

Calix[4]arene-Functionalized Titanium-Oxo Compounds for Perceiving Differences in Catalytic Reactivity Between Mono- and Multimetallic Sites

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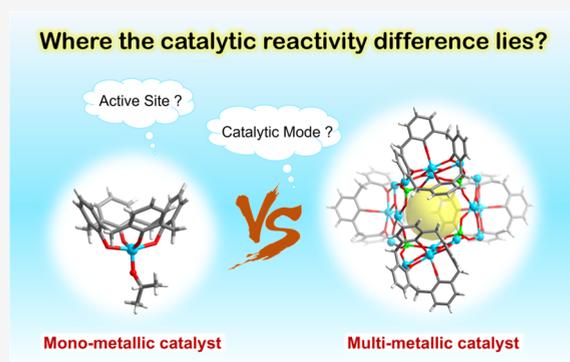
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ABSTRACT: While the difference in catalytic reactivity between mono- and multimetallic sites is often attributed to more than just the number of active sites, still few catalyst model systems have been developed to explore more underlying causal factors. In this work, we have elaborately designed and constructed three stable calix[4]arene (C4A)-functionalized titanium-oxo compounds, Ti-C4A, Ti₄-C4A, and Ti₁₆-C4A, with well-defined crystal structures, increasing nuclearity, and tunable light absorption capacity and energy levels. Among them, Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A can be taken as model catalysts to compare the differences in reactivity between mono- and multimetallic sites. Taking CO₂ photo-reduction as the basic catalytic reaction, both compounds can achieve CO₂-to-HCOO⁻ conversion with high selectivity (close to 100%). Moreover, the catalytic activity of multimetallic Ti₁₆-C4A is up to 2265.5 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹, which is at least 12 times higher than that of monometallic Ti-C4A (180.0 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹), and is the best-performing crystalline cluster-based photocatalyst known to date. Catalytic characterization combined with density functional theory calculations shows that in addition to the advantage of having more metal active sites (for adsorption and activation of more CO₂ molecules), Ti₁₆-C4A can effectively reduce the activation energy required for the CO₂ reduction reaction by completing the multiple electron–proton transfer process rapidly with synergistic metal–ligand catalysis, thus exhibiting superior catalytic performance to that of monometallic Ti-C4A. This work provides a crystalline catalyst model system to explore the potential factors underlying the difference in catalytic reactivity between mono- and multimetallic sites.



INTRODUCTION

In the past few decades, titanium dioxide (TiO₂) has evolved as a star photocatalyst for many photocatalytic applications owing to its inherent semiconductor characteristic and unique advantages, such as low cost, easy preparation, and non-toxicity.^{1–4} But at the same time, the structural changes of crystal TiO₂ (single phase) generally only appear in three allotropes (rutile, anatase, and brookite),⁵ leading to many limitations for their structural regulation and application of some specific photocatalytic reactions. Beyond that, the intrinsic ultraviolet photosensitivity of TiO₂ also seriously weakens the utilization efficiency of sunlight in photocatalytic reactions. Recently, titanium-oxo compounds (TOCs) with similar compositions to TiO₂ have developed rapidly.^{6–13} Compared with TiO₂, TOCs have more diverse structures, and their intrinsic properties, such as stability, semiconductor-like behaviors, energy levels, and light absorption capacity, can be effectively regulated through modification with different functionalized organic ligands.^{11,14–18} In particular, as an aggregate containing multiple metal ions, TOCs can create multiple active metal sites via rationally regulating the

coordination environment of metal ions,^{19–22} thus providing more opportunities for the catalytic activity improvement and application of photocatalytic reactions.

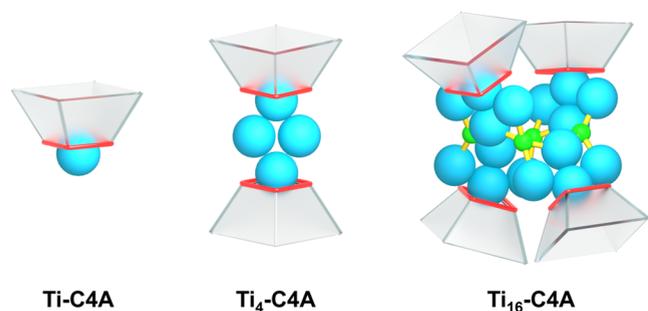
Photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ into reusable chemicals represents one of the most promising technologies to achieve carbon neutrality.^{23–30} As one of the pioneer photocatalysts, TiO₂ was first discovered to achieve heterogeneous reduction of CO₂ into organic compounds such as formic acid, methane, formaldehyde, and methyl alcohol in water in 1979 but had relatively low yield and selectivity.³ Since then, a lot of research studies have been devoted to regulate the structures, compositions, energy levels, and light absorption capacity of TiO₂ to improve its photocatalytic performance.^{31–40} In this

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respect, TOCs obviously can easily achieve these regulations according to their unique advantages.^{41–43} Nevertheless, currently reported TOCs capable of performing photocatalytic CO₂ reduction reactions (CO₂RRs) are still very limited. Particularly, TOCs that can perform the heterogeneous photocatalytic CO₂RR in water are extremely rare, mainly because most TOCs are soluble or lack sufficient strong bonding interactions to maintain their structural stability in water. To date, to the best of our knowledge, only our recently reported two calix[8]arene (C8A)-modified low-nuclearity TOCs (Ti₄-C8A and Ti₇-C8A) have been competent for heterogeneous photocatalytic CO₂RR in water.²¹ These two TOCs maintain high stability in water and under photocatalytic reaction conditions, since the C8A molecule contains multiple hydrophobic phenyl groups and phenolate chelated sites. However, the high molecular freedom and multidirectional chelating modes of the C8A molecule make these two TOCs have less available metal active sites, leading to low photocatalytic performance.

Herein, we utilized calix[4]arene (C4A) as a functional ligand, which also contains multiple hydrophobic phenyl groups and phenolate chelated sites but has less molecular freedom, to construct three stable TOCs, [Ti(C4A)(OⁱPr)]·HTETN (Ti-C4A, HOⁱPr = isopropanol, TETN = triethylamine), [Ti₄O₂(C4A)₂(OⁱPr)₄(DMF)₂] (Ti₄-C4A, DMF = *N,N*-dimethylformamide), and [Ti₁₆O₈(C4A)₄(PO₄)₄(OⁱPr)₂₀(HOⁱPr)(H₂O)]·H₂O (Ti₁₆-C4A), with increasing nuclearity and tunable light-harvesting ability (Scheme 1). Taking photocatalytic CO₂RR as the basic

Scheme 1. Illustration of the Structures of H₄C4A Ligand-Modified Mononuclear (Ti-C4A), Tetranuclear (Ti₄-C4A), and 16-Nuclear (Ti₁₆-C4A) TOCs



catalytic reaction, Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A demonstrated appropriate energy levels for the requirement of thermodynamic electrode potential of photoreducing CO₂ to the HCOOH product, in which Ti₁₆-C4A possesses more available metal active sites. The photocatalytic characterization results reveal that both Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A exhibit high catalytic activity (145.2–2265.5 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) and selectivity (close to 100%) of CO₂-to-HCOO⁻ conversion under ultraviolet and visible light irradiation. Compared with monometallic active Ti-C4A, multimetallic active Ti₁₆-C4A achieved superior photocatalytic performance. In detail, the photocatalytic activity of Ti₁₆-C4A reaches 2265.5 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹, which is about 12.6 times higher than that of Ti-C4A (180.0 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) and 8.9 and 4.6 times higher than those of our previously reported Ti₄-C8A (253.9 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) and Ti₇-C8A (488.4 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹), respectively, under analogous photocatalytic conditions.²¹ Notably, Ti₁₆-C4A with multimetallic active sites represents the best catalyst for photocatalytic CO₂-to-HCOO⁻

reduction among crystalline cluster-based photocatalysts. Density functional theory (DFT) calculation results reveal that multimetallic Ti₁₆-C4A can not only adsorb and activate more CO₂ molecules than monometallic Ti-C4A but also use a synergistic metal–ligand catalytic effect to transfer electrons and protons more rapidly and then to lower the reaction activation energy, thus completing the CO₂ reduction process more effectively. More importantly, Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A in this work can constitute a crystalline model system to clearly indicate the reactivity advantages of multimetallic catalysts over monometallic catalysts and to explore the related underlying inducements.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Brown-yellow crystals of Ti-C4A and Ti₄-C4A and yellow crystals of Ti₁₆-C4A were synthesized by the solvothermal reaction of titanium (IV) isopropoxide and the C4A ligand in different mixture solvents (Figure S1). Single-crystal X-ray diffraction analysis reveals that Ti-C4A, Ti₄-C4A, and Ti₁₆-C4A are mononuclear, tetranuclear, and 16-nuclear TOCs, respectively. Ti-C4A crystallizes in the orthorhombic space group *P*₂₁₂₁ with one Ti atom, one C4A⁴⁻ ligand, one isopropoxy anion (–OⁱPr), and one triethylamine counter-cation in the asymmetric unit (Figure S2 and Tables S1 and S2). The Ti atom adopts a distorted tetragonal pyramid geometry with its equatorial sites occupied by four chelated phenolate O atoms from the C4A⁴⁻ ligand and its axial site occupied by an –OⁱPr O atom (Figure 1b). In Ti-C4A, the Ti atom may serve as an active metal site, since the axial –OⁱPr anion may be substituted by another anionic species (such as OH⁻) or first protonated and then substituted.

Ti₄-C4A crystallizes in the orthorhombic space group *Pbca* and its asymmetric unit contains two crystallographically independent Ti atoms (Ti1 and Ti2), one C4A⁴⁻ ligand, two –OⁱPr anions, one μ₃-O atoms, and one coordinated DMF molecule (Figure S3). Both Ti1 and Ti2 atoms adopt distorted octahedral coordination geometry. As shown in Figure 1c, each Ti1 atom coordinates with four chelated phenolate O atoms, one μ₃-O atom, and one DMF molecule, while each Ti2 atom coordinates with two –OⁱPr, two phenolate O atoms, and two μ₃-O atoms. Two Ti2 atoms are linked together by two μ₃-O atoms to form a binuclear unit, which is further connected with other two Ti1 atoms on two sides through μ₃-O and μ₂-O (from C4A⁴⁻) atoms to form a robust tetranuclear Ti-oxo core with a planar diamond structure (Figure S3). The outer coordination space of this Ti-oxo core is surrounded by two C4A⁴⁻ ligands, four –OⁱPr, and two DMF.

Considering that a C4A ligand with a large molecular size may restrict the growth of the Ti-oxo core, we utilized a small chelated PO₄³⁻ anion as a second ligand to explore larger TOCs. Interestingly, a 16-nuclear TOC (Ti₁₆-C4A) was obtained (Figure 1d), which represents the largest calixarene-based TOC reported by far.^{44–49}

Ti₁₆-C4A crystallizes in the triclinic space group *P* $\bar{1}$ and its asymmetric unit contains an intact molecule, which can be considered a tetrahedron with two edges missing. In this tetrahedron, its four vertices are occupied by four tetranuclear TOCs and four of the six edges are occupied by four PO₄³⁻ anions. The four tetranuclear TOCs (denoted Ti₄-C4A–A/B/C/D) have similar structures (Figure 2) but show slightly different coordination environments of the Ti atoms. In each tetranuclear TOC, there are four crystallographically independent Ti atoms (Ti1, Ti2, Ti3, and Ti4). As shown in Figure

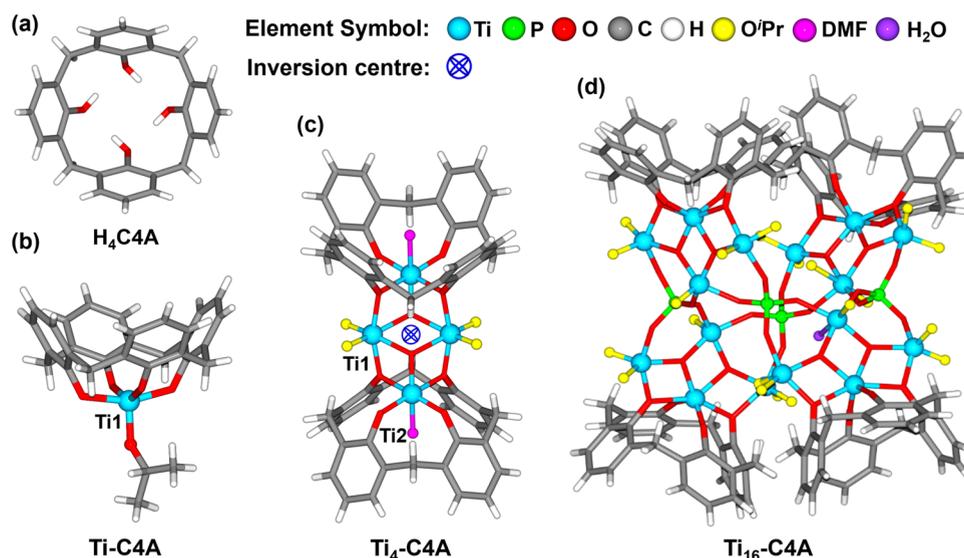


Figure 1. Molecular structures of (a) calix[4]arene (C4A), (b) mononuclear Ti-C4A, (c) tetranuclear Ti₄-C4A, and (d) 16-nuclear Ti₁₆-C4A. Color codes: sky blue = Ti atom, bright green = P atom, red = O atom, dark gray = C atom, gray-white = H atom, pink = O'Pr ligand, yellow = DMF molecule, and violet = H₂O molecule.

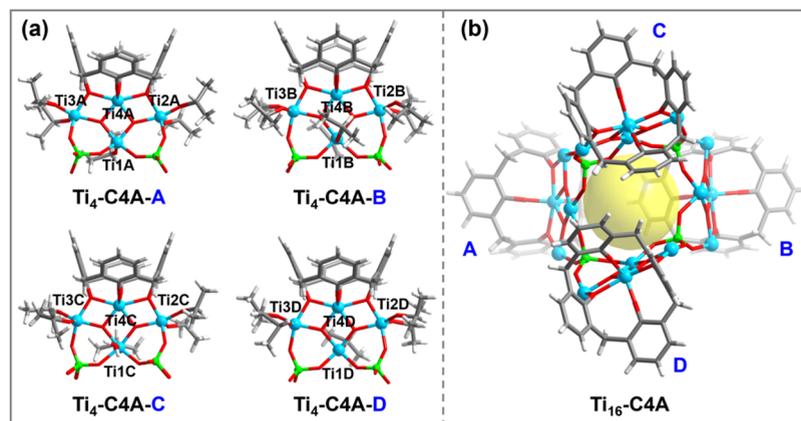


Figure 2. (a) Top view of the coordinated environment of the four tetranuclear TOCs (denoted Ti₄-C4A-A/B/C/D) in Ti₁₆-C4A. (b) The structure of Ti₁₆-C4A without coordinated solvent molecules.

2a, in Ti₄-C4A-A, the Ti1A atom coordinates with two PO₄³⁻ anions, two μ₃-O atoms, and one -O'Pr ligand, featuring a distorted tetragonal pyramid coordination geometry. Similarly, Ti2A and Ti3A adopt distorted tetragonal pyramid geometry, while each Ti coordinates with one phenolate O atom, two μ₃-O atoms, and two -O'Pr. Different from the other three Ti atoms, the Ti4A atom adopts distorted octahedral coordination geometry with its two equatorial sites and two axial sites occupied by four chelated phenolate O atoms and its other two equatorial sites filled by two μ₃-O atoms. These four Ti atoms are linked together by two phenolate μ₂-O atoms and two μ₃-O atoms to form a tetranuclear Ti-oxo core with a planar rhombic structure, which is different from that of Ti₄-C4A. Ti₄-C4A-B, Ti₄-C4A-C, and Ti₄-C4A-D have structures similar to Ti₄-C4A-A, except that Ti1B in Ti₄-C4A-B and the Ti1C atoms in Ti₄-C4A-C adopt octahedral coordination geometry (the axial sites are coordinated by two -O'Pr for the Ti1B atom and one -O'Pr and one H₂O molecule for the Ti1C atom; Figure 2a). These four tetranuclear TOCs are linked together by four PO₄³⁻ anions to form a 16-nuclear TOC with a robust tetrahedral configuration (Figure S4). It is worth noting that

12 Ti atoms in Ti₁₆-C4A are coordinated by -O'Pr and H₂O, indicating that there are many potential active metal sites in this TOC (Figure 2b).

The crystals of Ti-C4A, Ti₄-C4A, and Ti₁₆-C4A exhibit yellow or brown-yellow color (Figure S1), and their solid-state UV-visible absorption spectra show significant absorption bands around 400, 500, and 450 nm (Figure 3a), respectively, suggesting they have better light absorption than TiO₂ (colorless TiO₂ or TOCs with absorption bands generally below 400 nm). Moreover, the adsorption bands of Ti-C4A, Ti₄-C4A, and Ti₁₆-C4A can be extended to 500, 800, and 600 nm, respectively. The good UV-visible light absorption of these TOCs should be attributed to the good electron-donating ability of C4A ligands and the high valance state of Ti⁴⁺ ions, which can make effective charge transfer from C4A ligands to Ti⁴⁺ ions.

Based on the UV-visible absorption spectra, the optical band gaps (E_g) of Ti-C4A, Ti₄-C4A, and Ti₁₆-C4A were calculated from the Tauc plots to be 1.90, 1.30, and 1.69 eV (Figure 3b), respectively, indicating that they possess semiconductor-like characteristics. To confirm this and determine

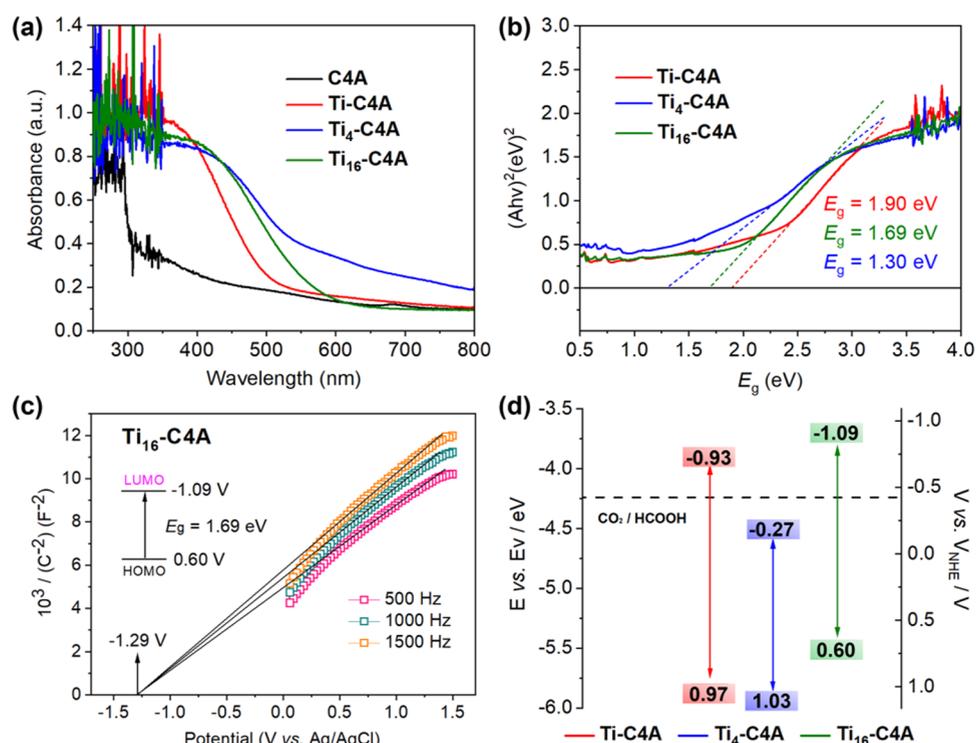


Figure 3. Solid-state UV-vis diffuse reflection spectra of the C4A ligand, Ti-C4A, Ti₄-C4A, and Ti₁₆-C4A. (b) Tauc plots of Ti-C4A, Ti₄-C4A, and Ti₁₆-C4A. (c) Mott-Schottky plot for Ti₁₆-C4A in a 0.2 M Na₂SO₄ aqueous solution. The inset is the energy diagram of the HOMO and LUMO levels of Ti₁₆-C4A. (d) Energy band gap diagrams of Ti-C4A, Ti₄-C4A, and Ti₁₆-C4A with respect to the CO₂-to-HCOOH conversion.

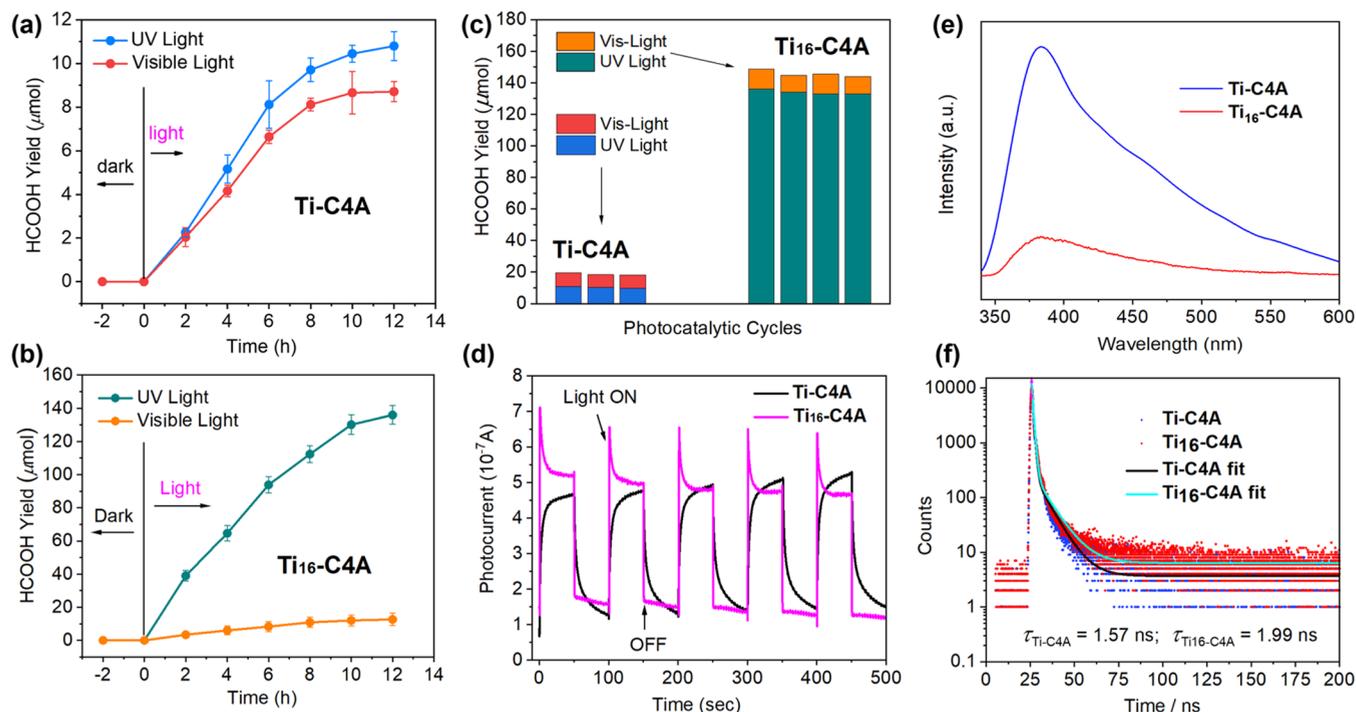


Figure 4. Relationship between the yield of HCOO⁻ and the irradiation time (visible light) on (a) Ti-C4A and (b) Ti₁₆-C4A. (c) Yields of HCOO⁻ for Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A photocatalysts in three continuous runs under visible or UV light irradiation. (d) Transient photocurrent responses of Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A. Xenon light as the light source was applied for photocurrent measurement, and a 0.1 M Tris-HCl aqueous solution was used as the electrolyte. (e) Steady-state photoluminescence (PL) spectra and (f) time-resolved emission decay profiles of Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A.

their flat-band potentials, Mott-Schottky measurements at frequencies of 500, 1000, and 1500 Hz were performed. As shown in Figures 3c, S6, and S7, the Mott-Schottky plots of

Ti-C4A, Ti₄-C4A, and Ti₁₆-C4A exhibit positive slopes, confirming their n-type semiconductor-like characteristics. The flat-band potentials of Ti-C4A, Ti₄-C4A, and Ti₁₆-C4A

were determined from the intersection to be -0.93 , -0.27 , and -1.09 V versus Ag/AgCl, respectively. Because the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) position in an n-type semiconductor is generally considered to be approximately equal to the flat-band potential, the LUMO positions of Ti-C4A, Ti₄-C4A, and Ti₁₆-C4A were calculated to be -0.93 , -0.27 , and -1.09 V (vs normal hydrogen electrode (NHE)), respectively (Figure 3d). Combined with the band gaps and LUMOs, the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) positions of Ti-C4A, Ti₄-C4A, and Ti₁₆-C4A were evaluated to be 0.97 , 1.03 , and 0.60 V (vs NHE), respectively. Therefore, it is clear that except for Ti₄-C4A, the LUMO positions of Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A are more negative than the potential requirements of reducing CO₂ to many carbon-based products (such as HCOOH; Figure 3d), suggesting that they can serve as potential photocatalysts for CO₂RR.

Given the above advantages of these C4A-modified TOCs, we further investigate their photocatalytic activity for CO₂RR under UV and visible light irradiation. The photocatalytic reaction was carried out at 1 atm CO₂ in water with triethanolamine (TEOA) as the sacrificial electron donor (H₂O/TEOA = 4:1, 30 mL) and without addition of external photosensitizers. The reductive gas and liquid products were detected by gas chromatography (GC) and ion chromatography (IC), respectively. The results revealed that almost no CO₂ reduction products can be detected in both liquid and gas phases for Ti₄-C4A as a photocatalyst under UV or visible light irradiation, probably because the LUMO position of Ti₄-C4A (-0.27 V vs NHE) is lower than the CO₂ reduction potentials of most carbon-based products. In contrast, when Ti-C4A or Ti₁₆-C4A was used as a photocatalyst, an obvious HCOO⁻ product could be detected in the liquid phase (Figure S8). As shown in Figure 4a,b, the HCOO⁻ production increased continuously with the increase of UV or visible light irradiation time. Impressively, after UV light irradiation for 12 h, the HCOO⁻ yield of Ti₁₆-C4A reached $136.0 \mu\text{mol}$ ($2265.5 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$), which is significantly higher than those of Ti-C4A ($10.8 \mu\text{mol}$ after 12 h, $180.0 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) and our previously reported Ti₄-C8A and Ti₇-C8A (253.9 and $488.4 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$, respectively), representing the highest value for HCOO⁻ generation among crystal cluster-based photocatalysts under the similar reaction conditions.^{21,50} The outstanding photocatalytic activity of Ti₁₆-C4A is probably related to its multiple (close to 12) potential Ti⁴⁺ catalytic active sites, including those coordinated with $-\text{O}^i\text{Pr}/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and naked coordination space (five-coordinated Ti atoms), which are available sites for the CO₂ attack. In contrast, there is only one potential Ti⁴⁺ catalytic active site in Ti-C4A, which results in relatively lower photocatalytic activity than that of Ti₁₆-C4A. Additionally, when an identical photocatalytic reaction was carried out under visible light irradiation (420–800 nm), the HCOO⁻ yield ($12.7 \mu\text{mol}$; $211.0 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) of Ti₁₆-C4A is still slightly higher than that of Ti-C4A ($8.7 \mu\text{mol}$; $145.2 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$), although both compounds exhibit weak visible light-harvesting capacities (Figure 4a,b). These results suggest that the multiple potential Ti⁴⁺ catalytic active sites in Ti₁₆-C4A are crucial for its outstanding photocatalytic performance. Importantly, except for HCOO⁻, there are no other CO₂ reductive byproducts such as CO, CH₃OH, and CH₄ that can be detected in both liquid and gas phases during the UV and visible light-driven CO₂RR (Figure S9), suggesting high selectivity ($\sim 100\%$) toward the HCOO⁻ product for Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A photocatalysts.

To evaluate the catalytic activity of each potential Ti⁴⁺ catalytic active site in Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A, we calculated their turnover number (TON_{Ti}) by assuming that there are 1 and 12 potential Ti active centers in each Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A molecules, respectively, based on their crystal structures. As shown in Table S3, under UV light irradiation, the TON_{Ti} of Ti₁₆-C4A is 9.6, which is about 7-fold that of Ti-C4A (1.4) under the same reaction condition, indicating that the Ti⁴⁺ catalytic sites in Ti₁₆-C4A are much more active than those in Ti-C4A for UV light-driven CO₂ reduction into HCOO⁻. To further explore the reasons behind the different photocatalytic activities between Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A, the photocurrent response test was conducted under UV–vis light irradiation to evaluate the photoinduced electron transfer efficiency. Interestingly, both Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A exhibit similar strong photocurrent responses, implying that the photoinduced electron–hole separation efficiencies are similar for these two compounds. To confirm this, the photoluminescence (PL) spectra and PL decay lifetimes of these two compounds were tested. As shown in Figure 4e,f, although the PL intensity of Ti₁₆-C4A is lower than that of Ti-C4A, the PL decay lifetimes of these two compounds are quite similar ($\tau_{\text{Ti-C4A}} = 1.57$ ns, $\tau_{\text{Ti16-C4A}} = 1.99$ ns), suggesting that Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A indeed have similar electron–hole pair separation efficiency.⁵¹ Therefore, the outstanding performance of Ti₁₆-C4A in the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction to HCOO⁻ may be attributed to the multiple Ti⁴⁺ catalytic active sites and the possible synergistic metal–ligand catalysis effect.

Because the crystals of Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A did not dissolve and showed good crystallinities after the photocatalytic CO₂RR, they should belong to heterogeneous catalysts. To confirm this, the solid catalysts were separated after the photocatalytic CO₂RR and the filtrates were determined by an inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS) and UV–vis absorption spectra. The results revealed that the Ti⁴⁺ ions in the filtrates are only about 0.034 and 0.051% for Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A, respectively. Besides, there are no obvious new signals of the UV–visible absorption spectra of the filtrates, excluding the dissolution of Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A during the photocatalytic CO₂RR (Figure S10). In addition, the solid infrared (IR) spectra and powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) patterns of Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A before and after photocatalytic CO₂RR are nearly unchanged (Figures S11–S14), confirming their high crystallinity and heterogeneous catalytic nature. To further demonstrate the heterogeneous catalytic nature and catalytic stability of Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A in water, recycling photocatalytic tests under both UV and visible light irradiation were conducted. After 12 h of photocatalysis, the catalyst was isolated by filtration, washed with water, dried under vacuum, and then used for further photocatalysis. The results revealed that Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A can maintain their activities for at least 36 h (three cycles; Figure 4c). The slightly decreased HCOO⁻ yield was probably because of the inevitable loss of the catalyst during recycling and reactivation. Therefore, these recycling and long-term experiments demonstrated that Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A belonged to heterogeneous catalysts and have stable catalytic activity in water. It is worth noting that most reported cluster-based molecular catalysts are homogeneous catalysts and generally perform photocatalytic CO₂RR in organic solvents (most are in pure organic solvents, such as acetonitrile). Besides, in addition to sacrificial agents, they usually need precious metal photosensitizers to improve their light-harvest-

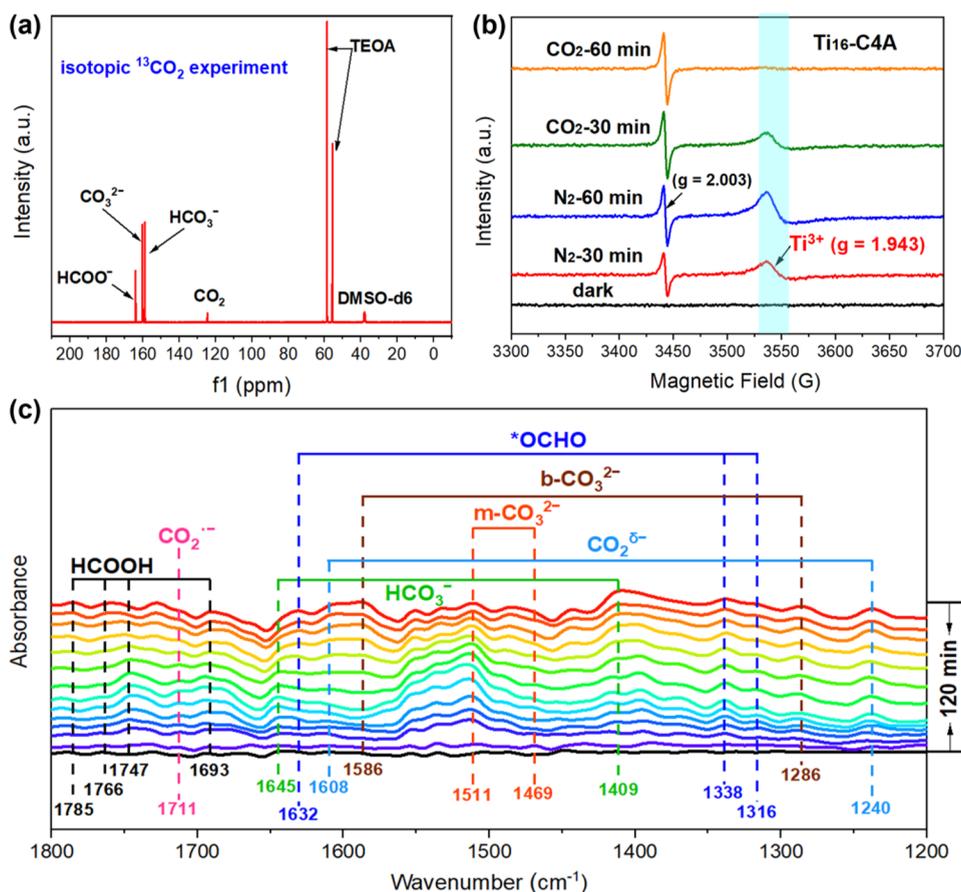


Figure 5. (a) ^{13}C NMR spectrum of the reaction solution catalyzed with the $\text{Ti}_{16}\text{-C4A}$ photocatalyst under a $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ atmosphere. (b) EPR spectra of $\text{Ti}_{16}\text{-C4A}$ under UV light irradiation and a CO_2 or N_2 atmosphere. (c) In situ FTIR spectra on $\text{Ti}_{16}\text{-C4A}$ under UV light irradiation and a CO_2 atmosphere.

ing capacities for effective photocatalytic performance. In contrast, these two C4A ligand-modified Ti-C4A and $\text{Ti}_{16}\text{-C4A}$ TOCs can act as heterogeneous catalysts and exhibit high catalytic activity and selectivity of photocatalytic CO_2 reduction to HCOO^- in H_2O , without the need for precious photosensitizers, which is important in the terms of cost and environment friendliness.

To further demonstrate the photocatalytic CO_2 reduction activities of Ti-C4A and $\text{Ti}_{16}\text{-C4A}$, a series of control experiments were carried out, including reactions in the absence of light, catalyst, CO_2 , or TEOA (Table S4). The results reveal that no CO_2 reductive products can be detected through IC and GC during (online detection) or after the reaction (liquid product identification) in these conditions, implying that Ti-C4A and $\text{Ti}_{16}\text{-C4A}$ are indeed capable of photocatalytic reduction of CO_2 to HCOO^- . To further confirm this, carbon-13 labeling experiments using $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ were carried out with more active $\text{Ti}_{16}\text{-C4A}$ as a heterogeneous photocatalyst under identical reaction conditions (UV light irradiation), and the products were identified by ^{13}C NMR spectroscopy. As shown in Figure 5a, the ^{13}C NMR spectrum exhibits obvious signals at 158.9, 160.2, and 163.9 ppm, which correspond to HCO_3^- , CO_3^{2-} , and HCOO^- , respectively.⁵² Impressively, owing to the outstanding photocatalytic performance of $\text{Ti}_{16}\text{-C4A}$, the HCOO^- signal in ^{13}C NMR spectroscopy is very strong, which is rarely observed for photocatalytic CO_2RR . In contrast, when an identical reaction was carried out under $^{12}\text{CO}_2$, no HCOO^- signal could be

detected by ^{13}C NMR spectroscopy (Figure S15), demonstrating that the carbon source of the produced HCOO^- originated from CO_2 , and $\text{Ti}_{16}\text{-C4A}$ is indeed active for reducing CO_2 to HCOO^- under UV light irradiation.

Encouraged by the outstanding performance of $\text{Ti}_{16}\text{-C4A}$ in the photocatalytic CO_2 reduction to HCOO^- , the mechanism of photocatalyzed CO_2RR was studied based on this catalyst by using electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectroscopy. As shown in Figure 5b, $\text{Ti}_{16}\text{-C4A}$ did not show ERP signals without light irradiation under a N_2 atmosphere. In contrast, sharp signals that correspond to Ti^{3+} species ($g = 1.943$) emerged upon light irradiation under a N_2 atmosphere.⁵⁰ This is because the Ti-oxo core of $\text{Ti}_{16}\text{-C4A}$ accepts electrons from the linkers through ligand-to-cluster charge transfer (LCCT) after photoexcitation, and Ti^{4+} in the Ti-oxo core was reduced to form Ti^{3+} , while under continuous light irradiation in a CO_2 atmosphere for 1 h, the ERP signal of Ti^{3+} decreased significantly, indicating that the Ti^{3+} species was involved in the photo-driven CO_2RR .^{50,53} Thus, the photoexcitation can be rationalized as follows: upon light irradiation, e^- migrate from the photoexcited linker to the Ti-oxo cluster for reducing Ti^{4+} to Ti^{3+} species, while TEOA acts as an h^+ scavenger. Then, e^- are transferred from the Ti^{3+} species to CO_2 adsorbed on the active metal site, accompanied by the conversion of Ti^{3+} to Ti^{4+} species. Therefore, the photocatalytic cycle of CO_2 -to- HCOO^- conversion is achieved in the presence of TEOA as the electron donor. In this process, TEOA might be oxidized to its aldehyde form (Figure S16).

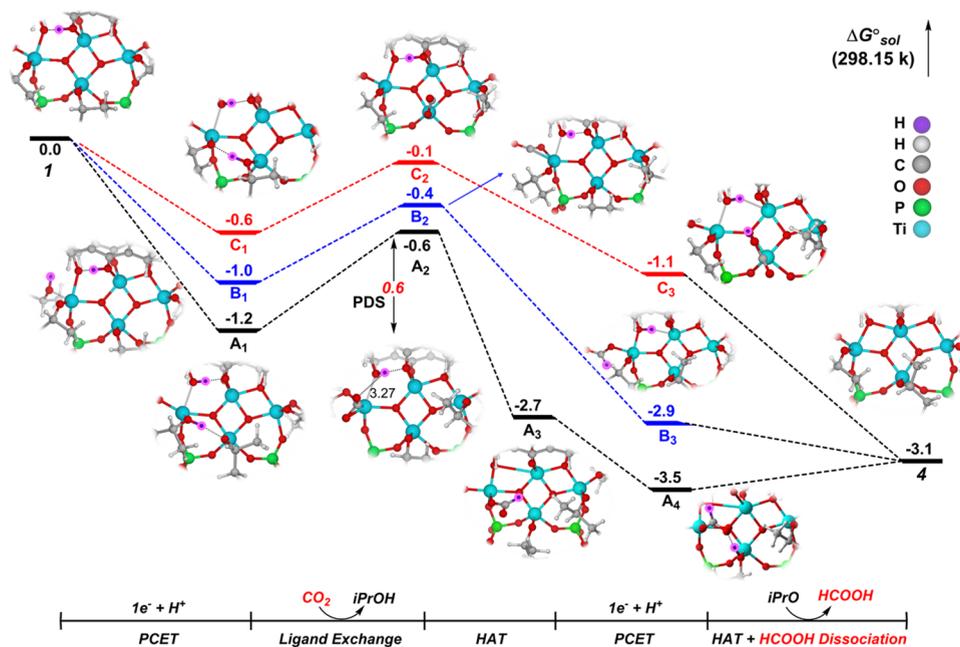


Figure 6. Mechanism and potential energy surfaces of the Ti_{16} -C4A catalytic process. The CO_2 -to-HCOOH conversion reactive pathways over the tetranuclear Ti-oxo unit of Ti_{16} -C4A, and the corresponding Gibbs energy and intermediate architectures.

To investigate the reasons for the high selectivity of the catalyst to HCOO^- , in situ diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) was performed to detect CO_2 radicals and other reaction intermediates of the catalytic process. As shown in Figure 5c, no significant changes in the vibrational peaks were observed before illumination. With increasing lighting time, new peaks obviously appeared and their intensities gradually increased. The absorption peaks at 1316, 1338, 1469, and 1511 cm^{-1} are attributed to monodentate carbonate (m-CO_3^{2-}),⁵⁴ while those at 1286 and 1586 cm^{-1} can be attributed to bidentate carbonate (b-CO_3^{2-}).⁵⁵ A significant enhancement of the absorption peak could be observed at 1711 cm^{-1} , where the peak was attributed to $\text{CO}_2^{\bullet-}$, which is an important one-electron reductive intermediate in the photocatalytic reduction of CO_2 to HCOO^- .²² The simultaneous appearance of absorption peaks at 1240 and 1608 cm^{-1} indicated the formation of carboxylate ($\text{CO}_2^{\delta-}$).⁵⁶ The absorption peaks located at 1693, 1747, 1766, and 1785 cm^{-1} were probably from formic acid.⁵⁷

To gain more insights into the photocatalytic mechanism, DFT calculations related to CO_2 adsorption and activation were carried out for Ti_{16} -C4A and Ti-C4A (see the Supporting Information for details). Considering that Ti_{16} -C4A and Ti-C4A behave as heterogeneous catalysts, the reaction mechanism should be studied through the solid surface rather than individual molecules. However, the crystalline catalyst solid is essentially composed of identical molecules stacked periodically. In this case, it is generally assumed that the mechanism by which the catalytic reaction occurs on the solid surface or on individual molecule is similar. Therefore, the DFT calculation study focused on the molecular reaction mechanism. Owing to the large size of Ti_{16} -C4A, the simplified molecular model is beneficial for exploring the catalytic reaction process more conveniently. After the structural optimization, we found that the four tetranuclear units in Ti_{16} -C4A have quite similar structures. Besides, density of states calculations reveal that a unit cell of the catalyst Ti_{16} -

Cluster molecule and a quarter of the Ti_{16} -Cluster molecule (i.e., Ti_4 -cluster fragment) have similar electronic state density distributions and energy gaps (Figure S17), suggesting that it is feasible to utilize the tetranuclear unit (Ti_4 -cluster fragment) as a model for investigating the photocatalytic mechanism of Ti_{16} -C4A. First, the adsorbed sites of the first electron and proton on the tetranuclear unit were investigated. The results reveal that the electron is delocalized on the four Ti metal centers, while the proton is more likely to interact with the phenolate O atom of C4A (denoted intermediate 1, Figures 6 and S18), rather than the coordinated $-\text{O}^i\text{Pr}$ oxygen atoms (denoted intermediate 2 and 3, Figure S19). Using intermediate 1 as the started model, the second electron and proton were offered to create an activated Ti metal center (intermediates 2 and 3 as started models have also been investigated, Figures S20 and S21). As shown in Figures 6 and S18, the protons were added to three different $-\text{O}^i\text{Pr}$ oxygen atoms, including two coordinated Ti atoms on the left side and one coordinated Ti atom on the bottom (Ti atom at the right side can be viewed as equal to that at the left side), resulting in three different intermediates with Gibbs free energies (ΔG) of -1.2 (for A_1), -1.0 (for B_1), and -0.6 eV (for C_1). In addition, the protons adsorbed on the phenolate O atom and the top Ti atom were also considered (Figure S22), but the results reveal that these two cases show higher ΔG (1.2 and 2.8 eV, compared with A_1), suggesting that they are unfavorable cases. With the adsorbing proton, the coordinated $-\text{O}^i\text{Pr}$ group becomes a neutral molecule and thus can easily leave from the Ti atoms to build open active metal sites for adsorbing and converting the CO_2 molecule to COO^- species. The resulting intermediates A_2 , B_2 , and C_2 with adsorbing COO^- show higher ΔG , suggesting that this is an endothermic process. Interestingly, in the intermediates of A_2 and B_2 , COO^- is more likely to coordinate with the Ti atom by both C and O atoms, while in C_2 , COO^- is more likely to use the O atom to coordinate with the Ti atom. Besides, in A_2 , the adsorbed $^*\text{COO}^-$ is close to the proton adsorbed on the phenolate O

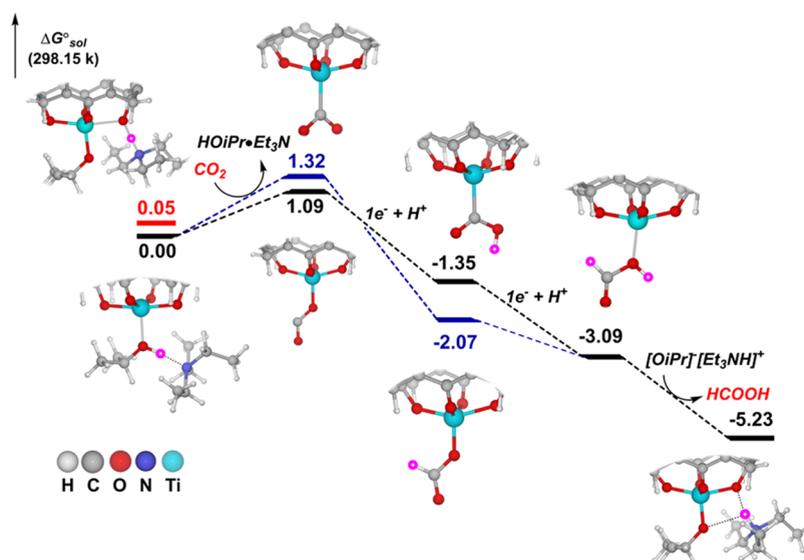


Figure 7. Mechanism and potential energy surfaces of the Ti-C4A catalytic process. The CO₂-to-HCOOH conversion reactive pathways over Ti-C4A, and the corresponding Gibbs energy and intermediate architectures.

atom. Thus, the proton is easy to transfer to the *COO⁻ group to generate *OCHO ($\Delta G = -2.1$ eV), which has also been observed in in situ DRIFTS spectroscopy (Figure 5c). Finally, HCOOH can be obtained through a proton-coupled electron transfer (PCET) process and a ligand exchange process with ΔG falling to -3.1 eV. The overall calculation results indicate that CO₂RR can readily occur at different potential Ti active sites through path A (black line), path B (blue line), or path C (red line). Nevertheless, compared with paths B and C, path A is considered to be more favorable, since all reaction intermediates are more stable in path A than in paths B and C. The adsorption of CO₂ is the potential determining step ($\Delta G = 0.6$ eV for path A) for the elementary reaction steps. Additionally, the phenolate O atom can serve as a proton adsorption site, and the adsorbed proton can be subsequently transferred to the reaction intermediate *COO⁻ that coordinated on the adjacent Ti active site, thus facilitating the CO₂RR. Therefore, the excellent photocatalytic performance of Ti₁₆-C4A should be mainly attributed to multiple Ti active sites and the synergistic catalytic effect between the Ti active site and the C4A ligand.

The photocatalytic CO₂RR mechanism of Ti-C4A was also investigated by DFT calculations (Figure S23). The results reveal that the first proton is more likely to interact with the coordinated -OⁱPr oxygen atom (Figures 7 and S24), rather than the phenolate O atom of the C4A ligand, which is different from the case in Ti₁₆-C4A. After adsorbing one proton, the Ti-O bond length was extended from 1.83 to 2.07 Å, and the H proton on the neighboring triethylamine counteranion was detached, suggesting that the coordinated -OⁱPr group became a neutral molecule. On the other hand, the Ti⁴⁺ atom accepted the first electron and was reduced to Ti³⁺, which thus can further absorb a CO₂ molecule through a ligand exchange process. The CO₂ adsorbed on the Ti atom intends to form an *OCO⁻ intermediate rather than a *COO⁻ intermediate ($\Delta G(*OCO^-) = 1.09$ eV, $\Delta G(*COO^-) = 1.32$ eV). DFT calculation revealed that the active Ti(IV) site preferred to interact with the p orbital of the O atom of CO₂ in Ti-C4A, resulting in the adsorption of the CO₂ molecule through the formation of a Ti-O bond (Figure S25a). In

contrast, in Ti₁₆-C4A, the active Ti(IV) site is more inclined to interact with the π orbital of the C=O of CO₂, resulting in the adsorption of CO₂ molecules through the formation of a Ti-CO tri-atom-centered covalent bond (Figure S25b). Finally, HCOOH can be obtained through two PCET processes and a ligand exchange process. Similarly, the potential determining step for the photocatalytic CO₂RR in Ti-C4A is the adsorption of CO₂, but it exhibits a higher ΔG value (1.09 eV) than that observed in Ti₁₆-C4A. These calculation results suggest that CO₂RR can also occur at the Ti active site for Ti-C4A, but due to the lack of multiple active sites and the synergistic catalytic effect, it thus shows ordinary catalytic performance compared with Ti₁₆-C4A.

Additionally, considering that the photocatalytic CO₂RR was performed in water, the -OⁱPr groups on the catalysts may be replaced by OH⁻ groups, which were further protonated and then substituted by CO₂. Therefore, the catalytic mechanism in this case was also investigated. For Ti₁₆-C4A, two possibilities were considered. First, the -OⁱPr groups at the catalytic sites were replaced by OH⁻ groups, while those at the non-catalytic sites remained (Figure S26). Second, all -OⁱPr groups on the tetranuclear Ti-oxo unit were replaced by OH⁻ groups (Figure S27). The results revealed that there was no obvious difference in ΔG for the -OⁱPr coordinated intermediates and the OH⁻ coordinated intermediates. Moreover, after being replaced with OH⁻ groups, the adsorption of CO₂ is still the potential determining step ($\Delta G = 0.6-0.8$ eV) for the elementary reaction steps. Similarly, for Ti-C4A, additional DFT calculations were performed by considering that the -OⁱPr group was replaced by the OH⁻ group. The results also revealed that there was no obvious difference in ΔG for the intermediates of these two calculation models (Figure S28).

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, we have successfully synthesized three stable C4A-functionalized TOCs with increasing nuclearity as well as tunable light absorption capacity and energy levels, among which Ti-C4A and Ti₁₆-C4A can serve as model catalysts for perceiving the difference in catalytic reactivity between mono-

and multimetallic sites. By using CO₂ photoreduction as the basic reaction, both two compounds can be treated as heterogeneous photocatalysts to achieve high selectivity (ca. 100%) for CO₂-to-HCOO⁻ conversion in water. Experimental characterization and DFT calculations indicated that Ti₁₆-C4A combines the advantages of multiple active metal sites and synergistic metal–ligand catalysis, which can effectively convert more CO₂ molecules while lowering the activation energy of the reaction, and thus exhibits superior photocatalytic activity (2265.5 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹) than Ti-C4A. Moreover, Ti₁₆-C4A is also the best-performing crystalline cluster-based photocatalyst in photocatalytic CO₂RR. This work provides an important case study and demonstrates the great potential of crystalline model systems for exploring the structure–property relationship of catalysts.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

SI Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/jacs.3c04480>.

Detailed information regarding the experimental methods; characterization analysis; DFT calculations; and CIF file (PDF)

Accession Codes

CCDC 2233755–2233757 contain the supplementary crystallographic data for this paper. These data can be obtained free of charge via www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk/data_request/cif, or by emailing data_request@ccdc.cam.ac.uk, or by contacting The Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre, 12 Union Road, Cambridge CB2 1EZ, UK; fax: +44 1223 336033.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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