Catalysis of the Electrochemical Reduction of Carbon Dioxide by Iron(0) Porphyrins: Synergystic Effect of Weak Brönsted Acids

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Abstract: Addition of weak Brönsted acids such as 1-propanol, 2-pyrrolidone, and CF₃CH₂OH triggers a considerable improvement of the catalysis of CO₂ reduction by iron(0) tetraphenylporphyrins. Both the catalytic currents and the life time of the catalyst increase without significant formation of hydrogen. Unprecedented values of the turnover numbers per hour can thus be reached. Carbon monoxide is the main product, while formic acid is formed to a lesser extent. The yield of formic acid counterintuitively decreases as the acidity of the acid synergist increases, becoming negligible with CF₃CH₂OH. Analysis of the reaction kinetics suggests that the action of the acid synergist is to stabilize the initial Fe^{II}CO₂²⁻ carbenoid complex by hydrogen bonding. The formation of a doubly hydrogenbonded complex opens the route to the cleavage of one of the two C–O bonds resulting in the formation of CO within the iron coordination sphere. The formation of formic acid involves a reaction pathway where the iron–CO₂ interactions are weaker. The effect of the acid synergist is an example of electrophilic assistance in a two-electron push–pull mechanism where pulling the electron pair out of the substrate by means of the synergist is as important as pushing electrons from the catalyst into the substrate. With CF₃CH₂OH, the production of CO is so fast that it commences to inhibit the catalytic reaction. This self-inhibition phenomenon can be satisfactorily modeled under the assumption that product adsorption on the electrode surface obeys a Langmuir equilibrium and that the covered portions of the surface are totally inactive toward reduction of the catalyst.

Carbon dioxide is very poorly reactive toward electron injection. The standard potential of the CO₂/CO₂⁻⁻ couple in an aprotic solvent such as N,N'-dimethylformamide (DMF) containing a countercation (NEt $_4^+$), not giving rise to strong ion pairing, is indeed as negative as -2.2 V vs SCE.¹ This is one reason why many potential catalysts of the electrochemical reduction of CO₂ have been investigated that would avoid the intermediacy of the CO2^{·-} anion radical along the reaction pathway. Molecules particularly suited to this goal are reduced states of transition metal complexes where electron transfer to CO₂ and the ensuing chemical steps are anticipated to take place within the metal coordination sphere.^{2,3} Another reason for investigating such chemical⁴ catalysts is that they may lead to a better selectivity than the direct electrochemical reduction of CO₂ at inert electrodes, such as mercury and lead, which yields mixtures of oxalate, formate, and carbon monoxide (plus carbonate) in aprotic solvents⁵ and formic acid in water.⁶

The transition metal CO₂ reduction catalysts that have received the most active attention are Ni and Co cyclams,⁷ rhenium carbonyl,⁸ rhodium, iridium, osmium,⁹ and ruthenium bipyridine¹⁰ complexes, although a detailed mechanism could not be established in most cases.

chemical reduction of CO₂ in DMF.^{3a} The catalytic efficiency and life time of this catalyst are however rather low. It was discovered later that these two parameters can be dramatically (4) (a) There are two types of homogeneous catalyses of electrochemical reactions. In redox catalysis,^{4b-d} the reduced form of the catalyst couple is

Iron(0) porphyrins have been shown to catalyze the electro-

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reactions. In redox catalysis,⁴⁰ a the reduced form of the catalyst couple is merely an outersphere electron donor that shuttles electrons from the electrode to the substrate. This homogeneous electron transfer is subject to the same activation/ driving force limitations as the outer sphere electron transfer at an inert electrode. The very existence of a catalytic effect thus derives from a physical rather than a chemical process, namely, the dispersion of the electrons in the same three-dimensional space as the substrate instead of the two-dimensional availability of the electrons at the electrode surface.^{4b-d} In chemical catalysis,^{4b-d} the interactions between the reduced form of the catalyst and the substrate are more intimate, involving the transient formation of an addition product between the reduced form of the catalyst and the substrate before regeneration of the oxidized form of the catalyst. (b) Andrieux, C. P.; Dumas-Bouchiat, J.-M.; Savéant, J.-M. *J. Electroanal. Chem.* **1978**, *87*, 39. (c) Andrieux, C. P.; Savéant, J.-M. Electrochemical Reactions. In *Investigations of Rates and Mechanisms;* Bernasconi, C. F., Ed.; Wiley: New York, 1986; Vol. 6, 4/E, Part 2, pp 305. (d) Andrieux, C. P.; Hapiot, P.; Savéant, J.-M. *Chem. Rev.* **1990**, *90*, 723.

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improved by addition of magnesium ions to the solution.^{3b} Since then it has been found that other Lewis acid cations such as Ca^{2+} , Ba^{2+} , Li^+ , and Na^+ also produce a similar effect.¹¹ The idea thus emerged that association between an electron donor catalyst and an electrophilic assisting synergist is required to achieve a satisfactory catalysis. The same idea was tested with a weak Brönsted acid leading to a spectacular enhancement of the catalytic current as described in a recent preliminary communication.^{3c}

One purpose of the work described below was to investigate several other Brönsted acids so as to define the type of acids that are appropriate for obtaining such effects. Another goal was to establish the mechanism through which these acids act as synergists to the electron donor catalyst having in mind that such an analysis may serve as an illustrating example of electron push—pull catalysis in general. During the course of this work, we came across several systems where the synergist is so effective that the products start to inhibit the initial step of the catalytic process. Comprehension and modeling of this selfinhibition process thus appeared necessary to extract the mechanism from the electrochemical kinetic data.

Results and Discussion

Cyclic voltammetry and preparative scale electrolysis at a mercury electrode were the two main tools we used to determine the nature and yields of the reduction products and the kinetics and mechanism of the catalytic process. In all experiments, the iron tetraphenylporphyrin (TPP) catalyst was introduced in the DMF solution as the Fe^{III}Cl complex.

Preliminary Cyclic Voltammetric Investigation. Figure 1 shows a typical cyclic voltammogram of this complex in the absence of CO₂ as well as of proton donors. It exhibits three successive waves corresponding to the reversible formation of the Fe(II), Fe(I)⁻, and Fe(0)²⁻ complexes. Catalysis takes place at the Fe(I)⁻/Fe(0)²⁻ wave.¹² The formation of carbon monoxide can be detected on the reverse anodic trace of the voltammogram by the fact that it stabilizes the Fe(II) oxidation states at the expenses of Fe(I)⁻ and Fe(III) and thus shifts the Fe(I)⁻ oxidation wave in the negative direction and the Fe(II) oxidation wave in the positive direction.^{3b} The magnitude of



Figure 1. Cyclic voltammetry of TPPFe^{III}Cl (1 mM) in DMF + 0.1 M NEt₄ClO₄ at a glassy carbon electrode. T = 20 °C. Scan rate 0.1 = V/s.



Figure 2. Cyclic voltammetry of TPPFe^{III}Cl (0.5 mM) in DMF + 0.1 M NEt₄ClO₄ under 1 atm of CO₂ in the presence of 0.51 M 2-pyrrolidone (a), 6.66 M 1-propanol (b), and 1.47 M CF₃CH₂OH (c). Mercury electrode, scan rate = 0.1 V/s. $T = 20^{\circ}$ C. Scan rate = 0.1 V/s.

these changes, when observed on the reverse trace of the catalytic wave, thus provides a qualitative estimate of the catalysis efficiency for generation of CO. It cannot serve as a quantitative measure of CO production which requires, as for the other reduced species, a full analysis of the reaction products after preparative-scale electrolysis.

Under 1 atm of CO₂, but in the absence of any synergist, the $Fe(I)^{-}/Fe(0)^{2-}$ wave becomes irreversible and increases in height, albeit to a very modest extent (see Figure 2c in ref 3b or Figure 1b in ref 3c). These observations fall in line with the fact that, at preparative scale, catalysis is slow and leads to rapid destruction of the catalyst.

Figure 2 shows typical examples of the enhancement of the catalytic wave resulting from the addition of three different weak Brönsted acids: 2-pyrrolidone, 1-propanol, and CF₃CH₂OH.¹³ Very large catalytic currents are observed in each case (compare their height with the peak current of the one-electron Fe(II)/ Fe(I)⁻ wave (2) in front). In all three cases the introduction of the acid triggers a drammatic increase of the catalytic current

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^{(12) (}a) $Fe(0)^{2-}$ is one of the resonant forms of the complex where, starting from Fe(II), all the added electron density is located on the iron atom. Other possible resonant forms are the anion radical of Fe(I)⁻ or the dianion of Fe(II), where the added electron density is shared between iron and the π^* orbital of the porphyrin ring or entirely located in the latter, respectively. Although all three forms presumably contribute to the electronic structure of the complex, previous studies have shown that it is alkylated at the iron atom and not on the ring by alkyl halides^{12b,c} and that it abstracts a bromonium ion from vicinal dibromides yielding the corresponding olefin.^{12d,e} These observations demonstrate that reactions at $Fe(0)^{2-}$ may dominate the chemistry of this complex. A recent spectroscopic study, including Raman spectroscopy, has confirmed the importance of the Fe(0)² resonant form.12f (b) Lexa, D.; Savéant, J.-M.; Wang, D. L. Organometallics 1986, 5, 1428. (c) Lexa, D.; Savéant, J.-M.; Su, K. B.; Wang, D. L. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1988, 110, 7617. (d) Lexa, D.; Savéant, J.-M.; Su, K. B.; Wang, D. L. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1987, 109, 6424. (e) Lexa, D.; Savéant, J-M.; Schäfer, H. J.; Su, K. B.; Vering, B.; Wang, D. L. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1990, 112, 6162. (f) Anxolabéhère, E.; Chottard, G.; Lexa, D. New J. Chem. 1994, 18.889.



Figure 3. Electrolysis of CO₂ (1 atm) in the presence of TPPFeCl (1 mM) at a mercury pool cathode in DMF + 0.1 M Et₄NClO₄ (electrode potential, -1.7 V vs SCE; temperature, 20 °C) in the presence of (a) 0.55 M (\bigcirc) and 1.37 M (\blacktriangle) CF₃CH₂OH, (b) 6.7 M 1-propanol (\bigstar , CO; \checkmark , HCO₂⁻; \blacksquare , sum of products including H₂ and oxalate; see text), and (c) 6.3 M 1-propanol + 2.8 M H₂O (\bigstar , CO; \blacktriangledown , HCO₂⁻; \blacksquare , sum of products including H₂ and oxalate; see text).

(compare the current heights in Figure 2 to the current height in Figure 1b of ref 3c). It is observed that the efficiency of the acid synergist follows its acidity. However the use of stronger and stronger acids for increasing CO₂ reduction catalysis may not be a proper strategy if the iron(0) porphyrin catalyzes the reduction of the acid proton into hydrogen. In the absence of CO₂, the addition of 2-pyrrolidone or 1-propanol, in concentrations where large catalytic currents are observed in the presence of CO₂, does not alter the reversibility of the Fe(II)/Fe(I)⁻ wave showing that catalysis of hydrogen evolution is negligible. Under the same conditions, addition of CF3CH2OH renders the Fe-(II)/Fe(I)⁻ wave irreversible with an increase in height, which is however very small in comparison with the catalytic current observed in the presence of CO₂ (compare Figure 1c of ref 3c to Figure 2c above). This is an indication that hydrogen evolution should be small as compared to CO2 reduction as has been confirmed by the preparative-scale experiments described below. However with much stronger acids, such as Et₃NH⁺ $(pK_a \text{ ca. } 9^{13})$, catalysis of proton reduction is very strong leading to quantitative hydrogen formation,¹⁴ thus leaving little room



Figure 4. Cyclic voltammetry of the reduction of CO₂ (1 atm) in DMF + 0.1 M Et₄NClO₄ catalyzed by TPPFeCl (1 mM), variations with the concentration of added CF₃CH₂OH. Scan rate = 0.1 V/s. T = 20 °C. E = electrode potential vs aqueous SCE.

for CO_2 reduction. It is also worth noting that substantial formation of CO, as a result of catalysis, is apparent on all three voltammograms through the negative shift of the anodic wave 2', due to stabilization of Fe(II) by CO.

Preparative-Scale Electrolyses. The results of preparativescale electrolyses carried out under 1 atm of CO₂ in the presence of CF₃CH₂OH or 1-propanol are summarized in Figure 3.

With CF₃CH₂OH (Figure 3a), the reaction is selective, leading to the formation of more than 96% CO. No hydrogen, oxalate, or formate could be detected. The turnover number per hour slightly decreases with time as a result of a slow degradation of the porphyrin catalyst. Cyclic voltammetric analysis of the electrolyzed solutions revealed that the decay per catalytic cycle is 1% for [CF₃CH₂OH] = 0.55 M and 0.4% for [CF₃CH₂OH] = 1.37 M.

The reaction is less selective with 1-propanol (Figure 3b). Although CO remains the main product (\sim 60%), substantial amounts of formate are formed (\sim 35%). Small but detectable amounts of oxalate (1.6%) and hydrogen (4%) were also found among the reaction products. The deactivation of the catalyst, 2.2%/catalytic cycle, is faster than with CF₃CH₂OH.

The effect of water as a possible acid synergist¹³ could not be investigated directly because its addition triggers the precipitation of the iron porphyrin. However this is not the case when a large amount of 1-propanol is already present in the solution. The results displayed in Figure 3c reveal that addition of water (2.8 M) to a solution already containing 6.3 M 1-propanol increases the CO yield up to 80% and diminishes the yield in formate down to 13%. The yields in oxalate and hydrogen also decrease (0.4% and 2%, respectively). It is also worth noting that the deactivation of the catalyst, now only 0.9%/catalytic cycle, decreases upon addition of water.

As a general trend, we thus observe, in the series of weak Brönsted acids comprising CF_3CH_2OH , water, and 1-propanol, that the selectivity of the reaction and the stability of the catalyst improve as the synergist becomes more acidic.¹³

Kinetics and Mechanisms. Addition of CF_3CH_2OH triggers a considerable increase of the catalytic current. Figure 4 shows the variations of the voltammograms and the peak current as a function of the concentration of CF_3CH_2OH . The current, *i*,

^{(13) (}a) The pK_a 's of these various acids are not known in DMF. From the approximate relationship between pK_a 's in DMF and DMSO ($pK_a^{\text{DMF}} = 0.55 + 1.05pK_a^{\text{DMSO (35b)}}$) and from values measured in DMSO for these acids or similar acids, ^{13c,d} it can be estimated that the pK_a 's in DMF lie in the following order: 1-propanol > H₂O > pyrrolidone > CF₃CH₂OH. The H-bonding properties of these compounds are expected to lie in the same order. (b) Clare, B. W.; Cook, D.; Ko, E. C. F.; Mac, Y. C.; Parker, A. J. J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1966**, 88, 1911. (c) Kolthoff, I. N.; Chantooni, M. K.; Bhowmik, S. J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1968**, 90, 23. (d) Bordwell, F. G. Acc. Chem. Res. **1988**, 21, 496.

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Figure 5. Kinetics of the catalysis of CO₂ reduction by TPPFeCl (0.96 mM) in DMF + 0.1 M Et₄NClO₄ at 20 °C, variation of the global rate constant with (a) CO_2 concentration ([CF₃CH₂OH] = 0.4 M) and (b) CF₃CH₂OH concentration under 1 atm of CO₂.

and peak current, i_p , are normalized toward the peak current, $i_{\rm p}^{0}$, corresponding to one electron as obtained from the Fe(I)^{-/} $Fe(0)^{2-}$ wave in the absence of CO₂ and CF₃CH₂OH (Figure 1). It is observed that $i_p i_p^0$ increases with [CF₃CH₂OH], reaching a limiting value at high concentrations. Simultaneously, the shape of the voltammogram changes from a S-shaped curve to a peak. The origin of the peak shape that progressively appears upon raising the CF₃CH₂OH concentration will be discussed later. Up to 0.55 M CF₃CH₂OH, the voltammograms are close to the S-shaped curve, independent of scan rate, as defined by eq 1, which is expected when the substrate is in large excess over the catalyst and catalysis is not too fast so that the concentration of the substrate across the reaction layer is the same as its bulk concentration.4cd,15

$$\frac{i}{FS} = \frac{\sqrt{k}}{1 + \exp\left[\frac{F}{RT}(E - E^0)\right]} \tag{1}$$

where S is the electrode surface area, E is the electrode potential, E^0 is the formal potential of the catalyst redox couple, and k is the global pseudo-first-order rate constant of the catalytic process $(AH = CF_3CH_2OH)$:

$$\operatorname{Fe}(\mathrm{I})^{-} + \mathrm{e}^{-} \rightleftharpoons \operatorname{Fe}(0)^{2^{-}} \tag{0}$$

$$\operatorname{Fe}(0)^{2^{-}} + \operatorname{CO}_{2} + \operatorname{AH} \xrightarrow{k} \operatorname{Fe}(I)^{-} + \operatorname{products}$$

The global rate constant k is then immediately obtained from the height of the plateau current. The variation of k with CO_2 concentration (Figure 5a) reveals that the reaction order in CO_2 is 1. From the variation of k with CF₃CH₂OH concentration, one can derive the variation of the pseudo-second-order rate constant $k' = k/[CO_2]$ (Figure 5b), using the previously determined CO₂ solubilities in DMF-CF₃CH₂OH mixtures.¹⁶ Within the considered range of CF₃CH₂OH concentrations, the reaction order in CF₃CH₂OH is 2.

These observations and the results of preparative-scale electrolyses suggest the mechanism depicted in Scheme 1. Following its electrochemical generation, the iron(0) complex combines with one CO_2 molecule to give a complex that we have represented by a single carbenoid resonant form. This representation is suggested by the fact that iron(II) complexes are strongly stabilized by CO, as seen earlier, and other carbene or carbenoid ligands.17

Scheme 1^a

Fe(I)

$$Fe(\mathbf{I})^{-} + e^{-} \qquad Fe(\mathbf{0})^{2^{-}} \qquad (0)$$

$$Fe(\mathbf{0})^{2^{-}} + CO_{2} \qquad \frac{k_{1}}{k_{-1}} \qquad Fe(\mathbf{II}) : C \bigvee_{\mathbf{0}^{-}}^{\mathbf{0}^{-}} \qquad (1)$$

 $Fe(0)^2$

$$Fe(II):C \bigvee_{O^{-}}^{O^{-}} + AH \xrightarrow{K_{2}} Fe(II):C \bigvee_{O^{+}\cup H \to A}^{O^{-}} (2)$$

$$Fe(II): C \xrightarrow{O^{-}} + AH \xrightarrow{K_{3}} Fe(II): C \xrightarrow{O^{-} \cup H \rightarrow A} (3)$$

$$Fe(II): C \xrightarrow{k_4} Fe(II)CO + H_2O + 2 A^{-}$$
(4)

$$Fe(II)CO + Fe(0)^{2^{-}} \xrightarrow{k_{5}} Fe(I)CO^{-} + Fe(I)^{-} \longrightarrow (5)$$

$$Fe(I)CO^{-} \longrightarrow Fe(I)^{-} + CO \qquad (6)$$

^{*a*} k's and K's are the rate and equilibrium constants, respectively.

Scheme 2

$$Fe(II):C_{O^{-}}^{O^{-}} + AH \xrightarrow{K_{2'}} Fe(II):C_{OH}^{O^{-}} + A^{-}$$
(2')

$$Fe(II):C_{OH}^{O^{-}} + AH \xrightarrow{K_{3'}} Fe(II):C_{OH}^{OH} + A^{-}$$
(3')

$$\begin{array}{ccc} OH \\ Fe(II):C \\ OH \end{array} \xrightarrow{k_{4'}} Fe(II)CO + H_2O \qquad (4') \end{array}$$

The addition of CF₃CH₂OH stabilizes the carbenoid adduct through two successive addition equilibria (2 and 3) that are followed by the rate-determining cleavage of one C-O bond leading to the stable $Fe^{II}CO$ complex (4). The $Fe(I)^-$ catalyst is regenerated during the two last steps (5 and 6) by reduction of Fe^{II}CO.¹⁸ Thus, within the considered range of CF₃CH₂OH concentrations, the global rate constant k is expressed as a function of the thermodynamic or kinetic characteristics of the successive steps by eq 2.

$$k = 2K_1K_2K_3k_4[CO_2][CF_3CH_2OH]^2$$
 (2)

Scheme 1 is to be preferred to a reaction mechanism in which steps 2 and 3 would involve protonation of the carbenoid complex yielding successively two molecules of the conjugated alcoholate (A⁻) as represented in Scheme 2. Indeed, such a mechanism would not be consistent with the S-shaped currentpotential curves observed experimentally. As shown in the Supporting Information, they are peak-shaped as represented in Figure A1. According to Scheme 2, the voltammograms should be peak-shaped at low CF₃CH₂OH concentration and

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^{(18) (}a) In step 5, the electron donor is regarded to be the iron(0) complex rather than the electrode itself. The competition between these two possible pathways ("DISP-ECE" competition) is governed by the parameter (k_5 / $k^{3/2}$) $(Fv/RT)^{1/2}$. 4c,18b Over the whole series of experiments, the maximum value of k is 5.8 10⁴ s⁻¹. k_5 should be close to the diffusion limit (10¹⁰ M⁻¹ s⁻¹). Thus for a catalyst concentration of 1 mM, the minimal value of the parameter, obtained for the lowest scan rate (0.1 V/s), 1.5, is still in favor of the DISP pathway with some contribution from the ECE pathway. The DISP pathway predominates more and more at lower CF3CH2OH concentrations and higher scan rates. (b) Amatore, C.; Gareil, M.; Savéant, J.-M. J. Electroanal. Chem. 1983, 47, 1.



Figure 6. Variation of the diffusion coefficient of CO_2 with the concentration of CF_3CH_2OH in DMF + 0.1 M Et₄NClO₄ solution.

become S-shaped upon raising the concentration as reaction 1 becomes the rate-determining step (see Supporting Information). These predictions are exactly opposite to the experimental observations, thus ruling out the occurrence of the mechanism depicted in Scheme 2.

What is thus the origin of the peak shape observed more and more markedly as the CF₃CH₂OH concentration is raised? One possibility that ought to be examined is that it may result, in spite of the large bulk concentration of CO_2 , from the fact that the catalysis rate becomes very large upon increasing the CF₃-CH₂OH concentration. Under such conditions, substrate diffusion tends to interfere in the control of the current and its concentration is no longer constant across the reaction layer. The factor that governs the consumption of the substrate in the reaction layer is $(RT/F)(k/v)(C_{cat}/C_{sub})(D_{cat}/D_{sub})$ (v is the scan rate and C and D are the bulk concentrations and diffusion coefficients of the subscript species, respectively).15b The solubility of CO₂ in DMF-CF₃CH₂OH mixtures has been determined previously at 20 °C and shown to vary from 0.228 to 0.168 M from pure DMF to pure CF₃CH₂OH.¹⁶ The diffusion coefficient of the porphyrin was determined from the reversible the $Fe(I)^{-}/Fe(0)^{2-}$ cyclic voltammetric wave. It was found to be practically independent of the CF3CH2OH concentration and equal to 3×10^{-6} cm² s⁻¹. The diffusion coefficient of CO₂, determined by potential step chronoamperometry beyond the peak potential (at -2.45 V vs SCE) at 0.5 and 1 atm of CO₂ in the absence of porphyrin, increases with the CF3CH2OH concentration as shown in Figure 6. Taking into account these variations, those of the CO₂ bulk concentrations, and the values of k found at various CF_3CH_2OH concentrations (see below), it was found that the consumption parameter is always <1.44. Simulation of the current-potential for this maximal value reveals the presence of a shallow peak. The ratio of the current at the inversion point over the peak current is then 92%, whereas the experimental ratio is as low as 50%. It follows that diffusion of CO₂ never plays any significant role and therefore that the observed peak shapes do not derive from the interference of this factor.

Another possibility was examined. It consists in considering that CF_3CH_2OH would inactivate CO_2 , through formation of complexes. This possibility was ruled out by the observation that the ¹³C NMR signal of a 90% ¹³CO₂ mixture was not significantly shifted (by <0.05 ppm) by the addition of CF_3 - CH_2OH up to a concentration of 4.1 M.

Visual observation of the mercury surface at the potential of the catalytic wave under a 300 magnification revealed the formation of an array of CO microbubbles eventually merging into large bubbles which then leave the surface. These microbubbles may reversibly inhibit the reduction of the Fe(I)⁻ form of the catalyst at the electrode surface. At given scan rate and CF₃CH₂OH concentration, such a self-inhibition



Figure 7. Cyclic voltammetry of the reduction of CO_2 (1 atm) in DMF + 0.1 M Et₄NClO₄ catalyzed by TPPFeCl (1 mM) at two concentrations of CF₃CH₂OH (number on each curve) as a function of the scan rate: (a) 0.1, (b) 0.2, (c) 0.3, and (d) 0.4 V/s. T = 20 °C.



Figure 8. Cyclic voltammetry of the reduction of CO₂ (1 atm) in DMF + 0.1 M Et₄NCIO₄ + 1.47 M CF₃CH₂OH catalyzed by TPPFeCl (0.92 mM). Scan rate = 0.1 V/s. T = 20 °C; extraction of the rate constant by application of eq 5.

phenomenon should increase as the potential is scanned along the wave in the negative direction and, as time elapses, thus resulting in the formation of a peak instead of the plateau that is expected in the absence of inhibition. The relative importance of the peak should increase with CF_3CH_2OH concentration, and upon decreasing the scan rate since the formation of CO increases accordingly. These qualitative trends are indeed observed experimentally (Figure 7), and quantitative agreement between theory and experiment can be reached by proper modeling of the self-inhibition phenomenon as discussed later in detail. The model however involves several assumptions whose validity is difficult to assess by independent means. It is thus safer to derive the homogeneous kinetics and from them the reaction mechanism, using the portion of the current potential curves that is negligibly affected by self-inhibition.

The following strategy was used to reach this goal. Figure 7 shows the variation of the cyclic voltammograms with the scan rate at two concentrations of CF₃CH₂OH. At low concentration, the peaks are very flat and an S-shaped curve is obtained at the highest scan rate, in line with the discussion above. Decreasing the scan rate, the peak is more and more pronounced, but there is still a large portion of the cathodic curves which is independent from scan rate and therefore obeys eq 1, describing the voltammogram in the absence of inhibition. The same is true, albeit in a narrower range of potentials, at high CF₃CH₂OH concentration where the peaks are more pronounced (Figure 7). The procedure illustrated in Figure 8 ensues. Within the potential range where the current is independent from scan rate, i/i_p^0 is proportional to $1/{1 + \exp[(F/RT)(E - E^0)]}$ as expected from eq 3, a recast version



Figure 9. Kinetics of the catalysis of CO₂ reduction by TPPFeCl (1 mM) in DMF + 0.1 M Et₄NClO₄ at 20 °C, variation of the global rate constant with (a) CO_2 concentration ([1-propanol] = 6.7M) and (b) 1-propanol concentration under 1 atm of CO₂.

of eq 1 in which the current is normalized toward the one-electron catalyst peak current, $i_{\rm p}^{0}$.

$$\frac{i}{l_{\rm p}^{0}} = \sqrt{\frac{RTk}{F v}} \frac{2.24}{1 + \exp[\frac{F}{RT}(E - E^{0})]}$$
(3)

The rate constant k is derived from the slope of the straight line thus obtained. In the particular case represented in Figure 8, $k = 2.0 \ 10^4 \ s^{-1}$. This procedure was systematically applied to derive the variations of the global rate constant with CO₂ and CF₃CH₂OH concentrations which are those represented in Figure 5. We have already seen that in the range of low CF₃-CH₂OH concentrations, where self-inhibition is weak, the kinetic and preparative-scale electrolysis results are consistent with the mechanism depicted in Scheme 1. It is also consistent with the kinetic data for higher concentrations as represented in Figure 5b which have been freed from the effect of selfinhibition by the procedure just described. The tendency of the k-[CF₃CH₂OH] curve to level off at high values of [CF₃-CH₂OH] can indeed be explained by the acceleration of steps 2 and 3 which eventually shifts the rate control to forward step 1. In other words, the global rate constant can be expressed as:

$$\frac{2}{k} = \frac{1}{K_1 K_2 K_3 k_4 [\text{CO}_2] [\text{AH}]^2} + \frac{1}{k_1 [\text{CO}_2]}$$
(4)

The solid line in Figure 5b represents the fitting of the data with:

$$K_1 K_2 K_3 k_4 = 2.5 \ 10^4 \ \text{M}^{-3} \ \text{s}^{-1}, k_1 = 7.5 \ 10^5 \ \text{M}^{-1} \ \text{s}^{-1}$$

The cyclic voltammetric results obtained with 1-propanol are simpler in the sense that they show almost no peak, and therefore the global rate constant, k, can be directly obtained from the plateau currents using eq 1. The variations of k with the concentration of CO₂ are displayed in Figure 9a showing that the reaction order in CO_2 is 1. From the variations of k with the 1-propanol concentration and the previously determined CO₂ solubilities in DMF-1-propanol mixtures,¹⁶ one obtains the pseudo-second-order rate constant $k' = k/[CO_2]$ as a function of 1-propanol concentration (Figure 9b). It is thus found that the reaction order in 1-propanol is 2 and that $K_1K_2K_3k_4 = 74$ M⁻³ s⁻¹. The synergistic effect of 1-propanol is thus substantially (340 times) smaller than that of CF₃CH₂OH. This observation explains why self-inhibition does not interfere significantly even at very high concentrations of 1-propanol (6.7 M).

There is however a complicating factor in the case of 1-propanol, namely, that formic acid is produced in significant amount (ca. 30%) besides carbon monoxide. Since the formaScheme 3



tion of formic acid does not alter the kinetics of the whole reaction, we are led to conclude that it follows the same kinetic law as the formation of CO, namely, that the reaction orders for this process are 1 in CO_2 and 2 in 1-propanol. These observations imply that the representation of the various complexes between iron and CO_2 by a single resonant form as depicted in Scheme 1 is oversimplified. In Scheme 3, we propose a representation which includes an iron(I)-anion radical structure, besides the iron(II)-carbene resonant structure already considered. The initial adduct formed in reaction 1 would then be hydrogen bonded by one alcohol molecule (reaction 2) as in Scheme 1. The next reactions (3 and 4) leading to the main product, CO, would also be the same, but H-bonding by a second alcohol molecule (reaction 3) would then compete with a reaction (3') where the singly H-bonded adduct would dissociate into $Fe(I)^{-}$ and one molecule of H-bonded CO₂ anion radical. Following an uphill reversible electron transfer between the two latter species (3"), protonation of the H-bonded dianion would finally leads to formic acid. In the framework of such a mechanism, the difference of behavior between 1-propanol and CF₃CH₂OH can be explained by the lesser ability of the former to provide H-bonding than the latter. 1-Propanol is thus able to form a first hydrogen bond (reaction 2) but is not able to H-bond the resulting less accepting complex (reaction 3) to a sufficient extent to avoid its dissociation (reaction 3'). Confirming these views is the observation that addition of water, an H-bonding agent stronger than 1-propanol, increases the yield in CO at the expense of formic acid.

Turning back to preparative-scale electrolysis in the presence of CF₃CH₂OH or 1-propanol, we may estimate the turnover numbers per hour that should have been obtained on the basis of the rate data derived from the cyclic voltammetric experiments if the potential of the working electrode would uniformly sit on the plateau of the wave. These are found to be 350 (CO) for CF₃CH₂OH and 38 (CO) and 18 (formic acid) for 1-propanol, in the conditions of Figure 3a,b, respectively. These values are significantly less than those actually found (see Figure 3a,b) pointing to the interference of ohmic drop which makes



Figure 10. Self-inhibited current—potential curve for the catalysis of CO₂ (0.23 M) reduction by TPPFeCl (0.75 M) in the presence of 3.48 M CF₃CH₂OH in DMF + 0.1 M Et₄NClO₄ at a mercury electrode. T = 20 °C. Scan rate = 0.1 V/s; (—) experimental curve and (O) simulated curve (see text).

the actual electrode potential nonuniformly less negative than the nominal electrode potential. It thus appears that optimization of the cell geometry would lead to substantial improvements of the turnover numbers per hour.

Self-Inhibition. The self-inhibition phenomenon observed with CF₃CH₂OH at high catalytic efficiencies can be modeled as follows. The product (CO) of catalysis formed in a thin reaction layer adjacent to the electrode surface may diffuse toward the solution and also to the electrode surface where its adsorbs reversibly. Adsorption and desorption are regarded as fast, and the adsorption equilibrium is assumed to obey the Langmuir law. The adsorbed product is assumed to be randomly distributed over the surface and the portions of the surface that are thus covered to be totally inactive toward the reduction of the catalyst. As shown in detail elsewhere,¹⁹ the inhibited current is given by eq 5 where θ , the relative coverage of the surface by the inhibiting product, is itself obtained from eq 6.

$$\frac{i}{FSC^0 D^{1/2} k^{1/2}} = \frac{1-\theta}{1+\exp\left[\frac{F}{RT}(E-E^0)\right]}$$
(5)

$$-\ln(1-\theta) + \frac{1}{K_{a}} \left(\frac{RTD_{\text{prod}}}{Fv}\right)^{1/2} \frac{1}{\pi^{1/2}} \int_{0}^{\frac{Fvt}{RT}} \frac{\theta}{(1-\theta)} \left(\frac{Fvt}{RT} - \eta\right)^{1/2} = \frac{RTC^{0}}{Fv\Gamma^{0}} (kD)^{1/2} \frac{1}{\pi^{1/2}} \int_{0}^{\frac{Fvt}{RT}} \frac{d\eta}{1 + \exp\left[\frac{F}{RT}(E(\eta) - E^{0})\right]}$$
(6)

(during the cathodic scan, $E = E_i - vt$, and during the reverse scan, $E = 2E_f - E_i + vt$).

Comparison between experiment and the predictions of the model are illustrated in Figure 10 with the cyclic voltammogram obtained at high concentration of CF3CH2OH and at a low scan rate where inhibition is maximal. Systematic variations of the two dimensionless parameters contained in eq 6 allowed the determination of a couple of values, $K_a(Fv/RTD_{prod})^{1/2} = 1.02$ and $(RT/Fv)(C^0/\Gamma^0)(kD)^{1/2} = 1.34$, for which the agreement between the experimental and simulated voltammograms is excellent (Figure 10). Further validation of the model is obtained from the comparison of the effect of the scan rate on the self-inhibited experimental curves with the predictions of the theory. In this purpose, the values of $K_a(F/RTD_{prod})^{1/2}$, 3.23 $V^{-1/2} s^{1/2}$, and of $(RT/F)(C^0/\Gamma^0)(kD)^{1/2}$, 0.134 V⁻¹ s, were derived from the fitting represented in Figure 10. As seen in Figure 11, there is again an excellent agreement between experiment and theory.



Figure 11. Effect of scan rate on self-inhibition in the catalysis of CO_2 (0.23 M) reduction by TPPFeCl (0.75 M) in the presence of 3.48 M CF₃CH₂OH in DMF + 0.1 M Et₄NClO₄ at a mercury electrode. *T* = 20 °C. The numbers on the curves are the scan rates in V/s: (a) experimental curves and (b) simulated curves (see text).

Conclusions

Addition of weak Brönsted acids such as 1-propanol, 2-pyrrolidone, and CF₃CH₂OH considerably improve the catalysis of CO₂ reduction by iron(0) tetraphenylporphyrin in terms of both efficiency and life time of the catalyst without significant formation of hydrogen. Turnover numbers as high as 350/h could be reached with optimized cells where IR drop would be minimized. Carbon monoxide is the major product but not the only product as is the case with CF₃CH₂OH. Analysis of the reaction kinetics suggests a mechanism where the first step is the formation of an iron-CO2 adduct whose main resonant form is a $Fe^{II}CO_2^{2-}$ complex. This adduct is stabilized by H-bonding with two acid synergist molecules. The resulting complex is then more prone to cleave one of the C-O bonds than the initial adduct, thus leading to the formation of a CO molecule in the coordination sphere of the iron(II) porphyrin. Reduction of the later complex closes up the catalytic loop. A minor contibutor in the electronic structure of the initial and H-bonded iron- CO_2 adducts is a Fe^{1–}CO₂[–] resonant form. This explains why decomposition of the H-bonded iron-CO₂ adduct may thus lead to the formation of formic acid as a minor product along a reaction pathway where the iron-CO₂ interactions are weaker than in the main pathway leading to CO. This occurs when the H-bonding ability of the acid synergist is weak as with 1-propanol. It is noteworthy that not only no formate is found with the stronger acid synergist CF₃CH₂OH but also that addition of water decreases the CO yield at the expense of formate. The latter observation is indeed rather counterintuitive in view of the quantitative formation of formic acid upon direct electrolysis in water at an inert electrode.

These findings offer a striking example of the importance of electrophilic assistance in the chemical catalysis of electrochemical reduction. Delivery of two electrons in the coordination sphere of the catalyst is a necessary ingredient of a successful catalysis. Pushing the two electrons into the substrate is however not sufficient. They must then be pulled out by the action of the acid synergist.

With high concentrations of CF₃CH₂OH, catalysis becomes so strong that the product, CO, inhibits the reduction of the catalyst. This self-inhibition phenomenon can be satisfactorily modeled considering that product adsorption on the electrode surface obeys a Langmuir equilibrium and that the portions of the surface that are covered are totally inactive toward reduction of the catalyst.

Experimental Section

Cyclic Voltammetry. The working electrode was a mercury drop hung to a 1 mm diameter gold disk, the counter electrode a 1 mm

⁽¹⁹⁾ Bhugun, I.; Savéant J.-M. J. Electroanal. Chem. in press.

diameter gold wire, and the reference electrode a NaCl-saturated aqueous saturated calomel electrode. The volume of the solution was 3-5 mL, and the cell was double-jacketed so as to maintain the solution at a fixed temperature, 20°C, by means of a water circulation connected to a thermostat. An Alphagaz Air Liquide mass flow regulator was used for the reduced CO₂ pressure experiments. The potentiostat and the current measurer, implemented with a positive feedback ohmic drop compensation, were home-built instruments.²⁰ They were used together with a EGG PAR 175 signal generator and a IFELEC 2502 chart recorder. Because the reduction wave of TPPFe^{III}Cl is merged with the mercury oxidation current, the starting potential was positioned in the range of stability of Fe(II) and the scan started after stabilization of the current. The same electrodes and potentiostat were used for visual observation of the working electrode at the potential of the catalytic wave, but the cell was replaced by a thin layer cell and the working electrode was positioned in between the two parallel glass windows.

Preparative-Scale Electrolyses. The same gas expansion cell as described earlier^{3b} was used in all preparative scale experiments. The working electrode was a 10 cm² circular mercury pool whose surface was constantly renewed by means of a magnetic stirrer. In order to avoid contamination by water during electrolysis (several hours), we did not use an aqueous saturated calomel electrode as reference electrode but rather a cadmium amalgam electrode (Cd/CdHg/CdCl2) in DMF21 separated from the cathodic compartment by a bridge containing a 0.1 M Et₄NClO₄ DMF solution. The potential difference with the aqueous SCE, ca. 0.73 V, can be checked potentiometrically when required. The counter electrode was a platinum wire in a bridge separated from the cathodic compartment by a glass frit and containing a 0.4 M Et₄- $NO_2CCH_3 + 0.1 \text{ M Et}_4NClO_4 \text{ DMF}$ solution. CO_2 and ethane are produced at this electrode (Kolbe reaction) during electrolysis. All electrolyses were carried out in a glovebox so as to minimize side reactions triggered by the presence of dioxygen and/or water.

The potentiostat (50 V, 1 A) was a home-built instrument. The charge passed was measured with a IGN5 Taccussel integrator.

The volumes of the solution and gas phase were 17 and 39 mL, respectively. The two phases were analyzed separately during each electrolysis, and the fate of the porphyrin catalyst was followed by cyclic voltammetry on a microelectrode introduced in the cell.

 H_2 , CO, CH₄, and CO₂ were sought in samples of the gas phase extracted with a Hamilton tight-gas syringe and titrated by gas chromatography when found. The chromatograph was a GC-14B instrument with thermal conductivity detection equipped with a 2.2 mm diameter/2 m length column containing a 80/60 Carbosieve S stationary phase. The operating conditions were as follows: vector gas, helium (2 bars of input pressure); oven temperature, 85 °C; injected volume, 0.2 mL; analysis time, 16 min. Quantitative analysis used an external calibration, carried out the same day, based on the peak surface areas of volumes of the pure gas comprised between 0.01 and 0.2 mL. Under these conditions, the peak surface areas are proportional to the injected volumes.

Formate and oxalate were identified and titrated by ionic chromatography. The chromatograph was a DX-100 Dionex instrument equipped with a conductimetric detector and a 4 mm conductivity suppressor (AsRS-I). A 4 mm diameter Dionex IonPac AS10 column was used to separate the anions. The operating conditions were as follows: mobile phase, 65 mM NaOH in ultrapure water with a flow rate of 1 mL/min; injection volume, 100 μ L; analysis time, 20 min. The quantitative analyses were carried out after dilution of 0.2 mL of the electrolyzed solution into 100 mL of ultrapure water followed by filtration through a 0.5 μ m Millipore filter. The purpose of this pretreatment is to eliminate the porphyrin by precipitation and dilute both DMF and Et₄NClO₄ which could perturb the analysis if present in high concentrations. The titration was then performed with an external calibration, carried out the same day, based on the peak surface areas of known volumes of standard solutions of sodium formate or oxalic acid (concentration, 0.3–3 ppm). Under these conditions, the peak surface areas are proportional to the injected concentrations.

Analysis of formaldehyde was based on the formation of a colored product upon reaction with chromotropic acid (Merck Spectroquant kit, with visible spectrophotometric detection at 570 nm). The electrolyzed solutions were first pretreated as for formate and oxalate except that dilution was 50 times instead of 500 times. The external calibration was carried out with concentrations ranging from 0.25 to 1.5 mM.

Methanol was sought by gas chromatography with the same instrumentation as used for gas analyses except that the stationary phase was 60/80 Porapak Q. The operating conditions were as follows: vector gas, helium (2 bars of input pressure); oven temperature, 120 °C during 6 min followed by a 30 °C/min linear increase up to 150 °C' injected volume, $1-2 \mu$ L; analysis time, 25 min. The electrolyzed solutions were injected without pretreatment, and the chromatogram was compared to a standard solution containing 0.5 mM methanol, i.e., ca. 1% of the total conversion faradaic yield.

¹³C NMR. The reference solution, 90% ¹³C-enriched CO₂ in DMF, showed a signal at 125.25 ppm vs tetramethylsilane. CF₃CH₂OH was added to the solution up to 40% in volume.

Chemicals. Their origin and characteristics were as follows. The gases were from Air Liquide:argon (U), helium (N55), hydrogen (U), methane (N45), CO (N47), CO₂ (N45), and 90% ¹³C-enriched CO₂ from Eurositop. DMF was from Fluka, Burdick and Jackson, high purity grade, kept under argon. Water was obtained from a Millipore Milli-Q Plus system. 1-Propanol, CF₃CH₂OH, and 2-pyrrolidone were from Aldrich (≥99%). Et₄NClO₄ was a Fluka purum product. It was recrystallized these times in a 2–1 ethanol–ethyl acetate mixture at 95 °C before use. TPPFeCl and Et₄NO₂CCH₃•5H₂O were Aldrich products. Sodium formate was from Fluka (microselect, ≥99.5%) and oxalic acid from Merck (Suprapur). Mercury, first washed with 5% nitric acid (Merck, Suprapur), was vacuum-distilled twice. Anodic stripping measurements in ultrapure KCl or KNO₃ solutions showed the absence of heavy metals (Cu, Ni, Pb, Cd, Zn). It was kept under an inert atmosphere and paper-filtered before use.

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Supporting Information Available: Further reactions for Schemes 1 and 2 (3 pages). This material is contained in many libraries on microfiche, immediately follows this article in the microfilm version of the journal, can be ordered from ACS, and can be downloaded from the Internet; see any current masthead page for ordering information and Internet access instructions.

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