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Atomistic Molecular Dynamics Simulation and COSMO-SAC Approach for Enhanced 1,3-Propanediol Extraction with Imidazolium-Based Ionic Liquids

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ABSTRACT

1,3-Propanediol (1,3-PDO) holds significant industrial importance, but its eco-friendly extraction remains a challenge. To address this, we investigated the performance of four ionic liquids ([Bmim][NTF2], [Bmim][NPF2], [Bmim][SCN], and [Bmim][TFO]) via Molecular Dynamics simulations for 1,3-PDO extraction.

Analysis of radial distribution functions (RDF) and spatial distribution functions (SDF) demonstrated enhanced 1,3-PDO coordination around [Bmim][SCN], with higher density in [Bmim][SCN] and [Bmim][TFO] compared to [Bmim][NPF2] and [Bmim][NTF2]. [Bmim][TFO] and [Bmim][SCN] exhibited pronounced RDF anion peaks, indicating robust hydrogen bonding interactions and a higher concentration of 1,3-PDO around them. [Bmim][SCN] formed the highest number of hydrogen bonds (1.639) due to its coordinating [SCN]⁻ anion, which bonded with 1,3-propanediol's [OH]⁻ groups. In contrast, non-coordinating anions in [Bmim][NPF2] and [Bmim][NTF2] formed fewer hydrogen bonds. Within a ternary system, [Bmim][SCN] and [Bmim][TFO] excelled at 1,3-PDO extraction, surpassing [Bmim][NPF2] and [Bmim][NTF2] with selectivity around 29. Anion variations significantly influenced distribution coefficients and selectivity values.

COSMO-SAC, a predictive thermodynamic model, confirmed 1,3-PDO's strong interaction with [Bmim][SCN] and [Bmim][TFO]. This study enhances our understanding of IL-1,3-PDO systems and their potential in eco-friendly extraction processes. [Bmim][SCN] emerges as the most promising ionic liquid, offering insights into anion selection's role in shaping ionic liquid properties for 1,3-PDO extraction.

Keywords: 1,3-Propanediol, Ionic liquids, Molecular dynamics, COSMO-SAC

1. Introduction

1,3-Propanediol (1,3-PDO), a remarkable three-carbon dialcohol distinguished by its colourless, odourless, and viscous liquid properties, has emerged as a pivotal chemical with widespread utility across diverse sectors (1). These include pharmaceuticals, food production, and the textile industry. The compound's significance lies in its versatile applications as an intermediate compound and within these industries. One of the most useful things about 1,3-PDO is that it is a key monomer in making polypropylene terephthalate (PTT) and polyurethane (PU), which are indispensable components in contemporary material sciences. With projections indicating a market size of US \$1442.77 million by 2027 and an annual growth rate of 14.2%, the trajectory of 1,3-PDO's market expansion appears robust (2). While 1,3-PDO production has historically relied on chemical synthesis methods pioneered by Shell and Degussa (now owned by DuPont), contemporary efforts increasingly focus on harnessing biological pathways that capitalize on renewable biomass and microorganisms (3). The drawbacks of chemical methods, such as the production of toxic intermediates, harsh conditions, and expensive catalysts, are what have prompted this shift. Despite this transition, significant challenges persist, particularly in the downstream processing phase, constituting a substantial portion of the total production cost. Additionally, the intricate separation of 1,3-PDO from the fermentation broth is complicated by its high boiling point and strong hydrophilic characteristics (4). Successfully addressing these challenges is pivotal for establishing an economically viable and environmentally sustainable production process.

Efforts to refine the separation of 1,3-PDO from complex fermentation broths have encountered challenges stemming from the use of harsh chemicals and energy-intensive processes. Despite attempts to enhance efficiency with ethanol as a co-solvent, minimal enhancements were observed in the distribution coefficient of 1,3-PDO due to its intrinsic hydrophilic nature (5). While reactive extraction emerged as an innovative avenue by transforming 1,3-PDO into hydrophobic entities via chemical reactions, this approach faced obstacles such as catalyst toxicity, undesired side reactions, and reduced efficiency (6–8), separating 1,3-PDO via ultrafiltration and alcohol crystallization achieved notable impurity removal while acknowledging the energy-intensive nature and membrane pollution associated with electro dialysis (9). Silica gel chromatography demonstrated promise, but limitations in terms of adsorption capacity and resin regeneration persisted on a larger scale (10). While various methods, such as ion exchange, electro dialysis, and two-phase salting-out extraction, have been

investigated for the purification of biologically derived 1,3-PDO, these methods often suffer from issues like high material costs, energy consumption, and wastewater generation (11–14). The two-step salting-out extraction effectively separates 1,3-PDO from butyric acid in fermentation broths, promising high recoveries. However, scalability poses a significant challenge, impacting efficiency and economic feasibility at larger industrial scales (15). Enzymatic 1,3-PDO separation involves esterification and lipase-directed hydrolysis. Complex fermentation broth components cause side reactions, catalyst toxicity, and reduced efficiency. Diverse poly-alcohol analogues showed efficient separation with 96% recovery (16). Additionally, preparative chromatography, fixed-bed resin adsorption, and reactive extraction entail the use of substantial quantities of organic solvents or hazardous reactants, thereby rendering them unsuitable for large-scale industrial applications (17–19). The complex mixture of extractants, precise molar ratios, and high operating temperatures (80 °C) in the multi-alcohol synergistic extraction process for 1,3-PDO recovery present optimization challenges. Additionally, the process's extended duration and reliance on specific extractants might hinder scalability and cost-effectiveness (20). The need for a comprehensive evaluation, encompassing final purity, yield, waste handling, and cost considerations, is critical as these processes move from the lab to industry. Consequently, developing a holistic and efficient downstream process that overcomes these challenges remains a pivotal concern, and ionic liquids present a promising avenue for addressing these limitations.

The limitations of traditional methods for 1,3-PDO separation are the driving force behind our study. In response to these challenges, we focus on exploring alternative, more sustainable, and efficient separation methodologies. We are particularly drawn to investigating the potential of ionic liquids (ILs) as a viable solution. At the core of our investigation is the challenge of identifying an optimal solvent alternative for efficient 1,3-propanediol (1,3-PDO) separation. This is intricately linked to pursuing sustainable solutions in chemical processes. Ionic liquids (ILs) emerge as a promising class of compounds to address this, celebrated as "green solvents" with minimal environmental impact. Non-volatile ILs are pragmatic substitutes for both hazardous and conventionally volatile solvents, diminishing emissions and fostering cost-effective processes. Within this context, ILs offer the transformative potential for 1,3-PDO separation. Their unique attributes, tunable chemical structures, and physicochemical properties enable selective compound extraction (21). Certain ILs hold promise for efficient isolation from

fermentation broths. Several studies have explored the capacity of imidazolium-based ILs for separating components from mixtures (22–32). Alkyl-imidazolium (Im₄)-based ILs with the [NTF2]⁻ anion demonstrated diverse hydrophobicity levels, and this hydrophobicity correlated linearly with butanol distribution, with 1-butanol distribution coefficients ranging from 1.10 to 1.90 in aqueous solutions, affirming their proficiency in butanol extraction (33–35). This finding reinforced the established correlation between the length of alkyl chains and hydrophobicity in ILs, specifically those involved in forming aqueous biphasic systems (ABS). As highlighted in prior research, various ionic liquids were shown to form effective ABS system (phosphate/Im_{4,1}-CF₃SO₃/water) for 1,3-propanediol extraction. Distribution coefficients ranging from 1.5 to 27.7 indicated a preference for accumulation of 1,3-PDO in the ionic liquid-rich phase. This phenomenon was influenced by the polarity and hydrogen-bond accepting strength of the anion or cation, with the anion exerting a more significant influence than the cation (36). Dicyanamide [DCA]⁻ based ILs demonstrated effective extraction of isopropanol (IPA) from di-isopropyl ether (DIPE), isopropyl alcohol (IPA) and IL mixtures (37). Another investigation focused on ILs with ethyl alkyl chains, revealing that [SCN]⁻ anion based ILs displayed enhanced selectivity for alcohol extraction compared to [TFO]⁻ based ILs (38). Additionally, research examined imidazolium-based ILs with varying alkyl chain lengths and the [NTF2]⁻ for separating water and propanol mixtures. Findings indicated that [NTF2]⁻ based ILs exhibited higher extraction efficiency, with a correlation between alkyl chain length and extraction ability. Longer alkyl chains were associated with increased ionic liquid (IL) viscosity. Considering these insights, a study explored butyl imidazolium-based ILs containing [SCN]⁻, [DCA]⁻, and [NTF2]⁻ for targeted separations (39,40). The miscibility of ILs was demonstrated to be anion-specific, and for diols, the observed sequence was as follows: [BF₄]⁻ > [NTF2]⁻ > [PF₆]⁻ (41).

Although many different ILs can be manufactured for use in many different contexts, choosing among them sometimes requires lengthy, challenging, and costly experimental techniques. Classical MD simulation decodes experimentally elusive processes, navigating extremes in conditions and time scales. Economical and nanosecond-precise, it unveils atomic-level phenomena via trajectory analysis, exposing changes unseen by conventional instruments. The answers to fundamental molecular issues and new solvents can be found by molecular dynamics (MD) simulations. Researchers have used quantum chemistry and MD simulations to learn more about the hydrogen bonding in alcohols by examining the correlation between microstructure and

macroperformance (42). To better understand the extraction process and to determine the optimal IL, MD modeling was used to explore the local structures of three distinct imidazole IL-MeOH-NHA (methanol-hexane) systems. MeOH and NHA extraction employing ILs, diffusion, and structural features determined from MD phase equilibrium data showed a discrepancy of less than 8% from experimental data (43). MD simulations of the deep eutectic solvent (DES), water, and nitenpyram ternary system showed promising results that matched experimental literature (44). Several aqueous component extraction methods have been documented using MD simulation (45–47).

Lin and Sandler introduced the COSMO-SAC (COSMO-Segment Activity Coefficient) model as a novel activity coefficient model, building upon the COSMO-RS (48) and COSMO models, and further proposing a fragment coefficient activity model (COSMO-SAC) (49). The COSMO-SAC model predicts essential thermodynamic properties like activity coefficients and phase balances for pure fluids or mixtures without experimental data, using quantum chemical calculations (50,51). At its core, σ -profiles, derived through quantum calculations, describe molecular interactions with solvents (52). They reveal intricate donor-acceptor relationships, particularly in hydrogen bonding, providing a fundamental basis for predicting thermodynamic properties accurately (53). This knowledge improves our understanding of molecular behavior in solvents and enhances predictions of partition coefficients, activity coefficients, and phase balances in various chemical systems. Shah et al. (54) applied the COSMO-SAC model to predict liquid-liquid equilibria (LLE) in biofuel production and bio-alcohol extraction using ionic liquids. The model exhibited reasonable performance for systems involving methyl oleate, methanol, glycerol, and methyl laurate, ethanol, glycerol. Xu et al. (55) utilized the COSMO-SAC model to screen ionic liquids for coal tar oil fraction extraction, which contributed to the concept of separating coal tar fractions.

Meanwhile, Bharti et al. (56) employed the COSMO-SAC model for phase equilibria predictions. Their results showed that the model performed well for organic solvent-based systems with a rmsd below 8.00%, while it exhibited less accuracy with a rmsd between 16.81 and 18.53% for ionic liquid-based systems. This suggests that the COSMO-SAC model is more reliable in predicting systems without ionic liquids.

In this research, our primary approach involved the integration MD simulations and quantum chemical calculations (COSMO-SAC). By using this integrated approach, we aimed to elucidate

the intricate interactions and mechanisms governing the separation process, ultimately providing a thorough understanding of how anions within ionic liquids influence the efficiency of 1,3-PDO separation. Molecular Dynamics simulations were employed to investigate the interactions and performance of four distinct ionic liquids ([Bmim][NTF2], [Bmim][NPF2], [Bmim][SCN], and [Bmim][TFO]) as potential extraction agents for 1,3-propanediol (1,3-PDO). The fundamental objective of this computational study is to learn about the molecular-level behaviors and interactions of these molecules without resorting to actual experiments. We investigated the structural and dynamic interplay between imidazolium-based ILs and 1,3-propanediol (1,3-PDO) using molecular dynamics simulations. Subsequently, σ -profiles were generated via the COSMO-SAC model, allowing for the examination of hydrogen bond donor and acceptor relationships to verify their impact on the system. Our research aimed better to understand the complex molecular behaviors inside this system, ultimately leading to improved separation techniques and more environmentally friendly chemical engineering solutions. We evaluated the effectiveness of these ionic liquids in establishing interactions with 1,3-PDO and identified the most favorable candidate for potential applications. The key elements of our analysis within our investigation are listed in Table 1.

2. Methodology

2.1. Force field:

The OPLS-AA (optimized Potentials for Liquid Simulations-All Atom) force field has been widely utilized to simulate imidazolium-based ionic liquids, including those containing 1,3-propanediol (1,3-PDO). The OPLS-AA force field calculates the total energy of a molecular system by summing individual intra- and intermolecular energy terms (57). The harmonic potential was used to describe bond stretching and angle bending, while the OPLS force field was employed to model dihedral torsions. The total energy in the OPLS-AA force field is given by equation 5.

$$E_{\text{Bonds}} = \sum_{\text{bonds}} K_{\text{b},i} (\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_{\text{o},i})^2 \quad (1)$$

$$E_{\text{Angles}} = \sum_{\text{Angles}} K_{\theta,i} (\theta_i - \theta_{\text{o},i})^2 \quad (2)$$

$$E_{\text{Dihedrals}} = \sum_{\text{Dihedrals}} \left[\frac{1}{2} V_{1,i} (1 + \cos \phi) + \frac{1}{2} V_{2,i} (1 - \cos 2\phi) \right. \\ \left. + \frac{1}{2} V_{3,i} (1 - \cos 3\phi) + \frac{1}{2} V_{4,i} (1 - \cos 4\phi) \right] \quad (3)$$

$$E_{\text{Nonbonded}} = \sum_i \sum_{j>1} \left\{ \frac{q_i q_j e^2}{r_{ij}} + 4\epsilon_{ij} \left[\left(\frac{\sigma_{ij}}{r_{ij}} \right)^{12} - \left(\frac{\sigma_{ij}}{r_{ij}} \right)^6 \right] \right\} \quad (4)$$

$$E_{\text{Total}} = E_{\text{Bonds}} + E_{\text{Angles}} + E_{\text{Dihedrals}} + E_{\text{Nonbonded}} \quad (5)$$

The equation (4) accounts for electrostatic and nonbonded interactions between atoms. The electrostatic energy is calculated using Coulomb's law, considering the partial atomic charges ($q_i q_j$), interatomic separation (r), and the dielectric permittivity constant for vacuum (ϵ_0) whereas nonbonded interactions are calculated by the 12-6 Lennard-Jones potential and depends on the interatomic separation (r), energy well depth (ϵ), and interatomic separation at zero potential (σ).

In the case of imidazolium-based ionic liquids, the OPLS-AA force field parameters has been taken from Doherty et al. (58) which is based on the OPLS frameworks with some minor modifications. This refined force field has been shown to accurately capture the properties of imidazolium-based ionic liquids. For 1,3-PDO molecule, the force field parameters were assigned using the Ligpargen web server using 1.14*CM1A charge models (59), a tool specifically designed for parameterizing small organic molecules within the OPLS-AA force field framework (60,61). The force field parameters for the Tip3P (transferable intermolecular potential 3P) water model were selected to ensure the correct density (62), with no consideration given to charge scaling.

2.2. Simulation details:

A total of 350 ion pairs of ionic liquid (ILs) and 350 molecules of 1,3-PDO were packed using the PACKMOL software to create the initial system configuration (63). Figure 1 shows the chemical structures of the components along with the atom types used in this work. The simulation was performed using LAMMPS software (LAMMPS-64bit-8Feb2023.exe) (64). The simulation was conducted by employing the "full" atom style in a three-dimensional (3D) space with periodic boundary conditions in all dimensions. The intermolecular interactions were

modelled using the Lennard-Jones (LJ) potential with a cutoff of 13.0 Å, incorporating tail correction and geometric mixing rules. The equations of motion were integrated numerically using the velocity-Verlet algorithm with a time step of 1.0 fs. The LINCS algorithm was used to constrain covalent bonds to hydrogen atoms, maintaining their stability throughout the simulation (65). For long-range electrostatic interactions, the PPPM (Particle-Particle Particle-Mesh) method was employed (66). To control the temperature and pressure during the NPT simulation, the Nose-Hoover thermostat (67,68) and Parinello-Rahman barostat (69) were employed. The Nose-Hoover thermostat rescaled the velocities of the atoms to maintain a constant temperature, while the barostat adjusted the simulation box volume to keep the pressure constant at 1 atm. Prior to the simulation, the system was minimised using the steepest descent algorithm to optimise the initial configuration. Initial velocities were assigned to all atoms according to a Gaussian distribution at the specified temperature to ensure a realistic starting state for the simulation. The simulation process involved successive NPT ensemble simulations. During the subsequent simulation, the temperature is systematically raised from 298 K to 600 K over the course of a 2 ns run. This gradual increase allows the system to equilibrate at the elevated temperature while keeping the pressure constant. Initially, the system was equilibrated at 600 K for a duration of 2 ns. This was followed by an NPT simulation where the temperature was gradually reduced from 600 K to 298 K over a period of 2 ns. This temperature annealing process ensures proper mixing of the ionic liquid and is essential for achieving equilibrium in viscous systems.

Following the equilibration process, a production run was conducted for 12 ns in the NPT ensemble at a temperature of 298 K and a pressure of 1 atm for the estimation of density. To ensure comprehensive analysis, the simulation was extended to capture sufficient system sampling. The radial distribution functions (RDF) and spatial distribution functions (SDF) were extensively examined to gain insights into molecules spatial arrangement and distribution within the system. The analysis involves simulation over a period of 30 ns, ensuring a comprehensive exploration of particle dynamics. The TRAVIS program was used for SDF analysis (70). The correct isovalue was chosen so that the SDF could be viewed in all three dimensions. The number of hydrogen bonds was analysed using VMD to provide insights into the nature and strength of interactions between the ionic liquids and 1,3-PDO, offering valuable information on the stability and potential for efficient interactions (71).

In the context of 1,3-PDO extraction, molecular dynamics were done for water-ILs-1,3-PDO ternary systems to simulate the extraction process as closely as possible to experimental conditions. Due to computational constraints, replicating the exact number of experimental molecules wasn't feasible. Consequently, our simulated system comprises a 1:1 mass ratio between ILs and aqueous mixture, with an initial presence of 20% 1,3-PDO molecules in the aqueous phase. The TiP3P water model was employed for this simulation. Table 2 provides a summary of the number of ion pairs of ionic liquids (ILs), 1,3-propanediol (1,3-PDO), and water molecules utilized in our study. The simulation box dimensions measure 170 x 70 x 70 Å. Specifically, the ILs occupy the region from 0 to 70 Å, while the mixture of 1,3-PDO and water molecules is confined within the box spanning from 70 to 170 Å. The construction of this solvation box was meticulously executed using the PACKMOL software. The SHAKE algorithm was applied in the TiP3P water model to maintain bond lengths during the simulation (72). The system, under periodic boundary conditions (PBC), commenced its equilibration process at an initial temperature of 5 K. Subsequently, the water box was equilibrated at temperatures of 10 K, 100 K, 150 K, 200 K, and 300 K before reaching a final equilibration at 400 K. A timestep of 0.5 fs was employed, and the system was run for 1 ns at each temperature. Following the successful equilibration process, the system was gradually cooled down to a target temperature of 298 K. At this temperature, a production run lasting 30 ns was conducted under the NPT ensemble conditions (73).

2.3. Quantum chemical predictions using COSMO-SAC:

The quantum chemical-based conductor like screening model-segment activity coefficient (COSMO-SAC) was used to predict the infinite dilution activity coefficient of 1,3-PDO in ILs (74–77). The computational procedure for the COSMO-SAC calculations involved several key steps which are discussed below. The molecular structures of the molecules of interest, such as 1,3-PDO, [BMIM][SCN], [BMIM][TFO], [BMIM][NTF2], and [BMIM][NPF2], were initially drawn using the Avogadro (version 1.2.0), an open-source molecular builder and visualization tool (78). To optimize these molecular structures, the Gaussian16 computational package was employed (79). The optimization utilized the B3LYP (Becke 3-parameter hybrid functional combined with the Lee-Yang-Parr correlation) theory and the 6-311++g (d, p) basis set (80–82). Additionally, frequency calculations were carried out to ensure that the optimized structures

corresponded to energy minima. Upon satisfactory geometry optimization, the COSMO files were generated for each molecule using Gaussian16. This was accomplished by applying the BVP86/TZVP/DGA1 level of theory and basis set (83). The "scrf=COSMORS" keyword was integrated into the calculations to indicate the use of the COSMO solvation model. The generated COSMO files were then utilized as inputs for the COSMOSAC software (84). COSMOSAC is open-source software that implements COSMO-SAC models using a combination of C++ and Python. This software took the provided COSMO files as input and computed sigma profiles, which characterize the electrostatic interactions between solute molecules and solvent environments. Subsequently, the sigma profiles obtained from the COSMOSAC calculations were once again employed as input for the COSMOSAC software. Through this step, the software facilitated the calculation of the infinite dilution activity coefficient of 1,3-propanediol in the ionic liquids under investigation.

3. Results and Discussions:

3.1. Molecular dynamics simulation:

3.1.1. Experimental validation:

Before studying the binary and ternary systems, the density of pure components involved in the present work was estimated to validate the force field parameters and then compared with the reported experimental and simulation data (85–89). Table 3 presents the estimated density values for the various systems, while Figure S6 provides a visual representation of the density profiles over 12ns simulation. The simulated densities of the pure systems were compared to experimental values using charge scaling factors of ± 0.8 and ± 1.0 . The average absolute relative deviation (AARD) analysis indicated that the ± 0.8 scaling factor produced a low relative deviation, with an AARD of 0.51%. Conversely, the ± 1.0 scaling factor resulted in a slightly higher relative deviation, with an AARD of 3.05%. These results highlight the superior accuracy of the ± 0.8 scaling factor in estimating the densities compared to the ± 1.0 scaling factor for the components involved in the present study. The absolute relative deviation for 1,3-PDO is less than 2% while for pure ILs the variation is less than 0.3% for ± 0.8 charge scaling factor. Further, the RDF and SDF of pure ILs were evaluated, as shown in Figure S7-13.

3.1.2. Structural analysis:

In the analysis of the system structure, the RDF and SDF were examined to study the interactions between the ILs and 1,3-PDO. These distribution functions provided insights into the spatial arrangement and density distribution of molecules, revealing the nature and strength of interactions between ILs and 1,3-PDO. The RDF is a statistical tool used to analyze the spatial arrangement of 1,3-PDO particles in a system of ILs-1,3-PDO. Equation 6 describes this function.

$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{\langle \rho(\mathbf{r}) \rangle}{\rho} \quad (6)$$

Where, $\rho(\mathbf{r})$ is the number density of particles at distance "r", and ρ is the overall number density of particles in the system. It quantifies the probability of finding a particle at a certain distance from a reference particle. This approach enables us to gain insights into particle distribution patterns and interactions, contributing to a deeper understanding of the behavior of the system under study. The coordination number (CN) is calculated by integrating the radial distribution function ($g(r)$) up to the position of the first solvation shell, which is identified by the first local minimum in the $g(r)$ curve.

$$\mathbf{CN} = 4\pi\rho \int_0^{R_{\min}} r^2 g(r) dr \quad (7)$$

Where, $4\pi r^2 dr$ is Volume element in a spherical shell, $\int_0^{R_{\min}}$, Integral over the range of distances from 0 to R_{\min} , r^2 is radial distance squared, $g(r)$ is radial distribution function, dr is differential element of distance (90). This method provides a quantitative measure of the particles arrangement and interactions in the system. These RDF analyses showed how molecules were spread out in space and how often and how close certain atoms or groups in the ILs and 1,3-PDO interacted with each other. The outcomes of these analyses, which considered the center of mass of the cations and anions, and the position of carbon (Cc) in 1,3-PDO molecules as reference points to calculate distances, are visually represented in Figure 2. This figure showcases the molecular dynamic simulations involving the ILs and 1,3-PDO at a temperature of 298 K. Furthermore, the data is shown in Table 4.

The analysis of interactions in [Bmim][NPF2] between the anion ([NPF2]⁻) and 1,3-PDO, as well as the cation ([Bmim]⁺) and 1,3-PDO, unveiled intriguing insights as shown in Figure 2a. RDF analysis identified a peak at 5.60 Å, indicating the most probable distance between the [NPF2]⁻ anion and 1,3-PDO. With a peak value of 1.50 indicating a moderate likelihood of finding 1,3-

PDO molecules around the [NPF2] anion, the coordination number of 2.80 suggests the presence of approximately 2.80 1,3-PDO molecules in the first solvation shell. In contrast, ([Bmim]⁺) displayed a lower coordination number and a smaller first solvation shell, suggesting a weaker interaction with 1,3-PDO. In the MD simulation of [Bmim][NTF2] as depicted in Figure 2b, the analysis of interactions with 1,3-PDO revealed a peak at 6.57 Å for the [NTF2]⁻-1,3-PDO interaction. The coordination number of 3.28 suggests the presence of approximately 3.28 1,3-PDO molecules within the first solvation shell. In the [Bmim]⁺-1,3-PDO interaction, the RDF peak at 5.00 Å, with a peak value of 1.56, indicated the likelihood of finding 1,3-PDO molecules around the [Bmim] cation. A coordination number of 2.78 suggest, 2.78 1,3-PDO molecules in the first solvation shell. The anion ([NTF2]⁻) and cation ([Bmim]⁺) of [Bmim][NTF2] demonstrate higher coordination numbers and larger first solvation shells than [Bmim][NPF2], suggesting stronger and more favorable interactions with 1,3-PDO.

Figure 2c, shows that the interaction between [Bmim][SCN] and 1,3-PDO occurs on two different coordination shells. Due to the loose packing of particles in liquids, multiple such coordination layers are possible (91). The distance between the [SCN]⁻ and the 1,3-PDO was calculated using the RDF and found to be around 7.08 Å. In addition, the coordination number was around 6.12. Similarly, we observed that the most likely distance between the [Bmim]⁺ and 1,3-PDO molecules was around 5.26 Å, with a peak value of 1.6 indicating the likelihood of finding 1,3-PDO molecules near the [Bmim]⁺. Coordination number was about 7.00, so there were roughly seven 1,3-PDO molecules within a few nanometers of each [Bmim]⁺. Figure 2d illustrates the interactions between the anion ([TFO]⁻) of the IL [Bmim][TFO] and 1,3-PDO, as well as between the cation ([Bmim]⁺) of the IL and 1,3-PDO. The RDF analysis revealed that the RDF peak for the [TFO]⁻-1,3-PDO interaction occurs at a distance of 5.40 Å, with a peak value of 1.60 and a coordination number of 3.56. For the [Bmim]⁺-1,3-PDO interaction, the RDF peak occurs at a distance of 5.78 Å, with a higher peak value of 2.08 and coordination number of 3.33. Both the anion ([SCN]⁻) and cation ([Bmim]⁺) of [Bmim][SCN] exhibit notably higher coordination numbers than other ILs, indicating stronger interactions with a greater presence of 1,3-PDO molecules. [Bmim][SCN] stands out with a coordination number of 6.12 for [SCN]⁻ and 7.0 for [Bmim]⁺, highlighting a stronger interaction and a larger concentration of 1,3-PDO molecules. A higher coordination number suggests that more solvent molecules are surrounding the ion, indicating a stronger interaction, contributing to a stable and well-solvated system.

The spatial distribution function analyses, SDFs, were carried out to obtain detailed information on the molecular structure of 1,3-PDO and ILs at 298 K. The SDFs indicated the average density distribution of the 1,3-PDO around cation and anion as a reference in the ILs, as shown in Figure 3a-d. Our investigation involved analyzing the SDF of 1,3-PDO around the ILs [Bmim][NPF2], [Bmim][NTF2], [Bmim][SCN], and [Bmim][TFO], which yielded significant insights into their solvation behavior. The iso-value for anions is set at 4, whereas for cations, it is set at 3. Among the ILs studied, [Bmim][SCN] demonstrated the highest distribution of 1,3-PDO, exhibiting a strong solvation preference around both the cation [Bmim]⁺ and the anion [SCN]⁻. Additionally, [Bmim][TFO] displayed the second highest distribution of 1,3-PDO, followed by [Bmim][NTF2] and further, [Bmim][NPF2], which exhibited the least distribution.

The observed variations in 1,3-PDO distribution around different ILs underscore the significant influence of the anions on the solvation behavior. The [SCN]⁻ in [Bmim][SCN] seems to create a favorable solvation environment, leading to higher 1,3-PDO distribution around both the cation and anion. Similarly, the [TFO]⁻ in [Bmim][TFO] appears to play a crucial role in enhancing the solvation preference around the cation [Bmim]⁺. In contrast, the [NPF2]⁻ in [Bmim][NPF2] contributes to a less favorable solvation environment, resulting in the lowest 1,3-PDO distribution among the ILs studied. These findings highlight the pivotal role of anions in influencing the solvation behavior of 1,3-PDO and offer valuable insights into the interplay between cations and anions in ILs. Understanding these interactions is crucial for rationalizing the selection and design of ILs for diverse applications, where solvation plays a pivotal role. These findings suggest that [Bmim][SCN] exhibits the strongest interactions and preferences for 1,3-PDO, highlighting its potential as an efficient solvent for 1,3-PDO-related applications.

In addition to studying the distribution of 1,3-PDO around different ILs, we also investigated the distribution of ILs around 1,3-PDO as shown in Figure S14a-d. The isovalue for the anions and cations was set at 2.7 times the reference density. Interestingly, we found that the distribution of ILs around 1,3-PDO exhibited notable variations depending on the specific IL considered. The distribution of ILs around 1,3-PDO provides valuable information about the mutual interactions between the IL and 1,3-PDO. Among the ILs studied, [Bmim][SCN] showed a relatively high distribution around 1,3-PDO, indicating a stronger preference for solvating 1,3-PDO molecules. This finding suggests favorable interactions between [Bmim][SCN] and 1,3-PDO, leading to a higher density of IL in proximity to 1,3-PDO. Similarly, [Bmim][TFO] also displayed a

significant distribution around 1,3-PDO, indicating a favorable solvation behavior. On the other hand, [Bmim][NPF2] exhibited a lower distribution around 1,3-PDO, suggesting weaker solvation interactions. The differences in the distribution of ILs around 1,3-PDO reveal varying affinities and interactions between ILs and the 1,3-PDO, underscoring the importance of the IL's specific chemical structure in influencing mutual solvation.

Overall, studying how ILs are distributed around 1,3-PDO adds to our analysis and helps us learn more about how ILs and 1,3-PDO interact when they come into contact with each other. The mutual solvation behavior between 1,3-PDO and the studied ILs varied significantly. [Bmim][SCN] exhibited the strongest density around 1,3-PDO, followed by [Bmim][TFO], [Bmim][NTF2], and [Bmim][NPF2], indicating distinct affinities and interactions.

3.1.3. Comparative SDF and RDF analysis of ionic liquid interactions with 1,3-propanediol:

The meticulous exploration of the interactions between 1,3-PDO and four distinct ILs - [Bmim][NPF2], [Bmim][NTF2], [Bmim][SCN], and [Bmim][TFO], through both RDF and SDF analyses unveils essential insights into the nature, strength, and distinctiveness of these interactions, facilitating the identification of the IL that establishes the most favorable interactions for potential applications.

The SDF analysis of [Bmim][NPF2] as shown in Figure 4a-d, reveals potential interactions, with intensified density around the anion's oxygen atom and concentrated density around a hydrogen atom of 1,3-PDO's hydroxyl group, suggesting hydrogen bonding. The distribution of [Bmim]⁺ around the oxygen atom of 1,3-PDO's hydroxyl group provides further evidence of potential hydrogen bonding interactions. In Figure 4e, RDF analysis highlights significant peaks between [Bmim]⁺ hydrogen and 1,3-PDO oxygen (CN: 0.35) and [NPF2]⁻ nitrogen and 1,3-PDO hydrogen (CN: 0.76), indicating potential hydrogen bonding. Additional peaks involving [N] of cation & [O] of 1,3-PDO and [H] of cation & [O] of 1,3-PDO affirm interaction stability. The combined insights from SDF and RDF analyses strongly suggest the presence of hydrogen bonding interactions between [Bmim][NPF2] and 1,3-PDO.

Moving to [Bmim][NTF2] as depicted in Figure S15a-d, the SDF analysis echoes the patterns observed in [Bmim][NPF2]. Akin to the previous IL, the density distribution around the anion's oxygen atom indicates attractive forces that may involve hydrogen bonding. The cation's presence around the oxygen atom of 1,3-PDO and the anion's presence around 1,3-PDO's

hydroxyl group hydrogen atom suggest potential hydrogen bonding interactions, mirroring the observations in [Bmim][NPF2]. The denser distribution of 1,3-PDO around both the cation and anion in [Bmim][NTF2], in comparison to [Bmim][NPF2], points to more favorable interactions. Figure S15e depicts the RDF analysis, affirms relatively stable interactions between specific atom pairs, although the absence of sharp peaks implies less specificity.

In [Bmim][SCN], SDF analysis as illustrated in Figure 5a-d, reveals widespread 1,3-PDO density, showcasing diverse interactions beyond the 1,3-PDO's hydroxyl group hydrogen, encompassing various hydrogen atoms. [Bmim]⁺ cations are distributed along the alkyl chain, and their significant presence around 1,3-PDO's oxygen suggests potential hydrogen bonding. As shown in Figure 5e, the RDF analysis emphasizes robust interactions, with peaks between [SCN]⁻ nitrogen, sulfur, and carbon atoms, and 1,3-PDO's hydrogen atoms indicating strong hydrogen bonding. These observations, combined with the [Bmim]⁺ distribution and the diverse interaction landscape, highlight [Bmim][SCN]'s unique potential for forming versatile and stable interactions with 1,3-PDO. Similarly, a peak with a height of 6, CN of 0.51, and a first solvation shell at 2.78 Å between [SCN]⁻ sulfur and 1,3-PDO's hydroxyl group hydrogen suggests a stable interaction. Another peak, with a height of 4, CN of 0.92, and a first solvation shell at 4.40 Å between [SCN]⁻ carbon and 1,3-PDO's hydroxyl group hydrogen, points to a significant interaction. Examining the cationic portion, a peak with a height of 1.80, CN of 1.80, and a first solvation shell at 6 Å between [Bmim] cation nitrogen and 1,3-PDO's oxygen indicates a stable interaction, likely involving hydrogen bonding between the nitrogen atom of the cation and the oxygen atom of 1,3-PDO. Compared to other ILs, [Bmim][SCN] stands out for its unique features, showcasing profound peaks at various atom pairs involving [SCN]⁻ and 1,3-PDO, highlighting versatile hydrogen bonding capabilities. The broader range of interactions involving [SCN]⁻ anion and various hydrogen atoms of 1,3-PDO, along with the presence of [Bmim] cations along the alkyl chain, illustrates a more dispersed and complex interaction landscape in this system. Figure 6a-d provides a clear illustration of the interaction dynamics occurring within the [Bmim][TFO] system, the SDF analysis emphasizes the density of 1,3-PDO around the oxygen atom of the [TFO]⁻ anion, indicating strong attraction between these two components. Furthermore, the density distribution of 1,3-PDO around various hydrogen atoms of the [Bmim] cation, with a concentration around the hydrogen atom on the [Bmim] ring, underscores the potential for hydrogen bonding interactions. The RDF analysis for [Bmim][TFO] reveals distinct

interaction patterns compared to the other studied ILs. Peaks between specific atoms of the [TFO] anion and the hydrogen atoms of 1,3-PDO exhibit notable characteristics (Figure 6e). The oxygen and sulfur atoms of the [TFO]⁻ show strong RDF peaks with heights of 6.00, suggesting robust hydrogen bonding interactions. This signifies the presence of well-defined hydrogen bonds that may contribute to a stable interaction. Conversely, the fluorine atom of the [TFO]⁻ and the hydrogen atom of 1,3-PDO exhibit broader and smaller RDF peaks, possibly indicating a broader range of interactions or a more transient hydrogen bonding network. Additionally, in the cation portion, the RDF peaks involving the hydrogen atom on the [Bmim] ring and the oxygen atom of 1,3-PDO show a smaller peak height at 1.80, albeit with a moderate CN of 0.51. On the other hand, the RDF peak between the nitrogen atom at the center of the [Bmim] ring and the oxygen atom of 1,3-PDO displays a peak height of 1.80, with a CN of 1.75.

In summary, a comparative analysis of RDF and SDF data reveals intricate interactions between 1,3-PDO and the selected ionic liquids (ILs). [Bmim][TFO] and [Bmim][SCN] exhibit stronger RDF anion peaks than [Bmim][NPF₂] and [Bmim][NTF₂], emphasizing the significant role of their anions ([TFO]⁻ and [SCN]⁻) in influencing interactions with 1,3-PDO. The intensified RDF anion peaks suggest more significant hydrogen bonding interactions between the anions and 1,3-PDO. Conversely, weaker cation peaks hint at relatively less prominent cationic interactions. This dynamic interplay underscores the delicate equilibrium between interaction strength and stability, with anions showcasing potent yet potentially less stable interactions, while cations engage in more stable but comparatively weaker interactions. The correlation function between nitrogen in thiocyanate and hydrogen in propanediol shows a narrow initial peak that drops virtually to zero for mixes, as seen in Figure 5e. Due to the persistent formation of hydrogen bonds between the N group in [Bmim][SCN] and 1,3-PDO, the number of closest hydrogen neighbors surrounding a nitrogen atom exhibits a highly distinct step-wise pattern, with a stable plateau at a value of 0.63 in pure liquid systems. As seen in Figure 6e, the sulphur of trifluoromethanesulfonate and hydrogen of 1,3-PDO exhibit a similar pattern for the first peak, confirming its role in hydrogen bonding (92).

This study accentuates the dynamic nature of hydrogen bonding within IL-1,3-PDO interactions. Both [Bmim][TFO] and [Bmim][SCN] stand out with stronger RDF anion peaks, underscoring their substantial influence on these interactions (93). The versatile hydrogen bonding dynamics between anions and 1,3-PDO, coupled with more stable yet comparatively weaker cationic

interactions, deepens our understanding of the intricate balance in IL-1,3-PDO systems, contributing to their potential applications.

3.1.4. Hydrogen bond analysis:

In our research study, we investigated the intriguing hydrogen bonding interactions between 1,3-PDO and four different ILs: [Bmim][NPF₂], [Bmim][NTF₂], [Bmim][SCN], and [Bmim][TFO]. These interactions play a pivotal role in understanding the behavior and properties of these mixtures, especially considering the molar ratio of 1:1 for ILs and 1,3-PDO. Calculating the number of hydrogen bonds between the cation and anion of the ILs with 1,3-PDO serves as a quantitative validation of the interactions observed through RDF and SDF analyses. It acts as a bridge between qualitative observations and quantitative data, helping to eliminate uncertainties in interpretation. By counting hydrogen bonds, we can conclusively determine which IL shows more favorable interactions with 1,3-PDO and provides a clearer picture of their potential applications. Hydrogen bond estimates are consistent with previously described geometric criteria (94,95). Insights from Figures 4-6 of the RDF were used to determine a cutoff donor-acceptor distance of 3.5 Å and an angle cutoff of 30°, as guided by the findings presented by Pethes et al. (96).

The bar graph in Figure 7 showcases the average number of hydrogen bonds formed between ILs and 1,3-PDO molecules, represented by the orange bars, as well as the number of hydrogen bonds formed between the anions of ILs and 1,3-PDO per 1,3-PDO molecule, represented by the green bars. The data highlights the role of both ILs and their anions in influencing the strength and nature of hydrogen bonding interactions with 1,3-PDO, providing insights into the behavior and properties of these mixtures for potential applications in green chemistry and sustainable technologies. Hydrogen bonding occurs when the [OH]⁻ groups in 1,3-PDO form connections with charged species present in the ionic liquids, such as anions or cations. The total number of hydrogen bonds indicated the overall strength of interactions between the ionic liquids and 1,3-PDO, while the number of hydrogen bonds per 1,3-PDO molecule with the anions showcased the specific contributions of the anions to these interactions. [Bmim][NPF₂] and [Bmim][NTF₂], with their respective non-coordinating anions, displayed slightly lower total hydrogen bond numbers (0.654 and 0.952, respectively). Both [Bmim][NPF₂] and [Bmim][NTF₂] have non-coordinating anions, [NPF₂]⁻, and [NTF₂]⁻, respectively. The non-coordinating nature of these

anions means they may not form strong hydrogen bonds with 1,3-PDO. The number of hydrogen bonds between the anions of these ionic liquids and 1,3-PDO per 1,3-PDO molecule is relatively lower (0.604 for [Bmim][NPF₂]⁻ and 0.872 for [Bmim][NTF₂]⁻). The weaker hydrogen bonding interaction contributes to a less pronounced influence on the behavior and properties of the mixtures compared to other ionic liquids. Notably, [Bmim][SCN]⁻ exhibited the highest total number of hydrogen bonds (1.639) with 1,3-PDO, indicating a relatively stronger interaction. [Bmim][SCN]⁻ contains the anion [SCN]⁻, which has a sulfur atom capable of forming hydrogen bonds with the [OH]⁻ groups of 1,3-PDO(97). This unique hydrogen bonding interaction leads to a higher number of hydrogen bonds between the anion and 1,3-PDO per 1,3-PDO molecule (1.548). The presence of this stronger hydrogen bonding interaction significantly influences the behavior and properties of the mixtures. Similarly, [Bmim][TFO]⁻ showcased a considerable total number of hydrogen bonds (1.331) with 1,3-PDO. The [TFO]⁻ anion, a trifluoromethanesulfonate ion, contains fluorine atoms capable of forming hydrogen bonds with the [OH]⁻ groups of 1,3-PDO. This results in a considerable number of hydrogen bonds between the anion and 1,3-PDO per 1,3-PDO molecule (1.309). These findings highlight the remarkable role of anions in mediating hydrogen bond formation between the ionic liquids and 1,3-PDO. The specific interactions between the anions and 1,3-PDO are key determinants in shaping the overall behavior and properties of these mixtures, rendering them highly versatile and potentially suitable for various applications. The presence of different anions in ionic liquids affects the interaction with 1,3-PDO in various ways. Non-coordinating anions like [NPF₂]⁻ and [NTF₂]⁻ result in weaker hydrogen bonding interactions. On the other hand, anions with electronegative atoms like [SCN]⁻ and [TFO]⁻ form stronger hydrogen bonds with the [OH]⁻ groups of 1,3-PDO, leading to enhanced stability and solubility of the mixtures. The selection of the anion significantly influences its impact associated with the anion's capacity to engage in hydrogen bonding (98). Understanding these anion-driven interactions is crucial for tailoring the performance and functionality of ionic liquid mixtures for diverse industrial processes, where the strength and nature of hydrogen bonds play a vital role.

3.1.5. Extraction of 1,3-PDO from aqueous phase to IL phase:

MD simulation was carried out to study the extraction of 1,3-PDO from the aqueous phase (raffinate phase) to IL phase (extract phase). Table S12 shows the distribution of molecules

between the extract and raffinate phases. Table 5 shows the mole fraction of components in the extract and raffinate phases. The extraction capability of a solvent are generally expressed in terms of distribution co-efficient (β) and selectivity (S) which are defined by the following expressions:

$$\beta = \frac{x_{PDO}^E}{x_{PDO}^R} \quad (8)$$

$$S = \frac{x_{PDO}^E/x_{PDO}^R}{x_{Water}^E/x_{Water}^R} \quad (9)$$

where x_{PDO}^E is the mole fraction of 1,3-PDO in extract phase and x_{PDO}^R is the mole fraction of 1,3-PDO in raffinate aqueous phase. x_{water}^E and x_{water}^R are the mole fraction of water in extract and raffinate respectively.

The distribution coefficient provides a quantification of the solutes' preference for each phase involved in the separation. It is desirable for the distribution coefficient of a solute to be sufficiently high, reducing the need for a higher solvent to feed ratio. The distribution coefficient of 1,3-PDO were in the range of 1-2 for [Bmim][NPF2] and [Bmim][NTF2] while for [Bmim][SCN] and [Bmim][TFO] were in the range of 12-15. It suggests 1,3-PDO can be extracted efficiently from the aqueous phase using [Bmim][SCN] and [Bmim][TFO]. The selectivity must be greater than unity for a useful extraction of solute using a solvent. The selectivity was in the range of 1.15 – 2.29 with [Bmim][NPF2] and [Bmim][NTF2] while it approximately 29 with [Bmim][SCN] and [Bmim][TFO]. The higher selectivity suggest that lesser stages are required to achieve the desired separation of the 1,3-PDO from the aqueous solution. Therefore, [Bmim][SCN] demonstrates the highest extraction efficiency in terms of distribution coefficient and selectivity, closely followed by [Bmim][TFO]. However, [Bmim][NPF2] and [Bmim][NTF2] exhibit limited suitability for the extraction of 1,3-PDO. Figure 8a-d depicts the snapshot of 1,3-PDO transfer from the raffinate phase to the extract phase. These results are in line with the observations obtained by the RDF and CDF studies based on the binary mixture of ILs and 1,3-PDO.

3.2 COSMO-SAC prediction:

The sigma profiles of the components involved in this study were calculated to understand the possible interactions between 1,3-PDO and ILs (Figure 9). The sigma profiles are divided into three regions: H-bond donor ($\sigma < -0.01 \text{ e}/\text{\AA}^2$), non-polar region ($-0.01 \text{ e}/\text{\AA}^2 < \sigma < +0.01 \text{ e}/\text{\AA}^2$) and H-bond acceptor ($\sigma > +0.01 \text{ e}/\text{\AA}^2$) regions. The sigma profile of 1,3-PDO is relatively symmetrical and wide which shows its ability to function both as a H-bond donor and H-bond acceptor. The sigma profiles of all the ILs are also distributed in all the three different regions. In H-bond donor region, all the ILs display identical σ -profile with less spread. However, [Bmim][SCN] has more spread in the H-bond acceptor region followed by [Bmim][TFO]. This shows the ability of these ILs to function as superior H-bond acceptors in comparison to [Bmim][NPF2] and [Bmim][NTF2]. Analyzing the σ -profile, it can be inferred that the interaction between 1,3-PDO and [Bmim][SCN] as well as between 1,3-PDO and [Bmim][TFO] is more favourable when compared to [Bmim][NPF2] and [Bmim][NTF2].

The COSMO-SAC model can also predict the infinite dilution activity coefficient, a crucial thermodynamic property. A lower value of this coefficient indicates stronger interactions between the components. The logarithmic infinite dilution activity coefficient ($\ln\text{-}\gamma$) values for 1,3-PDO in ILs is shown in Figure 10. Based on these it can be inferred that 1,3-PDO has strongest interaction with [Bmim][SCN] followed by [Bmim][TFO], [Bmim][NTF2] and [Bmim][NPF2] successively.

4. Conclusion:

The Molecular Dynamics simulations in this study provided valuable insights into the interactions and performance of four distinct ionic liquids ([Bmim][NTF2], [Bmim][NPF2], [Bmim][SCN], and [Bmim][TFO]) as potential extraction agents for 1,3-PDO. The deviation between simulated and experimental data, within a ± 0.8 charge scaling range, yielded a favorable agreement with an ARD of 0.51%, indicating a small average percentage difference. The RDF analysis indicates an increased coordination number of 1,3-PDO around both the $[\text{SCN}]^-$ and the $[\text{Bmim}]^+$. This suggests a stronger interaction and a greater presence of 1,3-PDO molecules in the vicinity of [Bmim][SCN]. The SDF results indicate a high-density distribution of 1,3-PDO around [Bmim][SCN] and [Bmim][TFO], demonstrating a denser concentration compared to [Bmim][NPF2] and [Bmim][NTF2]. The comparative analysis of RDF and SDF data reveals intricate interactions, particularly evident as [Bmim][TFO] and [Bmim][SCN] display more

pronounced RDF anion peaks compared to [Bmim][NPF2] and [Bmim][NTF2]. This underscores the influential role of their respective anions ([TFO]⁻ and [SCN]⁻) in shaping interactions with 1,3-PDO. The increased RDF anion peaks imply more significant hydrogen bonding interactions with 1,3-PDO. This is further validated by quantifying the number of hydrogen bonds between ionic liquids (ILs) and 1,3-propanediol (1,3-PDO). Both [Bmim][NPF2] and [Bmim][NTF2], featuring non-coordinating anions ([NPF2]⁻ and [NTF2]⁻), form an average of 0.654 and 0.952 hydrogen bonds with 1,3-propanediol. In contrast, [Bmim][SCN] exhibits the highest total number of hydrogen bonds (1.639) with 1,3-propanediol. This is attributed to [Bmim][SCN] containing the coordinating anion [SCN]⁻, which possesses a sulfur atom capable of forming hydrogen bonds with the [OH]⁻ groups of 1,3-propanediol. The results from the ternary system indicate that [Bmim][SCN] and [Bmim][TFO] are highly efficient for the extraction of 1,3-PDO. Their performance surpasses that of [Bmim][NPF2] and [Bmim][NTF2], with distribution coefficients that are 10 to 20 times superior. Additionally, the selectivity for [Bmim][SCN] is 29, and for [Bmim][TFO] is 28.59, further highlighting their effectiveness.

COSMO-SAC has validated the results of the MD simulation. Infinite dilution activity coefficient values demonstrate that 1,3-PDO exhibits the strongest interaction with [Bmim][SCN] < [Bmim][TFO] << [Bmim][NTF2] < [Bmim][NPF2], further emphasizing the model's accuracy in characterizing the interaction strengths.

In conclusion, this study significantly advances our understanding of the complex interactions within IL-1,3-PDO systems and highlights the potential applications of these ionic liquids in extraction processes. The consistent trend observed across all analysis positions [Bmim][SCN] as the most promising ionic liquid for the extraction of 1,3-propanediol, followed by [Bmim][TFO], [Bmim][NTF2], and [Bmim][NPF2]. By systematically varying the anions while maintaining the [Bmim]⁺ cation, the research offers valuable insights into how the choice of anions shapes the properties of ionic liquids in specific interactions, such as the extraction of 1,3-PDO.

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Figures

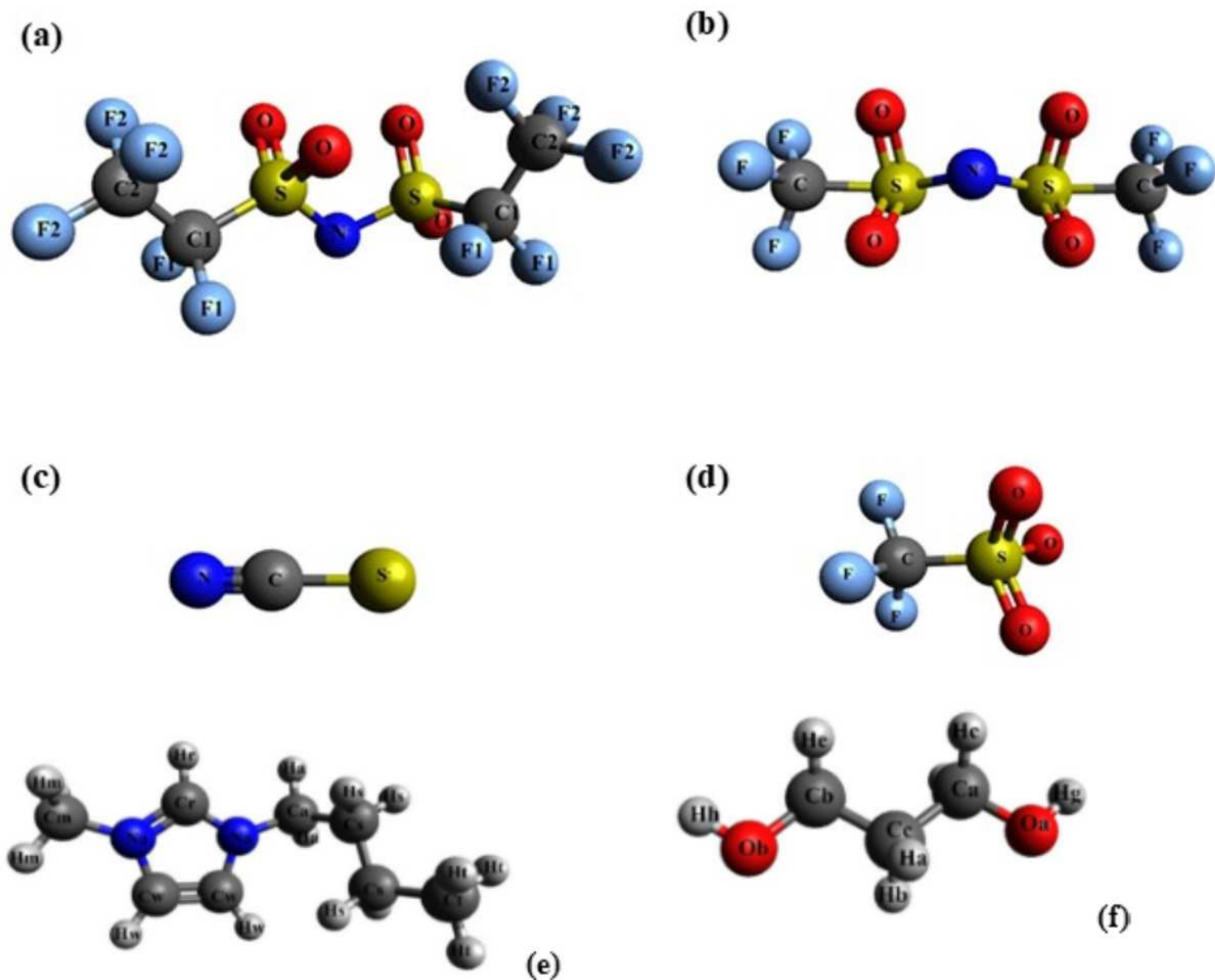


Figure 1

Chemical structures of the components, along with atom types used in this work. (a) Bis (pentafluoroethane sulfonyl)amide [NPF2]⁻ (b) Bis[(trifluoromethyl)sulfonyl]imide [NTF2]⁻ (c) Thiocyanate [SCN]⁻ and (d) Trifluoromethanesulfonate [TFO]⁻ (e) 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium cation [Bmim]⁺ (f) 1,3-Propanediol [1,3-PDO]

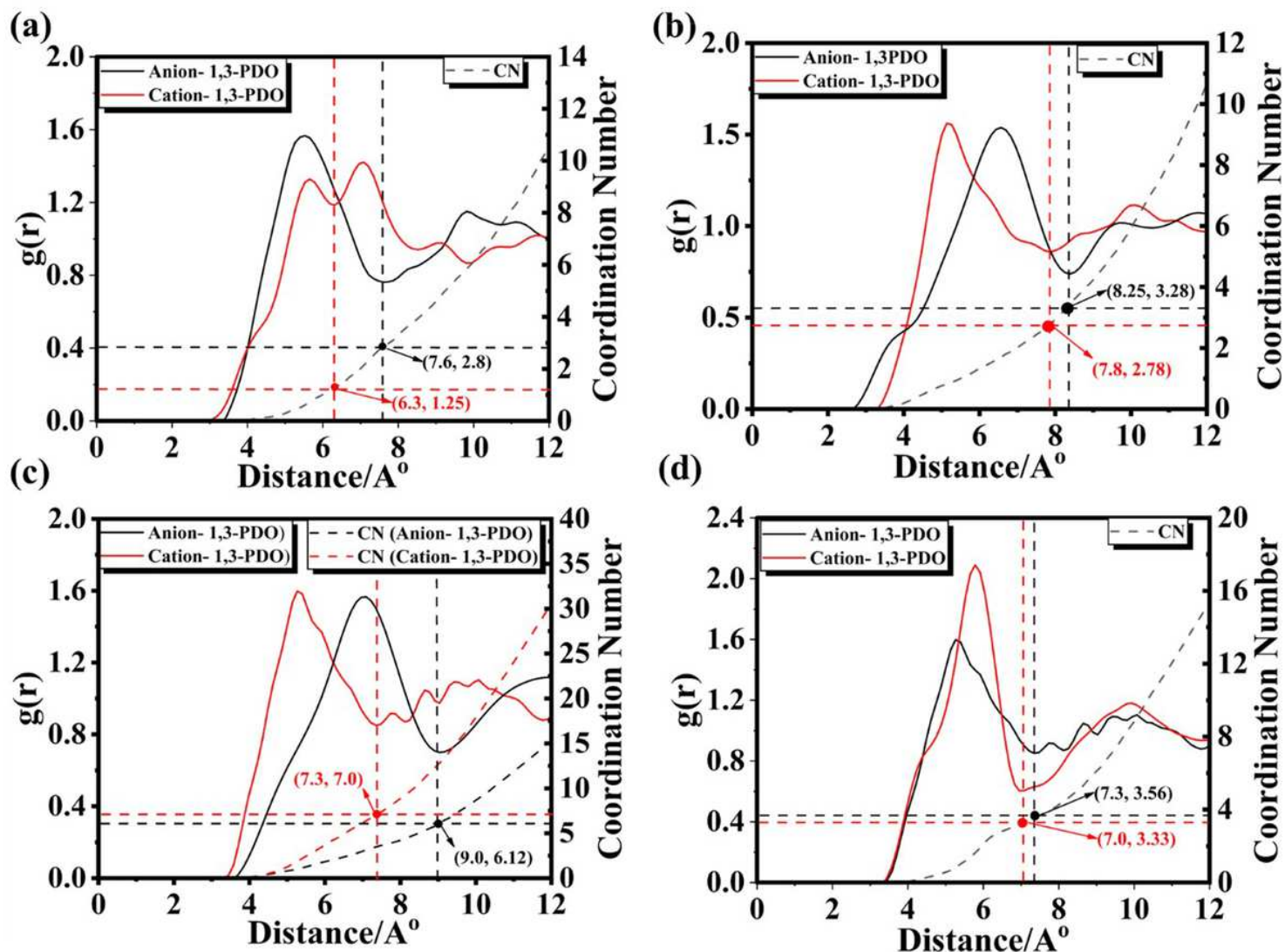


Figure 2

Radial distribution functions (RDFs) and coordination number (CN) between cation-1,3-PDO and anion-1,3-PDO. (a) [Bmim][NPF2]-1,3PDO, (b) [Bmim][NTF2]-1,3PDO, (c) [Bmim][SCN]-1,3PDO, and (d) [Bmim][TFO]-1,3PDO.

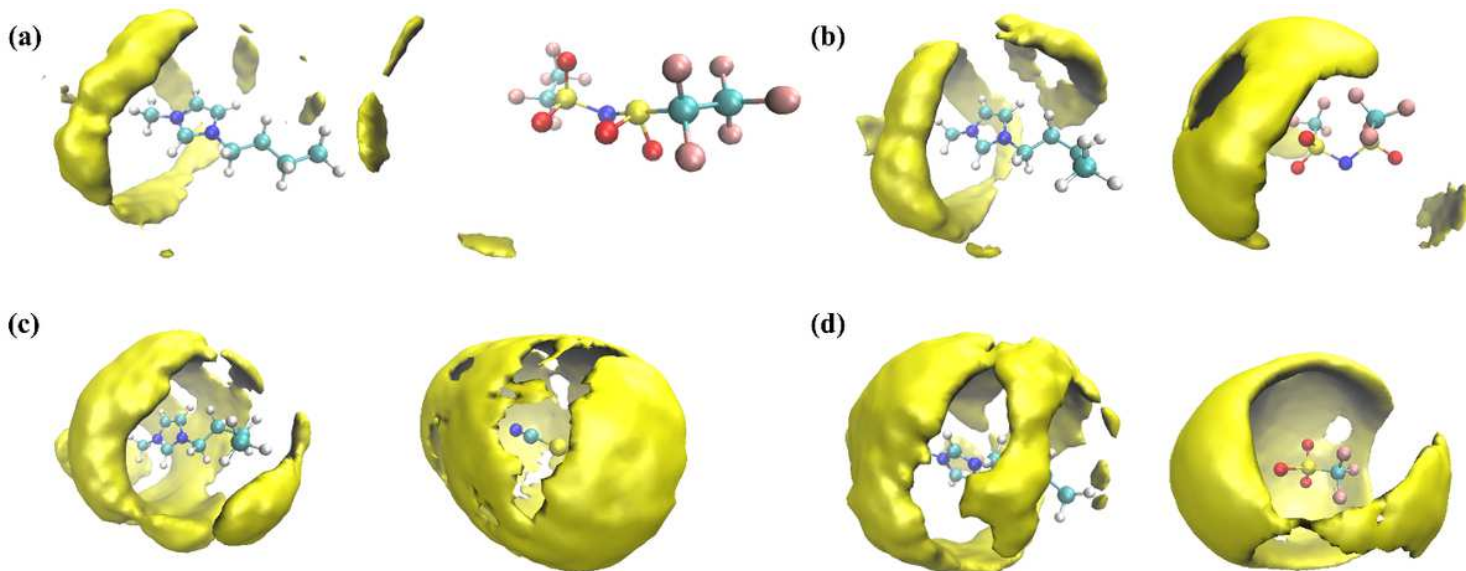


Figure 3

Spatial Distribution Function (SDF) visualizations of 1,3-PDO around different ILs. The yellow color indicates the presence of 1,3-PDO. (a) SDF of 1,3-PDO around [Bmim][NPF2], (b) SDF of 1,3-PDO around [Bmim][NTF2], (c) SDF of 1,3-PDO around [Bmim][SCN] and (d) SDF of 1,3-PDO around [Bmim][TFO].

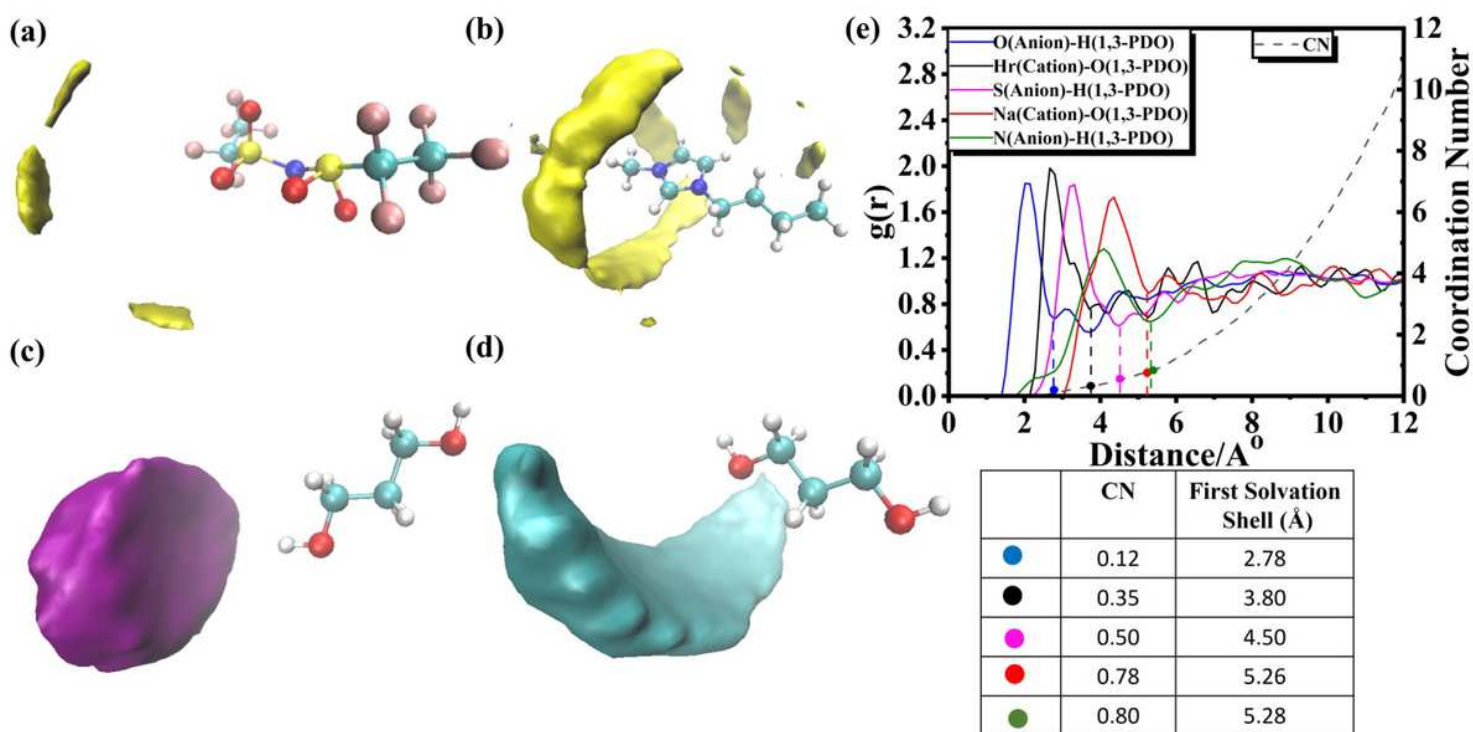


Figure 4

Molecular Distribution Analysis and Interatomic RDF of [Bmim][NPF2] with 1,3-PDO. (a) SDF of 1,3-PDO around [NPF2]⁻, (b) SDF of 1,3-PDO around [Bmim]⁺, (c) SDF of [NPF2]⁻ around 1,3-PDO, (d) SDF of 1,3-PDO around [Bmim]⁺

[Bmim]⁺ around 1,3-PDO, and (e) Interatomic RDF Plot of ILs and 1,3-PDO at 298 K.

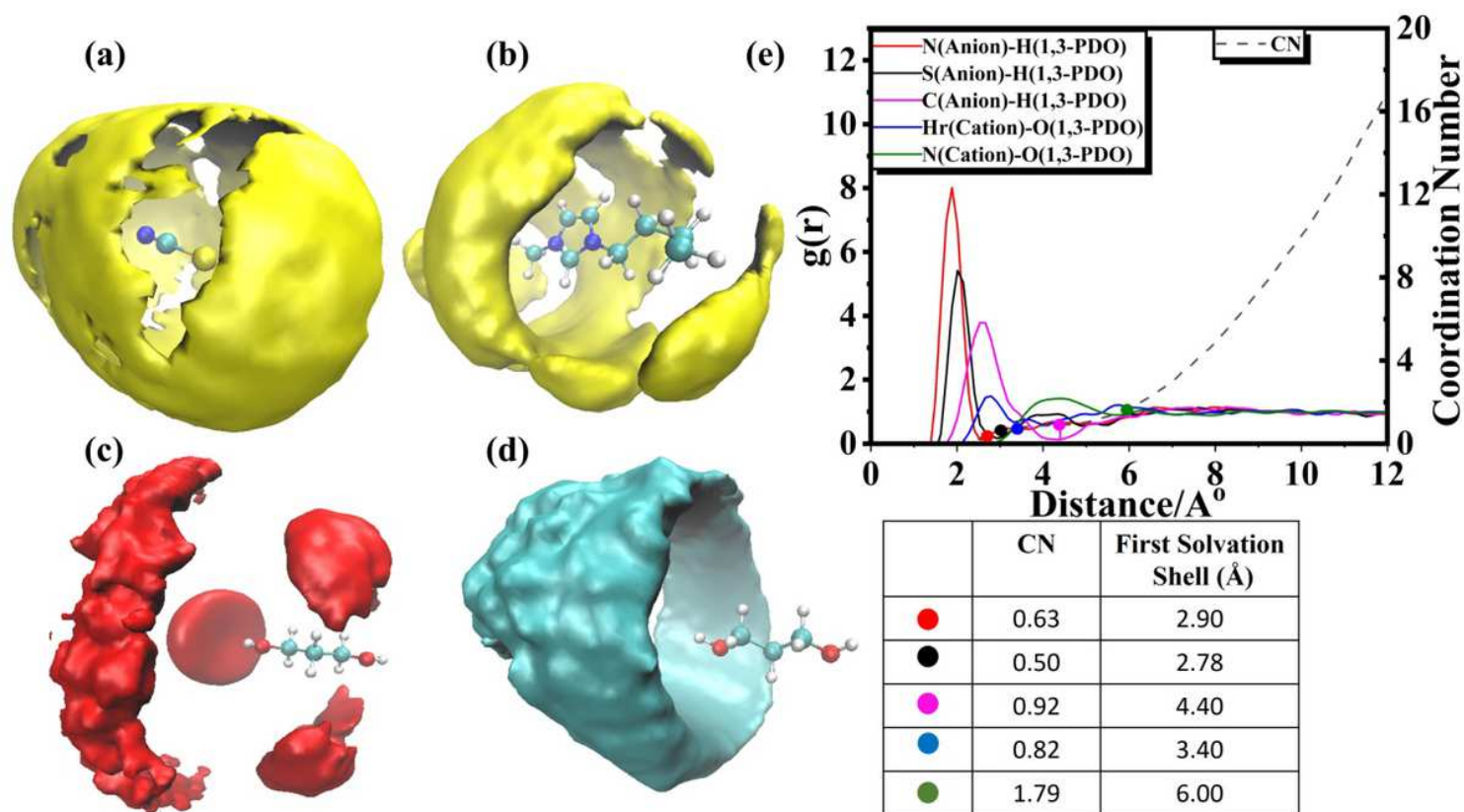


Figure 5

Molecular Distribution Analysis and Interatomic RDF of [Bmim][SCN] with 1,3-PDO. (a) SDF of 1,3-PDO around [SCN]⁻, (b) SDF of 1,3-PDO around [Bmim]⁺, (c) SDF of [SCN]⁻ around 1,3-PDO, (d) SDF of [Bmim]⁺ around 1,3-PDO, and (e) Interatomic RDF Plot of ILs and 1,3-PDO at 298 K.

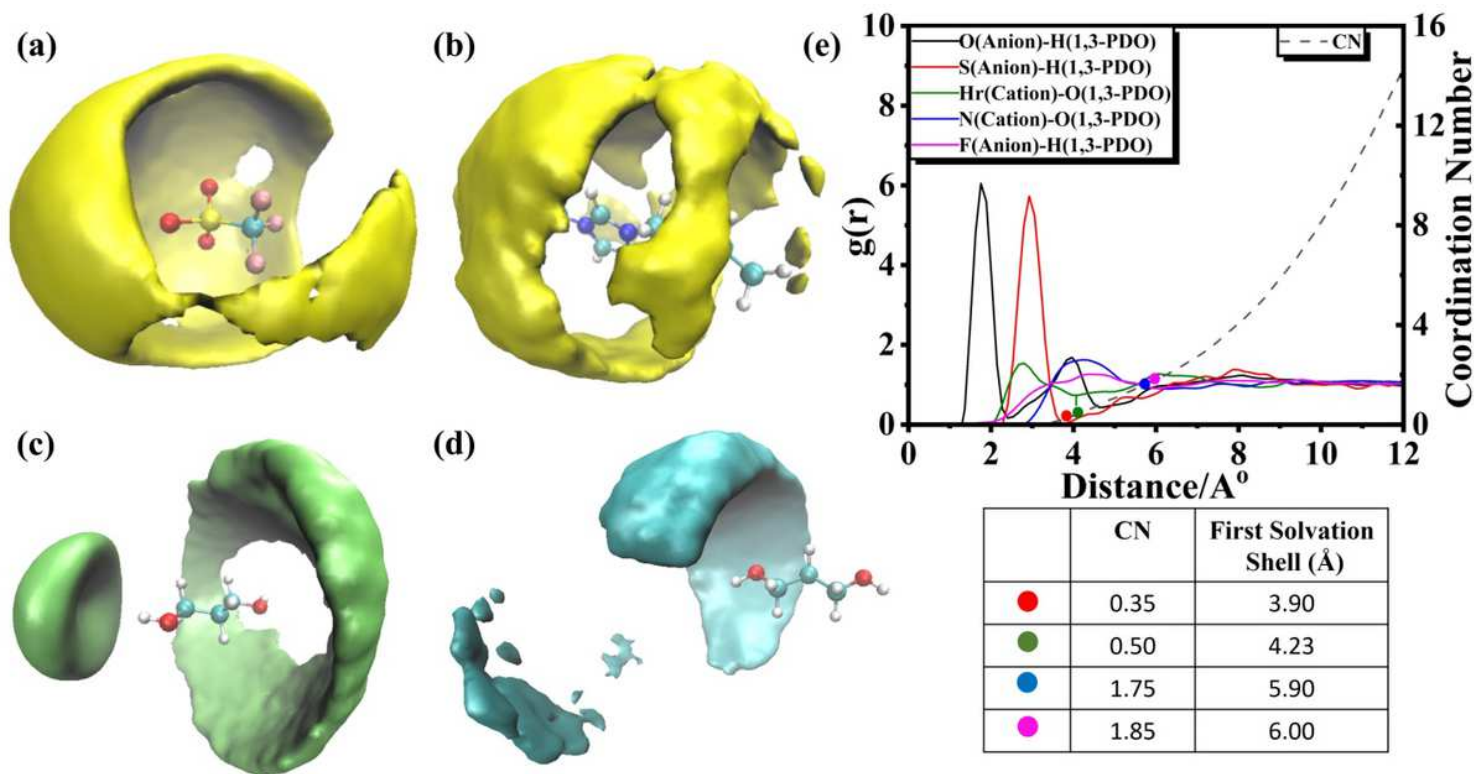


Figure 6

Molecular Distribution Analysis and Interatomic RDF of [Bmim][TFO] with 1,3-PDO. (a) SDF of 1,3-PDO around [TFO]⁻, (b) SDF of 1,3-PDO around [Bmim]⁺, (c) SDF of [TFO]⁻ around 1,3-PDO, (d) SDF of [Bmim]⁺ around 1,3-PDO, and (e) Interatomic RDF Plot of ILs and 1,3-PDO at 298 K.

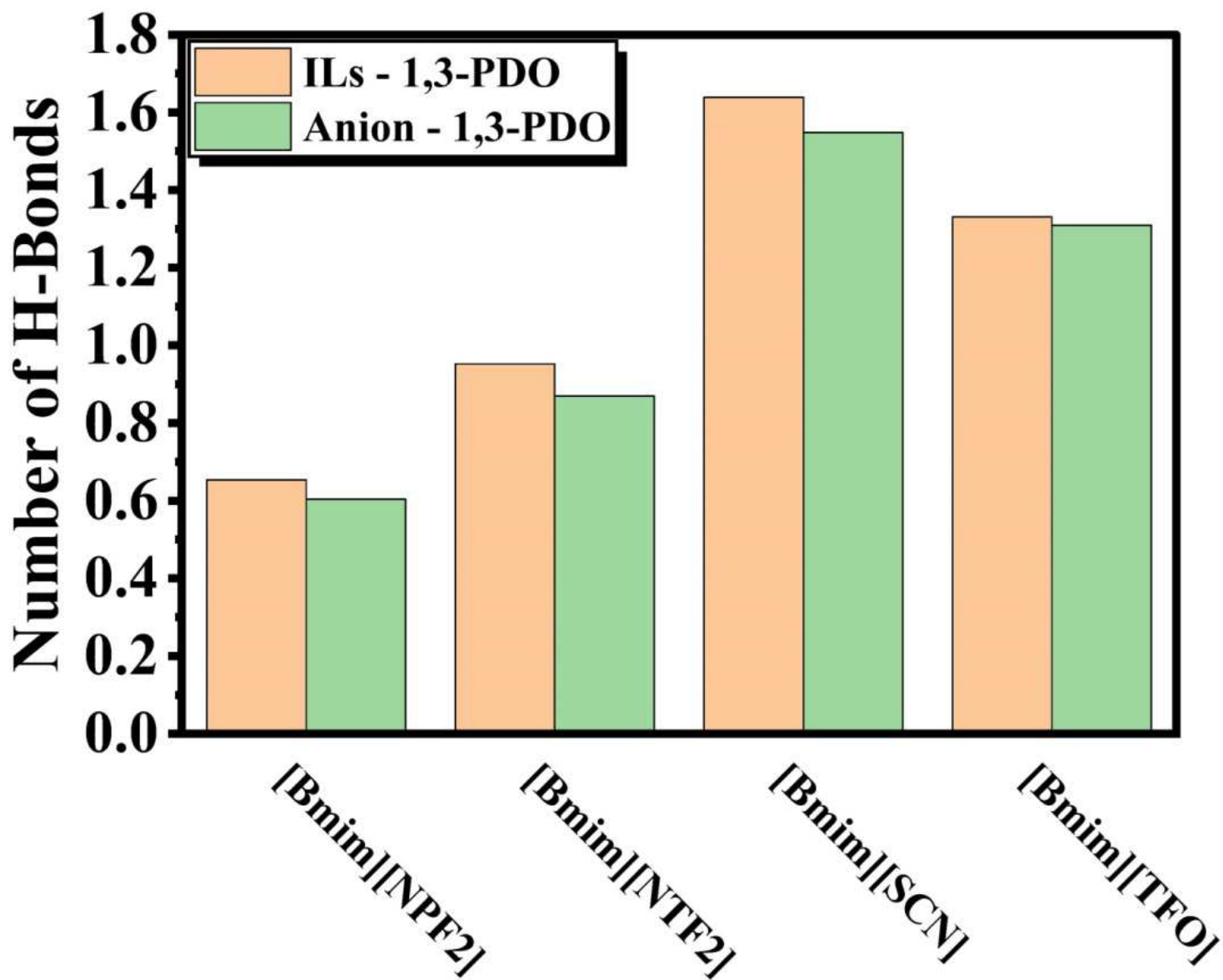


Figure 7

Number of Hydrogen Bonds between Ionic Liquids (ILs) and 1,3-Propanediol (1,3-PDO) per 1,3-PDO.

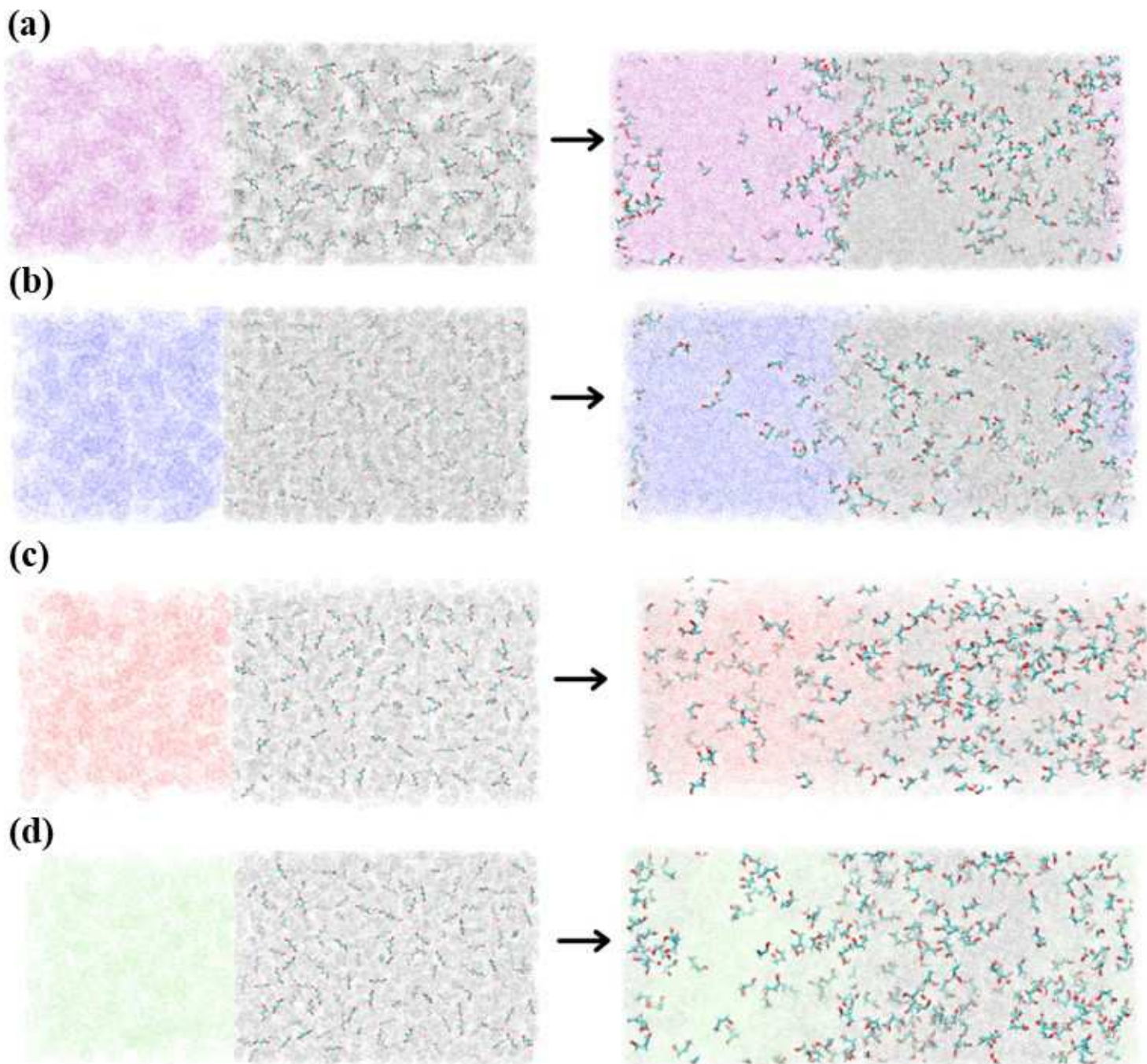


Figure 8

Snapshot of 1,3-PDO Transfer from raffinate phase (aqueous phase) to extract phase (IL phase) during a 30 ns Molecular Dynamics (MD) Simulation at 298 K with distinct colors representing different ILs: [Bmim][NPF2] (purple), [Bmim][NTF2] (blue), [Bmim][SCN] (red), and [Bmim][TFO] (lime), while water is depicted in gray.

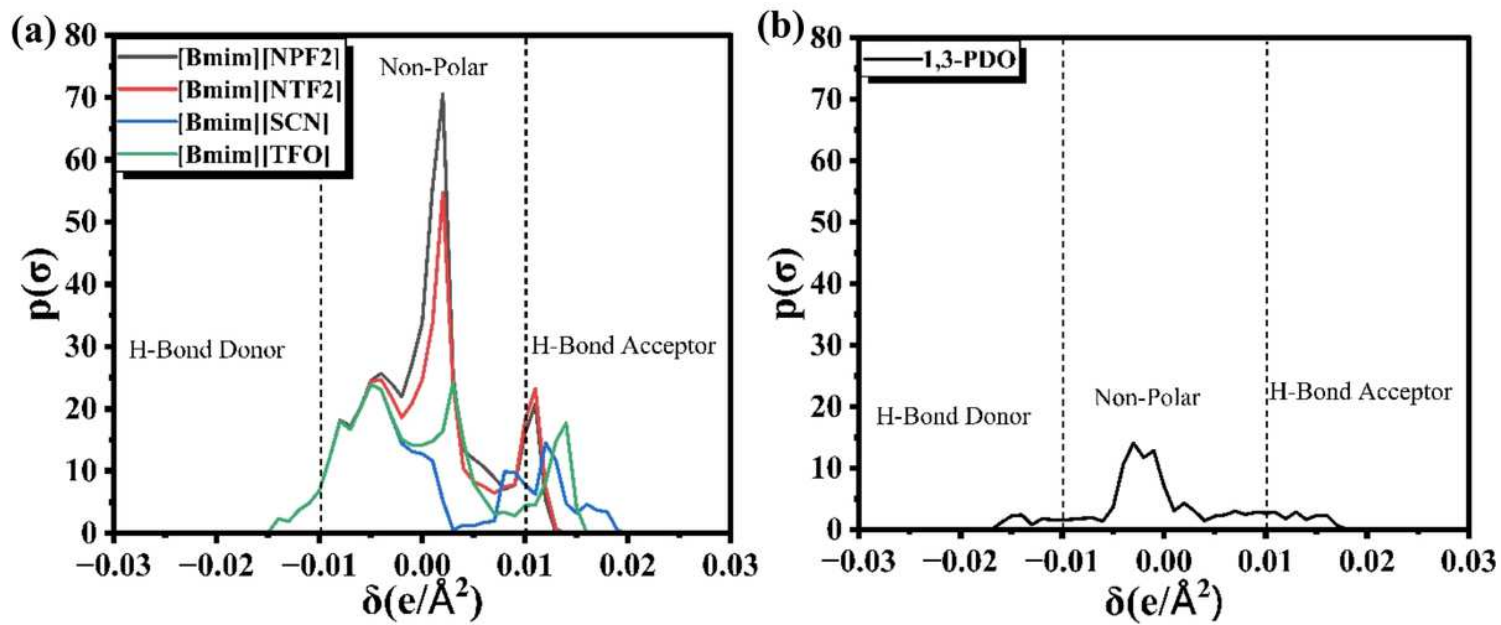


Figure 9

Sigma Profile Histograms for (a) Ionic Liquids (ILs) and (b) 1,3-Propanediol (1,3-PDO) analyzed with COSMO-SAC.

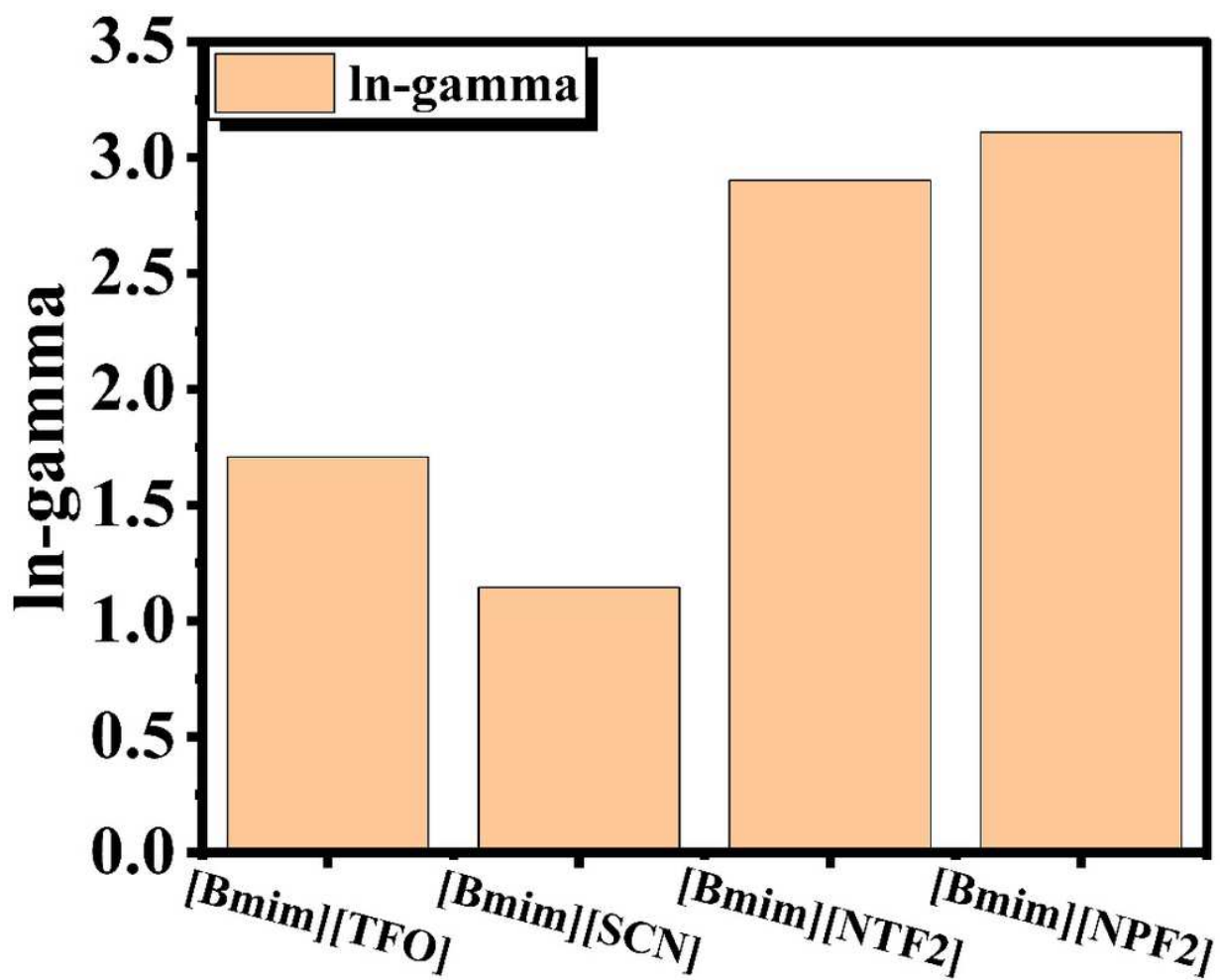


Figure 10

Logarithmic Infinite Dilution Activity Coefficients of 1,3-PDO in Ionic Liquids (ILs).

Supplementary Files

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