

Carbon Dioxide Reduction

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An Organic Hydride Transfer Reaction of a Ruthenium NAD Model Complex Leading to Carbon Dioxide Reduction**

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The growing atmospheric concentration of carbon dioxide (CO₂), caused in part by the excessive use of fossil fuels, has resulted in global warming. To prevent a global crisis and to cope with the growing demand for energy worldwide, it is crucial to clarify how the chemical conversion of CO2 into value-added chemical compounds,[1,2] such as methanol (CH₃OH)^[3,4] and formic acid (HCO₂H),^[5,6] can be accomplished. The single-electron reduction of CO₂ to form CO₂. is highly unfavorable, and therefore, the reduction of CO₂ through proton-assisted multiple-electron transfer has been investigated. [7,8] In biological systems, the NAD+/NADH redox couple in NAD (NAD = nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide) plays a pivotal role as a generator and/or a reservoir of hydride ion (H⁻), which is equivalent to two electrons and one proton.[9]

Much information about organic NAD model compounds has so far been accumulated to understand their unique redox and photophysical properties as well as their photochemical and thermal reactivity.[10] However, facile C-C coupling reactions of NAD radical intermediates, which can form either by the reduction of NAD+ or by the oxidation of NADH followed by deprotonation, has precluded reversible interconversion of NAD+ and NADH analogues.[11] In contrast to organic NAD model compounds, few transition-metal complexes containing NAD analogues have been reported. [12] We have recently demonstrated that a ruthenium complex containing a new type of NAD+ model ligand [Ru(bpy)2-(pbn)](PF₆)₂ (1; bpy = 2,2'-bipyridine, pbn = 2-(pyridin-2yl)benzo[b][1,5]naphthyridine)^[13] is efficiently reduced, in a two-electron process, to the corresponding NADH-type complex $[Ru(bpy)_2(pbnHH)](PF_6)_2$ (1.4HH; pbnHH = 2-(pyridin-2-yl)-5,10-dihydrobenzo[b][1,5]naphthyridine) through irradiation with visible light in the presence of a sacrificial

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reagent.[14] Despite the potential use of an NADH model compound as a photorenewable hydride reagent, neither NAD model complexes exhibiting an ability to donate hydride to CO₂ nor renewable organic hydrides that can reduce CO₂ in a photocatalytic manner have been reported.

Herein, we report on the successful transfer of organic hydride to CO2 by using a ruthenium-based NADH model complex 1.HH, a process that is triggered by the association of the base, benzoate anion (PhCOO-), to 1·HH. The association of PhCOO- to the NH moiety of the pbnHH ligand in 1.HH has been found to be crucial for the organic hydride transfer reaction that converts CO₂ into formate (HCO₂⁻). Additionally, a photocatalytic CO₂-reduction process using ruthenium-based NAD+ model complex 1 has also been successfully developed.

The ruthenium complex 1·HH, bearing the NADH model ligand pbnHH, was prepared by chemical reduction of the ruthenium-based NAD⁺ model complex 1 by using Na₂S₂O₄, as reported previously.[14a] The ruthenium-based NADH model complex 1-HH exhibits organic hydride transfer activity toward CO₂; the reaction is triggered by the association of base and is accompanied by the C-H bond dissociation of the NADH model ligand. The addition of excess amounts (10 equivalents) of tetra-n-butylammonium benzoate to an acetonitrile (CH3CN) solution of 1.4HH at 293 K under a saturated CO₂ atmosphere results in a color change of the solution from yellow to red. The reaction consists of two distinct steps, each of which corresponds to a distinct spectral change (Figure 1). Firstly, the characteristic absorption band associated with 1.HH that is located at 420 nm (Figure 1, blue line) rapidly shifts to slightly higher wavelengths upon addition of tetra-n-butylammonium benzoate (Figure 1, purple line). Subsequently, the intensity of the resulting spectrum, at approximately 460 nm, decreases together with the appearance of an absorption band at 530 nm. The final spectrum corresponds to the NAD⁺ model complex 1 (Figure 1, red line), and by viewing the spectral changes, an isosbestic point at 499 nm can be identified. In the resulting reaction mixture, the reduction product of CO₂ (HCO₂⁻) has been detected in 38.0% yield based on **1·HH**, as determined by capillary electrophoresis analyses; the corresponding NAD+ model complex 1 has also been detected by ESI mass spectrometry (m/z = 335.5); see the Supporting Information, Figure S1). An isotope-labeling experiment involving a reaction employing ¹³CO₂ instead of ¹²CO₂ and analysis by ESI mass spectrometry have confirmed that the carbon-atom source of the product, formate, is indeed carbon dioxide (see the Supporting Information, Figure S2). Furthermore, when $[Ru(bpy)_2(pbnDD)](PF_6)_2$ (1-**DD**; pbnDD is the 5,10,10-trideuterated analogue of pbnHH)

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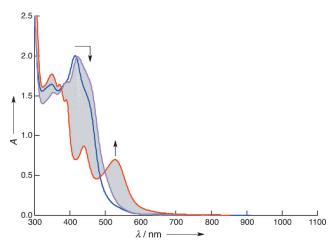


Figure 1. Absorption spectrum of an acetonitrile solution of **1·HH** $(1.0 \times 10^{-4} \, \text{M})$ under a saturated CO₂ atmosphere at 293 K (blue line). Absorption spectrum recorded immediately after the addition of PhCOO⁻ (10 equiv; purple line). An overlapping series of absorption spectra recorded every 5 sec after addition of PhCOO⁻ for a period of 1800 sec (grey area). Absorption spectrum of an acetonitrile solution of **1** (red line).

was used instead of **1·HH**, the ESI mass spectrum has exhibited a signal at m/z = 46, which corresponds to the ion, DCO₂⁻ (Figure S2). These results clearly demonstrate that the hydride is transferred from pbnHH in the ruthenium complex to CO₂, thus producing HCO₂⁻; similarly, deuteride transfer from pbnDD produces DCO₂⁻. The findings are consistent with the large kinetic isotope effect, which is described below.

The spectral data (Figure 1) show that there are two distinct steps in the reaction. The initial step is rapid (characterized by the shift from the blue line to the purple line, Figure 1) and could be followed when the reaction of **1·HH** and PhCOO⁻ was conducted at 233 K. Absorption spectra resulting from the addition of varying quantities of PhCOO⁻ to a solution of **1·HH** in CH₃CN at 233 K have been obtained (see the Supporting Information, Figure S3). Based on the resulting spectral changes at 460 nm, an absorption-spectrum-based titration graph for the reaction of **1·HH** with PhCOO⁻ has been plotted (inset of Figure S3). The graph indicates that a 1:1 base adduct of **1·HH** is formed [Eq. (1)]. The formation constant (K) of the base adduct is estimated to be $7.8 \times 10^4 \text{M}^{-1}$ [Eq. (2), [15] [PhCOO⁻]₀ and [**1·HH**]₀ are the

$$(\alpha^{-1}-1)^{-1} = K([PhCOO^{-}]_{0} - \alpha[\mathbf{1} \cdot \mathbf{HH}]_{0}), \ \alpha = A - A_{0}/A_{\infty} - A_{0}$$
 (2)

initial concentrations of PhCOO- and 1-HH, respectively, and A is the absorbance associated with the base adduct at 460 nm]. The formation of the 1:1 base adduct has been confirmed using ESI mass spectrometry and ¹H NMR spectroscopy. Signals in the mass spectrum corresponding to the monocationic species derived from the base adduct, that is, $[Ru(bpy)_2(pbnHH)(PhCOO^-)]^+$ (m/z = 794.2), have been observed upon addition of 10 equivalents of PhCOO- to a CH₃CN solution of 1·HH at 233 K; the observed naturalabundance isotope pattern agrees well with the simulated pattern (see the Supporting Information, Figure S4). The ¹H NMR spectrum of the mixture, which was prepared using the above-mentioned conditions and using CD₃CN as the solvent, has exhibited a singlet at 12.81 ppm, which is assigned to the benzoate-bound NH moiety of the 1:1 base adduct (see the Supporting Information, Figure S5). To estimate the oxidation potential of the base adduct [Ru(bpy)2(pbnHH)-(PhCOO⁻)]⁺, a cyclic voltammogram has been obtained and compared with that of 1-HH at 233 K. The addition of 10 equivalents of PhCOO⁻ to a CH₃CN solution of **1·HH** has resulted in a large negative shift of the oxidation peak potential associated with the pbnHH moiety (shift from 0.77 V versus Ag/Ag⁺ to 0.15 V versus Ag/Ag⁺; see the Supporting Information, Figure S6). This electrochemical behavior suggests that the benzoate anion adduct [Ru(bpy)₂-(pbnHH)(PhCOO⁻)]⁺ is a much stronger reductant than the parent 1·HH, thus explaining why the former is able to reduce CO_2 to HCO_2^- .

To investigate the organic hydride transfer mechanism, the kinetics of the second step, which is characterized by the spectral change from the purple to the red line in Figure 1 and involves a reaction between the base adduct [Ru(bpy)₂-(pbnHH)(PhCOO $^-$)] $^+$ and CO₂, has been analyzed. Figure 2 shows a plot of absorption at 530 nm versus time for the reaction between **1-HH** and PhCOO $^-$ (10 equivalents) under a saturated CO₂ atmosphere at 293 K. The reaction has first-order kinetics, as shown by the graph in the inset of Figure 2. The pseudo-first-order rate constant ($k_{\text{obs}(530)}$) is almost

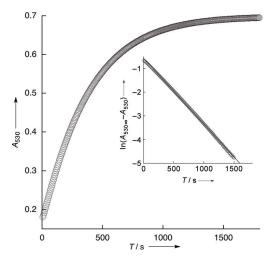


Figure 2. Absorbance (530 nm) versus time in the reaction of **1·HH** (1.0×10^{-4} m) and PhCOO⁻ (10 equiv) under a saturated CO₂ atmosphere in CH₃CN at 293 K. Inset: first-order plot based on the absorbance values at 530 nm.



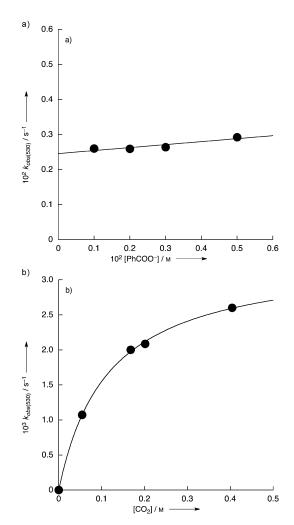


Figure 3. Plots of $k_{\text{obs}(530)}$ versus a) [PhCOO $^-$] and b) [CO $_2$] for the reaction of **1·HH**, PhCOO $^-$, and CO $_2$ in CH $_3$ CN at 293 K.

independent of the PhCOO⁻ concentration, ^[16] and the plot of this pseudo-first-order rate constant versus CO₂ concentration exhibits a Michaelis—Menten-type saturation curve (Figure 3). The results clearly indicate that CO₂ and the base adduct form a complex in the course of the reaction [Eq. (3)]. After fitting the data to the equation $1/k_{\text{obs}(530)} = 1/k_2 + 1/(K_1 k_2)[\text{CO}_2]^{-1}$, the K_1 and k_2 values are determined (K_1 = $8.7\,\text{M}^{-1}$ and k_2 = $3.3 \times 10^{-3}\,\text{s}^{-1}$). ^[17] In addition, a large kinetic isotope effect (KIE) is found (Figure 4) by comparing the rate of reaction of **1-HH** ($k_{\text{obs}(530, \mathbf{1-HH})} = 2.6 \times 10^{-3}\,\text{s}^{-1}$) and **1-DD** ($k_{\text{obs}(530, \mathbf{1-DD})} = 5.6 \times 10^{-4}\,\text{s}^{-1}$). ^[17] The KIE ($k_{\text{obs}(530, \mathbf{1-HH})}/k_{\text{obs}(530, \mathbf{1-DD})}$) is calculated to be 4.6, and the large KIE value strongly indicates that the reduction of CO₂ to HCO₂⁻ is a hydride-transfer reaction. ^[18]

The reduction of CO_2 by hydride transfer can be carried out using catalytic amounts of **1** when using photoirradiation. Irradiation (visible light, $\lambda > 450$ nm) of a solution of NAD⁺ model complex **1** in CH₃CN, in the presence of PhCOO⁻ (100 equivalents) and triethanolamine (TEOA, 5000 equivalents), the latter being a sacrificial reagent, under a saturated CO_2 atmosphere led to the generation of relatively large amounts of HCO_2^- (1.25 times the amount of **1**) in comparison to that obtained using noncatalytic conditions (38.0% yield based on

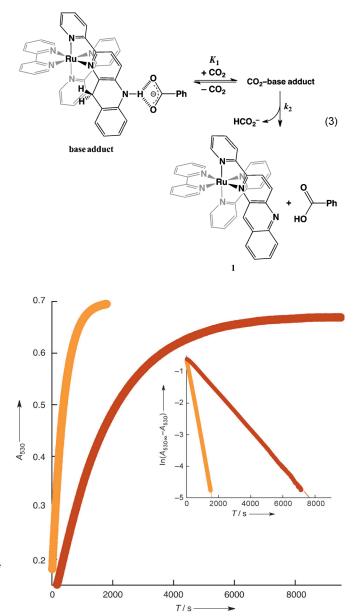


Figure 4. Absorbance (530 nm) versus time in the reactions of either **1·HH** (1.0×10^{-4} m; light-brown curve) or **1·DD** (1.0×10^{-4} m, deepbrown curve) and PhCOO⁻ (10 equiv) under a saturated CO₂ atmosphere in CH₃CN at 293 K. Inset: first-order plots based on the absorbance values (530 nm) obtained for the reaction of **1·HH** (light-brown line) and **1·DD** (deep-brown line).

1-HH). The large increase in HCO₂⁻ yield can be due to a photodriven catalytic cycle that involves conversion of NAD⁺ model complex **1** into NADH model complex **1-HH** through a photochemical two-electron reduction process.^[14a]

In conclusion, we have demonstrated that CO₂ can be reduced to HCO₂⁻ through hydride transfer involving C-H bond dissociation of the NADH model ligand in **1·HH** driven by the association of the base PhCOO⁻ (Scheme 1). Moreover, we have also successfully developed a photocatalytic variant of the CO₂-reduction process, which involves photoinduced reduction of **1** to **1·HH**, a process that is similar to NAD⁺/NADH interconversion. To the best of our knowledge,



this is the first example of CO₂ reduction involving a renewable organic hydride.

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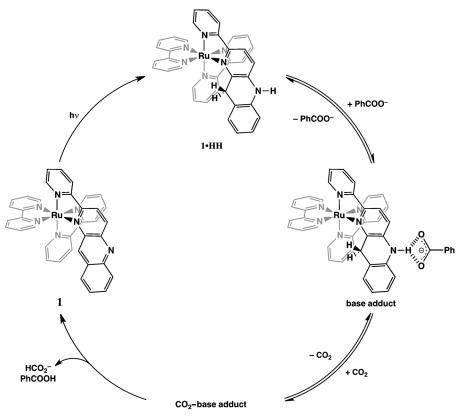
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Scheme 1. Proposed mechanism for the photocatalytic reduction of CO_2 in the presence of the NADH model complex.

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- [16] This result indicates that the initial rapid spectral change in this reaction is due to an equilibrium involving **1·HH** and the base adduct [Ru(bpy)₂(pbnHH)(PhCOO⁻)]⁺; this is consistent with the considerably large formation constant ($K = 7.8 \times 10^4 \,\mathrm{M}^{-1}$), as described herein.
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