

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Inorganic Chemistry Communications



A nickel pyridine-selenolate complex for the photocatalytic evolution of hydrogen from aqueous solutions



An Xie^a, Yun-Wen Tao^{c,*}, Cheng Peng^b, Geng-Geng Luo^{b,*}

^a School of Materials Science and Engineering, Xiamen University of Technology, Xiamen 361021, China

^b College of Materials Science & Engineering, Huaqiao University, Xiamen, Fujian 361021, China

^c Department of Chemistry, Southern Methodist University, 3215 Daniel Avenue, Texas 75275-0314, USA

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

A nickel pyridine-selenolate complex is shown to be an active molecular photocatalyst for water splitting into hydrogen.



Molecular hydrogen (H_2) is an ideal energy carrier for the future and solar water splitting into H_2 in natural photosynthesis represents a promising process to replicate in an artificial manner for clean and renewable fuel production. In this arena, [NiFe]-hydrogenases (H_2 ase), a class of natural enzymes, are promising candidates because these H_2 ases have inexpensive Ni and/or Fe atoms at the active sites, which can catalyze the reversible reduction of H^+ into H_2 with high efficiency comparable to the noble-metal Pt. However, these biological H_2 ases have the large size and relative instability in nonbiological systems, underscoring the need for the design and synthesis of small-molecule

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.inoche.2019.107598

Received 3 September 2019; Received in revised form 26 September 2019; Accepted 27 September 2019 Available online 21 October 2019

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^{*} Corresponding authors. *E-mail addresses:* ywtao.smu@gmail.com (Y.-W. Tao), ggluo@hqu.edu.cn (G.-G. Luo).

catalysts. Thus, in the past decades, intense work and significant effort has been made to develop nickel-based functional complexes ligated by N and/or S donor capable of reducing protons [1-3].

On the other hand, as a subclass of the [NiFe]-H₂ases, [NiFeSe]-H₂ases, structurally contain a terminal selenocysteine residue coordinated to the Ni center instead of a cysteine in the enzyme functional core. It is thought that such simple replacement of S with Se has already made [NiFeSe]-H₂ases have a high H₂ generation rate and tolerance to O₂ compared with other H₂ases [4]. This result has inspired many scientists to design and synthesize new Se-containing Ni complexes as catalysts for H₂ generation [5,6]. However, to date, there were rare examples applying nickel selenolate complexes as molecular photocatalyst for visible-light-driven H₂ generation.

As part of our ongoing research in Ni-based molecular catalysts for H_2 production [6,7], herein we report the synthesis and characterization of a new nickel(II) pyridine-selenolate complex, [Ni(4,4'-dmbpy) (2-pySe)₂] (1, where 4,4'-dmbpy = 4,4'-dimethyl-2,2'-bipyridine and 2-pySe = pyridine-2-selenolate), and investigate its photocatalytic H_2 -evolution performance in aqueous solution.

Complex 1 was conveniently synthesized in two steps. First, 4,4'dmbpy ligand was mixed with a nickel precursor ([Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O]). In a second step, 1,2-di(pyridin-2-yl)diselane was introduced into the precursor complex system in the presence of sodium borohydride. After purification by recrystallization, 1 was isolated as a dark-orange and air stable solid in 79% yield. The molecular structure of 1 is unambiguously established by single-crystal X-ray diffraction. As displayed in Fig. 1, the X-ray structure analysis revealed that the Ni(II) atom is coordinated by three bidentate ligands, i.e., by one N,N'-donor 4,4'-dmbpy ligand, and two N,Se-donor pyridine-2-selenolate (pySe) ligands, thus forming the distorted octahedral arrangement in the vicinity of the nickel center. The bond lengths of Ni-N and Ni-Se are in the range of 2.045(7)-2.076(8) Å and 2.611(2)-2.632(2) Å, respectively. The Ni-N distances are comparable to other octahedral Ni(II) complexes [8], while the average Ni-Se length (2.62 Å) is slightly longer than that in Ni-Se-Cys complex in D. baculatum [NiFeSe]-H2ase (2.44 Å) [4a]. In 1, the four-membered N,Se-chelate rings have a N–Ni–Se bond angle of ~ 69° , while for the five-membered N,N'-chelate ring involving bipyridine ligand the bite angle is about 78°. Thus, the smaller bite-angle of pyridine-selenolate ligand (<N-Ni-Se vs. (N-Ni-N) indicates the existence of larger tension, which will be preferentially dechelated upon protonation during the catalytic process [9]. It is worth mentioning that **1** represents the first crystal structure of Ni^{II} complex ligated by pyridine-selenolate and bipyridine ligand. UV-Vis absorption spectrum of 1 in CH₃CN shows high-energy bands in the UV region with molar extinction coefficients ε on the order of 10⁴



Fig. 1. ORTEP view of the synthesized Ni^{II} complex 1 with thermal ellipsoids drawn at the 50% probability level. All H atoms are omitted for clarity.



Fig. 2. CVs of 0.5 mM of **1** in CH₃CN/H₂O (1:1, v/v) without the presence of CH₃CO₂H (grey) and in the presence of increasing CH₃CO₂H concentrations (other colors) on a glassy carbon electrode. Inset: plot of i_{cat} taken from the peak plateau versus [CH₃CO₂H].

 M^{-1} cm⁻¹ (Fig. S1, in the Supporting Information), ascribed to spinallowed intraligand $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transitions [10].

To examine **1** as potential electrocatalyst for H₂ production from aqueous solution, the weak acetic acid (CH₃CO₂H, pKa^{CH3CN} = 22.3) was added to **1** solution of 1:1 CH₃CN/H₂O and a usual three-electrode set-up using a glassy carbon working electrode is used. As shown in Fig. 2, the cyclic voltammetry (CV) experiments show significant current enhancements with an onset potential at -0.90 V (all potentials are quoted relative to SCE) and a half-wave potential of -1.19 V are afforded with various amounts of CH₃CO₂H, indicative of catalysis. A control experiment without **1** but with the same amount of added CH₃CO₂H in the same solvent mixture shows a negligible current rising. Under non-saturating acid conditions, the linear relationship between catalytic current (i_{cat}) and [CH₃CO₂H] suggests a first-order dependence of the catalytic rate on acid concentration. The H₂-evolving activity of **1** reaches an acid-independent region with more than 120 equiv of CH₃CO₂H, as indicated in the inset of Fig. 2.

Given that complex 1 can efficiently perform electrocatalytic production of H₂ from aqueous solution, we are especially concerned whether the complex is capable of photocatalytic reaction activities for H₂ generation. Photocatalytic experiments for H₂ production were conducted by adopting a classical three-component noble-metal-free system [11] in the presence of a triethamine (TEA) as the sacrificial donor, fluorescein (Fl) as the prototypical photosensitizer, and 1 as the molecular H2-generating catalyst in a media of a CH3CN/H2O mixture (v/v = 1:1). Photolysis of a solution with visible light ($\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$) at 20 °C results in H₂ gas generation. The headspace gas is quantitatively analyzed by GC with a TCD detector. In the light-induced catalytic experiments, the pH value has a strong effect on the H₂-evolving activity [12]. Therefore, a series of 8 h photolysis experiments based on the systems containing 1 by changing the pH of the solution were performed to explore the effect of the pH media while keeping the component concentrations of 2×10^{-3} M Fl chromophore, 4×10^{-6} M catalyst 1, and 0.36 M TEA in 1:1 CH₃CN/H₂O (Fig. 3). The pH value of each run was adjusted to the desired value by the addition of hydrochloric acid prior to addition of the Fl and 1. The reaction has been found to be sensitive to the pH. The great decrease in amounts of H₂ at lower pH of 9.5 can be rationalized by the protonation of TEA to a considerable extent, which resulted in poor electron-donating ability [11]. At a higher pH of 12.3, the decrease concentrations of protons will



Fig. 3. Influence of pH on the photocatalytic of H_2 from a typical three-component system composed of 1 + Fl + TEA in 1:1 CH₃CN/H₂O after 8 h of irradiation using visible light irradiation ($\lambda > 420$ nm).



Fig. 4. H₂ production as a function of time and the regeneration of photocatalytic activity upon addition of catalyst 1. Conditions: 1 (4 × 10⁻⁶ M), Fl (2 × 10⁻³ M) and TEA (0.36 M) in CH₃CN/H₂O (1:1, v/v, pH = 11.07), visible light irradiation (λ > 420 nm).

lead to a deceleration of efficiency of photogenerated H_2 [11,12]. In addition, the formation of the nickel hydride species is not favored at a higher pH.

As shown in Figs. 3 and 4, 1 is most active at pH 11.07 for photocatalytic H_2 production, which released a total amount of 1.2 mL H_2 (TON = 1340 with respect to a catalyst) after 8 h of irradiation. Control

experiments revealed that negligible H₂ generation could be detected by GC outside of experimental error in the absence of any single molecular constituent (1, FL or TEA) in the system (Fig. 4), demonstrating that all the components make an essential contribution in the reaction for the evolution of H₂. Moreover, the reaction did not proceed when the catalytic reaction was performed under the same reaction conditions but in the absence of visible light, suggesting that light irradiation is a necessary component to provide the electrochemical driving force for electron transfer to achieve a fuel-producing catalysis. These experimental results suggest that 1 can promote the photocatalytic H_2 production. After 8 h of irradiation, the rate of H₂ evolution decreased obviously, indicate that at least one of component decompose. The addition of a fresh FL or TEA showed a negligible restoration of activity. However, after the readdition of an extra equiv. of catalyst 1, the initial activity has restored. The results indicate the deactivation of the system is mainly limited by the decomposition of 1 under illumination (Fig. 4). It should be noted that there were rare cases employing nickel complexes ligated by selenolate ligands as molecular photocatalyst for visible-light-driven H₂ generation.

As we know, in three-component photocatalytic systems containing a H₂-evolving catalyst, a photosensitizer and an electron donor, the reduction of the catalyst to evolve hydrogen may occur by two intermolecular photochemically driven electron transfer steps [11-13]. One is that the H2-evolving catalyst oxidatively quenches photoexcited Fl* to generate [F1]⁺. The other is that the electron donor TEA reductively quenches photoexcited FL* to produce [F1], which delivers an electron to the H₂-evolving catalyst for proton reduction to H₂. To determine the dominant reaction pathway in the system, the luminescence of the excited photosensitizer Fl*, in 1:1 CH₃CN/H₂O at pH 11.07 is undertaken as a function of both TEA and separately, 1 concentration (Fig. 5). Stern-Volmer analyses yielded the quenching constants for the system. The rate constants for reductive quenching of Fl* by TEA and oxidative quenching by 1 are 2.5×10^7 and 9.0×10^9 M⁻¹ s⁻¹, respectively. As indicated by the reported Refs. [10,13], these results show that the quenching processes are diffusion controlled. Although the rate constant for oxidative quenching is ~ 400 times larger than that of reductive quenching, the reductive quenching process is still dominant given the much higher concentration of TEA (0.36 M) relative to 1 (4 uM).

For 1, the CV test in the solution of 1:1 CH_3CN/H_2O shows no obvious reduction wave at potential less negative than -1.5 V (vs SCE), implying that 1 cannot accept an electron from [FI]⁻ (-1.3 V) [13]. Thus, based on the previous Ref. [13], a protonated form of 1 may be the electron acceptor. The effect of protonation of 1 was examined by monitoring the electronic absorption spectral changes of 1 upon addition of acid. As illustrated in Fig. 6, in acidic solution, the original band at 350 nm of 1 gradually loses intensity and new absorption peaks are



Fig. 5. (a) Emission spectra of Fl (10^{-5} M) as a function of added catalyst 1 in 1:1 CH₃CN/H₂O at pH 11.07. Inset: Stern-Volmer plot of quenching by catalyst 1 (the best-fit equation of the Stern-Volmer plot is $y = (9.0 \times 10^9)x + 1$). (b) Emission spectra of Fl (10^{-5} M) as a function of added TEA in 1:1 CH₃CN/H₂O at pH 11.07. Inset: Stern-Volmer plot of quenching by TEA (the best-fit equation of the Stern-Volmer plot is $y = (2.45 \times 10^7)x + 1$).



Fig. 6. UV-vis absorption spectral changes after the sequential addition of proton source (0, 0.6, 0.8, 1.0, 1.2, 1.4 equiv.) to a solution of 1 in CH_3CN .

observable at ~ 303 and 408 nm with conserved isosbestic points at ~ 320 and 380 nm, indicating **1** converts to its protonated species [10]. In addition, as implied by the previous reference [13], the UV/vis spectrum of **1** also undergoes an obvious pH-dependent change in CH₃CN/H₂O (1:1) (Fig. S2, in the Supporting Information). Considering the electrochemical and photochemical studies, a possible catalytic pathway is briefly documented based on well-established studies [10,13]. Photocatalytic H₂ production reaction starts with the quenching the excited-state of Fl (Fl*). In the presence of an electron donor TEA, the Fl* is reductively quenched, providing a reduced sensitizer, that is anionic form Fl⁻. The Fl⁻ delivers an electron to the protonated catalyst unit, where H₂ can be produced. However, more studies are further needed to reveal the mechanism of the nickel catalyst for photocatalytic H₂ production.

In summary, a new nickel pyridine-selenolate complex, [Ni(4,4'dmbpy)(2-pySe)₂] (1), has been synthesized and characterized by single-crystal X-ray diffraction. The nickel-selenolate complex was found to be active for electrocatalytic H₂ production when employing acetic acid as a very inexpensive proton source. In the presence of organic photosensitizer Fl and an electron donor TEA, the complex **1** could evolve H₂ from CH₃CN/H₂O (1:1, v/v) with a TON of 1340 when exposed to visible light irradiation. This study represents a new paradigm for the construction of noble-metal-free catalyst by using nickel (II)-selenolate complexes for solar driven H₂ generation.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declared that there is no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments

We are grateful to the National Natural Science Foundation of China (21641011), the Natural Science Foundation of Fujian Province (2015 J01053 and 2017 J01016), the Fujian Key Laboratory of Functional Materials and Applications (Xiamen University of Technology, fma2017107).

Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.inoche.2019.107598.

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