Synthesis, Characterization, and Reactivity of a Synthetic End-on Cobalt (II) Alkyl Persulfide Complex as a Model Platform for Thiolate Persulfidation

Keyan Li, Lev N. Zakharov, and Michael D. Pluth*

Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, Materials Science Institute, Knight Campus for Accelerating Scientific Impact, and Institute of Molecular Biology, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon, 97403-1253, United States.

ABSTRACT: Persulfides (RSS⁻) are ubiquitous source of sulfides ($S²$) in biology, and interactions between RSS⁻ and bioinorganic metal centers play critical roles in biological hydrogen sulfide (H2S) biogenesis, signaling, and catabolism. Here we report the use of contact-ion stabilized [Na(15-crown-5)][*^t* BuSS] (**1**) as a simple synthon to access rare metal alkyl persulfide complexes and to investigate the reactivity of RSS– with transition metal centers to provide insights into metal thiolate persulfidation including the fundamental difference between alkyl persulfides and alkyl thiolates. Reaction of **1** with [Co^{II}(TPA)(OTf)]⁺ afforded the *η*¹-alkyl persulfide complex [Co^{II}(TPA)(SS^{*r*Bu)]⁺ (2), which was characterized by X-ray crystal-} lography, UV-vis spectroscopy, and Raman spectroscopy. RSS- coordination to the Lewis acidic $Co²⁺$ center provided additional stability to the S–S bond as evidenced by a significant increase in the Raman stretching frequency for $2 \left(v_{S- S} = 522 \text{ cm} \right)$ $1, \Delta v$ _{S-S} = 66 cm⁻¹). The effect of persulfidation on metal center redox potentials was further elucidated using cyclic voltammetry, in which the $Co^{2+} \to Co^{3+}$ oxidation potential of 2 (E^{p,a} = +89 mV vs SCE) is lowered by nearly 700 mV when compared to the corresponding thiolate complex $\text{[Co}^{\text{II}}(\text{TPA})(S^{t}Bu)]^{*}$ (3) (E^{p,a} = +818 mV vs SCE), despite persulfidation being an oxidative post-translational modification. Reactivity of 2 toward reducing agents including PPh3, BH4–, and biologically relevant thiol reductant DTT led to different S²- output pathways including formation of a dinuclear 2Co-2SH complex $[Co^T2(TPA)₂(μ ² SH$)₂]²⁺(4).

Introduction

Hydrogen sulfide (H2S) plays vital roles in biology and is metabolized by most organisms ranging from bacteria and archaea to plants and mammals.1 Despite its known toxicity, endogenous H2S plays essential regulatory roles in complex physiological processes including vasodilation, neural transduction, and inflammation, joining nitric oxide (NO) and carbon monoxide (CO) as the third established gasotransmitter.2 Recognition of the broad biological significance of H2S has led to the rapid development of chemical tools for delivery and detection of H_2S and its related reactive sulfur species (RSS).³ In addition to the biological roles of H2S in eukaryotic organisms, specialized prokaryotes living in sulfur-rich environments have long used sulfides (S²⁻) as their main energy sources, and multi-electron oxidation of S^2 - to sulfate (SO₄²-) remains one of the major reactions in the global sulfur cycle.4

Regulation of biological H2S levels in most organisms involves the intermediacy of persulfides (RSS–), which are typically in the form of post-translationally modified cysteine/glutathione residues bearing an additional sulfur atom in the -1 oxidation state.⁵⁻⁷ RSS⁻ are often reductant-labile sources of biological $S²$ and have been widely implicated in mammalian H2S biogenesis by 3-mercaptopyruvatesulfurtransferase (3-MST) and also in the biosynthesis of essential S-containing cofactors including thiamin and molybdopterin.8-11 Moreover, RSS– production, utilization, and regulation are often intertwined with bioinorganic metal centers (Figure 1).12 Most notably, iron-sulfur (Fe–S) cluster construction by the scaffold protein ISCU involves transfer of cysteine persulfides (CysSS-) from cysteine desulfurase (IscS), and the exact mechanism of RSS- reduction to $S²$ and eventual [2Fe-2S] cluster formation remains an active area of study.13-15 Furthermore, persulfidation from cysteine thiolates mediated by both redox-active and redox-inactive metal centers has been observed in tetraprolin (TPP),¹⁶ ZnCu superoxide dismutase (SOD),¹⁷⁻¹⁸ cysteine dioxygenase (CDO) ,¹⁹ NiFe hydrogenases,²⁰⁻²¹ and other iron-sulfur (Fe–S) cofactors during assembly/disassembly.22-24 Sulfide detoxification is of paramount importance in mammals and is mainly achieved by persulfide dioxygenase (ETHE1), which is a non-heme iron-dependent oxygenase that catalyzes oxygenation of glutathione persulfide (GSS–) to sulfite $(SO₃²$ -).²⁵⁻²⁷ The proposed mechanism involves initial endon binding of GSS- to the mononuclear Fe^{II} site, although the crystal structure of substrate-bound ETHE1 remains elusive due to the poor stability of persulfide-bound species.²⁸ Furthermore, interactions of RSS– with metalloenzymes have also been observed in numerous sulfur-oxidizing bacteria and archaea that utilize Mo,²⁹ heme,³⁰⁻³¹ and non-heme

Fe32-33 containing enzymes to catalyze the oxygenation of RSS⁻ to SO₃²⁻ to provide additional electrons for carbon fixation and respiration. Despite the biochemical significance of RSS–, close examination of RSS– and bioinorganic metal centers have often been hampered by the poor stability of RSS–. The vital biological roles of RSS– and the associated complex reaction pathways with biological metal ions highlight both the need and opportunity for rational synthetic strategies to access RSS– containing model complexes to elucidate the spectroscopy, electronic structures, and biologically relevant reactivity of RSS– containing metalloenzymes.

Figure 1. Selected examples of persulfide interaction with bioinorganic metal centers. (a) Fe-S cluster biogenesis from persulfides, (b) Oxygenation of persulfides by ETHE1 and SoxCD, (c) O2 assisted persulfidation at TPP.

The wide redox availability of sulfur and highly complex interconversions between different reactive sulfur species through both one and two-electron mechanisms pose both opportunities and challenges for understanding the reactivity of RSS–. Despite the prevalence of RSS– in biology, synthetic systems of free RSS– anions or those ligated to metal centers are scarce due to the high lability of RSS–, which equilibrate with longer chain alkyl polysulfides ($RSSS_n$ -), polysulfide radicals (S_3^-) , and disulfides (R_2S_2) in solution, further exacerbating modeling direct interactions between RSS– and transition metal centers.34-37 In addition, direct generation of metal alkyl persulfides complexes from metal thiolates and elemental sulfur (S_8) remains an inaccessible synthetic pathway, often yielding transition metal alkyl polysulfides and one-electron oxidized transition metal polysulfides.38-39 Reported transition metal persulfide complexes have primarily generated as side-products and targeted syntheses are largely reliant on both the identities of metal centers and the associated primary coordination spheres.40-41 To our knowledge, there are only three structurally characterized mononuclear alkyl persulfide

complexes of late first-row transition metals (Figure 2). Kovacs and co-workers reported the first structurally characterized examples of late first-row transition metal *η*2-alkyl persulfide complexes [FeIII(SMe2N3(Et,Pr)(*η*2-S2)][PF6] through outer sphere oxidation of the corresponding thiolate complexes with FcPF₆.⁴² Potenza and co-workers reported the first η ¹-alkyl persulfide ligated Cu^{II} complex $Cu^H(tet-b)SSCH₂CO₂$ in an attempt to prepare the corresponding Cu^H thiolate relevant to the blue copper protein.⁴³ As a final example, Artaud and co-workers have prepared the first examples of RSS- ligated Zn^H complexes using the basic hydroxo moiety of TpZn^{II}OH (Tp: trispyrazolborate) to deprotonate sterically protected Ph3CSSH and *^t* BuSSH.44 The role of basic hydroxo group within the primary coordination sphere proved essential to the successful isolation of RSS– ligated species, although extension of this approach to other scaffolds has not been reported. Herein, we report a rational strategy for the syntheses of traditionally poorly accessible alkyl persulfide complexes using contact-ion stabilized RSS– and describe the implications for thiolate persulfidation.

Figure 2. Selected examples of structurally characterized alkyl persulfide complexes of late first-row transition metals.

Results and Discussion

Syntheses and Characterization of Alkyl Persulfide Complexes.

Prior work in our group demonstrated that reactive alkyl dichalcogenide anions function as discrete, isolable motifs when complexed to $[K(18\text{-}crown-6)]^{+.45}$ Extending on this work, we prepared the more sterically encumbered [*^t* BuSS]– complexed to [Na(15-crown-5)]+ following similar procedures as a synthon for metal alkyl persulfide complexes (Scheme 1). Pre-complexation of NaS*^t* Bu with 15-crown-5 in MeCN followed by the addition of S_8 afforded [Na(15crown-5)][*^t* BuSS] (**1**), which exhibits no observable equilibration with higher-order polysulfides in solution by 1H NMR spectroscopy or UV-vis spectroscopy unlike previously reported [PPh4][*^t* BuSS] (Figures S1, S20). The UV-vis spectrum of **1** reveals a single absorption band at *λ*max = 369 nm corresponding to the nb $\rightarrow \sigma^*$ transition, comparable to previously reported [K(18-crown-6)][BnSS] (*λ*max = 373 nm).

Scheme 1. (a) Synthesis of alkyl persulfide precursor **1**. (b) Preparation of alkyl persulfide complex **2**.

To test our hypothesis that alkali metal complexed RSS– can be used to access M–SSR complexes, we initially monitored the reaction between $[Co^H(TPA)(OTf)][OTf]$ and 1 in MeCN by UV-vis, which generated new distinct absorption bands at λ_{max} = 506 nm and 635 nm corresponding to S \rightarrow Co2+ charge transfer (CT) and spin-allowed *d*-*d* transition, respectively (Figure 3a). Repeating this reaction on a synthetic scale at -35 °C afforded [Co^{II}(TPA)(SS^tBu)][OTf] (**2·**OTf), which was then treated with NaBPh4 to afforded dark purple compound $[Co^H(TPA)(SS^tBu)][BPh₄]$ (2·BPh₄). Alkyl persulfide complex **2** is stable in the solid state under inert conditions for days but gradually decomposes into the corresponding thiolate $[Co^H(TPA)(S^tBu)]$ ⁺ (3) in solution. We used the Evans method to determine solution magnetic susceptibility values of μ _{eff}= 4.02 μ B for 2 and μ _{eff}= 4.10 μ B for **3**, both supportting high spin $S = \frac{3}{2}$ Co^{II} centers in a trigonal bipyramidal coordination environment. The 1H NMR spectrum of 2 in CD₃CN in the paramagnetic region shows drastically shifted pyridyl CH (α_{C-H} : 130.6 ppm, β_{C-H} : 55.0 ppm, 49.4 ppm) and methylene C*H*2 (100.5 ppm) resonances when compared to those of the parent compound $[Co^H(TPA)(OTT)]$ [OTf] (Figures S4-S5). In addition, a new broadened singlet at 8.69 ppm was observed corresponding to the *^t* BuC*H*3 proton resonance of **2**, which is shifted far upfield compared to the *^t* BuC*H*3 proton resonance of **2** (34.95 ppm), indicating that the *^t* BuC*H*3 protons are weakly associated with the paramagnetic center of **2**. The UV-vis spectrum of **2** in CH₂Cl₂ features a *d*-*d* transition at $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 638$ nm, which is slightly blue-shifted from the related feature of **3** at *λ*max = 648 nm (Figures S22, S24).

To further understand the effect of coordination of RSS– to Lewis acidic metal centers, we investigated the electronic environment of S–S bonds in **1** and **2** using confocal Raman spectroscopy and observed sharp Raman peaks in the S–S stretching region at 456 cm–1 and 522 cm–1 for **1** and **2**, respectively (Figure 3b). The observed difference in vibrational frequency between **1** and **2** is consistent with our hypothesis that coordination of RSS- to Lewis-acidic $Co²⁺$ alleviates lone-pair repulsion between the terminal and internal S atoms, which results in strengthening of the S–S bonds in the coordinated RSS–. Surprisingly, Raman spectroscopic features for biological or synthetic RSS– are scarce in present literature, and the sole example of RSS– charactered by Raman spectroscopy to our knowledge is [Fe2S2(CysS)2(CysSS)2]2− found in the O2-sensing fumarate nitrate regulator (FNR) with v_{S-S} = 498 cm^{-1.23}

Figure 3. (a) UV-vis trace of the reaction between $[Co^{II}(TPA)(OTf)]$ [OTf] (red trace) and $0 - 1.6$ equiv. [Na(15crown-5)][SS*t*Bu] in MeCN at room temperature to afford **2·**OTf. (b) Confocal Raman spectra of single crystals of **1** (orange trace) and **2** (red trace).

 We further confirmed the structure of persulfide ligated **2·**BPh4 using X-ray crystallography (Figure 4). Red-purple crystals suitable for X-ray diffraction were obtained from layering a saturated solution of 2·BPh₄ in CH₂Cl₂ with hexanes and storing at -35 °C for 2 weeks. The geometry of **2·**BPh4 is trigonal bipyramidal, similar to the corresponding thiolate complex **3·**BPh4 and other reported five-coordinate Co^{II} TPA complexes. The presence of one anionic ^{*t*}BuSS-ligand and one BPh₄- counterion (per Co) further supports cobalt in the Co(II) oxidation state. The coordination mode of the *^t* BuSS– ligand is best described as a monodentate *η*1-alkyl persulfide with Co–S(1) and Co–S(2) of 2.311(2) Å and 3.312(3) Å, respectively. The $S(1)$ – $S(2)$ bond distance for **2·**BPh4 is 2.087(4), which is similar to other reported *η*1-alkyl persulfide complexes but shorter than the only reported first-row transition metal *η*2-alkyl persulfide complex [FeIII(SMe2N3(Et,Pr)(*η*2-S2)][PF6].42-44 Alkyl persulfide **2·**BPh4 and thiolate **3·**BPh4 share similar structural features as evidenced by minor differences in Co–S(1) distances (2.288(1) Å for **3·**BPh4 vs. 2.311(2) Å for **2·**BPh4) and Co–N(1) distances (2.256(3) Å for **3·**BPh4 vs. 2.224(6) Å for **2·**BPh4). To the best of our knowledge, **2·**BPh4 is the first *η*1-alkyl persulfide complex for Co.

Figure 4. Solid-state structures of **2·**BPh4 and **3·**BPh4. Magenta, blue, yellow, and gray ellipsoids represent Co, N, S, and C atoms, respectively. Ellipsoids are shown at the 50% probability level. Counterions and H atoms are omitted for clarity.

We also investigated the effect of thiolate persulfidation on the redox potential of the metal centers by performing cyclic voltammetry (CV) experiments on both persulfide **2** and thiolate **3** (Figure 5). The CV of thiolate **3** in the –1.0 to

+1.0 V potential range revealed both oxidation of $Co^{2+} \rightarrow$ $Co³⁺$ ($E^{p,a}$ = +818 mV vs SCE) and subsequent reduction of $Co^{3+} \rightarrow Co^{2+}$ ($E^{p,c} = -289$ mV vs SCE). The large peak-to-peak separation is consistent with previously reported five-coordinate Co^{II} thiolate complex $[Co^{II}(S^{Me2}N₄-(tren)]⁺ (E^{p,a} = +270$ mV vs SCE, $E^{p,c}$ = -729 mV vs SCE) by Kovacs and co-workers, in which electrochemical oxidation of $Co^{2+} \rightarrow Co^{3+}$ yields a stable solvent-bound six-coordinate species in solution.46 Similar irreversible redox behaviors were observed in the CV of persulfide-ligated **2**, but we did observe a significant anodic shift for both oxidation event of $Co^{2+} \rightarrow Co^{3+} (E^{p,a} =$ +89 mV vs SCE) and subsequent reduction event of $Co^{3+} \rightarrow$ Co²⁺ (*E*^{p,c} = -896 mV vs SCE). These results suggest that thiolate persulfidation provides additional stability to metal centers in higher oxidation states that may prove significant for sulfide catabolism through S-oxygenation.

Figure 5. Cyclic voltammograms of **2·**BPh4 (purple trace) and **3·**OTf (teal trace) in a solution of 0.3 M [NBu4][PF6] in MeCN with an 100 mV/s scan rate.

Having established the impact of persulfide coordination on the redox potential of the metal, we also investigated the redox behavior of anionic persulfide **1**. Biological RSS– can undergo facile one-electron oxidation to generate resonance-stabilized perthiyl radicals (RSS•) or one-electron reduction to form highly reactive alkyl persulfide radical anions (RSSH•–/RSS•2–).47-49 When analyzing the CV of **1**, we observed an irreversible oxidation event at –214 mV, which we attribute to formation of the unstable perthiyl radical (Figure S34). This peak oxidation potential is more anodic than HS⁻ oxidation ($E^{p,a}$ = +35 mV vs SCE for [NBu₄][SH] in MeCN),⁵⁰ and is consistent with previously reported oxidation potential difference between biological RSS– and HS– $(\Delta E^{ox} = \sim 0.23 \text{ V})$.⁵¹ In addition, coordination of RSS⁻ to Co²⁺ center further shifts RSS–/RSS• oxidation event toward more cathodic direction as anticipated, where the CV of **2** with wider potential range revealed a second irreversible oxidation event at +670 mV (Figure S36). Upon electrochemical reduction, we did not observe any notable reduction features in the CV of **1**, suggesting reduction of free RSS– to S2– and RS– occurs at highly reducing and inaccessible potentials (Figure S35). The RSS– reduction, however, does become accessible once coordinated to Co2+ based on the two irreversible reduction features emerged in the CV for **2** at – 1420 mV and -1630 mV assigned to RSS- and $Co^{2+/1+}$ reduction events, respectively.

Building from the spectroscopic, structural, and redox properties of **2**, we next investigated the fundamental

reactivity of this alkyl persulfide complex with simple chemical reductants. To test whether metal-bound RSS– can produce HS–/S2–, we treated **2** with two-electron reductant PPh3, [NBu4][BH4], and also the common disulfide reducing agent dithiothreitol (DTT) (Figure 6). Treatment of **2** in $CD₃CN$ with PPh₃ resulted in formation of $S²$ in the form of S=PPh₃ (δ ³¹P) = 42 ppm) and the corresponding thiolate complex **3** was observed by 31P and 1H NMR spectroscopy (Figures S12-S13.) Upon treating **2** with [NBu4][BH4] in MeCN, we observed the consumption of BH_{4} -, formation of thiolate **3**, and liberation of HS– (Figure S14). To further verify HS– formation, treatment with BnBr resulted in BnSH and Bn_2S_2 formation (Figure S15), whereas treatment with PPh₃ failed to generate S=PPh₃, which further confirmed complete reduction of RSS– to HS–by [NBu4][BH4] (Figure S16). Treatment of **2** with DTT, however, resulted in different product formation, and we observed disulfide (DTT_{ox}), *t* BuSH, and a new paramagnetic species by 1H NMR spectroscopy and UV-vis spectroscopy with characteristic absorbances at 347 nm, 466 nm, 521 nm, and 633 nm (Figures S17, S18, S28). Because free RSS– can release HS– upon reduction by thiols, we also performed a control experiment between [Co^{II}(TPA)(OTf)][OTf] and [NBu₄][SH] in MeOH, which generated a new green species with identical ¹H NMR and UV-vis spectroscopic features (Figure S9, S27). The identity of this product was further determined by X-ray crystallography to be $\lceil \text{Co}^{II} \rceil_2(\text{TPA})_2(\mu^2\text{-SH})_2 \rceil_2(\text{FTI}_2(\textbf{4}))$ (Figure 6b). Although crystallized as a dimer, hydrosulfide **4** is monomeric $[Co^H(TPA)₂(SH)]⁺$ in solution as evidenced by ¹H NMR spectroscopy and a solution magnetic susceptivity of μ_{eff} = 4.01 μ_{B} (Figure S17). The reductive reactivity is consistent with our prior observations with free RSS– anion and suggests that metal-bound RSS– can also serve as reservoirs of $S²$.

Figure 6.(a) Reductive reactivity of alkyl persulfide complexes toward PPh3, [NBu4][BH4] and dithiothreitol (DTT) (DTT*ox*: *trans*-4,5-Dihydroxy-1,2-dithiane). (b) Solid-state structures of **4**. Magenta, blue, yellow, and gray ellipsoids represent Co, N, S, and C atoms, respectively. Ellipsoids are shown at the 50%

probability level. Counterions and H atoms are omitted for clarity.

Conclusion

We have described a rational strategy to directly probe the reactivity between transition metal centers and RSS– relevant to cysteine posttranslational modification. The reaction between [Na(15-crown-5)]+ stabilized RSS– enabled the synthesis of the first end-on Co^H alkyl persulfide complex, which provided insights into metal thiolate persulfidation including the fundamental differences between alkyl persulfides and alkyl thiolates. Furthermore, we have demonstrated that this simple synthetic strategy can yield new model platforms for future reactivity studies including the reduction chemistry from RSS- to $S²$ -relevant to Fe–S cluster biogenesis, O2 activation chemistry relevant to biological sulfide catabolism by ETHE1, and other metalloenzyme-mediated chemical transformations relevant to the global sulfur cycle. We anticipate that this approach will be a fruitful path from which to investigate other metal alkyl persulfide motifs that have previously been inaccessible.

Experimental Section

Materials and Methods. All manipulations were carried out in an Inert Atmospheres nitrogen-filled glove box unless otherwise noted. Chemicals were purchased from TCI, Sigma Aldrich, VWR International, Acros, Alpha Aesar, or Cambridge Isotopes. Molecular sieves (4 Å) and Celite® were activated by heating to 300 °C under vacuum and were stored under N2. Bulk solvents were deoxygenated and dried by sparging with argon gas followed by passage through an activated alumina column in a Pure Process Technologies solvent system. Solvents are stored over 4 Å sieves under a nitrogen atmosphere. Anhydrous and degassed MeOH was purchased from Thermo Fischer. CD₃CN was distilled over K₂CO₃ under N₂ and stored over activated 4 Å sieves prior to use. CD₂Cl₂ was distilled over CaH₂ and degassed through three freeze-pump-thaw cycles. NaSBn and NaS*^t* Bu were prepared by deprotonation of BnSH and *t* BuSH with NaH in THF, respectively. Previously reported [Co^{II}(TPA)OTf][OTf] was prepared by stirring commercially available CoOTf₂ with TPA ligand in MeCN.⁵² [NBu₄][SH] and [Co^{II}(TPA)Cl][Cl] were prepared following literature procedures,^{50, 53} and salt metathesis reaction between [Co^{II}(TPA)Cl][Cl] and NaBPh₄ in MeCN afforded [Co^{II}(TPA)Cl][BPh₄] bearing identical UV-vis features and diagnostic paramagnetic 1H NMR resonances of [Co^{II}(TPA)Cl][Cl]. UV/vis spectra were acquired on an Agilent Cary 60 UV/vis spectrophotometer equipped with a Quantum Northwest TC-1 temperature controller. NMR spectra were acquired on a Bruker Avance-III-HD 600 spectrometer (1H: 600 MHz, 13C: 151 MHz, 31P: 242 MHz), Chemical shifts are reported in parts per million (δ) and referenced to residual protic solvent resonances. Mass spectrometry was performed by the Microanalytical Facility at University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign. IR spectra were acquired on a Nicolet 6700 IR Spectrometer as KBr pellet samples.

Confocal Raman Microscopy. Confocal Raman spectra were acquired on a Renishaw inVia confocal Raman microscope. Optimal spectra of 1 and 2 were collected using a 50x objective lens with a 2400/mm grating and a 488 nm laser.

The instrument was calibrated using a Si wafer prior to use. Air-sensitive microcrystalline samples 1 and 2 were prepared inside a glovebox, placed on a glass slide, coated with ParatoneN oil, and covered with a glass slide cover slip before removing from an inert atmosphere for further analysis.

Electrochemical Measurements. Cyclic voltammograms (CVs) were recorded in a nitrogen atmosphere using a Biologic SP-50 potentiostat with a glassy carbon working electrode, a platinum wire auxiliary electrode, and an Ag/AgNO3 (0.001M) non-aqueous reference electrode. All potentials are referenced to the SCE couple, and ferrocene was used as an external standard where the *E*½ of ferrocene/ferrocenium is +0.40 V vs. SCE in 0.3 M $[Bu_4N][PF_6]$ MeCN. [Bu₄N][PF₆] was recrystallized from ethanol and placed under vacuum for 72 hours at 85 °C before electrolyte solutions were made from anhydrous and Ar saturated MeCN.

X‐ray Crystallography. Diffraction intensities were collected at 173 K (**3**·BPh4 and **4**·(OTf)2) and 223 K (**2**·BPh4) on Rigaku Synergy-S and Bruker Apex2 single crystal diffractometers using CuK_α (3·BPh₄) and MoK_{α} (2·BPh₄ and **4**·(OTf)2) radiation, 1.54178 Å and 0.71073 Å respectively. Space groups were determined based on systematic absences. Absorption corrections were applied by SADABS.54 Structures were solved by direct methods and Fourier techniques and refined on *F*2 using full matrix least-squares procedures. All non-H atoms were refined with anisotropic thermal parameters. H atoms in 2 ·BPh₄ and 4 ·(OTf)₂ were refined in calculated positions in a rigid group model except the H atom at the S atom in $4 \cdot (0)$ The –SH- bridge in **4**·(OTf)2 is disordered over two positions with opposite orientations. The H atom at the S atom in both disordered positions were found on the residual density map but it was refined with restrictions: the standard S-H distance of 1.34 Å was used as the target for the S-H bonds in both positions. H atoms in **3**·BPh4 were found on the residual density map and refined with isotropic thermal parameters. Solvent molecules (CH2Cl2 in **2**·BPh4 and CH3OH in **4**·(OTf)2) are highly disordered and were treated by SQUEEZE.55 Crystals of **2**·BPh4 are formed as twins consisting of two domains with significant overlapping for X-ray reflections. The structure of **2**·BPh4 was determined and refined based on the HKLF4 set only. However, it provides an appropriate ratio of the number of the measured reflections per the number of the refined parameters 6947/487. The refinement of this structure based on the HKLF5 set did not improve the final results. All calculations were performed by the Bruker SHELXL-2014/7 package.56

Syntheses of Compounds.

[Na(15‐crown‐5][^t BuSS] (**1**). A solution of 15-crown-5 (353 mg, 1.60 mmol) in MeCN (1 mL) was added to a stirring suspension of NaS*^t* Bu (150 mg, 1.33 mmol) in MeCN (1 mL) to yield a clear reaction mixture. Solid S_8 (34.3 mg, 1.07 mmol) was added to the reaction mixture turning the initially clear solution to teal green. The reaction mixture was stirred for 2 h to yield a homogenous yellow solution, which was filtered through a pad of Celite. The resulting pale-yellow filtrate was concentrated under reduced pressure to a quarter of its original volume and was layered with excess Et₂O. Storing this mixture at -35 °C overnight gave an offwhite crystalline solid, which was collected by decanting the supernatant followed by drying under reduced pressure (202 mg, 44 %). 1H NMR (600 MHz, CD3CN): δ 3.64 (s, 20H, 15-crown-5), 1.20 (s, 9H, C(C*H*3)3). 13C{1H} NMR (151 MHz, CD₃CN): 69.6, 41.8, 29.8. UV-vis in CH₃CN λ_{max} (ε_M, M⁻¹cm⁻¹): 345 (1402), 521 (822), 638 (405). UV−vis in CH3CN *λ*max (*ε*M, M−1cm−1): 369 (524).

[CoII(TPA)(SSt Bu)][BPh4](**2**·BPh4). Separate solutions of $[Co^H(TPA)(OTT)][OTT]$ (177 mg, 0.267 mmol) in a MeCN : THF (1:1) solvent mixture (10 mL) and 1 (100 mg, 0.294 mmol) in THF (2 mL) were cooled to –35 °C in the freezer for at least 15 min. Cold solution of 1 was then added dropwise to the stirring solution of $[Co^H(TPA)OTf][OTf]$ during which the initially dark red solution turned maroon purple. The reaction mixture was allowed to stir for 2 h at room temperature before filtration through a pad of Celite. Volatiles from the dark purple filtrate was removed *in vacuo* to give a purple solid, which was washed with excess cold MeOH followed by drying under reduced pressure to give a brownish purple powder containing desired complex 2·BPh4 and minor byproduct 3·BPh4. The crude product was redissolved in minimal cold MeCN, layered with excess Et2O, and held at –35 °C to give microcrystalline dark purple solids, which was collected through filtration. Dark purple crystalline plates suitable for X-ray diffraction were obtained by layering minimal hexanes onto a saturated solution of 2 \cdot BPh₄ in CH₂Cl₂ held at -35 °C for 2 weeks (70 mg, 33 %). 1H NMR (600 MHz, CD3CN): δ 130.55, 100.50, 55.03, 49.41, 8.69, 7.36, 6.96, 6.77. –0.65. UV−vis in CH2Cl2 *λ*max (*ε*M, M−1cm−1): 345 (1402), 521 (822), 638 (405). HRMS (ESI) m/z [M]+ calcd for [C22H27CoN4S2]+ : 470.1009; found: 470.1180. Evan's Method (CH2Cl2): *μ*eff= 4.02 *μ*B at 298K

[CoII(TPA)(SSt Bu)][OTf](**2**·OTf). [CoII(TPA)(OTf)][OTf] (192 mg, 0.290 mmol) was dissolved in MeCN (5 mL) to give a purple solution, and this mixture was cooled to –35 °C in the freezer for 15 min. A separate chilled solution of 1 (109 mg, 0.312 mmol) was added dropwise turning the initially dark red solution to an intense maroon purple solution. The resulting mixture was allowed to stir for 10 min before volatiles were removed *in vacuo* to give a sticky residue. The crude product was extracted into chilled fluorobenzene before filtering through a pad of Celite to remove salt byproducts. Volatiles were removed and the resulting solids were washed with hexanes to removed 15-crown-5. The resulting product was recrystallized from layering Et₂O over a saturated solution of the crude material in MeCN to give purple crystalline solids overnight (78 mg, 43%). Diagnostic UV-vis and 1H NMR spectroscopic features for **2**·OTf are consistent with 2 ·BPh₄.

[CoII(TPA)(St Bu)][BPh4](**3**·BPh4). [CoII(TPA)Cl][BPh4] (59 mg, 0.078 mmol) was dissolved MeCN (3 mL), and solid NaS*^t* Bu (9.2 mg, 0.082 mmol) was added. The reaction mixture was allowed to stir overnight, during which the initially teal green solution turned olive brown. The volatiles were removed *in vacuo*, and the resulting dark brown solids were extracted in minimal CH₂Cl₂. The resulting cloudy olive brown mixture was filtered through a Celite plug to remove salt byproducts and the dark olive-green filtrate was layered with minimal hexanes. Storing this mixture at –35 °C afforded yield crystalline dark olive brown plates suitable for X-ray diffraction (29 mg, 49%). 1H NMR (600 MHz,

CD3CN): δ 117.71, 96.33, 54.33, 50.02, 34.95, 7.43, 6.95, 6.72. UV−vis in CH2Cl2 *λ*max (*ε*M, M−1cm−1): 344 (1331), 408 (1816), 460 (1344), 536 (230), 648 (406). HRMS (ESI) m/z [M]⁺ calcd for $[C_{22}H_{27}CoN_4S]$ ⁺: 438.1288; found: 438.1259. Evan's Method (CH2Cl2): *μ*eff= 4.10 *μ*B at 298K

[CoII(TPA)(St Bu)][OTf](**3**·OTf). [CoII(TPA)(OTf)][OTf] (50 mg, 0.076 mmol) and NaS*^t* Bu (8.5 mg, 0.076 mmol) was stirred in MeCN to give a dark olive green solution overnight. The volatiles were removed *in vacuo* and resulting solids were extracted in fluorobenzene then filtered through Celite to remove salt byproducts. Solvents were removed under reduced pressure, and crude product was extracted into minimal MeCN, layered with $Et₂O$, and stored in the freezer overnight to give dark brown crystals (12 mg, 27 %). Diagnostic UV-vis and 1H NMR spectroscopic features for **3**·OTf are consistent with **3**·BPh4.

 $[Co^{11} \cdot (TPA) \cdot (\mu^2 - SH) \cdot 2][OTf] \cdot 2$ (4·(OTf)₂). $[Co^{II}(TPA)(OTT)]$ [OTf] (63 mg, 0.095 mmol) was dissolved in anhydrous MeOH (2 mL) and [NBu4][SH] (5.6 mg, 0.10 mmol) in MeOH (1 mL) was added dropwise to the stirring solution, turning the initially red-orange solution to forest green. The reaction mixture was stirred for 10 min before filtering through a pipet filter, and the filtrate was concentrated to a third of its original volume. Layering excess Et2O over the concentrated filtrate followed by storing the mixture at –35 °C afforded red block crystals suitable for X-ray diffraction (11 mg, 22 %) ¹H NMR (600 MHz, CD₃CN): δ 116.51, 99.47, 57.28, 48.45, 7.43, 6.95, 6.72, –1.49. UV−vis in MeOH $λ_{max}$ (ε_M, M⁻¹cm⁻¹): 344 (1801), 463 (269), 514 (264), 625 (319). Evan's Method (CH₂CN): μ_{eff} = 4.01 μ_{B} at 298K.

Reduction of **2** *by DTT*. Compound **2**·BPh4 (17 mg, 0.021 mmol) was dissolved in CD₃CN (2 mL) in an NMR tube and DTT (3.3 mg, 0.021 mmol) was added. The reaction mixture was allowed to stand overnight, during which the reaction mixture turned from purple to a blackish color. The crude mixture was then analyzed by 1H NMR spectroscopy to show the formation of DTTox, *^t* BuSH, and **4**. (Figure S17- S18).

Reduction of **2** *by [NBu4][BH4]*. Compound **2**·OTf (10 mg, 0.016 mmol) was dissolved in MeCN (2 mL) and [NBu4][BH4] (5.0 mg, 0.018 mmol) in MeCN was added dropwise. The reaction mixture was allowed to stir overnight before solvents were removed under reduced pressure. The ¹H NMR spectrum of the crude reaction mixture showed full consumption of [NBu4][BH4] and did not reveal formation of **4** but rather of **3**. Treatment of the crude mixture with excess BnBr enabled trapping of HS– as BnSH and Bn₂S, and treatment of the crude mixture with PPh₃ showed no formation of S=PPh₃ indicating full reduction of RSS- to S2–.(Figure S14-S16)

Reduction of **2** *by PPh3*. A sample of **2**·BPh4 (18.9 mg, 0.0237 mmol) in CD₃CN in an NMR tube was treated with $PPh₃$ (6.20 mg, 0.024 mmol) in CD₃CN. The tube was shaken vigorously during which the initially dark purple solution turned olive brown, consistent with the appearance of **3**. Subsequent analysis by 1H and 31P NMR spectroscopy revealed the formation of S=PPh3 and **3**. (Figure S12-S13)

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

Supporting Information. NMR spectra, UV-vis data, Raman spectra, crystallography details. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

* pluth@uoregon.edu

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