Fractional Calculus as a Tool for Applications in Soft Matter: Electrical Impedance Response of Liquid Crystals

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- To use impedance spectroscopy to investigate modulated phases of liquid crystals;
- The focus is the **low-frequency limiting behavior**, which relies on **ionic motion**;
- The technique is useful to characterize the physical parameters of the material as well as **to understand how the natural modulation present in the media affects ionic diffusion**;
- The conceptual framework to analyze the data is the Poisson-Nernst-Planck (PNP) model, extended to the field of fractional calculus in order to account for anomalous diffusion.
- This is the **PNPA** ("A" for anomalous) model.

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Anomalous Diffusion

Motivation

Such turmoil means that there are secret motions, out of sight, that lie concealed in matter. Lucretius, *De rerum natura*.



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Anomalous Diffusion

Motivation

• The mean square displacement

$$\langle (\Delta z)^2 \rangle = \langle z^2 \rangle - \langle z \rangle^2$$
 (1)

represents the smearing out of a substance by diffusion.

• The diffusive processes may be characterized in general as

$$\langle (\Delta z)^2 \rangle \propto t^{\alpha},$$
 (2)

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with the case $\alpha = 1$ being the normal one, whereas the cases $\alpha < 1$ (subdiffusion) and $\alpha > 1$ (superdiffusion) characterize the **anomalous diffusive behavior**.

Diffusion as a family business



Uncle Albert (1879-1955), pioneer in the family business. Paper: On the motion of small particles suspended in a stationary liquid according to the molecular kinetic theory of heat. A. Einstein, Über die von der molekularkinetischen Theorie der Wärme geforderte Bewegung von in ruhenden Flüssigkeiten suspendierten Teilchen, Annalen der Physik **17**, 549 (1905).

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- The Brownian motion is characterized by a diffusion packet that is initially concentrated at a point and takes later the Gaussian form, whose width grow in time as $t^{1/2}$, characterizing what we called normal diffusion.
- If we look at the **diffusion equation** for a constant diffusion coefficient, that is

$$rac{\partial
ho(z,t)}{\partial t} = D rac{\partial^2
ho(z,t)}{\partial z^2},$$

we may notice that the square of the position scales linearly with t and we may expect that

$$\langle z^2 \rangle \sim t.$$

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Anomalous Diffusion and Fractional Calculus

• Similarly, if we look at a **space-time fractional equation** in the form

$$rac{\partial^{\gamma} \rho(z,t)}{\partial t^{\gamma}} = D rac{\partial^{lpha} \rho(z,t)}{\partial z^{lpha}},$$

we may expect that

$$\langle z^2 \rangle \sim t^{2\gamma/\alpha}.$$

- We may expect that for $2\gamma = \alpha$ we have to deal with a normal diffusion.
- When $2\gamma < \alpha$ the subdiffusion processes are relevant;
- For $2\gamma > \alpha$ the process under investigation is **superdiffusive**.
- Fractional Calculus is a powerful tool to handle with anomalous diffusion processes!

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Motivation

• The mathematician cannot create things at will, any more than the geographer can; he can only discover what is there and give it a name. Gottlob Frege

 Clouds are not spheres, mountains are not cones, coastlines are not circles, and bark is not smooth, nor does lightning travel in a straight line. Benoît Mandelbrot

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The Leibniz Solution

- The term **fractional calculus** has been used (as a misnomer) for the theory of integrations and derivatives of **arbitrary order**.
- The question about the possible meaning of a derivative of arbitrary order was formulated by Guillaume François Antoine, marquis of L'Hôpital (1661-1704), by means of a letter addressed to the great mathematician and philosopher Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz (1646-1716) — who gave a positive and correct answer to the instigating question.

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Pioneers

Since then fractional calculus was the object of analysis by great mathematicians, including Leonhard Euler (1707–1783), Pierre Simon Laplace (1749–1827), Jean-Baptiste Joseph Fourier(1768–1830), Niels Henrik Abel (1802–1829), Joseph Liouville (1809–1882), Georg Friedrich Bernhard Riemann (1826–1866), Nikolay Yakovlevich Sonin (1849–1915), Aleksey Vasilievich Letnikov (1837–1888), Paul Mathieu Hermann Laurent (1841–1908), among many others.

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The Lacroix Derivative

- It was briefly mentioned (perhaps for the first time as such) in 1819, in the book of Sylvestre François Lacroix (1765–1843);
- Let, for instance, y = x^m; when n is an integer, one has for any arbitrary m ∈ N:

$$d^{n}y = d^{n}(x^{m}) = m(m-1)\cdots(m-n+1)x^{m-n}dx^{n}$$
$$= \frac{\Gamma(m+1)}{\Gamma(m-n+1)}x^{m-n}dx^{n}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}.$$
(3)

If we put m = 2 and n = 1, then we obtain $\left\lfloor d^1(x^2) = 2x \, dx \right\rfloor$, as expected. Now, we may consider m = 1 and n = 1/2 and try to answer to the original question. We obtain:

$$d^{1/2}x = \frac{\Gamma(2)}{\Gamma(3/2)} x^{1/2} dx^{1/2} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \sqrt{x} dx.$$
 (4)

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The Lacroix Derivative

• The result obtained by Lacroix may be put in the usual form as:

$$\frac{d^{1/2}x}{dx^{1/2}} = \frac{2\sqrt{x}}{\sqrt{\pi}} \,. \tag{5}$$

Consider, now, n = 1/2 and m = 0, that is, $y = x^0 = 1$. In this case, Eq. (3) yields a surprising result:

$$\frac{d^{1/2}1}{dx^{1/2}} = \frac{\Gamma(1)}{\Gamma(1/2)} x^{-1/2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi x}} \neq 0.$$
 (6)

The Lacroix derivative of a constant is not zero, as one expects if one tries to keep the usual meaning of the derivative.

• This "strange" result shows that fractional derivatives have many special and ever counter-intuitive properties.

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The Riemann-Liouville Operator

 Nowadays, a well-established form for the derivative of arbitrary order is the so-called Riemann-Liouville operator, although it is the result of several contributions (mainly by Liouville), which is defined as:

$${}_{c}\mathrm{D}_{x}^{\alpha}f(x) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(k-\alpha)}\frac{d^{k}}{dx^{k}}\left[\int_{c}^{x}\frac{f(t)}{(x-t)^{\alpha+1-k}}dt\right], \ x > c, \ (7)$$

with $k \in \mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}$, for $0 , where <math>\Gamma(k - \alpha)$ is the gamma function.

• We notice that k is the smallest integer greater than α , with ${}_{c}D_{x}^{k}f(x) = d^{k}/dx^{k}f(x)$ being the usual derivative of f(x).

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The Caputo Operator

- In 1967, Caputo introduced a new definition of a fractional derivative, which is connected with the fractional Riemann-Liouville integral and differential operators;
- In terms of this operator, the initial conditions can be formulated in the usual way, i.e., by stating them in terms of integer order operators.
- The Caputo operator is defined as

for $n-1 < \alpha < n$, which permits us to interpret it as being equal to the **Riemann-Liouville integral** of the n^{th} -derivative of the function f(x).

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The Riemann-Liouville and Caputo Operators

• For physical applications, it is useful to put $c = -\infty$ in the Riemann-Liouville derivative; then, it becomes

$$\begin{aligned} {}_{-\infty}\mathrm{D}^{\alpha}_{x}f(x) &= \frac{d^{m}}{dx^{m}}\left[\frac{1}{\Gamma(m-\alpha)}\int_{-\infty}^{x}\frac{f(t)}{(x-t)^{\alpha+1-m}}dt\right] \\ &= \frac{1}{\Gamma(m-\alpha)}\int_{-\infty}^{x}\frac{f^{(m)}(t)}{(x-t)^{\alpha+1-m}}dt \\ &= -{}_{\infty}^{\mathrm{C}}\mathrm{D}^{\alpha}_{x}f(x), \qquad m-1 < \alpha < m. \end{aligned}$$

- In this limit, both definitions become equal provided that f(x) and its derivatives have a reasonable behavior when x → ∞, that is, f^(k)(-∞) → 0, for k = 0, 1, ..., n − 1, with n = ⌈α⌉.
- Useful to consider stationary processes is now permitted as, for instance, in the response of the fractional order dynamical systems to a periodic signal, required in the impedance problems, in the wave propagation in continuous media, etc.

PNP Model: Insulating medium containing ions

The Poisson-Nernst-Planck usual model

- In the presence of the external electric field E(r, t), the charges move, giving rise to currents of neutral as well as of positive and negative charges.
- If we denote the bulk density of these particles, respectively with n_n(**r**, t) (neutral), n_p(**r**, t) (positive), and n_m(**r**, t) (negative) and, likewise, the current density as **j**_n(**r**, t), **j**_p(**r**, t), and **j**_m(**r**, t), the continuity equations are

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} n_{\rho}(\mathbf{r}, t) = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}_{\rho}(\mathbf{r}, t) + S(\mathbf{r}, t),$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} n_{m}(\mathbf{r}, t) = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}_{m}(\mathbf{r}, t) + S(\mathbf{r}, t),$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} n_{n}(\mathbf{r}, t) = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}_{n}(\mathbf{r}, t) - S(\mathbf{r}, t),$$
(10)

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• To obtain the set of the fundamental equations of the PNP model, we have to consider also the Poisson's equation, written as

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r},t) = \frac{q}{\varepsilon} \left[n_{\rho}(\mathbf{r},t) - n_{m}(\mathbf{r},t) \right].$$
(11)

- This equation connects the bulk density of ions of positive and negative charges, of absolute value *q*, to the actual profile of the electric field across the sample.
- The total electric current is formed by the **conduction** and the **displacement** currents:

$$\mathbf{j}(\mathbf{r},t) = q \left[\mathbf{j}_{p}(\mathbf{r},t) - \mathbf{j}_{m}(\mathbf{r},t) \right] + \varepsilon \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r},t)}{\partial t}.$$
 (12)

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• If we now combine the first two of Eqs. (10) with Eq. (12), we conclude that

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j} = -q \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[n_{\rho}(\mathbf{r}, t) - n_{m}(\mathbf{r}, t) \right] \right\} + \varepsilon \nabla \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t} = 0, \quad (13)$$

when the equation of Poisson, Eq. (11), is used.

• Indeed, the total density of current has to be solenoidal, i.e,

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}(\mathbf{r},t) = \nabla \cdot \left\{ q \left[\mathbf{j}_{p}(\mathbf{r},t) - \mathbf{j}_{m}(\mathbf{r},t) \right] + \varepsilon \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r},t)}{\partial t} \right\} = 0.$$
(14)

• Solenoidal? Why is this so important?

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The Electrical Impedance



Figure: Typical 1D sample in the shape of a slab of thickness *d*. Two electrodes, of area *S*, placed a distance *d* apart. $V(t) = V_0 e^{i\omega t}$.

• The electrical impedance is defined as

$$\mathcal{Z} = rac{V(d/2,t) - V(-d/2,t)}{I(t)} = rac{\Delta V(t)}{I(t)}, \quad I(t) = j(t) \times S(= ext{area})$$

 In this case, for a one-dimensional problem, the current density j has to be position independent. イクトイミト ミーシーミーシーマー Brazilian Workshop on Soft Matter - ICTP-SAIFR São Paulo, 04 October 2023 - Annus XVI 23-64

Continuity Equation (Fractional)

• We analyze an extension of the PNP model by expressing the continuity equation in terms of the Caputo fractional time derivative:

$$\tau^{\gamma-1} \frac{\partial^{\gamma} n_{\rho}(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t^{\gamma}} = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}_{\rho}(\mathbf{r}, t) + S(\mathbf{r}, t),$$

$$\tau^{\gamma-1} \frac{\partial^{\gamma} n_{m}(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t^{\gamma}} = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}_{m}(\mathbf{r}, t) + S(\mathbf{r}, t),$$

$$\tau^{\gamma-1} \frac{\partial^{\gamma} n_{n}(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t^{\gamma}} = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}_{n}(\mathbf{r}, t) - S(\mathbf{r}, t), \qquad (15)$$

 If we now combine the new set of fundamental equations of the extended model, Eqs. (41) and (11), following the procedure used before, it is possibile to conclude that ∇ · j(r, t) = 0, i.e., the total current is solenoidal:

$$\nabla \cdot \left\{ q \left[\mathbf{j}_{\rho}(\mathbf{r},t) - \mathbf{j}_{m}(\mathbf{r},t) \right] + \varepsilon \tau^{\gamma-1} \frac{\partial^{\gamma}}{\partial t^{\gamma}} \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r},t) \right\} = 0.$$
(16)

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Continuity Equation and **Distributed Order**

• We rewrite the fundamental equations by promoting the following modifications:

$$\frac{\partial^{\gamma}}{\partial t^{\gamma}} \rightarrow \int_{0}^{1} d\gamma p(\gamma) \tau^{\gamma-1} \frac{\partial^{\gamma}}{\partial t^{\gamma}} (\cdots), \quad \left| \int_{0}^{1} p(\gamma) d\gamma = 1 \right|.$$
(17)

 The new set of fundamental equations of the extended PNP model will be now represented by the following continuity equations:

$$\int_{0}^{1} d\gamma p(\gamma) \tau^{\gamma-1} \frac{\partial^{\gamma}}{\partial t^{\gamma}} n_{p}(\mathbf{r}, t) = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}_{p}(\mathbf{r}, t) + S(\mathbf{r}, t),$$

$$\int_{0}^{1} d\gamma p(\gamma) \tau^{\gamma-1} \frac{\partial^{\gamma}}{\partial t^{\gamma}} n_{m}(\mathbf{r}, t) = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}_{m}(\mathbf{r}, t) + S(\mathbf{r}, t),$$

$$\int_{0}^{1} d\gamma p(\gamma) \tau^{\gamma-1} \frac{\partial^{\gamma}}{\partial t^{\gamma}} n_{n}(\mathbf{r}, t) = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}_{n}(\mathbf{r}, t) - S(\mathbf{r}, t), \quad (18)$$

and the equation of Poisson, Eq. (11).

Anomalous PNP model – Slab Full Dissociation: $S(\mathbf{r}, t) = 0$ and $\mathbf{j}_n(\mathbf{r}, t) = 0$.

• The equations to be solved are reduced to the two following:

$$\int_{0}^{1} d\gamma p(\gamma) \tau^{\gamma-1} \frac{\partial^{\gamma}}{\partial t^{\gamma}} n_{p}(z,t) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} j_{p}(z,t) = 0,$$

$$\int_{0}^{1} d\gamma p(\gamma) \tau^{\gamma-1} \frac{\partial^{\gamma}}{\partial t^{\gamma}} n_{m}(z,t) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} j_{m}(z,t) = 0.$$
(19)

together with the equation of Poisson:

$$\frac{\partial^2 V(z,t)}{\partial z^2} = -\frac{q}{\varepsilon} \left[n_p(z,t) - n_m(z,t) \right].$$
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The current densities for positive (p = +) and negative (n = -) charges are defined as:

$$\dot{h}_{\pm}(z,t) = -D\frac{\partial}{\partial z}n_{\pm}(z,t) \mp \mu q n_{\pm}(z,t) \frac{\partial}{\partial z}V(z,t) \approx -D\frac{\partial}{\partial z}n_{\pm}(z,t) \mp \mu q N \frac{\partial}{\partial z}V(z,t)$$
(21)

where D is the diffusion coefficient and μ is the mobility.

• The solutions (for the linear regime) are in the form:

$$n_{p}(z,t) = N + \eta_{p}(z)e^{i\omega t} \quad \text{and} \quad n_{m}(z,t) = N + \eta_{m}(z)e^{i\omega t}$$
(22)
with $N > \sum_{i} |m_{i}(z)|$ and $N > \sum_{i} |m_{i}(z)|$ and

with $N >> |\eta_p(z)|$ and $N >> |\eta_m(z)|$ and

$$V(z,t)=\phi(z)e^{i\omega t}.$$

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Anomalous PNP model – Impedance Boundary Conditions

• Typical boundary conditions that can be used are:

$$j_{\alpha}\left(z=\pm\frac{d}{2},t\right)=\pm\int_{-\infty}^{t}dt'\mathcal{K}(t-t')\frac{d}{dt'}n_{\alpha}\left(z=\pm\frac{d}{2},t'\right),$$
(23)

with $\alpha = +$ (**positive** ions) and $\alpha = -$ (**negative** ions).

- In Eqs. (23), we have introduced a kernel K(t) to formulate the problem in more general terms.
- Indeed, if $K(t) = ke^{-t/\tau_a}$, where τ_a is an adsorption time, this current may be related to the adsorption-desorption process at the interface, governed by a Langmuir-like balance equation.

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Boundary Conditions

- Other choices for the functional form of K(t) are phenomenological ways to introduce additional memory effects in the problem.
- This may be helpful because the presence of the fractional derivative in the bulk equation accounts for memory-like effects in the bulk behavior of the system.
- In contrast, the presence of K(t) in the boundary conditions may be related to surface effects at the interface.
- This permits us to investigate how the surface governs the electrical response of the system.

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Boundary Conditions

• To complete the problem formulation, we have to state the boundary conditions used for the electric potential. They are:

$$V\left(z=\pm\frac{d}{2},t\right)=\pm\frac{V_0}{2}e^{i\omega t},\qquad(24)$$

where the amplitude $V_0 \ll k_B T/q$, i.e., has to be small enough to represent a small ac signal problem (linear response);

• The quantity

$$\lambda = \sqrt{\frac{\varepsilon k_B T}{2q^2 N}}$$

defines the **Debye screening length**.

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• Analytical calculations yield for the electrical impedance:

$$Z(\omega) = \frac{2}{S\varepsilon\beta^2} \frac{\left[\tanh\left(\beta d/2\right)\right] / \left(\lambda^2\beta\right) + \left(d/2D\right)\mathcal{E}(i\omega)}{\Phi(i\omega) + \kappa(i\omega)\left(1 + \Phi(i\omega)\lambda^2/D\right)\tanh\left(\beta d/2\right) / (\lambda^2\beta)}$$
(25)

in which

$$\mathcal{E}(i\omega) = \Phi(i\omega) + \kappa(i\omega)\beta \tanh\left(\frac{d\beta}{2}\right),$$
 (26)

with

$$\beta = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\lambda^2} + \frac{\Phi(i\omega)}{D}}.$$
 (27)

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• Surface memory kernel:

$$\kappa(i\omega) = e^{-i\omega t} \int_{-\infty}^{t} dt' K(t-t') e^{i\omega t'}$$

= $\underbrace{k_1(i\omega)^{\gamma_1} + k_2(i\omega)^{\gamma_2}}_{\text{This particular case}},$ (28)

• Distributed regime:

$$\Phi(i\omega) = \frac{1}{\tau} \int_0^1 d\gamma p(\gamma) (i\omega\tau)^{\gamma}$$

= $\underbrace{i\omega + \frac{(i\omega\tau)^{\gamma}}{\tau}}_{\text{This particular case}} .$ (29)

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Anomalous PNP model - PNPA: Experimental setup



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Anomalous PNP model - Conductivity



Figure: Complex-plane (or Nyquist diagram) for the impedance spectrum of E7 at 35°C. Components of the impedance are plotted in the bottom for the range of 0.01Hz to 200kHz. Open red circles represent experimental data. The **solid black** line corresponds to the predictions of the PNPA model with $\Phi(i\omega) = \tau^{\gamma-1}(i\omega)^{\gamma}$ and $\bar{\kappa}(i\omega) = \bar{\kappa}(i\omega)^{\delta}$, in which $D = 2.5 \times 10^{-11} m^2/s$, $S = 5 \times 10^{-6} m^2$, $\varepsilon = 11.5\varepsilon_0$, $d = 9.99 \times 10^{-6} m$, $\bar{\kappa} = 2 \times 10^{-6} m/s^{1-\delta}$, $\gamma = 0.99$, $\delta = 0.65$, and $\lambda = 5.75 \times 10^{-8} m$.

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Anomalous PNP model – Acetone



Figure: Imaginary part of the impedance versus the frequency of the acetone.

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Anomalous PNP model – Acetone



Figure: Real part of the impedance versus the frequency of the acetone.

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Anomalous PNP model – Acetone



Figure: Conductivity *versus* frequency. The solid black line is related to experimental data and the open red circles correspond to the theoretical models.

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PNPA Model: Applications to Liquid Crystals



Representation of the studied liquid crystalline phases: (a) Cholesteric with planar anchoring; Smectic-A with (b) homeotropic and (c) planar alignment. The green spheres illustrate the ions.

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- **1** Sample C1: E7 + 5.52% of R811 + 5.46% of S811 \rightarrow Total: 10.98% of chiral dopant;
- 2 Sample C2: E7 + 3.74% of R811 + 8.18% of S811 \rightarrow 11.98% of chiral dopant; Pitch $\approx 2.25 \mu$ m (for 4.44% of S811).
- 3 Sample C3: E7 + 1.48% of R811 + 9.59% of S811 → 11.07% of chiral dopant; Pitch $\approx 1.24 \mu$ m (for 8.11% of S811).

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PNPA Model: Applications to Liquid Crystals E7 Samples



The logarithm of Real and Imaginary parts *vs* the logarithm of the frequency for the following samples: pure E7 (solid black line), C1 (black cross), C2 (red squares), and C3 (open red circles),

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PNPA Model: Applications to Liquid Crystals

8CB Samples at different temperatures



The logarithm of Real and Imaginary parts *vs* the logarithm of the frequency for 8CB samples at 30°C (black circles), 38°C (blue cross), and 55°C (red squares) temperatures.

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PNPA Model: Applications to Liquid Crystals E7 Samples



The logarithm of conductivity vs the logarithm of the frequency for the following samples: pure E7, C1, C2, C3. The open black circles represent the experimental data, and the solid red line shows the best fit.

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PNPA Model: Applications to Liquid Crystals 8CB Samples



Summary of exponents behavior/meaning

• Surface memory kernel:

$$\kappa(i\omega) = e^{-i\omega t} \int_{-\infty}^{t} dt' K(t-t') e^{i\omega t'}$$
$$= \underbrace{k_1(i\omega)^{\gamma_1} + k_2(i\omega)^{\gamma_2}}_{t-1}, \qquad (30)$$

adsorption-desorption

- k_i (i = 1,2) are phenomenologically connected with the range of the forces responsible for the adsorption/desorption phenomena;
- Conductivity:

$$\sigma = rac{d \operatorname{Re}(\mathrm{Z})}{S|Z|^2} \quad o \quad \sigma \sim t^{1-lpha}$$

• The mean square displacement:

$$\langle (\Delta z)^2
angle \sim t^{lpha}$$

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PNPA Model: Physical Parameters E7 samples

Samples	Pure E ₇	C1	C2	C3
ε	$12\varepsilon_0$	12.5ε ₀	$15\varepsilon_0$	$16\varepsilon_0$
$D(m^2/s)$	$1.4 imes10^{-11}$	$1.7 imes10^{-11}$	$6.9 imes10^{-11}$	$1.5 imes10^{-11}$
$\lambda(m)$	$5.4 imes10^{-8}$	$4.33 imes10^{-8}$	$4.7 imes10^{-8}$	$4.9 imes10^{-8}$
$\tau^{\gamma-1}$	2.7	2.1	2.1	1.7
γ	0.99	0.99	0.97	0.99
γ_1	0.35	0.40	0.44	0.58
$\kappa_1(m/s)$	$3.2 imes10^{-8}$	$1.3 imes10^{-8}$	$2.5 imes10^{-8}$	$2.4 imes10^{-8}$
α	0.65	0.60	0.56	0.42

Parameters found by adjusting Eq. (25) to the measured data of samples C1, C2, C3, and pure E7. Notice that α is the time exponent of the mean square displacement $\langle (\Delta z)^2 \rangle$ while from the conductivity, we obtain $1 - \alpha$.

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PNPA Model: Physical Parameters

8CB Samples

8CB	25° C	30° <i>C</i>	38° <i>C</i>	55° <i>C</i>
Anchoring	Planar	Homeotropic	Homeotropic	Homeotropic
ε	$9\varepsilon_0$	$11arepsilon_0$	$13\varepsilon_0$	$10\varepsilon_0$
$D(m^2/s)$	$4.4 imes 10^{-12}$	$1.05 imes10^{-11}$	$2.2 imes10^{-11}$	$6.2 imes10^{-11}$
$\lambda(m)$	$4.22 imes 10^{-8}$	$1.45 imes10^{-7}$	$1.58 imes10^{-7}$	$1.38 imes10^{-7}$
γ_1	0.35	0.6	0.5	0.2
$\kappa_1(m/s)$	$1 imes 10^{-8}$	$3.8 imes10^{-7}$	$6.2 imes 10^{-7}$	$1.0 imes10^{-6}$
$\kappa_2(m/s)$	0.0	0.0	0.0	$4.2 imes 10^{-7}$
γ	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99
$\tau^{\gamma-1}$	2.6	5.3	4.0	3.6
α	0.65	0.4	0.5	0.80

Parameters found by adjusting Eq. (25) to the measured data of the samples with 8CB. Notice that α is the time exponent of the mean square displacement $\langle (\Delta z)^2 \rangle$ while from the conductivity, we obtain $1 - \alpha$.

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PNPA Model: Conductivity



Low-frequency behavior of the conductivity for all the chiral nematic (and pure E7) (left) and 8CB (right) samples. The solid lines show the fitted line $(f^{1-\alpha})$. Notice that α is the time exponent of the mean square displacement $\langle (\Delta z)^2 \rangle$ while from the conductivity, we obtain $1 - \alpha$. The samples with higher inclination (higher $1 - \alpha$) correspond to the ones where ions have to permeate to diffuse, leading to considerable subdiffusive behavior.

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- The chiral nematic samples were made by keeping the amount of chiral dopant fixed, so the significant difference among samples was the pitch.
- In the case of the **Smectic sample**, we measured it in two different geometries.
- By changing temperature, we used the same sample to measure the spectrum in the Smectic-A, Nematic, and Isotropic mesophases.
- All the samples present a subdiffusive behavior, but the samples with modulation have a much lower exponent characterizing the diffusivity.

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- Such a phenomenon is directly related to the morphology of the phase and can be associated with a cage-like diffusion.
- Impedance spectroscopy, thus, is simple to measure and a non-destructive technique that can probe the morphology of the material besides acquiring many electric parameters.
- Fractional Calculus and Anomalous Diffusion can be combined to provide a powerful tool to analyze electrical impedance in complex fluid systems.

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Published in 2018.

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Available from January, 2023.

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Publicity: Coming soon...



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Thank you!



Grazie!

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Appendix

PNPA: Anomalous PNP model

- Extensions can be obtained by considering the **continuous time random walk** (CTRW) approach based on a suitable choice of the probability density function, $P(\mathbf{r}, t)$.
- There are two ways to implement the extension:
 - In the first one, the displacement current remains unchanged whereas the conduction current is modified by the presence of the fractional derivative;
 - 2 In the second one, the conduction current remains unchanged whereas the displacement current is written in terms of time-fractional derivatives.
- The first way implies modifying phenomenological equations;
- The second way would imply modifying fundamental equations → Maxwell's equations.

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• In general, the diffusion equations are written as follows:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} P(\mathbf{r}, t) = -_{t_0} \mathcal{D}_t^{1-\gamma} \left[\nabla \cdot \mathcal{J}(\mathbf{r}, t) \right], \qquad (31)$$

or

$${}_{t_0}^{C} \mathcal{D}_t^{\gamma} \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \frac{\partial^{\gamma}}{\partial t^{\gamma}} \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{r}, t) = -\nabla \cdot \mathcal{J}(\mathbf{r}, t), \qquad (32)$$

where

$$\mathcal{J}(\mathbf{r},t) = -\left\{ D\nabla P(\mathbf{r},t) - \frac{D}{k_B T} \left[\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r},t) P(\mathbf{r},t) \right] \right\}, \quad (33)$$

with $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}, t)$ being an external field acting on the system.

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Anomalous PNP model: Time-Fractional Derivative

• In Eq. (31) $_{t_0} D_t^{1-\gamma}(\cdots)$ is the fractional Riemann-Liouville operator, i.e.,

$$_{t_0} \mathcal{D}_t^{\gamma} g(\mathbf{r}, t) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(k-\gamma)} \frac{d^k}{dt^k} \int_{t_0}^t d\overline{t} \frac{g(\mathbf{r}, \overline{t})}{(t-\overline{t})^{\gamma+1-k}} , \quad (34)$$

where $k - 1 < \gamma < k$, with k an integer, and t_0 is related to the conditions initially imposed to the system.

• In Eq. (32), we introduced another fractional operator, i.e., the Caputo fractional time operator, defined as follows:

$${}_{t_0}^{C} \mathcal{D}_t^{\gamma} g(\mathbf{r}, t) = \frac{\partial^{\gamma}}{\partial t^{\gamma}} g(\mathbf{r}, t) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(k - \gamma)} \int_{t_0}^t \frac{d\overline{t}}{(t - \overline{t})^{\gamma + 1 - k}} \frac{\partial^k}{\partial \overline{t}^k} g(\mathbf{r}, \overline{t}) \right|. (35)$$

• We underline that Eqs. (31) and (32) are equivalent when $0 < \gamma < 1$.

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Anomalous PNP model: Time-Fractional Derivative

• Another interesting feature of Eqs. (31) and (32) concerns the possibility to rewrite them, respectively, as follows:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} P(\mathbf{r}, t) = - \nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}(\mathbf{r}, t) \text{ with}$$
$$\mathbf{j}(\mathbf{r}, t) = {}_{t_0} \mathbf{D}_t^{1-\gamma} \mathcal{J}(\mathbf{r}, t)$$
(36)

and

$$\frac{\partial^{\gamma}}{\partial t^{\gamma}} P(\mathbf{r}, t) = - \nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}(\mathbf{r}, t) \text{ with}$$
$$\mathbf{j}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \mathcal{J}(\mathbf{r}, t). \quad (37)$$

• Equations (36) and (37), related to Eqs. (31) and (32), suggest TWO DIFFERENT POSSIBILITIES of extending the standard approach of the PNP model in order to incorporate time-fractional derivatives.

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Anomalous PNP model: Two Different Implementations

• In the first case,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} P(\mathbf{r}, t) = - \nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}(\mathbf{r}, t) \text{ with}$$
$$\mathbf{j}(\mathbf{r}, t) = {}_{t_0} \mathbf{D}_t^{1-\gamma} \mathcal{J}(\mathbf{r}, t), \qquad (38)$$

the continuity equation is preserved, with an extension of the current density in which time-fractional operators are present only acting on the term representing the conduction current;

• In the second case,

$$\frac{\partial^{\gamma}}{\partial t^{\gamma}} P(\mathbf{r}, t) = - \nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}(\mathbf{r}, t) \text{ with}$$
$$\mathbf{j}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \mathcal{J}(\mathbf{r}, t). \tag{39}$$

the continuity equation is extended and the standard form of the current density is modified, but the time-fractional derivative is present only in the term representing the displacement current.

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First Case: The Riemann-Lioville Time Derivative

 If we now combine the new set of fundamental equations of the extended model, it is mandatory to conclude that ∇ · j(r, t) = 0, i.e.,

$$\nabla \cdot \left\{ q\tau^{1-\gamma} \,_{-\infty} \mathcal{D}_{t}^{1-\gamma} \left[\mathbf{j}_{\rho}(\mathbf{r},t) - \mathbf{j}_{m}(\mathbf{r},t) \right] + \varepsilon \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r},t) \right\} = 0.$$
(40)

 This means that a physically sound extension of the PNP model using fractional derivatives requires an extended expression of the total current in which the conduction current is defined in terms of a derivative of arbitrary order whereas the term of the displacement current keeps its original definition in terms of a first-order partial time derivative of the electric field.

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Second Case: Continuity Equation and Caputo Operator

• We analyze an extension of the PNP model by expressing the continuity equation in terms of the Caputo fractional time derivative:

$$\tau^{\gamma-1} \frac{\partial^{\gamma} n_{\rho}(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t^{\gamma}} = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}_{\rho}(\mathbf{r}, t) + S(\mathbf{r}, t),$$

$$\tau^{\gamma-1} \frac{\partial^{\gamma} n_{m}(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t^{\gamma}} = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}_{m}(\mathbf{r}, t) + S(\mathbf{r}, t),$$

$$\tau^{\gamma-1} \frac{\partial^{\gamma} n_{n}(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t^{\gamma}} = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}_{n}(\mathbf{r}, t) - S(\mathbf{r}, t), \qquad (41)$$

 If we now combine the new set of fundamental equations of the extended model, following the procedure used before, it is possible to conclude that ∇ · j(r, t) = 0, i.e.,

$$\nabla \cdot \left\{ q \left[\mathbf{j}_{\rho}(\mathbf{r},t) - \mathbf{j}_{m}(\mathbf{r},t) \right] + \varepsilon \tau^{\gamma-1} \frac{\partial^{\gamma}}{\partial t^{\gamma}} \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r},t) \right\} = 0.$$
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- Analysis of the connection between PNP model and displacement current.
- Electrical conductivity and evidence of the anomalous diffusion.
- Implications of the fractional extension to the total current density.
- Extensions of the PNP model and **connection with CPE** elements.

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