Water of Hydration Dynamics in Minerals Gypsum and Bassanite: Ultrafast 2D IR Spectroscopy of Rocks

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Water of hydration plays an important role in minerals, determining their crystal structures and physical properties. Here ultrafast nonlinear infrared (IR) techniques, two-dimensional infrared (2D IR) and polarization selective pump–probe (PSPP) spectroscopies, were used to measure the dynamics and disorder of water of hydration in two minerals, gypsum (CaSO$_4$·2H$_2$O) and bassanite (CaSO$_4$·0.5H$_2$O). 2D IR spectra revealed that water arrangement in freshly precipitated gypsum contained a small amount of inhomogeneity. Following annealing at 348 K, water molecules became highly ordered; the 2D IR spectrum became homogeneously broadened (motional narrowed). PSPP measurements observed only inertial orientational relaxation. In contrast, water in bassanite’s tubular channels is dynamically disordered. 2D IR spectra showed a significant amount of inhomogeneous broadening caused by a range of water configurations. At 298 K, water dynamics cause spectral diffusion that sampled a portion of the inhomogeneous line width on the time scale of $\sim$30 ps, while the rest of inhomogeneity is static on the time scale of the measurements. At higher temperature, the dynamics become faster. Spectral diffusion accelerates, and a portion of the lower temperature spectral diffusion became motionally narrowed. At sufficiently high temperature, all of the dynamics that produced spectral diffusion at lower temperatures became motionally narrowed, and only homogeneous broadening and static inhomogeneity were observed. Water angular motions in bassanite exhibit temperature-dependent diffusive orientational relaxation in a restricted cone of angles. The experiments were made possible by eliminating the vast amount of scattered light produced by the granulated powder samples using phase cycling methods.

1. INTRODUCTION

In nature, water exists in a variety of forms other than bulk liquid water. Water is often found to be physically adsorbed in small pores of rocks and zeolites or occupying the volume of confined interstitial sites in the Earth’s sediment. Hydrous minerals, such as gypsum, opal, borax, chalcancite, epsomite, and smectite, etc., are common. The water of hydration in these natural crystals plays important roles in co-constituting the structural frameworks with mineral ions.

Water of hydration molecules in minerals, in general, do not form the extended hydrogen-bonding network found in bulk liquid water. Instead, depending on the specific chemical structure of a mineral, water molecules form different types of hydrogen bonds with anions or coordinate with metal cations. The interactions between water molecules and minerals have a large impact on the physical and chemical properties of both. For example, sodium sulfate has a low melting point of $\sim$32.4 °C in its decahydrate form (Glauber’s salt), and has been explored as an effective material for phase change energy storage. The water of hydration’s low vapor pressure also allows water to exist in this form even under extreme conditions such as the surface of Mars.

The bulk liquid water is well-known to undergo ultrafast structural dynamics. Dynamics, such as molecular reorientation and hydrogen-bonding network rearrangement, take place on the time scales of femtoseconds (fs) and picoseconds (ps). Although water molecules embedded in solid frameworks are structurally confined, they can still undergo fast dynamics. The enthalpy of formation for hydrogen bonds between water molecules and other species is usually only a few kcals per mole. The relatively weak interactions make it possible for water molecules to sample different structural configurations under ambient conditions, especially when water sites are located inside the cavities or tubes formed by mineral ions. Viewing the water of hydration structure in minerals as static provides an incomplete perspective.

The time-average structure of water of hydration in mineral crystals has been extensively investigated by techniques including X-ray diffraction, neutron scattering, nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), linear infrared (IR) absorption spectroscopy, and dielectric spectroscopy. Line shape analysis of one-dimensional frequency-domain spectra can provide some time-domain information on water dynamics. Water motion on picosecond time scales has been studied by line shape analysis of the results from dielectric spectroscopy, NMR spectroscopy, and quasi-elastic neutron scattering experiments. However, such analysis depends on the specific models chosen to describe the broadening mechanism of spectral lines. In many circumstances in which spectral lines...
are complicated by various inhomogeneous broadening mechanisms, line shape analysis only provides a rough estimation of time scales, and the interpretation of these results needs to be aided by other methods such as molecular dynamics simulations.\textsuperscript{14,15} Molecular dynamics simulations have provided insights into water dynamics in minerals.\textsuperscript{16}

Ultrafast nonlinear IR spectroscopies are useful methods for directly measuring water dynamics in the time domain.\textsuperscript{17–20} The observables of these experiments can be conveniently compared to molecular dynamics simulations on ultrafast time scales.\textsuperscript{19,21,22} IR polarization selective pump–probe (PSPP) spectroscopy monitors the angular motion of water molecules by measuring the time-dependent anisotropy decay. Two-dimensional IR (2D IR) spectroscopy measures the evolution of vibrational frequencies with time (spectral diffusion). The vibrational spectrum of the hydroxyl stretch mode of water is highly sensitive to water molecules’ chemical environments. A range of environments gives rise to an inhomogeneously broadened hydroxyl stretch absorption spectrum. At time $t = 0$, a given water hydroxyl will have a specific frequency within the inhomogeneously broadened absorption line. If the structural environment evolves in time, the hydroxyl stretch will undergo spectral diffusion, that is, sample different frequencies within the inhomogeneously broadened spectrum. Spectral diffusion is caused by the structural evolution of the system. Therefore, 2D IR spectroscopy provides direct measurements of the time dependence of a system’s structural dynamics.

2D IR and PSPP techniques have been used extensively for studying water dynamics in a wide variety of liquid systems, e.g., bulk water, reverse micelles, and water in room-temperature ionic liquid systems. All such systems have high optical quality, producing little scattered light that generally interferes with the measurements. However, the mineral samples studied here are granular solid powders that produce an enormous amount of scattered light and cannot be studied using the IR nonlinear experimental methodology that works well for optically clear liquid samples. Using a recently developed phase cycling technique for removing scattering from the nonlinear IR signal,\textsuperscript{23} we were able to conduct 2D IR and PSPP experiments to study the water of hydration in two minerals, gypsum ($\text{CaSO}_4\cdot2\text{H}_2\text{O}$) and bassanite ($\text{CaSO}_4\cdot0.5\text{H}_2\text{O}$).

Gypsum is one of the most commonly mined hydrous minerals. It has routine uses in fertilizers, constituents of plasters, and chalks. Its lattice can be viewed as a pattern of alternating water layers and calcium sulfate layers (see Figure 1A).\textsuperscript{24} All water molecules are identical in the lattice, but each water molecule forms two nonidentical hydrogen bonds with two different sulfate ions (blue dashed lines in Figure 1A). At an elevated temperature, gypsum can be partially dehydrated to form a different mineral, bassanite, which is also found in nature. Removal of the water produces a change in the lattice structure from the planar structure of gypsum to tubular channels in the lattice of bassanite (dashed black circle in Figure 1B).\textsuperscript{25} Isolated water molecules reside in these channels and form weak hydrogen bonds with sulfate ions. The water molecules have large thermal displacements as reported from diffraction experiments.\textsuperscript{25,26} Previous inelastic neutron scattering experiments performed at low temperatures (3 and 150 K) also suggest that water molecules are dynamically disordered.\textsuperscript{27}

Here 2D IR spectroscopy revealed that the water arrangement in solution-derived fresh gypsum was slightly disordered. After annealing at 348 K, almost all of the disorder was removed, and the 2D IR spectrum is overwhelmingly dominated by homogeneous broadening. The only angular motion of water in annealed gypsum reported by PSPP spectroscopy is ultrafast inertial motion with a half angle $\sim 15^\circ$. In contrast, the 2D IR spectrum of bassanite contains a significant amount of inhomogeneous broadening. Part of the inhomogeneous water configurations can be dynamically sampled with a spectral diffusion rate on the time scale of tens of picoseconds at room temperature, while the rest of inhomogeneity is static within the experimental time window, which is limited by the vibrational lifetime of the hydroxyl stretch. As the temperature is increased, the spectral diffusion becomes faster and more of the inhomogeneity is motionally narrowed, becoming part of the homogeneous component of the spectrum. At sufficiently high temperature, 348 K, only homogeneous broadening and the static component of the inhomogeneous broadening were observed. PSPP measurements of orientational relaxation show that water molecules undergo wobbling motion in a diffusive cone with a restricted half angle of $\sim 25^\circ$. The orientational dynamics are also temperature-dependent.

2. EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

2.1. Sample Preparation and Characterization. Fresh gypsum crystals were precipitated by mixing a CaCl\textsubscript{2} aqueous solution and a Na\textsubscript{2}SO\textsubscript{4} aqueous solution. In the solution, 1% of all the water molecules were HOD molecules, with the rest being H\textsubscript{2}O. Studying the OD stretch avoids coherent and incoherent vibrational energy transfer between the symmetric and asymmetric stretch modes of H\textsubscript{2}O or D\textsubscript{2}O. In addition, looking at the OD stretch of dilute HOD eliminates the possibility of intermolecular vibrational excitation transfer.\textsuperscript{17} To anneal the gypsum, the precipitated crystallites were first ground and mixed with Nujol oil. Then the mixture was kept in a sealed sample cell and held at 348 K for 24 h. No dehydration was observed in the annealing process by comparing the Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectra before and after holding the sample at the elevated temperature.

Bassanite powder samples were prepared by heating gypsum powder under a constant flow of air containing deuterated water vapor at $\sim 388$ K. The deuterium content in bassanite was controlled by the deuterium content of the water vapor. The water vapor consisted of

![Figure 1. Crystal structure of gypsum (A) and bassanite (B) viewed along the [001] vector. The black solid frame identifies the (001) face of each unit cell. In panel A, each water molecule is identical in a gypsum unit cell and forms two nonidentical hydrogen bonds (blue dashed line) with two sulfate ions. Water oxygens and sulfate oxygens coordinate around calcium ions (yellow solid lines). In panel B, isolated water molecules reside in channels (black dashed circle) formed by sulfate ions. Two types of water sites exist (O$_{w1}$ and O$_{w2}$). The diameter of the channel is $\sim 5.5$ Å.](image-url)
2.2. 2D IR and PSPP Experiments. The 2D IR and PSPP experiments were performed using the same optical setup with pump-probe beam geometry. The details of 2D IR experiments have been documented previously. A mid-IR optical parametric amplifier pumped by a Ti:sapphire regenerative amplifier produced -170 fs pulses centered at the frequency of interest (gypsum or bassanite absorption center), with -10 μJ pulse energy. The mid-IR pulses were then split into a weak probe pulse and a strong pump pulse. The pump pulse passed through an acousto-optic mid-IR Fourier-domain pulse shaper to be further split into pulses 1 and 2, which were collinear but separated by a controllable time delay, \( \tau \). Pulses 1 and 2 were focused on the sample, and the probe pulse (pulse 3) arrived after a waiting time \( T_w \) which was controlled by a mechanical delay line.

The first two pulses labeled the initial vibrational frequencies within the inhomogeneous absorption spectrum. These initial frequencies give the \( \omega_i \) horizontal axis of the 2D IR spectrum. After a waiting time, \( T_w \), during which the sample structure can evolve, pulse 3 stimulates the emission of the vibrational echo pulse. Pulse 3 and the vibrational echo pulse propagate collinearly. Pulse 3 serves as the local oscillator (LO) to heterodyne-detect the echo. The combined LO/echo pulse is dispersed by a monochromator acting as a spectrograph and detected with a 32 element MCT array. The dispersed echo pulse gives the frequencies after \( T_w \), the \( \omega_i \) vertical axis of the 2D spectrum. At each \( T_w \), \( \tau \) was scanned to move the echo in time relative to pulse 3. This process generates an interferogram at each \( \omega_i \) frequency. The interferograms were numerically Fourier transformed to give the \( \omega_i \) axis in the 2D spectrum.

During the period \( T_w \) structural evolutions of water and surrounding ions cause the vibrational frequency of OD stretch to evolve and therefore the shape of 2D IR spectra to change. The dynamical information of interest is contained in the \( T_w \)-dependent frequency-frequency correlation function (FFCF). The FFCF describes the probability that a vibrational oscillator will have the same frequency at time \( t \) as it did at \( t = 0 \), averaged over all initial frequencies in the inhomogeneous line shape. The FFCF is quantified via a 2D line shape analysis known as the center line slice (CLS) method. The CLS is equivalent to the \( T_w \)-dependent portion of the normalized FFCF. To calculate the CLS from the 2D spectrum at a given \( T_w \) a series of slices parallel to the \( \omega_i \) axis through the 2D spectrum in the region around the spectrum center are obtained. Each slice is a 1D spectrum. The center line consists of the set of points that are located at the peaks of these 1D spectra obtained from the cuts, and the CLS is the slope of this line. In general, as \( T_w \) is increased, the slope of the 2D spectrum changes, and the CLS changes. A plot of the CLS vs. \( T_w \) is the normalized \( T_w \)-dependent portion of the FFCF. Combining the CLS curve with the absorption spectrum provides the full FFCF including the homogeneous contribution to the absorption spectrum.

The FFCF can be modeled as a sum of exponents:

\[
C(t) = (\delta \omega(t) \delta \omega(0)) = \sum \Delta_i^2 \exp(-t/T_i)
\]

where \( \delta \omega(t) = \omega(t) - \langle \omega \rangle \) is the instantaneous frequency fluctuation, \( \Delta_i \) is the frequency fluctuation line width of the \( i \)-th inhomogeneous contribution to the total line width, and \( T_i \) is the associated spectral diffusion time constant. \( \Delta_i \) is the standard deviation of the Gaussian line profile associated with the \( i \)-th inhomogeneous broadening term. In the case where \( \tau \) is too slow to measure during the experimentally accessible range of \( T_w \), the inhomogeneous component will be described by a constant term in the FFCF. In the case of \( \Delta \sim \tau \) the homogeneous broadening term has a Lorentzian line shape and a pure dephasing line width \( \Gamma = \Delta^2 \tau = 1/(\Delta_i^2 T_i) \), where \( T_i \) is the pure dephasing time. The total homogeneous dephasing time \( T_i \) is given by

\[
\frac{1}{T_i} = \frac{1}{T_{i1}} + \frac{1}{T_{i2}} + \frac{1}{T_{i3}}
\]

where \( T_{i1} \) is the vibrational lifetime and \( T_{i3} \) is the orientational relaxation time. Here \( T_{i1} \) and \( T_{i3} \) are significantly slower compared to \( T_i \).

The line width of each FFCF component, \( \Gamma \) and \( \Delta_i \), in the unit of cm\(^{-1}\) is obtained from a simultaneous fit to the CLS decay measured by 2D IR and the total linear absorption line shape measured by FT-IR. The total inhomogeneous broadening line width (standard deviation) \( \Delta_{\text{obs}} \) is given by \( \Delta_{\text{obs}} = (\sum \Delta_i^2)^{1/2} \). It is important to note that the CLS decay is an experimental observable that is independent of a specific dynamic model. The exponential time constants characterize the time scale of the observed dynamics rather than being strictly associated with a single structural event.

The PSPP experiments were performed to examine the reorientation dynamics of the water molecules. In PSPP experiments, the pump pulse is a single pulse, but the probe shaper was still used for phase cycling. The polarization of pump pulse was set to 45° relative to the probe pulse. The probe transmission’s intensity with polarizations parallel and perpendicular to the pump polarization, \( S_\parallel(t) \) and \( S_\perp(t) \), respectively, were resolved by a polarizer mounted in a motorized rotation stage after sample, and \( t \) is the time delay between the pump and the probe pulses. The decay of \( S_\parallel(t) \) and \( S_\perp(t) \) versus \( t \) are

\[
S_\parallel(t) = P(t)[1 + 0.8C_2(t)]
\]

\[
S_\perp(t) = P(t)[1 - 0.4C_2(t)]
\]

where \( P(t) \) is the population relaxation and \( C_2(t) \) is the second Legendre polynomial orientational relaxation correlation function of the vector pointing along the OD bond in a HOD molecule. From \( S_\parallel(t) \) and \( S_\perp(t) \), the population relaxation, \( P(t) \), and the anisotropy relaxation, \( r(t) \), can be obtained as

\[
P(t) = S_\parallel(t) + 2S_\perp(t)
\]

\[
r(t) = \frac{S_\parallel(t) - S_\perp(t)}{S_\parallel(t) + 2S_\perp(t)} = 0.4C_2(t)
\]

Then, \( r(t) \) is the orientational relaxation correlation function multiplied by 0.4.

2.3. Removing the Scattering Light with Phase Cycling. The powder samples were blended with Nujol oil and sealed in a sandwich sample cell so that the scattered light was substantially reduced via refractive index matching. However, the remaining scattered light is still so large that under normal experimental conditions, it would not be possible to do either the 2D IR or PSPP experiments. All 2D IR experiments were performed using the same optical setup with pump pulses 1 and 2 (YY) have perpendicular polarization relative to pulse 3 and echo pulse (XX). The combined LO/echo pulse was passed through a resolving polarizer set to X polarization to filter out a substantial amount of the scattered light from pulses 1 and 2. The remaining, still significant, amount of scattering from all pulses was
removed by recording the signal with an 8-shot phase cycling scheme:

$$\left[ (0, 0, \text{OFF}) - (0, 0, \text{ON}) \right] = \left[ (0, \pi, \text{OFF}) - (0, \pi, \text{ON}) \right]$$

$$+ \left[ (\pi, \pi, \text{OFF}) - (\pi, \pi, \text{ON}) \right] = \left[ (\pi, 0, \text{OFF}) - (\pi, 0, \text{ON}) \right]$$

(6)

where ($\varphi_1$, $\varphi_2$, chop) is the LO/echo heterodyne signal intensity on the detector with the phases of pulses 1 and 2 set to $\varphi_1 \geq 0$ or $\pi$, and the chopper on the probe path set to OFF (pulse 3 block) or ON. The phases of pulses 1 and 2 were controlled by the pulse shaper.

For the PSPP experiments, we detected the probe transmission’s intensity rather than extracting its phase information. Therefore, a 4-shot phase cycling scheme was applied to remove $t$-dependent scattering terms which interfere with the data. The scattering terms independent of $t$ resulted in a time independent offset and were removed by baseline subtraction. The data recorded with the 4-shot phase cycling scheme is expressed as follows: $$\left[ (0) - \text{(OFF)} \right] + \left[ (\pi) - \text{(OFF)} \right]$$, where $(0)$ and $(\pi)$ correspond to the pump pulse’s phase set to 0 and $\pi$ by the pulse shaper, and (OFF) corresponds to the pump pulse turned off by the pulse shaper.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Gypsum. Figure 2 shows the FT-IR spectrum of freshly prepared solution-derived gypsum (black curve). In gypsum, the OD bonds of HOD molecules form two different types of hydrogen bonds with sulfate ions. As a result, two OD stretch peaks are observed at 2514 and 2583 cm$^{-1}$. The lower frequency OD mode corresponds to a hydrogen bond where $-\text{hydrogen bond with an O}$ distance of 2.88 Å. The correlation between the hydrogen bond O–O distance and the hydroxyl stretch frequency at the peak center in minerals has been summarized by the following equation:

$$\nu = \nu_0 - 3.04 \times 10^{11} e^{-d_{\text{O-O}}/0.1321}$$

(7)

where $\nu_0$ is an adjustable frequency parameter in the unit of cm$^{-1}$ dependent on the specific system, and $d_{\text{O-O}}$ is the O–O distance in the hydrogen bond in the unit of Å. $^3 ^3$

Given that $\nu = 2514$ cm$^{-1}$ and $d_{\text{O-O}} = 2.81$ Å, we can calculate $\nu_0 = 2690$ cm$^{-1}$ in the sulfate-water system here. In turn, if $d_{\text{O-O}} = 2.88$ Å, we have $\nu = 2586$ cm$^{-1}$, which agrees well with the measured peak center at 2583 cm$^{-1}$. The effectiveness of calibration by the band at 2514 cm$^{-1}$ stems from the fact that the interactions between water, Ca$^{2+}$ and SO$_4^{2-}$ in gypsum, or bassanite are similar in nature and only differ in strength. Water oxygens coordinate with Ca$^{2+}$ cations, and water hydrogens form hydrogen bonds with SO$_4^{2-}$ anions.

The two types of hydrogen bonds exist in a population ratio of 1:1, and the difference in the absorbance of the two peaks is a result of different transition dipoles. A stronger hydrogen bond results in a larger transition dipole and a larger absorbance. Shorter hydrogen bonds are stronger, which is consistent with the lower frequency peak having a larger absorbance.

The spectrum (black curve) in Figure 2 was fit exceedingly well with the sum of two Lorentzian bands (red curve). A Lorentzian shape is indicative of a homogeneously broadened absorption. However, it is not possible to determine from the spectrum whether there is a Gaussian contribution reflecting inhomogeneous broadening but with the width of the Gaussian too narrow to be detected by a deviation from the apparent Lorentzian line shape. The linear absorption spectrum indicates that both bands are substantially homogeneously broadened. The linear absorption spectrum of annealed gypsum is basically the same as the fresh gypsum’s spectrum shown in Figure 2.

The vibrational population relaxation lifetimes of the OD stretch in the two hydrogen-bonding configurations are 5.70 ± 0.05 ps for 2514 cm$^{-1}$ and 6.94 ± 0.05 ps for 2583 cm$^{-1}$. The shorter lifetime associated with the lower frequency peak is likely caused by the stronger hydrogen bonding to the sulfate, which enhances the flow of vibrational energy out of the excited OD stretch into other vibrational modes of the system. For comparison, the OD stretch of HOD in H$_2$O is 1.8 ps. $^3 ^4$

The relatively long lifetime enables the anisotropy decay of OD stretch mode of the HOD molecule to be measured to ~15 ps. The time-dependent anisotropy data (circles) of fresh and annealed gypsum are shown in Figure 3. In all of the curves, anisotropy values fluctuate within approximately ±0.01 around the initial anisotropy values at $t = 0.5$ ps. The solid lines are horizontal fits to the data. The results indicate the lack of diffusive reorientation dynamics during the time period of measurement. The fact that there is no discernible slope to any of the data sets means any slow diffusive orientational relaxation would have a time constant longer than ~1 ns. The deviation from 0.4 at $t = 0$ indicates that there is ultrafast motion (<100 fs) that samples a restricted cone of angles. $^3 ^5$ The OD bond vector samples a limited range of angles, but does not randomize its orientation. This type of ultrafast motion is generally taken to be inertial rather than diffusive. $^3 ^5$ The larger the deviation from 0.4 when the data are extrapolated to $t = 0$, the larger the cone angle. $^3 ^5$ Before annealing, the half angle for the OD bond associated with the weaker hydrogen-bonding configuration (2583 cm$^{-1}$, Figure 3B) is calculated to be 26°, clearly larger than the 16° half angle of the OD bonds with stronger hydrogen bonds (2514 cm$^{-1}$, Figure 3A). After annealing, both half angles decrease to smaller values: 14° for 2514 cm$^{-1}$ and 11° for 2583 cm$^{-1}$.

The fact that annealing changes the cone angles shows that on average the lattice has reconfigured in a manner that is more restrictive in terms of the angular motions of the water of hydration. In terms of the harmonic cone model for restricted angular motion, $^3 ^5$ the reduction of the cone widths indicates that the potential has become steeper. The change in the lattice with annealing results in the hydroxyls experiencing a more restrictive (steeper) angular potential. It is interesting that annealing influenced the configuration that gives rise to the...
The absorption spectrum is dominated by inhomogeneous broadening, the 2D spectrum will show extensive elongation along the diagonal at short time window, there is no orientational motion other than ultrafast inertial motions.

The dashed red line is the diagonal. For a system for which the Lorentzian line shape of linear IR absorption spectrum. The total IR absorption line shape is the convolution of the Lorentzian line shape of linear IR absorption spectrum. The sampling of different configurations will change the vibrational frequency, but if the range of frequencies, Δν, and the time for the fluctuations, τ, satisfy the condition Δντ < 1, motional narrowing occurs, and the line shape is Lorentzian. However, as the CLS value is not zero, there is a small degree of inhomogeneity. Careful visual inspection shows that the fresh sample’s 2D spectrum is more elongated along the diagonal than that of the annealed sample. For the annealed sample, the CLS value was further reduced to 0.03.

In Figure 5A, we show the CLS versus T_w from the 2D IR spectra of the 2514 cm⁻¹ band measured at 298 K. The CLS plots of neither fresh nor annealed gypsum samples show time dependences from T_w = 0.5 to 15 ps. The CLS values fluctuate around the horizontal lines in the figure. Therefore, the inhomogeneous configurations of water do not undergo structural evolution on the time scale of the observations. Again any structural evolution would have to occur on a time scale longer than 1 ns for the lines to appear horizontal over the time range studied. Annealing at 348 K reduced the small degree of quasi-static or static structural disorder significantly, taking the constant CLS value from 0.11 to 0.03. In bulk liquid water, the time scale for complete structural randomization of the hydrogen-bonding network that samples the entire inhomogeneously broadened absorption line is ~2 ps. Isolated water molecules in the room-temperature ionic liquid, 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide, have several time scales for spectral diffusion. The slowest time scale is ~20 ps. However, here we find that water molecules confined by the lattice of gypsum do not display picosecond time scale structural evolution, and the structures that give rise to the small amount of inhomogeneous broadening either evolve slowly or are static. This is in contrast to bassanite discussed in the next section.

The total IR absorption line shape is the convolution of the homogeneous Lorentzian line with width Γ and the total inhomogeneous Gaussian line with width Δ_hom. The deviation from 1 of the CLS extrapolated to T_w = 0 ps yields the relative

Figure 3. (A) Anisotropy data measured at 2514 cm⁻¹ for fresh (black points) and annealed (red points) gypsum samples. The dashed lines are horizontal fits to the data. (B) Anisotropy data measured at 2583 cm⁻¹ for fresh (black points) and annealed (red points) gypsum samples. The dashed lines are horizontal fits to the data. None of the data are decaying, showing that within the time window of the measurement, there is no orientational motion other than ultrafast inertial motions.

Figure 4. 2D IR spectra of fresh solution-derived gypsum (top panel) and annealed gypsum (bottom panel). The spectra are for the band at 2514 cm⁻¹ and were taken at T_w = 0.5 ps. The slope of yellow dashed line is the center line slope. The dashed red line is the diagonal.
fluctuation amplitude of the homogeneous broadening term in the FFCF. From the FT-IR spectrum, fresh gypsum’s full width at half maxima (fwhm) for the 2514 cm\(^{-1}\) band is 18.0 cm\(^{-1}\). Based on the CLS and fwhm, we can calculate that \(\Gamma = 16.0\) cm\(^{-1}\) and \(\Delta_{inh} = 2.5\) cm\(^{-1}\) (see Table 1). Note that \(\Gamma\) is the fwhm of the associated Lorentzian line profile and \(\Delta_{inh}\) is the standard deviation of the associated Gaussian line profile. After the annealing, \(\Gamma\) increases to 16.8 cm\(^{-1}\), and \(\Delta_{inh}\) decreases to 1.3 cm\(^{-1}\). The annealed gypsum’s total fwhm decreases to 17.4 cm\(^{-1}\), mainly as a result of the decrease in \(\Delta_{inh}\). The decrease of \(\Delta_{inh}\) marks the reduction of inhomogeneity in water configurations.

Eq 7 shows that the OD stretch frequency is very sensitive to O−O distance. As the lattice phonon motions are coupled to the HOD molecule, the O−O distance in the sulfate-water hydrogen bond can fluctuate and sample a range of vibrational frequencies that are motionally narrowed into the homogeneous line. The homogeneous and inhomogeneous line widths as well as the homogeneous dephasing times for all samples are given in Table 1.

Table 1. Dynamical Parameters As Measured by 2D IR Spectroscopy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>(\Gamma) (cm(^{-1}))</th>
<th>(T_i) (ps)</th>
<th>(\Delta_i) (cm(^{-1}))</th>
<th>(\tau_i) (ps)</th>
<th>(\Delta_2) (cm(^{-1}))</th>
<th>(\Delta_{inh}) (cm(^{-1}))</th>
<th>Line Width (cm(^{-1}))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gypsum (fresh)</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gypsum (annealed)</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gypsum (fresh)</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gypsum (annealed)</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bassanite (298 K)</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>33 ± 2</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bassanite (333 K)</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>11 ± 2</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bassanite (348 K)</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{a}\)For gypsum samples, \(f\) denotes the fresh sample, \(a\) denotes the annealed sample. \(^{b}\)\(\Gamma\) refers to the fwhm of the Lorentzian line. \(\Delta_i\) refers to the standard deviation of the Gaussian line. The total inhomogeneous line width is \(\Delta_{inh} = \sqrt{\Delta_{inh1}^2 + \Delta_{inh2}^2}\). The line width of the entire absorption band is reported in terms of fwhm. \(^{c}\)Offset term, \(\tau_i\) is too long to measure within the experimental time window which is determined by the vibrational lifetime. The \(\Delta_i\) for bassanite is determined from data at 348 K which is taken to be the same at 298 and 333 K.
center position (see Supporting Information). We assign the red wing to HOD molecules residing in channels deformed by additional nonstoichiometric water from moisture. The red-shifted peak position could be caused by a reduced O–O distance between sulfate ions and HOD molecules in defect channels or by additional hydrogen bonds formed between the stoichiometric HOD molecules and the additional H$_2$O molecules picked up from moisture in the air.

The major component (dark-green curve in Figure 6) is centered at 2642 cm$^{-1}$ with 81.0% of the total band area. This component is assigned to the stoichiometric water in bassanite. From eq 7, the O–O distance of hydrogen bonds between HOD molecules and sulfate ions in bassanite at this frequency is 2.98 Å, which is consistent with analysis based on diffraction measurements. In contrast to gypsum’s spectrum, the spectral line is clearly inhomogeneously broadened, as a result of the water molecules in channels populating a range of slightly different configurations.

Oxygen atoms of water molecules in channels coordinate with adjacent calcium ions. The coordinates of water oxygen atoms are stable enough to be observed by X-ray and neutron diffraction studies, though these atoms’ Debye–Waller thermal displacement factors are significantly larger than other atoms in the lattice. Along the [001] vector, two geometrically distinguishable sites of water oxygen atoms, denoted as $O_{w1}$ and $O_{w2}$, arrange in a periodic sequence of $O_{w1}$–$O_{w2}$–$O_{w2}$ (see Figure 1B). The O–O distance between water sites is $\sim$5 Å, excluding the possibility of forming hydrogen bonds among these isolated water molecules. For either $O_{w1}$ or $O_{w2}$ site, HOD molecules can form multiple possible sulfate-water hydrogen bonds, with O–O distances at $\sim$3 Å that match the measured vibrational frequency. Water molecules can also dynamically sample different hydrogen-bonding configurations. Therefore, the $O_{w1}$ and $O_{w2}$ water sites are nondistinguishable and both contained within the inhomogeneously broadened Gaussian component at 2642 cm$^{-1}$.

The small Gaussian component (blue line in Figure 6) at 2650 cm$^{-1}$ is a minor subensemble of HOD molecules, possibly associated with defect sites in the lattice. This minor subensemble is in thermal equilibrium with the major ensemble at 2642 cm$^{-1}$. As temperature is increased from 298 to 373 K, the major Gaussian barely changes its parameters, while the peak area of the minor subensemble decreases gradually. The change was reversible when the sample was cooled down. Based on temperature-dependent FT-IR spectra, we can estimate that the enthalpy difference of the two ensembles is 12.0 $\pm$ 0.2 kJ/mol (see Supporting Information). At an elevated temperature, these HOD molecules can switch to configurations of the major ensemble. Since the minor ensemble’s peak area is so small, the conversion of populations between two ensembles barely changes the peak area of the major ensemble. As reported by temperature-dependent X-ray diffraction measurements, there is no significant change in the lattice structure such as phase transitions other than the expansion of cell parameters by $\sim$0.2% when bassanite is heated over 350 K. Because the structure associated with the subensemble is lower in energy than the main ensemble, the subensemble configurations cannot be accessible to all water molecules, otherwise the 2650 cm$^{-1}$ band would be the major band. Therefore, the subensemble’s small population suggests that it is associated with a lattice defect.

Figure 7 shows the anisotropy decays of the OD stretch in bassanite measured at 2644 cm$^{-1}$ (circles). The anisotropy measured at this frequency corresponds to the dynamics of stoichiometric water sites, as the majority of IR absorption is due to the major Gaussian component in Figure 6. The vibrational population relaxation lifetime is 7.50 $\pm$ 0.05 ps. At 298–348 K, the half angle of inertial cone is very small, $\sim$7.0°. This angle is smaller than that observed in gypsum, and indicates that the inertial motion occurs in a more restrictive potential.

Water in bassanite exhibits wobbling-in-a-cone dynamics, and the decay curves can be fit well with a single exponential term plus an offset term. In contrast to gypsum, the OD undergoes orientational diffusion but samples only a limited range of angles on the time scale of the experiments. The change to a plateau (offset) indicates that complete orientational randomization does not occur or occurs on a time scale much longer than the measurements. The plateau level determines the cone angle. In a crystal, it is likely that the orientation does not undergo complete randomization so long as a water molecule remains in its particular site. Within the fitting error bars, the offset is the same at all temperatures. Therefore, in fitting the data, a single offset was shared for the three curves. The fits are the solid curves in Figure 7.

The diffuse cone half angle is calculated to be 24°. The orientational relaxation time is 29.1 $\pm$ 2.5 ps at 298 K. For comparison, the time constant for complete orientational randomization in bulk water is 2.6 ps. At higher temperature, the orientational relaxation time constant decreases gradually: 17.0 $\pm$ 1.7 ps at 333 K and 11.9 $\pm$ 1.3 ps at 348 K. Based on the temperature-dependent measurements of orientational relaxation time constants, we can calculate that the activation energy for the diffusive wobbling process is 15.2 $\pm$ 0.4 kJ/mol. The result corresponds to a scenario where the water oxygen atom positions in channels are moderately confined by weak coordination with calcium ions, while the vectors pointing along the OD bonds can wobble in a small angle restricted by sulfate-water hydrogen bonds.

Figure 8 displays the 2D IR spectra of bassanite measured at 298 K. The top panel is the spectrum at $T_w = 0.5$ ps. In contrast to the virtually symmetric star-shaped 2D spectra of gypsum, the contour lines in the spectra of bassanite are clearly elongated along the diagonal, demonstrating a significant contribution of inhomogeneous broadening in the absorption spectrum. As $T_w$ progresses to 15 ps (bottom panel), spectral diffusion causes the shape of 2D spectrum to change. The change in shape between the two spectra is only

![Figure 7](image_url)

**Figure 7.** Time-dependent anisotropy decay curves of the OD stretch of HOD in bassanite measured at 298 K (black points), 333 K (blue points), and 348 K (red points). The fits to the data are the solid curves lines.
The 2D IR spectra of bassanite were measured at three different temperatures: 298, 333, and 348 K. The CLS is calculated around the center of the absorption line where the contributions of the other two low amplitude bands in the spectrum (Figure 6) make negligible contribution to the 2D IR data. In Figure 9 the CLS decays are shown (circles). The initial values of CLS are much higher than that of gypsum but still deviate from 1 by a significant amount. Both homogeneous broadening and inhomogeneous broadening mechanisms are important for the absorption lines of bassanite. At 298 K, the fwhm of the band at 2642 cm\(^{-1}\) is 20.7 cm\(^{-1}\). Based on the initial CLS value, we can calculate that \(\Gamma = 8.2\) cm\(^{-1}\) and \(\Delta_{\text{inh}} = 6.8\) cm\(^{-1}\). \(\Delta_{\text{inh}}\) is the standard deviation, while \(\Gamma\) is the fwhm. The fwhm of the inhomogeneous contribution is 16.0 cm\(^{-1}\). In bassanite, there is a major Gaussian inhomogeneous component, and the absorption has a Voigt line shape as a result of convolution of the Lorentzian and Gaussian components.

Looking at Figure 9, the temperature progression looks strange. At the highest temperature, there is no decay. Only a very slow or static contribution to the CLS is observed. The temperature dependence can be understood in terms of an increase in the homogeneous (motionally narrowed) component of the absorption spectrum as the temperature is raised. The initial CLS value drops as the temperature is increased. At 298 K, the CLS at \(T_w = 0\) has a value of 0.63. This value decreases to 0.51 at 333 K, and further to 0.44 at 348 K. A smaller initial CLS means that the homogeneous component of the absorption line is a larger fraction of the total line width. The physical picture that accounts for the data in Figure 9 is that an increase in temperature speeds up the dynamics. In going from 298 to 348 K, the corresponding homogeneous line widths \(\Gamma\) are 8.2, 10.4, and 11.2 cm\(^{-1}\), and the inhomogeneous line widths \(\Delta_{\text{inh}}\) are 6.8, 5.8, and 5.4 cm\(^{-1}\). When the temperature reaches 348 K, the CLS data no longer display a decay (see Figure 9). The dynamics that gave rise to the decaying components of the CLS at lower temperatures have sped up to the point where all of the components became motionally narrow and become part of the homogeneous line width at 348 K. The result is that at 348 K there are very fast fluctuations that give rise to homogeneous broadening and there is very slowly evolving inhomogeneity or static inhomogeneity that do not produce spectral diffusion within the experimental time window.

First consider the data at 298 K. When the data were fit to a single exponential decay, the result is \(103 \pm 5\) ps. This result assumes that there are no slower or static components of FFCF that fall outside of the experimental time window. 103 ps is the slowest that spectral diffusion could be at 298 K. As discussed above, there is good evidence that there is in fact a very slow or static component in the FFCF of bassanite. Therefore, at room temperature, bassanite undergoes relatively rapid spectral diffusion, but there is also a very slowly evolving or static component to the inhomogeneous broadening. In this model, the inhomogeneous broadening has two components with amplitudes \(\Delta_1\) and \(\Delta_2\), with \(\Delta_1\) being the static component. The total inhomogeneous broadening line width is

\[\Delta_{\text{inh}} = \sqrt{\Delta_1^2 + \Delta_2^2}.
\]

Because there is no change in the lattice structure of bassanite in the temperature range 298–348 K,\(^{38}\) we have made the assumption that the amplitude of the quasi-static or static inhomogeneous broadening component of the inhomogeneous line, \(\Delta_0\), is temperature independent. Therefore, \(\Delta_0\) at lower temperatures is equal to the total inhomogeneous line width at 348 K, which is 5.4 cm\(^{-1}\). Knowing the total inhomogeneous line widths at 298 and 333 K, we can calculate that \(\Delta_1 = 4.1\) cm\(^{-1}\) at 298 K and \(\Delta_1 = 2.0\) cm\(^{-1}\) at 333 K. In the normalized FFCF (CLS), the amplitude ratio of the spectral diffusion term and the offset term is \((\Delta_1/\Delta_2)^2\). Now we can confine the fitting model under this condition and fit the CLS decay curve at 298 and 333 K with the model of an exponential term plus a known

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**Figure 8.** 2D IR spectra of bassanite at 298 K, measured at \(T_w = 0.5\) ps (top panel) and \(T_w = 15\) ps (bottom panel).

**Figure 9.** CLS data versus \(T_w\) for bassanite at 298 K (black points), 333 K (blue points), and 348 K (red points). The solid lines through the points are the fits. For 398 and 333 K data, the fits are to an exponential with a fixed offset. The red line is the horizontal line through the data points measured at 348 K.
offset term. The spectral diffusion rate was determined to be 33 ± 2 ps at 298 K and 11 ± 2 ps at 333 K.

In going from 298 to 333 K, the decaying component became faster, but its amplitude decreased and the homogeneous line width increased. The increase in temperature sped up the spectral diffusion, and the rate of some of the fluctuations increased to the point that a fraction of the contributions to the inhomogeneous line at lower temperature became motionally narrowed and now contributes to the homogeneous line. The addition to the homogeneous line width was accompanied by a reduction in Δτ of 2.1 cm⁻¹ from 4.1 to 2.0 cm⁻¹. To have 2.1 cm⁻¹ component of the inhomogeneous broadening become motionally narrow, the dynamic fluctuations experienced by the structures that give rise to this portion of the line would have to be faster than ∼2.5 ps to make Δτ < 1. This fluctuation rate is reasonable.

It is worth noting that in contrast to gypsum, annealing does not occur in bassanite. The temperature-dependent decays shown in Figure 9 are reproducible when the temperature is raised and then lowered. As the OD stretch frequency is sensitive to the sulfate-water O=O distance, the spectral diffusion could correspond to water dynamics that involve the sampling of O=O distance on the time scale of tens of ps.

4. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Recent advances in the methodology of ultrafast nonlinear IR experiments in highly scattering samples made it possible to apply 2D IR and polarization selective pump–probe spectroscopy to investigate the dynamics of water of hydration in minerals, particularly gypsum and bassanite. The samples are granular powders, but it was nonetheless possible to obtain high-quality time-dependent data that provide direct information on water motions inside of these crystals. Both minerals are composed of calcium sulfate but with two waters of hydration per sulfate and sulfate, respectively, that can be removed by annealing. These crystal lattices are composed of calcium sulfate but with two waters of hydration per sulfate and sulfate, respectively, that can be removed by annealing. The hydroxyl absorption lines are essentially motionally narrowed homogeneously broadened Lorentzians, which reflect ultrafast motions of the water hydroxyls probably caused by phonons. The pump–probe experiments show that the water molecules do not undergo any diffusive orientational relaxation. There is a small degree of inertial angular motion within a very narrow cone of angles. The ultrafast small degree of angular motion is again most likely caused by coupling of the orientations to phonon-induced motions of the lattice. The results show that water in gypsum is constrained to a single conformation with respect to the lattice and motions of the water occur only on extremely short time scales and most likely occur only because the entire lattice undergoes structural fluctuations caused by phonons that are thermally populated at room temperature.

The behavior of water in bassanite is fundamentally different from gypsum. The water hydroxyl stretch absorption spectrum has substantial inhomogeneous broadening in addition to a homogeneous component as shown by the 2D IR data. Inhomogeneous broadening demonstrates that the water molecules reside in a variety of slightly different configurations with respect to the lattice and in particular with respect to the sulfates to which the hydroxyls are hydrogen bonded. The 2D IR experiments show that at 298 K there is a component of the inhomogeneous broadening that undergoes spectral diffusion on the tens of picoseconds time scale. Spectral diffusion is caused by structural evolution in which the water molecules sample a variety of configurations. As the frequency of the hydroxyl stretch of water that is hydrogen bonded, in this case to sulfate oxygens, is lower sensitive to the distance between the water oxygen and the sulfate oxygen, the inhomogeneous broadening and the spectral diffusion are probably caused by the structural evolution that changes the hydrogen bond length.

Analysis of the temperature dependence of the spectral diffusion indicates that there is a component of the inhomogeneity that is static on the time scale of the experimental window, which is determined by the vibrational lifetime of the hydroxyl stretch. As the temperature is increased, the spectral diffusion becomes faster, and an increasing portion of the inhomogeneity becomes motionally narrowed, becoming part of the homogeneous line width rather than the inhomogeneous line width. At the highest temperature studied, 348 K, there is only a homogeneous component and quasi-static or static inhomogeneous component in the absorption line. The inhomogeneity observed at 348 K may randomize on a very slow time scale or it may be caused by strains or defects in the lattice that will remain static on all time scales.

In bassanite, orientational relaxation of the hydroxyl bond is also observed. The orientational motion samples a restricted range of angles, that is, the bond vector wobbles within a cone of angles. As the temperature is increased, the angular sampling becomes faster. Like the 2D IR experiments, the orientational relaxation experiments show that water in bassanite can occupy a restricted range of configurations in the lattice. This configurational freedom, although restricted to a limited range of configurations, is in contrast to gypsum, in which the water molecules are virtually pinned to a single structural configuration in the lattice.

The methods applied here should be applicable to the study of other minerals that have water of hydration as part of their lattice structure. These techniques have been previously applied to the study of metal–organic frameworks, and research using these IR methods is being applied to water in nanoporous silicates.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/jacs.6b05589.

Comparison of bassanite FT-IR spectra measured at 298 and 348 K, FT-IR spectrum of moisture-affected bassanite, XRD and TGA analysis of gypsum and bassanite samples (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.
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