

Ru(II) Polypyridyl-Modified TiO₂ Nanoparticles for Photocatalytic C–C/C–O Bond Cleavage at Room TemperatureShuya Li,[#] Udani K. Wijethunga,[#] Andrew H. Davis, Saerona Kim, Weiwei Zheng, Benjamin D. Sherman, Chang Geun Yoo, and Gyu Leem*Cite This: *ACS Appl. Nano Mater.* 2022, 5, 948–956

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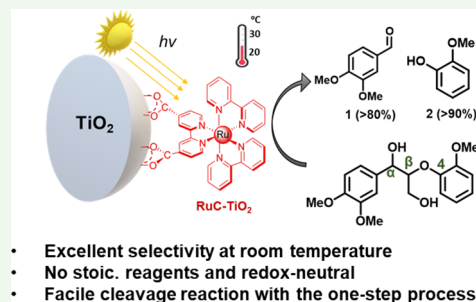
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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Bond cleavage reactions including that of C–C and C–O bonds are important to the chemical industry and organic chemistry. Performing this chemical transformation under mild conditions (e.g., room temperature, solar light) can benefit both the selectivity and yield of the targeted products. This manuscript describes a simple one-pot approach used to carry out C_α–C_β/C_β–O σ-bond cleavage using photocatalytic nanoparticles that afford the cleavage products in excellent yields at room temperature with visible-light illumination. We synthesized a carboxylic acid-functionalized Ru^{II} polypyridyl complex (RuC) and TiO₂ nanoparticles (TiO₂ NPs) with the average dimensions of 6.6 nm width and 14.7 nm length using a hydrothermal method. The photocatalyst Ruc was immobilized onto TiO₂ NPs (Ruc–TiO₂ NPs) to perform a photocatalytic cleavage reaction with a nonphenolic lignin model compound, 1-(3,4-dimethoxyphenyl)-2-(2-methoxyphenoxy)propane-1,3-diol (DMP-2ol), under simulated solar illumination. Photophysical studies of Ruc and TiO₂ NPs reveal that intermolecular energy/electron transfer from the photoexcited Ruc to TiO₂ NPs occurs in acetonitrile solution. Under ambient temperature and aerobic conditions, the photocatalytic reaction with Ruc–TiO₂ NPs and DMP-2ol generates the main C_α–C_β/C_β–O bond cleavage products of 3,4-dimethoxybenzaldehyde (1, 82%) and 2-methoxyphenol (2, 90%) in excellent yields. This study successfully performed the C–C/C–O bond cleavage reaction using a homogeneously dispersed photocatalytic system at room temperature, under solar illumination, and without the need for additional mediators or oxidizing/reducing agents. This system presents a possible approach to support light-driven lignin depolymerization under mild conditions, which is a target of future work.

KEYWORDS: ruthenium(II) polypyridyl chromophores, TiO₂ nanoparticles, bond cleavage, lignin degradation, heterogeneous photocatalysis



- Excellent selectivity at room temperature
- No stoic. reagents and redox-neutral
- Facile cleavage reaction with the one-step process

INTRODUCTION

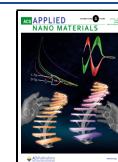
The selective cleavage of chemical bonds is crucial for various applications such as organic synthesis and depolymerization.^{1,2} This chemical transformation, especially if carried out under mild conditions, is essential to making the degradation of lignin, a renewable alternative source to petroleum-based chemicals.^{2–5} However, traditional lignin depolymerization processes that perform C–O/C–C bond cleavage require severe reaction conditions (e.g., high temperature and pressure) and result in poor selectivity and/or low productivity for producing targeted value-added aromatic chemicals.^{2,6} Recent studies have focused on targeting C–C/C–O bond cleavage specifically to the β-aryl ether repeating motifs found in lignin, and the use of structural model compounds has led to the formation of well-defined aromatic chemicals.^{4,7–12} Recently, a two-step C–C/C–O bond cleavage strategy was reported using β-O-4 lignin models with the first step in the process involving the oxidation of the C_α–OH.^{9,13,14} The homolytic C_β–O bond dissociation energy in the β-O-4 linkage decreases from 69.2 to 55.9 kcal/mol after oxidation of the C_α–OH to give the C_α=O.⁷ Then, the C_α=O in the

lignin facilitates the reductive cleavage of the C_β–O bond. In 2020, our group developed a hydrogen atom transfer mediator (HAT) coupled TiO₂-based photoanode for the photocatalytic cleavage of the C–C bond or oxidation of the C_α–OH in lignin models under mild conditions.^{15,16} This photoelectrochemical heterogeneous catalytic process exhibited excellent conversion efficiencies (>90%) to the conversion of the oxidized ketone products from lignin models under visible-light illumination as a first step toward performing chemoselective C–O bond cleavage in lignin.¹⁵ This previous study showed that interfacial oxidation of lignin models at the surface-bound Ru(II)-sensitized mesoporous TiO₂ film offers a promising chemical strategy for C–C/C–O bond cleavage in the presence of the nitroxyl radical species. However, the

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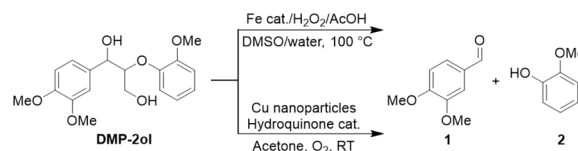
effectiveness of polypyridyl metal complex-immobilized TiO₂ NPs for performing the bond cleavage reaction in the absence of the nitroxyl radical species has not been studied in colloidal nanoparticulate systems. Thus, investigating metal chromophore-sensitized TiO₂ nanoparticles for carrying out C_α–C_β/C_β–O bond cleavage is the focus of this study.

The photocatalytic conversion of lignin to small aromatic products has been studied using ultraviolet (UV) illumination and TiO₂ NPs because TiO₂ NPs generate strong oxidizing equivalents, are inexpensive to synthesize, and have good chemical stability.^{17–19} For example, Wang and co-workers reported the photocatalytic cleavage of the C–O bond of β-O-4 ketones selectively in lignin model compounds using TiO₂ under UV illumination (e.g., λ < 365 nm) via a tandem oxidation–hydrogenolysis reaction under mild conditions.²⁰ Ti³⁺ from TiO₂ photocatalysts can activate the C–O bonds under UV-light illumination. Due to its high band gap (E_g ≈ 3.2 eV, anatase TiO₂) and the short diffusion length of photoinduced excitons, it needs to develop an effective way to extend the absorbance of TiO₂ toward the visible region.²¹ Ru(II) polypyridyl complexes under irradiation by visible light with λ > 400 nm are widely used as an effective visible-light sensitizer for TiO₂ because of their chemical stability and excited-state reactivity.^{22,23} This study proves that TiO₂ NPs modified with carboxylic acid-functionalized bis(2,2'-bipyridine)(4,4'-dicarboxy-2,2'-bipyridine)Ru(II) (RuC) can be utilized for the C–O/C–C bond transformation in the lignin model compound under visible or solar light illumination.

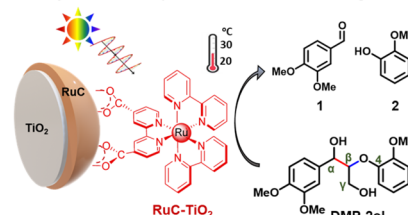
According to previous studies, cleavage products **1** and **2** formed from the methoxy-substituted nonphenolic lignin model compound, 1-(3,4-dimethoxyphenyl)-2-(2-methoxyphenoxy)propane-1,3-diol (DMP-2ol), can be obtained by thermal or visible-light oxidative cleavage reactions with metal-based homogeneous catalysts as shown in Figure 1.^{24,25} For example, under a high temperature (e.g., 100 °C), **1** and **2** were obtained in 46 and 47% yields using FeCl₃-derived iron catalysts with an oxidizing agent.²⁴ Instead of this harsh condition, Mitchell and Moody reported the visible-light-driven cleavage affording products **1** (~18%) and **2** (~8%) using Cu nanoparticles in the presence of 1,4-benzoquinone and O₂ at room temperature.²⁵ This oxidative cleavage reaction required both an oxidizing agent and O₂. Importantly, due to mild conditions (room temperature), the product yield was not as high as that observed with the Fe³⁺ catalyst at 100 °C. Very recently, we reported the oxidative cleavage of a phenolic lignin model compound at room temperature at a photoanode with a HAT co-catalyst in solution, specifically, 4-acetamido-2,2,6,6-tetramethyl-1-piperidine-N-oxyl (ACT). In the oxidized (oxoammonium) form, ACT serves as a hydrogen transfer mediator for the cleavage of the C_{aryl}–C_α bond in lignin model compounds.¹⁵ This DSPEC system requires the ACT mediator to activate HAT catalysis, leading to oxidative cleavage. Our previous study explored the photocatalytic cleavage reaction with phenolic and nonphenolic lignin model compounds in the DSPEC.¹⁵ We observed that the phenolic lignin model compound underwent C–C bond cleavage with high efficiency in a dye-sensitized photoelectrochemical cell. However, C–C and/or C–O bond cleavage did not occur, but benzylic alcohol oxidation from C_α–OH to C_α=O was observed in a nonphenolic lignin model compound.

This manuscript presents the use of TiO₂ NPs with surface-bound carboxylic acid-functionalized Ru^{II} polypyridyl com-

A. Previous studies: Catalytic C–C/C–O bond cleavage using iron catalyst at high temperature²⁴ and hydroquinone and Cu nanoparticles at room temperature.²⁵



B. This work: Chemoselective C–C/C–O bond cleavage in a non-phenolic compound with excellent selectivity at room temperature under the solar light illumination



- Excellent selectivity at room temperature
- No stoic. reagents and redox-neutral
- Facile cleavage reaction with the one-step process

Figure 1. (a) Examples of catalytic C_α–C_β/C_β–O bond cleavage strategies with a methoxy-derivatized nonphenolic lignin model compound.^{24,25} (b) Structures of the corresponding nonphenolic lignin model, 1-(3,4-dimethoxyphenyl)-2-(2-methoxyphenoxy)propane-1,3-diol (DMP-2ol), cleavage products **1** and **2**, and schematic illustrating the carboxylic acid-functionalized RuC-immobilized TiO₂ NPs and photocatalytic C_α–C_β/C_β–O cleavage reaction of DMP-2ol via a one-pot process under solar light illumination at room temperature.

plexes to perform solar-light-driven cleavage of C_α–C_β/C_β–O bonds in a nonphenolic lignin model compound as shown in Figure 1. Our current study is focused on the photocatalytic cleavage reaction with a nonphenolic lignin model, DMP-2ol. RuC was used with TiO₂ NPs because of (1) the proper redox potential with the conduction band of TiO₂, (2) a strong metal-to-ligand charge transfer (MLCT) transition in the visible region, and (3) the presence of anchoring moieties covalently immobilized to the surface of metal oxide.^{22,26–29} The RuC-anchored TiO₂ nanoparticles (RuC-TiO₂ NPs) used in this study are found to cleave the C_α–C_β/C_β–O σ-bonds in the β-aryl ether linkage in lignin materials. Two major products (**1** and **2**) were found after simulated solar illumination at room temperature, while no products were found for the unmodified TiO₂ NPs. This current study presents a facile method to cleave C_α–C_β/C_β–O σ-bonds in excellent yield without the need of mediators or stoichiometric oxidizing/reducing agents at room temperature.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To investigate the crystalline phase structure of the bare TiO₂ NPs and RuC-TiO₂ NPs, X-ray diffraction (XRD) characterizations were carried out at room temperature (Figure 2a). All of the crystalline structures of the TiO₂ NPs and RuC-TiO₂ NPs indicate the anatase TiO₂ phases with similar diffraction patterns according to JCPDS file 21-1272.³⁰ The XRD pattern of RuC-sensitized TiO₂ NPs did not exhibit additional diffraction peaks, indicating that the TiO₂ anatase nature was unchanged.²¹ Interestingly, the crystallite XRD sizes for bare TiO₂ NPs and RuC-TiO₂ NPs were 5.6 and 6.6 nm, respectively, which were obtained by applying the Debye–Scherrer equation of the (101) diffraction peak. The particle size and morphology of RuC-TiO₂ NPs were determined by

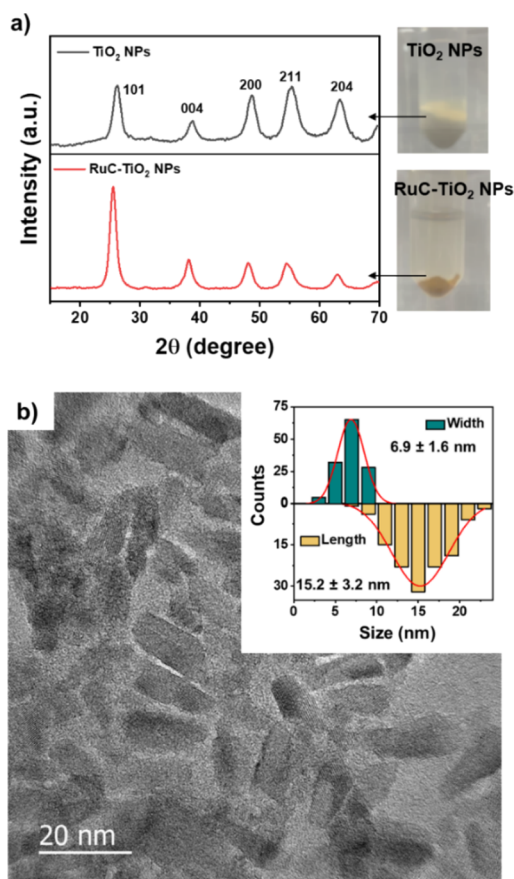


Figure 2. (a) Powder XRD diffraction patterns of (top) TiO_2 and (bottom) RuC-TiO_2 NPs. (b) TEM image of RuC-TiO_2 NPs. Scale bar = 20 nm. Inset: size distribution of RuC-TiO_2 NPs with the size of width and length.

TEM (Figure 2b). The RuC-TiO_2 NPs exhibit a nonuniform size distribution; the average size of approximately 6.9 nm width by 15.2 nm length is roughly similar to the average size of 6.6 nm width by 14.7 nm length of the bare TiO_2 NPs (Figure S1). Thus, the particle sizes of the TiO_2 NPs and RuC-TiO_2 NPs are not significantly different within the standard deviation.

Figure 3 shows the UV–Vis absorption and steady-state emission spectra of TiO_2 NPs and RuC-TiO_2 NPs in acetonitrile (ACN) solution. As shown in Figure 3a, the

UV–Vis absorption spectrum of RuC-TiO_2 NPs indicates a strong $d\pi(\text{Ru}) \rightarrow \pi^*(\text{bipyridine, bpy})$ MLCT absorption band at $\lambda_{\text{max}} \approx 453$ nm, which is consistent with the MLCT absorption band at $\lambda_{\text{max}} \approx 460$ nm from RuC in ACN in the visible region (Figure S2). This slight change is related to the formation of a surface complex between RuC and the colloidal TiO_2 NPs.³¹ Bare TiO_2 NPs display no obvious absorption in the visible range. In Figure 3b, the emission maxima of RuC and RuC-TiO_2 NPs in ACN exhibit intense photoluminescence at $\lambda_{\text{max}} \approx 642$ and 615 nm, respectively, from the MLCT excited state. The emission maximum from the RuC-TiO_2 NPs shows a 27 nm blueshift compared with the solvated RuC. From our earlier study, immobilization of RuC onto a TiO_2 nanorod film also showed a blueshift in emission.¹⁵ We assume that this spectral shift can be explained by the aggregation of RuC complexes on the surface of the TiO_2 NPs^{32,33} or intramolecular charge transfer emission from RuC^* .³⁴

To compare the band gap energy (E_g) of TiO_2 before and after the immobilization of RuC, Tauc plots of the bare TiO_2 NPs and the TiO_2 component extracted from the RuC-TiO_2 NP spectrum are shown in Figure 4. Tauc plots show an estimate of the E_g of TiO_2 .³⁵ Figure 4b shows the Tauc plot of the TiO_2 spectra obtained by subtracting the RuC component from the RuC-TiO_2 spectra. The E_g values of TiO_2 measured for the bare TiO_2 NPs and RuC-TiO_2 NPs are 3.85 and 3.94 eV, respectively. It is interesting to note that the E_g (3.85 eV) of TiO_2 NPs increased in comparison with anatase-phase TiO_2 (3.20 eV), indicating the small size of TiO_2 NPs due to the quantum confinement effect in nanomaterials.^{36,37} Thus, we conclude that the RuC coating onto the surface of the TiO_2 NPs does not affect the E_g of TiO_2 based on the Tauc plot data.

To understand the intramolecular energy/electron transfer from photoexcited RuC^* to TiO_2 NPs, emission quenching and lifetime measurements of RuC with or without unmodified TiO_2 NPs were performed in ACN solution under argon. Note that the RuC was not preassembled on the TiO_2 NP surface in these experiments; rather, the emission of dissolved RuC^* was monitored with increasing amounts of bare TiO_2 NPs added to solution. As shown in Figure 5a, emission from RuC^* was slightly quenched by unmodified TiO_2 NPs ranging from 0 to 17.9 nM of TiO_2 NPs with an increment of 0.02 mg of TiO_2 per 1 mL in ACN solution. The molar quantity of TiO_2 NPs in ACN solution can be calculated according to a previous study.³⁸ We assume that the TiO_2 NPs possess a spherical

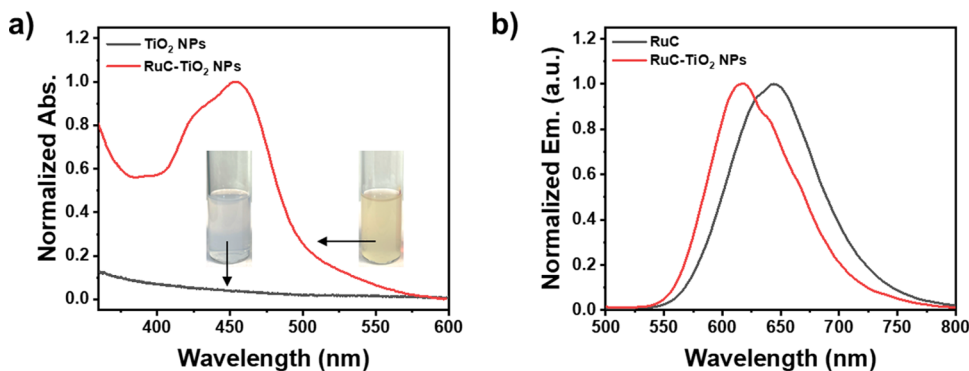


Figure 3. (a) Absorption spectra of colloidal TiO_2 NPs (black) and colloidal RuC-TiO_2 NPs (red) in ACN. The absorption spectrum of RuC-TiO_2 NPs in ACN was normalized to the λ_{max} value. Inset: pictures of colloidal TiO_2 NPs and RuC-TiO_2 NPs. (b) Emission spectra for RuC (black) and RuC-TiO_2 NPs (red) in ACN solution at room temperature upon photoexcitation at $\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 450$ nm.

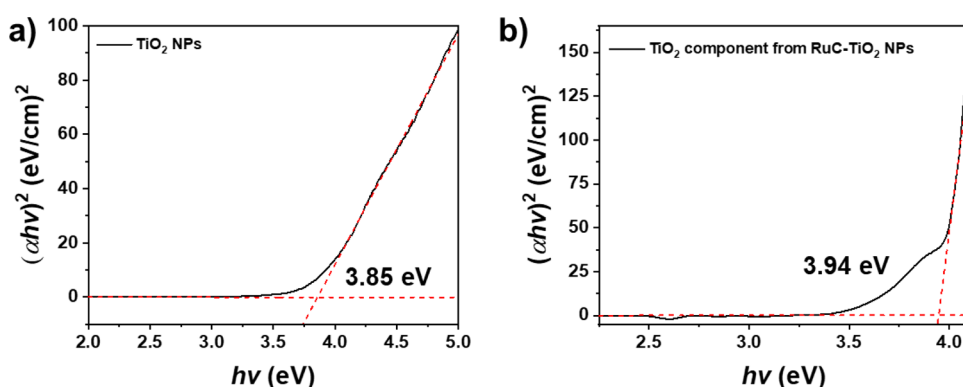


Figure 4. Tauc plots of (a) the bare TiO_2 NPs and (b) the TiO_2 component extracted from the RuC-TiO_2 NP spectrum. The estimated E_g values for bare TiO_2 NPs and RuC-TiO_2 NPs are shown by the x -axis intersection of the linear fit of the Tauc plots.

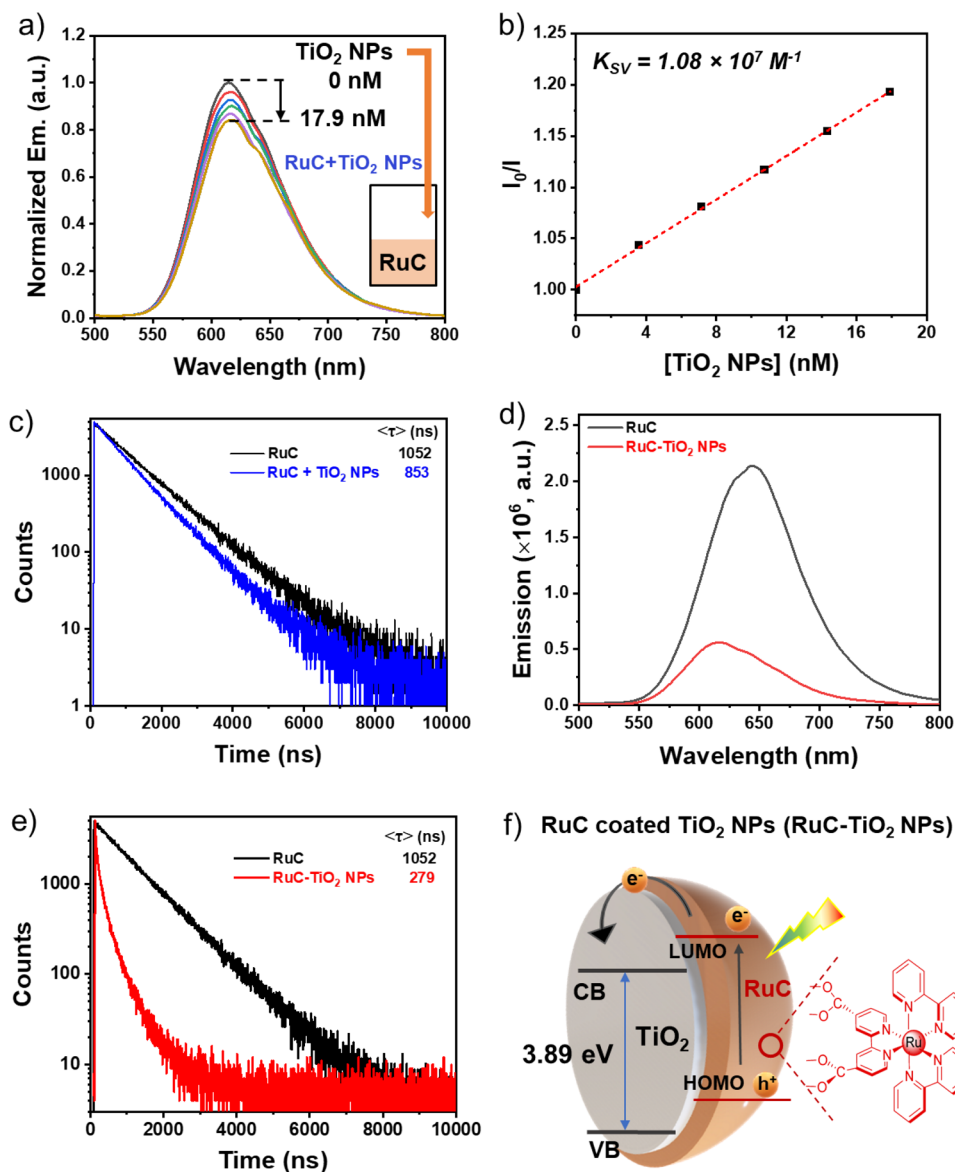
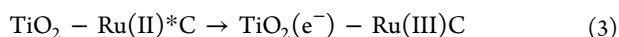
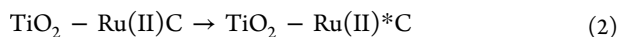


Figure 5. (a) Steady-state photoluminescence of RuC (0.014 mM) in the absence and presence of TiO_2 NPs in the concentration range of 0, 3.58 (0.02 mg/1 mL), 7.16 (0.04 mg/1 mL), 10.74 (0.06 mg/1 mL), 14.32 (0.08 mg/1 mL), and 17.9 (0.1 mg/1 mL) nM. (b) Stern–Volmer plots (I_0/I vs $[Q]$, Q : TiO_2 NPs) for emission quenching of RuC by monitoring the emission intensity at 615 nm ($\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 450$ nm). (c) Comparison of emission lifetimes of RuC and RuC with 17.9 nM TiO_2 NPs. (d) Steady-state photoluminescence of RuC and RuC-TiO_2 NPs in ACN. (e) Emission lifetimes of RuC and RuC-TiO_2 NPs. (f) Energy diagram indicating the photoexcitation of surface-bound RuC to the conduction band of TiO_2 and the following energy transfer between TiO_2 NPs and excited-state RuC^* (CB: conduction band, VB: valence band).

shape with a diagonal size of 16.1 nm calculated by the average size of width and length of TiO₂ NPs to determine the mass of the unit quantity of one particle. The molar concentration of the TiO₂ NPs can be calculated according to eq 1

$$c = \frac{N}{N_A V} \quad (1)$$

where c is the concentration, N_A is the Avogadro constant, N is the number of TiO₂ NPs in ACN solution, and V is the volume of the colloidal ACN solution. Figure 5b illustrates the Stern–Volmer plot of RuC with TiO₂ NP solution. The quenching constant value (K_{SV}) is approximately $1.08 \times 10^7 \text{ M}^{-1}$. Figure 5c shows that the average emission lifetimes for RuC* with and without the TiO₂ NPs were 1052 and 853 ns, respectively, in ACN solution at room temperature. The emission lifetime of RuC* in the presence of TiO₂ NPs decreased by approximately 19%, which is consistent with the above emission quenching experiments. The decrease in fluorescence emission and lifetimes can be attributed to electron and/or energy transfer processes.^{22,23,31} This observation suggests charge transfer from RuC* to the conduction band of TiO₂ NPs. To confirm the electron transfer from the surface-bound RuC to TiO₂, quenching and fluorescence lifetime measurements were performed with RuC–TiO₂ NPs in ACN; in this case, the RuC was pre-immobilized on the TiO₂ NP surface. Figure 5d shows that emission from surface-bound RuC* on TiO₂ was considerably more quenched. In Figure 5e, the average emission lifetime of RuC–TiO₂ NPs was 279 ns in ACN solution, which is consistent with the emission quenching observation. As shown in Figure 5f, under visible illumination, excitation to produce RuC* on TiO₂ NPs is followed by the excited electron injection to the conduction band of TiO₂. The electron transfer from the excited-state RuC* to the conduction band (CB) of TiO₂ is energetically favorable. Upon electron transfer, the generated hole is on RuC.



These observations present clear evidence for energy/electron transfer between photoexcited RuC* and TiO₂ NPs (eq 2), resulting in charge separation and the formation of RuC(III) and TiO₂ (e[−]) (eq 3). Thus, the RuC–TiO₂ NPs can facilitate light-induced charge separation, and the investigation next turned to assessing if the photoinduced electron–hole pairs could drive the photocatalytic cleavage of a lignin model compound under visible-light illumination.

The long-term photostability of RuC–TiO₂ NPs is critical to the use of this material for performing photocatalytic bond cleavage. Therefore, the long-term photostability of RuC–TiO₂ NPs was investigated in both aqueous and organic solvents. The RuC–TiO₂ NPs were dispersed in H₂O and ACN, and the colloidal RuC–TiO₂ NP solutions were irradiated under 2 sun illumination (200 mW·cm^{−2}) at room temperature over a period of 24 h. The RuC–TiO₂ NPs were then isolated by centrifugation, and the visible absorption spectrum of the supernatant solution was measured. As shown in Figure S3, the MLCT absorbance from RuC was observed in the H₂O supernatant solution, indicating desorption of RuC on TiO₂ due to hydrolysis of the Ti–O–C surface bonds between the anchoring moiety COOH and the TiO₂ surface.³⁹ In contrast, there were no apparent absorption features for RuC in the

ACN supernatant solution. Under irradiation for 24 h, this confirmed the stability of RuC–TiO₂ NPs in a polar aprotic solvent, ACN. ACN was then chosen as a solvent for investigating photolytic bond cleavage of the lignin substrate.

Based on the above experiments, RuC–TiO₂ NPs can serve as a photocatalyst for C_α–C_β/C_β–O σ-bond cleavage in β-O-4 lignin model compounds under visible-light illumination and mild conditions. Our prior work had focused on phenolic lignin model compounds for the C_{aryl}–C_α bond cleavage with the oxidizing mediator ACT because the presence of a phenoxy group on the lignin substrate was important for realizing C–C bond cleavage.¹⁸ This study is instead focused on investigating a nonphenolic lignin model compound, DMP-2ol, to obtain C_α–C_β/C_β–O σ-bond cleavage products at room temperature without the need of an additional mediator.

To carry out the photocatalytic conversion of DMP-2ol with RuC–TiO₂ NPs, DMP-2ol (4.13 mg, 0.0125 mmol) was dissolved in 5.0 mL of ACN with 8.8 mg/mL colloidal RuC–TiO₂ NP photocatalyst. The mixture was stirred continuously under 2 sun illumination (200 mW·cm^{−2}) at room temperature with the light passed through an AM 1.5G filter before the sample. Cleavage products 1 and 2 reaction were confirmed by ¹H and ¹³C NMR analyses after the 24 h reaction (Figure S4). In addition, gas chromatography–mass spectrometry (GC–MS) analysis results confirmed that the structures of the two cleavage products 1 and 2 are consistent with the NMR data (Figure S5). DMSO was used as an internal standard in the ¹H NMR to determine the percent yield of the cleavage products 3,4-dimethoxybenzaldehyde (or veratraldehyde (V), 1) and 2-methoxyphenol (or guaiacol (G'), 2). The photocatalytic reaction with DMP-2ol in the RuC–TiO₂ NPs solution afforded the cleavage products 1 (82%) and 2 (90%) (Figure 6a). The ¹H–¹³C heteronuclear single-quantum coherence (HSQC) NMR spectra clearly showed the consumption of DMP-2ol in the aliphatic region following a 24 h photocatalytic experiment (Figure 6b). The three major contours A_α (δ_C/δ_H 72.68/4.99), A_β (δ_C/δ_H 81.43/4.17), and A_γ (δ_C/δ_H 60.75/3.92, 3.67) of the starting DMP-2ol compound completely disappeared (Figure 6b, right). The disappearance of these three major peaks can be ascribed to C–O/C–C bond cleavage in DMP-2ol.^{2,15,16} Simultaneously, as shown in Figure 6c in the aromatic region of the HSQC NMR, new chemical shifts appear after the photocatalytic cleavage reaction indicated by V₂ (at δ_C/δ_H 108.90/7.42), V₅ (at δ_C/δ_H 110.39/6.99), and V₆ (at δ_C/δ_H 126.88/7.47) for product 1 and G'₁ (at δ_C/δ_H 120.08/6.86), G'₂ (at δ_C/δ_H 110.65/6.86), G'₅ (at δ_C/δ_H 114.48/6.93), and G'₆ (at δ_C/δ_H 121.36/6.87) for product 2. The HSQC NMR of product 1 shows a characteristic resonance for the aldehyde peak (δ_C/δ_H 190.9/9.87) (Figure 6c, right). These results indicate the formation of two major cleavage products. The HSQC NMR spectra were consistent with the above ¹H and ¹³C NMR and GC–MS data. To confirm the influence of each component, control experiments without the photosensitizer RuC, TiO₂ NPs, or AM1.5G light illumination were performed, and the results are shown in Figure 6a. No products were observed either without RuC, TiO₂ NPs, or AM1.5G light illumination. This indicates that there is not a significant contribution from direct excitation of the TiO₂ NPs under the illumination conditions used. The photoexcitation of RuC on the surface of TiO₂ NPs is the key to trigger the visible-light-induced photocatalytic cleavage reaction in DMP-2ol due to the shift of the absorption edge to the visible region. Additionally, another common lignin

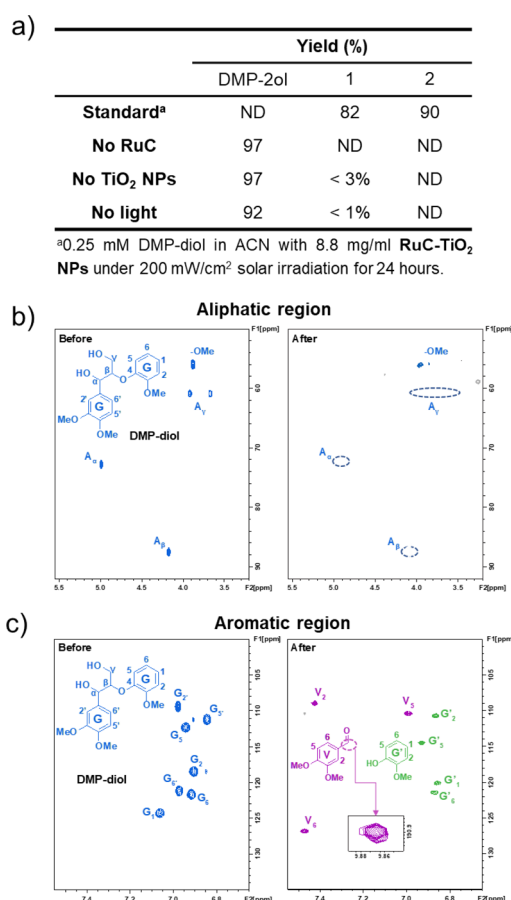


Figure 6. (a) Table of observed yields for cleavage products **1** and **2** over a 24 h reaction time with the indicated condition. ¹³C–¹H HSQC NMR spectra of DMP-2ol before and after photocatalytic reactions under standard conditions by using RuC-TiO₂ NPs in (b) aliphatic and (c) aromatic regions.

model compound, 2-phenoxy-1-phenylethanol (PP-ol), which does not contain a 1° alcohol moiety or methoxy benzyl units, was tested with RuC-TiO₂ NPs under the same photocatalytic reaction conditions used for DMP-2ol. No C–C/C–O bond cleavage in the β-O-4 aryl ether linkage occurred, and an approximately 6% formation of the ketone form 2-phenoxy-1-phenylethanone from the starting PP-ol was observed over a 24 h experiment (Figure S6). The presence of 1° alcohol moieties and methoxy benzyl units would appear essential to achieving the cleavage reaction in the β-O-4 aryl ether linkage under the mild conditions studied here.

A proposed reaction mechanism for visible-light-driven selective cleavage of C_α–C_β/C_β–O σ-bonds in a nonphenolic compound with RuC-TiO₂ NPs is shown in Figure 7. The photoexcited RuC(II)* formed on TiO₂ NPs under visible illumination drives charge separation by electron injection to TiO₂ NP. After electron transfer from 2 equiv RuC(III) to DMP-2ol, the oxidized intermediate **3** is formed from DMP-2ol. Then, reduction of **3** by TiO₂ (e[−]) or Ru(II)* generates a ketyl radical anion species⁴⁰ that undergoes C_β–O σ-bond cleavage to produce the cleavage intermediates **4** and **5**.⁴¹ Then, protonation and retroaldol C_α–C_β cleavage reaction affords fragmentation products **1** and **2**. It is noted that we were unable to observe the aldehyde in NMR. It could be possible that the acetaldehyde is removed during the evaporation process from the photocatalytic reaction mixture.

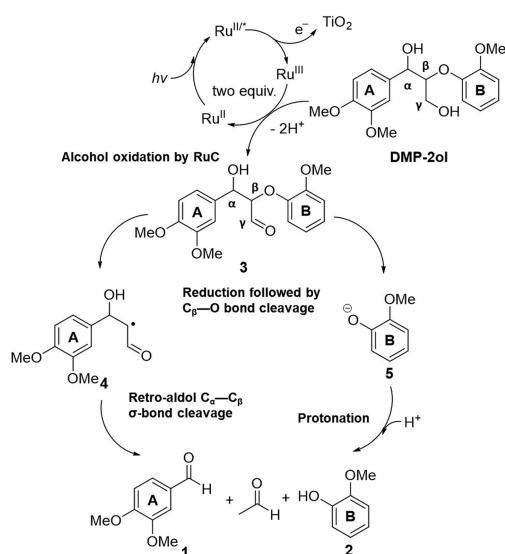


Figure 7. Proposed reaction mechanism for the chemoselective cleavage of C_α–C_β/C_β–O σ-bonds in a nonphenolic compound with RuC-TiO₂ NPs at room temperature.

The photostability and recyclability of the RuC-TiO₂ NPs are critical to the development of this photocatalytic method for solar-driven lignin valorization. The UV–Vis absorption of colloidal RuC-TiO₂ NPs solution in the presence of DMP-2ol was characterized both before and after the photocatalytic reactions. The MLCT absorption band from RuC in ACN was slightly reduced compared to the MLCT absorption band before the photocatalytic reaction (Figure 8a). We assume that proton sources from DMP-2ol could affect the hydrolysis of the Ti–O–C anchoring bonds between the moiety COOH and the TiO₂ surface. Figure 8b shows the recyclability of RuC-TiO₂ NPs by testing the conversion efficiency of the same sample over three consecutive experiments. The photocatalytic conversion efficiency for DMP-2ol to **1** and **2** over three independent reaction cycles was 90, 88, and 83%, respectively. A gradual loss in photocatalytic activity over the three cycles could arise from the hydrolysis of the interfacial RuC-TiO₂ NPs, leading to MLCT absorption loss. However, this system still maintained over 80% cleavage conversion of DMP-2ol over three cycles, indicating that the photocatalyst can be successfully recovered and recycled for further use without substantial loss in activity.

CONCLUSIONS

The RuC photocatalyst containing carboxylic acid-anchoring groups was successfully synthesized and immobilized on TiO₂ NPs. This RuC-TiO₂ NP system presents a facile method for achieving solar-light-driven cleavage of C_α–C_β/C_β–O σ-bonds in the β-O-4 aryl ether linkage of the DMP-2ol studied. Without the presence of additional oxidizing agents, the conversion of cleavage products was obtained in greater than 80% yield at room temperature. The photophysical properties of the RuC-TiO₂ NPs in the ACN solution were studied to better understand the photocatalytic process. The MLCT emission lifetime and quenching of RuC are influenced by the presence of TiO₂ NPs, indicating the intermolecular energy/electron transfer between the RuC and TiO₂ NPs. Furthermore, the optical band gap of the TiO₂ component from the RuC-TiO₂ NPs was similar to that of bare TiO₂ NPs.

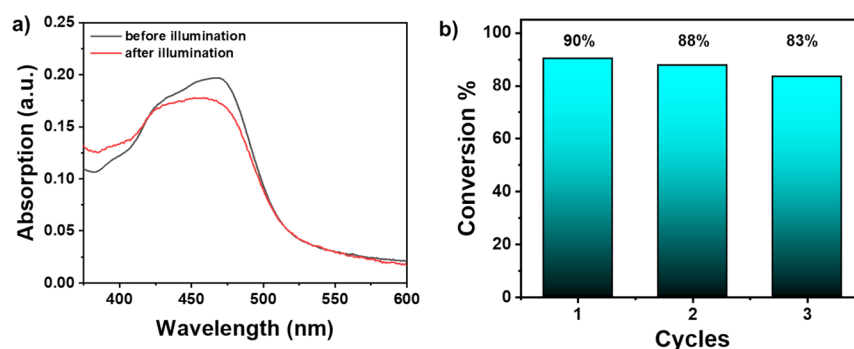


Figure 8. Photostability and recyclability of RuC-TiO₂ NPs with DMP-2ol for the solar-driven photocatalytic cleavage reaction at room temperature.

This indicates that the RuC complex did not influence the E_g of TiO₂ NPs. Based on intermolecular energy/electron transfer, the electron/hole pairs produced by photoexcited RuC-TiO₂ convert DMP-2ol to simple aromatic aldehyde (veratraldehyde) and phenolic (guaiacol) products with excellent yields. Further work with RuC-TiO₂ NPs will explore cleavage strategies in a wide range of lignin substrates and real lignin and attempt to elucidate the mechanistic path of the cleavage reaction at room temperature.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Reagents. *cis*-Bis(2,2'-bipyridine)ruthenium(II) dichloride dihydrate, bromoacetophenone, phenol, potassium carbonate, sodium borohydride, and titanium(IV) isopropoxide were obtained from Sigma Aldrich and used without further purification. 2-Phenoxy-1-phenylethanol (PP-ol) was synthesized according to a previous report.⁴² Bis(2,2'-bipyridine)(4,4'-dicarboxy-2,2'-bipyridine)Ru(II) (RuC) was synthesized as described previously.⁴³ 1-(3,4-Dimethoxyphenyl)-2-(2-methoxyphenoxy)propane-1,3-diol (DMP-2ol) was purchased from SY Innovation and used without further purification or modification. All the chemicals used for experiments were reagent-grade. An LSH-7320 ABA LED Solar Simulator purchased from ORIEL was used as the light source.

Preparation of TiO₂ NPs and RuC-TiO₂ NPs. *TiO₂ NPs.* TiO₂ NPs were synthesized according to a previous study.⁴⁴ Titanium(IV) isopropoxide (TIP) (20 g) was combined with isopropyl alcohol (IPA) (30 g), which was then mixed with tetrabutylammonium hydroxide (TBAOH) (4.6 g) combined with 76 mL of water. The TIP/IPA mixture was slowly added to the TBAOH/H₂O solution with vigorous stirring at room temperature. Subsequently, the mixed solution was boiled with continuous stirring for 2 h. The initially turbid, white colloidal suspension became a translucent and pale blue suspension. When the volume of the colloidal solution was reduced to 40 mL, an additional 40 mL of H₂O was added. The mixture was further heated until the volume was reduced to 45 mL of mixture solution. After the transparent colloidal TiO₂ suspension was cooled to room temperature, the mixture was transferred to a Teflon-lined autoclave, and the temperature was raised to 150 °C for 2.5 h. Then, the TiO₂ NPs were centrifuged out of the colloidal solution. The crude TiO₂ NPs were then washed with ethanol three times to remove the unreacted precursor. The TiO₂ NPs were dried in vacuo and stored in a sealed container at room temperature for further usage.

RuC-TiO₂ NPs. RuC was dissolved into acetonitrile (ACN) solvent (3 mg/mL) to prepare a stock solution. Then, TiO₂ NPs (1 mg/mL in acetonitrile) were mixed with the RuC solution (3 mg/mL in acetonitrile) in a 1:1 volume ratio and stirred for 24 h. The mixture was then centrifuged to obtain RuC-TiO₂ NPs. Purification by centrifugation and washing with methanol removed unbound RuC. The washing step was repeated three times to obtain the final RuC-TiO₂ NP construct. The obtained RuC-TiO₂ NPs were then dried in vacuo and stored at room temperature.

Photocatalytic Oxidative Cleavage of DMP-2ol. DMP-2ol (4.13 mg, 0.0125 mmol) was mixed with RuC-TiO₂ NPs (8.8 mg/mL) in acetonitrile solution followed by sonication with the mixture. Then, the solution was illuminated with 2 sun (200 mW·cm⁻²) light passed through an AM1.5G filter for 24 h. The photocatalyst RuC-TiO₂ NPs were removed by centrifugation, and the supernatant was dried in vacuo for further characterizations.

Characterization Methods and Instrumentations. The reaction mixture was positioned to receive 200 mW·cm⁻² for the solar simulation as determined by a S415C thermal power sensor head using a THORLABS PM400 optical power meter. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM, JEOL JEM-2100F) was operated at 200 kV. Powder X-ray diffraction of the nanoparticles was performed on a Bruker D2 Phaser with a LYKXEYE one-dimensional silicon strip detector using Cu K_α radiation ($\lambda = 1.5406$ Å).

UV-visible absorption spectra were obtained by using a Thermo Scientific Evolution 220 UV-Vis spectrometer. Emission spectra and fluorescence lifetime measurements were carried out using an Edinburgh FLS 980 steady-state and time-resolved emission spectrometer. The average emission lifetimes obtained from time-resolved photoluminescence measurements were calculated using the following equation

$$\langle \tau \rangle = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^2 \alpha_i \tau_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^2 \alpha_i \tau_i}$$

where $\langle \tau \rangle$ is experimentally detected PL decay, α_i is the fractional amplitude of component i , and τ_i is the lifetime of component i .

The products were characterized by ¹H NMR and ¹³C-NMR and Thermo Polaris Q Ion Trap Gas Chromatography/Mass Spectrometer (GC-MS). ¹H-¹³C heteronuclear single-quantum coherence (HSQC) NMR was used for the structural analysis of lignin model compounds before and after the photocatalytic reaction. The analysis was conducted using a Bruker AVANCE III HD 800 MHz equipped with a TCI Cryo probe. The acquisition parameters were as follows: 12 ppm spectral width in F2 (¹H) dimension with 1024 data points and 200 ppm spectral width in F1 (¹³C) dimension with 512 data points, a 1.2 s pulse delay, and 32 scans. The ¹H-¹³C HSQC experiment was conducted with a standard Bruker HSQC pulse sequence (hsqcetgpsis2), and the volume integration of contours in HSQC spectra was performed using Bruker TopSpin 4.0.6 software.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsanm.1c03622>.

(Figures S1–S6) TEM image and size distribution of TiO₂ NPs; UV-Vis absorption spectrum of RuC; illustration of RuC-TiO₂ NPs in H₂O and ACN; NMR spectra and GC-MS of products 1 and 2; ¹H NMR of PP-ol (PDF)

■ AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

Gyu Leem – Department of Chemistry, State University of New York College of Environmental Science and Forestry, Syracuse, New York 13210, United States; The Michael M. Swarc Polymer Research Institute, Syracuse, New York 13210, United States; orcid.org/0000-0003-0169-1096; Email: gyleem@esf.edu

Authors

Shuya Li – Department of Chemistry, State University of New York College of Environmental Science and Forestry, Syracuse, New York 13210, United States

Udani K. Wijethunga – Department of Chemistry, State University of New York College of Environmental Science and Forestry, Syracuse, New York 13210, United States

Andrew H. Davis – Department of Chemistry, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York 13244, United States

Saerona Kim – Department of Chemistry, State University of New York College of Environmental Science and Forestry, Syracuse, New York 13210, United States

Weiwei Zheng – Department of Chemistry, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York 13244, United States;

orcid.org/0000-0003-1394-1806

Benjamin D. Sherman – Department of Chemistry & Biochemistry, Texas Christian University, Fort Worth, Texas 76129, United States; orcid.org/0000-0001-9571-5065

Chang Geun Yoo – Department of Chemical Engineering, State University of New York College of Environmental Science and Forestry, Syracuse, New York 13210, United States; The Michael M. Swarc Polymer Research Institute, Syracuse, New York 13210, United States; orcid.org/0000-0002-6179-2414

Complete contact information is available at: <https://pubs.acs.org/10.1021/acsanm.1c03622>

Author Contributions

#S.L. and U.K.W. contributed equally to this work.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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