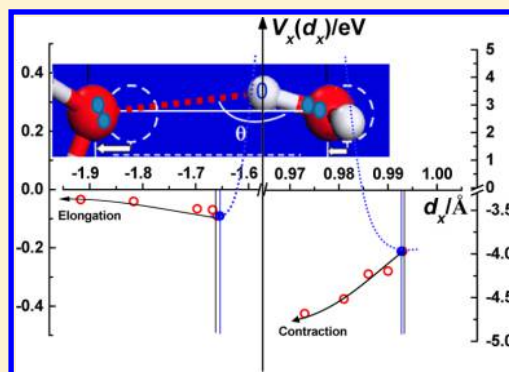


# Potential Paths for the Hydrogen-Bond Relaxing with $(\text{H}_2\text{O})_N$ Cluster Size

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**ABSTRACT:** Relaxation of the hydrogen bond (O:H–O) between oxygen ions of undercoordinated molecules fascinates the behavior of water nanodroplets and nanobubbles. However, probing such potentials remains yet far from reality. Here we show that the Lagrangian solution (Huang et al. *J. Phys. Chem. B* **2013**, *117*, 13639) transforms the observed H–O bond ( $x = H$ ) and O:H nonbond ( $x = L$ ) lengths and their characteristic phonon frequencies ( $d_x, \omega_x$ ) (Sun et al. *J. Phys. Chem. Lett.* **2013**, *4*, 2565) into their respective force constants and cohesive energies ( $k_x, E_x$ ), which results in mapping of the potential paths for the O:H–O bond relaxing with  $(\text{H}_2\text{O})_N$  cluster size. Results show that molecular undercoordination not only reduces its size (H–O length  $d_{\text{H}}$ ) with enhanced H–O energy from the bulk value of 3.97 to 5.10 eV for a  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  monomer but also enlarges their separation (O:H distance  $d_{\text{L}}$ ) with O:H energy reduction from 95 to 35 meV for a dimer. The H–O energy gain raises the melting point of water skin from the bulk value 273 to 310 K, and the O:H energy loss lowers the freezing temperature of a 1.4 nm sized droplet from the bulk value 258 to 202 K, which indicates droplet size induced dispersion of the quasisolid phase boundaries.



## 1. INTRODUCTION

As the source and central part of all lives, water and ice have attracted much attention because of their anomalous behavior when subjected to an external stimulus.<sup>1–5</sup> Undercoordinated water molecules that can be found at the edges of the hydrogen-bonded networks such as snowflakes, clouds, fogs, defects, bubbles, droplets, hydration shells, skins of bulk water, and ice are even more fascinating than those that are fully coordinated in the bulk.<sup>6,7</sup> For instance, water droplets encapsulated in hydrophobic nanopores<sup>8,9</sup> or ultrathin water films deposited on graphite, silica, and certain metals behave like ice, or called polywater, at room temperature. A monolayer of water melts at 325 K<sup>10</sup> compared to the skin of bulk water melting at 310 K.<sup>6</sup> The monolayer film of water at room temperature manifests “quasisolid” behavior and a hydrophobic nature that prevents it from being wetted itself by a water droplet.<sup>11,12</sup>

Molecular undercoordination elevated  $T_m$  is always coupled with depression of the homogeneous ice nucleation temperature ( $T_N$ ). The  $T_N$  drops from the bulk value of 258<sup>13</sup> to 242 K for 4.4 nm sized droplets, 220 K for 3.4 nm sized droplets,<sup>7</sup> 205 K for 1.4 nm sized droplets,<sup>14</sup> and 172 K for 1.2 nm sized

droplets.<sup>15</sup> Freezing transition for clusters containing 1–18 molecules cannot be observed at temperatures even down to 120 K.<sup>16</sup> Water and ice share the common supersolid skin<sup>6</sup> that is elastic, hydrophobic, less dense, and thermally more stable, which makes ice the most slippery and water skin the toughest ever known.

The skin O–O distance for water expands by at least 5.9%, compared to a 4.6% contraction for liquid methanol.<sup>17</sup> The skin bond contracts by up to 12% or even more for other normal substances.<sup>18</sup> The O–O distance in the skin and between a dimer is about 3.00 Å; the O–O distance in the bulk varies from 2.70<sup>19</sup> to 2.85 Å,<sup>20</sup> depending on experimental conditions. Besides, the volume of water confined in the 5.1 and 2.8 nm sized  $\text{TiO}_2$  pores expands by 4% and 7.5%, respectively, with respect to bulk water.<sup>21</sup> The confined droplet forms the gel-like polywater. An extended tetrahedron containing two  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecules unifies the density–geometry–size separation of molecules packed in water and ice, which defines the O–O

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length of 2.6950 Å, O–H length of 1.6946 Å, and H–O bond length of 1.0004 Å at 4 °C for the tetrahedrally coordinated water molecules.<sup>22</sup>

Furthermore, molecular undercoordination imparts water local charge densification,<sup>23–25</sup> binding energy entrapment,<sup>26–29</sup> and nonbonding electron polarization.<sup>24</sup> For instance, the O 1s level shifts more deeply from the bulk value of 536.6 to 538.1 eV and to 539.7 eV when the bulk water is transformed into skin or into gaseous molecules.<sup>30–32</sup> An ultrafast liquid-jet UPS<sup>24</sup> resolved that the vertical bound energy (being equivalent to work function) for the solvated electrons changes from 3.3 eV when in the bulk interior to 1.6 eV when in the skin. The bound energy decreases further with the number  $N$  of the  $(\text{H}_2\text{O})_N$  clusters approaching to zero for isomers. Molecular undercoordination stiffens the H–O stretching phonon  $\omega_{\text{H}}$  from the bulk value 3200  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  to 3450  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  for the skins of water and ice.<sup>33–35</sup> The  $\omega_{\text{H}}$  shifts from 3200 to 3650  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  when the  $N$  of the  $(\text{H}_2\text{O})_N$  cluster drops from 6 to 1 of the gaseous monomer.<sup>36–41</sup>

These entities make water nanodroplets and nanobubbles mechanically hardly destroyable and thermally much more stable than they are at the millimeter scale.<sup>42,43</sup> What is the difference between the undercoordinated water molecules and those fully coordinated in the bulk? Why do the O 1s binding energy and the O:H–O phonon frequencies change with molecular cluster size? Why are droplets and bubbles mechanically stronger and thermally more stable?

The inter- and intramolecular interactions between undercoordinated water molecules and the associated electronics, energetics, and phononics could be crucial to these observations. Therefore, it is indispensable to explore the potential paths for the segmented O:H–O bond relaxing with  $(\text{H}_2\text{O})_N$  size. However, quantitative information about the evolution of these potentials, particularly for interaction between undercoordinated water molecules, and their indication to the anomalies of water droplets and bubbles at the nanometer scale remain unresolved.

Teixeira<sup>44</sup> suggested in 1998 that a symmetric double-well potential exists between neighboring O ions to accommodate the hydrogen proton “frustrating”<sup>45</sup> between these two wells. When the O ions are forced closer, the pairing potential wells turn into single located midway between O ions. In 2004, Wernet et al.<sup>46</sup> hypothesized instead the existence of an asymmetric H-bonding potential which Soper<sup>47</sup> further investigated by assuming different charges on hydrogen protons in order to create this asymmetry and examine whether that could be supported by diffraction data. Considerable efforts have also been made since then by many researchers<sup>48–51</sup> toward formulating and quantifying such asymmetric potentials.

Anomalies due to molecular undercoordination are beyond the scope of currently available models including the nonrigid water potential<sup>52</sup> though some recent experimental and theoretical studies have revealed covalent characteristics of the hydrogen bonding.<sup>53–55</sup> Tremendous work has been done on the phonon relaxation dynamics using neutron, Raman, and infrared absorption methods under various conditions.<sup>56–58</sup> However, the state-of-the-art techniques, including X-ray and

neutron diffraction and electron and phonon spectroscopies could hardly prove this hypothesis as these techniques could not directly detect such local and short-range potentials.

With the aid of phonon spectrometrics and quantum computations using density functional theory (DFT)<sup>59</sup> and molecular dynamics (MD)<sup>60</sup> methods, we have resolved, from the perspective of O:H–O bond cooperativity,<sup>18</sup> multiple issues demonstrated by compressed ice,<sup>61,62</sup> by cooled water and ice,<sup>13,63</sup> by salted water,<sup>64</sup> and by undercoordinated molecules.<sup>66,65</sup> These anomalies include the Mpemba paradox (hot water freezes faster),<sup>63</sup> the Hofmeister effect (NaCl modulates the surface tension and the phonon frequencies of its solution),<sup>64</sup> floating of ice (density anomaly),<sup>13</sup> slipperiness of ice (supersolid skin),<sup>6</sup> proton centralization in ice phase X and low compressibility of ice,<sup>61</sup> water’s tough skin (supersolid skin),<sup>6</sup> etc. Progress made insofar has formed the subjects of recent treatises<sup>1,66</sup> for more details.

We have demonstrated that the Lagrangian oscillating dynamics could be insofar most efficient<sup>62</sup> to deal with the hydrogen bond (O:H–O) relaxation dynamics in the strongly correlated and fluctuating water ice system. This strategy has transformed the known O:H ( $x = L$ ) and H–O ( $x = H$ ) segmental length and stretching vibration frequency ( $d_x, \omega_x$ ) into their force constants and bond energies ( $k_x, E_x$ ) of the O:H–O bond at each equilibrium as a function of pressure.<sup>62</sup> A further extension of the practice could lead to mapping the potential paths for the O:H–O bond relaxing with cluster size with the due relaxation of the O:H–O bond in length and vibration frequencies as a function of cluster size.<sup>62,65</sup> Observations provide insight into the physical mechanism for the unusual thermodynamic behavior, melting point elevation, and freezing point depression of water nanodroplets and nanobelts from the perspective of undercoordination dispersed quasisolid phase boundaries.

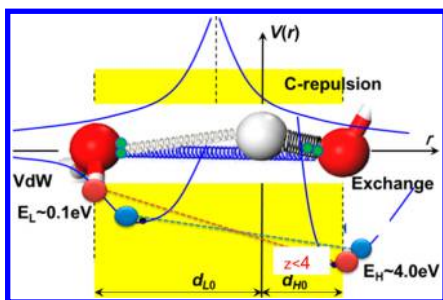
## 2. PRINCIPLES

**2.1. O:H–O Bond Potential Functions.** The hydrogen bond,  $\text{O}^{2\delta-}:\text{H}^{\delta+}-\text{O}^{2\delta-}$  ( $\delta < 1$ ; for simplicity in discussion, we take  $\delta < 1$  and omit the valence sign convention), consists of the intermolecular O:H nonbond and the intramolecular H–O polar covalent bond rather than either of them alone. The “:” is the electron lone pair of oxygen, and the “–” represents the bonding pair shared by O and H ions. We considered a quasi-linear O:H–O bond geometry for simplicity because the  $\angle\text{O:H–O}$  containing angle is largely irrelevant to the physical properties such as the O 1s core level shift and phase transition temperatures.<sup>13</sup>

By averaging the surrounding background of long-range interactions of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecules, protons, and the nuclear quantum effect on fluctuations,<sup>67,68</sup> we focused on the short-range interactions in a O:H–O bond with the H atom being taken as the coordination origin. The short-range interactions include the Lennard-Jones (L-J) potential limited to the O:H nonbond, the exchange interaction to the H–O polar-covalent bond, and the Coulomb repulsion between the lone and the shared electron pairs attached to adjacent oxygen ions

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} V_L(r_L) = V_{L0} \left[ \left( \frac{d_{L0}}{r_L} \right)^{12} - 2 \left( \frac{d_{L0}}{r_L} \right)^6 \right] \quad (\text{O:H; L-J potential } (V_{L0}, d_{L0})) \\ V_H(r_H) = V_{H0} [e^{-2\alpha(r_H-d_{H0})} - 2e^{-\alpha(r_H-d_{H0})}] \quad (\text{H-O; Morse potential } (\alpha, V_{H0}, d_{H0})) \\ V_C(r_C) = \frac{q_O^2}{4\pi\epsilon_r\epsilon_0 r_C} \quad (\text{O-O; Coulomb potential } (q_O, \epsilon, r_C)) \end{array} \right. \quad (1)$$

where  $V_{L0}$  and  $V_{H0}$ , commonly denoted  $E_{L0}$  and  $E_{H0}$ , are the potential well depths, or bond energies, of the respective segment. The  $r_x$  ( $x = L, H,$  and  $C$ ) denotes the interionic distances (corresponding to the length of the springs in Figure 1) at arbitrary position, and the  $d_{x0}$  is at the equilibrium point



**Figure 1.** Schematic illustration of the segmented O:H–O bond with springs representing the short-range interactions with the H atom being the coordination origin. The intramolecular exchange interaction is limited to the H–O bond (H, right-hand side). The intermolecular van der Waals like (vdW-like) force is limited to the O:H nonbond (L, left-hand side). The interelectron-pair Coulomb repulsion (C-repulsion) force is limited to the region of O–O. The pair of dots on oxygen (large green dot) in the left denotes the electron lone pair, and the pair of dots on the right denotes the bonding pair. The Coulomb repulsion pushes both O ions away from their ideal equilibrium positions. Molecular undercoordination shortens and stiffens the H–O bond and meanwhile lengthens and weakens the O:H nonbond, as indicated by  $z < 4$ .<sup>65</sup>

without the involvement of Coulomb repulsion. The  $\alpha$  parameter determines the width of the potential well.  $\epsilon_r$  is the relative dielectric constant of bulk ice.  $\epsilon_0$  is the vacuum dielectric constant. The  $q_O$  denotes the net charge on oxygen ions. A sum term of all long-range interactions of the neighboring H protons or O ions is averaged as the background.

We are concerned more about the equilibrium coordinates of bond length and bond energy ( $d_x, E_x$ ) than the shape of the potentials. Because of the short-range nature of the interactions, only the solid lines in the shaded area for the basic O:H–O unit in Figure 1 are effective. One must switch off a particular potential and on the other immediately once moves to the boundary of the region or across the atomic site. The O:H cohesive energy at the 0.1 eV level is about 3% of 4.0 eV for the H–O bond, which is within the error tolerance but plays the key role in determining the anomalies of water and ice. Spatial decay of any potential is strictly forbidden in the irrespective regime across. Under external excitation, the shape of the potentials may remain but the equilibrium coordinates ( $d_x, E_x$ ) must vary with the stimulus applied.

**2.2. Lagrangian Oscillating Dynamics.** The segmented O:H–O bond performs as an asymmetric oscillator pair coupled by the Coulomb interaction and bridged by the H atom at the fixed coordination origin.<sup>1</sup> The reduced mass of the (H<sub>2</sub>O):(H<sub>2</sub>O) oscillator is  $m_L = 18 \times 18 / (18 + 18)m_0 = 9m_0$ , and that of the H–O oscillator is  $m_H = 1 \times 16 / (1 + 16)m_0 = 16/17m_0$  with  $m_0$  being the unit proton mass of  $1.66 \times 10^{-27}$  kg. The motion of the asymmetric, coupled O:H–O oscillator pair follows the Lagrangian equation<sup>62</sup>

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial (dq_i/dt)} \right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i} = Q_i \quad (2)$$

The Lagrangian  $L = T - V$  consists of the total kinetic energy  $T$  and the total potential energy  $V$ .  $Q_i$  is the generalized nonconservative force. Here, it is the force due to the undercoordination effect  $f_z$  (molecular undercoordination shortens and stiffens the H–O bond spontaneously, which lengthens and softens the O:H nonbond through Coulomb repulsion.<sup>65</sup> The time-dependent  $q_i(t) = u_x$  represents the generalized variables, denoting the coordinates of O atoms in the O:H–O bond represented by the  $x$  springs. The kinetic energy  $T$  consists of two terms, as the H is fixed at the coordination origin

$$T = \frac{1}{2} \left[ m_L \left( \frac{du_L}{dt} \right)^2 + m_H \left( \frac{du_H}{dt} \right)^2 \right] \quad (3)$$

The potential energy  $V$  is composed of three terms given in eq 1: the vdW-like L-J interaction  $V_L(u_L)$ , the exchange interaction  $V_H(u_H)$ , and the Coulomb repulsion  $V_C(u_C) = V_C(u_H - u_L)$ . We took the  $u_x$  as the coordinates and  $d_x$  as the segmental length. Therefore,  $d_{C0} = -u_{L0} + u_{H0}$  is the nearest O–O distance at equilibrium without Coulomb repulsion involvement. The  $d_C = -u_L + u_H$  is the O–O distance with Coulomb repulsion involvement. The O atom dislocates from the equilibrium to another equilibrium by  $\Delta_x = u_x - u_{x0}$  upon the Coulomb repulsion being involved. A harmonic approximation of these potentials at each equilibrium by omitting the higher-order terms in their Taylor's series yields

$$\begin{aligned} V &= V_L(u_L) + V_H(u_H) + V_C(u_H - u_L) \\ &\approx [V_L(u_{L0}) + V_H(u_{H0}) + V_C(u_C)] - V'_C \Delta u_C \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} [k_L \Delta u_L^2 + k_H \Delta u_H^2 + k_C \Delta u_C^2] \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

where  $V_x(u_{x0})$  is the potential well depths ( $n = 0$  terms) of the respective bond, and  $\Delta u_x$  is the amplitude of vibration. Noting that the Coulomb potential is out of equilibrium and that the repulsion force is always positive, one can then expand these potentials at their equilibrium based on harmonic approx-

imation, which ensures sufficient accuracy of the elucidated potential paths.<sup>62</sup>

In the Taylor series, the terms of  $n = 1$  equal zero at equilibrium,  $V'_x(u_{x0}) = 0$ , without Coulomb repulsion;  $V'_x(u_x) + V'_C(u_C) = 0$ , with Coulomb repulsion;  $V'_x(u_x) + V'_C(u_C) + f_z = 0$ , with an addition of the molecular undercoordination effect ( $z < 4$ ). Here  $V'_C \neq 0$  denotes the first-order derivative of the Coulomb potential at the equilibrium due to the sum  $V'_x(u_x) + V'_C(u_C) = 0$ . Terms of  $n = 2$ , or the potential curvatures, denote the force constants, i.e.,  $k_x = V'' = d^2V_x/du_x^2|_{u_{x0}}$  for harmonic oscillators. Terms of  $n \geq 3$  are insignificant and negligible, which is adequate for seeking the nature and trend of the potential paths. The involvement of the Coulomb repulsion dislocates both O ions slightly outwardly by  $\Delta_x$  from their respective initial equilibrium, shifting the atomic distance from  $d_{x0}$  to  $d_x = d_{x0} + \Delta_x$ . The Coulomb repulsion raises the respective potential well depths from  $E_{x0}$  to  $E_x$  by the same amount as both oxygen ions are subject to the same repulsive force.

Substituting eqs 3 and 4 into eq 2 yields the coupled motion equations for the O:H–O oscillator pair,

$$\begin{cases} m_L \frac{d^2 u_L}{dt^2} + (k_L + k_C)u_L - k_C u_H + k_C(\Delta_L - \Delta_H) \\ - V'_C - f_z = 0 \\ m_H \frac{d^2 u_H}{dt^2} + (k_H + k_C)u_H - k_C u_L - k_C(\Delta_L - \Delta_H) \\ + V'_C + f_z = 0 \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

**2.3. Analytical Solutions.** **2.3.1. General Solution.** A Laplace transformation of the Lagrangian turns out the following

$$\begin{cases} u_L = \frac{A_L}{\gamma_L} \sin \gamma_L t + \frac{B_L}{\gamma_H} \sin \gamma_H t \\ u_H = \frac{A_H}{\gamma_L} \sin \gamma_L t + \frac{B_H}{\gamma_H} \sin \gamma_H t \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

The coefficient denotes the vibrational amplitude of the respective segment.  $\gamma_x$  is the angular frequency of the  $x$  oscillator, which depends on the force constant and the reduced mass of the oscillating dimer. The O:H and the H–O segments share the same form of eigenvalues of stretching vibration. The following correlates the  $k_x$  and the  $\omega_x$

$$k_{H,L} = 2\pi^2 m_{H,L} c^2 (\omega_L^2 + \omega_H^2) - k_C \pm \sqrt{[2\pi^2 m_{H,L} c^2 (\omega_L^2 - \omega_H^2)]^2 - m_{H,L} k_C^2 / m_{L,H}} \quad (7)$$

where  $c$  is the velocity of light traveling in vacuum. Omitting the Coulomb repulsion will degenerate the coupled oscillators into the isolated (H<sub>2</sub>O):(H<sub>2</sub>O) and H–O oscillators with respective vibration frequency of  $\omega_x = (2\pi c)^{-1}(k_x/m_x)^{1/2}$ .

**2.3.2. Specific Solution.** Given the frequency  $\omega_x$  and the force constant  $k_C$  of Coulomb repulsion, one can obtain the force constant  $k_x$ , the potential well depth  $E_{x0}$ , and the binding energy  $E_x$  at each equilibrium of these two segments during relaxation. The force constant due to Coulomb repulsion is  $k_C = q_0^2 / (2\pi\epsilon_r\epsilon_0 d_C^3) = 0.17 \text{ eV/\AA}^2$  at equilibrium by taking  $\epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \text{ F/m}$  for vacuum,  $\epsilon_r = 3.2$  for ice, and  $q_0 = 0.652 \text{ e}$  for the undercoordinated skin molecules, as optimized using DFT calculations.<sup>6</sup>

Calculations<sup>62</sup> showed that the  $k_x(\omega_x)$  changes with the respective segmental vibration frequency  $\omega_x$ . The terms of the  $k_L(\omega_H)$  and the  $k_H(\omega_L)$  remain, however, almost constant. Therefore, eq 7 simplifies into the expression for the coupled oscillators

$$\omega_x = (2\pi c)^{-1} \sqrt{\frac{k_x + k_C}{m_x}} \quad (8)$$

Table 1 shows the procedure of derivatives and the outcome with known ( $d_x, \omega_x$ ) as input. For instance, at equilibrium,

**Table 1. Derivatives of the L-J and Morse Potentials at Equilibrium and at Each Quasiequilibrium Position, Which Transits the Known ( $d_x, \omega_x$ ) into the ( $k_x, E_x$ )**

derivatives	O:H potential	H–O potential	outcome
$V'_x(u_{x0}) = 0$	-		$E_{x0}$
$V'_x(u_x) + V'_C(u_C) = 0$	-		$E_x, u_x$
$V_x'' = k_x(k_C, \omega_x)$	$72E_{L0}/d_{L0}^2$	$2\alpha^2 E_{H0}$	$\alpha$
$V_x'''$	$-1512E_{L0}/d_{L0}^3$	$-6\alpha^3 E_{H0}$	-

$V'_x(u_{x0}) = 0$  defines the  $E_{x0}$  and  $d_{x0}$ ;  $V'_x(u_x) + V'_C(u_C) = 0$  defines the  $E_x$ . The difference between  $E_x$  and  $E_{x0}$  is the Coulomb repulsion energy  $E_C$ . Likewise,  $V_x'' = k_x$  and  $V_x'' + V_C'' = k_x + k_C$  (see eq 8). The known  $k_C$  and  $\omega_x$  define the  $V_x''$  value and parameters involved in the respective potential function, given in eq 1.

With the derived values of  $k_L = 2.39 \text{ eV/\AA}^2$ ,  $k_H = 36.09 \text{ eV/\AA}^2$ , and the known  $E_H = 3.97 \text{ eV}$  and  $E_L = 0.095 \text{ eV}$ , we can determine all the parameters in the L-J and the Morse potentials, as well as the force fields of the O:H–O bond at the ambient

$$\begin{cases} k_L = 72E_{L0}/d_{L0}^2 = 2.39 \text{ eV/\AA}^2 \\ k_H = 2\alpha^2 E_{H0} = 36.09 \text{ eV/\AA}^2 \end{cases} \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{cases} E_{L0} = 2.39 \times 1.654^2 / 72 = 0.091 \text{ eV} \\ \alpha = (36.09 / 3.97 / 2)^{1/2} = 2.13 \text{ \AA}^{-1} \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

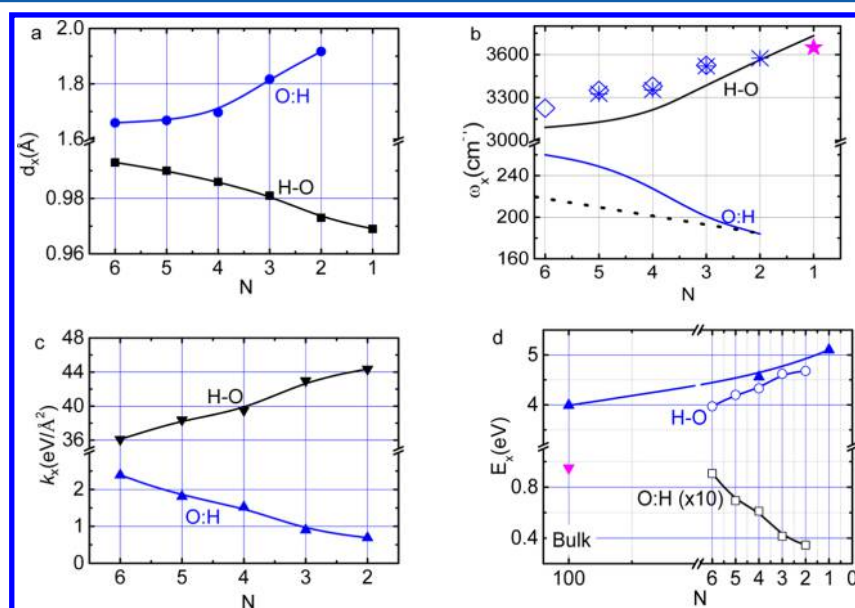
With the known Coulomb potential, the computed segmental  $d_x$  and  $\omega_x$  functions of (H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>N</sub>,<sup>65</sup> one can obtain parameters in the L-J ( $E_{L0}, d_{L0}$ ) and the Morse ( $E_{H0}, \alpha$ ) potentials, as illustrated in Table 1. The  $E_L$  may have different values subjecting to experimental conditions or approaching methods. For instance, the  $E_L$  varies from 0.05 eV for ice at zero pressure to 0.25 eV at 40 GPa and turns to 0.16 eV at 60 GPa pressure.<sup>62</sup> It is therefore meaningful to consider the  $E_x$  values associated with experimental conditions. The currently used  $E_H = 3.97 \text{ eV}$  was obtained by fitting the  $T_C$ – $P$  profiles for both ice VII–VIII phase transition and ice melting and the  $E_L = 0.095 \text{ eV}$  by fitting to the temperature dependence of the water surface tension.<sup>1</sup>

Given the  $\omega_L = 218 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $\omega_H = 3225 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for the (H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>6</sub> cluster<sup>65</sup> and the known  $k_C$ , eq 8 yields  $k_L = 2.39 \text{ eV/\AA}^2$  and  $k_H = 36.09 \text{ eV/\AA}^2$ . With the known  $d_L = 1.659 \text{ \AA}$  and  $d_H = 0.993 \text{ \AA}$ , under Coulomb repulsion, one can obtain the length  $u_{L0}$  of  $-1.654 \text{ \AA}$  and the  $u_{H0}$  of  $0.9927 \text{ \AA}$  at equilibrium. Coulomb repulsion lengthens the O–O distance by  $0.0053 \text{ \AA}$  from  $2.6467$  to  $2.6520 \text{ \AA}$ , according to the equilibrium conditions with and without Coulomb repulsion involvement.

Table 2.  $N$  Dependence of the Energetics at Different Order of Differentials As a Function of  $(\text{H}_2\text{O})_N$  Size<sup>a</sup>

$N$	$E_x$ (eV)					
	O:H potential $V_L(r)$			H-O potential $V_H(r)$		
	0th ( $10^{-3}$ )	2nd ( $10^{-5}$ )	3rd ( $10^{-6}$ )	0th	2nd ( $10^{-6}$ )	3rd ( $10^{-10}$ )
6	90.73	2.45	0.47	3.97	1.62	0.10
5	69.42	3.20	0.80	4.19	1.51	9.03
4	66.16	3.35	0.88	4.25	1.43	8.27
3	40.59	5.27	2.21	4.65	1.10	5.29
2	34.66	6.02	2.93	4.79	0.94	4.09

<sup>a</sup>Both the O:H nonbond and H-O bond are insensitive to the higher-order derivatives.



**Figure 2.** Cluster size ( $N$ ) dependence of the segmental (a) length  $d_x$ , (b) phonon frequency  $\omega_x$ , (c) force constant  $k_x$ , and (d) cohesive energy  $E_x$  of the O:H-O bond in  $(\text{H}_2\text{O})_N$  clusters.<sup>65</sup> Scattered data in (b) are measurements.<sup>36–38,41</sup> The broken line in (b) modifies the calculation  $\omega_L$  with respect to that,  $220\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , for bulk water and to that the calculated  $\omega_H$  matches the measured value at  $N = 2$ . Solid triangles in (d) are measured  $E_L$  for the bulk ( $0.095\text{ eV}$ ),<sup>69</sup> and  $E_H$  are measurements from bulk ( $3.97\text{ eV}$ ),<sup>6</sup> skin ( $4.66\text{ eV}$ ),<sup>1</sup> and gaseous monomers ( $5.10\text{ eV}$ ).<sup>70</sup>

**Table 3.** DFT-Derived Segmental Length  $d_x$ ,  $\angle\text{O:H-O}$  Containing Angle  $\theta$ , and Phonon Frequency  $\omega_x$  for  $(\text{H}_2\text{O})_N$  Clusters<sup>65a</sup>

	monomer	dimer	trimer	tetramer	pentamer	hexamer	bulk <sup>13</sup>
$N$	1	2	3	4	5	6	1h
$d_H$ (Å)	0.969	0.973	0.981	0.986	0.987	0.993	1.010
$d_L$ (Å)	-	1.917	1.817	1.697	1.668	1.659	1.742
$\theta$ (deg)	-	163.6	153.4	169.3	177.3	168.6	170.0
$\omega_L$ ( $\text{cm}^{-1}$ )	-	184	198	229	251	260	-
$\omega_H$ ( $\text{cm}^{-1}$ )	-	184	190	200	210	218	220
$\omega_H$ ( $\text{cm}^{-1}$ )	3732	3565	3387	3194	3122	3091	-
$\omega_H$ ( $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) <sup>50–52,55</sup>	3650	3575	3525	3380	3350	3225	3150
$\Theta_{DL}$ (K)	-	167	171	180	189	196	198 <sup>69</sup>
$\Theta_{DH}$ (K)	3650	3575	3525	3380	3350	3225	3150
$T_N$ (K)	-	94	110	180	188	246	258
$T_m$ (K)	-	322	318	291	289	273	273

<sup>a</sup>Presented are also  $N$  dependence of the Debye temperatures  $\Theta_{Dw}$ , freezing temperature  $T_N$ , and melting point  $T_m$  estimated herewith. Indicates the corrected  $\omega_L$  as captioned in Figure 2<sup>b</sup>. <sup>b</sup>Experimentally observed  $T_m$  elevation and  $T_N$  depression:  $T_m = 325\text{ K}$  (monolayer);<sup>10</sup>  $310\text{ K}$  (skin of bulk);<sup>6</sup>  $T_N = 242\text{ K}$  (4.4 nm droplet);<sup>7</sup>  $220\text{ K}$  (3.4 nm droplet);<sup>7</sup>  $205\text{ K}$  (1.4 nm droplet);<sup>14</sup>  $172\text{ K}$  (1.2 nm droplet);<sup>15</sup>  $<120\text{ K}$  (1–18 molecules).<sup>16</sup>

These values may be subject to accuracy due to the artifact in the calculation algorithm and limitation of available probing techniques. However, these values do reflect the nature origin and the general trend of the segmental relaxation under Coulomb repulsion and molecular undercoordination, which dominate the performance of water ice at the nanometer scale.

### 3. LOCAL POTENTIAL PATHS FOR THE RELAXED O:H-O BOND

**3.1. Accuracy and Reliability.** Table 2 lists the zeroth, the first, the second, and the third derivatives of the Taylor series as a function of  $(\text{H}_2\text{O})_N$  cluster size. For both the O:H nonbond and the H-O bond, the contribution of the high-order terms to

the respective binding energy is negligibly small. Therefore, the harmonious approximation at each equilibrium site is valid in the first-order approximation for the nature origin and the trend of variation.

**3.2.  $N$ -Dependent  $d_x$ ,  $\omega_x$ ,  $k_x$ , and  $E_x$ .** Figure 2a,b and Table 3 featured the  $N$  dependence of the  $d_x$  and  $\omega_x$  values obtained using DFT computations.<sup>65</sup> The present analytical solution transforms these eluded  $d_x$  and  $\omega_x$  into the force constant and bond energy ( $k_x$ ,  $E_x$ ) of the respective segment of the O:H–O bond, from one equilibrium to another, as the  $N$  is reduced. This transformation results in mapping the potential paths for the O:H–O bond at relaxation (see results featured in Table 4 and Figure 2c,d). The counters of the equilibrium

**Table 4.**  $N$  Dependence of the ( $k_x$ ,  $E_x$ ,  $\Delta_x$ ) for the O:H–O Bond in  $(\text{H}_2\text{O})_N$  Clusters<sup>a</sup>

$N$	$E_L$ (meV)	$E_H$ (eV)	$k_L$ (eV/Å <sup>2</sup> )	$k_H$ (eV/Å <sup>2</sup> )	$\Delta_L$ (10 <sup>-3</sup> Å)	$\Delta_H$ (10 <sup>-4</sup> Å)
6	90.70	3.97	2.39	36.09	4.53	2.99
5	69.39	4.20	1.81	38.39	5.95	2.80
4	66.13	4.23	1.67	39.01	6.34	2.71
3	40.54	4.62	0.90	42.99	10.84	2.26
2	34.60	4.68	0.69	44.35	13.23	2.05

<sup>a</sup>The O:H relaxation ( $\Delta_L$ ) is more significant than the H–O bond ( $\Delta_H$ ) from one  $N$  value to the next.

points follow the forms of the respective potentials, as given in eq 1. Therefore, one has to consider the relaxation of the bond potentials when the object is subject to stimulus, instead of keeping the potentials at fixed equilibria.

MD calculations<sup>6</sup> suggested that the H–O bond contracts from the bulk value of  $\sim 1.00$  to  $\sim 0.95$  at the skin, which is associated with O:H elongation from  $\sim 1.68$  to  $\sim 1.90$  Å with high fluctuation. This cooperative relaxation results in a 6.8%  $d_{\text{OO}}$  elongation or a 13% density loss of the skin. The measured  $d_{\text{OO}}$  of  $2.965$  Å<sup>17</sup> yields the lengths of  $d_{\text{H}} = 0.8406$  Å and  $d_{\text{L}} = 2.1126$  Å, which turns out a  $0.75$  g·cm<sup>-3</sup> skin mass density. Consistency between these observations and the current Lagrangian transformation reveals the true situation of the O:H–O bond relaxation and the associated mass density and their correlation with the O:H–O bond potential paths varying with molecular undercoordination.

**3.3. Potential Paths.** Figure 3 shows the evolution of the O:H–O bond potential paths with  $(\text{H}_2\text{O})_N$  size, which agrees with experimental results (Figure 2d). At  $N = 6$ , O atoms

dislocate from the equilibrium (blue dots) outwardly by different amounts with identical energy elevation once the Coulomb repulsion is involved. When the  $N$  reduces from 6 to 2, the H–O bond contracts from  $0.993$  to  $0.973$  Å, and its cohesive energy shifts from  $3.97$  to  $4.68$  eV, agreeing with the changing trend from bulk ( $3.97$  eV) to the skin ( $4.66$  eV) and to the monomer in the gaseous phase ( $5.10$  eV).<sup>70</sup> The O:H expands from  $1.659$  to  $1.917$  Å, and the energy shifts from  $90.70$  to  $34.60$  meV, compared with the bulk value of  $95$  meV.<sup>69</sup> These values may be subject to accuracy, as the DFT calculations are algorithm sensitive.<sup>65</sup> Compared is the O:H–O potential path for compressed ice, which takes the opposite trend of cluster size reduction.<sup>62</sup>

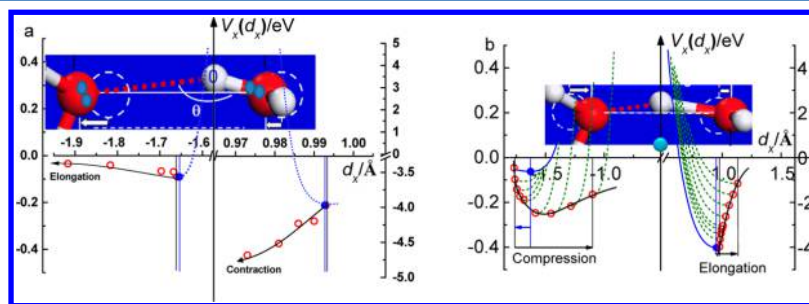
#### 4. THERMODYNAMICS OF UNDERCOORDINATED WATER MOLECULES

**4.1.  $T_m$  Elevation and  $T_N$  Depression.** The droplet-size effect on  $T_m$  and  $T_N$  is often referred to as “superheating” at melting and “supercooling” at freezing. Supercooling, also known as undercooling, is the process of lowering the temperature of a liquid or a gas below its freezing point without it becoming a solid.<sup>71</sup> Superheating is the opposite. Supercooled water occurs in the form of small droplets in clouds and plays a key role in the processing of solar and terrestrial radiative energy fluxes. Supercooled water is also important for life at subfreezing conditions for the commercial preservation of proteins and cells and for the prevention of hydrate formation in nature gas pipelines. In fact,  $T_m$  elevation is different from “superheating, and  $T_N$  depression is different from “supercooling”. The former is intrinsic, and the latter is process dependent.

Generally, melting a specific atom inside a normal substance requires heat that is a fraction of its cohesive energy,  $E_C = zE_z$ , i.e., the sum of bond energy  $E_z$  over its coordination neighbors ( $z$  or CN). The  $T_m$  of a solid changes with the solid size because of the skin atomic undercoordination and the varied fraction of undercoordinated atoms in the skin.<sup>18</sup> However, for water and ice, the presence of the critical temperatures at  $273$  K ( $T_m$ ) and  $258$  K ( $T_N$ ),<sup>13</sup> for transiting the bulk liquid into the quasisolid and then into solid, indicates that a quasisolid (or quasiliquid) phase exists in this temperature regime. However, the quasisolid phase is absent from the existing phase diagram of water and ice.

Why and how does droplet size affect the  $T_m$  and the  $T_N$ ?

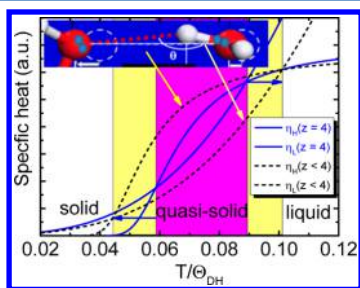
**4.2. O:H–O Bond Specific Heat Disparity.** First, one has to consider the specific heat per bond  $\eta(T/\Theta_D)$  in Debye



**Figure 3.** Potential paths (red circles) for the O:H–O bond relaxing with (a)  $(\text{H}_2\text{O})_N$  cluster size  $N$  (r. to l.:  $N = 6, 5, 4, 3, 2$ ) and (b) pressure (r. to l.:  $P = 0, 5, 10, 15, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60$  GPa).<sup>62</sup> Blue dots are the equilibrium without interoxygen Coulomb repulsion,  $V_x = 0$ . Red circles in the (a) rightmost and (b) leftmost are in the equilibrium,  $V_x + V_C = 0$ , and the rest meets  $V_x + V_C + f_{\text{ex}} = 0$ . The  $f_{\text{ex}}$  is the hidden force due to stimulus. Results indicate (a) that molecular undercoordination reduces the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  size ( $d_{\text{H}}$ ) but increases their separations ( $d_{\text{L}}$ ) with H–O bond stiffening and O:H nonbond softening. Compression has the opposite effect to molecular undercoordination on O:H–O bond relaxation.

approximation when dealing with the thermodynamic behavior of a substance from the atomistic point of view. The specific heat is regarded as a macroscopic quantity integrated over all bonds of the specimen, which is also the amount of energy required to raise the temperature of the substance by 1 °C. The specific heat per bond is obtained by dividing the bulk specific heat by the total number of bonds involved.<sup>72</sup> For other usual materials, one bond represents all on average, and therefore, there is only one specific heat for the representative bond. The thermal response of all the bonds is identical, without any discrimination in responding to thermal excitation.<sup>73</sup>

However, for water ice, the representative O:H–O bond is composed of two segments that must have their respective specific heat. The strong disparity between the specific heat  $\eta_x(T/\Theta_{Dx})$ , as illustrated in Figure 4a, makes water perform



**Figure 4.** Superposition of the specific heat  $\eta_x(T/\Theta_{Dx})$  curves yields two intersecting temperatures  $T_m$  and  $T_N$  that define the boundaries of the solid/quasisolid/liquid phase. Molecular undercoordination ( $z < 4$ ) stretches  $\eta_H(T/\Theta_{DH})$  by raising the  $\Theta_{DH}(\omega_H)$  and depresses the  $\eta_L(T/\Theta_{DL})$  by lowering the  $\Theta_{DL}(\omega_L)$ , which disperses the intersecting temperatures in opposite directions. Therefore, nanodroplets, nanobubbles, and water ice skins undergo simultaneously  $T_N$  depression and  $T_m$  elevation, and the extent of dispersion varies with the fraction of undercoordinated molecules of the object.<sup>42</sup>

differently from other normal substance with only one  $\eta(T/\Theta_D)$  curve. Parameters that characterize the respective  $\eta_x(T/\Theta_{Dx})$  include the Debye temperature  $\Theta_{Dx}$  and the thermal integration of the  $\eta_x(T/\Theta_{Dx})$ . The  $\Theta_{Dx}$ , which is lower than the  $T_{mx}$ , determines the rate of the  $\eta_x(T/\Theta_{Dx})$  curve reaching saturation. The  $\eta_x(T/\Theta_{Dx})$  curve of the segment with a relatively lower  $\Theta_{Dx}$  value will rise to saturation quicker than the other segment. The  $\Theta_{Dx}$  is proportional to the characteristic frequency of vibration  $\omega_x$ , according to Einstein's relation:  $\hbar\omega_x = k\Theta_{Dx}$  with  $\hbar$  and  $k$  being constant.

On the other hand, the integral of the  $\eta_x(T/\Theta_{Dx})$  curve from 0 K to the  $T_{mx}$  is proportional to the cohesive energy  $E_x$  per segment.<sup>72</sup> The  $T_{mx}$  is the temperature at which the vibration amplitude of an atom/molecule expands abruptly to more than 3% of its diameter irrespective of the environment or the size of a molecular cluster.<sup>74,75</sup> Thus, with the known values of  $\omega_L \sim 200 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for O:H stretching and  $\omega_H \sim 3200 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for H–O stretching,<sup>13</sup>  $\Theta_{DL} = 198 \text{ K} < 273 \text{ K}$  ( $T_m$ ),  $E_L = 0.095 \text{ eV}$ ,<sup>69</sup> and  $E_H = 3.97 \text{ eV}$ ,<sup>65</sup> one can estimate  $\Theta_{DH} \approx 16 \times \Theta_{DL} \approx 3200 \text{ K}$  and  $T_{mH} \gg \Theta_{DH}$  form the H–O bond from the following:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \Theta_{DL}/\Theta_{DH} \approx 198/\Theta_{DH} \\ \approx \omega_L/\omega_H \\ \approx 200/3200 \sim 1/16 \\ (\int_0^{T_{mH}} \eta_H dt) / (\int_0^{T_{mL}} \eta_L dt) \\ \approx E_H/E_L \\ \approx 4.0/0.1 \sim 40 \end{array} \right. \quad (10)$$

The  $\eta_L$  ends at  $T_{mL} = 273 \text{ K}$  for the O:H nonbond, and the  $\eta_H$  ends at  $T_{mH} \sim 3200 \text{ K}$  for the H–O bond, which means that the area covered by the  $\eta_H$  curve is 40 times that covered by the  $\eta_L$  curve.

### 4.3. Water Quasisolid Phase Boundary Dispersivity.

Second, a superposition of these two  $\eta_x$  curves yields two intersecting temperatures that divide the full temperature range into phases of liquid, quasisolid, and solid with different  $\eta_L/\eta_H$  ratios (see Figure 4a). In the liquid and in the solid phase ( $\eta_L/\eta_H < 1$ ), the O:H nonbond contracts more than the H–O expands at cooling, resulting in the cooling densification of water and ice.<sup>7,14</sup> In the quasisolid phase, the O:H and the H–O swap roles ( $\eta_H/\eta_L < 1$ ): the H–O contracts less than the O:H expands at cooling, so the  $\Delta d_{OO} > 0$  and water in quasisolid phase become less dense as it cools, which is responsible for ice floating.<sup>13</sup> At the quasisolid phase boundaries ( $\eta_H/\eta_L = 1$ ),  $\Delta d_L$  and  $\Delta d_H$  change sign, which correspond to density extremes. Ideally, the  $T_m$  corresponds to the maximal density at 4 °C liquid and the  $T_N$  the minimal density at –15 °C for bulk water.<sup>7,14,76</sup>

One can imagine what will happen to the phase boundaries by raising the  $\Theta_{DH}$  and meanwhile lowering the  $\Theta_{DL}$ . The  $\eta_L$  will saturate quicker and the  $\eta_H$  slower than they were in the bulk standard. This process will raise the  $T_m$  and lower the  $T_N$ . With the known bulk values of  $\Theta_{DL} = 198 \text{ K}$ ,  $T_m = 273 \text{ K}$ ,  $T_N = 258 \text{ K}$ , and the respective  $\omega_x$  (in Table 3) and  $E_x$  (in Table 4) one can estimate the cluster size dependence of the  $\Theta_{Dx}$ ,  $T_m$ , and  $T_N$  using the following relationships<sup>18</sup>

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \Theta_{Dx} \propto \omega_x \\ T_{N,m} \propto E_{L,H} \end{array} \right.$$

Numerical reproduction of the  $T_m(P)$  profiles<sup>66</sup> indicates that the  $T_m$  is proportional to  $E_H$  and Figure 4a suggests that the  $T_N$  be proportional to  $E_L$ . In order to minimize calculation artifacts, a modification of the  $\omega_L(N)$  curve in Figure 2b is made with respect to the measured value of  $220 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for bulk water and to that the calculated  $\omega_x$  matches the measured value at  $N = 2$ . This modification improves the precision of estimating cluster size dependence of the  $\Theta_{DL}$ . As featured in Table 3, the estimated  $N$ -dependent  $T_m$  and  $T_N$  agree with trends of observations.

Such a phase-boundary dispersivity is responsible for the thermodynamic behavior of water droplets and gas bubbles, particularly at the nanometer scales. These systems of undercoordinated molecular dominance have far-reaching physical, chemical, and biological effects because molecular undercoordination induced unusual bond–electron–phonon behavior, as afore discussed. Water nanodroplets and nanobubbles do follow the trend of  $T_m$  elevation and  $T_N$  depression because of the dominant fraction of undercoordinated skin molecules. Droplet size reduction raises the  $\Theta_{DH}(\omega_H)$  and stretches the  $\eta_H(T)$  curve and, meanwhile, lowers the  $\Theta_{DL}(\omega_L)$

and compresses the  $\eta_L(T)$  curve, which disperses the extreme-density temperatures. A bubble is just the inversion of a droplet; a hollow sphere like a soap bubble contains two skins—the inner and the outer. Both skins are in the supersolid phase, and the volume fraction of such a supersolid phase over the entire liquid-shell volume is much greater than simply a droplet. Therefore, bubbles demonstrate more significantly the supersolidity nature—elastic, hydrophobic, and thermally stable, which makes bubbles mechanically stronger and thermally more stable.<sup>6</sup>

## 5. CONCLUSIONS

Lagrangian solution to the O:H–O bond oscillating dynamics has transformed the observed  $(d_x, \omega_x)$  into the  $(k_x, E_x)$  and thus enabled probing the potential paths for the O:H–O bond relaxing with water cluster size, which is beyond the scope of other currently available approaches. Consistency between calculations and experimental observations on the O:H–O energy relaxation evidence consistently the persistence and significance of the asymmetric short-range interactions and Coulomb repulsion in the flexible, polarizable O:H–O bond and the molecular undercoordination induced O:H–O cooperative relaxation. Such an O:H–O bond cooperative relaxation in segmental length, phonon frequency, and cohesive energy disperses the quasisolid phase boundaries. H–O energy gain elevates the melting point, and O:H energy loss depresses the freezing point pertaining to water droplets and bubbles of which the undercoordinated molecules become dominant.

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### Author Contributions

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### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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