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A Bioinspired Approach towards Efficient Supramolecular Catalysts for CO₂ Conversion

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SUMMARY

Nature uses enzymes for affording astonishingly efficient chemical transformations with high chemo-, regio-, and stereoselectivity (e.g., carbonic anhydrase for CO₂ conversion). Such sophisticated biomolecules lead to excellent catalytic activities as a result of supramolecular harmonized interactions with the substrates/intermediates of the reactions. Based on this approach, different Zn²⁺ complexes of pseudopeptidic macrocycles with a high level of preorganization were synthesized and tested as catalysts for the cycloaddition of CO_2 to epoxides. These bioinspired systems promoted remarkable activities even at mild conditions, without the need of any auxiliary co-catalysts. The whole catalytic cycle was dominated by cooperative non-covalent forces involving multiple functional sites, displaying an enzyme-like catalytic behaviour. Besides, the chiral environment associated to the amino acid sidechains in the preorganized catalytic system provided recognition sites for efficient kinetic resolution of epoxides. In the case of the sluggish styrene oxide substrate, the highest selectivity factor reported to date was attained.

Supramolecular catalysis, pseudopeptides, bioinspired chemistry, macrocyclic compounds, CO₂ conversion, cyclic carbonates, one-component catalysts

INTRODUCTION

One of the major challenges facing the global chemical community is reducing atmospheric carbon dioxide.¹ Fortunately, CO_2 can be seen as a cheap, abundant, and nontoxic substance that can lead, in combination with other simple molecules, to added-value chemical products, offsetting the energetic and economic costs of CO_2 capture.² Still, its valorisation requires the development of effective catalysts to overcome the low reactivity of CO_2 .³ In this regard, enzymes pave the way for an effective and controlled activation and conversion of CO_2 under moderate conditions, as evidenced during cellular metabolism.^{4,5} However, several critical issues hamper the industrial implementation of such enzymatic systems.⁶ Therefore, the design of new active and stable catalysts able to mimic enzymatic behaviours using similar supramolecular interactions is of high interest for CO_2 transformation.^{7,8,9} Among the different added-value products that have been obtained using CO_2 , cyclic carbonates (CC) are one of the most popular due to their numerous industrial applications.¹⁰ CC can be obtained through CO_2 cycloaddition to epoxides, though one may realize that this transformation can only account for a minor amount of overall carbon dioxide emissions. The

The bigger picture

Enzymes employ elegant catalytic pathways to provide astonishing efficiencies in catalytic transformations. Such high activities are a direct consequence of cooperative supramolecular interactions between the optimally arranged amino acid residues of the biomolecule and substrates/intermediates of the chemical reaction. Inspired by this approach, we present herein highly preorganized supramolecular catalysts for the cycloaddition of CO₂ to epoxides, a key reaction for the conversion of CO₂ into added-value products. The pseudopeptidic complexes can activate substrates and stabilize reaction intermediates through noncovalent forces, with remarkable activities under mild conditions and in the absence of auxiliary cocatalysts. Besides, the presence of a rigidized chiral cavity surrounding the active site permitted to attain high s factors for the kinetic resolution of styrene oxide. We believe that these finding will be a major asset towards designing highly active enzyme-like supramolecular catalysts for challenging CO₂ transformations.

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most common catalytic approach being the use of monofunctional catalysts (Lewis acids or bases) in combination with nucleophiles that act as co-catalysts (Figure 1A).¹¹ In such systems, Lewis acid centres activate the C-O bond of the epoxide (Figure 1A1), whereas the presence of Lewis bases facilitates CO_2 activation (Figure 1A2).^{22,13,14} For both homogeneous and heterogeneous catalysts of this class, supramolecular chemistry approaches have revealed advantageous as much as the formation of host-guest complexes between the two components efficiently enhances the catalytic performance.^{15,16,17,18} However, such systems often operate in the presence of a huge excess of co-catalysts, increasing the waste generated in the process.¹⁹

In this regard, the design of bifunctional systems not requiring any additional co-catalyst is a greener and more bioinspired aproach, representing a current hot topic.^{20,21} The active sites are part of the same molecule, being linked through chemical spacers that can modulate the conformational features of the final catalytic species (Figure 1B).^{22,23,24,25,26,27} Nonetheless, attaining optimally preorganized scaffolds involves the use of complex structures that require multistep syntheses and tedious purification protocols.²⁸ In addition, most of these bifunctional systems still suffer from low activity at mild conditions (*i.e.*, room temperature and 1 bar of pressure), needing high catalyst loadings to achieve good conversions.²⁹

Inspired by all these precedents, we envisaged that a suitable design of macrocyclic pseudopeptidic Zn(II)-complexes could promote major advantages in this research field. We report herein the synthesis of a series of multifunctional bimetallic complexes and their use as multifunctional supramolecular catalysts. The conformationally constrained macrocyclic structure rendered an optimal spatial distribution for cooperation between all active sites: Lewis acidic groups (Zn²⁺, amide groups, and acidic hydrogen atoms of the coordinated amines), Lewis basic groups (amino groups), and activated nucleophiles (iodide counterions). The strong synergic effect between the different functionalities led to remarkable results in terms of activity and even enantioselectivity, with the catalytic mechanism being governed by supramolecular interactions (Figure 1C). This catalytic behaviour mimics the mode of action observed during enzymatic transformations, in which optimally arranged amino acid residues and cofactors lead to superb activities (Figure 1D).³⁰

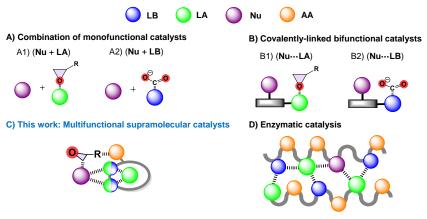


Figure 1. Schematic representation for the proposed approaches in the catalytic cycloaddition of CO_2 to epoxides and the design inspired from enzymes.

[LA = Lewis acid site, LB = Lewis base, Nu = nucleophile, and AA = amino acid sidechains].

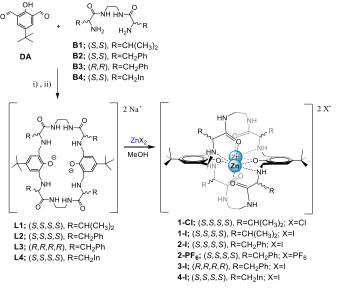
- (A) Monofunctional catalysts in the presence of a nucleophilic co-catalyst.
- (B) Covalently-linked bifunctional catalysts.
- (C) Multifunctional supramolecular catalysts here described.
- (D) Enzymatic catalysis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The new family of macrocyclic compounds was synthesized *via* imine condensation of the open-chain C_2 -pseudopeptidic bisaminoamides (**B**) with 5-(tert-butyl)-2-hydroxyisophthalaldehyde (**DA**) followed by *in-situ* reduction (Scheme 1). The dynamic nature of the imine bonds allowed for the formation of the thermodynamically favoured [2+2] macrocycles, overcoming the production of side products of oligomeric/polymeric



nature.³¹ The high efficiency of the macrocyclization reaction is the result of the higher thermodynamic stability of these cyclic constituents, likely due to stabilizing intramolecular hydrogen bonds between the amide groups of the pseudopeptidic chains as facilitated by the aprotic apolar solvent used (CHCl₃).³² Indeed, when the condensation reaction was carried out with 1,8-diaminooctane, instead of the pseudopeptides **B**, the formation of oligomers/polymers was observed. This is in agreement with the postulated attractive hydrogen bonds associated to the amide groups (Figure S1).³³ It must be highlighted that high isolated yields were achieved for all pseudopeptidic macrocycles, without the need of using auxiliary templating agents (Table S1), even at relatively high concentrations (30 mM).³⁴ Crystals suitable for X-ray diffraction measurement were grown for the protonated **L1** macrocycle (**H**₂**L1**). The solid-state structure revealed a highly twisted conformation involving intramolecular (d_{HN--OC} = 2.78 Å, 92% vdW_{N,O}) and intermolecular (d_{HN--OC} = 2.94 and 2.84 Å, 96 and 93% vdW_{N,O}, respectively) hydrogen bonds between the amide groups of the pseudopeptidic chains (Figure S2), corroborating the effect of such interactions in thermodynamically favouring the formation of [2+2] macrocycles.³⁵



Scheme 1. Synthetic route to produce the pseudopeptidic macrocycles L1-L4 and their Zn^{2+} complexes 1-4.

(i) CHCl₃(30 mM concentration for each reagent), Na₂SO₄ at 25 °C for 15 h. (ii) MeOH, NaBH₄ excess at 25 °C for 2 h. The metal-complexation step was carried out at 25 °C. Isolated yields for the different steps are summarized in the experimental section.

The sodium salts of macrocycles **L1-L4** were then reacted with ZnX₂ salts, leading to the formation of the corresponding bimetallic pseudopeptidic complexes **1-4** with yields in the 80-90% range (Scheme 1). The solid-state structure of **4-1** provided unambiguous evidence for complex formation (Figure 2A). While the two phenoxy-groups act as bridges between the two Zn cores, one amino group of each pseudopeptidic moiety completes the equatorial coordination plane of the metal (Figure 2B), as previously reported for related macrocyclic systems.^{36,37} In this pseudopeptidic system, in contrast to formerly reported molecular structures, the counterions are not directly coordinated to the metallic sites. Instead, two oxygen atoms from two amide groups are further coordination sphere for each Zn²⁺ (Figure 2B). Consequently, the iodide anions are located in a preorganized chiral ₃D-cavity defined by the constrained pseudopeptidic sidechains (Figure 2A), stabilized by hydrogen bonds with the acid hydrogen atoms of the coordinated secondary amines (d_{N--1} = 3.69 Å, 105% vdW_{N,I}). The crystal structure of **4-1** exhibits an extremely long zinc-iodide average distance of 4.49 Å (Figure 2B).



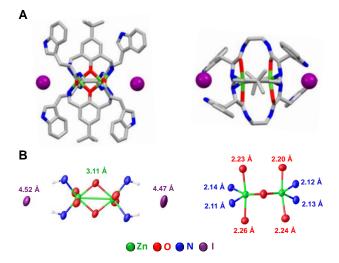
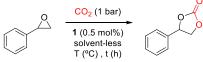


Figure 2. Solid-state structure for 4-I.

(A) Side and top view of the supramolecular structure found. Hydrogen atoms and solvent molecules have been removed for clarity. lodide anions are highlighted in violet.
(B) Representation of the distorted octahedral coordination spheres for Zn²⁺ ions. Distances between atoms and metallic cores have been highlighted in different colours. The intermetallic Zn-Zn distance has been marked in green.

Preliminary information on the potential catalytic activity of the considered metal complexes for the cycloaddition of CO₂ to epoxides was obtained from compounds **1-Cl** and **1-l** (Table 1). The reaction between styrene oxide (SO) and CO₂ under solvent-less conditions was selected as the benchmark reaction (Scheme 2). Table 1 summarises the results obtained for the different conditions assayed.



Scheme 2. Cycloaddition of CO₂ to SO in the presence of catalyst 1

Entry	Cat. (mol%)ª	Temp. (°C)	Time (h)	Conv. (%) ^b
1	Znl ₂ (1)	100	3	14
2	Znl ₂ (1)	100	1	3
3	ZnCl ₂ (1)	100	3	0
4	1-l (0.5)	100	3	>99
5	1-l (0.5)	100	1	>99
6	1-Cl (0.5)	100	3	53
7	1-l (0.5)	80	1	>99
8	1-Cl (0.5)	80	3	14
9	1-l (0.5)	60	3	90
10	1-l (0.5)	60	1	31
11	1-l (0.5)	40	3	14
12	1-l (0.5)	r.t.	15	23

Table 1. Catalytic results obtained for zinc complexes 1-Cl and 1-l in the cycloaddition of CO_2 to styrene oxide under solvent-less conditions

^aReaction conditions: styrene oxide (4.35 mmol), 1 bar of CO₂ (autoclave).

^bConversions determined by ¹H NMR, selectivity for styrene carbonate was always > 99% when using pseudopeptidic complexes. Formation of side-products (mainly diol species) was detected when using Znl₂.



Complex 1-I showed a remarkable activity, leading to quantitative conversions in only 1 h at 100 °C (entry 5, Table 1) with a TOF value of 198 h⁻¹, while the zinc salts in the absence of macrocyclic ligand showed low or no activity at the same temperature (entries 1-3, Table 1). When 1-CI was used, the performance suffered a significant decrease (entry 6, Table 1). This activity decrease was assigned to the lower nucleophilicity of chloride anions, which might also be more strongly hydrogen-bonded to the acidic hydrogen atoms of the pseudopeptidic structure as a result of its higher charge density. As expected, lower temperatures afforded lower conversions into the desired styrene carbonate (SC) for 1-CI (entry 8, Table 1). Notwithstanding, 1-I still afforded a quantitative conversion at 80 °C in 1 h and a 90% conversion in only 3 h of reaction at 60 °C (always at 1 bar of CO₂), which represents an extraordinary value considering the moderate reactivity of SO (entries 7 and 9, Table 1). This valine-derived catalyst was found to be active even at room temperature, obtaining a 23% conversion, with excellent selectivity, after 15 h of reaction (entry 12, Table 1). These results highlight the exceptional activity of these pseudopeptidic multifunctional complexes, taking into account that they work in the absence of any auxiliary co-catalyst.

According to these results, 1-I shares with enzymes the capacity of being active under mild conditions, but also the presence of a well-defined chiral environment, which potentially could be used to provide enantiodiscrimination during the cycloaddition of CO₂ to SO. Chiral epoxides and cyclic carbonates are important intermediates in the production of pharmaceutical and biological compounds.38,39 These enantiopure species are traditionally prepared by the cyclization of chiral diols with highly toxic triphosgene.^{40,41} In the search of less hazardous methodologies, the kinetic resolution of racemic epoxides in the presence of carbon dioxide has been exploited, as this is a greener alternative presenting 100% atom economy.^{19,42,43,44,45,46,47} A limited success has been achieved in this regard, as a main hurdle for such approach is the harsh conditions often required for overcoming the inertness of CO_2 , which in turn adversely affects the enantiomeric excess of the final carbonate.48 Thus, we decided to evaluate the potential of the macrocyclic complex (1-I) for the kinetic resolution of racemic SO. GC analyses allowed for the quantification of the enantiomeric excess for SC. The use of enantiomerically enriched SO mixtures confirmed that a kinetic resolution of racemic oxiranes was occurring (Figure S3). At 40 °C, 0.5 mol % of 1-I and 1 bar CO2, conversions after 15 hours increased with the initial amount of the R-enantiomer present in the mixture. Indeed, conversions ranged from 7% for pure S-enantiomer to 19% for pure Renantiomer, indicating a faster reaction with (R)-SO. In addition, for those enantioenriched mixtures, the percentage of (R)-SC found was always higher than the percentage of the Renantiomer in the starting SO, corroborating the kinetic resolution of racemic SO.

Entry	Cat.ª	Temp. (°C)	Time (h)	Conv. (%) ^b	e.e. (%) ^c	S ^f
1	1-1	60	1	31	21 ^d	2.4
2	2-l	60	1	38	30 _q	2.2
3	4-l	60	1	15	12 ^d	1.9
4	1-l	40	4	14	39 ^d	2.4
5	2-l	40	4	27	58 ^d	4.6
6	4-l	40	4	9	29 ^d	1.9
7	3-I	40	4	25	56 ^e	4.2
8	1-l	r.t.	15	21	49 ^d	3.3
9	2-l	r.t.	15	23	68 ^d	6.4
10	4-l	r.t.	15	6	34 ^d	2.0
11	2-l ^g	r.t.	15	52	55 ^d	6.2
12	2-l	r.t.	24	45	69 ^d	9.5
13	2-l	100	2	XX	n.d.	n.d.

Table 2. Effect of the amino acid side chain on the catalytic kinetic resolution of styrene oxide by CO_2 cycloaddition under solvent-less conditions and catalysed by zinc iodide-pseudopeptidic macrocycles complexes

^aReaction conditions: styrene oxide (4.35 mmol), 0.5 mol% of catalyst, 1 bar of CO_2 (autoclave).

^bConversions determined by ¹H NMR, selectivity for styrene carbonate was always > 99%. ^cEnantiomeric excess determined by GC analyses.



^dEnantiomeric excess for (*R*)-styrene carbonate. ^eEnantiomeric excess for (*S*)-styrene carbonate. ^fs = ln[(1-c(1+ee)]/ln[1-c(1-ee)], where c is the conversion and ee is the enantiomeric excess. ^g1 mol% of catalyst.

n.c. = not determined.

The considered macrocyclic structures, as well as their corresponding Zn complexes display a highly modular character based on the nature of the component amino acids, an approach that has been fruitfully exploited by Nature. Thus, we examined the effect of the nature of the pseudopeptidic sidechains. Results in Table 2 illustrate that the amino acid residue was clearly affecting to both activity and enantiopreference of the process. In terms of the catalytic activity, the observed trend was Phe > Val > Trp (2-I > 1-I > 4-I, entries 1-10, Table 2) with best results detected for the phenylalanine-derived bimetallic complex 2-I. This suggests the involvement of π -interactions in the reaction mechanism, likely stabilizing transition states / reaction intermediates (vide infra). Increasing the catalytic loading of 2-I to 1 mol%, a 52% yield could be achieved after 15 h of reaction at room temperature (entry 11, Table 2). In the light of the remarkable activity provided by 2-1, we decided to perform an additional experiment at 100 °C and 1 bar of CO2, with a catalytic loading of 0.1 mol% for 2-I (Entry 13, Table 2). After 2 hours of reaction, the system afforded TON and TOF values of 650 and 325 h⁻¹, respectively, corroborating the high activity of the catalyst even for such a sluggish substrate (i.e., SO).49 Regarding the enantioselectivity attained, the kinetic resolution efficiency increased as the temperature decreased, following the trend 2-I > 1-I > 4-I. Also in this regard, 2-I afforded best results. Incrementing the reaction time to 24 h at room temperature resulted in an s-factor as high as 9.5 for 2-I (Entry 12, Table 2). To the best of our knowledge, this is the highest s-factor reported to date for the kinetic resolution of styrene oxide (see Figure S4 and Table S2). When the macrocyclic complex **3-I** displaying the (R,R,R,R) configuration was used, the formation of (S)-SC was instead favoured (Table 2, compare entries 5 and 7) affording e.e. and s-factor values similar to those found for 2-I.

Different terminal epoxides were then studied for the formation of their respective cyclic carbonates in the presence of CO₂ and **2-1** (Table S₃). At 80 °C and under 1 bar of CO₂, all epoxides were smoothly converted into the desired organic carbonates with excellent conversions (> 90%). In addition, complex **2-1** was able to promote efficient kinetic resolutions with enatioselectivities of *ca.* 40% *e.e.* and *s*-factors of 2.4-2.9 at 40 °C for the different substrates assayed. It must be highlighted that the use of glycidyl phenyl ether as substrate (entries 5 and 6, Table S₃) led to a significant decrease in the conversion in comparison with SO (entries 1 and 2, Table S₃). This activity drop is in accordance with the proposed essential role of π - π interactions, as the ether substitution on the aromatic ring (electron donating group) reduces the affinity to form such supramolecular forces with the already electron-rich aromatic unit of the pseudopeptidic sidechains.

Based on the remarkable activities obtained and the solid-state structure of the complex (Figure 2), we can propose that the crowded coordination sphere of the Zn²⁺ metallic cores allowed for the presence of highly nucleophilic iodide anions. These "naked" anions rendered an extremely efficient ring-opening step, explaining the excellent activities observed.¹⁵ The synergies between the metallic core and the "naked" iodide anion were demonstrated by additional catalytic experiments (Table S4). The parent unit L2, lacking both the nucleophile source and Zn²⁺ centres, did not promote the formation of styrene carbonate. Addition of 1 mol% of iodide anion as its tetrabutylammonium salt in the presence of 0.5 mol% of L2 only resulted in a 2% conversion, suggesting that the metallic core is of paramount importance for the activation of the substrates under such mild reaction conditions. In the same way, when $2-PF_6$ was used in the reaction, only minor traces of SC were detected. This result indicates that the presence of an activated nucleophile is a requirement for triggering the catalytic cycle. All this evidence reflects that the observed activity and enantioselectivity involve a tight cooperativity between the different catalytic sites of the supramolecular system, all preorganized in an optimal spatial disposition within the chiral complex (Figure 1). This catalytic behaviour mimics the sophisticated cooperative non-covalent interactions used by Nature in enzymatic transformations.³⁰

Several spectroscopic experiments were then designed for gaining additional insights into mechanistic aspects. The reaction order for **2-I** was determined by *in-situ* FTIR spectroscopy at 60 °C in the presence of a CO₂ balloon (Figure S₅).⁵⁰ The aftermath of the kinetic study revealed a first-order dependence on the bimetallic catalytic species (Figures S6 and S₇).⁵¹



Conformational information was gathered by measuring ¹H NMR spectra for **2-1** in different solvents. Figure 3 shows that the structure of the complex is conformationally very rigid, as demonstrated by the noteworthy anisochrony observed for the diastereotopic Ar-CH₂-NH_{amine} methylene protons (orange signals in Figure 3). Besides, in the presence of solvents containing Lewis basic groups, the signals for the amide protons (green signals in Figure 3) appeared at higher δ values, following the expected basicity trend (DMSO > acetone > THF >> ACN). This observation can be explained by the formation of hydrogen bonds between the acidic amide protons and the basic donor sites of the solvents, as also observed in the solid-state structure of **4-1** (Figure S8).⁵²

The acidic proton signals for the coordinated secondary amines (red spheres in Figure 3) did not respond to such basicity trend. Instead, they appeared at much lower fields in the presence of THF/acetone than in DMSO. Comparing the shifts with the ones obtained for the barely preorganized conformation in acetonitrile, $\Delta\delta$ values of +1.8, +1.5, and +0.2 ppm were found for the NH_{amine} signals in THF, acetone, and DMSO, respectively. These differences can be assigned to the polarity of the solvents. For instance, DMSO presents a higher relative polarity than THF (0.444 vs 0.207 relative polarity to water).53 This might lead to a better solvation for the iodide counterions as suggested by the higher fields observed for the amino group protons that are less influenced by the electronegative anions in the most polar solvents like DMSO and ACN (Figure 3). On the other hand, poor solvation of the negatively charged iodide ions results in tight hydrogen bonding with the acidic protons of the coordinated amines (see Figure 3 and Figure S8). These non-covalent interactions between the anions and the amine hydrogen atoms confers additional rigidity to the whole structure of the bimetallic pseudopeptidic complex, as corroborated by the significantly different electronic environment experienced by the aromatic protons of the phenylalanine side chains in THF and acetone (blue signals, Figure 3). Considering the structural similarities between THF and oxiranes, one may realize that the catalytically active conformation of the pseudopeptidic complexes in SO must be like the one found in THF. Indeed, ¹H NMR titration experiments of 2-I with styrene oxide and THF showed similar chemical shift variations (Figure S9), corroborating this assumption. Therefore, the efficiency of the catalyst in the kinetic resolution of epoxides could be explained by the rigidized chiral sidechains of the complex that are located in the surroundings of the activated nucleophilic anion (see Figure 1 for representation).



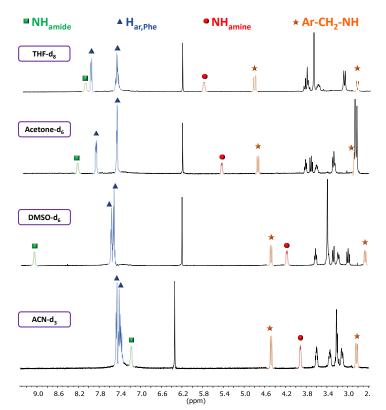


Figure 3. Partial ¹H NMR spectra of 2-I in different deuterated solvents.

¹H NMR spectra acquired at 400 MHz and 25 °C for **2-I** (2 mM). From top to bottom: deuterated THF, acetone, DMSO, and ACN used as solvents, respectively. The signals for the protons discussed in the text have been highlighted with different colours.

The capability of the pseudopeptidic complex for supramolecular recognition was assayed in the presence of the two enantiomers of the substrate, namely (S)-SO and (R)-SO. The association constants for the equimolecular 2-I : SO system, as determined by ¹H NMR titration experiments, revealed a preferential recognition of (R)-SO over its (S)-enantiomer (Figures S10 and S11). This observation could be the result of the formation of attractive π - π interactions between the pseudopeptidic sidechain and the aromatic moiety of (R)-SO, likely unattainable in the case of (S)-SO (see Figure 5c). One may realize that this favoured recognition of one of the enantiomers (binding constants of 16 ± 1 M^{-1} and 8 ± 1 M^{-1} respectively for (R)-SO and (S)-SO, Figures S10 and S11) could be even more pronounced in the supramolecular complexation of the reaction intermediates and transition states (vide infra), explaining the high enantioselectivity observed in the transformation (see, for instance, entry 12, Table 2). Conformational changes for 2-I in the presence of (R)-SO were also monitored using circular dichroism (CD). Interestingly, a significant decrease was observed in the intensity of the negative band centred at 215 nm -absorption of amide groups- upon addition of (R)-SO (Figure 4A).54 This result is consistent with a change in the chiral environment of the amide moieties upon hydrogen bonding with the basic oxygen atom of the epoxide.¹⁷ As expected for this supramolecular recognition process, a red-shift was concomitantly detected in the UV absorption signal for the amide band (orange arrow, Figure 4B).



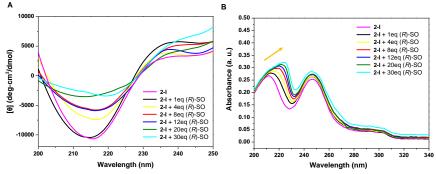


Figure 4. CD and UV-Vis spectra for the titration of 2-I with increasing amounts of (R)-SO

A) CD spectra (CH₃CN, 25 °C) for the titration of **2-I** (0.01 mM) with increasing amounts of (R)-SO.

B) UV-Vis spectra (CH₃CN, 25 °C) for the titration of **2-I** (0.01 mM) with increasing amounts of (*R*)-SO. The red-shift observed for the amide band has been highlighted with an orange arrow

The concentration of the organometallic host was maintained constant during the experiment.

The potential capacity of these complexes to activate carbon dioxide molecules was also studied by ¹H NMR and ESI-MS. The presence of amino groups in the macrocyclic structure could result in activation of carbon dioxide molecules.^{55,56,57} Albeit we did observe some sort of reversible interaction between the pseudopeptide and carbon dioxide at high CO₂ pressures (10 bar; Figures S12-S16), these conformational changes were minor at 1 bar CO₂ pressure. This, together with the surmised high efficiency in the ring-opening step triggered by the "naked" iodide anions, suggested that the most feasible catalytic pathway is the CO₂ molecule being directly fixed by a nucleophilic attack of the highly reactive alkoxylate intermediate formed after the epoxide ring-opening (A2 in Figure 5A).

All these data allow for the postulation of a plausible mechanism for the catalytic CO₂ conversion in the presence of SO and **2-I** (Figure 5A). After the preferent recognition of (*R*)-SO by the Zn²⁺ complex (adduct **A1**), the "naked" iodide anion attacks to the α -C of the oxirane, as previously reported for aromatic epoxides.⁵⁸ This initial step led to the alkoxylate intermediate, which can be stabilized by means of hydrogen bonds with the acidic hydrogen atoms of the Zn-coordinated NH groups (**A2**). Such non-covalent stabilization between the alkoxylate anion and two hydrogen bond donor groups of the pseudopeptide resembles the oxyanion holes found in enzymes, as previously described for analogous systems.⁵⁹ Additional hydrophobic interactions with the amino acid residues could further stabilise this intermediate. At this point, nucleophilic attack of the alkoxylate to the electrophilic carbon of the CO₂ molecule allowed for the formation of the carboxylate **A3** that can also be stabilized through hydrogen bonding with the hydrogen atoms of the Zn-coordinated secondary amino groups. In the last step, the intermediate **A3** experiences a ring-closing step, yielding the desired (*R*)-styrene carbonate (**A4**).



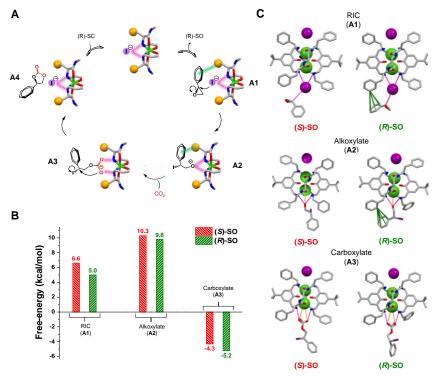


Figure 5. Proposed mechanism and DFT calculations

A) Postulated mechanism for the enantioselective cycloaddition of CO_2 to styrene oxide in the presence of the one-component bimetallic Zn^{2+} catalysts. The symmetry equivalent (half-molecule) of the pseudopeptidic Zn^{2+} complex has been represented with 3D sticks. The sidechains of the amino acid fragments have been represented with orange balls.

B) Free-energies obtained, considering the two initial SO enantiomers, for: RIC (A1), alkoxylate (A2), and carboxylate (A3). Red bars correspond to energies obtained starting from (S)-SO and green bars correspond to energies from (R)-SO.

C) DFT models (b3lyp/lanl2dz) calculated for the most relevant species involved in the catalytic cycle. Hydrogen bonds highlighted with discontinuous magenta lines. Electrostatic interactions highlighted with discontinuous orange lines. Aromatic interactions highlighted with discontinuous green lines.

Preliminary DFT calculations (b3lyp/lanl2dz) were performed for the two enantiomeric supramolecular adducts of relevant species A2 and A3, as well as for the initial reactants interaction complex (RIC) (A1 in Figures 5B and 5C). Free-energies were determined taking the energies of the catalyst 2-I and each of the SO enantiomers as zero. In all cases, the supramolecular species resulting from the reaction with (R)-SO were more stable than the ones calculated for the reaction with the (S)-enantiomer. As surmised, the preorganization of the different components in the RIC A1 was facilitated by non-covalent forces, namely hydrogen bonds, electrostatic, and π - π interactions. The endergonic nature of the epoxide recognition process is related with the entropic cost of bringing two molecules together.⁵⁸ The preferential interaction with (R)-SO was assigned to the presence of attractive edge-toface aromatic forces (for the closest C_{ar} , d_{C-C} = 3.99 Å, Figure 5C).⁶⁰ Such a favourable interaction was not possible in the presence of (S)-SO (see Figures 5B and 5C for conformations and energy differences). A similar scenario was found for the alkoxylate intermediate A2, although in this case the intermediate from (R)-SO was only favoured by o.5 kcal/mol. Calculations indicate that one of the sidechains experiences a conformational change relative to the one present in 2-I for the anionic intermediates (A2 and A3) resulting from (R)-SO, most likely to maximize the attractive forces between the catalyst and intermediates.

CONCLUSION

Results here presented highlight the potential and relevance of bioinspired approaches for the development of efficient catalytic systems for CO₂ conversion into added-value chemicals. The appropriate design of pseudopeptidic macrocycles has been demonstrated to lead to compounds able to form binuclear Zn^{2+} complexes with a high level of preorganization. The resulting complexes present a variety of functional groups properly located in close proximity (acidic hydrogen atoms, basic centres, nucleophilic anions not coordinated to the metal centre...) that synergistically cooperate to establish supramolecular interactions. Such structural features have revealed to be essential for their behaviour as efficient catalysts for the cycloaddition of CO₂ to epoxides, as studied experimentally and through computational calculations. The reaction takes place under mild conditions and without the need of any additional co-catalyst, which implements the green and sustainable character of this process. Besides, their pseudopeptidic nature provides them with a high level of modularity that can be simply achieved through the modifications in the sidechain of the component amino acids or thorough the nature of the anion. Some of these catalytic systems can provide quantitative transformations of CO2 and epoxides into the corresponding cyclic carbonates at 80 °C in 1 h, with catalyst loadings of 0.5 mol% and 1 bar of CO2. Finally, the intrinsic chiral nature of compounds derived from amino acids and the rigid conformational preorganization of the studied Zn complexes allows to create a chiral environment in the constrained space where the reaction takes place, mimicking the situation found in enzymatic active pockets. Thus, the combination of efficient CO2 conversions under mild conditions and the presence of the amino acid-based chirality facilitated achieving the kinetic resolution of racemic epoxides, which is not often found in this field.

From the compounds studied in this work, the catalyst derived from phenylalanine and containing the iodide anion (**2-I**) afforded best results, with higher conversions and enantioselectivities than valine and tryptophan analogues. This can be ascribed to the presence of attractive π - π intermolecular interactions with the substrate and reaction intermediates, as corroborated by DFT calculations. Such stabilizing interactions appear to be more efficient for the (*R*)-styrene oxide than for the (*S*) enantiomer, explaining the enantioselectivity observed. At room temperature, **2-I** was able to afford after 24 h (0.5 mol% loading, 1 bar of CO₂) a 45% yield of the carbonate from styrene oxide, with an *s*-factor as high as 9.5, which represents the highest *s*-factor reported to date, to the best of our knowledge, for the kinetic resolution of styrene oxide.

Overall, the high level of structural and functional preorganization that can be achieved with relatively simple macrocyclic pseudopeptides like the one studied in this work, facilitates the preparation of metal complexes with an enzyme-like catalytic behaviour based on a harmonized set of cooperative supramolecular interactions between the substrates and the intermediates (and transition states). Albeit attained catalytic activities cannot yet rival the ones promoted by enzymes, the mode of action of the pseudopeptidic catalysts clearly stresses the essential role of optimally arranged supramolecularly-active sites, showcasing enzymatic behaviours. Additional efforts need to be carried out to improve the catalytic efficiency and the enantioselectivity observed -as to be ready for practical applications-, but the present results are key to open the way for developing new bioinspired catalytic systems (*i.e.*, synzymes) for challenging CO_2 sustainable transformations.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Resource availability

Lead contact

Further information and requests for resources should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead contact, Eduardo García-Verdugo (cepeda@uji.es).

Materials availability

All materials generated in this study are available from the lead contact without restriction.

Data and code availability

Data and code generated during this study are available from the lead contact upon request.

Instrumentation and measurements



NMR spectra were recorded on Bruker Avance 400 (400 MHz for ¹H and 100 MHz for ¹3C{¹H}), Bruker Avance III plus 400 (400 MHz for ¹H and 100 MHz for ¹3C{¹H}), and Bruker Ascend Spectroscope Avance Neo-500 MHz (500 MHz for ¹H and 125 MHz for ¹³C{¹H}) instruments. MestReNova 10 software was used for the treatment of the NMR spectra. Chemical shifts are given in ppm. NMR tubes were sealed with Teflon caps to avoid evaporation of solvent and changes in concentration. The coupling constants (J) are listed in Hz. Peaks are described as singlet (s), doublet (d), triplet (t), doublet of doublets (dd) and multiplet (m). Unless otherwise noted, spectra were recorded at 25 °C. Fourier transform infrared spectra (FT-IR) were recorded using an attenuated total reflection adapter (Jasco). HRMS-ESI (High-Resolution Mass Spectrometry-Electro-Spray Ionisation) mass spectra were recorded by direct injection into a ThermoFisher Exactive Plus EMR Orbitrap mass spectrometer. The CD spectra were recorded on CD-ORD J-1500 (Jasco). CelPress

Commercially available chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, Alfa Aesar, Fluorochem, TCI and were used without further purification. Solvents and reagents of pharmaceutical grade quality were purchased from Carlo Erba, and solvents of spectroscopic grade were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and Fisher Chemical. Deuterated solvents were purchased from Euriso-TOP.

Open-chain pseudopeptidic precursors (B1-4) were prepared following literature procedures. $^{\rm 32}$

General procedure for the cycloaddition of CO2 to styrene oxide

8.7 mmol of epoxide and 0.0044 mmol (or 0.0087 mmol for 1 mol% experiments) of the catalyst were loaded into a Berghof R-300 high-pressure reactor. The reaction vessel was then connected to a pressurized CO₂ source and a back-pressure regulator. The system was purged with 2 bar of CO₂ for 5 minutes, and the final pressure was adjusted to 1 bar. Subsequently, the reaction temperature was risen to the desired temperature and kept at that temperature for the desired time, at 200 rpm stirring. After reaction, the set-up was cooled down to 30 °C and the excess of CO₂ was released carefully. At the end of the reaction, an aliquot (20 μ L) of the resulting mixture was analysed by ³H NMR spectroscopy to determine the conversion and by chiral GC to determine the enantiomeric excess of the cyclic carbonate. The experimental procedures were replicated for all experiments. The average deviation of styrene carbonate formation was less than 5%

General procedure for the ¹H NMR conversion determination

¹H NMR spectra were recorded by diluting 20 µL of the reaction crude with 580 µL of CDCl₃. The signals δ (ppm) for SO are: 2.76 (t, 1H), 3.10 (t, 1H), and 3.82 (t, 1H) for the CH and CH₂ groups and 7.22–7.38 (m, 5H) for the phenyl group. The signals δ (ppm) for the cyclic styrene carbonate are: 4.29 (t, 1H) and 4.82 (t,1H) for the CH₂ (methylene), 5.70 (t, 1H) for the CH (methine), and 7.22–7.38 (m, 6H) for the phenyl group. The conversions were measured by NMR integration, considering the signals at 5.70 and 3.82 ppm for SO and SC, respectively (see Figure S17 for an example).

General procedure for enantiomeric excess determination by GC

The enantiomeric purities for the cyclic carbonates were determined by GC using a chiral column (SUPELCO 24304 β -cyclodextrin120, 30 x 0.25 x 0.25 FILM). The samples were prepared diluting 10 μ L of the reaction crude with 990 μ L of CH₃CN. The peak at 30.9 min was assigned to (*R*)-SC and the peak at 31.2 min was assigned to (*S*)-SC. The peaks of the initial styrene oxide enantiomers appeared at 11.9 min and 12.1 min for (*R*)-SO and (*S*)-SO, respectively. See GC enantiomeric excess determination section for more details.

General procedure for the IR kinetic experiments

In-situ FTIR spectra were measured for the different solvent-less kinetic experiments. The temperature (60 °C) was controlled using a Peltier plate, and the CO_2 atmosphere was introduced with a balloon (see Figure S5 for experimental set-up). The data collection consisted of measuring an IR spectrum every 5 minutes. The conversions were determined using an appropriate calibration curve.

General procedure for the spectroscopic titration experiments

The ¹H NMR (400 MHz) titration experiments were performed by consecutive additions of the guest to a solution of the desired host. The concentration of the host was kept constant



during the experiment. The association constants were determined using HypNMR software. $^{\mathbf{6}_1}$

Crystal structures

Single crystals suitable for X-ray crystallography were obtained by slow evaporation of a methanol solution of H_2L1 . A suitable crystal was selected and mounted on a SuperNova, Dual, Cu at zero, Atlas diffractometer. The structure was solved with the SHELXT 2014/5⁶² structure solution program and refined with the SHELXL-2018/3⁶³ refinement package. Artwork representations were processed using MERCURY software.⁶⁴ The refined structure of H_2L1 has been registered in CCDC with the deposition number: 2153938. See ESI for more details.

Single crystals suitable for X-ray crystallography were obtained for **4-1** by slow evaporation of MTBE in a THF solution of the organometallic complex. The molecular structure was solved and refined as detailed above. The refined structure has been registered in CCDC with the deposition number: **2153936**. See ESI for more details.

DFT calculations

DFT calculations were run with Gaussian og (revision B.o1).⁶⁵ The X-ray geometric structure for **4-I** was used as the starting point for building-up the models. Geometry optimizations were carried out without symmetry restrictions at the B3LYP level,⁶⁶ using the Lanl2Dz basis set.⁶⁷ Analytical frequency calculations were used to characterise each stationary point as a minimum. These calculations, carried out at 298.15 K, also allowed for obtaining the thermal and entropic corrections required to calculate Gibbs free-energy differences. See ESI for energies and more details.

Syntheses of the macrocyclic pseudopeptidic ligands Synthesis of L1

B1 (0.230 g, 0.891 mmol, 2 eq.) was reacted with 4-tert-Butyl-2,6-diformylphenol (0.192 g, 0.891 mmol, 2 eq.) in the presence of Na₂SO₄, forming a suspension on chloroform (30 mL, 30 mM). After 15 hour of reaction, 10 mL of methanol were added to the reaction crude and a big excess of NaBH₄ (16 eq.) was poured into the flask. The resultant white suspension was left stirring at room temperature for 2 hours. After removal of the solvent at reduced pressure, compound **L1** was extracted from the solid using chloroform as solvent to yield a yellowish solid (0.298 g, 0.329 mmol, 74% yield). Characterisation: ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃, 25 °C) δ = 7.45 (s, 4H), 6.90 (s, 4H), 3.67 (s, 8H), 3.42 – 3.31 (m, 4H), 3.23 (d, *J* = 9.0 Hz, 4H), 2.87 (d, *J* = 5.3 Hz, 4H), 1.96 (dt, *J* = 13.1, 6.7 Hz, 4H), 1.16 (s, 18H), 0.87 (d, *J* = 6.9 Hz, 12H), 0.80 (d, *J* = 6.8 Hz, 12H); ¹³C{¹H} NMR (400 MHz, DMSO-d₆, 25 °C) δ = 173.1, 153.5, 139.8, 124.0, 123.9, 66.9, 49.0, 38.2, 33.5, 31.6, 19.3, 18.5; FT-IR (ATR): 3278, 3056, 2958, 1646, 1533, 1458 cm⁻¹. MS-ESI(+) m/z: 865.8 ([M + H]⁺); 887.7 ([M + Na]⁺).

Synthesis of L2

L2 (yellowish solid, 1.030 g, 0.936 mmol, 79% yield) was synthesized following the protocol described for L1 but using B2 as the pseudopeptidic precursor. Characterisation: ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CD₃OD, 25 °C) δ = 7.38 – 6.92 (m, 20H), 6.79 (s, 4H), 3.57 (d, *J* = 12.9 Hz, 4H), 3.43 (d, *J* = 12.9 Hz, 4H), 3.33 – 3.24 (m, 4H), 3.16 – 3.00 (m, 12H), 2.88 (dd, *J* = 13.5, 6.2 Hz, 4H), 2.76 – 2.64 (m, 4H), 1.09 (s, 18H);¹³C{¹H} NMR (400 MHz, CD₃OD, 25 °C) δ = 176.1, 155.2, 142.4, 130.3, 130.2, 127.8, 126.6, 125.3, 64.5, 50.3, 40.3, 39.9, 34.7, 32.1; FT-IR (ATR): 3285, 3060, 2952, 1655, 1525, 1454 cm⁻¹. MS-ESI(+) m/z: 1057.6 ([M + H]⁺); 1079.8 ([M + Na]⁺). Synthesis of L3

L3 (yellowish solid, 0.497 g, 0.452 mmol, 75% yield) was synthesized following the protocol described for **L1** but using **B3** as the pseudopeptidic precursor. Characterisation: ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CD₃OD, 25 °C) δ = 7.38 – 6.92 (m, 20H), 6.79 (s, 4H), 3.57 (d, *J* = 12.9 Hz, 4H), 3.43 (d, *J* = 12.9 Hz, 4H), 3.33 – 3.24 (m, 4H), 3.16 – 3.00 (m, 12H), 2.88 (dd, *J* = 13.5, 6.2 Hz, 4H), 2.76 – 2.64 (m, 4H), 1.09 (s, 18H);³C{¹H} MMR (400 MHz, CD₃OD, 25 °C) δ = 176.1, 155.2, 142.4, 130.3, 130.2, 127.8, 126.6, 125.3, 64.5, 50.3, 40.3, 39.9, 34.7, 32.1; FT-IR (ATR): 3285, 3060, 2952, 1655, 1525, 1454 cm⁻¹. MS-ESI(+) m/z: 1057.6 ([M + H]⁺); 1079.8 ([M + Na]⁺). **Synthesis of L4**

L4 (yellowish solid, 0.075 g, 0.060 mmol, 64% yield) was synthesized following the protocol described for **L1** but using **B4** as the pseudopeptidic precursor. Characterisation: ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CD₃OD, 25 °C) δ = 7.40 (d, *J* = 8.0 Hz, 4H), 7.18 (d, *J* = 8.1, 4H), 6.96 - 6.89 (m, 8H), 6.86 - 6.79 (m, 8H), 6.72 (s, 4H), 3.48 (d, *J* = 13.0 Hz, 4H), 3.39 - 3.26 (m, 8H), 3.10 - 2.98 (m, 12H), 2.84 (dd, *J* = 14.3, 7.7 Hz, 4H), 1.02 (s, 18H).;¹³C{¹H} NMR (400 MHz, CD₃OD, 25 °C) δ =



176.8, 154.5, 143.0, 138.1, 128.7, 126.6, 125.1, 124.7, 122.5, 119.9, 119.5, 112.4, 111.2, 63.6, 50.3, 39.9, 34.7, 32.1, 29.8; FT-IR (ATR): 3404, 3307, 3057, 2955, 1654, 1524, 1457 cm⁻¹. MS-ESI(+) m/z: 1213.7 ($[M + H]^+$); 1235.9 ($[M + Na]^+$).

Syntheses of the organometallic pseudopeptidic complexes Synthesis of 1

Ligand L1 (0.150 g, 0.165 mmol, 1 eq.) was dissolved in 2 mL of MeOH. Znl₂ (0.105 g, 0.330 mmol, 2 eq.) was dissolved in 0.6 mL of MeOH. The solution of the ligand was added to the Znl₂ solution, leading to the appearance of abundant white precipitate. The white solid was filtered-off using a syringe filter and the resultant colourless solution was dried under reduced pressure and at 45 °C to yield pure 1-I as a white solid (0.175 g, 0.145 mmol, 88% yield). Characterisation: ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO- d_{c_1} 25 °C) δ = 8.58 (s, 4H), 6.86 (s, 4H), 4.71 (d, J = 13.1 Hz, 4H), 3.82 (d, J = 7.3 Hz, 4H), 3.76 (dd, J = 13.5, 3.5 Hz, 4H), 3.25 – 3.18 (m, 8H), 2.94 (d, J = 12.4 Hz, 4H), 2.24 – 2.12 (m, 4H), 1.03 (d, J = 6.9 Hz, 12H), 0.85 (d, J = 6.9 Hz, 12H); ¹³C{¹H} NMR (400 MHz, DMSO- d_{6} , 25 °C) δ = 174.7, 160.4, 136.5, 128.4, 120.7, 59.6, 53.2, 41.2, 32.4, 31.5, 19.5, 16.7; FT-IR (ATR): 3456, 3249, 3084, 2959, 1624, 1566, 1480 cm⁻¹. HRMS (ESI+) m/z: [M]²⁺ calcd 495.7353, found 495.7359. See ESI for 2D-NMR analyses (Figure S24-S28).

Synthesis of 2

2-I was synthesized following the protocol described for **L1** but using **L2** as ligand (white solid, 0.422 g, 0.269 mmol, 89% yield). Characterisation: ¹H NMR (400 MHz, THF-d₈, 25 °C) δ = 7.77 (d, *J* = 7.6 Hz, 4H), 7.69 (d, *J* = 7.2 Hz, 8H), 7.24 – 7.14 (m, 12H), 5.95 (s, 4H), 5.71 – 5.57 (m, 4H), 4.60 (d, *J* = 13.5 Hz, 4H), 3.70 – 3.56 (m, 8H), 3.42 – 3.32 (m, 4H), 2.90 (t, *J* = 9.3 Hz, 8H), 2.67 (dd, *J* = 13.5, 3.3 Hz, 4H), 1.09 (s, 18H).;¹³C{¹H} NMR (400 MHz, THF-d₈, 25 °C) δ = 175.8, 160.9, 138.7, 136.2, 130.3, 128.4, 128.1, 126.3, 121.4, 57.6, 51.8, 41.4, 39.4, 33.1, 31.1; FT-IR (ATR): 3417, 3200, 2949, 1626, 1556, 1480 cm⁻¹. HRMS (ESI+) m/z: [M]²⁺ calcd 591.7353, found 591.7362. See ESI for 2D-NMR analyses (Figures S29-S33).

Synthesis of 3

3-I was synthesized following the protocol described for L1 but using L3 as ligand (white solid, 0.134 g, 0.093 mmol, 86% yield). Characterisation: ¹H NMR (400 MHz, THF-d₈, 25 °C) δ = 7.77 (d, *J* = 7.6 Hz, 4H), 7.69 (d, *J* = 7.2 Hz, 8H), 7.24 – 7.14 (m, 12H), 5.95 (s, 4H), 5.71 – 5.57 (m, 4H), 4.60 (d, *J* = 13.5 Hz, 4H), 3.70 – 3.56 (m, 8H), 3.42 – 3.32 (m, 4H), 2.90 (t, *J* = 9.3 Hz, 8H), 2.67 (dd, *J* = 13.5, 3.3 Hz, 4H), 1.09 (s, 18H).;¹³C[¹H] NMR (400 MHz, THF-d₈, 25 °C) δ = 175.8, 160.9, 138.7, 136.2, 130.3, 128.4, 128.1, 126.3, 121.4, 57.6, 51.8, 41.4, 39.4, 33.1, 31.1; FT-IR (ATR): 3417, 3200, 2949, 1626, 1556, 1480 cm⁻¹. HRMS (ESI+) m/z: [M]²⁺ calcd 591.7353; found 591.7362. See ESI for 2D-NMR analyses (Figures S29-S33).

Synthesis of 4

4-I was synthesized following the protocol described for **1-I** but using **L4** as ligand (white solid, 0.052 g, 0.033 mmol, 82% yield). Characterisation: ¹H NMR (400 MHz, THF-d₈, 25 °C) δ = 9.92 (s, 4H), 8.19 (s, 4H), 7.55 (d, J = 2.5 Hz, 4H), 7.38 (d, J = 7.9 Hz, 4H), 7.23 (d, J = 8.1 Hz, 4H), 6.90 (t, J = 7.6 Hz, 4H), 6.73 (t, J = 7.5 Hz, 4H), 5.64 (s, 4H), 5.24 (d, J = 2.4 Hz, 4H), 4.67 – 4.57 (m, 4H), 3.73 (m, 4H), 3.07 (dd, J = 14.1, 4.1 Hz, 4H), 2.90 (dd, J = 13.4, 3.4 Hz, 4H), 2.83 (d, J = 12.7 Hz, 4H), 0.66 (s, 18H);¹³C{¹H} NMR (400 MHz, THF-d₈, 25 °C) δ = 176.1, 160.9, 136.7, 128.2, 127.6, 126.9, 121.2, 120.9, 118.6, 118.0, 110.9, 110.2, 56.6, 52.5, 41.3, 32.6, 30.9, 30.1; FT-IR (ATR): 3491, 3428, 3223, 3083, 2959, 1627, 1551, 1478 cm⁻¹. HRMS (ESI+) m/z: [M]²⁺ calcd 669.7571; found 669.7568. See ESI for 2D-NMR analyses (Figures S34-S37).

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Document S1. Figures S1–S39, and Tables S1-S6, cartesian coordinates and energies.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization: F.E., S.V.L., and E.G.-V.; resources: R.P., B.A., S.V.L., and E.G.-V.; investigation: F.E.; DFT calculations: F.E.; crystal structure refinement: M. B.; writing—



original draft: F.E.; writing—review and editing: F.E., S.V.L. and E.G.-V.; revision of the manuscript: F.E., R.P., M.B., B.A., S.V.L., and E.G.-V.; funding acquisition: B.A., S.V.L., and E.G.-V.; supervision: E.G.-V.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

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