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Mechanistic Evidence for Ligand-Centered Electrocatalytic Oxygen Reduction with the Conductive MOF Ni₃(hexaiminotriphenylene)₂

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ABSTRACT: Establishing catalytic structure-function relationships introduces the ability to optimize the catalyst structure for enhanced activity, selectivity, and durability against reaction conditions and prolonged catalysis. Here we present experimental and computational data elucidating the mechanism for the $O₂$ reduction reaction on a conductive nickelbased metal-organic framework (MOF). Elucidation of the $O₂$ reduction electrokinetics, understanding the role of the extended MOF structure in providing catalytic activity, observation of how the redox activity and pK_a of the organic ligand influences catalysis, and identification of the catalyst active site yields a detailed $O₂$ reduction mechanism where the ligand, rather than the metal plays a central role. More generally, familiarization with how the structural and electronic properties of the MOF contribute reactivity may provide deeper insight into the mechanisms by which less structurally defined non-platinum group metal electrocatalysts reduce O_2 . **Keywords:** O₂ reduction, electrocatalysis, metal-organic framework

Introduction

 Understanding catalytic kinetics and thermodynamics to construct a reasonable reaction mechanism is central for both elucidating the behavior of a given catalyst and gaining predictive power over structure-function relationships. This predictive power aids in efficiently optimizing catalyst performance by systematically tuning the structural and electronic properties of the catalyst. One class of materials that could benefit from mechanism-guided optimization is non-platinum group metal (non-PGM) electrocatalysts for the $O₂$ reduction reaction (ORR) to water (4e[−] reduction) and / or hydrogen peroxide (2e[−] reduction). Such catalysts typically include abundant transition metals and / or heteroatoms such as N, O, and S doped into a carbonaceous matrix. $1-6$ Although quite active and stable during ORR, previously reported non-PGM catalysts often consist of amorphous carbon mechanically blended with transition metal macrocycles or other metal and main group heteroatomic sources. These relatively poorly defined materials do not lend themselves to facile mechanistic studies; the inhomogeneous dispersion and irregular orientation of the dopants throughout the carbon matrix engenders structural ambiguity that makes identification, experimental probing, and computational modeling of active sites difficult.

 Conversely, highly ordered metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) containing well-defined, spatially isolated active sites present an attractive platform for experimental and computational correlation between the chemical and electronic structure of a given catalyst and the electrocat-

alytic activity and mechanism, a feat that is traditionally restricted to homogeneous molecular systems. We previously showed that the electrically conductive MOF $Ni₃(HITP)₂$ (HITP = 2,3,6,7,10,11-hexaiminotriphenylene) (Figure 1) functions as an active ORR electrocatalyst stable in alkaline medium.⁷ The activity of $Ni₃(HITP)₂$ compares well with those of the most active non-PGM electrocatalysts,^{1–6} with an ORR onset potential (j = -50 µA·cm−2) of 0.82 V versus RHE.

Figure 1. $Ni₃(HITP)₂$ structure. Ni, N, and C atoms are shown in yellow, blue, and gray, respectively. H atoms are omitted for clarity.

Unlike other non-PGM catalysts, $Ni₃(HITP)₂$ presents a well-defined structure and thus the opportunity to determine whether the ORR activity is associated with the organic building blocks or the metal ions. These results could have implications for understanding the wider class of non-PGM catalysts, whose mechanism for ORR activity remains the subject of numerous studies.

 Here, we present experimental and computational evidence for a ligand-based active site in $Ni₂(HITP)$,. Our data show no evidence for Ni involvement in the catalytic cycle, but suggest important consequences for changing the electronic structure of the ligand. Establishment of precise structure-function relationships in this material introduces the possibility for tuning the structure with atomic precision such that catalytic ORR activity, selectivity, and stability can be maximized.

Results and Discussion

Having previously shown that $Ni₃(HITP)₂$ reduces $O₂$ electrocatalytically in strongly basic medium (0.1 M KOH), we explored its utility over the wider aqueous pH range and found that the material is competent for ORR catalysis under all alkaline conditions (pH 8 and above), but not in acidic medium. Indeed, cyclic voltammograms (CVs) of $Ni₃(HITP)₂$ above pH 8 showed catalytic waves with no loss in current density over 20 cycles, whereas catalytic current decreased with every cycle in acidic media (Figure 2).
1.0 T

Figure 2. Cyclic voltammograms of $Ni₂(HITP)$, under $O₂$ atmosphere in pH 13, pH 8, and pH 4. Potentials are referenced versus RHE.

To derive a kinetic rate law for ORR with $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$, we sought to determine the reaction order in $[O_2]$, $[H^+]$, and the number of electrons transferred prior to or during the rate limiting step. The reaction order in $[O_2]$ was measured at varying potentials as well as varying concentrations of O_2 . At pH 13, in the potential range of 0.667 V to 0.787 V versus RHE, O_2 reduction exhibits an $[O_2]$ order of 0.78-0.88, nearing first order (Figure S1a) At pH 8, in the potential range of 0.320 V to 0.520 V vs RHE, $O₂$ reduction is also first order in $[O_2]$ (Figure S1b).

 To determine the number of electrons involved in the rate law, we collected potentiostatic data under $O₂$ atmosphere on a rotating disk electrode at varying rotation speeds (Figure S2), which allowed us to determine activation-controlled Tafel slopes. The Tafel slopes are nearly identical at pH 13 and pH 8, -128 mV·dec⁻¹ and -124 mV·dec−1 (Figure 3), respectively, and are close to −118 mV⋅dec⁻¹, the value expected for an irreversible 1e⁻ transfer in the rate-limiting step.⁸ The linear Tafel slopes and consistent first order with respect to $[O_2]$ over the activation-controlled ORR potential range suggests that the kinetic rate law does not change over the probed potential range.

Figure 3. Tafel plots for ORR on $Ni₃(HITP)₂$ in pH 13 versus pH 8 electrolyte.

To establish whether the 1e[−] transfer step is coupled to proton transfer, galvanostatic [H⁺] order data was collected while titrating the alkaline electrolyte from pH 13.0 to pH 9.5 and passing a cathodic current of 10 µA in the presence of $O₂$. These conditions evidenced a sub-Nernstian δE/δpH relationship of -22 mV·dec⁻¹, corresponding to a fractional order of $[H^+]^{1/6}$. This low fractional order implies that there are no proton-coupled electron transfer (PCET) steps prior to or in the rate-limiting step. Although intriguing, a sub-Nernstian order in a given reactant is not unprecedented, $9-11$ and can be associated with experimental conditions deviating from the ideal standards employed in electrokinetic derivations or from competing reaction kinetics, for instance. Notwithstanding, the fractional order in $[H^+]$ observed here is not caused by extraneous factors such as uncompensated Ohmic losses caused by ionic strength differences in the electrolyte: titrating towards acidic or towards basic pH values produced similar data under both O_2 and N_2 atmosphere (Figures 4 and S3). Another potential source of the fractional [H⁺] order is the variation of electrical conductivity of the catalyst with pH, which would lead to different apparent current density as a function of pH at a fixed potential. However, the electrical conductivity of $Ni₃(HITP)₂$ films grown onto interdigitated electrodes decreased with decreasing pH, a trend opposite to what would be expected if the conductivity had any effect on the kinetic rate law (Figure S4, Supplementary Note 1).

Figure 4. Dependence of ORR onset potential on pH, with acid and base titrant to show reversibility of the ORR potential dependence on pH.

Altogether, the data above points to the following empirical rate law:

$$
j = k_0 [O_2][H^+]^{1/6} e^{\alpha E F/RT}
$$

where j is the measured steady state current density, k_0 is a potential-independent rate constant, *E* is the applied potential, *α* is the experimental transfer coefficient for the reaction (here, approximated as 0.5), 8,12 *F* is Faraday's constant, *R* is the gas constant, and *T* is the absolute temperature.

The first order in $[O_2]$, partial order in $[H^+]$, and 1e⁻ transfer in the rate-limiting step point to $O₂$ binding to the catalyst as the rate-limiting step, with formation of superoxide. To identify the specific site for $O₂$ activation in our catalyst, we subjected films of $Ni₃(HITP)₂$ grown on indium-tin-oxide (ITO)-coated polyethylene terephthalate (PET) to in-situ investigation by X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) at the Ni K-edge. Potentiostatic ORR experiments on the $Ni₃(HITP)₂$ films evidenced no shift in the Ni K-edge in the X-ray absorption near-edge spectroscopic (XANES) region (Figure 5a). Additionally, the rising edge energy (8343.7 eV, measured at the half-height of the absorption edge) was close to that of a standard Ni(II) complex, nickel(II) phthalocyanine (8344.1 eV). This confirmed that Ni remains in the +2 oxidation state throughout catalysis. Furthermore, R-space extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) spectra of $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ before and during ORR indicated no significant change in the coordination environment or nearest neighbor distances with respect to the Ni atoms (Figure 5b). EXAFS spectra both before and during catalysis yielded similar best fit parameters giving identical Ni-N bond distances of 1.84 Å (Table S₃), consistent with square-planar divalent Ni atoms.¹³

The kinetic and XAS data suggest that $O₂$ *binding and activation in Ni₃(HITP)₂ do not occur on Ni, but on the ligand*. To determine which of the ligand atoms present the most favorable binding site for $O₂$, we employed density functional theory (DFT) calculations. $14,15$

Figure 5. a) XANES spectrum of $Ni₃(HITP)₂$ before versus during ORR in pH 13 along with that of Ni(II) phthalocyanine; **b**) Fourier Transforms of k^2 -weighted Ni K-edge EXAFS data of as-prepared $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ and under ORR conditions.

Specifically, we considered a neutral fragment consisting of a central $HITP³$ ligand bound to three Ni atoms and terminated with *o-*diiminobenzosemiquinonate ligands (Figure 6a, Supplementary Note 2). To identify the most likely active site for catalysis, we considered specific sites where $O₂$ would most readily bind: the Ni atom, the imine N atoms, or one of the three unique C atoms. The calculations indicated that chemical binding of $O₂$ to the Ni center had an uphill free energy of 1.4 eV, and no energy minimum was found for binding $O₂$ to a nitrogen atom, which together pointed to a carbon-based active site. Of the three unique C atoms, the optimal binding site was calculated to be the β-C relative to the imine group, as shown in Figure 6b. Although the binding energy of $O₂$ to this C in the absence of electron transfer was found to be uphill by 1.1 eV, no minimum was found for the remaining two distinct C sites, which are therefore unfavorable for $O₂$ binding. The potential for this β-C to serve as an O_2 binding site was further supported by Mulliken charge population analysis. ¹⁶ Whereas all other atoms had Mulliken populations of close to zero, the β-C was found to have a Mulliken population of −1.01 **(**Figure S5). This larger population indicates a likely site for reactivity, as charge localization can point to the easiest location for breaking aromaticity. Importantly, the orientation of the C-bound $O₂$ with respect to the NH group of the HITP ligand raises the possibility of a stabilizing hydrogen bonding interaction between the distal O atom and the imine proton, which indeed were found to lie 1.98 Å apart.

Figure 6. a) Model fragment of $Ni₃(HITP)₂$; **b**) Calculated binding site of O_2 onto the Ni₃(HITP)₂ fragment. C, H, N, Ni, and O atoms shown in gray, white, blue, yellow, and red, respectively.

Given that the thermodynamic barrier for $O₂$ binding to the optimal carbon site was still higher than would be expected given the observed catalytic activity, we investigated the possibility of electron transfer accompanying $O₂$ binding. Indeed, binding of O_2 to the Ni₃(HITP)₂ fragment in concert with a 1e $⁻$ transfer to $O₂$ to form superoxide was</sup> found to be endergonic by only 0.1 eV in the absence of an applied potential. Notably, the barrier for electrochemical binding of $O₂$ to the Ni sites was found to be considerably higher, at 0.6 eV. The barrier for electrochemical binding of O₂ onto the β -C is not prohibitive for O₂ binding and is consistent with the experimental observation of first order $[O_2]$ dependence as well as a Tafel slope of approximately −118 mV⋅dec^{-1.8} In agreement with rate-limiting superoxide formation, subsequent protonation of superoxide was calculated to be exergonic by 0.3 eV. Lastly, our calculations indicate that transfer of a second electron to break the oxygen-catalyst bond and release H_2O^- is favorable by 1.2 eV (Figure 7, Table S4). Although Ni serving as an O₂ binding site here is unlikely, the spin density plot of the MOF model fragment shows that electrochemical binding of $O₂$ breaks the spin symmetry, with excess spin distributed across both the metal and ligand (Figure S6). Thus, the Ni sites do not directly participate in $O₂$ reactivity, but they do contribute to the electronic structure of the ORR-active species.

 To obtain a more comprehensive picture of the full catalytic mechanism, potential sources of the fractional order in [H⁺] were further investigated. The earlier discussion on this subject notwithstanding, a plausible explanation for the partial proton order is that the absolute rate of the rate-limiting step – here, formation of MOF-bound superoxide – is only marginally slower than a subsequent proton-dependent non-rate-limiting step.¹² Such a scenario would be consistent with a pH-dependent electron transfer from $Ni₃(HITP)₂$ to superoxide. To probe this hypothesis, we investigated the CV signature of the catalyst under pure $N₂$ as a function of pH. As shown in Figure S7, the oxidation potentials of $Ni₃(HITP)₂$ are indeed pHdependent, indicating that changing the oxidation state of $Ni₃(HITP)₂$ is a PCET process. More specifically, as the pH decreases, the oxidation potentials of Ni₃(HITP)₂ shift

Figure 7. The free energy (eV) of each intermediate in the $2e^-$ ORR catalytic cycle with Ni₃(HITP)₂. The lower states (black) show the energetics at open circuit potential, whereas the upper states (red) show the free energy of each state with 0.69 V versus RHE applied potential such that the production of HO_2^- is thermodynamically reversible.

more positively with a δEredox/δpH slope of 90-120 mV⋅dec⁻¹ (Figure S8), as expected for a 2H⁺-1e⁻ coupled transfer.¹⁷ This Nernstian dependence of the MOF oxidation potentials on pH supports the hypothesis that the second (i.e. the non-rate-limiting) electron transfer step is associated with proton transfer and therefore is likely responsible for the fractional [H⁺] order during ORR. Similar pH-dependent redox activity was reported in a nitrogen-doped graphitic carbon ORR catalyst.⁹

 With the discussed experimental and computational data in hand, the following mechanism for the 2e[−] reduction of O_2 on $Ni_3(HITP)_2$ emerges (Scheme 1):

I. Rate-limiting electron transfer and binding of $O₂$ to the β-C with respect to the ligand imine to form the superoxide adduct

II. Protonation of bound O_2^- by water to form a hydroperoxide

III. Electron transfer to the hydroperoxide and desorption of HO_2^-

IV. Regeneration of the catalyst resting state

Scheme 1. Proposed mechanism for $2e^- O_2$ electroreduction with Ni₃(HITP)₂.

 This proposed mechanism is consistent with our experimental data and the computational studies, but it does not address whether the highly delocalized frontier orbitals of $Ni₃(HITP)₂$ are necessary for catalysis or whether a smaller fragment of this material is sufficient for competent catalysis experimentally. To investigate the possibility of a small-molecule mimic of $Ni₃(HITP)₂$ acting as a competent ORR catalyst, we focused on the wellknown molecular complex $Ni(ISO)_2$ (ISQ = 0diiminobenzosemiquinonate, Figure 8).¹⁸⁻²⁵ Importantly,

Figure 8. Structure of Ni(ISQ)₂

under conditions mimicking those employed for Ni₃(HITP)₂, Ni(ISQ)₂ showed no ORR activity (Figure S9). Density functional theory (DFT) provided insight into the dramatic difference in catalytic activity between the MOF and the molecular complex (Figure S10). Specifically, whereas $O₂$ binding and electron transfer to the MOF is endergonic by only 0.1 eV (see above), calculations suggest that the formation of the superoxide complex with $Ni(ISO)_2$ is endergonic by 0.7 eV at pH 13. Although in line with the experimental observation that the molecular complex is not a good ORR catalyst, this difference is surprisingly large and highlights the importance of having a delocalized valence band in the MOF. Indeed, representations of the highest occupied molecular orbitals for $Ni(ISO)_2$ and the more extended $Ni₃(HITP)₂$ model system described earlier show significant redistribution of the π electron density in Ni(ISQ)₂, but very little disruption of the π system in Ni₃(HITP)₂ (Figure S₁₁). In other words, the MOF is able to accommodate the key superoxide

complex without significant disruption of its electronic structure, only by virtue of its extended covalent lattice. Thus, even though the metal itself does not play a significant role in ORR catalysis, the conductivity and electron delocalization in the MOF is essential for catalysis.

Conclusion

 Electrochemical and spectroscopic techniques supported by computational evidence revealed the that active site for catalytic O_2 reduction on $Ni_3(HITP)_2$, an electrically conductive MOF, is not metal-based, as proposed for many transition metal macrocycles, but rather ligandbased. The highly ordered MOF structure and welldefined active sites have enabled precise correlation of the structure and electronic structure of the catalyst with the ORR activity and mechanism, including the identification of a partial proton order related to the pH dependence of the MOF oxidation potentials. This comprehensive model for $O₂$ binding thermodynamics, electrokinetics, and detailed mechanism of ORR on $\mathrm{Ni}_{3}(\mathrm{HITP})_{2}$ should enable catalyst design in other conductive MOF systems. Most importantly, these studies show that electron delocalization is critical for accessing key intermediates that become energetically prohibitive for molecular systems bearing only structural resemblance to the MOFs.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information. Potentiostatic ORR order in [O₂] with corresponding slopes. Koutecky-Levich data at pH 8. Current versus pH data under N_2 . Dependence of electrical conductivity on pH. Mulliken charge population analysis of the $\text{Ni}_3(\text{HITP})_2$ model fragment before versus after electrochemical $O₂$ binding. Excess spin density plot of superoxide bound-Ni₃(HITP)₂ model fragment. Dependence of MOF redox potentials on pH. Pourbaix diagram of $Ni₃(HITP)₂$. CV of $Ni(ISO)_2$ under N_2 and O_2 . Calculated structures for $Ni(ISO)_2$ and a representative $Ni₃(HITP)₂$ fragment. Calculated HOMOs for Ni(ISQ)₂ and Ni₃(HITP)₂ fragment with and without bound superoxide. Best fit parameters for Ni K-edge EXAFS curve fitting. Calculated thermodynamic data for ORR with the $Ni₃(HITP)₂$ fragment and $Ni(ISO)₂$. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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