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Deciphering the structure of deep eutectic solvents: A computational study from the solute's viewpoint

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ABSTRACT

In the last few years, Deep Eutectic Solvents (DESs) have emerged as sustainable alternatives to traditional organic solvents. The high degree of freedom when tailoring DES structures represents, at the same time, their most praised and most complicated feature. Indeed, given the enormous number of possible combinations, the selection of the most suitable DES for a given application cannot be based on a trial-and-error approach; therefore, reliable computational tools are needed to fully exploit DESs potentialities. In this work, we propose the first computational protocol to investigate absorption properties of solutes dissolved in DES. The protocol combines an accurate sampling of the solute-solvent phase-space by means of Molecular Dynamics (MD) and a fully atomistic Quantum Mechanics/Molecular Mechanics (QM/MM) approach to describe intermolecular interactions and spectral properties. In this way, specific interactions such as hydrogen bonding, which characterize DES complex interaction patterns, are properly modelled. The robustness and reliability of the method are proved by comparing computed data with experimental spectra of 2-hydroxymethylfurfural and syringic, vanillic, *p*-coumaric, gallic, and caffeic acids dissolved in DES and water. These molecules have been chosen because of their relevance in the frame of biomass valorization. Remarkably, the protocol allows getting insights into DES/water mixtures and opens up to the prediction of aqueous DES behaviour of the water threshold which causes the switch from water-in-DES to aqueous electrolyte-like environments.

1. Introduction

In the last few decades, there has been an increasing interest in the research of green alternatives to conventional organic solvents. [1,2] With the first paper on the subject published in 2001, [3] deep eutectic solvents (DESs) are a relatively new class of solvents that is gaining increasing attention in recent years. DESs consist of a mixture of two or more components that act as hydrogen bond donors (HBDs) and hydrogen bond acceptors (HBAs), typically salts, which displays a melting temperature at the eutectic composition much lower than the melting temperature expected for an ideal eutectic behaviour. [4–7] The hydrogen bond network characterizing DESs gives rise to a set of intriguing physicochemical properties, [8–14] favourable to a plethora of different

applications, such as synthesis and catalysis, [15–17] extraction processes, [18–21] biomass fractionation and valorization. [22–24] The possibility of preparing completely natural-based DESs, characterized by low toxicity, [25] together with their easy preparation not requiring any purification process, makes DESs ideal green solvents for chemical transformation, [15,26] biomass processing [27–30] and pharmaceutical uses. [31] DESs are designer solvents, which means that their properties may be tailored on the needs of a specific application. This is possible by selecting proper DES constituents, molar ratio, and even the amount of water added to the system, all parameters that strongly influence the structure and properties of DESs. While the possibility to customize the solvent is a great advantage over traditional organic solvents, the experimental trial-and-error tuning required for defining the

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optimal system is time-consuming and costly, thus ultimately unattractive. [8]

Therefore, the transition from organic solvents-to-DESs asks for theoretical and computational studies focusing on DESs unique properties, [7,32-42] which can offer valuable insights into the interactions between molecules and DESs, and how the latter affect molecular properties and related processes. DESs are, in fact, well-known for the robust intermolecular interactions existing among their components, and with the solutes, [43] making DESs computational simulation particularly challenging. [7] For this reason, similarly to experimental procedures, current theoretical approaches need to be translated and validated for use in this novel context. Indeed, the best approach would be a synergistic experimental-theoretical investigation, potentially accelerating the transition toward the practical use of green solvents such as DES. This work focuses on the absorption properties of organic molecules dissolved in DES. Although the experimental recording of UV spectra of selected probes in DESs has been performed for quite some time aiming at determining the polarity of these systems, [44,45] through the solvatochromic parameters, theoretical studies are missing. To this end, we propose a computational protocol for modelling the absorption spectra of these systems, capturing the peculiar aspects of the solvation phenomenon and its effect on the solute spectral response. [46-56] Remarkably, the protocol is validated through close comparison with experimental spectra. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first work specifically dealing with DES solvation effects on spectroscopic signals of molecular systems.

Our protocol is defined within the multiscale, focused models framework, [50,57,58] in which the solute is described in all its degrees of freedom while treating the solvent at a lower level of theory. [59] In our method, the solvent is described employing fully atomistic classical molecular mechanics (MM) force fields, while the solute is described at the QM level (QM/MM). [59,60] For a physically consistent description of the solvation phenomenon, we employed the Discrete Reaction Field (DRF) model, [61,62] which accounts for solute-solvent mutual polarization, [49,50,63] by endowing each MM with a fixed charge and an induced dipole which simulate the polarization as a response to the QM electric field. It is worth remarking that a fully atomistic polarizable QM/MM approach is indeed the ideal choice to accurately reproduce the properties of a molecular system surrounded by a DES, considering the intricate HB patterns formed between its components and with the solute. Furthermore, to properly sample solute-solvent conformational phase space, our procedure involves coupling the polarizable QM/DRF model with a classical molecular dynamics (MD) simulation, which allowed us to describe the dynamical aspect of the solvation phenomenon. [50]

The protocol is exploited to simulate the absorption spectra of organic systems dissolved in both water and DES, in this case, choline chloride (ChCl) and ethylene glycol (EG) 1:3, which is one of the most widely HBA-HBD combinations used in the literature. [8,64,65] The proposed approach has been then expanded to consider water-DES mixtures at varying molar percentages of water. As mentioned previously, water is a critical player for DES systems. Indeed, it may have beneficial effects on the properties of the systems (often lowering the viscosity), and hence it is often intentionally added to the DES, or it may cause its de-structuring beyond a certain, yet often unknown, amount. Since the work by Edler et al., [66] a great deal of attention has been devoted to determining the effect of water on DESs, namely the transition from water-in-DES to DES-in-water to solution of DES components in water, often referred to as aqueous electrolyte-like solutions, a debate which is still ongoing. [67]

To validate our procedure, we focused on well-studied systems in DES, such as polyphenolic compounds (caffeic and *p*-coumaric acids – hydroxycinnamic acids – and vanillic, syringic, and gallic acids – hydroxybenzoic acids) and 2-hydroxymethylfurfural (HMF), of great importance for sustainable development. [63,68–84]

In the following section, the computational method is presented and the QM/DRF solvation model is briefly recalled. Then, an ample explanation of the experimental and computational details used to obtain the absorption spectra in DESs, water, and water-DES mixtures is reported. Subsequently, MD trajectories are discussed and analyzed to get information about the conformational aspects of the solutes and their interactions with the two solvents. Finally, the simulated absorption spectra are discussed and compared with experimental data, with a focus on the case of water-DES mixtures.

2. Computational methods

The computational protocol used for simulating the absorption properties of phenolic acids and HMF in water and DES is described in this section. The same procedure is also exploited to simulate the absorption spectra of vanillic acid in water-DES mixtures with three different molar percentages of water (25%, 50%, and 75%). The protocol that is exploited generalizes what has been developed by some of the present authors for aqueous solutions in Refs. 49 and 50. The protocol is composed of multiple steps. First (1), QM and MM regions have to be defined. In this study, the solute molecules, i.e., phenolic acids and HMF, are treated at the QM level, while the solvent composes the MM portion. The second step of protocol (2) is the sampling of the solute-solvent conformational phase-space, which is crucial to capture the dynamics of solvated systems and the conformational aspects of the solute. A static distribution of solvent molecules around the solute does not accurately reflect the dynamic nature of the solvation phenomenon, where the solvent molecules are constantly in motion. In this work, we exploit classical MD simulations. To accurately represent the system configurations and related energies, MD simulations are run for a few nanoseconds to sample the entire phase space. A set of uncorrelated structures is extracted from the resulting MD trajectories (3) and used for the subsequent QM/MM calculations of spectra (4). The extracted snapshots are cut into spherical droplets with a certain radius sufficiently large to consider all long-range solute-DES (water) interactions. Note that absorption spectra calculations are performed on the extracted structures without geometry optimization. In this way, both the conformational freedom of the solvent molecules surrounding the solute and the flexibility of the solute are taken into account. Moreover, the solute-solvent system is not assumed to be fully relaxed, thus providing a more accurate representation of the actual dynamics of the solution. [49] The total number of extracted snapshots is selected to ensure the convergence of the desired spectral signal. The resulting properties are averaged to generate the final spectra (5) and compared to experimental data.

In this study, the Discrete Reaction Field (DRF) model [61] is used to describe the solvent molecules in QM/MM calculations, due to the availability of parameters for the selected DES (choline chloride and ethylene glycol). This model offers an electrostatic description of the environment, where each solvent atom is associated with both a charge and a dipole. The charge of each atom is fixed, whereas the atomic dipole can vary as a response to the QM density and the other multipoles (fixed charges **q** and the induced dipoles μ^{ind}). DRF is thus defined by two atomic parameters: the charge (**q**) and the polarizability (α). The QM/MM interaction energy is given by: [61]

$$E_{\rm QM/MM} = \mathbf{q} \mathbf{V}(\rho_{\rm QM}) - \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\rm ind}(\rho_{\rm QM}) \mathbf{E}(\rho_{\rm QM})$$
(1)

where the QM/MM electrostatic interactions are written in terms of the MM multipoles interacting with the electrostatic potential $V(\rho_{QM})$ and field $E(\rho_{QM})$ generated by the QM electronic and nuclear charge densities at each MM position. The induced atomic dipoles can be obtained by solving a linear system that minimizes the total energy of the QM/MM system: [61]

$$\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu}^{\text{ind}}(\boldsymbol{\rho}_{\text{OM}}) = \mathbf{E}(\boldsymbol{\rho}_{\text{OM}}) \tag{2}$$

where **A** is the DRF response matrix containing dipole-dipole interaction kernels and polarizabilities. To account for mutual solute-solvent polarization, the QM Hamiltonian is modified by the solvent operator $\hat{H}_{\text{QM/MM}}$: [61]

$$\hat{H}_{\text{QM/MM}} = \sum_{i} \sum_{k} \frac{q_{k}}{|\mathbf{r}_{k} - \mathbf{r}_{i}|} - \sum_{i} \sum_{k} \mu_{k}^{\text{ind}}(\rho_{\text{QM}}) \frac{\mathbf{r}_{k} - \mathbf{r}_{i}}{|\mathbf{r}_{i} - \mathbf{r}_{k}|^{3}},$$
(3)

where the first term represents the potential generated at position \mathbf{r}_i by the fixed charges q_k associated with each MM atom, while the second term describes the electric field generated by the solvent-induced dipoles $\boldsymbol{\mu}_k^{\text{ind}}$ at position \mathbf{r}_i , which are functions of the state of interest. By including these terms, the presence of the external environment influences the electronic QM density, and, at the same time, the induced dipoles depend on the QM density, introducing a non-linear contribution to the Kohn-Sham equations. Further information about this model can be found in Ref. 61.

The Time-Dependent Density Functional Theory (TDDFT) formalism, in its linear response formulation, is employed to calculate the QM/DRF excitation energies and spectra, as commonly reported in the literature for various QM/MM models. [50,52,62,85,86] The TDDFT equations are modified by explicit contributions of the solvent model, [62] dependent on the perturbed solvent dipoles adjusted to the transition density.

We finally note that the protocol above is general enough to be applied to deep-eutectic solvents of any nature and other polarizable QM/MM models, such as QM/FQ [51,53,58] or QM/FQF μ [49,52,87,88], pending a reliable parametrization is available.

3. Experimental procedure

All employed reagents and solvents have been used without further purifications, where not differently mentioned. Ethylene glycol (EG), choline chloride (ChCl), and hydrochloric acid were purchased from Alfa Aesar (Thermo Fisher -Germany). Gallic acid (GAL), pcoumaric acid (COU), syringic acid (SYR), vanillic acid (VAN), and 2-hydroxymethylfurfural (HMF) were purchased from TCI Chemicals - Europe N.V. and caffeic acid (CAF) from Merck Life Science S.r.l.-Germany. The DES used for this study is prepared by mixing 1 equivalent of ChCl with 3 equivalents of EG (ChCl:3EG). The mixture is stirred at 80 °C for 4 hours and subsequently dried under vacuum at the rotary evaporator at 80 °C for 2 h. UV-Vis absorption spectra are recorded on a Cary 300 Agilent Spectrometer (frame aperture: 2 nm, lamp change at 350 nm). Two main series of samples are prepared by dissolving the selected polyphenols (and HMF) in ChCl:3EG and water (pH = 2, by addition of hydrochloric acid). GAL, COU, SYR, and VAN spectra are recorded at a concentration of 2.5 · 10⁻⁵ M, CAF and HMF spectra are recorded at a concentration of $3 \cdot 10^{-5}$ M.

4. Computational details

This study considers HMF and five polyphenols COU, CAF, VAN, SYR, and GAL (see Fig. 1 for their molecular structures) dissolved in water, DES (ChCl:3EG), and water/DES mixture (only for VAN).

Classical MD simulations are performed for each solute in the selected solvents by using the GROMACS package. [89] OPLS force field (FF) [90] is employed to describe intramolecular interactions of HMF, VAN, SYR, and COU. GAFF force field is employed for GAL and CAF because OPLS FF cannot properly describe the rotation of adjacent –OH groups (see Fig. S1 in the Supplementary Material – SM). The TIP3P [91] FF is used to describe water molecules in all instances, while Van der Waals and charge parameters for DES are taken from Ref. 36. To refine electrostatic interactions, RESP charges [92] are computed at B3LYP/6-31+g(d,p) level of theory for each solute. Lennard–Jones terms are calculated using the Lorentz–Berthelot mixing rules, and intramolecular interactions between atom pairs separated by up to three bonds are excluded. The particle–mesh Ewald (PME) method with a grid spacing of 0.16 Å and a spline interpolation of fourth order is employed for treating electrostatic interactions. [93] For aqueous solutions, a single solute molecule is dissolved in a cubic box containing at least 2900 water molecules, while for DES solutions, a single solute molecule is dissolved in a box containing 300 EG and 100 ChCl molecules. For water/DES mixtures, we dissolve VAN in three solutions with different water/DES ratios (25, 50, 75 mol%). Each molecular system is first optimized by applying the steepest descent minimization procedure, followed by NVT equilibration where each system is heated to 298.15 K using a velocity-rescaling [94] method with an integration time step of 1 fs for a 50 ps. Then, a 100 ps NPT run is performed using the Parrinello-Rahman barostat and a coupling constant of 1 ps to achieve a uniform distribution of molecules in the box. Finally, 5 ns long MD runs are performed for each MD setup in the NVT ensemble, with 1 fs time step. 200 uncorrelated snapshots are extracted from the MD trajectories of each solution and cut in a spherical shape of 18Å radius. The droplet radius is chosen by performing a preliminary analysis of a snapshot of VAN (see Fig. S2 in the SM). 200 snapshots guarantee the convergence of the computed spectra (vide infra). On each snapshot, TDDFT OM/DRF calculations are performed at the CAMY-B3LYP/DZP level of theory by considering 10 excited states. The raw data are convoluted with Gaussian functions using a full width at half maximum (FWHM) of 0.1 eV. The resulting properties are then averaged to generate the final spectra. The SCM AMS program package [95] is used for all QM/DRF calculations.

5. Results and discussion

The conformational variability of the various organic probes dissolved in water, water/DES, and DES solutions as obtained from the MD trajectories, and physicochemical insights are provided by analyzing the solvent patterns. Then, the computed QM/DRF UV/Vis absorption spectra of all systems are presented and compared with our experimental measurements.

5.1. Conformational analysis

Conformational analysis is carried out by studying the distributions of the main dihedral angles of each molecule as extracted from MD runs. Dihedral distribution functions (DDFs) for each molecule dissolved in DES are graphically depicted in Fig. 2 (DDFs in water are given in Fig. S3 in the SM). At first, the three dihedral angles of HMF (δ_1 , δ_2 , and δ_3 , see Fig. 2(a)) are examined: δ_1 DDF centers at about 0 degrees, δ_2 at about 180 degrees, while δ_3 presents a wider range of values, with a distribution centered at 60 and -60 degrees. This reflects the high mobility of the -OH group. Then, COU and CAF acids, grouped due to their comparable molecular structures (see Fig. 2(b,c)) are analyzed. CAF differs from COU for the additional hydroxyl group attached to the benzene ring only. In this case, three dihedral angles for COU (δ_1 , δ_2 , and δ_3) are considered, while for CAF, a fourth dihedral angle (δ_4), related to the additional hydroxyl group, is analyzed. For both acids, δ_1 and δ_2 DDFs exhibit two main peaks at approximately 0 and 180 degrees. The same is valid for COU δ_3 DDF, while CAF δ_3 and δ_4 DDFs are centred at approximately 180 and 0 degrees, respectively. This suggests that the two hydroxyl groups are involved in intramolecular hydrogen bonding (HB). VAN, SYR, and GAL DDFs (see Fig. 2(d-f)), which are structurally similar (see Fig. 1), are analyzed. They only differ in the type (-OH vs. -OCH₃) and the number of functional groups bonded to the benzene ring. Specifically, VAN features a single hydroxyl and one methoxy group, SYR boasts one hydroxyl and a pair of methoxy groups, and three hydroxyl groups characterize GAL. The conformational flexibility of VAN and SYR is analyzed in terms of two dihedral angles (δ_1 and δ_2 , see Fig. 2(d-e)). VAN δ_1 and δ_2 DDFs are centered at about 180 and 0 degrees, respectively, implying that the -OH group preferentially forms an intramolecular HB with the methoxy group. SYR δ_1 DDF has a main peak at 180 degrees, while δ_2 DDF presents two peaks at around



Fig. 1. Representative structures of the main conformer for the six investigated molecules: 2-hydroxymethylfurfural (HMF), p-coumaric acid (COU), caffeic acid (CAF), vanillic acid (VAN), syringic acid (SYR), and gallic acid (GAL).

0 and 180 degrees, reflecting the higher mobility of the –OH group, which, however, is involved in an intramolecular HB. For GAL, instead, we considered four dihedral angles (δ_1 , δ_2 , δ_3 and δ_4 see Fig. 2(f)). δ_1 assumes values around 0 degrees, while δ_2 , δ_3 , and δ_4 , which are associated with the three hydroxyl groups, are distributed around 0 and 180 degrees, showing once again a preferential intramolecular HB, as also reported in the literature. [96]

The conformational analysis performed in DES is also valid for aqueous solution (see Fig. S3 in the SM). The main differences are reported for SYR and GAL δ_1 DDF, centered at about 0 degrees in water. The different physicochemical properties of the two solvents have a considerable impact on the time evolution of the studied dihedral angles. The fluctuations in time between 0 and 180 degrees of COU δ_3 , CAF δ_3 and δ_4 , and GAL δ_2 , δ_3 and δ_4 occur faster in water than in DES (see Fig. S4 in the SM), suggesting higher mobility of the OH group in aqueous solution. This is not surprising and may be related to the greater mobility, associated with lower viscosity, of water molecules as compared to DES (see also Ref. 97).

5.2. Hydration pattern

The interactions of HMF and polyphenols with solvent molecules are further analyzed using radial distribution functions g(r) (RDFs) and the running coordination numbers (RCNs), which indicate the number of closest solvent molecules that interact with the solutes via HB. RDFs (normalized) and RCNs for all molecules are depicted in Fig. 3, where the aqueous solution (top) and the EG component of the DES environment (bottom) are considered.

HMF RDFs and RCNs associated with the aldehyde group (O1, see Fig. 3(a)) and the hydroxyl group (O2H1, see Fig. 3(a)) are first examined. O1 RDF with water hydrogen (Hw) is characterized by a peak at about 1.9 Å, and the associated RCN indicates that two HBs are established (RCN = 1.9, see Fig. 3(a) top panel). A similar outcome is valid for O2 (RDF maximum at about 1.9 Å, RCN = 1.7), while H1 RDF shows a peak at 1.9 Å with an RCN of 1.0. Thus, the hydroxyl group is involved in three HBs with the surrounding water molecules, two via the oxygen atom and one via the hydrogen atom.

HMF O1, O2, and H1 RDFs with EG are reported in Fig. 3(a) (bottom): they all present a maximum at about 1.8/1.9 Å, similarly to the aqueous solution. However, the associated RCNs are generally lower: 0.4 (O1), 0.6 (O2) and 0.2 (H1). This is because EG molecular size is much larger than water and thus is characterized by a more significant steric hindrance. Consequently, EG cannot persistently establish an HB with HMF. In addition, an intense peak between HMF H1 and Cl can be observed at 2.4 Å with an associated RCN of 0.8 (see Fig. S5(a) in the SM). Therefore, a competing effect between Cl and EG, which decreases both RCNs, is also present. Remarkably, our simulations suggest that the Ch moiety is not involved in specific solute-solvent interactions. This observation can be explained by considering that HMF forms weaker interactions with Ch than with EG and Cl. Also, Ch has a lower concentration and a larger molecular size than EG; thus, less probably interacts with the solute.

Following, COU and CAF RDFs and RCNs are analyzed. In aqueous solution (see Fig. 3(b-c), top), the carboxylic group of both CAF and COU acids (O1H1) forms HBs with almost three solvent molecules. Specifically, O1 RDF exhibits a first peak at approximately 1.9 Å with an RCN of 1.7, while H1 RDF peaks at around 1.8 Å with an RCN of approximately 1.0. The hydroxyl groups (O2H2 for COU; O2H2 and O3H3 for CAF) are hydrogen-bonded to two solvent molecules (RCNs of H2, H3, O2, and O3 atoms are approximately 1.0). Regarding DES solutions, COU and CAF RDFs with EG are reported in Fig. 3(b-c) (bottom). Similar considerations for HMF are also valid for both molecules. While the maximum of RDFs indicates the establishment of HB interactions (~ 1.8/1.9 Å), the associated RCNs are generally lower than in water. Again, COU and CAF hydrogen atoms (H1 and H2) strongly interact with Cl (see Fig. S5(b-c) in the SM), confirming the aforementioned competition between EG and Cl.

As the last set, the interactions with water and DES of VAN, SYR, and GAL are considered by using RDFs and RCNs reported in Fig. 3(d-f) for the interactions with water (top panel) and EG (bottom panel) and Fig. S5(d-f) in the SM for the interactions with Cl. The carboxylic group of these acids (O1H1) has the same behaviour already discussed for the previous molecules, forming HBs with almost three water molecules (RDF maxima at about 1.7-1.9 Å, RCN ~ 1.6 and 1.0 for O1 and H1, respectively). The hydroxyl group O2H2 in both VAN and SYR is sterically hindered by the presence of one and two methoxy groups, respectively. Indeed, Fig. 3(d-e) shows that the distances between the hydroxyl groups and the solvent molecules are higher compared to those of the other acids (about 2.0 Å), and the associated RCNs are lower (below 1.5). The two meta hydroxyl groups (O2H2 and O4H4) establish an average of two HBs with solvent molecules in GAL. However, due to its steric hindrance, the para hydroxyl group O3H3 does not present a first solvation shell, and the reported RCN refers to the second shell. The interaction of VAN, SYR, and GAL with DES EG (refer to Fig. 3(d-f) (bottom)) is consistent with the results obtained for the other systems. HB interactions are indeed present, but the number of closest EG is again lower than in aqueous solution. The competing effect of Cl is reported for all molecules (see Fig. S5 in the SM).

Overall, all six investigated molecules strongly interact with water and DES, primarily through specific HBs. The quantity of closest water molecules to the solute is higher than the number of closest EG



Fig. 2. Dihedral distribution functions of the six investigated molecules, as resulting from molecular dynamics (MD) simulations.

molecules for steric reasons, and in the case of DES the solute also interacts strongly with chloride ions.

5.3. Absorption spectra

This section discusses the computed absorption spectra of the six molecules in DES and aqueous solutions and their comparison with experimental data. Spectra are computed using the polarizable QM/DRF model and averaging the results on 200 uncorrelated snapshots extracted from MD trajectories. As shown in Fig. S6 in the SM, 200 snapshots are enough to reach convergence; in fact, considering additional structures does not affect the spectra. The final averaged spectra along with experimental data are shown in Fig. 4.

In Fig. 4, stick spectra as grev lines obtained directly from OM/DRF calculations on DES solutions are also reported. Excitation energies and intensities largely vary as a function of the snapshot due to the different conformations of the solute and the various distributions of DES molecules around it. This results from the phase-space sampling provided by MD simulations, which allows us to account for solventinduced inhomogeneous band broadening. The final spectra are obtained by averaging stick spectra with a Gaussian function (FWHM = 0.1 eV). Let us discuss our findings by starting with HMF (see Fig. 4(a)). The computed spectra in both solvents exhibit a prominent peak at approximately 4.6 eV and a smaller peak at about 5.8 eV. We attribute the former to the $\pi \to \pi^*$ HOMO \to LUMO transition, primarily involving the five-atom ring and the aldehyde group (see Fig. S8-9 in the SM). The peak at about 5.8 eV instead arises from multiple transitions with mixed excitations, mainly involving HOMO-2 \rightarrow LUMO and HOMO-3 \rightarrow LUMO excitations. It is worth noting that the computed spectra in DES and water are almost identical, reflecting their strong interactions with HMF, as highlighted by the interaction patterns discussed in the previous section. To quantify solvent effects, we performed additional QM calculations in the gas phase (see Tab. S1 in the SM). From the absorption maxima in vacuo (E_{vac}) and in solution (E_{solv}), we computed solvatochromic shifts (E_{shift}) as follows:

$$E_{\rm shift} = E_{\rm vac} - E_{\rm solv} \tag{4}$$

By focusing on the lowest excitation, the resulting solvatochromic shift is 0.45 eV for both DES and water, confirming the significant impact of both solvents on HMF electronic structure.

Computed absorption spectra of COU and CAF solutions are reported in Fig. 4(b-c), together with their experimental counterparts. In both solvents, computed spectra exhibit 3 main peaks. The peak at ~ 4.1 eV is primarily due to the $\pi \to \pi^*$ HOMO \to LUMO transition (see Fig. S8-9 in the SM). This excitation involves the aromatic ring, the electron donor groups (-OH), and the electron-withdrawing group (-COOH). In addition, it is characterized by a partial charge-transfer character from the oxygen atoms bound to the benzene ring to the carboxylic group (see Fig. S8–9 in the SM). The intense peak at \sim 5.3-5.5 eV comes from two electronic excitations (HOMO-1 \rightarrow LUMO, HOMO \rightarrow LUMO+1). The assignment of the third peak (\sim 5.8-6 eV) is challenging because many electronic excitations contribute to it. We can also note a small peak at ~ 4.8 eV arising from multiple excitations, especially $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ HOMO-1 \rightarrow LUMO. Both solvents exert a significant influence on the excitation energies, as evidenced by the DES-to-vacuo (0.36 eV for COU and 0.37 eV for CAF) and water-to-vacuo (0.39 eV for COU and 0.35 eV for CAF) solvatochromic shifts. COU and CAF spectra in both solvents are indeed very similar. This is because the two acids are characterized by a similar molecular structure (see Fig. 1), as already pointed out in the discussion of interaction patterns.

VAN, SYR, and GAL (see Fig. 4(d-f)) are now analyzed. The simulated spectra of VAN exhibit three main peaks (see Fig. 4(d)), associated with $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ HOMO \rightarrow LUMO (\sim 4.5 eV), HOMO-1 \rightarrow LUMO (\sim 5.0 eV), and HOMO \rightarrow LUMO +1 (\sim 5.7 eV) transitions. SYR and GAL simulated spectra (see Fig. 4(e,f)) present two broad peaks centered at approximately 4.7 eV and between 5.7 eV (SYR) and 6.0 eV (GAL), the



Fig. 3. Normalized Radial Distribution Functions (RDFs) and Running Coordination Numbers (RCNs) of the six investigated molecules (HMF, COU, CAF, VAN, SYR, and GAL) in water and DES.

latter being characterized by an evident shoulder. For both acids, the first peak is mainly due to the $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ HOMO \rightarrow LUMO and secondly to the HOMO-1 \rightarrow LUMO excitations. The second band is associated with the $\pi \to \pi^*$ HOMO \to LUMO+1 and $\pi \to \pi^*$ HOMO-1 \to LUMO+1 transitions. It is worth noting that VAN spectra differ from those of SYR and GAL despite the discussed structural similarities. This discrepancy can be explained by the fact that VAN has a free hydroxyl group attached to the benzene ring, drastically affecting its electronic properties (see also MOs in Fig. S8-9 in the SM). On the other hand, SYR and GAL spectra are similar because they both have three substituents attached to the benzene ring, which are directly involved in the electronic excitations (see S8-9 in the SM). For GAL, we report minor variations in the calculated spectra of the moiety dissolved in water and DES. The absorption spectrum in DES is slightly shifted towards lower energy than in aqueous solution. Due to the nature of the involved transitions, this indicates stronger solute-solvent interactions and can be rationalized by

considering that GAL can establish a complex pattern of solute-solvent interactions due to the presence of the three hydroxyl groups attached to its benzene ring. Both DES and water exert a strong solvent effect on VAN, SYR, and GAL: the solvatochromic shifts are 0.32 eV (DES) and 0.37 eV (water) for VAN, 0.22 eV (DES) and 0.19 eV (water) for SYR, and 0.38 eV (DES) and 0.23 eV (water) for GAL.

The computed and experimental data were compared (see dashed lines in Fig. 4). The agreement between theory and experiments is excellent for each studied molecule, particularly concerning excitation energies and the related intensities. Remarkably, our approach can reproduce the experimental inhomogeneous band-broadening due to an effective sampling of the conformational solute-solvent phase space. Overall, experimental spectra measured in water and DES are similar for all investigated systems, although some subtle differences are noticeable for some compounds, and our approach can effectively reproduce this feature.



Fig. 4. Computed QM/DRF (solid) and measured (dashed) absorption spectra of HMF, COU, CAF, VAN, SYR, and GAL in water (red) and DES (blue). Raw data in DES are also shown as stick spectra (grey).

5.4. Water-DES mixtures

As mentioned earlier, due to its dual action of HBD and HBA, water may cause both beneficial or detrimental effects when present in DESs. Indeed, it has been reported before that the addition of water to DESs up to roughly 40 mol% determines the reduction of viscosity which is often exploited for favouring mass transfer at least with acidor sugar-based DESs. Several works on extraction processes either of added value compounds from agricultural waste, [98-100] or of lignocellulose components during biomass fractionation, [101-103] or on organic reactions, [15,104] took advantage of this water-promoted effect. It is also worth mentioning that complete dehydration is rarely achieved in realistic experimental solutions when dealing with the vast majority of hydrophilic DESs. On the other hand, above a certain quantity, which is to be defined for each specific DES, water can determine the transition from water-in-DES systems to DES-in-water and finally to aqueous electrolyte-like solutions, which means DES structure disaggregation. Since the paramount work by Edler et al., [66] a great deal of attention has been devoted to understanding the effect of water on DESs using theoretic and spectroscopic techniques. [105-108] The previous section has focused on pure water or DES solutions, however the fully atomistic nature of the computational protocol here proposed permits us to describe the intermediate situations. To showcase such versatility, the case of VAN dissolved in water-DES mixtures with varying water concentrations (25, 50, and 75 mol%) was considered. The VAN conformational freedom in the selected mixtures in terms of DDFs is first analyzed (see Fig. S7 in SM). δ_1 and δ_2 DDFs are centered at about 180 and 0 degrees, respectively, similarly to the pure DES solution. Notably, there are no significant variations by varying the water-DES percentages. Thus, in water-DES mixtures, the -OH group preferentially forms intramolecular HB with the methoxy group. VAN interactions with the three water-DES mixtures are analyzed in terms of RDF and RCN, which are reported in Fig. 5(b). Regarding the carboxylic group (O1H1), both O1 and H1 exhibit a peak at about 1.8 Å with water and EG. Upon an incremental change from 25% to 75% molar percentage of water, the RCNs of O1 and H1 with EG decrease (from 0.49 to 0.28 for O1 and from 0.38 to 0.21 for H1), while those with water increase (from 0.27 to 1.02 for O1 and from 0.14 to 0.62 for H1).

In the 75 mol% solution, VAN forms almost 2 HBs with water molecules, as expected due to the high water concentration. Similar



Fig. 5. VAN in water-DES mixtures at different molar percentages of water (25%, 50% and 75%) a. VAN molecular structure with atom labels, b. Normalized Radial Distribution Functions (RDFs) and Running Coordination Numbers (RCNs) and c. QM/DRF absorption spectra.

observations apply to the hydroxyl group (O2H2). When the molar percentage of water ranges between 25 mol% and 75 mol%, there is a decrease in the RCNs of O2 and H2 with EG, from 0.15 to 0.12 for O2 and from 0.60 to 0.21 for H1, respectively. Conversely, RCNs increase when water content increases, from 0.05 to 0.32 for O1 and from 0.19 to 0.63 for H1. These findings are reasonable, as the number of interactions with water increases with increasing concentration and decreases with decreasing concentration. In particular, the values reported for 25 mol% concentration closely correspond to the solvation condition of pure DES, whereas the values noticed at a concentration of 75 mol% closely correspond to the condition observed in pure water. It has been determined before that the switch from the DES to DES components in water occurred when the percentage of this latter was above 83 mol% for ChCl:urea 1:2. Although for a different DES system, the results here obtained are in line with previous findings. The VAN absorption spectra as dissolved in water-DES mixtures are reported in Fig. 5(c). Similarly to the discussed results in Fig. 4(d), absorption spectra present three main peaks, at 4.5 eV, 5.0 eV, and 5.8 eV, independently of the water molar concentration. As expected, we observe that the 25 mol% water solution spectrum better resembles that of VAN in pure DES, while the 50 mol% and 75 mol% water spectra approach that of VAN in pure aqueous solution. Therefore, the proposed protocol provides an unprecedented insight into the DES-water interactions from the solute perspective which may help in understanding the water tolerance as a function of the solute.

6. Conclusion and future perspectives

This study proposes a computational protocol to simulate the absorption properties of molecules dissolved in DES and DES/water mixtures. Our method combines classical MD simulations for sampling the solute–solvent phase space with a fully atomistic polarizable QM/MM approach to describe the electronic structure of the solvated systems. The resulting method effectively captures solute-solvent interactions, thereby modelling solvent effects on absorption properties. Indeed, the atomistic nature of the approach is crucial to describe the solute-solvent interaction patterns accurately and to accurately model the effect of solute-solvent interactions on the calculation of electronic properties. The potentialities, robustness, and versatility of the method are demonstrated by simulating absorption spectra of selected systems dissolved in water, pure DES, and water-DES mixtures.

Our analysis shows that the selected molecules strongly interact with DES. Despite this, a significant reduction in the number of solvent molecules close to the solutes is observed in DES in comparison with the same solutes dissolved in water. This is mainly due to steric factors resulting from the larger size of the DES components compared to water molecules. However, computed absorption spectra in both water and DES generally show high similarity. This is perfectly in agreement with experimental data, thus highlighting the robustness and reliability of our computational protocol.

This first work paves the way for an extensive application of the protocol to various kinds of systems dissolved in DES, also of different chemical composition than that here investigated, and even biopolymers considering the potential of these media in biomass processing. In addition, our protocol could be applied to the prediction of solvatochromic parameters of new DESs or how they may change as a function of the HBA-HBD molar ratio and/or amount of water. Such investigation would otherwise require time-consuming experiments. [109] Furthermore, our protocol could help determine the amount of water tolerated by a DES of whatever composition from the perspective of the solute, providing a unique guide for researchers in tailoring the most suitable DES system for the application of interest. The analysis of the DES behaviour with incremental amounts of water from the inside, i.e. from the solute viewpoint, had not been reported previous to this study. It thus represents a substantial step towards real case scenarios, although further investigations are needed especially in the low water amount range (below 25 mol%).

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Chiara Sepali: Software, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization, Writing – original draft. Sulejman Skoko: Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. Luca Guglielmero: Writing – original draft, Validation, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. Tommaso Giovannini: Writing – review & editing, Software. Andrea Mezzetta: Validation, Investigation. Felicia D'Andrea: Validation. Christian Silvio Pomelli: Validation, Conceptualization. Lorenzo Guazzelli: Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Resources, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization. Chiara Cappelli: Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Software, Resources, Methodology, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization.

Declaration of competing interest

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

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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Appendix A. Supplementary material

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