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Artificial photosynthesis for production of hydrogen peroxide and its fuel cells^{*}



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ABSTRACT

The reducing power released from photosystem I (PSI) via ferredoxin enables the reduction of NADP⁺ to NADPH, which is essential in the Calvin–Benson cycle to make sugars in photosynthesis. Alternatively, PSI can reduce O_2 to produce hydrogen peroxide as a fuel. This article describes the artificial version of the photocatalytic production of hydrogen peroxide from water and O_2 using solar energy. Hydrogen peroxide is used as a fuel in hydrogen peroxide fuel cells to make electricity. The combination of the photocatalytic H_2O_2 production from water and O_2 using solar energy with one-compartment H_2O_2 fuel cells provides on-site production and usage of H_2O_2 as a more useful and promising solar fuel than hydrogen. This article is part of a Special Issue entitled Biodesign for Bioenergetics – The design and engineering of electronc transfer cofactors, proteins and protein networks, edited by Ronald L. Koder and J.L. Ross Anderson.

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1. Introduction

Nature has optimized solar energy conversion within finely tuned molecular systems called photosynthetic reaction center proteins (RCs), in which efficient charge separation occurs with a high quantum efficiency to attain long-lived charge-separated state in photosystem I (PSI) and photosystem II (PSII) [1–4]. Photons absorbed by PSII are used to oxidize water in the oxygen-evolving complex (OEC) connected to PSII. The pH gradient formed over the thylakoid membrane during light-driven electron transport through PSII and PSI is concomitantly utilized by the ATP synthase (ATPase) for ATP formation [1–4]. The reducing power released from PSI via PSII by water oxidation enables the reduction of NADP⁺ to NADPH by which CO₂ is reduced in the well-known Calvin-Benson cycle [1-4]. Alternatively, PSI can reduce various electron acceptors [5–8] including dioxygen (O₂) in the Mehler reaction to produce hydrogen peroxide via disproportionation of superoxide anion [9,10]. The electron flow from the photosynthetic electron transport chain to molecular oxygen in the Mehler reaction can eliminate the excess of light energy, thus preventing the electron transport chain from photoinhibition [11–18]. Under normal functional conditions the reduction of molecular oxygen may represent about 5-10% of the total photosynthetic electron flow in C3 plants, however it can increase to 30% and even higher under stress conditions [19-21]. Mitochondria also produces H₂O₂, but at a rate approximately 20 times

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slower in the light, indicating the potential importance of the Mehler reaction to the cellular level of H_2O_2 [22]. It is now widely accepted that H_2O_2 is utilized in metabolic regulation in ways similar to diffusible gases such as NO, CO, or H_2S [23–26].

Because of the large amount of energy released in the dismutation of hydrogen peroxide to water and dioxygen (Eq. (1): $\Delta G'^0 =$ - 100 kJ/mol) [27–29], it has become a powerful fuel material in the use of rocket propulsion [30–34] and micromotors [35–37].

$$2H_2O_2 \rightarrow 2H_2O + O_2 \tag{1}$$

Whole cells of microalgae or chloroplasts have been utilized for hydrogen peroxide production, exhibiting a variable efficiency depending on the origin of the photosynthetic membranes used as photocatalyst [38,39].

Hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) has recently received ever increasing attention as an alternative solar fuel to hydrogen. When H_2O_2 , which contains two atoms of hydrogen and two atoms of oxygen, is used as a fuel, the only byproducts are steam, oxygen and heat with zero emissions of greenhouse gases. In contrast to gaseous hydrogen, hydrogen peroxide is a liquid, with low concentration (up to 10%) aqueous solutions used for bleaching hair, teeth, wood pulp and other products. High concentration (over 80%) aqueous solutions are generally used for a fuel. Hydrogen peroxide as a liquid form can also be easily transported over long distances using tankers, trucks and trains. Hydrogen peroxide can also be easily stored using a hydrogen peroxide fuel infrastructure, which would be similar to the current gasoline infrastructure. In contrast to hydrogen fuel cells, hydrogen peroxide fuel cells can operate with the absence of dioxygen environment, such as outer space and underwater

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conditions without membranes and the use of hydrogen peroxide instead of O₂ as an oxidant can substantially increase the theoretical voltage of fuel cells and thus improve cell performance [40,41]. Hydrogen peroxide is currently produced in industry by an anthraquinone (AQ) process, in which Pd-catalyzed hydrogenation of AQ with H₂ produces anthrahydroquinone (H₂AQ) and subsequent oxidation of H₂AQ by O₂ yields H₂O₂ [42,43]. The AO process is successfully used to produce most of the world's H_2O_2 because it avoids explosive H_2/O_2 gas mixture. However, the AO process suffers from several drawbacks, such as use of complex and toxic solvent system, periodic replacement of catalysts due to deactivation of catalysts, requirements of energy intensive processes for the removal of organic impurities. Transportation of H₂O₂ creates additional safety concerns because concentrated H₂O₂ can be explosive if it violently decomposes with metal catalysts. The high capital investment and operating costs for the AO process economically have precluded producing H₂O₂ on-site at the end users facility. Thus, it is highly desired to produce hydrogen peroxide by a one-step process from H_2 and O_2 or more ideally from H₂O and O₂ as observed in natural photosynthesis (vide supra). This review focuses on the recent development of direct synthesis of H₂O₂ and artificial photosynthesis for production of hydrogen peroxide using solar energy and also its fuel cells to make electricity.

2. Direct synthesis of H₂O₂

Extensive efforts have so far been devoted to develop direct synthesis of H_2O_2 from H_2 and O_2 using heterogeneous catalysts [44–47]. The major problem associated with the direct synthesis of hydrogen peroxide using heterogeneous catalysts comes from the limited selectivity of hydrogen usage due to undesired reactions such as formation of H_2O_2 , decomposition of H_2O_2 , and hydrogenation of H_2O_2 [44–47]. In addition, it has been quite difficult to elucidate the heterogeneous catalytic mechanism as compared with the homogeneous catalytic mechanism, in which intermediates can be detected. The first direct synthesis of H_2O_2 from H_2 and O_2 in a homogeneous system water was reported by using a watersoluble iridium aqua complex [Ir^{III}(Cp*)(4-(1H-pyrazol-1-yl- κN^2)benzoic acid- κC^3)(H₂O)]₂SO₄ ([1]₂SO4) and flavin mononucleotide (FMN) in water [48].

The carboxylic acid group in **1** is deprotonated to give the carboxylate form, **1-H**⁺ at pH 6.0 [Eq. (1)] [49,50]. **1-H**⁺ reacts with H₂ to produce the hydride complex (**2**) [Eq. (2)] [49,50]. **2** can reduce FMN to FMNH₂ at pH 6.0 [Eq. (3)]. FMNH₂ is well known to be oxidized by O₂ to regenerate FMN, accompanied by formation of H₂O₂ [Eq. (4)] [51,52]. The overall catalytic cycle for the direct selective synthesis of H₂O₂ from H₂ and O₂ with **1** and FMN is given by Scheme 1 [48]. The reduction of H₂O₂ to H₂O by H₂ was also catalyzed by **1** [48]. However, the reduction of H₂O₂ was retarded by the presence of Sc³⁺. Thus, the inhibition of further hydrogenation of H₂O₂ is known to be stabilized by Sc₃₊ [53]. When 1 (1 μ M) and FMN (50 μ M) were used, TON based on 1 reached 847 for 4 h [48].







Scheme 1. Catalytic cycle for production of H_2O_2 from H_2 and O_2 with a water-soluble iridium aqua complex (1) and FMN in water.



3. Photocatalytic reduction of O₂ to H₂O₂

Oxalic acid is used as a reductant for the two-electron reduction of O_2 to produce H_2O_2 in the enzymatic active center of oxalate oxidase [54–57]. Oxalate oxidase catalyzes the oxidation of oxalate and reduction of O_2 to H_2O_2 to produce two moles of carbon dioxide [Eq. (5)] [54–57]. Oxalate ion used as the reductant in Eq. (5) is produced in a

$$(COO^{-})_{2} + 2H^{+} + O_{2} \rightarrow 2CO_{2} + H_{2}O_{2}$$
 (5)

metabolic system during decomposition of glucose, which is produced from carbon dioxide and water by photosynthesis of plants. Thus, oxalic acid can be regarded as a carbon neutral reductant, although CO_2 is emitted after reaction [Eq. (5)]. Oxalate can be found in the soil and leaves of various vegetables at a high content of ~1 wt.% [58].

Production of hydrogen peroxide from oxalate was made possible by using 2-phenyl-4-(1-naphthyl)quinolinium ion (QuPh⁺–NA) as an organic photocatalyst as shown in Scheme 2 [59,60]. Upon photoirradiation of QuPh⁺–NA, intramolecular electron transfer occurs from the NA moiety to the singlet excited state of the QuPh⁺ moiety to produce the electron-transfer state (QuPh•–NA•⁺), which forms the π-dimer radial cation with QuPh⁺–NA [61,62]. The NA•⁺ moiety of the π-dimer radial cation can oxidize oxalate dianion. The secondorder rate constant of electron transfer from oxalate dianion to the NA•⁺ moiety of the π-dimer radical cation was determined by monitoring transient absorption in laser flash photolysis experiments to be $1.6 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ in an acetonitrile-water mixed solution with water content of 10% [59]. The QuPh• moiety of π-dimer radial cation can reduce O₂ to O₂•⁻ which disproportionates with protons to produce



Scheme 2. Chemical structure of $QuPh^+$ -NA and overall catalytic cycle for H_2O_2 production.

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