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Bioinspired microenvironment modulation of metal–organic framework-based catalysts for selective methane oxidation

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ABSTRACT

Inspiration from natural enzymes enabling creationary catalyst design is appealing yet remains extremely challenging for selective methane (CH₄) oxidation. This study presents the construction of a biomimetic catalyst platform for CH₄ oxidation, which is constructed by incorporating Fe-porphyrin into a robust metal–organic framework, UiO-66, furnished with saturated monocarboxylic fatty acid bearing different long alkyl chains. The catalysts demonstrate the high efficiency in the CH₄ to methanol (CH₃OH) conversion at 50 °C. Moreover, the selectivity to CH₃OH can be effectively regulated and promoted through a fine-tuned microenvironment by hydrophobic modification around the Fe-porphyrin. The long-chain fatty acids anchored on the Zr-oxo cluster of UiO-66 can not only tune the electronic state of the Fe sites to improve CH₄ adsorption, but also restrict the amount of H₂O₂ around the Fe sites to reduce the overoxidation. This behavior resembles the microenvironment regulation in methane monooxygenase, resulting in high CH₃OH selectivity.

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1. Introduction

Selective conversion of CH₄ to CH₃OH, recognized as the “Holy Grail” reaction, is an exceptionally attractive approach for the production of high-value organic products. However, catalytically promoting this conversion under mild conditions remains a formidable challenge due to the high energy barrier (104 kcal mol⁻¹) for the C–H bond activation in CH₄ and the inevitable occurrence of overoxidation reactions [1–6]. In nature, certain organisms like methanotrophic bacteria are capable of converting CH₄ to CH₃OH using O₂ under ambient conditions, thanks to methane monooxygenases (MMOs) [7,8]. MMOs often feature intricate subcomponents that synergistically perform diverse tasks during CH₄ oxidation, such as the transport and binding of substrate molecules and the positioning of active sites, ultimately leading to exceptional activity and selectivity to CH₃OH. As an illustrative example, the soluble methane monooxygenase (sMMO) has three constituent components, the hydroxylase, the β unit, and the reductase, each of which is essential for efficient

CH₄ to CH₃OH conversion. The iron sites in the active component hydroxylase alter their electronic state through the binding to the regulatory component β unit and are activated by the reductase, initiating CH₄ hydroxylation [9–11]. The β unit can change the volume and hydrophobicity of the active site cavity of the hydroxylase. This modification not only creates space but also increases the affinity for hydrophobic substrate molecules (e.g., CH₄) [8,12–14]. The coordinated interaction of these components necessitates the precise control of chemical microenvironments of the active site in MMOs for efficient and selective conversion of CH₄ to CH₃OH [15,16].

Drawing inspiration from natural MMOs, many catalytic systems, including iron and copper-based coordination complexes that aim to achieve the selective conversion of CH₄ to CH₃OH through a biomimetic way, have been developed [8]. The structure of active sites in these molecular catalysts usually can be readily designed with high fidelity to those found in MMOs; however, their performance in the reaction remains unsatisfactory [17–19]. Furthermore, molecular catalysts usually encounter challenges with recyclability and stability, which lead to decreased activity. To achieve efficient conversion of CH₄ to CH₃OH, it is highly desirable to develop catalysts that simultaneously possess active site analogs of MMOs and a suitable chemical microenvironment

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around active sites. However, the creation of corresponding microenvironment around MMOs active sites is very challenging due to the lack of sufficient tunability and complexity in common porous solids [20–22].

As a relatively new class of crystalline solids, metal–organic frameworks (MOFs) [23–30] are widely acknowledged as an appropriate platform for mimicking enzymes, because of their functionalization capability for introducing various active sites and tunable chemical structures with atomic precision [31–35]. Biomimetic catalysts utilizing MOFs as platforms has been implemented by either incorporating basic constituents featuring similar functionalities as enzymes or encapsulating synthetic active-site analogs into the scaffolds of MOFs [32,33]. Despite the encouraging progress, biomimetic catalysts that take full advantage of the structural features of MOFs for tuning the microenvironment for catalytic conversion of CH_4 to CH_3OH are still lacking [32]. Our vision is to leverage the highly customizable structure of MOFs to purposefully create precise and collaborative microenvironments. These microenvironments can facilitate the accumulation of substrate molecules, offer transmission channels, and create a confined hydrophobic pocket around the active site—reminiscent of those in the natural MMOs—to offer optimal catalytic performance.

In this study, we incorporated Fe-TCPP (TCPP = tetrakis(4-carboxyphenyl)porphyrin) into a robust MOF, namely UiO-66, which is further furnished by using saturated monocarboxylic fatty acid with different long alkane chains (C_n , $n = 12, 14, 16$, and 18). Although Fe-TCPP does not have exactly the same structure with the active component of monooxygenase cytochrome P450, they both share an iron porphyrin fragment, making Fe-TCPP (a suitable analog for P450) an active-site [36,37]. The resulting $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66-C_n$, featuring Fe-TCPP catalytic sites with a hydrophobic microenvironment created by the fatty acids (Scheme 1), achieve efficient and selective conversion of CH_4 to CH_3OH under mild conditions. Interestingly, the hydrophobic modification around Fe-TCPP with fatty acids bearing long alkane chains significantly enhances and tunes the selectivity towards CH_3OH in CH_4 oxidation. This hydrophobic modification not only regulates the electron state of the Fe active sites, but also tunes the concentration of reactive oxygen species around Fe sites, mimicking the microenvironment regulation mechanism observed in sMMO. To the best of our knowledge, this study represents the first report on MOF composites that mimic the microenvironment modulation in sMMO enzyme-like system for the selective conversion of CH_4 to CH_3OH .

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Synthesis of UiO-66

The UiO-66 was synthesized following a previously reported procedure with minor modifications [38]. In a typical process, 0.16 mmol ZrCl_4 (37.2 mg), 0.16 mmol 1,4-benzenedicarboxylic acid (BDC, 29 mg), 1.2 mL acetic acid, and 10 mL *N,N*-dimethylformamide (DMF) were dissolved in a 25 mL glass vial by ultrasonication treatment for 5 min, then the vial was sealed

and placed in an oven at 120 °C for 24 h. The resulting powder was collected by centrifugation, washed with DMF and acetone, immersed in acetone for 3 d to remove residual DMF, and finally dried in a vacuum at 60 °C prior to use.

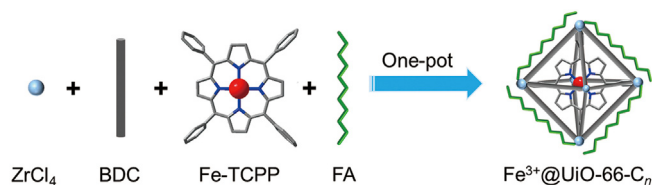
2.2. Synthesis of $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66-C_n$ ($n = 12, 14, 16$, and 18)

In a typical process, 0.343 mmol ZrCl_4 (80 mg) and 12 mmol monocarboxylic long-chain saturated fatty acids (2.40 g lauric acid, 2.74 g myristic acid, 3.08 g palmitic acid, or 3.41 g octadecanoic acid) and 20 mL of DMF were dissolved in a 25 mL glass vial by ultrasonication for 30 min. Then, 0.343 mmol BDC (57.0 mg) and 10.0 mg Fe-TCPP were added in the glass vial and the vial was sealed and placed in an oven at 130 °C for 24 h. The resulting powder was collected by centrifugation, washed with DMF and acetone, and immersed in acetone for 3 d to remove DMF, and then dried in vacuum at 60 °C before use.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Synthesis and characterization

$\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66-C_n$ composites were synthesized by reacting ZrCl_4 , Fe-TCPP, and BDC in DMF in the presence of long-chain saturated fatty acids with different chain lengths. All obtained products are UiO-66-based with good phase purity. No PCN-222 or PCN-224 phase which forms through self-nucleation between Zr^{4+} and Fe-TCPP in these catalysts can be found, as suggested by the powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns (Figs. S1, S2 online). Despite that the size of the tetrahedron and octahedron cage of UiO-66 is smaller than the line length of Fe-TCPP, Fe-TCPP can still be incorporated into the cage of UiO-66 by coordinating to Zr^{4+} in a manner similar to the “ship-in-a-bottle”. This method can circumvent the size and geometry limitation of cages of MOFs and meanwhile avoid the leaching of Fe-TCPP [39]. Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR) spectra of tetradecanoic acid and $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66-C_{14}$ show that the peak at 1701.7 cm^{-1} ascribed to the $-\text{COOH}$ group in tetradecanoic acid shifts to 1704.3 cm^{-1} in $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66-C_{14}$ (Fig. S3 online). This shift supports the coordination of tetradecanoic acid and Zr^{4+} . Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images indicate the presence of octahedral nanocrystals in the MOFs (Fig. 1a, b). The Fe contents in all $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66-C_n$ are determined to be approximately 0.8% using inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES) (Table S1 online). FTIR spectra for the samples that introduced long-chain saturated fatty acids show three additional peaks at 2852, 2923, and 2957 cm^{-1} assignable to the aliphatic C–H stretching vibrations (2852 and 2923 cm^{-1} for CH_2 and 2957 cm^{-1} for CH_3) (Fig. S4 online) [40–42], indicating the successful incorporation of the alkyl chains to the MOFs. Furthermore, the diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier-transform (DRIFT) spectra show a significant decrease in the intensities of the characteristic peaks at approximately 3673 and 2769 cm^{-1} , which correspond to the chelating sites (the terminal $-\text{OH}/-\text{OH}_2$ and $\mu_3\text{-OH}$ groups) on the Zr-oxo upon the fatty acid modification (Fig. S5 online). This observation further supports the successful anchoring of fatty acids to the Zr-oxo cluster [41,43]. The approximate amount of modified monocarboxylic acids, is estimated to be comparable in all $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66-C_n$ catalysts based on thermogravimetric analyses (Fig. S6 online), despite the challenges in precise quantification. Water contact angles have been measured to assess the hydrophobicity of the samples. The contact angles of the pristine MOF and $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66$ are approximately 5° , which increase to 117.5° , 120.9° , 123.6° , and 131.1° upon introducing fatty acids with C_{12} , C_{14} , C_{16} , and C_{18} chain, respectively (Fig. 1c), demonstrating that the intro-



Scheme 1. (Color online) Schematic illustration showing the synthetic process for $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66-C_n$ ($n = 12, 14, 16$, and 18).

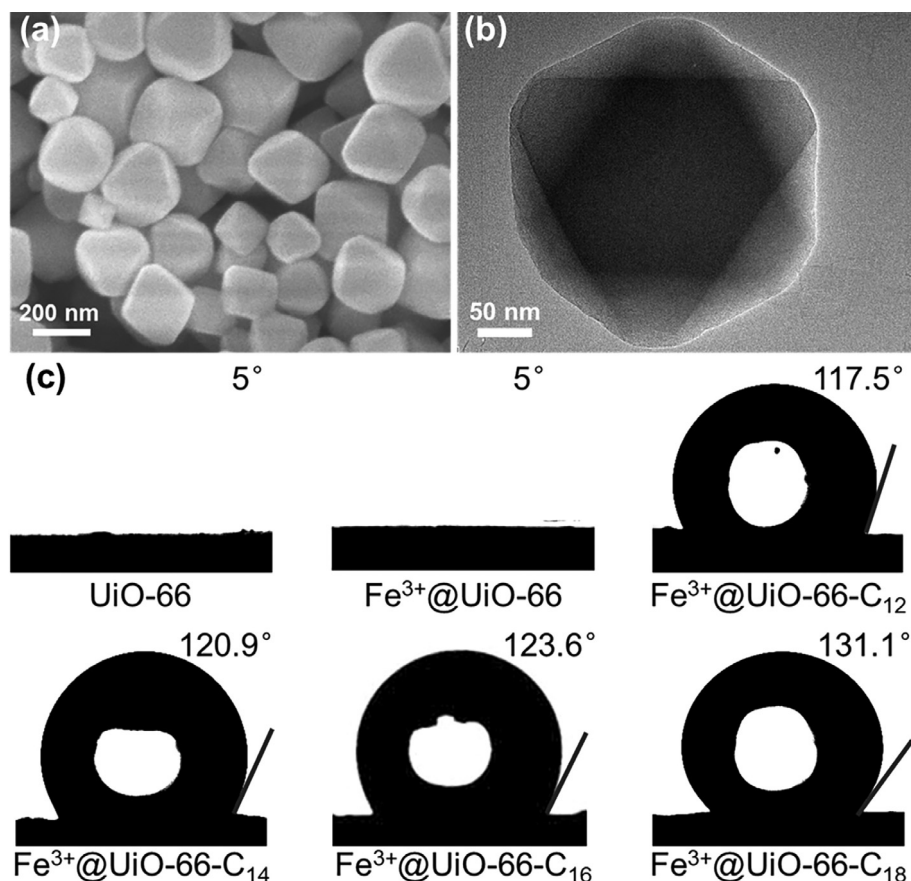


Fig. 1. SEM (a) and TEM (b) images for Fe³⁺@UiO-66-C₁₄. (c) Static water contact angles of UiO-66, Fe³⁺@UiO-66 and Fe³⁺@UiO-66-C_n ($n = 12, 14, 16$, and 18).

duction of long-chain alkyl acids converts the MOF from hydrophilic to hydrophobic. The product obtained by replacing tetradecanoic acid with methyl tetradecate, in which the carboxylic group is blocked, shows a hydrophilic feature, suggesting that the coordination between tetradecanoic acid and Zr⁴⁺ is responsible for the successful introduction of fatty acids into Fe³⁺@UiO-66-C_n catalysts (Fig. S7 online). The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface area measured by N₂ sorption isotherms gradually decreases from 1060 to 647 m² g⁻¹ (with pore size distributions mostly in the range of 6.5–15 Å) as the chain length of alkyl acids increases (Fig. S8 online). This decrease is possibly due to the mass and pore occupation by the introduced alkyl acids.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was employed to analyze the chemical state of the Fe species in these catalysts. The XPS spectrum of Fe³⁺@UiO-66 confirms the presence of Fe species in the +3 oxidation states, as evidenced by the Fe 2p_{3/2} binding energy at 711.00 eV (Fig. S9 online) [42,44]. The introduction of long-chain alkyl acids causes the Fe 2p_{3/2} peak shifts to lower binding energies. This shift is observed to gradually decrease with the increase of the chain length (Fig. S9 online), which implies an increased electron density of Fe after introducing alkyl acids. This phenomenon could be ascribed to the enhanced electron-donating effect with the increase of the alkyl chains in the fatty acids attached to the Zr-oxo clusters of UiO-66, which successively leads to varied electron transfer from long-chain alkyl acids to Fe through Zr-oxo clusters. To further investigate the Fe electronic state in the catalysts, carbon monoxide (CO) adsorption analysis using DRIFT spectroscopy is performed. As depicted in Fig. 2a, the stretching band of CO on Fe³⁺@UiO-66 is located in 1955 cm⁻¹, which is red-shifted compared to free CO (2143 cm⁻¹). Although of small magnitudes, a further red-shift

trend is observed after introducing long-chain alkyl acids, in which the trend continues gradually as the chain length increases in Fe³⁺@UiO-66-C_n. The red-shift of CO is usually ascribed to the Fe d_π → CO π* back-donation that weakens the C–O bond in comparison to free CO [45]. The observed increasing red shifts, therefore, suggest an enhanced π back-donation effect, consistent with an increased d electron density of Fe in Fe³⁺@UiO-66-C_n with increased alkyl chain lengths. Moreover, the Fe K-edge X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) spectra indicate that the absorption edge of Fe³⁺@UiO-66-C₁₄ shifts to a lower energy side compared to Fe³⁺@UiO-66, manifesting the lower oxidation state of Fe sites in the former, which is in line with the observed XPS results (Fig. 2b and Fig. S10 online).

3.2. Catalytic activity

Given the similarity between Fe-TCPP with Fe³⁺ sites and sMMO, we initially examined the catalytic performance of Fe-TCPP for the CH₄ oxidation using H₂O₂ as the oxidant at 50 °C. Consistent with expectations, Fe-TCPP is able to convert CH₄ to CH₃OH, despite that the conversion and selectivity to CH₃OH are very low (Fig. 3 and Fig. S11 online). The poor performance may be attributed to the formation of the bridged μ-oxide dimers occurred in the Fe-TCPP catalyst [46,47]. To our delight, compared to Fe-TCPP, Fe³⁺@UiO-66 shows a much better CH₃OH yield (2.95 vs. 0.07 μmol) and selectivity (15.4% vs. 2.9%) in the CH₄ oxidation (Fig. 3). The significantly improved performance highlights that UiO-66 as a support plays a critical role in converting CH₄ to CH₃OH. Anchoring dodecylic (C₁₂) acid to the MOF leads to a further enhancement in CH₃OH selectivity to 27.3% (76.1% among all liquid oxygenate products). Remarkably, the CH₃OH selectivity continuously

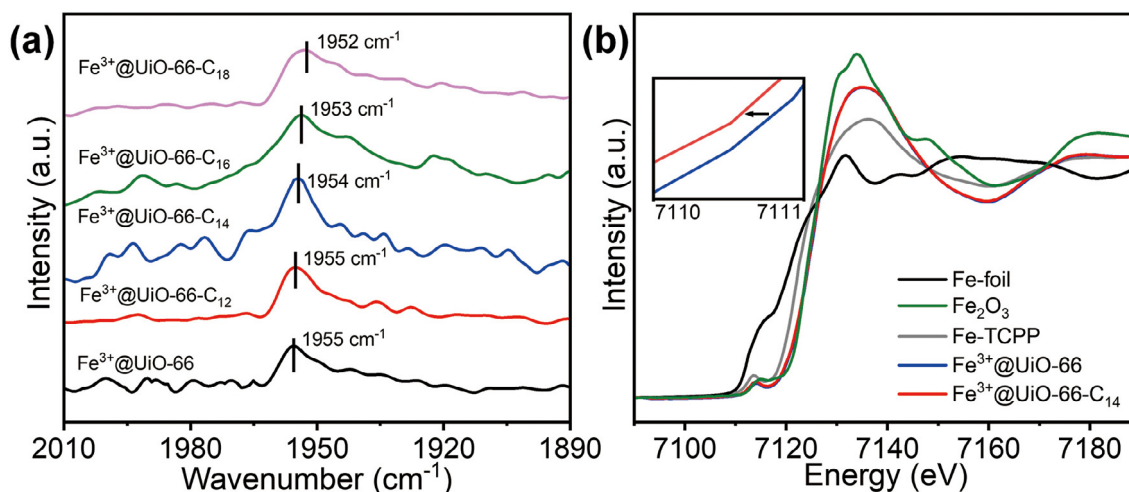


Fig. 2. (Color online) (a) DRIFT spectra of CO adsorbed on Fe^{3+} @UiO-66 and Fe^{3+} @UiO-66- C_n ($n = 12, 14, 16,$ and 18) after being purged with Ar for 30 min. (b) The Fe K-edge XANES spectra for Fe foil, Fe-TCPP, Fe_2O_3 , Fe^{3+} @UiO-66, and Fe^{3+} @UiO-66- C_{14} .

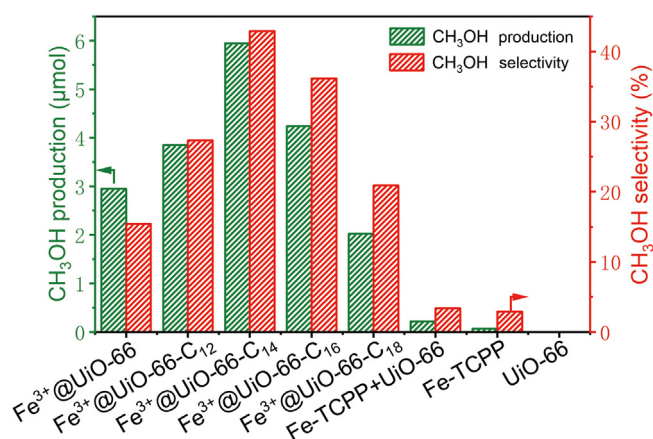


Fig. 3. (Color online) Catalytic performance of Fe^{3+} @UiO-66, Fe^{3+} @UiO-66- C_n ($n = 12, 14, 16,$ and 18), Fe-TCPP, UiO-66, and Fe-TCPP + UiO-66 for CH_4 oxidation (reaction conditions: catalyst 27 mg, CH_4 pressure 30 bar, H_2O_2 0.5 mol L^{-1} (aq), 50 °C, reaction time 30 min).

increases and reaches a maximum of 42.9% (77.0% among all liquid products) when tetradecanoic (C_{14}) acid is furnished onto the MOF. Subsequently, the selectivity of CH_3OH decreases to 36.2% and 20.9% with the further increase of the chain lengths to palmitic (C_{16}) acid and stearic (C_{18}) acid, respectively. Overall, as the chain length of the alkyl acids increases, the CH_3OH selectivity exhibits a volcano-type trend (Fig. 3). Under the optimal conditions, a normalized activity of 55.8 $\text{mmol g}_{\text{Fe}}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ with a selectivity of 42.9% for CH_3OH has been realized by Fe^{3+} @UiO-66- C_{14} , which is a catalyst based on the earth-abundant element of Fe. The overall performance of Fe^{3+} @UiO-66- C_{14} surpasses that of some state-of-art catalysts in CH_4 oxidation [3,20,48], and is even comparable to the catalysts that use noble metals (Table S4 online) [1,38,49]. Taken together, the aforementioned results demonstrate that the activity and CH_3OH selectivity in the CH_4 conversion are effectively regulated by the hydrophobic microenvironment of the Fe-TCPP sites created by the long-chain alkyl acids with varying chain lengths.

To determine the carbon source in the products, we have conducted an isotope labeling experiment using $^{13}\text{CH}_4$ as the reactant. The products of $^{13}\text{CH}_4$ oxidation over Fe^{3+} @UiO-66- C_{14} have been analyzed using the synchrotron radiation photoionization mass

spectrometry (SR-PIMS) at a photon energy of 11.8 eV. The spectrum shows signals at $m/z = 33$ and 47, which are assignable to $^{13}\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ and H^{13}COOH , respectively (Fig. 4a and Fig. S11 online), confirming that CH_3OH is indeed produced through the oxidation of CH_4 . The peaks of formaldehyde (HCHO), which is considered to be an overoxidation product of CH_3OH , are also observed at $m/z = 31$ or 30 when $^{13}\text{CH}_4$ or $^{12}\text{CH}_4$ is used, respectively (Fig. 4a) [50]. As an intermediate, the concentration of HCHO in the reaction system is low because of its rapid oxidation into HCOOH and CO_2 . Additionally, the overlap of its chemical shift with H_2O makes its detection challenging by ^1H nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR). However, here, SR-PIMS allows a convincing identification of the existence of HCHO. The signal of HCHO is intensified when CH_3OH is used (Fig. 4a and Fig. S12 online). The product HCOOH can be detected regardless of whether CH_3OH or HCHO is used as the reactant (Figs. S13, S14 online). The *operando* SR-PIMS results indicate that HCHO appears at the early stage of CH_4 oxidation, whereas the signal of HCOOH does not appear until 20 min after the oxidation (Fig. S15 online). Therefore, it is very likely that CH_4 is initially oxidized to CH_3OH and CH_3OOH , which are further converted to HCHO and HCOOH.

Recycling experiments demonstrate that Fe^{3+} @UiO-66- C_{14} exhibited no noticeable activity or selectivity loss during the three consecutive runs (Fig. 4b). Furthermore, powder XRD patterns manifest that the crystallinity of Fe^{3+} @UiO-66- C_{14} remains after the catalysis and no additional peaks can be observed (Fig. S16 online). The N_2 sorption isotherm of Fe^{3+} @UiO-66- C_{14} after the reaction shows the preserved porous nature of the MOF after the reaction (Fig. S17 online). FTIR and ^1H NMR spectra of Fe^{3+} @UiO-66- C_{14} before and after the reaction exhibit minimal differences, demonstrating that the organic components of the catalysts are stable during the reaction (Figs. S18, S19 online). The preference of oxidation on C-H bond of methane rather than on C-C and C-O bonds of the catalyst may be attributed to the spatial segregation and polarity mismatch between the C-O/C-H bonds and Fe sites [51]. Meanwhile, the Fe content in the catalyst is also maintained as confirmed by the ICP-AES results (Table S2 online). XPS data confirmed the persistence of the +3 oxidation state of Fe after the catalytic test (Fig. S20 online). Contact angle analysis of the catalyst Fe^{3+} @UiO-66- C_{14} after the reaction suggests that its hydrophobic nature remains after the catalytic test (Fig. S21 online). These findings collectively demonstrate the excellent stability of the Fe^{3+} @UiO-66- C_{14} catalyst, possibly attributed to

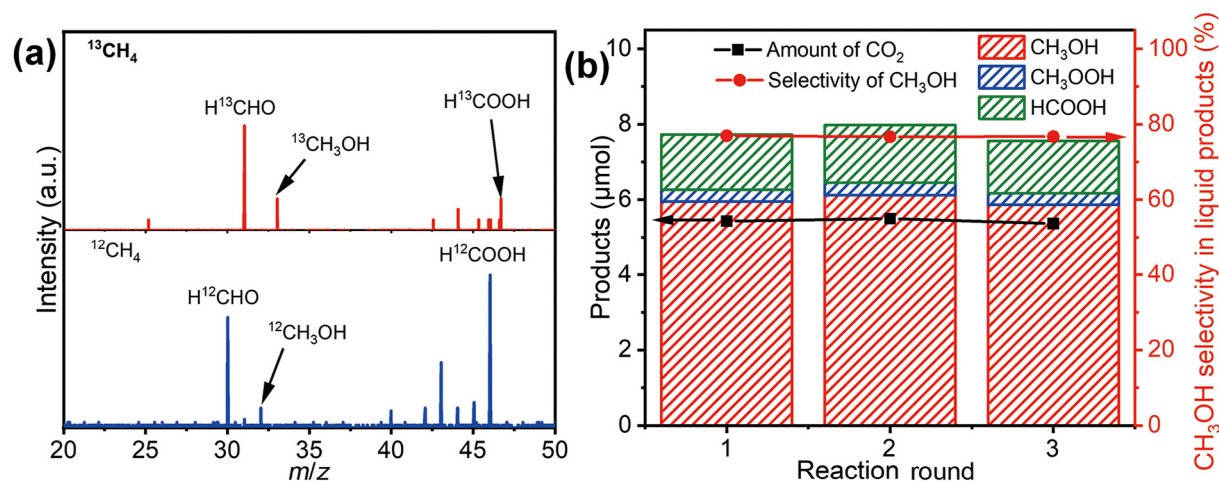


Fig. 4. (Color online) (a) Photoionization mass spectra of the products in the $^{13}\text{CH}_4$ and $^{12}\text{CH}_4$ oxidation reactions over $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66-C_{14}$ with H_2O_2 as the oxidant at a photon energy of 11.8 eV, and (b) recycling performance of $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66-C_{14}$ in the CH_4 oxidation.

the robust MOF skeleton that effectively prevents the leaching and dimerization of the hosted active Fe-TCPP units.

3.3. Mechanism study

Given the widely accepted notion that CH_4 adsorption and activation on the catalyst play a crucial role in initiating the oxidation of CH_4 [50], we have performed temperature-programmed desorption mass spectrometric analysis (TPD-MS) with CH_4 as feed gas to study the adsorption of CH_4 on the surface of different catalysts. The results suggest that the desorption temperatures of CH_4 from $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66$ are approximately 129 and 278 °C, which can be assigned to different CH_4 consumption processes. These two temperatures rise to 144 and 292 °C, respectively, for $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66-C_{14}$ (Fig. 5a). Meanwhile, the CH_4 uptake of $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66-C_{14}$ is $11.1 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ at 1 bar (1 bar = 100 kPa) and 298 K, higher than the $8.1 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ for $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66$ (Fig. S22 online). Both results jointly support that the incorporation of the alkyl acids improves CH_4 adsorption. Since the CH_4 and CH_3OH oxidations compete for the Fe active sites, the enhanced CH_4 adsorption is expected to reduce the relative concentration of CH_3OH around the Fe sites, thereby suppressing the CH_3OH overoxidation and promoting higher selectivity to CH_3OH [50]. This assumption agrees with the experimental results: the overoxidized products (HCOOH and CO_2) obtained by $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66$ account for 78.9% of all the CH_4 oxidation products, whereas the corresponding overoxidized products over $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66-C_{14}$ are reduced to 52.4%.

To further examine the activation of CH_4 adsorbed on the catalyst, near-ambient pressure XPS (NAP-XPS) has been carried out on $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66-C_{14}$ (Fig. 5b). Two peaks at 284.8 and 288.8 eV that are assigned to the C=C, C-C, C-H, and C=O bands of the organic linker (BDC) and tetradecanoic acid in the catalyst are observed on the C 1s spectra [52,53]. There is no additional peak observed after exposing the sample to 1 mbar of CH_4 at 300 K, which may be due to the overlapping between the CH_4 signals and those noted above. Upon increasing the temperature to 450 K, a new peak at 285.5 eV can be observed, which is identified as the characteristic peak of $^*\text{CH}_x$ (including $\cdot\text{CH}_3$, $\cdot\text{CH}_2$, and $\cdot\text{CH}$) species. This result implies that CH_4 undergoes activation on the surface of the catalyst, consistent with the literature reports [2,54,55]. Additionally, the formation of $\cdot\text{CH}_3$ from the attack of CH_4 by reactive oxygen species generated by H_2O_2 may also contribute to the activation of CH_4 in the actual catalytic reactions [56–58]. *In situ* diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform (DRIFTS) has been adopted

to identify the intermediate species on different catalysts. Two peaks at 1305 and 3015 cm^{-1} appear upon exposing the catalyst to a CH_4 atmosphere for 30 min, which can be recognized as the characteristic peaks of adsorbed CH_4 (Fig. S23 online) [56,59–61]. These peaks are assigned to $^*\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ (1745 cm^{-1}), $^*\text{CO}$ (1823 and 1952 cm^{-1}), and $^*\text{CH}_3\text{O}$ (2856 cm^{-1}), providing evidence for the conversion of CH_4 to oxygenated species on the catalyst (Fig. 5c) [59–62]. In comparison to $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66$, $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66-C_{14}$ exhibits an increased peak intensity of the $^*\text{CH}_3\text{O}$ intermediate while the intensities of $^*\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ and $^*\text{CO}$ decrease. This observation aligns with the enhanced CH_3OH selectivity of $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66-C_{14}$. In the reaction, the Fe site has several roles. Our above results show that CH_4 is first adsorbed on the Fe site, then activated to form $^*\text{CH}_x$, and further oxidated to $^*\text{CH}_3\text{O}$, $^*\text{CO}_3^{2-}$, $^*\text{CO}$, and other adsorbed species. After the reaction, these adsorbed species will be released from the Fe site to form the products. In this context, the electronic state of Fe sites will have a strong effect on interactions between the Fe site, CH_4 , and intermediate species, thereby influencing the activation of CH_4 and the desorption of products.

In addition to $\cdot\text{CH}_x$, reactive oxygen species, such as superoxide anion radical (O_2^-) or hydroxyl radical ($\cdot\text{OH}$) generated from H_2O_2 , are also important intermediates involved in CH_4 oxidation. To probe the specific reactive oxygen species in the reaction, electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) experiments employing 5,5-dimethyl-pyrroline-N-oxide (DMPO) as a radical trapping agent have been conducted. The EPR spectrum of the reaction mixture using $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66$ exhibits a characteristic signal of DMPO-OH· (Fig. 5d), providing evidence that $\cdot\text{OH}$ is the main reactive oxygen species in the reaction. No DMPO- $\text{CH}_3\cdot$ peaks can be observed possibly due to the rapid combination of $\cdot\text{CH}_3$ with the abundant $\cdot\text{OH}$ [18,19]. In comparison to $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66$, the signal intensity of DMPO-OH· generated by $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66-C_{14}$ is much weaker, indicating that the concentration of $\cdot\text{OH}$ in the reaction solution is greatly reduced upon introducing tetradecanoic acid. Since the $\cdot\text{OH}$ concentration is likely associated with the effective H_2O_2 concentration around Fe sites, we have conducted a decomposition test of H_2O_2 to estimate the accessibility of H_2O_2 to Fe active sites in $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66$ and $\text{Fe}^{3+}@UiO-66-C_n$. The results manifest that the decomposition rate gradually decreases for the catalysts with increased chain lengths of the alkyl acids (Fig. S24 online). Increasing the chain length results in the enhanced hydrophobicity of the catalyst, thereby impeding the diffusion of the hydrophilic H_2O_2 through the hydrophobic shell to access Fe active sites. In this scenario, the long-chain alkyl acids behave as “molecular-fence”, con-

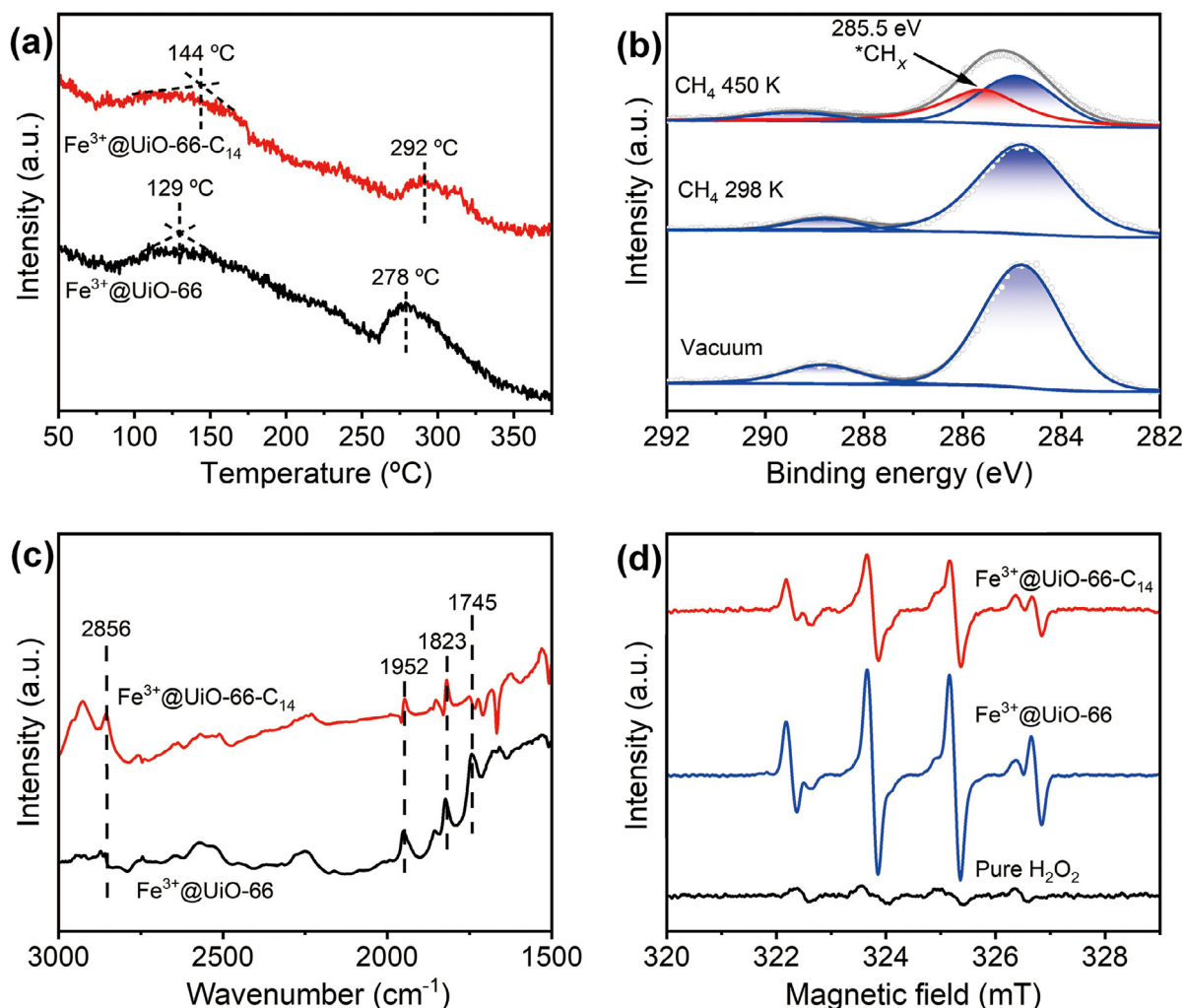


Fig. 5. (Color online) (a) TPD-MS profiles ($m/z = 16$) of CH₄ on the Fe³⁺@UiO-66 and Fe³⁺@UiO-66-C₁₄. (b) The C 1s XPS spectra of Fe³⁺@UiO-66-C₁₄ measured in ultrahigh vacuum and after introducing 1 mbar of CH₄ at different temperatures. (c) DRIFT spectra of CH₄ adsorbed on Fe³⁺@UiO-66 and Fe³⁺@UiO-66-C₁₄ after purging with Ar gas for 30 min. Species appear when the physically adsorbed CH₄ is removed by Ar flushing (agbubbling through H₂O₂ solution). (d) EPR detection of ·OH generation over Fe³⁺@UiO-66 and Fe³⁺@UiO-66-C₁₄ with H₂O₂ as the oxidant and DMPO as the radical trapping agent.

trolling the H₂O₂ concentration around the Fe sites [1]. Thus, the amount of H₂O₂ trapped by the catalysts gradually decreases with increasing chain length of the alkyl acids, supporting the gating effect of the fatty acids to H₂O₂ diffusion (Table S3 online). In the reaction, H₂O₂ participates not only in CH₄ to CH₃OH transformation but also in CH₃OH to HCOOH or CO₂ conversions. Thus the amount of H₂O₂ around the Fe sites should be controlled to a suitable level to promote the CH₄ to CH₃OH path, meanwhile suppresses CH₃OH to HCOOH or CO₂ path. Considering that the ·OH generated from H₂O₂ is involved in both the formation and overoxidation of CH₃OH, Fe³⁺@UiO-66-C₁₄, with its moderate hydrophobicity, has the potential to keep an optimal amount of ·OH around the Fe sites among all catalysts, thus giving rise to the highest CH₃OH selectivity.

4. Conclusion

In summary, Fe(III) porphyrin is incorporated into a MOF dangling with alkyl acids bearing different chain lengths, affording a catalytic platform inspired by the structure of sMMO, namely Fe³⁺@UiO-66-C_n. The resulting catalysts demonstrate remarkable selectivity in CH₄ oxidation to CH₃OH at near room temperature with the aid of H₂O₂. Importantly, the long-chain fatty acids

anchored to UiO-66 provide an effective means to fine-tune the CH₃OH selectivity by modulating the electronic state of Fe active sites, improving CH₄ adsorption and restricting the amount of H₂O₂ around the Fe sites, akin to the microenvironment modulation mechanism found in sMMO. With proper hydrophobic modulation, the catalyst Fe³⁺@UiO-66-C₁₄ maintains optimal H₂O₂ encompassment and ·OH concentration around Fe sites, effectively mitigating the overoxidation of CH₃OH and thereby leading to the highest CH₃OH selectivity among Fe³⁺@UiO-66-C_n catalysts. This work serves as a vivid and unprecedented illustration of the rational fabrication of bioinspired catalysts, wherein the microenvironment of catalytic sites is finely tuned through the utilization of MOFs as a multifunctional platform.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Author contributions

Jianfei Sui and Ming-Liang Gao performed the experiments and wrote the manuscript; Bing Qian, Chengyuan Liu, and Yang Pan preformed the SR-PIMS experiments; Zheng Meng discussed the results and contributed to the scientific interpretation and editing of the manuscript; Daqiang Yuan preformed the CH₄ uptake experiments; Hai-Long Jiang led the project and supervised the research. All authors discussed the results and commented on the manuscript.

Appendix A. Supplementary materials

Supplementary materials to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scib.2023.07.031>.

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