

Sorbent Mediated Electrocatalytic Reduction of Dilute CO₂ to Methane

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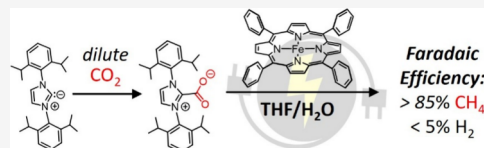


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ABSTRACT: Efficient CO₂ utilization is a critical component of closing the anthropogenic carbon cycle. Most studies have focused on the use of pure streams of CO₂. However, CO₂ is generally available only in dilute streams, which requires capture by sorbents followed by energy-intensive regeneration to release concentrated CO₂. Direct utilization of sorbed-CO₂ avoids the costly regeneration step, and the sorbent-CO₂ interaction can kinetically activate CO₂ to tune its reactivity toward products that could otherwise be inaccessible with direct CO₂ reduction. We demonstrate that an *N*-heterocyclic carbene, 1,3-bis(2,6-diisopropylphenyl)imidazol-2-ylidene (DPIy), quantitatively reacts with CO₂ from dilute streams (0.04 and 10%) to form the sorbent-CO₂ substrate 1,3-bis(2,6-diisopropylphenyl)imidazolium-2-carboxylate (DPICx). Electrocatalyst iron tetraphenylporphyrin chloride (Fe(TPP)Cl) typically reduces CO₂ to CO; however, with DPICx as the substrate, the eight-electron reduced product methane (CH₄) is produced with a high Faradaic efficiency (>85%) and regeneration of the sorbent DPIy. In addition to the overall energy and capital advantages of integrated CO₂ capture and conversion, this result illustrates how sorbents can serve a dual purpose for both CO₂ capture and chemical auxiliary purposes to access unique products. CO₂ has a spectrum of reactivity with different types of sorbents; thus, these studies demonstrate how sorbent-CO₂ interactions can be leveraged for integrated capture and utilization platforms to access a wider range of CO₂-derived products.



INTRODUCTION

The use of carbon dioxide (CO₂) from dilute streams is a critical barrier to closing the anthropogenic carbon cycle. Most studies that transform this C1-building block rely upon concentrated CO₂.^{1,2} Capture of CO₂ from air or point sources can be achieved by various sorbents, but energy-intensive heating is required to regenerate the sorbent and release CO₂ in concentrated streams. In direct air capture (DAC), sorbent regeneration requires an estimated 75% of the capital expense and 95% of the energetic cost.³ To address this challenge, integrated capture and conversion has emerged as an attractive route where sorbed-CO₂ (or captured-CO₂) is directly transformed to eliminate the need for CO₂ regeneration from the sorbent.⁴ Toward this goal, we report a Fe-catalyzed reduction of captured-CO₂ that produces methane gas with high selectivity (Faradaic efficiency). This study features an electrocatalyst derived from the earth's most abundant transition metal and a readily available and tunable sorbent capable of CO₂ capture from air-relevant concentrations.

A key aspect of this work is that the sorbent performs a dual role in capturing CO₂ from dilute streams and as a chemical auxiliary to access a C-reduced product that would otherwise be challenging when using CO₂ as the substrate. An *N*-heterocyclic carbene (NHC) was selected as the sorbent because this class of compounds has several attractive properties for this application. They are strong nucleophiles that reversibly react with CO₂ with binding constants that can exceed what is necessary for capture from air ($K_{\text{CO}_2} > 10^7$).^{5,6}

Their binding interaction transforms linear CO₂ into a polar and bent carboxylate that is kinetically activated toward further reactivity.⁷ They are also generally resistant to reduction and therefore compatible with electrocatalytic conditions. NHCs form net neutral zwitterions upon their reaction with CO₂ instead of the anionic carboxylates common in other CO₂ sorbents (hydroxides and amines) that can inhibit the substrate approach to reducing catalytic sites.⁸ Furthermore, NHCs can be synthetically tuned to modify their σ - and π -interactions with CO₂, which influence their subsequent reactivity.⁹ NHCs have demonstrated use as organocatalysts for CO₂ reduction to C1 products, albeit requiring the use of stoichiometric oxygen atom acceptors.^{10,11} Although NHCs and NHC carboxylates are resistant to direct reduction, they have been explored as substrates for electrochemical CO₂ reduction¹² and have been suggested as a possible substrate in imidazolium-based ionic liquid-mediated CO₂ reduction.^{13,14}

Our studies focused on the use of *N*-heterocyclic carbene 1,3-bis(2,6-diisopropylphenyl)imidazol-2-ylidene (DPIy) as the sorbent and auxiliary, which forms 1,3-bis(2,6-diisopropylphenyl)imidazolium-2-carboxylate (DPICx) upon

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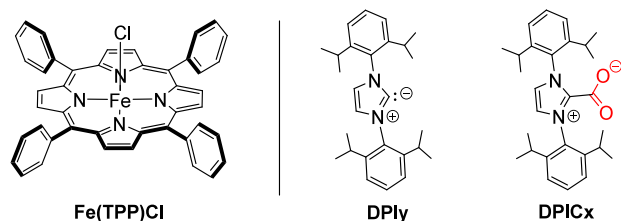
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reaction with CO₂. Both compounds are commercially available. A prior computational study determined that the free energy of CO₂ binding (ΔG) in DMSO is favorable (−4.5 kcal/mol under standard conditions).⁶ An analytical study on NHC carboxylates indicates that decarboxylation is more facile when larger functionalities, such as the diisopropylphenyls used here, are present on the nitrogen atoms that tilt the carboxylate out of the plane of the imidazolium.⁵ This feature is important for the subsequent functionalization of CO₂.

In this work, we explored the catalytic reduction of the CO₂-bound species DPICx with the abundant metal electrocatalyst Fe(TPP)Cl, which has well-documented activity toward the selective reduction of CO₂ to CO.^{15,16} However, instead of forming the 2 e[−] product CO, the reduction of DPICx results in the 8 e[−] reduced product CH₄ with over 85% Faradaic efficiency (FE), confirming the role of the sorbent in steering the product of the CO₂ reduction. Furthermore, regeneration of the parent NHC (DPIy, Chart 1) and catalyst stability was

Chart 1. Structures of Fe(TPP)Cl, DPIy, and DPICx



demonstrated. DPIy was also used as a sorbent for the reduction of dilute streams of CO₂ with concentrations relevant from flue gas (10%) to air (0.04%) while maintaining the high Faradaic efficiency for CH₄. CO₂ electroreduction with high selectivity (>85%) for CH₄ is rare with heterogeneous catalysts, with only a few examples.^{17–20} CH₄ is also uncommon for CO₂ reduction by homogeneous catalysts,^{21,22} although it has been observed as a product of CO reduction,²³ and photolytic CO₂ reduction with iron-porphyrin catalysts.²⁴ Furthermore, water is used as the proton source. Thus, the use of renewable electricity in this process results in carbon-neutral methane. To probe potential reaction pathways, computational and experimental studies were performed to provide evidence of potential intermediates.

The divergent reactivity from free CO₂ compared to when it is bound to a sorbent illustrates how the interaction of the latter can serve a dual purpose in both capturing CO₂ and directing the subsequent reactivity of the captured-CO₂. There are only a few studies that have explored the use of dilute CO₂ streams with molecular electrocatalysts.^{25,26} Additionally, experimental studies describe how CO₂ sorbents can modify the mechanism or product in CO₂ reduction that has only been described for a few catalytic systems.^{27,28} This study presents an example of the reduction of dilute CO₂ streams, down to air-relevant concentrations, and provides mechanistic and catalytic insights toward the ultimate goal of transforming carbon dioxide from dilute streams into fuels and commodity chemicals.

RESULTS

Electrolytic Studies. Our initial controlled potential electrolysis (CPE) with Fe(TPP)Cl and DPICx as substrates was conducted with THF as the solvent and H₂O as the proton

source. Fe(TPP)Cl (1 mM), 20 mM DPICx, and 60 mM H₂O with 0.1 M *n*-Bu₄NPF₆ in THF were electrolyzed for up to 63 h at −2.35 V vs [Fe(C₅H₅)₂]^{+/0}. Electrolysis over this time period corresponds to an unoptimized turnover of 6, but we expect this is a lower limit as the postelectrolysis analysis of the solution demonstrates retention of the catalyst (Figure 2, *vide infra*). Under these conditions, CH₄ is formed with 86.1 ± 5% Faradaic efficiency, with 4 ± 3% H₂ (Table 1) as measured by

Table 1. Controlled Potential Electrolysis Results of Possible Intermediate Structures (20 mM) with Fe(TPP)Cl (1 mM)^c

substrate	FE CH ₄	FE H ₂
DPICx (no catalyst)	0%	0%
DPICx (−1.7 V) ^a	0%	0%
DPICx	86.1 ± 5%	4 ± 3%
DPICx from 10:90 CO ₂ :N ₂ + DPIy	92.5 ± 2.1%	3.3 ± 1%
DPICx from 0.04:99.96 CO ₂ :N ₂ + DPIy	94.5 ± 0.7%	0.6 ± 0.8%
proposed intermediates with Fe(TPP)Cl [result with no catalyst]		
[<i>n</i> -Bu ₄ N][HCOO]	68.6 ± 6.2% [0%]	6.2 ± 3.5% [0%]
HCOOH ^b	39.9% [0%]	55.4% [94%]
HCHO (0.13 M H ₂ O)	32.2 ± 7.0% [0%]	9.0 ± 3.1% [0%]
CH ₃ OH	26.1 ± 4.1% [0%]	4.2 ± 3.3% [0%]
DPI-CH ₂ OH	11.3 ± 4.9% [0%]	0.33 ± 0.66% [0%]
DPI-CH ₃	17.1 ± 4.0% [8.8%]	51.8 ± 8.8% [2.1%]

^aPotential for Fe(TPP)^{0/−1}. ^bHCOOH is not expected to form under catalytic conditions as the solution is insufficiently acidic. ^cAll CPEs were performed at −2.35 V vs Fe(C₅H₅)₂^{+/0} in 0.1 M *n*-Bu₄NPF₆ in THF with 60 mM H₂O unless otherwise indicated. Errors represent standard deviations.

gas chromatography (GC). We note that in all of our Faradaic efficiency calculations, we only subtract 1 equiv of charge to reduce the Fe(III)(TPP)Cl to Fe(TTP), although post-electrolysis analysis by UV-visible spectroscopy indicates that most of the catalyst remains in the fully reduced form ([Fe(TPP)]^{2−}, Figure 2, *vide infra*). Thus, our Faradaic efficiencies for the product are potentially underestimated by up to a few percentage points. Details on the Faradaic efficiency calculations are provided in the Supporting Information. No other products are detected by GC or ¹H NMR spectroscopy. The charge passed over a representative time with a catalyst (blue) and without a catalyst (black) under otherwise identical conditions is shown in Figure 1. When no catalyst is present, minimal charge is passed, and no liquid- or gas-phase C-based products or H₂ are detected by ¹H NMR spectroscopy or GC (Figure 1, black trace).

Upon completion of the electrolysis, the solution was examined via UV-visible spectroscopy. The resulting absorbance spectrum (black trace, Figure 2) matches the absorbance features of reduced Fe(TPP)^{2−}, which was independently generated by the parent compound Fe(TPP)Cl by *in situ* spectroelectrochemical UV-visible spectroscopy at the electrocatalytic potential (−2.35 V vs [Fe(C₅H₅)₂]^{+/0}, blue trace). Mass spectrometry of the postelectrolysis solution only had features corresponding to DPIy (Figure S19). We note that the mass spectrometry of DPICx alone also results in only DPIy, so the result indicates that there is no other decomposition of the NHC after electrolysis. However, the postelectrolysis solution was also characterized by ¹³C NMR spectroscopy, with resonances corresponding to DPIy, indicating regeneration of the NHC (Figure S24).

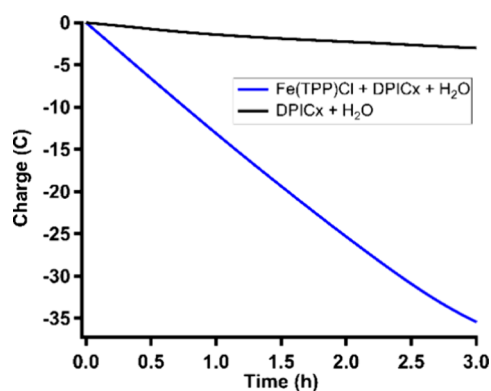


Figure 1. Controlled potential electrolysis (CPE) of 20 mM DPICx (black) with 1 mM Fe(TPP)Cl (blue) and 60 mM H₂O at -2.35 V vs $\text{Fe}(\text{C}_5\text{H}_5)_2^{+/0}$. CPE experiments were performed in THF with 0.1 M $n\text{-Bu}_4\text{NPF}_6$ on carbon cloth electrodes.

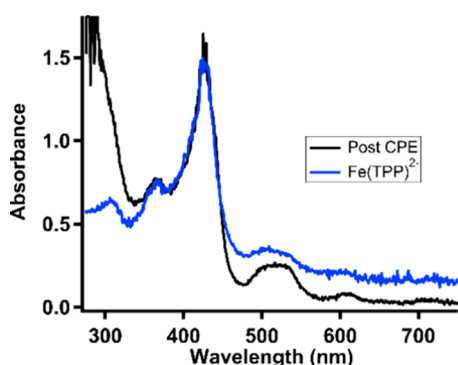


Figure 2. UV-visible spectra of 1 mM $\text{Fe}(\text{TPP})^{2-}$ with 20 mM DPICx and 60 mM H₂O postelectrolysis (-2.35 V vs $\text{Fe}(\text{C}_5\text{H}_5)_2^{+/0}$, 4 h) (black) diluted 1:10 with THF and generated spectroelectrochemically (100 μM $\text{Fe}(\text{TPP})\text{Cl}$, -2.35 V vs $\text{Fe}(\text{C}_5\text{H}_5)_2^{+/0}$) (blue). The features below 300 nm in the black trace correspond to DPIy and unreacted DPICx.

To test DPIy's competence as a sorbent, dilute CO₂ streams were passed through 20 mM solutions of DPIy in THF for 1 h to generate DPICx *in situ* for reduction, followed by an N₂ purge to eliminate free CO₂ as a competitive substrate (Figures S22–S26). Streams composed of 10:90 CO₂:N₂ were used to simulate flue gas concentrations. Electrolysis of these solutions with Fe(TPP)Cl results in similarly high Faradaic yields for CH₄ ($92.5 \pm 2.1\%$, Table 1). The use of a more dilute stream corresponding to direct air concentrations (0.04%) also displayed full conversion from DPIy to DPICx by ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectroscopy, with high Faradaic yields of $94.5 \pm 0.7\%$ for CH₄ upon electrolysis. Similar to using DPICx as the starting material, the postelectrolysis analysis of *in situ* generated DPICx from DPIy and dilute CO₂ reveals regeneration of DPIy by ¹H NMR spectroscopy (Figure S22). A separate experiment described under mechanistic studies investigated the catalytic activity in the presence of both DPICx and CO₂.

To ensure that the product CH₄ stems from the CO₂ bound to the NHC, DPICx was synthesized *in situ* using DPIy and ¹³CO₂. The reaction with DPIy and ¹³CO₂ quantitatively produced DPI¹³Cx as characterized by ¹³C NMR spectroscopy (Figure S26). Following electrolysis, the analysis of the headspace by mass spectrometry confirms ¹³CH₄ as the

gaseous product. Some formate is detected by ¹³C NMR spectroscopy in the liquid phase (*vide infra*).

Mechanistic Studies. Cyclic voltammetry (CV) of Fe(TPP)Cl in the absence of substrates displays three cathodic features, as previously described and shown in Figure S1.¹⁵ A quasi-reversible event at -0.6 V vs $[\text{Fe}(\text{C}_5\text{H}_5)_2]^{+/0}$ is assigned to the reduction of Fe(III) to Fe(II) followed by dissociation of the axial chloride ligand.²⁹ This reduction event is followed by two reversible one-electron reductions of the porphyrin ligand at -1.7 and -2.2 V vs $[\text{Fe}(\text{C}_5\text{H}_5)_2]^{+/0}$.³⁰ Under an atmosphere of CO₂ with a proton source such as water or phenol, the feature at -2.2 V vs $[\text{Fe}(\text{C}_5\text{H}_5)_2]^{+/0}$ exhibits a loss of reversibility and enhancement of the cathodic current that corresponds to electrocatalysis.³¹ Electrolysis at this potential results in catalytic and quantitative CO₂ reduction to CO.¹⁶

In contrast to Fe(TPP)Cl under CO₂, the cyclic voltammogram with up to 10 equiv of DPICx exhibits no change to the third reduction event (Figure S2). Furthermore, the titration of the proton source (water) into the solution does not result in enhancement of the current, even at slow scan rates (25 mV/s), indicating that catalysis at the reduced complex is slow (<0.5 s⁻¹).³² Controlled potential electrolysis of DPICx at -1.7 V vs $[\text{Fe}(\text{C}_5\text{H}_5)_2]^{+/0}$, which corresponds to the second reduction event, results in only the formation of $[\text{Fe}(\text{TPP})]^-$ and no catalytic products (Table 1). Only CPE experiments performed at the third reduction event, where $[\text{Fe}(\text{TPP})]^{2-}$ is formed, result in CH₄. Reduction at -2.7 V vs $[\text{Fe}(\text{C}_5\text{H}_5)_2]^{+/0}$, which corresponds to direct DPICx reduction, does not result in any gaseous products.

The lack of significant catalytic current in the cyclic voltammogram with DPICx as the substrate indicates that it is not as fast as the reduction of CO₂ under the same conditions. The difference in rate is illustrated in a substrate competition experiment. Electrolysis of Fe(TPP)Cl and a 20 mM DPICx solution under 1 atm of CO₂ (expected concentration of 200–210 mM)³³ for 2.8 h resulted in the exclusive production of CO as the primary product (quantitative Faradaic efficiency for CO), indicating that CO₂ reduction is faster than DPICx reduction (Figure S11). When free CO₂ is purged from the system by using N₂ to leave only DPICx as the substrate, product selectivity returns to CH₄ upon electrolysis.

The lack of changes in the cyclic voltammogram at Fe(TPP)Cl^{-1/-2} reduction with excess DPICx indicates that there are no significant interactions between the active catalyst and substrate (Figure S2). Spectroelectrochemical UV-visible spectra were collected immediately after reduction of Fe(TPP)Cl at -2.35 V vs $\text{Fe}(\text{C}_5\text{H}_5)_2^{+/0}$ under catalytic conditions (20 mM DPICx, 60 mM H₂O). The only metal-based species observed was the reduced compound $[\text{Fe}(\text{TPP})]^{2-}$ (Figure 2). These results indicate that a metal-based intermediate upon reduction of the catalyst is short-lived or is only present at a low concentration under catalytic conditions.

As metal-based intermediates are not detected spectroscopically, we used computational methods to investigate the interaction between DPICx and the Fe(TPP)²⁻ catalyst as well as reduced derivatives. A potential of -2.35 V³⁴ vs $\text{Fe}(\text{C}_5\text{H}_5)_2^{+/0}$ was modeled.³⁵ Since the water content of THF changes during catalysis and the pH is inexact, the chemical potential for protons was chosen to render protonation of DPIy thermoneutral (observed by NMR spectroscopy to be unprotonated following catalysis). For iron compounds, multiplicities up to quintet were optimized,

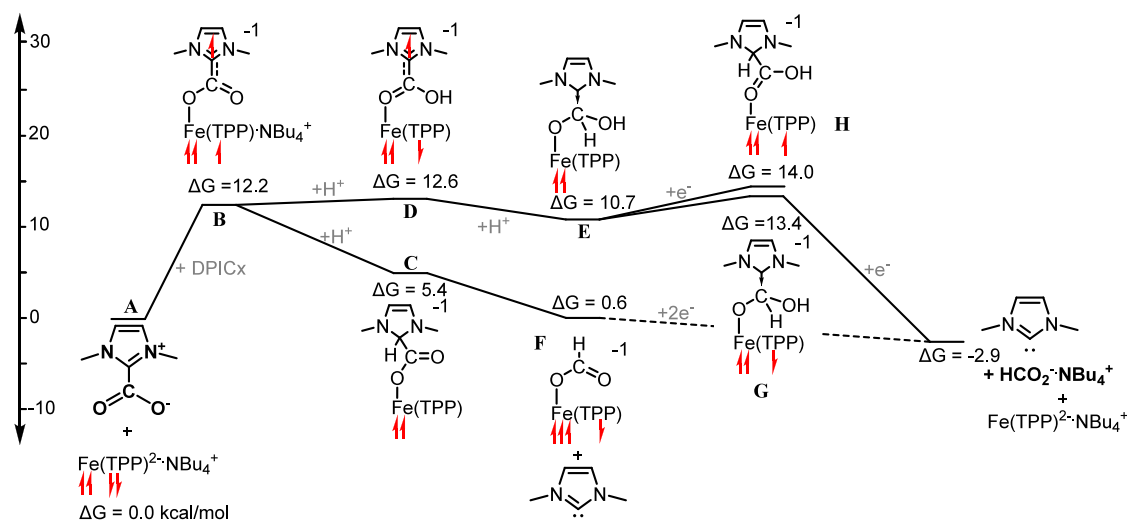
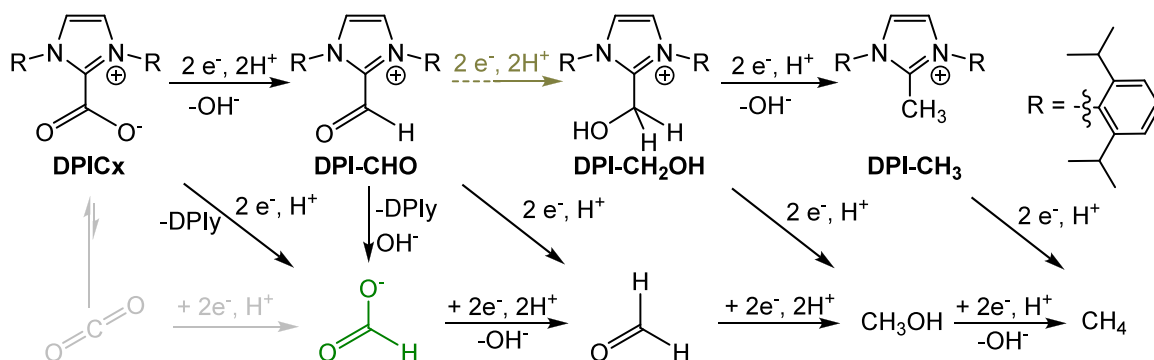


Figure 3. Potential intermediates in the reduction of DPICx to formate catalyzed by Fe(TPP)²⁻. The total spin and approximate localization of unpaired electrons are denoted by red arrows. Diisopropylphenyl groups have been omitted for clarity. Formate is the only experimentally observed C1 intermediate prior to the product CH₄ and is only observed by ¹³C NMR when ¹³C-labeled DPICx is used.

Scheme 1. Potential Substrate Intermediates, Assuming That the Sorbent-CO₂ Bond Is Retained Throughout Reduction (Top) or Cleaved Early to Form the Product (Bottom)^a



^aThe gray CO₂ intermediate is not expected to be present because of the strong binding to NHC and because it is never detected under experimental conditions. All black and green intermediates have been tested as substrates under catalytic conditions except DPI-CHO, which could not be isolated (products and Faradaic efficiencies are shown in Table 1). The green intermediate is also detected under catalytic conditions.

and a broken-symmetry singlet or doublet was sought. The lowest energy state among these is reported. The ground state determined for $\text{Fe}(\text{TPP})^{2-}$ was as described previously by Neese et al.: $\text{S}=0$ with a doubly occupied, axial d_z^2 orbital and single electrons in the d_{xz} and d_{yz} orbitals, each antiferromagnetically coupled to an electron in an overlapping porphyrin p orbital.³⁰ Iron in this state presents a nucleophilic site to potential ligands, so Cl^- is lost from $(\text{TPP})\text{FeCl}$ upon reduction, and calculations showed that THF and the DPIy carbon do not bond to $\text{Fe}(\text{TPP})^{2-}$. A pattern emerged for intermediates including a Fe–O bond: the iron center preferred a “local” triplet configuration (i.e., approximately two electrons of spin density on iron), while any additional electrons on the $(\text{TPP})\text{Fe}$ fragment were distributed over the macrocycle. The relative energies of intermediates and spin states will be dependent on the functional employed. In THF, the binding energy of 1 atm CO_2 to 1 M DPIy was calculated to be -5.1 kcal/mol, which is close to the -4.5 kcal/mol value previously calculated in DMSO, although the prior work used the conditions of 1 M CO_2 .⁶ We computed the coordination of DPICx to $\text{Fe}(\text{TPP})^{2-}$ to be endergonic by 12 kcal/mol (Figure 3). Notably, coordination includes an electronic rearrangement

in which one electron from the porphyrin ring is transferred to and delocalized over the imidazolium carboxylate p-system. The lack of changes in the spectroelectrochemical UV-visible spectra for *in situ* generated $\text{Fe}(\text{TPP})^{2-}$ in the presence of DPICx is consistent with the high free energy associated with this interaction.

We examined proposed intermediates generated by the sequential addition of protons and electrons, which lead exergonically to formate, free carbene, and regenerated $\text{Fe}(\text{TPP})^{2-}$ (Figure 3).³⁶ One thermodynamically reasonable pathway involves the addition of two protons to generate intermediate E, a formic acid molecule bound by a frustrated Lewis acid–base pair (comprising the carbene and an Fe^{II} cation). The two electrons that were initially located on the porphyrin are localized in the new C–H bond of this intermediate. Decomposition of this complex, either before (via F) or after (via G) a one-electron reduction, leads to products. Another pathway leads from B via the protonation of the imidazolium carbon to C. Protonation of C (or a water-catalyzed rearrangement) and dissociation of the carbon–carbon bond lead to liberated carbene and a $\text{Fe}(\text{TPP})\text{-(OCHO)}^{-1}$ complex.

Instead of C–C bond dissociations, which would liberate formate, these intermediates may lead directly to the further reduction of DPICx. Protonolysis of the C–OH bond in **E** or **G** may compete with the liberation of formate, while **F** could allow free formate to enter the reaction as a reactant itself, as observed (*vide infra*).

We used additional experiments to gain further understanding of the viable C-based intermediates for the 8 e[−] reduction, as shown in Scheme 1. The top row corresponds to a mechanism in which the sorbent-CO₂ bond is retained throughout most of the reduction, while the second row corresponds to early cleavage of the sorbent-CO₂ bond followed by reduction of the subsequent C1 species to CH₄. Reduction products were detected by GC, and only CH₄ or H₂ was observed. The ¹H NMR spectra were examined for C1 products, but none were detected.

Among the potential C-based intermediates that retain the sorbent-CO₂ bond (top row), DPI-CH₂OH and DPI-CH₃ were successfully isolated (Synthesis and Characterization section in the Supporting Information). These potential intermediates were studied for their competence as substrates for electrocatalytic reduction by Fe(TPP)Cl under the same conditions as those that produce CH₄ with DPICx. Electrolysis of the 4 e[−] reduced species, DPI-CH₂OH, displayed little conversion to methane (FE = 11.3%). The final NHC-based intermediate DPI-CH₃ generated on average 17% FE for methane; however, there was also significant hydrogen evolution (~52%) and background contribution of methane (FE = 8.8% in the absence of an iron catalyst). Attempts to isolate the aldehyde (DPI-CHO) by oxidation of DPI-CH₂OH were unsuccessful due to the formation of protonated DPIy (H-DPIy).³⁷ A prior study proposed that water or hydroxide can react with NHC-aldehyde complexes to release formic acid and free carbene.³⁸ As a result, we believe that if DPI-CHO is formed, then it can react further under catalytic conditions to produce formate and DPIy.

The potential C1 intermediates (second row, Scheme 1) were also tested as substrates for electrocatalytic reduction by Fe(TPP)Cl under the same conditions (Figures S5–S7). With a calculated free energy of −5 kcal/mol for CO₂ binding to DPIy,⁶ we expect negligible dissociation of CO₂ from DPICx, which is confirmed experimentally. DPICx is stable in solution by ¹H NMR spectroscopy even after purging with N₂. Additionally, CO, the terminal product of the reduction of CO₂ with Fe(TPP)Cl, is not observed from electrolysis, which excludes CO₂ as a potential substrate (gray, Scheme 1).

Formate, formaldehyde, and methanol were also tested as substrates under electrocatalytic conditions, and the resulting Faradaic efficiencies for the products are shown in Table 1. Formic acid was also tested, although we expect only that the formate species will be present under the weakly acidic catalytic conditions. These CPE experiments demonstrate that these C1 intermediates all lead to methane, albeit with lower Faradaic efficiencies than DPICx. The CH₄ observed with formic acid may be from the generation of formate upon hydrogen evolution. These intermediates are not detected under catalytic conditions when DPICx is the substrate (except for formate when the ¹³C-labeled compound is used), so we expect their concentrations during DPICx reduction to be very low. In contrast, these CPEs of potential intermediates were performed at a concentration of 20 mM, which may explain the lower overall Faradaic efficiencies for CH₄. Other intermediates may also play a role in facilitating catalysis but are not

present in these experiments. For example, these experiments did not contain DPICx or DPIy. However, they demonstrate whether a viable chemical path exists for their reduction to CH₄. Corresponding electrolysis experiments without a catalyst were performed at the same potential (at −2.35 V vs Fe(C₅H₅)₂^{+/0}) and led to minimal direct reduction of these substrates at the electrode, except for formic acid, which led to substantial hydrogen production. Similar to the case when DPICx is used as the substrate, [Fe(TPP)]^{2−} is typically observed after electrolysis, which may account for some of the charge passed. The current versus time traces for these controlled potential electrolyses are shown in Figures S10–S15.

As mentioned previously, when isotopically labeled ¹³CO₂ was used to generate the DPICx substrate, formate (H¹³CO₂[−]) was detected in the ¹³C NMR spectrum along with ¹³CH₄, indicating that it is a possible intermediate. This observation, along with the comparatively high Faradaic efficiency for CH₄ when it is a substrate (68.6 ± 6.2%), provides evidence for early cleavage of the sorbent-CO₂ bond, which is an accessible pathway in the calculation with Fe(TPP)^{2−}. Formate can result from the direct reduction of DPICx to form DPI-CHO, followed by addition of hydroxide and subsequent decarboxylation to form formate and DPIy. Alternatively, reduction of DPICx can result in the concurrent formation of DPIy and formate. The lack of detection by ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectroscopy of the DPI-CH₂OH and DPI-CH₃ intermediates, combined with the poor yields for methane, indicates that the intermediates in the top row are less likely.

DISCUSSION

The interaction between NHC and CO₂ plays a key role in its reduction by Fe(TPP)Cl. This interaction is expected to impact the reactivity from the very first catalytic steps with Fe(TPP)^{2−}. A prior calculation resulted in a free energy change (ΔG) of 2.5 kcal/mol for binding CO₂ to Fe(TPP)^{2−} to form a metal carboxylate.³⁹ The Brønsted basic iron carboxylate is then protonated twice to initiate cleavage of the C–O bond, release water, and give a CO ligand. In DPICx, the interaction of the NHC at the carbon in CO₂ precludes the equivalent interaction with the metal so that the iron carboxylate cannot form. Instead, our calculation indicates binding of DPICx to the same Fe(TPP)^{2−} species via the anionic oxygen with a free energy change of 12 kcal/mol (Figure 3) compared to the 2.5 kcal/mol calculated for CO₂. This change leads to an unfavorable pre-equilibrium for substrate binding, which may partially explain the slower rate of DPICx reduction. This disparity is not unexpected; the filled d_{z²} orbital of Fe(TPP)^{2−} can interact more favorably with the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) of CO₂ than the carboxylate in DPICx. Coordination of DPICx to Fe(TPP)^{2−} includes electron transfer to the DPICx ligand, which results in the nucleophilic iron center becoming Lewis acidic and coordinating the Lewis basic oxygen. While calculated free energies for DPICx binding and other potential intermediates in Figure 3 are higher than that of Fe(TPP)^{2−}, they are accessible in a reaction that is slow at room temperature, which is consistent with experimental results. Interestingly, CH₄ was also observed as the product when DPICx was used as the substrate with another CO₂-to-CO electrocatalyst, Ni(cyclam)²⁺.¹² When CO₂ is the substrate, the Ni active site is believed to interact similarly to make a metal carboxylate. These catalysts may have similar mechanistic pathways with DPICx as the substrate.

As previously noted, Fe(TPP)Cl exclusively generates CO as the terminal product when CO₂ is the substrate under analogous conditions. The only exception is a cleverly designed Fe porphyrin derivative that contains a secondary sphere functionality to stabilize the CO substrate at the metal, resulting in the electrocatalytic reduction of CO to CH₄.²³ Additionally, the photolytic reduction of CO₂ to CH₄ with related Fe porphyrin-based catalysts is proposed to proceed through a CO intermediate.²⁴ However, we do not believe that CO is an intermediate in this system because it is never detected in the headspace by GC and is not expected to bind to Fe(TPP)²⁻ sufficiently for further reduction based on prior studies with this catalyst for CO₂R.^{15,16}

Our mechanistic studies indicate that formate is a likely C1 intermediate. A Fe(TPP)Cl catalyst was reported that reduces CO₂ to formate with the addition of tertiary amines. The amines are believed to bind to the reduced Fe(TPP)²⁻ complex and increase the basicity of the resulting metal carboxylate, leading to protonation to form formate.⁴⁰ The analogous metal carboxylate intermediate is not accessible with the DPICx substrate; however, we examined the possibility of interactions of DPIy with the metal complexes. Spectroelectrochemical UV-visible experiments with 20 equiv of DPIy and Fe(TPP)²⁻ generated *in situ* exhibit a small reduction in the spectra of Fe(TPP)²⁻, indicating some interaction with DPIy (Figure S21). However, it is unclear whether this species is associated with catalysis, as there is no DPIy present when catalysis is initiated. The features associated with DPIy and Fe(TPP)²⁻ are also not present in the postelectrolysis UV-visible spectra (Figure 2). While DPIy may interact with Fe(TPP)²⁻, we do not believe it inhibits catalysis. We do not see any reduction in catalytic activity after multiple turnovers even as the concentration of DPIy is increasing.

CONCLUSIONS

These studies indicate that DPIy is an effective sorbent for the capture of dilute CO₂ and a catalytic auxiliary. The resulting captured-CO₂ species, DPICx, is activated toward electrocatalytic reduction with Fe(TPP)Cl to produce CH₄ at high Faradaic efficiencies with regeneration of the sorbent DPIy. Furthermore, water is used as the proton source, indicating that this process can be coupled to renewable electricity to generate carbon-neutral methane. From our studies, it appears that the NHC activates the CO₂ toward the 2 e⁻ reduced product formate, which is then reduced further under these conditions to CH₄. All potential C1 intermediates (HCO₂⁻, HCHO, and CH₃OH) give CH₄ as the major carbon product.

The success of a carbene for this purpose is particularly exciting, as it is a modular platform that can tune CO₂ activation through both σ - and π -interactions to influence subsequent reactivity. These interactions can be controlled through electronic and steric effects.^{5,7}

These results have broader implications toward integrating CO₂ capture and conversion. CO₂ has unique interactions with a broad spectrum of sorbents. These interactions can be fine-tuned to pair with catalytic systems to guide the product selectivity. In this way, new systems can be developed that both capture CO₂ from dilute streams and result in products that would otherwise not be accessible with CO₂ substrates. These efforts are critical for reducing the cost and improving the efficiency of the utilization of CO₂ from the source to the product.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/jacs.4c18303>.

General experimental methods, physical methods, Faradaic efficiency calculations, electrochemical data, NMR spectroscopic data, synthesis and characterization, and computational methods (PDF)

TXT file of the terms used in this work (TXT)

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Notes

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