

Isoreticular Metal–Organic Frameworks Confined Mononuclear Ru-Hydrides Enable Highly Efficient Shape-Selective Hydrogenolysis of Polyolefins

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Catalytic hydrogenolysis is highly appealing to convert polyolefins into targeted value-added products under mild reaction conditions compared with other methods, such as high-temperature incineration and pyrolysis. We have developed three isoreticular zirconium UiO-metal–organic frameworks (UiO-MOFs) node-supported ruthenium dihydrides (UiO-RuH₂), which are efficient heterogeneous catalysts for hydrogenolysis of polyethylene at 200 °C, affording liquid hydrocarbons with a narrow distribution and excellent selectivity via shape-selective catalysis. UiO-66-RuH₂ catalyzed hydrogenolysis of single-use low-density polyethylene (LDPE) produced a C12 centered narrow bell-shaped distribution of C8–



C16 alkanes in >80% yield and 90% selectivity in the liquid phase. By tuning the pore sizes of the isoreticular UiO-RuH₂ MOF catalysts, the distribution of the products could be systematically altered, affording different fuel-grade liquid hydrocarbons from LDPE in high yields. Our spectroscopic and theoretical studies and control experiments reveal that UiO-RuH₂ catalysts enable highly efficient upcycling of plastic wastes under mild conditions owing to their unique combination of coordinatively unsaturated single-site Ru-active sites, uniform and tunable pores, well-defined porous structure, and superior stability. The kinetics and theoretical calculations also identify the C–C bond scission involving β -alkyl transfer as the turnover-limiting step.

KEYWORDS: MOFs, hydrogenolyis, polyolefins, ruthenium dihydrides, low-density polyethylene

INTRODUCTION

With an estimated valuation of USD 609 billion in 2022, the global plastics market is expected to grow further.¹ The usage of single-use plastics for gloves, personal protective equipment, masks, and food packaging has increased in the post-COVID era. With almost 400 million metric tons of plastic being generated annually,² polyolefins such as polyethylene and polypropylene contribute about 60% of that total, and nearly 80% of these end up in landfills or oceans.³ The strong sp³ carbon-carbon covalent bonds in polyolefins increase the stability and durability; however, they also induce difficulties in the degradation and upcycling of the plastics.⁴ Popular methods of utilizing plastic waste involve energy-intensive incineration⁵⁻⁷ and pyrolysis,⁸⁻¹⁰ where the plastic waste is heated at 800-1200 °C in the presence or absence of oxygen to generate heat or liquid oil, syngas, and char, respectively. However, the requirement of high temperature, emission of greenhouse gases and hazardous toxins, and lack of control over product selectivity make these processes environmentally and economically unviable at a massive scale.

Catalytic hydrogenolysis of polyolefins offers an attractive pathway for controlling product selectivity under milder reaction conditions in converting polyolefins to targeted value-added products.¹¹ Dufaud and Basset reported the hydrogenolysis of polyethylene and polypropylene to diesel or lower alkanes using a silica–alumina supported zirconium hydride catalyst.¹² Recently, several heterogeneous catalysts, such as Pt/C,¹³ Pt/SrTiO₃,^{14,15} mSiO₂/Pt/SiO₂,¹⁶ Pt/Al₂O₃,¹⁷ Ru/C,^{18–21} Ru/CeO₂,²² Ru/TiO₂,²³ and Ru/ZrO₂,²⁴ have also been developed for such transformations under relatively mild conditions. However, these nanoparticle-based catalytic systems contain a high-loading of precious metals and multiple active sites that lead to the formation of liquid and gaseous hydrocarbons with a broad distribution due to the random C–

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Figure 1. (a) Synthesis of UiO-66-RuH₂ via postsynthetic metalation of the UiO-66 MOF. (b) PXRD patterns of the simulated UiO-66 MOF (black), pristine UiO-66 (red), UiO-66-RuCl₂ (magenta), UiO-66-RuH₂ (green), and UiO-66-Ru recovered after the hydrogenolysis of polyethylene (blue). (c) PXRD patterns of the simulated UiO-67 MOF (black), pristine UiO-67 (red), UiO-67-RuH₂ (green), and UiO-67-Ru recovered after the hydrogenolysis of polyethylene (blue). (d) PXRD patterns of the simulated UiO-68 MOF (black), pristine UiO-68 (red), UiO-68-RuH₂ (blue), and UiO-68-Ru recovered after the hydrogenolysis of polyethylene (blue). (d) PXRD patterns of the simulated UiO-68 MOF (black), pristine UiO-68 (red), UiO-68-RuH₂ (blue), and UiO-68-Ru recovered after the hydrogenolysis of polyethylene (magenta). (e) N₂ sorption isotherms (77 K) of UiO-66 (gray), UiO-66-RuH₂ (black), UiO-67 (blue), UiO-67-RuH₂ (magenta), UiO-68 (red), and UiO-68-RuH₂ (maroon). (f) SEM image of a UiO-66-RuH₂ particle along with the elemental mapping of Zr and Ru. (g) Ru 3p XPS spectra of (i) Ru(0)-nanoparticles@UiO-66, (ii) RuCl₃·3H₂O (iii) UiO-66-RuH₂, and (iv) UiO-66-RuH₂.

C bond cleavage.²⁵ Moreover, many such catalysts suffer from difficulty in controlling the sizes of metal nanoparticles and nonuniform pore surfaces and require preactivation at high temperatures.

Shape-selective catalysts such as ZSM-5, zeolites, and silicalite-1 are widely used in the petroleum industry for isomerization of hydrocarbons, dehydration reactions and production of synthetic gasoline, owing to their uniform pore structure, high thermal stability, and high concentration of active sites.^{26–35} Huang and Sadow recently reported the pore template effect on the overall distribution of products in the

hydrogenolysis of polyolefins using a platinum nanoparticle catalyst embedded in mesoporous silica shell supported on a solid silica sphere, $mSiO_2/Pt$ -Size/SiO₂.³⁶ We envisioned that developing single-site metal catalysts within porous materials having uniform and tunable pores would better control the C–C bond cleavage and product selectivity during the hydrogenolysis of polyolefins via shape-selective catalysis.

As porous and tunable molecular material, metal–organic frameworks (MOFs) have drawn immense interest for developing single-site heterogeneous catalysts for various applications.^{37–71}



Figure 2. (a) Ru K-edge XANES spectra of Ru foil (black), RuO₂ (magenta), RuCl₃·3H₂O (red), UiO-66-RuCl₂ (green), UiO-66-RuH₂ (blue) and UiO-66-Ru after hydrogenolysis (4 μ mol of Ru) of 0.6 g of polyethylene at 200 °C for 72 h under 35 bar H₂ pressure (turquoise). (b) EXAFS spectra (blue solid and hollow triangles) and fits (black solid and dashed lines) of UiO-66-RuCl₂ in the R space at the Ru K-edge. The fitting range in the R space is 1.1–4 Å. (c) EXAFS spectra (red solid and hollow triangles) and fits (black solid and hollow triangles) of UiO-66-RuH₂ in the R space at the Ru K-edge. The fitting range in the R space is 1.1–4 Å. (d) k^2 -weighted Ru-EXAFS χ (R) spectra of UiO-66-RuH₂ (black), Ru foil (red), RuCl₃·3H₂O (blue), and RuO₂ (magenta). (e) Wavelet transform for the k^2 -weighted EXAFS signal at the Ru K-edge.

Owing to their isoreticular nature, ease of tunability of pores, uniform porous and crystalline structures, MOFs have also been employed for size- or shape-selective catalysis.⁷²⁻⁷⁶ Notably, the metal oxo cluster-based secondary-building units (SBUs) of MOFs, resembling tiny metal-oxide clusters, offer unique oxide support for developing single-site metal catalysts via active-site isolation.⁷⁷⁻⁸⁸ We herein present a state-of-theart catalytic architecture comprising single-site ruthenium hydride catalysts supported by the SBUs of isoreticular Zr-UiO-MOFs for shape-selective hydrogenolysis of polyolefins. Zr-UiO-MOFs, constructed from Zr₆O₄(OH)₄ SBUs bridged by linear dicarboxylate linkers, have *fcu* topology and excellent thermal and chemical stability.⁸⁹ We demonstrate that because of the unique combination of single-site nature and uniform porous structure, UiO-RuH₂ catalysts enable efficient hydrogenolysis of polyethylene into short-chain hydrocarbons with a narrow distribution. By tuning the pore sizes of the isoreticular UiO-RuH₂ MOF catalysts, the distribution of the products could be systematically altered, affording different fuel-grade liquid hydrocarbons with narrow alkane distributions from the single-use polyethylene in high yields.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Synthesis and Characterization of Isoreticular UiO-MOF Node Supported Ru-Dihydrides (UiO-66-RuH₂, UiO-67-RuH₂, and UiO-68-RuH₂)

Three isoreticular MOF-supported Ru-dihydrides, UiO-66-RuH₂, UiO-67-RuH₂, and UiO-68-RuH₂, were synthesized by postsynthetic metalation of the nodes of the corresponding

freshly prepared UiO-66, UiO-67, and UiO-68 MOFs. UiO-MOFs, having 3D porous UiO-topology, are constructed from $Zr_6O_4(OH)_4$ nodes interconnected with linear dicarboxylate bridging linkers.^{89,90} The treatment of UiO-MOFs with *n*-BuLi in THF to deprotonate the μ_3 -OH groups at the nodes followed by reaction with RuCl₃ in THF at room temperature afforded the corresponding UiO-RuCl₂. Subsequently, the reaction of UiO-RuCl₂ and NaEt₃BH in THF furnished the corresponding UiO-RuH₂ via chloride-hydride exchange at the Ru ion. The Ru-loadings with respect to the μ_3 -OH group in UiO-66-RuH₂, UiO-67-RuH₂, and UiO-68-RuH₂ were found as 30%, 35%, and 33%, respectively, as determined by inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES) analysis of the digested MOFs. The similarity of the powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) pattern between UiO-RuCl₂, UiO-RuH₂, and the corresponding pristine UiO-MOF indicated the retention of the crystallinity and structure of the MOFs during postsynthetic treatments (Figure 1b-d).^{89,91} UiO-66-RuH₂, UiO-67-RuH₂, and UiO-68-RuH₂ had a BET surface area of 903 m^2/g , 1420 m^2/g , and 2300 m^2/g , and the corresponding pore sizes are 5.1, 6.8, and 8.1 Å, respectively (Figure 1e). A characteristic ν_{Ru-H} stretching frequency of UiO-66-RuH₂ was observed at 1980 cm⁻¹ in the Infrared spectrum (KBr) (Figure S4, SI). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) mapping of UiO-66-RuH₂ indicated that Ru and Zr are uniformly dispersed throughout the MOF particles (Figure 1f). The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra of UiO-66-RuCl₂ and UiO-66-RuH₂ confirmed the +4 oxidation state of zirconium ion at MOF nodes (Figures S28 and S29). Due to



Figure 3. Optimization of reaction conditions for the hydrogenolysis of 0.60 g of polyethylene ($M_w \sim 4000$ Da, $M_n \sim 1700$ Da). (a) Effect of the pressure on the overall product yields. Reaction conditions: 6 mg UiO-66-RuH₂ (4 µmol of Ru), 200 °C, and 72 h. (b) Effect of time on overall product yields. Reaction conditions: 6 mg of UiO-66-RuH₂ (4 µmol of Ru), 200 °C, and 35 bar H₂. (c) Effect of temperature on overall product yields. Reaction conditions: 6 mg of UiO-66-RuH₂ (4 µmol of Ru), 35 bar of H₂, and 72 h. (d) Control experiments with Ru(0)-nanoparticles and Ru(0)@UiO-66. Reaction conditions: ~ 4 µmol of Ru, 35 bar H₂, 200 °C, and 72 h.

the overlap of the 3d binding energy of ruthenium at 285 eV with the carbon 1s at 284.8 eV, the oxidation state of Ru was assigned by its 3p binding energies. The Ru_{3p3/2} and Ru_{3p1/2} binding energies of UiO-66-RuH₂ at 463.8 and 485.8 eV, respectively, suggested a +3 oxidation state of Ru. These binding energies are close to those of RuCl₃.3H₂O and UiO-66-RuCl₂, and ~2.5 eV higher than Ru(0)-nanoparticles@ UiO-66.⁹²

The +3 oxidation of Ru in UiO-66-RuCl₂ and UiO-66-RuH₂ was further confirmed by their X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES), which showed that Ru K-edge energies at ~22,118 eV were closer to that of RuCl₃.3H₂O and ~1.6 eV lower to RuO₂ (Figure 2a). The extended X-ray adsorption fine structure (EXAFS) of UiO-66-RuCl₂ at the Ru K-edge fitted well with the DFT optimized structure suggests that Ru³ is coordinated with two chlorine atoms and one μ_4 -O⁻ and is equidistant from the six neutral carboxylate oxygens present at the node (Figure 2b). Fitting the Ru K-edge EXAFS data of UiO-66-RuH₂ with its DFT-optimized structure revealed a similar coordination environment of the Ru^{3+} ion (Figure 2c). At the UiO-66-RuH₂ node, Ru is coordinated with μ_4 -O⁻ and two hydrides with a corresponding Ru-O bond distance of 1.80 Å. To check the potential existence of any Ru nanoparticles in UiO-66-RuH₂ that might be formed during the treatment of NaEt₃BH, we examined the fitting of the experimental EXAFS spectrum of UiO-66-RuH₂ to its DFT model with different percentages (5-80%) of metallic Ru (Figure S27, SI). These EXAFS analyses showed significant misfits and higher R-factors, which indicated the absence of metallic Ru nanoparticles in UiO-66-RuH₂. This is further reinstated by the absence of the Ru…Ru scattering feature of Ru foil at 2.38 Å in the phase uncorrected k^2 -weighted Ru-EXAFS $\chi(R)$ of UiO-66-RuH₂ (Figure 2d). In this spectrum,

the first scattering peak centered at ~1.4 Å is due to the Ru–O single scattering, similar to that of RuO₂, and the second weak scattering at 2.25 Å is attributed to the Ru–O_{carboxylate} multiple scattering (Figure 2d). However, Ru…Ru multiple scattering features of RuO₂ at 3.3 Å is absent in the EXAFS of UiO-66-RuH₂. In addition, the k^2 -weighted wavelet transform of the Ru atom of Ru foil showed Ru…Ru scattering at a k-value of 9 Å⁻¹, which is absent in both UiO-66-RuH₂ and UiO-66-RuCl₂ (Figure 2e and S26, SI). The only significant scattering of UiO-66-RuH₂ was observed at ~6 Å⁻¹, corresponding to the Ru–O single scattering. These EXAFS features and wavelet transformed plot suggest the existence of only isolated Ru³⁺ ions at the node of UiO-66-RuH₂, which has no Ru-neighbors.

Hydrogenolysis of Polyethylene on UiO-66-RuH₂ Catalyst

UiO-66-RuH₂ is an active catalyst for the hydrogenolysis of polyethylene using H₂. The hydrogenolysis of polyethylene was first optimized using 0.60 g of polyethylene [weightaverage molecular weight $(M_w) \sim 4000$ Da, number-average molecular weight $(M_n) \sim 1700 \text{ Da}$ and 6 mg of UiO-66-RuH₂ (4 μ mol Ru) in a high-pressure batch reactor with varying amount of H₂, temperature and time. After the reaction, the gaseous and liquid products were identified by gas chromatography (GC)-mass spectrometry (MS) and quantified via a GCflame ionization detector (FID). Heating a mixture of polyethylene and UiO-66-RuH₂ for 72 h at 200 °C under 25 bar H_2 produced a mixture of gaseous (C1-C4) and liquid (C5-C20) hydrocarbons in ~5:1 weight ratio and 82% conversion of polyethylene (Figure S13, SI). However, when the pressure was increased to 35 bar, the weight ratio of gaseous to liquid hydrocarbons dropped to 1:1.8, favoring the formation of more liquid products with 90% conversion (Figure 3a).



Figure 4. (a) Hydrogenolysis of commercially available polyethylene by differently pore sized UiO-Ru to afford liquid and gaseous products. Reaction conditions: 0.60 g of polymer substrate, ~ 4 μ mol of Ru, 200 °C, 35 bar H₂ and 72 h. (b) Hydrogenolysis of postconsumer single-use LDPE plastic bags or droppers by different pore sized UiO-Ru to afford liquid and gaseous products along with %selectivity of liquid products in several alkane ranges. Reaction conditions: 2.4 g of polymer substrate, ~ 16 μ mol of Ru, 200 °C, 35 bar H₂, and 20 h.

This ratio further diminished to 1:3 during the hydrogenolysis under 45 bar H₂, which suggests that the terminal cleavage of the C-C bonds suppresses, while the midscission of C–C bonds dominates at higher H_2 pressure. The product distribution in the UiO-66-RuH₂ catalyzed hydrogenolysis of polyethylene also varied significantly with the pressure of H₂. The liquid alkanes obtained under 35 bar H₂, were 66% selective in C5-C12 alkanes, while liquid products under 45 bar H₂ had 75% selectivity for C9-C22 alkanes (Figure 3a). Next, time-dependent hydrogenolysis was performed following the same methods under 35 bar of H₂ at 200 °C. A broad distribution of C11-C35 chains was formed in 43% polyethylene conversion after 24 h reaction. Hydrogenolysis in longer reaction time not only increased the conversion of PE, but also shifted the distribution of C_n chains in the liquid products toward lower alkanes. At the same time, the production of propane and butane dominates over that of methane in the gaseous phase (Figure S14, SI). The PE deconstruction also significantly depends on the reaction temperature. Upon increasing the temperature from 175 to 225 °C under 35 bar H₂ pressure for 72 h, the conversion of PE rose from 34% to 94%, and the gas-to-liquid product ratio increased from almost 1:7 to 18:1 due to the faster C-C bond scission at the higher temperature. The production of methane increased drastically at a temperature above 200 °C due to overhydrogenolysis, and in fact, 72% of methane was formed at 225 °C with approximately 5% liquid conversion of polyethylene (Figure 3c). Overall, the high yield of liquid hydrocarbons with narrow C_n-distribution was afforded during the hydrogenolysis of PE at 200 °C under 35 bar of H₂ pressure.

Effect of Pore Sizes of Isoreticular UiO-RuH₂ MOFs on Product Distribution and Selectivity

The pore sizes of the MOFs significantly influenced the identity of the products. The C_n-product distribution of the hydrogenolysis of polyethylene ($M_w \sim 4000$ Da, $M_n \sim 1700$ Da) under the optimized conditions using isoreticular UiO-RuH₂ MOFs is displayed in Figure 4a. A gradual shift of the liquid products from a lower and narrow product range to a higher and broader product range was observed with increasing pore sizes of the MOF catalysts. The highest selectivity of a particular Cn-range obtained in the liquid phase was 66% in C5–C12 alkanes for UiO-66-RuH₂, 74% in C8–C22 alkanes for UiO-67-RuH₂, and 68% in C20–C35 alkanes (lubricants) for UiO-68-RuH₂. Notably, the yield of gaseous products falls to as low as 6% for UiO-68-RuH₂, making it a very selective MOF for hydrogenolysis into 94% liquid products (Figure 4a).

Next, we tested the catalytic activity of UiO-Ru MOFs for hydrogenolysis of real-world postconsumer single-use plastic grocery bags or droppers made of low-density polyethylene [LDPE; Mw ~ 150 kDa, determined by Gel Permeation Chromatography (GPC)]. Initial reaction conditions were LDPE (0.60 g), UiO-RuH₂ (4 μ mol Ru) and 35 bar of H₂ in a high-pressure autoclave, heated at 200 °C for 72 h. Despite the intricacy of the LDPE's structure and absenteeism of any pretreatment, the UiO-RuH₂ catalysts almost completely converted the plastics bag into small chain liquid hydrocarbons in 56-89% yields (Figure S17, SI). UiO-66-RuH₂, owing to its smallest pore size of 5.1 Å, provided a C12-centered narrow bell-shaped distribution of chain lengths, affording C8-C16 or C9-C22 alkanes in 89% yield over 90% liquid product selectivity. The GC-FID analysis of the gaseous products showed an almost even distribution of methane, ethane, and

propane, with a total gas conversion of only 14% (Figure S17, SI). Interestingly, scaling up the catalytic reaction by 4-fold with the same LDPE to Ru weight ratio of 1485, led to the significant shorting of the reaction time from 72 to 20 h with almost similar yield and distribution (Figure 4b), which was attributed to the better diffusion of the molten LDPE within MOFs. Upon decreasing the LDPE to Ru weight ratio to 742, complete conversion of LDPE was achieved in 8 h with 88% liquid product yield. Under the optimized reaction condition with LDPE to Ru weight ratio of 1485, the hydrogenolysis of LDPE plastic bag using UiO-67-RuH₂ also produced liquid hydrocarbons as the major products containing a C16-centered distribution of carbon chains (Figure 4b). However, this product distribution slightly shifted toward the longer chains compared to that obtained using UiO-66-Ru catalyst, affording C9-C22 alkanes in 89% liquid product selectivity. In all of these cases, the amount of branched alkanes in the liquid product was ~3-4% as estimated by GCMS analysis. UiO-68-RuH₂, having the larger pore sizes, converted \sim 75% of the LDPE plastic bag into short-chain liquid hydrocarbons, which had a wider distribution and contained about 78% C20-C35 (lubricants) alkanes (Figure 4b). Moreover, UiO-67-Ru could be recycled and reused at least five times without any apparent drop-in catalytic activity and selectivity (Figure 5). The MOF



Figure 5. Liquid product distribution of hydrogenolysis of postconsumer LDPE plastic bag using UiO-67-RuH₂ for 6 consecutive runs. Reaction conditions: 0.60 g of polymer substrate in each run, 6.5 mg of UiO-67-RuH₂ (4 μ mol of Ru), 200 °C, 35 bar H₂, and 72 h.

structure remained intact during the recycling, as evident by the PXRD of the recovered UiO-67-Ru after each run (Figure S5b, SI), and the leaching of Ru and Zr into the supernatant in each run was very minimal (Table S3, SI).

Control Experiments

Several control experiments were performed to understand the exclusivity of the single-site ruthenium dihydride species within MOFs. Ru-nanoparticles showed no selectivity in the hydrogenolysis of polyethylene ($M_w \sim 4000 \text{ Da}$, $M_n \sim 1700 \text{ Da}$) at 200 °C under 35 bar H₂ for 72 h (Figure 3d and section 3.1.5, SI). Ru(0)-nanoparticles encapsulated within the UiO-66 MOF (Ru@UiO-66) also showed less catalytic activity and poor selectivity than UiO-66-RuH₂. Under the identical reaction conditions and Ru-loading (4 µmol), Ru@UiO-66 depolymerized polyethylene in 49% conversion with 73% selectivity in C20–C35 alkanes (lubricant), whereas UiO-66-

RuH₂ gave 84% conversion with 78% selectivity in the liquid phase for C5–C12 alkanes (Figure 3d). The amount of H_2 consumption and the mass-specific catalytic activity (mol_{H2} g_{Ru}^{-1}) were higher in the hydrogenolysis with UiO-66-RuH₂ than with Ru@UiO-66, suggesting a higher rate of C-C bond scission in UiO-66-Ru catalyzed hydrogenolysis of polyethylene (Figure S12, SI). We thus infer that the high selectivity of UiO-RuH₂ catalysts arises from not only the confinement of Ru-dihydride species within the well-defined and uniform porous MOF-structures but also the single-site nature of the Ru-active sites. UiO-66-RuH₂ catalyzed hydrogenolysis of polyethylene, performed in the presence of a drop of mercury,⁹³ was unaffected and yielded similar conversion and product distribution, suggesting that any ruthenium nanoparticles or any other leached metallic ruthenium particulates were not the active species in the reaction (Section 3.2.0, SI). The hydrogenolysis stopped after UiO-66-RuH₂ was removed from the reaction mixture, reinstating that the active catalytic species was embedded in the UiO MOF (Section 3.2.1, SI).

Mechanism Exploration of Hydrogenolysis of Polyethylene

The time evaluation for hydrogenolysis of LDPE ($M_w = 150$ kDa) over UiO-66-RuH₂ was studied to understand the relative rates of C-C bond scission at different positions along the paraffinic chains (Figure 6a). Methane and propane were produced exclusively in the first 2 h of the reaction when the conversion of LDPE was less than 5%. Upon progression of the reaction, the hydrocarbon product distribution readily shifted from paraffin to lower carbon numbers after 4 h, and the production of liquid hydrocarbons dominates over gas. After 24 h, liquid products were obtained in >90% selectivity with 50% LDPE conversion. This data suggests that the initial formation of methane and propane is likely due to the C-C bond dissociation toward the chain-ends upon diffusion of LDPE chains within the MOF pores. The activation of a C^2-H bond of a terminal linear polymer chain forms Ru[C²H- $(C^{1}H_{3})(C^{3}H_{2}C^{4}H_{2}-P)$] (P; polymer chain) intermediate, which undergoes β -C⁴H₂-P elimination to generate propene.^{7,94} Subsequently, UiO-Ru catalyzed hydrogenation of propene furnishes propane (Figure S20a, SI). Similarly, the activation of a C³-H bond of the paraffinic chain forms Ru[C³H(C²H₂C¹H₃)(C⁴H₂-P)], which undergoes β -C¹H₃ elimination, followed by the reaction with H_2 to produce CH_4 (Figure S20b, SI).

The hydrogenolysis of n-octadecane as a model of the linear alkane chain was performed under identical reaction conditions, which also showed significant production of methane and propane at the early stages of the reaction (Figure 6b). However, the rapid and selective formation of C10-C30 hydrocarbons during the course of the reaction indicates facile internal C-C bond hydrogenolysis of the polymer chain by UiO-66-RuH₂. We surmise that the coordinative unsaturated Ru center in UiO-RuH₂ facilitates the activation and cleavage of sterically hindered internal C-C bonds in paraffinic chains. To corroborate this hypothesis, we performed hydrogenolysis of 2,2,4,4,6,8,8-heptamethylnonane having different types of C-C bonds (Figure 6c). The analysis of the crude reaction mixture at \sim 50% conversion showed the formation of 2,2,4-trimethyl pentane and 2,2,4,6-tetramethyl heptane as the major products via the dissociation of C_{tertiary}-C_{secondary} bonds.



Figure 6. Time evaluation of nonsolid yields in the hydrogenolysis of (a) LDPE plastic bag and (b) n-octadecane over UiO-66-RuH₂ at 200 °C under 35 bar H₂. Reaction conditions: 0.60 g of LDPE plastic bag or n-octadecane, ~4 μ mol of Ru, 200 °C, 35 bar H₂. (c) Products obtained after hydrogenolysis of 2,2,4,4,6,8,8-heptamethylnonane. (d–f) Kinetic data of n-octadecane (C18) hydrogenolysis as a function of reaction parameters. (d) %C18 conversion as a function of ruthenium loading. Reaction conditions: 0.60 g of C18, UiO-66-RuH₂ (0.001–0.005 mmol of Ru), 200 °C, 35 bar H₂, 9 h. (e) %C18 conversion as a function of H₂ pressure. Reaction conditions: 0.60 g of C18, UiO-66-RuH₂ (4 μ mol of Ru), 200 °C, 9 h, 15–55 bar H₂. (f) %C18 Conversion as a function of reaction time. Reaction conditions: 0.60 g of C18, UiO-66-RuH₂ (4 μ mol of Ru), 200 °C, 35 bar of H₂, 2–10 h. (g) Proposed catalytic cycle of UiO-RuH₂ catalyzed hydrogenolysis of polyethylene. (h) DFT-calculated free energy diagram at 473 K for UiO-RuH₂ catalyzed hydrogenolysis of hexane.

Metal-mediated polyolefin C-C bond cleavage primarily occurs via β -alkyl transfer^{12,94} or σ -bond metathesis^{95,96} in the turnover-limiting step (TLS). To further understand the UiO-Ru catalyzed hydrogenolysis pathways and examine the TLS, the empirical rate law of the reaction was determined using noctadecane as a model substrate. The kinetics was performed by initial rate methods at low conversions (<16% conversion) of C18 to minimize the effect of small alkane invasion and hydrogen starvation.⁹⁷ The rate of conversion of n-octadecane showed a linear progression with the ruthenium loading (0.001–0.005 mmol) but was found to be independent of the H_2 pressure (15–55 bar) (Figures 6d-e). This implied a firstorder dependence of the rate of hydrogenolysis on the ruthenium concentration and a zero-order dependence on the H_2 pressure. In addition, the plot of %C18 conversion vs time was linear, indicating that hydrogenolysis is pseudo-zero-order

with respect to the substrate (Figure 6f). From the empirical rate law, $r = k[Ru]^1[C18]^0[H_2]^0$, we infer that C18 and H₂ are not involved in the TLS or any preceding steps in rapid equilibrium. Based on the above experimental data, we propose that activation of a C-H bond in the polymer chain by Rudihydride forms a Ru-alkyl intermediate (INT-1) with liberation of H_2 via σ -bond metathesis (Figure 6g). Then, the turnover limiting β -alkyl elimination in INT-1 transforms to INT-2 bearing a polymer fragment and releases another fraction with a terminal double bond. In fact, several alkenes, such as hexene and octene, were detected by GC-MS during the time evaluation study for hydrogenolysis of LDPE. Then, the σ -bond metathesis between Ru-alkyl and H₂ furnishes short-chain alkane and regenerates the RuH₂ catalyst. RuH₂ further catalyzes the hydrogenation of the in situ generated alkene fragment to produce the corresponding alkane (Figure

6g). Our control experiment revealed that UiO-66-RuH₂ is also a highly active catalyst for the hydrogenation of alkenes (Section 3.2.3, SI), thus further supporting the proposed pathway. The empirical rate law further suggests that the σ -bond metathesis pathway, in which UiO-RuH₂ mediated C–C bond scission occurs via σ -bond metathesis, followed by regeneration of UiO-RuH₂ via σ -bond metathesis between Ru-alkyl intermediate and H₂, is unlikely, since both C18 and H₂ are not involved in the TLS.

Density Functional Theory (DFT) calculation was performed for UiO-RuH₂ catalyzed hydrogenolysis of hexane as the model substrate to propane at 473 K for investigating the low-energy pathway and the turnover limiting step (TLS). The energy profile diagram shows that β -alkyl transfer (int-1 \rightarrow int-2) is the TLS, which has the higher activation barrier compared to those of other steps such as C-H activation via σ -bond metathesis (UiO-RuH₂ \rightarrow int-1) and alkene insertion (UiO-RuH₂ \rightarrow int-2) (Figure 6h). In addition, the polymer chain with the terminal double bond (propene in the calculation) is not strongly bonded to int-2 and thus easily desorbs from the MOF surface (Figure S22, SI). Moreover, β hydride elimination of int-1 requires higher activation energy than β -alkyl elimination, making it kinetically unfavorable (Figure S22a, SI).⁹⁸ We also calculated the alternative σ -bond metathesis pathway (Figure S22b, SI). However, this σ -bond metathesis pathway has a higher barrier than the β -alkyl transfer pathway. Our kinetics and theoretical calculation suggest C-C bond scission involving β -alkyl transfer in the TLS.

CONCLUSIONS

The porous and isoreticular MOF-confined mononuclear Rudihydrides allow a systematic and target-centric approach toward the catalytic depolymerization of plastics. By tuning the pore sizes of the UiO-MOFs, the distribution of the shortchain hydrocarbon products could be systematically altered via shape-selective catalysis. A C12 centered narrow distribution of C8-C16 alkanes was obtained in >80% yield by the hydrogenolysis of single-use LPDE bags and droppers using UiO-66-RuH₂ with a very low Ru-loading, giving a LDPE to Ru weight ratio of 1485. The MOF-catalysts require no hightemperature preactivation and are recyclable at least 5 times. This work thus represents a state-of-the-art catalytic architecture employing MOFs to efficiently upcycle plastic wastes by combining the advantages of single-site nature of the Ru-center, uniform and tunable pores, well-defined porous structure, and superior stability via active site-isolation.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

UiO-RuH₂ MOF Synthesis

Synthesis of UiO-66-RuH₂. A 10 mL Teflon lined hydrothermal autoclave was charged with a solution of terephthalic acid (0.050 g, 0.304 mmol) and ZrCl₄ (69 mg, 0.296 mmol) in 2.4 mL of DMF and then heated at 120 °C for 24 h. After cooling to room temperature, the resultant white solid of UiO-66 MOF was isolated via centrifugation and washed with DMF and THF several times. *n*-BuLi (40 μ L, 1.65 M in cyclohexane) was added to the slurry of UiO-66 MOF (17 mg, 0.010 mmol) in 1 mL of THF in a glovebox, and the mixture was slowly stirred for 2 h at room temperature. The MOF solid was washed with THF several times and then transferred to a 15 mL THF solution of RuCl₃·3H₂O (21 mg, 0.079 mmol). The mixture was stirred slowly for 6 h at room temperature. The resultant UiO-66-RuCl₂ MOF was separated from the suspension via centrifugation and

washed with THF and ethyl acetate several times over 7 days to remove the excess ruthenium. Inside the glovebox, NaEt₃BH (35 μ L, 1 M in toluene) was added dropwise into a vial containing UiO-66-RuCl₂ (15.0 mg, 0.008 mmol) in 1 mL of THF, and the mixture was stirred gently at room temperature for 15 min. The resultant black solid of UiO-66-RuH₂ was separated via centrifugation and washed with THF. The 30% μ_3 -OH group at SBUs was metalated with ruthenium ion as analyzed by ICP-OES of the digested MOF.

Synthesis of UiO-67-RuH2. A 50 mg portion of biphenyl-4,4'dicarboxylic acid dissolved in 1 mL of DMF was added to a solution of 69 mg of ZrCl₄ in 1 mL of DMF. The mixture was transferred into a 10 mL Teflon lined hydrothermal autoclave. The autoclaved was sealed and heated at 120 $^\circ$ C for 24 h. The resultant white solid of the UiO-67 MOF (21 mg, 0.010 mmol) was washed with THF multiple times and then treated with 40 μ L of *n*-BuLi in THF at room temperature in a glovebox. After 2 h, the MOF solid was washed with THF and transferred to a 15 mL solution of RuCl₃.3H₂O (21 mg, 0.079 mmol). The slurry was slowly stirred for 6 h inside the glovebox. The resulting UiO-67-RuCl₂ was washed with THF and ethyl acetate over the next 7 days in the glovebox and then treated with NaEt₃BH (38 μ L, 1 M in toluene) in 1 mL of THF. After 15 min at room temperature, the resultant black solid was separated via centrifugation and washed with THF and ethyl acetate several times to afford UiO-67-RuH₂. UiO-67-RuH₂ had 35% ruthenium loading with respect to μ_3 -OH at SBUs as determined by the ICP-OES analysis of the digested MOF.

Synthesis of UiO-68-RuH₂. A 15 mL glass vial was charged with a 5 mL DMF solution of ZrCl₄ (26 mg, 0.11 mmol) and 1,4-bis(4carboxyphenyl) benzene (53 mg, 0.17 mmol), followed by 31 μ L of trifluoroacetic acid. The vial was capped and heated at 120 °C for 3 days. The resultant white precipitate of UiO-68 MOF was isolated via centrifugation and washed with DMF and THF. 40 uL of *n*-BuLi was added to a THF slurry of UiO-68 (26 mg, 0.010 mmol), and the mixture was slowly stirred for 2 h in the glovebox. After washing the solid MOF with THF, the MOF was stirred in a 15 mL of THF solution of RuCl₃.3H₂O (21 mg, 0.079 mmol) for 6 h to afford UiO-68-RuCl₂. The UiO-68-RuCl₂ (22 mg, 0.008 mmol) solid was washed with THF and then reacted with NaEt₃BH (38 μ L, 1 M in toluene) in THF at room temperature for 15 min to afford UiO-68-RuH₂ as a black solid. ICP-OES analysis of the digested MOF revealed 33% Ruloading with respect to μ_3 -OH at the SBUs of UiO-68-RuH₂.

Procedure for UiO-RuH₂ Catalyzed Hydrogenolysis of Single-Use LDPE Plastics. A 100 mL nonstirred pressure vessel with a glass line was charged with 2.4 g of single-use LDPE plastic bag or dropper and UiO-RuH₂ catalyst (24–33 mg, 16 μ mol of Ru) inside a glovebox. The reactor was sealed and purged with H₂ outside of the glovebox. The reactor was pressurized with 35 bar of hydrogen and then heated at 200 °C for 20 h. After the reaction, the reactor was cooled to 0 °C, and the gas was analyzed by GC-FID. The reactor was opened, and the solid MOF was separated from the liquid product via centrifugation. The liquid hydrocarbons were analyzed by GC-MS and quantified by GC-FID using 4-methylanisole as an internal standard. The yield of lubricants or wax products was determined by GPC of the crude products after catalysis.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/jacsau.3c00633.

Synthesis and characterization of UiO-RuH₂ catalysts, procedures and optimization of the hydrogenolysis of polymers, control experiments, details for X-ray absorption spectroscopic analysis and DFT calculations (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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