing two N_2 molecules, in good agreement with our thermodynamic analysis result shown in [Figure 5a](#). In addition, we also notice that the present theoretical analysis predicts a nanobubble radius of ~ 1 nm at 20 ns for both systems A and C, which reasonably agree with our simulation outcomes. As illustrated in [Figure 2b](#), the DPMD simulations show that in systems A and C, the nanobubble radii at 20 ns are approximately 1.1 and 1.2 nm, respectively.

In system D with 100 OH^- ions, the simulation results exhibit closer alignment with the theoretical calculation. The nanobubble is stabilized at a radius of 1.3 nm ([Figure 5b](#)) over the microsecond time scale. This stability approximately aligns with the observation of the DPMD simulation, where the

radius slowly approaches 1.4 nm at 20 ns ([Figure 2b](#)). Although there still is a slight decrease trend in radius in the end of the current 20 ns simulation, it is believed that the nanobubble will exhibit a lifetime in the microsecond range in a longer simulation. These findings further corroborate the thermodynamic prediction ([Figure 5a](#)).

3.4. Discussion on Limitations and Applications. The current model system describing a 3 nm nanobubble in water is much smaller than most nanobubbles in practical scenarios, which typically have a diameter of around 100 nm. Notably, Jadhav and Barigou²⁷ demonstrated the existence of the cluster of bulk nanobubbles in neutral or alkaline conditions, and under acidic conditions, these nanoentities dissociated into minuscule clusters of around 1 nm, which aligns with the size of our simulated nanobubbles. Our simulations also directly mimic a situation similar to the cluster of nanobubbles by extending the periodic box. In addition, although the disparity in curvature may result in large variations in some physical properties, for example, surface tension, which could have an important impact on the dynamic behavior of nanobubbles, the current 3 nm nanobubble simulation still can offer significant insights into nanobubbles with a larger size at the microscopic level.

In the pursuit of efficiency, another limitation of the current simulations is that we did not incorporate nuclear quantum effects (NQE), which could be caught only by using Feynman path-integral formalisms.¹⁰⁰ This might be at the root of some quantitative discrepancies in the present simulations.

To ensure adequate sampling within a limited time frame and a smaller box size, we conducted separate simulations for the systems containing OH^- and H_3O^+ ions to prevent ionic recombination into water molecules, thus ensuring the efficiency of the statistical analysis. Our primary focus is on studying the effects of OH^- and H_3O^+ ions, rather than the influence of other ions on the main results. The current simulations overlook the effects of counterbalancing ions; nonetheless, previous studies have indicated that the DP model relies on local environmental features, suggesting that counterbalancing ions may not be necessary.⁶³

Furthermore, the construction of the DP model in this work relies on the assumption of short-range interactions, and long-range electrostatic interactions are not explicitly accounted for. Since the magnitude of long-range electrostatic interactions is much lower than that of short-range many-body interactions, the current DP model can be perceived as a leading-order approximation of DFT interactions for effectively capturing the primary physical phenomena inherent in the system.

Considering the N_2 solubility in water and the number of water molecules in DPMD simulations (refer to [Table 1](#)), it becomes evident that the system is oversaturated if one N_2 molecule in the nanobubble diffuses into the solution. This ensures that all the examined systems are oversaturated at an early stage of the simulation, akin to observations in classical MD studies.⁵⁸ Furthermore, operating under such supersaturation of N_2 gas in the liquid phase, our theoretical analysis can align with the assumptions of achieving chemical and mechanical equilibrium under the NPT ensemble.

Despite the acknowledged limitations, we are confident that the current findings provide, at least, a qualitative comprehension of how the distribution of the ionic double-layer influences the dynamics of N_2 nanobubbles. This research may facilitate insights for future fundamental studies and a wide array of potential industrial applications. For instance, the pH

in a solution can exert an impact on the lifespan of nanobubbles, which could reduce the threshold for the occurrence of cavitation.^{14,101,102} Furthermore, our findings regarding the distribution of OH⁻ and H₃O⁺ ions may be expected to influence various processes such as flotation, electrophoresis, and enhanced interfacial reactions.^{103–108}

4. CONCLUSION

In summary, we trained a highly accurate and efficient neural network potential to conduct molecular dynamics simulations, aiming to investigate the dynamic behavior of nitrogen nanobubbles under neutral, acidic, and alkaline conditions at the microscopic level. Our DPMD simulation results, which are self-consistent with theoretical models, exhibit a qualitatively similar trend of bubble dissolution with experimental observations, highlighting the limited dissolution of bulk nanobubble in alkaline conditions compared to neutral and acidic environments.^{7,48,52,53,53}

We ascertained the presence of the double-layer distribution of OH⁻ and H₃O⁺ ions near the nitrogen–water interface, which is aligned with our recent work on the air(oil)–water interface.^{63,92} In the microscopic view of molecular structures, we reveal that the shielding effect of hypercoordinated solvation of OH⁻ ions limits the diffusive outflow of N₂ molecules, while H₃O⁺ ions enriched closely at the nanobubble surface in an orderly orientation induce the dissolution of N₂ nanobubbles to stabilize the system by increasing the entropy of the system and strengthening of the hydrogen bond network.

The present study, which combines deep potential molecular dynamics simulations with theoretical analysis, offers valuable insights into the effects of pH on bubble dynamics with significant implications in the fields of chemistry, biology, and engineering. Looking ahead, we anticipate that future advancements in analytical techniques, such as surface-sensitive vibrational spectroscopies,^{109,110} capable of probing different layers of the nitrogen–water interface, may provide detailed information on surface properties. We believe that integrating these techniques with our results will result in a more comprehensive understanding of the surface properties of the gas–liquid interface.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Data Availability Statement

The simulation and visualization software packages used to do the calculations are freely available. The requisite input files for replicating the research can be accessed at <https://github.com/Zhang-pchao/N2BubbleIon>.

SI Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/jacs.4c06641>.

Building data sets, DFT calculation, and DP model training, thermodynamic analysis of nanobubble stability and dynamic analysis of nanobubble dissolution, as well as other discussions and details (PDF)

Videos demonstrating the dynamic behavior of nitrogen nanobubbles under neutral, acidic, and alkaline conditions (ZIP)

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Notes

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