

A Bioinspired Molybdenum Catalyst for Aqueous Perchlorate Reduction

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ABSTRACT

Perchlorate (ClO_4^-) is a pervasive, harmful, and inert anion on both Earth and Mars. Current technologies for ClO_4^- reduction entail either harsh conditions or multi-component enzymatic processes. Herein, we report a heterogeneous (**L**)Mo–Pd/C catalyst directly prepared from Na_2MoO_4 , a bidentate nitrogen ligand (**L**), and Pd/C to reduce aqueous ClO_4^- into Cl^- with 1 atm H_2 at room temperature. A suite of instrument characterizations and probing reactions suggest that the Mo^{VI} precursor and **L** at the optimal 1:1 ratio are transformed *in situ* into oligomeric Mo^{IV} active sites at the carbon-water interface. For each Mo site, the initial turnover frequency (TOF_0) for oxygen atom transfer from ClO_x^- substrates reached 165 h^{-1} . The turnover number (TON) reached 3,840 after a single batch reduction of 100 mM ClO_4^- . This study provides a water-compatible, efficient, and robust catalyst to degrade and utilize ClO_4^- for water purification and space exploration.

Perchlorate (ClO_4^-) is a pervasive water contaminant on Earth¹ and a major salt component in the surface soil on Mars.²⁻³ The uptake of ClO_4^- through water and food can cause thyroid gland malfunction,⁴ and a recent study has identified that ClO_4^- in drinking water is more dangerous than previously thought.⁵ NASA has identified Martian ClO_4^- as both a potential hazard to humans and an oxygen source to supply exploration activities.⁶ However, the oxidizing power of ClO_4^- is primarily utilized via rocket fuels, munitions, or pyrotechnics.⁷ Without ignition, ClO_4^- is a well-known inert anion and commonly used for ionic strength adjustment in various chemical systems.⁸ Abiotic reduction of aqueous ClO_4^- usually requires harsh conditions and large excesses of reducing agents.⁹⁻¹⁰ Herein, we report on a bioinspired heterogeneous Mo catalyst for aqueous ClO_4^- reduction with 1 atm H_2 at room temperature.

Microbes can use ClO_4^- for respiration via a multifactor metalloenzyme system (Figure 1a).¹¹⁻¹² The reduction of ClO_4^- and ClO_3^- is achieved by oxygen atom transfer (OAT)¹³ to a dithiolate-coordinated Mo cofactor (Figure 1b), which is biosynthesized from molybdate.¹⁴ Amino acid residues mediate the binding and stabilization of ClO_x^- substrates.¹⁵ The redox cycling between Mo^{IV} and Mo^{VI} (Figure 1c) is sustained by the electron transfer from H_2 or acetate via multiple enzymes containing Fe-S clusters and *heme* complexes, and electron shuttling compounds.¹⁶ The complexity of biological systems challenges the design of an artificial ClO_4^- reduction system, especially in the aqueous phase under ambient conditions. For example, a Fe complex relies on hydrogen bonds in the secondary coordination sphere to reduce ClO_4^- (Figure 1d) and thus requires an anhydrous environment.¹⁷⁻¹⁸ Moreover, a single-function metal complex or isolated reductase requires special electron donors (e.g., methyl viologen, hydrazine, ferrocene, and phosphine) to sustain the redox cycle of OAT metals.^{17,19-20} Hence, a robust catalyst that can reduce aqueous ClO_4^- with H_2 is highly desirable.²¹⁻²² Although the immobilization of Re complexes (Figure 1e)²³⁻²⁴ onto Pd/C has achieved this function,²⁵⁻²⁶ Re is a rare metal, and the pre-synthesized Re complexes are subject to irreversible decomposition.²⁷

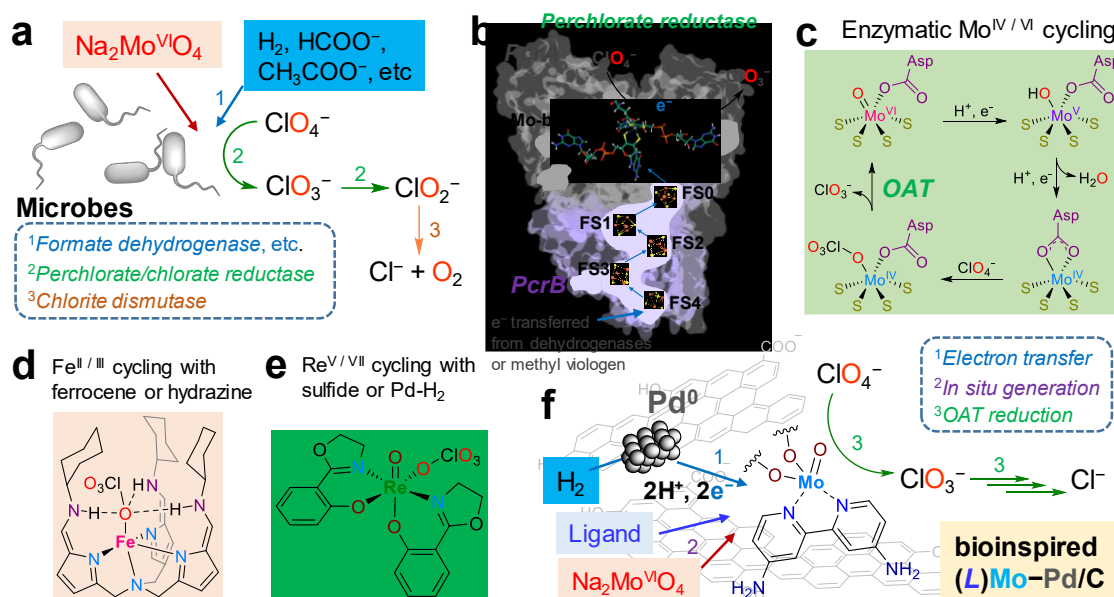


Figure 1. Microbial and abiotic systems for perchlorate reduction. (a) Microbial ClO_4^- reduction processes; (b) electron transfer and metal centers in perchlorate reductase (*Pcr*); (c) redox cycling of the Mo cofactor proposed in literature;¹⁵ (d) a bioinspired Fe complex for ClO_4^- reduction;¹⁷ (e) a Re complex for ClO_4^- reduction;²³ (f) the overall design rationale for the (L)MoO_x-Pd/C catalyst.

Table 1. Perchlorate Reduction Activity of Mo–Pd/C Catalysts Enabled by Various Ligands.^a

entry	ligand	TOF ₀ (h ⁻¹) ^b	entry	ligand	TOF ₀ (h ⁻¹) ^b
1	R = H	14.3	17		3.1
2	R = Me	12.4	18		4.6
3	R = OH	11.7	19		2.8
4	R = OMe	20.8	20		0.31
5	R = NMe ₂	53.9	21		11.2
6	R = NH ₂	106	22		0.40
7	R = Cl	0.63	23		0.85
8		0.78			
9		0.13			
10	R = H	0.16			
11	R = OH	0.16			
12	R = NH ₂	0.090			
13	R = NMe ₂	0.79			
14		0.43			
15		0.18			
16		0.22			

^aReaction conditions: 1 mM ClO₄⁻ in water, 0.5 g L⁻¹ catalyst (5 wt% Mo and 5 wt% Pd on carbon), molar ratio of Ligand:Mo = 1:1 (bidentate and tridentate) or 2:1 (monodentate), pH 3.0, 1 atm H₂, 20°C. Entries 5 and 6 used 0.2 g L⁻¹ catalyst.

^bCalculated using the degradation of the first 5% of 1 mM ClO₄⁻ and four OAT cycles to reduce each ClO₄⁻ into Cl⁻.

We used Pd/C as the platform for our bioinspired catalyst (Figure 1f). The porous carbon mimics the enzyme protein pocket to accommodate the OAT metal site. The Pd⁰ nanoparticles directly harvest electrons from H₂ to simplify the biological electron transfer chain. Then the critical task was to construct a highly active Mo site from molybdate (Mo^{VI}O₄²⁻), the same Mo source for the biosynthesized Mo cofactor.¹⁴ Polyoxometalates of aqueous molybdate²⁸ were

readily adsorbed onto Pd/C within 30 min (Figure S1 of the Supporting Information). The resulting heterogeneous $\text{MoO}_x\text{-Pd/C}$ showed rapid reduction of ClO_3^- ²⁹ but negligible activity with ClO_4^- . Hence, we sought to enhance the OAT activity of Mo sites by incorporating an organic ligand like the biological Mo cofactors. Because biomimetic Mo complexes with thiolate ligands are typically water- and oxygen-sensitive, we attempted to prepare an active Mo site *in situ*. We added Na_2MoO_4 and a variety of neutral nitrogen ligands (*L*) to the water suspension of Pd/C under 1 atm H_2 . This simple strategy achieved highly active ClO_4^- reduction by a series of (*L*) $\text{MoO}_x\text{-Pd/C}$ catalysts (Table 1, Figures S2 and S3).

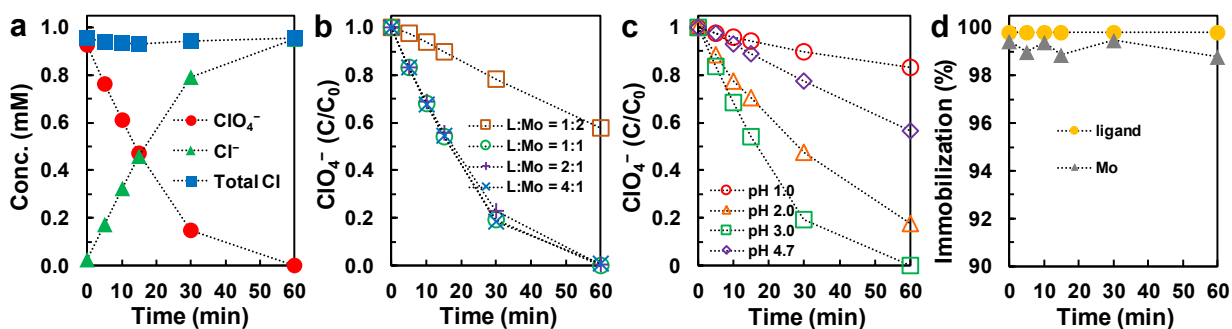


Figure 2. Kinetic data. (a) Chlorine balance for ClO_4^- reduction; (b) the effect of $(\text{NH}_2)_2\text{bpy}:\text{Mo}$ molar ratio; (c) the effect of solution pH; (d) the ratio of immobilized $(\text{NH}_2)_2\text{bpy}$ and Mo during ClO_4^- reduction. Default reaction conditions: 0.2 g L^{-1} catalyst (5 wt% Mo in 5 wt% Pd/C, molar ratio of $(\text{NH}_2)_2\text{bpy}:\text{Mo}=1:1$), 1 mM ClO_4^- , pH 3.0, 1 atm H_2 , 20°C .

Bipyridine (*bpy*, Table 1 entry 1) was superior to phenanthroline and other aromatic ligands with an imidazoline or oxazoline half moiety (Table 1 entries 17–19) as well as pyridines, diamines, and terpyridine (Table 1 entries 10–16 and 23). Ligands with steric hindrance (Table 1 entries 8, 9, and 20) or a strain on the *bpy* backbone (Table 1 entry 22 versus 21) resulted in low activities. Electron-donating groups on the *para* positions³⁰ further enhanced the activity (Table 1 entries 2–7). At ambient temperature and pressure, the $[(\text{NH}_2)_2\text{bpy}]\text{MoO}_x\text{-Pd/C}$ catalyst (Table 1 entry 6) outperformed other abiotic ClO_4^- reduction catalysts reported to date (Table S1). The chlorine balance was closed by ClO_4^- and Cl^- , indicating a negligible buildup of ClO_x^- intermediates (Figure 2a). The optimal molar ratio between $(\text{NH}_2)_2\text{bpy}$ and Mo was 1:1 (Figure 2b), and the optimal Mo content in the catalyst was 5 wt% (see below). While enzymes use amino acid residues to assist the reduction of metal-bound oxyanions,^{15,31} the $[(\text{NH}_2)_2\text{bpy}]\text{MoO}_x\text{-Pd/C}$ needs external protons to enable ClO_4^- reduction.^{29–30} The optimal activity was observed at pH 3.0 (1 mM H^+ from H_2SO_4). The pK_a values for $-\text{NH}_3^+$ and pyridyl NH^+ are around 2 and 7, respectively (Figure S4). The coordination between $(\text{NH}_2)_2\text{bpy}$ and Mo is competed by the protonation of pyridyl N at pH 3.0. Thus, the active $[(\text{NH}_2)_2\text{bpy}]\text{Mo}$ sites may be in the solid phase rather than in the aqueous solution (see below). The reduced performance at pH 2.0 and 1.0 (Figure 2c) can be attributed to the protonation of $-\text{NH}_2$.

Catalyst reuse for ten times did not cause a noticeable loss of activity (Figure S5). The leached Mo and $(\text{NH}_2)_2\text{bpy}$ into water throughout the catalysis were $<1.5\%$ and $<0.2\%$ of the total amount, respectively (Figure 2d). The apparent first-order kinetics with $0.01\text{--}1 \text{ mM ClO}_4^-$ and zeroth-order kinetics at $1\text{--}100 \text{ mM ClO}_4^-$ (Figures S6 and S7) support the Langmuir–Hinshelwood model, which is characteristic for heterogeneous catalysis (See Texts S1 and S2 for kinetic modeling and mass transfer analysis). Notably, a 0.2 g L^{-1} loading of the catalyst reduced 99.99% of 100 mM ClO_4^- ($\sim 10 \text{ g L}^{-1}$) within 48 h (Figure S6c). Due to the high oxidative stress caused by

ClO_x^- intermediates,^{15,27} complete reduction of 100 mM ClO_4^- in water has not been reported by either microbial or abiotic systems. Assuming the Mo sites catalyze the OAT from ClO_4^- and all ClO_x^- intermediates, the turnover number (TON) for that single batch and the initial turnover frequency (TOF₀) reached 3,840 and 165 h⁻¹, respectively, for each Mo atom.

In the presence of 0.1 M Cl^- , 2.0 M Cl^- , and 1.0 M SO_4^{2-} , the catalyst retained 57%, 5%, and 36% of the control activity, respectively (Figure S8 and Table S2), showing the promise for reducing ClO_4^- in brine solutions produced from ion exchange or reverse osmosis for water purification.³² Furthermore, exposing the catalyst suspension to air did not cause irreversible deactivation. The same ClO_4^- reduction activity was recovered after resuming the H_2 supply (Figure S9a), suggesting that the *in situ* prepared catalyst can be handled in air. In comparison, Re–Pd/C catalysts using pre-synthesized Re^V precursors (Figure 1e) are highly sensitive to air and irreversibly deactivated (Figure S9b).^{25,33}

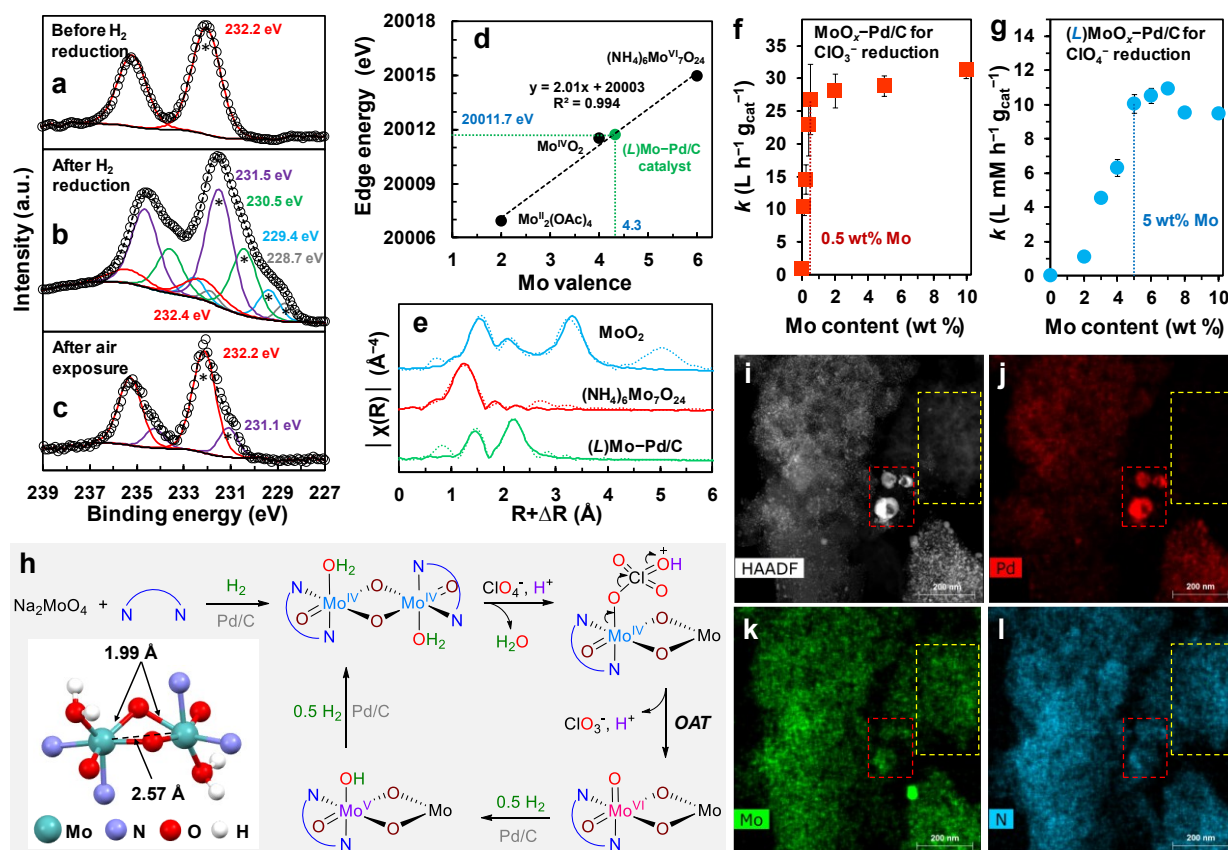


Figure 3. Characterization data and proposed reaction mechanisms. (a–c) Mo 3d XPS spectra (empty dots) and fits (solid lines) of the $[(\text{NH}_2)_2\text{bpy}]\text{MoO}_x\text{-Pd/C}$ catalyst. The 3d5/2 peaks are indicated by asterisks; (d) the correlation between Mo K-edge XANES energies and valences for the catalyst and Mo references; (e) the EXAFS Fourier transforms (dotted lines) and their fits (solid lines); (f–g) the effect of Mo content in the catalysts with and without $(\text{NH}_2)_2\text{bpy}$; (h) a proposed structure of the reduced $[(\text{NH}_2)_2\text{bpy}]\text{MoO}_x$ species and representative redox transformations for ClO_4^- reduction; (i–l) HAADF-STEM imaging of the catalyst and EDX mapping of Pd, Mo, and N. The two dotted areas show the heterogeneity of $[(\text{NH}_2)_2\text{bpy}]\text{MoO}_x$ species immobilized on both the carbon support and Pd particles.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) characterization identified the reduction of Mo^{VI} precursor into multiple oxidation states (+V, +IV, +III and +II) (Figure 3a versus 3b). Air exposure reoxidized the low-valent species to Mo^V and Mo^{VI} (Figure 3c). For the reduced bulk catalyst sample, Mo K-edge X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) spectroscopic analysis found the average valence of Mo to be 4.3 from the edge energy of 20011.7 eV (Figure 3d and Figure S10)³⁴. Fitting of the extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) spectra found three major atomic shells for Mo=O (1.67 Å), Mo–O (1.99 Å) and Mo–Mo (2.57 Å) (Figure 3e, Table S3, and Figure S11). This short Mo–Mo distance also indicates the reduction of Mo^{IV} into Mo^{IV} by hydrogenation. In a previous study, the reduction of [PMo^{VI}₁₂O₄₀]^{3–} in a battery electrolyte with 24 electrons into [PMo^{IV}₁₂O₄₀]^{27–} shortened the Mo–Mo distance from 3.4 Å to 2.6 Å.³⁴ The Mo–Mo coordination number (CN) of 0.9 ± 0.5 suggests the heterogeneity of the surface Mo species as a mixture of monomers (CN = 0), dimers (CN = 1), and polymers (CN > 1).

Notably, the use of (NH₂)₂bpy ligand not only enhanced the activity but also altered the structure of MoO_x species. Without the ligand, the MoO_x–Pd/C catalyst could not reduce ClO₄[–], and the highest ClO₃[–] reduction activity was achieved with merely 0.5 wt% of Mo (Figure 3f). Thus, the additional 4.5 wt% of Mo in the 5 wt% MoO_x–Pd/C served as the structural building block of polymeric MoO_x clusters rather than catalytic sites. The CN for Mo–Mo in MoO_x–Pd/C (1.7 ± 0.6, Table S3) also indicated the dominance of polymeric MoO_x clusters.²⁹ In stark comparison, the ClO₄[–] reduction activity of [(NH₂)₂bpy]MoO_x–Pd/C kept increasing with the Mo content until 5 wt% (Figure 3g). Thus, most Mo atoms in the 5 wt% [(NH₂)₂bpy]MoO_x–Pd/C served as catalytic sites. Because the average CN for Mo–Mo and Mo=O were 0.9 and 1.1, respectively (Table S3) and the optimal ratio between (NH₂)₂bpy and Mo was 1:1 (Figure 2b), we propose a representative dimer structure for the active Mo site (Figure 3h). This configuration is based on the crystal structure of Mo^{VI}₂O₆[(*t*-Bu)₂bpy]₂, a minor product from the hydrothermal reaction using MoO₃ and 4,4'-(*t*-Bu)₂bpy.³⁵ This dimer structure also allows for multi-valent transformation of Mo between +VI and +II (Figure 3b) via the reduction of Mo=O into Mo–OH and Mo–OH₂.

We attempted to synthesize a molecular framework for the [(NH₂)₂bpy]MoO_x site; however, both [(*t*-Bu)₂bpy]Mo^{VI} and [(NH₂)₂bpy]Mo^{VI} complexes from hydrothermal synthesis³⁵ decomposed into free ligands upon dissolution (Figures S12 and S13). Although PPh₃ reduced Mo^{VI} to Mo^{IV} and yielded OPPh₃ by OAT,¹³ the homogeneous ClO₄[–] reduction did not occur (Figure S14). The heating of Na₂MoO₄, (NH₂)₂bpy, and P(PhSO₃Na)₃ (TPPTS) in water yielded a green solid, confirming the reduction of Mo^{VI} and the coordination with (NH₂)₂bpy (Figure S15). Still, this product dissolved poorly in water and did not reduce aqueous ClO₄[–] (Figure S16a). In comparison, the use of activated carbon (without Pd⁰ nanoparticles)³⁶ together with Na₂MoO₄, (NH₂)₂bpy, and TPPTS resulted in a slow but significant ClO₄[–] reduction at pH 3.0 (Figure S16b and S16c). Although an exact molecular structure for the active Mo sites remains elusive, the above findings have collectively confirmed the heterogeneous nature of the catalyst. The critical role of the carbon support may be to provide a large surface area (>900 m² g^{–1})^{29,36} to disperse the insoluble [(NH₂)₂bpy]MoO_x structure for up to 5 wt% Mo (Figure 3g), or to stabilize the specific coordination structure that is reactive with ClO₄[–]. In addition, since (NH₂)₂bpy is strongly prone to pyridyl protonation, the [(NH₂)₂bpy]MoO_x coordination structure is less likely to remain intact upon dissolution in the aqueous phase.

Scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) and energy dispersive X-ray spectrometry (EDS) element mapping images indicate the ubiquitous distribution of Mo and N on

either carbon support or Pd⁰ nanoparticles (Figures 3i–3l and S17). The poor EXAFS fittings considering Mo–Pd bonding (Table S4) suggest isolated aggregation and distinct roles of the [(NH₂)₂bpy]MoO_x site (OAT for ClO₄[−] reduction) and Pd nanoparticles (electron transfer from H₂). Both the phosphine reduction via OAT and Pd-mediated hydrogenation could transform polymeric Mo^{VI} precursors²⁹ into specific [(NH₂)₂bpy]MoO_x structures for ClO₄[−] reduction. For comparison, our cyclic voltammetry studies on the mixture of Na₂MoO₄, (NH₂)₂bpy, and activated carbon (without Pd⁰ nanoparticles) between 0.37 and −1.1 V (versus the reversible hydrogen electrode) did not observe ClO₄[−] reduction (Figure S18) but showed the reduction peaks of MoO_x and (NH₂)₂bpy ligand (Figure S19). The potential allows the reduction of Mo^{VI} into Mo^V, Mo^{IV}, and Mo^{III},^{37–38} but the potential [(NH₂)₂bpy]MoO_x formed upon electrochemical reduction³⁴ were probably in different structures and thus not reactive with ClO₄[−].

In conclusion, we have developed a highly active and robust heterogeneous (*L*)MoO_x–Pd/C catalyst for aqueous ClO₄[−] reduction. The catalysis proceeded at 20°C with 1 atm H₂ and fully reduced a wide concentration range (10 μM to 0.1 M) of ClO₄[−] into Cl[−]. On the carbon support, the oligomeric Mo site was generated *in situ* via the reduction of Na₂MoO₄ and coordination with a bidentate nitrogen ligand. This study highlights a new strategy for designing bioinspired systems with common chemicals and simple preparation. We anticipate that this water-compatible catalyst will advance environmental and energy technologies to degrade or utilize ClO₄[−] on Earth and Mars.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/jacs.xxxxxxx>.

Methods for catalyst preparation, perchlorate reduction, aqueous sample analysis, catalyst characterization, electrochemical study; supporting texts for Langmuir-Hinshelwood mechanism, mass transfer analysis, and mechanism probing studies using phosphine; supporting data figures for metal and ligand leaching, the effect of ligand structures, catalyst reuse and air stability, kinetics under various conditions, characterization data of XANES, EXAFS, HAADF-STEM-EDX; photos and NMR spectra for mechanism probing studies; cyclic voltammograms; supporting data tables for comparison with other catalysts, kinetics, and EXAFS fittings.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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