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Photo-generation of H₂ by heterometallic complexes

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Multiple and different metals in a complex can accomplish single and sequential multi-step reactions, providing valuable procedures to obtain chemicals in one-pot synthetic routes. Biology has shown how cooperative catalysis is a powerful method for the synthesis of complicated molecules. One of the most attractive targets for current chemists is the synthesis of H_2 by a simple and economical procedure, mainly if it is produced from water using visible light as the energy source. This review aims to show how heterometallic complexes have been recently used to catalyze the photochemical production of H_2 .

Introduction

Natural metalloenzymes containing more than one metallic moiety occupy a large portion of metal-containing proteins and cofactors¹ and are a paradigmatic example of efficient catalysts, mostly due to their multi-metallic composition that provides a cooperative single-molecule platform for multi-step catalytic reactions. Their efficiency, expressed in terms of atom-2 and step-economy, and stereoselectivity are known to be outstanding compared to any artificial system. Thus, it is not a surprise that, so far, these species have inspired the design of a wide variety of synthetic strategies to help in the synthesis of fine chemicals and energy vectors. 4-11 In principle, this nature-inspired approach should be more economical and eco-friendly than any other anthropic solution. However, the design and synthesis of catalytically useful heterometallic complexes are laborious, 12 being one of the most important challenges of enzyme-inspired synthesis. Natural multi-metallic catalysts transform chemical substrates via the cumulative and cooperative influences of the metal centers thanks to well-defined electronic cascades and nucleophilic/ electrophilic reactions. Nevertheless, the reaction can occur only when the substrate is positioned in the right orientation and the metallic sites adopt the appropriate geometry. 13 These spatial requirements are usually fulfilled by both covalent and non-covalent bonding, 14 and sometimes by external factors such as light. 15 Moreover, another significant feature of multimetallic catalysis is the improvement of the reaction rate by increasing the concentration of substrates in a confined

Área de Química Inorgánica-CIESOL, Universidad de Almería, Almería, Spain. E-mail: romerosa@ual.es, scalambra@ual.es, ifdior@ual.es; Fax: +34950015008; Tel: +34638140119 space. 16-23 All these very finely tuned mechanisms are not easy to emulate using small molecules.

Molecular hydrogen is one of the most promising energetic vectors as it can be obtained from water and its combustion with O2 gives water again releasing a large amount of energy. Despite this attractive energetic virtuous circle, producing H₂ from water is energetically demanding and the efficiency and costs of the currently employed processes still display a large margin of improvability.²⁴⁻²⁶ One of the most attractive procedures to overcome this energy issue may be the use of visible radiation, ideally solar radiation, to drive the splitting of the water molecules and the formation of H₂. In this field, during the last five years, a few but significant heterometallic complexes have been studied as photocatalysts for this reaction, most of them being constituted by a photosensitizer and catalytic metal centres connected by an adequate bridging ligand.²⁷⁻⁴¹ This strategy provides electrons to the catalytic centres avoiding dispersive diffusion and collision events in the reaction media among the catalytic centre and photosensitizer molecules, increasing the efficiency and durability. Herein, we describe the most recent heterometallic systems developed to photo-produce H₂ using heterometallic complexes and to show how they display significant advantages in comparison with monometallic complexes.

Experimental and theoretical studies

Not long ago, in 2017, three Ru(II)-Rh(III) dimetallic complexes were presented: $[Ru(Ph_2phen)_2(dpp)RhCl_2(4,4'-R-bpy)](PF_6)_3$ (R = Me (1), H (2), COOMe (3)); $Ph_2phen = 4,7$ -diphenyl-1,1'-phenanthroline; dpp = 2,3-bis(2-pyridyl)pyrazine; bpy = 2,2'-bipyridine (Scheme 1). The evaluation of their properties as photocatalysts for hydrogen production showed that their

Scheme 1 Synthesis of 1-3.

activity is correlated with the bipyridine- σ -donating ability and the rate of Rh–Cl dissociation upon electrochemical reduction. Despite their similarity, complex 3, containing the weaker σ -donating dmeb (dmeb = 4,4'-dimethyl ester-2,2'-bipyridine) ligand and showing the highest rate constant for chloride dissociation, generated the largest amount of H_2 from water in the presence of N,N-dimethylaniline as the electron donor, its maximum quantum yield ($\Phi_{H_2\text{max}}$) being 0.004 after 4 h under photolysis (Table 1).

The resulting amount of H_2 was not significant for practical use but motivating conclusions were obtained from the performed studies. The photocatalytic reduction of H_2O was

determined to occur via electron collection at the Rh centre, which is photoinitiated at the Ru chromophore by extraction of 1 electron from the sacrificial donor. To allow the overall process, it is important that light absorption occurs by the lowest energy transition $Ru(d\pi) \to dpp(\pi^*)$, with a 1MLCT character, which induces the population of a weakly-emissive short-lived $Ru(d\pi) \to \mu\text{-}dpp(\pi^*)$ 3MLCT excited state, which undergoes intramolecular electron transfer to populate a nonemissive, photochemically-active $Ru(d\pi) \to Rh(d\sigma^*)$ 3MMCT excited state.

The same year, an interesting theoretical DFT and TDDFT study was published, which compared the excited states that

 Table 1
 Reaction conditions for hydrogen generation using the catalysts described herein

$\lambda_{ m exc}$	[Cat]	Solvent	[Cat]	SED^a	H ⁺ source ^a	TON	$_{\left(h^{-1}\right) }^{TOF}$	Amount of H_2 (μmol)	Ref.
470 nm	1	DMF	1.3×10^{-4}	DMA 1.5 M	H ₂ O 0.62 M (DMAH ⁺)	30 (20 h)	1.50	18	42
	2		M		$(CF_3SO_3^-) 1.1 \times 10^{-4}$	35 (20 h)	1.75	21	
	3				M	63 (20 h)	3.15	37	
	5	CH ₃ CN/H ₂ O 9:1	5.8×10^{-5}	TEA 2.8 M		130 (18 h)	7.22	16	43
	7		M			70 (18 h)	3.88	9	
452 nm	8	CH_3CN	$1 \times 10^{-1} \text{ M}$	TEOA 5×10^{-1} M	$HBF_4 5 \times 10^{-2} M$	180 (2.3 h)	78.2	9×10^{4}	45
525 nm						251 (3.8 h)		12.5×10^{4}	
595 nm						180 (18 h)	10	9×10^{4}	
630 nm			_			78 (110 h)	0.71	3.9×10^{4}	
470 nm	$11-Cl_2$	CH ₃ CN/TEA/H ₂ O	5.2×10^{-5}			25 (48 h)	0.52	_	60
	$11-I_2$	6:3:1	M			2 (48 h)	0.04	_	
	12-Cl_2					7 (48 h)	0.14	_	
	12 - I_2					256 (48 h)	5.33	_	
	12 - I_2	CH ₃ CN/TEA/H ₂ O	$7 \times 10^{-5} \text{ M}$			465 (48 h)	9.68	_	61
	,	7:2:1							
480 nm	$13 + [Ru]_{i}^{b} (1:1)$	$CH_3CN/H_2O1:1$	$1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ M}$	TEA $3.8 \times 10^{-1} \text{ M}$		52 (24 h)	2.16	_	62
	$13 + [Ru]^b (1:3)$ $13 + [Ru]^b$					53 (24 h)	2.20	_	
	13 + $[Ru]^{b}$					59 (24 h)	2.45	_	
	(1:10)								
	14		4	1		49 (24 h)	2.04		
Simulated	15 + 16	$CH_3CN/H_2O(1:1)$	2.5×10^{-4}	TEOA 2.6×10^{-1}		3 (3 h)	1	16 (0.75 h)	63
solar	16 + $[Ir]^c$		M	M		16 (3 h)	5.33	78	
light ^d	17		-	4		5 (3 h)	1.66	25	
480 nm	18	DMA/TEOA $(4:1)$	$5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ M}$	BIH 1×10^{-1} M	3,5-F ₂ -PhOH 1 × 10 ⁻¹ M	92 (3 h)	30.66	18.6	64
	20				[BI-(OH)H] 1×10^{-1} M	85 (3 h)	28.33	16.6	
					See text	157.5 (3 h)	52.5	30.9	

DMA = N,N-dimethylaniline; TEA = triethylamine; TEOA = triethanolamine; BIH = 1,3-dimethyl-2-phenyl-2,3-dihydro-1H-benzo-[d]imidazole; 3,5- F_2 -PhOH = 3,5-difluorophenol; [BI-(OH)H] = 2-(1,3-dimethyl-2,3-dihydro-1H-benzo-[d]imidazol-2-yl)phenol. a Solvent, if not explicitly specified. b [Ru] = [Ru(bpy)₃] $^{2+}$. c [Ir] = [Ir(ppy)₂(bpy)]PF₆. d Using a Xe lamp with an AM1.5 global filter.

induce the H_2 production catalyzed by $[Ru(bpy)_2(2,5-tpy)]^{2+}$ (4), $[Ru(bpy)_2(2,5-tpy)Pd(CH_3CN)Cl]^{2+}$ (5), $[Ru(bpy)_2(2,6-tpy)]^{2+}$ (6), and $[Ru(bpy)_2(2,6-tpy)Pd(CH_3CN)Cl]^{2+}$ (7), (Fig. 1).⁴³

The obtained results supported that for complexes containing the linear bridging ligand 2,5-tpy (4 and 5), the lowestlying triplet excited state has ³MLCT character. For 5, the lifetime of the ${}^{3}MLCT \rightarrow {}^{3}MC_{Ru}$ decay is slow enough to allow efficient and long-lived photocatalysis. In contrast, for the complexes featuring the non-linear bridging ligand (6 and 7), the lowest excited state was found to have ³MC_{Ru} character, resulting in a fast decay behaviour that lowers the catalytic efficiency and justified the inactivity of 7. Thus, through an appropriate choice of ligands and geometry, the performance of the catalyst can be tuned, acting on the character and the lifetime of the excited state. This result supports the finding published by J. G. Vos et al. 44 which showed how heterodimetallic complexes are better than monometallic complexes to photocatalytically produce H₂, in contrast to the combination of the complexes 5 and 7.

Also in 2017, three Ir-based complexes were presented and studied as catalysts for H_2 generation. One of them is the dimetallic complex 8 (Fig. 2) (Hpiq = 1-phenylisoquinoline; L = 2,2';5',4''-terpyridine),⁴⁵ which is a dyad with vectorial electron transfer. The activity of 8 (0.1 M) to produce H_2 from HBF₄ in CH₃CN (0.05 M) in the presence of triethanolamine (0.5 M) under irradiation centred at 452 nm, 525 nm, 595 nm and 630 nm was compared with those of the combination of the

Fig. 2 Structure of complex 8.

corresponding monometallic Ir and Co complexes (Table 1) under the same reaction conditions.

The authors attributed the better performance of the dimetallic complex 8 to the covalent connections between Ir and Co moieties, which enhance electronic transfer and stabilize the molecule, such as in previously published

Fig. 1 Structures of 4-7.

results for similar systems. 46-48 The covalent bridge among metal units should indeed promote the electron transfer from the reduced photosensitizer to the catalyst centre while lowering the probability of decomposition. 49 This suspicion was confirmed when the stability of the dinuclear compound 8 was found to be similar to that of the previously reported Ir–Co complexes used as a dyad. 46,50 It is also important to point out that complex 8 promotes the photocatalytic proton reduction upon absorption in the yellow- and red-light regions, giving however a lower TON than that under green light.

An additional consideration that should be made for the design of photocatalysts for H2 is that metals such as Ru, Pt or Ir are very useful but scarce in the Earth's crust, and for this reason they are very expensive. An ideal catalyst should be cheap, easy to be obtained and recyclable. Only under these conditions can it be generally and practically used. Therefore, when possible, scarce and expensive metals should be substituted with abundant and cheap ones. Nevertheless, also easily recyclable complexes should be synthesized in order to make the H₂ generation process sustainable. Among these metals, Fe, Ni and Co stand out as good candidates to be employed, instead of their expensive "neighbours" noble metals. Examples of heterodinuclear complexes were published looking to satisfy this need by replacing the Ru-based photosensitizer with a cheaper moiety. This strategy led to the porphyrin Pt/M complexes 9-11 (M = Cu (9), Co (10), Zn (11)), in which a porphyrin-phenanthroline hybrid ligand is coordinated to the non-Pt metal and serves as a photosensitizer. This ligand is also covalently bonded to a Pt halide through the exposed nitrogen atoms of the phenanthroline scaffold, which is in charge of proton reduction (Fig. 3).⁵¹ The choice of the porphyrin ligand was based on its cheap and easy synthesis, ^{52–58} while Pt was preferred over Pd due to its lower tendency to form nanoparticles. ⁵⁹

Complexes 9-11 were evaluated as photocatalysts for H_2 generation in acetonitrile/water (6:1) mixtures under 470 nm light, using triethylamine (30%) as a sacrificial electron donor.

It was shown that the activity of these complexes strongly depends on the nature of the metal centre accommodated in the porphyrin moiety, as well as on the halogen ions bonded to platinum(II). The activities of the compounds to photocatalyze the generation of H₂ from water were compared in acetonitrile under monochromatic light at 470 nm and an inert atmosphere, using water (10%) as a proton source and triethylamine (30%) as the sacrificial electron donor. 37 Their activities were compared also with the known Ru catalysts [RutpphzPtX₂] (12) (tpphz = tetrapyrido[3,2-a:2',3'-c:3",2"-h:2"', 3'''-j]phenazine; X = Cl (12-Cl₂), I (12-I₂))⁶⁰ under the same conditions. Complexes containing Pt-Cu (9) and Pt-Co (10) were not active, while the Pt-Zn complex (11) showed a different activity depending on the halide bonded to Pt. The complex 11-I2, in which the Pt is bonded to two iodides, displayed lower activity than the Ru-Pt complex 12-I2 (2 vs. 256 for TON_{48h}), while 11-Cl₂ was ca. 4 times more active than 12- Cl_2 (25 vs. 7 for TON_{48h}). Experimental studies supported that initially a doubly reduced (and protonated) species forms, which further evolves to give rise to H2. More recently, it was also showed that the generation of H₂ by 12-I₂ can be improved after 48 h upon reactivation of the inactive complex that is formed under irradiation by the reduction of the tpphz bridge. The restoration of the reduced species was achieved by oxidation with singlet oxygen photochemically generated in situ. This reparation process was cyclically used up to eight times, allowing the extension of the total reaction time to 444 h and obtaining a total TON > 3000.61

Fig. 3 Structures of complexes 9-12.

Fig. 4 Structures of complexes 13 and 14.

In 2021 one of the most interesting systems for the photogeneration of hydrogen from water using the heterometallic Ru–Ni complexes ${\bf 13}$ and ${\bf 14}$ (Fig. 4) as catalysts was published. These complexes were evaluated for the generation of H $_2$ in a mixture of acetonitrile/water (1:1) at pH 11, with triethylamine (5% v/v) as the sacrificial electron donor and employing a blue light source at 480 nm.

The catalytic studies showed the different activities both catalysts have, despite being parent compounds. Dimetallic complex 13 requires the presence of the photosensitizer $[Ru(bpy)_3]^{2^+}$ (Table 1), which is necessary to promote the reduction of $2H^+$. In fact, during the catalytic cycle, after the formation of 13a upon excitation and one-electron reductive quenching through SED \rightarrow SED $^+$, the Ni centre needs a second

electron to accomplish the proton reduction. The required electron is supplied to 13a by the photosensitizer, giving the triplet complex 13b. Then, the protonation of 13b affords the $[Ru^{II}Ni^{II}]$ hydride 13c, which reacts with an additional proton to generate H_2 and restore 13 (Scheme 2).

Interestingly, the trimetallic complex 14 photocatalyzed the generation of H_2 (TON_{24h} = 49) better than 13 but without an additional photosensitizer. It is proposed that complex 14 undergoes intramolecular multielectron transfer from Ru to Ni, while at the Ni centre the generation of dihydrogen occurs. The experimental and DFT studies suggested that during the catalytic cycle the molecular complex is the unique catalytic compound, and species containing Ni(0) do not form during the reaction. Complex 14 evolves into 14a $[Ru^{II}Ni^{I}Ru^{II}(bpy^*)]^{0}$

Scheme 2 The proposed mechanism for the generation of H₂ when 13 is used as the catalyst.

Scheme 3 Mechanism proposed for the generation of H_2 when 14 is used as the catalyst.

thanks to a two-photon-two-electron reduction. The intermediate **14a** is then protonated to give the hydride **14b** that reacts with a H⁺ forming H₂ and the initial catalyst **14** (Scheme 3). Thus, in catalyst **14** the role of the photosensitizer, which is necessary for H₂ generation catalysed with dimetallic **13**, is played by the second Ru moiety covalently bonded to the Nioxime centre. Stability tests conducted by UV/Vis spectroscopy on complex **14** before and after photocatalysis confirmed its robustness.

A few months later a new system for the photogeneration of H_2 was published in which a non-noble metal complex was used as a photocatalyst. The dimetallic Fe–Co complex (17) (Fig. 5) was obtained by connection between an NHC-iron(II) photosensitizer (NHC = 2,6-bis[3-(2,6-diisopropylphenyl) imidazol-2-ylidene]pyridine) (15) and a cobaloxime (16) via a 2,6-bis(3-methyl-imidazol-2-ylidene)-4,4'-bipyridine bridge.

The photocatalytic activity of the Fe–Co complex 17 was studied in MeCN/water (1:1) with 5% triethanolamine, under argon and irradiated by simulated solar light using a Xe lamp with an AM1.5 global filter. Its activity was compared with those of the corresponding separated two-component systems 15 + 16 and with the known catalyst $[Ir(ppy)_2(bpy)]PF_6 + 16$.

The results obtained (Table 1) showed how 17 is significantly more active than the combination of its components but worse than the combination of $[Ir(ppy)_2(bpy)]PF_6 + 16$. Studies on the stability of 17 by NMR and UV/Vis spectroscopy showed that in acetonitrile, after 2.5 h under irradiation, it dissociates at concentrations below 1 mM. The decomposition species were characterized to be the resulting products of destabilization of the pyridine-cobalt bond and twist of the 4,4'-bipyridine caused by irradiation. The proton NMR spectrum did not change after 22 hours even under irradiation.

The larger activity of complex 17 concerning the corresponding components was studied experimentally and theoretically, and it was concluded that 17 exhibits a reduced HOMO-LUMO gap due to stabilization of the MLCT state, as well as an alteration of the excited state, with respect to the isolate iron photosensitizer. Both effects lead to a photocatalytically active ³MLCT that is slightly longer-lived than for 15. The authors also assign the increased activity of 17 to the anisotropic behaviour of the electron transfer pathway between Fe^{II} and Co^{III} dictated by the bridging ligand.

Finally, very recent and interesting dimetallic complexes containing $Ru(\pi)$ and $Rh(\pi i)$ showed that although the most

Fig. 5 Structures of complexes 15-17.

convenient alternative should be the use of abundant and easily recyclable metals, complexes containing noble metals are still the best option to develop useful catalysts to photogenerate $\rm H_2$. In this line, a series of complexes containing Ru and Rh (18–20) were prepared (Fig. 6) and evaluated. ⁶⁴

A trace amount of H_2 was photo-generated catalytically by 20 in an Ar-saturated mixture of dimethylacetamide/triethanolamine (4:1, v/v) under irradiation at $\lambda = 480$ nm, using as the

R = H, X = MeCN, n = 4 (18) R = H, X = Cl, n = 3 (19) R = OMe, X = MeCN, n = 4 (20)

Fig. 6 Structures of complexes 18-20

reductant 1,3-dimethyl-2-phenyl-2,3-dihydro-1H-benzo-[d]imidazole (BIH). Nevertheless, the generation of H₂ was significantly improved when the BIH was substituted for a proton source such as 3,5-difluorophenol (3,5-F₂-PhOH) or 2-(1,3-dimethyl-2,3-dihydro-1H-benzo[d]imidazol-2-yl) phenol (BI-(OH)H). The H₂ generation quantum yields ($\Phi_{\rm H_2}$) after 3 h of irradiation were respectively 11.0% (3,5-F₂-PhOH) and 9.9% (BI(OH)H). A similar reaction under CO₂ led to different and interesting results, as without the addition of a proton donor, H₂ was produced as the main product with a very high $\Phi_{\rm H_2}$ (16.4%), and only small amounts of HCOOH and CO were detected. This particular behaviour was justified by the evidence that TEOA reacts with CO₂-generating protons as showed by Fujita et al. 65 which gives rise to an acidic zwitterionic alkyl carbonate.

In all the performed studies the dimetallic **20** showed the highest activity for the H₂ production, probably due to the faster electron transfer from the Ru photosensitizer unit to the Rh catalyst centre.⁶⁶ It was also shown that the photocatalytic ability of the Ru^{II}–Rh^{III} photocatalysts largely depends on the diimine ligand of the Rh centre, which can give rise to HCOOH instead of H₂ as the main product, under the same reaction conditions. Additionally, the introduction of electron-donating methoxy substituents at the 6,6'-positions of the bipyridine unit of the bridging ligand induces the formation of H₂ with high selectivity, producing only a small amount of HCOOH, similarly to that observed for Ru-mononuclear systems containing bpy.⁶⁷ The analogue complex without sub-

stitution on the bipyridine unit of the bridging ligand (18) does not significantly produce H_2 photocatalytically due to the fact that Ru^{II} – Rh^{III} (H) and/or Ru^{II} –Rh(Cp^*H) do not react with protons, even under a CO_2 atmosphere. In fact, after excitation, the reactivity of complex 18 goes towards the reduction of CO_2 to HCOOH rather than the generation of H_2 (after 3 h of irradiation: $TON_{HCOOH} = 82$, $\phi_{HCOOH} = 15.5\%$; $TON_{H_2} = 34$, $\phi_{H_2} = 3.2\%$). It seems that electron-donating substituents at the 6,6′ positions of the bpy ligand in 20 introduce the electron density close to the Rh, helping the formation of Ru^{II} – Rh^{III} (H)–OMe and/or Ru^{II} –Rh(Cp^*H)–OMe species. These intermediates could assist mutual interactions between the proton source and hydride species, leading to a faster H_2 evolution.

Remarks

The reaction conditions employed for the photogeneration of H₂ using the active catalysts described before, as well as their TOFs, TONs and the amount of produced H2 are summarized in Table 1. Based on the reported data, the most robust catalyst is the Ru/Pt complex 12-I2, showing a TON of 465 at a concentration of 5.2×10^{-5} M after 48 h. Also, the Ir/Co complex 8 showed a TON as high as 251, but after 3.8 h. Nevertheless, 8 is the catalyst that displayed the highest TOF (83.6 h^{-1}), being able to produce 12.5×10^4 µmol of hydrogen in 3.8 h at 0.1 M concentration. For what concerns the reactions involved in direct H₂O reduction, without an additional source of protons, among the complexes reviewed in this work, 12-I₂ is again the best catalyst. So far, maybe due to solubility reasons, there is still a lack of heterometallic catalysts that can work in pure H₂O and, therefore, designing and synthesizing heterometallic water-soluble photocatalysts for the generation of H2 from water should be an utmost projection for future developments. Finally, it would be beneficial to substitute the commonly used organic sacrificial electron donors for more eco-friendly electron sources. In this sense, the most virtuous approach should be the use of water as an electron source, which could be achieved by coupling the heterometallic catalysts with electrode systems or molecular devices active for water oxidation, for example.

Conclusions

Despite the interesting results obtained to date stronger efforts need to be carried out to develop a more efficient catalyst for the photo-generation of H₂. Some important considerations for the design of these compounds should be taken into account. Firstly, the appropriate choice of the ligands is of extreme importance, which determines the energy of the excited states that need to be finely tuned to avoid fast and non-productive decay pathways. Also, anchoring the photosensitizer to the catalytic centre *via* covalent bonds generally improves the efficiency of the catalyst but this point should

also be supported by the ³MLCT state lifetime at the photosensitizer, which must be long enough to allow inter-metallic electron transfer. The metal centres support the photo-collection and proton reduction, therefore appropriate metals should be chosen, with an eye on their price, abundance in the Earth's crust and recyclability. Noble-metal-based moieties are still the most efficient, but investigations conducted on first-row metals have shown that good catalysts can be obtained also with metals such as Ni or Co. So far, the results obtained are very promising and show that the heterometallic systems are very good photocatalysts for hydrogen generation from water under solar irradiation, which would be the best procedure to generate industrially this important energy vector.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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