

Vibrational Sum-Frequency Generation Spectroscopy at the Water/Lipid Interface: Molecular Dynamics Simulation Study

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Abstract: The sum-frequency generation (SFG) spectrum from the water/[1,2-dimyristoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphatidylcholine] (DMPC) interface in the OH stretching mode region of water is simulated and shows three spectral peaks which are assigned to different environments. The weak 3590 cm⁻¹ peak is attributed to a few water molecules coupled to the glycerol backbone of DMPC. The 3470 cm⁻¹ feature comes from the top water layer adjacent to the hydrophilic headgroup of DMPC. The 3290 cm⁻¹ peak arises from the near-bulk water nonadjacent to DMPC. The stretching mode corresponding to the 3290 cm⁻¹ peak is strongly coupled to the neighboring water molecules. In contrast, the 3470 cm⁻¹ mode is decoupled from the surrounding water molecules, and the orientation of water is governed by DMPC. This decoupling explains the slow relaxation dynamics of water measured in the time-resolved SFG experiment. Despite the similarity of the SFG spectra, the peak origins of water/lipid and water/vapor interfaces are different.

1. Introduction

A living eukaryotic cell is bounded by the plasma membrane, and the ions are actively transported to a cell cytoplasm across the membrane.^{1,2} The membranes consist of the lipid bilayers, and the hydrophilic headgroups of the lipids in contact with water play an important role in ionic transport. Since the structure and dynamics of water at lipid interfaces critically contribute to their stability and functionality through hydrogen-bond (H-bond) interactions,^{3,4} understanding the structure and interaction between water and lipids is crucial. Considerable attention has been paid to the ultrafast dynamics of water confined by reverse micelles,^{5–10} at hydrophobic and hydrophilic interfaces,^{11–28} and charged interfaces.^{29–31} Sum-frequency generation (SFG) spectroscopy is particularly suitable for

probing H-bond structures at water/lipid interfaces, because it can selectively capture the interfacial dynamics. For several lipid molecules, SFG spectra at water/lipid interfaces have two broad peaks associated with the OH stretching mode of water at 3200–3300 cm⁻¹ red-shifted and 3400–3500 cm⁻¹ blue-shifted.^{17–21,30,31} These appear similar to the SFG spectra of water/vapor interfaces,^{19,30} but it is not clear whether the peak assignments are the same.

Water/vapor interfaces have been extensively studied over the past 15 years. Du et al. attributed the blue- and red-shifted peaks to “water-like” and “ice-like” structures of interfacial water, based on the spectral similarity with bulk water and quartz-ice, respectively.^{11,32} On the other hand, Sovago et al. used isotopic dilution and argued that these peaks were

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dominated by intramolecular coupling.³³ Molecular dynamics (MD) simulations have attempted to reproduce the SFG spectra and assign the peaks.^{34–41} Buch assigned the blue-shifted peak to four-coordinated molecules, while the red-shifted peak was assigned to the collective excitations of intermolecularly coupled OH stretching vibrations.³⁸ Recently, Ishiyama and Morita successfully modeled the heterodyne-detected SFG signals^{42,43} by using a MD simulation with a polarizable water model and concluded that the red-shifted peak was induced by the intermolecular orientational correlation via the anisotropic contribution of the dipole moment.⁴¹

In this article, we study the SFG signals at the water/lipid interface by means of a MD simulation and investigate the properties of interfacial water. We used [1,2-dimyristoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphatidylcholine] (DMPC) for a lipid molecule, because its force field⁴⁴ has been widely used for interpreting the X-ray data of DMPC bilayers⁴⁵ and exploring the free energy landscape at the water/DMPC interface.²⁸ In section 2, we employ a truncation scheme to separate the response function into the auto- and cross-correlation parts. Section 3 presents the computational protocols for a MD simulation with polarizable point charges. In section 4, the simulated SFG spectra are presented, and the peak assignment and intermolecular couplings are discussed by using the truncated response function. Concluding remarks are given in section 5.

2. The Truncated Response Function

The SFG response function $R_{xxz}^{(2)}$ for the *s*-polarized SFG signal induced by *s*-polarized visible and *p*-polarized infrared (IR) lasers is given by⁴⁶

$$R_{xxz}^{(2)}(t) = -\beta \langle \dot{M}_z(t) A_{xx}(0) \rangle \quad (1)$$

where $M_z(t)$ and $A_{xx}(t)$ are the *z*-component of the total dipole moment and the *xx*-tensor of the polarizability of the system at time *t*, and $\beta = 1/kT$. The *z*-axis is perpendicular to the interfacial (*xy*) plane, and *s*- and *p*-polarizations parallel and perpendicular to the interface, respectively. The total dipole moment and polarizability are given by the sums of molecular dipole moments and polarizabilities

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$$M_z(t) = \sum_i \mu_{i,z}(t) \quad (2)$$

$$A_{xx}(t) = \sum_i \alpha_{i,xx}(t) \quad (3)$$

where μ_i and α_i are the dipole moment and polarizability of molecule *i*, respectively. By inserting eqs 2 and 3 into eq 1, $R_{xxz}^{(2)}(t)$ can be separated into autocorrelation and cross-correlation terms

$$R_{xxz}^{(2)}(t) = -\beta \left\langle \sum_i \dot{\mu}_{i,z}(t) \alpha_{i,xx}(0) \right\rangle - \beta \left\langle \sum_i \sum_{j(\neq i)} \dot{\mu}_{i,z}(t) \alpha_{j,xx}(0) \right\rangle \quad (4)$$

The cross-correlation terms carry important information on intermolecularly correlated dynamics. They require over a few nanosecond MD trajectory for their numerical convergence, while the autocorrelation terms converge much faster.^{47,48} The convergence problem grows rapidly with the number of molecules *N*, because the number of the cross-correlation terms scales as $N(N - 1)$. We introduce a computationally efficient scheme by truncating the cross-correlation terms.

Since fast intramolecular motions are spatially more localized than slow intermolecular motions, we expect the cross-correlation $\langle \mu_{i,z} \alpha_{j,xx} \rangle$ to make a small contribution to $R_{xxz}^{(2)}(t)$ for intramolecular vibrational modes when molecule *i* is far from molecule *j*. To exploit this, we define the truncated response function

$$R_{xxz}^{*(2)}(t, r_t) = -\beta \left\langle \sum_i \dot{\mu}_{i,z}(t) \alpha_{i,xx}(0) \right\rangle - \beta \left\langle \sum_i \sum_{j(\neq i)} \dot{\mu}_{i,z}(t) \alpha_{j,xx}(0) g_t(\bar{r}_{ij}, r_t) \right\rangle \quad (5)$$

where the truncating function $g_t(r_{ij}, r_t)$ depends on the truncation radius r_t and is defined by

$$g_t(r_{ij}, r_t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } r_{ij} \leq r_t \\ 0 & \text{for } r_{ij} > r_t \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

Note that $R^{*(2)}(t, r_t = 0)$ is the autocorrelation terms $-\beta \langle \sum_i \dot{\mu}_i(t) \alpha_i(0) \rangle$, whereas $R^{*(2)}(t, r_t = \infty)$ is equal to $R^{(2)}(t)$. The average distance between molecules *i* and *j*, $\bar{r}_{ij} = |\mathbf{r}_j - \mathbf{r}_i|$, was calculated as $\mathbf{r}_i = (1/T) \int_0^T \mathbf{r}_i(t) dt$, where $T = 2.4$ ps. Convergence of the truncated response function is accelerated for small r_t , while the accuracy increases with r_t .

3. Computational Protocol

3.1. Hamiltonian for MD Simulation with Polarizable Point Charges.

Our model Hamiltonian is given by

$$H = K + U_{\text{intra}} + U_{\text{LJ}} + U_{\text{ele}} \quad (7)$$

where K , U_{intra} , U_{LJ} , and U_{ele} denote the kinetic energy, intramolecular potential energy, Lennard-Jones potential energy, and electrostatic potential energy terms, respectively. In the calculations of U_{intra} and U_{LJ} , the CHARMM force field⁴⁴ was used for DMPC, together with the flexible water model of Martí

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et al.⁴⁹ The intramolecular force constant of two H atoms of water was modified following ref 50. The charge response kernel (CRK) method was used for the calculation of U_{ele} ^{51,52}

$$U_{\text{ele}} = \sum_i \sum_{j>i} \frac{Q_i Q_j}{4\pi\epsilon_0^2} f_{1/r}(r_{ij}) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \sum_j V_i K_{ij} V_j \quad (8)$$

where Q_i and V_i are the point charge and the electrostatic potential at site i , K_{ij} is the CRK combining sites i and j , and $f_{1/r}$ is the $1/r$ summation for the Coulombic interaction. Q and V are related via

$$Q_i = Q_i^{(0)} + \Delta Q_i^{\text{LF}} \quad (9)$$

$$\Delta Q_i^{\text{LF}} = \sum_j K_{ij} V_j \quad (10)$$

$$V_i = \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{Q_j}{4\pi\epsilon_0^2} f_{1/r}(r_{ij}) \quad (11)$$

where $Q_i^{(0)}$ and ΔQ_i^{LF} represent the gas-phase (0th order polarized) point charge and the charge induced by the local electric field, respectively. Equations 9, 10, and 11 were repeatedly solved until $\Delta Q < 0.0001e$ was achieved. For DMPC, we used the fixed charges given by ref 44 and set to $K = 0$, while we used $Q_{\text{O}}^{(0)} = 0.6810e$, $K_{\text{O-H}} = 3.711\text{a.u.}$, and $K_{\text{H}_2\text{H}^3} = -0.678\text{a.u.}$ ⁵³ We multiplied K by 0.73 to avoid the divergence of the point charges in MD simulation, yielding CRK parameters similar to those in ref 54, while the optical response was calculated without scaling. The 1–4 nonbonded interaction was included without scaling. The calculation of $f_{1/r}$ follows ref 53. The Coulombic summation was calculated by using the Wolf method⁵⁵ with $\alpha = 0.1 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ and $r_c = 9.0 \text{ \AA}$.⁵⁶ To screen the short-range electrostatic interaction, the Thole's damping function⁵⁷ was introduced with the cutoffs of 2.44 Å for water–water interactions⁵⁴ and 2.5 Å for water–lipid interactions.

3.2. Protocol for MD Simulation. Our system consisted of 22 DMPC and 1109 water molecules. The size of the prismatic unit cell was chosen to be 28.6 Å in the x and y dimensions (74.4 Å² of the surface area per a lipid molecule) and 120 Å in the z dimension. Periodic boundary conditions were employed. The time step was set to be 0.4 fs, and the simulated geometries were sampled every 1.2 fs. The time correlation average was calculated over a single trajectory. The molecular coordinates of the initial configuration for the DMPC/water interface were obtained from the Laboratory of Molecular and Thermodynamics Modeling at the University of Maryland.⁵⁸ We first ran a 0.3 ns MD simulation for 11 independent configurations at 370 K in the microcanonical ensemble and cooled the systems for 0.1 ns by rescaling the velocity to reach 300 K. We then equilibrated the systems in the microcanonical en-

semble for 0.6 ns and ran a 2 ns MD simulation for sampling the snapshots.

3.3. Calculation of the Optical Response Function. We only calculated the optical response of water. The molecular dipole moment and polarizability were decomposed into permanent and induced terms

$$\mu_i = \mu_i^{\text{perm}} + \mu_i^{\text{ind}} \quad (12)$$

and

$$\alpha_i = \alpha_i^{\text{perm}} + \alpha_i^{\text{ind}} \quad (13)$$

The molecular dipole moment for optical response function was calculated as follows. The point charges modulated by the intramolecular vibrational motion ΔQ^{vib} were calculated following ref 35, while the charges induced by the local electric field ΔQ^{LF} were calculated within the CRK formalism. The molecular permanent and induced dipole moments are given by

$$\mu_i^{\text{perm}} = \sum_{a_i} (Q_{a_i}^{(0)} + \Delta Q_{a_i}^{\text{vib}}) r_{a_i} \quad (14)$$

$$\mu_i^{\text{ind}} = \sum_{a_i} \Delta Q_{a_i}^{\text{LF}} r_{a_i} \quad (15)$$

where a_i denotes the a th site in the i th molecule. For the molecular polarizability, we employed the analytical form of the permanent polarizability given by Morita and Hynes.³⁵ The induced polarizability was calculated via the first-order dipole–induced dipole model

$$\alpha_i^{\text{ind}} = \sum_j \left(\frac{\alpha_j^{\text{perm}} \alpha_i^{\text{perm}}}{r_{ij}^3} - \frac{3(\alpha_j^{\text{perm}} \mathbf{r}_{ij}) \cdot (\mathbf{r}_{ij} \alpha_i^{\text{perm}})}{r_{ij}^5} \right) g_1(r_{ij}) \quad (16)$$

The screening function

$$g_1(r) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } r < 0.8r_c \\ 1 - 10x^3 + 15x^4 - 6x^5 & \text{for } 0.8r_c < r < r_c \\ 0 & \text{for } r_c < r \end{cases} \quad (17)$$

was used, where $x = 5r/r_c - 4$ and r_c was the same as the cutoff used in the calculation of U_{ele} .

To reduce the noise from bulk water, we introduced the following screening function for the dividing surface as

$$g_{\text{ds}}(z) = \text{sgn}(z) \times \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } z_{\text{ds}} + a < |z| \\ \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{\pi(|z| - z_{\text{ds}})}{2a} + \frac{1}{2} & \text{for } z_{\text{ds}} - a < |z| \leq z_{\text{ds}} + a \\ 0 & \text{for } |z| \leq z_{\text{ds}} - a \end{cases} \quad (18)$$

where z_{ds} and a represented the z -coordinate of the dividing surface and the width of the screening region, respectively. Using $g_{\text{ds}}(z)$, the molecular dipole moment and polarizability

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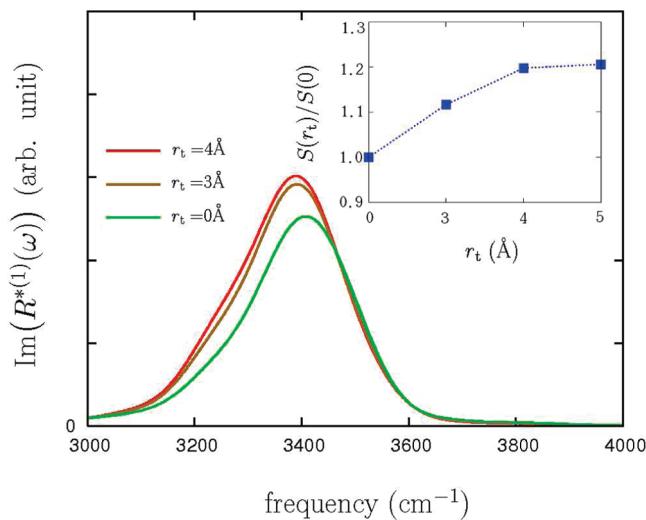


Figure 1. Simulated IR spectra, $\text{Im}(R_{zz}^{*(1)}(\omega, r_t))$, of bulk water for various truncation radii. Inset: Relative areas of the IR spectra, $S(r_t)/S(0)$, vs the truncation radius r_t .

can be written as $\mu_i(t)g_{\text{ds}}(z_i)$ and $\alpha_i(t)g_{\text{ds}}^2(z_i)$, respectively. Thus, we calculated the response function

$$R_{xz}^{*(2)}(t, r_t) = -\beta \left\langle \sum_i \dot{\mu}_{i,z}(t) \alpha_{i,xz}(0) g_{\text{ds}}^3(\bar{z}_i) \right\rangle - \beta \left\langle \sum_i \sum_{j \neq i} \dot{\mu}_{i,z}(t) \alpha_{j,xx}(0) g_t(\bar{r}_{ij}, r_t) g_{\text{ds}}(\bar{z}_i) g_{\text{ds}}^2(\bar{z}_j) \right\rangle \quad (19)$$

4. Results

4.1. Test of the Truncated Response Function. We have tested the validity of the truncated response function by simulating the linear IR response function of bulk water,

$$R_{zz}^{(1)}(t) = -\beta \langle \dot{M}_z(t) M_z(0) \rangle \quad (20)$$

The corresponding truncated response function is given by

$$R_{zz}^{*(1)}(t, r_t) = -\beta \left\langle \sum_i \dot{\mu}_{i,z}(t) \mu_{i,z}(0) \right\rangle - \beta \left\langle \sum_i \sum_{j \neq i} \dot{\mu}_{i,z}(t) \mu_{j,z}(0) g_t(\bar{r}_{ij}, r_t) \right\rangle \quad (21)$$

Our system was composed of 510 water molecules, and the density was set at 1.00 g/cm^3 . The MD run was made in the microcanonical ensemble.

The IR lineshapes, $\text{Im}(R_{zz}^{*(1)}(\omega, r_t))$, for various r_t are displayed in Figure 1. The peak enhanced by the cross-correlation terms means that the neighboring OH stretching modes are intermolecularly coupled. The coupled OH stretching modes appear in $3200\text{--}3400 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, which agrees with a previous study.⁵⁹ We calculated the area of the IR spectra defined by $S(r_t) = \int_{\omega_1}^{\omega_2} \text{Im}(R_{zz}^{*(1)}(\omega, r_t)) d\omega$ with $\omega_1 = 3000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ and $\omega_2 = 3800 \text{ cm}^{-1}$. The relative areas, $S(r_t)/S(0)$, vs r_t are plotted in the inset of Figure 1. The peak enhancement saturates at $r_t = 4 \text{ \AA}$, and we conclude that the surrounding water molecules within a 4 \AA radius affects the OH stretching mode. The eigenstate associated with the OH stretching mode is estimated to be delocalized in

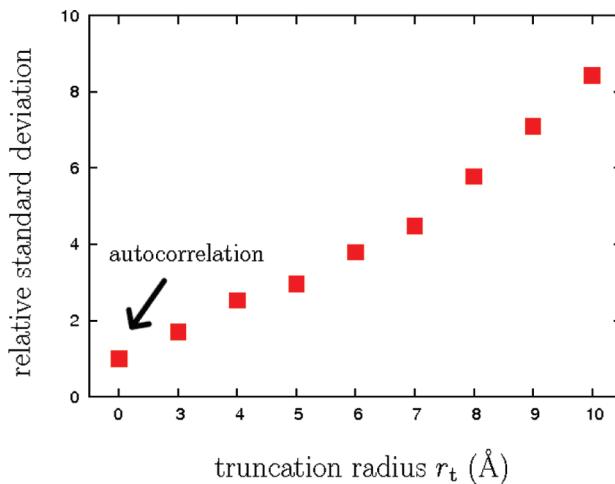


Figure 2. Variation of the relative standard deviations of $R_{zz}^{*(1)}(t, r_t)$ at $t = 100 \text{ fs}$, $\sigma(t = 100 \text{ fs}, r_t)/\sigma(t = 100 \text{ fs}, r_t = 0)$ with the truncation radius r_t .

up to $12\text{--}15$ chromophores.^{59,60} Since $12\text{--}15$ chromophores correspond to the number of water molecules within a $\sim 4.4 \text{ \AA}$ distance,⁶⁰ the current estimation of 4 \AA is consistent with this.

Truncating the cross-correlation terms accelerates the convergence of the response function. The MD trajectory required for the convergence of the response function can be estimated from a standard deviation of the time-domain response function

$$\sigma(t, r_t) = \langle (R_{\text{snap}}^{*(1)}(t, r_t) - \langle R_{\text{snap}}^{*(1)}(t, r_t) \rangle)^2 \rangle \quad (22)$$

where $R_{\text{snap}}^{*(1)}(t, r_t)$ is the first-order response function for each snapshot

$$R_{zz, \text{snap}}^{*(1)}(t, r_t) = -\beta \sum_i \dot{\mu}_{i,z}(t) \mu_{i,z}(0) - \beta \sum_i \sum_{j \neq i} \dot{\mu}_{i,z}(t) \mu_{j,z}(0) g_t(\bar{r}_{ij}, r_t) \quad (23)$$

and we have $R^{*(1)}(t, r_t) = \langle R_{\text{snap}}^{*(1)}(t, r_t) \rangle$. The relative standard deviations at $t = 100 \text{ fs}$, $\sigma(t = 100 \text{ fs}, r_t)/\sigma(t = 100 \text{ fs}, r_t = 0)$, are presented in Figure 2. When r_t is small, the fluctuation of the response function decreases, and a shorter trajectory is required for convergence of the response function. In the coming sections, we use the truncated response function for surveying the intermolecular couplings of the OH stretching modes in the SFG signals.

4.2. SFG Spectra of the Water/DMPC Interface. A snapshot of a simulated water/DMPC system is shown in Figure 3, along with the profiles of the density and z -component of the dipole moment of water. The average dipole at the water/lipid interface had a maximum of 0.51 D for an area/molecule of 74.4 \AA^2 and is much larger than that reported for the water/vapor interface.⁴¹ The strong Coulombic interaction between the hydrophilic headgroup of DMPC and water influences the orientation of the water molecules. Since the intensity of the *ssp* SFG spectra depends on the z -component of the dipole moment, the SFG spectra are expected to be stronger at the water/lipid interface than at the water/vapor interface. This is consistent with, for example, Figure 2 of ref 19. The dipole profile shows an

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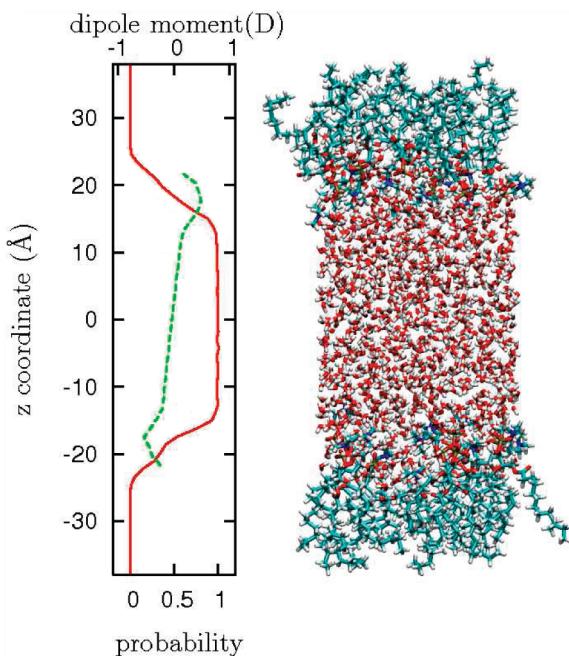


Figure 3. Left: Density profile (solid line) and profile of the z -component of dipole moment per water molecule (broken line). Right: Snapshot of the simulated water/DMPC interface. Water and DMPC molecules are denoted in red and green colors, respectively.

interesting feature; water molecules tend to orient with respect to DMPC when they move from the bulk to the Gibbs dividing surface ($12 \text{ \AA} \leq |z| \leq 17 \text{ \AA}$), and their orientations are randomized when they move toward the lipid layer ($17 \text{ \AA} \leq |z| \leq 22 \text{ \AA}$). These features are in good agreement with a previous Monte Carlo simulation.²⁶

The density and dipole profiles in Figure 3 imply that water orients in random directions for the region of $|z| \leq 12 \text{ \AA}$ and should make no contribution to the SFG signal. We thus set the dividing surface as $r_{ds} = 12 \text{ \AA}$ and $a = 1 \text{ \AA}$. The truncation radius was set to $r_t = 9 \text{ \AA}$. Note that $R_{xxz}^{(2)}(t)$ did not fully converge with our 22 ns MD trajectory. The simulated SFG spectra are shown in Figure 4. It is reasonable to compare with the experimental SFG spectrum at the water/[1,2-dipalmitoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine] (DPPC) interface,²¹ since DPPC and DMPC have the same hydrophilic headgroup and glycerol backbone. The simulated $|R_{xxz}^{(2)}(\omega)|^2$ have two peaks at 3250 and 3480 cm^{-1} , while the frequencies of the peaks at the experimental SFG spectrum are estimated to be 3280 and 3430 cm^{-1} from Figure 2b of ref 21. The full width at half-maximum (fwhm) of the 3250 cm^{-1} peak in the simulated $|R_{xxz}^{(2)}(\omega)|^2$ was 214 cm^{-1} , while the fwhm of the experimental SFG spectrum are estimated to be 200 cm^{-1} .²¹ Our simulation reproduced the overall experimental spectral shapes with slight frequency shifts. Note that the water model employed here contains both the symmetric and antisymmetric modes,⁴⁹ which are not resolved due to the large broadening.

In Figure 4, the imaginary part of the SFG response function is positive, indicating that the water dipole moments at the water/DMPC interface point toward the lipid layer. Water orienting toward the DMPC layer can also be seen in the dipole profile of Figure 3 and in the angle profile between the lipid normal vector and water dipole in Figure 1 of ref 26. However, the imaginary part of the SFG spectrum fitted by using the

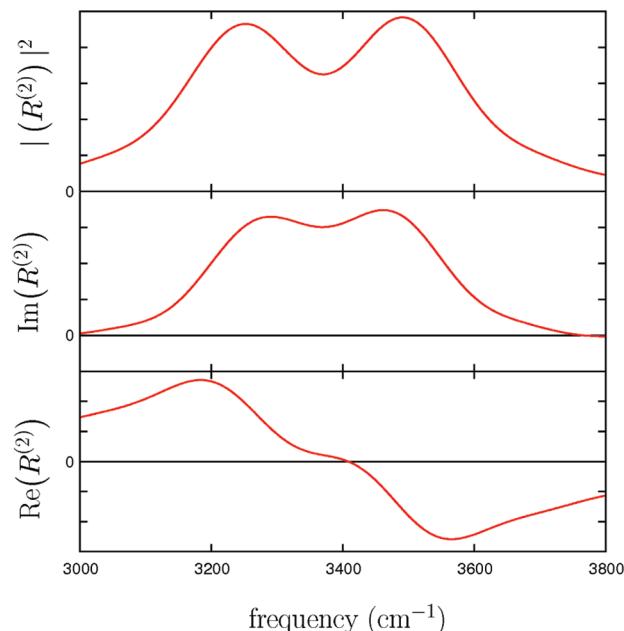


Figure 4. Simulated SFG spectra of the water/DMPC interface, $|R_{xxz}^{(2)}(\omega, r_t = 9 \text{ \AA})|^2$, $\text{Im}(R_{xxz}^{(2)}(\omega, r_t = 9 \text{ \AA}))$, and $\text{Re}(R_{xxz}^{(2)}(\omega, r_t = 9 \text{ \AA}))$. Arbitrary units are used.

maximum entropy method (MEM)⁶¹ showed two negative peaks at the $\text{D}_2\text{O}/\text{DPPC}$ interface, indicating that interfacial water oriented not to the interface but to the bulk.³¹ The current MD simulation as well as a previous Monte Carlo simulation²⁶ seem to be at variance with the fit obtained by using the MEM.³¹ However, the difference between two positive peaks and two negative peaks in $\text{Im}(R_{xxz}^{(2)}(\omega))$ appears only in the sign of the MEM phase, which cannot be determined from the power spectrum $|R_{xxz}^{(2)}(\omega)|^2$. Thus, phase-sensitive (heterodyne-detected) SFG experiments^{30,42,62,63} will be required to reveal the water orientation at the water/DMPC or water/DPPC interfaces.

4.3. Identification of Surface and Bulk Contributions. To investigate how interfacial water at various depths contributes to the SFG signal, we computed the SFG spectra by moving the dividing surface. These are shown in Figure 5. The spectrum for $z_{ds} = 19 \text{ \AA}$ shows one peak at 3590 cm^{-1} , while for $z_{ds} = 12 \text{ \AA}$ we observed two major peaks at 3290 cm^{-1} (red-shifted) and 3470 cm^{-1} (blue-shifted). Here, two interpretations for the peak assignments might be possible. One assumes that the red-shifted peak position is invariant, while the blue-shifted peak is continuously red-shifted with the dividing surface. The other interpretation is that three peaks are present and the peak positions are stationary. A weak $\sim 3600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ peak has been observed in the pump–probe signals of several low hydrated lipid systems (1-palmitoyl-2-linoleyl-phosphatidylcholine (PLPC),²² 1,2-dilauroyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DLPC),²⁵ and 1-palmitoyl-2-oleoylphosphatidylcholine (POPC)⁶⁴). Thus, we adopt the latter interpretation.

The peak areas for various depths of the dividing surface calculated by fitting the SFG spectra with three Gaussians that

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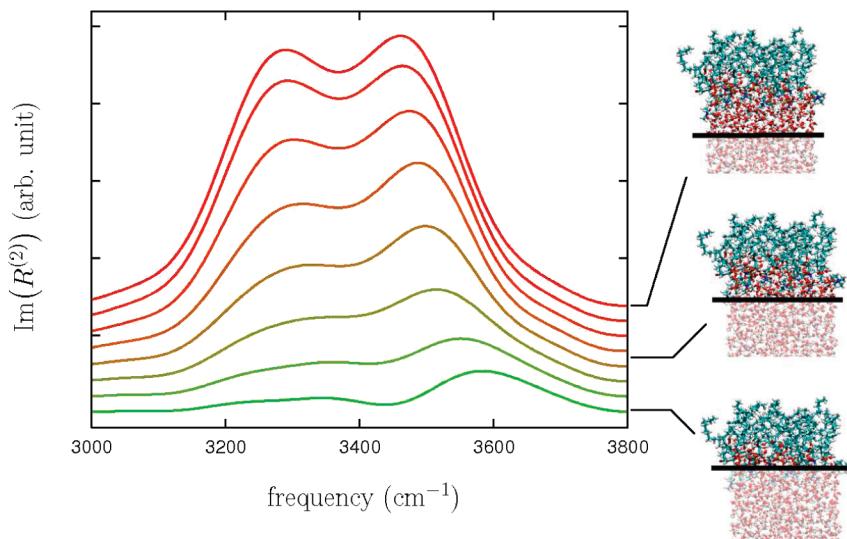


Figure 5. Simulated SFG spectra, $\text{Im}(R_{xz}^{(2)}(\omega, r_t = 9 \text{ \AA}))$, for various depths of the dividing surfaces. From top to bottom, $z_{ds} = 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18$, and 19 \AA .

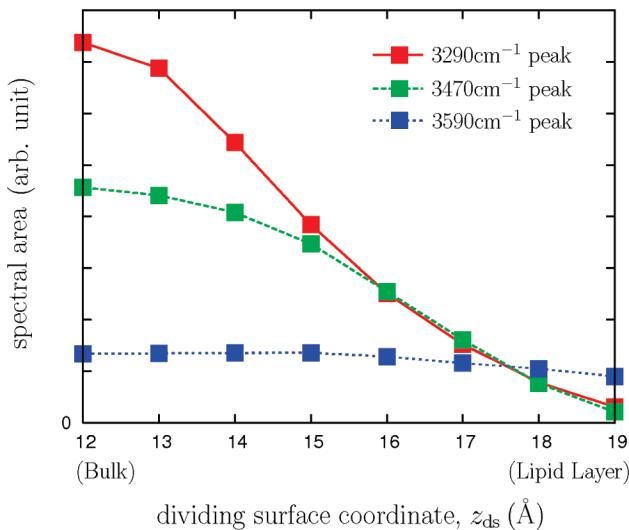


Figure 6. Areas of the 3290 , 3470 , and 3590 cm^{-1} peaks for various dividing surfaces. Lines are guide for eyes.

have the peaks at 3290 , 3470 , and 3590 cm^{-1} are displayed in Figure 6. The area of the 3590 cm^{-1} peak is unchanged as the dividing surface is moved from the lipid bilayer to the bulk, indicating that the 3590 cm^{-1} peak arises mainly from water in the region of $|z| \geq 19 \text{ \AA}$ (region I). In contrast, the spectral areas for the red- and blue-shifted peaks do not contribute to the SFG spectra for $z_{ds} = 19 \text{ \AA}$ and increase as the dividing surface is moved toward the bulk. The spectral area of the blue-shifted peak increases linearly with the dividing surface in the range of $15 \text{ \AA} \leq |z| \leq 19 \text{ \AA}$ (region II), and the increase in the area is saturated for $12 \text{ \AA} \leq |z| \leq 15 \text{ \AA}$ (region III). The red-shifted peak, in contrast, increases in region III.

4.4. Correlations with Neighboring Molecules. Intermolecular coupling of interfacial water shows up in the SFG spectra mainly through the cross-correlation terms in the response function. Variation of the signals with the truncation radius r_t reveals the strength of the intermolecular dynamical correlation, as discussed above. Since the water/lipid interface is anisotropic, we employed two types of ellipsoidal truncations instead of the spherical truncations given by eq 6. The parallel truncations in

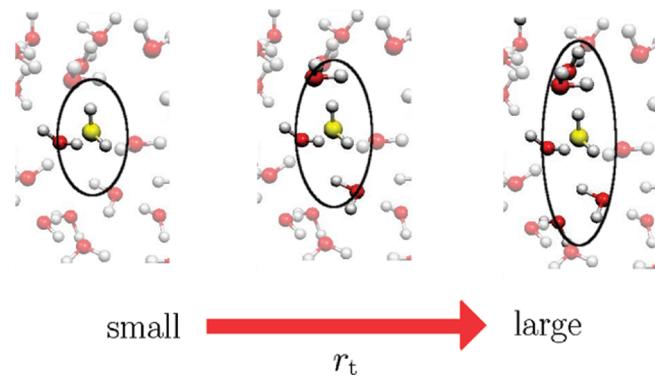


Figure 7. Schematic picture of the perpendicular truncation of the cross-correlation terms (eq 25). The truncation parameter r_t is increased from left to right.

which $R_{xz}^{(2)}(t, r_t)$ included the cross-correlation parallel to the interface is defined as

$$g_t(r) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } \left(\frac{r_{ij(x)}}{r_t}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{r_{ij(y)}}{r_t}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{r_{ij(z)}}{b}\right)^2 \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{for } \left(\frac{r_{ij(x)}}{r_t}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{r_{ij(y)}}{r_t}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{r_{ij(z)}}{b}\right)^2 > 1 \end{cases} \quad (24)$$

whereas the perpendicular truncation in which $R_{xz}^{(2)}(t, r_t)$ included the cross-correlation perpendicular to the interface (Figure 7) is defined as

$$g_t(r) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } \left(\frac{r_{ij(x)}}{b}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{r_{ij(y)}}{b}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{r_{ij(z)}}{r_t}\right)^2 \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{for } \left(\frac{r_{ij(x)}}{b}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{r_{ij(y)}}{b}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{r_{ij(z)}}{r_t}\right)^2 > 1 \end{cases} \quad (25)$$

where b denotes the constant radius of the ellipsoidal bodies, and we set to $b = 2 \text{ \AA}$. Simulated SFG spectra with the parallel and perpendicular truncations are shown in Figure 8. In both truncations, the cross-correlation terms made only a small

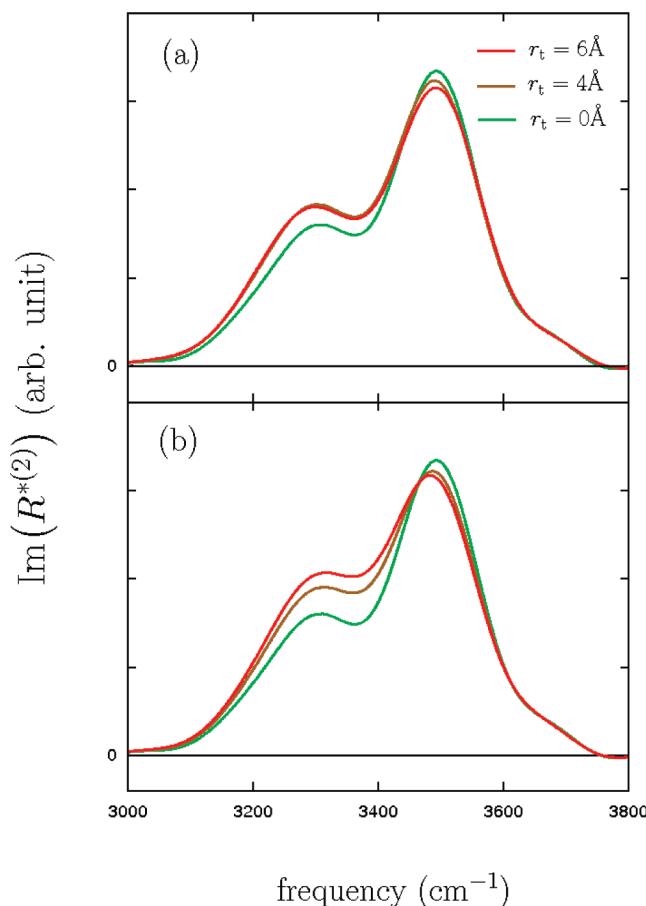


Figure 8. Simulated SFG spectra, $\text{Im}(R_{xxz}^{*(2)}(\omega, r_t))$, for (a) parallel truncation (eq 24) and (b) perpendicular truncation (eq 25).

contribution to the blue-shifted peak, while the red-shifted peak grows with r_t . These indicate that the OH stretching mode corresponding to the blue-shifted peak is not coupled with the neighboring water molecules, while the OH stretching mode for the red-shifted peak is coupled with.

For an in-depth analysis of the contribution of the cross-correlation terms to the SFG spectra, the spectral areas for various r_t , $S(r_t)$, were calculated for the red- and blue-shifted peaks by fitting three Gaussians to $\text{Im}(R_{xxz}^{*(2)}(\omega, r_t))$ in the region $3000 \text{ cm}^{-1} \leq \omega \leq 3800 \text{ cm}^{-1}$. The relative SFG spectral areas, $S(r_t)/S(0)$, vs r_t are depicted in Figure 9 with the IR spectral area for bulk water. Weak cross-correlation of the blue-shifted peak implies that the OH stretching modes are decoupled from the neighboring water molecules, in contrast with bulk water. In particular, the small but negative cross-correlation in Figure 9 (b) means that the neighboring water dipole moments orient in opposite directions, because the sign of the *ssp* SFG signal is determined by the water orientation. This can be related to the following microscopic picture: DMPC is positively charged around the N atom and negatively charged around the P atom. Near the negatively charged part, the water dipole moments orient to DMPC, while they orient against DMPC near the positively charged part, giving rise to the opposite orientations of the neighboring water molecules. These opposite orientations of the neighboring water molecules cause the repulsive dipole–dipole interaction. The top-layer water adjacent to DMPC stabilizes the water/DMPC interface by minimizing the interaction energy between water and DMPC at the expense of the repulsive dipole–dipole interactions between neighboring

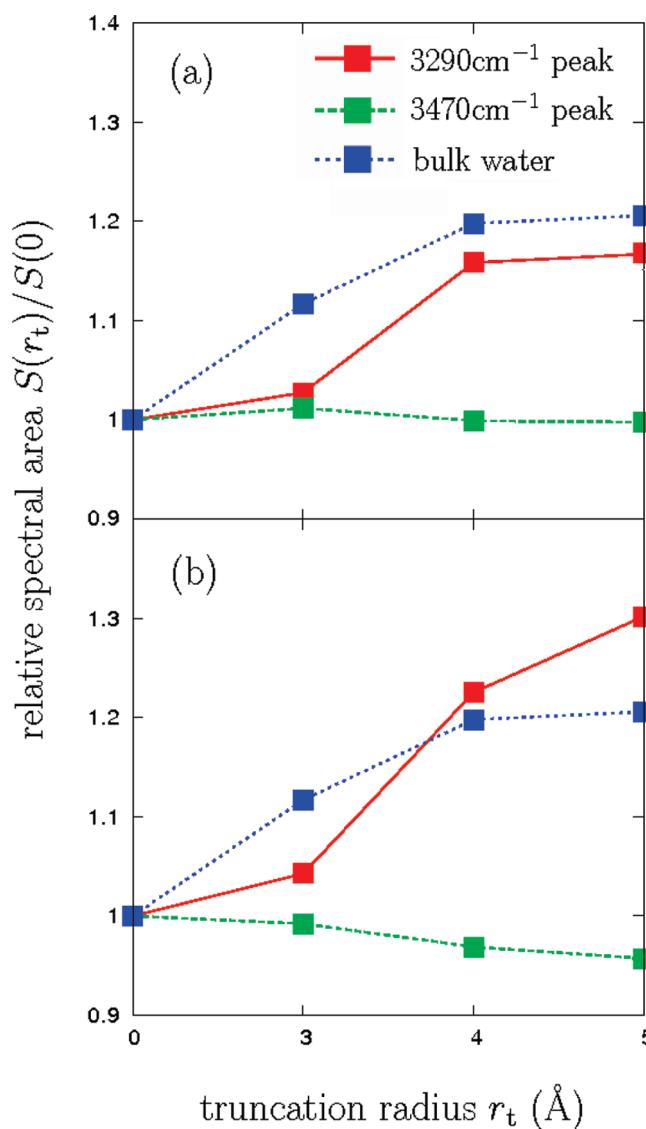


Figure 9. Relative areas, $S(r_t)/S(0)$, of interfacial water corresponding to the red- and blue-shifted peaks for (a) parallel truncation (eq 24) and (b) perpendicular truncation (eq 25). Relative areas of bulk water are also shown for comparison.(see Inset of Figure 1.)

water molecules. These findings indicate that the orientation of water is governed by the hydrophilic headgroup of DMPC rather than the surrounding water.

The red-shifted peak contains a much larger contribution from the cross-correlation terms than the blue-shifted peak in Figure 9, indicating that the OH stretching modes associated with the red-shifted peak are intermolecularly coupled with those of the neighboring water molecules. In particular, the cross-correlation in the perpendicular direction is larger than in the parallel direction, indicating that the strength of the intermolecular coupling is anisotropic. The electrostatic interaction between the hydrophilic headgroup of DMPC and water makes not only the ordered structure of water but also the anisotropic coupling of the OH stretching mode.

4.5. Peak Assignments. The 3590 cm^{-1} peak has the largest intensity when the SFG spectrum for region I of the density profile was extracted by setting the dividing surface at $z_{ds} = 19 \text{ \AA}$, while the peak was not enhanced when the dividing surface was moved toward the bulk in contrast with the other two peaks (Figure 5 and Figure 6). The water density profile indicates that

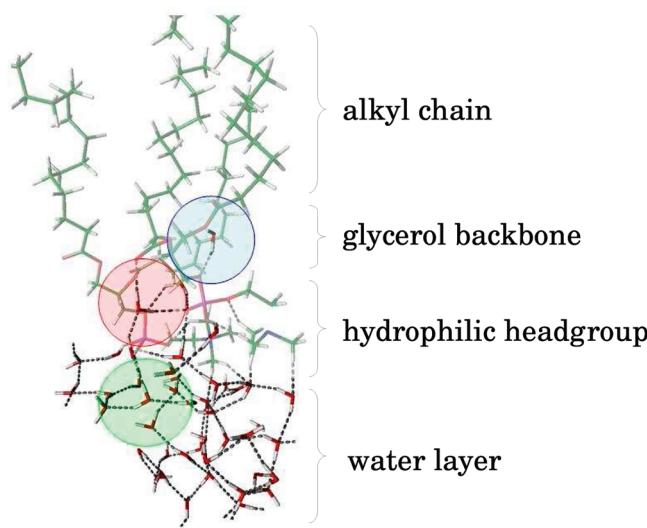


Figure 10. Snapshot of the water/DMPC. Water molecules corresponding to $3590, 3470, 3290\text{ cm}^{-1}$ peaks are highlighted in the blue, red, and green circles, respectively. Dashed lines represent the H-bonds.

in region I water is less dense and is surrounded by DMPC. A typical snapshot of water corresponding to this peak is marked by the blue circle of Figure 10. As depicted in this figure, this high OH stretch frequency arises from the coupling with the glycerol backbone of DMPC. Binder assigned this peak to clusters of a few waters with two or fewer H-bonds each,⁶⁴ whereas Zhao et al. ascribed it to water in the hydrophobic region of the lipid layer.²⁵ The present analysis using the dividing surface and the snapshot of the MD simulation suggests that the 3590 cm^{-1} peak comes from a few water molecules coupled to the glycerol backbone of DMPC. This peak was, however, much weaker than the other two peaks in the SFG spectra.

The spectral intensity of the blue-shifted (3470 cm^{-1}) peak was increased in region II of the density profile when the dividing surface was moved toward the bulk (Figure 5 and Figure 6). Figure 3 shows that in region II the water density increases with the dividing surface, and water forms a layer. The cross-correlation makes a small contribution to the SFG spectra in Figure 8 and Figure 9, indicating that the OH stretching modes corresponding to this peak are not intermolecularly coupled with those of the neighboring water molecules. This implies that the OH stretching mode is coupled to the hydrophilic headgroup of DMPC rather than the surrounding water. A typical snapshot of water corresponding to this peak is marked by the red circle of Figure 10.

The red-shifted (3290 cm^{-1}) peak is enhanced in both regions II and III of the density profile. Figure 3 shows that water occupies most of the space in region III, and the near-bulk water nonadjacent to DMPC is dominant. In Figure 8 and Figure 9, the cross-correlation terms contribute to the SFG signals in contrast with the blue-shifted peak. This indicates that the OH stretching modes associated with the red-shifted peak are coupled with those of the neighboring water molecules. A typical snapshot of water corresponding to this peak is given in the green circle of Figure 10.

For the low hydrated phospholipids, the peak appears at 3420 cm^{-1} in the two-dimensional (2D) IR signal²² and 3380 cm^{-1} in the pump–probe experiment.²⁵ Since the simulated frequency was higher by 50 cm^{-1} than the experimental SFG signal²¹ for the blue-shifted peak, the peak measured at $3380–3420\text{ cm}^{-1}$

should correspond to the blue-shifted peak. Volkov et al. showed that in the low hydrated phospholipid, most of the water molecules formed H-bonds with DMPC.²⁴ Thus, we can expect that the top-layer water adjacent to DMPC contributes to the blue-shifted peak. This is consistent with the current study.

5. Concluding Remarks

We have employed an MD simulation with polarizable point charges to compute the SFG spectra for the water OH stretching mode and found three peaks at $3590, 3470$ (blue-shifted), and 3290 cm^{-1} (red-shifted). The 3590 cm^{-1} peak is very weak in the SFG spectra (Figure 5), although it has been observed in IR spectra of the low hydrated lipid systems.^{22,25,64} The water density profile in Figure 3 and the snapshot in Figure 10 show that a few water molecules coupled to the glycerol backbone of DMPC contribute to this peak.

The imaginary parts of the blue- and red-shifted peaks are positive, indicating that the water dipole moments associated with these modes point from the bulk to the lipid layer. The fitted spectra have negative peaks for both modes.³¹ Only heterodyne-detected SFG experiments^{30,42,62,63} can reveal the signs of $\text{Im}(R_{xx}^{(2)})$ at the water/DMPC interface. We assigned the blue- and red-shifted peaks to water adjacent and nonadjacent to the hydrophilic headgroups of DMPC, respectively. Analysis based on the truncated response function shows that the cross-correlation terms of the response function $\langle \mu_{i,z} \alpha_{i,xx} \rangle$ make a much weaker contribution to the blue-shifted peak than to the red-shifted peak. The large cross-correlation associated with the red-shifted peak indicates the OH stretching modes are coupled with the OH stretching modes of neighboring waters, while the small cross-correlation associated with the blue-shifted peak indicates weak intermolecular couplings. For the blue-shifted peak, the orientation of water and the intermolecular coupling of the OH stretching mode are governed by DMPC rather than the surrounding water molecules.

At the water/vapor interface, the blue- ($\sim 3400\text{ cm}^{-1}$) and the red-shifted ($\sim 3200\text{ cm}^{-1}$) peaks have been assigned to the near-bulk and top-layer water, respectively.^{43,66} In contrast, we showed that the blue- and red-shifted peaks come from the top-layer water adjacent to DMPC, and the near-bulk water nonadjacent to DMPC at the water/DMPC interface. Although the SFG spectra of the water/vapor and water/lipid interfaces are similar,^{19,30} the peak origins are different.

Finally, we comment on the relaxation of the water OH stretching mode at the vapor and the lipid interfaces. Time-resolved SFG spectroscopy showed that water corresponding to the blue-shifted peak had the rapid relaxation of the OH stretching mode, whereas water corresponding to the red-shifted peak had the slow relaxation. The relaxation time for the red-shifted mode was estimated to $\sim 150\text{ fs}$ ⁶⁵ and $\sim 200\text{ fs}$,^{19,67} which was compatible to the relaxation time in the bulk water.⁶⁸ In contrast, at the water/lipid interface, the red- and blue-shifted OH stretching modes show the rapid ($\sim 100\text{ fs}$) and slow ($\sim 500\text{ fs}$) relaxations, respectively.¹⁸ The present study indicates that the lack of intermolecular coupling between the OH stretching

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modes causes the slow relaxation for water corresponding to the blue-shifted peak, whereas the strong intermolecular couplings accelerate the relaxation for the red-shifted peak.

Future MD simulations will focus on the surface-specific 2D spectra with an even-order susceptibility.^{69,70} Possible pulse configurations for surface-specific 2D are IR–IR–IR ($\chi^{(2)}$) and IR–IR–IR–visible ($\chi^{(4)}$). Ultrafast 2D vibrational spectroscopy can capture information on the intermode coupling and inhomogeneity of liquid dynamics.^{71–74} We had proposed 2D IR surface spectroscopy for detecting the interadsorbate coupling on metal surface by using the IR–IR–IR pulse configuration.⁷⁰

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Cheon et al. pointed out that the 2D technique with the even-order susceptibility carries information on the chiral couplings.⁷⁵ The surface-specific 2D experiment was conducted on the model membrane system by using the IR–IR–IR–visible pulse configuration.^{76,77} The applications of these techniques to the water/lipid interface will provide a new experimental tool for probing intermolecular couplings of interfacial water.

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