meine Chemi

Zeitschrift für anorgani

Electrochemical CO₂ and Proton Reduction by a Co(dithiacyclam) Complex

Linda Iffland,^[a] Daniel Siegmund,^[b] and Ulf-Peter Apfel*^[a,b]

Dedicated to Manfred Scheer on the Occasion of his 65th Birthday

Abstract. While $[Ni(cyclam)]^{2+}$ and $[Ni(dithiacyclam)]^{2+}$ complexes were shown to be potent electrocatalysts for the CO₂ conversion, their respective Co complexes hitherto received only little attention. Herein, we report on the Co^{II} complexes of the cyclam and dithiacyclam platform, describe their synthesis and reveal their rich solvent dependent coordination chemistry. We show that sulfur implementation into the cyclam moiety leads to a switch from a low spin Co^{II} complex in $[Co(cyclam)]^{2+}$ to a high spin form in $[Co(dithiacyclam)]^{2+}$. Notably,

Introduction

In order to replace fossil fuels as an energy source as well as a raw material for the chemical industry, intensive research is currently undertaken.^[1–5] With its high energy density per kilogram,^[6,7] hydrogen is an attractive energy storage molecule and can be obtained by water splitting. However, its low energy density per volume likewise pushes the need for alternative energy storage systems. Herein, carbon dioxide represents a potential alternative to conventional used carbon sources, like fossil fuels and enables the efficient storage of energy. For an efficient hydrogen generation and the conversion of CO₂, suitable catalysts are required.^[1,8,9]

In contrast to the industrially used heterogeneous catalysts, the manifold spectroscopic techniques available in homogeneous catalysis enable scientists to reveal relations between structural features, their catalytic performance and the underlying mechanistic details.^[10–12] Such homogeneous catalysts are often transition metal-based coordination compounds with versatile ligand frameworks.^[9,12] Notably, natural enzymes that perform the activation and conversion of protons and CO₂,

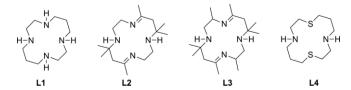
- 44801 Bochum, Germany[b] Department of Electrosynthesis Fraunhofer UMSICHT Osterfelder Straße 3
- 46047 Oberhausen, Germany
- Supporting information for this article is available on the WWW under http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/zaac.201900356 or from the author.
- © 2020 The Authors. Published by Wiley-VCH Verlag GmbH & Co. KGaA. This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

while both complexes are capable to perform the reduction of CO_2 to CO, H_2 formation is generally preferred. Along this line, the complexes were shown to enable proton reduction from acetic acid. However, in comparison to $[Co(cyclam)]^{2+}$, the altered electronics make $[Co(dithiacyclam)]^{2+}$ complexes prone to deposit on the glassy carbon working electrode over time leading to an overall low faradaic efficiency for the reduction of protons or CO_2 .

commonly utilize 3d metals such as Fe and Ni in their active centers underlining the potential of the 3d metals.^[13–17]

Although cobalt has a negligible role in the enzymatic conversion of CO_2 and protons, cobalt complexes are widely used in synthetic approaches as CO_2 reduction or hydrogen evolution catalysts.^[12] These complexes commonly feature a metal center with a Co^{II} or Co^{III} resting state coordinated by a macrocyclic chelating ligand.^[12] Based on the ligand platform, complexes can be divided into different classes and porphyrinbased compounds^[18–20] or cobaloximes^[21–24] are among the most active catalyst platforms.

The macrocyclic aza-ligand cyclam **L1**, a 14-membered ring system with four nitrogen donor atoms (Scheme 1) is another promising ligand platform for CO₂ and proton conversion processes.^[25,26] Notably, one of the most prominent homogeneous transition-metal catalyst for electrochemical CO₂ reduction is $[Ni(cyclam)]^{2+,[27-30]}$ Therefore, it is astonishing that up to now only little is known about the corresponding Co complex and a majority of reports focuses on the cyclam-like diimine ligands **L2** and **L3** (Scheme 1).^[25,31] The corresponding Co complexes were already investigated for their catalytic activity in the electrochemical reduction of CO₂ in 1980 by *Fisher* and *Eisenberg*.^[25] Under CO₂ atmosphere in water/acetonitrile (2 : 1), controlled potential coulometry at -1.6 V (Co^{II}L2) and -1.5 V (Co^{II}L3) vs. SCE utilizing a mercury working electrode afforded CO and H₂ in a 1 : 1 ratio showing current efficienc-



Scheme 1. Macrocylic cyclam derived ligands L1-L4 as ligand platforms for electrocatalytic CO_2 and proton reduction.

^{*} Prof. Dr. U.-P. Apfel

E-Mail: ulf.apfel@rub.de [a] Inorganic Chemistry I Ruhr-Universität Bochum Universitätsstraße 150

Zeitschrift für anorganische und allgemeine Chemie

ies of > 90%. It is worth mentioning that the extension of the electrolysis from 1.1 h to 19 h resulted in a higher amount of generated H₂ with a product ratio of 1 : 3.6 for CO : H₂. In addition, *Tinnemans* et al. reported the CO₂ reduction by Co^{II}L2 in pure water affording a CO : H₂ ratio of 1 : 1.6 with decreased overall faradaic efficiency of 62%.^[31]

Notably, with decreasing water content in the electrolyte, the competitive hydrogen generation is suppressed, shifting the product ratio to 2.8 : 1 in favor of CO formation but concomitant with a loss in current efficiency (20 %).^[31] At the same time Co^{II}L2 was investigated as an electron-transfer agent for the photochemical reduction of CO₂.^[31] Although CO was detected as reduction product utilizing [Ru(bipy)₃]²⁺ as photosensitizer in ascorbate buffer, H₂ evolution was observed with threefold higher amounts and shows that proton reduction is preferred over CO₂ reduction.

Later on, Yanagida et al. reinvestigated the Co^{III} complexes of L1, L2, and L3 for the photochemical CO₂ reduction.^[32,33] In contrast to earlier studies they replaced the noble-metal photosensitizer by the organic dye p-terphenyl, a strong reducing agent ($E_{ox} = -2.45$ V vs. SCE), and utilized triethylamine as sacrificial electron donor. For Co^{III}L1 in methanol containing acetonitrile solutions, CO and formate were observed as the main reduction products in a ratio of 2:1 and only small amounts of hydrogen were formed. Utilizing dimethylformamide instead of acetonitrile completely prevented the generation of formate. The Co^{III} complexes of L2 and L3 exhibited significantly lowered catalytic activity as compared to Co-^{III}L1.^[33] The mechanism and kinetics of the photocatalytical CO₂ reduction system with *p*-terphenyl as photosensitizer were then intensively studied by transient spectroscopy in continuous and flash photolysis experiments.^[34] These results showed that $[Co^{I}(L)]^{+}$ is the catalytic active species and confirmed the existence of the $[Co^{I}(L)(CO_{2})]^{+}$ and $[SCo^{III}(L)]^{+}$ (CO_2^{2-})]⁺ (S = solvent) reaction intermediates. The choice of the applied photosensitizer significantly affects the product formation of the photochemical CO₂ reduction due to a solvent-altered reaction mechanism. Using a weaker reduction agent, e.g. phenazine ($E_{ox} = -1.2$ V vs. SCE), instead of pterphenyl for photocatalytic CO2 reduction resulted in the preferential formate production.^[35,36] Herein, CO and H₂ were observed only in trace amounts. Due to the weaker oxidation potential of the phenazine, it is not possible to form the Co^I intermediate required for the CO formation. Instead, a $[Co^{II}(L)]$ (H)²⁺ intermediate is generated and is responsible for the formate production. Electrochemical studies on the CO₂ reduction by a Co^{III} complex bearing L1 as ligand were hitherto only reported in ionic liquids.^[37] Although Co^{III}(L1) is able to serve as catalyst precursor and reduces CO_2 to CO, the comparable Ni^{II}(L1) complex reveals a ten times higher turnover number as well as a significantly better overall performance.^[37]

Inspired by the sulfur-rich coordination environment of the active centers of CO dehydrogenases and hydrogenases, incorporation of sulfur into the macrocyclic cyclam platform revealed Ni^{II}(L4) (L4 = dithiacyclam, 1,8-dithia-4,11-diazacyclotetradecane) and enabled a facilitated CO₂ reduction at more positive potentials and an enhanced H₂ evolution capa-

bility relative to Ni^{II}(L1).^[38] Based on the insufficient electrochemical investigations of the Co^{II}(cyclam) system and our latest results comparing the electrocatalytic activity of Ni^{II} complexes comprising L1 and L4, we became interested in a directed approach to obtain Co^{II}(L1) and the hitherto unknown Co^{II} complex of L4. We herein report on the catalytic activity of both Co^{II} complexes for electrochemical CO₂ reduction as well as H₂ generation.

Results and Discussion

Complex Synthesis and Properties

Since Co^{II}(L1) had already been reported as an air-sensitive compound,^[39] reaction of L1 with Co(ClO₄)₂·6H₂O or [Co(CH₃CN)](ClO₄)₂ as Co^{II} salts were performed in acetonitrile under the exclusion of air affording C1 as an orange crystalline material. The successful complexation was supported by electrospray-ionization mass spectrometry (ESI-MS) revealing the characteristic mass peaks at m/z = 258.1 and 357.9 for the $[Co(L1-H)]^+$ and $[Co(L1)(ClO_4)]^+$ fragments. Crystals of C1 were obtained from methanol solutions and further supported the molecular structure of C1 showing the expected [Co(L1)(ClO₄)₂] composition (Figure 1) that was already reported in the late 1970s.^[39] Compared to the IR spectrum of the as synthesized material and the crystalline material obtained from methanol solutions, IR spectra from [Co(L1) $(ClO_4)_2$] as synthesized material contained additional signals at 2263 and 2296 cm⁻¹ (Figure S1, Supporting Information). These signals remained even after prolongated drying under vacuum and can be assigned to C≡N stretching vibrations in-

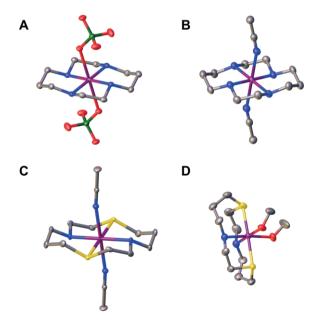


Figure 1. Molecular structure of C1 obtained by crystallization from (A) methanol and (B) acetonitrile as well as molecular structure of C2 (C) and C2' (D) shown with thermal ellipsoid drawn at the 50% probability level. Hydrogen atoms and perchlorate counterions for B, C and D are omitted for clarity. Gray: carbon, blue: nitrogen, yellow: sulfur, red: oxygen, green: chlorine, purple: cobalt.

llaemeine Chemie

Zeitschrift für and

dicating an additional coordination of acetonitrile. A similar solvent-dependent coordination behavior was already reported for Ni^{II}-cyclam derivatives.^[40] This assumption was likewise supported by the molecular structure of **C1** obtained from single crystals of a saturated acetonitrile solution (Figure 1). Herein, additional binding of two acetonitrile molecules in the axial positions complete the octahedral coordination sphere of the central metal ion. As seen from averaged Co–N_{L1} distances of 1.99 Å (perchlorate derivative) and 2.00 Å (acetonitrile derivative), the exchange of the axial ligands had no significant effect on the coordination sphere of the central Co^{II} ion.

Similar to the complexation of L1, L4 was treated with one equivalent of Co(ClO₄)₂·6H₂O or [Co(CH₃CN)₆](ClO₄)₂ in acetonitrile. The formed solid was then recrystallized from acetonitrile by addition of diethyl ether. The formation of the expected Co^{II} complex was confirmed by ESI-MS revealing mass peaks at m/z = 292.0 and 391.9 for the $[Co(L4-H)]^+$ and $[Co(L4)(ClO_4)]^+$ fragments. The IR spectrum of the obtained crystalline material showed, comparably to C1, C≡N stretching bands at 2261 and 2295 cm⁻¹ and likewise suggested acetonitrile coordination (Figure S2, Supporting Information). The molecular structure of C2 further supported this behavior and revealed that nitrogen and sulfur atoms of L4 occupy the equatorial positions with averaged Co-NL4 and Co-SL4 distances of 2.02 and 2.24 Å (Figure 1). Comparably to C1, two acetonitrile molecules complete the octahedral coordination sphere with averaged Co-N_{CH3CN} distances of 2.24 Å. However, solvent exchange from acetonitrile to methanol leads to a significantly altered molecular structure of C2. While the Co^{II} ion still reveals an octahedral coordination sphere, the solvent molecules, methanol, together with the nitrogen atoms of L4 now occupy the equatorial positions with averaged Co-O and Co-N_{L4} distances of 2.15, respectively 2.11 Å. Thus the sulfur atoms of L4 occupy the axial positions with averaged Co– $S_{I,4}$ distances of 2.47 Å, leading to a folded conformation of the tetradentate ligand in the methanol derivative C2' (Figure 1, Figure S3, Supporting Information).

In order to determine whether the coordination environment of CoII in the molecular structure also persists in solution, UV/ Vis/NIR spectra for C1, C2 and C2' were recorded for both solid and in solution (Figure 2). In general, for all complexes the absorption band structure of the spectra in solution is comparable with those obtained from the solid complexes with only minor shifts of the absorption bands. Likewise, spectra of C1 and C2 reveal each two absorption maxima at 462 nm and 1012 nm for C1 as well as 486 and 926 nm for C2, respectively, which is in line with a comparable molecular structure for these complexes. Likewise, complex C2' showed a broad absorption band at 1030 nm and at 500 nm comparable with those of the other Co^{II} complexes supporting the octahedral coordination in solution. The more complex band structure at around 500 nm for C2' compared with those of C1 and C2 is suggested to be a result of the altered coordination environment and ligand conformation in C2'. For both Co complexes of L1 and L4, the magnetic moment was determined by the Evans method to allow for conclusions about the spin state of the metal center. For C1 in acetonitrile, a magnetic moment of

 $\mu_{eff} = 2.36 \ \mu_B$ was determined, which indicates a spin S = 1/2 system. Thus, **C1** features a low spin Co^{II} center in accordance with previous reports on this complex.^[39] For the Co^{II} complex comprising **L4**, however, a significantly higher magnetic moment of $\mu_{eff} = 3.78 \ \mu_B$ (**C2**) or $\mu_{eff} = 4.16 \ \mu_B$ (**C2**'), respectively, was observed. In accordance with literature reports on Co^{II} complexes, these values can be best explained with a high spin Co^{II} compound.^[41] Consequently, introduction of sulfur as donor atom into the ligand system has a direct influence on the spin state of the metal center.

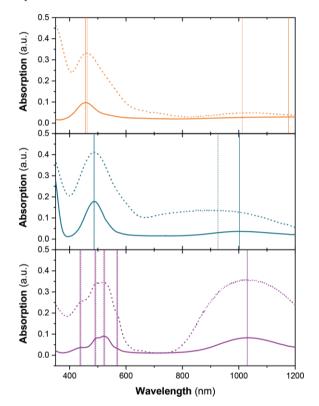


Figure 2. UV/Vis/NIR spectra of Co^{II} complexes C1 (top), C2 (middle) and C2' (bottom) in acetonitrile solutions (solid lines) and as solid sample (dashed lines).

Cyclic Voltammetry

The Co complexes **C1** and **C2** were subsequently characterized by cyclic voltammetry (CV) in dry acetonitrile with 0.1 M $[(nBu)_4N)](PF_6)$ as supporting electrolyte in an argon atmosphere (Figure 3). The CV of **C1** reveals a quasi-reversible redox process at $E_{1/2} = 0.09$ V vs. Fc/Fc⁺ for the Co^{III/II} couple and two distinct one electron reduction waves at -1.98 and -2.21 V vs. Fc/Fc⁺ for irreversible Co^{II} \rightarrow Co^I and Co^I \rightarrow Co⁰ reduction, which is in line with previously reported electrochemical data for $[Co^{III}(L1)(C1)](C1)_2$.^[33] Contrary, replacement of the two nitrogen atoms by sulfur within the ligand scaffold leads to a facilitated reduction of Co^{II} \rightarrow Co^I at -1.5 V vs. Fc/Fc⁺ and Co^I \rightarrow Co⁰ at -1.92 V vs. Fc/Fc⁺ for **C2** (Figure 3). Additionally, the reversible Co^{III/II} couple is shifted 150 mV to more positive potential. While for **C1** both reductive signals in the cathodic region are irreversible, for **C2**

Zeitschrift für an

the reduction of $\text{Co}^{\text{II}} \rightarrow \text{Co}^{\text{I}}$ becomes reversible when the CV scan is reversed at -1.7 V vs. Fc/Fc⁺ displaying a $E_{1/2}$ of -1.5 V vs. Fc/Fc⁺ (Figure 3, dashed line).

meine Chemie

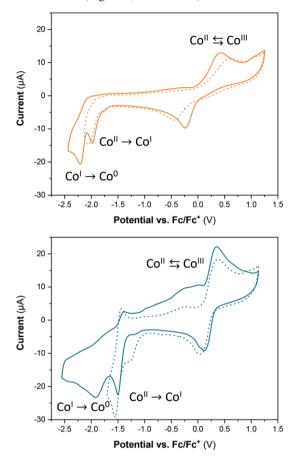


Figure 3. Cyclic voltammograms with various turning points of 1 mM C1 (top) and C2 (bottom) in acetonitrile with 0.1 M $[(nBu)_4N](PF_6)$ at 100 mV·s⁻¹.

Compared to the electrochemical measurements in pure acetonitrile, **C2** showed a completely different behavior in acetonitrile/water mixtures (4 : 1) (Figure 4). Herein, the CV still reveals two reductive waves. The signal previously assigned to the Co^{II} \rightarrow Co^I reduction, however, is shifted to a slightly more negative potential of -1.57 V vs. Fc/Fc⁺, whereas the Co^I \rightarrow Co⁰ reduction is shifted 180 mV more positive to -1.7 V vs. Fc/Fc⁺ with a permanently irreversible Co^{II} \rightarrow Co^I couple. The slightly increased current at such negative values further indicates the beginning of catalytic processes – most likely water reduction to afford hydrogen. In comparison, the CV of **C1** in acetonitrile/water mixture, within the potential window is completely featureless, except of the strong catalytic current presumably due to hydrogen formation (Figure 4).

Since the Co^{II} complexes are known to act as catalysts for the reduction of CO_2 , electrochemical studies in acetonitrile/ water mixtures of **C1** and **C2** were also performed in the presence of CO_2 . For this purpose, prior to the measurements the electrolyte containing the corresponding Co complex was saturated with CO_2 by purging the gas through the solution. In case of **C1**, no significant change of the CV was obtained in comparison to the measurement without CO_2 . CVs of **C2**, re-

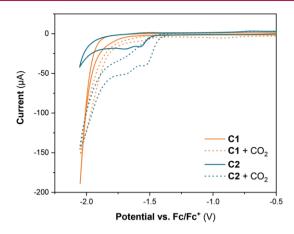


Figure 4. Cyclic voltammograms of 1 mM C1 (orange) and C2 (blue) in acetonitrile/water (4:1) under argon (solid lines) and saturated with CO₂ (dashed lines) with 0.1 M [$(nBu)_4N$](PF₆) at 100 mV·s⁻¹.

corded in the presence of CO_2 , however, revealed a clearly altered shape. In addition to a slight anodic shift of the irreversible Co-centered reduction wave, an increased catalytic current occurs upon the CO_2 purge. This behavior indicates that **C2** potentially catalyzes the hydrogen formation and CO_2 reduction. Since this current increase is already observed at the first reductive signal at -1.54 V vs. Fc/Fc⁺, it seems that the Co^I intermediate acts as the catalytically active species.

CO₂ Reduction

In order to proof the nature of the formed products, controlled potential coulometry was exemplarily performed with C2 in the presence of CO₂ for 23 h at -1.92 V vs. Fc/Fc⁺. The long-term measurement was performed in a one-compartment cell using a three-electrode set-up with a glassy carbon working electrode, Ag wire as pseudo-reference and Pt wire as counter electrode. After saturation of the electrolyte with CO₂, the cell was sealed for the time of the experiment. Within the first 7 h, quantitative analyses of the headspace via GC-MS were performed for the gaseous products in regular intervals (Figure 5). After 23 h, the electrolyte was likewise examined for additional soluble reduction products. While after one hour electrolysis only CO was detected in low amounts, H2 occurred from the competing proton reduction with increasing amounts with ongoing reaction time. While after 3 h, a CO : H₂ ratio of 3:1 was detected, this ratio decreased to 1.6:1 after 7 h. After 23 h electrolysis, proton reduction clearly dominates over CO2 reduction leading to a product ratio of 0.3:1 in favor of H₂. In addition, as a result of acetonitrile decomposition, ethylene (165 ppm) and ethane (566 ppm) were observed in the headspace of the reaction mixture and acetaldehyde (106 g·mL⁻¹) as well as ethanol (28 g·mol⁻¹) were identified within the aqueous phase. Additionally, it should also be mentioned that during the long-term measurements, the homogeneous catalyst C2 was deposited on the glassy carbon electrode, visible by the formation of a solid on the electrode as well as a decolorization of the electrolyte solution. In total, after 23 h long-term electrolysis a total faradaic efficiency of 42.4% was achieved Zeitschrift für and

ignoring any potential electron transfer processes to the Co complex and subsequent decomposition pathways itself. Notably, these results reveal a comparable electrochemical behavior of C2 as was reported earlier for C1.^[25,31]

meine Chemie

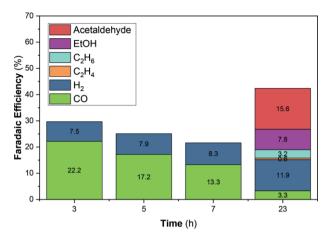


Figure 5. Faradaic efficiencies (FE) for long-term electrolysis at -1.92 V vs. Fc/Fc⁺ of CO₂ saturated acetonitrile/water (4:1) mixtures in presence of **C2** as catalysts with $[(nBu_4)N](PF_6)$ for 23 h. Note that the formation of acetaldehyde, ethanol, C₂H₆ and C₂H₄ stems from a degradation of acetonitrile catalyzed by **C2**.

Proton Reduction

As shown by long-term electrolysis of C2 in CO₂ saturated acetonitrile/water mixtures (4:1), the CO₂ reduction was suppressed by proton reduction. This competing process leads to a shift of the CO : H₂ ratio in favor of the hydrogen evolution. This observation pointed our attention to the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) using C1 and C2. Thus, titration experiments in acetonitrile were performed for C1 and C2 (1 mM) in the presence of varying amounts of acetic acid. Addition of each equivalent acetic acid caused for both C1 and C2 a continuous increase in the current of both reduction waves (Figure 6). Since the current increase is already observed for the Co^{II/I} couple, it can be assumed that a Co^I intermediate is responsible for the behavior observed. Furthermore, the anodic potential shift of this reduction wave upon increasing the equimolar amount of acidic acid suggests protonation of this Co^I state. In the presence of an excess of acetic acid (0.1 M), proton reduction using C1 is facilitated at overpotential of -1.53 V vs. Fc/Fc⁺ at 0.1 mA (Figure S4, Supporting Information).

In comparison, C2 enables HER at -1.57 V vs. Fc/Fc⁺ at -0.1 mA, 40 mV more negative potential, under otherwise identical conditions. Notably, H₂ evolution in absence of any Co^{II} catalyst takes place only at -1.98 V vs. Fc/Fc⁺ at -0.1 mA suggesting that the C1 and C2 are catalysts for the H₂ formation (Figure S4). Controlled potential coulometry experiments were subsequently preformed in acetonitrile containing 0.1 M acetic acid. The potential was set to -1.83 V vs. Fc/Fc⁺ for C1 as well as for C2 for 5 h and hydrogen amount quantified hourly via online GC. While with C2 a constant faradaic efficiency of about 50% was observed, the faradaic efficiency of complex C1 increased continuously from about 64 to 72%

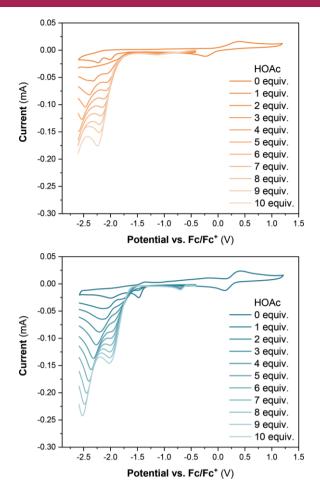


Figure 6. Cyclic voltammograms of 1 mM C1 (top) and C2 (bottom) with increasing equivalents of acetic acid (HOAc) in acetonitrile containing 0.1 M $[(nBu)_4N](PF_6)$ at 100 mV·s⁻¹.

within five hours (Figure 7). Notably, the low faradaic efficiencies observed suggest that side reactions take place that do not result in the formation of H_2 and are not accommodated in the displayed faradaic efficiency. However, the obtained data suggests that C1 is more efficient in catalyzing the HER at identical potentials than C2. Thus, the exchange of nitrogen to sulfur within the cyclam-based ligand scaffold leads to a hampered proton reduction under acidic conditions.

This behavior indicates that the secondary amines are an essential structural feature for the HER. Mechanistic studies on Co-based HER catalysts revealed that the reduction to afford the catalytically active Co^I or Co⁰ species followed by protonation to produce a metal-hydride, Co^{III}–H or Co^{II}-H, are key steps within the catalysis.^[12]

Conclusions

In summary, we herein describe the synthesis and characterization of hitherto unprecedented S containing cobalt complex C2 along with its performance in the electrocatalytic reduction of protons and CO_2 in comparison to the literature known cobalt complex C1. Notably, the incorporation of sulfur leads to a high spin state in C2 rather than the observed low spin state Zeitschrift für anorganische und allgemeine Chemie

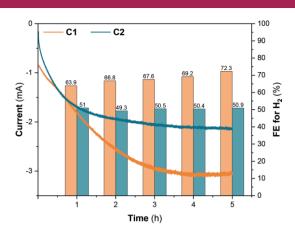


Figure 7. Controlled potential coulometry experiments without catalyst (blank) and with catalyst **C1** (orange) and **C2** (blue) in presence of 0.1 M acetic acid in acetonitrile containing 0.1 M $[(nBu)_4N](PF_6)$ and corresponding faradaic efficiencies for H₂ for both complexes.

of **C1**. The altered electronics lead to a facilitated ligand exchange in **C2** visible by pronounced solvent exchange of methanol vs. acetonitrile. While both complexes **C1** and **C2** allow for the CO₂ reduction to afford CO at -1.92 V vs. Fc/Fc⁺. However, H₂ formation is generally favored and thus complexes **C1** and **C2** likewise enable the conversion of protons to H₂. However, in contrast to [Co(cyclam)]²⁺, [Co(dithiacyclam)]²⁺ complexes are more prone to deposition/ decomposition on the working electrode. Thus, an overall lowered efficiency for [Co(dithiacyclam)]²⁺ for the electrocatalytic processes is observed in comparison to the [Co(cyclam)]²⁺ congener.

Experimental Section

All reactions were performed in a dry Ar or N₂ atmosphere using standard Schlenk techniques or by working in a glovebox. Starting materials and chemicals were obtained from commercial suppliers and used without further purification. Prior to their use, all solvents were dried and degassed according to standard methods. 1,8-Dithiacyclam-4,11-diazacyclotetradecane (dithiacyclam) **L4** was synthesized according to literature-known procedures.^[42] Mass spectra were obtained with a Bruker Daltonics Esquire 6000 instrument. IR spectra were recorded on a Bruker Tensor 27 FT-IR attached with a Pike Miracle ATR unit and are reported in cm⁻¹. UV/Vis/NIR spectra were recorded with a Jasco V-670 at 25 °C. **Caution!** Perchlorate salts of metal complex with organic ligands are potentially explosive. They should be handled with care and prepared only in small quantities.

 $[Co(L1)(CH_3CN)_2](CIO_4)_2$ (C1): Compound L1 (250 mg, 1.25 mmol) was dissolved in 3 mL acetonitrile and a solution of $Co(CIO_4)_2$ · $6H_2O$ (456 mg, 1.25 mmol) in 5 mL acetonitrile was added dropwise. After the addition was completed, the reaction mixture was stirred for 2 d at room temperature concomitant with a color change to orange. Subsequently, the reaction mixture was filtered and reduced to half of its original volume. Co complex C1 was then precipitated as an orange solid by addition of diethyl ether. The formed solid was filtered off and washed with cold diethyl ether as well as hexane. After drying under vacuum, compound C1 was afforded as an orange solid in 75% (506 mg, 0.94 mmol) yield. Crystals could be obtained by slow diffusion of diethyl ether into a concentrated acetonitrile solution of

C1. ESI-MS: calcd. for $[C_{10}H_{24}CoN_4+H]^+$: m/z = 260.1, and $[C_{10}H_{24}CoN_4+ClO_4]^+$: m/z = 358.1; found: 258.1 and 357.9. $C_{12}H_{27}Cl_2CoN_5O_8$: calcd. C, 28.87; H, 5.45; N, 14.20%; found: C, 28.96; H, 5.01; N, 14.55%. **IR** (ATR) $\bar{\nu} = 3244$, 2939, 2885, 2297, 2263, 1630, 1455, 1437, 1078, 1011, 931 cm⁻¹. **UV/Vis/NIR** (CH₃CN, nm): 456, 1176.

 $[Co(L4)(CH_3CN)_2](ClO_4)_2$ (C2): Compound L4 (250 mg, 1.06 mmol) was suspended in 5 mL acetonitrile and a solution of Co(ClO₄)₂•6H₂O (390 mg, 1.06 mmol) in 5 mL acetonitrile was added dropwise. After the addition was completed, the reaction mixture was stirred for 2 days at room temperature. Within this time a pale pink precipitate was formed. The precipitate was then filtered off and washed with cold diethyl ether and hexane. After drying under vacuum, the pink solid was recrystallized from an acetonitrile solution layered with diethyl ether affording compound C2 (L = CH_3CN) as a pale rose solid in 85 % (520 mg, 0.9 mmol) yield. Single crystals could be obtained by slow diffusion of diethyl ether into a concentrated acetonitrile solution of C2. ESI-MS: calcd. for [C10H22C0N2S2+H]+: 292.1, and [C₁₀H₂₂CoN₂S₂+ClO₄]⁺: 392.0; found: 292.0 and 391.9. C14H28Cl2CoN4O8S2: calcd. C, 29.28; H, 4.91; N, 9.76%; found: C, 28.89; H, 5.11; N, 9.78%. **IR** (ATR) \tilde{v} = 3218, 2968, 2936, 2295, 2260, 1461, 1424, 1303, 1232, 1183, 1090, 982 cm⁻¹. UV/Vis/NIR (CH₃CN, nm): 487, 1002.

[Co(L4)(CH₃OH)₂](ClO₄)₂ (C2'): Complex C2 was dissolved in methanol and stirred for 30 min at room temperature. Removing the solvent and repeating this procedure two times afforded C2' as a rose solid. Single crystals could be obtained by slow diffusion of diethyl ether into a concentrated methanol solution of C2'. ESI-MS: calcd. for [C₁₀H₂₂CoN₂S₂+H]⁺: 292.1, and [C₁₀H₂₂CoN₂S₂+ClO₄]⁺: 392.0; found: 292.0 and 391.9. C₁₂H₃₀Cl₂CoN₂O₁₀S₂: calcd. C, 25.91; H, 5.44; N, 5.04%; found: C, 25.50; H, 5.46; N, 5.13%. IR (ATR) $\bar{\nu}$ = 3384, 3259, 2950, 2883, 1638, 1424, 1308, 1234, 1089, 1056, 999, 623 cm⁻¹. UV/Vis/NIR (CH₃OH, nm): 437, 490, 524, 566, 1030.

Electrochemistry: Electrochemical studies were performed using a PalmSens3 or PalmSens4 potentiostat in a standard three-electrode setup. As working electrode (WE) a glassy carbon electrode, as counter electrode (CE) a Pt wire and as pseudo-reference electrode (RE) an Ag wire was used. Prior to its use, the working electrode was successively polished and subsequently sonicated in deionized acetonitrile. Tetrabutylammonium hexafluorophosphate [(*n*Bu)₄N](PF₆) 0.1 M was used as conducting salt in all electrochemical measurements either in anhydrous acetonitrile or a mixture of acetonitrile/water (4:1). The electrochemical experiments were performed under dry Ar atmosphere in a glovebox. All cyclic voltammograms were recorded at a scan rate of 100 mV·s⁻¹ and all pseudo-referenced potentials were referenced against the ferrocene/ferrocenium couple ($E_{1/2} = 0.4$ V vs. NHE).

Controlled potential coulometry for CO₂ reduction was performed in a one-compartment cell in a glovebox using a standard three electrode set-up with glassy carbon working electrode (WE), Pt wire as counter (CE) and Ag wire as pseudo-reference electrode (RE). Acetonitrile/ water (4:1) mixture with 0.1 M [(*n*Bu)₄N](PF₆) as electrolyte was saturated with CO₂ prior the long-term experiment. Headspace gas composition and liquid phase composition were performed using a Shimadzu GCMS-QP2020 system equipped with two capillary columns and a MS detector. Gas separation was performed via hand injection using a Carboxen 1010 PLOT fused silica capillary GC column (L×I.D. 30 m×0.32 mm, average thickness 15 µm) and liquid phase separation was performed via headspace analysis using a SH-Rtx-200ms fused silica capillary GC column (L×I.D. 30 m×0.25 mm, average thickness 1 µm). Helium was used as carrier gas. The following gaseous Zeitschrift für anorganische und allgemeine Chemie

and liquid products/components were assayed via the GCMS system: H_2 , O_2 , N_2 , CO, CH_4 , C_2H_4 , C_2H_6 , methanol, ethanol, propanol, formate/formic acid, acetate/acetic acid, propionate/propionic acid, acetaldehyde and propionaldehyde. Liquid samples were acidified with concentrated sulfuric acid (10 : 1) before injection.

Controlled potential coulometry for HER was performed in a H-type two-compartment cell under inert atmosphere separating anodic and cathodic space by a Nafion membrane. A standard three-electrode set-up was used with glassy carbon working electrode (WE), Pt mesh as counter (CE) and Ag wire as pseudo-reference electrode (RE). As solvent acetonitrile with 0.1 M [(*n*Bu)₄N](PF₆) as electrolyte and acetic acid 0.1 M was used. CPC was performed at defined potential and afterwards referenced against the ferrocene/ferrocenium couple. Hydrogen production was quantified in an online set-up using an Agilent Technologies 7820A gas chromatograph equipped with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) and a flame ionization detector (FID) as well as a methanizer. Gas separation was performed using a two-column separation system (HP-PLOT Q 3 m × 0.53 mm × 40 µm column and HP-Molesieves 5 Å 30 m × 0.53 mm × 25 µm) using argon as carrier gas.

X-ray Data Collection and Structure Solution Refinement: Single crystals suitable for X-ray diffraction experiments were analyzed either using a Rigaku Oxford diffraction XtaLAB SuperNova equipped with an Atlas CCD detector or a Rigaku Oxford diffraction XtaLAB Synergy-S with an HyPix-6000HE detector (Cu- K_a , $\lambda = 1.54184$ Å for both diffractometers). The crystals were handled in perfluorinated oil, mounted onto fiber loops and cooled by a flow of cold nitrogen (Oxford Cryostream) throughout the experiments. The obtained diffraction data was analyzed using the CrysAlis^{Pro} software package. Structure solutions were computed using the programs ShelXS^[43] (direct methods) or ShelXT^[44] (intrinsic phasing) and were refined against F² using ShelXL.^[45] Hydrogen atoms were added in calculated positions. The program package OLEX² ^[46] served as graphical interface.

Supporting Information (see footnote on the first page of this article): Supporting information contains IR spectra, molecular structures, linear sweep voltammograms as well as crystal data and structure refinements.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the Fonds of the Chemical Industry (Liebig Grant) to U.-P. A. and the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (Emmy Noether Grant) to U.-P. A. This work was supported by the Fraunhofer Internal Programs (Attract, Grant No. 097–602175) as well as the Fraunhofer Cluster of Excellence CINES. The work was funded by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG, German Research Foundation) under Germany's Excellence Strategy, EXC-2033 (Projektnr. 390677874). Open access funding enabled and organized by Projekt DEAL.

Keywords: Dithiacyclam; Cobalt; Electrocatalysis; Carbon dioxide; Hydrogen

References

- E. E. Benson, C. P. Kubiak, A. J. Sathrum, J. M. Smieja, *Chem. Soc. Rev.* 2009, *38*, 89–99.
- [2] M. Aresta, Ed., *Carbon Dioxide as Chemical Feedstock*, Wiley-VCH, Weinheim, **2010**.

- [3] A. M. Appel, J. E. Bercaw, A. B. Bocarsly, H. Dobbek, D. L. Du-Bois, M. Dupuis, J. G. Ferry, E. Fujita, R. Hille, P. J. A. Kenis, et al., *Chem. Rev.* 2013, *113*, 6621–6658.
- [4] N. Dubouis, A. Grimaud, Chem. Sci. 2019, 10, 9165-9181.
- [5] Z. Thammavongsy, I. P. Mercer, J. Y. Yang, *Chem. Commun.* 2019, 55, 10342–10358.
- [6] L. Schlapbach, A. Züttel, Nature 2001, 414, 353-358.
- [7] M. M. May, H.-J. Lewerenz, D. Lackner, F. Dimroth, T. Hannappel, *Nat. Commun.* 2015, 6, 8286.
- [8] B. P. Sullivan, K. Krist, H. E. Guard, Eds., *Electrochemical and Electrocatalytic Reactions of Carbon Dioxide*, Elsevier, Amsterdam; New York, **1993**.
- [9] M. Wang, L. Chen, L. Sun, Energy Environ. Sci. 2012, 5, 6763.
- [10] J. Qiao, Y. Liu, F. Hong, J. Zhang, *Chem. Soc. Rev.* **2014**, *43*, 631–675.
- [11] R. Francke, B. Schille, M. Roemelt, *Chem. Rev.* **2018**, *118*, 4631–4701.
- [12] K. E. Dalle, J. Warnan, J. J. Leung, B. Reuillard, I. S. Karmel, E. Reisner, *Chem. Rev.* 2019, 119, 2752–2875.
- [13] W. Lubitz, H. Ogata, O. Rüdiger, E. Reijerse, *Chem. Rev.* 2014, 114, 4081–4148.
- [14] J. Esselborn, N. Muraki, K. Klein, V. Engelbrecht, N. Metzler-Nolte, U.-P. Apfel, E. Hofmann, G. Kurisu, T. Happe, *Chem. Sci.* 2016, 7, 959–968.
- [15] H. Dobbek, Science 2001, 293, 1281-1285.
- [16] H. Dobbek, L. Gremer, R. Kiefersauer, R. Huber, O. Meyer, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. 2002, 99, 15971–15976.
- [17] J.-H. Jeoung, H. Dobbek, Science 2007, 318, 1461-1464.
- [18] K. Hiratsuka, K. Takahashi, H. Sasaki, S. Toshima, *Chem. Lett.* 1977, 6, 1137–1140.
- [19] O. Enoki, T. Imaoka, K. Yamamoto, *Macromol. Symp.* 2003, 204, 151–158.
- [20] G. F. Manbeck, E. Fujita, J. Porphyrins Phthalocyanines 2015, 19, 45–64.
- [21] M. Razavet, V. Artero, M. Fontecave, *Inorg. Chem.* 2005, 44, 4786–4795.
- [22] W. T. Eckenhoff, W. R. McNamara, P. Du, R. Eisenberg, *Biochim. Biophys. Acta, Bioenergetics* 2013, 1827, 958–973.
- [23] W. T. Eckenhoff, Coord. Chem. Rev. 2018, 373, 295-316.
- [24] K. C. Cartwright, A. M. Davies, J. A. Tunge, Eur. J. Org. Chem. 2019, DOI 10.1002/ejoc.201901170.
- [25] B. J. Fisher, R. Eisenberg, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1980, 102, 7361– 7363.
- [26] M. Beley, J. P. Collin, R. Ruppert, J. P. Sauvage, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1986, 108, 7461–7467.
- [27] J. Collin, J. P. Sauvage, Coord. Chem. Rev. 1989, 93, 245-268.
- [28] G. B. Balazs, F. C. Anson, J. Electroanal. Chem. 1992, 322, 325– 345.
- [29] J. D. Froehlich, C. P. Kubiak, Inorg. Chem. 2012, 51, 3932-3934.
- [30] J. D. Froehlich, C. P. Kubiak, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2015, 137, 3565– 3573.
- [31] A. H. A. Tinnemans, T. P. M. Koster, D. H. M. W. Thewissen, A. Mackor, *Recl. Trav. Chim. Pays-Bas* **2010**, *103*, 288–295.
- [32] S. Matsuoka, K. Yamamoto, C. Pac, S. Yanagida, *Chem. Lett.* 1991, 20, 2099–2100.
- [33] S. Matsuoka, K. Yamamoto, T. Ogata, M. Kusaba, N. Nakashima, E. Fujita, S. Yanagida, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1993, 115, 601–609.
- [34] T. Ogata, S. Yanagida, B. S. Brunschwig, E. Fujita, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1995, 117, 6708–6716.
- [35] S. Yanagida, T. Ogata, Y. Yamamoto, Y. Wada, K. Murakoshi, M. Kusaba, N. Nakashima, A. Ishida, S. Takamuku, *Energy Convers. Management* 1995, *36*, 601–604.
- [36] T. Ogata, Y. Yamamoto, Y. Wada, K. Murakoshi, M. Kusaba, N. Nakashima, A. Ishida, S. Takamuku, S. Yanagida, J. Phys. Chem. 1995, 99, 11916–11922.
- [37] J. Honores, D. Quezada, M. García, K. Calfumán, J. P. Muena, M. J. Aguirre, M. C. Arévalo, M. Isaacs, *Green Chem.* 2017, 19, 1155–1162.

Journal of Inorganic and General Chemistry

Zeitschrift für anorganische und allgemeine Chemie



- [38] P. Gerschel, K. Warm, E. R. Farquhar, U. Englert, M. L. Reback, D. Siegmund, K. Ray, U.-P. Apfel, *Dalton Trans.* 2019, DOI 10.1039/C8DT04740E.
- [39] J. F. Endicott, J. Lilie, J. M. Kuszaj, B. S. Ramaswamy, W. G. Schmonsees, M. G. Simic, M. D. Glick, D. P. Rillema, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1977, 99, 429–439.
- [40] T. Yokoyama, H. Kitagawa, H. Iwasawa, M. Zenki, *Inorg. Chim. Acta* 1996, 253, 1–6.
- [41] E. K. Barefield, D. H. Busch, S. M. Nelson, *Q. Rev. Chem. Soc.* **1968**, *22*, 457.
- [42] T. L. Walker, W. Malasi, S. Bhide, T. Parker, D. Zhang, A. Freedman, J. M. Modarelli, J. T. Engle, C. J. Ziegler, P. Custer, et al., *Tetrahedron Lett.* 2012, *53*, 6548–6551.
- [43] G. M. Sheldrick, Acta Crystallogr., Sect. A, Found. Crystallogr. 2008, 64, 112–122.
- [44] G. M. Sheldrick, Acta Crystallogr., Sect. A, Found. Adv. 2015, 71, 3–8.
- [45] G. M. Sheldrick, Acta Crystallogr., Sect. C, Struct. Chem. 2015, 71, 3–8.
- [46] O. V. Dolomanov, L. J. Bourhis, R. J. Gildea, J. A. K. Howard, H. Puschmann, J. Appl. Crystallogr. 2009, 42, 339–341.

Received: December 23, 2019 Published Online: February 28, 2020