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Influence of Molecular Dipole Orientations on Long-Range Exponential Interaction Forces at Hydrophobic Contacts in Aqueous Solutions

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ABSTRACT Strong and particularly long ranged (>100 nm) interaction forces between apposing hydrophobic lipid monolayers are now well understood in terms of a partial turnover of mobile lipid patches, giving rise to a correlated long-range electrostatic attraction. Here we describe similarly strong long-ranged attractive forces between self-assembled monolayers of carboranethiols, with dipole moments aligned either parallel or perpendicular to the surface, and hydrophobic lipid monolayers deposited on mica. We compare the interaction forces measured at very different length scales using atomic force microscope and surface forces apparatus measurements. Both systems gave a long-ranged exponential attraction with a decay length of 2.0 ± 0.2 nm for dipole alignments perpendicular to the surface. The effect of dipole alignment parallel to the surface is larger than for perpendicular dipoles, likely due to greater lateral correlation of in-plane surface dipoles. The magnitudes and range of the measured interaction forces also depend on the surface area of the probe used: At extended surfaces, dipole alignment parallel to the surface leads to a stronger attraction due to electrostatic correlations of freely rotating surface dipoles and charge patches on the apposing surfaces. In contrast, perpendicular dipoles at extended surfaces, where molecular rotation cannot lead to large dipole correlations, do not depend on the scale of the probe used. Our results may be important to a range of scale-dependent interaction phenomena related to solvent/water structuring on dipolar and hydrophobic surfaces at interfaces.

KEYWORDS: molecular dipole, hydrophobic, self-assembled monolayer, surface forces apparatus

Variation of surface chemistry provides a powerful lever for tailoring interactions between apposing surfaces in the wide range of living and engineering systems. In biological and biomedical systems for instance, specific chemical interactions (e.g., ligand–receptor interactions) and nonspecific interactions (e.g., H-bonding and hydrophobic interactions) control functionality and stability of cell|surface, 1 protein|surface, 2 and serum|biomaterial interactions, among many others. A large range of available surface chemistries can be used for tailoring drug-carrier interactions with cell membranes. 3 Also, adhesives used for tissue gluing 4 or adhesion promoters used in organic coatings for metal surfaces utilize chemical functionalities of catechols 5 or phosphonates 6 in order to increase bonding stability of an adhesive joint. In addition, not only increased but also lowered interactions can be tailored directly by adjusting interfacial chemistries and steric interactions between interacting surfaces. In most technological tailoring solutions, chemical interactions and steric repulsion are utilized and a direct tailoring of surface chemistry and interfacial interaction forces is straightforward. 7 Self-assembled monolayers of n-alkane-thiols, 8 n-alkanesilanes, 9 and organo-phosphonates 10 are among the most widely studied systems to directly vary chemical properties of metal and oxide surfaces. Yet, chemical variation in many cases also
results in a variation of the interfacial dipole moment. Decoupling of chemical effects and effects due to interfacial dipoles is not straightforward, mainly because of the inability to vary the dipole moment independent of the applied chemical variations. Yet, surface dipoles and alignment of solution side dipoles are fundamental to a range of interaction forces. In particular, interaction forces across water between two hydrophobic surfaces may be related to an alignment of water dipoles at hydrophobic interfaces, which has been controversially discussed in the past. Recently, Hohman et al. produced chemically identical and quite hydrophobic surfaces with strongly varying dipole moments using carborane-based self-assembled monolayer chemistry. Here, we quantify the effect of the variation of surface dipole moments on range and magnitude of interaction forces between these carborane-based self-assembled monolayers and apposing hydrophobic lipid monolayer surfaces.

Figure 1 shows a schematic of the used setup and chemical surface modification. We use the surface forces apparatus (SFA) and atomic force microscopy (AFM) together to study the scaling of the involved interaction forces with varying contact radii ranging from a few nanometers to centimeters. We utilize self-assembled monolayers (SAM) of the two carborane isomers 1-mercapto-1,7-dicarba-closo-dodecaborane (m-1-carboranethiol, henceforth M1) and 9-mercapto-1,7-dicarba-closo-dodecaborane (m-9-carboranethiol, henceforth M9). The dipole moments of the precursor molecules M1 and M9 are aligned perpendicular or parallel to the surface after formation of the SAM (see inset in Figure 1). Using this setup, the influence of the interfacial dipole moment on range and magnitude of interaction forces can be studied in detail. Here we focus on the interaction with extended apposing hydrophobic surfaces across water. However, the setup shown in Figure 1 may be extended for studying the influence of surface dipoles on a wide range of systems including adsorption of polymers at interfaces or interfacial ion-layering in (non)aqueous solutions and ionic liquids.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Direct quantification of the interaction forces between self-assembled monolayers of M1 (or M9) carboranethiols and hydrophobic DODA lipid monolayers shows strong influence of the dipole moment alignments parallel (or perpendicular) to the surface. It is interesting to note that molecular rotation of the carboranethiol molecules perpendicular to the surface (along the sulfur gold bond axis) changes the direction of the dipole moment for the M1 molecules only, while the rotation of M9 molecules does not vary the dipole moment direction (see again Figure 1, inset). The M1 SAM may therefore display correlation effects, such as dynamic alignment of surface dipoles in registry and in feedback with an approaching surface that will alter the interaction forces. Chemically the two SAMs are very similar, and for both SAMs boron atoms are facing the solution (opposite side of the sulfur-gold bond). The advancing and receding water contact angles of M1 and M9 monolayers are reported to be $82^\circ \pm 2^\circ$ and $71^\circ \pm 1^\circ$, and $72^\circ \pm 4^\circ$ and $52^\circ \pm 1^\circ$, respectively, and as such both SAMs have a considerable hydrophobic character. We measure the advancing and receding contact angles of $86^\circ$ and $70^\circ$, and $81^\circ$ and $53^\circ$ for M1 and M9, respectively. Water contact angle hysteresis often stems from hydration of the SAM layer, which usually lowers the solid-liquid interfacial tension and therefore reduces the receding contact angle compared to the advancing.

The different acidity of the upward oriented hydrogen atoms of M1 and M9 molecules may cause different surface charging and hydration, and hence the observed difference in the behavior of the receding contact angles.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements of M1 and M9 surfaces, Figure 2 and Supporting

Figure 1. Schematic of the experimental system. Ensuing force versus distance characteristics using (a) AFM and (b) SFA experiments with gold probes modified with carborane self-assembled monolayers were measured against hydrophobic DODA lipid monolayers grafted on mica in different salt concentrations at pH 5.5. The thickness of the DODA monolayer $T_{LM}$ and the carborane SAM $T_{SAM}$ are indicated.
Information Table S1, show that they are chemically identical. Moreover, the XPS measurements indicate good surface quality of both carborane SAMs on gold. The B 1s signal indicates a shift to higher binding energies for the M9 compared to the M1 SAM, which is consistent with a higher work function due to the perpendicular dipole moment at the surface. Both M1 and M9 indicate a complete and stable SAM formation with S 2p binding energies at 162.6 eV, as well as the expected $P_{\frac{1}{2}}$ and $P_{\frac{3}{2}}$ ratio of 2:1 indicating that sulfur is covalently bound to gold and no unbound molecules are present. Also, the XPS results are in close agreement with previously published data of a closely related carborane system. On the basis of the XPS data, the two SAM surfaces are chemically identical, while physically they are different by the orientation of the dipole moment only.

Figure 3 shows force distance characteristics measured between carboranethiol-modified gold surfaces facing either a hydrophobic dimethyldioctadecylammonium (DODA) lipid monolayers on mica or bare mica (as indicated). All measurements were done in KCl solutions at pH 5.5 (cf., text for details). All in-run profiles for the M9 SAM do not depend on the solution concentration, while force profiles of the M1 SAM facing DODA display a dependence on the solution concentration. In particular, at higher concentrations the jump-in distance is further in, while the decay length is around 2 nm for all cases. The adhesion varies strongly with the salt concentration and is tabulated in Table 1.

Figure 3. Ensuing force-distance characteristics between M1 or M9-modified gold surfaces facing hydrophobic supported DODA lipid monolayers on mica or bare mica (as indicated) measured in SFA in KCl solutions at pH 5.5 (cf., text for details). All in-run profiles for the M9 SAM do not depend on the solution concentration, while force profiles of the M1 SAM facing DODA display a dependence on the solution concentration. In particular, at higher concentrations the jump-in distance is further in, while the decay length is around 2 nm for all cases. The adhesion varies strongly with the salt concentration and is tabulated in Table 1.

The jump-in distance of the M1 SAM depends on the screening length of the used electrolyte. In particular, in 1 mM solution concentrations the jump-in occurs at $D \approx 40 - 50$ nm, in 10 mM solution at $D \approx 30$ nm, and in 100 mM solutions at $D \approx 20$ nm. The observed screening of the jump-in distance of M1 surfaces may be explained as screening of dipole interactions similar to the van der Waals interaction. The electrostatic screening of the long-ranged dipolar electrostatic interaction is then similar in nature to the screening of the non-retarded Hamaker constant $A_{\infty}$ of the van der Waals forces: $A \approx A_{\infty} e^{-xD} + A_{r\infty}$, where $A$ is the total Hamaker constant, $A_{r\infty}$ is the retarded Hamaker constant, and $x$ is the Debye length. Before surfaces jump into direct contact, the force profile is exponentially attractive, with a typical exponential decay length of $9.5 \pm 0.5$ nm in 1 mM KCl. This indicates that an electrostatic interaction that is extremely strong yet screened with the Debye length may be the physical origin of this surprisingly long-ranged attraction. Again, electrostatic interactions due to overlapping electric double layers formed on charged surfaces cannot explain or fit the observed long-range forces in these systems.

A similar electrolyte-dependent effect of the jump-in distance has been observed between two interacting
et al. found that the lipid monolayers undergo overturning that create patches of a positively charged bilayer, leaving behind a negatively charged free substrate (i.e., mica is negatively charged at pH 5.5). As a consequence the lipid patches rearrange into a correlated state of charged domains of positive and negative character that leads to an unexpectedly long-range electrostatic interaction ranging over 50–100 nm.

The monolayer of DODA of the present experiments may similarly create bilayer patch defects and hence a mosaic of positively and negatively charged areas at the interface (see Figure 4A). These patches can then form large electric dipoles parallel to the surface that may interact strongly with the apposing M1 surface. In addition, the molecular rotations of M1 molecules around the sulfur–gold bond can correlate with the apposing dipoles of the DODA surface and form similarly large (giant) dipoles of M1 molecules parallel to the surface. During approach of M1 and DODA surfaces, the simultaneous correlation of dipoles of the apposing surfaces can lead to a long-range electrostatic correlation and enhance the attraction (see again Figure 4A). As such, the mechanism for the long-range force observed in our experiments is very similar to two lipid monolayers interacting, and is apparently based on a large-scale (lateral) electric dipole correlation across the interacting apposing surfaces.

In contrast to the behavior of the M1 SAM, force distance profiles recorded for the M9 SAM show no unexpected jump-in at large separation distances. Rotations of M9 molecules around the Au–S bond do not change the dipole direction (see Figure 4B), and hence no giant dipole similar to the M1 SAM can be formed that can interact with a possible dipole at the DODA surface. Here, jump-in occurs at distances of about $D \approx 8–10$ nm with respect to the plane of origin, and force-distance profiles indicate an exponential attraction with a typical decay length of $1.9 \pm 0.2$ nm, which is independent of the solution concentration. This interesting behavior indicates that there is no long-ranged electrostatic correlation between the M9 SAM and the DODA lipid monolayer (i.e., long-ranged electrostatic attraction would scale with the Debye length and hence concentration of the solution).

Yet, the jump-in distance is longer than that expected from pure van der Waals (VDW) forces. Compared to the typically observed instabilities at $D \approx 15–18$ nm found for two apposing hydrophobic surfaces using SFA, the jump-in occurs at slightly longer distance. Taking into account the weak hydrophobic character of the M9 SAM, with a contact angle of $72 \pm 4^\circ$, this indicates that an additional exponential attraction similar to a hydrophobic attraction is present, and might be due to water structuring at the interface.

Interestingly, the decay length of this additional exponential attraction force is $1.9 \pm 0.2$ nm for the M9 SAM, and hence a much longer range compared to that of interactions of pure hydrophobic surfaces, which have a decay length of $1.0 \pm 0.1$ nm. This increased decay length may indicate that the interfacial dipole alignment (i.e., the alignment of water molecules with the surface dipole of the M9 SAM surface) may lead to an entropically unfavorable longer ranged ordering of water. Hence a dipole-induced solvent layering at the interface may mediate the longer ranged force—a striking conceptual similarity to purely hydrophobic forces. However, this solvent mediated attractive force may be amplified (also act over longer distance range) due to an additional bias from the molecular dipole moments of the carborane SAM.

For both cases, M1 or M9 SAMs facing DODA lipid monolayers, the adhesion varies strongly with the salt concentration as tabulated in Table 1. The adhesion
energy between two hydrophobic surfaces is generally only weakly dependent on electrolyte concentration; however, the morphology of the patches of the lipid mono- and bilayer will change with the concentration (and ionic type). Any change in the lipid mono- and bilayer morphology has impact on the adhesion energy.

Figure 3 also shows that measurements of M1 and M9 SAMs facing a hydrophilic mica surface gives completely different force–distance profiles compared to when the carborane surfaces faces the hydrophobic DODA surface. The M1 SAM shows a shallow attractive force with a mica surface and only a weak adhesion, while the M9 SAM shows a purely repulsive interaction, and no adhesive minimum (see Table 1).

As discussed above, in-plane rotational alignment and correlation of electric dipoles across an extended interface lead to an unexpected long-range attraction for the M1 SAM. To study the influence of contact area on the long-range behavior, we repeated the study using gold-coated AFM tips coated with carboranethiol (see again Figure 1A). The AFM tips used here typically were round-shaped gold grain tips with radii ranging from 8 to 40 nm (for SEM pictures see, e.g., ref 1).

Figure 5 shows typical ensuing force versus distance profiles recorded for either an M1 or M9 SAM facing a DODA monolayer in 1 mM NaCl. The small inset shows a histogram of the measured adhesion.

The force–distance curves shown in Figure 5 indicate no long-range electrostatic repulsive force with an expected Debye length of $\lambda_D = 9.6$ nm for both M1 and M9 coated tips. However, both M1 and M9 show a long-ranged exponential attraction with a decay length of $\lambda_{\text{DODA}} = 2$ nm, which interacts as a superposition to the ever-present van der Waals forces. The measured data are fitted to eq 1 (see details in the Materials and Methods section), and the parameters for each fit are given in the caption of Figure 5. The AFM results of the M9 functionalized tips agree very well with the SFA data. In contrast, the AFM experiments with M1 coated tips indicate weaker attraction with the DODA monolayer compared to the SFA measurements, but they still show the expected long-range attractions. The contact area with AFM tips ($R \approx 20$ nm) are 3 orders of magnitude lower than the contact area with an SFA. In addition, the nanoscopic radius of AFM tips prevents any long-range lateral correlations with the hydrophobic DODA monolayer. Comparing the SFA and AFM data of the M1 SAM facing the DODA monolayer supports the hypothesis that laterally large-scale electrostatic correlations mediate the long-range attraction at extended contact areas (as used in SFA), while such long-range correlations are not possible in the AFM experiment.

In addition, the adhesion measured with the AFM for the two carboranethiol SAMs is considerably different (see Figure 5). First, the adhesion force histogram of the M9 SAM shows a Gaussian shape, while the adhesion of the M1 SAM shows a Gaussian shape together with a weak but pronounced second Gaussian at much lower adhesion forces. The AFM adhesion forces were measured in a grid with step sizes of 100 nm over an area of $1 \times 1 \mu$m$^2$. Hence also local variations of the surface chemistry are reflected in the AFM measurement. A large fraction of the surface is hydrophobic, while about 10–15% of the surface area shows an extra attractive force, which is likely due to charge patches of overturned lipid molecules (see Figure 4). Second, in both experimental methods the adhesion of the M9 SAM is slightly weaker than that of the M1 SAM, (though the difference is less pronounced in the SFA measurements). We attribute this to the different radii used in the AFM experiments. The radius of the probes used can vary from 8 to 40 nm, and as such larger relative errors are expected for adhesion measurements using AFM.

In general, for both M1 and M9 SAMs AFM force distance profiles reveal an additional exponential force

| TABLE 1. Work of Adhesion $W_{\text{ADH}}$ (mJ/m$^2$) and Hardwall Distances $D_{\text{hw}}$ (nm) of SFA Data Shown in Figure 3 |
|---|---|---|
| concentration (mM) | work of adhesion $W_{\text{ADH}}$ (mJ/m$^2$) | hardwall distance $D_{\text{hw}}$ (nm) |
| DODA|M1 1 mM | 49 ± 7 | 52 ± 0.5 |
| DODA|M1 10 mM | 24 ± 3 | 52 ± 0.5 |
| DODA|M1 100 mM | 12.8 ± 2.7 | 52 ± 0.5 |
| Mica|M1 1 mM | 9.6 ± 0.6 | 18 ± 0.3 |
| Mica|M1 10 mM | 12.9 ± 2.1 | 19 ± 0.3 |
| Mica|M9 1 mM | no adhesion | 15 ± 0.3 |
| Mica|M9 10 mM | no adhesion | 17 ± 0.3 |
| DODA|M9 1 mM | 44 ± 3 | 62 ± 0.5 |
| DODA|M9 100 mM | 15.5 ± 1.4 | 7.2 ± 0.5 |
that can be well fitted using the Hydra model \(^{12,25,28}\) (see the methods section) with a decay length of \(\lambda_{Ny} = 2\) nm. As discussed above, this may be due to the preferential orientation of water dipoles in line with the surface dipoles of the SAM molecules. A back of an envelope calculation (see Supporting Information) indicates that carborane-dipole/water-dipole interactions are on the order of 1 kT, which is comparable to the energy that gives rise to the Brownian motion. Hence a time-averaged and biased dipole orienting of water dipoles in line with the carborane dipoles may be expected.

While we consistently find that the M1 SAM shows a stronger attraction compared to the M9 SAM, the differences in magnitude (the fitted H parameter of eq 1) for both SAMs may be to a large extent a radius normalization problem typical to AFM. Regardless of the absolute numbers, these data indicate that alignment of interface dipoles (i.e., water) by surface dipoles can lead to a long-range exponential attraction. This is conceptually very similar to hydrophobic interactions. However, at purely hydrophobic interface dipole alignment is entirely controlled by the thermodynamics of the solution-side hydrogen bond-bridging network and the weak and nondirectional binding of water to hydrophobic interfaces that lead to a water or hydrogen bonding network depletion zone. \(^{30}\) In the present case, surface dipoles present an additional bias and alignment restriction, and may hence directly lead to an enhanced layering of water and hence longer decay length compared to hydrophobic attractions, which have a decay length of about 1 nm. \(^{11,25–28,31}\) As such these results may contribute further to the understanding of the interplay between surface chemistry, surface dipole moments, and the observed hydrophobic/hydrophilic interactions between apposing surfaces.

**CONCLUSIONS**

In summary, we showed that interfacial dipoles together with scaling have a profound effect on interaction forces across aqueous media. First, alignment of dipoles perpendicular or parallel to the surface leads to a long-ranged exponential attraction with a decay length of 2 nm between interacting hydrophobic surfaces, potentially due to biased entropically unfavorable solvent alignment at the interface. The effect of parallel alignment is generally larger, potentially due to lateral alignment of surface dipoles into effectively much larger giant dipoles. Similarly, with extended surfaces, the dipole alignment parallel to the surface leads to an unexpected long-range attractive force due to electrostatic correlations of freely rotating surface dipoles and charge-mosaic defects (partial lipid turnover) on the apposing lipid monolayer surfaces. In contrast, perpendicular dipole alignments, where molecular rotation cannot lead to lateral long ranged dipole correlations, is independent of the scale of the probe used.

As such, alignment of interfacial dipoles may provide a strategy to achieve strong and long ranged attractive forces and adhesion in aqueous systems—an effect that has not been considered in detail so far. Our results also suggest that switching dipole orientations in situ may be a valuable tool for responsive materials.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Chemicals and Materials.** M1 and M9 carboranethiols and all solvents were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich at the highest available purity and were used as received. Lipids were purchased from AvantiLipids. Milli-Q (Millipore) water with a conductivity of \(\leq 0.1\) µS/cm and a TOC below 2 ppb was used for the preparation of the NACL-solutions. The pH value was between 5.5 and 5.7 for all solutions.

**Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM).** All AFM measurements were performed with a JPK NanoWizard using gold-coated silicon tips (CONTGB-G, BudgetSensors). The sensitivity of the piezo of the AFM (NanoWizad, JPK Instruments, Germany) was measured through several force plots on the SAM—surface. The cantilever with self-assembled monolayer was calibrated to estimate its spring constant using a thermal noise method. Typically the spring constants of different cantilevers varied from 250 to 500 pN/nm. The tip sample distance \(d_{TS}\) in AFM is relative, and the apparent hardwall at the maximum compression is calibrated as \(D = 0\). Additionally we want to note that the radius normalization was done using the average tip radius of \(R = 20\) nm given by the supplier.

**AFM Tip Preparation.** Gold-coated silicon tips were cleaned in \(\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4, \text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{H}_2\text{O}_2\), and EtOH (each step 1 min) and dried in an \(\text{N}_2\) stream before being placed into a 1 mM ethanolic solution of the respective carboranethiols. After 12–18 h, the tips were taken out of the solution, washed with hexane and ethanol to remove any unbound thiols, and dried in an \(\text{N}_2\) stream before use for AFM experiments.

**Lipid Monolayer Preparation.** For monolayer deposition the cationic lipid dimethyldioctadecylammonium(bromide salt) (DODA, also known as DDAB or DODAB) was suspended in a mixture of chloroform and methanol (7:3 volume fractions). The monolayer was deposited using the Langmuir–Blodgett technique \(^{22}\) on a freshly cleaved mica surface glued to a glass-slide along with an O-ring using UV-curable glue (Norland Adhesive, NOA81). The layer of DODA was transferred to the mica surface at the rate of 0.5 mm/min, at a lateral pressure of 40 mN/m and an area of 42 Å\(^2\) per molecule.

**SFA Measurements.** SFA normal force measurements were performed at 23 °C in a cleanroom using the SFA 2000 model obtained from SurfForce LLC (Santa Barbara, U.S.A.). \(^{21}\) Mica sheets used in these experiments were hand-cleaved to provide sheets with an area of several (typically 5–10) cm\(^2\) and uniform thicknesses ranging from 2 to 5 µm. The edges of these sheets were melt-cut with a hot platinum wire, PVD back-silvered mica sheets were cut into smaller pieces using a surgical blade, and were then glued to cylindrical silica disks with a nominal radius of curvature \(R = 2\) cm, using a UV-curable glue (Norland Adhesive, NOA81). Atomically smooth Au films and SAM-modified SFA discs were prepared by template stripping as previously described. \(^{7}\) The contact reference was measured in dry argon between mica and gold. \(D = 0\) is referenced to the contact between clean Au and mica. A spring constant of \(-800\) N/m was used for force measurements. The work of adhesion, \(W_{\text{adh}}\), was calculated using \(f_{\text{adh}} = 1.5\pi W_{\text{adh}}\).
Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS). XPS measurements were performed with a Quantum 2000 (Physical Electronics) using pass-energies of 29.35 eV. All XPS spectra were measured with the “high-power mode” of the used machine. In this mode photoelectrons are generated by continuously scanning a 100 × 100 μm² sized X-ray spot (100 W) over an area of 100 × 1000 μm² in order to minimize X-ray damage to the sample. All data were recorded with a pass-energy of 29.35 eV, and a spectral resolution of 0.25 eV. To obtain a good signal-to-noise ratio 10 sweeps for the Au 4f signal, and 45 sweeps for all other signals were used. All measurements are aligned using the Au 2p signal.

Water Contact Angle. A custom-built contact angle goniometer was used for the contact angle measurements. A motorized syringe device (model 33, Harvard Apparatus) was used to dispense pure water drops through a syringe needle onto the substrate. The advancing and receding contact angles were measured by increasing the drop volume at a constant volumetric flow rate. The silhouette of the drop was recorded using a video camera system. All experiments were performed at 23 °C.

Fitting Equations for Modeling Force–Distance Profiles. Here, we use the Hydrea model 10 for a sphere on flat geometry that describes the interaction between hydrophobic/hydrophilic interactions as a linear superposition of van der Waals (VDW) and hydration/hyrophobic forces as follows:

\[ F(D) = -\frac{A_H(D)}{R} - 4\pi\gamma_H \exp(-D/D_0)/\pi \\ (mN/m) \] (m)

with the probe radius \( R \) and the interfacial tension \( \gamma_H \). \( D_0 \) is the plane of origin of the respective forces, and is necessary for SFA data, whereas \( \gamma_H \) does not coincide with the plane of origin of the interaction forces (see again Figure 1 for definition of \( D = 0 \)). In SFA, \( D = 0 \) is directly measureable as a final hardwall at high compression. Also, the exponential decay length \( \lambda_H \) is directly measureable from the slope in a semilog plot and is as such not a fitting variable, but rather an experimental observable. The latter two parameters may depend directly on the probe radius. 10,13 Hydrea, \( H \), is the recently introduced parameter quantifying the fraction of hydrophobic surface area. \( H < 0 \) indicates a hydrophobic interaction with a water depletion layer at the extended interface. While \( H > 0 \) indicates an overall hydrophilic interaction with water and/or ions strongly adsorbed at an interface. Using a distance-dependent Hamaker constant \( A_H(D) \) takes into account that long-range VDW forces are dominated by the Au/mica dispersion, while short-range VDW forces are dominated by the adsorbed organic thin films (SAM and lipid monolayer). For an asymmetric system \( A_H(D) \) can be approximated using combing rules 21 as follows:

\[ A_H(D) \approx \frac{A_{122}}{(D - D_0)^2} + \frac{A_{121}}{(D - D_0 - \lambda_H)^2} \] (m)

with \( A_{122} = 7.1 \times 10^{-21} \) (J) and \( A_{121} = 3.4 \times 10^{-20} \) (J) quantifying the Hamaker constant for an organic thin-film interacting across the medium with mica, and for gold interacting with mica across an organic thin film, respectively. The values are fixed and taken from literature. 23,24 \( T_{\text{SAM}} + T_{\text{ILM}} \) is the total thickness of the combined organic thin films which can be directly extracted from SFA measurements. For a full DLVO interaction plus a hydrophobic/hydrophilic interaction an additional term in eq 1 taking into account electric double layer repulsions would be necessary. Here, however, the SFA data at extended surfaces for the M1 case (extremely long ranged interaction) cannot be fit with the standard electric double layer model. All other experiments did not show any significant electrostatic interaction, and forces were dominated by the hydration/hydrophobic interaction and a linear superposition of VDW forces.

Conflict of Interest: The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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Supporting Information Available: Back of an envelope calculation of carborane-dipole/water-dipole interaction energy. Additional table of the XPS derived energy data of M1 SAM on gold and M9 SAM on gold. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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