

Divergent Adsorption-Dependent Luminescence of Amino-Functionalized Lanthanide Metal-Organic Frameworks for Highly Sensitive NO₂ Sensors

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Abstract: A novel gas sensing mechanism exploiting the luminescence modulation upon NO₂ adsorption is here demonstrated. Two isostructural lanthanide based-metal-organic frameworks are used including a recognition center (amino-group) that provides high selectivity for NO₂ molecules. Energy transfer from the organic ligands to Ln is strongly dependent on the presence of NO₂, resulting in an unprecedented photo-luminescent sensing scheme. Thereby, NO₂ exposition triggers either a reversible enhancement or a decrease of the luminescence intensity, depending on the lanthanide ion (Eu or Tb). Our experimental studies combined with DFT and complete active space self-consistent field calculations, provide understanding of the nature and effects of NO₂ interactions within the MOFs and the signal transduction mechanism.

Introduction

Monitoring the emissions of toxic chemicals represents an important element in preventing and reducing pollution and in ensuring a high level of protection of the environment taken as a whole. Among the most common pollutants, nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) is a toxic gas which is generated by combustion processes at high temperatures and can cause inflammation of the airways and even death at high concentrations.^[1] It also plays a pivotal role in the formation of smog and acid rain as well as being central to the formation of ground level ozone, all being associated with adverse health effects.^[2] NO₂ detection is a challenging task since the majority of the commercial techniques and sensors currently used are

affected by interferences, are costly or difficult to implement in the field.^{[3],[4],[5]}

Recently, metal-organic frameworks (MOFs), have emerged as excellent candidates for chemical sensing applications.^[6,7] Such porous materials can surpass some of the inherent limitations of the materials used in actual state-of-the-art sensing technologies, such as their required high temperature operating conditions, associated with a poor selectivity and high energy consumption, or their low selectivity and long response times.^{[8],[9]} Moreover, the reticulated network of porous MOFs provides adjustable functionalities and unique optical,^[10] electronic^{[11],[12]} and magnetic^[13] properties.

In this general context lanthanide-metal organic frameworks (Ln-MOFs) have attracted great interest mainly due to the large changes of their optical properties upon inclusion of analytes.^{[14],[15]} More precisely, it has been reported that analyte hosting may alter the emission profiles and/or luminescence lifetimes of the lanthanide centre, either through enhancement, quenching or shifting of photoluminescence.^[16] Furthermore, the right selection of the organic linker and its functional groups within the Ln-MOF can be used to further promote preferred guest binding for selective and sensitive detection. All this, together with their rich geometric topology, makes Ln-MOFs excellent candidates for chemosensing.^[15]

In the present work three isostructural Ln-MOFs have been synthesized from 2-amino-1,4-benzene dicarboxylic acid (H₂N-BDC) and europium, terbium and gadolinium salts.^[17] H₂N-BDC, already described as an antenna-like ligand in previous work,^[18] also functions as an excellent recognition centre for detection of small molecules^[19] such as cations and nitro-aromatics,^[20] solvent molecules,^[21] or even some inert gases like CO₂ or H₂.^[22]

The NO₂ sensing capacity of the Ln-MOFs is studied through the changes in the luminescence intensities, resulting in divergent luminescence behavior between Tb⁺² and Eu⁺² based-MOF. Combining experimental studies of the adsorption/desorption of NO₂ molecules with density functional theory and multiconfigurational wave functional-based methods we show that NO₂ is bound via hydrogen bonding to the ligand leading to energy down shift of the lowest triplet state (T₁) of the photosensitizing ligand. This gas induced downshift, yields to a modulation of the energy transfer from the triplet of the ligand to the Ln ion, thus providing a powerful new approach for the design of a novel generation of divergent-luminescent sensors.

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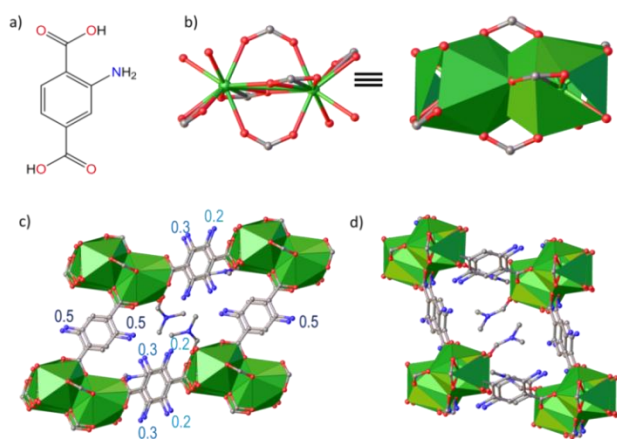


Figure 1. 2-amino-1,4-benzenedicarboxylic acid (NH₂-BDC) (a); dinuclear cluster of Ln³⁺ (in green) illustrated with balls and polyhedrons. Each metal ion is coordinated to a total of nine oxygen atoms from three chelating and two bridging N-BDC ligands, as well as from two coordinated DMF molecules (b); Ln-MOF views showing the molecular cages and the different occupancies of amino groups found by X-ray single crystal diffraction (c) and (d).

Results and Discussion

STRUCTURAL DESCRIPTION. Three porous Ln-MOFs were synthesized according to the method reported by Gamez and co-authors^[23], {[Tb₂(N-BDC)₃(DMF)₄] 2DMF} (1·2 DMF), {[Eu₂(N-BDC)₃(DMF)₄] 2DMF} (2·2 DMF) and [Gd₂(N-BDC)₃(DMF)₄] (3), see Section S2 for further details. The three crystalline-based materials grow as isostructural 3-D networks in a triclinic *P*-1 space group. The asymmetric unit contains one and one-half N-BDC ligands, one lanthanide and two coordinated DMF. Both, 1·2DMF and 2·2DMF, contain additional non-coordinated DMF molecules. The reported non-coordinated DMF in **1** and **2** is involved in a π-π stacking interaction with the benzene of the ligand as well as hydrogen-bonding interactions with adjacent coordinated DMF molecules (see Fig. 1 and SI for details).

PHOTOLUMINESCENCE STUDY. The photoluminescence (PL) studies of **1**, **2** and **3** were performed at room temperature as well as at liquid nitrogen temperature in the solid state, where required (see Figures S11 – S16 of the SI). The room temperature PL and PL excitation (PLE) spectra of 1·2DMF are summarized in Figure S11a. The PL spectrum (solid green line) shows the characteristic sharp line emission from Tb³⁺ ions corresponding to ⁵D₄→⁷F_J (J = 2–6) transitions located at 642, 622, 586, 544 and 489 nm, respectively. Simultaneous emission from the ligand is manifested as a broad underlying band in the 400–550 nm range with a maximum at 445 nm. The PLE spectrum of **1** (dashed green line), obtained by monitoring the emission at 544 nm (⁵D₄→⁷F₅ transition in Tb³⁺), exhibits a broad band due to the ligand indicating photosensitization of Tb. Regarding 2·2DMF, the PL spectrum exhibits sharp peaks at 580, 593, 617, 651 and 697 nm assigned to ⁵D₀→⁷F_J (J = 0–4) transitions in Eu³⁺ (solid red line in Figure S11b), in agreement with previous reports.^[24] Similar to the case of 1·2DMF, the PLE spectrum monitored at 617 nm (⁵D₀→⁷F₂) exhibits a broad band covering the 300 - 450 nm range associated to the organic ligand. Concerning **3**, the PL and PLE spectra are summarized in Figure S11c. The PL spectrum (solid purple

line) shows a broad band in the 400–700 nm range with a maximum at 454 nm, corresponding to the ligand emission. Note that the lowest energy level of Gd³⁺ (32200 cm⁻¹) is well above the S₁ and T₁ levels of NH₂-BDC (as confirmed below) and therefore no quenching of the ligand emission by energy transfer to Gd³⁺ occurs. The PLE spectrum of **3** (Figure S11c dashed purple line) exhibits a broad band assigned to the organic ligand.

In order to understand the Ln³⁺ sensitization mechanisms and the nature of the excited states in 1·2DMF and 2·2DMF, the S₁ and T₁ ligand energy levels were determined by PL measurements of **3**, as well as the pure ligand in solution, at 65 K (see SI for further information). Compound **3** permits the determination of the T₁ level because the lowest energy level of Gd³⁺ (32200 cm⁻¹) is well above the S₁ and T₁ levels of NH₂-BDC (as confirmed below) and therefore only phosphorescence of the ligand can be observed.

The singlet (S₁) and triplet (T₁) energy levels of the ligand were determined as the onsets of the fluorescence and phosphorescence spectra at about 405 nm (24700 cm⁻¹) and 479 nm (20900 cm⁻¹), respectively (see Figure S15 and explanation within). The energy position of T₁ with respect to the ⁵D_J states of Ln³⁺ is one of the most relevant factors to determine the lanthanide luminescence efficiency in coordination compounds is the energy of T₁ with respect to the ⁵D_J states of Ln³⁺.^[25] Previous studies have shown that for efficient room temperature Ln luminescence, the energy gap between the lowest T₁ energy level and the emitting state of the lanthanide ion ΔE (³ππ*–⁵D₀) should be larger than 2500 cm⁻¹.^{[26],[27]} To ensure a fast and irreversible energy transfer. If the offset energy is lower, a back-transfer from the Ln³⁺ ion to the ligand may take place thus reducing the efficiency of the sensitized PL.

The T₁ of the ligand in **2** is located 3660 cm⁻¹ above the ⁵D₀ state of Eu³⁺ (17240cm⁻¹) (see Figure 5 for further details), which confirms that back-transfer is efficiently hindered at room temperature. Conversely, the energy gap between T₁ and the emitting level of Tb³⁺ (⁵D₄, 20430 cm⁻¹) is 470 cm⁻¹, too small to block back-transfer at room temperature, which explains the residual ligand emission in the PL spectrum of **1**.^[28] De-activation of Tb³⁺ levels by back-transfer to the ligand is further indicated by the significantly faster PL decay of **1** (197 μs) with respect to **2** (1.05 ms) monitored at room temperature at the respective Ln³⁺ emission peaks, (Figure S18).

NO₂ SENSING. Prior to the sensing experiment, **1** and **2** were activated by exposing them to a flow of pure synthetic air (PSA) for five minutes at room temperature, with the aim of removing the non-coordinated DMF molecules inside the lattice. This activation process was confirmed by FTIR measurements (Figure S1 and S6). Then, the samples were exposed to consecutive cycles of pure PSA and 5 ppm of NO₂ in PSA. During exposure the variation of the luminescence intensity was recorded (see SI for further details). The time duration of each cycle (5 minutes) was long enough to reach equilibrium conditions. The results for both Ln-MOF are plotted in Figure 2a-b.

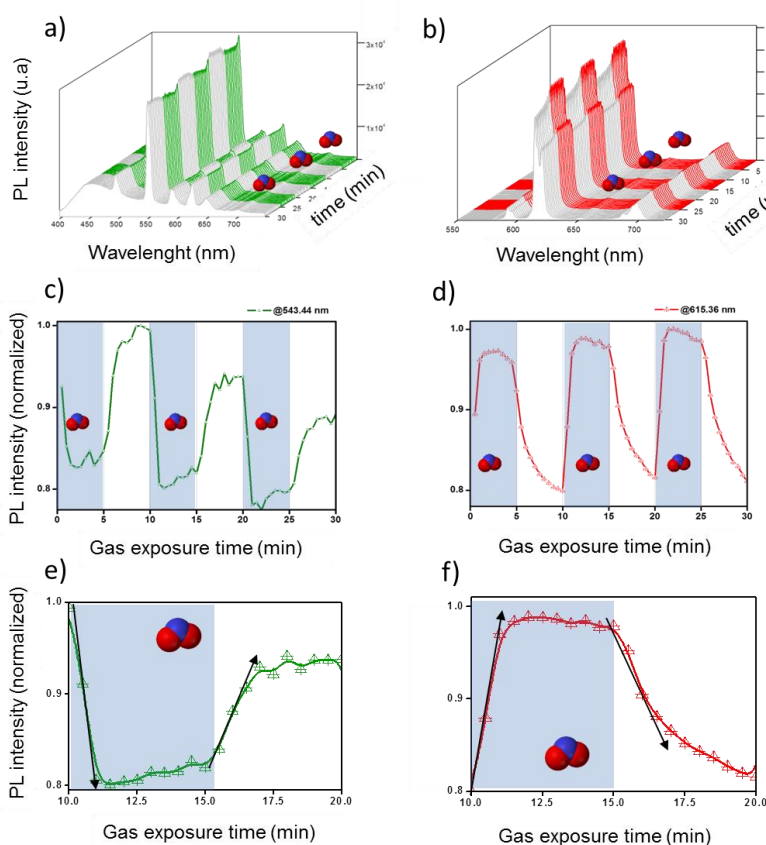


Figure 2. Evolution of PL spectra in **1** (a) and **2** (b) during three NO₂ / PSA cycles. The PL intensity evolution at 543 nm for **1** (c) and at 615 nm for **2** (d) are plotted vs time (the NO₂ exposition is denoted by the shaded areas). A single cycle sensing evolution illustrating the divergent behaviour for **1** (e) and **2** (f).

The exposure of **1** to 5 ppm NO₂ results in a decrease in PL intensity by about 20% monitored at the peak of the emission (543 nm) and reaching a plateau after 2 min. Subsequent exposure of **1** to PSA leads to recovery of the emission intensity within a similar time frame. Contrary to the behavior of **1**, exposure of **2** to 5 ppm of NO₂ leads to an increase in PL by about 20% during 90 seconds until it reaches a plateau. Upon PSA exposure, the PL intensity returns to the original level. Sample **2** was cycled three times in order to show the reversible behavior of the sample. In order to further assess the gas sensitivity degree, both materials were exposed to diluted NO₂ flow (from 5 to 0.5 ppm) while keeping similar measurement conditions. The results shown in Figure S17 demonstrate that both samples maintain the same PL behaviour even at low pressure: the lower sensing detection with our set-up for **1** is 0.5 ppm (LOD of 1.8 ppm) and for **2**, 1 ppm (LOD of 2.2 ppm).

Importantly, exposure of **3** to NO₂ did not lead to significant changes in PL intensity, confirming that NO₂ has negligible effect on the ligand emission, this reversible change in the luminescence intensity of **1** and **2** must be associated to the NO₂ adsorption/desorption process inside the Ln-MOF.

As previously proposed for a closely-related Ln-based porous compound, the NO₂ molecule could interact within the MOF via three different mechanisms; i) bonding to the metal centers,^{[29],[30]} ii) reacting with pendant groups of the

ligand,^{[31],[32]} or iii) interacting non-covalently with the ligand.^{[33],[34],[35]} All three options are discussed below.

Figures 2a and 2b already show no noticeable spectral shifts or changes in the crystal field splitting in the emission lines assigned to the ⁵D₀→⁷F_J, J=1...4 and ⁵D₄→⁷F_J, (J=2-6) transitions from either Tb³⁺ or Eu³⁺ ions, upon gas adsorption. There are also no changes in the relative intensity between the specific transitions upon NO₂ uptake, although, as discussed above, the ⁵D₀→⁷F₂ transition of Eu³⁺ is known to be hypersensitive to the environment, in contrast to the magnetic dipole-allowed ⁵D₀→⁷F₁ transition. Furthermore, PL lifetimes measured at the respective Ln³⁺ emission peaks in **1** and **2** upon exposure to NO₂ confirm that the lifetime of **1** drops from 197 to 126 μs, whereas no significant effect of NO₂ adsorption on the PL lifetime is observed in **2** (see Figures S18 to S20). These observations strongly suggest that NO₂ adsorption does not lead to changes in the first coordination sphere around the Ln³⁺ ion.^[36] Thus, a molecular absorption of NO₂ by the ligand should be expected.

AB INITIO CALCULATIONS. To understand the nature of the NO₂ interactions with the Ln-MOF, DFT calculations^{[37],[38-40]} have been performed. A total of 8 different configurations of the NH₂ groups within the MOF were considered for **1** and **2** in order to account for the fractional occupation of the amino site reported experimentally^[23] (Fig. S22). The electrostatic potential energy map of the bare MOF was computed for each configuration in order to find the NO₂ binding location.

The NO₂ molecule was placed in regions of highly attractive potential within the unit cell and a full geometrical optimization was performed (see section S11). This procedure has allowed us to correctly predict in the past the location of adsorbate CO₂ molecules within a MOF in absence of experimental guidance.^[41] Remarkably, despite the fact that the starting NO₂ is near the metal site (see section S9 and Figure S25 for information), the final configuration always converges to the NO₂ being located within the pore near the NH₂ groups.

Specifically, the NO₂ binds *via* a network of hydrogen bonds, involving the amino groups of the neighbouring N-BDC ligands and CH₃ from one coordination molecule of DMF (Figure S25, S27-28 shows the NO₂ binding sites determined computationally). For both MOFs, a significant charge transfer from the ligands to NO₂ is predicted (Table S5), ranging from 0.4 to 0.7 electrons, depending on the amine configuration. This charge transfer mostly distributes on the amino groups close to the guest molecule and to a minor extent to DMF, while negligibly on the Ln ions (Table S6). The cooperative binding mechanism between samples 1 and 2 and the NO₂ molecules, attributed to multiple hydrogen bonds, electrostatics and van der Waals interactions, yield to binding energies of NO₂ ranging from 35 kJ/mol to 65 kJ/mol, depending on the specific amine configuration. This non-covalent adsorption is consistent with reversible sorption of NO₂ by the MOF. We note that binding energies (and consequently charge transfer) are determined by the specific amino group configuration, and negligibly by the specific Ln atom (Table S5).

Previous studies^{[27,42],[43]} have shown that a modulation in the luminescence quantum yield occurs, depending on the

position of the ligand triplet state (T₁) relative to the lanthanide ⁵D_j levels. In order to determine whether the shift of the T₁ state of the ligand, upon binding, can explain the experimental results, multireference CASSCF/CASPT2^[44] calculations were performed for the NH₂-BDC ligand bound to NO₂ (see Fig. 3c). As the NO₂ molecule is rigidly displaced from the binding configuration to larger distances from the ligand, the triplet state shifts to higher energies. The first excited triplet state, T₁, exhibits a dominant π to π* (HOMO to LUMO) character and is predicted to be at 22398 cm⁻¹ (Figure S28). When the NO₂ is hydrogen bonded to the ligand the triplet is at 22137 cm⁻¹ (see Figure 3b) corresponding to a downshift in energy by approximately 260 cm⁻¹. The computed downshift of T₁ as a function of the distance between NO₂ and the ligand is found to linearly correlate with the ligand-to-molecule charge transfer (see Figure S27). By making use of this linear regression and the computed charge transfer within the MOF, the T₁ downshift is estimated to be in the 230-410 cm⁻¹ range, approximately, in the MOF, depending on the binding configuration.

Summarizing, the downshift of T₁, upon NO₂ adsorption, leads to opposed luminescence scenarios in **1** and **2** (see Figure 3a). The results are rationalized as follows. In **1**, the ligand T₁ level is pushed only about 200 cm⁻¹ above the ⁵D₄ level of Tb³⁺ after adsorption of NO₂, leading to a detrimental effect on the PL quantum yield. The two states are close in energy and the back transfer is enhanced thus decreasing the luminescence quantum yield^{[45,46],[47]}. Conversely, NO₂ binding in **2** results in a smaller T₁ - ⁵D₁ energy offset, (from 1900 cm⁻¹ to 1640 cm⁻¹), promoting triplet-to-Eu³⁺ transfer rates as well as the total PL quantum yield.^[27] These theoretical predictions are in accordance with our experimental findings.

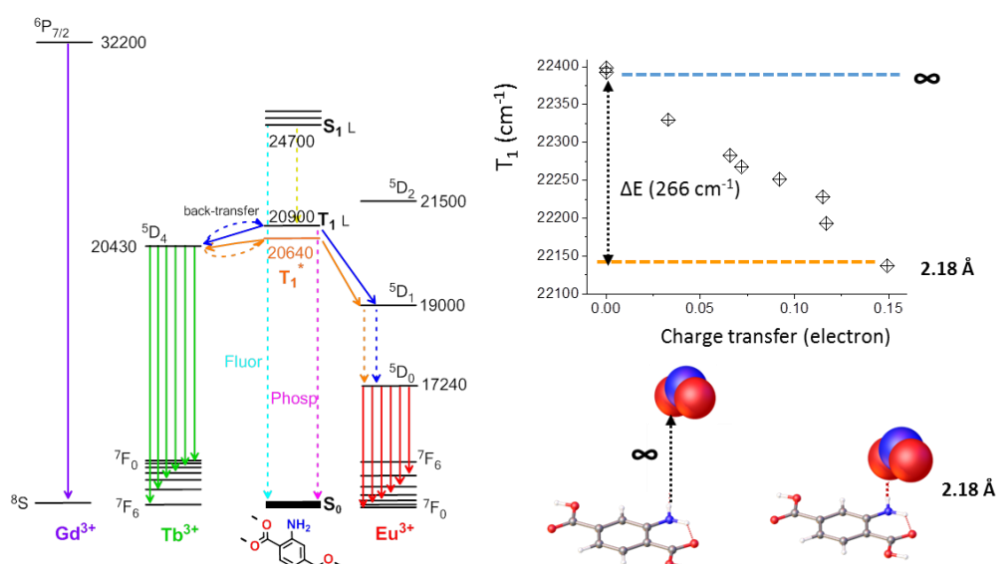


Figure 3. Jablonski diagram featuring the ground singlet (S₀), first excited singlet (S₁) and lowest triplet (T₁) states of the ligand together with the relevant atomic levels of Gd³⁺, Tb³⁺ and Eu³⁺. Values for the energy levels are given in cm⁻¹ (a). Calculated energy of T₁ vs charge transfer (b). Illustration of the ligand / NO₂ configuration used for the CASSCF/CASPT2 calculation (c).

Conclusion

We introduce a proof-of-concept sensor based on two lanthanide-based MOF that efficiently monitor (or detect), in a straightforward manner, the inclusion/exclusion of NO₂ molecules within the MOF. The reversible inclusion of NO₂ molecules in the porous framework at low concentration level triggers an increase of the intensity of the Eu³⁺ luminescence and a decrease of the Tb³⁺ luminescence intensity. Experimental spectroscopy and computational studies were combined to deliver the signal transduction mechanism. Based on the divergent luminescence change upon NO₂ exposure in **1** and **2**, the lack of changes in the relative intensities of the ⁵D_J→⁷F_J transitions, and the computational predictions we conclude that the modification of the luminescence intensity can be ascribed to changes in the relative positions of the ligand triplet and the Ln energy levels upon NO₂ adsorption. In spite of the weak interaction (physisorption) between NO₂ and the MOF, the affinity of the amino groups for NO₂ makes this MOF sensitive enough for detection of NO₂ in conventional luminescence displays without requiring expensive electronics. This study herein suggests a powerful new approach for the design of future luminescent sensors of noxious volatile compounds.

Experimental Section

Experimental Details. Compounds **1**, **2** and **3** were synthesized according to the literature procedures (see S1-S2). TGA, FT-IR, PXPD are detailed in S3 to S5. Photo-luminescence measurements, sorption measurements and Ab initio calculation details are also described in S6 to S11 sections.

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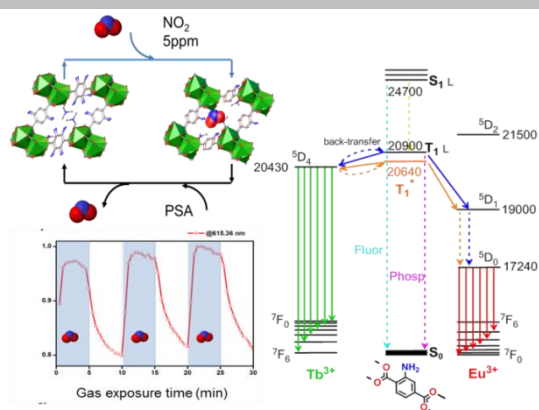
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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Supramolecular interactions are key for highly sensitive detection of NO₂ using porous amino-linked lanthanide metal-organic framework. Tuning of ligand-to-metal energy transfer causes an unprecedented divergent luminescence response to NO₂ sorption in Ln-MOFs rationalized using computational and photoluminescence method



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