Supporting Information

Nuclear Quantum Effects in Hydrophobic Nanoconfinement

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I. Sample preparation:

In this work, we quantified the hydrophobic forces between extended surfaces in H_2O and D₂O. The extended surfaces were back-silvered mica rendered hydrophobic with covalently bonded perfluorodecyltrichlorosilane (FDTS). The process of sample preparation and characterization of the hydrophobic layer is described below.

I.1. Back-silvered mica preparation for FDTS deposition

We used Norland Optical Adhesive 61(NOA 61) for gluing silver-backed mica to the SFA glass disks. The silver was deposited on mica (thickness of \sim 50 nm) using an electron beam evaporator at a pressure equal to or below 2.66 \times 10⁻⁶ mbar at a rate of 0.5 Å/sec to ensure the highest possible quality. A tiny drop of the glue was applied to the SFA disk and was allowed to spread uniformly to form a thin film. Silvered mica of thickness \approx 5 μm thick was placed on top, with the silver side facing the glue. These disks were cured by ultraviolet light with maximum absorption in the range of 320-380 nm for one hour. Once cured, the glue can withstand temperatures up to 533 K. This heat resistance is the main advantage of using NOA 61 as our SFA sample preparation requires vacuum baking at 393 K.

I.2. Hydrophobic functionalization of mica films

Covalently grafted hydrophobic layers of thiols and silanes can be achieved easily on gold and silica surfaces, respectively. For our experiments, we needed to achieve similar hydrophobic layers on mica film surfaces. Unfortunately, mica is chemically inert due to the low number density of hydroxyl groups available to participate in silanation reactions¹⁻ ³. In order to activate mica, we used an oxygen-plasma activation process incorporated with steam. Pressure inside the chamber was first brought down to 0.2 mbar and later maintained at 0.8 mbar when oxygen was introduced. Under these conditions, the samples were exposed to plasma (50 W) for one hour. The plasma activated mica surfaces were rendered hydrophobic by vapor phase deposition of perfluorodecyltrichlorosilane (FDTS) using a molecular vapor deposition (MVD) setup, Applied Microstructures MVD100E (Figure S1). Prior to deposition of FDTS, the leak rate inside the chamber and deposition lines were maintained below 2.66×10^{-3} mbar/min by constant nitrogen purging. Molecular vapor deposition of FDTS involved two cycles of deposition, each cycle having four FDTS injections at a pressure of 6.6×10^{-3} mbar and one injection of water vapor at 8×10^{-3} mbar. A reaction time of 15 minutes was allowed between cycles to aid the bonding of FDTS molecules to the activated mica surfaces. The samples were then annealed at 393 K at a pressure of 30.3 mbar for an hour to graft a covalently bonded solid layer of FDTS (Figure S1). We then rinsed the FDTS-deposited samples thoroughly with tetrahydrofuran (THF), followed by annealing at 30.3 mbar and 363 K for 60 minutes to remove the physisorbed FDTS layers on mica, as shown in Figure S2a and b.

We produced thiolated surfaces on mica-templated gold that was glued onto silica disks. These samples were immersed in 1 mM solutions of the desired thiol in ethanol for

12-18 hours, shielded from light. Subsequently, the surfaces were washed with hexane and ethanol and dried with dry N_2 gas⁴.

Figure S1: Ball-and-stick representation of the perfluorodecyltrichlorosilane (FDTS) and mica

Figure S2: **a)** Atomic force micrographs of the vacuum-baked FDTS/mica surface (rough); **(b)** FDTS/mica surface after rinsing with tetrahydrofuran followed by additional vacuum baking.

I.3. TEM characterization of hydrophobic layer on mica:

For TEM characterization, we applied a layer of gold (50 nm) over the FDTS layer. The difference in contrast to the 3 different layers in the TEM image (Figure S3) proves the presence of the FDTS layer sandwiched between the mica and gold layers.

Figure S3: TEM image of FDTS sandwiched between the mica and gold layers

Figure S4: a) Wetting of mica with water: H_2O and D_2O water spread on mica yielding ultralow contact angles; **b-c**) Sessile drops of H_2O and D_2O placed gently on FDTS/mica surfaces yield contact angles that are indistinguishable.

I.4. Properties of light and heavy water:

Table S1b demonstrates the stability of our FDTS-coated mica surfaces. We incubated samples in water for controlled durations of time, representative of the duration of our experiments. We then measured contact angles by advancing sessile drops of water (H_2O) of volume 6µl dispensed through a stainless-steel capillary and advanced/retracted at 0.2 μ L-s⁻¹.

I.5. Measurement of hydrophobic forces between FDTS-coated mica surfaces:

We placed two FDTS deposited cylindrical disks with radius of curvature $R \sim 1 - 2$ cm in a crossed cylindered geometry in an SFA. We measured the interaction forces between the disks by bringing them into contact at ultralow speeds ~10 nm/s immersed in solutions of degassed 5 mM KCl (99.8% Fisher Scientific) and H_2O or D_2O . The solutions were degassed by reducing the pressure in the flask containing the solution. We stirred the solution continuously during the process. In order to prevent evaporation of water, we connected a Liebig condenser placed in an ice bath between the solution and the pump. The representative measured force-distance curves are shown in Figure S5. We measured the hydrophobic force (F) acting between the surfaces at a fixed distance, D , by forcedistance spectroscopy from $F = k \times D_{jump}$, where D_{jump} is the distance between surfaces and *k* is the spring constant of the spring used in the system.

Figure S5: The interactive forces measured between mica coated with FDTS surfaces in 5 mM KCl solution of H_2O and D_2O . The representative force curves are shown. The outrun points for D_2O are enlarged for visibility.

We find that the surfaces attract each other due to the hydrophobic force, which is significant and measurable when the surfaces are $D \sim 10$ nm apart. The force increases with decreasing distance between the surfaces. The total force acting between the opposing FDTS/Mica surfaces at the closest distance is determined by separating the surfaces at a constant speed. We found that hydrophobic forces were \sim 10% higher in H₂O than in D₂O.

I.6 Calculation of Van der Waals force between FDTS coated surfaces in H2O and D2O:

We calculated the Hamaker constants for FDTS-H₂O-FDTS and FDTS-D₂O-FDTS systems by using the following equation⁷:

$$
A_H = \frac{3kT}{4} \left(\frac{\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_3}{\varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_3} \right) \left(\frac{\varepsilon_2 - \varepsilon_3}{\varepsilon_2 + \varepsilon_3} \right) +
$$

$$
\frac{3h\nu_e}{8\sqrt{2}} \left[\frac{\left(\eta_1^2 - \eta_3^2 \right) \left(\eta_2^2 - \eta_3^2 \right)}{\left(\left(\eta_1^2 + \eta_3^2 \right) \left(\eta_2^2 + \eta_3^2 \right) \right)^{1/2} \left(\left(\eta_1^2 + \eta_3^2 \right)^{1/2} + \left(\eta_2^2 + \eta_3^2 \right)^{1/2} \right)} \right]
$$

where ε_i ($i = 1,2,3$) are the dielectric constants for FDTS (we assumed it to be same as that of perfluoroethylene), H2O and D2O, respectively, as 2.1, 80, and 79.7; *ηi* (*i* =1, 2,3) refer to the refractive indices of perfluoroethylene, H_2O and D_2O , respectively, which are 1.359, 1.3333, 1.328; $v_e = 3.0 \times 10^{15}$ s⁻¹ is the main electronic absorption frequency in the ultra-violet region. Using the equation for the van der Waals force $F_{vdW} = -A_H/6D^2$, we estimate the maximum vdW force at the contact $(D = 0.17 \text{ nm})$ for the FDTS-H₂O-FDTS and FDTS-D₂O-FDTS systems to be 17.9 mN/m and 18.4 mN/m at respectively.

II. Computational Section:

(A)Molecular Dynamics details

We initially minimized the forces in each system using the conjugate gradient minimization scheme with an energy tolerance of 10^{-4} and a force tolerance of 10^{-5} . We then slowly heated the system from 0 K to 298 K over 100 ps in the constant volume, constant temperature NVT (canonical) ensemble, using a Nose-Hoover thermostat (temperature relaxation constant of 100 fs). The equations of motion were integrated with the velocity verlet algorithm in a 1 fs timestep. We truncated the van der Waals forces at an outer and inner cutoff of 1.2 and 1.1 nm respectively, between which we employed a cubic spline so as to guarantee zero energy and forces at the outer cutoff. We truncated the short-range electrostatic interactions at 1.2 nm and evaluated the long-range electrostatics using the 2D-PPPM method⁸ with a k-space tolerance of 10^{-6} kcal/mol. After initial equilibration, we annealed the system by cycling the temperature 5 times between 298 K and 550 K over 30 ps, followed by a further 100 ps of NVT dynamics at 298 K and then 1 ns of constant pressure, constant temperature (NPT) simulations using the Andersen barostat (pressure relaxation constant of 1 ps).

The equations of motion used are those of Shinoda et al.⁹, which combine the hydrostatic equations of Martyna et al.¹⁰ with the strain energy proposed by Parrinello and Rahman¹¹. The time integration schemes closely follow the time-reversible measure-preserving Verlet integrators derived by Tuckerman et al.¹².

During the last 500 ps of the 1 ns NPT simulation, we calculated the average x and y cell lengths and adjusted the final NPT simulation cell linearly to the averages over a further 100 ps of dynamics. Finally, we performed 30 cycles of NVT dynamics, where the temperature was cycled from 298 K to 550 K over 250 ps, followed by 250 ps of NVT simulation at 298 K. We saved snapshots of the system (atomic position and velocities) every 10 ps and a restart file after each cycle. We then used a starting point for an additional 25 ps of NVT dynamics while saving the atomic positions and velocities every 2 fs.

(B) 2PT method details

In the 2PT method, we approximated the quantum corrections to the enthalpy from our classical MD trajectories by applying quantum corrected weighting functions to the vibrational density of states function¹³ $[DoS(v)]$ at room temperature. These quantum corrections vanish at zero frequency (purely diffusive modes) and increase with increasing frequency¹³ and are therefore more important for high energy vibrations.

For each sheet separation, we calculated the excess thermodynamic values by referencing a separate bulk water simulation. We note that this approach, while approximate, captures the critical zero-point energy and librational (heat-capacity) corrections which are in good aggrement¹⁴ with more complete, though computationally expensive, path-integral simulations¹⁵. We also note that as previously demonstrated,¹⁶ the quasi-harmonic approximation may overestimate the nuclear quantum effect. Other quantum corrections involving proton tunneling due to Fermi-Dirac and Bose-Einstein statistics are not included here, however these effects are expected to be negligible at room temperature¹³. Note that as expected, quantum corrections significantly influence the thermodynamics of the bulk liquid (Table S2), including decreasing the isochore molar heat capacity by 37 J/mol/K for $H₂O$ and 32.3 J/mol/K for $D₂O$. In both cases, quantum corrections improve the agreement with experimental results, as previously reported¹⁷.

In each 2PT calculation, we took the effective volume of the nanoconfined water molecules to be an enclosed volume with $z = D - 3.75$ Å, which accounts for the carbon–water van der Waals exclusion zone. We obtained the mean and standard deviation in our calculated thermodynamics and DoS functions from statistical averaging over the 2PT results of all 30 snapshots for each system. We also performed reference simulations of the bulk liquids (Table S2) and the thermodynamics evaluated using the 2PT method.

Table S2: Thermodynamic properties of H_2O and D_2O from equilibrium MD simulations using the TIP4P2005f water model. The calculated standard molar entropy *S* (J/mol/K), enthalpy *H* (kJ/mol), free energy *G* (kJ/mol), constant volume heat capacity C_v (J/mol/K) and zero-point energy ZPE (kJ/mol) are presented and compared to available experimental data. We define the enthalpy $H^0 = H_{vap} + 4RT - 6.9$ kJ/mol, where H_{vap} is the enthalpy of vaporization obtain from our simulations as $H_{\text{vap}} = U_{\text{bulk}} - U_{\text{vac}}$, 4RT is the ideal gas correction term, and the 6.9 kJ/mol is the dipolar correction term. Where appropriate, both the classical (C) and quantum (Q) energies are reported.

	$\mathcal{S}^{(Q)}$		$H^{(C)}$		H ^(Q)		G ^(Q)		$C_{\rm v}^{(C)}$		$C_{\rm v}^{\rm (Q)}$		ZPE	
	J/mol/K		kJ/mol		kJ/mol		kJ/mol		J/mol/K		J/mol/K		kJ/mol	
H_2O	60.6	士	-36.5	士	-25.7	士	-43.8	士	102.8	士	65.8	士	62.7	士
	0.3		0.1		0.1		0.1		7.4		7.6		0.1	
	69.9a				-36.1		-55.9				74.5 ^a		55.4 ^b	
Expt														
D_2O	66.7	士	-36.8	士	-26.4	士	-46.3	士	104.6	士	72.3	士	46.1	士
	0.4		0.1		0.1		0.1		8.8		8.7		0.1	
	75.64 ^c				-35.5		-58.6				83.7 ^c		40.5 ^b	
Expt														

a: ref¹⁸, b: ref¹⁹ and c: ref²⁰.

Table S3: Thermodynamic properties of nanoconfined H_2O and D_2O from equilibrium MD simulations with the TIP4P2005f water model. The number of confined water molecules (N), the graphene sheet – sheet distance $(D - \mathring{A})$, classic enthalpy $(H^c - kJ/mol/molecule)$, quantum enthalpy $(H^q - kJ/mol/molecule)$, entropy $(S^q - J/mol/K/molecule)$, constant pressure heat capacity $(C_v^q - J/mol/K/molecule)$ and zero-point energy (ZPE – $kJ/mol/K/molecule)$ are provided for H₂O (top) and D_2O (bottom)

H_2O							
N	H^c D		H ^q	S ^q	Cv ^q	ZPE.	
	Å	kJ/mol/molecule	kJ/mol/molecule	J/mol/K/molecule	J/mol/K/molecule	kJ/mol/K/molecule	
162	6.6 ± 0.9	-30.0 ± 0.5	-18.9 ± 1.0	67.7 ± 1.9	6.1 ± 13.2	62.1 ± 1.4	
286	9.4 ± 1.0	-34.9 ± 0.4	-23.2 ± 0.9	61.4 ± 1.9	14.5 ± 10.9	63.6 ± 1.2	
438	12.4 ± 1.1	-34.7 ± 0.3	-23.1 ± 0.6	62.4 ± 1.4	22.2 ± 8.0	63.3 ± 0.9	
566	14.9 ± 1.2	-35.1 ± 0.3	-23.4 ± 0.5	62.2 ± 0.9	25.8 ± 8.1	63.5 ± 0.8	
722	18.0 ± 1.2	-35.5 ± 0.2	-23.7 ± 0.4	61.2 ± 0.5	28.6 ± 6.1	63.6 ± 0.6	
878	21.0 ± 1.1	-35.6 ± 0.2	-24.1 ± 0.4	61.3 ± 0.7	37.5 ± 9.7	63.4 ± 0.6	
1172	26.9 ± 1.4	-35.9 ± 0.1	-24.4 ± 0.4	61.0 ± 0.5	44.0 ± 9.8	63.4 ± 0.5	
1440	32.1 ± 1.3	-36.0 ± 0.1	-24.7 ± 0.3	61.0 ± 0.4	48.4 ± 8.8	63.2 ± 0.4	
2194	46.6 ± 1.2	-36.2 ± 0.1	-25.0 ± 0.2	60.8 ± 0.2	53.3 ± 8.5	63.2 ± 0.3	
2936	61.3 ± 1.3	-36.3 ± 0.1	-25.1 ± 0.2	60.7 ± 0.2	57.9 ± 9.7	63.1 ± 0.2	

Figure S7: **Density and hydrogen bonding analysis. a.** Mass density profile of water on parallel graphene sheets from equilibrium MD simulations and the TIP4P2005f ²¹ forcefield. The number of water molecules and corresponding sheet separations are listed. Results for both H_2O and D_2O are shown **b.** An average number of hydrogen bonds per molecule for H_2O (blue) and D_2O (red) as a function of the number of confined molecules. The MD data (solid circles and squares) are connected with lines to guide the eyes. The error bars represent the standard deviation. **c.** Distribution of hydrogen (deuterium) bond energy for single layer H_2O (dashed blue line) and D_2O (dashed red line) compared to the bulk liquids (solid lines). The energy function is based on the Dreiding²² definition: E_{HB} $= \epsilon \left[5\left(\frac{\sigma}{r_{ij}}\right)^{12} - 6\left(\frac{\sigma}{r_{ij}}\right)^{10}\right] \cos^4(\theta_{ijk})$, where $\epsilon = 4.75$ kcal/mol, $\sigma = 2.75$ Å, is the O – O donor 12 $-6\left(\frac{\sigma}{r_{ij}}\right)^{10}\cos^4{(\theta_{ijk})}$ acceptor distance and *θijk* is the O-H(D) … O donor-hydrogen(deuterium)-O acceptor angle

Figure S8: **Density of states function**. **Left panel:** The plot of the per-molecule, excess density of states functions DoS^{ex} for the diffusive modes in nanoconfined $H₂O$ (blue) and D₂O (red). The DoS^{ex} for **(i)** $D = 0.7$ nm, **(ii)** $D = 1.2$ nm and **(iii)** $D = 2.7$ nm (scaled by a factor of 10 to aid visibility), as well as the bulk liquid reference. **Right panel**: The plot of the per-molecule excess density of states functions DoSex for the librational modes in nanoconfined H_2O (blue) and D_2O (red). Librational motions involve solid-like translations (rattling) motions.

Figure S9: NQEs in nanoconfined organic liquids. (a): Excess free energy of D₂O (blue circles) and H_2O (red squares) calculated from MD simulations employing the mW forcefield²³. The quantum (left) and classical (right) free energies are plotted. The error bars represent standard deviation - 1σ **(b):** Excess free energy of pure liquid methanol described using the OPLS AA/L forcefield^{24,25} (c) Excess free energy of pure liquid formic acid described using the OPLS AA/L forcefield.

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