SUPRAMOLECULAR NANOSTRUCTURES

BASED ON CALIXARENES

by

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ABSTRACT

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This dissertation describes a systematic approach towards the design, synthesis, characterization, and application of calixarene-based supramolecular nanostructures. Chapter 1 briefly overviews the field of supramolecular chemistry and highlights its horizons. Chapter 2 introduces a modular strategy towards synthesis of nanoscale receptor macromolecules—calix–peptide conjugates. This strategy combines the unique host–guest capabilities of calixarene chemistry with synthetically flexible peptide synthesis. A series of calixarene amino acids was prepared and further utilized to synthesize calixarene dipeptides. Through this approach, calixarene amino acids are now available to be incorporated into peptide networks and nanostructured biologically relevant materials. Chapter 3 demonstrates supramolecular applications of calixarene-

peptide conjugates. These calixarene amino acids serve as building blocks for the construction of a novel type of calixarene peptide dendrimers. Calixarene amino acids, peptides, and peptide dendrimers containing tetra-ester functions at their lower rims can extract sodium cations from aqueous solutions. Calixarene-peptide conjugates, possessing urea moieties at the upper rim, were demonstrated to reversibly form selfassembling capsules and supramolecular polymers in apolar solvents. Chapter 4 shows how CO_2 gas can be used to construct novel types of supramolecular polymers. These polymers employ both hydrogen bonding and dynamic, thermally reversible carbamate bonds. Addition of a competitive solvent, such as DMSO, breaks hydrogen bonding in the assembled structures but does not influence the carbamate linkers. On the other hand, thermal release of CO₂ was easily accomplished but the hydrogen bonded capsules remained intact. Chapter 5 demonstrates functions of supramolecular, calixpeptide based polymers. A switchable, supramolecular polymer is introduced, which is held together through hydrogen bonding and reversibly precipitates-redissolves upon changing the pH. Precipitating, it entraps and stores guest molecules within the selfassembling capsules, incorporated within the polymeric chain. CO₂ was used to build switchable, supramolecular polymeric materials, which has fluorescent properties. Formation of a cross-linked, porous supramolecular polymer leads to instant entrapment of organic guest species. These can be stored and then released upon changing solvent polarity, temperature, pH, and concentration.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Supramolecular chemistry has developed in the past decades as a scientific field between chemistry, physics, and biology. The concept and term of supramolecular chemistry was introduced by Lehn et al. in 1978.¹ This area of chemistry was defined as "chemistry beyond the molecule", based on organized entities of higher complexity that result from the association of two or more chemical species held together by intermolecular forces.²

As molecular chemistry deals with molecules, supramolecular chemistry deals with supramolecular species, which are usually called "molecular receptor" and "substrate" (Figure 1.1). Binding of a substrate by a receptor yields supramolecules, and the binding process reflects molecular recognition. The substrates can be essentially anything, including cations, anions, neutral organic molecules, and even gases, while receptor molecules must have complimentary molecular size, shape and architecture with the substrates, establishing non-covalent binding interactions.³ Macrocyclic compounds possess numerous branches, bridges and connections which in most cases contain intramolecular cavities for a variety of substrates, and thus have become favorites as receptors. Among these macrocyclic compounds, crown ethers, cyclodexdrins, and calixarenes are most intensively investigated.⁴

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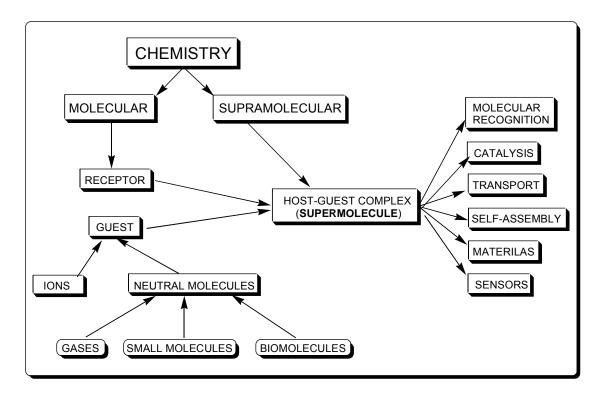


Figure 1.1 From molecular to supramolecular chemistry.

Crown ethers are macrocyclic compounds. They were discovered in the middle of 1960s by Charles Pedersen and based on repeating -OCH₂CH₂- units, derived from ethylene glycol.⁵ Varying the number of these units results in different size of the crown ether (Figure 1.2A). These compounds showed strong affinities to metal cations, such as Li⁺, Na⁺, K⁺. The applications of crown ethers led to phase-transfer catalysis, biological ion transfer, membrane transport, extractions, etc.⁶

Cryptands are another important class of macrocyclic compounds which contain three-dimensional, spherical cavities (Figure 1.2B). This work started in 1967 by Lehn⁷ shortly after discovery of crown ethers. Cryptands entirely surround the bound ions and form stronger complexes than the flat shaped macrocycles, thus displaying *spherical* *recognition* of appropriate cations and anions. Numerous effects from these strong complexes have been studied in detail, such as: stabilization of alkalides and electrides, dissociation of ion pairs, anion activation, isotope separation, toxic metal binding, etc.⁸

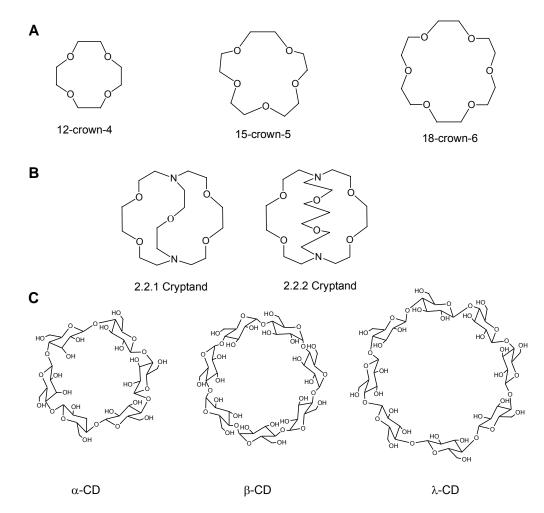


Figure 1.2 Structures of crown ethers A, cryptands B, and cyclodextrins C.

Cyclodextrins, comprised of 6, 7 and 8 glucose units (α , β , and γ cyclodextrin, respectively), are bucket-shaped oligosaccharides produced from starch (Figure 1.2C). Due to their molecular structure and shape, they possess a unique ability to act as molecular containers by entrapping guest molecules in their internal cavities. The resulting inclusion complexes are one of most popular classes of host-guest supramolecules in academic research and they also offer a number of potential advantages in pharmaceutical formulations.⁹

Calixarenes were introduced in 1978 by C. D. Gutsche¹⁰ as cup-like shapes, capable of complexing guest molecules. Since then, calixarenes have spanned the total field of molecular recognition. Earlier work focused on functionalizing calixarenes on both its upper and lower rims to afford variety of cavities of different shapes and sizes. These calixarenes were most studied for their capability as a receptor for metal cations. More recently, calixarenes have been utilized to construct cavitands, (hemi)carcerands and self-assembling capsules, in which larger neutral organic molecules, cations, anions, were bound.¹¹

Besides binding of one molecule by another, supramolecular chemistry studies the self-assembly of multiple molecules into supramolecular structures. Self-assembly is the autonomous organization of components into patterns or structures.¹² Although selfassembling processes are common throughout nature and technology, it has mainly been studied in biology and physics.^{13,14} Supramolecular chemistry provides ways and means for chemical science to explore this area and apply its power of design and control.³ Through the self–assembly process, receptors, transport agents, enzyme models, and extended arrays can be constructed. These artificial assemblies are being utilized to mimic biological systems and applied in emerging scientific fields, especially nanotechnology. Self-assembly has become a rapidly growing field for two reasons. First, it is a crucial concept to understand many biologically important structures.

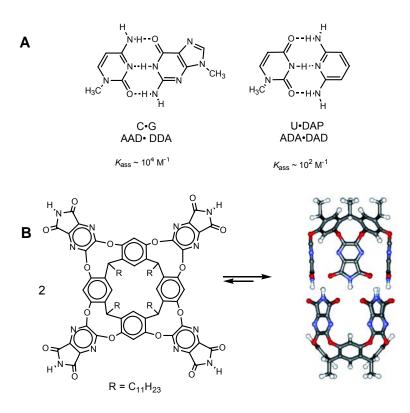


Figure 1.3 Hydrogen-bonded dimers A and capsules B.

Hydrogen bonding is most frequently utilized in self-assembling systems, because it is directional, specific, and biologically relevant. Numerous self-assembly models on organic supramolecular structures have been reported in the literature, which can be categorized as dimers, multimers, capsules, polymers and nano-scale architectures, etc.¹⁵

Stable H-bond directed assemblies in most cases require multiple hydrogen bonds, while a variety of small organic functionalities, such as phenols, amines, and amides can dimerize through single H-bond. For stable assemblies, the number of hydrogen bonds is certainly not the only important parameter. "Cooperativity" is usually considered a key factor in increasing the stability of assemblies. The Jorgensen model was used as a basic rule to qualitively predict the association constant between the individual units. These differences in stability can be largely attributed to attractive and repulsive secondary interactions. Stabilization arises from electrostatic attraction between positively and negatively polarized atoms in adjacent H-bonds, whereas destabilization is likewise the result of electrostatic repulsion between two positively or negatively polarized atoms (Figure 1.3 A).¹⁶ According to this model, AA•DD (A refers to Acceptor, D refers to Donor) in 2-H-bond modules and AAA•DDD in 3-H-bond modules were predicted to have highest association constant values. These predictions have been proven by experimental data.¹⁷ In 4-H-bond modules, AADD•DDAA arrays have shown the high stability with the association constant $> 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1.18}$ Apart from the expected increase in stability, the even number of H-bond donors and acceptors in 4-Hbond modules allows self-complementarity to be introduced in these motifs. Selfcomplementarity provides an attractive property for applications in polymeric materials or molecular capsules.

Numerous dimeric, cyclic, polymeric, even capsule-like structures with variety of size and shape were designed and synthesized through noncovalent forces (For example, capsules¹⁹ on Figure 1.3 have ~ 460 Å³ internal volume and are capable of entrapping up to three CHCl₃ molecules). The next question concerns the application of these supramolecules.

The development, characterization, and exploitation of novel materials based on the assembly of molecular components is an exceptionally active and rapidly expanding field in materials science. Electronic, magnetic, optical, structural, mechanical, and chemical characteristics have been considered.³ The formation of supramolecular entities from photoactive components may be expected to give rise to novel properties. Assembling individual components into supramolecular systems may initialize a number of processes: excitation energy migration, photo-induced charge separation by electron and proton transfer, perturbation of optical transitions and polarizabilities, modification of redox potentials, selective photochemical reactions, etc.⁴ For example, efficient energy transfer devices has been designed and synthesized based on a rigid linear array of porphyrin units.²⁰ Self-assembled heterocyclic ribbons were shown to allow the directed long-range transfer of protons, thus functioning as proton-conducting channel.²¹

Molecular self-assembly may offer an alternative paradigm for preparing functional nanostructures. Nanotechnology aims to construct materials and operative system in the nano-dimension. Several potential applications can be envisioned: targeted drug delivery systems, tissue engineering scaffolds, photonic crystals, and micro/nano fluidic and computational devices.

Using peptides as building blocks in self-assembly has several advantages: 1) 20 naturally occurring amino acids are available; the properties of materials are dictated by the individual amino acid; 2) peptide bonds are stable; 3) peptides can be designed to adopt well-known secondary structures such as α -helix and β -sheet.

Natural and synthetic peptides have been utilized as a starting point for the construction of functional materials, for example, self-assembling peptide nanotubes

(SAPN). Introduced by Ghadiri in 1993, SAPN are a new class of supramolecular structures based on the hydrogen bonding stacking of cyclic peptides with an even number of alternating D/L amino acids (Figure 1.4).²² This stacking forms an open channel of between 5 and 13 Å depending on the number of amino acids making up the peptide ring. Because the subunit employed for self-assembly is a cyclic peptide, the properties of the supramolecular tube can be adjusted by the selection of amino acids in the subunit ring.

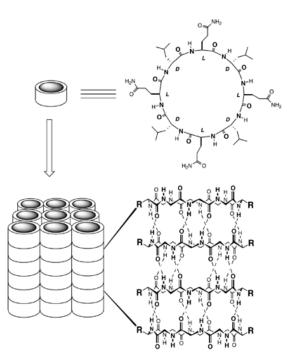


Figure 1.4 Self-assembling peptide nanotubes achieved by Ghadiri.²²

Peptide nanotubes have a wide range of functional attributes that are useful in biological and materials science. For example, these nanotubes can function as artificial ion channels in lipid bilayer membranes by self-assembling across the membrane.²³ The ion-transport rates are comparable to those of naturally occurring ion channels. The

unique and highly oriented surface characteristics of solid-state tubular assemblies can also be exploited in the fabrication of nanoclusters of transition-metal oxides for potential applications in catalysis and photonics.²⁴

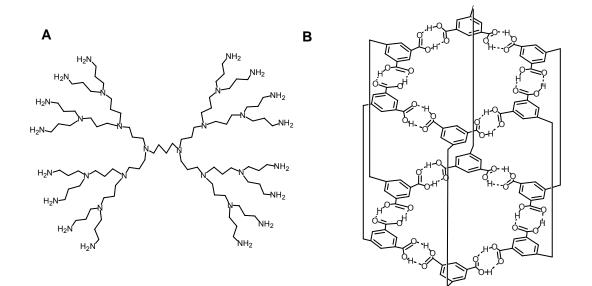


Figure 1.5 Dendrimer A and self-assembling dendrimer B.

Another important class of supramolecular materials is dendrimers.²⁵ Dendrimers, bearing highly branched architectures and unique properties, have been extensively investigated and become one of most exciting areas of modern nanotechnology (see for example, Figure 1.5A).²⁶ Synthetically, dendrimers are constructed in an iterative fashion. This leads to a stepwise synthetic growth which distinguishes dendrimers from normal polymers. Such a complex, branched and globular dendrimer molecule can also be constructed by small and synthetically accessible building blocks which simply self-assemble *via* non-covalent forces. For example, Zimmerman and coworkers²⁷ designed and synthesized tetraacids, in which

two isophthalic acid units were held in a synorientation by a rigid spacer. By normal pairing of carboxylic acids into hydrogen bonded dimers, these molecules can self-assemble into double-layer, cyclic hexamer (Figure 1.5B). Fréchet-type polyether dendrons, up to the fourth generation, were attached to the spacer unit of tetraacids. NMR and size-exclusion chromatography (SEC) studies indicated that self-assembling dendrimers formed in apolar solvent. More importantly, by varying the size of attached polyether dendrons, it is possible to exert a degree of control over the orientation of the assembly.

It is of great interest to prepare "smart" materials whose morphologies and associative functions can change in response to their environment. While peptides tend to assemble slowly into thermodynamically stable structures, such as β -sheets, which limit the capability of the peptides to responsed to external environmental stimuli, Schneider et al.²⁸ developed an ingenious way to prepare responsive materials from peptides. This group demonstrated that chemical responsiveness can be specifically engineered into the material by linking intramolecular folding to changes in solution pH, and mechanical responsiveness, by linking hydrogelation to self-assembly.

Self-assembling monolayers (SAMs) with controllable properties have also led to functional materials. SAMs are formed when surfactant molecules spontaneously adsorb in a monomolecular layer on surfaces. Two of the most widely studied systems of SAMs are gold-alkyl thiolate monolayers and alkylsilane monolayers. The first goldalkyl thiolate monolayer was produced by Allara and Nuzzo²⁹ at Bell laboratories in 1983 and later the group of Whitesides³⁰ made valuable contributions to this field. By using thiol molecules with different tail groups, the resulting chemical surface functionality can be varied within wide limits (see for example, Figure 1.6). Numerous applications of this technique in, for example, corrosion inhibition,³¹ nano-fabrication of electronic devices³² have been reported in the last decade. These studies demonstrated the fusion of structure and application and showed how to bridge molecular structure and macroscopic and materials structure in organic surface science.

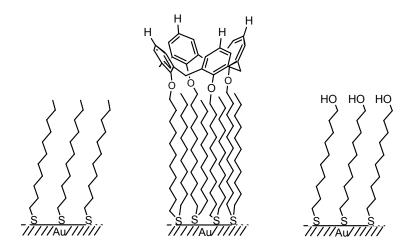


Figure 1.6 Self-assembling monolayers.^{29,33}

Beyond the molecule, supramolecular chemistry aims at developing highly complex chemical systems from components interacting by noncovalent intermolecular forces. It has been growing into a major field over a quarter of last century and fueled numerous developments at the interface with physics and biology. Through appropriate manipulations of intermolecular noncovalent interactions, storage of information at the molecular level has become feasible and retrieval, transfer, and processing of the information can then be accomplished. This venture involves design and investigation of well pre-organized receptors, capable of binding to substrate with high efficiency and selectivity. Supramolecular chemistry opens new perspectives in materials science toward an area of supramolecular materials, "smart" materials whose features depend on molecular information. It allows the design of materials and the control of their build-up from suitable units by self-organization. Supramolecular chemistry is gaining a lot of attention in the field of nanoscience. Indeed, the spontaneous but controlled generation of well-defined, functional supramolecular nanostructures through self-organization offers a very powerful alternative to nanofabrication and nanomanipulation, bypassing the implementation of tedious procedures and providing a chemical approach to nanoscience and technology.³⁴

CHAPTER 2

CALIXARENE-PEPTIDE CONJUGATES

The name "calixarenes" was coined by C. D. Gutsche in 1978.¹⁰ Since then, calixarenes have been extremely popular platforms and building blocks in molecular recognition, and they have had a great impact in the history of supramolecular chemistry.¹¹ Calix[n]arenes (n refers to the number of aromatic rings in a molecule) are macrocyclic compounds, derived from the base-catalyzed condensation of *p*-alkyl phenol and formaldehyde. Convenient procedures have been elaborated that make the cyclic tetra-, hexa-, and octamer-selectively available from t-butylphenol in large quantities and yield. Calix[4]arenes are cyclic tetramers; they adopt four extreme conformations called cone, partial cone, 1,2-alternate, and 1,3-alternate which differ in the orientation of the phenol rings (Figure 2.1). These conformational isomers afford unique cavities with different sizes and different shapes. Furthermore, the threedimensional conformations, commercial availability and rigid structures make calixarenes most convenient for synthetic elaboration. Calixarenes are sometime called "third generation" of macrocyclic molecules, which follow crown ethers and cyclodextrins.35

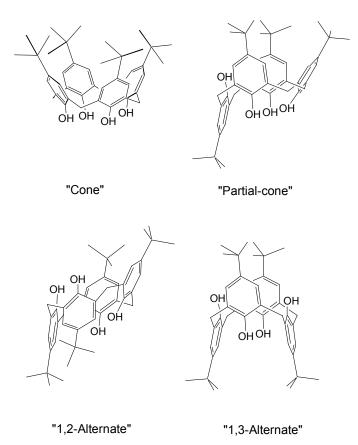


Figure 2.1 Four stable conformations of calix[4]arenes.

Calixarene-based receptors are among the most effective and selective for cations; they are widely used to transport and extraction of various inorganic ions such as Na⁺, K⁺, and Cs⁺,^{36,37,38} lanthanides and actinides,³⁹ as well as organic cationic species.⁴⁰ Calixarene-based anion receptors show record binding thermodynamics and selectivities for phosphate, sulfate and chloride.^{41,42} Many calixarenes crystallize with solvent molecules inside, such as benzene, toluene and xylene. Thus calixarenes can function as molecular baskets for neutral molecules. Along this line, calixarenes have been employed for the construction of cavitands,^{43,44} (hemi)carcerands⁴⁵ and self-

assembling capsules.⁴⁶ Many classic cavity-shaped molecules in the literature are constructed by covalent linking and/or self-assembling calixarene moieties.

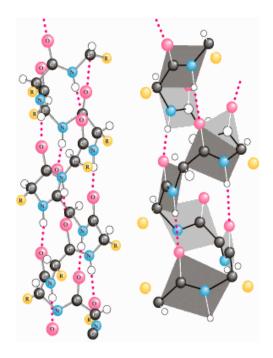


Figure 2.2 α -Helix in peptides.⁴⁷

Nature employs amino acids as building blocks, *modules* to assemble – quickly and effectively - a huge variety of proteins and enzymes. Indeed, in the course of evolution, nature has developed enzymes and proteins of nanometer size that perform catalysis and molecular recognition in an exquisite fashion. Polypeptides were thus selected as the construction materials of these sophisticated molecular systems not only because of their bifunctional and chiral nature, but also the stability of peptide bond. Moreover, polypeptide chains fold into predictable conformations in solution such as the α -helix (Figure 2.2) or the β -sheet. In recent years, extensive studies have been devoted to the development of peptide nanostrucutures, which can be used in the preparation of "smart" new materials.⁴⁸

In the studies described in this chapter, we take advantage of this established peptide chemistry and introduce a general modular strategy towards multifunctional receptor macromolecules – calix-amino acids and calix-peptides (Figure 2.3).^{49,50} This approach combines the highly functional, receptor-oriented calixarene chemistry with the synthetically diverse peptide synthesis. The design and synthesis of modules – calixarene amino acids are presented. Further, modular assembly of nanostructures – calixarene-peptides is demonstrated. In general, the "receptor – amino acid" based modular approach described herein may be useful for the construction of wide variety of multifunctional nanostructures.

2.1 Design

The proposed strategy is demonstrated for representative preparation of calix[4]arene amino acids **1** and calix[4]arene dipeptides **2** (Figure 2.3).

In the synthesis of calix[4]arene amino acids, we took advantage of trifunctional lysine, which possesses a carboxylic group and two NH₂ groups of distinguishable reactivity.⁵¹ The ε -NH₂ group was attached to the calixarene fragment, while the α -NH₂ group was used in the coupling reactions with the other lysine C(O)OH group to form a peptide bond. This is an important feature of the proposed modular approach: both ends of amino acids are readily available for further peptide growth. Notably, while a number of calix[4]arene-amino acid conjugates are known,⁵² they are attached either via *N*- or

(O)O-terminus and therefore cannot be involved in the repetitive, multivalent peptide chain elongation.

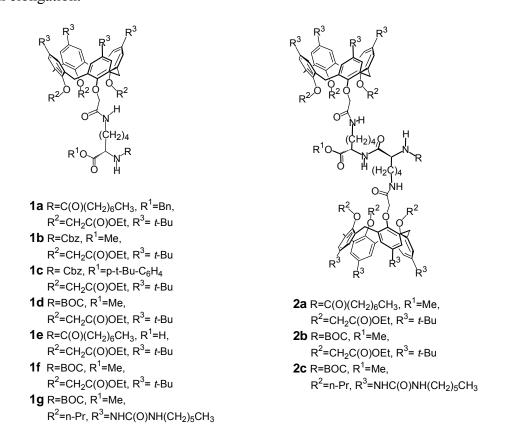


Figure 2.3 Calixarene lysines **1a-g** and dipeptides **2a-c**.

Two types of the calixarene components were chosen to create a variety of peptide-based calixarene nanostructures. One type of calixarenes is functionlized with esters at the low rim, while the other has urea functions at the upper rim.

The choice of the calixarene tetraester was justified by its strong affinity towards Na⁺ cation (Figure 2.4). It has been known for years that calix[4]arenes, functionalized with either ester or amide groups (or both) at the lower rim, demonstrate a unique Na⁺ selectivity, with the $K_{ass} >> 10^6$ M⁻¹ in apolar solvent.³⁶ Moreover, the

calixarene lower rim is relatively easy to functionalize. In our studies, the calixarene Na⁺ receptors were readily converted into the corresponding acids for coupling with lysine derivatives.

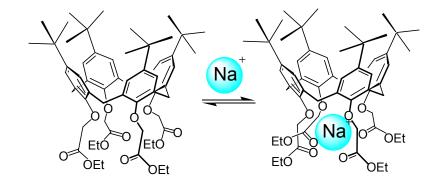


Figure 2.4 Sodium complexation within the lower rim of calix[4]arene tetraester.³⁶

On the other hand, calix[4]arene tetraureas were chosen as they strongly tend to dimerize in apolar solvent to create capsules (Figure 2.5). These capsules are, probably, the most studied and publicized class of capsules to date. Discovered ten years ago by

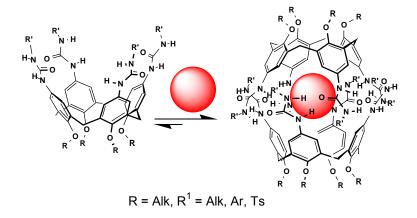


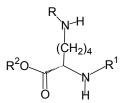
Figure 2.5 Hydrogen-bonded calix[4]arene tetraurea capsules.^{53,54}

Rebek⁵³ and Böhmer,⁵⁴ these capsules are held together by a seam of sixteen intermolecular C=O•••H-N hydrogen bonds at the upper rims. This results in a rigid

cavity of ~200 Å³, which reversibly encapsulates one solvent molecule or a benzenesized guest. Furthermore, the urea functions do not interfere with introducing amino acids to their lower rims.

The choice of covalent attachment to the side chain of lysine is not only limited by calixarenes. Other macrocyclic compounds, such as porphyrin, cyclodextrins, crown ethers, can be also chosen to incorporate into peptide networks for various binding purposes.

2.2 Calixarene Amino Acids



 R = H, R_1 = BOC, R_2 = Me R = BOC, $R_1 = R_2 = H$ 4 R = BOC, $R_1 = C(O)(CH_2)_6CH_3$, $R_2 = H$ R = Cbz, $R_1 = H \cdot CF_3 C(O)OH$, $R_2 = Me$ R = BOC, $R_1 = C(O)(CH_2)_6CH_3$, $R_2 = Bn$ R = BOC, R₁ = BOC, R₂ = H $R = H \cdot CF_3C(O)OH, R_1 = C(O)(CH_2)_6CH_3, R_2 = Bn$ R = BOC, R_1 = BOC, R_2 = Me R = BOC, R_1 = Cbz, R_2 = H R = BOC, R₁ = BOC, R₂ = Bn R = BOC, R_1 = Cbz, R_2 = Me R = H•CF₃C(O)OH, R¹ = H•CF₃C(O)OH, R₂ = Me R = H•CF₃C(O)OH, R¹ = H•CF₃C(O)OH, R₂ = Bn R = BOC, R_1 = Cbz, R_2 = p-t-Bu-C₆H₄ R = Cbz, R₁ = R₂ = H R = H•CF₃C(O)OH, R₁ = Cbz, R₂ = Me R = H•CF₃C(O)OH, R₁ = Cbz, R₂ = p-t-Bu-C₆H₄ R = Cbz, R1 = C(O)(CH₂)₆CH₃, R₂ = H R = Cbz, R_1 = BOC, R_2 = H R = BOC, $R_1 = H$, $R_2 = Me$ R = Cbz, R_1 = BOC, R_2 = Me

Figure 2.6 Lysine derivatives as building blocks for calixarene amino acids.

First, we prepared a series of chemoselective protected lysine derivatives (Figure 2.6). Thus, commercially available *N*- ϵ -BOC-*l*-lysine **3** was coupled with *n*-octanoyl chloride in the two-phase system EtOAc-H₂O, 1:1 in the presence of K₂CO₃ to afford *N*- α -acylated derivative **4** in 77% yield. The long aliphatic chain was used for

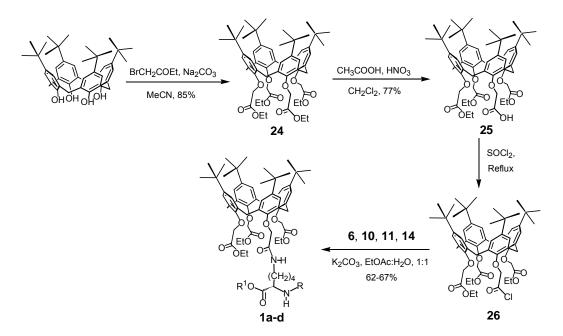
solubility reasons. As followed from the absence of optical activity (see Experimental Part) and subsequent ¹H NMR analysis, compound **4** was obtained as a racemate. Apparently, base-catalyzed racemization⁵⁵ occurred as a result of rather basic conditions for acylation of enantiomerically pure **3**. The carboxylic group in **4** was then protected through benzylation. Namely, acid **4** was treated with benzyl alcohol and 1,3-dicyclohexylcarbodiimide (DCC) in CH_2Cl_2 , containing catalytic quantities of 4-dimethylaminopyridine (DMAP) under nitrogen with the formation of benzyl ester **5** in 61% yield. Subsequently, the BOC protecting group in **5** was cleaved with TFA-THF, 1:4 mixture, to afford the TFA salt of amine **6** in quantitative yield.

In another series of experiments, *N*- ε -BOC-*l*-lysine **3** was protected by a Cbz group (Cbz-Cl, Na₂CO₃) with the formation of *N*- α -Cbz-*N*- ε -BOC-*l*-lysine **7** in 65%.⁵⁶ Derivative **7** is optically active and, as will follow from the NMR analysis, enantiomerically pure. The carboxylic group in **7** was methylated (Cs₂CO₃, CH₃I, DMF) to form the corresponding ester **8** in 58% yield.⁵⁷ Reaction between **7**, 4-*t*-butylphenol, DCC and catalytic amount of DMAP in CH₂Cl₂ afforded phenyl ester **9** in 62% yield. After the BOC deprotection with TFA, amine salts **10** and **11** were isolated in a quantitative yield.

For *N*- α -BOC-*N*- ϵ -Cbz-*l*-lysine **12**, the carboxylic group was similarly methylated (Cs₂CO₃, CH₃I, DMF) to form the corresponding ester **13** in 65% yield.⁵⁸ The Cbz moiety was then cleaved with 10% Pd/C in CH₃OH to yield pure lysine **14** in quantitative yield.⁵⁹ After the α -BOC protecting group in **13** was cleaved with TFA in THF, lysine derivative **15** was isolated as a TFA salt in quantitative yield.

The carboxyl group in *N*- α -BOC-*N*- ϵ -BOC-*l*-lysine **16**⁶⁰ was methylated (CH₃I, Cs₂CO₃, DMF, 65%) and also benzylated (benzyl bromide, Cs₂CO₃, DMF, 68%) to afford *O*-benzyl esters **17** and **18**, respectively. Both the α - and ϵ -BOC groups in these were quantitatively cleaved with TFA in THF, yielding lysines **19** and **20** as TFA salts.

Finally, *N*- ε -Cbz-*l*-lysine **21**⁶¹ was acylated with *n*-octanoyl chloride (K₂CO₃, EtOAc-H₂O, 1:1) to yield lysine acid **22** in 71% yield. The α -Cbz group in **8** was cleaved with 10% Pd/C in CH₃OH to yield **23** in quantitative yield.⁶²



Scheme 2.1 Synthetic approach towards calix[4]arene amino acids.

In the coupling experiments between calixarenes and lysines, calix[4]arene acid chloride **26** was employed, which was prepared from the corresponding triester monoacid calix[4]arene **25** and SOCl₂ (Scheme 2.1).⁶³ An equimolar amount of **26** in EtOAc was added to a solution of ε -deprotected lysines **6**, **10**, **11**, or **14** in EtOAc-H₂O,

1:1 and excess K_2CO_3 . The reaction was complete in ~3 h and afforded calixarene lysines **1a-d** in 62-67% yield after column chromatography (Scheme 2.1).

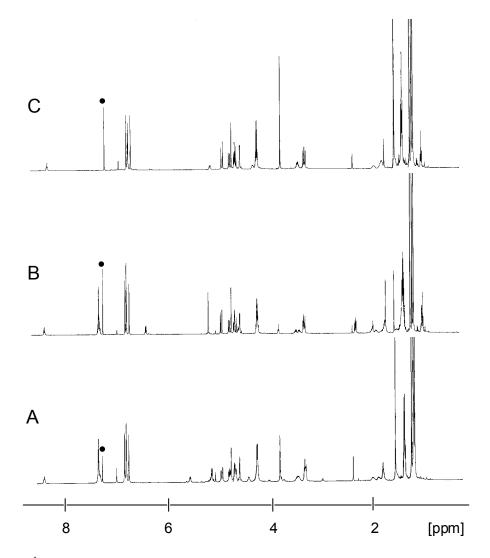


Figure 2.7 ¹H NMR spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃, 295 \pm 1 K) of calixarene lysines: A) **1b**. B) **1a**. C) **1d**. The residual CHCl₃ signals are marked "•".

The structure of compounds **1a-d** was confirmed by high-resolution ¹H NMR spectroscopy and MALDI mass spectrometry. Typical ¹H NMR spectra are consistent with the mono-substituted calix[4]arene pattern, and contain in particular three calixarene aromatic (apparent) singlets in 1:2:1 ratio and three calixarene *t*-Bu singlets

in 1:2:1 ratio (CDCl₃, 295 K) (Figure 2.7). The ε -NH-C(O) amide proton is seen far down field as a triplet at ~8.4 ppm and apparently involved in the C=O•••H-N hydrogen bonding with the calixarene lower rim carbonyl oxygens in apolar CDCl₃.⁶⁴

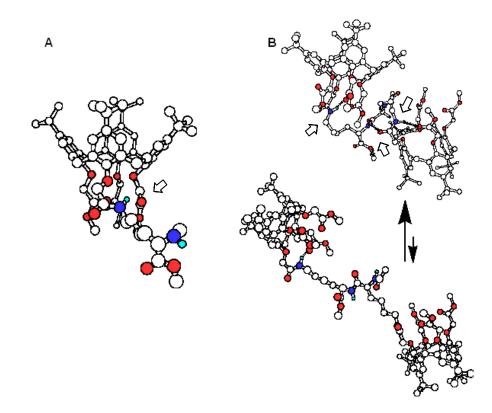


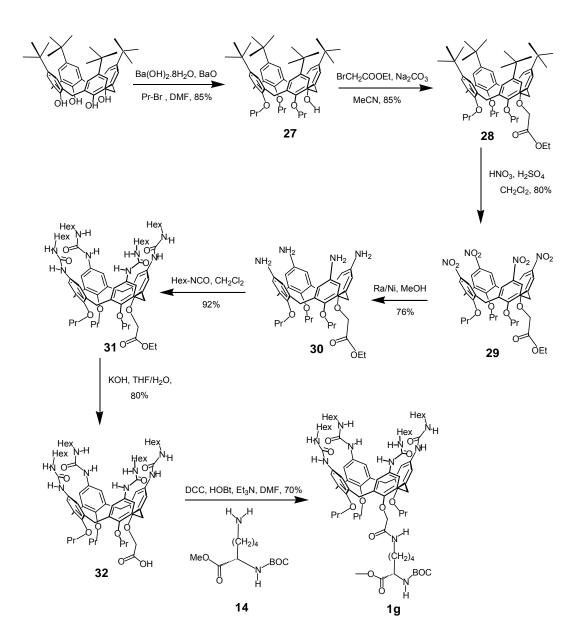
Figure 2.8 MacroModel 7.1 (Amber* ForceField) representation of calix[4]arene lysine 1 (A) and calixarene dipeptide 2 (B). Possible C=O•••H-N hydrogen bonding is marked by arrows. For dipeptide 2, both folded and unfolded structures are shown. The CH hydrogens and long alkyl chains are omitted for viewing clarity.

The α -NH-C(O) proton is observed as a doublet and seen at ~5.5 ppm for carbamate derivatives **1b-d**, and at 6.4 ppm for amide derivative **1a**. As follows from molecular modeling (Figure 2.8), the calix[4]arene fragment is positioned ~5-7 Å away from the amino acid fragment and should not sterically interfere with the peptide bond

formation. It can also easily fit within the peptide/dendritic superstructures without disrupting hydrogen bonding and intramolecular folding processes.

Standard manipulation with protecting groups afforded calixarene amino acids with free either NH_2 or C(O)OH ends. For example, removal of the *O*-benzyl group in calix lysine **1a** was accomplished by catalytic hydrogenolysis with 10% Pd/C in CH₃OH and afforded free acid **1e**. Cleavage of the BOC protection group in derivative **1d** was carried out with TFA in THF to give lysine **1f** containing an amino group.

In the synthesis of calixarene tetraurea amino acids, parent calixarene was first alkylated with *n*-propyl bromide in presence of Ba(OH)₂•8H₂O and BaO to generate tripropyl calixarene **27** in 85% yield (Scheme 2.2). Compound **27** was obtained by alkylation with ethyl bromoacetate to afford the ethyl ester **28** in 85% yield. Calixarene monoester **28** was successfully transformed into tetranitro derivative **29** with fuming HNO₃ and was then converted into tetraamine **30** (Ra/Ni, H₂, MeOH) and then tetraurea **31** (*n*-hexyl isocyanate, CH₂Cl₂). Basic hydrolysis of **31** with aqueous LiOH afforded the monoacid **32** (80% yield). Finally, lysine derivative **14** was coupled with the monoacid (EDCI, HOBt and Et₃N) to generate the calixarene tetraurea amino acid **1g** in 75% yield. Compound **1g** bearing a carboxyl group on this lower rim is readily incorporated into the peptide networks by the formation of amide bonds.



Scheme 2.2 Synthesis of calixarene tetraurea amino acid 1g.

2.3 Calixarene Peptides

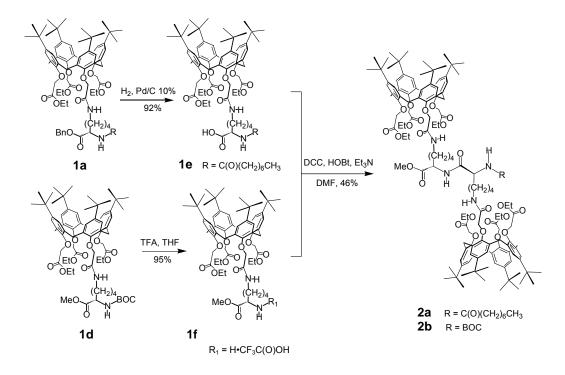
Synthetic peptides have already been functionalized with binding and catalytic sites.⁶⁵ For example, metalloporphyrin-containing *de novo* designed proteins effectively mimic natural photosynthetic centers.⁶⁶ Peptide-based fluorescent metal ion sensors

comprising a metal recognition domain and a signal transduction moiety that is triggered upon metal ion binding have been assembled.⁶⁷ A number of selective sensors have been constructed which are based on naturally occurring zinc fingers, serum albumin proteins and siderophores.⁶⁸ Another important area of application is based on the DNA binding ability of proteins and their assemblies.⁶⁹

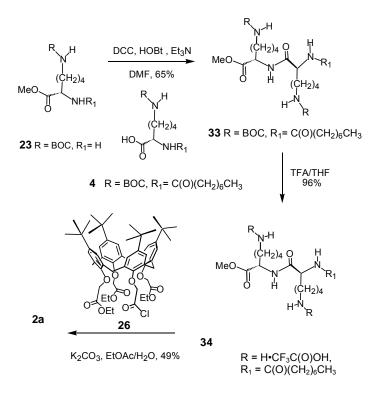
In principle, any modified amino acids can be incorporated within the polymeric peptide sequence. Preparative organic chemistry of amino acids and peptide bond formation is well developed.⁷⁰ Secondary and even higher order structures of peptides largely depend on the solvent, temperature, etc. and can be studied by standard spectroscopic techniques and also somewhat predicted by molecular modeling. As follows from our own molecular modeling, the calix[4]arene platform is ≤ 10 Å in its dimensions, so it can easily fit into the peptide network.

In the synthesis of calixarene peptides, standard peptide coupling methods were employed (Scheme 2.3). Lysines **1f** and **1e**, possessing free amino and carboxylic groups respectively, were mixed with equimolar amounts of DCC and HOBT in DMF and stirred at room temperature for 36 h. Standard workup and chromatography afforded calix dipepide **2a** in 46% yield.

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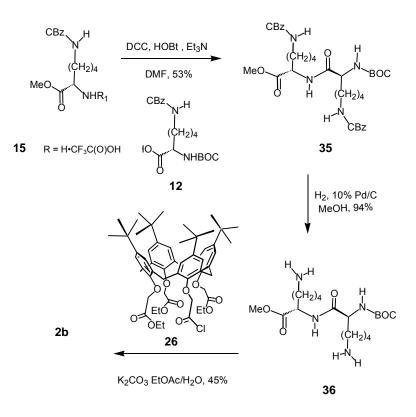


Scheme 2.3 Synthetic approach towards calix[4]arene dipeptide 2 (Approach 1).



Scheme 2.4 Synthetic approach towards calix[4]arene dipeptide 2a (Approach 2).

In an alternative procedure (Scheme 2.4), 2.4 equivalents of calixarene acid chloride **26** were coupled with the ϵ -NH₂ groups of *preformed* bis-lysine derivative **34** (K₂CO₃, EtOAc-H₂O, 1:1) with the formation of **2a** in 49% yield after column chromatography. Bis-lysine **34** was prepared from bis-BOC derivative **33**, which itself was synthesized from from amino acids **23** and **4** (DCC, HOBT, DMF, 64%). *Both* protocols gave comparable quantities of calix dipeptide **2a**.



Scheme 2.5 Synthetic approach towards calix[4]arene dipeptide 2b (Approach 2).

Similarly, bis-lysine 35^{71} was prepared from amino acids 12 and 15 (DCC, HOBT, DMF, 53%) (Scheme 2.5). This was then deprotected with Pd/C in CH₃OH resulting in 36 in 94% yield. Bis-lysine 36 reacted with 2.4 equivalents of monoacid

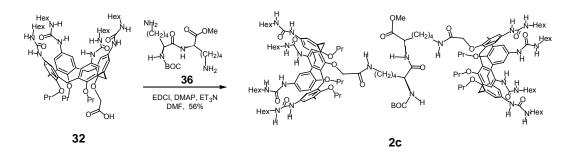
chloride **26** in presence of K_2CO_3 (EtOAc-H₂O, 1:1) with the formation of calixarene dipeptide **2b** in 45% yield after column chromatography.

The structure of calixarene dipeptides **2a,b** was confirmed by FTIR, ¹H and COSY NMR spectroscopy, and MALDI mass spectrometry. Although the compounds were reasonably soluble in CDCl₃, the corresponding ¹H NMR spectra appeared to be rather broad, most probably due to noncovalent aggregation. Molecular modeling (MM2 and Amber Force Field) suggests that not only the ε -NH-C(O) amide protons participate in the C=O•••H-N hydrogen bonding with the calixarene lower rim carbonyl oxygens, but also the α -NH-C(O) proton is now involved in the intramolecular folding process (Figure 2.8, Page 23). The FTIR spectra of **2a,b** in KBr contain mostly associated NH stretching at ~3300 cm⁻¹.

In contrast, DMSO- d_6 competes with hydrogen bonding and thus produces sharper peaks. Typically, the ¹H NMR spectra are consistent with the mono-substituted calix[4]arene pattern. Dipeptide **2a** and also **33** and **34** exhibit two ~1:1 sets of signals for all groups of protons, indicating that pairs of diastereomeric products are formed in these cases. We attribute this to the base-catalyzed racemization of the amino acid precursor **4**, which was subsequently used in the preparation of racemic calixarene lysine **1e**, and also resulted in pairs of diastereomers for dipeptides **33** and **34**. This is not the case for dipeptides **2b**, **35**, and **36**, which were obtained enantiomerically pure (optical rotation, ¹H NMR analysis in different solvents).

Two equivalents of calixarene tetraurea **32** bearing a carboxyl group on its lower rim were introduced to the side chains of dilysine molecule **36** by standard

peptide coupling (EDCI, HOBt, Et₃N). The resulting calixarene peptide 2c was isolated by flash column chromatography in 56% yield (Scheme 2.6). Compound 2c was fully characterized by FTIR, ¹H, ¹³C and COSY NMR spectroscopy, MALDI mass spectrometry.



Scheme 2.6 Synthesis of calix[4]arene tetraurea dipeptide.

In summary, we have developed a modular strategy towards synthesis of nanoscale receptor macromolecules—calix–peptides. These compounds combine the unique host–guest capabilities of calixarene chemistry with the general utility of peptide synthesis. A series of calixarene amino acids were prepared, which were further utilized to synthesize calixarene dipeptides. Through this approach, calixarene amino acids are now available to be incorporated into peptide networks and nanostructured biological materials. This opens novel perspectives for the modular design of multifunctional receptors and sensors, multiply attached cavities and capsules, macromolecular devices and smart polymeric materials.

CHAPTER 3

SUPRAMOLECULAR APPLICATIONS OF CALIXARENE-PEPTIDE CONJUGATES

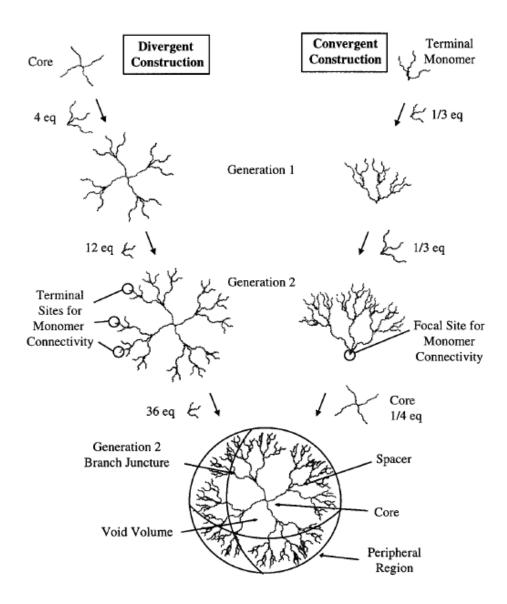
The design and construction of macromolecular entities, composed of many identical components functioning as receptors, are among the new challenges of chemistry.⁷² Multifunctionality of receptor molecules reflects a current trend of chemical sciences going towards "smart" materials, informationally rich molecular devices, and nanofabrication.⁷³ Through multiple, multivalent interactions macromolecular receptors display an increased affinity towards substrates, including biologically relevant ones. Such an increase is due to either purely statistical reasons or positive cooperative effects. It is important therefore to assemble molecules into supramolecular structures, the properties of which surpass those of the molecular collection. This requires understanding the structure and dynamics of intra- and intermolecular interactions so that the properties of such molecular collections can be predicted and controlled.

In the work described in Chapter 2, we took advantage of peptide chemistry and introduced a novel, *modular strategy* towards receptor macromolecules. This strategy combined synthetically diverse peptide synthesis with highly functional calixarene chemistry. Our approach resulted in novel macromolecular entities-calixarene amino acids and calixarene peptides. Here, we demonstrate supramolecular properties of calixarene- peptide conjugates described in Chapter 2.^{49,50} Specifically, these peptidebased calixarenes were further utilized to construct nanostructures – calixarene-peptide dendrimers, peptide-based self-assembling calixarene capsules and supramolecular polymers. Moreover, calixarene amino acids, peptides, and peptide dendrimers containing tetra-ester functions at their lower rims were used for the complexation of Na⁺ cations.

3.1 Calixarene Peptide Dendrimers

Over recent years, dendrimers have revolutionarily entered supramolecular and materials chemistry.⁷⁴ The layered, nanoscale architecture, globular shape, controlled nanomolar dimensions and easy modification have made dendrimers possess unique supramolecular properties. Multivalent surfaces of dendrimers offer a unique opportunity for the substrate binding, providing strength and, often, cooperativity, with minimalized energy loses for reorganization and diffusion.

Synthetically, dendrimers are constructed in an iterative fashion. This leads to a stepwise synthetic growth which distinguishes dendrimers from normal polymers. In the literature, two different synthetic approaches have been utilized to construct high-generation dendrimers: the convergent approach⁷⁵ and divergent approach⁷⁶ (Scheme 3.1). In the divergent synthesis, the dendrimer is built in a stepwise manner from the central core out to the periphery. In contrast to the divergent synthesis, the convergent synthesis, the dendrimer synthesis, the convergent synthesis, the convergent synthesis, the convergent synthesis, the convergent synthesis builds dendrimers from the periphery toward the central core.



Scheme 3.1 Representative 'divergent' and 'convergent' protocols for dendrimer construction with common terminology.⁷⁷ (Adapted from *Chem. Rev.* **1999**)

It is always challenging and time consuming to synthesize high-generation dendrimers. However, there have been many classic and complex dendrimers reported in the literature for different purposes (Figure 3.1). While synthesis of dendritic systems is a crucial issue for their development, more attention is being devoted to study the three dimensional structures of dendrimers and their use in biological and materials applications.

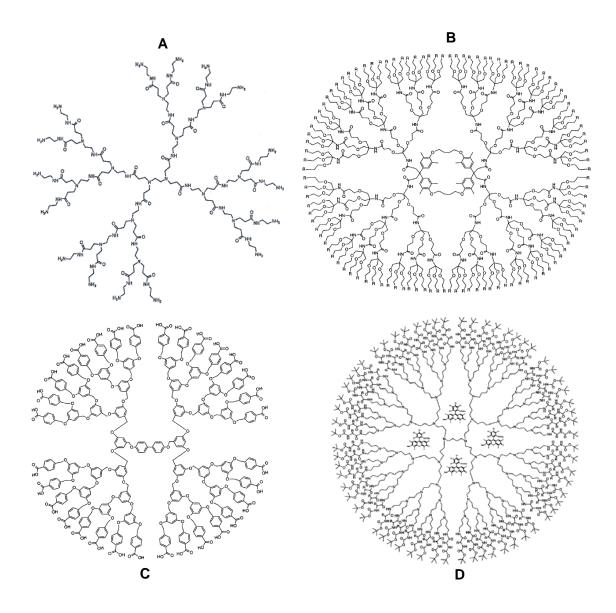
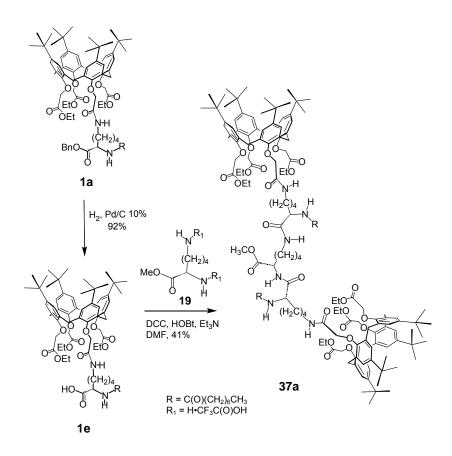


Figure 3.1 A) Tomalia's poly(aminoamine) (PAMAM) dendrimer.⁷⁸ B) Dendrophanes reported by Diederich and co-workers.⁷⁹ C) A water-soluable polyaryl ether dendrimer reported by Frechet.⁸⁰ D) Meijer's dendritic box with Bengal Rose molecules inside.⁸¹

Surprisingly, to date, only limited progress has been reported in the literature on the preparation of calixarene dendrimers. For example, our search with SciFinder Scholar performed in 2002 produced ~6000 references on dendrimers and ~5000 references on calixarenes, but less than 10 papers on calixarene-based dendrimers. A calix[4]arene platform was used as a core to which photochromic dyes and carbohydrate dendrons were attached.⁸² This was relatively easy to achieve through standard, symmetrical tetrafunctionalization of calixarene. However, prior to our work in this area, only two published examples.⁸³ involving calixarenes as *branches* and/or surface elements, were reported. The repetitive branching strategy for the preparation of higher dendritic generations had not been demonstrated. In a single report, Böhmer and co-workers postulated the divergent approach towards dendrimers, based on the multiple amide bond formation between appropriately functionalized calix[4]arene amines and calix[4]arene acid chlorides.⁸⁴ Experimentally, this had not been accomplished. In this chapter, we propose a *convergent*⁸⁵ approach towards calixarenecontaining dendrimers, which employs peptide chemistry. In such dendrimers, calixarene fragments are situated on the surface, thus providing the multivalency, and peptide groups serve as branching units. Our structures appeared to be among the earliest calixarene dendrimers in the literature. After this work, Appelhans designed and synthesized a novel dentritic core based on thiacalixarene derivatives,⁸⁶ and Vicens reported calix[4]-dendrimers with a 'tren' unit as a core.⁸⁷

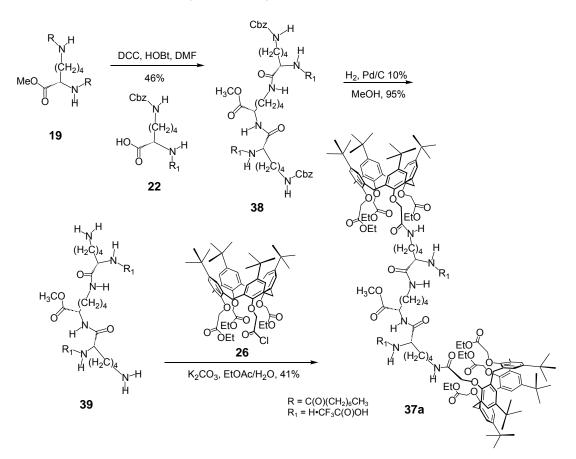
In principle, peptide dendrimers are broadly defined as any dendrimer containing peptide fragments.⁸⁸ They are well suited for various biochemical and

biotechnological applications, including diagnostic reagents, protein mimetics, anticancer and antiviral agents, caccines, and drug delivery systems.⁸⁹ Synthetically, amino acids are appealing building blocks because of well-developed peptide-coupling techniques. Polyamino acids consisting of branches of a trifunctional acid, especially lysine, represent the largest and most popular group of branching units being used today.⁸⁸ The diamino nature of lysine creates a unique situation where each additional level of lysines effectively doubles the number of sites to which monomers are attached.



Scheme 3.2 Synthesis of the first generation of calixarene dendrimer 37a (Approach 1).

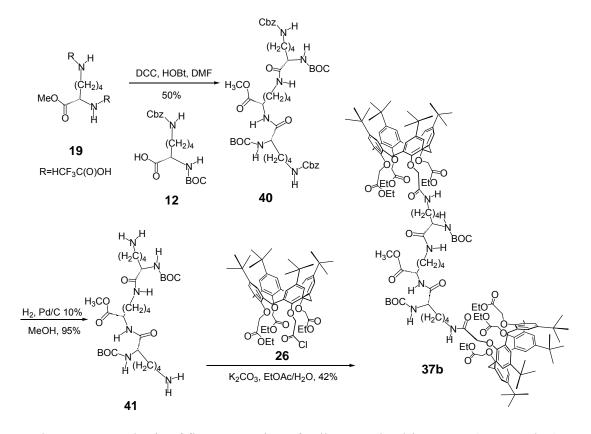
In the synthesis of calixarene dendrimers, two equivalents of calix amino acid 1e were submitted to the coupling reaction with lysine methyl ester 19 in the presence of equimolar amounts of DCC and HOBT in DMF producing, after purification, 41% of dendritic bis-calixarene 37a (Scheme 3.2).



Scheme 3.3 Synthesis of first generation of calixarene dendrimer 37a (Approach 2).

In the alternative procedure (Scheme 3.3), triester monoacid chloride **26** was coupled with the preformed, first-generation lysine dendrimer **39** in presence of K_2CO_3 (EtOAc-H₂O, 1:1). This yields 47% of **37a** after column chromatography on silica gel. Bis-lysine **39** was prepared by the Pd/C catalyzed hydrogenation of bis-Cbz derivative

38 in CH₃OH, which in its turn was obtained from amino acids **22** and *O*-methyl ester of *l*-lysine **19**. Accordingly, *both* procedures successfully yielded the same dendrimer. Since racemic lysine **4** was employed (see Chapter 2, Figure 2.6), dendrimer **37a** in our experiments was obtained as a mixture of diastereomers, which is highly difficult to separate. Similarly, calixarene acid chloride **26** was coupled with the preformed, firstgeneration lysine dendrimer **41** (K₂CO₃, EtOAc-H₂O) to afford optically pure dendrimer **37b** in 42% after column chromatography. Precursor dendrimer **41** was prepared by the Pd/C catalyzed hydrogenation of bis-Cbz derivative **40**, which was obtained from amino acids **12** and **19** (Scheme 3.4).



Scheme 3.4 Synthesis of first generation of calixarene dendrimer **37b** (Approach 2).

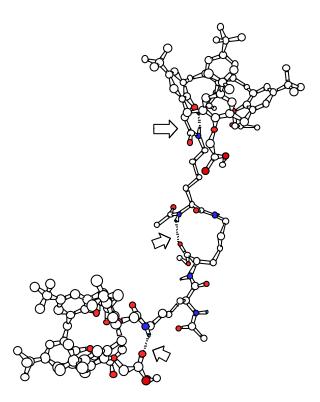


Figure 3.2 MacroModel 7.1 (Amber* ForceField) representation of calix[4]arene dendrimer **37**. Possible C=O•••H-N hydrogen bonding is marked by arrows.

The structure of compounds **37a,b** was confirmed by high-resolution ¹H and COSY NMR spectroscopy and MALDI mass spectrometry. With their nanoscale dimensions and masses of >2500 Daltons, the structural assignments of **37a,b** were heavily depended on the similarity of spectral features of simpler precursors such as tripeptides **38-41** and also calix lysines **1a-f**. Although soluble in CDCl₃, **37a,b** exhibit broad peaks in the ¹H NMR spectra, probably due to noncovalent aggregation. As expected, DMSO-*d*₆ competes with hydrogen bonding and thus produces sharper peaks. Similar to dipeptides **2a,b**, molecular modeling suggests that not only the ε -NH-C(O) amide protons are involved in the C=O•••H-N hydrogen bonding with the calixarene

lower rim carbonyl oxygens, but also the α -NH-C(O) proton participates in the intramolecular folding process (Figure 3.2). In the folded conformation, the calix[4]arene fragments are positioned ~15 Å away from each other. Such a long distance is important for building next generations of calix dendrimers.

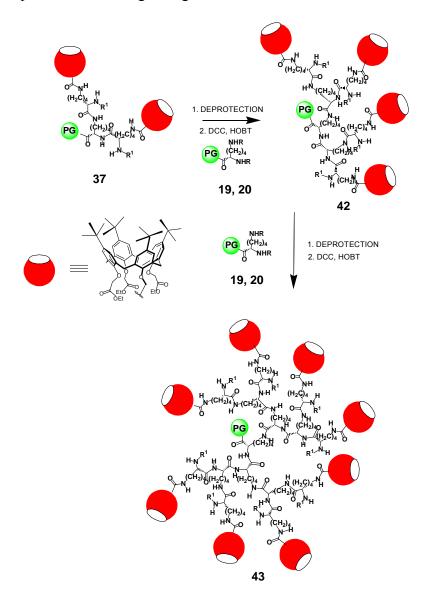


Figure 3.3 Towards higher generations of calixarene peptide dendrimers.

Dendritic structures **37a,b** may be regarded as a first generation of more expanded peptide dendrimers with calixarene surfaces. Indeed, in the convergent strategy, the C(O)OMe group of the core may be deprotected, activated and used in the coupling step with lysine esters **19** or **20**. This will result in the second generation of calix peptide dendrimers **42**. Subsequently, the core ester group may be further deprotected again, activated and coupled with **19** or **20** to afford the third generation of dendrimer **43**. These steps can be repeated (Figure 3.3).

3.2 Na⁺ Complexation Experiments

Calix[4]arene functionalized with C(O)OAlk ester and/or C(O)NHAlk/C(O)NAlk₂ amide groups at the lower rim demonstrate a unique affinity and selectivity towards Na⁺ cation not only in single solvents, but also in extraction experiments from water to organic solvent and in the transport experiments through bulk liquid and supported liquid membranes.⁹⁰ Solid-state and NMR-derived structures showed perfect Na⁺ coordination within the lower rim pocket, consisting of eight basic, ether and carbonyl oxygen atoms. Such complexes are kinetically stable on the NMR time scale (e.g., $K_{ass} >> 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1}$), and the exchange between free calixarenes and complexes is slow.³⁶

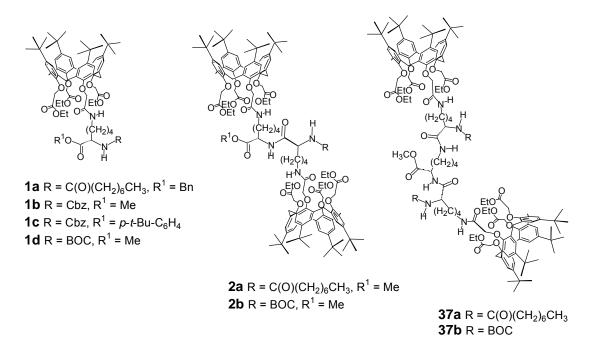


Figure 3.4 Calixarene lysines **1a-d**, dipeptides **2a-b**, and calixarene dendrimers **37a-b**.

We found that calix amino acids **1a-d**, calix peptides **2a,b** and dendrimer **37a,b** strongly complex Na⁺ cations within their binding pockets. In the preliminary experiments, extraction was studied from aqueous solution of NaClO₄ to CH_2Cl_2 . NaClO₄ was chosen because of its lipophilicity and low dehydration energy.¹¹

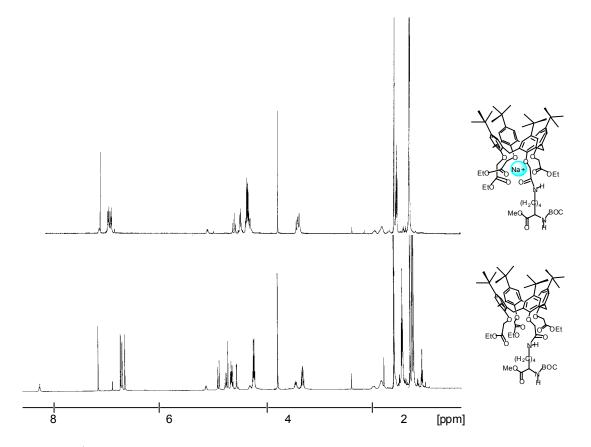


Figure 3.5 ¹H NMR spectra (500 MHz, CDCl₃, 295 \pm 1 K) of calixarene lysines: a) 1d. b) 1d•Na⁺ClO₄⁻.

Specifically, **1a-d**, **2a,b**, and **37a,b** were dissolved in CH₂Cl₂ and stirred overnight with equal volumes of saturated aqueous solution of NaClO₄. Organic layers were then separated, evaporated under reduced pressure, dried in vacuum and analyzed by high-resolution ¹H NMR spectroscopy in CDCl₃. The corresponding Na⁺ complexes formed quantitatively. The NMR spectra changed dramatically and exhibited new sets

of signals for all protons. Especially notable are ~0.3 ppm down field shift of the calixarene aromatic protons, and ~0.2 ppm down field shift of the OCH₂ ethyl ester protons (Figure 3.5). This is attributed to the electron-withdrawing nature of Na⁺ cation. The methylene CH₂ protons next to the carbonyl at the lower rim are shifted up field, which has been observed for simpler calixarene-Na⁺ complexes and is caused by complexation-induced fixation of the carbonyls. Also of interest, the ~1 ppm up field shift of the lower rim C(O)NH proton. Apparently, Na⁺ cation disrupts the intramolecular C=O•••H-N hydrogen bonding at the lower rim upon complexation (Figure 3.6). No residual uncomplexed receptors were detected (Figure 3.5).

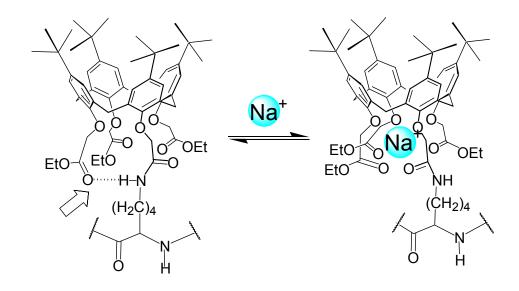


Figure 3.6 Complexation of Na⁺ cation at the lower rims of multiple calix[4]arene fragments in amino acids **1a-d**, and peptides **2a**, **2b** and **37**. Addition of Na⁺ disrupts intramolecular C=O•••H-N hydrogen bonding. The ester C=O groups turn around to coordinate the cation.

The efficiency of compounds **1a-d**, **2a,b**, and **37a,b** as Na^+ receptors was also evident in the MALDI mass spectra: exclusively $[M+Na]^+$ parent ions were observed. This behavior is in contrast to most MALDI mass spectra of peptides which yield predominantly $[M+H]^+$ parent ions. At the same time, decomplexation of Na^+ cation was readily achieved by an excessive washing with water.

While cooperativity in Na⁺ binding is not expected for **2a,b**, and **37a,b**, the presence of (a) multiple binding sites on the periphery/surface of such nanoscale receptors and (b) unique, intramolecular hydrogen bonding within their peptide scaffolds may offer strong and specific affinity towards guests. In contrast to simple collections of small receptor-molecules, which might require prior assembly/ reorganization for transport and delivery, nanostructures **2a,b**, and **37a,b** and especially their larger relatives can use intramolecular forces to arrange their multiple and interconnected components in ways that minimize free energy. Such intramolecular processes may lead to the shape changes, specific internal microenvironments, and cooperative organization of ion binding surfaces.

3.3 Self-assembly of Calix[4]arene Peptides

Self-assembly is the spontaneous, noncovalent association of two or more molecules under equilibrium conditions into stable, well-defined aggregates. In nature, self-assembly is a ubiquitous strategy responsible for the formation of cell membranes, double-stranded nucleic acids and viruses. In chemistry, self-assembly offers a rapid way to construct receptors and materials. The rather weak intermolecular forceshydrogen bonding, metal co-ordination, charge transfer interactions and van der Waalsmake self-assembly occur, bringing molecules together into two or three dimensional well-defined supramolecular architectures.

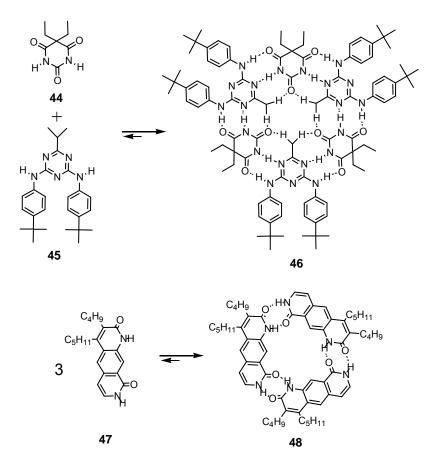


Figure 3.7 Examples of two-dimensional assemblies based on hydrogen bonding.

Hydrogen bonding is a favorite intermolecular force among those noncovalent interactions by virtue of its directionality, specificity, and biological relevance. Using hydrogen bonding to create artificial assemblies has attracted considerable interest in the last decade. Earlier studies focused on assembling individual subunits into a cyclic or linear array. For example, Whitesides discovered rosette-like molecular assemblies (for example 46) using triple hydrogen bonding interactions between cyanuric acid 44 (CA) and melamine 45 (M). Six molecules (3 CA and 3 M) were held together by 18 hydrogen bonds to form a hexagonal network resembling a rosette (Figure 3.7).⁹¹ The well defined hexamers can be obtained not only in the crystalline state, but also in apolar solvents. Covalent attachments of the rosette components to a molecular skeleton led to well defined structures differing by the number of particles, thus exhibiting different stability due to entropic factors. The Zimmerman group demonstrated three flat, heterocyclic pyridoquinoline molecules formed an extremely robust cyclic trimer 48 via hydrogen bonding (Figure 3.7).⁹² These studies have led to the design of hydrogen bonded two-dimensional self-assemblies.

Later, Rebek⁹³ showed that two or more units can form self-assembling capsules with the enclosed cavities and used tennis balls, softballs, jelly donuts, and other items to illustrate the shapes of these molecular structures. These self-assembling capsules emphasize their three-dimensional features by the ability to encapsulate smaller guests. In the "tennis ball",⁹⁴ two identical C-shaped glycouril molecules **49**, or monomers, join each other in solution at right angles by means of eight hydrogen bonds and form a hollow dimer **50**. This assembly is able to encapsulate smaller molecules such as noble

gases, CH₄ and CH₂Cl₂ (Figure 3.8). Inspired by this work, Rebek,¹⁹ Fujita,⁹⁵ Reinhoudt,⁹⁶ Dalcanale,⁹⁷ Atwood⁹⁸, and many others have designed and synthesized larger and more complex self-assembly capsules, in which one, two, even more guest molecules were co-encapsulated and even reactions were performed and accelerated.

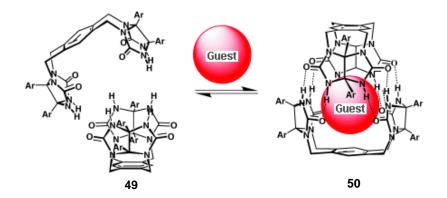


Figure 3.8 A self-assembling capsule: "Rebek's tennis ball".94

Self-assembling supramolecular polymers have been also introduced.^{3,99} These are polymers based on monomeric units held together with *directional* and *reversible* secondary interactions.⁹⁹ Supramolecular polymers represent a novel, unique class of materials: they combine attractive features of conventional polymers with properties, resulting from the bonding reversibility. Structural and dynamic parameters, that determine polymer properties - degree of polymerization, lifetime of the chain, and its conformation - are a function of the noncovalent bonds' strength and can be reversibly adjusted.

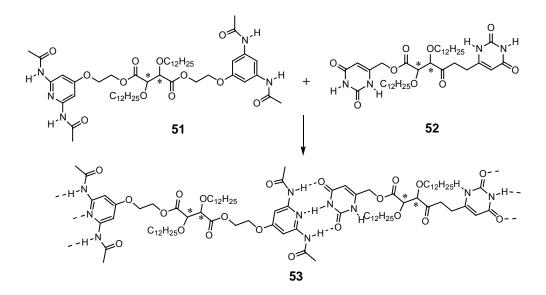


Figure 3.9 Liquid crystalline supramolecular polymers based on triple hydrogen bonds.¹⁰⁰

Lehn et al. pioneered the field.¹⁰⁰ He showed that triple cooperative hydrogen bonding between difunctional diaminopyridines and difunctional uracil derivatives form a supramolecular main-chain polymer **53** (Figure 3.9). The 1:1 mixture of **51** and **52** exhibits liquid crystalline over a broad temperature range, whereas, in contrast, the pure compounds are solid which melt in isotropic liquid without displaying a liquid crystalline phase.

Later, Mejier discovered the strong dimerization of derivatives of 2-ureido-4pyrimidone (dimerization constant $K_D > 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1}$ in CHCl₃), by means of a selfcomplementary DDAA (donor- donor-acceptor-acceptor) array of 4 hydrogen bonds.¹⁰¹ These findings led to the synthesis of self-complementary bidentate, compounds, possessing two ureidopyrimidinone units, which form a stable, long and reversible

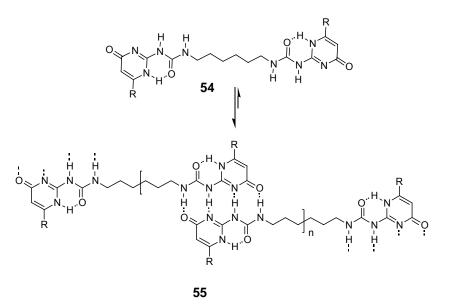


Figure 3.10 Polymeric assembly of a bifunctional ureidopirimidinone derivative.¹⁰¹

linear polymer 55 in the solution. The thermal and environmental control over lifetime and bond strength makes many properties, such as viscosity, chain length, and composition, tunable in a way not accessible to traditional polymers. This polymer was the first supramolecular polymer with the high-agree of polymerization in solution (DP = 7×10^2 at 40 mM in CHCl₃).¹⁰¹

The group of Rebek developed supramolecular polymers **56** using hydrogenbonded calixarene tetraurea capsules (Figure 3.11).¹⁰² Two calixarene urea moieties were covalently attached to a rigid linker. In apolar solvents, hydrogen bonding between urea functionalized calixarenes results in a polymeric chain. More interestingly, multiple solvent molecules/benzene size guests were encapsulated in the calixarene capsules upon polymerization.

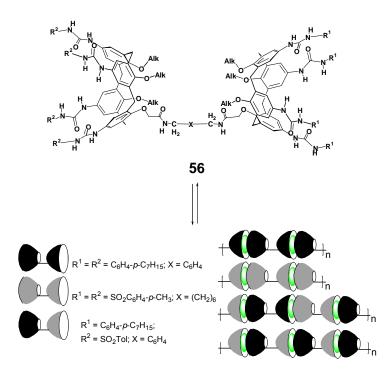


Figure 3.11 Supramolecular polymers featuring self-assembling calixarene tetraurea capsules.¹⁰²

In our work, dimeric calix[4]arene tetraurea capsules (see Figure 2.5, Page 18) were utilized to construct calixarene amino acid capsules and calixarene peptide supramolecular polymers (Figure 3.12). Specifically, the calixarene moieties in calixarene amino acid **1g** were functionlized with hexyl ureas and as expected, strongly dimerized in apolar solvent, such as (CHCl₃, benzene, xylene) with the formation of capsules **1g-1g**. Typically, due to the lack of symmetry in **1g-1g**, a multiple set of NH urea signals was recorded in C_6D_6 , CDCl₃, and CDCl₂CDCl₂. These are characteristically shifted down field, showing the key features of the capsule formation (Figure 3.13).^{53,54}

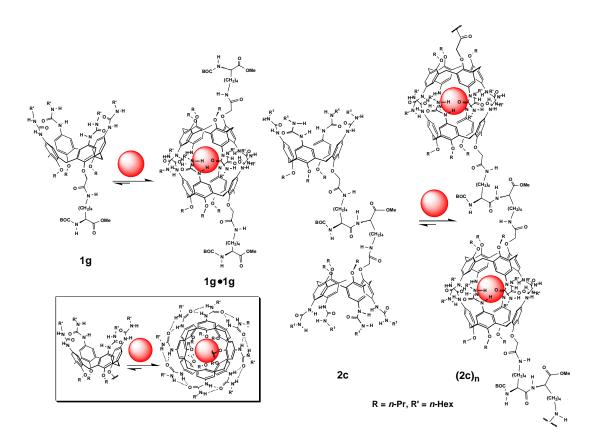


Figure 3.12 Formation of self-assembly calixarene capsule and supramolecular polymer.

As expected, calix-dipeptide 2c self-assembles in apolar solution with the formation of supramolecular polymer (2c)_n (Figure 3.12). Due to the lack of symmetry, a multiple set of NH protons was recorded in the ¹H NMR spectra of 2c in CDCl₃, (CDCl₂)₂, and benzene- d_6 . These were shifted down field (≥ 2 ppm), which is a characteristic feature of capsule formation (for example, Figure 3.14). Both a proximal and distal regioisomers of the calixarene dimer can form, with respect to the orientation

of the acetamide $OCH_2C(O)NH$ -substituents at the lower rims of each calixarene **2c**. Moreover, the circular array of hydrogen bonds can be arranged either clockwise or

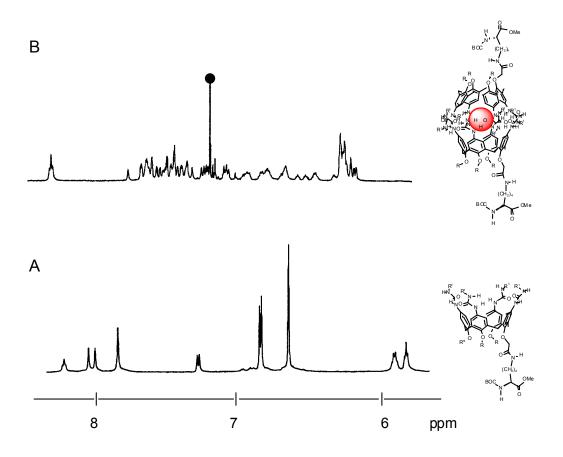


Figure 3.13 Downfield portions of ¹H NMR spectra (500 MHz, 295 ± 1 K) of: (A) calixarene **1g** in DMSO-*d*₆. (B) capsule **1g**•**1g** in CDCl₃.

counterclockwise. With the dimerization constant $K_D > 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1}$ for each calixarene capsule,¹⁰³ the average degree of polymerization of at least 100 can be estimated for structure **2c** at the NMR concentration range. Due to the steric restrains in the design, no intramolecular cyclization of two calixarene tetraureas in **2c** occurs.

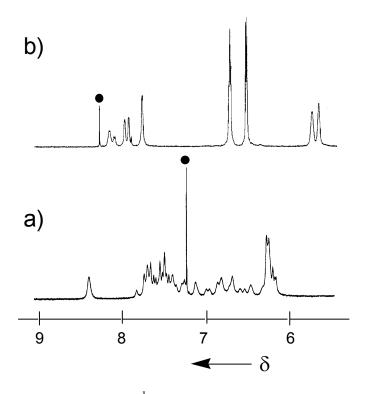


Figure 3.14 Downfield portions of ¹H NMR spectra (500 MHz, 295 \pm 1 K) of: a) polymeric capsules (**2c**)_n in CDCl₃. b) biscalixarene **2c** in DMSO-*d*₆. The spectrum was obtained upon dissociation of (**2c**)_n in DMSO-*d*₆. The residual solvent signals are marked as before.

Significantly increased viscosities were observed for CHCl₃ solutions of biscalixarenes **2c** compared to the precursor **32**. While relative viscosity of **32** is similar to the solvent and does not apparently change with the concentration, dramatic changes (\geq 5-fold, concentration range from 5 to 40 mM) were detected for the biscalixarene. Specific viscosities (η_{sp}) of derivatives **32** and **2c** were measured as a function of concentration, and the double-logarithmic plots are represented on Figure 3.15a. As expected, for calixarene **32** the viscosities are low and the plot has a slope of 1.1 ± 0.1. Such linear relationship between specific viscosity and concentration indicates that only small aggregates (e.g. capsules) are formed, which are of constant size and apparently do not

interact with each other. In contrast, the double-logarithmic relationship between specific viscosities and concentration for biscalixarene 2c exhibits a slope of ~2. The constant high slope of the plot suggests that, over the concentration range studied, the viscosity of 2c follows Cates's model for reversibly breakable polymers above the overlap concentration.¹⁰⁴

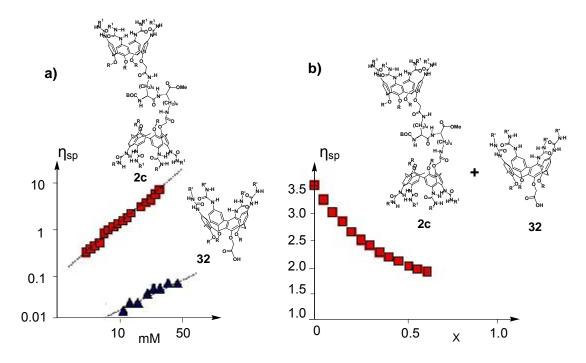


Figure 3.15 Viscosity measurements with calixarenes **32** and **2c** in CHCl₃ (295 \pm 1 K): a) specific viscosities vs concentration (6 – 35 mM range), a double-logarithmic plot; b) effect of the addition of **32** (mole fraction x) on the specific viscosity of **2c** at 20 mM.

Addition of small quantities of calixarene **32** to the CHCl₃ solution of biscalixarene **2c** resulted in a dramatic decrease in viscosity (Figure 3.15b). Acting as a chain stopper, compound **32** may competitively participate in hydrogen bonding with the calixarene fragments in **2c** and its polymeric chains. Based on these viscosity measurements and using approach developed by Meijer and co-workers,¹⁰¹ the degree

of polymerization (DP) value for biscalixarene **2c** of ~2.8 x 10^2 was estimated at 20 mM, which corresponds to the average molar mass of ~7.6 x 10^5 g/mol. When 1% and 2% (mol) of stopper **32** were used, the DP numbers dropped to 1.2 x 10^2 and 7.5 x 10^1 , respectively. These observations once again confirm reversibility of the described polymerization processes, which occurs through multiple capsule formation. The molecular modeling of the calixarene polymer (**2c**)_n is depicted in Figure 3.16.

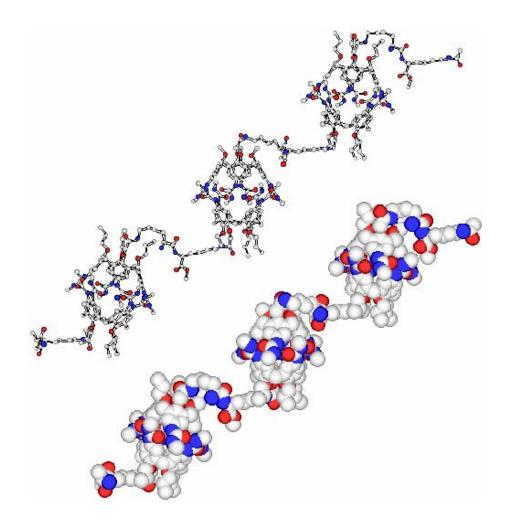


Figure 3.16 MacroModel 7.1 (MM2) representations of supramolecular polymer $(2c)_n$: a fragment of the chain. The CH hydrogens and long alkyl chains are omitted for viewing clarity.

In summary, we have demonstrated that calixarene amino acids can serve as building blocks to construct a novel type of calixarene peptide dendrimers. The first generation of calixarene dendrimers was synthesized and fully characterized. Calixarene amino acids, peptides, and peptide dendrimers containing tetra-ester functions at their lower rims can extract sodium cations from aqueous solutions. Calixarene-peptide conjugates, possessing urea moieties at the upper rim, were demonstrated to reversibly form self-assembling capsules and supramolecular polymers in apolar solvents. In principle, self-assembling capsules can encapsulate guests and dipeptides can be readily modified through either their C and/ or N terminus. This brings new perspectives to the construction of functional supramolecular materials.

CHAPTER 4

CARBON DIOXIDE AND SUPRAMOLECULAR POLYMERS

Carbon dioxide (further CO_2) is one of the major greenhouse gases.¹⁰⁵ It circulates in the environment through a variety of processes known as the *carbon cycle* (Figure 4.1). Large-scale industrial processes, volcanoes and living systems release huge quantities of CO_2 into the atmosphere. On the other hand, plants and also oceans, lakes, and rivers collect it. Although the concentration of CO_2 in the earth atmosphere is low (~0.04% by volume), CO_2 is a very important component, because it absorbs infrared radiation and enhances the greenhouse effect. CO_2 in the atmosphere is accumulating much faster than the Earth's natural processes can absorb it. The CO_2 levels in the atmosphere have risen by more than 30% over the last 250 years and these concentrations may well double or even triple in the next century. Such extensive CO_2 circulation in atmosphere, industry and agriculture requires not only its systematic monitoring under a variety of conditions, but more importantly, necessitates the development of improved methods of the CO_2 chemical utilization.

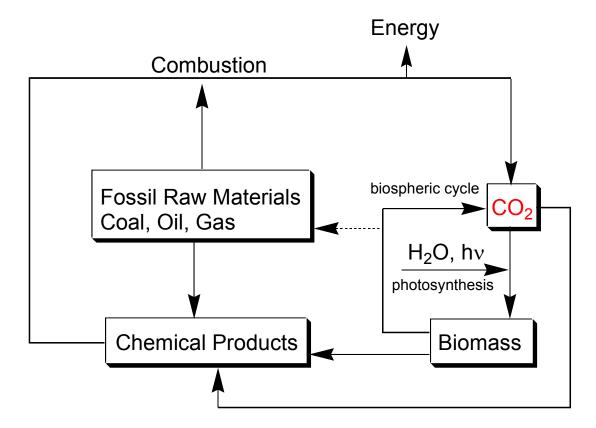


Figure 4.1 Circulation of carbon dioxide: Carbon Cycle.

The reactions between CO_2 and amines readily occur at ordinary temperatures and pressures to yield carbamates, presumably by way of the corresponding carbamic acids. Notably, carbamates are thermally unstable and release CO_2 upon heating (Figure 4.2).¹⁰⁶

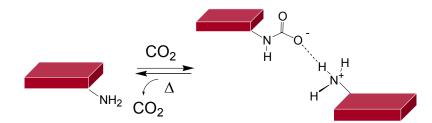


Figure 4.2 Reversible covalent chemistry between CO₂ and amines: self-assembly of molecular blocks.

Accordingly, polymer-bound amines have been employed in industry as reusable CO_2 scrubbers, removing CO_2 from industrial exhaust streams.¹⁰⁷ It has been demonstrated that amine containing ionic liquids also trap CO_2 (Figure 4.3).¹⁰⁸ Imprinted polymers have been introduced, in which a template can be attached and then removed through a carbamate linker.¹⁰⁹

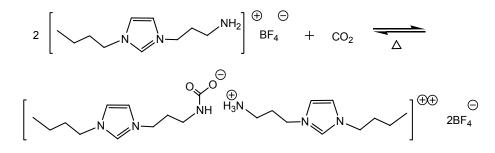


Figure 4.3 Structure of a CO₂-trapping ionic liquid. ¹⁰⁸

Finally, reactions between CO_2 and immobilized amines have been employed by our laboratory for gas sensing (Figure 4.4).¹¹⁰ Specifically, 1-aminomethylpyrene readily reacts with CO_2 in polar aprotic solvent to form the corresponding carbamic acid, which exhibits at least 10 times more fluorescence emission than the amine. Here, the disruption of proton induced electron transfer quenching by resonance between the lone pair on nitrogen and carbonyl oxygen is responsible for the increased fluorescence.

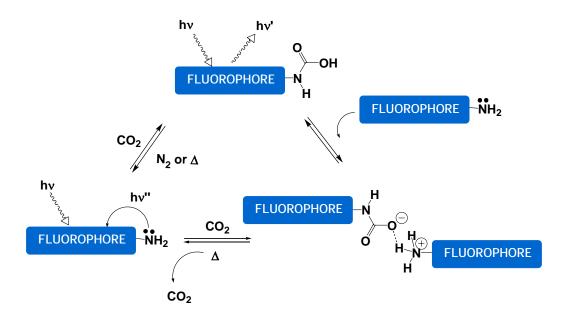


Figure 4.4 Model for fluorimetric sensing of CO₂.¹¹⁰

Dynamic covalent chemistry (DCC) is now quickly emerging as a promising alternative to noncovalent self-assembly.¹¹¹ It offers an elegant opportunity of incorporating covalent bonds into self-assembly. One of the most important advantages here is the robustness of covalently organized structures, which on the other hand can be reversibly broken, at will. We proposed, that carbamate bonds could be employed for wider variety of DCC experiments.¹¹⁰

Non-covalent self-assembly has been very well explored in the past two decades and has led to well defined nano-scale structures, such as capsules, supramolecular polymers, etc. Covalent, still reversible, assembly is in an early stage. This carbamate chemistry, simply introduced from CO_2 and alkyl amines, could offer us a good opportunity to quickly assemble a variety of robust nanostructures and "smart" materials. Furthermore, the reversible nature of carbamate bonds may lead to possibilities of switching structures and properties.

Simultaneously with us, Weiss and co-workers demonstrated that chemically reversible organogels could be prepared with CO₂ and aliphatic amines as latent gelators.¹¹² The organogelation process was simple and reliable. Rapid uptake of CO₂ by aliphatic amines produced the ammonium carbamate-based gel, while thermal release of CO₂ transformed gel into the amine solutions. The gel-solution cycles can be repeated for at least 10 times without losing efficiency. Gels are viscoelastic liquid like or viscoelistic solid like materials. Due to their thermo-reversibility and great diversity of structures on the microscopic and mesoscopic scales, gels are attracting much attention in the field of supramolecular chemistry.¹¹³

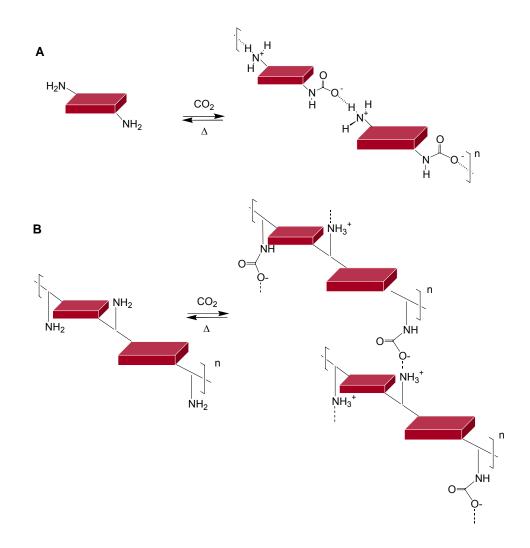


Figure 4.5 Reversible covalent chemistry between CO₂ and amines. Self-assembly of molecular blocks leads to linear (case A) and cross-linked polymers (case B).

Reactions between CO₂ and di- or even polyamines are very interesting, since they can lead to reversibly formed polymeric chains or even cross-linked 3D networks (Figure 4.5A and 4.5B). In one case, such structures have been proposed for polycarbamate [---H₃N⁺(CH₂)₁₂NHC(O)O⁻---H₃N⁺(CH₂)₁₂NHC(O)O⁻---]_n, which forms thermally reversible organogels.¹¹²

With this in mind, we employed CO2 as a cross-linking agent to build supramolecular polymeric materials.^{114,115,116} Supramolecular polymers represent a novel class of macromolecules, in which monomeric units are held together by reversible forces. Supramolecular polymers thus combine features of conventional polymers with properties, resulting from the bonding reversibility. Structural parameters of supramolecular polymeric materials, in particular their two- and three-dimensional architectures, can be switched "on-off" through the main chain assembly dissociation processes. On the other hand, their strength and degree of polymerization rely on how tight the monomeric units are aggregated. In this chapter, we introduce a strategy to build supramolecular polymers, which utilize hydrogen bonding and take advantages of dynamic, reversible chemistry between CO₂ and amines. These polymers are also functional. They possess multiple self-assembling capsules that may encapsulate guests. We demonstrate that subtle, two parameter control over hydrogen bonding and CO₂amine chemistry leads to switchable materials, which reversibly trap, store and then release guest-molecules. And finally using CO₂, we convert linear supramolecular polymeric chains into supramolecular, three-dimensional polymeric networks. These are also switchable and can be transformed back to the linear chains without breaking them. Indeed, while supramolecular cross-linked polymers are known,¹¹⁷ they break upon dissociation of noncovalent aggregates, which compose them. Our materials are different, as they only release CO₂, keeping hydrogen bonding intact.

4.1 Design and Synthesis

The chemistry between CO_2 and amines is essentially an acid-base equilibrium, and the formation of carbamate salts is thermally reversible. CO_2 can typically be released by simple heating at ~80 °C.

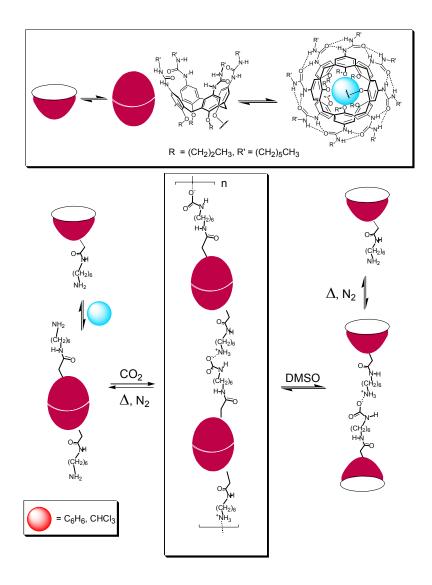


Figure 4.6 CO₂ can link calixarene capsules into a linear supramolecular polymer.

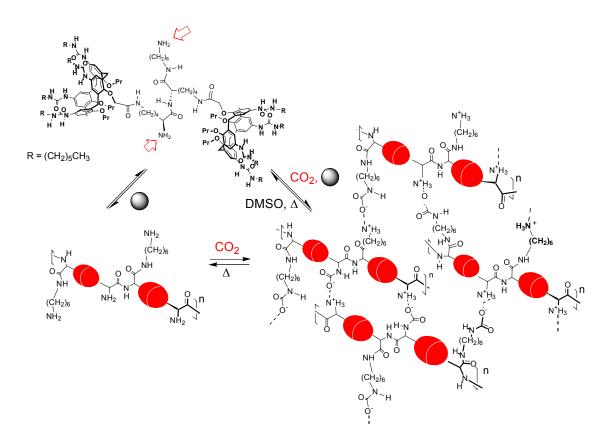


Figure 4.7 CO₂ cross-links polymeric calixarene chains into a three-dimensional supramolecular network.

Our approach is sketched on Figure 4.6 and Figure 4.7 and introduces two generations of CO₂-based self-assembling nanostructures. Monomeric units were designed, which *a*) strongly aggregate/dimerize in apolar solution, *b*) possess "CO₂-philic" primary amino groups on the periphery, and *c*) form capsules upon self-assembly. For cross-linking, two such monomeric units were covalently attached with the appropriate orientation for linear, noncovalent polymerization (Figure 4.7). The CO₂-philic amino groups were then introduced perpendicular to the main chain. In apolar solvent, once CO₂ is involved, multiple carbamate salt bridges should form,

resulting in either linear supramolecular aggregates (Figure 4.6) or three-dimensional supramolecular networks (Figure 4.7). Addition of competitive solvent breaks self-assembly but not the carbamate linkers. On the other hand, thermal release of CO₂ can be easily accomplished, but it does not influence the noncovalent aggregates, and the capsules do not dissociate.

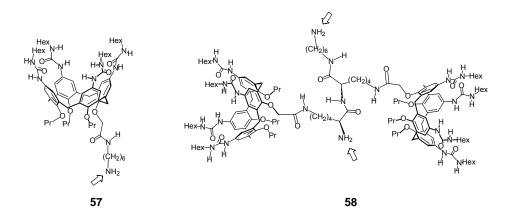
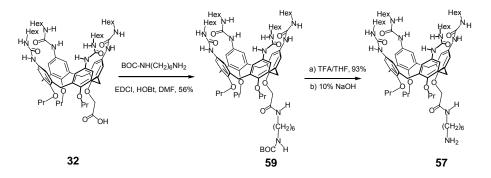


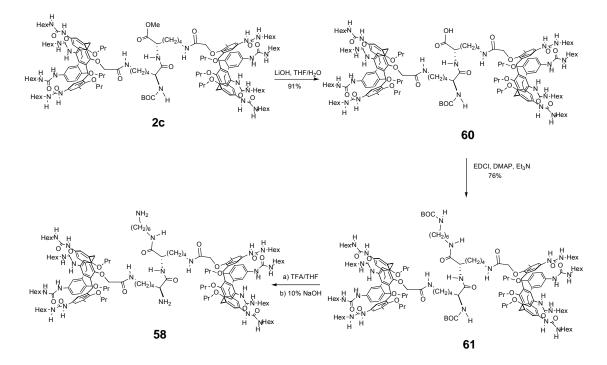
Figure 4.8 Calixarene building blocks for supramolecular polymers. The amino groups are marked.

In the design of monomeric units, we took advantage of calixarenes as both selfassembling and cavity forming modules (see Chapter 3, Pages 51-56). For this study, calix[4]arene tetraureas **57** and **58** were synthesized, which possesses amino groups on the periphery (Figure 4.8). Specifically, calixarene **57** is functionalized with hexylamine fragment at the lower rim. In biscalix[4]arene **58** two calixarene tetraurea moieties are linked with a dipeptide, di-L-lysine. Calixarenes were attached to the ε -NH₂ ends, so the dilysine module orients them away from each other, in roughly opposite directions. According to extensive molecular modeling, this also prevents the intramolecular assembly. Hexamethyleneamine chain was then attached to the carboxylic side of the dipeptide.



Scheme 4.1 Synthesis of calixarene tetraurea amine 57.

The key building block for the syntheses of **57** and **58** is calix[4]arene tetraurea acid **32** (Scheme 3.1). It was prepared from known calixarene precursors in five steps starting with the parent tetrakis-*t*-butyl calix[4]arene (see Chapter 2, Page 25). Calixarene amine **57** was synthesized (as a TFA-salt) from acid **32** and 1-*N*-BOC protected 1,6-diaminohexane (DCC, HOBT, Et₃N, DMF, 72%), followed by deprotection with TFA (THF, 93%). Biscalix[4]arene diamine **58** was prepared (as a TFA-salt) from bis-*N*-BOC protected dipeptide **61** (THF, TFA, >95%). Compound **61** was obtained from calix dipeptide methyl ester **2c** by basic hydrolysis (LiOH, H₂O-THF, 91%) of the ester, followed by reaction with 1-*N*-BOC protected 1,6-diaminohexane (EDCI, HOBT, DMF, 76%). Dipeptide **2c** was obtained by a conventional peptide coupling procedure from 2 equiv of acid **32** and 1 equiv of di-*l*-lysine **36** (see Chapter 2, Page 29). The amino groups in **57** and **58** were subsequently liberated from TFA by washing with aq NaOH solution.



Scheme 4.2 Synthesis of biscalixarene diamine 58.

4.2 Self-Assembly

As expected, calixarene tetraurea **57** dimerizes in apolar solution (¹H NMR, ESI-MS) with the formation of capsule **62** (Figure 4.9 and 4.10). Due to the lack of symmetry in **62**, a multiple set of NH urea signals was recorded in C₆D₆, CDCl₃, and CDCl₂CDCl₂ between $\delta = 6$ and 8.5 (for example, Figure 4.10A). These are characteristically shifted down field ($\delta \ge 2$), compared to model, non-dimerized ureas, showing the key features of the capsule formation.^{53,54} Statistically, both a proximal and a distal regioisomers of **62** form, with respect to the orientation of the acetamid

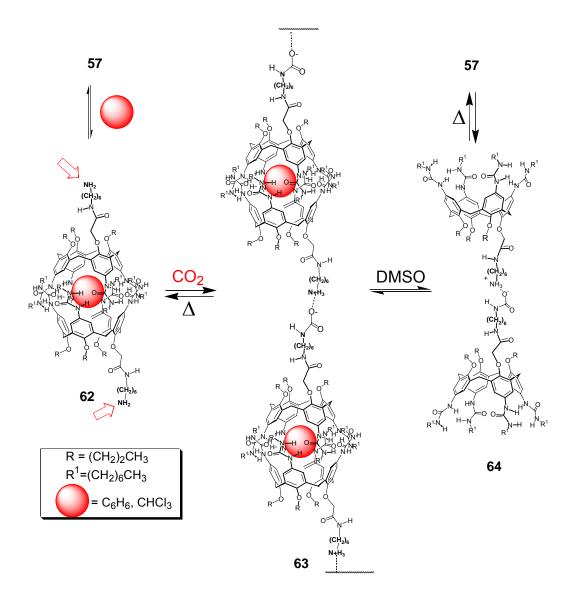


Figure 4.9 Formation and dissociation of linear supramolecular polymer 63.

OCH₂C(O)NH-substituents at the lower rims of each calixarene **57**. Moreover, the circular array of hydrogen bonds can be arranged either clockwise or counterclockwise.⁵³ Capsule **62** dissociates to monomeric tetraurea **57** in DMSO- d_6 . This results in a much simpler ¹H NMR picture, reflecting the presence of a vertical symmetry plane in **57** (Figure 4.10B). For example, three ArNHC(O) urea singlets in a

ratio 1:1:2 at δ = 8.05, 8.00, and 7.85 and three aromatic CH singlets in a ratio 2:2:4 at δ = 6.81, 6.79, and 6.61 are clearly seen in the down field region of the spectrum.

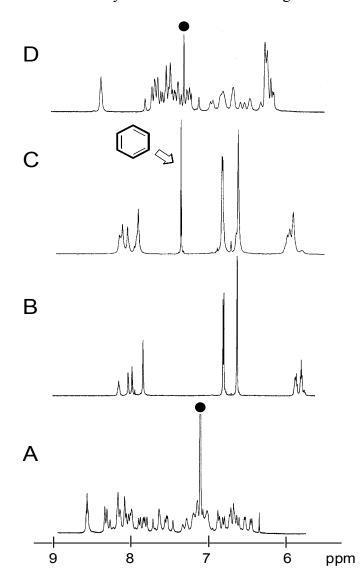


Figure 4.10 Downfield regions of ¹H NMR spectra (500 MHz, 295 ± 1 K) of: A) capsule **62** in C₆D₆. B) calixarene amine **57** in DMSO-*d*₆. C) salt **64**, prepared upon dissociation of polymer **63** in DMSO-*d*₆. For this experiment, polymer **63** was obtained upon bubbling CO₂ to a benzene solution of **57** and thus entraps benzene. The benzene signal is shown by an arrow. D) polymer **63**, obtained from CO₂ and **57** in CHCl₃-hexanes, 1:2 solution and redissolved in CDCl₃. The residual solvent signals are marked as "•".

Having two calixarene modules for assembly, compound **58** forms linear supramolecular polymers **65** in apolar solution (Figure 4.11). The viscosity experiments indicated the degree of polymerization (DP) value for its precursor **2c** was \sim 2.8 x 10² at 20 mM in chloroform solution, which corresponds to the average molar mass of \sim 7.6 x 10⁵ g/mol (see Chapter 3, Pages 54-56).

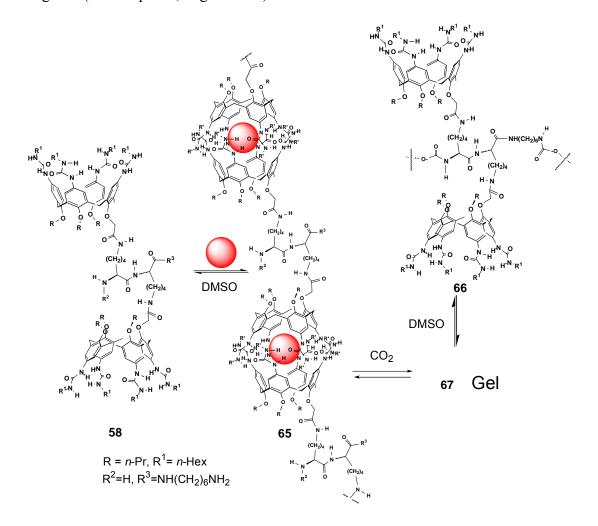


Figure 4.11 Formation and dissociation of linear supramolecular polymers **65** and cross-linked supramolecular material **67**.

4.3 Reactions with CO₂ - First Generation

Bubbling CO₂ through solution of 57 in benzene causes a rapid precipitation of carbamate-linked supramolecular material 63. This belongs to the first generation. The chains in 63 are held together by the calixarene hydrogen bonds and carbamate $CH_2N^+H_3 \bullet \bullet O^-C(O)NHCH_2$ salt bridges (Figure 4.9). Initially, one molecule of an amine reacts with CO₂ to form the corresponding carbamic acid. It is highly unstable and rapidly transfers the acidic proton to the second amine molecule, thus producing a relatively robust carbamate salt.¹⁰⁶ Formation of the carbamate bridges was confirmed by ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectroscopy. In the ¹H NMR spectrum of 57 in DMSO- d_6 , the terminal -CH₂NH₂ protons were seen as a triplet at $\delta = 2.53$ (J = 6.0 Hz). In the salt 64, which is formed upon dissociation of polymer 63 in DMSO- d_6 , these split in two 1:1 sets $-CH_2N^+H_3 \bullet \bullet O^-C(O)NHCH_2$: a triplet at $\delta = 2.58$ (J = 6.4 Hz) and an apparent multiplet at $\delta \sim 2.9$, respectively. These were assigned through NMR experiments with model alkyl amines, COSY and from the literature.¹¹² A broad carbamate NH signal was detected at $\delta \sim 6$ (¹H NMR, COSY). A resonance at $\delta \sim 160$ in the ¹³C NMR spectrum of 64 unambiguously identified the carbamic (-HN-C(O)O-) carbon atom. Notably, when amine 57 was treated with large excess of CO_2 in DMSO- d_6 , the corresponding free carbamic acid formed, which was studied by ¹H, ¹³C NMR and COSY spectroscopy. For example, the HN-COOH resonance was clearly seen at $\delta =$ 158 in the ¹³C NMR spectrum. Free carbamic acids are still rare and elusive.¹⁰⁶ Supramolecular material 63 is a colorless solid, soluble in chlorinated solvents and insoluble in aromatic solvents. It was also obtained by the CO₂-induced precipitation

from solutions of 57 in CHCl₃-hexanes, 1:2. A multiple set of downfield NH urea signals of 63, recorded in CDCl₃, clearly indicates the hydrogen bonding assembly of polymeric chains (Figure 4.10). At the same time, viscosities of capsules 62 and material 63, obtained after the reaction with CO₂, appeared to be similar (CHCl₃ and CHCl₃-benzene). These viscosities were low, apparently concentration independent (5 -25 mM range) and comparable with relative viscosities of precursor 32. Obviously, 63 is not significantly aggregated under these conditions. The dimerization constant for each calixarene capsule in 62 is high,¹⁰³ and the carbamate ammonium electrostatic interactions are also very strong in apolar solvents.¹¹⁸ These features do not allow the high concentrations of free end groups in structures 63. On the other hand, the electrostatic interaction is not directional and may offer significant flexibility to the resulting structures. We propose that for 63, oligomeric rings rather than long polymeric chains are formed upon reaction of 62 with CO₂. The double-logarithmic plots of specific viscosities η_{sp} vs concentration obtained for monomer 57 and also polymer 63 in CHCl₃ are low and show slopes of ~1. Apparently, the specific viscosities of solutions of 57 increase very regularly with concentration. According to the Cates' model,¹⁰⁴ aggregates of constant size are formed, which do not interact with each other. Due to the low viscosity, these rings may not be large.

Another effect that attributes to the low viscosity might be the equilibrium between carbamate and free amine.¹¹⁹ At low concentrations, free amine dominates in the solution. In contrast, carbamate becomes major component in high concentration. This idea was further supported by our research in the later stage.

The problem does not exist for already *preformed*, linear supramolecular polymer **58**, for which CO_2 serves as a cross-linking agent.

4.4 Reactions with CO₂ - Second Generation

Bubbling the CO_2 gas through a solution of 58 in $CHCl_3$ or benzene yields material 65, which is clearly a gel (Figure 4.11). The main chains in 65 are held together by hydrogen bonding assembly of capsules, and multiple carbamate $-N^+H_3 \cdots O^-$ C(O)NH- bridges cross-link these chains. This is clearly a three-dimensional network, since the side amine groups are oriented in all three directions. Moreover, structure 58 possesses two types of amino groups, and several possibilities for the carbamate formation exist (see for example, Figure 4.7). Model experiments with CO₂ and simpler aliphatic amines and ε -N-CBz-protected lysine showed that these reactions readily occur. Formation of the carbamate bridges was further confirmed by ¹³C NMR spectroscopy. To be sure, we used ¹³CO₂ gas and prepared the carbamate ¹³C-labeled gel 67. In the ¹³C NMR spectrum of diamine 58, prior the reaction, in DMSO- d_6 , four C=O carbonyl signals were clearly detected – three for the amide fragments at δ = 175.4, 171.7 and 169.4, and one, intense signal for the upper rim ureas at $\delta = 155.8$ (Figure 4.12a). In the spectrum of the ¹³C-labeled salt 66, which is formed upon dissociation of the ¹³C-labeled polymer 67 in DMSO- d_6 , in addition to these signals, two new singlets of high intensity appeared at $\delta = 163.5$ and 162.8 (Figure 4.12b). We attribute these to the carbamate α -HN-¹³C(O)O- and (CH₂)₆HN-¹³C(O)O- groups. Notably, these two signals disappeared after heating solution 66 for 1 h at ~100 °C and bubbling N₂ through it.

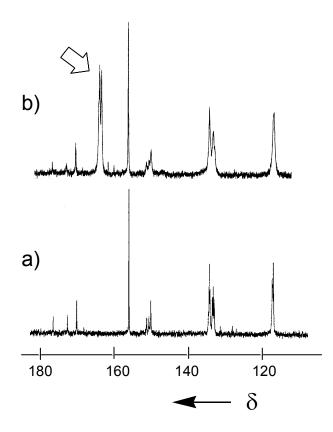


Figure 4.12 Portions of ¹³C NMR spectra (500 MHz, DMSO- d_6 , 295 ± 1 K) of: a) biscalizarene **58**. b) carbamate salt **66** obtained upon dissociation of ¹³C-labeled gel **67**. The gel was prepared from **58** and ¹³CO₂ in CHCl₃. The carbamate ¹³C-enriched signals are marked. For the corresponding ¹H NMR spectra, see Figure 4.13.

The ¹H NMR spectra of material **67** is difficult to obtain, which is obviously due to the cross-linked structure and numerous possibilities to form carbamic bridges. At the same time, the same trend as for simpler oligomer **63** can be clearly observed (compare Figure 4.13 with Figure 4.10). Rather similar to capsule **62**, multiple sets of NH urea signals were seen in the corresponding ¹H NMR spectra of precursor **58** in CDCl₃; viscous polymer **65** formed (Figure 4.13a). These NH signals were characteristically shifted down field. As expected, **65** fully dissociate to monomeric **58**

in polar DMSO- d_6 (Figure 4.13b). Similar to **57**, this results in a simpler ¹H NMR spectrum, reflecting the apparent vertical symmetry plane in the molecule. Being insoluble in apolar solvents, material **67** readily dissociates in DMSO to form a mixture of carbamate salts **66**. The corresponding ¹H NMR spectrum resembles those for carbamate salt **64** (Figure 4.10c and 4.13c).

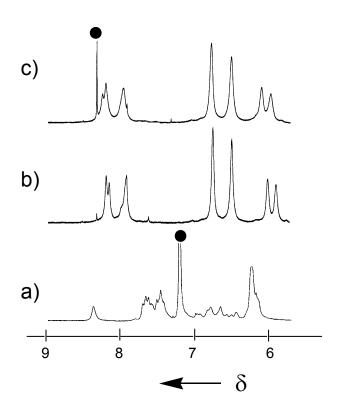


Figure 4.13. Downfield portions of ¹H NMR spectra (500 MHz, 295 ± 1 K) of: a) calixarene **58** in CDCl₃ (e.g., polymeric chain **65**). b) calixarene **58** in DMSO-*d*₆. c) salt **66**, prepared upon dissociation of polymeric gel **67** in DMSO-*d*₆. For this experiment, polymer **67** was obtained upon bubbling CO₂ to CHCl₃ solution of **58** (e.g., **65**). The CHCl₃ signal is marked as "•".

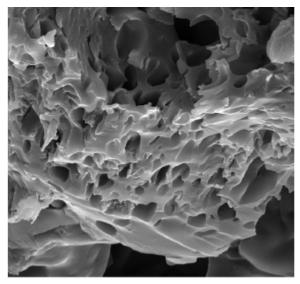
4.5 Properties

Self-assembling materials **63** and **67** exhibit unique properties. They assemble and dissipate in a two-fashion way - upon changing either the solvent polarity or temperature. The calixarene capsules completely dissociate in DMSO, so only carbamate salts **64** and **66**, respectively, can be detected (Figure 4.10c and Figure 4.13c). Salts **64** and **66**, most probably, undergo further solvolysis, generating loose ion pairs. The carbamate C-N bonds are not broken under these conditions. At the same time, they can be dismantled upon heating for 1 h at ~100 °C, thus releasing CO₂. In the case for **64**, in apolar solution monomeric capsules **62** form, and in DMSO free amine **57** is regenerated. For **66**, in apolar solution linear, hydrogen bonded polymer **65** forms, and in DMSO biscalixarene **58** is completely regenerated. In both cases, carbamate polymers **63** and **67** can be reconstructed simply by reintroducing CO₂.

Another interesting feature of materials **63** and **67** is their multiple capsules. These are already preformed in apolar solutions, but then convert into solids/gels upon exposure to CO₂. Upon this, CO₂-initiated polymerization, they trap guest molecules and transport them to the solid state. This results in *guest storing materials*.

In a preliminary test, a sample obtained from benzene and carefully dried (0.1 mm Hg, rt, 24 h), polymer **63** did not release benzene when the capsules were intact. In suspension of **63** in a solvent *p*-xylene- d_6 , no trace of benzene was detected (¹H NMR, 500 MHz), but when polymer **63** was dissolved in DMSO- d_6 , polymeric capsules dissociated and released visible quantities of benzene – approximately one bezene molecule per capsule (Figure 4.10c). We fully expect similar behavior from gel **67**.

However, in addition to be encapsulated, guest/solvent molecules are entrapped within the gel three-dimensional network¹²⁰ (see for example, Figure 4.13c).



— 20 μm

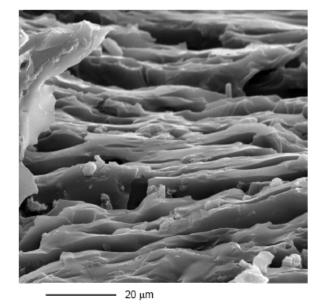


Figure 4.14. SEM pictures of xerogel 67 obtained upon bubbling CO_2 to $CHCl_3$ solution of 58 (bar 20 μ m).

To obtain visual insight into the aggregation mode and morphology in **67**, dry samples were prepared for SEM analysis. While its precursor **65** is soluble in CHCl₃, gel **67** precipitates from CHCl₃ and exhibits a three-dimensional network in SEM analysis (Figure 4.14). These pictures clearly showed numerous micro-scale pores inside the materials, which can be used for solvent and/or guest encapsulations. These encapsulation properties can lead to functional materials.

In summary, CO_2 gas was used to construct novel types of supramolecular polymers. Self-assembling nanostructures **63** and **67** were prepared, which employ both hydrogen bonding and dynamic, thermally reversible carbamate bonds. Addition of competitive solvent breaks hydrogen bonding in assembling structures **63** and **67**, but does not influence the carbamate linkers. Carbamate salts **64** and **66**, respectively were obtained. On the other hand, thermal release of CO_2 from **63** and **67** was easily accomplished (1 h, 100 °C) with retaining the hydrogen bonding capsules. Thus, threedimensional polymeric networks **67** were transformed back to linear polymeric chains **65** without their break up. Encapsulation and storage of solvent molecules by **63** and **67** were demonstrated. This opens a way to switchable materials, which reversibly trap, store and then release guest-molecules. The further applications of these materials will be discussed in the upcoming chapter.

CHAPTER 5

FUNCTIONS OF SUPRAMOLECULAR POLYMERS

In Chapter 3, we introduced a new type of peptide-based supramolecular polymer, which possesses multiple calixarene tetraurea capsules (Figure 5.1). The possibility of functionalization on the polymer chains distinguishes this polymer from the existing ones. For example, peptide backbones in the polymer can be modified to incorporate a binding site, functionalities, etc. Moreover, calixarene capsules may store smaller guest molecules. These features make the formation of our polymer not only reversible, but also functional.

In Chapter 4, we discovered that CO₂ can be incorporated into supramolecular polymers (Figure 5.2).^{114,115} Thermally reversible carbamate chemistry together with hydrogen bonding was utilized to construct a two-way switchable, three-dimensional supramolecular polymer. The resulting polymer is novel: addition of competitive solvent breaks hydrogen bonding in polymers, but does not influence the carbamate linkers. On the other hand, thermal release of CO₂ from polymers is easily accomplished with retaining the hydrogen bonding capsules. The three-dimensional polymer, freshly prepared from CHCl₃, is a gel. The gelation process simply introduced by CO₂ may offer a new way to capture molecules from solutions and then release them with thermal, concentration or solvent control.

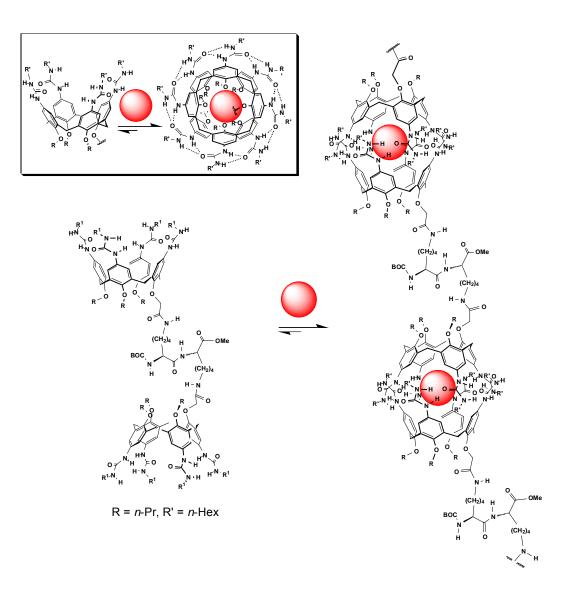


Figure 5.1 A peptide-based calixarene supramolecular polymer.

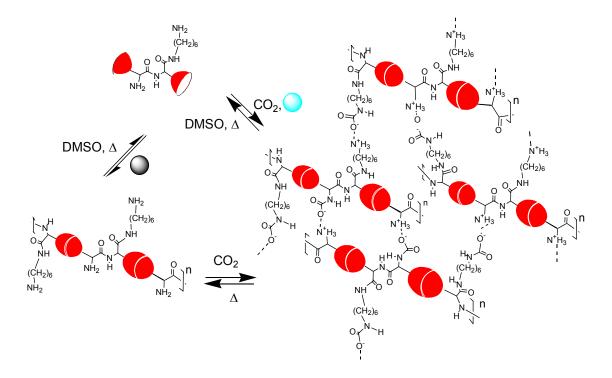


Figure 5.2 Supramolecular polymers incorporating CO₂.

After these novel types of supramolecular polymers were discovered, our attention was directed to their applications. We now discuss 1) functionalization of supramolecular polymer chains and 2) controlling capture and release of guest molecules using supramolecular polymers.

5.1 A pH Switch in Supramolecular Polymer

Here, we disclose how to switch properties of supramolecular polymers *without* breaking their unique polymeric structure. We introduce pH-switchable supramolecular polymers which take advantage of the side-chain acid-sensitive functionalities (Figure 5.3). These polymers also possess multiple self-assembling capsules and precipitate together with encapsulated guests upon lowering the solution pH.⁵⁰

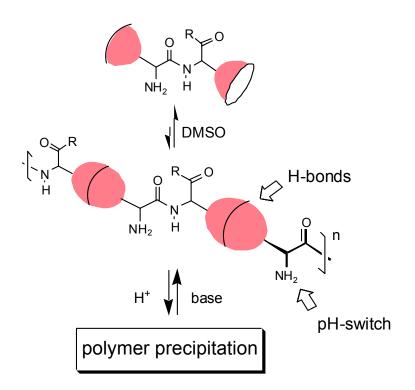
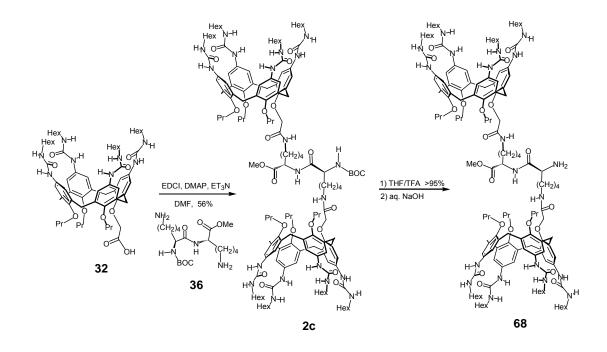


Figure 5.3 pH switchable supramolecular polymers.

In this study, we still took advantage of calixarenes as both self-assembling and cavity forming modules.^{53,54} Calix[4]arene peptide **2c** was chosen for further functionalization. According to standard peptide chemistry, either C- or N- terminus of dipeptide chain is available for modification. For the pH switchable property, biscalix[4]arene **68** was prepared, in which two calix[4]arene tetraurea moieties are stitched together with a dipeptide chain (Scheme 5.1). Combining capsules with amino acids, we employed trifunctional lysine, which possesses a carboxylic group and two amino groups of distinguishable reactivity. Calixarenes were attached to the ϵ -NH₂ ends. The dilysine module orients them away from each other, in roughly opposite

directions, and also prevents the intramolecular assembly. It also possesses a pHsensitive α -NH₂ group.



Scheme 5.1 Synthesis of amino functionalized biscalixarene 68.

Biscalix[4]arene **68** was prepared (as a TFA-salt) by a conventional peptide coupling procedure from 2 equiv of calix[4]arene tetraurea **32** and 1 equiv of di-*l*-lysine **36** (EDCI, HOBT, DMF, 56%) followed by the α -*N*-BOC deprotection (TFA, THF, >95%). The α -NH₂ group was then liberated with aq NaOH (Scheme 5.1). As expected, **68** self-assembles in apolar solution (CDCl₃, (CDCl₂)₂, benzene-*d*₆) with the formation of supramolecular polymer **69** (Figure 5.3, Figure 5.4, and viscosity measurements for its precursor see: Chapter 3, Pages 54-56). Due to the lack of symmetry, a multiple set of NH urea signals were observed in the ¹H NMR spectra of **69** in CHCl₃, (CDCl₂)₂ and

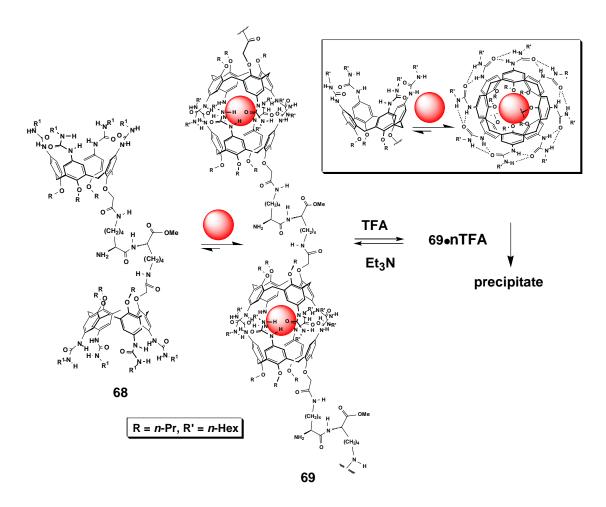


Figure 5.4 Switchable transformations with polymeric capsules 69.

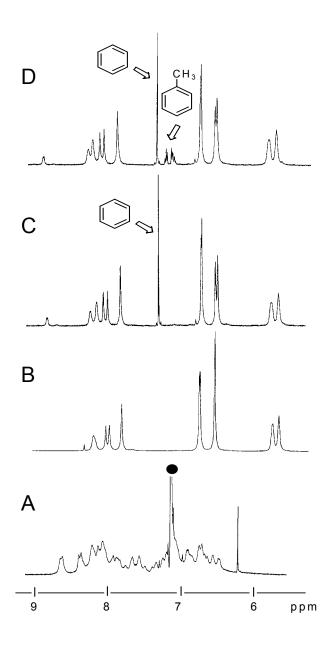


Figure 5.5 Selected downfield portions of the ¹H NMR spectra (500 MHz, 295±1 K) of: A) polymer **69** in benzene- d_6 ; B) biscalizarene **68** in DMSO- d_6 ; C) polymer (**69**•TFA•Benzene)_n obtained from **69** in benzene upon addition of TFA, in DMSO- d_6 ; D) polymer (**68**•TFA•Benzene•Toluene)_n obtained from **69** in benzene-toluene, 2:1 upon addition of TFA, in DMSO- d_6 . The residual benzene peak is marked (•). Arrows mark the entrapped benzene and toluene signals.

benzene- d_6 . These were shifted downfield (~2 ppm), which is a characteristic feature of capsule formation (for example, Figure 5.5A). Both proximal and distal regioisomers of **69** can form, with respect to the orientation of the acetamide-OCH₂C(O)NH-substituents at the lower rims of each calixarene **68**. Capsules **69** dissociate to monomeric dipeptide **68** in DMSO- d_6 (for example, Figure 5.5B). This results in a simpler ¹H NMR picture, reflecting the presence of a vertical symmetry plane in **68**.

Addition of 5-7 equiv of trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) to the benzene solution of **69** (e.g., (**69**•Benzene)_n) results in instant precipitation of material **69**•nTFA (Figure 5.4). Obviously, the-NH₂ groups in **69** become protonated, and the insoluble TFA-salt formed. Being a proton donor, TFA can strongly compete for hydrogen bond acceptors and cause the capsule dissociation. We determined, that at \leq 20 equiv TFA per capsule, \leq 30% dissociation occurs (Figure 5.6). Accordingly, a pH-switch can be provided at low concentrations of acids without breaking the self-assembling polymeric chain.

Polymer **69**•nTFA is a colorless solid, which readily dissolves in chlorinated solvents, DMSO, DMF, and insoluble in aromatic solvents. A multiple set of the down field NH urea signals of **69**•nTFA, recorded in CDCl₃ and (CDCl₂)₂, clearly indicates the hydrogen bonding assembly of polymeric chains. Likewise **69**, capsules **69**•nTFA dissociate to monomers **68**•TFA in DMSO- d_6 . Indeed, once the cyclic hydrogen bonds

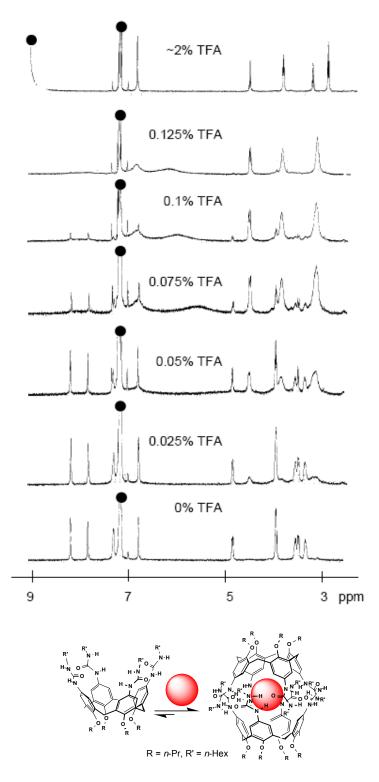


Figure 5.6 TFA titration of model calixarene capsule.

are broken, the apparent plane of symmetry in the calixarene fragment is restored. On the other hand, addition of Et_3N to the suspension of **69**•nTFA in benzene quickly regenerates **69**, which dissolves without dissociation of the capsules.

Polymer **69** exhibits unique properties. Similar to other hydrogen bonding supramolecular polymers, it assembles and dissipates upon varying the solvent polarity. At the same time, it changes aggregation properties upon pH changes with the polymeric chains remaining intact.

The most interesting feature of material **69** is, probably, in its capsules. These are already preformed in apolar solution, but precipitates as the salt **69**•nTFA only upon protonation. While precipitating, they capture and store guest/solvent molecules. Thus, polymer **69** entraps benzene already in solution, upon the capsules' formation, and then precipitates with it as **69**•nTFA. The benzene is protected inside the capsules. In a preliminary test, obtained from benzene and carefully dried (0.1 mm Hg, rt, 24 h) material **69**•nTFA did not release the guest when the capsules were intact. In a suspension of this polymer in noncompetitive *p*-xylene-*d*₁₀, no traces of benzene were detected, but when DMSO-*d*₆ was applied, the capsule dissociated and released visible quantities of benzene – approximately one benzene per capsule (Figure 5.5C). Both benzene and toluene were analogously entrapped upon precipitation from the mixture of these solvents (Figure 5.5D). The guest escape may be arranged even without the dissociation. Indeed, when redissolved in CDCl₃ or (CDCl₂)₂, polymer **69**•nTFA releases benzene simply because the solvent now competes for the cavities.

In summary, a pH-switch has been demonstrated, resulting in precipitationdissolution of polymeric self-assembling capsules and trapping guest molecules inside. In principle, redox-, temperature-, light- and other switching processes can also be involved.¹²¹ The most immediate applications, however, are in encapsulation. Our findings thus open an opportunity to construct materials which reversibly trap and store molecules.

5.2 Fluorescent, Cross-linked Carbamate Supramolecular Polymers

In chapter 4, we introduced a strategy to build *two-parameter* switchable supramolecular polymers/networks, which utilize hydrogen bonding *and* dynamic chemistry between CO_2 and primary amines (e.g. carbamate chemistry). We employed CO_2 as a cross-linking agent. Linear, hydrogen bonding polymeric chains were reversibly converted into robust three-dimensional networks by simply introducing and thermally releasing CO_2 . Here, we address *functionalization* of such supramolecular polymers and networks and demonstrate the preparation of switchable supramolecular materials with fluorescent properties (Figure 5.7).¹²²

Monomeric units **73** were designed, which *a*) strongly aggregate in apolar solution with the formation of polymeric, hydrogen bonding capsules **74**, *b*) possess a CO_2 -philic primary amino group on the periphery, and *c*) functionalized with a fluorophore (Scheme 5.2). The CO_2 -philic amino groups were introduced roughly perpendicular to the main self-assembling chain **74**. In apolar solvent, once CO_2 is added, multiple carbamate bridges form and result in three-dimensional supramolecular networks with multiple fluorophores. Addition of competitive solvent breaks self-

assembly but not the carbamate linkers. Thermal release of CO_2 can be easily accomplished, but it does not influence the noncovalent aggregates, and the capsules do not dissociate.

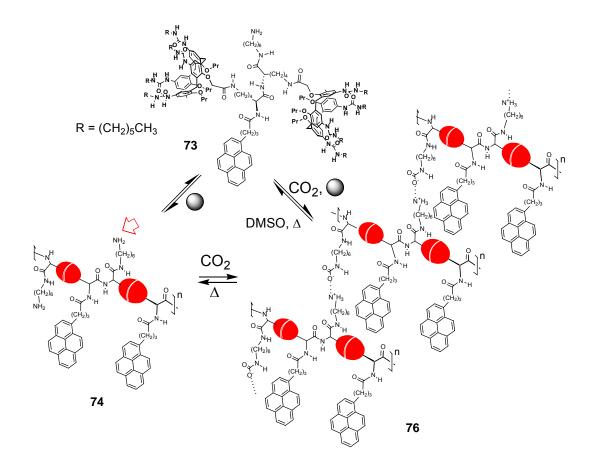
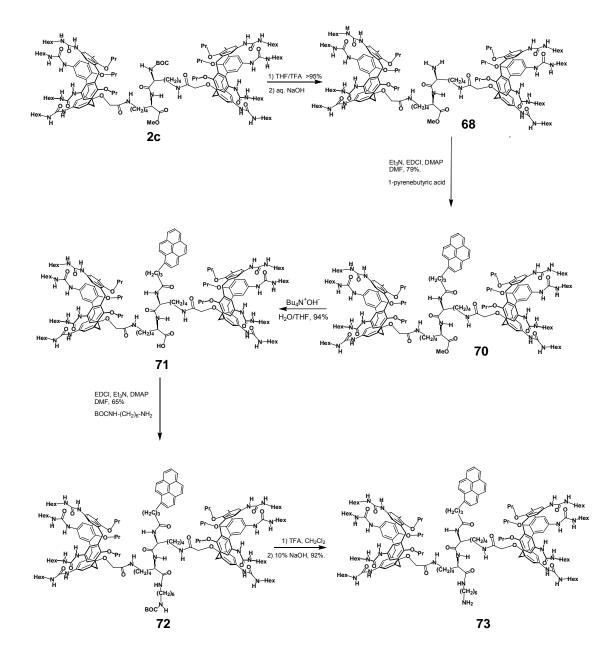


Figure 5.7 Fluorescent, carbamate cross-linked supramolecular network.

Our synthetic strategy is based on modular combination of calixarene building blocks with amino acids and short peptides. This allows for a great flexibility in the construction of multifunctional nanostructures.



Scheme 5.2 Synthetic approach towards pyrene functionalized biscalixarene 73.

In short, biscalixarene dipeptide 2c was quantitative deprotected with TFA in THF in quantitative yield and subsequently washed with aq NaOH. 1-Pyrenebutyric acid was introduced through the EDCI coupling (Et₃N, DMAP, DMF) with the formation of derivative **70** in 79% yield. In the next step, the methyl ester was hydrolyzed with Bu₄N⁺OH⁻ (H₂O/THF, 94%), and BOCNH-(CH₂)₆-NH₂ was then attached (EDCI, Et₃N, DMAP, DMF), resulting in biscalixarene **72** in 65% yield. The terminal BOC-protecting group was then cleaved (TFA, CH₂Cl₂) in quantitative yield, and the amino group was liberated with aq NaOH for the subsequent reaction with CO₂.

We previously established a strong tendency for biscalixarene dipeptides, such as **2c** and its structural relatives, to polymerize through hydrogen bonding (see Chapter 3, Pages 54-56). Similar behavior is fully expected for the structurally related biscalixarene **73**, which is only modified on the periphery.

Aggregation of **73** and its immediate precursor **72** was studied in detail by ¹H NMR spectroscopy. Biscalixarenes **73** and **72** exhibit quite simple and resolved spectra in DMSO- d_6 and more complex and broad spectra in CDCl₃. Such difference implies supramolecular polymerization in apolar media. The chemical shifts for the upper rim urea NH signals in **73** and **72** are in the same region as for model **1g** in both solvents (Figure 5.8).

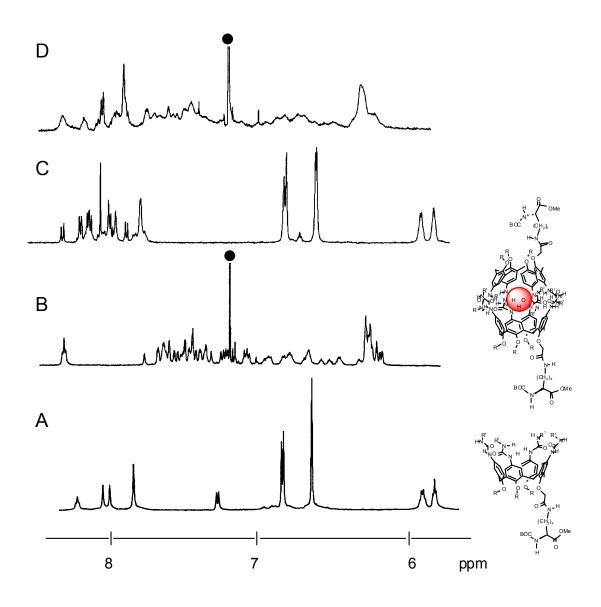


Figure 5.8 Downfield portions of ¹H NMR spectra (500 MHz, 295 ±1 K) of: (A) calixarene **1g** in DMSO- d_6 ; (B) capsule**1g**•**1g** in CDCl₃, only one regioisomer is depicted; (C) biscalixarene **72** in DMSO- d_6 ; (D) polymeric **72**_n in CDCl₃. Spectra of **73** and **74** are similar to those of **72** and **72**_n, respectively. The residual solvent signals are marked with a "•".

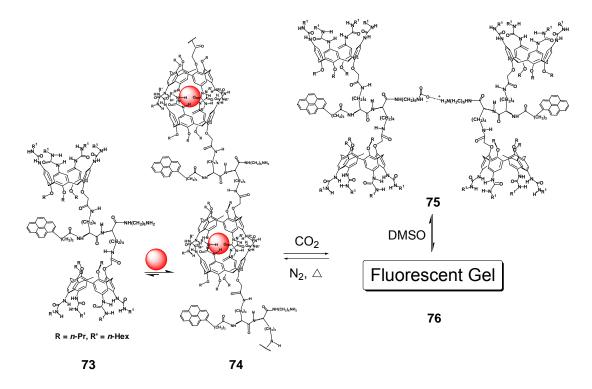


Figure 5.9 Reaction between biscalixarene 73 and CO_2 . Formation of carbamate crosslinked supramolecular polymer 76 and its dissociation to carbamate 75.

Bubbling CO₂ gas through solutions of **73** (e.g., **74**) in benzene or benzene-CHCl₃ yields material **76**, which is an insoluble gel (Figure 5.7 and 5.9). The main chains in **76** are held together by hydrogen bonding assembly of capsules, and multiple carbamate $-NH^+_3\cdots O^-C(O)NH$ - bridges cross-link these chains. The result is a threedimensional network, since the side amine groups are oriented in all three dimensions.

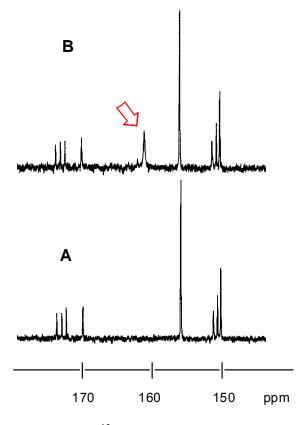
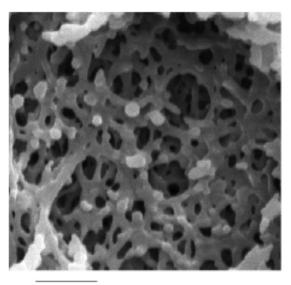


Figure 5.10 Downfield portions of ¹³C NMR spectra (500 MHz, DMSO- d_6 , 295 ±1 K) of (A) biscalixarene **73**; (B) carbamate salt **75** obtained upon dissociation of ¹³C-labeled gel **76**. The gel was prepared from **73** and ¹³CO₂ in benzene. The carbamate ¹³C-enriched signal is marked.

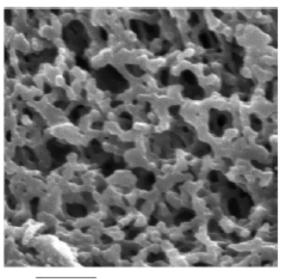
Formation of the carbamate bridges was confirmed by ¹³C NMR spectroscopy. Using ¹³CO₂ gas, we prepared the carbamate ¹³C-labeled gel **76**. In the ¹³C NMR spectrum of biscalixarene **73**, prior to the reaction with the gas, in DMSO- d_6 five C=O carbonyl signals were clearly detected — four for the amide fragments at 172.9, 172.0 171.6, and 169.3 ppm, and one, intense signal for the upper rim ureas at 155.8 ppm (Figure 5.10A). In the spectrum of the ¹³C-labeled salt **75**, which is formed upon dissociation of the ¹³C -labeled polymer **76** in DMSO- d_6 , in addition to these signals, a new singlet of higher intensity appeared at 160.7 ppm (Figure 5.10B). This is attributed to the carbamate $HN^{-13}C(O)O^{-1}$ group. The signal disappeared after heating solution 75 for 1 h at ~100 °C and bubbling N₂ through it.

Gel 76 can assemble and disassemble in two ways - either upon changing the solvent polarity or temperature. The calixarene capsules completely dissociate in DMSO with the formation of carbamate salt 75. It, most probably, undergoes further solvolysis, generating loose ion pairs. The carbamate C-N bonds are not broken under these conditions. At the same time, they can be destroyed upon heating for 1 h at ~100°C, thus releasing CO₂. In the case of apolar solutions, linear hydrogen bonded polymer 74 forms, and in DMSO biscalixarene 73 is completely regenerated. Gel 76 can be reconstructed simply by reintroducing CO₂ (Figure 5.9).

Further insight into the aggregation mode and morphology in material **76** was obtained with scanning electron microscopy (SEM). For this, freeze-dried samples, xerogels **76** were obtained from **73** and CO₂ in benzene and benzene-nitrobenzene, 95:5. The three-dimensional network in the xerogels is obvious (Figure 5.11). Of particular interest are well-defined pores of ~1-3 μ m diameter, which can be used for guest/solvent entrapment.



5 µm



5 µm

Figure 5.11 SEM pictures of xerogels **76** obtained upon bubbling CO_2 to benzene (left) and benzene-nitrobenzene 95:5 (right) solutions of **73** (bar 5 μ m).



Figure 5.12 Xerogels 76 obtained upon bubbling CO_2 to benzene (left) and benzenenitrobenzene, 95:5 (right) solutions of 73.

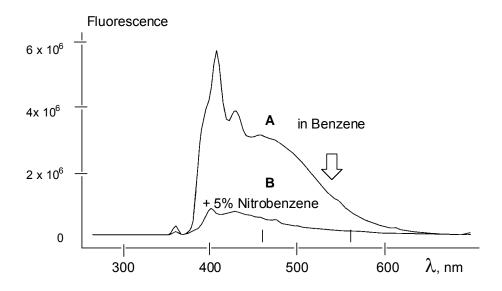


Figure 5.13 Fluorescence measurements with gels **76** obtained upon bubbling CO₂ to benzene (A) and benzene-nitrobenzene, 95:5 (B) solutions of **73** ($\lambda_{ex} = 347$ nm).

Material **76** possesses multiple fluorophore units, brought together through hydrogen bonding and carbamate bridges, and thus may act as a vehicle for energy migration.¹²³ The aggregation degree and therefore the fluorophore local concentrations can be controlled and switched on-off, as described earlier. In the preliminary photophysical experiments, we noticed a striking contrast in fluorescent behavior of xerogels **76**, obtained from benzene and benzene-nitrobenzene, 95:5 solutions (Figure 5.12 and 5.13). The former is strongly fluorescent ($\lambda_{ex} = 347$ nm), but the latter is not. Nitrobenzene is known to quench fluorescence of pyrene.¹²⁴ Incorporated within the gel's pores, molecules of nitrobenzene appear in close proximity to the multiple pyrene donors, and the energy transfer effectively occurs. This observation could be useful in the design of switchable light harvesting materials.

In summary, CO₂ can now be used to build switchable, supramolecular polymeric materials and gels. These can be further functionalized. Exploring on-off photophysics and mechanical properties of such gels is of great interest. Incorporating other functionalities within the dynamic three-dimensional networks, such as capsules, ionophores, catalytic sites, polymerizable groups for covalent cross-linking, etc is also possible. Using above approaches and given highly diverse peptide synthesis, the capabilities to build multifunctional self-assembling materials beyond the present limits of supramolecular chemistry.

5.3 Controlling Capture and Release of Guests from Cross-linked Supramolecular Polymers

Our cross-linked, three-dimensional supramolecular networks **67**, that simultaneously utilize two different forces: hydrogen bonding and reversible chemistry between CO_2 and amines, can be used to capture, store, and release guests (Figure 5.14).¹²⁵ A number of cross-linked supramolecular polymers are known; however, they have not been used for guest entrapment and release.^{126,127} Our results thus offer opportunities for the design of switchable, three-dimensional supramolecular polymers for molecular storage.

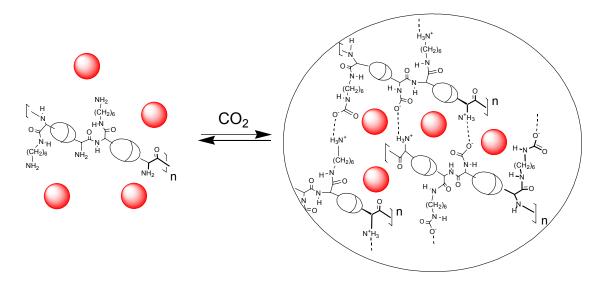


Figure 5.14 Two-parameter guest release in cross-linked supramolecular polymers, a general cartoon.

The synthesis and characterization of the supramolecular polymers **67** are described in Chapter 4. Briefly, two calix[4]arene tetraureas are attached to a dipeptide, dilysine chain. Calix[4]arene tetraureas are popular self-assembling modules that form well-defined hydrogen bonded dimers in apolar solution. Such design leads to very long

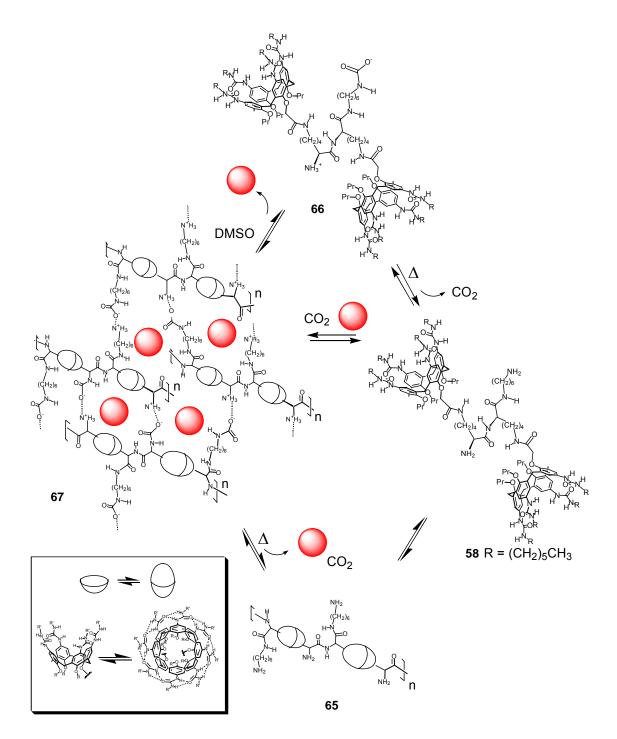


Figure 5.15 Biscalix[4]arene **58** forms supramolecular polymer chains **65** in apolar solution, which can be cross-linked with CO_2 into supramolecular polymer gels **67**. Solvents and other organic guests can be trapped, stored and released from **67** upon changing solvent polarity, temperature, pH and/or concentration.

supramolecular polymer chains **65** with a degree of polymerization of ~300 at NMR concentrations in CHCl₃ (see Chapter 3, Pages 54-56). Chains **65** possess "CO₂-philic" primary amino groups on the periphery. In an apolar solvent, once CO₂ is added, multiple carbamate salt bridges form and thus cross-link **65** into three-dimensional supramolecular polymer networks **67** (Figure 5.15). These are gels.

Scanning electron micrographs of freeze-dried samples or xerogels 67 revealed a highly developed three-dimensional network with defined pores and channels of ~ 5 μm (see Chapter 4, Page 79). On a molecular level, multiple voids are generated between the supramolecular polymer calixarene chains and the lysine-carbamate bridges that have dimensions of 15-20 Å. We have now discovered that when CO₂ cross-links supramolecular polymer chains 65 in the presence of organic guests of 1-1.5 nm size, gels 67 instantly entrap them. For this project, we used supramolecular gel 67 to trap commercial dyes such as Coumarin 314 77 and porphyrin 78 and employed conventional UV-vis spectrophotometry to monitor their release. At the same time, the same rules can apply for other guests of comparable dimensions. Coumarin 77 or porphyrin 78 was added to a solution of up to 4-fold excess of biscalixarene 58 in a small volume of CHCl₃ (~57 g/L, 20 mmol/L). CO₂ was bubbled through the solution for 1-2 min. Colored gels 67 were formed and then briefly washed with CHCl₃ until solvent discoloration was observed. The ¹H NMR analysis revealed that $\sim 7 \pm 1\%$ of 77 and 78 was entrapped; no selectivity was detected. The guests can be stored in dried gels indefinitely and released upon gel disassembly.

The release experiments were performed at least in triplicate (Figures 5.16 and 5.17). CHCl₃ was added to a round-bottom flask containing guest-stuffed gels **67** (0.5-1.3 g/L), and the mixtures were mechanically shaken for an extended time. The gel slowly dissolved, releasing the dyes.

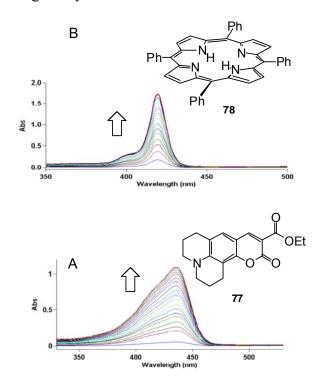


Figure 5.16 UV-vis spectra of coumarin 77 (A) and porphyrin 78 (B) in CHCl₃.

Samples were taken every 1-3 min, and increased absorptions of coumarin 77 at $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 434$ nm and porphyrin 78 at $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 420$ (Soret-band) and 552 nm (Q-band) were monitored (Figure 5.16). Under these conditions at 25 °C, coumarin 77 was completely released within 40 min, and porphyrin 78 was released after 20 min. From these experiments, the release rates of 0.12 and 0.24 mmol/min, respectively, were

determined (Figure 5.17A). These are much slower than simple dissolution of **77** and **78** under the same conditions, which occurs within seconds (> 40 mmol/min).

The release appears to be concentration dependent, and using smaller volumes of CHCl₃ significantly slows it down. For example, when 40 times less CHCl₃ (20 mg/mL compared to 0.5 mg/L) was used, the ~5-fold rate decrease (0.05 mmol/min) for porphyrin **78** was observed (Figure 5.17B).

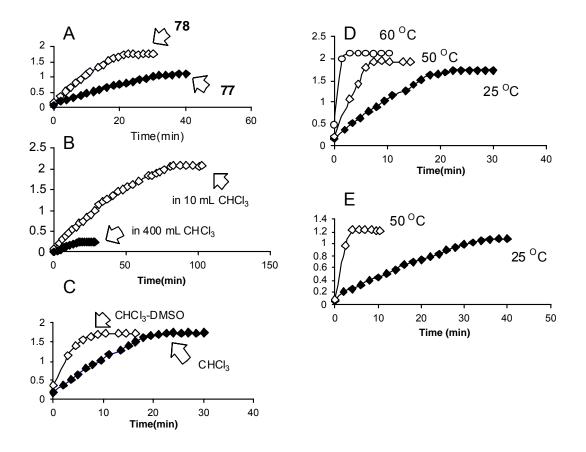


Figure 5.17 (A) Release curves of 77 and 78 at 25 °C at 0.5-1.3 mg/mL of 67 in CHCl₃. (B) Release of porphyrin 78 in CHCl₃ at 0.5 mg/mL (black squares) and 20 mg/mL (white squares) at 25 °C. (C) Release of porphyrin 78 in CHCl₃ (black squares) and CHCl₃-DMSO 1:1 (white squares) at 25 °C at 0.5 mg/mL of 67. (D) Release of porphyrin 78 at 25, 50, and 60 °C at 0.5 mg/mL of 67. (E) Release of coumarin 77 at 25 and 50 °C at 1.3 mg/mL of 67.

In addition to simple diffusion, the dissociation of carbamate salt bridges and release of CO₂ are responsible for such concentration effects. Release of CO₂ was confirmed by ¹³C NMR spectroscopy. In the ¹³C NMR spectrum of monomer 58 in DMSO- d_6 , four C=O carbonyl signals were observed, three for the amide fragments at 175.4, 171.7, and 169.4 ppm and an intense signal for the upper rim ureas at 155.8 ppm (Figure 5.18). Using ${}^{13}CO_2$ gas, we prepared the carbamate ${}^{13}C$ -labeled gel 67. In the spectrum of the ¹³C-labeled salt, formed upon dissolution of this gel in DMSO- d_6 , in addition to the amide signals, new peaks of higher intensity appeared at ~162 ppm. These are attributed to the carbamate $HN^{-13}C(O)O$ - group. The signal disappeared after diluting the mixture of 67 with larger quantities of CHCl₃ (from 3 to 300 mL for 0.2 g of 67; ~20 to ~0.2 mmol/L). That carbamate bridges can dissociate back to free amine and CO_2 in diluted apolar solution is novel. Initially, it was assumed that traces of HCl in CHCl₃ might be primarily responsible for carbamate dissociation in diluted solutions. However, in model experiments, using thorough prewashes with aq Na₂CO₃ and then water CHCl₃, the same results were obtained. Addition of HCl and TFA to the NMR samples caused slower dissociation rates than high dilution (¹³C NMR). Finally, similar concentration effects were observed for model alkylammonium carbamates in THF, MeCN, EtOAc, CH₂Cl₂, and benzene (see Appendix 47 for NMR evidence).

Faster guest release can be achieved upon increasing the solvent polarity. Addition of a competitive solvent such as DMSO breaks hydrogen bonding calixarene capsules and destroys gels **67** within minutes. At the 1:1 CHCl₃-DMSO ratio, the process reflects dissolution of the gel, and the release rates are now ~ 4 times higher for both guests (for example, Figure 5.17C).

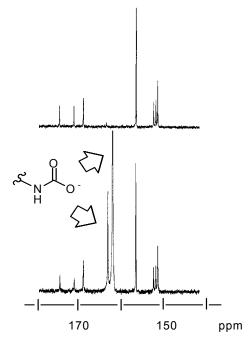


Figure 5.18 Portions of the ¹³C NMR spectra (500 MHz, DMSO- d_6) of carbamate **66** (bottom) and calixarene **58** (top), obtained upon 100-fold dilution of **67** in CHCl₃.

Alternatively, guest departure from 67 can be accomplished through the thermal release of CO₂ (Figures 5.17D and 5.17E). The process takes place in an apolar solvent, and the calixarene capsules do not dissociate. At the same time, the carbamic salt bridges break easily. At 50 °C, coumarin 77 and porphyrin 78 were completely released within 4 and 5 min, respectively. Accordingly, release rates of 1.2 and 1.0 mmol/min, respectively, were obtained. At 60 °C, the release appeared to be even faster. For example, porphyrin 78 was released within 2 min at a rate of 2.4 mmol/min. Simple diffusion at elevated temperatures may also be responsible; however, release of CO₂

under these conditions was confirmed by ¹³C NMR spectroscopy. Such rather fast dissociation of otherwise stable carbamate salt bridges was somewhat unexpected but promising. Indeed, this delicate property can now be used in dynamic covalent chemistry for the design of reversibly formed nanostructures and combinatorial libraries. Moreover, we found that traces of acids (HCl, TFA) also catalyze dissociation of carbamate bridges in **67**.¹²⁸

In summary, we have demonstrated that carbamate-based cross-linked supramolecular polymers can serve for entrapment and switchable release of organic guests. Conventional organogels have been effectively used to trap small organic molecules; however, supramolecular polymers, with their highly directional, relatively strong, and yet reversible forces, may bring further improvements. Of particular interest are (a) the CO₂-initiated guest capture and (b) a multiparameter switch, allowing control over the release through solvent polarity, temperature, pH, concentration, etc.¹²⁹ Our results thus offer opportunities for the design of switchable, three-dimensional supramolecular polymers for molecular storage. Moreover, the use of CO₂ opens gates to environmentally responsive materials and devices.

CHAPTER 6

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

6.1 General Information

Melting points were determined on a Mel-Temp apparatus (Laboratory Devices, Inc.) and are uncorrected. ¹H, ¹³C NMR and COSY spectra were recorded at 295 ± 1 °C on JEOL Eclipse 500 MHz spectrometer. Chemical shifts were measured relative to residual non-deuterated solvent resonances. FTIR spectra were recorded on a Bruker Vector 22 FTIR spectrometer. ESI-MS spectra were obtained on a Finnigan LCQ Ion Trap apparatus. MALDI-TOF mass spectra were recorded on a delayed extraction MALDI-TOF mass spectrophotometer Voyager DE (Applied Biosystems). HRMS MALDI spectra were obtained on an Ion Spec Ultima FTMS. Elemental analysis was performed on a Perkin-Elmer 2400 CHN analyzer. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) images were obtained on JEOL 35C microscope.

All experiments with moisture- and/or air-sensitive compounds were conducted under a dried nitrogen atmosphere. For column chromatography, Silica Gel 60 Å (Sorbent Technologies, Inc.; 200–425 mesh) was used. Parent tetrahydroxycalix[4]arene¹³⁰ was prepared according to the published procedures. Molecular modeling was performed using commercial MacroModel 7.1.

6.2 Synthesis

Calixarene lysine 1a.

A solution of calix[4]arene triester monoacid chloride 26 (0.49 g, 0.50 mmol) in EtOAc (10 mL) was added under vigorous stirring to a solution of TFA salt 6 (0.20 g, 0.42mmol) and K₂CO₃ (0.58 g, 4.20 mmol) in EtOAc (10 mL) and H₂O (20 mL). The reaction mixture was stirred at rt for 3 h. The organic layer was separated and evaporated under reduced pressure. The residue was chromatographed on silica gel with THF-hexanes, 3:2 as eluents to afford **1a** (0.36 g, 65%) as a colorless solid: mp 69–70 °C; ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 8.42 (t, J = 6.4 Hz, 1H), 7.34 (m, 5H), 6.82 (s, 2H), 6.79 (s, 4H), 6.73 (s, 2H), 6.39 (d, J = 7.3 Hz, 1H), 5.15 (s, 2H), 4.89 (d, J = 13.0 Hz, 2H), 4.74 (d, J = 13.0 Hz, 2H), 4.69 (s, 2H), 4.65 (m, 4H), 4.55 (m, 1H), 4.52 (m, 2H), 4.16 (m, 2H),6H), 3.39 (m, 1H), 3.26 (m, 1H), 3.25 (d, J = 13.0 Hz, 2H), 3.21 (d, J = 13.0 Hz, 2H), 2.20 (t, J = 7.3 Hz, 2H), 1.85–1.50 (m, 6H), 1.25 (m, 19H), 1.11 (s, 9H), 1.07 (s, 18H), 1.03 (s, 9H), 0.85 (t, J = 7.5 Hz, 3H); IR (KBr): v 3377, 2954, 2868, 1754, 1651, 1547, 1480, 1193, 1070 cm⁻¹; MALDI-TOF MS, m/z 1331.9 ([M+Na⁺], calcd for C₇₉H₁₀₈N₂O₁₄Na 1332.7). Anal. calcd for C₇₉H₁₀₈N₂O₁₄: C, 72.45; H, 8.31; N, 2.14. Found: C, 72.15, H, 8.67, N, 2.40.

Calixarene lysine 1b.

A solution of monoacid chloride (0.58 g, 0.59 mmol) in 10 ml of EtOAc was added under vigorously stirring to a solution of of lysine TFA salt **10** (0.20 g, 0.49 mmol) and K₂CO₃ (0.68 g, 4.90 mmol) of EtOAc (10 mL) and H₂O (20 mL). The reaction mixture was stirred at rt for 3 hrs. The organic layer was separated and evaporated under reduced pressure. The residue was chromatographed on silica gel with THF–hexanes, 3:2 as eluents to afford **1b** (0.41 g, 67%) as a colorless solid: mp 71–72 °C; ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 8.41 (t, *J* = 6.0 Hz, 1H), 7.33 (m, 5H), 6.82 (s, 2H), 6.78 (s, 4H), 6.73 (s, 2H), 5.52 (d, *J* = 8.3 Hz, 1H), 5.11 (d, *J* = 12.4 Hz, 1H), 5.06 (d, *J* = 12.4 Hz, 1H), 4.90 (d, *J* = 12.5 Hz, 2H), 4.73 (d, *J* = 12.8 Hz, 2H), 4.70 (s, 2H), 4.63 (m, 4H), 4.50 (br s, 2H), 4.35 (m, 1H), 4.18 (m, 6H), 3.73 (s, 3H), 3.35 (m, 2H), 3.22 (m, 4H), 2.0–1.5 (m, 6H), 1.24 (m, 9H), 1.11 (s, 9H), 1.07 (s, 18H), 1.04 (s, 9H); MALDI-TOF MS, *m*/*z* 1265.2 ([M+Na⁺], calcd for C₇₃H₉₆N₂O₁₅Na 1264.6). Anal. calcd for C₇₃H₉₆N₂O₁₅: C, 70.62; H, 7.79; N, 2.26. Found: C, 70.81, H, 7.69, N, 2.53.

Calixarene lysine 1c.

A solution of monoacid chloride (0.45 g, 0.46 mmol) in 10 ml of EtOAc was added under vigorously stirring to a solution of of lysine TFA salt **11** (0.20 g, 0.38 mmol) and K_2CO_3 (0.53 g, 3.80 mmol) in EtOAc (10 mL) and H₂O (20 mL). The reaction mixture was stirred at rt for 3 hrs. The organic layer was separated and evaporated under reduced pressure. The residue was chromatographed on silica gel with THF–hexanes, 3:2 as eluents to afford **1c** (0.33 g, 64%) as a colorless solid: mp 70–72 °C; ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 8.43 (t, *J* = 6.0 Hz, 1H), 7.34 (m, 7H), 7.01 (d, *J* = 8.7 Hz, 2H), 6.82 (s, 2H), 6.77 (s, 4H), 6.73 (s, 2H), 5.62 (d, *J* = 8.3 Hz, 1H), 5.13 (d, *J* = 12.3 Hz, 1H), 5.09 (d, *J* = 12.3 Hz, 1H), 4.88 (d, *J* = 12.4 Hz, 2H), 4.75 (d, *J* = 12.9 Hz, 2H), 4.70 (s, 2H), 4.62 (m, 4H), 4.55 (m, 1H), 4.52 (d, J = 2.8 Hz, 2H), 4.17 (m, 6H), 3.44 (m, 1H), 3.39 (m, 1H), 3.24 (d, J = 13.2 Hz, 2H), 3.22 (d, J = 13.2 Hz, 2H), 2.1–1.5 (m, 6H), 1.30 (s, 9H), 1.24 (m, 9H), 1.11 (s, 9H), 1.07 (s, 18H), 1.04 (s, 9H); MALDI-TOF MS, m/z 1382.9 ([M+Na⁺], calcd for C₈₂H₁₀₆N₂O₁₅Na 1382.7). Anal. calcd for C₈₂H₁₀₆N₂O₁₅: C, 72.43; H, 7.86; N, 2.06. Found: C, 72.12, H, 7.74, N, 1.94.

Calixarene lysine 1d.

A solution of calix[4]arene triester monoacid chloride 26 (0.91 g, 0.92 mmol) in EtOAc (10 mL) was added under vigorous stirring to a solution of TFA salt 14 (0.20 g, 0.77 mmol) and K₂CO₃ (1.06 g, 7.70 mmol) in EtOAc (10 mL) and H₂O (20 mL). The reaction mixture was stirred at rt for 3 h. The organic layer was separated and evaporated under reduced pressure. The residue was chromatographed on silica gel with THF-hexanes, 1:1 as eluents to afford 1d (0.58 g, 62%) as a colorless solid: mp 74–75 °C; $[\alpha]_D^{23} = -2.8$ (*c* = 0.02, EtOH); ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 8.37 (t, *J* = 6.0 Hz, 1H), 6.82 (s, 2H), 6.78 (s, 4H), 6.73 (s, 2H), 5.13 (d, J = 8.3 Hz, 1H), 4.89 (d, J = 12.5 Hz, 2H), 4.74 (d, J = 12.8 Hz, 2H), 4.70 (s, 2H), 4.63 (m, 4H), 4.53 (s, 2H), 4.28 (m, 1H), 4.19(m, 6H), 3.72 (s, 3H), 3.37 (m, 2H), 3.24 (d, J = 12.8 Hz, 2H), 3.21 (d, J = 12.8 Hz, 2H), 1.88 (m, 1H), 1.65 (m, 3H), 1.42 (s, 9H), 1.28 (m, 9H), 1.11 (s, 9H), 1.07 (s, 18H), 1.01 (s, 9H); FTIR (KBr): v 3382, 2961, 2869, 1755, 1720, 1673, 1480, 1363, 1194, 1128, 1069 cm⁻¹; MALDI-TOF MS, m/z 1229.9 ([M+Na⁺], calcd for C₇₀H₉₈N₂O₁₅Na 1230.5). Anal. calcd for C₇₀H₉₈N₂O₁₅: C, 69.63; H, 8.18; N, 2.32. Found: C, 69.60, H, 8.28, N, 2.48.

Calixarene lysine 1e.

A solution of benzyl ester **1a** (0.20 g, 0.15 mmol) in CH₃OH (10 mL) was mixed with 10% Pd/C (20 mg) and stirred under a hydrogen atmosphere for 4 h. The reaction mixture was filtered through Celite and concentrated in vacuo to give pure **1e** (0.18 g, 98%) as a colorless solid: ¹H NMR (CDCl₃) δ 8.62 (t, J = 6.4 Hz, 1H), 6.99 (d, J = 5.0 Hz, 1H), 6.82 (s, 2H), 6.78 (s, 4H), 6.72 (s, 2H), 5.0–4.8 (m, 2H), 4.80–4.62 (m, 8H), 4.62–4.40 (m, 2H), 4.18 (m, 6H), 3.50 (dt, J = 6.9, 6.4 Hz, 1H), 3.34 (m, 2H), 3.24 (d, J = 13.2 Hz, 2H), 3.22 (d, J = 13.2 Hz, 2H), 2.26 (t, J = 6.4 Hz, 2H), 2.00–1.15 (m, 25H), 1.11 (s, 9H), 1.07 (s, 18H), 1.04 (s, 9H), 0.85 (t, J = 6.9 Hz, 3H).

Calixarene lysine 1f.

A solution of **1b** (0.20 g, 0.16 mmol) in CH₃OH (10 mL) was treated with 10% Pd/C (20 mg) and stirred under a hydrogen atmosphere for 4 h. The mixture was filtered through Celite and concentrated in vacuo. The residue was dried under high vacuum to give 0.17 g (96%) of amine **1f** as a colorless solid. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 8.47 (t, *J* = 6.0 Hz, 1H), 6.77 (m, 8H), 4.95–4.80 (m, 2H), 4.80–4.65 (m, 4H), 4.65–4.52 (m, 4H), 4.52–4.45 (m, 2H), 4.15 (m, 6H), 3.72 (s, 3H), 3.60 (m, 1H), 3.35 (m, 2H), 3.26 (d, *J* = 12.8 Hz, 2H), 3.21 (d, *J* = 12.8 Hz, 2H), 2.0–1.5 (m, 6H), 1.24 (m, 9H), 1.12 (s, 9H), 1.07 (s, 9H), 1.04 (s, 9H), 1.02 (s, 9H).

N-α-BOC-*N*-ε-(calix[4]arenetetraurea)-*l*-lysine, Methyl Ester 1g.

To an ice-cooled solution of N- α -BOC-*l*-lysine methyl ester 14 (0.26 g, 1.00 mmol) in DMF (30 mL) were added calixarene tetraurea acid 32 (1.19 g, 1.00 mmol), DCC (0.41 g, 2.00 mmol), and HOBt (0.27 g, 2.00 mmol). The mixture was allowed to stir for 30 min at 0 °C and for 24 h at rt, filtered, concentrated, diluted with CHCl₃, and washed successively with 1 N NaHSO₄ (4 \times 100 mL), water (3 \times 100 mL), 1 N NaHCO₃ (4 \times 100 mL), and again water (3 \times 100 mL). The organic layer was then dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and evaporated. The residue was chromatographed on silica gel eluting with CHCl₃-CH₃OH, 95:5 to afford calix[4]arene amino acid 1g (1.00 g, 70%). ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6) δ 8.21 (t, J = 5.7 Hz, 1H), 8.03 (s, 1H), 7.99 (s, 1H), 7.83 (s, 2H), 7.24 (d, J = 7.6 Hz, 1H), 6.82 (s, 2H), 6.81 (s, 2H), 6.61 (s, 4H), 5.9 (m, 2H), 5.77 (t, J= 5.0 Hz, 2H), 4.37 (d, J = 8.0 Hz, 2H), 4.32 (d, J = 12.8 Hz, 2H), 4.26 (d, J = 12.8 Hz, 2H), 4.0 (m, 1H), 3.76 (t, J = 7.3 Hz, 4H), 3.71 (t, J = 7.3 Hz, 2H), 3.61(s, 3H), 3.2 (m, 2H), 3.0 (m, 12H), 1.80 (m, 6H), 1.65 (m, 2H), 1.50 (m, 2H), 1.37 (s, 9H), 1.23 (m, 34H), 0.87 (t, J = 7.3 Hz, 21H); FTIR (KBr): v 3332, 2930, 2859, 1654, 1559, 1474, 1219 cm⁻¹; MALDI-FTMS m/z 1419.9255 [(M + H)⁺, calcd for C₇₉H₁₂₃N₁₀O₁₃ 1419.9265]. Anal. Calcd for C₇₉H₁₂₂N₁₀O₁₃: C, 66.83; H, 8.66; N, 9.86. Found: C, 66.44, H, 8.76, N, 9.67.

Calixarene dipeptide 2a.

Procedure 1. To a stirred and ice-cooled solution of calix amino acid derivative 1e (0.15 g, 0.14 mmol) in DMF (15 mL) was added successively 1f (0.17 g, 0.14 mmol), HOBT (0.04 g, 0.28 mmol), and DCC (0.06 g, 0.28 mmol). The mixture was stirred for 30 min at 0 °C and then for 36 h at rt. The mixture was filtered, concentrated, diluted with EtOAc (200 mL), and washed successively with 1N NaHSO₄ (4 \times 50 mL), water (3 \times 50 mL), 1N NaHCO₃ (4 \times 50 mL), and again water (3 \times 50 mL). The organic layer was then dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and evaporated. The residue was chromatographed on silica gel eluting with THF-hexanes, 7:3 to afford calix-peptide 2a (two diastereomers, 1:1, 0.15 g, 46%) as a colorless solid: mp 97-98 °C; FTIR (KBr): v 3378, 2959, 2868, 1752, 1671, 1540, 1474, 1369, 1297, 1191, 1124, 1066 cm⁻¹; ^{1}H NMR (DMSO- d_6 , one diastereomer is shown): δ 8.30 (d, J = 7.8 Hz, 1H), 8.10 (m, 2H), 7.89 (d, J = 8.0 Hz, 1H), 6.84 (m, 16H), 4.85–4.75 (m, 4H), 4.70–4.50 (m, 16H), 4.36 (m, 4H), 4.22 (m, 1H), 4.13 (m, 12H), 3.62 (s, 3H), 3.40–3.15 (m, 12H), 2.11 (m, 2H), 2.0–1.1 (m, 40H), 1.05 (m, 72H), 0.85 (t, J = 7.7 Hz, 3H); ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6 , the other diastereomer): δ 8.26 (d, J = 7.8 Hz, 1H), 8.10 (m, 2H), 7.87 (d, J = 8.0 Hz, 1H), 6.84 (m, 16H), 4.85–4.75 (m, 4H), 4.70–4.50 (m, 16H), 4.36 (m, 4H), 4.22 (m, 1H), 4.13 (m, 12H), 3.61 (s, 3H), 3.40–3.15 (m, 12H), 2.11 (m, 2H), 2.0–1.1 (m, 40H), 1.05 (m, 72H), 0.85 (t, J = 7.7 Hz, 3H); MALDI-TOF MS, m/z 2332.6 ([M+Na⁺], calcd for C₁₃₇H₁₉₀N₄O₂₆Na 2332.0).

Procedure 2. A solution of acid chloride **26** (0.37 g, 0.38 mmol) in EtOAc (10 mL) was added to a vigorously stirred solution of dipeptide **34** (0.10 g, 0.16 mmol) and K₂CO₃ (0.53 g, 3.80 mmol) in EtOAc (10 mL) and H₂O (20 mL). The reaction mixture was stirred at rt for 6 h, and the organic layer was separated and evaporated. The residue was chromatographed on silica gel eluting with THF–hexanes, 7:3 to afford **2a** (0.18 g, 49%).

Calixarene dipeptide 2b.

A solution of acid chloride **26** (0.61 g, 0.62 mmol) in EtOAc (10 mL) was added under vigorous stirring to a solution of dipeptide **36** (0.10 g, 0.26 mmol) and K₂CO₃ (0.86 g, 6.2 mmol) in EtOAc (10 mL) and H₂O (20 mL). The reaction mixture was stirred for 6 h at rt. The organic layer was separated and evaporated. The residue was chromatographed on silica gel eluting with THF–hexanes, 7:3 to afford calix dipeptide **2b** (0.27 g, 45%) as a colorless solid: mp 109–110 °C; $[a]_D^{23} = -5.1$ (c = 0.02, EtOH); ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6): δ 8.16 (d, J = 7.3 Hz, 1H), 8.11 (m, 2H), 6.96 (d, J = 6.9 Hz, 1H), 6.85 (m, 16H), 4.78 (m, 4H), 4.7–4.5 (m, 16H), 4.37 (m, 4H), 4.25 (m, 1H), 4.2–4.0 (m, 12H), 3.96 (m, 1H), 3.60 (s, 3H), 3.22 (m, 12H), 1.38 (s, 9H), 2.0–1.1 (m, 30H), 1.1–0.9 (m, 72H); FTIR (KBr): v 3333, 2959, 2864, 2358, 1752, 1673, 1540, 1475, 1368, 1300, 1190, 1125, 1056 cm⁻¹; MALDI-TOF MS, m/z 2306.8 ([M+Na⁺], calcd for C₁₃₄H₁₈₅N₄O₂₇Na 2305.9). Anal. calcd for C₁₃₅H₁₈₄N₄O₂₇: C, 70.50; H, 8.12; N, 2.45. Found: C, 70.63, H, 8.19, N, 2.61.

Biscalixarene 2c.

Calixarene tetraurea acid 32 (1.00 g, 0.84 mmol), EDCI (0.32 g, 1.68 mmol), and HOBt (0.23 g, 1.68 mmol) were added to a stirred and ice-cooled solution of dipeptide 36 (0.16 g, 0.42 mmol) in DMF (30 mL). The mixture was stirred for 30 min at 0 °C and for 24 h at RT, filtered, concentrated, diluted with CHCl₃, and washed with water (3 \times 100 mL). The organic layer was then dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and evaporated. The residue was separated chromatographically on silica gel eluting with CHCl₃/CH₃OH (9.5:0.5) to afford calix dipeptide 2c (0.64 g, 56%). mp >180 °C (decomp); ¹H NMR $(DMSO-d_6)$: δ 8.19 (m, 2H), 8.12 (d, J = 7.8 Hz, 1H), 8.02 (s, 1H), 8.01 (s, 1H), 7.97 (s, 1H), 7.96 (s, 1H), 7.81 (s, 2H), 7.80 (s, 2H), 6.79 (s, 2H), 6.78 (s, 4H), 6.77 (s, 2H), 6.59 (s, 4H), 6.58 (s, 4H), 5.84 (m, 4H), 5.76 (m, 4H), 4.33 (br s, 4H), 4.30 (d, J = 12.4Hz, 4H), 4.23 (d, J = 12.4 Hz, 4H), 3.91 (m, 1H), 3.72 (t, J = 6.9 Hz, 8H), 3.68 (t, J =6.9 Hz, 4H), 3.58 (s, 3H), 3.20 (m, 4H), 3.08-2.90 (m, 24H), 1.77 (m, 12H), 1.53 (m, 4H), 1.34 (s, 9H), 1.18 (m, 72H), 0.86 (m, 42H); 13 C NMR (DMSO- d_6): δ 173.0, 172.9, 169.3, 155.74, 155.7, 151.25, 151.2, 150.7, 150.3, 135.3, 135.16, 135.1, 135.0, 134.5, 134.46, 134.2, 134.1, 134.0, 118.8, 118.72, 118.5, 118.4, 78.5, 77.3, 76.5, 74.8, 54.5, 52.3, 32.3, 31.6, 31.4, 31.2, 30.4, 30.1, 29.9, 28.7, 26.7, 23.6, 23.4, 23.0, 22.9, 22.7, 14.5, 10.6; FTIR (KBr): v 3333, 2931, 2858, 1653, 1559, 1213, 1042, 965 cm⁻¹; MALDI-FTMS: *m/z*: calcd for C₁₅₂H₂₃₂N₂₀O₂₃Na: 2728.7491; found: 2728.7671 $[M+Na]^+$.

N-α-(*n*-Octanoyl)-*N*-ε-BOC-(\pm)-lysine 4.

A solution of *N*- ε -BOC-*l*-lysine **3** (0.50 g, 2.00 mmol) in mixture of H₂O (20 mL) and EtOAc (20 mL) was treated with *n*-octanoyl chloride (3.30 g, 20.30 mmol) and then stirred at rt for 3 h. The reaction mixture was diluted with aq HCl (5% vol, 50 mL) and CH₂Cl₂ (80 mL). The formed layers were separated. The aqueous layer was extracted by CH₂Cl₂ (3×30 mL), and the combined organic layer was then dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and evaporated. The residue was solidified with hexane, yielding pure **4** (0.57 g, 77%) as a colorless solid: mp 115–116 °C; $[\alpha]_D^{23} = 0.0$ (*c* = 0.02, EtOH); ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆): δ 7.99 (d, *J* = 7.8 Hz, 1H), 6.77 (t, *J* = 7.1 Hz, 1H), 4.12 (dt, *J* = 8.5, 7.8 Hz, 1H), 2.87 (dt, *J* = 7.6, 7.1 Hz, 2H), 2.09 (dt, *J* = 7.3, 2.5 Hz, 2H), 1.65 (m, 1H), 1.54 (m, 1H), 1.47 (m, 2H), 1.36 (s, 9H), 1.23 (m, 12H), 0.85 (t, *J* = 6.6 Hz, 3H); ¹³C NMR (DMSO-*d*₆): δ 174.5, 172.9, 156.1, 77.9, 52.2, 35.6, 31.8, 31.3, 29.6, 29.1, 29.0, 28.8, 25.8, 23.4, 22.6, 14.5; MS-EI *m/z* 371.9 (M⁺, calcd for C₁₉H₃₆N₂O₅ 372.5).

N-α-(*n*-Octanoyl)-*N*-ε-BOC-(\pm)-lysine, *O*-benzyl ester 5.

A solution of free acid 4 (0.37 g, 1.00 mmol) in THF (20 mL) was mixed with DCC (0.21 g. 1.00 mmol), catalytic amount of DMAP, and benzyl alcohol (0.13 g, 1.20 mmol). The solution was stirred at rt overnight, filtered, and concentrated in vacuo. Column chromatography on silica gel with EtOAc–CH₂Cl₂, 3:7 as an eluent afforded **5** (0.28 g, 61%) as a colorless oil: ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 7.36 (m, 5H), 6.03 (d, *J* = 7.8 Hz, 1H), 5.16 (d, *J* = 12.4 Hz, 1H), 5.12 (d, *J* = 12.4 Hz, 1H), 4.64 (dt, *J* = 7.8, 5.0 Hz, 1H),

4.51 (br s, 1H), 3.04 (dt, J = 7.3, 6.0 Hz, 2H), 2.21 (t, J = 7.3 Hz, 2H), 1.81 (m, 1H), 1.65 (m, 1H), 1.60 (m, 2H), 1.43 (s, 9H), 1.25 (m, 12H), 0.87 (t, J = 6.9 Hz, 3H); MS-EI m/z 461.8 (M⁺, calcd for C₂₆H₄₂N₂O₅ 462.6).

N- α -(*n*-Octanoyl)-(±)-lysine, *O*-benzyl ester, TFA salt 6.

A solution of **5** (0.46 g, 1.00 mmol) in THF (20 mL) was stirred with TFA (5 mL) at rt for 2 h. The reaction mixture was concentrated in vacuo to afford salt **6** (0.45 g, 94%), which was used without further purification. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 7.33 (m, 5H), 6.71 (d, J = 7.8 Hz, 1H), 5.16 (d, J = 12.4, 1H), 5.12 (d, J = 12.4 Hz, 1H), 4.55 (dt, J = 8.3, 5.0 Hz, 1H), 2.93 (m, 2H), 2.23 (t, J = 7.3 Hz, 2H), 2.0–1.0 (m, 16H), 0.87 (t, J = 6.9 Hz, 3H).

N-α-Cbz-*N*-ε-BOC-*l*-lysine, *O*-(4-*tert*-butyl)phenyl ester 9.

A solution of 7 (0.50 g, 1.30 mmol, $[\alpha]_D^{23} = -3.6$ (c = 0.03, EtOH) in dry CH₂Cl₂ (20 mL) was stirred with DCC (0.27 g, 1.3 mmol), catalytic amount of DMAP, and 4-*t*-butylphenol (0.24 g, 1.60 mmol) at rt overnight. The reaction mixture was then filtered and concentrated in vacuo. Column chromatography with EtOAc–CH₂Cl₂, 2:8 as an eluent afforded phenyl ester **9** (0.41 g, 62%) as an oil: ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 7.35 (m, 7H), 7.0 (d, J = 8.7 Hz, 2H), 5.54 (d, J = 7.3 Hz, 1H), 5.13 (s, 2H), 4.58 (m, 2H), 3.12 (m, 2H), 1.42 (s, 9H), 1.25 (s, 9H), 1.82 (m, 1H), 1.75(m, 1H), 1.40 (m, 4H).

N-α-Cbz-*l*-lysine, *O*-methyl ester, TFA salt 10.

A solution of **8** (0.39 g, 1.00 mmol) in THF (20 mL) was treated with TFA (5 mL) at rt for 2 h. The reaction mixture was concentrated in vacuo to afford pure salt **10** (0.38 g, 92%). ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 7.30 (m, 5H), 5.74 (d, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 1H), 5.06, 5.03 (2×d, *J* = 11.9 Hz, 2H), 4.26 (m, 1H), 3.69 (s, 3H), 2.89 (m, 2H), 1.75 (m, 1H), 1.62 (m, 3H), 1.36 (m, 2H); ¹³C NMR (CDCl₃): δ 173.0, 162.0 (q, *J*_{C-F} = 37.9 Hz), 156.4, 136.2, 128.6, 128.3, 128.0, 127.8, 116.9 (q, *J*_{C-F} = 308.1 Hz), 67.1, 53.7, 52.6, 39.5, 31.7, 26.8, 22.1.

N-α-Cbz-l-lysine, O-(4-tert-butyl)phenyl ester, TFA salt 11.

Prepared analogously to compound **10** in a 95% yield. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃): δ 7.35 (m, 7H), 6.96 (d, J = 8.3 Hz, 2H), 5.71 (d, J = 7.3 Hz, 1H), 5.12 (d, J = 12.4 Hz, 1H), 5.07 (d, J = 12.4 Hz, 1H), 4.50 (dt, J = 8.3, 4.1 Hz, 1H), 2.92 (m, 2H), 1.95 (m, 1H), 1.78 (m, 1H), 1.70 (m, 2H), 1.50 (m, 2H), 1.27 (s, 9H).

N-ε-Cbz-*l*-lysine, *O*-methyl ester, TFA salt 15.¹³¹

A solution of **13** (0.20 g, 0.51 mmol) in THF (15 mL) was treated with TFA (4 mL) and then stirred at rt for 2 h. The reaction mixture was concentrated in vacuo to afford salt **15** (0.15 g, 95%). ¹H NMR (CDCl₃) δ 7.30 (m, 5H), 5.16 (br s, 1H), 5.05 (s, 2H), 3.98 (m, 1H), 3.76 (s, 3H), 3.13 (m, 2H), 1.92 (m, 2H), 1.40 (m, 4H); ¹³C NMR (CDCl₃): δ 170.2, 162.0 (q, J_{C-F} = 36.0 Hz), 157.1, 136.6, 128.6, 128.2, 128.0, 127.9, 127.8, 116.4 (q, J_{C-F} = 291.7 Hz), 62.7, 53.2, 53.1, 40.4, 29.8, 29.1, 21.8.

N,*N*-α,ε -Bis-BOC-*l*-lysine, *O*-methyl ester 17.¹³²

To a solution of *l*-lysine (2.00 g, 13.70 mmol) in water–dioxane, 1:1 (40 mL) were added BOC₂O (7.50 g, 34.30 mmol) and 1N NaOH (14 mL). The reaction mixture was stirred for 6 h at rt, then concentrated till 15 mL. The pH was adjusted to 2.4 by adding aqueous NaHSO₄, and the product was extracted with EtOAc (2 × 40 mL). The solvent was evaporated to give **16** (3.37 g, 71%) as an oil: ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆): δ 6.98 (br s, 1H), 6.74 (br s, 1H), 3.83 (m, 1H), 2.86 (m, 2H), 1.35 (s, 18H), 1.7–1.1 (m, 6H). Diprotected derivative **16** (1.0 g, 2.9 mmol) was dissolved in THF (30 mL) and H₂O (6 mL), and the solution was neutralized till pH 7 with 20% aqueous Cs₂CO₃ and evaporated to dryness. The cesium salt was then stirred CH₃I (0.49 g, 3.5 mmol) in DMF (20 mL) for 2 h. Upon removal of the solvent by evaporation and treatment with H₂O (80 mL), the product was extracted with EtOAc (3 × 50 mL). The organic layer was dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and evaporated to afford methyl ester **17** (0.68 g, 65%) as an oil: ¹H NMR (CDCl₃) δ 5.10 (br s, 1H), 4.59 (br s, 1H), 4.26 (m, 1H), 3.72 (s, 3H), 3.08 (m, 2H), 1.42 (s, 18H), 2.0–1.2 (m, 6H).

N,*N*-α,ε -Bis-BOC-*l*-lysine, *O*-benzyl ester 18.¹³³

Free acid **16** (1.00 g, 2.90 mmol) was dissolved in CH₃OH (30 mL) and H₂O (6 mL), and the solution was neutralized till pH 7 with 20% aqueous Cs_2CO_3 and evaporated to dryness. The resulting cesium salt was then stirred with benzyl bromide (0.60 g, 3.5 mmol) in DMF (20 mL) for 2 h. The solution was evaporated, and the product was

partitioned between H₂O (60 mL) and EtOAc (120 mL). The organic layer was dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and evaporated to afford ester **18** (0.86 g, 68%): ¹H NMR (CDCl₃) δ 7.32 (m, 5H), 5.16, 5.10 (2×d, *J* = 11.9 Hz, 2H), 5.10 (br s, 1H), 4.57 (br s, 1H), 4.28 (dt, *J* = 7.8, 5.0 Hz, 1H), 3.04 (dt, *J* = 6.9, 6.4 Hz, 2H), 1.43 (s, 18H), 2.0–1.0 (m, 6H); ¹³C NMR (CDCl₃): δ 172.8, 156.2, 155.6, 135.5, 128.6, 128.5, 128.3, 79.8, 79.1, 67.2, 53.3, 40.1, 32.1, 29.6, 28.5, 28.4, 22.5.

l-Lysine, *O*-methyl ester, bis-TFA salt 19.

A solution of **17** (0.50 g, 1.40 mmol) in THF (20 mL) was treated with TFA (5 mL) and stirred at rt for 2 h. The reaction mixture was concentrated to afford pure **19** (0.51 g, 95%). ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6): δ 4.03 (br s, 1H), 3.75 (s, 3H), 2.75 (m, 2H), 1.77 (m, 3H), 1.6–1.3 (m, 3H); ¹³C NMR (DMSO- d_6): δ 170.6, 159.3 (q, J_{C-F} = 31.7 Hz), 117.6 (q, J_{C-F} = 298.5 Hz), 53.2, 52.3, 38.9, 30.0, 26.9, 21.8. Benzyl ester **20** was prepared analogously in 82% yield: ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6): δ 7.37 (m, 5H), 5.20 (s, 2H), 4.06 (m, 1H), 2.70 (dt, J = 8.3, 6.4 Hz, 2H), 1.78 (m, 2H), 1.50 (m, 2H), 1.37 (m, 1H), 1.26 (m, 1H); ¹³C NMR (DMSO- d_6): δ 169.9, 159.3 (q, J_{C-F} = 32.2 Hz), 135.7, 129.0, 128.8, 128.8, 117.6 (q, J_{C-F} = 298.0 Hz), 67.6, 52.2, 38.9, 30.1, 26.9, 21.7.

N-α-(n-Octanoyl)-N-ε-Cbz-(±)-lysine 22.

A solution of *N*- ϵ -Cbz-*l*-lysine **21** (0.50 g, 1.78 mmol) in water (20 mL) and EtOAc (20 mL) was treated with *n*-octanoyl chloride (2.46 g, 17.80 mmol) and stirred at rt for 3 h, after which 5% HCl (50 mL) and CH₂Cl₂ (80 mL) were added. After separation, the

aqueous layer was extracted with CH₂Cl₂ (3 × 50 mL) times, and the combined organic layers were dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and evaporated. The residue was solidified in hexane to yield **22** (0.51 g, 71%) as a colorless solid: mp 119–120 °C; $[\alpha]_D^{23} = 0.0$ (c = 0.02, EtOH); ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6) δ 12.44 (s, 1H), 7.99 (d, J = 7.8 Hz, 1H), 7.34 (m, 5H), 7.20 (t, J = 5.3 Hz, 1H), 4.99 (s, 2H), 4.12 (m, 1H), 2.96 (m, 2H), 2.08 (m, 2H), 1.65 (m, 1H), 1.51 (m, 1H), 1.46 (m, 2H), 1.35 (m, 2H), 1.21 (m, 10H), 0.84 (t, J = 6.6Hz, 3H); ¹³C NMR (DMSO- d_6) δ 174.5, 172.9, 156.6, 137.8, 128.9, 128.3, 128.2, 65.7, 52.2, 35.6, 31.8, 31.2, 29.6, 29.1, 29.0, 25.8, 23.4, 22.6, 14.5.

Calix[4]arene tetraurea monoester 31.

n-Hexyl isocyanate (1.78 mL, 12.25 mmol) was added to a solution of the tetraaminocalix[4]arene **30**¹³⁴ (2.00 g, 2.45 mmol) in dry CH₂Cl₂ (80 mL), and the reaction mixture was stirred at RT for 4 h. The solvent was removed in vacuo, and the residue was triturated with hexane to yield the tetraurea ester as a tan powder (2.72 g, 2.25 mmol, 92 %). ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆) : δ 8.06 (s, 1H), 8.05 (s, 1H), 7.81 (s, 2H), 6.87 (s, 2H), 6.84 (s, 2H), 6.53 (m, 4H), 5.88 (m, 2H), 5.69 (t, *J* = 5.0 Hz, 2H), 4.71 (s, 2H), 4.50 (d, *J* = 13.3 Hz, 2H), 4.29 (d, *J* = 12.37 Hz, 2H), 4.12 (q, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 2H), 3.75 (t, *J* = 7.8 Hz, 2H), 3.68 (t, *J* = 7.8 Hz, 2H), 3.62 (t, *J* = 7.8 Hz, 2H), 3.15-2.90 (m, 12H), 1.92 (m, 2H), 1.82 (m, 4H), 1.25 (m, 32H), 0.89 (m, 24H)

Calix[4]arene tetraurea acid 32.

A mixture of the tetraurea ester **31** (1.50 g, 1.20 mmol) and KOH (0.67 g, 12.0 mmol) in THF/H₂O, (5:1, 60 mL) was placed under reflux overnight, after which H₂O (60 mL) was added, and the pH was adjusted to 2 with aqueous HCl (1 M). The product was extracted with CHCl₃ (3 × 60 mL), the organic layer was dried over Na₂SO₄, evaporated, and recrystallized from MeOH to give tetraurea acid **32** as a yellow powder (1.13 g, 80 %): mp >300 °C; ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆): δ 8.07 (s, 1H), 8.03 (s, 1H), 7.83 (s, 2H), 6.87 (s, 4H), 6.59 (s, 4H), 5.88 (m, 2H), 5.72 (t, *J* = 5.0 Hz, 2H), 4.56 (s, 2H), 4.43 (d, *J* = 12.6 Hz, 2H), 4.27 (d, *J* = 12.6 Hz, 2H), 3.76 (t, *J* = 7.8 Hz, 2H), 3.67 (t, *J* = 7.8 Hz, 2H), 3.01 (m, 8H), 2.95 (m, 4H), 1.84 (m, 6H), 1.34 (m, 32H), 0.9 (m, 21H); ¹³C NMR (DMSO-*d*₆): δ 171.5, 155.8, 151.1, 150.4, 150.2, 135.6, 135.3, 135.1, 134.8, 134.3, 134.1, 118.7, 77.5, 77.2, 71.2, 31.7, 30.4, 30.3, 26.7, 23.1, 23.0, 22.7, 14.4, 10.8, 10.5; FTIR (KBr): v 3376, 3333, 2961, 2931, 2858, 1761, 1654, 1558, 1478, 1213 cm⁻¹; MALDI-FTMS: *m*/*z*: calcd for C₆₇H₁₀₁N₈O₁₀: 1177.7635; found: 1177.7632 [M+H]⁺.

Dipeptide 34, two diastereomers.

To a stirred and ice cooled solution of amine **23** (0.10 g, 0.38 mmol) in DMF (15 mL) was added carboxylic acid **4** (0.14 g, 0.38 mmol), HOBT (0.10 mg, 0.76 mmol), and DCC (0.16 g, 0.76 mmol). The reaction mixture was stirred for 30 min at 0°C and for 36 h at rt. The mixture was filtered, concentrated, diluted with EtOAc (200 mL) and washed successively with 1N NaHSO₄ (4×50 mL), water (3×50 mL), 1N NaHCO₃ (4

× 50 mL), and again water (3 × 50 mL). The organic layer was then dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and evaporated. The residue was chromatographed on silica gel eluting with THF–hexanes, 1:1 to afford dipeptide **33** (two diastereomers, 1:1, 0.15 g, 64%) as an oil: ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6 , one diastereomer): δ 8.23 (d, J = 7.8 Hz, 1H), 7.84 (d, J = 8.0 Hz, 1H), 6.73 (m, 2H), 4.29 (m, 1H), 4.18 (dt, J = 8.5, 5.5 Hz, 1H), 3.61 (s, 3H), 2.87 (m, 4H), 2.10 (m, 2H), 1.60 (m, 2H), 1.46 (m, 4H), 1.36 (s, 18H), 1.34 (m, 4H), 1.24 (m, 12H), 0.85 (t, J = 6.6 Hz, 3H); ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6 , the other diastereomer): δ 8.20 (d, J = 7.8 Hz, 1H), 7.82 (d, J = 8.0 Hz, 1H), 6.73 (m, 2H), 4.29 (m, 1H), 4.18 (dt, J = 8.5, 5.5 Hz, 1H), 3.60 (s, 3H), 2.87 (m, 4H), 2.10 (m, 2H), 1.60 (m, 2H), 1.46 (m, 4H), 1.36 (s, 18H), 1.34 (m, 4H), 1.24 (m, 12H), 0.85 (t, J = 6.6 Hz, 3H).

A solution of **33** (0.50 g, 0.81 mmol) in THF (20 mL) was treated with TFA (5 mL) and stirred at rt for 2 h. The reaction mixture was concentrated to afford pure **34** (two diastereomers, 1:1, 0.50 g, 96%). ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆, one diastereomer): δ 8.30 (d, *J* = 7.6 Hz, 1H), 7.95 (d, *J*=7.8 Hz, 1H), 4.22 (m, 1H), 3.62 (s, 3H), 2.75 (m, 4H), 2.10 (m, 2H), 1.60 (m, 2H), 1.48 (m, 4H), 1.34 (m, 4H), 1.25 (m, 12H), 0.85 (t, *J* = 6.6 Hz, 3H); ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆, the other diastereomer): δ 8.28 (d, *J* = 7.6 Hz, 1H), 7.93 (d, *J*=7.8 Hz, 1H), 4.22 (m, 1H), 2.10 (m, 2H), 1.42 (m, 1H), 3.61 (s, 3H), 2.75 (m, 4H), 2.10 (m, 2H), 1.60 (m, 2H), 1.48 (m, 4H), 1.34 (m, 4H), 1.34 (m, 4H), 1.34 (m, 4H), 1.34 (m, 2H), 1.60 (m, 2H), 1.48 (m, 4H), 2.10 (m, 2H), 1.60 (m, 2H), 1.48 (m, 4H), 1.34 (m, 4H), 2.10 (m, 2H), 1.60 (m, 2H), 1.48 (m, 4H), 1.34 (m, 4H), 2.10 (m, 2H), 1.60 (m, 2H), 1.48 (m, 4H), 1.34 (m, 4H), 1.34 (m, 4H), 2.10 (m, 2H), 1.60 (m, 2H), 1.48 (m, 4H), 1.34 (m, 4H), 1.34 (m, 4H), 2.10 (m, 2H), 1.60 (m, 2H), 1.48 (m, 4H), 1.34 (m, 4H), 1.34 (m, 4H), 1.25 (m, 12H), 0.85 (t, *J* = 6.6 Hz, 3H).

Dipeptide 36.

To a stirred and ice-cooled solution of N-E-Cbz-L-lysine TFA salt 15 (1.00 g, 2.45 mmol) in DMF (30 mL), Et₃N (0.34 mL, 2.45 mmol) was added. Then, after 15 min, acid N-a-Boc-N-E-Cbz-L-lysine 12 (0.93 g, 2.45 mmol), HOBt (0.66 g, 4.90 mmol), and DCC (1.01 g, 4.90 mmol) were successively added. The mixture was stirred for 30 min at 0 °C and for 24 h at RT, then filtered, concentrated under reduced pressure, diluted with EtOAc (200 mL), and washed successively with 1 N NaHSO₄ (4×50 mL), water $(3 \times 50 \text{ mL})$, 1 N NaHCO₃ $(4 \times 50 \text{ mL})$, and again with water $(3 \times 50 \text{ mL})$. The organic layer was then dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and evaporated. The residue was separated chromatographically on silica gel eluting with THF/hexanes (2:3) to afford the desired Cbz-protected dipeptide **35** (1.14 g, 71 %). ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6): δ 8.10 (d, J = 7.3 Hz, 1H), 7.34 (m, 10H), 7.22 (t, J = 5.5 Hz, 2H), 6.78 (d, J = 8.0 Hz, 1H), 4.99 (s, 4H), 4.20 (m, 1H), 3.90 (m, 1H), 3.59 (s, 3H), 2.96 (m, 4H), 1.67 (m, 1H), 1.58 (m, 2H), 1.48 (m, 1H), 1.32 (s, 9H), 1.28 (m, 8H); 13 C NMR (CDCl₃): δ 172.8, 172.7, 156.8, 156.0, 136.7, 136.6, 128.6, 128.57, 128.3, 128.2, 128.2, 80.1, 66.8, 66.7, 54.1, 52.4, 52.1, 40.5, 32.2, 31.6, 29.4, 29.2, 28.4, 22.6, 22.3; FTIR (KBr): v 3359, 3036, 2948, 1699, 1544, 1259 cm⁻¹.

A solution of the Cbz-protected dipeptide **35** (0.20 g, 0.30 mmol) in CH₃OH (10 mL) was treated with 10 % Pd/C (20 mg) and stirred under an H₂ atmosphere for 6 h. The mixture was filtered through Celite and concentrated under reduced pressure to give product **36** as an oil (0.11 g, 94 %). ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆): δ 8.28 (d, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 1H),

6.86 (d, J = 8.5 Hz, 1H), 4.22 (m, 1H), 3.93 (m, 1H), 3.62 (s, 3H), 2.72 (t, J = 7.1 Hz, 4H), 1.36 (s, 9H), 2.0-1.0 (m, 12H); MALDI-TOF MS: m/z: calcd for C₁₈H₃₆N₄O₅: 388.5; found: 388.8 [M]⁺.

Dendrimer 37a.

Procedure 1. To a stirred and ice cooled solution of salt **19** (0.08 g, 0.21 mmol) DMF (8 mL) was added Et₃N (0.06 mL, 0.42 mmol) and then after 15 min, calix amino acid 1e (0.51 g, 0.42 mmol), HOBT (0.11 g, 0.84 mmol), and DCC (0.17 g, 0.84 mmol). The mixture was allowed to stir for 30 min at 0 °C and for 48 h at rt, then filtered, concentrated in vacuo, diluted with EtOAc (200 mL), and washed successively with 1N NaHSO₄ (4 \times 50 mL), water (3 \times 50 mL), 1N NaHCO₃ (4 \times 50 mL), and again water (3 \times 50 mL). The organic layer was then dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and evaporated. The residue was chromatographed on silica gel eluting with CHCl₃-CH₃OH, 9:1 to afford 37a (two diastereomers, 3:2, 0.22 g, 41%). ¹H NMR (DMSO-d₆, major diastereomer): δ 8.23 (br s, 1H), 8.10 (br s, 2H), 7.87 (m, 3H), 6.81 (m, 16H), 4.80 (m, 4H), 4.60 (m, 16H), 4.34 (s, 4H), 4.30 (m, 1H), 4.10 (m, 13H), 3.95 (m, 1H), 3.58 (s, 3H), 3.25-3.05 (m, 12H), 3.02 (m, 2H), 2.08 (m, 4H), 2.0-1.1 (m, 66H), 1.0 (m, 72H), 0.83 (t, J = 7.2 Hz, 3H); ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6 , minor diastereomer): δ 8.23 (br s, 1H), 8.10 (br s, 2H), 7.87 (m, 3H), 6.81 (m, 16H), 4.80 (m, 4H), 4.60 (m, 16H), 4.34 (s, 4H), 4.30 (m, 1H), 4.1 (m, 13H), 3.95 (m, 1H), 3.59 (s, 3H), 3.10 (m, 12H), 3.02 (m, 2H), 2.08 (m, 4H), 2.0–1.1 (m, 66H), 1.0 (m, 72H), 0.83 (t, J = 7.2 Hz, 3H); MALDI-TOF MS, m/z 2588.7 ([M+Na⁺], calcd for C₁₅₁H₂₁₆N₆O₂₈Na 2586.3).

Procedure 2. A solution of acid chloride **26** (0.30 g, 0.30 mmol) in EtOAc (20 mL) was added to a vigorously stirring solution of tripeptide **39** (0.10 g, 0.15 mmol) and K_2CO_3 (0.41 g, 3.00 mmol) in EtOAc (10 mL) and H_2O (20 mL). The reaction mixture was stirred for 6 h at rt, the organic layer was separated and evaporated. The residue was chromatographed on silica gel eluting with CHCl₃–CH₃OH, 9:1 to afford **37a** (0.18 g, 47%).

Dendrimer 37b.

A solution of monoacid chloride **26** (0.38 g, 0.38 mmol) in EtOAc (10 mL) was added to a vigorously stirred solution of **41** (0.10 g, 0.16 mmol) and K₂CO₃ (0.22 g, 1.60 mmol) in EtOAc (5 mL) and H₂O (15 mL). The reaction mixture was stirred for 6 h at rt. The organic layer was separated and evaporated under reduced pressure. The residue was chromatographed on silica gel with CHCl₃–MeOH, 9:1 as eluents to afford **37b** (0.17 g, 42%); $[\alpha]_D^{23} = -4.5$ (c = 0.02, EtOH); ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6): δ 8.11 (m, 3H), 7.78 (t, J = 6.0 Hz, 1H), 6.8 (m, 16H), 6.72 (m, 2H), 4.85–4.72 (m, 4H), 4.72–4.45 (m, 16H), 4.35 (m, 4H), 4.22 (m, 1H), 4.10 (m, 12H), 3.93 (m, 1H), 3.83 (m, 1H), 3.65 (s, 3H), 3.2 (m, 12H), 3.0 (m, 2H), 1.8–1.4 (m, 18H), 1.36 (s, 18H), 1.7–1.25 (m, 18H), 1.06 (s, 18H), 1.03 (s, 27H), 1.02 (s, 27H); FTIR (KBr): v 3370, 2962, 2867, 1758, 1724, 1663, 1547, 1480, 1190, 1128, 1069 cm⁻¹; MALDI-TOF MS, m/z 2532 ([M+Na⁺], calcd for C₁₄₅H₂₀₄N₆O₃₀ 2532).

Tripeptide 39, a mixture of diastereomers.

To a stirred and ice-cooled solution of 19 (0.19 g, 0.50 mmol) in DMF (15 mL) was added Et₃N (0.14 mL, 1.00 mmol) and then acid 22 (0.42 g, 1.00 mmol), HOBT (0.28 g, 2.00 mmol), and DCC (0.43 g, 2.00 mmol). The reaction mixture was allowed to stir for 30 min at 0 °C and for 36 h at rt, filtered, concentrated, diluted with EtOAc (200 mL), and washed successively with 1N NaHSO₄ (4 \times 50 mL), water (3 \times 50 mL), 1N NaHCO₃ (4 \times 50 mL), and again water (3 \times 50 mL). The organic layer was then dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and evaporated. The residue was chromatographed on silica gel eluting with CHCl₃-CH₃OH, 9:1 to afford bis-Cbz-protected trilysine 38 (two diastereomers, 3:2, 0.21 g, 45%) as an oil: ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6 , major diastereomer): δ 8.20 (br s, 1H), 7.84 (m, 3H), 7.33 (m, 10H), 7.20 (t, J = 5.5 Hz, 2H), 4.98 (s, 4H), 4.25 (m, 1H), 4.15 (m, 2H), 3.58 (s, 3H), 2.94 (m, 6H), 2.10 (m, 4H), 1.8–1.1 (m, 38H), 0.84 (t, J = 6.4 Hz, 3H); ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6 , minor diastereomer): δ 8.23 (br s, 1H), 7.86 (m, 3H), 7.33 (m, 10H), 7.20 (t, J = 5.5 Hz, 2H), 4.98 (s, 4H), 4.25 (m, 1H), 4.15 (m, 2H), 3.60 (s, 3H), 2.94 (m, 6H), 2.10 (m, 4H), 1.8–1.1 (m, 38H), 0.84 (t, J = 6.4 Hz, 3H).

A solution of tripeptide **38** (0.15 g, 0.16 mmol) in CH₃OH (10 mL) was treated with 10% Pd/C (15 mg) and stirred under a hydrogen atmosphere for 6 h. The mixture was filtered through Celite and concentrated. The residue was dried under high vacuum to give **39** (two diastereomers, 3:2, 0.10 g, 93%) as an oil: ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6 , major diastereomer) δ 8.20 (br s, 1H), 7.84 (m, 3H), 4.25 (m, 1H), 4.14 (m, 2H), 3.56 (s, 3H),

3.42 (m, 4H), 3.02 (m, 2H), 2.06 (m, 4H), 1.8–1.0 (m, 38H), 0.81 (t, J = 6.9 Hz, 6H). ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6 , minor diastereomer) δ 8.27 (br s, 1H), 7.84 (m, 3H), 4.25 (m, 1H), 4.14 (m, 2H), 3.56 (s, 3H), 3.42 (m, 4H), 3.02 (m, 2H), 2.06 (m, 4H), 1.8–1.0 (m, 38H), 0.81 (t, J = 6.9 Hz, 6H).

Tripeptide 41.

To a stirred and ice cooled solution of **19** (0.17 g, 0.43 mmol) in DMF (20 mL) was added Et₃N (0.12 mL, 0.86 mmol) and then after 15 min, lysine **12** (0.33 g, 0.86 mmol), HOBT (0.24 g, 1.72 mmol) and DCC (0.35 g, 1.72 mmol). The mixture was allowed to stir for 30 min at 0 °C and for 36 h at rt, then filtered, concentrated in vacuo, diluted with EtOAc (200 mL), and washed successively with 1N NaHSO₄ (4 × 50 mL), water (3 × 50 mL), 1N NaHCO₃ (4 × 50 mL), and again water (3 × 50 mL). The organic layer was then dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and evaporated. The residue was chromatographed on silica gel eluting with CHCl₃–CH₃OH, 9:1 to afford **40** (0.19 g, 50%): $[\alpha]_D^{23} = -12.4$ (*c* = 0.02, EtOH); ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆): δ 8.13 (br s, 1H), 7.75 (br s, 1H), 7.34 (m, 10H), 7.21 (t, *J* = 6.0 Hz, 2H), 6.78 (d, *J* = 6.4 Hz, 1H), 6.73 (d, *J* = 7.8 Hz, 1H), 5.01 (s, 4H), 4.20 (m, 1H), 3.91 (m, 1H), 3.79 (m, 1H), 3.59 (s, 3H), 3.15 (m, 4H), 3.04 (m, 2H), 2.0–1.0 (m, 18H), 1.36 (s, 18H); MALDI-TOF MS, *m/z* 908 ([M+Na⁺], calcd for C₄₅H₆₈N₆O₁₂ 908).

A solution of 40 (0.15 g, 0.17 mmol) in CH₃OH (10 mL) was treated with 10% Pd/C (15 mg) and stirred under a hydrogen atmosphere for 4 h. The mixture was filtered through Celite and concentrated. The residue was dried under high vacuum to give

tripeptide **41** (0.10 g, 95%): ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6): δ 8.16 (br s, 1H), 7.80 (br s, 1H), 6.81 (d, J = 8.3 Hz, 1H), 6.75 (d, J = 7.1 Hz , 1H), 4.21 (m, 1H), 3.91 (m, 1H), 3.80 (m, 1H), 3.60 (s, 1H), 3.06 (m, 4H), 2.96 (m, 2H), 1.35 (s, 18H), 2.0–1.0 (m, 18H).

Calixarene 57.

N-Boc-1,6-diaminohexane (0.38 mL, 1.68 mmol), DCC (0.35 g, 1.68 mmol), HOBt (0.23 g, 1.68 mmol), and Et₃N (0.23 mL, 1.68 mmol) were added to a stirred and icecooled solution of 3 (1.00 g, 0.84 mmol) in DMF (30 mL). The mixture was stirred for 30 min at 0 °C and for 24 h at RT, then filtered, concentrated in vacuo, diluted with CHCl₃, and washed successively with 1 N NaHSO₄ (4×100 mL), water (3×100 mL), 1 N NaHCO₃ (4 \times 100 mL), and again with water (3 \times 100 mL). The organic layer was then dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and evaporated. The residue was separated chromatographically on silica gel eluting with CHCl₃/CH₃OH (95:5) to afford **59** as a colorless solid (0.84 g, 72 %). mp >185 °C (decomp); ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6): δ 8.17 (t, J = 5.7 Hz, 1H), 8.02 (br s, 1H), 7.98 (br s, 1H), 7.83 (br s, 2H), 6.81 (s, 2H), 6.79 (s, 2H), 6.76 (t, J = 5.5 Hz, 1H), 6.62 (br s, 4H), 5.82 (m, 2H), 5.77 (t, J = 5.3 Hz, 2H), 4.35 (s, 2H), 4.33 (d, J = 12.6 Hz, 2H), 4.27 (d, J = 12.6 Hz, 2H), 3.76 (t, J = 7.3 Hz, 4H), 3.72 (t, J = 7.3 Hz, 2H), 3.24 (m, 2H), 3.00 (m, 12H), 2.91 (m, 2H), 1.80 (m, 6H), 1.53 (m, 2H), 1.36 (s, 9H), 1.24 (m, 38H), 0.87 (m, 21H); 13 C NMR (DMSO- d_6): δ 169.2, 156.1, 155.74, 155.7, 151.2, 150.7, 150.3, 135.4, 135.1, 135.0, 134.5, 134.2, 134.1, 118.7, 118.4, 77.8, 77.3, 76.5, 74.8, 31.6, 30.4, 28.83, 28.8, 26.7, 23.0, 22.9, 22.7, 14.5, 10.63, 10.6; FTIR (KBr): v 3329, 2928, 2852, 1628, 1559, 1476, 1213 cm⁻¹.

A solution of the N-Boc-protected **59** (0.50 g, 0.36 mmol) in THF (15 mL) was treated with TFA (5 mL) and stirred at RT for 2 h. The reaction mixture was concentrated in vacuo to afford the pure TFA salt of **57** (0.47 g, 93 %). ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆): δ 8.18 (t, J = 5.5 Hz, 1H), 8.05 (s, 1H), 7.99 (s, 1H), 7.84 (s, 2H), 6.80 (s, 2H), 6.63 (s, 2H), 6.60 (s, 2H), 5.88 (m, 2H), 5.78 (t, J = 5.5 Hz, 2H), 4.37 (s, 2H), 4.32 (d, J = 12.8 Hz, 2H), 4.26 (d, J = 12.8 Hz, 2H), 3.75 (t, J = 7.2 Hz, 4H), 3.71 (t, J = 7.2 Hz, 2H), 3.26 (m, 2H), 3.0 (m, 12H), 2.78 (m, 2H), 1.80 (m, 6H), 1.53 (m, 4H), 1.41 (m, 12H), 1.25 (m, 24H), 0.86 (m, 21H); ¹³C NMR (DMSO-*d*₆): δ 169.4, 155.8, 151.3, 150.7, 150.4, 135.3, 135.1, 135.0, 135.0, 134.5, 134.2, 134.0, 118.8, 118.54, 118.5, 77.3, 76.6, 74.8, 31.6, 30.4, 27.6, 26.6, 26.2, 22.9, 22.7, 14.5, 10.7, 10.6; FTIR (KBr): v 3339, 2932, 2859, 1659, 1599, 1562, 1468, 1213 cm⁻¹; ESI-MS: *m*/*z*: calcd for C₇₅H₁₁₅F₃N₁₀O₁₁: 1389; found: 1389.

The TFA salt (0.50 g, 0.36 mmol) in CHCl₃ (100 mL) was washed with aqueous 10 % NaOH (2 × 50 mL), then evaporated and dried in high vacuo to afford amine **57**. ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆): δ 8.18 (t, *J* = 5 Hz, 1H), 8.05 (br s, 1H), 8.00 (br s, 1H), 7.85 (br s, 2H), 6.80 (2 × m, 4H), 6.61 (s, 4H), 5.88 (m, 2H), 5.80 (t, *J* = 5.5 Hz, 2H), 4.36 (s, 2H), 4.32 (d, *J* = 12.8 Hz, 2H), 4.26 (d, *J* = 12.8 Hz, 2H), 3.76 (t, *J* = 7.8 Hz, 4H), 3.69 (t, *J* = 7.8 Hz, 2H), 3.22 (m, 2H), 2.99 (m, 12H), 2.53 (t, *J* = 6.0 Hz, 2H), 1.80 (m, 6H), 1.53 (m, 2H), 1.30 (m, 38H), 0.90 (m, 21H); ¹³C NMR (DMSO-*d*₆): δ 169.3, 155.8, 155.7, 151.2, 150.7, 150.4, 135.4, 135.1, 135.0, 134.5, 134.2, 134.1, 118.8, 118.7, 118.5, 118.47, 77.3, 76.5, 74.8, 31.6, 30.4, 26.7, 22.9, 22.7, 14.5, 10.6; FTIR (KBr): v 3344,

2930, 2858, 1654, 1559, 1475, 1213 cm⁻¹; ESI MS: *m/z*: calcd for C₇₃H₁₁₄N₁₀O₉: 1275; found: 1276 [M+H]⁺, 2552 [2M+2 H]⁺.

Biscalixarene 58.

A solution of 61 (0.20 g, 0.07 mmol) in THF (20 mL) was treated with TFA (20 mL) and then stirred at RT for 4 h. The reaction mixture was concentrated in vacuo to afford the pure TFA-salt of 58. The salt was then dissolved in CHCl₃ (60 mL) and washed with 10 % NaOH (2×30 mL). The organic layer was dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and evaporated to give free amine 58 (0.18 g, 96 %). ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6): δ 8.22 (br s, 4H), 8.17 (br s, 2H), 8.01 (br s, 1H), 7.94 (br s, 5H), 6.82 (s, 2H), 6.81 (s, 4H), 6.80 (s, 2H), 6.56 (s, 4H), 6.55 (s, 4H), 6.07 (br s, 4H), 5.97 (br s, 4H), 4.35 (s, 4H), 4.33-4.19 (m, 8H), 4.14 (m, 1H), 3.80-3.60 (m, 12H), 3.22 (m, 4H), 3.10-2.90 (m, 26H), 1.75 (m, 14H), 1.53 (m, 6H), 1.36 (m, 28H), 1.24 (m, 48H), 0.85 (m, 42H); ¹³C NMR (DMSO d_6): δ 175.4, 171.7, 169.4, 155.9, 155.8, 151.3, 150.7, 150.3, 135.4, 135.2, 135.0, 134.4, 134.2, 133.9, 133.89, 118.9, 118.8, 118.6, 77.3, 76.5, 74.8, 55.3, 52.6, 31.6, 30.4, 29.6, 28.7, 26.9, 26.7, 23.3, 23.1, 22.7, 22.6, 14.5, 10.6; FTIR (KBr): v 3340, 2928, 2863, 1657, 1557, 1470, 1213 cm⁻¹; MALDI-TOF: *m/z*: calcd for C₁₅₂H₂₃₆N₂₀O₂₀Na: 2712.8; found: 2712.0 [M+Na]⁺; ESI-MS: *m/z*: calcd for C₁₅₂H₂₃₇N₂₀O₂₀: 2691; found: 2692 $[M+H]^+$.

Biscalixarene 61.

A mixture of **2c** (2.00 g, 0.74 mmol), THF (25 mL), and aqueous LiOH (1 N, 10 mL) was stirred overnight at RT, after which H₂O (30 mL) was added, and the pH was adjusted to 6 with aqueous 1 M HCl. The product was extracted with CHCl₃ (3 × 60 mL). The organic layer was dried over Na₂SO₄ and evaporated to give the tetraurea acid **60** (1.81 g, 91 %). mp >300 °C; ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆): δ 8.22 (br s, 2H), 8.09 (br s, 2H), 7.99 (br s, 2H), 7.93 (d, *J* = 7.8 Hz, 1H), 7.83 (br s, 4H), 6.83 (s, 2H), 6.82 (s, 4H), 6.81 (s, 2H), 6.62 (s, 4H), 6.61 (s, 4H), 5.85 (m, 4H), 5.78 (m, 4H), 4.35 (br s, 4H), 4.33 (d, *J* = 13.3 Hz, 4H), 4.22 (d, *J* = 13.3 Hz, 4H), 4.19 (m, 1H), 3.94 (m, 1H), 3.75 (t, *J* = 6.9 Hz, 8H), 3.69 (t, *J* = 6.9 Hz, 4H), 3.22 (m, 4H), 3.10-2.90 (m, 24H), 1.34 (s, 9H), 1.77 (m, 12H), 1.53 (m, 4H), 1.36 (s, 9H), 1.18 (m, 72H), 0.86 (m, 42H); ¹³C NMR (DMSO-*d*₆): δ 174.1, 172.7, 169.3, 155.8, 151.3, 151.2, 150.7, 150.3, 135.4, 135.2, 134.9, 134.4, 134.2, 134.0, 118.8, 118.5, 78.5, 77.3, 76.5, 74.8, 67.6, 54.7, 52.2, 31.7, 31.5, 31.2, 30.4, 30.1, 30.0, 28.7, 26.7, 25.7, 23.7, 23.4, 23.0, 22.9, 22.6, 14.4, 10.6; FTIR (KBr): v 3349, 2930, 1664, 1560, 1472, 1367, 1216 cm⁻¹.

N-Boc-1,6-diaminohexane (0.17 mL, 0.74 mmol), EDCI (0.14 g, 0.74 mmol), HOBt (0.10 g, 0.74 mmol), and Et₃N (0.10 mL, 0.74 mmol) were added to a stirred and icecooled solution of the above-mentioned acid **60** (1.00 g, 0.37 mmol) in DMF (20 mL). The mixture was stirred for 30 min at 0 °C and for 24 h at RT, filtered, concentrated, diluted with CHCl₃, and washed successively with 1 N NaHSO₄ (3 × 80 mL), water (2 × 80 mL), 1 N NaHCO₃ (3 × 80 mL), and again with water (3 × 80 mL). The organic layer was then dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and evaporated. The residue was separated chromatographically on silica gel eluting with CHCl₃/CH₃OH (94:6) to afford **61** (0.81 g, 76 %). mp >185 °C (decomp); ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆): δ 8.20 (br s, 2H), 8.04 (br s, 2H), 8.00 (br s, 2H), 7.87 (br s, 1H), 7.82 (s, 4H), 7.73 (d, *J* = 7.8 Hz, 1H), 6.98 (d, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 1H), 6.82 (s, 2H), 6.81 (s, 4H), 6.80 (s, 2H), 6.73 (t, *J* = 7.1 Hz, 1H), 6.61 (s, 4H), 6.60 (s, 4H), 5.87 (m, 4H), 5.78 (m, 4H), 4.35 (s, 4H), 4.32 (d, *J* = 12.8 Hz, 4H), 4.26 (d, *J* = 12.8 Hz, 4H), 3.87 (m, 1H), 3.74 (t, *J* = 6.9 Hz, 8H), 3.70 (t, *J* = 6.9 Hz, 4H), 3.21 (m, 4H), 3.00 (m, 24H), 2.86 (m, 4H), 1.78 (m, 12H), 1.77 (m, 2H), 1.53 (m, 6H), 1.36 (s, 9H), 1.34 (s, 9H), 1.26 (m, 76H), 0.86 (m, 42H); ¹³C NMR (DMSO-*d*₆): δ 172.4, 171.6, 169.3, 169.29, 156.1, 156.0, 155.8, 151.3, 151.2, 150.7, 150.3, 135.4, 135.2, 135.0, 134.4, 134.2, 134.0, 118.7, 118.5, 118.45, 78.6, 77.7, 77.3, 76.5, 74.8, 55.2, 52.9, 39.2, 39.0, 31.6, 31.5, 30.4, 30.0, 29.5, 28.8, 28.7, 26.7, 26.5, 23.8, 23.3, 23.0, 22.9, 22.7, 14.4, 10.6, 10.57; FTIR (KBr): v 3325, 2929, 2864, 1659, 1556, 1471, 1214 cm⁻¹.

Supramolecular oligomer 63 and salt 64.

Calixarene **57** (0.50 g, 0.39 mmol) in benzene (6 mL) was placed in a test tube (13 × 100 mm) and dry CO₂ was then bubbled through the solution for 5 min at 35 °C. Oligomer **63** quantitively precipitated, was filtered off, and dried under vacuum at RT. The experiment was performed at least five times giving reproducible results. Upon dissolution in DMSO, material **63** dissociated to give carbamate salt **64**. mp >140 °C (decomp); ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆): δ 8.18 (2 × br s, 4H), 8.11 (br s, 2H), 7.96 (br s, 4H),

6.89 (2 × m, 8H), 6.66 (s, 8H), 6.00 (br s, 2H), 5.95 (br s, 2H), 5.91 (br s, 4H), 5.80 (br s, 1H), 4.42 (s, 4H), 4.37 (d, J = 12.4 Hz, 4H), 4.29 (d, J = 12.4 Hz, 4H), 3.77 (m, 12H), 3.26 (m, 4H), 3.04 (m, 26H), 2.58 (t, J = 6.4 Hz, 2H), 1.80 (m, 12H), 1.54 (m, 4H), 1.34 (m, 76H), 0.86 (m, 42H); ¹³C NMR (DMSO- d_6): δ 169.3, 159.8, 155.8, 151.3, 150.8, 150.3, 135.5, 135.2, 135.1, 134.5, 134.2, 134.0, 134.0, 118.8, 118.6, 77.3, 76.5, 74.8, 31.7, 31.5, 30.4, 27.1, 26.7, 23.0, 22.9, 22.7, 14.4, 10.6, 10.59.

Supramolecular polymer 67 and carbamate salts 66.

Diamine **58** (0.20 g, 0.07 mmol) in CHCl₃ (5 mL) was placed in a test tube (13 × 100 mm) and dry CO₂ (13 CO₂) was then bubbled through the solution for 3 min at RT. Material **67** formed as a gel, which was then dried under high vacuum at RT. The experiment was performed at least five times giving reproducible results. Upon dissolution in DMSO, material **67** dissociated to form carbamate salts of type **66**. 1 H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆): δ 8.27 (br s), 8.22 (br s), 8.12-7.90 (br s), 6.90-6.70 (br s), 6.70-6.50 (br s), 6.14 (br s), 6.02 (br s), 4.36 (br s), 4.25 (m), 3.90-3.60 (m), 3.50-3.30 (m), 3.22 (m), 3.15-2.85 (m), 1.85-1.70 (m), 1.59-1.53 (m), 1.33 (m), 1.23 (m), 0.95-0.85 (m); 13 C NMR (DMSO-*d*₆): δ 175.5, 171.8, 169.4, 163.3, 162.9, 155.9, 151.4, 150.8, 150.3, 135.4, 135.2, 134.9, 134.4, 134.1, 133.8, 118.9, 118.6, 77.4, 76.3, 74.5, 31.6, 30.4, 26.7, 23.4, 23.1, 22.9, 22.7, 14.5, 10.6.

Biscalixarene Dipeptide 68.

A solution of the BOC-protected dipeptide 2c (0.50 g, 0.18 mmol) in THF (15 mL) was treated with TFA (10 mL) and then stirred at rt for 4 h. The reaction mixture was concentrated in vacuo to afford pure TFA-salt of **68**: ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6) δ 8.78 (d, J = 7.3 Hz, 1 H), 8.24 (br s, 2H), 8.06 (s, 2H), 8.01 (s, 2H), 7.84 (s, 4H), 6.80 (s, 4H), 6.79 (s, 4H), 6.62 (s, 4H), 6.59 (s, 4H), 5.9 (m, 4H), 5.8 (m, 4H), 4.40 (s, 4H), 4.33 (d, J =12.3 Hz, 4H), 4.24 (d, J = 12.3 Hz, 4H), 4.2 (m, 1H), 3.8 (m, 1H), 3.75 (t, J = 7.0 Hz, 8 H), 3.69 (t, J = 7.0 Hz, 4H), 3.62 (s, 3H), 3.2 (m, 4H), 3.0 (m, 24H), 1.78 (m, 12H), 1.54 (m, 4H), 1.28(m, 72H), 0.9 (m, 42H); FTIR (KBr): v 3347, 3082, 2932, 2860, 1670, 1599, 1474, 1205; ESI-MS m/z 2719 (M⁺, calcd for C₁₄₉H₂₂₄N₂₀O₂₃F₃ 2719). The TFA-salt of 68 was then dissolved in CHCl₃ (60 mL) and washed with 10% NaOH (2 \times 30 mL). The organic layer was dried over anhydrous Na_2SO_4 and evaporated to give free amine 68 as a colorless solid (0.44 g, 92%): ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6) δ 8.19 (br s, 3) H), 8.04 (s, 2H), 7.99 (s, 2H), 7.83 (s, 4H), 6.82 (s, 4H), 6.81 (s, 4H), 6.62 (s, 8H), 5.86 (m, 4H), 5.78 (t, J = 5.0 Hz, 4H), 4.38 (s, 4H), 4.34 (d, J = 12.3 Hz, 4H), 4.25 (d, J = 12.3 Hz, 12.3 Hz, 4H), 3.76 (t, J = 7.0 Hz, 8H), 3.71 (t, J = 7.0 Hz, 4H), 3.62 (s, 3H), 3.22 (m, 4 H), 3.0 (m, 24H), 1.78 (m, 12H), 1.54 (m, 4H), 1.28(m, 72H), 0.9 (m, 42H); ¹³C NMR $(DMSO-d_6) \delta 175.9, 173.1, 169.3, 155.7, 151.2, 150.7, 150.3, 135.3, 135.1, 134.9,$ 134.4, 134.1, 133.9, 118.7, 118.5, 79.6, 77.2, 76.5, 74.7, 54.9, 52.2, 52.0, 35.5, 31.6, 31.4, 30.3, 29.8, 26.6, 23.4, 22.8, 22.6, 14.4, 10.5; ESI-MS m/z 2608 ([M + H]⁺, calcd for C₁₄₇H₂₂₄N₂₀O₂₁ 2607).

Biscalixarene 70.

To a stirred and ice-cooled solution of the TFA-salt of **68** (0.50 g, 0.18 mmol) in DMF (15 mL) was added Et₃N (0.05 mL, 0.36 mmol), and then after 15 min, successively 1-pyrenebutyric acid (0.10 g, 0.36 mmol), EDCI (0.14 g, 0.72 mmol), and DMAP (cat.). The mixture was allowed to stir for 30 min at 0 °C and for 24 h at room temperature and then filtered, concentrated under reduced pressure, diluted with CHCl₃ (100 mL), and washed with water (3 × 100 mL). The organic layer was then dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and evaporated. The residue was chromatographed on silica gel eluting with CHCl₃-CH₃OH, 95:5 to afford pyrene functionalized calixarene **70** (0.41 g, 79%): mp > 180 °C (decomp); ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆) δ 8.4-7.9 (m, 17H), 7.8 (m, 4H), 6.8 (m, 8H), 6.6 (m, 8H), 5.9 (m, 4H), 5.8 (m, 4H). 4.4 (m, 2H), 4.36 (s, 4H), 4.32 (d, *J* = 12.8 Hz, 4 H), 4.20 (d, *J* = 12.8 Hz, 4H), 3.70 (m, 12H), 3.59 (s, 3H), 3.30 (t, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 2H), 3.21 (m, 4H), 3.0 (m, 24H), 2.31 (t, *J* = 6.9 Hz, 2H), 2.0 (m, 2H), 1.74 (m, 12H), 1.55 (m, 4H), 1.35 (m, 20H), 1.24 (m, 52H), 0.9 (m, 42H); FTIR (KBr): v 3337, 2957, 2930, 2858, 1654, 1601, 1558, 1473, 1213 cm⁻¹.

Biscalixarene 72.

To a stirred and ice-cooled solution of dipeptide **70** (0.30 g, 0.10 mmol) in THF/H₂O, 15:1 (10 mL) was added a 40% aqueous solution of *n*-Bu₄NOH (0.20 mL, 0.30 mmol). The mixture was allowed to stir for 1.5 h at 0 °C, after which H₂O (20 mL) was added, and the pH was adjusted to 2 with aq 1 M HCl. The product was extracted with CHCl₃ (2 \times 30 mL), and the organic layer was dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and then

evaporated. The resulting free acid 71 (0.27 g, 94%) was used without further purification: ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆) δ 8.40-7.88 (m, 17H), 7.83 (br s, 4H), 6.82 (m, 8H), 6.61 (br s, 8H), 5.9 (m, 4H), 5.8 (m, 4H), 4.4 (m, 2H), 4.34 (s, 4H), 4.31 (d, J = 12.8 Hz, 4H), 4.20 (d, J = 12.8 Hz, 4H), 3.7 (m, 12H), 3.30 (t, J = 7.3 Hz, 2H), 3.2 (m, 4H), 3.1-2.9 (m, 24H), 2.97 (t, J = 6.9 Hz, 2H), 2.0 (m, 2H), 1.73 (m, 12H), 1.54 (m, 4H), 1.35 (m, 20H), 1.23 (m, 52H), 0.9 (m, 42H); FTIR v 3337, 2958, 2930, 2858, 1654, 1601, 1558, 1473, 1415, 1214 cm⁻¹. To a stirred and ice-cooled solution of the obtained acid 71 (0.30 g, 0.10 mmol) in DMF (15 mL) were added N-BOC-1,6-diaminohexane (0.05 mL, 0.20 mmol), EDCI (0.08 g, 0.40 mmol), DMAP (catalyst), and Et₃N (0.03 mL, 0.20 mmol). The mixture was allowed to stir for 30 min at 0 °C and for 24 h at rt, filtered, concentrated, diluted with CHCl₃, and washed with water (3×100 mL). The organic layer was then dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and evaporated. The residue was chromatographed on silica gel eluting with CHCl₃-CH₃OH, 96:4 to afford biscalixarene **72** (0.20 g, 65%): mp 160 °C (decomp); ¹H NMR (DMSO- d_6) δ 8.40-7.75 (m, 22H), 6.82 (m, 8H), 6.71 (t, J = 6.0 Hz, 1H), 6.6 (m, 8H), 5.9 (m, 4H), 5.8 (m, 4H), 4.35 (br s, 1)4H), 4.28 (d, J = 12.8 Hz, 4H), 4.20 (d, J = 12.8 Hz, 4H), 3.7 (m, 12H), 3.30 (t, J = 7.3Hz, 2H), 3.2 (m, 4H), 3.1-2.9 (m, 26H), 2.85 (dt, *J* = 6.9 Hz, *J* = 6.4 Hz, 2H), 2.31 (t, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 2H), 2.0 (m, 2H), 1.72 (m, 12H), 1.55 (m, 4H), 1.35 (m, 80H), 1.33 (s, 9H), 0.90 (m, 42H); FTIR (KBr): v 3335, 2930, 2859, 1653, 1558, 1473, 1245, 1214 cm⁻¹: MALDI-TOF m/z 3083 ([M + Na]⁺, calcd for C₁₇₇H₂₅₈N₂₂O₂₃Na 3083). Anal. Calcd for C₁₇₇H₂₅₈N₂₂O₂₃: C, 69.43; H, 8.49; N, 10.06. Found: C, 69.08; H, 8.45; N, 9.85.

Biscalixarene 73.

A solution of the BOC-protected calixarene **72** (0.20 g, 0.07 mmol) in CH₂Cl₂ (10 mL) was treated with TFA (10 mL) and then stirred at rt for 4 h. The reaction mixture was concentrated in vacuo to afford the pure TFA-salt. This was then dissolved in CHCl₃ (60 mL) and washed with 10% NaOH (2 × 30 mL). The organic layer was dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and evaporated to give free amine **73** (0.19 g, 92%): ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆) δ 8.3-7.7 (m, 22H), 6.8 (m, 8H), 6.6 (m, 8H), 5.9 (m, 4H), 5.8 (m, 4H), 4.34 (br s, 4H), 4.28 (d, *J* = 12.8 Hz, 4H), 4.22 (d, *J* = 12.8 Hz, 4H), 4.2 (m, 1H), 4.1 (m, 1 H), 3.7 (m, 12H), 3.30 (t, *J* = 7.3 Hz, 2H), 3.2 (m, 4H), 3.0 (m, 26H), 2.55 (t, *J* = 6.9 Hz, 2H), 2.31 (t, *J* = 7.8 Hz, 2H), 2.0 (m, 2H), 1.72 (m, 12H), 1.55 (m, 4H), 1.25 (m, 80H), 0.9 (m, 42H); FTIR (KBr): v 3337, 2958, 2930, 2859, 1654, 1601, 1559, 1416, 1245, 1214 cm⁻¹; ESI-TOF *m*/*z* 2960.9355 ([M + H]⁺, calcd for C₁₇₂H₂₅₁N₂₂O₂₁ 2960.9243). Anal. Calcd for C₁₇₂H₂₅₀N₂₂O₂₁·2CHCl₃: C, 65.27; H, 7.96; N, 9.62. Found: C, 64.93; H, 7.81; N, 9.32.

Reaction of Biscalixarene 73 with CO₂.

Freshly prepared biscalixarene **73** (120 mg) was dissolved in benzene (5 mL), and dry CO_2 (or ${}^{13}CO_2$) was then bubbled through the solution for 2 min at ~35 °C. Material **76** was dried in high vacuum at rt for 6 h. Upon dissolution in DMSO, **76** dissociated to carbamate salt **75**: 1 H NMR (DMSO- d_6) δ 8.35 (br), 8.22 (m), 8.17 (m), 8.08 (m), 8.03 (m), 7.95-7.75 (m), 6.82 (m), 6.60 (m), 5.90 (m), 5.81 (m), 4.35 (m), 4.29 (m), 4.21 (m), 3.80-3.60 (m), 3.35 (m), 3.20 (m), 3.10-2.80 (m), 2.49 (m), 2.32 (m), 2.01 (m), 1.72

(m), 1.54 (m), 1.34 (m), 1.23 (m), 0.84 (m); ¹³C NMR (DMSO-*d*₆) δ 172.9, 172.0, 171.6, 169.3, 160.7, 155.8, 151.3, 151.26, 150.7, 150.3, 137.1, 135.2, 135.1, 135.0, 134.4, 134.2, 134.0, 131.5, 131.0, 129.9, 128.9, 128.7, 128.0, 127.97, 127.7, 127.0, 126.6, 125.4, 125.3, 124.8, 124.75, 124.1, 118.8, 118.6, 118.5, 77.3, 76.5, 74.8, 53.6, 53.2, 41.9, 39.2, 39.0, 35.5, 32.9, 31.6, 30.4, 30.1, 29.5, 28.2, 26.7, 26.6, 23.7, 23.5, 23.0, 22.96, 22.9, 22.7, 14.5, 10.6.

Liquid–Liquid Extraction Experiments.

Compounds**1a-d**, **2a,b**, and **37a,b** were dissolved in CH_2Cl_2 (~ 5 × 10⁻³ M, 10 mL) and vigorously stirred overnight with saturated aqueous solution of NaClO₄ (10 mL) at rt. Organic layers were then separated, evaporated under reduced pressure, dried in vacuo and analyzed by high-resolution ¹H NMR spectroscopy in CDCl₃.

Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM).

Samples of **67** and **76** were prepared by a conventional procedure, previously described by Shinkai and co-workers.¹³⁵ The gel was placed in a flask and frozen in liquid nitrogen. The frozen specimen was dried in vacuo for 24 h and then coated with palladium-gold at the UTA Center for Electron Microscopy.

Viscosity.

Viscosity measurements for calixarenes 2c, 32, 57, and 63 in CHCl₃ and CHCl₃/benzene were performed in a standard glass viscometer using conventional

protocols.¹³⁶ All experiments were performed at least twice showing good reproducibility. The DP values for biscalizarene **2c** in the presence of chain stopper **32** were estimated using an earlier-derived equation¹⁰¹ (see below), assuming that the dimerization constant K_D for a calizarene tetraurea capsule¹⁰³ was 10⁶ M⁻¹:

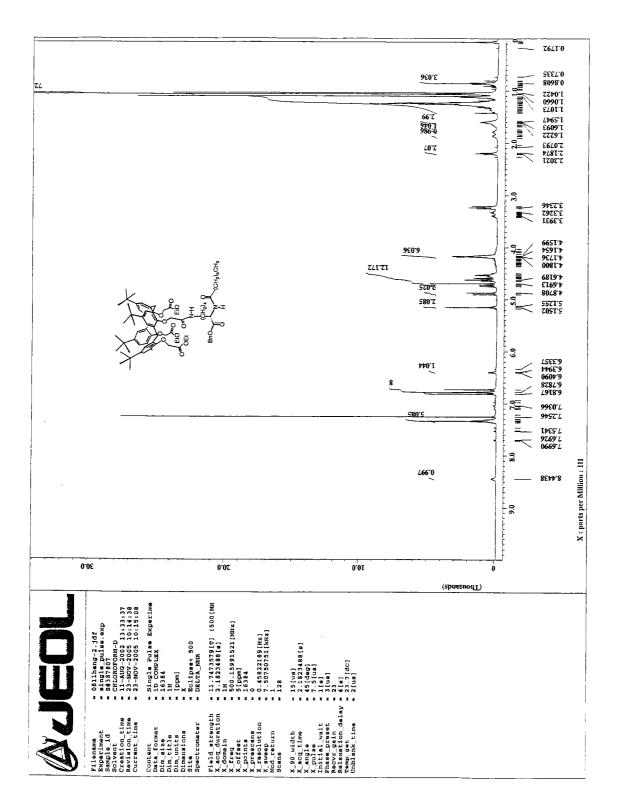
DP =
$$\frac{2([2c] + [32])}{[32] - \frac{1}{4K_{\rm D}} [1 - \sqrt{1 + 8K_{\rm D}([32] + 2[2c])}]}$$

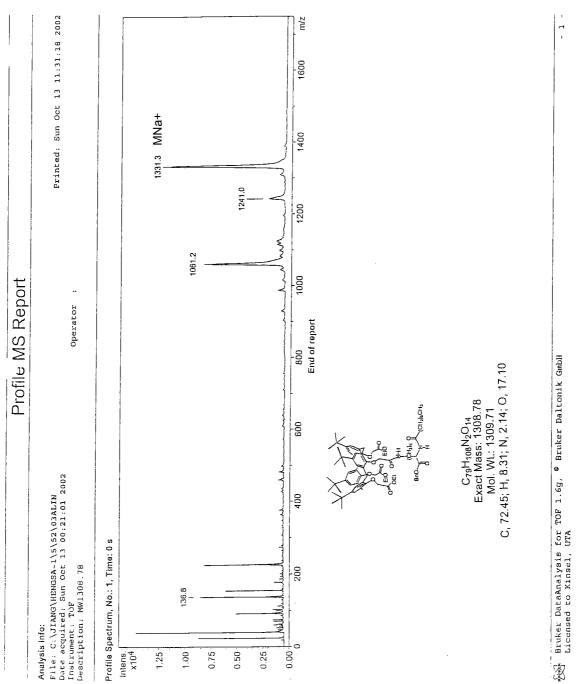
Entrapment and Release Experiments

Calixarene dipeptide **58**•2 × TFA salt (0.20 g, 0.07 mmol) was suspended in CHCl₃ (100 mL), successively washed with 10% aq NaOH (100 mL) and H₂O (100 mL). The organic layer was dried over anhydrous Na₂SO₄ and concentrated in vacuo to 3.5 mL. This solution was then transferred to a test tube and Coumarin 314 **77** (0.01 g, 0.04 mmol) or porphyne **78** (0.01 g, 0.02 mmol) was added. Bubbling CO₂ into the CHCl₃ solution for 1-2 min resulted in gel **67**. This was transferred into a round-bottom flask and washed with CHCl₃ (200 mL). Finally, CHCl₃ (150 mL for **77** or 400 mL for **78**) was added into the flask. The mixtures were mechanically shaken for an extended time. Samples were taken every 1-3 minutes. The dye release was monitored by UV-vis spectrophotometry. The absorptions of coumarin **77** at λ max = 434 nm and porphyne **78** at λ max = 420 (Soret-band) and 552 nm (Q-band) were monitored. Guest release experiments were performed at least in triplicate.

¹H NMR and MASS SPECTRA OF

Calixarene lysine (1a)

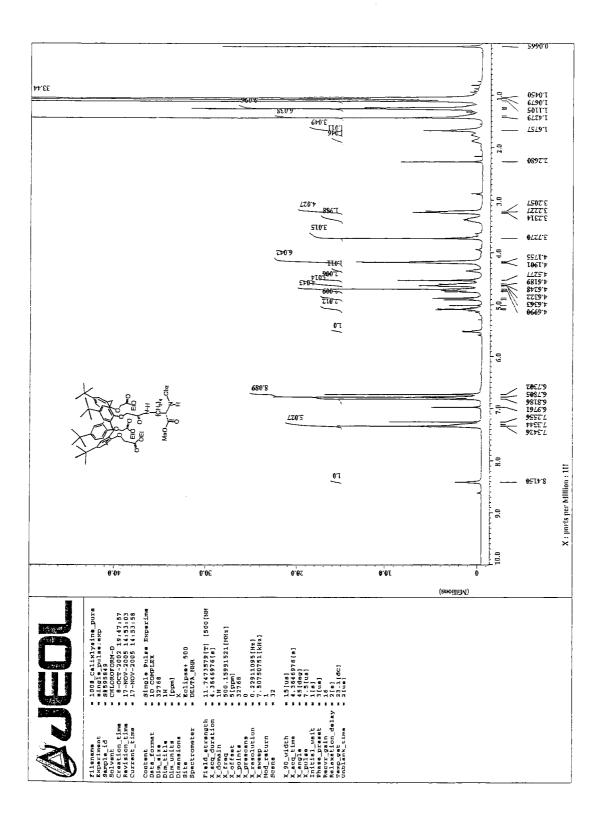


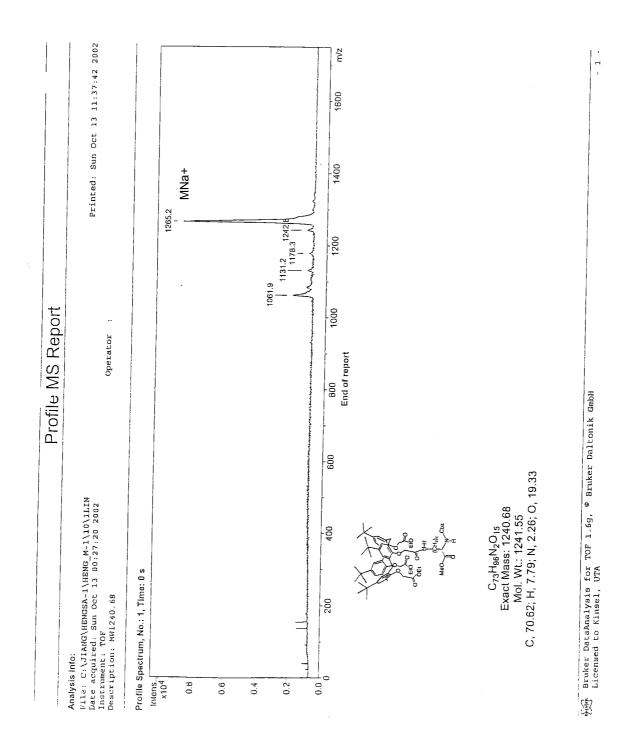


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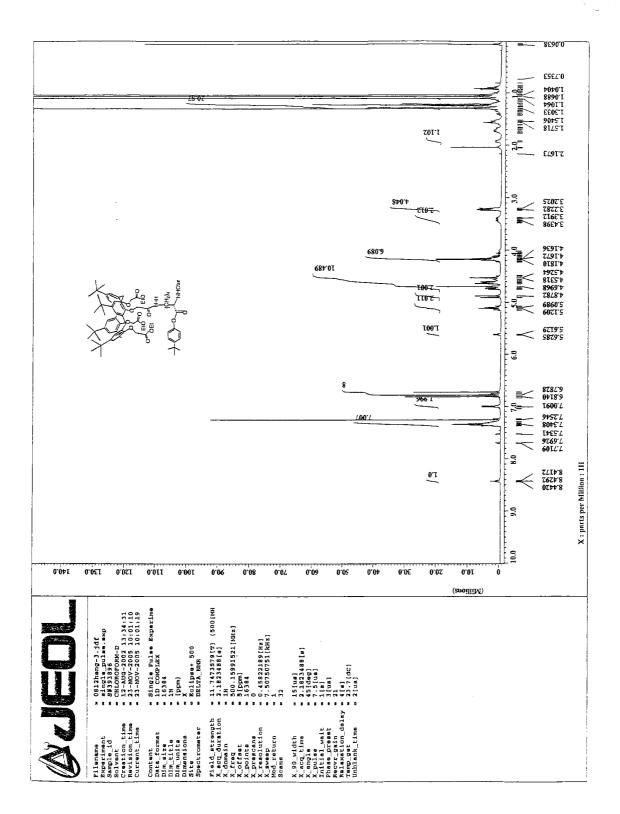
¹H NMR and MASS SPECTRA OF Calixarene lysine (1b)

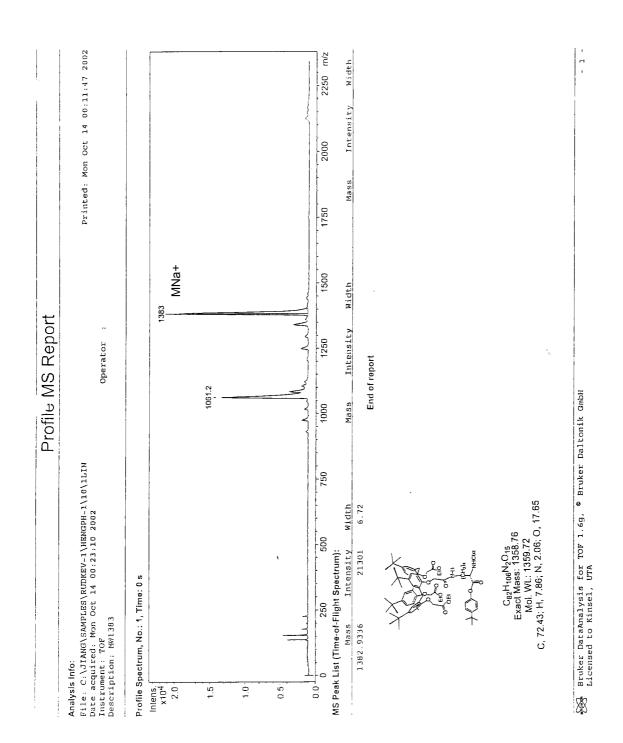
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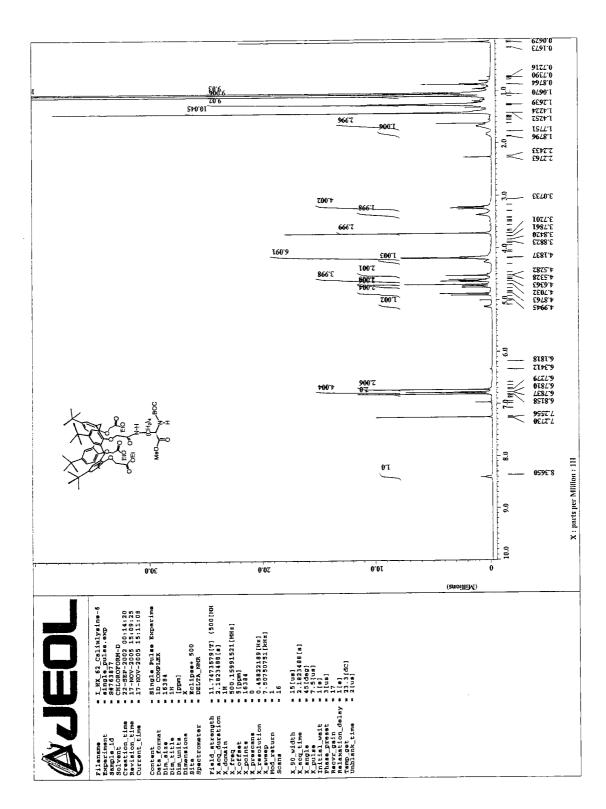


¹H NMR and MASS SPECTRA OF Calixarene lysine (1c)

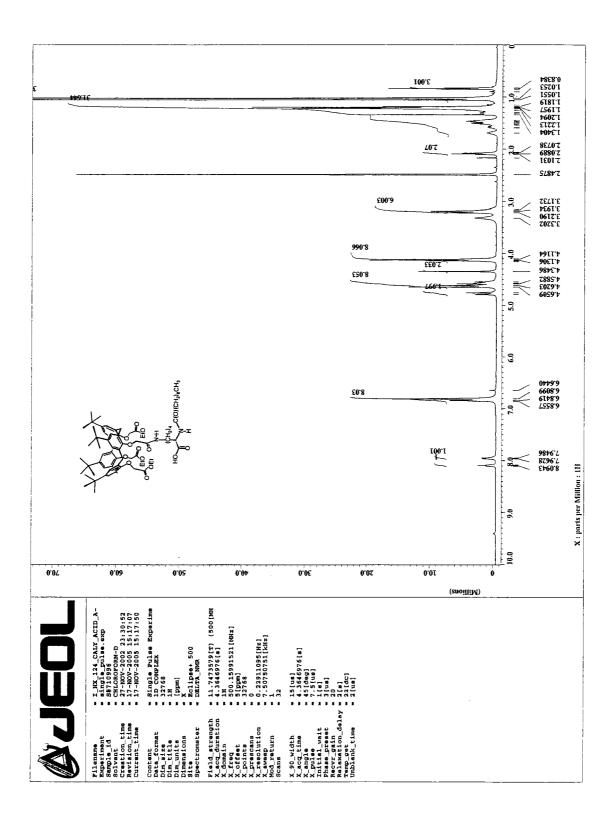




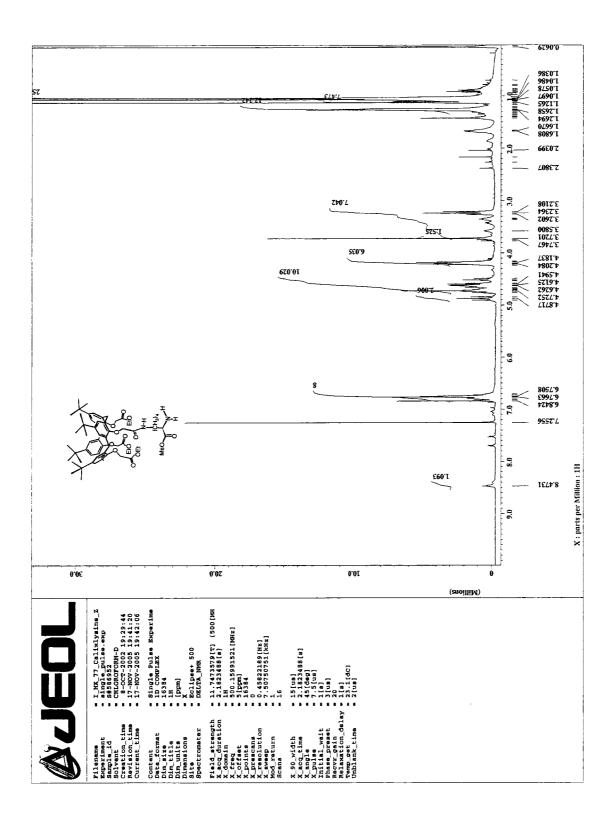
¹H NMR and MASS SPECTRA OF Calixarene lysine (1d)



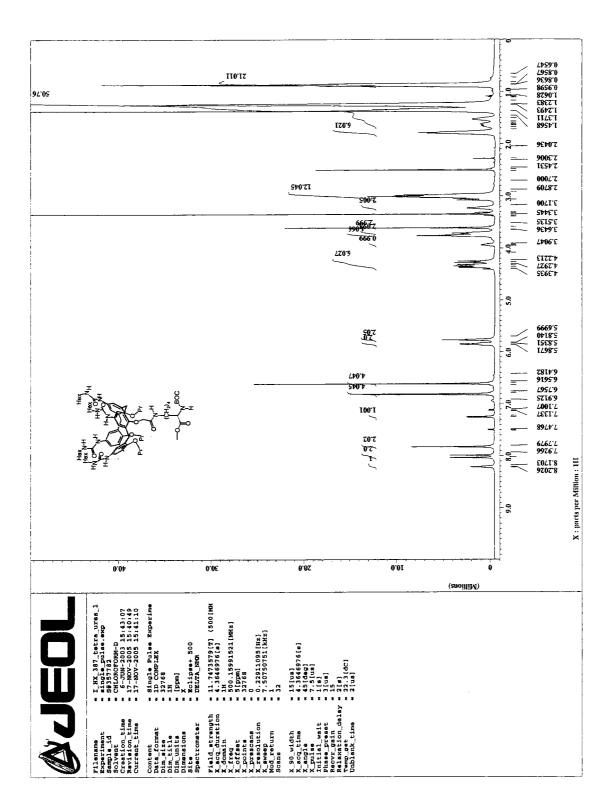
¹H NMR SPECTRUM OF Calixarene lysine (1e)

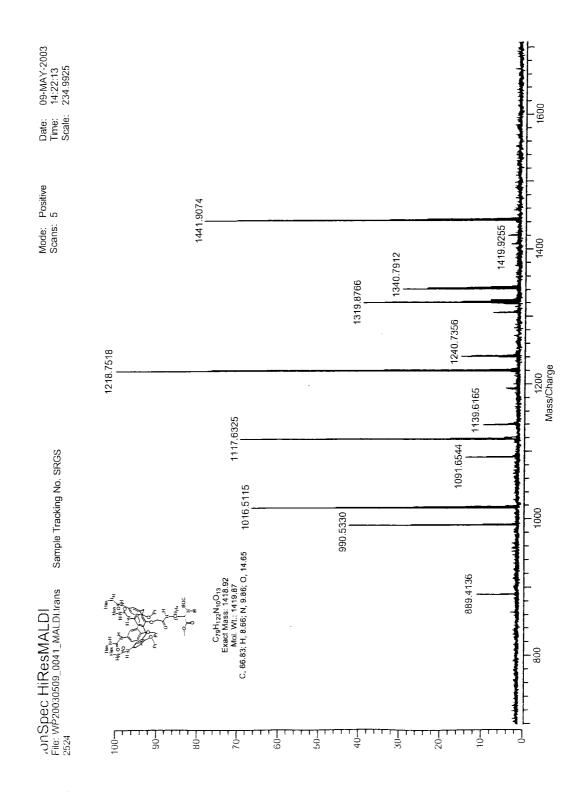


¹H NMR SPECTRUM OF Calixarene lysine (1f)

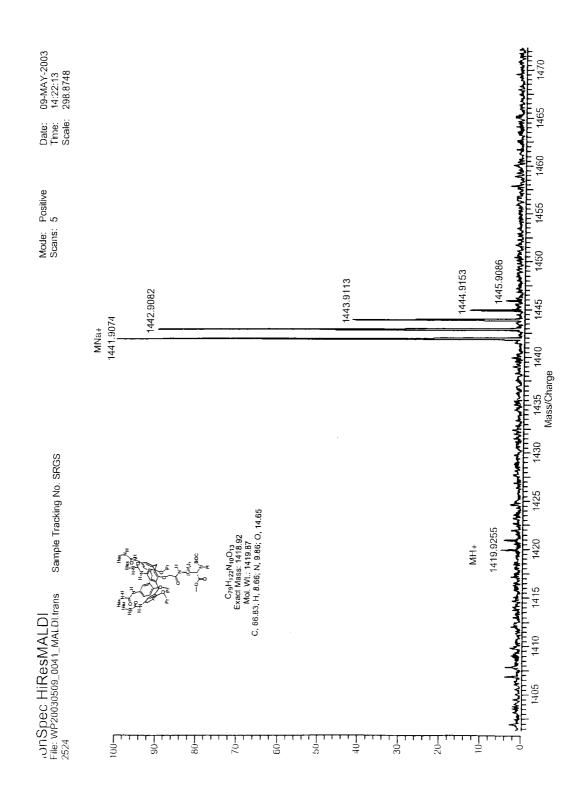


¹H NMR, ¹³C NMR and MASS SPECTRUM OF *N*-α-BOC-*N*-ε-(calix[4]arenetetraurea)-*i*-lysine, Methyl Ester (1g)





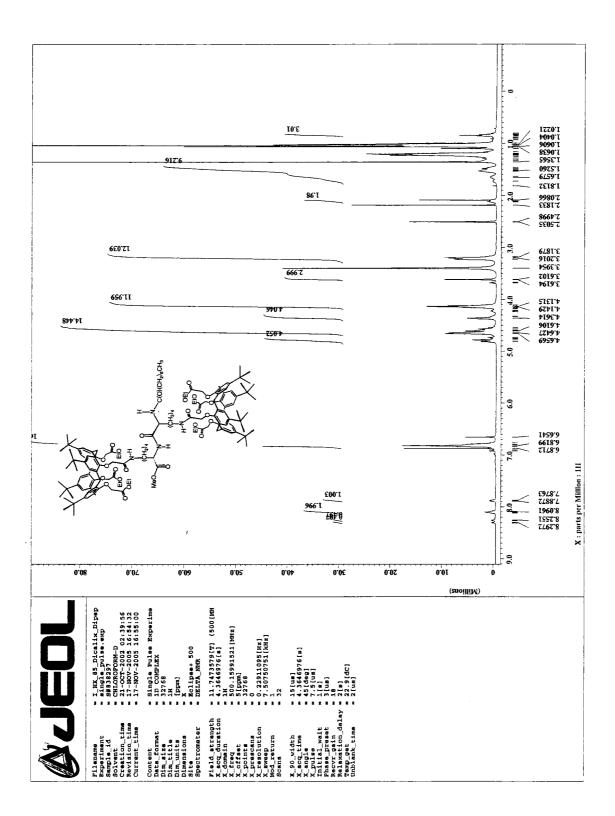
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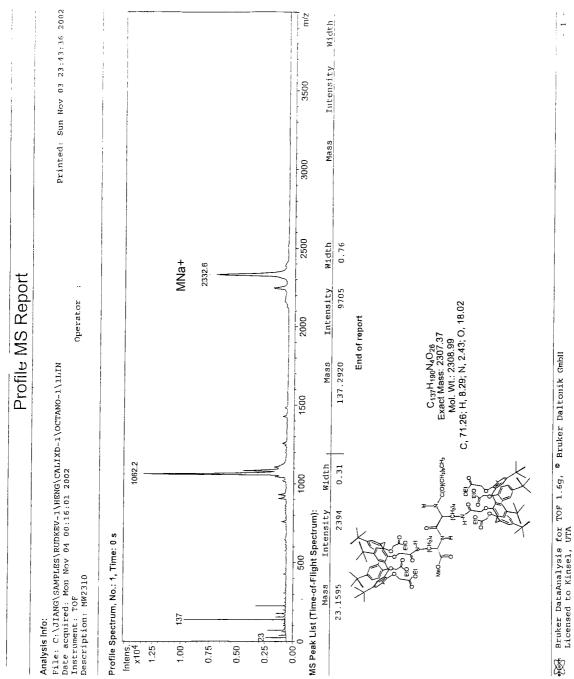




¹H NMR and MASS SPECTRA OF

Calixarene dipeptide (2a)



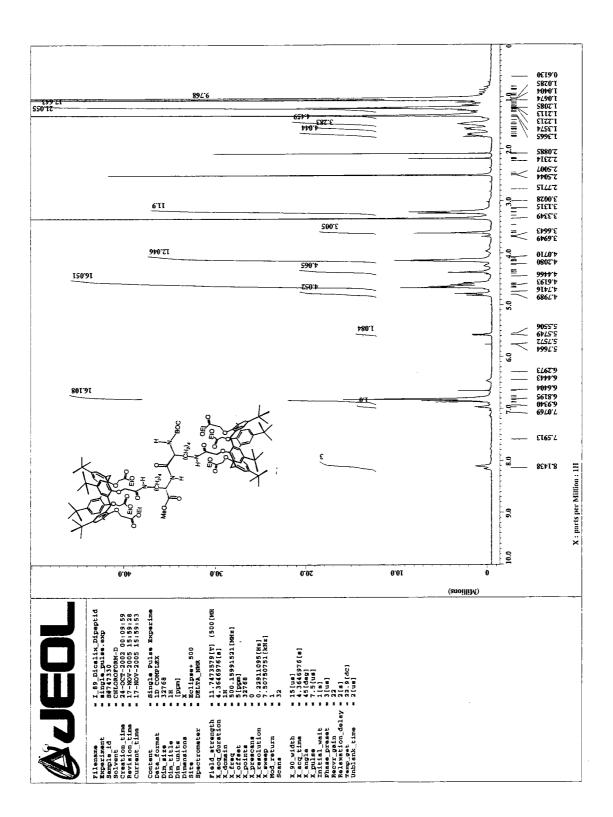


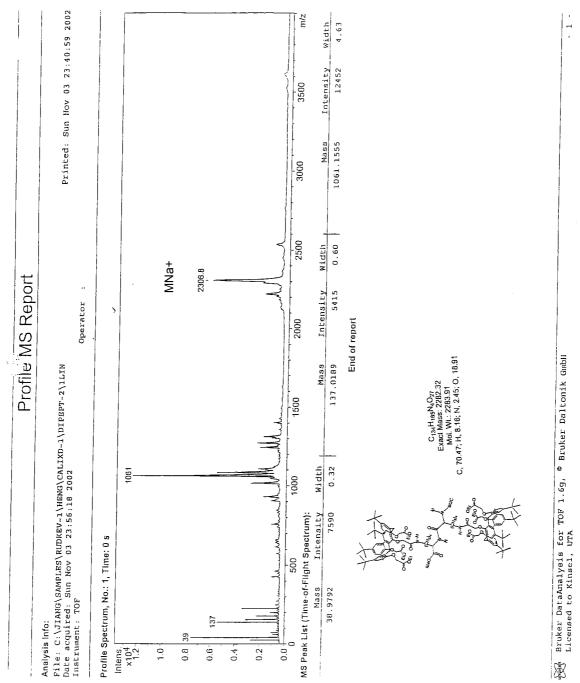


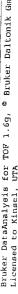
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¹H NMR and MASS SPECTRA OF

Calixarene dipeptide (2b)

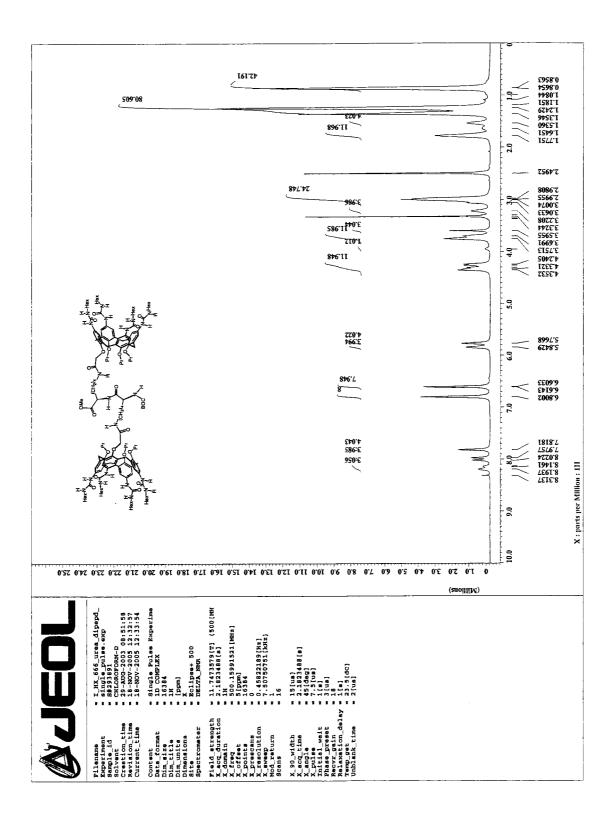


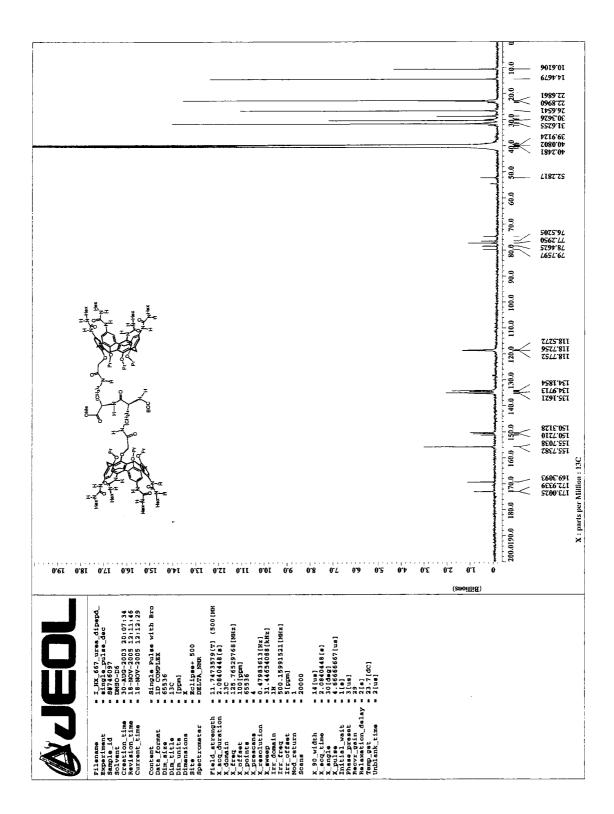


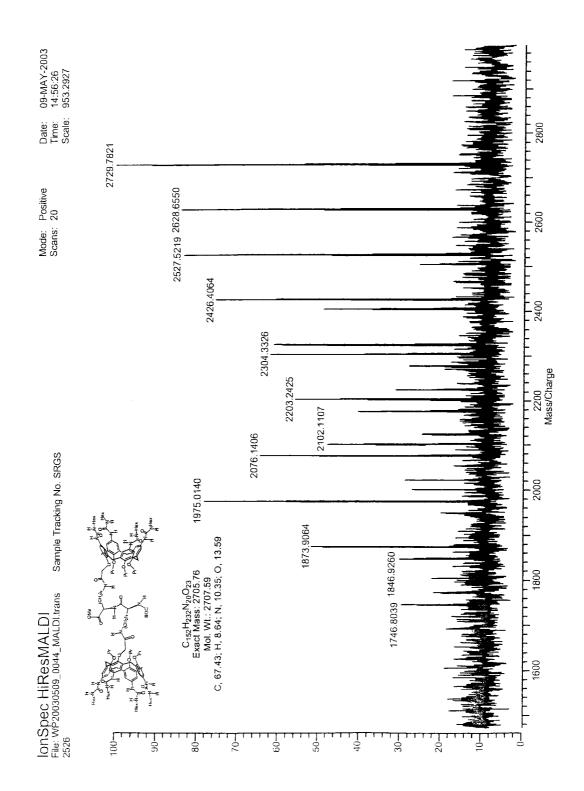


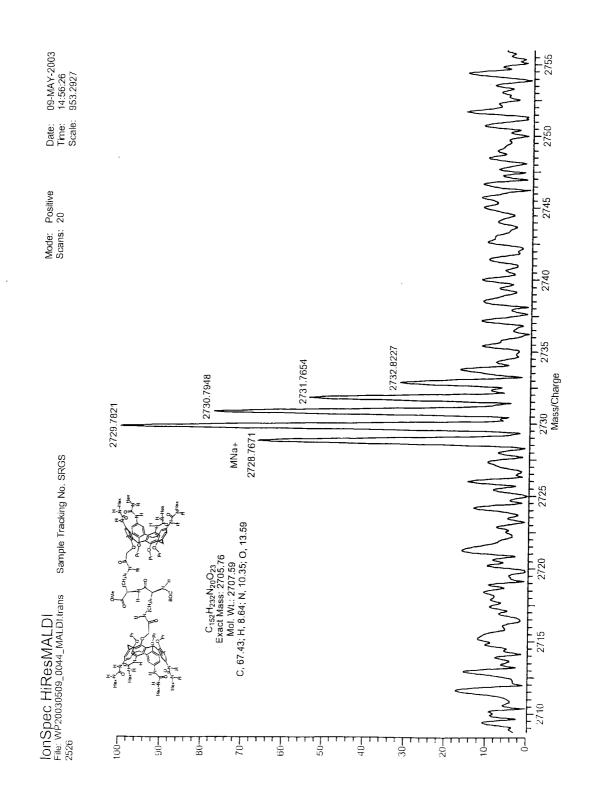
¹H NMR, ¹³C NMR and MASS SPECTRA OF

Biscalixarene (2c)



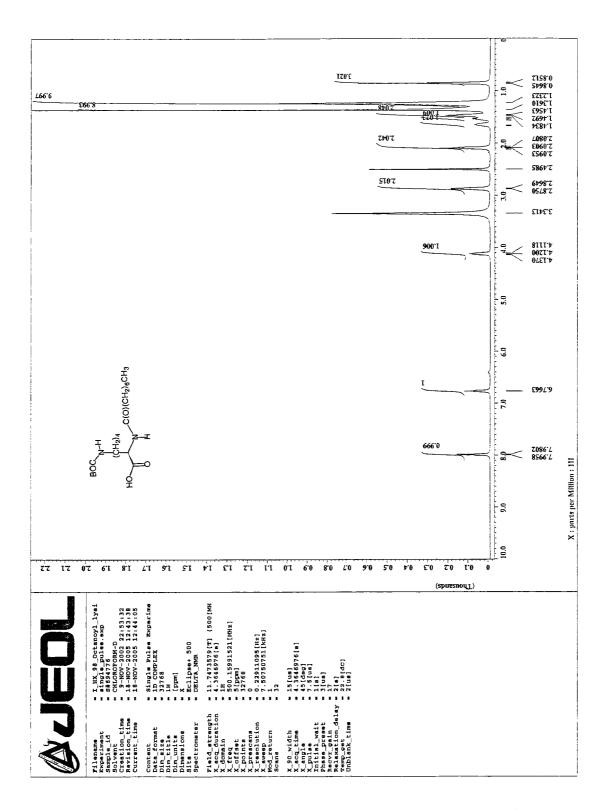






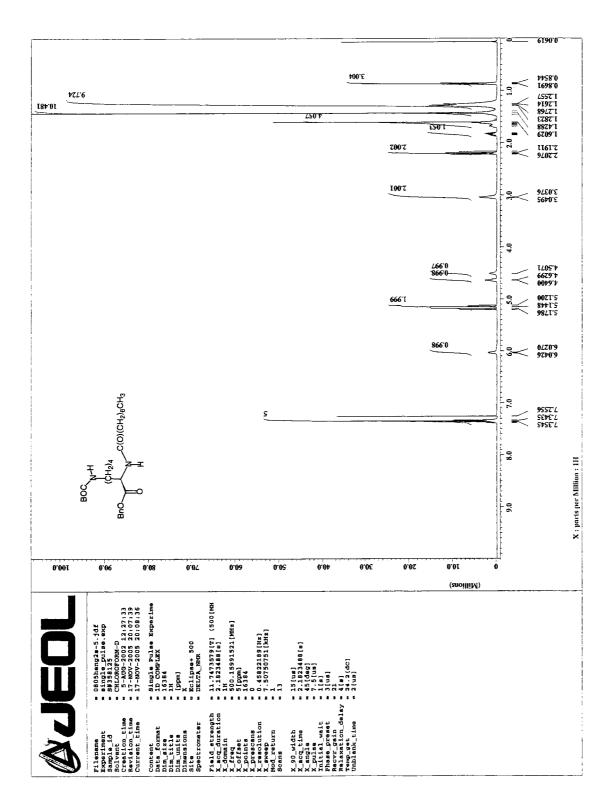
¹H NMR SPECTRUM OF

N-α-(*n*-Octanoyl)-*N*-ε-BOC-(±)-lysine (4)



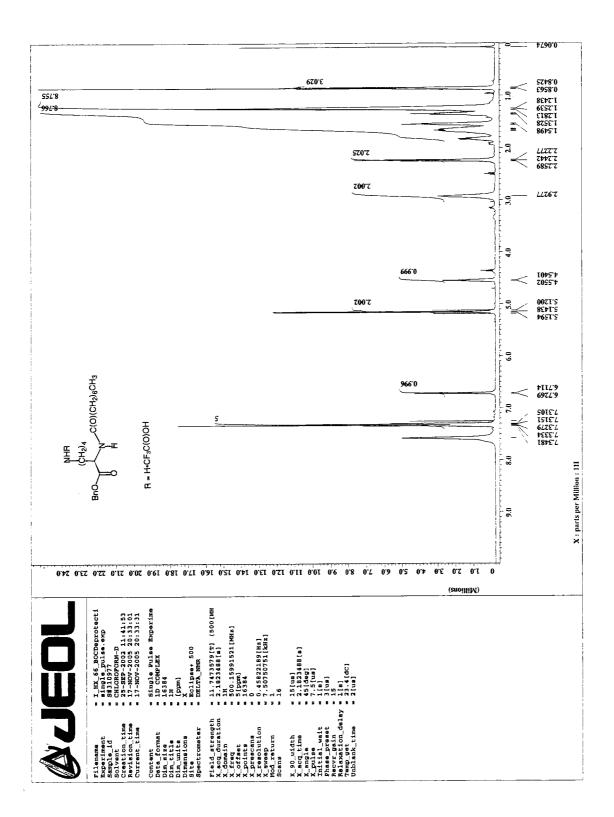
¹H NMR SPECTRUM OF

N-α-(n-Octanoyl)-N-ε-BOC-(±)-lysine, O-benzyl ester (5)



¹H NMR SPECTRUM OF

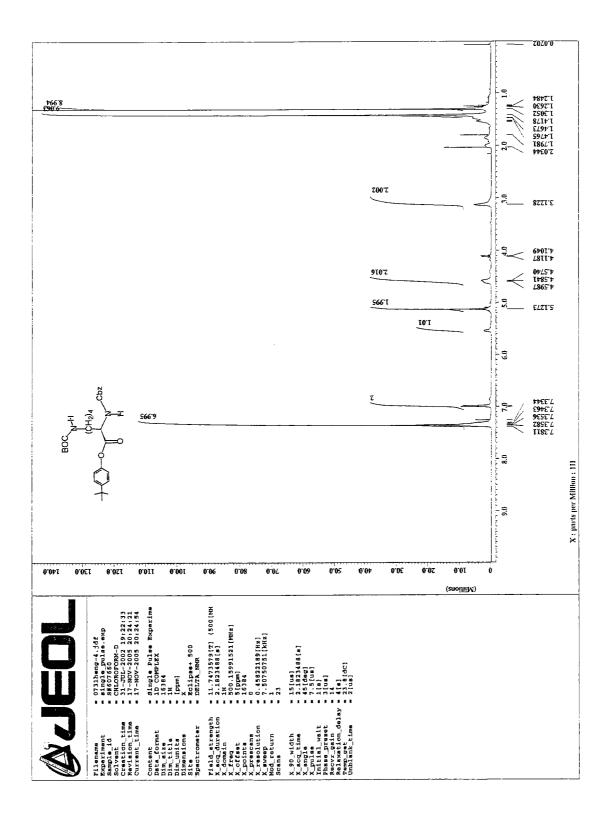
N-α-(n-Octanoyl)-(±)-lysine, O-benzyl ester, TFA salt (6)



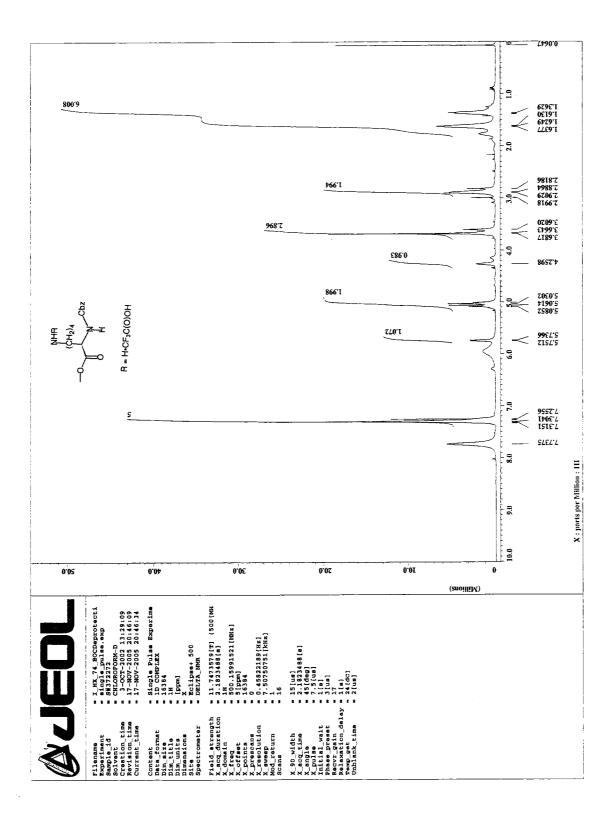
¹H NMR SPECTRUM OF

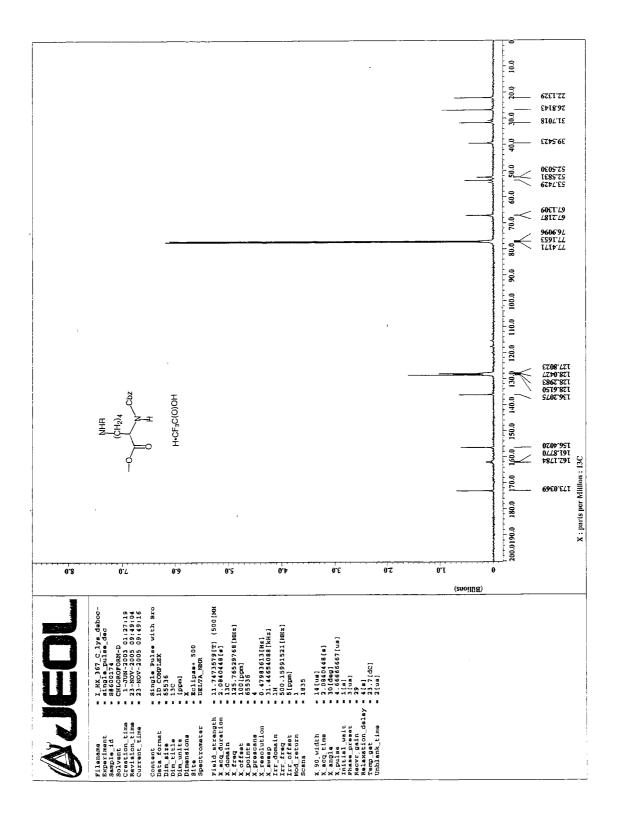
N-α-Cbz-N-ε-BOC-l-lysine, O-(4-tert-butyl)phenyl ester (9)

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¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR SPECTRA OF *N*-α-Cbz-*l*-lysine, *O*-methyl ester, TFA salt (10)



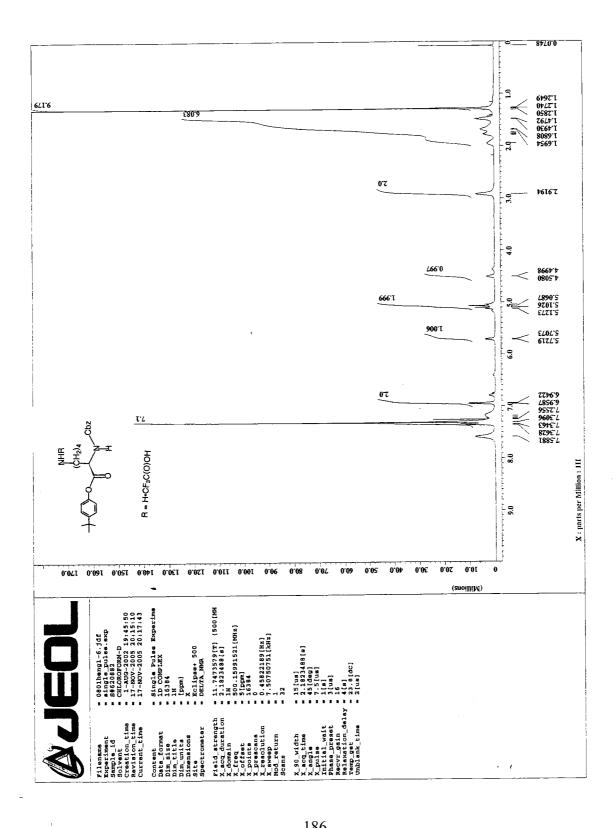


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¹H NMR SPECTRUM OF

N-α-Cbz-l-lysine, O-(4-tert-butyl)phenyl ester, TFA salt (11)

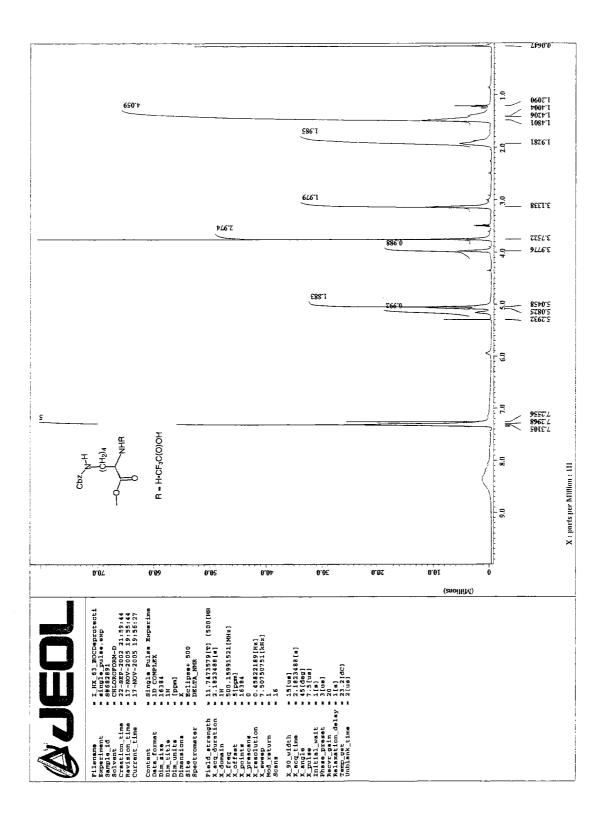
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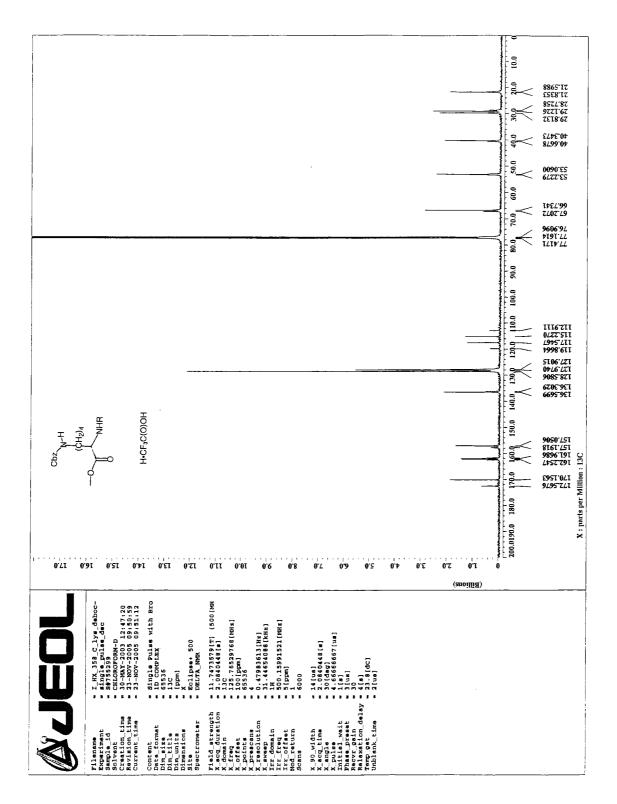


¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR SPECTRA OF

N-E-Cbz-l-lysine, O-methyl ester, TFA salt (15)

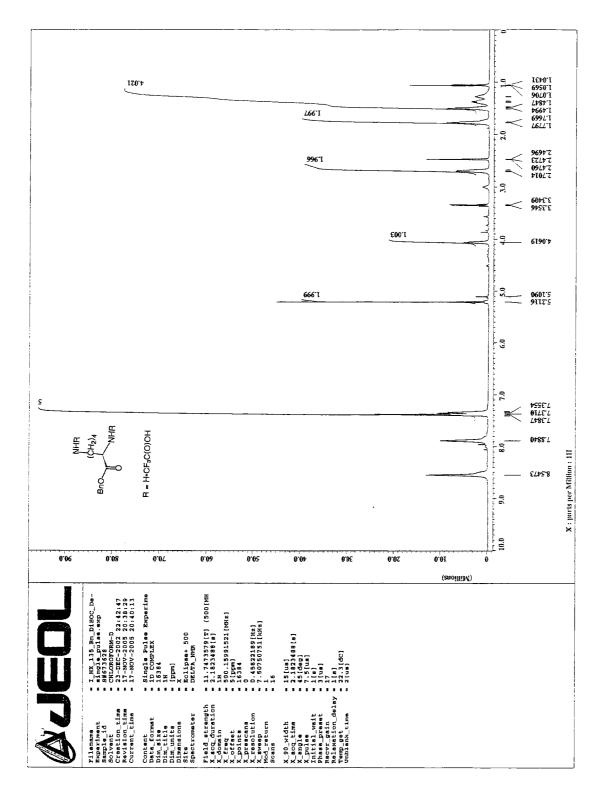
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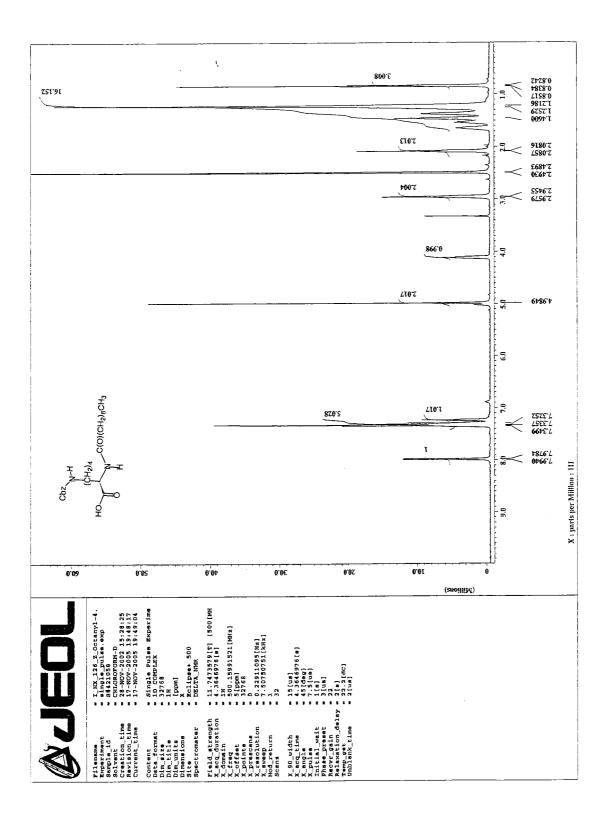
¹H NMR SPECTRUM OF

N-ε-Cbz-l-lysine, O-benzyl ester, TFA salt (20)



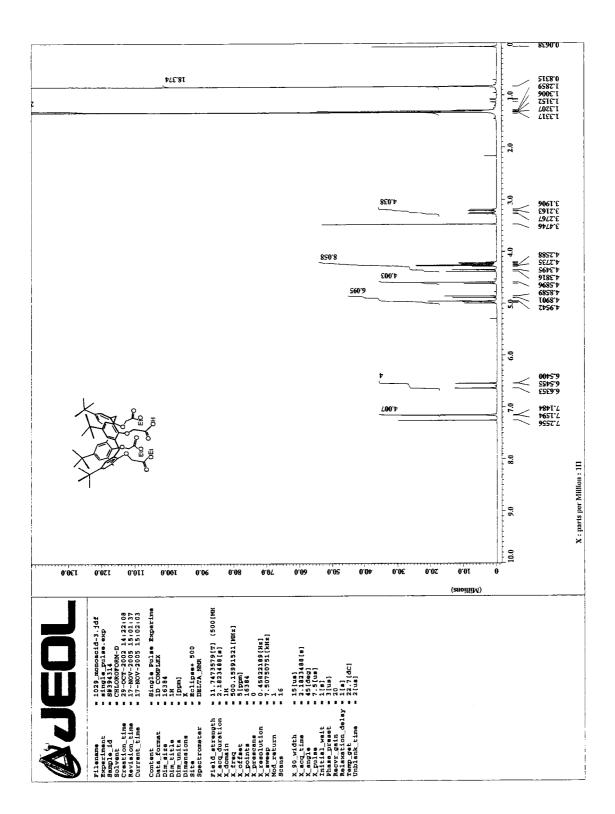
¹H NMR SPECTRUM OF

N-α-(*n*-Octanoyl)-*N*-ε-Cbz-(±)-lysine (22)



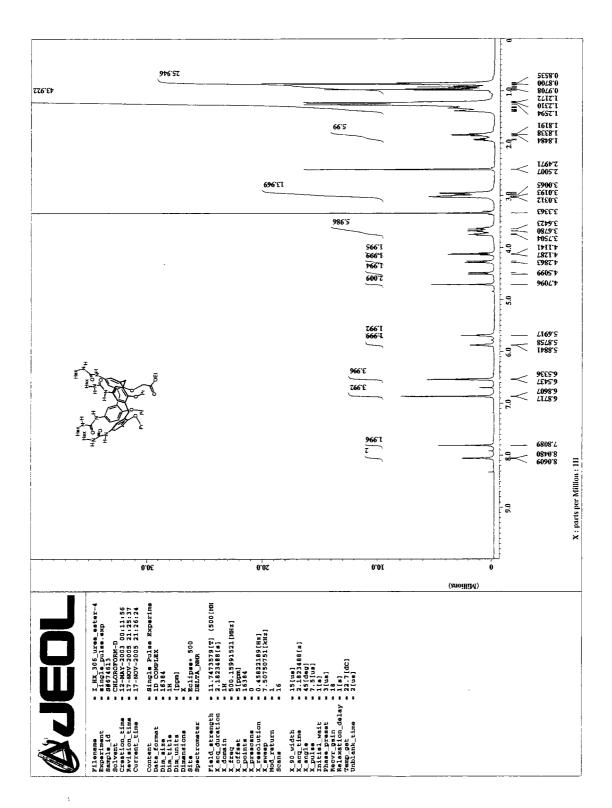
¹H NMR SPECTRUM OF

Calixarene monoacid (25)



¹H NMR SPECTRUM OF

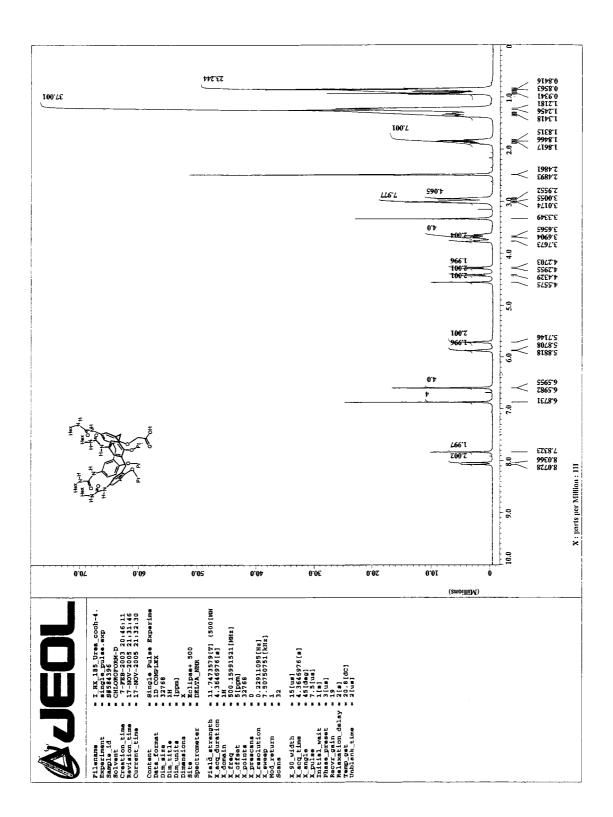
Calixarene tetraurea monoester (31)

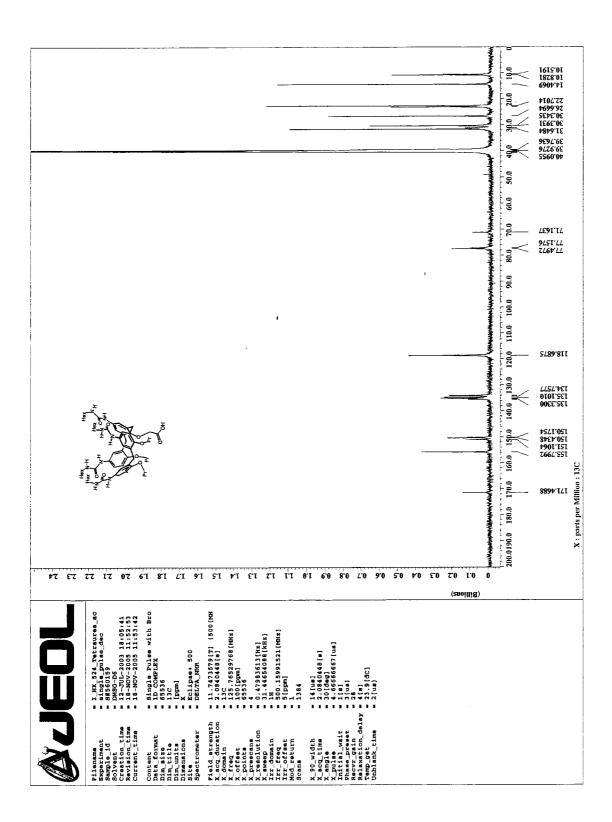


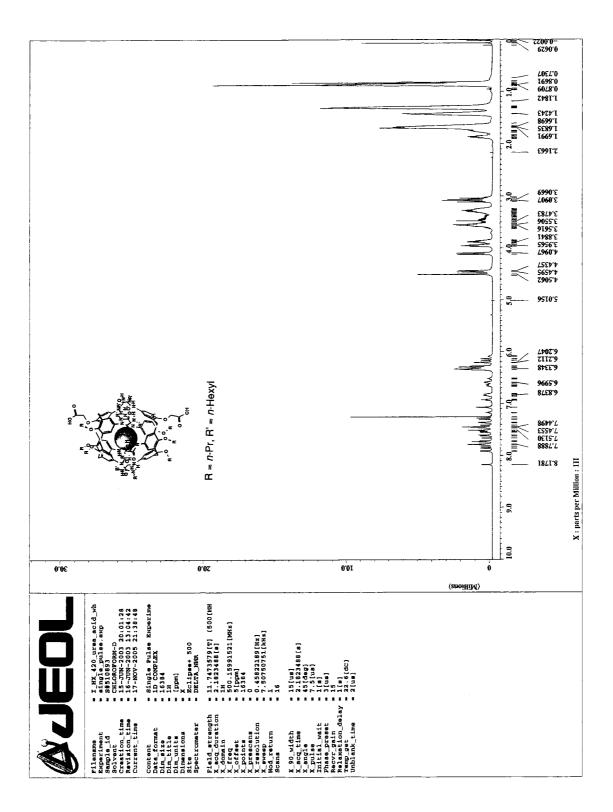
¹H NMR, ¹³C NMR and MASS SPECTRA OF

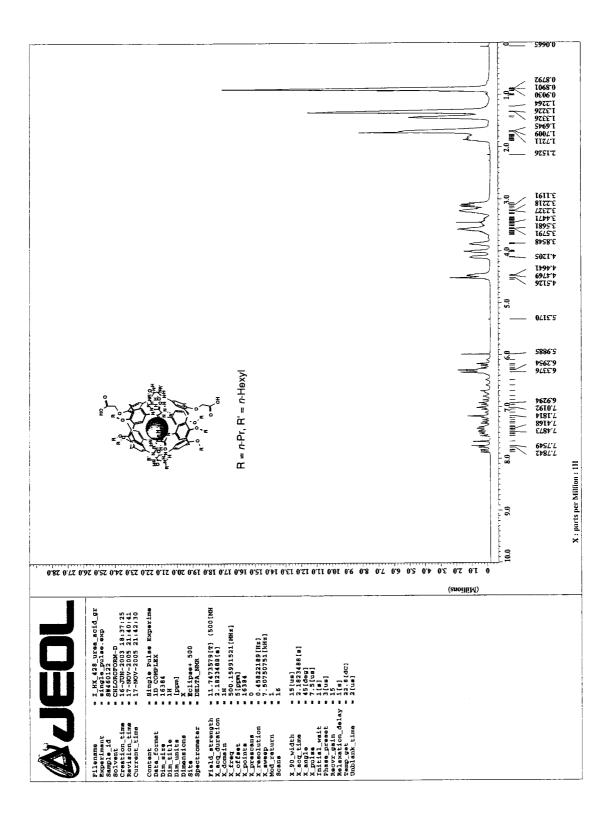
Calixarene tetraurea acid (32)

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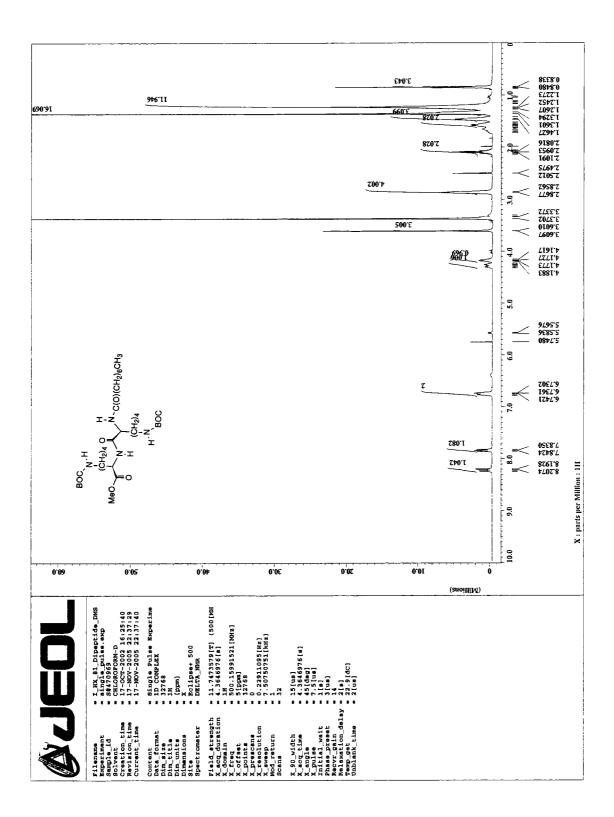




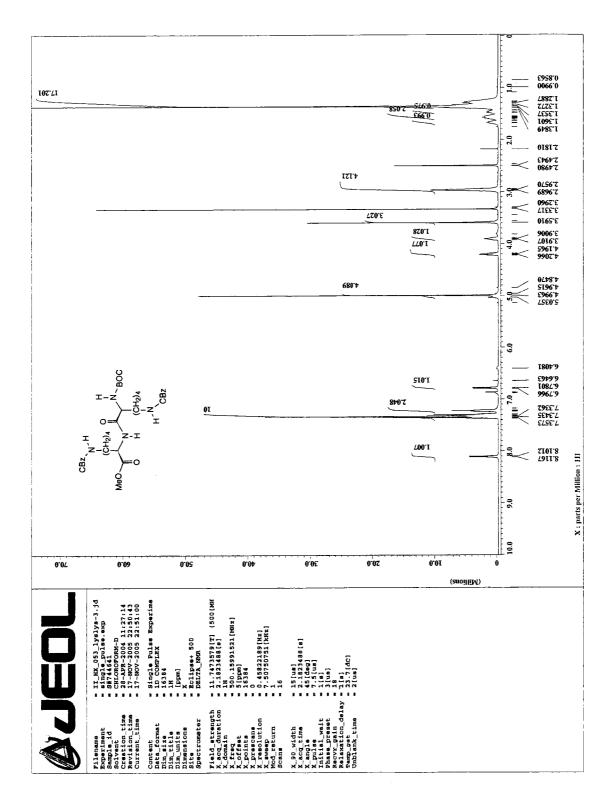


¹H NMR SPECTRUM OF Lysine dipeptide (33)

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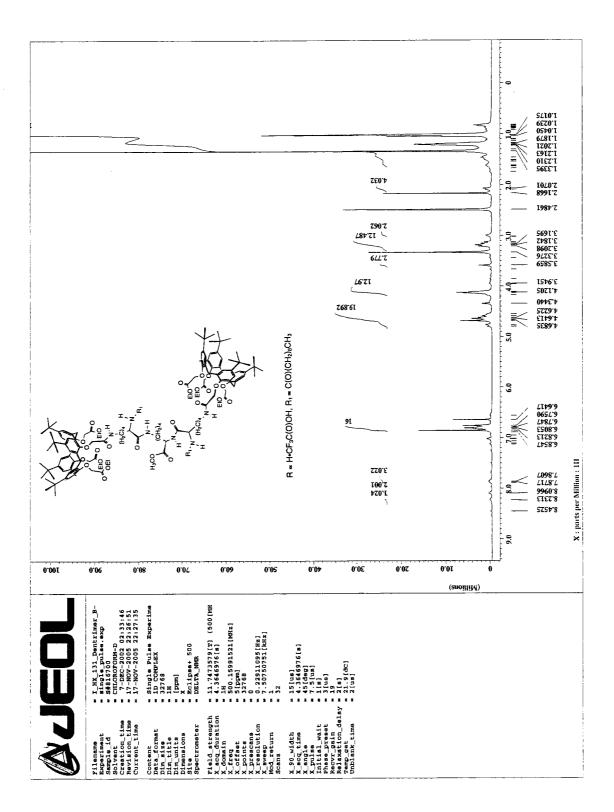
¹H NMR SPECTRUM OF Lysine dipeptide (35)

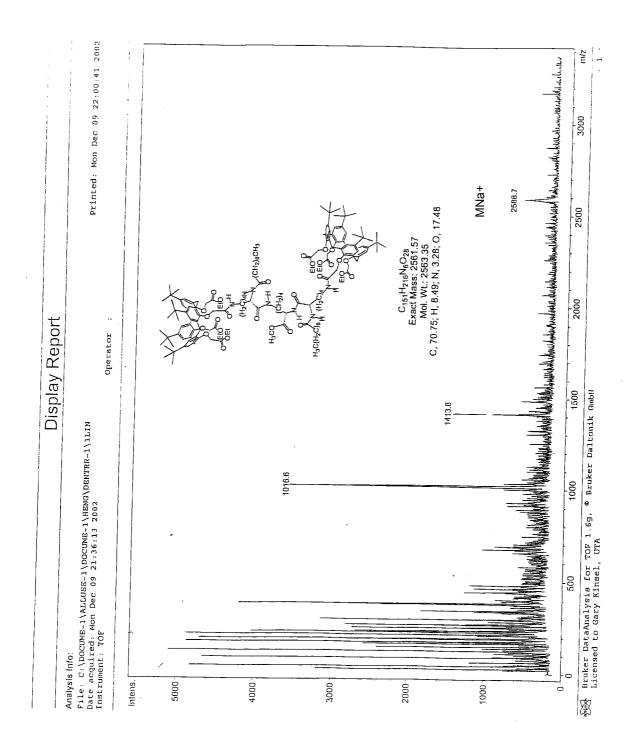


¹H NMR and MASS SPECTRA OF

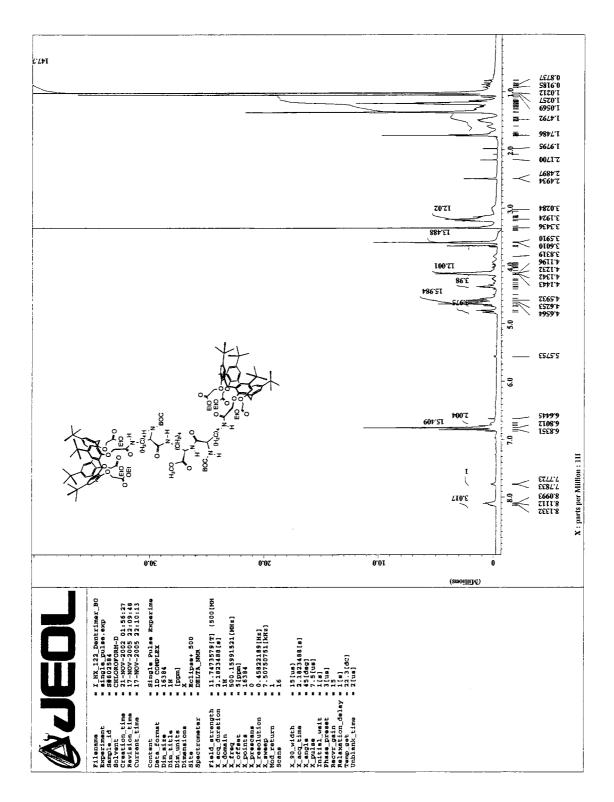
Calixarene dendrimer (37a)

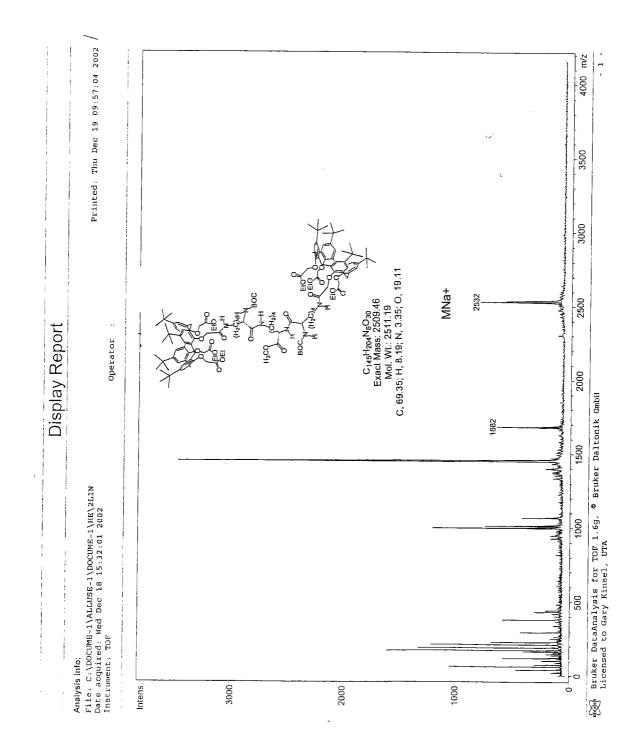
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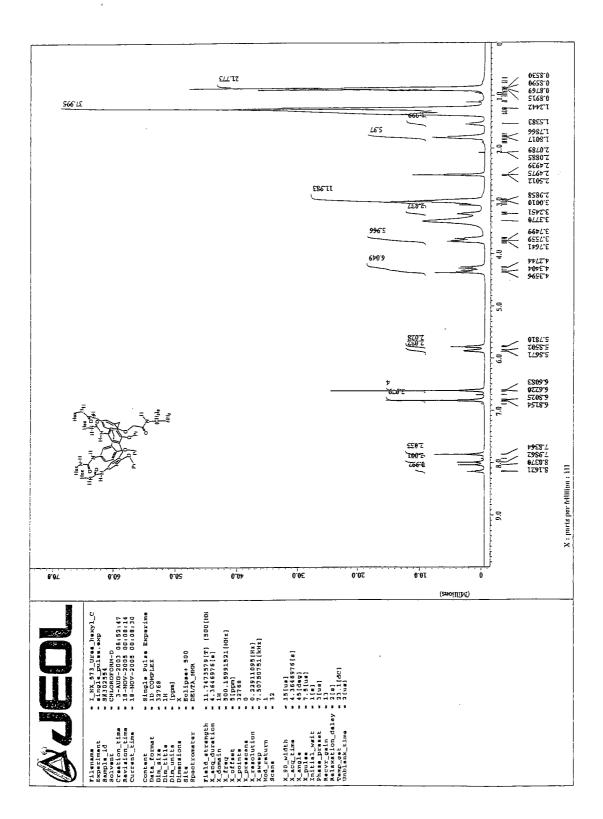
¹H NMR and MASS SPECTRA OF Calixarene dendrimer (37b)

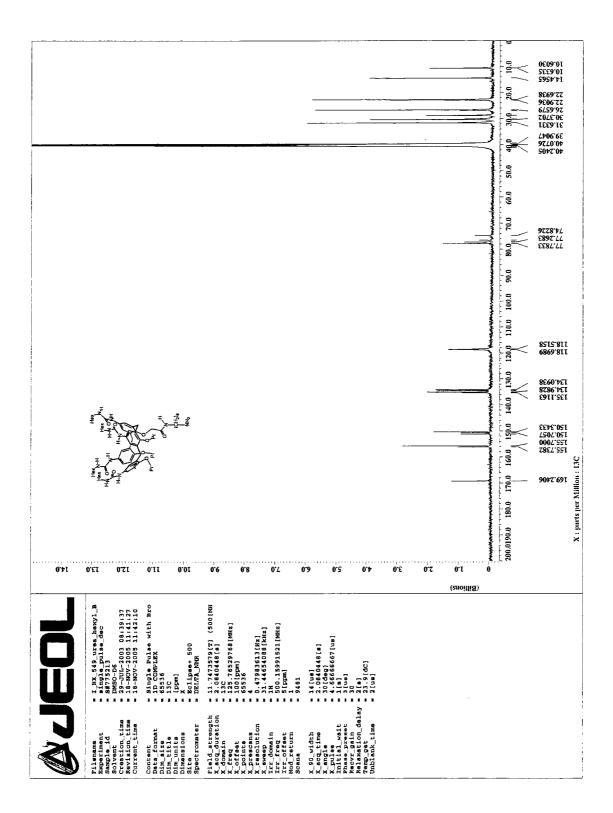


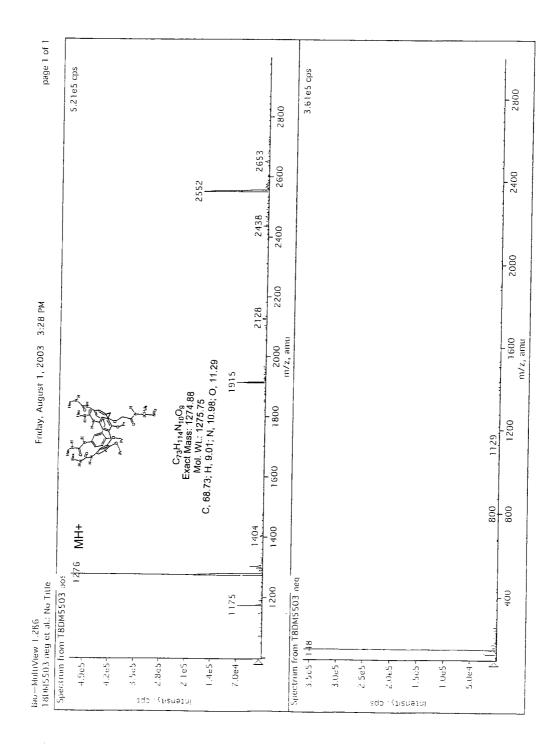


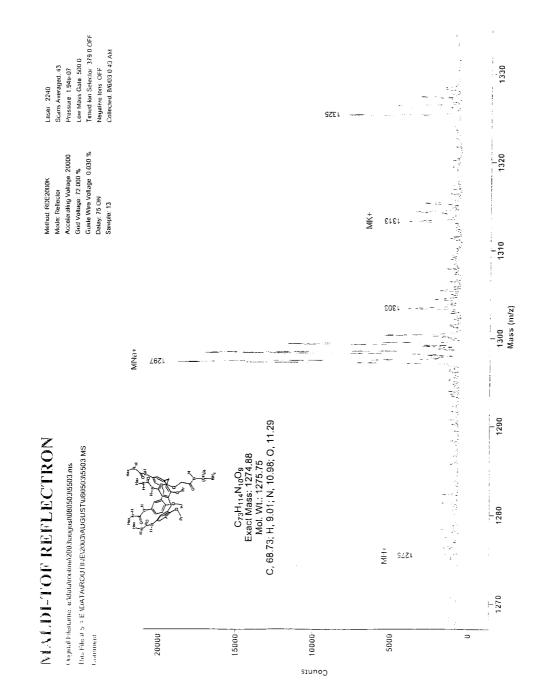
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¹H NMR, ¹³C NMR and MASS SPECTRA OF Calixarene hexylamine (57)



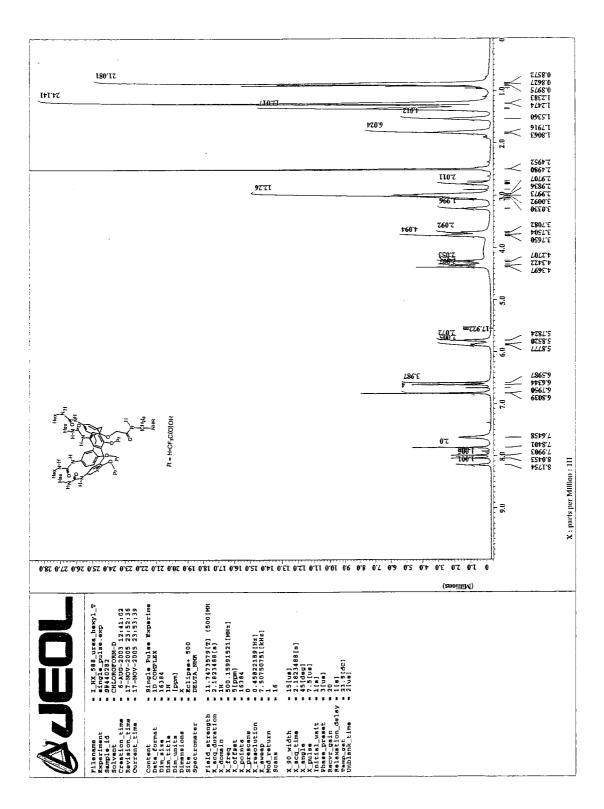


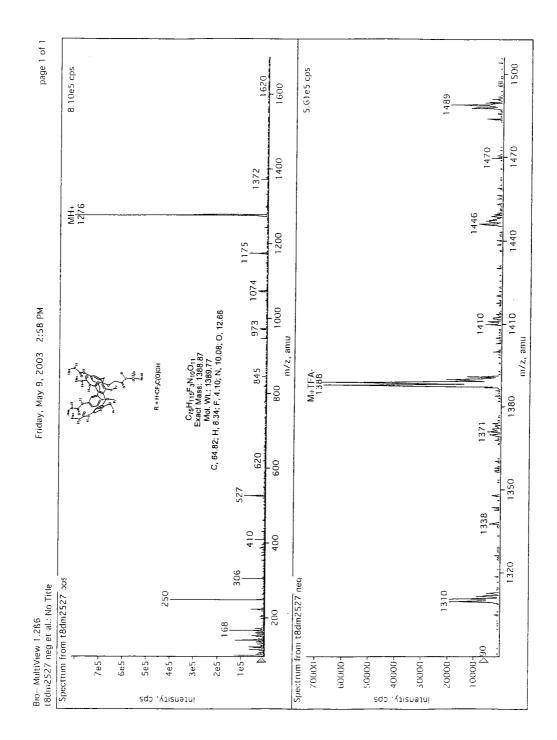




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¹H NMR and MASS SPECTRA OF TFA salt of (57)

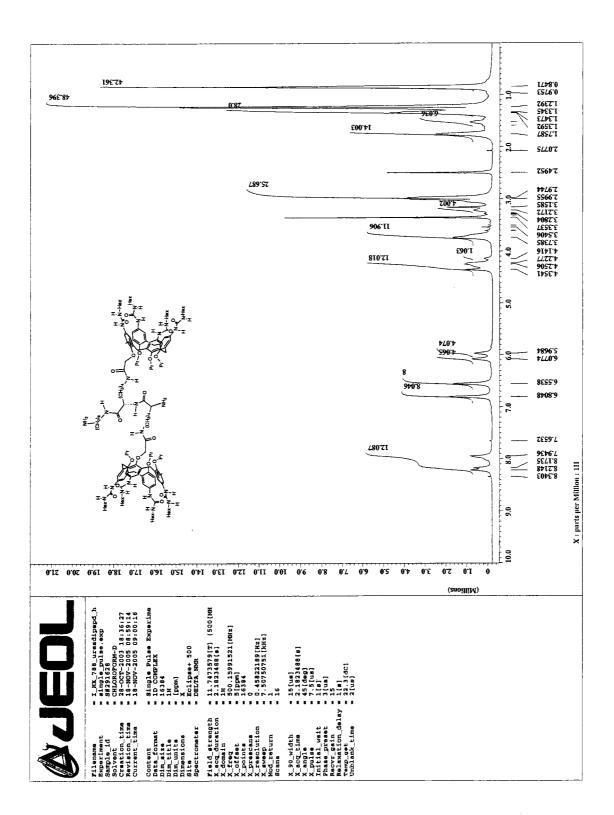


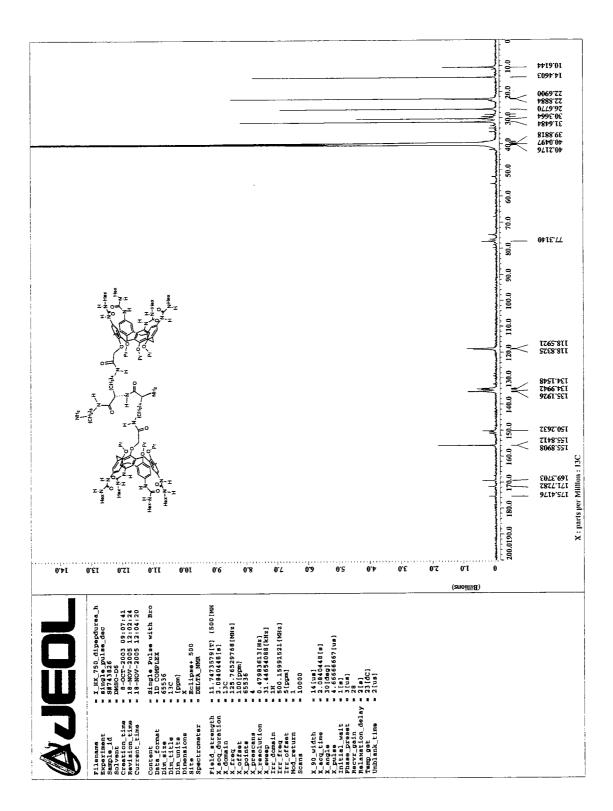


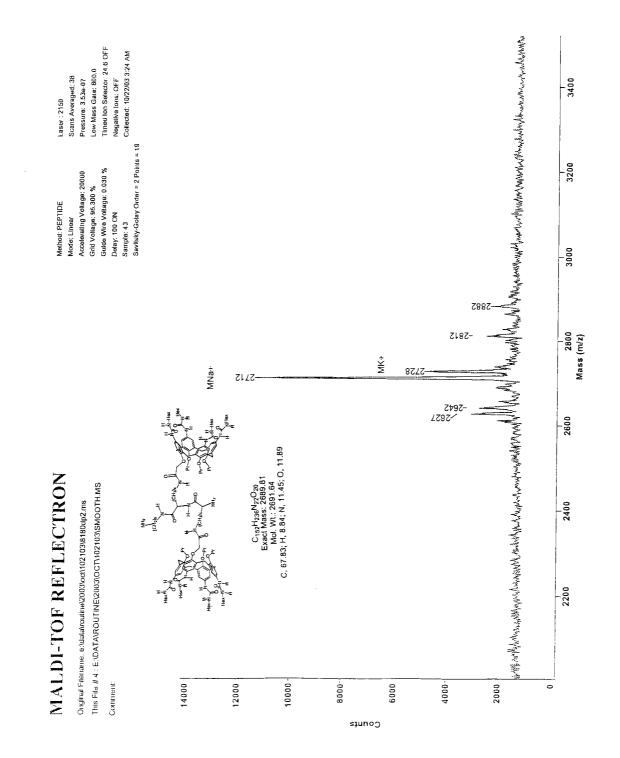
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¹H NMR, ¹³C NMR and MASS SPECTRA OF Biscalixarene (58)



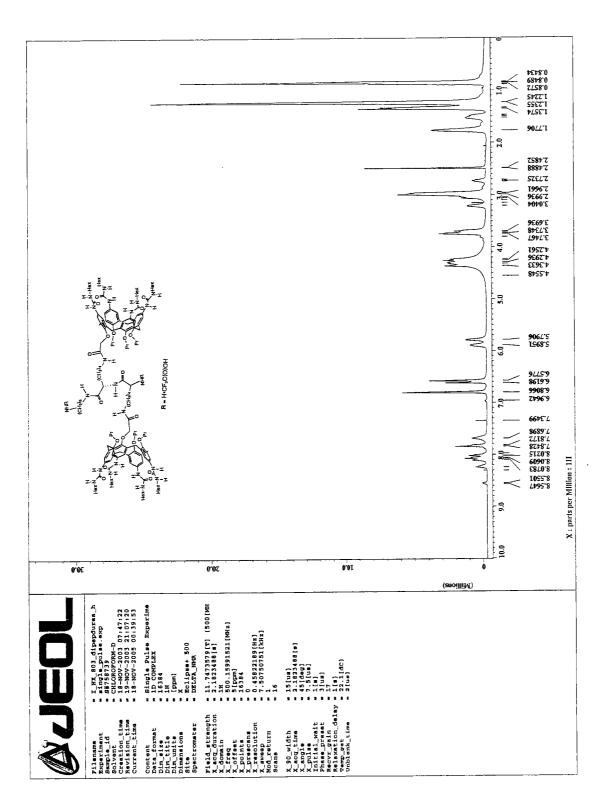




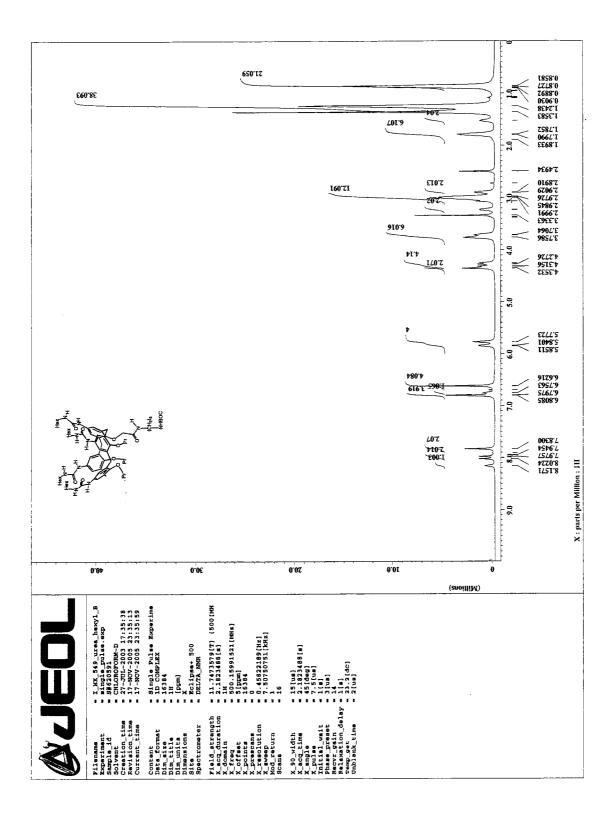
¹H NMR SPECTRUM OF

TFA salt of Biscalixarene (58)

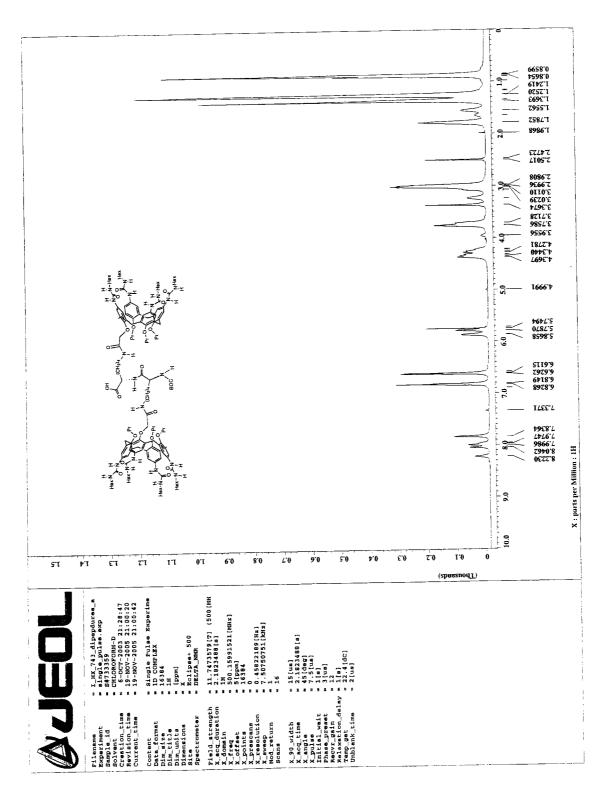
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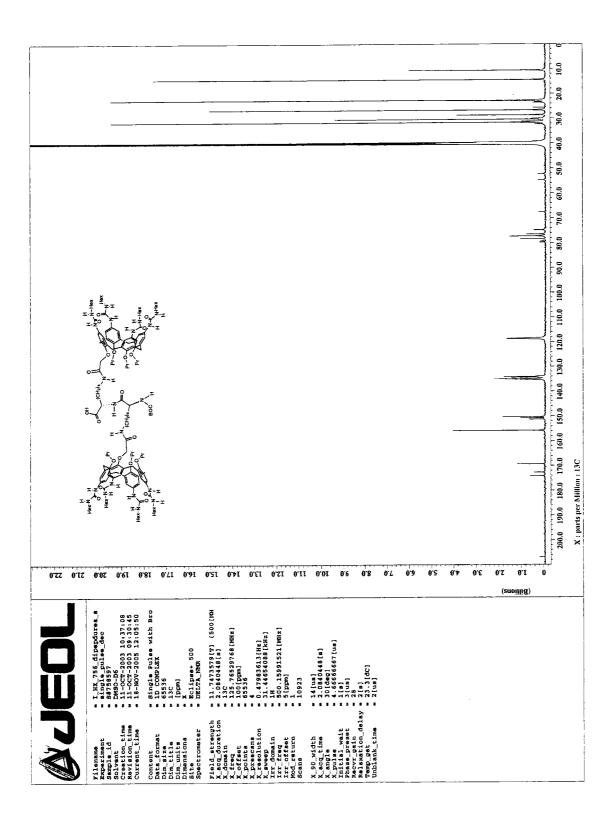


¹H NMR SPECTRUM OF Calixarene (59)

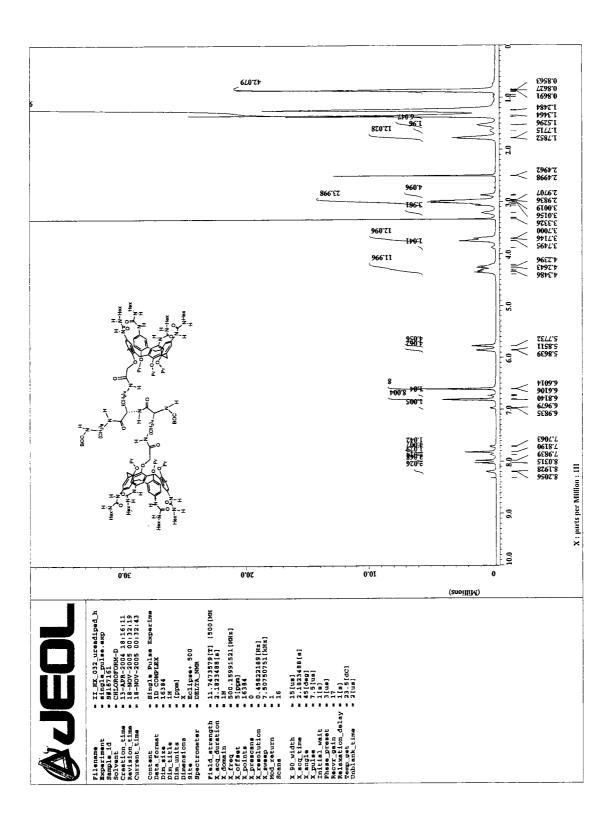


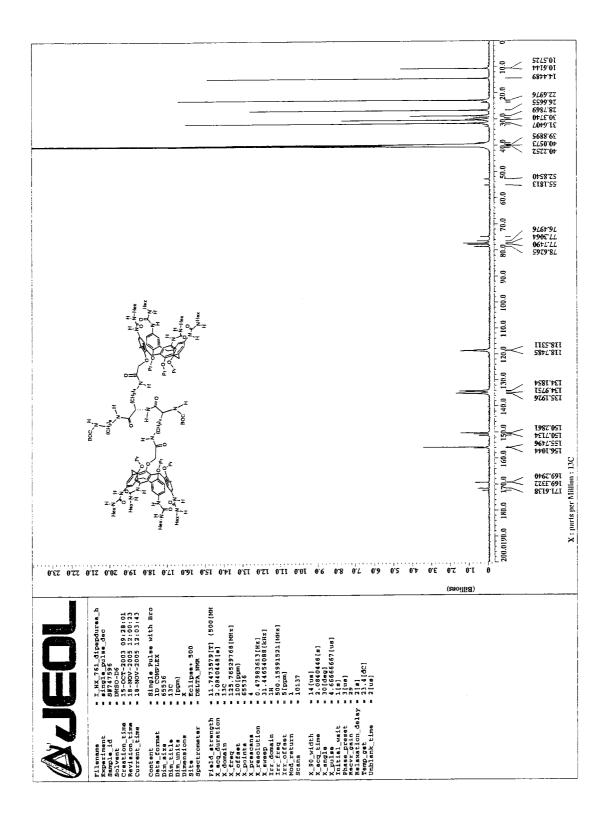
¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR SPECTRA OF Biscalixarene (60)





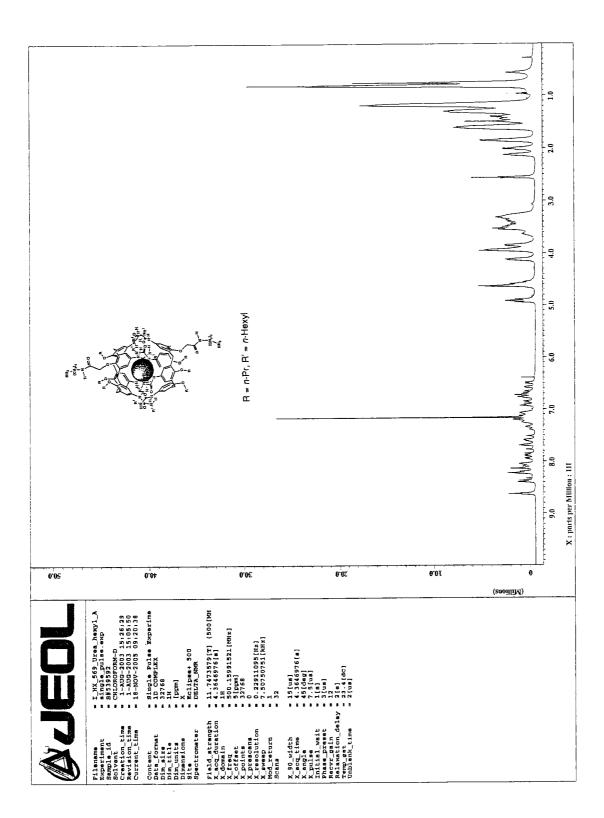
¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR SPECTRA OF Biscalixarene (61)





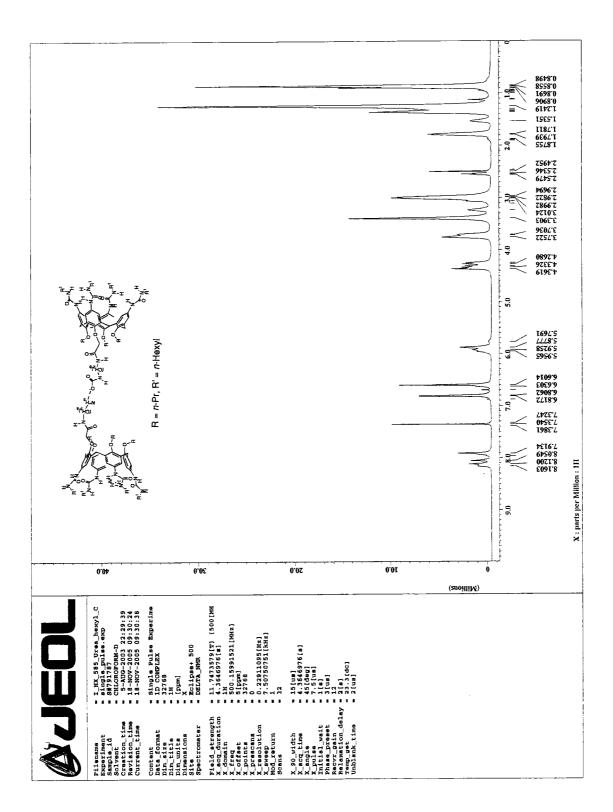
¹H NMR SPECTRUM OF

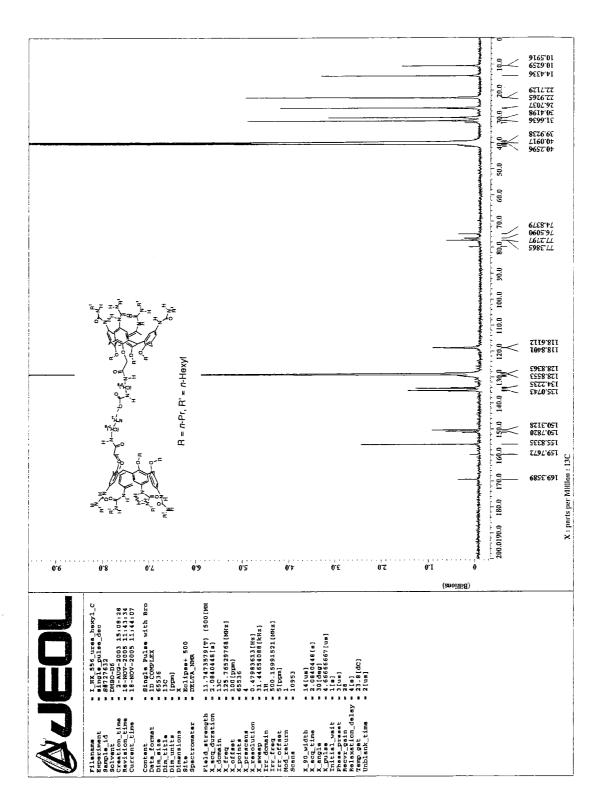
Calixarene Capsule (62)



¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR SPECTRA OF

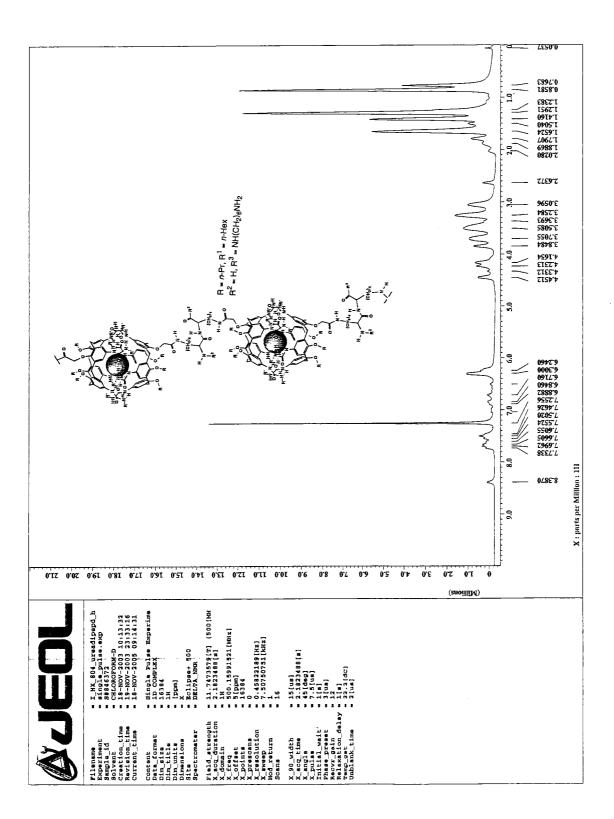
Calixarene carbamate salt (64)





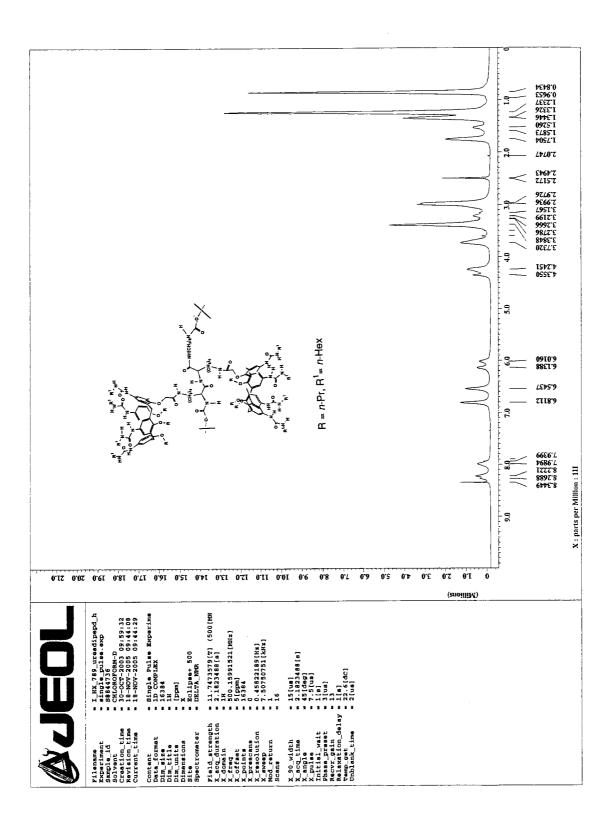
¹H NMR SPECTRUM OF

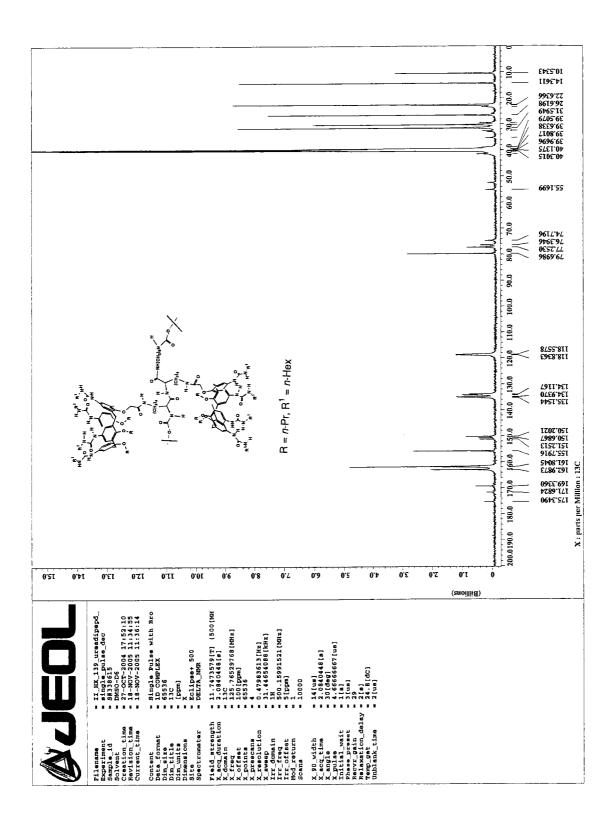
Calixarene supramolecular polymer (65)



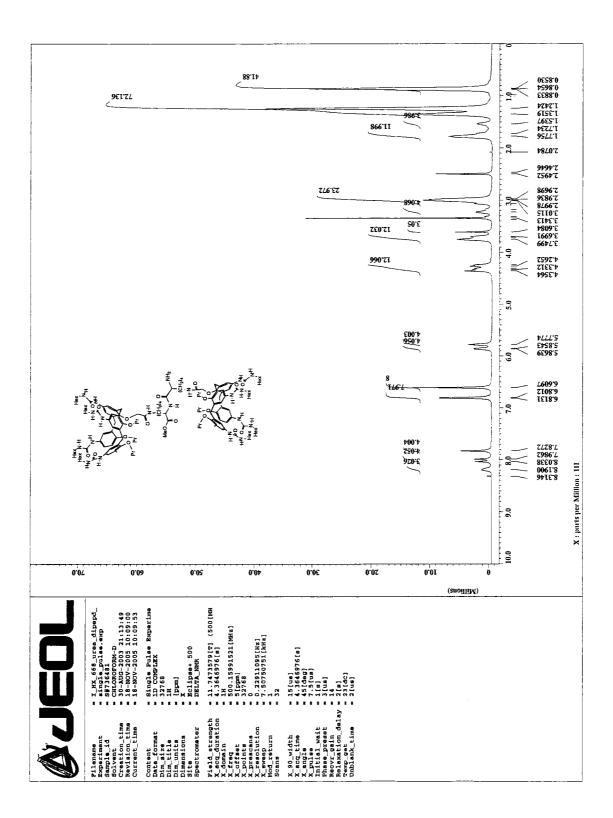
¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR SPECTRA OF

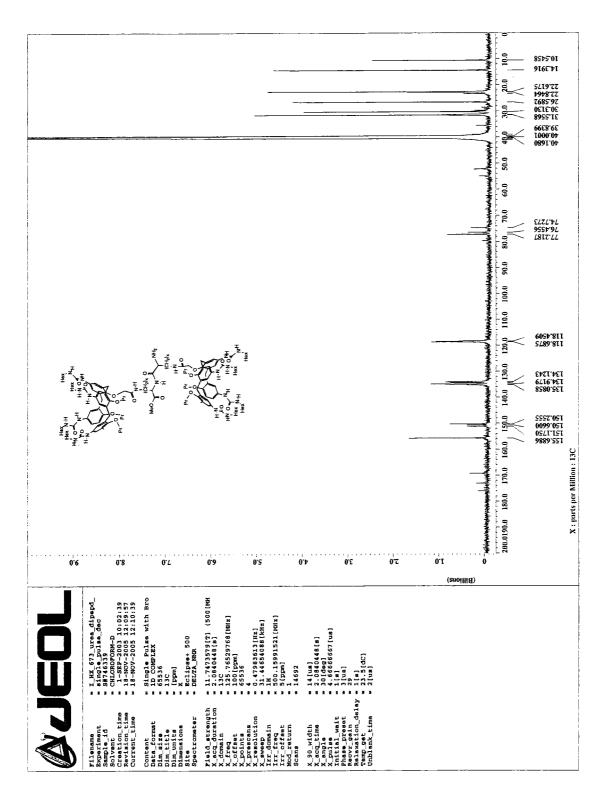
Biscalixarene carbamate salt (66)

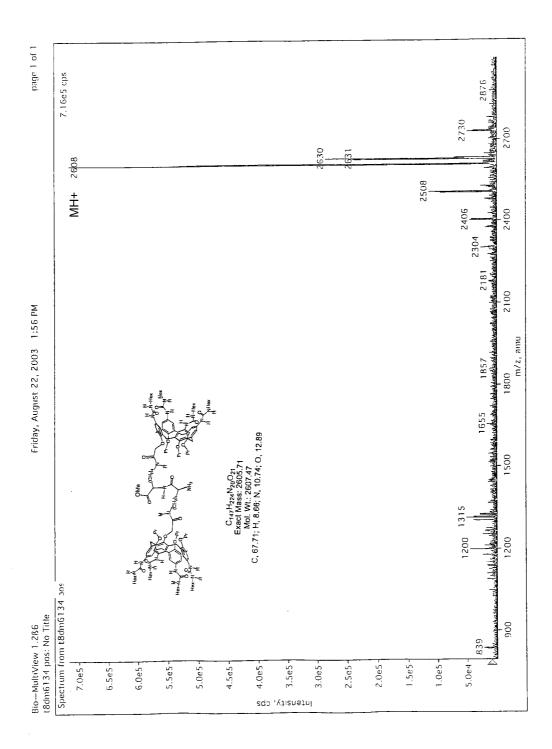




¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR SPECTRA OF Biscalixarene (68)



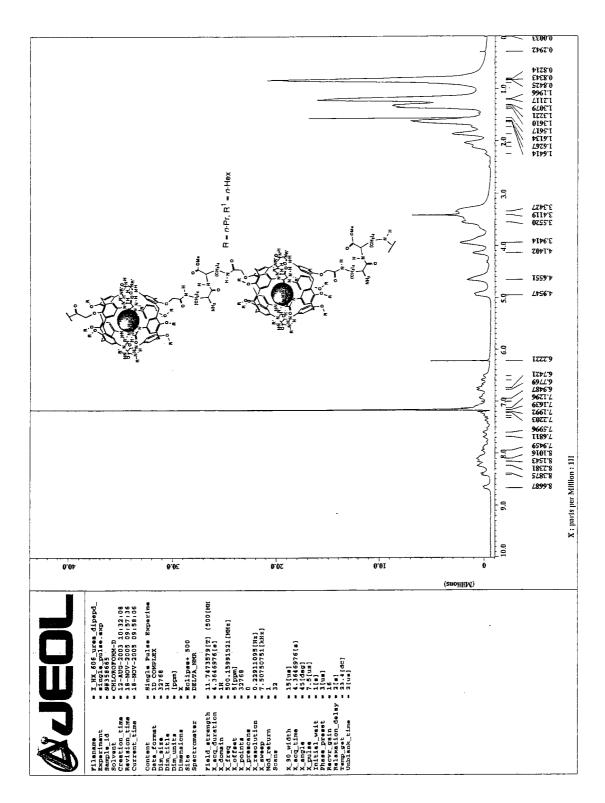




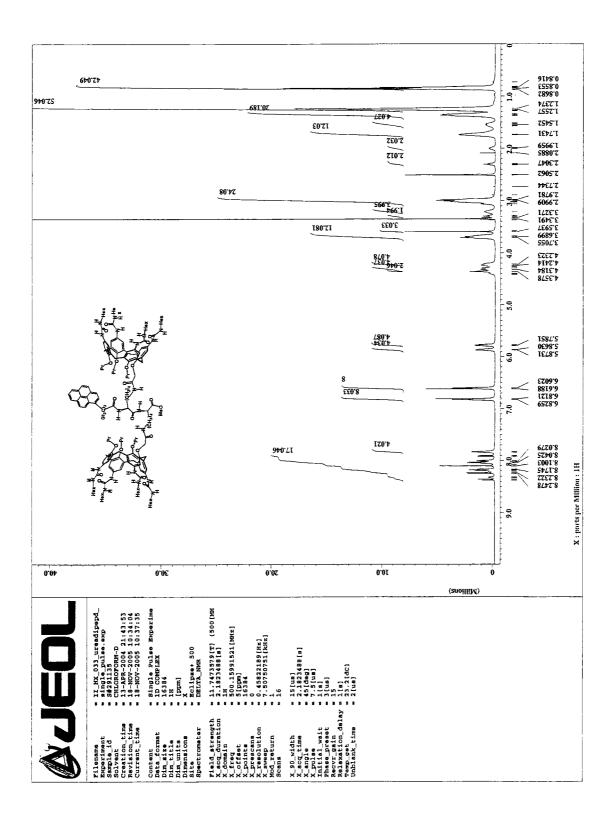
¹H NMR SPECTRUM OF

Calixarene supramolecular polymer (69)

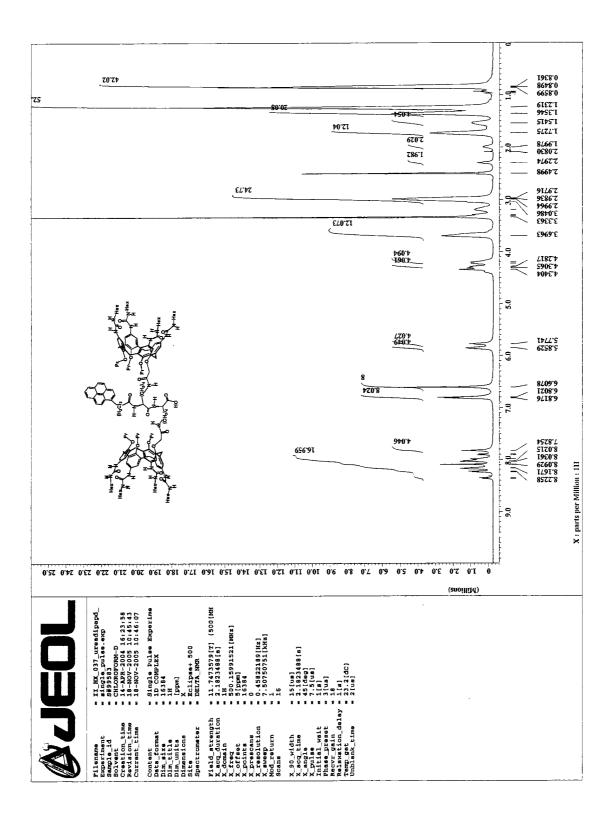
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¹H NMR SPECTRUM OF Biscalixarene (70)

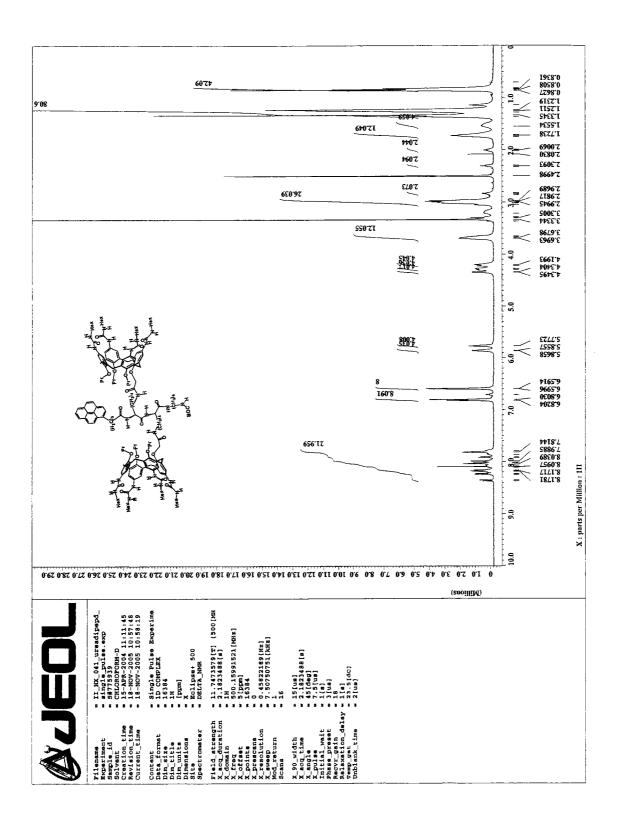


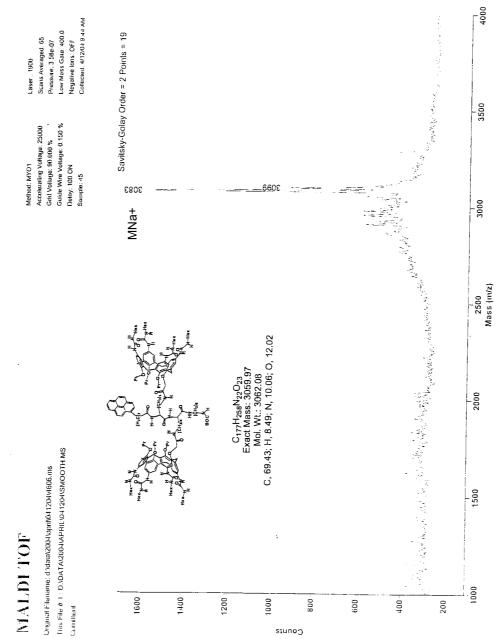
¹H NMR SPECTRUM OF Biscalixarene (71)



¹H NMR and MASS SPECTRA OF

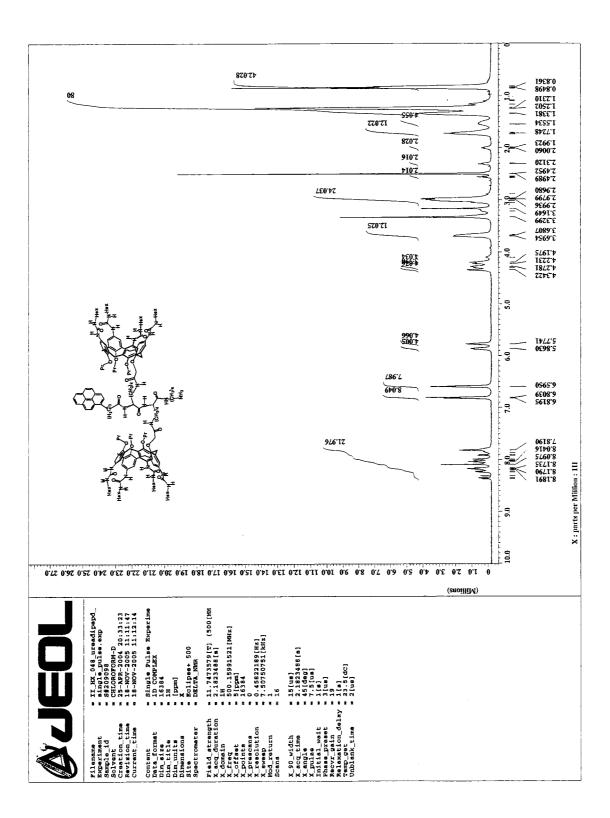
Biscalixarene (72)

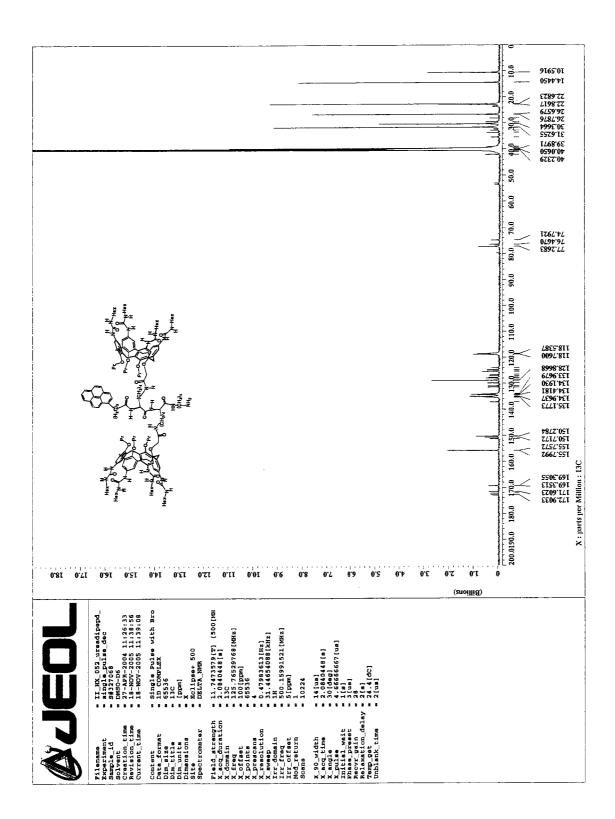


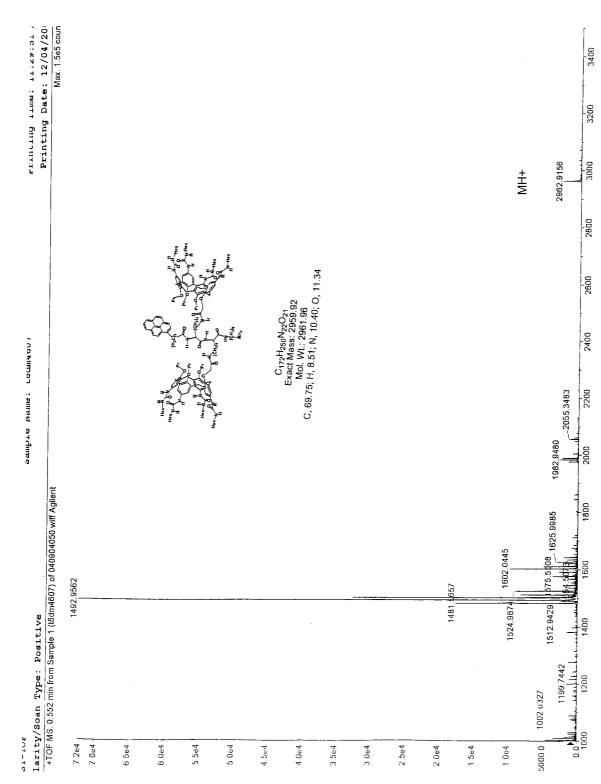


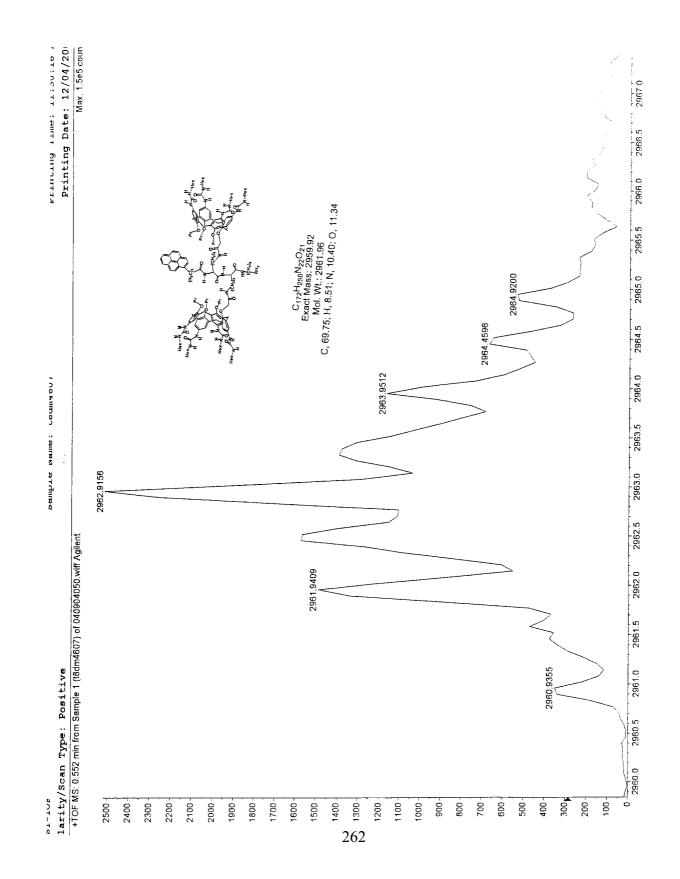
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¹H NMR, ¹³C NMR and MASS SPECTRA OF Biscalixarene (73)





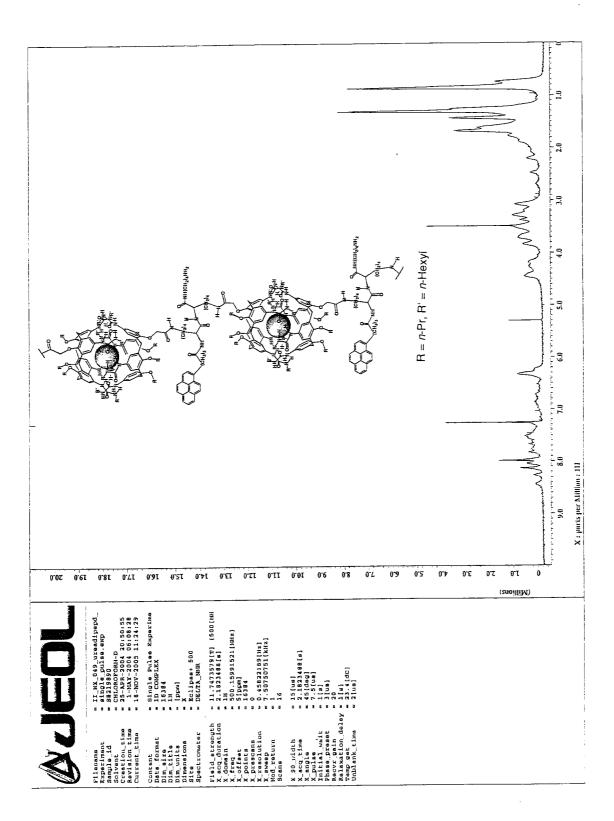




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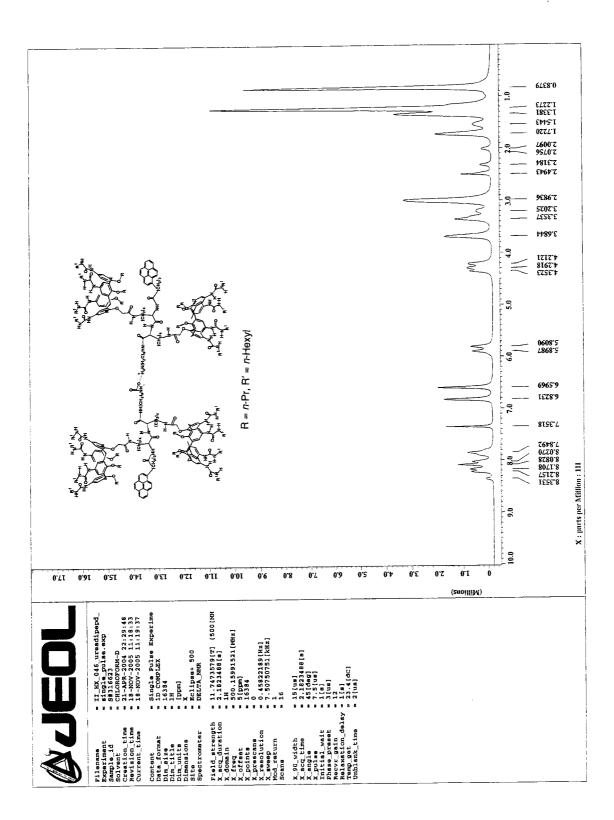
¹H NMR SPECTRUM OF

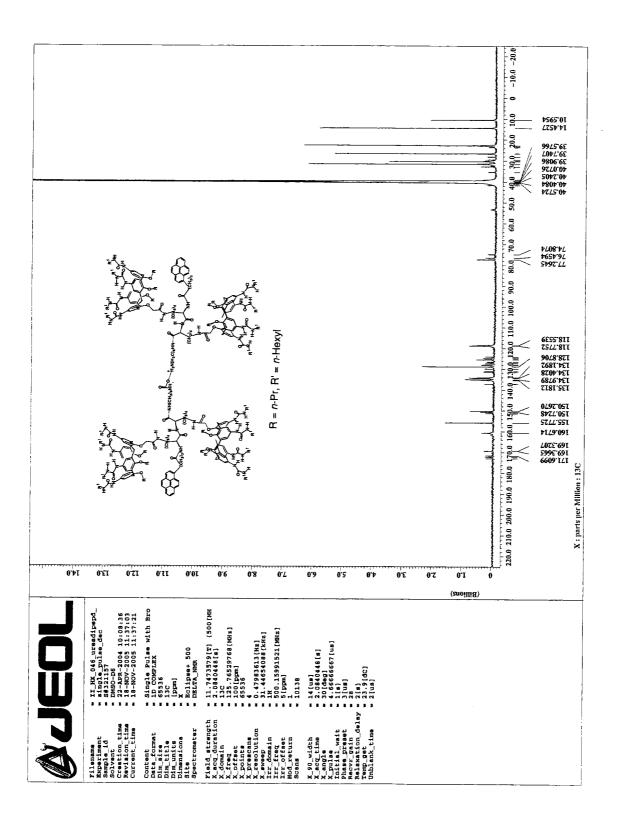
Calixarene supramolecular polymer (74)



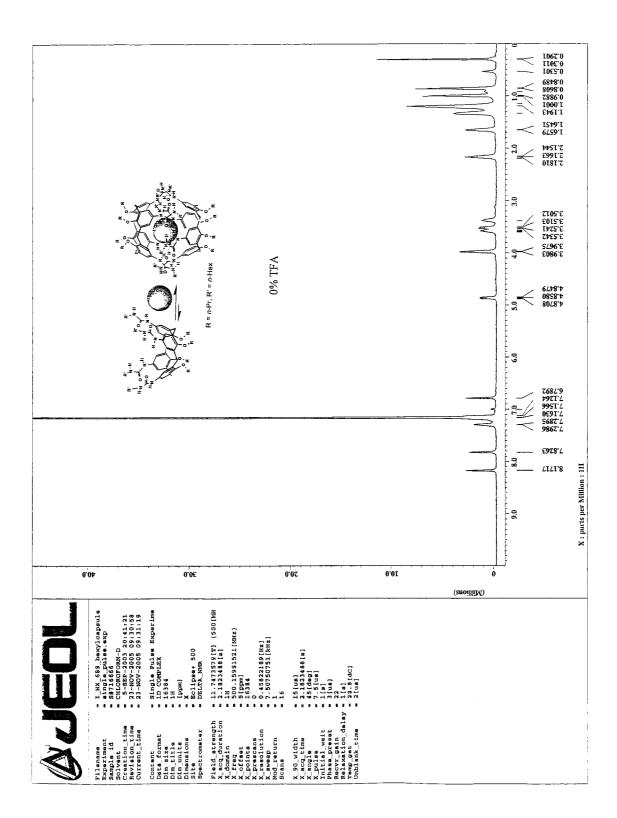
¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR SPECTRA OF Biscalixarene (75)

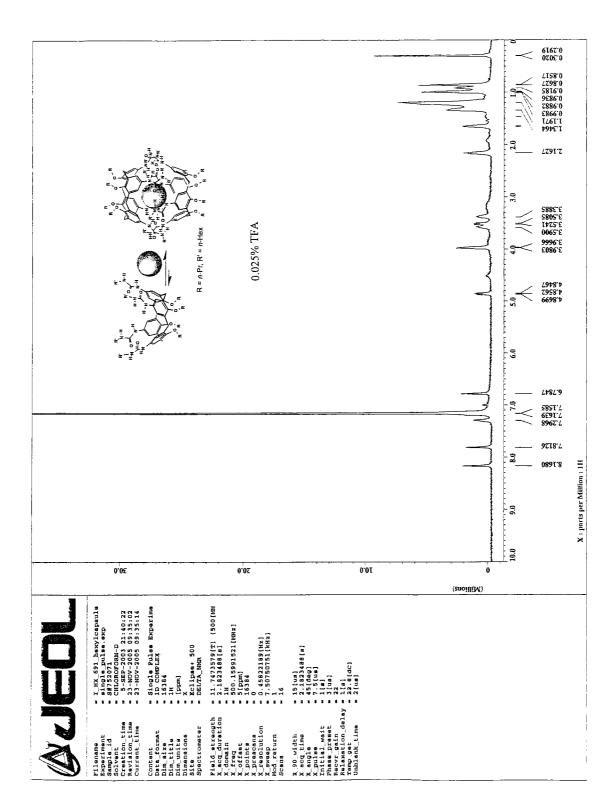
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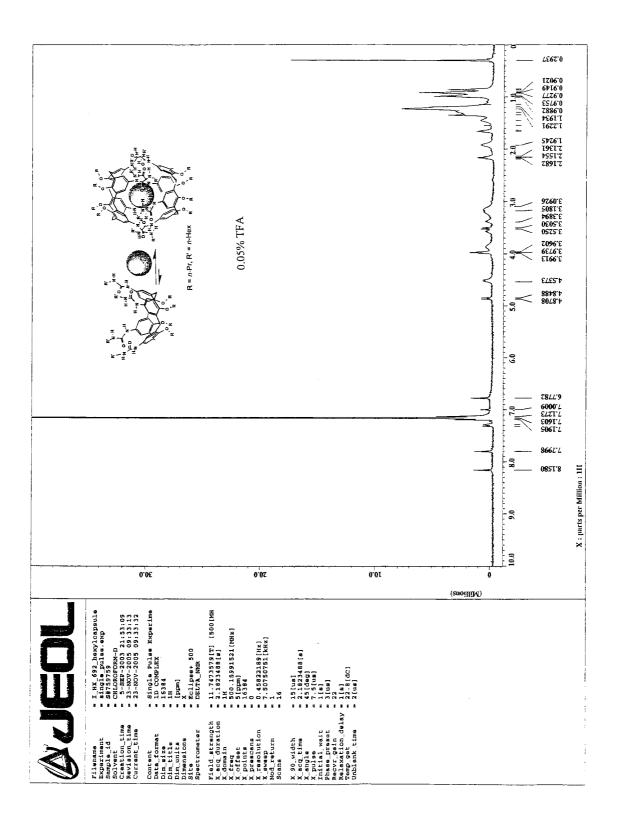


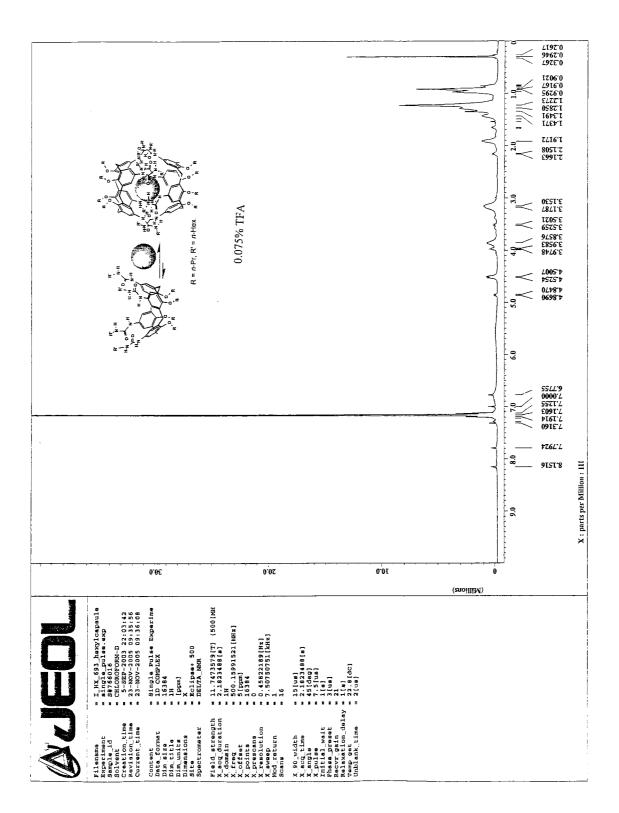


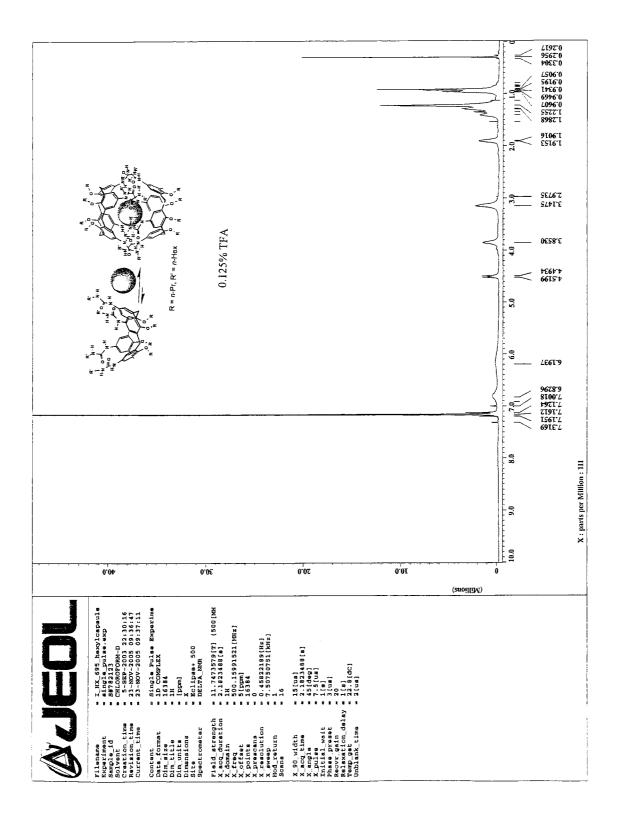
¹H NMR SPECTRA OF TFA Titration Experiments

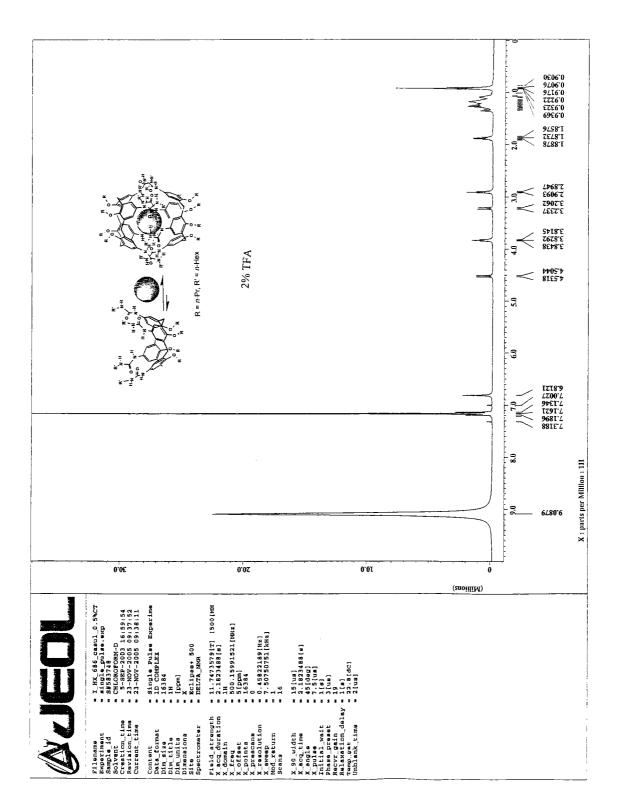










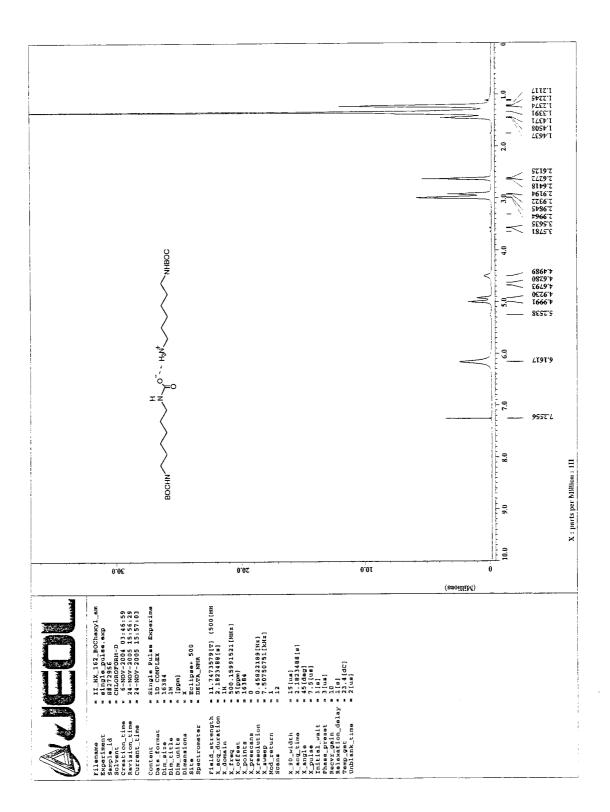


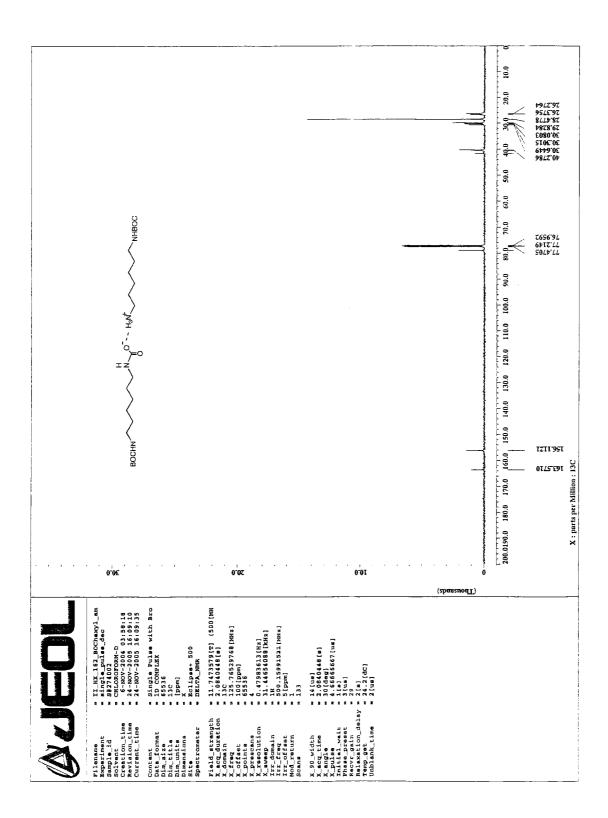
APPENDIX 47

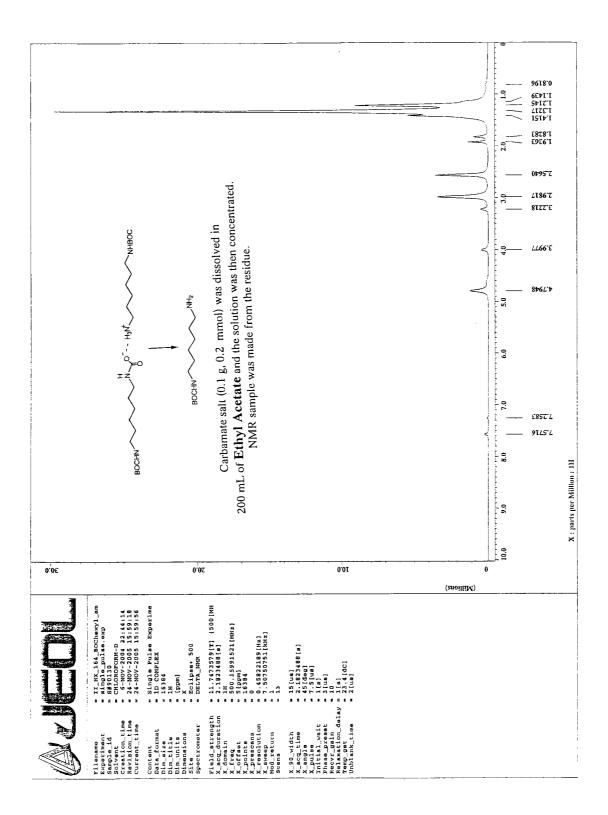
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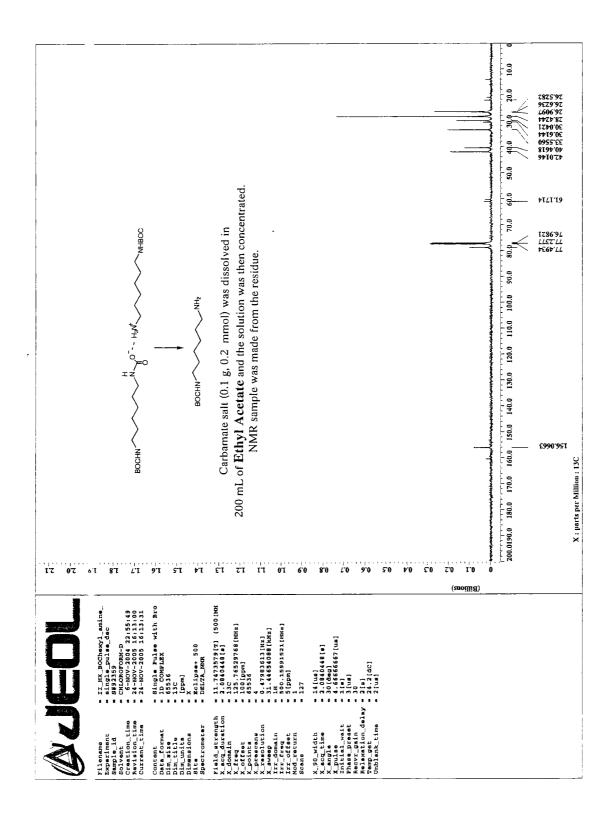
¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR SPECTRA OF

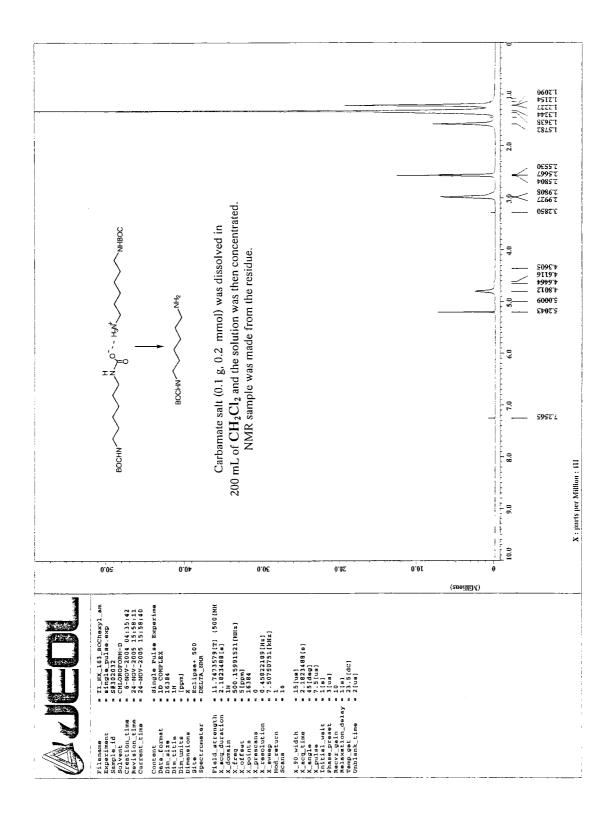
Model ammonium carbamates in MeCN, EtOAc, CH₂Cl₂, benzene, and THF

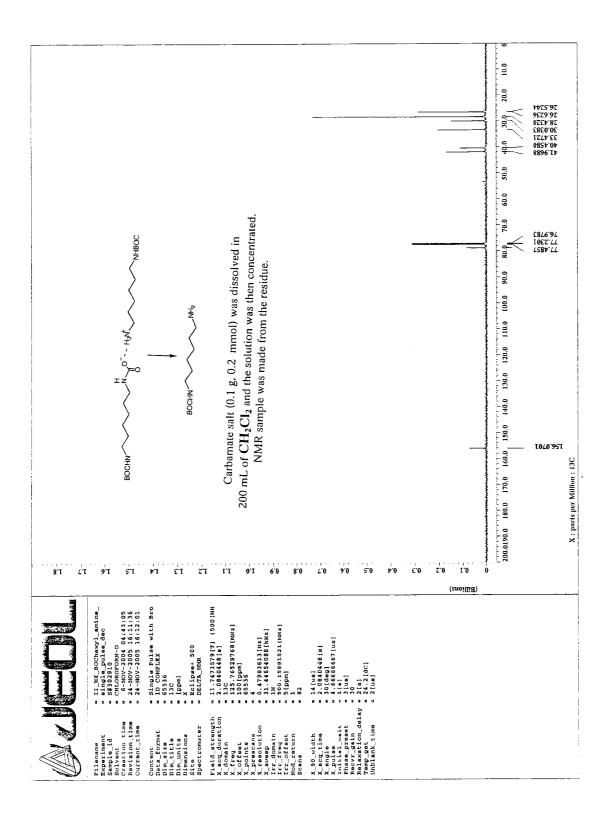


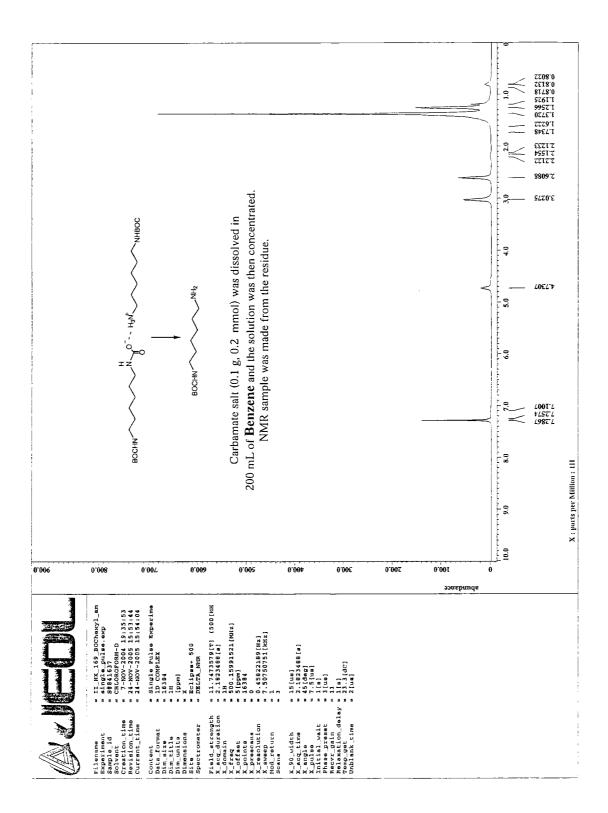


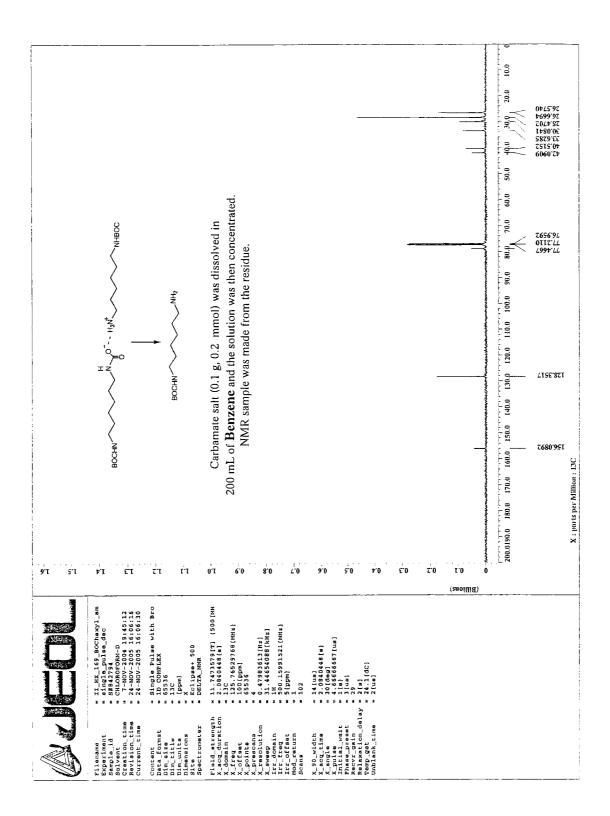


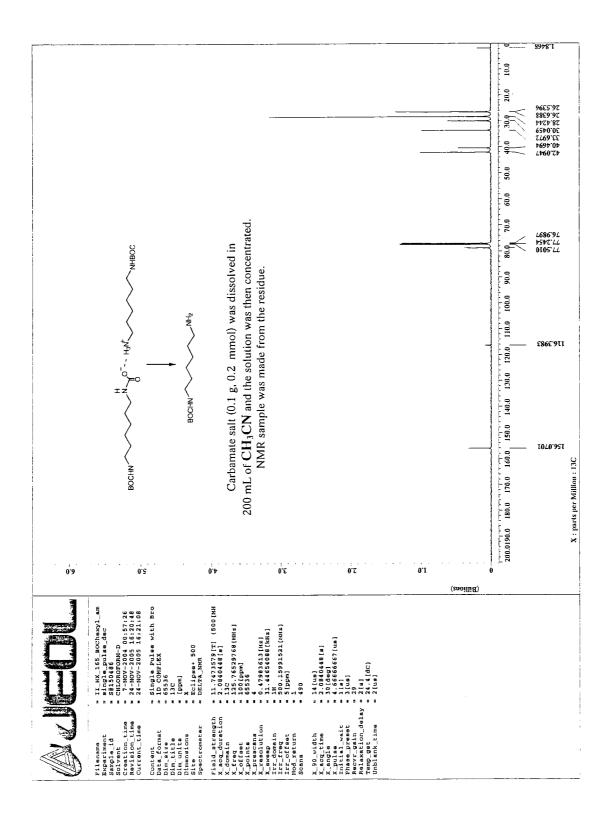


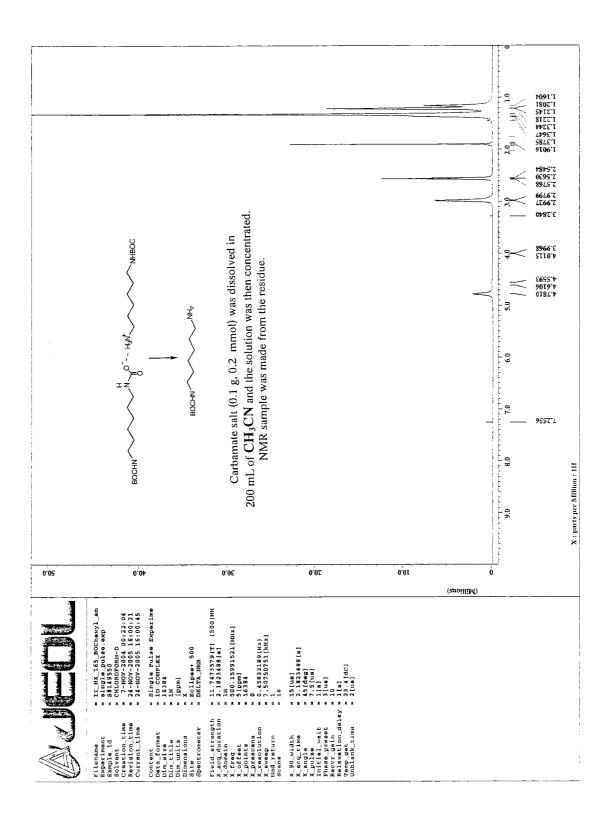


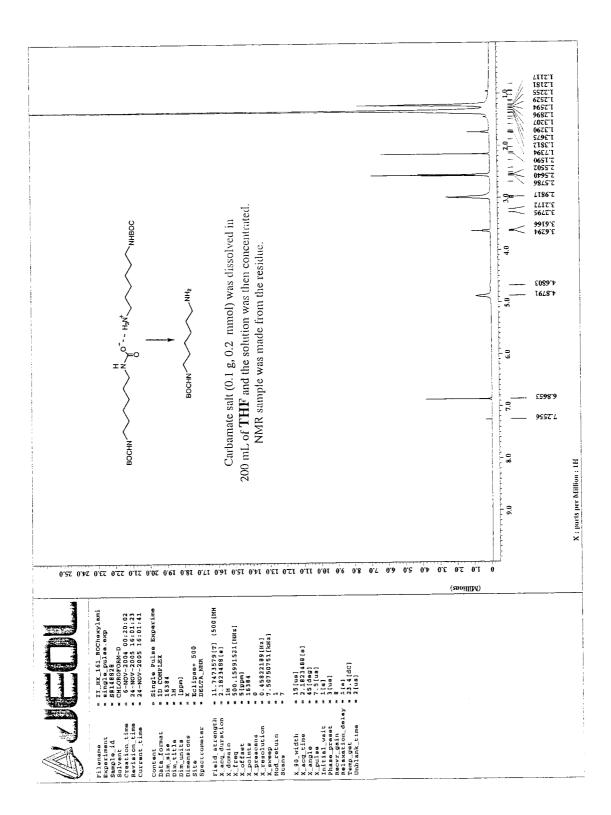










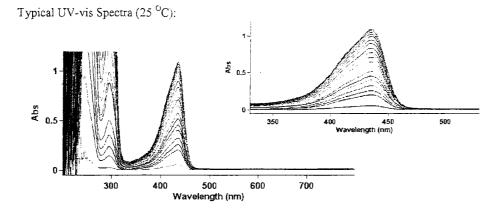


APPENDIX 48

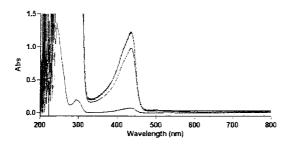
UV SPECTRA OF

Release experiments

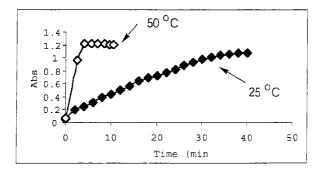
Coumarin 77 Release Experiments



UV-vis Spectra (50 °C):

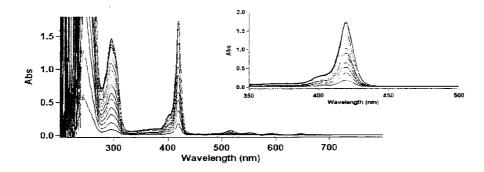


Temperature effects:

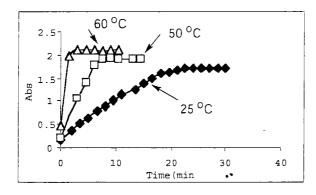


Porphyne 78 Release Experiments

Typical UV-vis Spectra (25 °C):

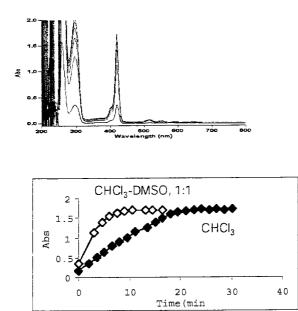


Various temperatures:



Porphyne 78 Release Experiments (continued)

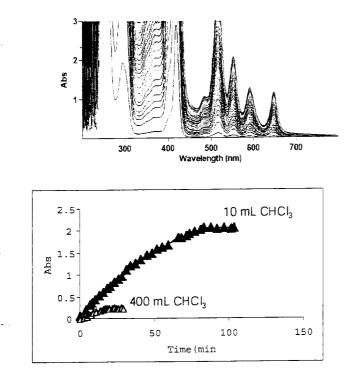
Solvent effect; UV-vis spectra in CHCl₃-DMSO, 1:1 (25 °C):



.

Porphyne 78 Release Experiments (continued)

Concentration effect; UV-vis spectra in CHCl₃ (25 °C):



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BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

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