

Host-guest Chemistry Meets Electrocatalysis: Cucurbit[6]uril on a Au Surface as Hybrid System in CO₂ Reduction

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Abstract

The rational control of forming and stabilizing reaction intermediates to guide specific reaction pathways remains a major challenge in electrocatalysis. In this work, we report a surface active site engineering approach for modulating electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction using the macrocycle cucurbit[6]uril (CB[6]). A pristine gold surface functionalized with CB[6] nanocavities was studied as a hybrid organic-inorganic model system that utilizes host-guest chemistry to influence the heterogeneous electrocatalytic reaction. The combination of surface-enhanced infrared absorption (SEIRA) spectroscopy and electrocatalytic experiments in conjunction with theoretical calculations support capture and reduction of CO₂ inside the hydrophobic cavity of CB[6] on the gold surface in aqueous KHCO₃ at negative potentials. SEIRA spectroscopic experiments show that the decoration of gold with the supramolecular host CB[6] leads to an increased local CO₂ concentration close to the gold interface. Electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction on a CB[6]-coated gold electrode indicates differences in the specific interactions between CO₂ reduction intermediates within and outside the CB[6] molecular cavity, illustrated by a decrease in CO current density, but almost invariant H₂ production compared to unfunctionalized Au. The presented methodology and mechanistic insight will guide future design of molecularly engineered catalytic environments through interfacial host-guest chemistry.

Introduction

The electrocatalytic reduction of CO₂ using renewable energy sources offers an attractive route to produce storable carbon-neutral fuels.^{1,2} For this technology to become commercially viable, catalysts that promote the challenging multi electron/proton transfer reaction at minimal energy-penalty, a high rate and selectivity need to be developed. Currently, CO₂ reduction suffers from significant overpotentials, sluggish kinetics and control of selectivity as well as the low solubility of CO₂ in aqueous electrolytes.³⁻⁵ Gold (Au) is generally considered the most active electrocatalyst for CO generation with a catalytic onset potential *ca.* 300 mV more negative than the standard potential for CO₂ to CO reduction on flat electrodes.⁶⁻⁸ The catalytic mechanism on Au is believed to involve a surface-bound COOH (*COOH) intermediate, which is subsequently further reduced by 1e⁻ / 1H⁺ transfer to yield CO (*CO) that is finally liberated from the surface. Theoretical predictions indicate that stronger binding of the *COOH intermediate relative to *CO may be needed for enhanced CO evolution activity.^{9,10} However, the binding energies of *COOH and *CO on electrocatalysts generally correlate,¹¹ therefore stabilization of *COOH would simultaneously stabilize *CO and thus disfavor its required desorption. This scaling relationship impedes a straightforward approach to independently fine-tune surface properties for higher activities; limiting the development of low overpotential single-site metal catalysts.¹²

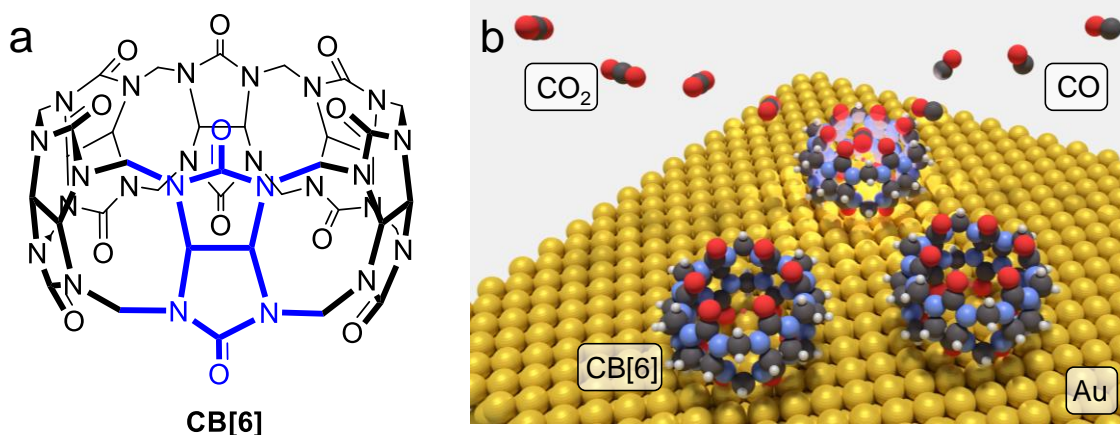


Fig. 1. (a) CB[6] structure with monomeric building block highlighted in blue. (b) Schematic illustration of CO₂ conversion to CO within the cavity of CB[6] adsorbed on Au surface.

To this end, different approaches such as alloying,^{13,14} nano-structuring¹⁵ and molecular surface modifications^{16–20} have recently gained attention. Nevertheless, molecular engineering of an electrocatalytic surface site remains challenging. Nature, on the other hand, has developed very effective catalytic systems that surpass the limits of scaling relationships. Enzymes such as carbon monoxide dehydrogenase and formate dehydrogenase are able to reversibly interconvert CO₂ at the thermodynamic potential with quantitative product selectivity at their precious-metal free active sites.^{21–23} While details about their reaction mechanisms are still under debate, a hydrophobic active site cavity as well as stabilization of intermediates by a highly specific second coordination sphere are believed to be crucial for their high activity as well as selectivity.^{9,24,25}

In our efforts to create analogous synthetic reaction environments, we envision supramolecular host-guest chemistry as a powerful tool to modulate electrocatalytic reactions by selectively favoring certain species due to highly specific binding affinities. Cucurbit[*n*]urils (CB[*n*], where *n* = 5–8) are a class of promising host molecules for this purpose. These barrel-shaped organic macrocycles are water soluble and have found broad applications in materials chemistry, drug delivery systems, as well as sensing and catalysis (Fig. 1a).^{26,27} CB[*n*]s are able to shift the reduction potential of electrochemical processes by selectively stabilizing certain species,^{28,29} *e.g.* positively shifted half-wave potentials of ferrocene and methyl viologen upon complexation with CB[7] due to differential stabilization of the oxidized *vs.* reduced species within the cavity.

The cavities of CB[*n*] are highly hydrophobic³⁰ and bind a plethora of small organic guests (for *n* ≥ 6) as well as gas molecules (for *n* ≤ 6).²⁶ In aqueous solution, a large number of gases (*e.g.* CH₄, acetylene, cyclopentane) form inclusion complexes within CB[6].³¹ Their negatively polarized carbonyl-lined portals exhibit high affinity towards metal surfaces allowing for facile supramolecular functionalization of electrodes.³² In contrast, other hosts such as pillararenes, cyclodextrins and calixarenes typically rely on additional steps for electrode immobilization, which often afford increased distances between the host cavity and the surface.^{33–35} Their ability to directly affect surface bound species is thereby diminished.

It has been shown spectroscopically and by gravimetric measurements that CB[6] can be used as a highly porous solid-state adsorbent for gaseous CO₂ with high selectivity

over CO, rendering this molecule attractive for combining host-guest chemistry and electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction studies.^{36,37} However, to the best of our knowledge, neither CO₂ complexation within CB[6] in solution has been demonstrated, nor has CB[6] been used in electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction.

In this work, we study CB[6] as a prototypical synthetic organic cavity system for facile manipulation of the heterogeneous CO₂ reduction on Au, a well-studied model electrocatalyst (Fig. 1b). Firstly, the host-guest interaction of CO₂ with CB[6] is studied in homogeneous aqueous solutions both experimentally as well as computationally. Subsequently, we employ surface-enhanced infrared absorption (SEIRA) spectroscopy combined with electrochemistry to investigate the behavior of CO₂ within CB[6] on the Au surface during electrocatalysis.

Results and Discussion

Interaction of CO₂ with CB[6] in solution

The inclusion of CO₂ in CB[6] was monitored in aqueous KHCO₃ (0.1 M) using Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy in transmission mode (Fig. 2a). The asymmetric stretching mode of ¹²CO₂ was found at 2343 cm⁻¹, in line with previously reported values for ¹²CO₂ in solution.³⁸ In the presence of 8.44 mM CB[6], an additional shoulder was detected at 2333 cm⁻¹. This band was exclusively observed in a ¹²CO₂-purged electrolyte solution (Fig. S1) and was therefore assigned to an interaction between CO₂ and CB[6] ('CB[6]•CO₂'). The corresponding ¹³CO₂ asymmetric stretching vibration³⁸ at 2278 cm⁻¹ displayed an identical shift by 10 cm⁻¹ to 2268 cm⁻¹, confirming this band to originate from CO₂.

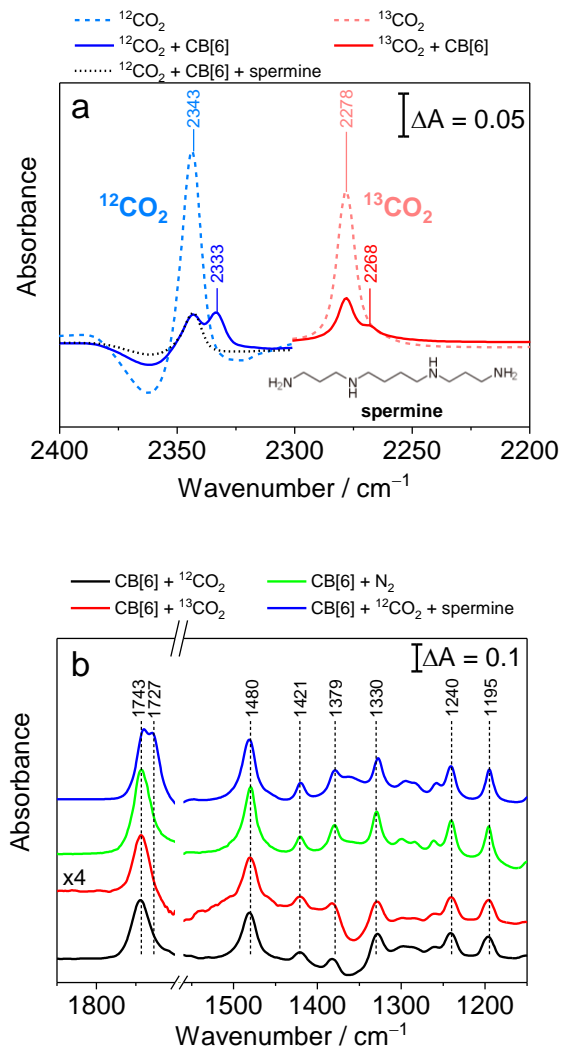


Fig. 2. FTIR spectra of CB[6] solutions recorded in transmission mode. (a) Absorbance spectra of asymmetric stretching modes of $^{12}\text{CO}_2$ in aqueous $\text{KH}^{12}\text{CO}_3$ (0.1M) and $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ in $\text{NaH}^{13}\text{CO}_3$ (0.1 M) solution. The reference spectra for dashed spectra were the N_2 purged electrolytes. Spectra of CB[6] from which the CB-free CO_2 reference spectrum was subtracted, display a shoulder at 2333 cm^{-1} and 2268 cm^{-1} , respectively. The addition of spermine (strong CB[6] cavity binder) leads to disappearance of the 2333 cm^{-1} band. The broad negative band at *ca.* 2360 cm^{-1} results from small atmospheric CO_2 variations between measurements. (b) IR spectra of region below 1800 cm^{-1} representing the vibrational modes for CB[6] in $^{12}\text{CO}_2$ -purged 0.1 M $\text{KH}^{12}\text{CO}_3$, and $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ -purged 0.1 M $\text{NaH}^{13}\text{CO}_3$ which exhibit no band shifts in comparison to the N_2 -purged 0.1 M $\text{KH}^{12}\text{CO}_3$ solution. Addition of spermine leads to an

additional band at 1727 cm^{-1} assigned to carbonyl functional groups of CB[6], presumably occurring due to the interaction of the spermine nitrogen and the CB[6] carbonyl ring. Spectrum of CB[6] $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ -purged sample was multiplied by a factor of 4 for better comparison (see experimental details, SI).

The observed shift matches the previously reported values for the asymmetric stretching mode of CO_2 confined in solid CB[6] at 2336 cm^{-1} .^{36,37} Addition of spermine, a well-known CB[6] guest with a high binding affinity,²⁶ led to disappearance of the band at 2333 cm^{-1} , in line with a competitive displacement of CO_2 from the cavity. Moreover, the IR bands of the CB[6] framework remained unchanged in the presence of N_2 and $^{12}\text{CO}_2/^{13}\text{CO}_2$ indicating that the CB[6] $\cdot\text{CO}_2$ (binding) interaction is weak and non-directional (Fig. 2b). In contrast, spermine addition gave rise to a strong additional band at 1727 cm^{-1} . This band can be rationalized by a shift of the carbonyl stretching mode from 1743 cm^{-1} by 16 cm^{-1} as a result of electrostatic interactions with the positively-charged amine functional group of spermine.³⁹ Analogously, the unaltered CB[6] carbonyl band in the presence of CO_2 , when compared to CB[6] \cdot spermine host-guest complex, suggests that CO_2 is not merely associated with the carbonyl portal region of CB[6]. The IR data strongly suggests that CO_2 is bound inside the CB[6] cavity in solution with an IR marker band located at 2333 cm^{-1} . We note that the binding of CO to CB[6] could not be probed due to its low solubility in the reaction solution.

The assignment of the CO_2 interaction with CB[6] is further corroborated by density functional theory (DFT) and molecular dynamics (MD) simulations (Table S1 and Fig. S2-5). Both methods show a stronger binding of CO_2 over CO in CB[6], in line with previously reported DFT results.⁴⁰ A free energy profile based on umbrella sampling MD simulations of CO_2 and CO is shown in Fig. 3a. The results suggest that CO_2 and CO need to overcome a low energy barrier when entering the cavity and reach an energy minimum at the cavity center. CO_2 was found to bind with two possible conformations in the pocket (second local minima found at $z = \pm 3.1\text{ \AA}$). A snapshot of the final state after 22 ns of a MD simulation in KHCO_3 (0.1 M) is shown in Fig. 3b. The CO molecule was initially placed in the cavity center and was found to be eventually replaced by two CO_2

molecules at the given concentration. The free energy profiles were used to calculate the binding constants $K_{a,CO_2} = 105 \text{ M}^{-1}$ and $K_{a,CO} = 5 \text{ M}^{-1}$ for $CB[6] \cdot CO_2$ and $CB[6] \cdot CO$, respectively (binding free energy of 6.4 and 4.1 kcal mol⁻¹ respectively, see SI for computational details).

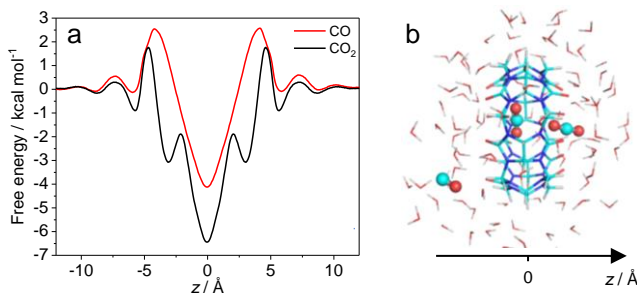


Fig. 3. CO_2 and CO inclusion in $CB[6]$ in 0.1 M $KHCO_3$ studied by MD simulation. (a) Free energy profile of CO_2 and CO passing through the cavity of $CB[6]$ along a central axis (z -axis is illustrated in b) based on umbrella sampling MD simulations. (b) Snapshot of MD simulation with one ‘deep-cavity’ bound CO_2 , one CO_2 loosely associated with carbonyl ring and one unbound CO .

To quantify the binding of CO_2 and $CB[6]$ experimentally, fluorescent dye displacement measurements were performed (Fig. 4a and Fig. S6). This technique utilizes the fluorescence of the host-guest complex of $CB[6]$ with an indicator dye, such as *trans*-4[4-(dimethylamino)styryl]-1-methylpyridinium (DSMI, inset Fig. 4a). DSMI is weakly fluorescent on its own, but strongly fluorescent in its complexed state.⁴¹ The competitive binding of CO_2 and DSMI to the $CB[6]$ cavity (Fig. 4b) was used to determine a binding constant (K_{a,CO_2}) of $250 \pm 100 \text{ M}^{-1}$ in 0.1 M $KHCO_3$ for the $CB[6] \cdot CO_2$ host-guest complex. The experimental finding was qualitatively confirmed with a second indicator dye (Fig. S6). This sizable affinity is in good agreement with the computational data. Unfortunately, CO , the CO_2 reduction product, owing to its low solubility, afforded only a small change in fluorescence (Fig. 4a), which prevented an accurate quantification of its binding constant. However, well-established trends of gas affinities and corresponding volume/packing coefficients³¹ and the performed DFT and MD calculations suggest a much lower binding of CO than that of CO_2 to $CB[6]$. These findings indicate that there

is no product inhibition (*i.e.* CO occupying the CB[6] pocket due to higher binding affinity than CO₂), which is a general concern in (supramolecular) catalysis.⁴²

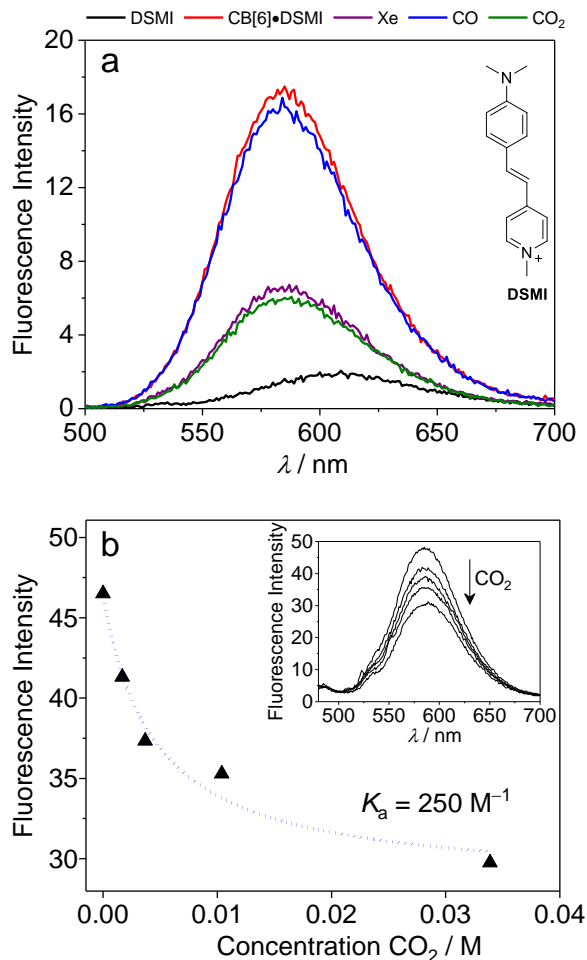


Fig. 4. Fluorescent dye displacement measurements. (a) Fluorescence intensity of CB-free DSMI, and the CB[6]•DSMI complex with and without competitive guests. The solution was saturated with the respective gas. Xe was used as a control with known binding affinity. The DSMI counterion (iodide) was removed for clarity. (b) Decrease in fluorescence of CB[6]•DSMI complex with increasing CO₂ concentration to calculate the binding affinity of CO₂•CB[6] based on the known binding affinity of DSMI. The concentration of CO₂ was determined via Henry's law (see SI for details). Experimental conditions: 0.1 M KHCO₃, [dye] = 1 μ M, [CB[6]] = 50 μ M, excitation wavelength = 283 nm, $K_{a, \text{DSMI}}$ determined as 2100 M^{-1} in 0.1 M KHCO₃ (Fig. S6).

Au electrode modification with CB[6]

The binding of CB[6] to Au surfaces has previously been reported,^{32,43} but rarely quantitatively. The effect of the solvent as well as the nature and concentration of the electrolyte were suspected to have a large effect on the surface adsorption equilibrium. Solubility of CB[6] in water is typically very low ($<100\ \mu\text{M}$),⁴⁴ but it can be readily increased by more than two orders of magnitude through addition of cationic species to the solution.⁴⁵ Besides the increased solubility, the interaction of cations with CB[6] influences the kinetics of host-guest complex formation.⁴⁶ As an additional complexity, cations themselves have been shown to effect CO_2 reduction on heterogeneous electrocatalysts.⁴⁷⁻⁵⁰ Considering these multiple intricate effects of cations in the system, we employed an aqueous KHCO_3 (0.1 M) electrolyte solution, which is also commonly used in CO_2 reduction catalysis.^{51,52} This concentration fulfils the necessity for supporting electrolytes during electrocatalytic CO_2 reduction and overcomes the limited solubility of CB[6] while minimizing the effects of cations on the host-guest complexation as well as on CO_2 reduction to a minimum. The adsorption of CB[6] on Au was first quantified by quartz-crystal microbalance (QCM) measurements at open circuit potential in N_2 -purged KHCO_3 as shown in Fig. 5a. The coverage was estimated using the Sauerbrey model,⁵³ assuming a flat gold surface and a van-der-Waals radius of ‘rigid’ CB[6] of $14.4\ \text{\AA}$.⁴⁵ A theoretical monolayer coverage of *ca.* $(80 \pm 20)\%$ for 1.69 mM CB[6] was determined with a Langmuir isotherm. Considering the highest density of hexagonally-packed circles within a plane (*ca.* 90 %), the data obtained from QCM is close to an optimally covered surface.

QCM was not only applied to study surface adsorption processes by mass changes, but is also further utilized to obtain insights into the viscoelasticity of the adsorbed layer by studying its dissipation behaviour.⁵⁴ This can be particularly useful to gather information on changes of layer packing or, importantly, multilayer formation.^{55,56} Measurements indicated that for concentrations $> 0.8\ \text{mM}$ the dissipation starts to increase, suggesting the formation of multilayers of CB[6] (Fig. S7). Multilayer build-up of CB[6] on surfaces has been observed previously for CB[6] in solutions containing Na^+ .⁵⁷ Furthermore, formation of chain-like coordination polymers between CB[6] and K^+ has been reported in the solid state.^{58,59}

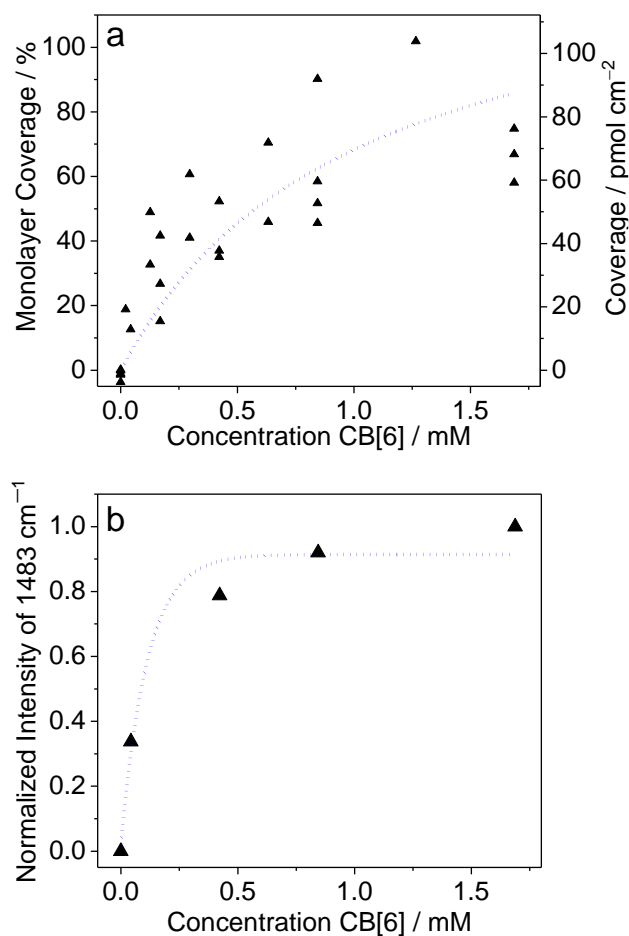


Fig. 5. Surface adsorption of CB[6] on Au. (a) Monolayer coverage of CB[6] on Au based on quartz-crystal microbalance measurements at open circuit potential. The data was modelled with the Sauerbrey equation and fitted with a Langmuir isotherm (blue dashed line). (b) Increase in relative intensity of CB[6] band at 1480 cm⁻¹ band in SEIRA measurements and exponential fit to guide the eye (blue dashed line).

The interaction of CB[6] with the Au surface was further probed by SEIRA spectroscopy, which selectively monitors the Au-electrolyte interface (see below).^{60,61} The vibrational band pattern of CB[6] revealed significantly different relative intensities between SEIRA and transmission measurements due to surface selection rules, indicating a preferential binding geometry of CB[6] on the surface compared to the isotropic case in solution (Fig. S8). A notable shift of the carbonyl stretching mode from 1743 cm⁻¹ in

solution to 1737 cm^{-1} on the Au surface further suggests an interaction between (one of) the carbonyl-lined portals of CB[6] with the gold surface; in line with previous reports.^{32,43,62} Fig. 5b shows the normalized intensity of the intense 1483 cm^{-1} marker band of CB[6] as a function of the CB[6] concentration in solution. No notable increase was observed for concentrations higher than *ca.* 1.3 mM (Fig. S9), matching the concentration at which multilayer formation was observed in QCM measurements (Fig. S7). As the SEIRA intensity I decreases significantly with distance d from the electrode surface ($I \sim d^{-6}$), potential multilayers of CB[6] cannot be monitored.⁶³ SEIRA as well as X-Ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) indicated a stable surface-bound CB[6] layer after overnight soaking in CB[6]-free 0.1 M KHCO_3 aqueous electrolyte solution (Fig. S10-11).

SEIRA measurements of CB[6]•CO₂ under polarization

SEIRA spectroscopy has recently gained increased attention in the field of CO₂ reduction catalysis due to its high sensitivity for surface processes.⁶⁴⁻⁶⁷ Typically, reported studies exploit the strong IR activity of CO and $\text{HCO}_3^-/\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ and track specific bands to monitor product stability and binding, bicarbonate/CO₂ equilibrium, and the role of cations. In this study, we specifically focus on the role of CO₂ and its fate upon inclusion into CB[6] during electrocatalytic turnover (see Fig. 6).

Upon purging the electrolyte solution containing 1.69 mM CB[6] with CO₂, the band at 2333 cm^{-1} assigned to CB[6]•CO₂ appeared, indicating that CO₂ can efficiently penetrate the CB[6] cavity when the host molecule is bound to the Au surface. Compared to the isotropic case in solution, the CB[6]•CO₂ band showed an increased intensity in the SEIRA spectra (Fig. 6a) relative to the unaltered CO_{2(aq)} band at 2343 cm^{-1} , suggesting an increase in the total CO₂ concentration (*i.e.* free CO_{2(aq)} and CB[6]•CO₂) at the Au-electrolyte interface. We speculate that the binding of CB[6] to the Au surface together with its ability to host CO₂ acts as a driving force for CO₂ accumulation at the electrode surface.

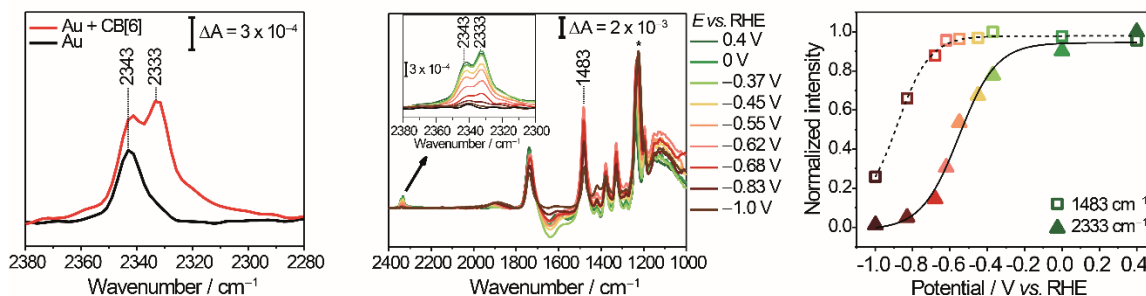


Fig. 6. SEIRA measurements of CB[6]•CO₂ on Au. (a) SEIRA spectra of CO₂ purged 0.1 M KHCO₃ (black) and 1.69 mM CB[6] in 0.1 M KHCO₃ (red). Reference spectra: Unmodified Au in Argon purged 0.1 M KHCO₃. (b) Potential dependent SEIRA spectra showing slow desorption of CB[6] from the surface at potentials more negative than -0.7 V vs. RHE, Inset: CB•CO₂ band at 2333 cm^{-1} decreases rapidly at CO₂ reduction turnover potentials. Reference spectra: Unmodified Au in Argon purged 0.1 M KHCO₃ at respective potentials. A spectral artefact (due to SiO₂ from the prism) at 1239 cm^{-1} marked with a star* was found to increase. (c) Normalized (between maxima and 0) intensity decline of band at 2333 cm^{-1} and 1483 cm^{-1} with sigmoidal fits. Conditions: 1.69 mM CB[6] in 0.1 M KHCO₃. All potentials were *iR* corrected (see SI for details).

SEIRA spectroscopic experiments in a three-electrode configuration were performed to investigate the behavior of the supramolecular complex on the surface at reductive potentials. To the best of our knowledge, the nature of the interaction, as well as the stability of CB[6] on Au under electrochemical polarization has not yet been assessed in the literature. SEIRA spectra recorded at various potentials revealed that CB[6] starts to reversibly desorb from the electrode at -0.7 V vs. reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE; Fig. 6). This is further confirmed by *ex situ* XPS measurements (Fig. S12). Note that the anchoring of the carbonyl-lined portal of CB[6] is significantly different to chemisorption through commonly employed thiol groups on Au that suffers from low electrochemical stability under reductive conditions.⁶⁸ Though several groups have recently reported that multi-dentate thiol-anchoring provides improved stability of co-catalysts for CO₂ reduction, reductive desorption effects were not discussed in detail.^{18,19}

As shown in the inset in Fig. 6b-c, the intensity of the CB[6]•CO₂ band started to decline at potentials below *ca.* -0.4 V vs. RHE, matching the catalytic onset for CO₂

reduction (see below). This observation indicates the reduction of CO₂ inside the Au-immobilized CB[6] cavity. A mere desorption of CB[6] hosting CO₂ at very reducing conditions, which would also cause a decay of the 2333 cm⁻¹ band can be excluded because the observed SEIRA signals of CB[6] remain constant at potentials that already afford a significant decrease of the CB[6]•CO₂ band (Fig. 6c). This observation suggests that the effects of CB[6] host-guest chemistry can be exploited for CO₂ reduction at least at the desirable low overpotential region between -0.4 V and -0.7 V vs. RHE. Furthermore, it implies that part of the remaining surface-bound CB[6] has an empty cavity at potentials more negative than -0.8 V vs. RHE.

Plotting the 2343 cm⁻¹ band observed on unmodified Au surfaces and in the presence of CB[6] yielded matching trends suggesting that CO₂ reduction of 'free' CO₂ proceeds in both cases in a similar environment (Fig. S13). A potential shift of the 2333 cm⁻¹ absorption by around 40 mV at potential values affording turnover was noted, which may be related to an altered CO₂ reduction reaction within the cavity. CB[6]-bound CO was not detected as expected from the low binding affinity and solubility of CO. Moreover, CB[6] marker bands in CO₂-purged electrolyte were found to match those in Ar-purged solutions (Fig. S14) also at very negative potentials. This indicates that the structure and conformation of CB[6] is maintained throughout the large potential window and under CO₂ binding, suggesting that there is no change in CO₂ binding affinity particularly at negative potentials.

Electrocatalysis

Stepped constant potential electrolysis experiments were performed to monitor the influence of CB[6]•CO₂ on the activity and selectivity of CO₂ reduction on Au. The cell design with online gas sampling was based on recent reports,^{69,70} and is described in detail in the Supporting Information (Fig. S15-17). Additional characterization including diffusion layer thickness and electrochemical surface area determination following a recent report for more standardized data acquisition⁷¹ is also reported in the Supporting Information (Fig. S18-20). The system showed good stability for 12 h (Fig. S21). Fig. 7 compares partial current densities at various potentials of Au electrodes in solutions of CB[6] of varying concentrations to cover the CB[6] monolayer and multilayer regimes.

The results of unmodified (blank) Au agree with recently published results.⁷ Self-assembly of CB[6] prior to catalysis without CB[6] in the electrolyte solution during electrocatalysis showed marginal differences compared to unfunctionalized Au electrodes (Fig. S22), which is presumably due to a less favorable adsorption equilibrium of CB[6] at negative applied potentials over the timespan of the electrocatalysis experiments.

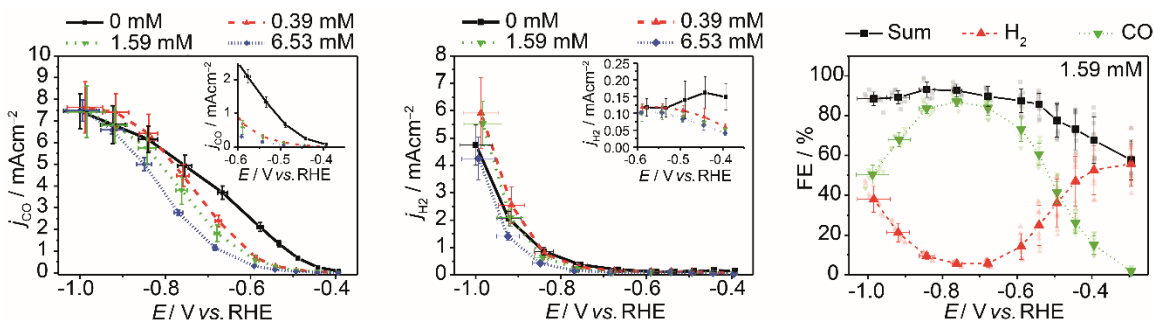


Fig. 7. Constant-potential electrolysis at seven potentials with online gas quantification. Data represents averages and standard deviations of at least three independent stepped-chronoamperometry experiments. X-axis error is calculated based on $\pm 3 \Omega$ change in uncompensated resistance. (a) partial CO current density (j_{CO}), (b) partial H₂ current density (j_{H_2}), (c) Faradaic efficiency of 1.59 mM CB[6] measurements.

In contrast, the presence of CB[6] in solution was found to selectively alter the CO partial current density (j_{CO}), while the hydrogen evolution current (j_{H_2}) remained almost unchanged (Fig. 7). In the potential window from -0.4 V to -0.8 V vs. RHE, j_{CO} curves were observed to shift to more negative potentials with increasing CB[6] concentrations, corresponding to a suppression of j_{CO} with CB[6] in solution (Fig. 7a, further details of electrocatalysis data in Fig. S23-27). At 0.39 mM CB[6], an approximately 100 mV more negative potential was required to achieve a comparable j_{CO} than in the absence of CB[6]. No signals of CB[6] degradation were observed by nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy (Fig. S28), and ¹³CO₂ electrocatalysis experiments yielded exclusively ¹³CO (Fig. S29). Upon decreasing the potential more negative than -0.8 V vs. RHE, a convergence of the CO partial current densities in the absence and presence of CB[6] with different concentrations was observed (Fig. 7a). This observation can be rationalized by the potential-induced desorption of CB[6] from the surface starting to occur at potentials more negative than -0.7 V vs. RHE (Fig. 6c).

Mechanistic Interpretation

The experimental data demonstrate that the electrocatalytic reduction of CO₂ on Au has been effectively altered by CB[6] encapsulation. This effect can be explained on a molecular basis through the macrocycle's impact, particularly, on the rate determining step (RDS) of the catalytic process. In this respect, an initial electron transfer to CO₂ to form a Au-COO⁻ species or a proton coupled electron transfer to form directly a Au-COOH species are often discussed as possible candidates.^{4,64,72-74} Both cases would yield a Tafel slope of 118 mV dec⁻¹ based on the initial electron transfer as rate limiting step, which matches our Tafel slopes of approximately 120 mV dec⁻¹ for unmodified and CB[6]-coated Au surfaces (Fig. S30). Thus, the unaffected Tafel slopes by the presence of CB[6] as well as the fact that only CO is generated allows to draw the conclusion that the macrocycle-mediated catalytic CO₂ reduction likely proceeds *via* the same elementary steps as on bare Au. The altered catalytic performance however suggests that the new reaction environment induced by CB[6] has significantly altered the kinetics of relevant reaction steps. This can be rationalized by an altered energy landscape for the reaction through specific interactions on CO₂ and COO⁻ within CB[6] compared to blank Au interface. This is provided by the following qualitative arguments:

(1) The hydrophobic nature of the cavity lowers the availability of water molecules to stabilize surface-bound intermediates through hydrogen bond formation. Previous molecular dynamics simulations suggest about 3-4 water molecules in the cavity of solubilized CB[6] without a guest in aqueous environment.⁷⁵ In line with this report, our MD simulations show that an average of less than one (0.62) water molecule is present within the space defined by the CB[6] carbonyl oxygen rims when CO₂ or CO are adsorbed in the CB[6] cavity.

(2) Cations such as K⁺ have previously been shown to have a large effect on the CO₂ reduction reaction by stabilizing intermediates exhibiting a permanent dipole moment.⁵⁰ However, MD simulations show that the inclusion of K⁺ into CB[6] is energetically unfavorable (Fig. S3), and DFT optimized structures of CB[6] with K⁺ on a Au surface

suggest that the distance between K^+ and the surface bound intermediate COOH is too large for a stabilizing interaction (Fig. 8).

(3) Without further modifications, CB is known to stabilize electron deficient guests *via* hydrophobic interactions in the cavity and electrostatic interactions at the carbonyl rim. Hence, direct stabilization of a charged intermediate by the CB[6] cavity is likely not being provided.²⁶

(4) DFT and MD calculations presented above revealed an approximately 7 kcal mol⁻¹ free energy difference of CO₂ in CB[6] compared to being freely diffusing in solution (Fig. 3 and Table S1). This indicates that CO₂ is stabilized within CB[6] and thus exhibits a reduced capability for subsequent reactions without additional stabilization of the reaction intermediate.

The altered environment within CB[6] will eventually affect the thermodynamics and kinetics of formation of encapsulated surface-bound species. To gauge such effects, DFT calculations were performed particularly for the Au-COOH species formation (details in the SI, Fig. S31-32). Calculations for Au-COO⁻ were not possible due the high level of complexity regarding the uncompensated charge. For CO₂, the results show a horizontally aligned molecule in the vicinity of the bare Au surface (Fig. S32), whereas a more perpendicular orientation was found within CB[6], suggesting that inclusion affords a different stabilization of the substrate near the electrode surface (Fig. 8).

Next, the reaction free energy difference ($\Delta\Delta_{RG}$) of the reaction from Au-CO₂ to Au-COOH within CB[6] and at the blank Au surface was calculated. An increase of ~8 kcal mol⁻¹ (0.36 eV) was determined for the reaction proceeding in CB[6] compared to blank Au (Table S2). Thus, the calculation provides evidence for a notably increased energy required for the reaction upon encapsulation, which is proposed to result from the absence of solvent/cation-mediated stabilization of the product, *i.e.* Au-COOH as discussed qualitatively above, as well as from an additional stabilization of the substrate CO₂ within CB[6]. This effect is expected to be even more pronounced when considering Au-COO⁻ which should be energetically higher due to the absent charge compensation by the proton as well as the lack of other electrostatic interactions in the cavity as discussed above.

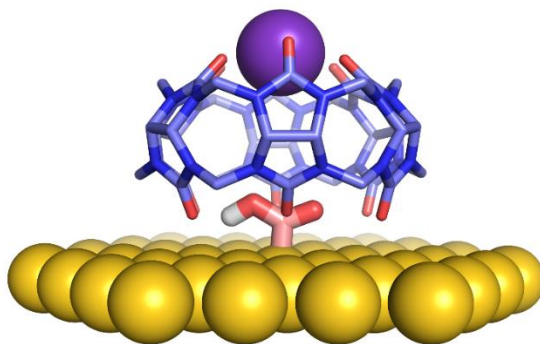


Fig. 8. DFT calculation-derived model of the Au-COOH intermediate in the CB[6] cavity on the Au surface. K^+ is coordinated to the carbonyl lined rim of CB[6]. Color coding: purple: K^+ , red: O, yellow: Au, light blue: C (CB[6]), dark blue: N, white: H (not shown for CB[6] for increased clarity), light red: surface-bound C.

As a result, a higher-energy RDS is expected, leading to an overall decrease in j_{CO} (at the same applied potential) and therefore provides a molecular basis for explaining the increased overpotential required to reduce CO_2 inside the CB[6] cavity. In agreement, at 0.39 mM CB[6] concentration corresponding to a quasi-monolayer of CB[6] on Au, an indicative shift in j_{CO} of the CB[6]-modified electrode by aforementioned ~ 100 mV was observed. In this context, increasing the CB[6] concentration to 1.59 mM CB[6] has little effect as the surface coverage is not significantly increased as demonstrated by QCM and SEIRA measurements (Fig. 5). However, at 6.53 mM CB[6], where multilayer formation occurs, a further, stronger suppression of the CO current density is apparent. Thus, for high CB[6] concentrations j_{CO} is likely governed by additional factors, such as hindered CO_2 uptake into CB[6] and CO release due to the adsorbed multilayers corresponding to an effective blocking of the electrode surface.

Host-guest design criteria for electrocatalysis

The rational manipulation of the heterogeneous interfacial catalytic process by creating well-defined reaction environments opens up promising avenues to selectively alter the catalytic transformation to desired outcomes in the future. Based on our findings, we

propose three design criteria to rationally achieve an improved molecular co-catalyst system for CO₂ reduction to CO:

(1) The induced reaction environment should be modulated to selectively stabilize the surface-bound intermediate COO⁻/COOH to help break scaling relationships.⁹ Recent publications discuss the ability of amines⁷⁶ and amides^{18,19,77} in a ligand construct as well as imidazolium based ionic liquids^{78,79} to stabilize CO₂ reduction intermediates *via* hydrogen bonding and/or electrostatic interactions on bare electrodes. In this respect, we envision that secondary guests within the CB cavity might be used to accommodate specific functional groups to selectively tune the active site environment. The larger CB[8] is able to incorporate two molecules within its cavity which offers a large degree of tunability of the electrostatic and chemical environment within the cavity.²⁶

(2) The inclusion of the substrate CO₂ should facilitate consecutive reactions, for example, by enabling specific interactions of CO₂ with the cavity analogous to enzyme active sites. We observed a 10 cm⁻¹ shift towards lower wavenumbers for CO₂ inside the CB[6] cavity. This may suggest a decreased bond order of CO₂. Nevertheless, this effect might not be dominant in the presented system due to the lack of stabilization of a key intermediate (COOH/COO⁻). The probing of interactions of CO₂ with a secondary guest in the CB cavity *via* vibrational spectroscopy might enable systematic studies of host•substrate binding prior to catalytic turnover.

(3) The kinetics of CO₂ uptake and CO release need to be sufficiently fast to accomplish high catalytic activities. A simple model calculation (see SI) suggests that ingress and egress kinetics of CO₂ and CO, respectively, should be higher than 20 s⁻¹ to obtain > 5 mAcm⁻² for j_{CO} . A high binding constant for CO₂ and low binding constant for CO should be maintained. The binding constant is defined as the ratio of ingress and egress kinetics,⁴⁶ and the egress kinetics for CO₂ and the ingress kinetics for CO should therefore be slow. While enzymes have perfected this independent tuning of complexation kinetics and thermodynamics, it remains difficult to realize this in synthetic systems. The use of cations as ‘lids’ for the CB-portals has been suggested to influence host-guest complex formation kinetics.⁴⁵ This might enable a pathway through variation of cations in the electrolyte solution to specifically alter the kinetics of substrate inclusion

or product release. Moreover, addition of competitively binding non-redox active guests could allow for further rationally tuning of CO₂ ingress/egress kinetics by subtly changing the host-guest-equilibria as well as electronics and sterics.

The manifold of new pathways to pursue shows that the CB[*n*]-Au hybrid system provides us with proposed measures and a modular platform to selectively tune different reaction steps of the heterogeneous CO₂ reduction at Au surfaces and to mechanistically explore electrocatalysis at the inorganic-organic interfaces. This allows for detailed investigations of the reaction mechanism by rational experimental design towards a complete understanding of the process. Such knowledge is a major prerequisite for the development of the next class of electrocatalysts with potential for real-world applications.

Conclusions

We present the concept of surface-adsorbed supramolecular host-guest chemistry in heterogeneous electrocatalysis. The combined spectroscopic, analytical and electrocatalytic results suggest that CO₂ is captured within the cavity of the supramolecular host-molecule CB[6] and is electrocatalytically reduced inside the cavity when adsorbed on the gold surface. An increased concentration of CO₂ is observed at the electrode-electrolyte interface due to the binding of CB[6]•CO₂.

The confinement of CO₂ reduction into CB[6] nanocavities enables molecular tunability of the local chemical environment on the electrocatalyst surface. The presented data indicates that the CB[6]-complexation strongly and selectively affects the electrocatalytic reduction of CO₂ to CO, while the hydrogen evolution activity remains essentially unchanged. The resultant hybrid organic-inorganic composite can thus be regarded as a model system for synthetic cavity-based heterogeneous electrocatalysts. Notably, a plethora of different research fields spanning from metal-organic-frameworks^{80,81} and covalent-organic-frameworks⁸² to molecular catalysis⁸³⁻⁸⁶ and synthetic biology⁸⁷ are also heavily focused on tuning the local environment and coordination spheres around a catalytic active site. The development of such model systems and analytical methodology as presented here may help to gain insight in this complex and important field of research. In the context of CO₂ reduction electrocatalysis,

this may offer new routes to overcome scaling relationships and rationally tune the selectivity and activity heterogeneous electrodes also beyond Au. Thus, this concept bridges the gap between enzymatic, molecular and heterogeneous catalysis and may open up new avenues for utilizing fine-tuned supramolecular units as synthetic catalytic pockets.

Supporting Information Detailed experimental procedures, additional transmission FTIR, SEIRA, QCM, XPS, MD, DFT, fluorescence, electrochemical characterization and electrocatalysis results.

Acknowledgement

We gratefully acknowledge financial support by the Christian Doppler Research Association, the Austrian Federal Ministry for Digital and Economic Affairs, the National Foundation for Research, Technology and Development, the OMV Group (to A.W., M.F.K., Er.R.), an EU ERC Consolidator grant ‘MatEnSAP’ (68283 to N.H., Er.R.) and Starting Grant ‘BioNet’ (757850 to Ed.R.), a Royal Society Newton International Fellowship (NF160054 to N.K.), European Commission for Marie Curie Fellowships (NANOSPHERE, 658360 to S.J.B.; VSHER, 701192 to K.H.L.; ESTIMABLENANO, 706425 to K.S.), the EPSRC (EP/R013012/1 and EP/N020669/1 to Ed.R. and EP/L027151/1 for O.A.S.) and the DFG, Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft/German Research Foundation, (to K.I.A. and W.M.N.) as well as for funding under Germany’s Excellence Strategy – EXC 2008/1 (UniSysCat) – 390540038, (i.a. to I.Z.). We are also grateful to the UK Materials and Molecular Modelling Hub for computational resources, which is partially funded by EPSRC (EP/P020194/1). We would like to thank Mr. Simon Dowe for the help in the design and manufacturing of the electrochemical cell, Dr Guanglu Wu and Dr Annika Eisenschmidt for their help with NMR spectroscopy, Dr Jade Alexis McCune for a CB[6] sample and Mr. Dénes Berta for discussions regarding DFT computations.

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