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Gas-phase CO₂ activation with single electrons, metal atoms, clusters, and molecules

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ABSTRACT

In this review, the history and outlook of gas-phase CO₂ activation using single electrons, metal atoms, clusters (mainly metal hydride clusters), and molecules are discussed on both of the experimental and theoretical fronts. Although the development of bulk solid-state materials for the activation and conversion of CO₂ into value-added products have enjoyed great success in the past several decades, this review focuses only on gas-phase studies, because isolated, well-defined gas-phase systems are ideally suited for high-resolution experiments using state-of-the-art spectrometric and spectroscopic techniques, and for simulations employing modern quantum theoretical methods. The unmatched high complementarity and comparability of experiment and theory in the case of gas-phase investigations bear an enormous potential in providing insights in the reactions of CO₂ activation at the atomic level. In all of these examples, the reduction and bending of the inert neutral CO₂ molecule is the critical step determined by the frontier orbitals of reaction participants. Based on the results and outlook summarized in this review, we anticipate that studies of gas-phase CO₂ activations will be an avenue rich with opportunities for the rational design of novel catalysts based on the knowledge obtained on the atomic level.

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1. Introduction

It has been widely accepted that current and projected carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions from anthropogenic activities such as the burning of fossil fuels will lead to a continued global average temperature and sea level rise [1–3]. Reducing CO₂ emission by using alternative renewable energy sources and chemically converting CO₂ into other valuable products are the two ways that promise to alleviate the current situation, but the latter does not seem to be an easy task because CO₂ is a highly stable molecule. Its high bond dissociation energy (525.9 kJ/mol [4]) and ionization potential (13.777 eV [5]) indicate that directly breaking the C–O bond or oxidizing it by taking an electron are both difficult. The carbon atom in CO₂ is in the highest oxidation state (+4), as a result, the reduction of CO₂ by electron donation might be more realistic. However, the attachment of a whole electron to CO₂ again is challenging, because CO₂ has a large highest-occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) - lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) gap, consequently, occupying the LUMO with an electron is energetically unfavorable, which renders a negative electron affinity (−0.6 eV) [6]. As a result, CO₂ must deform to accept an electron, but the resulting bent CO₂[−] anion is metastable [6–9]. Since all of these challenges are essentially caused by the intrinsic properties of CO₂ that are directly related to its molecular orbitals and the electronic structures, the investigations of the electronic structures, thermodynamics, intermediate states are vital in the deep understanding of the CO₂ activation reactions and rational designing of efficient catalysts.

Isolated and well-defined gas-phase systems are ideally suited for high-resolution experiments using state-of-the-art spectrometric and spectroscopic techniques, and for simulations employing modern quantum theoretical methods. The unmatched high complementarity and comparability of experiment and theory in the case of gas-phase investigations bear an enormous potential for investigating challenging tasks such as geometry search, intermediate capture, and chemical bonding analysis [10–16], which also provide rich opportunities in understanding the mechanistic steps in the reactions of CO₂ activation. In this review, we focus on the history, development, and outlook of isolated systems in the gas phase where CO₂ activation using single electrons, atoms, clusters, and molecules plays the key role, which we anticipate that will

provide insights for the rational designing of CO₂ activation catalysts at the atomic level.

2. Activation of CO₂ with an electron

Isolated CO₂[−] anion has a bent structure, where the O–C–O bond angle is 135° and the C–O bond length is increased from 1.15 Å to 1.24 Å (see Fig. 1a for the potential energy surface of CO₂[−] [17]). Despite the above thermochemical arguments such as the negative electron affinity, Compton et al. have estimated a maximal lifetime of about 90 μs for the CO₂[−] anion [6], as a result, experimental techniques that are faster than this timescale stand a chance of observing the metastable CO₂[−] [6,18–21]. Early experiments produce CO₂[−] by taking advantage of organic molecules such as cyclic anhydrides that have bent CO₂ moieties in their structures. Such experiments include the direct electron attachment to the organic molecules [18] and the collisions of the cyclic anhydrides with a cesium beam to produce the isolated bent CO₂[−] product [19]. Other attempts include collisions of alkali metal atoms directly with the CO₂ molecules where the alkali metals function as electron donors to yield CO₂[−] [6,20]. Remarkably, Bowen and coworkers [21] have recorded the photoelectron spectrum of CO₂[−] with a 2.54 eV laser beam, which shows that the vertical detachment energy (VDE) of CO₂[−] is 1.4 eV (Fig. 1b). Due to the large structural difference and the consequent poor Franck–Condon overlap between the neutral and anionic CO₂, the observed onset of the electron binding energy in Fig. 1b is much higher than the actual electron affinity (EA) of CO₂ and the whole spectrum shows a wide band. Later, Mingfei Zhou [22,23] reported the infrared spectrum of CO₂[−] in solid argon matrix at 11 K. The HOMO of CO₂[−] where the excess electron dwells in presented in Fig. 1c, which has π* antibonding characteristics. The neutral and anionic CO₂ have also been extensively interrogated theoretically [24–30].

The metastable CO₂[−] can be stabilized in larger clusters such as (CO₂)_n[−] [31–39] and (CO₂)_n(H₂O)_n [40–43] as a result of the increased electron affinities (EA) and increased lifetimes. In most of the cases other than those with a C₂O₄ core (*vide infra*), the extra CO₂ or H₂O act as the “solvation” molecules for CO₂[−]. The word “solvation” is the language often used in cluster science, meaning that the non-covalent interactions between the solvation molecules

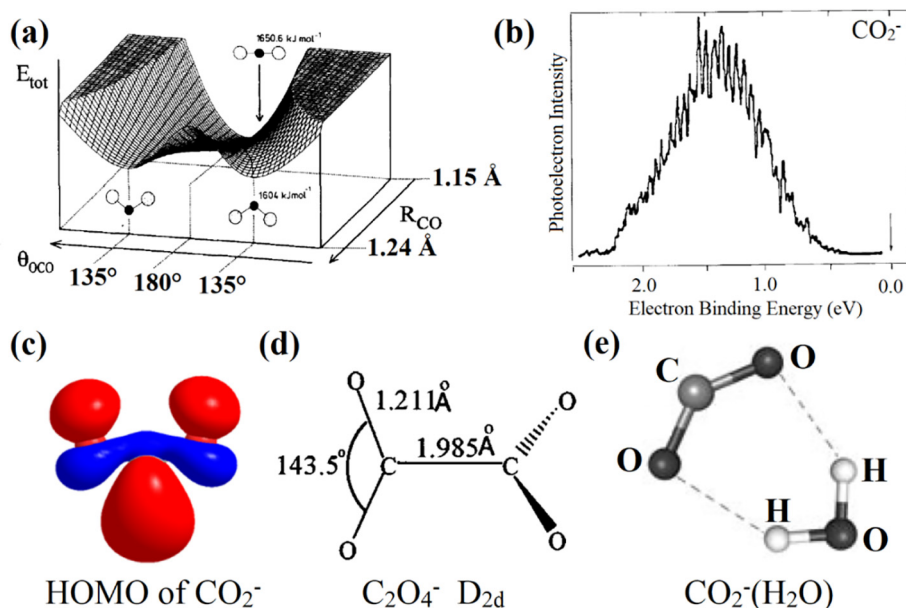


Fig. 1. (a) The potential energy surface of CO_2^- . Reproduced from Ref. [17]. (b) The photoelectron spectrum of CO_2^- . Reproduced from Ref. [21] with permission from Springer Nature. (c) The HOMO of CO_2^- . (d) the structure of C_2O_4^- . Reproduced from Ref. [22] with permission from AIP Publishing, and (e) the structure of $\text{CO}_2^-(\text{H}_2\text{O})$. Reproduced from Ref. [43] with permission from Wiley-VCH.

and the core anions lower the energy of the anion more than the corresponding neutral, yielding increased EAs. Klots and Compton first generated $(\text{CO}_2)_n^-$ clusters with electron attachment to a supersonic neutral CO_2 beam [22,31], after which people realized that the anionic core of these clusters could be either CO_2^- or C_2O_4^- (Fig. 1d). Anion photoelectron spectroscopy [33,34], infrared spectroscopy [35], photoelectron angular distribution imaging [36] techniques, as well as theoretical studies [37–39] have revealed that the core is switching between CO_2^- and C_2O_4^- at different cluster sizes. Water is apparently another good solvation molecule for CO_2^- , and Klots [40] reported that just one water molecule

is sufficient to prevent electron autodetachment in $\text{CO}_2^-(\text{H}_2\text{O})$. Later, bigger clusters $(\text{CO}_2^-)(\text{H}_2\text{O})_n$ were investigated both experimentally and theoretically [41–43] (Fig. 1e).

3. Activation of CO_2 with a metal atom

The interaction of CO_2 with a metal atom can be regarded as a simplified model of atomically rough surfaces with metal atoms that are not fully coordinated, and these corner or edge sites are considered as the major active moieties of catalytic CO_2 activation

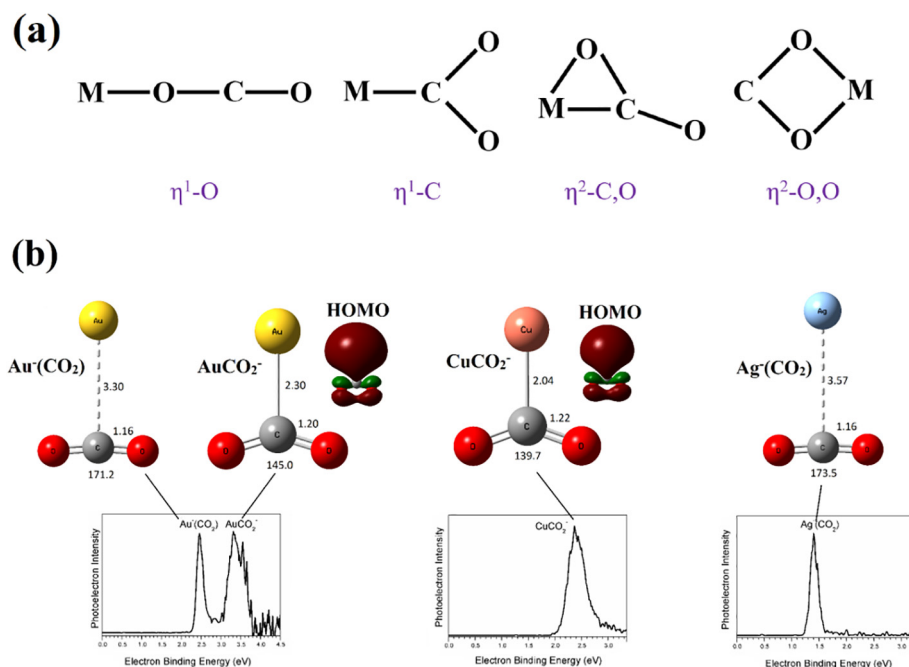


Fig. 2. (a) The four ways that a metal M interacts with CO_2 , (b) the structures, HOMO, and anion photoelectron spectra of $(\text{M}-\text{CO}_2)^-$ ($\text{M} = \text{Cu}^-, \text{Ag}^-, \text{Au}^-$). Reproduced from Ref. [55] with permission from AIP Publishing.

on materials. In the gas phase, CO₂ and an atom will bind in one of the four forms depicted in Fig. 2a, they being $\eta^1\text{-O}$, $\eta^1\text{-C}$, $\eta^2\text{-C}$, O and $\eta^2\text{-O}$, O, where the superscripted numbers denote the number of coordination to the metal center. For the $\eta^1\text{-O}$ cases, previous studies from Duncan and Mackenzie groups using ion beam and infrared photodissociation techniques include V⁺, Si⁺, Ni⁺, Mg⁺, Fe⁺, Al⁺, Ca⁺, Co⁺, Rh⁺, and Ir⁺, all of which follow the M⁺-O = C = O configuration [44–52], where CO₂ acts as weakly-bound solvation molecules and is slightly positively charged. Three exceptions were also found: in the case of V²⁺(CO₂)_n, charge transfer occurs in larger clusters and yields the V²⁺(CO₂)_{n-2}(C₂O₄⁻) cluster [44]; in the cases of Si⁺(CO₂)_n and Ni⁺(CO₂)_n, the Si or Ni center inserts into a C-O bond of a CO₂ molecule, forming O-M-CO oxide-carbonyl products [45,46]. Armentrout and Schwarz groups summarized the thermodynamics of cationic metal-CO₂ interactions [53,54].

The $\eta^1\text{-C}$ and the $\eta^2\text{-C,O}$ scenarios have more charge transfer from the center atom to CO₂. Using mass spectrometric and anion photoelectron spectroscopic methods, Zhang, Liu and Bowen investigated the interactions between Cu⁻, Ag⁻, Au⁻, Ni⁻, Pd⁻, Pt⁻ and CO₂ [55–57]. All of the six examples follow the $\eta^1\text{-C}$ structure with subtle differences among them. They discovered that in (M-CO₂)⁻ (M = Cu⁻, Ni⁻, Pd⁻, Pt⁻), the interaction between the metal center and CO₂ is strong (chemisorption), forming formate-like anions (metalloformates), the excess electron occupying the HOMO is delocalized in all the four atoms, and the CO₂ moiety is negatively charged up to -0.64 e (Fig. 2b). Nevertheless, in (Ag-CO₂)⁻, the interaction between the metal and CO₂ is weak (physisorption), and CO₂ acts as a solvation molecule [denoted as Ag⁻(CO₂)], resulting in little charge transfer to CO₂ (Fig. 2b). The (Au-CO₂)⁻ cluster surprisingly has both of the chemisorbed and physisorbed isomers denoted as AuCO₂⁻ and Au⁻(CO₂)⁻, respectively (Fig. 2b). Even though it is still enigmatic why these three coinage metal atomic anions behave so differently in activating CO₂, these results have brought new insights in understanding the catalytic efficiency when using related materials. Kim and coworkers [57] rationalized the $\eta^1\text{-C}$ activation using M_n⁻ (M = Cu, Ag, Au) with the analyses of the sym-

metries of the frontier orbitals. For $n = 1, 2, 6$, the HOMO of M_n⁻ presents an s-type orbital of the metals, which matches the symmetry of the LUMO of CO₂. As a result, the doubly occupied HOMO of M_n⁻ can be inserted into the empty LUMO of CO₂ to produce a bond is similar to a dative bond, resulting in the bending and activation of CO₂. This work has pointed out a promising way of activating CO₂ by analyzing the symmetry of the frontier orbitals of the catalyst. Weber's group also studied the activation of CO₂ with Cu⁻, Ag⁻, Au⁻, Bi⁻, Fe⁻, Co⁻ and Ni⁻ using infrared spectroscopy [58–64]. Remarkably, in Bi(CO₂)_n⁻, they observed the formation of the C₂O₄²⁻ (oxalate) moiety [61], in Fe(CO₂)_n⁻ they observed the $\eta^2\text{-C}$, O structure, oxalate, and O- M-CO (oxide-carbonyl) products simultaneously [62], and in the Co(CO₂)_n⁻ case they discovered that the core is a Co⁺ metal center binding with two highly negatively charged CO₂ molecules in the $\eta^2\text{-C,O}$ manner [63]. Finally, the $\eta^2\text{-O,O}$ structures were mainly found between neutral alkali metal atoms and CO₂ characterized by infrared spectroscopy in low-temperature frozen insert gas matrices, where the CO₂ moieties are all significantly reduced [65–67].

Recently, scientists are observing a new era of single-atom catalysis and atom economy, which emphasizes the fact that the ultimate small-size limit for metal particles is one atom [68,69]. SACs on supports are not fully coordinated, and the vacant sites are often catalytically active sites, similar to the “naked” single atom catalysts in gas-phase studies. In addition, SACs are usually charged due to the electron density transfer between the support and the catalyst, which can also be recovered by the charged atomic ions in the gas phase. More importantly, the much simpler model systems in the gas phase facilitates straightforward experimental and theoretical investigations of the frontier orbitals involved in the reactions, which might also be parallel to the active molecular orbitals in the SAC studies. Therefore, we anticipate that this summary of isolated single atom in the gas phase for the activation of CO₂ will bring new atomic-level insights for the design of novel catalysts with high activity and specificity.

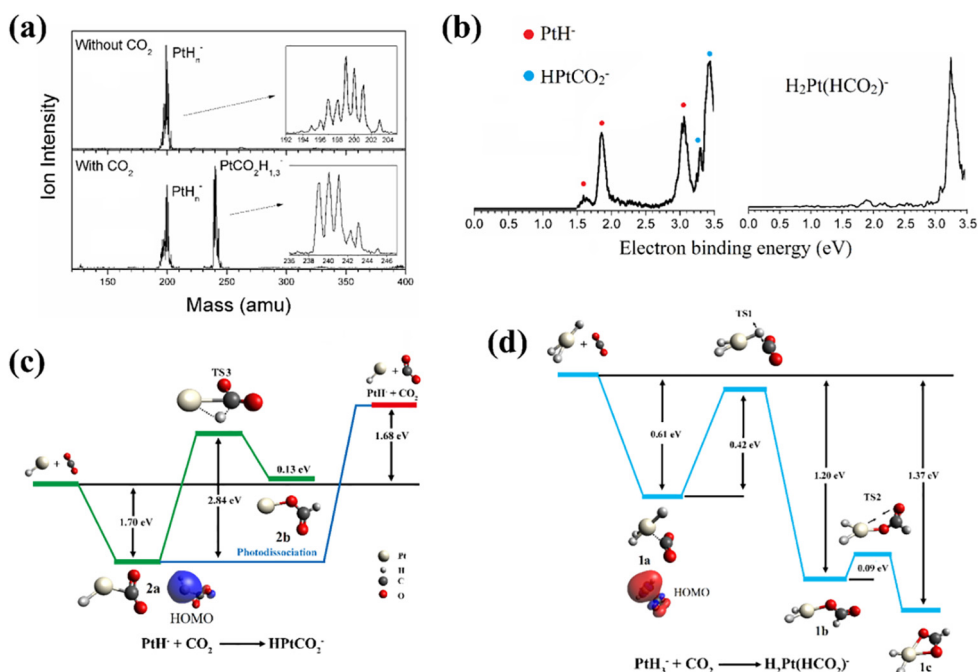


Fig. 3. (a) The mass spectra showing the reaction between PtH_n⁻ and CO₂, (b) the anion photoelectron spectra of the products in (a), (c) the calculated potential energy surface of the reaction between PtH₃⁻ and CO₂, (d) the calculated potential energy surface of the reaction between PtH₃⁻ and CO₂. Reproduced from Ref. [72] with permission from Wiley-VCH.

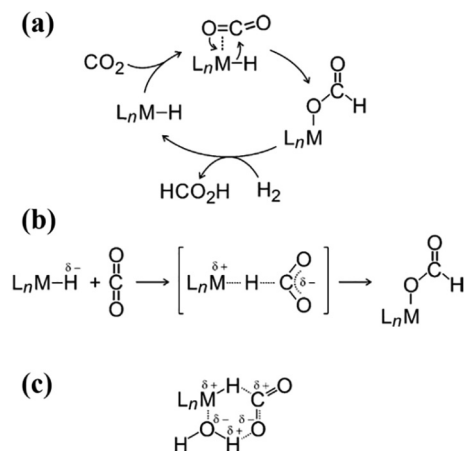


Fig. 4. The three potential mechanistic pathways of CO₂ hydrogenation using metal hydrides summarized by Schwarz. Reproduced from Ref. [54].

4. Activation of CO₂ with a cluster

As a bridge connecting single atoms and real materials, gas-phase clusters represent ideal model systems to gain molecular-level insights into the energetics and kinetics of catalytic reactions [70,71]. In this section, we focus on the examples of CO₂ activation using gas-phase metal hydride clusters, because hydrogenation of CO₂ often results in value-added products such as formate or methanol. CO₂ activation using clusters including metal hydrides was summarized in a review article from Schwarz group [54].

On the technical front, gas phase cluster-CO₂ reactions have been performed in flow tube, linear ion trap, and Fourier transform ion-cyclotron resonance cell. The resulting products are characterized by mass spectrometry, anion photoelectron spectroscopy, collision-induced dissociation and infrared action spectroscopy methodologies [72–85]. Such hydride clusters include PtH_n⁻ [72], PdCuH_n⁻ [73], PdH_n⁻ [74], LTiH⁺ (L = ligand) [75], Cu_xH_y⁻ [76,77], Fe_xH_y⁻ [78,79], CoH⁻/NiH⁻/CuH⁻ [80], LAg₂H⁺ (L = ligand) [81], and ScNH⁺ [82].

Taking the reactions between PtH_n⁻ and CO₂ as an example [72], the mass spectra with or without CO₂ pulsed into the reaction cell are shown in Fig. 3a. With no CO₂, only PtH_n⁻ cluster anions were observed in the mass spectrum. By recording anion photoelectron spectra at every mass peak in the series of PtH_n⁻ species, the authors confirmed that species with $n = 1, 2, 3, 5$ were present. When CO₂ was added to the cell, the ion intensity of the PtH_n⁻ series decreased, and a new series of PtCO₂H_m⁻ cluster anions appeared. Again by taking the photoelectron spectra of the PtCO₂H_m⁻ series, PtCO₂H⁻ and PtCO₂H₃⁻ were found to be the only reaction products, whose structures were confirmed by the comparison of the calculated transition energies and the recorded spectra (Fig. 3b). The spectral features of PtCO₂H⁻ are due not only to the photodetachment of PtCO₂H⁻, but also to the photodissociation of PtCO₂H⁻ into PtH⁻ and CO₂, followed by photodetachment of the resultant PtH⁻ anion. The latter is a two-photon process inducing photodissociation and photodetachment of the anionic product of photodissociation. This remarkable observation is in line with the calculated structure of PtCO₂H⁻ where the CO₂ moiety still exists and binds with the PtH⁻ part in the η²-C,O manner (Fig. 3c). Fig. 3c presents the potential energy pathway for the reaction between CO₂ and PtH⁻. In the first step, CO₂ is activated through charge transfer from the Pt atom, forming Pt-C and Pt-O bonds. Its HOMO shows substantial delocalization, manifesting the charge transfer from Pt to CO₂. The activation of CO₂ provides 1.70 eV of stabilization energy for PtCO₂H⁻. Nevertheless, even though CO₂ activation has been

achieved at this point, the reaction cannot proceed further to CO₂ hydrogenation due to the 2.84 eV energy barrier. The pathway of CO₂ hydrogenation by PtH₃⁻ is presented in Fig. 3d. PtH₃⁻ exhibits C_{2v} symmetry. The first step in the reaction is again the CO₂ activation through charge transfer from PtH₃⁻. As soon as CO₂ approaches the Pt atom, it bends, and the C atom in CO₂ attaches to Pt in the η¹-C manner with an energy drop of 0.61 eV in the first step. The HOMO of the PtH₃CO₂ structure with the activated CO₂ shows that the excess electron is also delocalized over the entire cluster. Natural population analysis calculation shows that the net charge on the CO₂ moiety is -0.39 e. After activation, the CO₂ moiety is ready to accept an H atom from PtH₃⁻. The insertion of CO₂ into the Pt-H bond passes through the first transition state with an energy barrier of 0.42 eV. Once the hydrogen atom has transferred to CO₂, hydrogenation is complete, yielding a local minima. In order for PtCO₂H₃⁻ to reach the global minimum structure, i.e., to reach the final structure in Fig. 3d, the local minima must surmount a second transition state that allows the other O atom to coordinate with the Pt atom, further stabilizing the entire cluster, yielding the final H₂Pt(HCO₂)⁻ product.

Schwarz in his review article [54] summarized the three potential mechanistic pathways of CO₂ hydrogenation using metal hydrides in the gas phase (Fig. 4 where L denotes ligands). (a) The η²-C,O coordination of CO₂ to an empty site of the metal core is followed by a hydride transfer to yield the formate ligand, and the latter is eventually cleaved from the metal by hydrogenation to regenerate the catalyst L_nMH. The example in Fig. 3 partially follows this mechanism. (b) The η¹-C coordination of CO₂ to the hydrogen atom in L_nMH, followed by a hydride shift. (c) Water promotes the hydride transfer through a network of hydrogen bonding to the incoming CO₂ ligand. All CO₂ hydrogenation reactions more or less follow these three scenarios.

The above example indicates that the activation and hydrogenation of CO₂ by gas phase clusters highly depend on the energetics of the reaction pathways. Calculations often play an indispensable role in the understanding of the experimental results, searching for the transition states, and visualization of the molecular orbitals that are directly involved in the reactions. These results again emphasize the high complementarity and comparability of experiment and theory in gas-phase investigations, which is advantageous in providing the detailed insights of the catalytic pathways. It is worth mentioning that gas-phase hydrogenation often uses clusters that are not fully coordinated. Bulk reactions usually utilize saturated metal hydride complexes. As a result, the catalytic cycle in the bulk involves the loss of a ligand, resulting in an active vacant site for the CO₂ activation [83,84]. This particular step is similar to the gas-phase scenarios. After CO₂ activation, the uncoordinated sites could be soon be refilled by a ligand in the solution. Therefore, the gas-phase study might be viewed as a critical mechanistic step in a complete catalytic cycle.

5. Activation of CO₂ with a molecule

The activation of small molecules often involves expensive transition metal catalysts. From economic considerations, the utilization of inexpensive, non-metal molecules in activating CO₂ seems to be in need. In 2000, Kim and coworkers [85] discovered that by the electron attachment to CO₂ and pyridine (Py), a N-heterocycle (NHC) molecule, they could make a stable planar anionic complex (Py-CO₂)⁻, in which the CO₂ moiety is bent and negatively charged by -0.5 e (Fig. 5a). The complex was characterized by gas-phase anion photoelectron spectroscopy, which revealed high vertical detachment energy of the product. Calculations showed a π bond network throughout the whole molecule. Since both CO₂ and Py have negative electron affinities, the fact that their

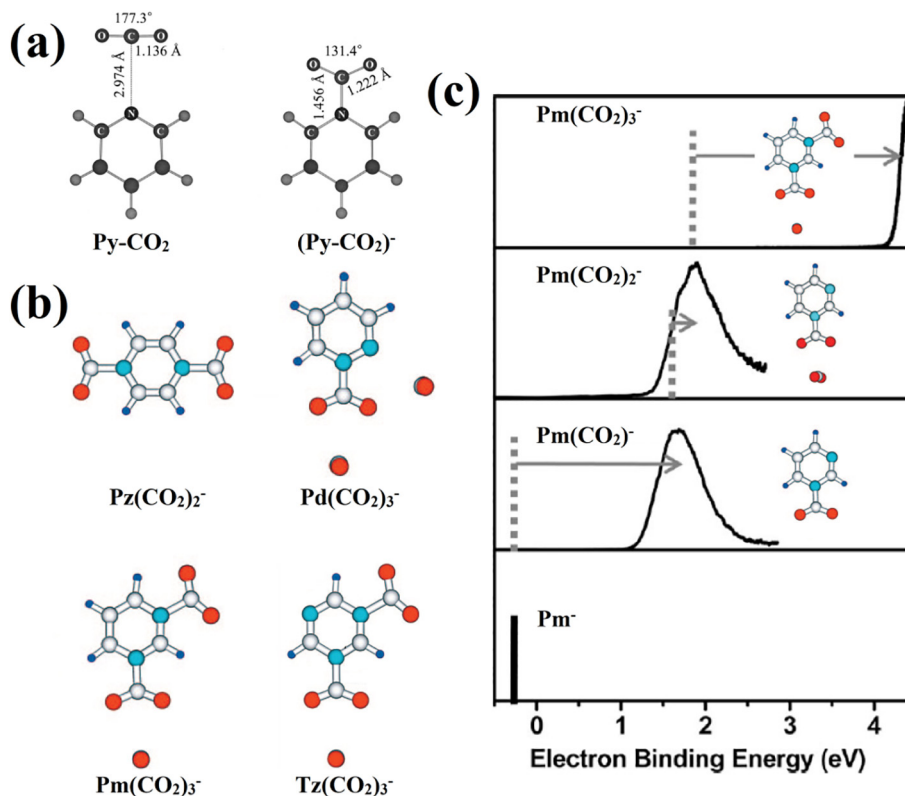


Fig. 5. (a) The structures of neutral and anionic Py-CO₂. Reproduced from Ref. [85] with permission from AIP Publishing. (b) The structures of anionic Pz(CO₂)₂⁻, Pd(CO₂)₃⁻, Pm(CO₂)₃⁻ and Tz(CO₂)₃⁻. Reproduced from Ref. [87] with permission from the American Chemical Society, and (c) anion photoelectron spectral shift as an indicator for the bonding situation of CO₂ using Pm(CO₂)_n⁻ as an example. Reproduced from Ref. [87] with permission from the American Chemical Society.

anionic complex can form at all was initially surprising. A reasonable explanation for this would be that the extended π -conjugated system over the entire complex allows the accommodation of the extra electron. Later, Johnson and coworkers [86] studied the same system using gas-phase infrared photodissociation techniques. Further, Kim's group [87] extended the studies to several other azabenzene NHC molecules including pyridazine (1,2-diazine, Pd), pyrimidine (1,3-diazine, Pm), pyrazine (1,4-diazine, Pz), as well as s-triazine (1,3,5-triazine, Tz). They discovered that Pz accommodated a maximum of two CO₂ molecules, Pd accommodated one, Pm accommodated two, and Tz accommodated two CO₂ molecules (Fig. 5b). Interestingly, CO₂ molecules do not add to the N atoms of the NHC molecules sequentially. Taking the Pm(CO₂)_n⁻ system as an example (Fig. 5c), the attachment of the electron and the first CO₂ molecule significantly increases the electron vertical detachment energy, suggesting a substantial structural change in the chromophore for the electron photodetachment, and this is due to the C-N bond formation between CO₂ and Pm, resulting in an anion complex similar to the (Py-CO₂)⁻ in Fig. 5a. However, the addition of a second CO₂ only slightly blue shifts the spectrum, indicating that the second CO₂ molecule acts as a solvation molecule. The introduction of a third CO₂ again drastically shifts the spectrum, which is in line with a second C-N bond formation between CO₂ and Pm. The uptake of CO₂ molecules by these NHC azabenzenes apparently is influenced by both of the steric hindrance and energy released upon forming the complexes. In 2015, Bowen's group [88] extended the work to another NHC molecule quinoline using anion photoelectron spectroscopy methods and discovered similar structures and spectral features. The lone pairs on these heterocycles obviously play critical roles on the CO₂ activation, whose symmetry matches the LUMO of CO₂, similar to the cases of the and the η^1 -C activation using M_n⁻

(M = Cu, Ag, Au) [57]. The resultant delocalized molecular orbital on the whole product is apparently another reason that rationalizes the formation of the counterintuitive product.

The CO₂ activation efficiency of these systems can be rationalized by the electron affinities (EA) of both of the products and the catalysts. Taking the above organic bases (NHC) activated CO₂ reactions as an example, the high electron affinity stemming from the π -orbital delocalization in the final product, (NHC-CO₂)⁻, renders a thermodynamically-favored reaction pathway, as a result, the higher EA of the final product promises a more efficient CO₂ reduction rate [85–88]. In a more recent study, Toma and coworkers [89] utilized pyridine-substituted cobalt (II) phthalocyanine to catalyze the electrochemical reduction of CO₂. They find that the introduction of the pyridine moiety increases the EA of the catalyst and enhances the CO₂ conversion rate. It is postulated that the electron uptake by the catalyst is a key step in determining the overall reaction efficiency, hence, a higher EA renders a thermodynamically-favored reduction of the catalyst, resulting in an overall enhanced CO₂ reduction rate.

Similar bonding situations as the NHC cases have also been observed in the condensed phase, where neutral complexes were formed between lone pairs of electrons and CO₂. Schossler and Regitz [90] first synthesized neutral complexes between N-heterocyclic carbenes (NHCars) and CO₂, with a covalent C–C bond in the NHCars-CO₂ product. Other examples [91–94] also observed a bent CO₂ moiety with a significant negative charge in several (NHCars-CO₂) complexes. Despite being neutral, carbene's high-lying HOMO allows NHCars to donate electron density to the LUMO of CO₂, making the product with a charge-separated configuration i.e., NHCars⁺-CO₂⁻. Later, the unique (NHCars-CO₂) complexes were further applied to CO₂ capture and reduction [95–99]. More recently, ionic liquids have also been extensively studied in the

applications of CO₂ activation, where the lone electron pairs on the cationic part of the ionic liquid play similar roles as the above NHCars in activating CO₂ molecules [100,101].

6. Conclusions and perspectives

The gas-phase CO₂ activation studies using electrons, atoms, clusters or molecules summarized in this review can be generally regarded as model systems that represent the intermediates in the solid-state CO₂ activation and conversion, and bring atomic-level insights for the mechanisms of these reactions. Even though in the past decades the topic of CO₂ conversion have been extensively studied, the capture and characterization of these elusive intermediates that bear key mechanistic information remain difficult, mainly due to the fact that these species often have short lifetime and unstable nature. Isolated *in-vacuo* gas-phase studies equipped with state-of-the-art spectrometric and spectroscopic methods fit right into the void of investigating this topic, and theoretical calculations also play indispensable roles in understanding the experimental results and predicting potential reaction pathways. We anticipate that studies of gas-phase CO₂ activations combined with quantum chemical calculations will be an avenue rich with opportunities for the rational design of novel catalysts based on the knowledge obtained on the atomic level.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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