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METAL-ORGANIC FRAMEWORKS: A VERSATILE PLATFORM FOR LIGHT HARVESTING AND ENERGY TRANSFER

by

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Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to all those who have pushed me to succeed, and

convinced me that I could achieve anything in life that I wished.



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I wholeheartedly thank Dr. Natalia Shustova, for being such a great mentor, advisor, colleague, and friend, and for guiding me for the past four years and not giving up on me. Thank you for teaching me all that I know; it's because of you that I am equipped for the future, and I cannot convey my gratitude enough for everything you have done for me.

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I would also like to thank my fellow colleagues for constantly answering my questions and providing suggestions.



ABSTRACT

The global energy demand is undoubtedly rising at an alarming rate, and as a result, humanity faces the problem of finding alternative energy supplies. Approximately 80 percent of the world's energy currently comes from fossil fuels, and only a small fraction, 10 percent, from renewable energy sources. The study of energy transfer (ET) processes is a rapidly developing area of interest due to the necessity for more efficient photovoltaic devices, which are crucial to meet the growing energy demand. A promising approach to further advance organic photovoltaics is to precisely arrange many lightharvesting chromophores (e.g., porphyrin derivatives), attainable through a self-assembly process, to make a highly ordered network of light-harvesting antennae, much like what is observed in the natural photosystem. The large network of ordered porphyrincontaining derivatives could then funnel the collected energy in a predesigned pathway to a specific location to be stored or used, for instance, for photocatalysis. Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) can be used as a tool to self-assemble hundreds of chromophores in a large light-harvesting ensemble with high level of precision, similar to the natural photosystem. MOFs are highly modular, and with a plethora of organic linkers and metal choices available, limitless combinations are possible, which allows for a number of topologically different structures, and new ways to tailor the physiochemical properties of the material. Modularity and tunability give MOFs an advantage over traditional materials, because they can be fine-tuned and tailored to meet the specific criteria demanded by various applications.



V

This work presented within the following five chapters is focused on the design, synthesis, and characterization of MOFs that target the fundamental understanding of ET processes in predesigned pathways. In the first chapter, a brief introduction of ET mechanisms and MOF synthesis are explained. The second chapter describes a photoswitchable MOF that is capable of exhibiting fluorescence modulation through integrated diarylethene photoswitch linkers. The third chapter discusses the photoswitchable properties of diarylethene and spiropyran-based derivatives in the solid-state, solution, and coordinatively immobilized as pillars in a MOF. Chapter four describes how fullerene derivatives were self-assembled with a porphyrin-based compound, creating a highly-ordered donor-acceptor MOF with the capability for ultrafast electron/energy transfer. Lastly, chapter five discusses how MOFs were used as a mimic of the green fluorescent protein (GFP) β -barrel to suppress low energy vibrational modes of a confined chromophore.

We envision that MOFs can be utilized as a unique platform to assemble welldefined, highly-ordered, versatile, modular structural arrays capable of efficient ET. Materials with the ability to precisely control the mutual orientation and organization of ligands could be vital for the advancement of organic photovoltaic or energy storage devices, sensors, or molecular electronics.



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CHAPTER 1

Light Harvesting and Energy Transfer in Metal-Organic Frameworks

Williams, D. E.; Shustova, N. B. Chem. Eur. J. 2015, 21, 15474-15479.



INTRODUCTION

Demand for energy continues to rise, creating the need for alternative energy sources which are both clean and efficient. Over the past several decades,^{1,2} solar power has been increasingly utilized to meet the growing energy demand. However, commercialized photovoltaic devices, which are relatively expensive to produce, lack the efficiency necessary to make them a viable energy substitute to meet those demands. A cheaper alternative that maintains or improves the overall efficiency of photovoltaic devices should be developed so that they can compete with other of energy sources. To develop such a device, it is helpful to look toward the natural photosystem which is capable of both light harvesting and energy transfer (ET) to produce usable fuels. Surprisingly, in nature, a leaf is capable of efficient ET and delivers captured energy to a reaction center with near 100% internal quantum efficiency.^{3,4}

In the natural photosystem, an ensemble of antenna chromophore pigment-protein complexes is responsible for photon energy migration to the photosystem reaction centers that yield separated charges, and ultimately, storable fuels. The large network of antennae forms an array that increases the cross-section for light absorption nearly 100-fold, thereby concentrating the excitation energy to the fewer number of reaction centers.⁵ To date, natural photosynthetic mimics range from covalently-linked polymer arrays⁶ to self-assembled supramolecular systems.^{7–10} These artificial light-harvesting ensembles reveal that the overall efficiency of the system is highly dependent on the hierarchically-organized antenna surrounding the reaction center.^{5,11–14} MOFs offer the possibility of creating



artificial systems composed of a multitude of highly-ordered chromophores through a selfassembly approach.

MOFs are organic-inorganic, crystalline, ordered materials that are commonly assembled from carboxylic acid- or pyridyl-terminated organic linkers with a metal cation.^{15–25} One major advantage of MOFs is the possibility of their characterization by single-crystal X-ray diffraction, which enables us to determine the distances and angles between chromophores, as well as chromophore molecular conformations. Furthermore, MOF structures can be systematically tuned by incorporating various linkers and/or altering the synthetic conditions. ^{26–30} They are typically assembled via one of three routes: (i) solvothermal synthesis, (ii), insertion, and (iii) solvent-assisted linker exchange (SALE).

Solvothermal synthesis of MOFs involves the careful manipulation of several variables to induce self-assembly. One variable to adjust is the solvent mixture, which frequently contains *N*,*N*-dimethylformamide (DMF) or *N*,*N*-diethylformamide (DEF) as well as a primary alcohol (e.g., methanol or ethanol), and their relative ratios can be varied to alter the polarity or composition of the solution, which may help to promote the MOF growth. The addition of various acids (HCl, HNO₃, HBF₄, HF, etc.) can slow down the process of MOF formation, resulting in single-crystal growth. The solvent, partially decomposed during, heating acts as a weak base to deprotonate the carboxylic acid groups on the MOF linker. The addition of acid increases the number of competing protons, effectively resulting in slower crystallization. Lastly, the heating rate and temperature can play a key role in the topology of the resulting material. Commonly, slower ramping rates during the heating phase can slow down the decomposition of the solvent, which in turn slows down the deprotonation of the MOF linker (vide supra), and can yield larger crystals.



The second method to prepare 3D MOFs is to soak a previously-prepared twodimensional (2D) crystals containing unsaturated metal sites (e.g. $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)$),²⁷ in a solution containing a compound that can act as a pillaring linker capable of insertion between the 2D layers (e.g. 4,4'-bipyridine). The resulting 3D MOF would then contain layers of one organic linker, and pillars of another. This method is particularly useful to make a MOF, where two different linkers have been mutually oriented in the crystalline material, much like a copolymer.

Lastly, the third common method for MOF preparation, solvent-assisted linker exchange (SALE), is to take an existing 3D MOF and soak it in a solution containing the desired linker. This method results in the exchange of the initial pillar with the one that the crystals were soaked in, which is beneficial for obtaining non-interpenetrated structures. For instance, a smaller linker, such as 4,4'-bipyridine,^{28,31} can be exchanged with linkers of a larger (or smaller) length.^{30,32}

These three methods are certainly not the only routes for MOF preparation.^{33–40} It is not uncommon for trials to exceed 100 synthesis attempts to obtain single-crystalline material, and often, attempts using all three syntheses techniques are necessary. Despite this challenge, the availability of various synthetic techniques, along with the vast array of linkers and metals, could result in novel topologies and unrevealed structural patterns. The modular behavior of MOFs allows for combination of a plethora of linkers to form hybrid materials which have properties tailored to specific applications, including gas storage,^{41–44} catalysis,^{45–48} sensing,^{49–52} drug delivery,^{53–56} and light harvesting.^{23,57–59}





Figure 1.1. A representation of the Förster and Dexter ET mechanisms (*left*) and the absorption and emission profiles of donor and acceptor molecules (*right*). The overlap between the donor emission and acceptor absorption (hashed lines) indicates an opportunity for FRET.

The combination of the modularity and a high-degree of structural order make MOFs excellent candidates to mimic the natural photosystem. Light harvesting and energy transfer process can be systematically studies using a MOF as a versatile platform.^{60–64}

Two main types of ET have been studied extensively in MOFs: FRET and Dexter ET mechanisms (Figure 1.1).^{23,65–68} In FRET, long-range ET can occur through non-radiative pathways via dipole-dipole interactions.^{68,69} The efficiency of FRET relies on: (i) the quantum yield of the fluorophore, which should be emissive in the visible/NIR range for light harvesting applications, (ii) the distance between donor and acceptor ligands should be positioned within a 1-10 nm range, and (iii) the degree of overlap between the absorption spectrum of the acceptor and the emission spectrum of the donor.⁶⁸ The rate of ET, *k*, decreases to the power of –6 with increasing donor-acceptor distance:

 $k_{FRET} \propto r^{-6}$

Equation 1.1

where r is the donor-acceptor distance.

The Dexter ET mechanism relies on electronic coupling and intermolecular orbital overlap between the donor and acceptor ligands.⁶⁸ The donor and acceptor ligands must be



close for electron exchange to occur (<1 nm) via the Dexter mechanism. The rate of ET decreases exponentially with increasing donor-acceptor distance:

$$(k_{DEX} \propto e^{\frac{-2r}{L}})$$
 Equation 1.2

where *r* is the donor-acceptor distance, and *L* is the sum of the van der Waals radii.⁶⁸ Due to the larger separation between adjacent linkers, FRET is the prevailing ET mechanism in MOFs. However, some MOFs that rely on the Dexter ET mechanism have been reported previously.^{70–75}

To summarize, MOFs are excellent platforms to study and model light-harvesting and ET processes due to their modularity, tunability, and crystallinity. They offer a significant level of control over competitive systems through self-assembly, which could be vital for the advancement of light-harvesting materials with the goal of directional ET. Thus, understanding how MOFs can influence the ET processes in the studies described lays the fundamental groundwork necessary to ultimately tie such structures to reaction centers and/or charge collection interfaces.

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CHAPTER 2

Diarylethene-Based Metal-Organic Frameworks

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INTRODUCTION

As the demand for energy continues to rise, the need to modify the existing energy and material landscape is paramount. To address the current energy challenges, development of materials with efficient and directional energy transfer (ET) could be beneficial. Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs)^{1–6} are materials assembled from organic linkers and inorganic metal nodes, and exhibit crystallinity, porosity, tunability, and a high surface area, and can be used as a tool to direct ET in a predesigned pathway.⁷ One of the major benefits that MOFs can offer to study and model ET processes is that the angles and distances between chromophores as well as the molecular conformations can be assessed by single-crystal X-ray crystallography. The modularity of MOFs allows us to systematically tune the physiochemical properties of MOFs with a nearly limitless combination of organic linkers and metals. ET in a predesigned pathway has previously been studied,⁸ however a concept missing from the natural and artificial photosystems is the ability to control ET processes.

Photochromic compounds are a class of organic molecules that can switch between two discrete states when irradiated with UV or visible light, and are capable of controlling the photophysical properties of the molecules coupled to them.^{9,10} For example, a molecular dyad system which contained a photochromic derivative (acceptor, A) was coupled to a chromophore (donor, D), and the photochromic compound could control the photophysical response depending on the photoswitch form, open or closed.¹¹ This type of ET, from D to A in close proximity, can be classified as the Förster Resonance Energy



Transfer (FRET) mechanism, which relies on the transfer of excitation energy in a nonradiative fashion through long range dipole-dipole interactions in distances up to 10 nm.^{12,13} Using those works as an inspiration, we sought to develop a MOF which exhibits a fluorescence response when irradiated with UV light, as well as contain metal nodes that will allow for linker installation. Then, after photoswitchable linker installation, modulation of the fluorescence response of the framework (donor) via FRET with the photochromic linker (acceptor) using incident light could be possible. This strategy, which is summarized in Scheme 2.1, provides the possibility of dynamic control of ET in extended light-harvesting matrices.

There are several classes of photochromic molecules, with the more explored among them being diarylethene, spiropyran, and azobenzene derivatives.^{14–18} Diarylethene was chosen for immobilization inside the MOF matrix due to its fatigue-resistant photochromic performance, high thermal stability, and a rapid photoisomerization response in the solid state.¹¹ Diarylethene photochromic compounds contain a 1,3,5-hexatriene moiety (colorless open form) that, when irradiated with UV light, undergo a 6π electrocyclization to form a, less-stable hexadiene (colored closed form).^{19,20} The reverse reaction (cycloreversion) to reform the 1,3,5-hexatriene is allowed both photochemically and thermally according to the Woodward-Hoffman π -orbital symmetry rules,²¹ but the ability for the molecule to undergo thermal cycloreversion is strongly governed by the steric hindrance of the substituents at the reactive carbons and aryl groups that the photoswitch is comprised of.²² Several studies have been reported in the literature regarding the photochromic and thermochromic behavior of diarylethene compounds.^{19,22–}



heterocycles, the molecule will remain in either the open or closed isomer in temperatures exceeding 100 °C. However, if the aryl groups are composed of phenyl, pyrrolyl, or indolyl groups, it is not thermally stable and will display switchable behavior with heating. Diarylethene was chosen as the photochromic molecule for our MOF primarily because of its capability for fast photoisomerization in the solid state, as well as the ability to tailor it for thermal stability.

To incorporate a photoswitch into the MOF, a diarylethene-based core was modified with two pyridyl arms to facilitate installation into the framework (Scheme 2.1). The detailed procedure will be discussed in Section 2.2. The MOF containing the diarylethene photoswitch should have an emission profile that overlaps the absorption profile of the photoswitch, as well as possess accessible metal sites for photoswitch immobilization. The two-dimensional (2D) framework, $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)$,³⁰ has open metal



Scheme 2.1. The MOF consists of light harvesting blocks () and photoswitches () in ON and OFF states depending on the wavelength of the incident light (*top*). This simplified diagram demonstrates the transitions responsible for fluorescence and energy transfer in the designed material (*bottom*).



centers for the coordination of pyridyl-based compounds, and also exhibits an emission response in the visible region, therefore the criteria listed above are satisfied.

In this chapter, we report the synthesis of a MOF capable of efficient ET in a predesigned pathway through integration of diarylethene-based photoswitch inside a MOF. This chapter contains three main sections: (i) the synthesis and characterization of the diarylethene-based linker, (ii) the synthesis and characterization of the diarylethene-containing MOF, and (iii) elucidation of the photophysical properties of the prepared MOF.

2.1. Synthesis and Characterization of the Diarylethene Derivative

The diarylethene-based photoswitch, bis(5-pyridyl-2-methyl-3-thienyl)cyclopentene (BPMTC) was prepared using the four-step synthesis as shown in Scheme 2.2.³³ To prepare 2-chloro-5-methylthiphene (**2**), 2-methylthiophene (**1**) underwent a chlorination reaction using N-chlorosuccinimide.³³ Friedel-Crafts acylation was used to produce 1,5-bis(5-chloro-2-methylthien-3-yl)pentane-1,5-dione (**3**),³³ which



Scheme 2.2. Synthesis scheme of bis(5-pyridyl-2-methyl-3-thienyl)cyclopentene (BPMTC).



was then converted to 1,2-bis(5-chloro-2-methylthien-3-yl)cyclopentene (4) by the McMurry coupling reaction.³³ Lastly, BPMTC, was prepared from **4** by a lithium-halogen exchange, followed by a palladium-catalyzed Suzuki coupling reaction with 4-bromopyridine·HCl.³³ Once BPMTC was obtained, it was heated gently (50 °C) under high vacuum for at least 24 hours to remove any trace of solvents, which resulted in a grey powder with a yield of 66%. BPMTC was structurally characterized using ¹H and ¹³C NMR, Fourier-transform infrared (FT-IR), and diffuse reflectance spectroscopies as well as single-crystal X-ray diffraction. Detailed synthetic and characterization techniques are listed in the experimental section. The ¹H NMR spectrum of pure BPMTC in the open form is shown in Figure 2.1. To determine the pyridyl-pyridyl distance (from N···N), single crystal X-ray data were obtained on colorless crystals of BPMTC, which were obtained by slowly evaporating a concentrated solution of BPMTC in acetone and hexanes. The structure of BPMTC is shown in Figure 2.2.



Figure 2.1. The ¹H NMR spectrum of BPMTC in DMSO- d_6 .





Figure 2.2. Single crystal X-ray structure of BPMTC. Displacement ellipsoids drawn at the 30% probability level. Blue, yellow, gray, and white spheres represent N, S, C, and H atoms, respectively.

To probe the photophysical properties of BPMTC in the solid state, a high-power UV LED ($\lambda = 365$ nm) was used in conjunction with a JAZ portable spectrophotometer equipped with an integrating sphere (see the experimental section for more details). It was found that BPMTC changes colorless to blue when irradiated at 365 nm, which indicates conversion of from the open to the closed form (Scheme 2.2). When irradiated with UV light, a large band appears in the absorption profile, with a $\lambda_{max} = 590$ nm, which is not observed in the spectrum of the colorless form (Figure 2.3). However, when the sample is irradiated at $\lambda_{ex} = 590$ nm with a high-powered LED, the absorption profile starts to drop in intensity, until the sample reaches its original, colorless form. At this point, there is no absorption observed in the visible range. To determine whether FRET could occur, the emission spectrum of a prepared porphyrin-based MOF (vide infra) was overlayed with the absorption profile of BPMTC (Figure 2.3). If BPMTC is in the closed form, an overlap between the absorption spectrum of BPMTC and the emission spectrum of the porphyrin MOF occurs, but there is no overlap when it is in the open form. This lead us to hypothesize that the ET can occur between the porphyrin-containing MOF layers and BPMTC.





Figure 2.3. Normalized diffuse reflectance spectrum of open (*black line*) and closed (*blue line*) BPMTC, and the emission overlay of the porphyrin-based MOF (red). Gray lines correspond to the intermediate absorption profiles between the open and closed forms. Inset shows shows a photograph of BPMTC after 365 nm and 590 nm irradiation.

2.2. Synthesis and Characterization of MOF 1

The photoswitchable MOF (1), was prepared using commercially available H_4TCPP (Figure 2.4), *N*,*N*-diethylformamide (DEF), ethanol (EtOH), $Zn(NO_3)_2 \cdot 6H_2O$, and as-synthesized BPMTC (Section 1.1). They were subjected to solvothermal synthesis at 80 °C for 14 h in a programmable oven, and produced red plate crystals in 24 % yield after cooling (see the experimental section for full synthetic details).

To evaluate the structure and composition, single crystals of **1** were subjected to Xray analysis, and due to their small size of ($<5 \mu$ m thick), data collection was performed at the Advanced Light Source, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Beamline 11. 3.1. Details of data collection and structural solution can be found in the experimental section. Based on the crystallographic data shown in Figure 2.4, we found that **1** is composed of stacked porphyrin layers which are interconnected between zinc paddlewheel secondary





Figure 2.4. The X-ray crystal structures of $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)^{30}$ (*left*) and **1** (*middle*). The porphyrin subunit of the MOF (*top right*). Zinc paddlewheel SBU (*bottom right*). Orange, red, blue, and gray spheres represent Zn, O, N, and C atoms, respectively. Hydrogen atoms are omitted for clarity.

building units (SBUs). Furthermore, the 2D porphyrin layers (C₄₈H₃₀N₄O₁₁Zn₃, Zn₂(ZnTCPP)) are separated by a substantial distance, which is in line with the length of BPMTC. The residual electron density between the porphyrin layers could not be assigned due to severe disorder, which can be attributed to the photoswitchable nature of BPMTC, as well as partial linker installation. In comparison, layers of Zn₂(ZnTCPP) in the 2D MOF without installed photoswitches are separated by a distance of 2.82 Å. In contrast, interlayer distance in **1** is 14.64 Å. Therefore, interlayer expansion can only be attributed to the successful installation of BPMTC. The nitrogen-nitrogen distances from the pyridyl groups in other diarylethene derivatives are in the range of 14.46 Å to 15.41 Å,^{34–36} which is consistent with the observed interlayer distances in **1**.

The PXRD pattern of bulk **1** matched the simulated pattern from the single-crystal X-ray structure. Moreover, the interlayer expansion led to a shift to lower 2θ angles in the powder X-ray spectrum of **1** when compared to Zn₂(ZnTCPP), as shown in Figure 2.5. To determine the percent installation of BPMTC and overall composition of **1**, it was digested





Figure 2.5. The PXRD patterns of **1** and simulated $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)^{30}$ (*left*) The 2D \rightarrow 3D transformations from BPMTC insertion (*right*). The dashed arrow indicates the changes in the PXRD profile associated with increase of interlayer distance.

(destroyed in the presence of acid) to utilize solution-based ¹H NMR spectroscopy. This procedure is necessary since MOFs are insoluble, and thereby must be characterized either using solid-state methods, or digested in order to employ conventional methods, including NMR analysis in solution. For digestion, crystals of 1 (7 mg) were soaked in fresh DMF, which was replaced twice a day for three days to eliminate the residual linker adsorbed on the MOF surface, filtered, and dried under vacuum overnight at 50 °C. DMSO- d_6 (500 mL) and concentrated hydrochloric acid (3.5 µL) were added and the vial was sonicated for several minutes prior to NMR analysis. To perform mass spectrometry analysis, the digestion procedure was slightly modified, and instead of DMSO-d₆, 500 µL of chloroform and 3.5 μ L of concentrated hydrochloric acid were added to washed crystals of 1 and sonicated for several minutes. Once dissolved, the sample was dried for 48 hours with gentle heating (50 °C) under high vacuum before being submitted for mass spectrometry analysis. As seen from Figure 2.6, both ¹H NMR spectroscopy and mass spectrometry show clear evidence that BPMTC and TCPP are present in 1. The relative integrations of H₄TCPP to BPMTC are 1:0.85 in the ¹H NMR spectrum of **1**, which corresponds to 48% installation of BPMTC between 2D layers of 1.





Figure 2.6. The ¹H NMR spectrum of digested **1**. The peaks corresponding to $H_4TCPP(\blacksquare)$ and BPMTC (*) are labeled. The inset shows the electrospray ionization mass-spectrum of digested **1**.

To further probe the composition of **1**, the bulk sample was analyzed using energydispersive X-ray (EDX)spectroscopy and elemental analysis. Single crystals of **1** were sonicated for 10 minutes, followed by vigorous stirring in a 20 mL vial containing ethanol for several days. Daily, the suspension was centrifuged and the ethanol was replaced to remove residual BPMTC adsorbed on the surface of the MOF. The final wash was checked using UV-Vis spectroscopy to confirm that all nonbonded BPMTC had been removed from the MOF. EDX spectra were collected on a TESCAN Vega-3 SBU scanning electron microscope equipped with a backscattered electron detector. Results showed the presence of sulfur, nitrogen, zinc, and oxygen in **1**, which could be attributed to BPMTC and porphyrin linkers, as well as metal inside the metal nodes in **1**, as shown in Figure 2.7.




Figure 2.7. The EDX spectrum of as-synthesized 1.

Another characterization method that can be performed in the solid-state without MOF degradation is FT-IR spectroscopy. Data was obtained on samples of BPMTC, H_4TCPP , and **1**, and determined the presence of both the donor and acceptor in **1** (Figure 2.8).



Figure 2.8. The FT-IR spectra of as-synthesized **1** (black), BPMTC (blue), and H₄TCPP (red).



2.3. Photophysical Properties of MOF 1

MOF photophysical properties were elucidated using diffuse reflectance, steady state, and time-resolved fluorescence spectroscopies. To test whether the BPMTC photoswitch could preserve the ability to isomerize after coordinative immobilization and affect the photophysical properties of **1**, the emission intensity of **1** was monitored while irradiating it with UV light. Irradiation of **1** at 365 nm resulted in the suppression of the fluorescence signal caused by the BPMTC photoisomerization from the initially open form to the closed form. We found that the fluorescence intensity could then be restored after irradiation with 590 nm excitation (Figure 2.9), which is attributed to the BPMTC photoisomerization back to the open form. As a control experiment, the fluorescence response from the 2D Zn₂(ZnTCPP) MOF, which does not contain BPMTC, was monitored while irradiated at 365 nm. We found that there was no attenuation in the signal from



Figure 2.9. a) Emission spectra recorded for **1**, scaled such that the peak intensity $I_0 = 1.0$ on the first scan at $\lambda_{ex} = 590$ nm. The inset shows the epifluorescence microscopy images of a crystal of **1** at $\lambda_{ex} = 370$ nm (left) and 530 nm (right). b) Time-dependent fluorescence responses of Zn₂(ZnTCPP) irradiated at 365 nm for 25 min. c) Emission spectra recorded for Zn₂(ZnTCPP) ($\lambda_{ex} = 590$ nm) analogous to **1**. The first emission spectrum of Zn₂(ZnTCPP) is highlighted in red.



 $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)$ over 30 minutes. The intensity attenuation as a function of time shows no fluorescence decay in $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)$ MOF, due to the absence of BPMTC.

During the fluorescence measurements, we observed that the process of closing the photoswitches within the MOF is much faster than opening. As shown in Figure 2.9, 60% modulation depth was achieved after 30 minutes, however it took nearly four times as long to recover the fluorescence intensity using 590 nm excitation. This fact is consistent with the photoisomerization rates which were observed for a non-coordinated BPMTC in the solid-state. Indeed, the conversion of BPMTC from the closed to open form at 590 nm irradiation is much slower than the reverse process.

For the evaluation of the switching capabilities of **1**, the bulk sample was irradiated at 365 nm, followed by 590 nm for 5 consecutive cycles (Figure 2.10). We found that the fluorescence modulation in **1** is consistently reversible, and in each case, the initial fluorescence intensity was recovered. Therefore **1** can maintain its photoswitchable behavior while preserving its crystallinity (Figure 2.12). The rate constant of fluorescence



Figure 2.10. Optical cycling (I/I_o vs. time) of **1** by alternative irradiation at 365 (- -) and 590 (—) nm.



 I/I_0 decay (I_0 – maximum of emission intensity at 653 nm) was calculated by fitting the decay with a monoexponential function, and was found to be 1×10^{-3} s⁻¹ (Figure 2.11). To rule out MOF degradation as a cause for fluorescence modulation, the crystallinity of the sample was evaluated by PXRD before and after fluorescence measurements. Crystals of **1** from the bulk sample were placed into a 4 mm quartz sample cell, and the crystals were dried slightly (i.e. not all the DMF was removed). Notably, MOFs containing zinc paddlewheel nodes are typically susceptible to degradation after prolonged dryness or exposure to water.³⁷ Fluorescence measurements were performed, and then the crystals were then transferred to a zero background plate for PXRD analysis. As shown in Figure 2.12, **1** remained intact after 75 min of optical cycling and 90 min of 365 nm irradiation, ruling out degradation as a cause for fluorescence modulation.



Figure 2.11. (*left*) Emission spectra of **1** during irradiation at 365 nm using a high-power LED. The excitation power was held constant and the spectra are scaled such that the maximum fluorescence intensity $I = I_0$ after the first 30-sec scan. (*right*) Time-dependence of the maximum intensity at ~660 nm. The blue solid line is a fit of the experimental data with the monoexponential function $y = y_0+B_1\exp(-t/c_1)$ ($B_1 = 0.41$, $c_1 = 15.96$ min).

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Figure 2.12. PXRD patterns of **1**: simulated with preferential orientation along 00l direction (black), as-synthesized (green), after optical cycling for 75 min (blue), and after irradiation at 365 nm for 90 min (red).

Fitting of Fluorescence Decays. Energy Transfer Efficiency, Φ_{e} .

To describe quantitatively the ET processes occurring in 1, the ET efficiency, Φ_{e} , was estimated based on experimentally found lifetimes of Zn₂(ZnTCPP) and 1 (Equation 2.1). The fluorescence lifetimes for 1 and Zn₂(ZnTCPP) were acquired ($\lambda_{ex} = 360$ nm) by fitting the fluorescence decays with a triexponential function (Equation 2.2 and 2.3). In Figure 2.13, analysis of the decay curves clearly demonstrates that fluorescence decay of 1 is more rapid in comparison to Zn₂(ZnTCPP). This fact is consistent with experimentally found amplitude-weighted average lifetime values for Zn₂(ZnTCPP) and 1, which are 1.46 and 1.24 ns, respectively (Table 2.1), corresponding to a Φ_{e} of 15%. The corresponding energy transfer constant, k_{e} , was estimated to be 1.2×10^{10} s⁻¹.



$$\Phi_{\rm e} = k_{\rm e} / (k_{\rm r} + k_{\rm nr} + k_{\rm e}) = k_{\rm e} / (k_{\rm o} + k_{\rm e})$$
 Equation 2.1.

where k_r , k_{nr} , and k_e = radiative decay, non-radiative decay, and ET constants, respectively. The k_o and k_e values were found from the lifetimes for Zn₂(ZnTCPP) and **1**, which are $\tau_{2D} = 1/k_o$ and $\tau_{3D} = 1/(k_o + k_e)$, respectively.

$$I(t) = \int_0^t IRF(t') \cdot \left(C + \sum_{i=1}^3 A_i \exp\left(-\frac{t-t'}{\tau_i}\right)\right) dt'$$

Equation 2.2.

where τ and A are lifetime and amplitude, respectively.

The weighted average fluorescence lifetimes were calculated based on Equation. 2.3.

$$\tau_{av} = (A_{w1}\tau_1 + A_{w2}\tau_2 + A_{w3}\tau_3)/(A_{w1} + A_{w2} + A_{w3})$$
 Equation 2.3

where $A_{wi} = A_i / \Sigma A_i$.



Figure 2.13. Fluorescence decays of **1** (blue) and $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)$ (red). Black solid lines are fits of decays according to Equation 2.1.



	$A_{ m w1}$	τ_1 , ns	$A_{ m w2}$	τ_2 , ns	$A_{ m w3}$	τ_3 , ns	$ au_{\rm av}$, ns
1	0.20	0.39	0.57	1.04	0.22	2.52	1.24
Zn2(ZnTCPP)	0.35	0.20	0.41	1.41	0.24	3.34	1.46

Table 2.1. Amplitudes and weighted lifetimes of Zn₂(ZnTCPP) and 1.

To summarize all three sections, the data indicate that the synthesized BPMTC photoswitch was successfully immobilized between 2D MOF layers, which produced **1**. By coordinatively immobilizing the BPMTC photoswitches into a MOF, we achieved a system which exhibited solid-state photoisomerization, while at the same time, directed the PL response.

The prepared MOF underwent comprehensive structural and photophysical characterization. Based on single-crystal X-ray data, we observed a significant increase in interlayer distance in 1 when compared with the parent 2D MOF, from 2.82 Å to 14.64 Å in Zn₂(ZnTCPP) and 1, respectively. In addition to single-crystal X-ray data, we employed seven characterization techniques including elemental analysis, PXRD, MS as well as EDX, NMR, and IR spectroscopy for confirmation of BPMTC installation. The results obtained from all applied characterization techniques clearly indicated that BPMTC pillars were successfully immobilized inside the rigid framework 1.

To study the effect of BPMTC photoisomerization on the photophysical properties of the framework, we used fluorescence spectroscopic studies to show that the photoluminescence response from **1** could be attenuated by alternation of the excitation wavelengths. To ensure that the integrity of **1** was not affected, and the observed fluorescence decays were not caused by MOF degradation, we confirmed the MOF integrity by PXRD analysis. We have also found that **1** could undergo a series of optical



cycles restoring its emission. To quantify the energy transfer processes occurring in 1, we estimated ET quantum efficiency based on the lifetimes of 1 and $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)$, which were found to be 1.46 and 1.24 ns, respectively. Based on time resolved photoluminescence studies, the ET quantum efficiency was found to be 15%.

Conclusion

We have demonstrated the diarylethene photoswitch, BPMTC, is capable of retaining its photochromic properties after coordinative immobilization inside of a rigid, porous scaffold. The reversible photoisomerization of BPMTC within the PL scaffold allowed for the emission properties of the framework to be controlled through the activation of ET processes. The presented MOF is capable of light harvesting and ET due to the spectral overlap between the BPMTC photoswitches and porphyrin chromophores. The integrity of MOFs allows for the system to retain structural integrity after multiple optical cycles. Photoswitchable ligands can be used as a tool to direct the photophysical properties of the parent MOF, thereby directing the chromophore behavior in large light-harvesting ensembles.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Materials.

 $Zn(NO_3)_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ (technical grade, Ward's Science), tetrakis(4carboxyphenyl)porphyrin (97%, Frontier Scientific), 2-methylthiophene (98%, Matrix Scientific), *n*-chlorosuccinimide (98%, Sigma-Aldrich), glutaryl dichloride (97%, Acros Organics), TiCl₄ (99%, Alfa Aesar), zinc dust (95%, Macron), 4-bromopyridine hydrochloride (98%, Matrix Scientific), tri-*n*-butylborate (98%, Strem Chemicals), glacial



acetic acid (ACS grade, BDH), *N*,*N*-diethylformamide (> 99%, TCI America), *N*,*N*-dimethylformamide (ACS grade, BDH), *n*-butyllithium solution (2.5 M in hexanes, Sigma-Aldrich), benzene (ACS grade, Fischer Scientific), CS₂ (99.9%, Sigma-Aldrich), ethylene glycol (HPLC grade, Amresco), Pd(PPh₃)₄ (99.8%, Alfa Aesar), hexanes (ACS certified, Fischer Scientific), HNO₃ (ACS grade, Fischer Scientific), ethyl ether (ACS grade, J. T. Baker® Chemicals), ethyl acetate (HPLC grade, EMD Chemicals), CH₂Cl₂ (ACS grade, BDH), CDCl₃ (Cambridge Isotopes), and DMSO-*d*₆ (Cambridge Isotopes) were used as received.

Synthesis.

The compounds 1-4³³, BPMTC³³ and $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)^{38}$ were prepared according to the reported procedures.

Synthesis of 2-chloromethylthiophene (1)



Scheme 2.3. Synthesis of 2chloromethylthiophene (1).

Benzene (120 mL) and acetic acid (120 mL) were degassed in a 500 mL Schlenk flask by bubbling nitrogen through the solution for two hours. After degassing, *n*chlorosuccinimide (32.0 g, 0.240 mol) and 2-methylthiophene (21.5 g, 0.219 mol) were added and the solution was degassed for an additional hour before heating to reflux under nitrogen. After the solution was heated at reflux overnight, the reaction mixture was cooled and 150 mL ice cold water was added to the solution and stirred. The reaction mixture was extracted with DCM (3×150 mL) and the combined organic layers were washed with



water (3 × 200 mL), dried over Na₂SO₄, and then evaporated under vacuum which yielded a brown oil. The oil was distilled under high vacuum and **1** was obtained as a colorless oil (14.7 g, 0.150 mol) in 54% yield. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃, ppm): δ = 6.73-6.12 (1H, d, *J* = 2.2 Hz), 6.56-6.55 (1H, m), and 2.44(3H, s).

Synthesis of 1,5-Bis(5-chloro-2-methylthien-3-yl)pentane-1,5-dione (2)



Scheme 2.4. Synthesis of 1,5-Bis(5-chloro-2-methylthien-3-yl)pentane-1,5-dione (**2**).

After a solution of 1 (5.76 g, 43.6 mmol), glutaryl dichloride (3.67 g, 21.7 mmol),

and 50 mL CS₂ were stirred in an ice bath for 30 minutes, AlCl₃ (7.00 g, 52.5 mmol) was slowly added. The solution was stirred in a nitrogen atmosphere for 24 hours before adding 100 mL ice cold water. The slurry was stirred for 20 minutes, or until the black tar on the walls of the flask were dissolved, the mixture was extracted with DCM (3×150 mL) and the combined organic layers were washed with water (3×200 mL), dried over Na₂SO₄, and then evaporated under vacuum to yield a black solid. The solid was purified using column chromatography (silica, hexane/diethyl ether 9:1), to afford a pale yellow powder (7.62 g) in 73 % yield. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃, ppm): $\delta = 2.02-2.11$ (2H, p, J = 6.9 Hz), 2.66 (6H, s), 2.86 (4H, t, J = 6.9), and 7.19 (2H, s).

Synthesis of 1,2-Bis(5-chloro-2-methylthien-3-yl)cyclopentene (3)

TiCl₄ (3.20 mL, 9.77 mmol) was added dropwise to a cold solution of **2** (3.00 g, 8.30 mmol) and THF (100 mL), followed by the addition of Zn dust (3.45, 52.7 mmol). The solution was stirred for two hours in an ice bath and then heated to reflux under a nitrogen atmosphere for 48 hours. The solution was cooled to room temperature before 100





Scheme 2.5. Synthesis of 1,2-Bis(5-chloro-2-methylthien-3-yl)cyclopentene (3).

mL of 10% K₂CO₃ was added, and the solution was stirred for an additional five minutes. Hexane was added to the flask, stirred for one minute, and decanted into a separatory funnel. This was repeated several times until the decanted hexane became colorless, then the combined organic layers were washed with water (3 × 100 mL), dried over Na₂SO₄, and the solvent evaporated under vacuum to yield to afford a yellow oil, which crystallizes overnight after placing it in the refrigerator. The yellow crystals were further purified by column chromatography (silica, hexane) to afford a white solid (1.62 g) in 59 % yield. ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆, ppm): $\delta = 1.85$ (6H, s), 1.92-2.02 (2H, p, *J* = 7.5), 2.69-2.74 (4H, t, *J* = 7.64), and 6.84 (2H, s).

Synthesis of 1,2-bis(2-methyl-5-(pyridin-4-yl)thiophen-3-yl)cyclopentene (BPMTC)



Scheme 2.6. Synthesis of 1,2-bis(2-methyl-5-(pyridin-4-yl)thiophen-3-yl)cyclopentene (BPMTC).

N-butyllithium (2.5 M in hexanes, 5.04 mL, 12.6 mmol) was added to an ice-cooled solution of **3** (1.88 g, 5.71 mmol) in 15 mL dry THF. After 15 minutes of stirring, tributylborate (4.62 mL, 17.1 mol) was added, and flask was removed from the ice bath and allowed to warm up to room temperature while stirring. The solution was stirred for 1 hour after removing it from the ice bath. Meanwhile, a second flask was prepared by heating



Pd(PPH₃)₄ in 20 mL dry of THF to 70 °C in a two-neck flask. After 15 minutes, 25 mL of 2 M K₂CO₃, ethylene glycol (10 drops), and 4-bromopyridine HCl (2.43 g, 12.5 mol) were added. Then the solution from the initial flask was transferred via cannula in one portion. The combined mixture was heated to 70 ° for 16 hours. The solution was then cooled to room temperature, and 20 mL water was added. Then the mixture was extracted several times with diethyl ether. The combined organic layers were washed with water and brine and the solvent was evaporated under vacuum, yielding a brown oil. The oil was purified using column chromatography (silica, ethyl acetate/hexane 4:1) and the product was afforded as a purple oil. The oil appeared pure by ¹H NMR, however it was further purified by sonicating in hexane and collecting the grey precipitate. After repeating this procedure numerous times, a gray powder was obtained in 66% yield. The powder was made white by irradiating the bulk of the sample with a 590 nm LED with occasional stirring. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃, ppm): 2.02 (6H, s), 2.11 (2H, q, *J* = 7.1), 2.85 (4H, t, *J* = 7.1), 7.21 (2H, s), 7.34 (4H, dd, J = 1.4 Hz, 4.6 Hz), 8.53 (4h, dd, J = 1.4 Hz, 4.6 Hz). IR (neat, cm⁻¹): 3048, 2949, 2914, 2848, 1596, 1556, 1540, 1498, 1463, 1435, 1411, 1380, 1324, 1312, 1250, 1219, 1177, 1154, 1094, 1069, 1028, 991, 761, 919, 872, 822, 754, 740, 712, 670 (Figure 2.8). The single-crystal structure of BPMTC is shown in Figure 2.2.

For the synthesis of **1**, $Zn(NO_3)_2 \cdot 6H_2O(17 \text{ mg}, 58 \mu\text{mol})$ and $H_4TCPP(7.9 \text{ mg}, 10 \mu\text{mol})$ were placed in a 1-dram vial and dissolved in 2.1 mL DEF and 0.5 mL EtOH, followed by sonication for 10 min. To the solution, BPMTC (6.2 mg, 15 μ mol) in 0.16 mL DEF and 30 μ L of HNO₃ (1 M solution in EtOH) were added. The resulting solution was sonicated for 10 min and then heated at 80 °C for 14 hours in an isothermal oven. After 14 h of heating, the reaction mixture was cooled down to room temperature at 0.5 °C/min.



Red square-plate crystals of **1** (7.7 mg, 3.7 μmol) were isolated in 24% yield. IR (neat, cm⁻¹): 2975, 2937, 2876, 1661, 1606, 1556, 1504, 1431, 1398, 1383, 1364, 1307, 1262, 1217, 1175, 1108, 1071, 1030, 1009, 994, 943, 871, 822, 794, 773, 720, 711 (Figure 2.8).

Single Crystal X-ray Data.

BPMTC •0.5(*C*₃*H*₆*O*) (*C*₂₅*H*₂₂*N*₂*S*₂ •0.5(*C*₃*H*₆*O*)), *BPMTC*

X-ray intensity data from a colorless plate crystal of BPMTC were collected at 296(2) K using a Bruker SMART APEX diffractometer (Mo K α radiation, $\lambda = 0.71073$ Å).³⁹ The raw area detector data frames were reduced using the SAINT+ program.³⁹ Final unit cell parameters were determined by least- squares refinement of 7127 reflections from the data set. The structure was solved by direct methods with SHELXS.⁴⁰ Subsequent difference Fourier calculations and full-matrix least-squares refinement against F^2 were performed with SHELXL-2014/1⁴⁰ using OLEX2.⁴¹ The compound crystallizes in the monoclinic space group $P2_{l}/n$ as determined by the pattern of systematic absences in the intensity data. The asymmetric unit consists of one C₂₅H₂₂N₂S₂ molecule and half of one acetone molecule, which is disordered across an inversion center. The acetone is further disordered within the asymmetric unit over two independent sites with refined occupancies 0.267(8) / 0.233(8) (constrained to the sum of 0.5). Non-hydrogen atoms were refined with anisotropic displacement parameters except for disordered atoms of the acetone solvate (isotropic). Hydrogen atoms were placed in geometrically idealized positions and included as riding atoms. The largest residual electron density peak in the final difference map is 0.37 e/Å³, located among the disordered acetone molecules. The crystallographic data for BPMTC $\cdot 0.5(C_3H_6O)$ are shown in Table 2.2.



$[Zn(ZnTCPP)(BPMTC)_{0.85}(DEF)_{1.15}] \cdot (DEF)_{5.15}(H_2O)_{7.25} (Zn_3C_{100.75}H_{126.5}N_{12}O_{21.55}S_{1.7}, 1).$

X-ray intensity data from a dark red plate of 1 were collected at 150 K on a D8 goniostat equipped with a Bruker APEXII CCD detector at Beamline 11.3.1 at the Advanced Light Source (Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory) using synchrotron radiation tuned to $\lambda = 1.0333$ Å. For data collection, frames were measured for a duration of 3-s at 0.3° intervals of ω . The data frames were collected using the program APEX2 and processed using the SAINT program routine within APEX2. The data were corrected for absorption and beam corrections based on the multi-scan technique as implemented in SADABS.⁴² The structures were solved by direct methods using SHELXS⁴⁰shelds and refined against F^2 on all data by full-matrix least squares as implemented in S4 SHELXL-97.43 The Zn, C, and N atoms in Zn₂(ZnTCPP) layers were refined anisotropically. Hydrogen atoms attached to the ligand were included in the model at geometrically calculated positions using a riding model. Due to partial occupancy of BPMTC and the disorder of the solvent molecules, which is very common in MOF structures,^{44,45} the large amount of spatially delocalized electron density in the pores of the lattice was observed. The acceptable refinement values could not be obtained for this electron density (maximum and minimum of residual density were 0.73 and -0.89 e/Å^3 , respectively), and therefore, the best residual indices were obtained from a model for which the program SQUEEZE⁴⁶ was used to account for the electron density in regions of high disorder. Part of the extended structure is shown in Figure 2.4, and the refinement data are given in Table 2.2.

Fluorescence spectroscopy.

Steady-state emission spectra were acquired on a Perkin Elmer LS55 fluorescence spectrometer equipped with a pulsed high-energy xenon source for excitation. Emission



measurements on solid samples were collected in front-face mode on the single crystals of the appropriate materials placed inside the 6-mm quartz sample holder that, in case of MOFs, prevented rapid solvent loss from the framework. The emission response was also detected using an Ocean Optics JAZ spectrometer. In this case, mounted high-power 365 and 590 nm LEDs (M365L2, M590L3, Thorlabs) were used as an excitation source. Fluorescence lifetimes were measured using a Mini-τ lifetime spectrometer equipped with a 360-nm picosecond-pulsed-light-emitting diode.

Other physical measurements.

FT-IR spectra were obtained on a Perkin-Elmer Spectrum 100. NMR spectra were collected on a Varian Mercury 300 and 400 MHz NMR spectrometers. ¹³C and ¹H spectra were referenced to natural abundance ¹³C peaks and residual ¹H peaks of deuterated solvents, respectively. Powder X-ray diffraction patterns were recorded on a Rigaku Miniflex II diffractometer with accelerating voltage and current of 30 kV and 15 mA, respectively. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was performed on a SDT Q600 Thermogravimetric Analyzer using an aluminum boat as a sample holder at a heating rate of 1 °C/min. The Waters QTOF-I quadrupole time-of-flight mass-spectrometer was used to record the electrospray ionization mass-spectra. Diffuse reflectance spectra were collected on a Perkin Elmer Lambda 45 UV/Vis spectrometer referenced to Spectralon®. The energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectra were collected on a TESCAN Vega-3 SBU scanning electron microscope equipped with a backscattered electron detector and EDX capability. The epifluorescence microscopy images were collected on the Olympus BX51 microscope with a 120 W mercury vapor short arc excitation light source.



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compound	BPMTC	1	
formula	$C_{25}H_{22}N_2S_2 \cdot 0.5(C_3H_6O)$	$Zn_{3}C_{48}H_{24}N_{6}O_{9}{}^{c}$	
FW	443.60	1024.84	
<i>Т</i> , К	296(2)	150(2)	
crystal system, space group Z	monoclinic, P 2 ₁ /n 4	tetragonal, P4/nmm 2	
<i>a</i> , Å	10.3059(6)	16.710(3)	
b, Å	12.9893(7)	16.710(3)	
<i>c</i> , Å	17.9870(10)	29.890(9)	
α, °	90	90	
<i>β</i> , °	98.5160(10)	90	
γ, °	90	90	
$V, Å^3$	2381.3(2)	8346(3)	
d_{calc} , g/cm ³	1.237	0.408	
μ , mm ⁻¹	0.242	1.188	
<i>F</i> (000)	936.0	1032.0	
crystal size, mm	0.460×0.400×0.100	$0.130 \times 0.030 \times 0.005$	
theta range	3.88 to 50.15	1.98 to 31.39	
index ranges	$-12 \leq h \leq 12$	$-16 \le h \le 16$	
	$-15 \le k \le 15$	$-16 \le k \le 16$	
	$-21 \le 1 \le 21$	$-28 \le l \le 29$	
refl. collected	31145	30876	
data/restrains/parameters	4229 / 24 / 296	2539 /103 /0	
GOF on F^2	0.950	0.904	
large peak/hole, e/Å ³	0.37/-0.16	0.314/-0.421	
$R_1 (wR_2), \%, [I > 2 sigma(I)]^d$	0.0511 (0.1438)	5.36 (15.79)	

Table 2.2. X-ray structure refinement data for BPMTC^a and $\mathbf{1}^{b}$.

^{*a*} Mo-K α ($\lambda = 0.71073$ Å) radiation; ^{*b*} synchrotron radiation ($\lambda = 1.0333$ Å)

^c Formula is given based on single-crystal X-ray data and does not include BPMTC ligands or solvent molecules (complete formula was determined based on elemental analysis and ¹H NMR spectroscopy (vide supra) ^d $R_1 = \Sigma ||F_0| - |F_c|| / \Sigma |F_0|$, $wR_2 = \{ \Sigma [w(F_0^2 - F_c^2)^2] / \Sigma [w(F_0^2)^2] \}^{1/2}$



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CHAPTER 3

Flipping the Switch: Fast Photoisomerization in a Confined Environment

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INTRODUCTION

Photochromic molecules can switch between two distinct states, each with inherently different physiochemical properties upon excitation with incident light.¹⁻⁶ The ability to cycle between each isomer with the use of external stimuli, such as light, makes them valuable for applications such as smart windows,⁷ transition lenses,⁸ photo-optic switches,⁹⁻⁹ or controlled drug delivery systems.¹⁰⁻¹² Popular classes of photochromic compounds that have undergone extensive examination are azobenzenes,^{13–15} fulgides,^{16–} ¹⁸ diarylethenes, ^{19–21} and spiropyrans.^{22–25} Of these photoswitches, the latter two were of particular interest for our studies. For example, diarylethene photoswitches are capable of rapid, reversible, solid-state photoisomerization,^{1,26,27} whereas only a few examples of reversible solid-state photoisomerization exist in the case of spiropyran.^{28–30} Diarylethene can be derivatized to have a high thermal stability, and will remain in either isomeric state for an extended period of time,^{1,3,31,32} whereas spiropyran relaxes back to its original form within minutes.^{33,34} Nonetheless, it was recently found that once spiropyran was introduced into a porous system, it was capable of reversible photoisomerization in the solid state,^{35,36} which could warrant its use in the aforementioned systems. However, there are very few reports to date which study coordinatively immobilized diarylethene- and spiropyran-based photoswitchable ligands in three-dimensional extended networks.^{35,37–41}

For the development of specialized applications, some of which were mentioned above, it is crucial to build on the fundamental understanding of solid state and solutionbased photoisomerization of spiropyran and diarylethene photoswitches. Therefore, we



were interested in studying the fundamental behavior of diarylethene and spiropyran photoswitches in solution, solid, and while coordinatively immobilized in a porous scaffold.

In this chapter, we report the preparation and photophysical studies of four different photochromic materials. For that, two novel spiropyran-containing derivatives were prepared. Typically, spiropyran-derivatives have limited reversibility in the solid state, but we envision that by immobilization in a porous network through a rigid backbone, the steric hindrance will provide rotational freedom for spiropyran linkers inside the MOF pores.

The photophysical properties of the two spiropyran-based derivatives were studied in the solid state, solution, and coordinatively immobilized inside of porous MOFs. We prepared two diarylethene-based MOFs to compare their photophysical properties with the spiropyran-based frameworks. Thus, the rates of diarylethene photoisomerization could be compared with spiropyran-based systems, as well as in solution and the solid state. The comparison of the two photoswitches in various environments could allow us to tailor the systems for more specific applications, such as gas vapor sensing and photoresponsive coatings. This chapter covers the synthesis and characterization of the photoswitches and photoswitch-containing MOFs, and consists of four main sections: (i) the synthesis and characterization of the photochromic linkers, (ii) the photophysical characterization of the photochromic linkers, (iii) the synthesis and characterization of the corresponding MOFs, and (iv) photophysical studies of the prepared photoswitch linkers and MOFs.

3.1 Synthesis and Characterization of the Photochromic Linkers

For clarity purposes, the names of the linkers are defined here, and will be referred to by their acronyms for the remainder of the chapter: BPMTC = bis(5-pyridyl-2-methyl-



3-thienyl)cyclopentene (Scheme 3.1); H₂BCMTC = 4,4'-(cyclopent-1-ene-1,2-diyl)bis(5methylthiophene-2-carboxylic acid (Scheme 3.2); TNDS = 1',3',3'-trimethyl-6-nitro-4',7'di(pyridin-4-yl)spiro[chromene-2,2'-indoline] (Scheme 3.3); and HDDB = 1',1''',3',3',3'''-hexamethyl-6,6''-dinitro-4',4'''-di(pyridin-4-yl)-7',7'''bispiro[chromene-2,2'-indoline] (Scheme 3.4).

Two diarylethene and two spiropyran-based linkers were prepared to study their photoisomerization rates. To do so, their cores were modified with terminal pyridyl or carboxylic groups, which are necessary for incorporation into a MOF scaffold. Using the prepared linkers, we attempted to measure the photoisomerization rate of pyridyl-based derivatives of diarylethene and spiropyran in solution, solid-state, and in MOFs.

3.1.1 Synthesis and Characterization of BPMTC



Scheme 3.1. Synthesis scheme of bis(5-pyridyl-2-methyl-3-thienyl)cyclopentene, BPMTC.

For the synthesis of BPMTC, a diarylethene core was modified with terminal pyridyl groups to coordinate to the Zn-containing metal nodes between 2D MOF layers. It was prepared using a modified literature procedure.⁴² A detailed synthetic procedure has already been described in Chapter 2. The synthesis scheme of BPMTC is shown in Scheme 3.1. BPMTC was structurally characterized using ¹H NMR, ¹³C NMR, and Fourier-



transform infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopies, as well as single crystal X-ray diffraction (see Chapter 2).

3.1.2 Synthesis and Characterization of H₂BCMTC

Scheme 3.2 Synthesis scheme of 4,4'-(cyclopent-1-ene-1,2-diyl)bis(5-methylthiophene-2-carboxylic acid), H₂BCMTC.

For the synthesis of H₂BCMTC, a diarylethene core was modified with terminal carboxylic acid groups to attach to the Zr-based secondary building unit (SBU) of PCN-700 (vide infra).⁴³ It was prepared using a similar scheme to BPMTC, however instead of a palladium-catalyzed Suzuki-coupling reaction on **4**, it underwent a carbonation reaction to form the terminal carboxylic acid groups (Scheme 3.2) using a previously-reported literature procedure.⁴⁴

3.1.3 Synthesis and Characterization of TNDS

The TNDS derivative was synthesized via a six-step procedure as shown in Scheme 3.3. The last step in this scheme was a palladium-catalyzed Suzuki coupling reaction which was performed on the brominated precursor, MSP6, in the presence of 4-pyridyl boronic acid, which yielded the novel bis(pyridyl) spiropyran derivative, TNDS (Scheme 3.3). The TNDS photoswitch was structurally characterized using ¹H NMR, ¹³C NMR, and FT-IR





Scheme 3.3. Synthesis scheme of 1',3',3'-trimethyl-6-nitro-4',7'-di(pyridin-4-yl)spiro[chromene-2,2'-indoline] (TNDS).

spectroscopies, as well as single crystal X-ray diffraction and mass spectrometry (Figures 3.10, 3.17, 3.13, and 3.12, respectively). Full synthetic details for MSP5, MSP6, and TNDS can be found in the experimental section (Schemes 3.5, 3.6, and 3.7, respectively).

3.1.4 Synthesis and Characterization of HDDB

The HDDB compound was synthesized via a seven-step procedure as shown in Scheme 3.4. The last step (similar to TNDS) was a palladium-catalyzed Suzuki coupling reaction performed on the brominated precursor, BSP6, in the presence of 4-pyridyl boronic acid. HDDB was characterized using ¹H NMR, ¹³C NMR, ¹³C CP-MAS NMR, and FT-IR spectroscopies, as well as single crystal X-ray diffraction and mass spectrometry (Figures 3.11, 3.17, 3.16, and 3.15, respectively). Full synthetic details for BSP5, BSP6, and HDDB can be found in the experimental section (Schemes 3.8, 3.9, and 3.10, respectively).





Scheme 3.4. Synthesis scheme of 1',1''',3',3',3''',3'''-hexamethyl-6,6''-dinitro-4',4'''-di(pyridin-4-yl)-7',7'''-bispiro[chromene-2,2'-indoline] (HDDB).

3.1.4.1 Enantiomerization of HDDB: HDDB_{in-in}, HDDB_{in-out}, and HDDB_{out-out}

HDDB, containing two spiropyran groups, can exist as three unique diastereomers (HDDB_{in-in}, HDDB_{in-out}, and HDDB_{out-out}), and each of which has unique NMR shifts (Figure 3.1). We were able to collect a pure ¹H NMR spectrum of the HDDB_{in-in} isomer (Figure 3.11) by crystallizing it from a solution of acetone (purification technique is described in detail in the experimental section below, Scheme 3.10). We were interested in studying the transformation of HDDB_{in-in} to HDDB_{in-out} and HDDB_{out-out}, inspired by similar work conducted by Klajn, et al.⁴⁵ To study the isomerization, we introduced crystalline HDDB_{in-in} into an NMR tube that contained cold methylene chloride-*d*₂, and measured the ¹H NMR spectrum over several days (Figure 3.1). After only 9 hours at 25 °C, 32% of the HDDB_{in-in} isomer converted into a mixture of diastereomers, 50% after 25



hours. We obtained single crystals of HDDB_{in-out} by dissolving a mixture of isomers in a vial with 50% ethyl acetate/hexanes and then stored at 0 °C for several days (Figure 3.11). From the combination of the ¹H NMR spectra of HDDB_{in-in} and HDDB_{in-out}, we were able to deduce the resonances of all three diastereomers in the final, equilibrated spectrum.



Figure 3.1. Single crystal X-ray structures of HDDB_{in-in} and HDDB_{in-out} (*top*). The ¹H NMR spectra showing the conversion of HDDB_{in-in} to the other isomers, HDDB_{in-out} and HDDB_{out-out} after three days (*bottom*).

3.2 Photophysical Characterization of BPMTC, H₂BCMTC, TNDS, and HDDB.

In general, spiropyran consists of two groups, indoline and chromene, linked together through a single sp³ "spiro" chiral carbon (Figure 3.2). Once the photoswitch is irradiated with UV light ($\lambda_{max} \sim 365$ nm), the compound undergoes a cyclization reaction and generates a planar, highly colored, zwitterionic form of the photoswitch (merocyanine), shown in Figure 3.2. The isomerization of the compound from the



spiropyran to the merocyanine form is accompanied with a large structural change, and therefore can severely impact the photoisomerization rates.

Diarylethene photoswitches also have two isomeric forms, colorless (open) and colored (closed.) The colorless form of diarylethene can be irradiated with UV light, which causes it to undergo a 6π -electron electrocyclic reaction and form a bond between the two heterocyclic thiophene moieties, generating the colored diarylethene form. The diarylethene-based derivative, unlike spiropyran, is thermally stable in either form, and does not undergo such a drastic structural change during photoisomerization.

To study spiropyran and diarylethene photoisomerization rates, we initially performed photophysical measurements on the two classes of photoswitches in solution and solid state. For solution studies, a 3 mM solution of the respective photoswitch was loaded into a 8 mm × 1 mm front-facing quartz sample cell. For solid-state studies, 4 μ mol of photoswitch was mixed with 100 mg KBr, which was then pressed into the 8 mm sample cell. All samples were excited to an absorbance value of 0.05 a.u. Photochromic diarylethene and spiropyran-based derivatives typically display first-order decays during the photoisomerization process,^{13,31,46–48} and their rate constant, k, is extracted from the negative slope of the absorption plot of ln A versus time (A = absorbance.)

We found that photoisomerization of BPMTC and H₂BCMTC were fully reversible in solution and the solid state. The BPMTC compound isomerized rapidly in the solid state, and after only 35 seconds showed 100% photoconversion to the colorless form at a rate of 0.20 s⁻¹ (Table 3.1, Figure 3.5). For solution, BPMTC took approximately 6 minutes to fully switch at a rate of 1.0×10^{-2} s⁻¹. With similar behavior, H₂BCMTC took three minutes to isomerize at a rate of 4.8×10^{-2} s⁻¹ as a solid, and two minutes at a rate of 2.6×10^{-2} s⁻¹



in solution. The H₂BCMTC photoswitch was not responsive with UV irradiation due to interactions with the DMF solvent, and could not reach the desired absorption value of 0.05 a.u., so the rate in solution was measured in MeOH. The photoisomerization rates of TNDS and HDDB were conducted in an analogous manner to BPMTC and H₂BCMTC. It is evident that the solid form of spiropyran is not fully reversible, and even after 5 minutes of irradiation with visible light, it only displayed 90% conversion to the colorless form (Figure 3.2). However, in solution, complete reversion of TNDS was achieved in 30 seconds at a rate of 0.122 s⁻¹ (Table 3.1, Figure 3.5.) In comparison with TNDS, HDDB also showed limited photoconversion after five minutes (Figure 3.5), but showed 100% conversion in solution after one minute with a rate of 0.064 s⁻¹. The slower photoisomerization of HDDB can be attributed to the bulky core, which impedes the photoisomerization in solution and in the solid state. Fitting the experimental data was not successful, and therefore no reliable photoisomerization rates for HDDB and TNDS were determined in the solid state. The solid-state photoisomerization process may be hindered due to mechanical strain,⁵⁰ decomposition,⁵¹ photo- and thermal degradation,^{13,52,53} as well as π - π stacking interactions.³⁶ In fact, crystalline spiropyran is not considered reversible due to the highly organized and densely packed molecules. As an amorphous powder there is a small degree of conformational freedom due to the loose packing, which gives rise to poorly responsive and non-reversible photoisomerization. However, our results indicate that, in solution, spiropyran switches have significantly faster photoisomerization rates than diarylethene. The photoisomerization rates of spiropyran in solution are attractive, however any applications which require the use of solid-state materials must exclude spiropyran as an



option, due to their setback in nonreversible solid-state photoisomerization. We envisioned that the introduction of the spiropyran compounds into a porous environment would remove impeding intermolecular interactions, π - π stacking, and steric hindrance during isomerization while maintaining uniform chromophore arrangement. We anticipated that this would accelerate the photoisomerization rates of spiropyran in the solid state. However, the same method for immobilizing diarylethene through the structural core could



Figure 3.2. Photoisomerization of the diarylethene (*top*) and spiropyran (*middle*) derivatives. Pictures of TNDS as a solid, and in solution, before and after UV irradiation, as well as normalized diffuse reflectance and UV-vis spectra of TNDS during isomerization from the colored to colorless form (*bottom*).



impede the photoisomerization rate by restricting its movement in a confined environment. Therefore, we decided to probe how the prepared derivatives would behave while coordinatively immobilized in porous environments.

3.3 Synthesis and Characterization of 1, 2, 3, and 4 MOFs

It was shown previously that MOFs can drastically change the photophysical properties of the confined molecules by suppressing low-energy vibrational modes,⁵⁴ and could also be used to isolate high energy chromophore conformations.⁵⁵ For those reasons, we developed two strategies to integrate the photochromic molecules inside of porous



Figure 3.3. The TNDS, HDDB, and BPMTC linkers were used to synthesize **1**, **2**, and **3**, respectively, in the presence of H₄DBTD (*top*). The linker, H₂BCMTC, was installed as a capping linker into an existing MOF framework, PCN-700,⁴³ to make **4** (*bottom*). Orange, red, blue, teal, and white spheres correspond to zinc, oxygen, nitrogen, zirconium, and hydrogen atoms, respectively.



frameworks, through coordinative immobilization and capping linker installation. The three ligands BPMTC, TNDS, and HDDB were designed with terminal pyridyl groups, which makes them suitable for incorporation between 2D MOF layers (Figure 3.3). The tetracarboxylate MOF linker (3',6'-dibromo-4',5'-bis(4-carboxyphenyl)-1[1,1':2',1''tetraphenyl]-4,4"-dicarboxylic acid, H₄DBTD, Figure 3.3) has previously been shown to form transparent two-dimensional layers of DBTD⁴⁻ anchored together through zinccontaining paddlewheel SBUs.⁵⁶ The MOF contains unsaturated metal sites for incorporation of pyridyl linkers, to form a 3D scaffold. In fact, the BPMTC derivative has been previously utilized as pillars in a MOF which contains 2D layers of DBTD^{4-.57} We anticipated that our spiropyran analogues would bind axially to the zinc SBUs in the same way as a literature-reported structure of BPMTC with DBTD^{4-,57} resulting in two novel photochromic MOFs, 1 and 2, with similar topology. For TNDS, HDDB, and BPMTC, a one-pot synthesis was performed in an isothermal oven with the prepared MOF linker H₄DBTD,⁵⁸ and Zn(NO₃)₂·6H₂O in DMF to obtain single crystals of 1, 2, and 3, respectively.

Both MOFs **1** and **2** crystallize in the Pmmm space group of the orthorhombic crystal system. The **1** and **2** frameworks consist of layers of DBTD⁴⁻ with a pillar backbone with three and four six-membered rings that are anchored to the axial positions of the SBUs with two-fold disorder. The interlayer distance (defined here as distance from nitrogen to nitrogen along the structural backbone) measured ~11.4 Å and ~15.7 Å for **1** and **2**, respectively, which match the c-axis in our crystal structures, 11.4 Å and 15.6 Å for TNDS and HDDB, respectively. The crystallographic data shows 100% incorporation of the photochromic linkers, however the electron density within the pores could not be assigned



due to severe disorder. The bulk samples of **1** and **2** were also characterized using PXRD and showed good agreement with their simulated patterns (Figure 3.4). The ¹H NMR spectra of digested **1** and **2** showed the presence of both TNDS and HDDB pillars in their respective MOF structures (Figure 3.12 and 3.15, respectively). The FT-IR spectra of **1** and **2** are shown in Figures 3.13 and 3.16, respectively.

Similar to **1** and **2**, the framework **3** contains the BPMTC linker coordinatively anchored between the axial zinc paddlewheel SBUs and 2D layers of DBTD^{4-.57} The BPMTC photoswitch was not resolved between the layers of DBTD⁴⁻ in the crystallographic data, but was shown to have 100% incorporation based on the relative



Figure 3.4. *(top)* Structures of **1** and **2** with the immobilized TNDS and HDDB, respectively. *(bottom)* The simulated and experimental PXRD patterns of MOFs **1** (red) and **2** (blue) The colored text shows the c-expansion of each MOF with respect to linker size.



integrations of H₄DBTD and BPMTC in the ¹H NMR spectrum of the digested MOF (Figure 3.19). The PXRD pattern of the bulk sample of **3** was in good agreement with the simulated pattern (Figure 3.18).⁵⁷

As shown in previous studies and tested herein, BPMTC immobilized between DBTD⁴⁻ layers exhibits slow photoisomerization from the colored to colorless state, due to the rigid nature of MOFs.⁵⁷ We envisioned that photoisomerization rate of the diarylethene photoswitch could be enhanced if it was installed into a flexible MOF. Therefore, we prepared a dicarboxylic acid derived diarylethene photoswitch, H₂BCMTC, for insertion between the Zr₆O₄(OH)₈(H₂O)₄ SBU clusters of the flexible PCN-700 MOF.⁴³ The structure of PCN-700 consists of eight 2,2'-dimethylbiphenyl-4,4'-dicarboxylate (Me₂BPDC)²⁻ linkers coordinated to its zirconium-based SBU above and below the equatorial planes.⁴³ It was shown previously that PCN-700 contains three sites for the incorporation of dicarboxylic acid linkers. By installing the linkers into the equatorial sites, the MOF is capable of changing the shape of its porous environment through expansion in the axial direction, depending on the size of the linker.⁵⁹ Crystals of **4** were obtained by soaking crystals of prepared PCN-700 (see the experimental section for full synthetic details) in a solution of H₂BCMTC in DMF through a single-crystal to single-crystal transformation. The BCMTC²⁻ molecules occupy the four equatorial sites surrounding the SBU, which fully saturate the node into a stable 12-coordinate SBU. The powder pattern of prepared PCN-700 was in good agreement with simulated pattern,⁴³ and the crystallinity was retained after incorporation of BCMTC²⁻ (Figure 3.20). The installation of BCMTC²⁻ into 4 was quantified at 50% by washing the MOF for several days in DMF, digesting it in



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the presence of acid, and integrating the respective H_2Me_2BPDC and H_2BCMTC resonances in the ¹H NMR spectrum (Figure 3.21).

3.4 Photophysics of 1, 2, 3, and 4 MOFs

The photophysical properties of **1**, **2**, **3**, and **4** MOFs were studied using the sample experimental setup similar to that used for the ligands. In the 8 mm quartz sample cell, the MOFs were loaded, and the crystals were dried slightly (i.e., not all the DMF was removed.) An absorption value of ~ 0.05 a.u. was obtained by irradiating the sample with a 365 nm LED *in-situ* before the LED source was turned off, and the resulting absorption intensity was monitored until the photoisomerization was deemed complete. Remarkably, we found that once TNDS was coordinatively immobilized in a porous environment, it demonstrated solution-like photoisomerization, even as a crystalline solid. MOF 1 showed a 100% conversion from merocyanine to spiropyran, which was achieved after only 30 seconds (Figure 3.5). From the first order plot of ln A versus time (vide supra), a rate of 0.16 s⁻¹ was found. However, in the case of HDDB with the bulky substituents, we observe that the photoisomerization is completely hindered. This behavior could be attributed to intermolecular interactions occurring between the spiropyran groups on adjacent linkers. The crystals of 1 and 2 are also fluorescent, which has been previously observed for solution-based spiropyran derivatives,⁵ and we attribute it to the presence of surface-bound photoswitches (Figure 3.22). It has been previously shown that surface-bound photoswitches are capable of isomerization, 32,35,46,60 and in the case of HDDB, any surfacebound ligands could still undergo photoisomerization where it was restricted inside the MOF.



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Figure 3.5. Normalized decay plots of TNDS, HDDB, BPMTC, and H₂BCMTC in the solid state(red), solution (blue), and immobilized in a MOF (green) when irradiated with a tungsten-halogen lamp.

The MOF **3** showed contrasting behavior compared to **1** and **2**. Through rational design, the BPMTC pyridyl arms were tethered between the two-dimensional layers of DBTD⁴⁻, and as expected, the photoisomerization rate was severely impacted. A dramatic change in the isomerization rate of MOF 3 was observed in comparison with BPMTC in solution and the solid state. For the MOF 3, an excessive 30 minutes of irradiation was required to achieve photoconversion from the colored to colorless form, with a rate of 2.8 $\times 10^{-3}$ s⁻¹, nearly two orders of magnitude less than its solid-state photoisomerization rate (Figure 3.5, Table 3.1). Our results indicate that the installation of BPMTC between 2D MOF layers heavily impacts the photoisomerization rate, which we attribute to the isomerization occurring through the structural core. However, we found that when the diarylethene-based MOF linker, BCMTC²⁻, is immobilized in a flexible framework (4), solution-like photoisomerization rates are observed. The MOF 4 exhibited complete photoconversion after 1.5 minutes, with a rate of 4.1×10^{-2} s⁻¹ (Figure 3.5). Once the MOF is exposed to UV or visible light, the BCMTC²⁻ linker is capable of unrestricted photoisomerization because the framework easily can accommodate the change in linker size. This fact is supported by Zhou and coworkers, where the pores of PCN-700 (used in





Figure 3.6. Normalized absorption plots of TNDS, HDDB, BPMTC, H₂BCMTC, as a solid, solution, and in the MOF during UV and visible irradiation. ^{*a*} The solids of TNDS and HDDB did not exhibit reversible photoisomerization, and did not follow zero, first, or second order rate laws.

our studies) were engineered with various ditopic linkers, ranging in lengths from 9.1 Å to

18.9 Å, while MOF crystallinity was preserved.⁵⁹

We found that the introduction of the spiropyran-based TNDS liner into a confined

environment (1) indeed accelerated the photoisomerization behavior in respect to our


prepared solutions. However, in the case of **2**, the bulky HDDB linker restricted photoisomerization almost completely. MOF **3** consists of BPMTC anchored between rigid two-dimensional MOF layers, and showed drastically reduced photoisomerization. However, MOF **4**, which contained BCMTC²⁻ installed into a flexible MOF, was capable of rapid photoisomerization with solution-like behavior. The photoisomerization rates of all the ligands are summarized in Table 3.1. A summary of the photoisomerization decay

Table 3.1. Photoisomerization rates of TNDS, HDDB, BPMTC, and H_2BCMTC , in the solid-state, solution, and coordinatively immobilized in a MOF (1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively).

	solid state (s ⁻¹)	solution (s ⁻¹)	MOF (s ⁻¹)	
TNDS (1)	n/a ^a	0.12^{b}	0.16	
HDDB (2)	n/a ^a	$6.0 imes 10^{-2 b}$	8.1×10^{-2}	
BPMTC (3)	0.20	$1.0 imes 10^{-2 b}$	$2.8 imes 10^{-3}$	
H ₂ BCMTC (4)	$4.8 imes 10^{-2}$	$2.6 imes 10^{-2}$ c	$4.1 imes 10^{-2}$	

^{*a*} Fitting the experimental data was not successful, and therefore no reliable rate could be determined

^b 3 mM in DMF

^c 3 mM in MeOH



Figure 3.7 Normalized decay plots comparing the decays of MOFs 1, 3, and 4 (left). MOF 1 shows rapid photoisomerization of the photoswitch from merocyanine to spiropyran while immobilized in the MOF (right).



plots for **1**, **3**, and **4** MOFs are shown in Figure 3.7, showing that **1** demonstrates the fastest photoisomerization of the installed photochromic compound, TNDS.

Conclusion

In this work, we investigated the photophysical properties of two novel spiropyranbased photochromic compounds, TNDS and HDDB, and two diarylethene compounds, BPMTC and H₂BCMTC in the solid state, solution, and immobilized inside a MOF. We found that the TNDS and HDDB spiropyran moieties demonstrated photoisomerization in solution, much like the diarylethene photoswitches. However in the solid state, BPMTC demonstrated faster photoisomerization than TNDS and HDDB. Once MOFs were employed as a tool to covalently confine the spiropyran moieties, we witnessed rapid isomerization inside the framework for TNDS with solution-like behavior, whereas photoisomerization of HDDB was restricted in the MOFs due to their close proximity. In contrast, the diarylethene-based analog, BPMTC, showed a significant decrease in isomerization efficiency once immobilized, due to the strain of the rigid MOF matrix. The BCMTC photoswitch, on the other hand, showed a comparable photoisomerization rate to that of solution when covalently immobilized in a flexible MOF system. We envision that MOFs can be used as a tool to covalently anchor photochromic linkers for applications.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Materials.

Zinc(II) nitrate, hexahydrate (technical grade, Ward's Science), tin(II) chloride, anhydrous (98%, Beantown Chemicals), copper(I) chloride, anhydrous (97%, Strem Chemicals), bis(triphenylphosphine)palladium(II) dichloride (96%, Oakwood Chemicals),



copper powder (99.9%, Alfa Aesar), sodium carbonate (ACS grade, Ameresco), magnesium sulfate, anhydrous (USP, Chem-Implex, International Inc.), sodium sulfate, anhydrous (99.5%, Oakwood Chemicals), sodium hydroxide (ACS, Oakwood Chemicals), 2,5-dibromonitrobenzene (99%, Oakwood Chemicals), sodium nitrite (98%, Oakwood Chemicals), 3-methyl-2-butanone (98%. Beantown Chemicals), methyl trifluoromethanesulfonate (97%, Matrix Scientific), 2-hydroxy-5-nitrobenzaldehyde (98%, Oakwood Chemicals), pyridine-4-boronic acid (95%, Matrix Scientific), hexabromobenzene (>99%, TCI America), p-tolylmagnesium bromide (0.5 M in diethyl ether, Acros Organics), hydrochloric acid (ACS, Fisher Chemical), sulfuric acid (ACS grade, Fisher Chemical), nitric acid (ACS reagent, Sigma-Aldrich), fluoroboric acid (48%, Oakwood Chemicals), ethanol (200 poof, Decon Laboratories, Inc), methanol (ACS grade, Fischer Scientific), methylene chloride (99.9%, Fisher Chemical), acetone (ACS grade, Sigma Aldrich), ethyl acetate (99.9%, Fisher Chemical), chloroform (99.9%, Fisher Chemical), diethyl ether (ACS grade, J. T. Baker® Chemicals), hexanes (ACS, BDH), N,N-dimethylformamide (ACS grade, Oakwood Chemicals), piperidine (99%, Sigma-Aldrich), carbon tetrachloride (99.9%, Sigma-Aldrich), bromine(99.8%, Acros-Organic), tetrahydrofuran (HPLC grade, Beantown Chemicals), chloroform-d (Cambridge Isotopes), acetone- d_6 (Cambridge Isotopes), methylene chloride- d_2 (Cambridge Isotopes), dimethyl sulfoxide- d_6 (Cambridge Isotopes) were used as received.

Synthesis.

The compounds **MSP1-MSP4** (Scheme 3.3),⁶¹ **BSP1-BSP4** (Scheme 3.4),³⁵ and PCN-700⁶² were prepared according to their slightly modified literature procedures.



Synthesis of [4,7-dibromo-1,2,3,3-tetramethyl-3H-indol-1-ium][trifluoromethanesulfonate] (MSP5)



Scheme 3.5. Synthesis of [4,7-dibromo-1,2,3,3-tetramethyl-3H-indol-1-ium][trifluoromethanesulfonate] (**MSP5**).

Methyl trifluoromethanesulfonate (4.13 g, 25.2 mmol) was added to synthesized **MSP4** (2.00 g, 6.31 mmol) in 120 mL of diethyl ether and 80 mL of hexanes. After the resulted mixture was stirred vigorously overnight at room temperature, a pale pink powder was collected by filtration and washed with diethyl ether (3×10 mL). After drying under vacuum, **MSP5** (2.70 g, 5.61 mmol) was isolated in 89% yield and used without further purification.

Synthesis of 4',7'-dibromo-1',3',3'-trimethyl-6-nitrospiro[chromene-2,2'-indoline]

(**MSP6**)



Scheme 3.6. Synthesis of 4',7'-dibromo-1',3',3'-trimethyl-6-nitrospiro[chromene-2,2'-indoline] (**MSP6**).

Under a nitrogen atmosphere, piperidine (1.41 g, 16.6 mmol) was added to a solution of **MSP5** (2.00 g, 4.15 mmol) and 2-hydroxy-5-nitrobenzaldehyde (1.25 g, 7.47 mmol) in 80 mL of ethanol and heated at reflux for 8 h. After cooling to 0 $^{\circ}$ C, the resulting



light-yellow precipitate was filtered and washed with cold ethanol. After drying under vacuum, **MSP6** (0.971 g, 2.02 mmol) was isolated in 48% yield. The detailed description for the data collection and refinement details are given below. Table 3.2 contains the crystallographic refinement data. The single crystal X-ray structure of **MSP6** is shown in Figure 3.8. ¹H NMR ((CD₃)₂CO-*d*₆, 300 MHz): $\delta = 1.27$ (3H, s), 1.49 (3H, s), 3.17 (3H, s), 6.00-6.04 (1H, d, J = 10.4 Hz), 6.92-6.95 (1H, d, J = 8.55 Hz), 6.96-6.99 (1H, d, J = 9.00), 7.26-7.29 (1H, d, J = 8.62 Hz), 7.30-7.33 (1H, d, J = 10.4 Hz), 8.09-8.13 (1H, dd, J = 2.83, 8.96 Hz) ppm. (Figure 3.9). ¹³C NMR ((CD₃)₂CO-d₆, 400 MHz): $\delta = 20.61$, 22.46, 32.91, 54.59, 101.14, 108.00, 116.27, 118.15, 119.49, 121.36, 123.81, 126.69, 126.75, 130.59, 135. 93, 136.86, 142.31, 147.37, 160.18 ppm (Figure 3.9). FT-IR (neat, cm⁻¹): 3076, 2968, 2934, 2868, 2545, 2162, 2041, 1980, 1910, 1736, 1654, 1614, 1577, 1510, 1478, 1466, 1443, 1396, 1379, 1361, 1331, 1272, 1255, 1228, 1175, 1145, 1127, 1088, 1061, 1017, 955, 927, 915, 904, 877, 834, 811, 792, 771, 745, 717, 703, 666 (Figure 3.13). HRMS (ESI, m/z) calculated for C₁₉H₁₆Br₂N₂O₃ [M+H]⁺ 478.9601, found 478.9600 (Figure 3.9).

Synthesis of 1',3',3'-trimethyl-6-nitro-4',7'-di(pyridin-4-yl)spiro[chromene-2,2'indoline] (**TNDS**)



Scheme 3.7. Synthesis of 1',3',3'-trimethyl-6-nitro-4',7'-di(pyridin-4-yl)spiro[chromene-2,2'-indoline] (**TNDS**).



Under a nitrogen atmosphere, 25 mL of dry DMF was added to a flask containing **MSP6** (300 mg, 0.624 mmol), Na₂CO₃ (240 mg, 2.26 mmol), PdCl₂(PPh₃)₂ (88.0 mg, 0.125 mmol), CuCl (134 mg, 1.35 mmol), and pyridine-4-boronic acid (460 mg, 3.74 mmol) which stirred for three days at 120 °C. The contents of the reaction vessel were placed in a 250 mL separatory funnel, following dilution with deionized water (75 mL). The product was then extracted with ethyl acetate $(3 \times 50 \text{ mL})$ and the combined organic layers were washed with brine, dried over sodium sulfate, followed by solvent removal under vacuum. Impurities were removed from the resulting brown oil via several recrystallizations in ethyl acetate and hexanes. The solvent from the combined filtrates were removed under vacuum. The resulting orange powder was dissolved in ethyl acetate (20 mL) and hexanes (30 mL) and the ethyl acetate was removed under vacuum which resulted in a suspension. The suspension was filtered to collect a light-yellow powder. After drying on vacuum, TNDS (44.0 mg, 93.8 µmol) was isolated in 17% yield. The detailed description for the data collection and refinement details are given below. Table 3.2 contains the crystallographic refinement data. The single crystal X-ray structure of TNDS is shown in Figure 3.12. ¹H NMR ((CD₃)₂CO- d_6 , 400 MHz): $\delta = 0.81$ (3H, s), 1.33 (3H, s), 2.43 (3H, s), 6.00-6.03 (1H, d, J = 10.5 Hz), 6.69-6.71 (1H, d, J = 7.9 Hz), 6.85-6.88 (1H, d, J = 9.0 Hz), 7.12-7.14 (1H, d, J = 7.9 Hz), 7.18-7.22 (1H, d, J = 10.6 Hz), 7.39-7.45 (1H, m), 8.01-8.05 (1H, dd, J = 10.6 Hz), 7.39-7.45 (1H, m), 8.01-8.05 (1H,J = 2.8 Hz and 9.0 Hz), 8.08 (1H, d, J = 2.8 Hz), 8.64 (4H, m). ¹³C NMR ((CD₃)₂CO-d₆ 400 MHz): $\delta = 20.61, 22.46, 32.91, 54.59, 101.14, 108.00, 116.27, 118.15, 119.49, 121.36,$ 123.81, 126.74, 130.59, 135.93, 136.86, 142.31, 147.37, 160.18 ppm (Figure 3.10). FT-IR (neat, cm⁻¹): 3746, 2965, 2344, 2163, 2049, 1981, 1596, 1543, 1522, 1494, 1464, 1438, 1392, 1363, 1337, 1286, 1253, 1216, 1145, 1129, 1072, 1055, 1011, 980, 939, 905, 873,



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827, 803, 749, 729, 681 (Figure 3.13). HRMS (ESI, m/z) calculated for C₂₉H₂₄N₄O₃ [M+H]⁺ 477.1918, found 477.1921. (Figure 3.10).

Synthesis of [4,4'-dibromo-1,1',2,2',3,3,3',3'-octamethyl-3H,3'H-[7,7'-biindole]-1,1'-diium]bis[trifluoromethanesulfonate] (**BSP5**)



Scheme 3.8. Synthesis of [4,4'-dibromo-1,1',2,2',3,3,3',3'-octamethyl-3H,3'H-[7,7'-biindole]-1,1'-diium]bis[trifluoromethanesulfonate] (BSP5).

Methyl trifluoromethanesulfonate (1.50 g, 10.1 mmol) was added to a solution of

BSP4 (1.00 g, 2.11 mmol) in 90 mL of diethyl ether and 60 mL of hexanes. The mixture was stirred vigorously overnight at room temperature, and the resulting pale pink powder was collected by filtration and washed with diethyl ether (3×10 mL). After drying under vacuum, **BSP5** (1.57g, 1.96 mmol) was isolated in 93% yield and used without further purification.

4',4'''-dibromo-1',1''',3',3',3''',3'''-hexamethyl-6,6''-dinitro-7',7'''-bispiro[chromene-2,2'indoline] (**BSP6**)

Using sensitive air techniques, distilled piperidine (713 mg, 8.37 mmol) was added to a solution of **BSP5** (1.50 g, 1.87 mmol) and 2-hydroxy-5-nitrobenzaldehyde (706 mg, 4.38 mmol) in 60 mL of ethanol and heated at reflux for eight hours. After cooling to 0 $^{\circ}$ C, the resulting light-yellow precipitate was filtered and washed with cold ethanol. After





Scheme 3.9. Synthesis of 4',4'''-dibromo-1',1''',3',3',3''',3'''-hexamethyl-6,6''-dinitro-7',7'''-bispiro[chromene-2,2'-indoline] (**BSP6**).

drying under vacuum, **BSP6** (761 mg, 948 µmol) was isolated in 51% yield. The detailed description for the data collection and refinement details are given below. Table 3.3 contains the crystallographic refinement data for HDDB_{in-in} and HDDB_{in-out}. The single crystal X-ray structure of HDDB_{in-in} and HDDB_{in-out} are shown in Figure 3.15. ¹H NMR ((CD₃)₂CO-*d*₆, 400 MHz): $\delta = 1.30$ (6H, s), 1.43 (6H, s), 2.59 (6H, s), 5.96-5.99 (2H, d, *J* = 10.4 Hz), 6.34-6.37 (2H, d, *J* = 9.00 Hz), 6.87-6.90 (2H, d, *J* = 8.18 Hz), 6.97-7.00 (2H, d, *J* = 8.25 Hz), 7.24-7.28 (2H, d, *J* = 10.4 Hz), 7.59-7.54 (2H, dd, *J* = 2.77 Hz and 9.01 Hz), 8.10 (2H, d, *J* = 2.73 Hz). FT-IR (neat, cm⁻¹): 3556, 3076, 2976, 2934, 2873, 2258, 2162, 2040, 1980, 1895, 1654, 1614, 1572, 1513, 1473, 1447, 1435, 1397, 1363, 1336, 1274, 1255, 1232, 1179, 1148, 1126, 1088, 1062, 1022, 1001, 950, 923, 905, 863, 823, 799, 766, 747, 709, 697.

Synthesis of 1',1'',3',3',3'',3'''-hexamethyl-6,6''-dinitro-4',4'''-di(pyridin-4-yl)-7',7'''-bispiro[chromene-2,2'-indoline] (**HDDB**)

Using air and water sensitive techniques, 20 mL of dry DMF was added to a flask containing **BSP6** (336 mg, 420 μ mol), Na₂CO₃ (84.0 mg, 793 μ mol), PdCl₂(PPh₃)₂ (47.0 mg, 670 μ mol), CuCl (168 mg, 1.69 mmol), and pyridine-4-boronic acid (206 mg, 1.68 mmol) and stirred for two days at 120 °C. The contents of the reaction vessel were placed





Scheme 3.10. Synthesis of 1',1''',3',3',3''',3'''-hexamethyl-6,6''-dinitro-4',4'''-di(pyridin-4-yl)-7',7'''-bispiro[chromene-2,2'-indoline] (**HDDB**).

in a 250 mL separatory funnel, following dilution with deionized water (75 mL). The product was then extracted with ethyl acetate $(3 \times 50 \text{ mL})$, and the combined organic layers were washed with brine, dried over sodium sulfate, followed by solvent removal under vacuum. Impurities were removed from the resulting brown oil via several recrystallizations in ethyl acetate and hexanes, and the solvent from the combined filtrates were removed under vacuum. The resulting orange powder was dissolved in ethyl acetate (20 mL) and hexanes (30 mL) and the ethyl acetate was removed under vacuum which resulted in a suspension. The suspension was filtered to collect a light-yellow powder. After drying under vacuum, HDDB (50.0 mg, 62.8 µmol) was isolated in 15% yield. Single crystals of HDDB_{in-in} were obtained after subjecting an equilibrated mixture of HDDB isomers to preparatory TLC (DCM/MeOH 95:5). The dark yellow band ($R_f = 0.7$) turned deep purple when irradiated with UV light. It was scraped and extracted with distilled acetone, followed by removal of the solvent under reduced pressure. To the resulting oil, 0.5 mL of distilled acetone was added, the solution was transferred to a 5 mm NMR tube, and the solution evaporated over two days, which produced single crystals of HDDB_{in-in}. Single crystals of HDDB_{in-out} were obtained by dissolving a mixture of isomers in a vial with 50% ethyl acetate/hexanes, followed by cooling at 0 °C for several days. The detailed



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description for the data collection and refinement details are given in the experimental section, and Table 3.3 contains the crystallographic refinement data. The single crystal X-ray structures of HDDB_{in-in} and HDDB_{in-out} are shown in Figure 3.15. ¹H NMR (CD₂Cl₂*d*₂, 400 MHz): $\delta = 0.74$ (1H, s), 1.24 (6H, s), 2.58 (6H, s), 5.79-5.83 (2H, d, J = 10.5 Hz), 6.23-6.26 (2H, d, J = 9.06 Hz), 6.55-6.58 (2H, d, J = 7.81 Hz), 6.93-6.96 (2H, d, J = 10.7 Hz), 7.05-7.08 (2H, d, J = 7.91 Hz), 7.29-7.31 (4H, d, J = 5.81 Hz), 7.52-7.57 (2H, dd, J = 2.70, 8.99 Hz), 7.94-7.95 (2H, d, J = 2.69 Hz), 8.58-8.60 (2H, d, J = 5.23 Hz) (Figure 3.11). ¹³C NMR ((CD₃)₂CO-d₆, 400 MHz): $\delta = 21.00$, 25.65, 31.66, 52.51, 108.23, 114.92, 118.80, 120.65, 120.89, 121.17, 122.99, 125.13, 125.64, 129.69, 131.38, 132.90, 136,40, 141.08, 145.72, 149.54, 160.00 ppm (Figure 3.11). FT-IR (neat, cm⁻¹): 3327, 2972, 2934, 2364, 2343, 2288, 2191, 2150, 2043, 1984, 1920, 1648, 1613, 1594, 1576, 1519, 1467, 1386, 1340, 1282, 1230, 1180, 1149, 1125, 1090, 1074, 1059, 1020, 951, 928, 906, 833, 803, 747, 706, 682, 661 (Figure 3.16). HRMS (ESI, m/z) calculated for C₄₈H₄₀N₆O₆ [M+H]⁺ 797.3088, found 797.3094. (Figure 3.11).

Synthesis of 1

In a one-dram vial, $Zn(NO_3)_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ (18 mg, 59 µmol), H₄DBTD (5.4 mg, 7.5 µmol), and TNDS (5.0 mg, 10.5 µmol) were dissolved in 0.8 mL of a prepared stock solution of 10 mL DMF and one drop of HCl. The resulting solution was sonicated, and then placed in a preheated oven at 80 °C for 24 hours, then cooled down to room temperature over two hours. Red almond-shaped crystals of **1** (13 mg, 9.4 µmol) were isolated in 90% yield. The detailed description for the data collection and refinement details are given in the experimental section, and Table 3.4 contains the crystallographic refinement data. The determined structure of **1** is shown in Figure 3.12. FT-IR (neat, cm⁻)



¹): 1460, 1435, 1385, 1338, 1275, 1255, 1220, 1178, 1151, 1092 (Figure 3.13). The PXRD pattern of **1** is shown in Figure 3.13. The ¹H NMR spectrum and ESI MS of digested **1** are shown in Figure 3.14.

Synthesis of 2

In a one-dram vial, $Zn(NO_3)_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ (8.8 mg, 30 µmol), H₄DBTD (2.5 mg, 3.5 µmol) and HDDB (4.8 mg, 6.0 µmol) were dissolved in one mL from a prepared stock solution of two mL DMF and one drop of HBF₄, followed by sonication. The resulting solution was placed in a preheated oven at 85 °C for 18 hours, then cooled down to room temperature over two hours. Deep red oval plate crystals of **2** (9.6 mg, 5.8 µmol) isolated in 97% yield. The detailed description for the data collection and refinement details are given in the experimental section, and Table 3.4 contains the crystallographic refinement data. The determined structure of **2** is shown in Figure 3.15. FT-IR (neat, cm-1): 1463, 1436, 1385, 1337, 1316, 1274, 1255, 1221, 1178, 1152, 1090 (Figure 3.16). The ¹³C CP-MAS NMR spectrum and PXRD pattern of **2** are shown in Figures 2.17 and 2.16, respectively.

Synthesis of **3**

In a one-dram vial, $Zn(NO_3)_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ (35 mg, 120 µmol), H₄DBTD (10 mg, 14 µmol), and BPMTC (9.0 mg, 22 µmol) were dissolved in a solution of two mL DMF and one drop of HBF₄, followed by sonication. The resulting solution was placed in a preheated oven at 85 °C for 18 hours, then cooled down to room temperature over two hours. Colorless plate crystals of **3** (13 mg, 10 µmol) were isolated in 75% yield. FT-IR (neat, cm⁻¹): 1435, 1385, 1255, 1222, 1177, 1150, 1091. The simulated and as-synthesized PXRD



patterns of **3** is shown in Figure 3.18. The ¹H NMR spectrum of digested **3** is shown in Figure 3.19.

Synthesis of 4

Crystals of PCN-700 (30 mg, 16 μ mol) were added to H₂BCMTC (42 mg, 0.12 mmol) and 4 mL DMF in a one-dram vial. The vial was placed in a preheated oven at 75 °C for 24 hours, then cooled to room temperature over two hours. Colorless crystals of **4** (35 mg, 14 μ mol) were isolated in 64% yield. FT-IR (neat, cm⁻¹): 1411, 1384, 1255, 1208, 1139, 1091. The experimental and as-synthesized PXRD patterns of **4** are shown in Figure 3.20. The ¹H NMR spectrum of digested **4** is shown in Figure 3.21.

Fluorescence Spectroscopy.

Steady-state emission spectra were acquired on an Edinburgh FS5 fluorescence spectrometer equipped with a 150 W Continuous Wave Xenon Lamp source for excitation. Emission measurements on solid samples were collected on the powders of the appropriate materials placed inside a 0.5 mm quartz sample holder using the front-facing module. The Ocean Optics JAZ spectrometer was also used for absorbance and diffuse reflectance measurements. An Ocean Optics ISP-REF integrating sphere was connected the spectrometer using a 450 µm SMA fiber optic cable. A 400 nm long pass filter was placed between an 8.0 mm quartz sample cell with cover and the integrating sphere to filter any UV light from the internal tungsten-halogen lamp. An Ocean Optics WS-1 Spectralon[®] reflectance standard was placed on the sample cell throughout the measurement. A mounted high-power LED (M365L2, Thorlabs) was used for *in situ* irradiation of the samples.



¹³C CP-MAS NMR Spectroscopy.

Solid-state NMR spectra (¹³C CP-MAS) were collected on a Bruker Avance III-HD 500 MHz spectrometer fitted with a 1.9 mm MAS probe. ¹³C{¹H} CP-MAS NMR spectra (125.79 MHz) were collected at ambient temperature with a sample rotation rate of 20 kHz. For cross polarization, 1.5 ms contact time with linear ramping on the ¹H channel and 62.5 kHz field on the ¹³C channel were used. ¹H dipolar decoupling was performed with SPINAL64 modulation and 147 kHz field strength. Free induction decays (512–2048 transients) were collected with a 27 ms acquisition time over a 300 ppm spectra width with a relaxation delay of 2.0 s.

Other Physical Measurements.

FT-IR spectra were obtained on a Perkin-Elmer Spectrum 100. NMR spectra were collected on Bruker Avance III-HD 300 and Bruker Avance III 400 MHz NMR spectrometers. ¹³C and ¹H NMR spectra were referenced to natural abundance ¹³C peaks and residual ¹H peaks of deuterated solvents, respectively. Powder X-ray diffraction patterns were recorded on a Rigaku Miniflex II diffractometer with accelerating voltage and current of 30 kV and 15 mA, respectively. The Waters QTOF-I quadrupole time-of-flight and Thermo Scientific Orbitrap Velos Pro mass-spectrometers were used to record the mass-spectra of the prepared compounds.

Single Crystal X-ray Data.

$C_{19}H_{16}Br_2N_2O_{3}$, **MSP6**

X-ray intensity data from a pale-yellow parallelogram-shaped plate were collected at 100(2) K using a Bruker D8 QUEST diffractometer equipped with a PHOTON-100 CMOS area detector and an Incoatec microfocus source (Mo K_a radiation, $\lambda = 0.71073$ Å).



The raw area detector data frames were reduced and corrected for absorption effects using the Bruker APEX3, SAINT+ and SADABS programs.^{63,64} Final unit cell parameters were determined by least-squares refinement of 9121 reflections taken from the data set. The structure was solved with SHELXT.^{65,66} Subsequent difference Fourier calculations and full-matrix least-squares refinement against F^2 were performed with SHELXL-2016⁶⁵ using OLEX2.⁶⁷

The compound crystallizes in the monoclinic system. The pattern of systematic absences in the intensity data was consistent with the space group $P2_1/c$. The structure solution revealed two apparent crystallographically independent, chemically similar molecules in the asymmetric unit. One is fully ordered and refines normally. This molecule was given atom label suffixes "A". The second independent molecule shows similar geometry, but if refined with a single position shows highly elongated anisotropic displacement parameters and large residual electron density peaks among the atoms. This second molecule exhibits whole-molecule disorder. Obtaining a satisfactory disorder model was difficult owing to the large number of atoms which appear nearly superimposed and only a relative few which are not. Eventually a disorder model consisting of three discrete components was successfully refined. The components were given atom label suffixes B, C, and D. The total site population was constrained to sum to 100%, and the disorder populations fractions refined to B/C/D = 0.366(3)/0.276(3)/0.358(3). A large array of geometric restraints was necessary for stability and chemical reasonableness. The 1,2and 1-3-distances of all three disorder components were restrained to be similar to those of molecule "A" using SHELX SAME restraints. The planar parts of the molecule were further restrained with FLAT instructions (C3-C8 and N2/C12-C19). The anisotropic



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displacement parameters of atoms which are nearly superimposed in the asymmetric unit (*e.g.* C1 B-D) were held equal, and some triplets of atoms were further restrained with an isotropic approximation restraints (SHELX ISOR instructions, atoms C19 B/C/D and C3C/C8B/C8D). All non-hydrogen atoms were refined with anisotropic displacement parameters. Hydrogen atoms bonded to carbon were located in Fourier difference maps before being placed in geometrically idealized positions and included as riding atoms with d(C-H) = 0.95 Å and $U_{iso}(H) = 1.2U_{eq}(C)$ for aromatic hydrogen atoms and d(C-H) = 0.98 Å and $U_{iso}(H) = 1.5U_{eq}(C)$ for methyl hydrogens. The methyl hydrogens were allowed to rotate as a rigid group to the orientation of maximum observed electron density. The largest residual electron density peak in the final difference map is $0.66 \text{ e}^{-}/\text{Å}^3$, located 0.73 Å from Br2A. Trial refinement models in alternative space groups such as $P2_1$, Pc, P2/c and also in P1 also showed similar whole-molecule disorder, and it is therefore concluded that the crystal is best described as having a disordered structure in space group $P2_1/c$ as described above. The refinement data are given in Table 3.2.

$C_{29}H_{24}N_4O_{3}$, **TNDS**

X-ray intensity data from a colorless plate were collected at 100(2) K using a Bruker D8 QUEST diffractometer equipped with a PHOTON-100 CMOS area detector and an Incoatec microfocus source (Mo K_a radiation, $\lambda = 0.71073$ Å). The raw area detector data frames were reduced and corrected for absorption effects using the Bruker APEX3, SAINT+ and SADABS programs.^{63,64} Final unit cell parameters were determined by leastsquares refinement of 9170 reflections taken from the data set. The structure was solved with SHELXT.^{65,66} Subsequent difference Fourier calculations and full-matrix leastsquares refinement against F^2 were performed with SHELXL-2016⁶⁵ using OLEX2.⁶⁷



The compound crystallizes in the triclinic system. The space group *P*-1 (No. 2) was confirmed by structure solution. The asymmetric unit consists of one molecule. All nonhydrogen atoms were refined with anisotropic displacement parameters. Hydrogen atoms bonded to carbon were located in Fourier difference maps before being placed in geometrically idealized positions and included as riding atoms with d(C-H) = 0.95 Å and $U_{iso}(H) = 1.2U_{eq}(C)$ for aromatic hydrogen atoms and d(C-H) = 0.98 Å and $U_{iso}(H) =$ $1.5U_{eq}(C)$ for methyl hydrogens. The methyl hydrogens were allowed to rotate as a rigid group to the orientation of maximum observed electron density. The largest residual electron density peak in the final difference map is $0.28 \text{ e}^{-}/\text{Å}^{3}$, located 0.78 Å from C14. The refinement data are given in Table 3.2.

C48H40N6O6, HDDBin-in

X-ray intensity data from a pale green tablet were collected at 100(2) K using a Bruker D8 QUEST diffractometer equipped with a PHOTON-100 CMOS area detector and an Incoatec microfocus source (Mo K_{α} radiation, $\lambda = 0.71073$ Å). The raw area detector data frames were reduced and corrected for absorption effects using the Bruker APEX3, SAINT+ and SADABS programs.^{63,64} Final unit cell parameters were determined by leastsquares refinement of 9008 reflections taken from the data set. The structure was solved with SHELXT.⁶⁵ Subsequent difference Fourier calculations and full-matrix least-squares refinement against F^2 were performed with SHELXL-2016³ using OLEX2.⁶⁷

The compound crystallizes in the monoclinic system. The pattern of systematic absences in the intensity data was consistent with the space group $P2_1/c$, which was confirmed by structure solution. The asymmetric unit consists of one molecule. All non-hydrogen atoms were refined with anisotropic displacement parameters. Hydrogen atoms



bonded to carbon were located in Fourier difference maps before being placed in geometrically idealized positions and included as isotropically refined riding atoms with d(C-H) = 0.95 Å for aromatic and d(C-H) = 0.98 Å for methyl hydrogens. The methyl hydrogens were allowed to rotate as a rigid group to the orientation of maximum observed electron density. The largest residual electron density peak in the final difference map is $0.27 \text{ e}^{-}/\text{Å}^{3}$, located 0.76 Å from C22. The refinement data are given in Table 3.3

$C_{48}H_{40}N_6O_6 \cdot 0.5(C_4H_8O_2) \cdot unknown solvate, HDDB_{in-out}$

Crystals of the compound grew as densely intergrown light brown aggregations. Difficulty was encountered in cleaving apart a predominantly single domain of suitable size for intensity measurements. Eventually a fragment giving a diffraction pattern largely free of multiple maxima and diffuse streaking was found. X-ray intensity data were collected at 100(2) K using a Bruker D8 QUEST diffractometer equipped with a PHOTON-100 CMOS area detector and an Incoatec microfocus source (Mo K α radiation, $\lambda = 0.71073$ Å). Strong low-angle peaks were observed, but reflection intensity decreased rapidly with θ . No appreciable scattering was observed above $2\theta_{max}$ of ~46°. Longer scan times (>60s/°) simply increased the number of low-angle reflections which were beyond the measurement range of the area detector and thereby required a higher speed re-scan. Analysis of the intensity statistics using the Bruker XPREP program showed the mean reflection $I/\sigma(I)$ fell below 2.0 in the d = 0.90-0.88 Å shell, where also the $R(\sigma)$ value rose to greater than 0.50 $(R(\sigma) = \Sigma[\sigma (F_{obs}^2)]/\Sigma[F_{obs}^2])$. Data were truncated at $2\theta = 0.90$ Å ($2\theta_{max} = 46.5^\circ$) for this reason. The raw area detector data frames were reduced and corrected for absorption effects using the Bruker APEX3, SAINT+ and SADABS programs.^{63,64} Final unit cell parameters were determined by least-squares refinement of 9672 reflections taken from the data set.



The structure was solved with SHELXT.⁶⁵ Subsequent difference Fourier calculations and full-matrix least-squares refinement against F^2 were performed with SHELXL-2016⁶⁵ using OLEX2.⁶⁷

The compound crystallizes in the monoclinic system. The pattern of systematic absences in the intensity data was consistent with the space group $P2_1/c$, which was verified by structure solution. The asymmetric unit consists of two crystallographically independent $C_{48}H_{40}N_6O_6$ molecules, one ethyl acetate molecule and a region of disordered and unidentified solvent peaks. The two $C_{48}H_{40}N_6O_6$ molecules were numbered identically except for label suffixes A or B. Efforts to model the solvent disorder were unsuccessful. Some solvents peaks are relatively isolated, suggesting a mixture of water molecules and ethyl acetate. The Squeeze program in PLATON was used to account for these species.^{68,69} The solvent-accessible volume was calculated to be 398 $Å^3$ per unit cell (5% of the total cell volume), containing the equivalent of 80 electrons per unit cell. The scattering contribution of this electron density was added to the structure factors computed from the known part of the structure during refinement. For comparison, the residual factors were $R_1/wR_2 = 0.085/0.245$ for the best disorder model, and $R_1/wR_2 = 0.0813/0.2322$ after Squeeze. The reported crystal density and F.W. are calculated from the known part of the structure only. All non-hydrogen atoms were refined with anisotropic displacement parameters. Hydrogen atoms bonded to carbon were located in Fourier difference maps before being placed in geometrically idealized positions and included as riding atoms with d(C-H) = 0.95 Å and $U_{\text{iso}}(\text{H}) = 1.2U_{\text{eq}}(\text{C})$ for aromatic hydrogen atoms, d(C-H) = 0.99 Åand $U_{iso}(H) = 1.2U_{eq}(C)$ for methylene hydrogen atoms, and d(C-H) = 0.98 Å and $U_{iso}(H)$ $= 1.5 U_{eq}(C)$ for methyl hydrogens. The methyl hydrogens were allowed to rotate as a rigid



group to the orientation of maximum observed electron density. The largest residual electron density peak in the final difference map is $0.68 \text{ e}^{-}/\text{Å}^{3}$, located 0.62 Å from H4SB, near the ethyl acetate molecule. The refinement data are given in Table 3.3

$Zn_2(DBTD)(TNDS), C_{50}H_{24}Br_2N_2O_8Zn_2, 1$

X-ray intensity data from a red almond-shaped plate were collected at 220(2) K using a Bruker D8 QUEST diffractometer equipped with a PHOTON-100 CMOS area detector and an Incoatec microfocus source (Mo K $_{\alpha}$ radiation, $\lambda = 0.71073$ Å). The crystals develop cracks and lose crystallinity in air and under oil. Diffraction pattern quality at 100 K was inferior to those at higher temperatures, showing broader maxima and stronger diffuse streaking. Diffraction intensities fell off rapidly with θ . The dataset was truncated at d = 0.98 Å, at which point the mean reflection $I/\sigma(I)$ was less than 2.0. The raw area detector data frames were reduced and corrected for absorption effects using the Bruker APEX3, SAINT+ and SADABS programs.^{63,64} Final unit cell parameters were determined by least-squares refinement of 2965 reflections taken from the data set. The structure was solved with SHELXT.^{65,66} Subsequent difference Fourier calculations and full-matrix leastsquares refinement against F^2 were performed with SHELXL-2017⁶⁵ using OLEX2.⁶⁷

The compound crystallizes in the space group Pmmm of the orthorhombic system. It is structurally similar to previously reported compounds.⁷⁰ The asymmetric unit consists of ¹/₄ of a Zn atom, ¹/₄ of one $C_{34}H_{16}Br_2O_8$ cross-linking ligand, ¹/₄ of one $C_{29}H_{24}N_4O_3$ pillar ligand and a large volume of unidentified disordered solvent guest molecules. The unique pyridyl ring and the central phenyl ring of the $C_{29}H_{24}N_4O_3$ pillar are disordered across mirror planes. The $-C_{13}H_{14}N_2O_3$ substituent of the central phenyl ring of the pillar could not be crystallographically located. It is presumably bonded to C15/C15*



and is therefore disordered over four symmetry-equivalent positions and contributes too weakly to the structure factors to be reasonably located. The largest electron density peak in this region was 0.43 $e^{-1}/Å^{3}$, located 1.97 Å from C15, and could not be modeled as part of the -C₁₃H₁₄N₂O₃ substituent. For the final refinement cycles, C15 was left 'naked', with no substituent. Enhanced rigid-bond restraints were applied to the U_{ij} values of all atoms (SHELX RIGU). Additional spherical restraints (ISOR) were applied to the displacement ellipsoids of atoms C6 and C7. The disordered interstitial solvent species could not be reasonably modeled. Their contribution to the structure factors was accounted for using the Squeeze technique. The contribution of the unlocated $-C_{13}H_{14}N_2O_3$ substituent atoms was also accounted for with Squeeze.^{68,69} The solvent-accessible volume was calculated to be 2394 $Å^3$ (73% of the total unit cell volume), containing the scattering equivalent of 420 electrons per unit cell. The reported formula and F.W. reflect the expected framework atoms with the complete C₂₉H₂₄N₄O₃ pillar but not the unknown solvent content. All nonhydrogen atoms were refined with anisotropic displacement parameters. Hydrogen atoms bonded to carbon were placed in geometrically idealized positions and included as riding atoms with d(C-H) = 0.95 Å and $U_{iso}(H) = 1.2U_{eq}(C)$. The largest residual electron density peak in the final difference map is 0.73 $e^{-}/Å^{3}$, located 1.20 Å from Zn1. The refinement data are given in Table 3.4.

$(Zn_2(DBTD)(HDDB), C_{82}H_{56}N_6O_{14}Zn_2Br_2), 2$

X-ray intensity data from a deep red oval plate were collected at 220(2) K using a Bruker D8 QUEST diffractometer equipped with a PHOTON-100 CMOS area detector and an Incoatec microfocus source (Mo K_{α} radiation, $\lambda = 0.71073$ Å). The raw area detector data frames were reduced and corrected for absorption effects using the Bruker APEX3,



SAINT+ and SADABS programs. The diffraction pattern was characterized by broad maxima and pronounced diffuse streaking. Diffraction intensities fell off rapidly with θ . The dataset was truncated at d = 0.98 Å, at which point the mean reflection $I/\sigma(I)$ was less than 1.7. Final unit cell parameters were determined by least-squares refinement of 5853 reflections taken from the data set. The structure was solved with SHELXT.^{65,66} Subsequent difference Fourier calculations and full-matrix least-squares refinement against F^2 were performed with SHELXL-2017⁶⁵ using OLEX2.⁶⁷

The compound crystallizes in the space group Pmmm of the orthorhombic system. It is structurally similar to previously reported compounds.⁷¹ The asymmetric unit consists of ¹/₄ of a Zn atom, ¹/₄ of one C₃₄H₁₆Br₂O₈ cross-linking ligand, ¹/₄ of one C₄₈H₄₀N₆O₆ pillar ligand and a large volume of unidentified disordered solvent guest molecules. The unique pyridyl ring and the central phenyl ring of the C₄₈H₄₀N₆O₆ pillar are disordered across mirror planes. The two $-C_{13}H_{14}N_2O_3$ substituents of the two central phenyl rings of the pillar could not be crystallographically located. They are presumably attached at carbon atom sites C15/C16 and are therefore each disordered over four symmetry-equivalent positions. The substituents apparently contribute too weakly to the structure factors to be reasonably located. The largest electron density peak in this region was 0.25 e⁻/Å³, located > 2 Å from C16, and could not be modeled as part of a $-C_{13}H_{14}N_2O_3$ substituent. For the final refinement cycles, C15 and C16 were left 'naked', with no substituent. Appropriate C-C and C-N distance (DFIX) restraints were applied to the disordered groups. The independent parts of the disordered pyridyl and phenyl rings were restrained with a FLAT instruction. Disordered carbon atoms were refined isotropically. All other nonhydrogen atoms were refined with anisotropic displacement parameters. Spherical



restraints (ISOR) were applied to the displacement ellipsoids of atoms C5, C6 and C7. The disordered interstitial solvent species could not be reasonably modeled. The contribution of these diffusely scattering species to the structure factors was accounted for using the Squeeze technique.^{68,69} The contribution of the two unlocated -C₁₃H₁₄N₂O₃ substituent groups was also accounted for with Squeeze. The solvent-accessible volume was calculated to be 3031 Å³ (76% of the total unit cell volume), containing the scattering equivalent of 453 electrons per unit cell. The reported formula and F.W. reflect the expected framework atoms with the complete di-substituted C₄₈H₄₀N₆O₆ pillar but not the unknown solvent content. Hydrogen atoms were placed in geometrically idealized positions and included as riding atoms *d*(C-H) = 0.95 Å and U_{iso} (H) = 1.2 U_{eq} (C). The largest residual electron density peak in the final difference map is 1.12 e⁻/Å³, located 1.24 Å from Zn1. The refinement data are given in Table 3.4.



Figure 3.8. The single crystal X-ray structure of **MSP6**. Displacement ellipsoids are drawn at the 50% probability level. Blue, brown, red, gray, and white spheres represent N, Br, O, C, and H atoms, respectively.





Figure 3.9. The ¹H NMR (*top*) and ¹³C NMR (*bottom*) spectra of **MSP6** in (CD₃)₂CO- d_6 . The inset shows the positive ion electrospray mass spectrum.





Figure 3.10. The ¹H NMR (*top*) and ¹³C NMR (*bottom*) spectra of TNDS in $(CD_3)_2CO-d_6$. The inset shows the positive ion electrospray mass spectrum.





Figure 3.11. The ¹H NMR spectra of HDDB_{in-out} (*top*), and HDDB_{in-in} (*middle*) and ¹³C NMR spectrum of HDDB_{in-in} (*bottom*). The inset shows the positive ion electrospray mass spectrum.





Figure 3.12. The single crystal X-ray structure of **1** (*left*). Solvent, hydrogens, and disordered molecules are omitted for clarity. The single-crystal structure of TNDS (*right*). Displacement ellipsoids are drawn at the 50% probability level. Blue, brown, red, gray, and white spheres represent N, Br, O, C, and H atoms, respectively.



Figure 3.13. Simulated (black) and as-synthesized (blue) PXRD patterns **1** (*left*). FT-IR spectra (*right*) of TNDS (red), **1** (blue) H₄DBTB (black).





Figure 3.14. ¹H NMR spectrum of digested **1** in DMSO- d_6 . The peaks corresponding to H₄DBTB (\blacksquare) and TNDS (*) are labeled. The inset (*top*) shows the negative ion electrospray mass spectrum and the inset (*bottom*) shows the positive ion electrospray mass spectrum.





Figure 3.15. The single crystal X-ray structure of **2** (*left*). Solvent, hydrogens, and disordered molecules are omitted for clarity. The single-crystal structure of HDDB_{in-in} (*top middle and top right*). Displacement ellipsoids are drawn at the 50% probability level. The single-crystal structure of HDDB_{in-out} (*bottom middle and bottom right*). Displacement ellipsoids are drawn at the 30% probability level. Blue, brown, red, gray, and white spheres represent N, Br, O, C, and H atoms, respectively.



Figure 3.16. Simulated (black) and as-synthesized (blue) PXRD patterns **2** (*left*). FT-IR spectra (*right*) of HDDB (red), **2** (blue), and H₄DBTB (black).





Figure 3.17. ¹³C CP-MAS NMR spectra of 2 (red), HDDB (blue), and H₄DBTB (black).





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Figure 3.19. ¹H NMR spectrum of digested **3**. The peaks corresponding to H₄DBTB (\blacksquare) and BPMTC (*) are labeled.



Figure 3.20. PXRD patterns of simulated PCN-700 (black)⁶², as-synthesized PCN-700 (orange), and PCN-700 after BCMTC²⁻ insertion (4) (purple).





Figure 3.21. ¹H NMR spectrum of digested **4**. The peaks corresponding to H₄DBTB (\blacksquare) and H₂BCMTC (*) are labeled.



Figure 3.22. Emission spectra of TNDS (red) and HDDB (blue) in DMF, $\lambda_{ex} = 365$ nm.



compound	MSP6	TNDS
formula	$C_{19}H_{16}N_2O_3Br_2^{b}$	$C_{29}H_{24}N_4O_3{}^b$
FW	480.16	476.52
Т, К	100(2)	100(2)
crystal system	Monoclinic	triclinic
space group	$P2_{1}/c$	<i>P</i> -1
Z	8	2
a, Å	9.3937(3)	8.9034(3)
b, Å	33.5488(13)	10.0040(4)
<i>c</i> , Å	11.4358(4)	15.0137(6)
α , °	90	92.4060(10)
β , °	92.7950(10)	105.7170(10)
γ, °	90	113.9040(10)
<i>V</i> , Å ³	3599.7(2)	1159.22(8)
$d_{calc,} \text{ g/cm}^3$	1.772	1.365
μ , mm ⁻¹	1.008	0.090
F(000)	1904.0	500.0
crystal size/mm ³	0.26 imes 0.2 imes 0.15	$0.18 \times 0.08 \times 0.05$
theta range	4.314 to 60.424	4.522 to 52.85
index ranges	$-13 \le h \le 13$	$-11 \le h \le 11$
-	$-47 \le k \le 47$	$-12 \le k \le 12$
	$-16 \le l \le 16$	$-18 \le 1 \le 18$
refl. collected	177181	33010
data/restraints/parameters	10644/516/653	4759/0/329
GOF on F^2	1.329	1.005
Largest peak/hole, e/Å ³	0.67 /-1.01	0.28/-0.20
$R_1 (wR_2)$, %, $[I \ge 2sigma(I)]^c$	5.53 (11.17)	4.30 (8.94)

Table 3.2. X-ray structure refinement data for MSP6 and TNDS.^a

^{*a*} Mo-K_{α} (λ = 0.71073 Å) radiation

^b Formula is given based on single crystal X-ray data and does not include disordered solvent molecules

 ${}^{c}R_{1} = \Sigma ||F_{o}| - |F_{c}|| / \Sigma |F_{o}|, wR_{2} = \{\Sigma [w(F_{o}{}^{2} - F_{c}{}^{2})^{2}] / \Sigma [w(F_{o}{}^{2})^{2}] \}^{1/2}$



compound	HDDB _{in-in}	HDDB _{in-out}
formula	$C_{48}H_{40}N_6O_6{}^b$	$C_{50}H_{44}N_6O_7{}^b$
FW	796.86	840.91
<i>Т</i> , К	100(2)	100(2)
crystal system	monoclinic	monoclinic
space group	$P2_1/c$	$P2_1/c$
Z	4	8
<i>a</i> , Å	17.2113(8)	15.7656(10)
b, Å	9.6042(4)	22.9720(15)
<i>c</i> , Å	25.5421(12)	23.9458(15)
α , °	90	90
β, \circ	109.466(2)	94.083(2)
γ, °	90	90
<i>V</i> , Å ³	3980.8(3)	8650.4(10)
d_{calc} g/cm ³	1.330	1.291
μ , mm ⁻¹	0.089	0.088
F(000)	1672.0	3536.0
crystal size/mm ³	$0.22 \times 0.14 \times 0.06$	$0.36 \times 0.18 \times 0.16$
theta range	4.566 to 52.742	4.392 to 46.706
index ranges	$-21 \le h \le 21$	$-17 \le h \le 17$
	$-12 \le k \le 12$	$-25 \le k \le 25$
	$-31 \le 1 \le 31$	$-26 \le 1 \le 26$
refl. collected	154012	237374
data/restraints/parameters	8112/0/587	12536/0/1150
GOF on F^2	1.051	1.058
Largest peak/hole, e/Å ³	0.27/-0.26	0.68/-0.68
$R_1(wR_2)$, %, $[I \ge 2sigma(I)]^c$	4.51 (9.52)	8.13 (21.15)

Table 3.3. X-ray structure refinement data for HDDB_{in-in} and HDDB_{in-out}.^a

^{*a*} Mo-K_{α} (λ = 0.71073 Å) radiation

^b Formula is given based on single crystal X-ray data and does not include disordered solvent molecules

 ${}^{c}R_{1} = \Sigma ||F_{o}| - |F_{c}|| / \Sigma |F_{o}|, wR_{2} = \{\Sigma [w(F_{o}^{2} - F_{c}^{2})^{2}] / \Sigma [w(F_{o}^{2})^{2}]\}^{1/2}$



compound	1	2
formula	$C_{63}H_{40}N_4O_{11}Zn_2Br_2^{b}$	$C_{82}H_{56}N_6O_{14}Zn_2Br_2^{b}$
FW	1319.55	1639.88
Т, К	220(2)	220(2)
crystal system	orthorhombic	orthorhombic
space group	Pmmm	Pmmm
Z	1	4
a, Å	11.291(4)	11.149(2)
b, Å	15.799(5)	15.869(3)
<i>c</i> , Å	18.292(6)	22.608(5)
α, °	90	90
β , °	90	90
γ, °	90	90
$V, Å^3$	3263.0(18)	4000.1(13)
$d_{calc,}$ g/cm ³	0.672	2.723
μ , mm ⁻¹	1.008	3.327
F(000)	664.0	3328.0
crystal size/mm ³	0.46 imes 0.2 imes 0.18	0.4 imes 0.36 imes 0.2
theta range	4.434 to 42.596	4.424 to 42.52
index ranges	$-11 \le h \le 11$	$-11 \le h \le 11$
	$-14 \le k \le 16$	$-16 \le k \le 16$
	$-18 \le 1 \le 18$	$-23 \le l \le 23$
refl. collected	12712	23134
data/restraints/parameters	2089/84/103	2555/28/90
GOF on F ²	1.027	1.039
Largest peak/hole, e/Å ³	0.76/-0.53	1.12/-0.94
$R_1 (wR_2), \%, [I \ge 2 sigma(I)]^c$	5.71 (14.31)	6.97 (19.34)

Table 3.4. X-ray structure refinement data for 1 and 2.^{*a*}

^{*a*} Mo-K_{α} (λ = 0.71073 Å) radiation

^{*b*} Formula is given based on single crystal X-ray data and does not include disordered solvent molecules (complete formula was determined based on elemental analysis) ^{*c*} $R_1 = \Sigma ||F_0| - |F_c|| / \Sigma |F_0|$, $wR_2 = \{\Sigma [w(F_0^2 - F_c^2)^2] / \Sigma [w(F_0^2)^2]\}^{1/2}$

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CHAPTER 4

Highly-Ordered Fulleretic Metal-Organic Frameworks

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INTRODUCTION

Fullerene derivatives have been a valuable tools in the development of organic photovoltaics and molecular electronics^{1,2} due to their unique electron-accepting properties and ultrafast electron/energy transfer.^{3–5} The efficiency of exciton transport is highly dependent on the morphology and mutual alignment of the donors and acceptors.⁶ For example, device performance is dependent on the donor-acceptor interface (i.e. bulk heterojunction versus bilayer morphology) and the exciton diffusion length.⁷ Fullerene derivatives are excellent acceptors used in organic photovoltaic devices,⁸ and can be mutually oriented with the donor molecules through several routes: covalent bonding,⁹⁻¹³ insertion into porous matrices,^{14–16} or co-crystallized.^{17,18} Fullerene derivatives can be coordinated with donor molecules via the self-assembly approach, which resulted in an increase of device performance.¹⁹ However, there are few reports of self-assembled fullerene derivatives which are covalently coordinated to metal ions to form a well-defined extended structure.^{20–23} Moreover, there are no know reports regarding the development of a crystalline metal-donor-acceptor framework that focus on the precise control of the donor-fullerene mutual orientation through covalent bonding, which is the approach demonstrated herein (Scheme 4.1).

Self-assembled systems, such as covalent-organic frameworks (COFs) or metalorganic frameworks (MOFs), can be utilized for donor-acceptor alignment possessing long-range ordering, and have received much interest in recent years.^{24–36} What sets MOFs apart from other materials is that they are crystalline, hybrid, porous, rigid materials that

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are assembled from organic linkers anchored to one another through metal nodes. They exhibit high crystallinity; therefore, the distances and angles between donor and acceptor ligands, as well as their molecular conformation may be determined using single-crystal X-ray diffraction.

A common donor molecule capable of ET/charge transfer to fullerene is porphyrin. Porphyrin and fullerene derivatives are often paired in molecular dyad and triad systems because of the ability for photoinduced electron transfer from the porphyrin donor to the fullerene acceptor.^{37–40} In our studies, porphyrin was selected as a donor molecule because the porphyrin derivative, tetrakis(4-carboxyphenyl)porphyrin (H4TCPP), has an exceptional ability to form rigid two- and three-dimensional, crystalline, and modular MOFs.^{41–44} The modularity of the MOF could allow for the insertion of a fullerene-derived acceptor between two-dimensional layers of the porphyrin MOF, thereby controlling the porphyrin-fullerene (donor-acceptor) mutual orientation. This method could be particularly useful to obtain a highly-ordered, three-dimensional, donor-acceptor fulleretic extended structure.

In this chapter, a novel approach is presented for the self-assembly of a crystalline porphyrin-fullerene extended structure while controlling the mutual orientation through metal coordination, as shown in Scheme 4.1. This chapter covers the synthesis of the fullerene derivative and fulleretic MOF, along with their structural and photophysical characterizations, and it consists of three main sections: (i) the design, synthesis, and characterization of the pyridyl-terminated fulleretic linker (ii) the synthesis and structural characterization of the donor-fullerene MOF, and (iii) elucidation of the fulleretic MOF photophysical properties.





Scheme 4.1. A schematic representation of porphyrin-based donors and fullerene-based acceptors in the hybrid crystalline scaffold (1) through ligand-metal coordination.

4.1. Synthesis and Characterization of the Fullerene-based MOF Linker.

To incorporate fullerene into the MOF covalently rather than through π - π interactions,^{15,45–47} modification of the fullerene core was necessary. Functionalization of fullerene with pyridyl-terminated groups provides the capability for it to be coordinatively immobilized into 2D MOFs with open metal centers.⁴¹ Moreover, it was necessary to



Scheme 4.2. Synthetic scheme of BPCF

prepare the fullerene derivative in gram-scale quantities for MOF synthesis. Therefore, we chose to prepare the known fullerene compound, bis(pyridin-4-ylmethyl)-*3*'*H*-cyclopropa-



 $[1,2](C_{60}-I_h)[5,6]$ fullerene-3',3'-dicarboxylate (BPCF, Scheme 4.2),⁴⁸ because: (i) through pyridyl groups, BPCF can be incorporated inside the MOF, and (ii) the BPCF compound could be prepared in gram quantities without the use of labor-intensive high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) methods.^{49,50}

The MOF linker, BPCF, was prepared through a Bingel cyclopropanation reaction by stirring bis(pyridine-4-ylmethyl)malonate (**L1**) and C₆₀ at 25 °C in the presence of 1,8diazabicyclo(5.4.0)undec-7-ene (DBU) and iodine in toluene for two days (Scheme 4.2). The crude reaction mixture was evaporated, loaded onto a silica column, and flushed with toluene to remove unreacted C₆₀, and the product was eluted with CHCl₃/acetone (7:3, v/v). Solvent removal under reduced pressure produced BPCF as a dark brown powder with a yield of 19%. It was characterized using ¹H NMR, ¹³C NMR, ¹³C cross-polarization magic angle spinning (CP-MAS) NMR, Fourier-transform infrared (FT-IR), and diffuse reflectance (DR) spectroscopies, mass spectrometry (MS), as well as single crystal X-ray diffraction. The ¹H NMR spectrum of BPCF is shown in Figure 4.1. To assess the structure of BPCF and determine the pillar length, it was crystallized from a concentrated toluene



Figure 4.1. The ¹H NMR spectrum of BPCF in DMSO-*d*₆.



solution by slow evaporation over several days, yielding several dark clusters of flat needles. This was necessary so that, once synthesized, the MOF interlayer distance could be estimated based on the length of the linker. Therefore, crystals of $Ag_2(BPCF)_2(PF_6)_2$ and $Ag(BPCF)_2(PF_6)$ were grown by layering BPCF in benzene over $AgPF_6$ in MeOH/benzonitrile and acetonitrile in a 5 mm NMR tube, respectively (Figure 4.2).

The absorption profile of BPCF was measured using diffuse reflectance spectroscopy so that we could estimate the degree of absorption-emission overlap between BPCF (acceptor) and the expected porphyritic MOF host (donor), and therefore determine if Förster Resonance Energy Transfer (FRET, see Chapter 1) could be possible in the prepared scaffold (vide infra, see Section 4.3). As shown in Figure 4.3, BPCF exhibits a panchromatic absorption profile, and when overlaid with the emission profile of the 2D



Figure 4.2. Single crystal X-ray structures of fullerene-based precursors are shown. A photograph of the crystalline silver molecular complex $Ag(BPCF)_2(PF_6)$ (*left*). Crystal structures of the fullerene-based precursor (a and d) and the silver molecular complexes (b and e, c and f) were utilized to simulate the PXRD pattern of **1** (*right*).



porphyritic MOF, Zn₂(ZnTCPP),⁴¹ a large amount of overlap is observed, which portends to the possibility of FRET as a viable pathway for ET. Due to the electron-accepting properties of fullerene-derived materials, it is possible that the system exhibits charge transfer (CT, see Section 4.3) in addition to FRET, and is further discussed in detail in the experimental section (Figures 4.13-4.16).



Figure 4.3. Normalized diffuse reflectance spectrum of BPCF (blue line, left axis) and normalized emission spectrum of a 2D porphyritic MOF (red line, right axis).

4.2. Synthesis and Characterization of MOF 1

The porphyrin-fullerene MOF (**1**) was obtained by heating a mixture of $Zn(NO_3)_2 \cdot 6H_2O$, H₄TCPP, and BCPF in DMF/EtOH in a ramping oven at 80 °C for 16 h, followed by cooling over 1 h, which yielded dark red crystals of **1** in 33% yield (Figure 4.21). The composition of **1** was comprehensively analyzed using DR, ¹³C CP-MAS NMR, ¹H NMR, and FT-IR spectroscopies, as well as PXRD, elemental and thermogravimetric analysis. The prepared MOF **1** was digested (decomposed in the presence of acid) to utilize





Figure 4.4. The simulated and experimental PXRD pattern from $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)(DPNI)$ in the *110* direction and **1**, respectively. The inset shows the unit cell expansion from two-dimensional $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)$ and simulated **1**.

solution-based ¹H NMR spectroscopic and mass spectrometric experiments. The bulk sample was washed thoroughly with DMF several times over two days and stored in DMF prior to analysis to remove residual linker adsorbed onto the MOF surface and in the pores.

Single crystal X-ray data collection was performed at the Advanced Light Source, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Beamline 11.3.1 but no structure could be determined with the obtained data. The most likely cause is from the poor crystallinity of the MOF, therefore, we had to rely on multiple characterization techniques to confirm the





Figure 4.5. The solid-state ¹³C CP-MAS spectra of two-dimensional $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)$, BPCF, and 1. The arrows on the spectrum of 1 show resonances from BPCF.

composition of **1**. We found that the PXRD of **1** was shifted to lower 2θ angles from that of 2D Zn₂(ZnTCPP), which could indicate a substantial expansion of the 2D layers, which is common for 2D systems involving Zn₂(ZnTCPP).⁵¹⁻⁵³ Therefore to determine the interlayer distance of 1, the PXRD data of 1 was compared with a MOF that contained a linker with similar length to BPCF, *N*,*N*'-di-(4-pyridyl)-1,4,5,8naphthalenetetracarboxydiimide (DPNI).⁵¹ The DPNI linker has a length (measured from nitrogen to nitrogen in the pyridyl groups) of 15.5 Å while BPCF measures 15.8 Å, which was averaged between the three structures shown in Figure 4.2. The simulated PXRD pattern of the MOF that contained DPNI was in good agreement with the experimental PXRD pattern of 1 (Figure 4.4). Structural analysis revealed that the interlayer distance, which is measured from the apically bound atom at the $Zn_2(O_2C)$ - SBU to the apically bound atom at the metalated porphyrin center of the next layer, had expanded from 2.82 Å, observed for a 2D porphyrin-based framework without fullerene linkers,⁴¹ to 15.4 Å in 1 containing BPCF linkers, which is in line with the length of the pyridyl arms calculated





Figure 4.6. a) Mass spectrum (ESI-MS) of digested **1**. b) ¹H NMR of digested **1** in DMSO- d_6 . Corresponding resonances of BPCF are indicated with arrows, and H₄TCPP (**■**) with black boxes.

from the single-crystal structure of BPCF (Figures 4.2 and 4.4). A schematic representation of BPCF installation between two-dimensional porphyrin layers is shown in Figure 4.21.

To further analyze the MOF in the solid-state, ¹³C CP-MAS NMR spectroscopy was employed for the compositional analysis of **1**. Washed crystals of **1** were dried under high vacuum for one hour at 50 °C and then transferred to a zirconium sample rotor for further measurements. For comparison, ¹³C CP-MAS NMR spectra were collected on Zn₂(ZnTCPP) and BPCF to assign the resonances belonging to BPCF and therefore, confirm BPMTC installation between 2D Zn₂(ZnTCPP) layers (Figure 4.5).



The composition of **1** was studied using ¹H NMR spectroscopy and mass spectrometry. For that, washed crystals of **1** were collected by filtration and dried under vacuum overnight at 50 °C. To the prepared sample, 500 μ L DMSO-*d*₆ and 3.5 μ L concentrated hydrochloric acid were added, and the resulting mixture sonicated for 10 minutes. Using ¹H NMR spectroscopy, BPCF incorporation was confirmed and found to be 23% based on the peak integrations of H₄TCPP and BPCF (Figure 4.6). For massspectrometry analysis, washed/dried crystals of **1** were digested in 500 μ L DMSO, followed by the addition of 3.5 μ L concentrated hydrochloric acid. After sonication, the vial was placed under high vacuum and heated at 50 °C overnight to remove any residual acid. The ESI MS results of **1** are shown in Figure 4.6.

FT-IR spectroscopy was used in conjunction with NMR spectroscopy and MS to further confirm BPCF installation between 2D layers of $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)$ in **1**. A washed sample of **1** was placed on a piece of filter paper and allowed to dry for one hour before



Figure 4.7. The FT-IR spectrum of Zn₂(ZnTCPP) (red), **1** (black), and BPCF (blue).



placing it onto the sample stage of the FT-IR spectrometer. The FT-IR spectra in Figure 4.7 confirm the incorporation of BPCF inside **1**.

Attempts were made to prepare a fulleretic MOF with integrated C_{60} inside its pores, and resulted in an amorphous powder, which could be attributed to the lack of pyridyl-functionalization of C_{60} , which is necessary for successfully incorporation of it into the MOF.

4.3. Photophysical Properties of MOF 1

The photophysical properties of the as-synthesized MOF were elucidated using UV/Vis, DR, fluorescence, and time-resolved photoluminescence spectroscopy. Prior to analysis, crystals of **1** were soaked in DMF, which was refreshed daily, for three days. No residual BPCF remained in the DMF solution, which was verified by UV-Vis spectroscopy.



Figure 4.8. (*top*) Image of two-dimensional $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)$ (*left*) and **1** (*right*) under 365 nm UV excitation. (*bottom*) Diffuse reflectance and fluorescence overlay of BPCF and $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)$, respectively.





Figure 4.9. Fluorescence decays of $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)$ (red line) and 1 (green line). Black solid lines are fits of the decays.

Even after extensive soaking, the crystals of **1** appeared very dark red in color, and very little fluorescence response was observed. In contrast, $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)$ (in the absence of BPCF linkers) exhibits bright red remission after the same washing procedure (Figure 4.8). These changes in the emission profile can be attributed to the ET between the BPCF donor and $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)$ acceptor within the MOF. Analysis of the time-resolved data supported triexponential decays, which indicated a shortened amplitude-weighted average lifetime of **1** (0.54 ns) in comparison with $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)$ 1.07 ns (Figure 4.9).

The fluorescence decays were fit with the triexponential function, Equation 4.1:

$$I(t) = \int_0^t IRF(t') \left(C + \sum_{i=1}^n (B_i e^{\left[-\frac{t-t'}{\tau_i}\right]}\right) dt'$$
 Equation 4.1.

where τ_i and B_i are lifetimes and amplitudes of each component, respectively.

The amplitude-weighted average fluorescence lifetimes were calculated based on Equation 4.2:



$$\langle \tau_{av} \rangle = \frac{B_1 \tau_1 + B_2 \tau_2 + B_3 \tau_3}{B_1 + B_2 + B_3}$$
 Equation 4.2

To estimate the energy transfer efficiency of the system, it was necessary to calculate the spectral overlap function (J) from the experimental donor emission and acceptor absorption spectra, using Equation 4.3 below.

$$J = \int f(\lambda) d\lambda, f(\lambda) = F(\lambda) \varepsilon(\lambda) \lambda^4$$
 Equation 4.3

where $F(\lambda)$ is the donor emission spectrum normalized to unit area and $\varepsilon(\lambda)$ is the molar extinction spectrum of the acceptor (Figure 4.10). The calculated overlap function was used to estimate the corresponding Förster critical radius (R_0 , the distance at which Φ_{ET} is 50%) in Equation 4.4:

$$R_{\rm o}({\rm cm}) = (8.79 \times 10^{-25} \times \kappa^2 n^{-4} Q_d J)^{\frac{1}{6}}$$
 Equation 4.4.

where $Q_d = k_r \times \tau_D (k_r = \text{donor radiative decay rate constant})$, κ is an orientation factor and n is the refractive index. The overlap function is given by $f(\lambda) = F(\lambda)\varepsilon(\lambda)\lambda^4$ with $F(\lambda)$. Where $\varepsilon(\lambda)$ is the molar extinction of BPCF in CS₂ (Figure 4.10). The spectral overlap integral $J = \int f(\lambda)d(\lambda)$, was used to determine the energy transfer rate k_{ET} . The ET efficiency was

	B_1	τ_1 , ns	B_2	τ_2 , ns	<i>B</i> ₃	$ au_3$, ns	$<\tau_{av}>$, ns
Zn ₂ (ZnTCPP)	0.23	0.32	0.76	1.29	0.00	4.20	1.07
1	0.69	0.31	0.31	1.01	0.00	7.08	0.54

Table 4.1. Lifetime data of Zn₂(ZnTCPP) and 1.

determined to be 49.5% with a radiative decay rate constant of $9.18 \times 10^8 \text{ s}^{-1}$. From the information obtained from Förster analysis, FRET could be responsible for the shortened





Figure 4.10. Förster analysis of **1**. BPCF acceptor absorption (red line) in CS_2 , $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)$ emission (green line), and the overlap function (dashed line, left vertical axis).

lifetime.^{54,55} Förster analysis of **1** and calculation of the spectral overlap function, $J = 2.34 \times 10^{-15} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ M}^{-1}$, between the donor and acceptor, revealed the critical radius, R_0 to be 18.8 Å, which is beyond the distance approximated from the structural data.

The data and Förster analysis of **1** suggest that FRET is a possible mechanism for ET, however charge transfer (CT) could also be responsible for the observed change in the photophysical response. There is a large number of porphyrin-fullerene systems in which CT is reported.^{56–66} Therefore, to elucidate the mechanism, we collaborated with Dr. Avdoshenko and Dr. Popov from Leibniz Institute for Solid State and Materials Research, Dresden, Germany to perform theoretical calculations on our system. The time-dependent density functional theory (TD-DFT) calculations revealed that the CT excitation of the truncated porphyrin-fullerene model (Figure 4.15, see the experimental) has a similar energy to that of C₆₀-based excitations, which indicates that CT is viable in **1**. The *computational details* subsection in the experimental section below contains detailed





Figure 4.11. Cyclic voltammogram of BPCF in 0.1 *M* tetrabutylammonium hexaflourophosphate in DMF.

explanations of the data obtained from DFT calculations. In addition, cyclic voltammetry (CV) was performed on BPCF and **1**. The CV results for BPCF show four distinct reversible reduction and oxidation peaks of at $E_{1/2} = -0.29$ V, $E_{1/2} = -0.75$ V, $E_{1/2} = -1.30$ V, and $E_{1/2} = -1.87$ V (Figure 4.11). The cyclic voltammogram of **1** showed two of the four



Figure 4.12. Cyclic voltammogram of 1 in 0.1 M tetrabutylammonium hexaflourophosphate in DMF, suspended with Nafion. The expansion shows the oxidation curves from immobilized BPCF.



reversible reduction peaks, $E_p = -0.40$ V and -0.87 V (Figure 4.12). However, there is a large irreversible reduction at $E_p = -1.38$ V, which could be attributed to the reduction of Zn in the MOF SBUs.

Conclusion

The fullerene-derivative, BPCF, was comprehensively characterized using singlecrystal X-ray diffraction, ¹H and ¹³C CP-MAS NMR, and IR spectroscopy. Two crystal structures of BPCF were obtained through metal coordination and their structures characterized by single-crystal X-ray and powder X-ray diffraction, as well as FT-IR spectroscopy. The exceptional mutual alignment of a porphyrin donor and fullerene acceptor, BPCF, in an extended three-dimensional, porous, crystalline, hybrid metalorganic scaffold was achieved. Photophysical studies were performed on the prepared fulleretic-porphyrin scaffold, and the energy and charge transfer properties elucidated using steady-state and time-resolved fluorescence spectroscopy. In conjunction with the photophysical studies, theoretical calculations were employed to demonstrate that both FRET and CT could occur in **1**. We have shown that MOFs can be used as a tool to mutually organize a large number of donor and acceptor molecules, which could significantly improve development of applications in the area of photovoltaic and molecular electronics

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Materials.

Malonyl dichloride (97%, Acros Organics), 4-pyridylcarbinol (98%, Matrix Scientific), tetrakis(4-carboxyphenyl)porphyrin (97%, Frontier Scientific), silver hexafluorophosphate (99%, Strem Chemicals Inc.), benzene (ACS grade, EMD



Chemicals), methanol (ACS grade, BDH), acetonitrile (HPLC grade, Fisher Scientific), benzonitrile (99%, Alfa Aesar), triethylamine (reagent grade, Fisher Scientific), anhydrous sodium sulfate (ACS grade, Amresco), acetone (ACS grade, Fisher Scientific), C₆₀ (>99.5%, Solaris Chemicals), iodine (ACS grade, EMD Chemicals), toluene (ACS grade, Oakwood Chemicals), DBU (1,8-diazabicyclo[5.4.0]undec-7-ene, 98%, Acros Organics), chloroform (ACS grade, Macron Chemicals), Zn(NO₃)₂· 6H₂O (technical grade, Ward's Science), ethanol (Decon Laboratories, Inc.), *N*,*N*-diethylformamide (>99%, TCI America), tetrahydrofuran (ACS grade, EMD Chemicals), dichloromethane (ACS grade, BDH), and DMSO- d_6 (Cambridge Isotopes) were used as received.

Synthesis.

The compounds bis(pyridin-4-ylmethyl)malonate (L1) and BPCF were prepared according to the reported procedure (Scheme 4.2).⁴⁸

Synthesis of Bis(pyridin-4-ylmethyl) malonate (L1)



Scheme 4.3. Synthesis of L1.

To a stirred solution of pyridine-4-ylmethanol (7.7 g, 71 mmol) and trimethylamine (5 mL) in dichloromethane (100 mL), malonyl dichloride (5.0 g, 35 mmol) in dichloromethane (50 mL) was added dropwise using an addition funnel, and the mixture stirred overnight. The resulting residue was washed with water (3×75 mL), and the organic layer dried over Na₂SO₄, and then the solvent removed under reduced pressure. The brown oil was purified using column chromatography (silica, pure acetone), which after evaporation, resulted in



L1 (4.13 g) as a brown oil in 25% yield. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃, ppm): δ = 8.57 (4H, m), 7.36 (4H, m), 5.26 (4 H, s), 3.85 (2H, s).

Synthesis of bis(pyridin-4-ylmethyl)-3'H-cyclopropa-[1,2](C60-Ih)[5,6]fullerene-3',3'dicarboxylate (BPCF)



Scheme 4.4. Synthesis of BPCF.

Iodine (70 mg, 0.28 mmol) was added to a stirred solution of C₆₀ (200 mg, 0.28 mmol) in toluene (400 mL), followed by the dropwise addition of **L1** (80 mg, 0.28 mmol). After the solution was stirred for 30 minutes, DBU (0.042 g, 0.28 mmol) was added dropwise and the solution was stirred for 2 days. The crude reaction mixture was evaporated, loaded onto a silica column, and flushed with toluene (200 mL) to remove unreacted C₆₀, and the product (brown band) was eluted with CHCl₃/acetone (7:3, v/v). The solvent was removed under reduced pressure, and BPCF was recovered as a dark brown powder (53 mg, 52.7 µmol) with a yield of 19%. ¹H NMR (DMSO, ppm) δ = 8.58-8.60 (4H, dd, *J* = 1.6 Hz, 4.4 Hz), 7.46-7.48 (4H, dd, *J* = 1.6 Hz, 4.4 Hz), 5.62 (4H, s). IR (neat, cm⁻¹): 3381, 3030, 2922, 2850, 2331, 2190, 2078, 1744, 1644, 1603, 1563, 1428, 1414, 1377, 1318, 1266, 1226, 1200, 1184, 1110, 1062, 993, 835, 796, 740, 703, 671 (Figure 4.7).

Single crystals of BPCF were obtained by slow evaporation of a concentrated toluene solution from a one-dram vial (Figure 4.2a). Single crystals of C₂₁₀H₈₄Ag₂F₁₂N₄O₈P₂



 $(Ag_2(BPCF)_2(PF_6)_2)$ were obtained by layering a solution of BPCF in benzene over AgPF₆ in MeOH/benzonitrile in a 5 mm NMR tube (Figure 4.2b,e). Single crystals of $C_{180}H_{54}AgF_6N_4O_8$ (Ag(BPCF)₂(PF₆)) were obtained by layering a solution of BPCF in benzene over AgPF₆ in acetonitrile in a 5 mm NMR tube (Figure 4.2c,f). Single crystals of each compound were obtained over several days.

MOF Synthesis.

Zn₂(ZnTCPP) was prepared according to the reported literature procedure.⁴¹ *Synthesis of* [Zn₂(ZnTCPP)(BPCF)_{0.23}·(DEF)_{0.77}]·2EtOH·0.2H₂O, Zn₃C_{73.1}H_{47.6}N_{5.23}O_{11.9}, 1)

To synthesize **1**, $Zn(NO_3)_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ (3.6 mg, 12 µmol), H₄TCPP (3.3 mg, 4.2 µmol), and BPCF (4.3 mg, 4.3 µmol) were sonicated in 0.85 mL DEF/EtOH (3:1), followed by filtration through a pasteur pipet, plugged with a glass microfiber filter, into a one-dram vial. The vial was placed into an isothermal oven and heated at 2 °C/minute and held at 80 °C for 16 h. After cooling to room temperature at 2 °C/minute, dark red crystals of **1** (1.9 mg, 1.4 µmol) were isolated in 33% yield. IR (neat, cm⁻¹): 2975, 1694, 1601, 1538, 1382, 1265, 1204, 1176, 1098, 1067, 994, 870, 824, 793, 773, 715 (Figure 4.7).

Fluorescence Spectroscopy.

Emission spectra were acquired on an Edinburgh FS5 fluorescence spectrometer equipped with a 150 W Continuous Wave Xenon Lamp source for excitation. Emission measurements on solid samples were collected on the powders of the appropriate materials placed inside a 0.5 mm quartz sample holder using the front-facing module.



An emission response was also obtained using an Ocean Optics JAZ spectrometer. In this case, a mounted high-power 365 nm LED (M365L2, Thorlabs) was used as an excitation source. Fluorescence lifetimes were measured using a Mini- τ lifetime spectrometer from Edinburgh Instruments equipped with a 365-nm picosecond-pulsed light-emitting diode (EPLED 365).

¹³C CP-MAS NMR Spectroscopy.

Solid-state NMR spectra (¹³C CP-MAS) were collected on a Bruker Avance III-HD 500 MHz spectrometer fitted with a 1.9 mm MAS probe. ¹³C{¹H} CP-MAS NMR spectra (125.79 MHz) were collected at ambient temperature with a sample rotation rate of 20 kHz. For cross polarization, 1.5 ms contact time with linear ramping on the ¹H channel and 62.5 kHz field on the ¹³C channel were used. ¹H dipolar decoupling was performed with SPINAL64 modulation and 147 kHz field strength. Free induction decays (512–2048 transients) were collected with a 27 ms acquisition time over a 300 ppm spectrum width with a relaxation delay of 2.0 s. Data was processed after appropriate shifting of the echoes using Bruker Topspin 3.2.

X-ray Crystal Structure Determination.

Single Crystal X-ray structure of C₇₅H₁₂N₂O₄ (BPCF)

Crystals of the compound grew as dark clusters composed of many intergrown flat needles. All larger crystals examined were multiply twinned. Eventually a single-domain specimen was located, which was reddish-brown in color. Single crystals are exceedingly thin, *ca*. 0.01 mm and the diffraction intensity is correspondingly weak. A scan time of 90 s per 0.5° frame was used for data collection. Despite this, no intensity was observed at higher angles. The dataset was truncated at $2\theta_{max} = 40.4^{\circ}$ (d = 1.03 Å) at which point the



mean $I/\sigma(I)$ of the reflection data fell below 2.0. Data was collected at 100(2) K using a Bruker D8 QUEST diffractometer equipped with a PHOTON 100 CMOS area detector and an Incoatec microfocus source (Mo K_a radiation, $\lambda = 0.71073$ Å).⁶⁹ The raw area detector data frames were reduced and corrected for absorption effects using the SAINT+ and SADABS programs.⁶⁹ Final unit cell parameters were determined by least-squares refinement of 3792 reflections taken from the data set. The structure was solved by direct methods with SHELXT.⁷⁰ Subsequent difference Fourier calculations and full-matrix leastsquares refinement against F^2 were performed with SHELXL-2014⁷⁰ using OLEX2.⁷¹

The compound crystallizes in the orthorhombic system. The pattern of systematic absences in the intensity data was uniquely consistent with the space group Pbca. The asymmetric unit consists of one C75H12N2O4 molecule and an essentially continuous onedimensional ribbon of disordered electron density running along the crystallographic b axis and centered near $x_{z} = \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}$ and symmetry-equivalent locations. Carbonyl oxygen O3 of the C₇₅H₁₂N₂O₄ molecule is disordered equally over two positions and were refined with half-occupancy. Their displacement parameters were held equal and additionally restrained to approximate a spherical shape (SHELX ISOR). A rigid-bond restraint (SHELX RIGU instruction) was applied to all atoms of the C_{60} cage, to prevent some displacement ellipsoids from becoming unrealistically flattened (three became 'non-positive definite') along the cage surface. All non-hydrogen atoms were refined with anisotropic displacement parameters. Hydrogen atoms were placed in geometrically idealized positions and included as riding atoms. The disordered interstitial species could not be modeled reasonably, and their contribution to the structure factors was accounted for during refinement using the Squeeze program.^{72,73} Squeeze calculated the volume occupied



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by these atoms to be 1382 Å³, and they were calculated to contribute 332 electrons per unit cell to the scattering. This value corresponds to *ca*. 6.6 toluene molecules per cell, or 0.83 per C₇₂H₁₂N₂O₄ molecule. The final reported *F.W.*, *d*(calc) and *F*(000) refer to known species only. The largest residual electron density peak in the final difference map is 0.43 $e^{-}/Å^{3}$, located 1.53 Å from C2. The refinement data is given in Table 4.2.

Single crystal X-ray structure of $Ag_2(C_{75}H_{12}N_2O_4)_2(PF_6)_2 \cdot 10(C_6H_6) (Ag_2(BPCF)_2(PF_6)_2)$.

The compound crystallized as aggregations of thin brown parallelogram-shaped plates, with visually evident lamellar (plate-upon-plate) twinning. Numerous crystals were screened, most of which produced broad diffraction peaks with multiple maxima. The best crystal had no obvious peak splitting or pronounced streaking in the area detector images. Autoindexing routines gave the reported triclinic unit cell, but also suggested a C-centered monoclinic cell with a fair figure of merit (a = 13.2 Å, b = 67.2 Å, c = 10.0 Å, $\beta = 130.8^{\circ}$, α , $\gamma \sim 90.2^{\circ}$). The crystal was eventually determined to be a pseudo-merohedral twin emulating the apparent monoclinic symmetry in the latter stages of the refinement (see below). X-ray intensity data covering the full sphere of reciprocal space were collected at 100(2) K using a Bruker D8 QUEST diffractometer equipped with a PHOTON 100 CMOS area detector and an Incoatec microfocus source (Mo K_a radiation, $\lambda = 0.71073$ Å).⁶⁹ One phi and three omega scans of width 0.5° and a scan time of 50 s per image were collected at a crystal-to-detector distance of 60 mm. The raw area detector data frames were reduced and corrected for absorption effects using the SAINT+ and SADABS programs.⁶⁹ Final unit cell parameters were determined by least-squares refinement of 9962 reflections taken from the data set. The structure was solved by direct methods with SHELXS.⁷⁰ Subsequent



difference Fourier calculations and full-matrix least-squares refinement against F^2 were performed with SHELXL-2014⁷⁰ using OLEX2.⁷¹

The compound crystallizes in the triclinic system. The space group P-1 (No. 2) was confirmed by structure solution. The asymmetric unit consists of half of one $Ag_2(C_{75}H_{12}N_2O_4)_2^{2+}$ cation, which is located on a crystallographic inversion center, one PF_6^- anion and five benzene molecules of crystallization. All non-hydrogen atoms were refined with anisotropic displacement parameters (ADPs), however a free and unrestrained refinement resulted in 10 carbon atoms adopting physically senseless ("non-positive definite") displacement parameters. These atoms were located in the C_{60} cage and in the pyridyl ligand arms. To maintain physically reasonable ADPs, an enhanced rigid bond restraint (SHELX RIGU) was applied to the U_{ij} values of the ligand atoms. An additional spherical ISOR restraint was necessary for pyridyl ring atom C7. In total, 993 displacement parameter restraints were used. The reason for this is likely the moderate crystallinity and twinning of the available samples. Hydrogen atoms bonded to carbon were located in Fourier difference maps before being placed in geometrically idealized positions included as riding atoms with d(C-H) = 0.95 Å and $U_{iso}(H) = 1.2U_{eq}(C)$ for arene hydrogen atoms and d(C-H) = 0.99 Å and $U_{iso}(H) = 1.2U_{eq}(C)$ for methylene hydrogens. The pseudomerohedral twin law emulating the apparent monoclinic symmetry (R_{int} , monoclinic C = 0.18) was derived using the TwinRotMat program in PLATON.⁷³ The twin law is (-100)0 -1 0 / 1 1 1), corresponding to a 180° rotation perpendicular to the (001) plane. The refined major twin component volume fraction refined to 0.623(2). The largest residual



electron density peak in the final difference map is 1.61 e-/Å³, located 1.09 Å from Ag1, and is not chemically significant.

Single-crystal X-ray structure of $Ag(C_{75}H_{12}N_2O_4)_2](PF_6)\cdot 5(C_6H_6)$ ($Ag(BPCF)_2(PF_6)$).

X-ray intensity data from a dark brown tablet were collected at 100(2) K using a Bruker D8 QUEST diffractometer equipped with a PHOTON 100 CMOS area detector and an Incoatec 'high-brilliance' microfocus source (Mo K_{α} radiation, $\lambda = 0.71073$ Å).⁶⁹ The raw area detector data frames were reduced and corrected for absorption effects using the SAINT+ and SADABS programs.⁶⁹ Final unit cell parameters were determined by leastsquares refinement of 9354 reflections taken from the dataset. The structure was solved by direct methods with SHELXS.⁷⁰ Subsequent difference Fourier calculations and full-matrix least-squares refinement against F^2 were performed with SHELXL-2014⁷⁰ using OLEX2.⁷¹

The compound crystallizes in the monoclinic system. The pattern of systematic absences in the intensity data was consistent with the space group $P2_1/c$, which was confirmed by structure solution. The asymmetric unit consists of one silver atom, one PF₆⁻ anion, two independent C₇₅H₁₂N₂O₄ ligands, four complete benzene molecules and half each of two additional benzene molecules located on crystallographic inversion centers. Refinement precision was limited by disorder of one C₆₀ cage and three - CC(O)OCH₂C₅H₄N arms from the two independent C₇₅H₁₂N₂O₄ ligands. Further, a pattern of small residual electron density peaks (< 0.5 e-/Å³) among atoms of the other C₆₀ cage (C101–C160) suggests minor disorder of this cage also, but a stable disorder model could not be attained because of the apparent low disorder faction (trial occupancies << 10%). The disordered C₆₀ cage was refined with two independent orientations, C201–C260 and C301–C360. Both were restrained to be geometrically similar to the ordered C₆₀ ball



(C101–C160) using SHELX SAME instructions. The disorder extends into both ligand arms attached to this cage. These were also modeled with two orientations (C16–C17, O5 A/B and C24–C30, O7, O8, N2 A/B). The major disorder fraction of this ligand refined to 0.638(3). Disorder of ligand arm C9-C15, N2, O3, O4 was also modeled with two components A/B with a major group occupancy of 0.626(6). Appropriate 1,2- and 1,3distance restraints were applied to atom pairs of the ligand arms. Displacement parameters for nearly superimposed atoms were held equal. Most non-hydrogen atoms were refined with anisotropic displacement parameters, the exception being disordered benzene molecules with fractional occupancies ≤ 0.5 , which were refined isotropically. Enhanced rigid-bond (RIGU) restraints were applied to the ligand arm and disordered C₆₀ atoms (C201-C260 and C301-C360) atoms to maintain physically reasonable anisotropic displacement parameters. Benzene molecules C421–C426 and C451-C453 were restrained to adopt a similar geometry as the best-behaved benzene C401–C406. Disordered and partially occupied benzene molecules C441-C446 and C421-C426/C521-C526 were refined as rigid hexagons. Hydrogen atoms placed in geometrically idealized positions included as riding atoms with d(C-H) = 0.95 Å and $U_{iso}(H) = 1.2U_{eq}(C)$ for benzene and pyridyl ring hydrogen atoms and d(C-H) = 0.99 Å and $U_{iso}(H) = 1.2U_{eq}(C)$ for methylene hydrogens. The largest residual electron density peak in the final difference map is 0.73 e- $/Å^3$, located 1.43 Å from C453. This suggests further minor disorder of this group, though trial modeling efforts were not stable and did not improve the refinement.

Computational Details.

DFT calculations were employed to elucidate the structural and electronic properties at the PBE/DZVP level of theory.⁷⁴ The interlayer distance of **1** was predicted





Figure 4.13. Band structure calculations of $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)$ (*left*) and **1** (*right*), which also shows flat lines indicating a localized system. Green and blue lines are conductance and valence bands, respectively.

using Γ-point optimization (CP2K code)^{75–77} assuming a tetragonal lattice, and was predicted to be 19.4 Å, which corresponds nicely with PXRD data. The GPAW code^{78,79} used to calculate the band structure of optimized **1** shows that the charge transfer bands near the Fermi level are flat (Figure 4.13), which indicates localized nature of the frontier orbitals (shown in Figure 4.15). Moreover, the calculated band structure of **1** is significantly more populated than Zn₂(ZnTCPP) (Figure 4.14). This localized nature of the frontier orbitals allows the program to perform calculations on the molecular ZnTCPP-BPCF dyad, as opposed to an extended network, which can be very time and computationally demanding. The calculations were performed of the exciton migration for the dyad, where BPCF was coordinated through the pyridyl arm to the Zn metal in the ZnTCPP porphyrin center. We determined that the charge-transfer excitation of the truncated model displayed similar energy to that of C₆₀-based systems (Figure 4.14d) when TD-DFT calculations were performed at the CAM-B3LYP/DZP level of theory (Gamess-





Figure 4.14. Predicted HOMO (*a*) and LUMO (*b*) of **1** at the Γ -point optimization. The band structure and difference density map for the charge-transfer excitation of the molecular dyad are shown in (*c*) and (*d*), respectively.

US code).^{80,81} Figure 4.15 shows a frontier MO diagram of the BPCF-ZnTCPP dyad. HOMO and HOMO-1 of the model are localized on the ZnTCPP moiety and show twofold degenerate HOMO of ZnTCPP. At lower energies follow 5 C_{60} - localized MOs resembling the 5-fold degenerate HOMO of C_{60} . LUMO, LUMO+1, and LUMO+2 of BPCF–ZnTCPP resemble the 3-fold degenerate LUMO of C_{60} , whereas LUMO+3 and LUMO+4 are similar to the 2-fold degenerate LUMO of ZnTCPP. In this model, three types of excitations may have comparable energies: excitations in the ZnTCPP moiety (denoted as ZnTCPP*), excitations in the BPCF moiety (denoted as BPCF*), and chargetransfer excitations between ZnTCPP-localized HOMOs and C_{60} -based LUMOs (denoted





Figure 4.15. Energies of the frontier molecular orbitals of the BPCF-TCPP molecular dyad.

as CT). Difference densities for three types of excitations obtained in TD-DFT calculations are shown in Figure 4.16.

Optimization of the molecular and periodic structures was performed at PBE/DZVP level of theory using CP2K code^{75–77,82} with Γ -point approximation for solid state. Single point band structure calculations were performed at the PBE/DZ level of theory with the GPAW code.^{78,79,82} The electron density was converged with k-mesh 4×4×1 for Zn₂(ZnTCPP) and 2×2×1 for **1**. The Harris calculation for the bands was performed with a resolution of 100 grid-points along X-Y- Γ -X lines, implying the orthorhombic cell with *a* = *b* parameters. Time-dependent DFT calculations were performed using long-range corrected CAM-B3LYP functional and DZVP-quality basis set implemented in the GAMESS-US code.^{80,81} The CAM-B3LYP is known to have much better reliability in



prediction of CT excitations. In TD-DFT calculations, only a fragment comprising BPCF linked to ZnTCPP was used (Figure 4.14).



Figure 4.16. Difference density for three types of excitations in the BPCF-ZnTCPP dyad.

Other Physical Measurements.

All FT-IR spectra were obtained on a Perkin-Elmer Spectrum 100. The NMR spectra were collected on Bruker Avance III-HD 300 and Bruker Avance III 400 MHz NMR spectrometers. The ¹³C and ¹H NMR spectra were referenced to natural abundance ¹³C peaks and residual ¹H peaks of deuterated solvents, respectively. Powder X-ray diffraction patterns were recorded on a Rigaku Miniflex II diffractometer with accelerating voltage and current of 30 kV and 15 mA, respectively. Thermogravimetric analysis was performed on an SDT Q600 Thermogravimetric Analyzer using an alumina boat as a sample holder. The Waters QTOF-I quadrupole time-of-flight mass spectrometer was used to record the mass spectra of the prepared compounds. Diffuse reflectance spectra were collected on a Perkin Elmer Lambda 45 UV-vis spectrometer referenced to Spectralon®.





Figure 4.17. The FT-IR spectra of BPCF (black) and the $Ag_2(BPCF)_2(PF_6)_2$ molecular complex (blue).



Figure 4.18. The FT-IR spectra of BPCF (black) and the $Ag(BPCF)_2(PF_6)_2$ molecular complex (blue).





Figure 4.19. The simulated (black) and experimental (blue) PXRD patterns of $Ag(BPCF)_2(PF_6)$.



Figure 4.20. Thermogravimetric analysis plot of assynthesized 1.





Figure 4.21. A schematic representation of BPCF installation between two-dimensional $Zn_2(ZnTCPP)$ layers.



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compound	BPCF	Ag2(BPCF)2(PF6)2	Ag(C75H12N2O4)2(PF6)
formula	$C_{75}H_{12}N_2O_4$	$C_{210}H_{84}Ag_2F_{12}N_4O_8P_2$	$C_{180}H_{54}AgF_6N_4O_8P$
FW	1004.87	3296.49	2653.11
<i>Т</i> , К	100(2)	100(2)	100(2)
crystal system	orthorhombic	triclinic	monoclinic
space group	Pbca	P-1	$P2_1/c$
Z	8	1	4
<i>a</i> , Å	20.741(2)	9.9693(17)	27.5312(16)
b, Å	9.8500(11)	10.037(17)	20.3038(11)
<i>c</i> , Å	42.484(4)	34.229(6)	20.0238(12)
α, °	90	97.239(4)	90
eta,\circ	90	96.966(4)	102.7850(15)
γ, °	90	98.030(4)	90
V, Å ³	8679.6(16)	3330.7(10)	10915.6(11)
d_{calc} , g/cm ³	1.538	1.643	1.614
μ , mm ⁻¹	0.096	0.413	0.290
F(000)	4064.0	1668.0	5367.0
crystal size/mm ³	$0.26 \times 0.04 \times 0.01$	$0.44 \times 0.12 \times 0.02$	$0.2\times0.2\times0.05$
theta range	4.308 to 40.36	4.482 to 50.146	4.172 to 50.192
index ranges	$-20 \le h \le 20$ $-9 \le k \le 9$ $-41 \le 1 \le 41$	$-11 \le h \le 11$ $-11 \le k \le 11$ $-40 \le 1 \le 40$	$\begin{array}{l} -32 \leq h \leq 32 \\ -24 \leq k \leq 24 \\ -23 \leq l \leq 23 \end{array}$
refl. collected	59842	44251	259533
data/restraints/param eters	4155/825/734	11494/993/1073	19385/3030/2414
GOF on F ²	1.086	1.041	1.115
Largest peak/hole, e/Å ³	0.43/-0.32	1.61/-1.64	0.72/-1.23
$R_1 (wR_2), \%,$ [I \ge 2sigma(I)] ^b	7.96 (19.10)	8.62 (19.18)	7.13 (14.14)

Table 4.2. X-ray structure refinement data for BPCF,^a Ag₂(BPCF)₂(PF₆)₂,^a and $Ag_2(BPCF)_2(PF_6)_2$.^a

^{*a*} Mo-K_a ($\lambda = 0.71073$ Å) radiation ^{*b*} $R_1 = \Sigma ||F_0| - |F_c|| / \Sigma |F_0|, wR_2 = \{\Sigma [w(F_0^2 - F_c^2)^2] / \Sigma [w(F_0^2)^2]\}^{1/2}$



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CHAPTER 5

Mimic of the Green Fluorescent Protein β -barrel using Metal-Organic Frameworks

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INTRODUCTION

Materials with tunable photoluminescence (PL) properties can potentially be utilized in solid-state optoelectronics, sensors, and light-harvesting applications.^{1–7} The PL response of chromophores can be tuned as a function of their surrounding environment,⁸ (for instance, the fluorophore, 4-hydroxybenzylidene imidazolinone (HBI) exhibits intense green fluorescence due to interactions between HBI and the green fluorescent protein (GFP) β -barrel). The unconfined HBI chromophores are virtually non-emissive, (i.e., its emission response is suppressed by four orders of magnitude). Therefore, by tailoring the surrounding chromophore environment and inhibiting the vibrational and rotational behavior of the HBI chromophore, fluorescence may become the main pathway for energy release.^{10,11}

Attempts have been made to replicate the emission response observed with the natural GFP-based systems, however artificial mimics are poor substitutes due to their strong π - π stacking interactions between adjacent molecules,^{12–14} and the inability to restrict chromophore conformation,^{15,16} which results in a suppressed emission response. Utilization of an artificial scaffold, such as a metal-organic framework (MOF) could confine the HBI chromophore, and thereby, suppress low frequency vibrational modes.

In this chapter, the preparation of a novel, artificial porous scaffold which can mimic the GFP β -barrel behavior is described. Immobilization of a chromophore, such as benzylidene imidazolinone, within the MOF can restrict rotational and vibrational





Scheme 5.1. (*left*) GFP with the HBI chromophore. (*right*) A green fluorescent MOF (GF MOF) constructed from HBI-based analogue, H₂BDC-HBI, using solvothermal synthesis or post-synthetic modification procedures.

relaxations (Scheme 5.1). Inspirations from previous works on chromophore emission recovery in molecular^{17–20} and hybrid HBI-based systems^{21–24} have demonstrated that control of the intermediate environment could be viable with the utilization of MOFs.^{25–30} The incorporation of HBI into a modular and tunable MOF could allow us to study photoluminescence of HBI analogues.

We developed two strategies to integrate a HBI-based chromophore within a MOF: (i) through post-synthetic modification (i.e., utilization of reactive sites within the pores of for in-situ chromophore formation), and (ii) through direct solvothermal synthesis by utilization of the HBI analogue as a linker (Scheme 5.3)



This chapter covers the synthesis and characterization of the HBI-based linker and the HBI-containing MOFs. It has been divided into three main sections: (i) the synthesis and characterization of the HBI-containing chromophores, (ii) the synthesis and characterization of the HBI-containing MOFs, and (iii) analysis of the MOF photophysical properties and chromophore dynamics inside the framework.

5.1. Synthesis and Characterization of the MOF Linkers

Synthesis and Characterization of H₂BDC-CHO

The linker, 2-formyl-[1,1'-biphenyl]-4,4'-dicarboxylic acid (H₂BDC-CHO, Scheme 5.2),³¹ was prepared as a linker for MOF synthesis because it contains a reactive aldehyde group, which can easily be utilized for in situ formation of HBI-analogues inside the MOF through post-synthetic modification. The MOF linker, H₂BDC-CHO, was prepared according to the four-step procedure shown in Scheme 5.1. Initially, methyl-4-bromo-3methylbenzoate (L1) was oxidized to form (2-bromo-5-(methoxycarbonyl)phenyl)methylene diacetate (L2), followed by deprotection to produce methyl 4-bromo-3-formylbenzoate (L3). The compound, L3, was hydrolyzed into 4bromo-3-formylbenzoic acid (L4), which was then subjected to a palladium-catalyzed Suzuki coupling reaction with 4-carboxyphenylboronic acid, which yielded the final compound, H₂BDC-CHO as a white powder with an 80% yield. The ¹H NMR spectrum of H₂BDC-CHO was in good agreement with the spectrum reported in the literature.³¹

Synthesis and Characterization of H₂BDC-HBI

Prior to 2-((1-(2-methoxy-2-oxoethyl)-2-methyl-5-oxo-1,5-dihydro-4H-imidazol-4-ylidene)methyl)-[1,1'-biphenyl]- 4,4'-dicarboxylic acid (H₂BDC-HBI, Scheme 5.2) synthesis, the precursor, methyl-2-((1-ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate, was prepared





Scheme 5.2. Synthesis of the MOF linkers H₂BDC-CHO and H₂BDC-HBI.

according to the reported literature procedure.³² A cyclization reaction was performed on H₂BDC-CHO with neat methyl-2-((1-ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate for four hours. Deionized water was added and the resulting suspension was collected by filtration, washed with water, dichloromethane, and hexane, which produced H₂BDC-HBI as a pale-yellow powder with a yield of 64%. H₂BDC-HBI was comprehensively characterized using ¹H NMR, ¹³C NMR, and ¹³C cross-polarization magic angle spinning (CP-MAS) NMR, and FT-IR spectroscopies (Figure 5.1, 5.4, and 5.18, respectively), as well as high resolution mass spectrometry (HRMS). Full synthetic details of H₂BDC-HBI can be found in the experimental section.





Figure 5.1. ¹H NMR (*top*) and ¹³C NMR (*bottom*) spectra of H₂BDC-HBI.

5.2 Synthesis and Characterization of the 1, 2, and 2-PSM MOFs

Two methods were employed to incorporate the HBI chromophore into a MOF (i) post-synthetic modification of an aldehyde-containing parent framework with assynthesized methyl-2-((1-ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate (Scheme 5.3, route I), and (ii)



direct solvothermal MOF synthesis with an HBI-based MOF linker (Scheme 5.3, route II). Post-synthetic modification is defined as the chemical derivatization of MOFs after their formation.³³

Synthesis and Characterization of $(Zn_4O(BDC-CHO)_3 \cdot (DEF)_{6.2} \cdot (EtOH)_{0.6},$ $Zn_4C_{77.2}H_{95.8}N_{6.2}O_{22.8}, 1)$

The parent framework, **1**, was prepared using a modified literature procedure (Scheme 5.3a).³¹ H₂BDC-CHO and Zn(NO₃)₂·6H₂O were dissolved in DEF/ETOH, and subjected to solvothermal synthesis in an oven at 100 °C. After 24 h, the reaction was cooled to room temperature, and yellow cubic crystals of **1** were obtained in 55% yield. MOF **1** was characterized by single-crystal and powder X-ray diffractions (PXRD), ¹³C CP-MAS NMR, FT-IR, diffuse reflectance, and fluorescence spectroscopies, as well as thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) (Figures 5.2, 5.5, 5.4, 5.18, 5.10, and 5.17, respectively).



Scheme 5.3. Synthetic routes for H₂BDC-HBI immobilization and preparation of 2-PSM (route I) and 2 (route II) using the following reagents and experimental conditions: (a) $Zn(NO_3)_2$, DEF/EtOH, 100 °C, 24 h; (b) methyl-2-((1-ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate, room temperature, 3 days; (c) H₂BDC-HBI was synthesized according to Scheme S1; (d) $Zn(NO_3)_2$, DEF/EtOH, 100 °C, 24 h



As shown in Figure 5.2, aldehyde groups are present on the MOF linkers, which allows for in-situ post-synthetic modification with methyl-2-((1-ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate. The internal pore aperture of **1** measured 15.5 Å along the a direction and 26.9 Å along the c direction, which is large enough for the diffusion of methyl-2-((1-ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate (7.2 Å), necessary for post-synthetic modification. The PXRD pattern of bulk of **1** is in excellent agreement with the simulated data from the crystal structure (Figure 5.5).



Figure 5.2. The single crystal X-ray structure of 1 (*left*) and an enlarged $Zn_4O(O_2C_{-})_6$ secondary building unit in 1 (*right*). Hydrogen atoms (except for the aldehyde groups) were removed for clarity. Orange, red, grey, and white spheres represent zinc, oxygen, carbon, and hydrogen atoms, respectively.

Synthesis and Characterization of 2-PSM

Post-synthetic modification of the parent scaffold, **1**, with methyl-2-((1-ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate forms **2-PSM**, which contains the HBI-based



chromophore as part of the linker. The synthetic route of **2-PSM** is shown in Scheme 5.3, (route I).

Washed crystals of **1** were transferred to a 1 dram vial containing methyl-2-((1ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate, and soaked at room temperature for 72 h. Every 24 h, the supernatant removed and replaced with fresh methyl-2-((1was ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate (Scheme 5.3b). The resulting yellow crystals were washed several times with DMF remove of methyl-2-((1to excess ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate, and stored in fresh DMF. The 2-PSM framework was comprehensively characterized using single-crystal and powder X-ray diffraction, FT-IR, ¹H NMR, and ¹³C CP-MAS NMR spectroscopies (Figure 5.5, 5.18, 5.3, and 5.4, respectively), as well as mass spectrometry and TGA (Figures 5.3 and 5.17). Single-crystal X-ray data of **2-PSM** indicated a structure which was nearly identical to **1**, however the residual electron density within the pores could not be resolved due to partial occupancy



Figure 5.3. The ¹H NMR spectrum of digested **2-PSM** in DMSO- d_6 . The inset shows the negative ion electrospray ionization mass spectrum of digested **2-PSM**. The peaks corresponding to H₂BDC-CHO (**■**), H₂BDC-HBI (*****), and methyl-2-((1-ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate (Δ) are labeled.



and disorder of the HBI chromophore. PXRD of **1** and **2-PSM** showed that integrity of the MOF was preserved during post-synthetic modification (Figure 5.5). To determine the percentage of BDC-HBI²⁻ incorporation, crystals of **2-PSM** were dried under vacuum, digested (destroyed in the presence of acid) by placing them into a one-dram vial containing 500 μ L DMSO-*d*₆ and 3.5 μ L HCl. We discovered that the digestion of the MOF in DCl resulted in the suppression of the methyl-2-((1-ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate resonance at 2.4 ppm. We determined that an exchange of the methyl protons with deuterium in DCl had occurred which we supported with ²H NMR spectroscopy. The digested solution was transferred to a 5 mm NMR tube and characterized using ¹H NMR spectroscopy, and with relative integrations, revealed that 64% of the BDC-CHO²⁻ linkers were converted to BDC-HBI²⁻ (Figure 5.3). For mass spectrometry, a similar digestion



Figure 5.4. ¹³C CP-MAS NMR spectrum of **1** (*bottom*), H₂BDC-HBI (*middle*), and **2-PSM** (*top*). The blue arrow indicates decrease of the peak corresponding to the –CHO group. The blue dashed lines indicate the peaks corresponding to solvents in **1** and **2-PSM**.



procedure was performed, however CHCl₃ was used instead of DMSO- d_6 , so the solvent could be removed prior to analysis. The digested sample was evacuated under vacuum while heating (50 °C) for one day to remove trace acid and solvent from the mixture. Results from ESI MS of **2-PSM** showed the presence of both H₂BDC-CHO and H₂BDC-HBI (inset, Figure 5.3). To further assess the composition of **2-PSM** and confirm the post-synthetic modification success, ¹³C CP-MAS NMR was used, which revealed the presence of both [BDC-HBI]²⁻ and [BDC-CHO]²⁻ (Figure 5.4).

Synthesis of $Zn_4O(BDC-HBI')_3 \cdot (DEF)_{3.07} \cdot EtOH \cdot (H_2O)_{3.13}$, $Zn_4C_{86.35}H_{100.03}N_{9.07}O_{29.2}$ (2)

A direct, solvothermal approach was used to prepare **2** (Scheme 5.3, route II) by heating a mixture of $Zn(NO_3)_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ and H_2BDC -HBI in DEF/EtOH in a ramping oven at 100 °C (Scheme 5.3d). After 24 h of heating, the oven was cooled, and **2** was recovered as yellow crystals in 64% yield (full synthetic details in the experimental section). Despite having visually-promising crystals of **2**, they exhibited poor X-ray diffraction and no structural data could be extracted. Therefore, we relied on a combination of powder X-ray diffraction, ¹H NMR, ¹³C CP-MAS NMR, heteronuclear multiple-bond correlation (¹H{¹³C} HMBC) NMR, heteronuclear single-quantum correlation ({¹³C} HSQC) NMR, and FT-IR spectroscopies, as well as MS to determine the composition of **2** (Figures 5.5, 5.7, 5.6, 5.8, 5.9, 5.19, and 5.7 inset, respectively).

The PXRD pattern of prepared **2** is in good agreement with the simulated and experimental patterns of **1** and **2-PSM** (Figure 5.5). From the PXRD, we can conclude that the structure of **2** is similar to that of **1**, which was solved with single-crystal X-ray diffraction. However further characterization was necessary to determine the composition. Figure 5.6 shows the ¹³C CP-MAS NMR of **2**, and clearly indicates the presence of the





Figure 5.5. PXRD patterns of simulated 1 (black line), simulated 2-PSM (brown line), as well as as-synthesized 1, 2-PSM, and 2 (blue, red, and green line, respectively.)

HBI chromophore within the MOF, as well as the absence of the aldehyde peak which is present in **1** and **2-PSM** (Figure 5.4). It is important to note that we originally believed that the two resonances located at 15.1 ppm and 60.7 ppm were attributed to residual EtOH, but no amount of drying resulted in the suppression of the resonances. Moreover, the MS of digested **2** showed a large peak with a mass of 435, instead of 421, which we expected with the H₂BDC-HBI chromophore. Therefore, we performed additional NMR experiments, including ¹H, ¹³C, ¹H{¹³C} HMBC and ¹H{¹³C} HSQC NMR spectroscopies to clarify the structural details, and results are shown in Figures 5.7, 5.8, and 5.9. Indeed, the ¹³C NMR and ¹H NMR spectra of digested **2** indicate the presence of an ethyl group, which does not match the shifts expected for residual EtOH in the structure (Figure 5.7). Furthermore, the HSQC and HMBC NMR spectra show strong





Figure 5.6. ¹³C CP-MAS spectrum of **1** (*bottom*) and **2** (*top*). The blue arrow indicates the absence of the aldehyde from H₂BDC-CHO.



Figure 5.7. ¹H NMR (*top*) and ¹³C (*bottom*) NMR of digested **2**. The inset shows the negative ion electrospray ionization mass spectrum. Each resonance from the ¹H NMR spectrum is identified on the structure of H₂BDC-HBI'. The blue arrow indicates the presence of HCl, which remained after MOF digestion.



resonance correlation from the "ethyl" protons to the 13 C O-CH₂ shift. With the combination of the NMR characterization techniques and MS, we confirmed that the H₂BDC-HBI chromophore had undergone a transesterification reaction *in-situ* in the presence of ethanol during solvothermal synthesis, which yielded the ethoxy-terminated chromophore, H₂BDC-HBI'.



Figure 5.8. The ¹H{¹³C} HMBC NMR spectrum of digested **2** (H₂BDC-HBI' ligand) demonstrating correlation of $-OCH_2$ - with the carbonyl atom (depicted by the red circle). Formation of $-OCH_2CH_3$ group occurred due to a transesterification reaction (i.e., $-OCH_3 \rightarrow -OCH_2CH_3$ conversion).





Figure 5.9. The ¹H{¹³C} HSQC NMR spectrum of digested 2 (H₂BDC-HBI' ligand).

5.3. Analysis of the MOF Photophysical Properties and Chromophore Dynamics Inside the Framework

Photophysical properties of **1**, **2**, and **2-PSM** were studied by diffuse reflectance, as well as steady-state and time-resolved fluorescence spectroscopies. We determined that the diffuse reflectance profiles of **2** and **2-PSM** are bathochromically-shifted in respect to **1**, which could be attributed to the extended structure of [BDC-HBI']²⁻ compared to [BDC-HBI]²⁻. Also, the photoluminescence maxima are drastically shifted, from an emission max of 440 nm in **1**, to 516 nm in **2** and **2-PSM** (Figures 5.10 and 5.11), which is in line with the emission maxima of natural GFP and its mutants of ~510 nm.^{34,35} Furthermore, the emission profile of **2-PSM** contains a shoulder at 440 nm, which can be attributed to the





Figure 5.10. Diffuse reflectance (dotted lines) and fluorescence (solid lines) profiles of **1** and **2** (black and green lines, respectively). Inset shows a photograph of bulk **1** and **2**, demonstrating their respective emission (λ_{ex} =365 nm).

64% conversion of the MOF linkers from [BDC-CHO²⁻] to [BDC-HBI²⁻] (Figure 5.11). Time-resolved fluorescence lifetime measurements of **1**, **2**, and **2-PSM** were performed to measure their photoluminescence decays. Analysis of the time-resolved supported triexponential decays, which determined the intensity-weighted lifetime averages to be 4.23, 1.91, and 1.59 ns for **1**, **2-PSM**, and **2**, respectively (see the experimental section for equations and tables). As expected, the lifetime decay curve of **2-PSM** was located between those of **1** and **2**, which can be ascribed to the partial conversion of the linkers. Natural GFP systems have lifetime ranges between 2.7 and 3.4 ns, and the GFP mutants between 1.9 and 2.8 ns,³⁶ the latter being directly comparable with results obtained from **2-PSM**. Fluorescence lifetime and PL results indicate that the engineered GFP scaffolds, **2** and **2-PSM**, successfully mimic the photophysical behavior of the GFP β -barrel by restoring the emission of an HBI-based chromophore confined within the scaffold.





Figure 5.11. Diffuse reflectance (dotted line) and fluorescence (solid line) profiles of **2-PSM**. The black arrows indicate the fluorescence maxima (λ_{ex} =365 nm) corresponding to [H₂BDC-CHO]²⁻ and [H₂BDC-HBI]²⁻ (left and right arrows, respectively).



Figure 5.12. Fluorescence decays of **1** (blue line), **2-PSM** (red line) and **2** (green line). Black solid lines are fits of the decays.



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Chromophore Dynamics

To understand the impact of the rigid scaffold on the dynamics of the confined H₂BDC-HBI chromophore, ²H quadrupolar spin-echo NMR was used in conjunction with DFT calculations to model the rotational behavior of the chromophore *in-situ*. As previously mentioned, vibrational and rotational strains imposed on the chromophore can restrict the release of energy through a fluorescence response. These studies provided insight into the dynamics of the chromophore rotation within the MOF pores. To perform ²H quadrupolar spin-echo NMR spectroscopy, H₂BDC-HBI was modified to contain a CD₃ group, which would allow us to observe the rotational behavior of the HBI group within



Figure 5.13. (*top left*) A diagram of $[BDC-HBI]^2$ with colored lines indicating the dihedral angles which were used to model the PES for the flipping of the CH₃ group. (*bottom*) The PES model for the motion of the C₂-C₃ flip (black line) and of the PES of the flipping of the CH₃ group in confined (grey) and unconfined (orange) environments. (*top right*) The ²H spin-echo NMR spectrum of **2-PSM-***d*₃ and non-deuterated **1**.



the MOF pore. To incorporate the CD₃ tag into the framework, methyl-2-((1ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate- d_3 was prepared from imidoacetate- d_3 hydrochloride based on the synthesis reported for the protonated analog (Scheme 5.6).³² The parent MOF, **1**, was post-synthetically modified using the same synthetic procedure (vide supra), which provided **2-PSM-** d_3 as yellow crystals. Synthetic and characterization details of methyl-2-((1-ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate- d_3 are provided in the experimental section. The H₂BDC-HBI- d_3 compound was also prepared from the cyclization reaction of H₂BDC-CHO with methyl-2-((1-ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate- d_3 , however, proton exchange occurred with DMF during solvothermal synthesis, which resulted in the absence of deuterium in the prepared scaffold.

The ²H spin-echo NMR spectrum of **2-PSM-***d*₃ shows the classic Pake pattern with quadrupolar coupling $C_Q = 52$ Hz (Figure 5.13, inset). The Pake pattern can be attributed to the slow flipping of the –CD₃ group (<10⁴ Hz), from which slow dynamics could be explained by restrictions imposed by the presence of solvent molecules inside the porous framework. The sharp isotropic peak can be attributed to the mobile solvent molecules within the framework, as confirmed by the ²H spin-echo NMR response of non-deuterated **1**. We modeled the potential energy surfaces (PESs) of unbound versus restricted H₂BDC-HBI. For this purpose, four PESs were constructed to model the –CH3 group dynamics and single bond C₂–C₃ motions by varying the C₁–C₂–C₃=C₄ and N=C₅–C₆–H dihedral angles, respectively (Figure 5.13). The activation barrier for the methyl group in the confined and unrestricted situations were similar (6-7 kJ/mol), and are comparable with those in some natural proteins.³⁷ As expected, in the case of the C₂–C₃ bond flip, *E_a* values were significantly higher. For instance, we found that the *E_a* for the unrestricted



chromophore is 33 kJ/mol. Furthermore, when the chromophore was restricted, and the activation barrier calculated while restricting the movement of the two phenyl rings in the linker (as it is in the MOF), flipping around the C_2 – C_3 bond was not possible without decomposition or destruction of the framework. This finding supports that the HBI-based chromophore rotation is restricted while immobilized in the MOF due to the rigidity of the framework, thereby inducing a fluorescence response. Figure 5.14 shows a representation of the H₂BDC-HBI rotation in confined versus unconfined environments. As shown in Figure 5.14, the coordinatively trapped chromophores could not, for instance, accommodate a 180°-conformation without scaffold/ligand decomposition. In contrast to the immobilized chromophore, the steric repulsion maximum could easily be avoided in the unbound H₂BDC-HBI due to the possibility of conformational deviation as shown in Figure 5.14.



Figure 5.14. The DFT-calculated structures of the unbound (*left*) and confined (*right*) H₂BDC-HBI chromophore with fixed dihedral angles (depicted in pink), 180° and 175.9°, respectively. The right figure illustrates the distortion of the confined H₂BDC-HBI inside the rigid scaffold and demonstrates that a 180°-conformation of the chromophore could not be achieved without bending the scaffold. To minimize steric repulsion, the unbound H₂BDC-HBI could deviate as shown on the left structure. Grey, red, and blue spheres represent carbon, oxygen, and nitrogen atoms, respectively. The hydrogen atoms are omitted for clarity.



We've shown that **2** and **2-PSM** exhibit a PL and fluorescence decay response similar to that of natural GFP-based systems and its engineered mutants by trapping the HBI core within the MOF. The calculated PESs of the confined H_2BDC -HBI chromophore indicate that chromophore rotation is not possible without framework degradation, thereby inducing the observed fluorescence response in **2** and **2-PSM**.

Conclusion

We have demonstrated that the natural GFP system can be replicated by utilizing the porosity and rigidity of MOFs to inhibit the rotation of the benzylidene imidazolinone chromophore core, thus suppressing non-radiative, low-energy vibrational modes. The successful confinement of the HBI chromophore led to material emission which was similar to natural GFP-based systems. The results from ²H quadrupolar spin-echo NMR spectroscopic studies, as well as theoretical DFT calculations showed the coordinative confinement of the HBI chromophore.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Materials.

Zn(NO₃)₂·6H₂O (technical grade, Ward's Science), 4-bromo-3-methyl benzoic acid methyl ester (99.1%, Chem-Impex International Inc.), 4-carboxyphenylboronic acid (99.5%, Chem-Impex International Inc.), chromium(VI) oxide (99.9%, Sigma-Aldrich), sulfuric acid (ACS grade, Fischer Scientific), glacial acetic acid (ACS grade, BDH), ethanol (Decon Laboratories, Inc.), methanol (ACS grade, Fischer Scientific), *N*,*N*diethylformamide (>99%, TCI America), *N*,*N*-dimethylformamide (ACS grade, BDH), trans-dichlorobis(triphenylphosphine)palladium(II) (99%, Strem Chemicals), ethyl



acetimidate hydrochloride (97%, Alfa Aesar), glycine methyl ester hydrochloride (98%, Acros Organics), potassium carbonate (ACS grade, BDH), sodium hydroxide (ACS grade, Macron Fine Chemicals), hexanes (ACS grade, Fischer Scientific), diethyl ether (ACS grade, J. T. Baker® Chemicals), ethyl acetate (HPLC grade, EMD Chemicals), tetrahydrofuran (ACS grade, EMD Chemicals), dichloromethane (ACS grade, BDH), chloroform-*d* (Cambridge Isotopes), acetonitrile- d_3 (Cambridge Isotopes), benzene- d_6 (Cambridge Isotopes) and DMSO- d_6 (Cambridge Isotopes) were used as received.

Synthesis.

The compounds, 3-methylbenzoate (L1),³¹ (2-bromo-5-(methoxycarbonyl)phenyl)methylene diacetate (L2),³¹ methyl 4-bromo-3-formylbenzoate (L3),³¹ and 4-bromo-3-formylbenzoic acid (L4),³¹, and methyl-2-((1ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate³² were synthesized according their reported procedures.

Synthesis of 2-formyl-[1,1'-biphenyl]-4,4'-dicarboxylic acid (H2BDC-CHO)



Scheme 5.4. Synthesis scheme of H₂BDC-CHO.

H₂BDC-CHO was synthesized according to a modified literature procedure.³¹ In a 100 mL Schlenk flask, using air-sensitive technique, Na₂CO₃ (1.43 g, 13.5 mmol), 4-



carboxyphenylboronic acid (0.93 g, 5.6 mmol), PdCl₂(PPh₃)₂ (0.40 g, 0.57 mmol), and L4 (1.03 g, 5.20 mmol) were added. Dry DMF (25 mL) was added via syringe, and the resulting mixture was heated at 90 °C for 72 h. After cooling, 10% NaOH (30 mL) was added and the resulting solution stirred an additional ten minutes. The aqueous layer was washed with ethyl acetate (3 × 100 mL), THF (2 × 50 mL). The aqueous layer was transferred to a 250 mL Erlenmeyer flask and the solution was acidified with concentrated HCl, which yielded a white precipitate. The precipitate was collected by filtration, washed with water, hexane, and dried under vacuum at 60 °C for 24 h, which yielded H₂BDC-CHO as a white powder (0.910 g, 3.37 mmol) in 80% yield. ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆, ppm): δ = 7.63-7.65 (2H, d, *J* = 8.34), 7.68-7.71 (1H, d, *J* = 8.12), 8.07-8.10 (2H, d, *J* = 8.26), 8.26-8.29 (1H, d, *J* = 6.23), 8.47 (1H, s), 9.92 (1H, s), 13.29 (2H, s).

Synthesis of 2-((1-(2-methoxy-2-oxoethyl)-2-methyl-5-oxo-1,5-dihydro-4H-imidazol-4ylidene)methyl)-[1,1'-biphenyl]-4,4'-dicarboxylic acid (H₂BDC-HBI)



Scheme 5.5. Synthesis scheme of H₂BDC-HBI.

Methyl-2-((1-ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate (1.43 g, 8.99 mmol) was added to a vial containing H₂BDC-CHO (1.00 g, 3.70 mmol) and EtOH (50 mL) and the resulting suspension was stirred vigorously for 4 h at room temperature. Distilled water (30 mL) was added to the flask and the solution was stirred for another 5 minutes. The suspension was



collected by filtration and washed with water, dichloromethane, and hexane. After drying under vacuum, H₂BDC-HBI (0.996 g, 2.36 mmol) was obtained as a pale-yellow powder in 64% yield. ¹H NMR (DMSO-*d*₆, ppm): δ = 2.36 (3H, s), 3.70 (3H, s), 4.51 (2H, s), 6.77 (1H, s), 7.51-7.53 (2H, d, *J* = 8.32 Hz), 7.53-7.56 (1H, d, *J* = 8.04 Hz), 8.02-8.05 (1H, dd, *J* = 8.00, 1.72 Hz), 8.05-8.08 (2H, d, *J* = 8.32 Hz), 9.39 (1H, d, *J* = 1.60 Hz), and 13.20 (2H, br). ¹³C NMR (DMSO-*d*₆, ppm): δ = 15.46, 41.35, 52.69, 122.12, 129.62, 130.06, 130.51, 130.68, 130.82, 131.39, 133.22, 139.17, 139.83, 143.38, 146.64, 164.75, 167.03, 167.15, 168.63, and 169.38 ppm. IR (neat, cm⁻¹): 2958, 2547, 1815, 1721, 1688, 1604, 1562, 1418, 1371, 1292, 1227, 1149, 984, 908, 872, 846, 762, and 704. HRMS (NI-ESI, m/z) calculated for C₂₂H₁₇N₂O₇ [M-H]: 421.1036, found 421.1047.

Synthesis of Deuterated Methyl-2-((1-ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate- d_3

$$CD_{3}CN \xrightarrow{HCl_{(g)}, EtOH}_{-5^{\circ}C} \xrightarrow{D_{3}C}_{EtO} \xrightarrow{\oplus}_{H} H \xrightarrow{H_{3}N}_{K_{2}CO_{3}, H_{2}O, Et_{2}O} \xrightarrow{D_{3}C}_{EtO} \xrightarrow{-CO_{2}Me}_{N}$$

Scheme 5.6. Synthesis of methyl-2-((1-ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate-d₃.

A mixture of K_2CO_3 (8.8 g, 63 mmol), glycine methyl ester hydrochloride (8.0 g, 63 mmol) and diethyl ether (250 mL) were suspended in a 500 mL separatory funnel. Distilled water (50 mL) and previously-synthesized ethyl imidoacetate- d_3 hydrochloride from deuterated acetonitrile (Scheme 5.6, 8.0 g, 63 mmol)³² were added and the resulting mixture was shaken for six minutes. The organic layer was removed and the aqueous layer was extracted with diethyl ether (150 mL) for another six minutes. The combined organic layers were washed with water, brine, dried over magnesium sulfate, and the solvent removed under reduced pressure. The obtained pale yellow oil was distilled under vacuum,





Figure 5.15. (*top*) The ¹H NMR spectrum of methyl-2-((1-ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate- d_3 in C₆D₆. The inset shows the ¹H NMR spectrum of methyl-2-((1-ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate in C₆D₆. The black arrow indicates a missing singlet due to CD₃ group inclusion. (*middle*) The ¹³C NMR spectrum of methyl-2-((1-ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate- d_3 in C₆D₆. The inset shows a septet due to the presence of the CD₃ group. (*bottom*) ²H NMR spectrum of methyl-2-((1-ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate- d_3 in CHCl₃.



and a colorless oil (3.6 g, 22 mmol) was isolated in 39% yield. ¹H NMR (C₆D₆, ppm): δ = 1.09-1.13 (3H, t, *J* = 7.16 Hz), 3.34 (3H, s), 3.85 (3H, s), and 4.15-4.21 (2H, q, *J* = 7.16 Hz) ppm. (Figure 5.15). ²H NMR (CHCl₃, ppm): δ = 1.97 ppm (Figure 5.15). ¹³C NMR (C₆D₆, ppm): δ = 14.58, 51.44, 51.64, 61.20, 164.61, 171.47 ppm (Figure 5.15). IR (neat, cm⁻¹): 1745, 1670, 1440, 1362, 1269, 1181, 1028, 971, 907, 792, and 715. HRMS (PI-ESI, m/z) calculated for C₇H₁₁D₃NO₃ [M+H]⁺ 163.1162, found 163.1158.

Synthesis of Zn4O(BDC-CHO)3 (DEF)6.2 (EtOH)0.6, Zn4C77.2H95.8N6.2O22.8 (1)



Scheme 5.7. Synthesis of 1.

MOF **1** was prepared using a modified procedure³¹ (Scheme 5.8). $Zn(NO_3)_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ (6.2 mg, 21 µmol) and H₂BDC-CHO (5.0 mg, 19 µmol) were added to a one-dram vial containing 1.4 mL DEF and 0.6 mL EtOH. The resulting mixture was placed into a programmable isothermal oven after sonication, and heated to 100 °C at 0.2 °C/minute, and the temperature held for 24 h. The oven was cooled at a rate of 0.6 °C/minute and yellow cubic crystals of **1** (5.0 mg, 2.9 µmol) were isolated in 55% yield.

Synthesis of 2-PSM and 2-PSM-d₃.

DMF-washed crystals of **1** (10 mg, 5.8 μ mol) were soaked with distilled methyl-2-((1-ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate (0.30 g, 1.9 mmol) at 25 °C, refreshed daily, for 72 h. The resulting yellow crystals of **2-PSM** were washed thoroughly with DMF to remove excess methyl-2-((1-ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate. IR (neat, cm⁻¹): 3294, 2936, 1984,





Scheme 5.8. Synthesis of 2-PSM and 2-PSM-d₃.

1838, 1742, 1659, 1603, 1383, 1211, 1095, 1005, 849, 779, 711, 679, and 661. The same procedure was used for the preparation of **2-PSM-** d_3 , but methyl-2-((1-ethoxyethylidene)amino)acetate- d_3 was used instead.

Synthesis of $Zn_4O(BDC-HBI')_3 \cdot (DEF)_{3.07} \cdot EtOH \cdot (H_2O)_{3.13}, Zn_4C_{86.35}H_{100.03}N_{9.07}O_{29.2}, (2).$



Scheme 5.9. Synthesis of 2-PSM and 2-PSM-d₃.

In a one-dram vial, $Zn(NO_3)_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ (6.2 mg, 21 µmol) and H₂BDC-HBI (5.0 mg, 12 µmol) were dissolved in 1.4/0.6 mL DEF/EtOH mixture followed by sonication. The resulting solution was ramped over 6 h and remained at 100 °C for 24 h in an isothermal oven. After 24 h heating, the reaction mixture was cooled down to room temperature over 2 h. The yellow crystalline material of **2** (5.2 mg, 2.5 µmol) was isolated in 64% yield. IR



(neat, cm⁻¹): 3406, 2935, 1971, 1739, 1655, 1381, 1211, 1095, 1016, 854, and 775 (Figure 5.18).

Characterization Techniques.

Steady-state emission spectra were acquired on an Edinburgh FS5 fluorescence spectrometer equipped with a 150 W Continuous Wave Xenon Lamp source for excitation. Emission measurements on solid samples were collected on the powders of the appropriate materials placed inside a 0.5 mm quartz sample holder using the front-facing module.

The Ocean Optics JAZ spectrometer was also used to record the emission response. In this case, a mounted high-power 365 nm LED (M365L2, Thorlabs) was used as an excitation source.

Fluorescence lifetimes were measured using a Mini- τ lifetime spectrometer from Edinburgh Instruments equipped with a 365-nm picosecond-pulsed light-emitting diode (EPLED 365).

Fitting of Fluorescence Decays.

The fluorescence decays for 1, 2-PSM, and 2 shown in Figure 5.12 were fit with the triexponential function (n = 3) shown in Equation 5.1 below:

$$I(t) = \int_0^t IRF(t') \left(C + \sum_{i=1}^n (B_i e^{\left[-\frac{t-t'}{\tau_i}\right]}\right) dt'$$
 Equation 5.1

where τ_i and B_i are respective lifetimes and amplitudes of each component. The intensityweighted average fluorescence lifetimes were calculated based on Equation 5.2:

$$\langle \tau_{\rm av} \rangle = \frac{B_1 \tau_1^2 + B_2 \tau_2^2 + B_3 \tau_3^2}{B_1 \tau_1 + B_2 \tau_2 + B_3 \tau_3}$$
 Equation 5.2



	B_1	τ_1 , ns	B_2	τ_2 , ns	<i>B</i> ₃	$ au_3$, ns	$\langle \tau_{\rm av} \rangle$, ns
1	0.65	0.48	0.32	3.17	0.03	10.50	4.23
2	0.67	0.19	0.30	1.53	0.03	3.79	1.59
2-PSM	0.70	0.44	0.28	1.91	0.02	5.96	1.91

Table 5.1. Lifetime data of 1, 2, and 2-PSM.

²H and ¹³C CP-MAS NMR Spectroscopy.

Two-dimensional HSQC and HMBC spectra were collected on a Bruker Avance III-HD 400 MHz spectrometer operating at 400.27 MHz for ¹H and 100.65 MHz for ¹³C. Vendor supplied pulse sequences were used and processing was done with Bruker Topspin 3.2. All data were acquired with temperature controlled at 25 °C. The 2D HSQC spectrum (with pulsed field gradient coherence selection) was collected with spectral widths of 15 ppm and 165 ppm for ¹H and ¹³C respectively. FIDs were acquired with 1024 points and 256 increments were collected in *t1*. The 2D HMBC spectrum (with pulsed field gradient coherence with spectral widths of 15 ppm and 220 ppm for ¹H and ¹³C respectively. FIDs were acquired with pulsed field gradient coherence selection) was collected with spectral widths of 15 ppm and 220 ppm for ¹H and ¹³C respectively. FIDs were acquired selection were collected in *t1*.

Single Crystal X-ray Data.

 $Zn_4C_{42}H_{24.5}O_{13.25}, 1.$

X-ray intensity data from a yellow cube-shaped crystal were collected at 100(2) K using a Bruker SMART APEX diffractometer (Mo K_{α} radiation, $\lambda = 0.71073$ Å).³⁹ The raw area detector data frames were reduced and corrected for absorption effects using the SAINT+ and SADABS programs.³⁹ While strong diffraction was observed at low angles,



intensities dropped off rapidly with increasing θ and became unobservable at about 2θ = 42°. The dataset was truncated at that value. This is due to the extensive solvent disorder within the porous framework. Pronounced diffuse streaking between Bragg peaks was also observed in the area detector frames, another indication of local departures from the average structure described below. Final unit cell parameters were determined by least-squares refinement of 6516 reflections from the data set. The structure was solved by direct methods with SHELXS.⁴⁰ Subsequent difference Fourier calculations and full-matrix least-squares refinement against *F*2 were performed with SHELXL-2014⁴⁰ using OLEX2.⁴¹

The compound crystallizes in the monoclinic space group C2/m as determined by the pattern of systematic absences in the intensity data and by obtaining a reasonable structural model despite crystal quality difficulties. The structure is afflicted by severe disorder, which drastically limits refinement precision. Known contents of the asymmetric unit consists of three zinc centers, two of which (Zn1 and Zn3) are located on mirror planes, a μ_4 -oxo oxygen atom (O1), one complete ligand and half of another ligand also located on a mirror plane. One additional oxygen atom, also located on a mirror plane, was located near Zn3. It is presumably a water oxygen for charge balance reasons. Phenyl rings of the ligand {O2–O5, C1–C14} were refined as rigid hexagons, with additional planarity and distance restraints applied to this ligand. Some displacement parameters were restrained to approximate a spherical shape with SHELX ISOR instructions. No significant electron density was observed near any potential substitution sites on the ligands. The substituted groups are presumably partially populated and disordered over several sites. Because of uncertainty of the position and extent of ligand substitution, all carbon atoms were refined as fully occupied and an 'unsubstituted composition' reported. All non-hydrogen atoms



were refined with anisotropic displacement parameters except for the water oxygen O9 (isotropic). Hydrogen atoms bonded to carbon were placed in geometrically idealized positions and included as riding atoms. Disordered electron density between the framework could not be modeled and was accounted for using the Squeeze program.^{42,43} Squeeze calculated a large solvent-accessible volume in the crystal of 6870 Å³, (69% of the total unit cell volume) corresponding to 1223 electrons per unit cell. Note that the *F.W.*, *d*(calc), and *F*(000) values reflect framework atoms only due to uncertainty about the nature of the guest species. The refinement data is given in Table 5.2.

Zn₄C₄₂H₂₅O₁₃, **2-PSM**

X-ray intensity data from a yellow crystal of **2-PSM** were collected at 150 K on a D8 goniostat equipped with a Bruker PHOTON100 CMOS detector at Beamline 11.3.1 at the Advanced Light Source (Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory) using synchrotron radiation tuned to $\lambda = 1.0332$ Å. Data collection frames were measured for a duration of 2 s at 0.5° intervals of ω . The data frames were collected using the program APEX2 and processed using the SAINT program routine within APEX2. The data were corrected for absorption and beam corrections based on the multi-scan technique as implemented in SADABS.⁴⁴ The structures were solved by direct methods using SHELXS⁴⁰ and refined against F^2 on all data by full-matrix least squares as implemented in SHELXL-97.⁴⁵ The Zn, C, and O atoms in **2-PSM** were refined anisotropically. Hydrogen atoms attached to the ligand were included in the model at geometrically calculated positions. Due to partial occupancy (64%) of [BDC-HBI]²⁻ linkers and the disorder of the solvent molecules, which is very common in porous structures (e.g., MOFs), a large amount of spatially delocalized



electron density in the pores of the lattice was observed. The acceptable refinement values could not be obtained for this electron density, and therefore, the best residual indices were **Table 5.2.** X-ray structure refinement data for 1^a and 2-**PSM**^{*b*}.

compound	1	2-PSM	
formula	C42H24.5O13.25Zn4	$C_{42}H_{25}O_{13}Zn_4$	
FW	1002.59	999.10	
<i>Т</i> , К	100(2)	150 (2)	
crystal system	monoclinic	monoclinic	
space group	C2/m	C2/m	
Ζ	4	4	
<i>a</i> , Å	24.117(2)	24.230(2)	
<i>b</i> , Å	24.219(2)	24.193(2)	
<i>c</i> , Å	17.0669(17)	17.0847(16)	
α, °	90	90	
β , °	92.381(2)	92.957(3)	
γ, °	90	90	
V, Å ³	9960.2(17)	10001.7(16)	
$d_{calc,}$ g/cm ³	0.669	0.664	
μ , mm ⁻¹	0.979	2.606	
F(000)	2010.0	2004.0	
crystal size/mm ³	$0.38 \times 0.36 \times 0.32$	$0.06 \times 0.04 \times 0.02$	
theta range	2.39 to 42.64	2.41 to 39.93	
index ranges	$\begin{array}{l} -24 \leq h \leq 24 \\ -24 \leq k \leq 24 \\ -17 \leq l \leq 17 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} -29 \leq h \leq 29 \\ -29 \leq k \leq 30 \\ -20 \leq l \leq 20 \end{array}$	
refl. collected	26940	39167	
data/restraints/parameters	5757/54/268	9993/289/0	
GOF on F ²	0.958	0.816	
Largest peak/hole, e/Å ³	0.49/-0.36	0.43/-0.32	
$R_1 (wR_2), \%, [I \ge 2sigma(I)]^d$	6.56 (19.27)	5.33 (15.85)	

^a Mo-K_{α} (λ = 0.71073 Å) radiation;^b synchrotron radiation (λ = 1.0332 Å)

^c Formula is given based on single-crystal X-ray data and does not include disordered solvent molecules (complete formula was determined based on elemental analysis)

^d $R_1 = \Sigma ||F_o| - |F_c|| / \Sigma |F_o|, wR_2 = \{ \Sigma [w(F_o^2 - F_c^2)^2] / \Sigma [w(F_o^2)^2] \}^{1/2}$



obtained from a model for which the Squeeze program⁸ was used to account for the electron density in regions of high disorder. The refinement data are given in Table 5.2.

Computational Details.

Density functional theory (DFT) calculations were employed to model the potential energy surfaces (PESs) for the $-CH_3$ group and single bond dynamics for the unbound ligand and confined chromophore inside the engineered scaffold. To model chromophore behavior inside the framework, the oxygen atoms were fixed to mimic the rigidity imposed by the scaffold. Four PESs were constructed by varying the dihedral angles as shown in Figures 5.13 and 5.16. All theoretical calculations were performed using the SPARTAN 10 quantum chemistry program package. The B3LYP functional and 6–31G* basis set were employed to perform all DFT calculations.



Figure 5.16. PES for a C_2 – C_3 bond flip in the coordinatively trapped (orange solid line) and unbound (blue solid line) H₂BDC-HBI chromophores. The blue dashed line illustrates that a 180°-conformation could not be achieved in the case of the confined chromophore due to restriction imposed by the rigid scaffold.


Other Physical Measurements.

FT-IR spectra were obtained on a Perkin-Elmer Spectrum 100. NMR spectra were collected on Bruker Avance III-HD 300 and Bruker Avance III 400 MHz NMR spectrometers. ¹³C NMR and ¹H NMR spectra were referenced to natural abundance ¹³C peaks and residual ¹H peaks of deuterated solvents, respectively. Powder X-ray diffraction patterns were recorded on a Rigaku Miniflex II diffractometer with accelerating voltage and current of 30 kV and 15 mA, respectively. Thermogravimetric analysis was performed on a SDT Q600 Thermogravimetric Analyzer using an alumina boat as a sample holder. The Waters QTOF-I quadrupole time-of-flight and Thermo Scientific Orbitrap Velos Pro mass-spectrometers were used to record the mass-spectra of the prepared compounds. Diffuse reflectance spectra were collected on a Perkin Elmer Lambda 45 UV-vis spectrometer referenced to Spectralon®.



Figure 5.17. Thermogravimetric analysis plots of 1 (blue), 2 (green), and 2-PSM (red).





Figure 5.18. The FT-IR spectra of 2 (green), H_2BDC -HBI (brown), 2-PSM (red), and 1 (blue).

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