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Single-Molecule Force Spectroscopy Reveals Cation- π Interactions in Aqueous Media Are Highly Affected by Cation Dehydration

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Cation- π interactions underlie many important processes in biology and materials science. However, experimental investigations of cation- π interactions in aqueous media remain challenging. Here, we studied the cation- π binding strength and mechanism by pulling two hydrophobic polymers with distinct cation binding properties, i.e., poly-pentafluorostyrene and polystyrene, in aqueous media using single-molecule force spectroscopy and nuclear magnetic resonance measurement. We found that the interaction strengths linearly depend on the cation concentrations, following the order of Li⁺ < NH₄⁺ < Na⁺ < K⁺. The binding energies are 0.03–0.23 kJ mol⁻¹ M⁻¹. This order is distinct from the strength of cation- π interactions in gas phase and may be caused by the different dehydration ability of the cations. Taken together, our method provides a unique perspective to investigate cation- π interactions under physiologically relevant conditions.

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Cation- π interaction, arising from an attractive force between a π electron cloud and a positive charge, is ubiquitously found in nature [1–4]. Dougherty *et al.* pointed out that electrostatic force is vital to cation- π interaction [5,6]. They proposed an electrostatic force model that can interpret the binding strength order, $K^+ \approx NH_4^+ < Na^+ < Li^+$, in the gas phase [7,8]. Later studies revealed that polarization force, induction force, and dispersion force are also important to cation- π interaction in different cation and π systems [9–12].

Cation- π interaction plays important roles in many biochemical processes, including protein folding, molecular recognition, ion channels, and catalysis [13–17]. Because of the interplay between the hydration and dehydration of ions, cation- π interaction is more complicated in the aqueous environment than in the gas phase. Previous studies pointed out that K⁺ preferred binding with benzene more than hydration in water [8,18]. Unconventional stoichiometries of Na-Cl crystals on graphene surfaces indicated that Na⁺ was partially dehydrated to form Na⁺- π interactions [19]. Previous simulation results suggested that the binding energetics of the cation- π complex are influenced by the solvent effect and spatial restriction [15,20,21]. However, it is challenging to experimentally study the dehydration and solvent effect of cation- π binding at the nanoscale.

Here, we reported a single-molecule force spectroscopy (SMFS) assay [22–32] based on atomic force microscopy (AFM) for investigating the cation- π interactions in aqueous media. In our previous work [33], we found stretching hydrophobic polymers [i.e., polystyrene (PS)] in aqueous media yielded characteristic plateau-shape force-extension curves, and the plateau forces were correlated with the solvation free energy. Fluorine-substituted polymers [i.e., poly-pentafluorostyrene (PPFS)] showed the same plateau forces as PS [34]. In this Letter, we explored how cations affect the plateau forces of two polymers. We found the plateau forces of PPFS can be described using a physical model only considering the hydrophobic effects. However, the plateau forces of PS cannot be described using the same

model. We propose that such a discrepancy is due to the cation- π interactions. By extending the model to include the cation- π interactions, we can adequately describe the experimental data. More surprisingly, we found the strength of cation- π interactions followed the order of Li⁺ < NH₄⁺ < Na⁺ < K⁺, distinct from that in the gas phase. NMR experiments suggested that hydrated Li⁺ could enter collapsed PS nanospheres directly upon cation- π interactions, while Na⁺ dehydrated before entering PS. Our results highlighted the importance of the hydration or dehydration effect on the cation- π interactions in aqueous media.

We synthesized PPFS and PS with additional functional groups on both ends (Fig. S1 in the Supplemental Material [35]), thus, to facilitate covalent linkage with the glass substrate and the cantilever tip for AFM experiments. In PPFS, the fluorine-substituted benzene rings are electronically deficient, and therefore, cannot form cation- π interactions. In contrast, the benzene rings in PS are good π donors and can form cation- π interactions. To confirm the cation- π interactions of PS with cations, we mixed PS with various salts and determined the glass transition temperature (T_g) using differential scanning calorimetry [39]. We observed that T_g of PS was lowered when mixing with various cations, suggesting that cation- π binding makes the PS chains more mobile in a condensed phase (Fig. S2 in the Supplemental Material [35]).

We conducted the SMFS experiments in water [Fig. 1(a) and, in the Supplemental Material, Fig. S1 [35]]. Owing to hydrophobicity, PPFS and PS polymer chains collapse into nanospheres [40,44–46], as confirmed by AFM imaging with heights of 3-8 nm (Fig. S3 in the Supplemental Material [35]). When the AFM tip modified with maleimide groups was extended to the substrate, the maleimide reacted with the thiol group on the other end of the polymers. Subsequently, the AFM cantilever was retracted to unfold the collapsed polymer nanospheres. The representative force-extension curves are shown in Fig. 1(b). The beginning part of that often shows a bump due to the electrostatic interactions between the cantilever tip and the substrate. After that, the curves show a long force plateau around 110 pN, corresponding to unfolding the polymer nanosphere [inset in Fig. 1(b)]. The constant force of the plateaus indicated the unfolding process is reversible [33]. After a complete unfolding of the polymer nanosphere, the force gradually rose up in a fashion that can be described with the wormlike chain (WLC) model [47,48] of polymer elasticity, until the rupture of the polymer. The persistence length of PPFS and PS is 0.23 ± 0.04 nm and 0.25 ± 0.04 nm, respectively (Fig. S4 in the Supplemental Material [35]). In contrast, the force-extension curves in toluene did not show any force plateaus because the polymers were fully dissolved and adopted random coil conformations in good solvent (Fig. S5 in the Supplemental Material [35]). The force-extension curves normalized by



FIG. 1. Pulling collapsed polymer nanospheres in water using the SMFS method. (a) Illustration of the experimental design. Inset is polymer structures. (b) Typical force-extension curves for PPFS and PS. WLC fittings to the elastic stretching part are shown in orange. Dashed line is the base line. Upper inset illustrates the whole unfolding process of the nanosphere. (c) The histogram of plateau force for PPFS and PS collected in one experiment. (d) Illustration of the hydration shell theory.

the contour length in both solvents are shown in Fig. S6 in the Supplemental Material [35]. The elastic stretching parts overlap with each other, indicating that the fully unfolded polymers behave the same in water as that in toluene.

Figure 1(c) shows the histogram of plateau forces for PPFS and PS collected using the same cantilever with minimal cantilever calibration errors. The final plateau forces (the average of averaged value for many experiments, details in Sec. VI of the Supplemental Material [35]) for PPFS (108 ± 2 pN) and PS (107 ± 3 pN) in water are similar, although they are of different chemical properties. This observation agrees with the hydration shell theory [46,49–51]. According to that, the outer surface of the polymer nanosphere and the inner surface of bulk water are separated by a vapor interface [Fig. 1(d)]. In the unfolding process, the polymer chain penetrates the hydration shell and then enters the bulk water. Owing to such vapor interface, the plateau forces depend on the surface tension of water.

To study the cation- π interaction, we performed the SMFS experiments in four salt solutions (LiCl, NaCl, KCl, and NH₄Cl). Both PPFS and PS showed the nanosphere structures with heights of 3–8 nm under these conditions as revealed by AFM imaging (Figs. S7 and S8 in the Supplemental Material [35]). Note that adding cations to the system not only introduced the cation- π interaction but also changed the surface tension of water. Therefore, PPFS served as a reference polymer to estimate the effect of salt concentrations on the hydrophobic interactions. The data



FIG. 2. The data analysis of plateau forces for pulling PPFS nanospheres in salt solutions. (a), (b), (c), and (d) are plateau forces in the NaCl, LiCl, KCl, and NH₄Cl solution, respectively. The error bars represent the standard deviation. The lines are linear fittings to the data. The slope (k), intercept (b), and linear correlation coefficient (η) are listed in the figure, respectively. Here, the unit M denotes mol/kg water and similarly hereinafter. (e) The surface tension of the salt solution at different concentrations. The line is the linear fitting to the data with slope (k) and intercept (b). (f) Four independent lines of Eq. (3) based on the data from Figs. 2(a)–2(e).

points are normalized by the averaged plateau forces collected in water to minimize the calibration errors (Sec. VI of the Supplemental Material [35]). We found the plateau forces of PPFS (F_{PPFS}) increased linearly with the salt concentrations *C* [(Figs. 2(a)–2(d)], namely,

$$F_{\rm PPFS} = k_{\rm PPFS}C + F_0. \tag{1}$$

Here, the slope k_{PPFS} manifests how the plateau forces depend on the salt concentrations, and F_0 is the plateau force in water. The slopes in Figs. 2(a)–2(d) follow the order of $\text{NH}_4^+ < \text{K}^+ < \text{Li}^+ < \text{Na}^+$.

As PPFS cannot form cation- π interactions, we hypothesized that its force plateaus are solely influenced by the surface tension of the salt solutions. We adapted the surface tension of four types of solutions from Ref. [42] as shown in Fig. 2(e). The surface tension linearly depends on the salt concentrations. Hence,

$$\gamma = k_{\gamma}C + \gamma_0 \tag{2}$$

in which k_{γ} is the dependency of surface tension on the concentration *C*, and γ_0 is the surface tension of water.

According to Eqs. (1) and (2), we find a linear relationship between the plateau forces and surface tension, namely,

$$F_{\rm PPFS} = k\gamma + \beta. \tag{3}$$

Here, the slope, $k = k_{\text{PPFS}}/k_{\gamma}$, and the intercept, $\beta = F_0 - k\gamma_0$, can be calculated from the data in Fig. 2. Dimensional analysis implies *k* is with the unit of length. Pulling a polymer to aqueous media can be understood as a process to create a new water-polymer interface against surface tension. Based on Eq. (3), *k* is physically correlated with the perimeter of the cross section of the polymer chain as illustrated in Fig. 1(d) (details in Sec. VIII of the Supplemental Material [35]).

By plotting Eq. (3) obtained from the four different salt solutions, we found the four curves are almost identical within errors [Fig. 2(f)]. These findings indicate that the plateau forces are unrelated to the type of the salt if the surface tension of the salt solution is same.

Next, we unfolded PS nanospheres using SMFS in salt solutions. The plateau forces are summarized in Figs. 3(a)–3(d) and also increase linearly with the salt concentrations



FIG. 3. Determining cation- π binding strengths from SMFS data. (a), (b), (c), and (d) are concentration-dependent plateau forces for the NaCl, LiCl, KCl, and NH₄Cl solutions, respectively. (e) The difference between the slopes of salt concentration dependent plateau forces of PS and PPFS. (f) The cation- π binding energy averaged by the number of monomers and cation concentrations.

(Sec. VIII of the Supplemental Material [35]). The relationship between plateau forces of PS (F_{PS}) and salt concentrations can be described as

$$F_{\rm PS} = k_{\rm PS}C + F_0 \tag{4}$$

where k_{PS} is the slope of PS in various salt solutions and F_0 is the plateau force of PS in water, which is the same as that of PPFS. The slopes that measure how the plateau forces depend on the salt concentrations follow a different order compared with PPFS. The new order is NH₄⁺ < Li⁺ < K⁺ < Na⁺.

Compared with PPFS, which cannot bind with cations in solutions, PS can bind with cations in solutions through cation- π interactions. The unfolding process in salt solutions involves the rupture of the cation- π interactions that bridge two phenyl groups from different positions in the folded PS nanosphere. That means that one cation binds with two phenyl groups simultaneously [13] (Sec. IX of the Supplemental Material [35]). Therefore, the plateau forces of PS are expected to be larger than that of PPFS (Note that the hanging cation- π bindings on the PS chain do not contribute to the plateau force). Indeed, the slopes for PS in all types of salt solutions are larger than that for PPFS. Since the increase of force implies the presence of cation- π interactions, we hypothesized that the distinct changes of the slopes are associated with the different cation- π interaction strengths.

Considering that the energy (E_{PS}) stored in the PS nanosphere is contributed by hydrophobic interactions $(E_{PS-hydrophobic})$ and cation- π interactions $(E_{cation-\pi})$

$$E_{\rm PS} = E_{\rm PS-hydrophobic} + E_{\rm cation-\pi},\tag{5}$$

while E_{PPFS} is contributed by hydrophobic interactions:

$$E_{\rm PPFS} = E_{\rm PPFS-hydrophobic}.$$
 (6)

Based on the analysis of Eqs. (1)–(4), we supposed the hydrophobic interactions for the PS and PPFS were the same, $E_{\text{PS-hydrophobic}} = E_{\text{PPFS-hydrophobic}}$. Therefore,

$$E_{\text{cation}-\pi} = E_{\text{PS}} - E_{\text{PPFS}}.$$
 (7)

This can be reduced to a "force" form (Sec. X of the Supplemental Material [35])

$$F_{\text{cation-}\pi} = (k_{\text{PS}} - k_{\text{PPFS}})C. \tag{8}$$

Interestingly, we find the cation π , behaving as a force, constitutes a part of the plateau force. The difference of the slopes of PS and PPFS is a measure of relative strength of the cation- π interactions [Fig. 3(e)].

The strength of cation- π interactions was estimated based on ($k_{PS} - k_{PPFS}$) (Sec. X of the Supplemental Material [35]). The binding energy is 0.03–0.23 kJ mol⁻¹ M⁻¹ [Fig. 3(f)], smaller than that predicted by the point-to-point binding model from simulations [21]. This is reasonable because our calculation considers the environmental concentration of the cations, the reduced number of benzene rings due to the steric hindrance, and the weakened cation- π interactions by a surrounding dielectric medium in our system [52].

We found the cation- π interactions between four cations and PS follows the order $Li^+ < NH_4^+ < Na^+ < K^+$. It is different from the order $NH_4^+ \approx K^+ < Na^+ < Li^+$ in the gas phase that was predicted by the electrostatic model [7,8], and is also different from Zeng's results, $Li^+ <$ $Na^+ < K^+ < NH_4^+$ [53], measured by surface forces apparatus using competitive binding in aqueous solution. The discrepancy may be due to the hydration effect of the metal ions. In the gas phase, all metal ions are dehydrated. In Zeng's experiments, all metal ions are water bound. However, in our case, the PS is hydrophobic, and whether cations carry water molecules into the PS nanospheres depends on the interplay of the dehydration energy and the cation- π interaction. The binding of cation (M^+) with the π system in PS can be described as follows: For relatively weak hydration,

$$M^{+}(\mathrm{H}_{2}\mathrm{O})_{n} + \pi \rightleftharpoons [M^{+} - \pi] + n(\mathrm{H}_{2}\mathrm{O}).$$
 (9)

Or for relatively strong hydration,

$$M^{+}(\mathrm{H}_{2}\mathrm{O})_{n} + \pi \rightleftharpoons [M^{+}(\mathrm{H}_{2}\mathrm{O})_{n} - \pi].$$
 (10)

The K⁺ shows stronger affinity with benzene than with water [54]; thus the hydrated K⁺ dehydrates to enter the PS nanosphere [Fig. 4(a), Eq. (9)]. For Na⁺, the Na⁺-benzene binding strength is stronger than K⁺-benzene in the gas phase, but the hydration energy of Na⁺ is 1.3 times of that of K⁺ [55]. Thus, the net energy change for Na⁺ is smaller than K⁺. The hydration energy of Li⁺ is the largest among these cations. Therefore, Li⁺ does not dehydrate but carries bound water to PS [Eq. (10)]. Similarly, NH₄⁺ also carries bound water to PS. The mechanism is schematically shown in Fig. 4(a).

To further evaluate this mechanism, we used solid-state NMR experiments to investigate the properties of PS spheres mixed with LiCl and NaCl solutions. The proton 1D spectrum of PS + LiCl shows an additional sharp peak that does not appear in PS and PS + NaCl samples [Fig. 4(b)]. This peak is close to the signal from crystalline water, indicating that LiCl is accompanied by water due to the strong hydration ability. Next, we performed the solid-state NMR HETCOR experiment with an additive T2 filter to filter out proton signals from PS and preserved only crystalline water signals in the beginning of the pulse sequence. Furthermore, we used spin diffusion to estimate



FIG. 4. NMR studies of the interaction between hydrated Li⁺ and PS. (a) A schematic illustration of dehydrated K⁺, Na⁺ and hydrated Li⁺, NH₄⁺ entering the PS nanosphere. (b) The proton 1D spectrum for PS, PS + LiCl, and PS + NaCl. (c) Spectrum of a 100- μ s H-H spin diffusion encoded HETCOR experiment. Measurement was performed at a 20 kHz magic angle spinning at 600 MHz magnetic field. (d) Spectrum of ¹H-⁷Li CP (contact time of 400 μ s) at 20 kHz magic angle spinning.

the distance between crystalline water and PS aromatic protons. Pulse sequences are shown in Fig. S10 of the Supplemental Material [35], and the ¹H-¹³C correlation spectrum is shown in Fig. 4(c). Since 0.05–0.1 ms of spin diffusion time is enough to afford correlated spectra between crystalline water and PS, we estimated the distance between water and PS to be 0.35–0.5 nm [56]. We also performed a T2-filtered ¹H-⁷Li cross polarization (CP) experiment using the pulse sequence shown in Fig. S10 of the Supplemental Material [35]. With only 0.4 ms of CP contact time, we observed the signal transfer from crystalline water to Li^+ [Fig. 4(d)]. Thus, water is always closer to Li⁺ than to the benzene ring-the hydrated Li⁺ enters the PS nanosphere, different from Na⁺. As the water molecules screen the charge of Li⁺ and increase the distance to benzene rings, the Li+ shows the weakest binding strength to benzene among the four cations.

In summary, we developed an AFM-based SMFS method to determine the cation- π binding mechanism at the nanoscale in aqueous solution. Using a polymer that cannot bind with cations as the reference polymer, we can infer the strength of cation- π interactions from their different cation-concentration-dependent unfolding plateau forces. Furthermore, based on single-molecule data, we found the cation- π interaction strength is linearly proportional to cation concentrations, which is distinct from the specific interactions that saturate at high ligand concentrations. The cation- π interaction strength follows the order of Li⁺ < NH₄⁺ < Na⁺ < K⁺. This order is distinct from the strength of cation- π interactions in the gas phase. Solid-state NMR measurements suggested that a competition

between the cation- π binding and the cation-water (hydrated cation) interactions determines whether the cations enter the hydrophobic PS nanospheres alone or with bound water molecules. K⁺ and Na⁺ prefer to be dehydrated prior to entering the PS nanosphere and forming cation- π interactions. Energetically, NH⁺₄ and Li⁺ tend to maintain their hydrated states. To summarize, our studies provide a new insight of the cation- π interactions in aqueous environments and at hydrophilic-hydrophobic interfaces.

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