A Lanthanide Luminescent Cation Exchange Material Derived from a Flexible Tricarboxylic Acid 2,6-Bis(1,2,3-triazol-4-yl)pyridine (btp) Tecton

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ABSTRACT: The synthesis of the three-dimensional metal–organic framework material, [Zn-L]·(H,NMe)2·(H2O)45 (1), derived from a flexible tricarboxylic acid 2,6-bis(1,2,3-triazol-4-yl)pyridine (btp) ligand, is presented. The btp ligand, H3L, adopts a three-dimensional hydrogen bonding network in the crystalline state through a combination of carboxylic acid dimer and syn–anti-btp/carboxylic acid hydrogen bonding synthons. The Zn(II) species 1 exhibits a three-dimensional framework structure with the rare crs topology and contains linear and undulated solvent channels extending in three dimensions. The guest exchange and gas adsorption properties of 1 were investigated; herein we demonstrate the exchange of dimethylammonium cations from the as-synthesized material with cationic guest molecules in the form of dyes and luminescent Ln(III) ions. Sensitization of Eu(III) and Tb(III) inside the porous network of 1 was achieved upon cation exchange, with a view toward developing functional luminescent materials.

INTRODUCTION

Metal–organic frameworks (MOFs) represent a swiftly advancing research area in chemical and material sciences, continuously intriguing scientists not only by the extensive range of affordable network topologies but also by their applicable properties, such as catalysis, sensing, guest encapsulation, and gas adsorption and separation. Moving beyond the typical rigid-ligand designs of early MOFs, reports of MOFs derived from divergent ligands possessing at least one flexible sp3 linker group are now becoming commonplace. The low-energy bond rotations in these systems create a range of bridging geometries, facilitating the development of more dynamic or “breathable” systems. However, this class of semirigid ligand can also generate rigid frameworks through increased connectivity in more than two directions. Drawbacks associated with such flexible-ligand MOFs include an impeded control over the rational structural predictability of extended network architectures. However, conformational adaptability of the ligand precursor can be advantageous when combined with a labile metal ion’s energetically preferred coordination geometry, thus facilitating the generation of structurally diverse MOFs whose architectures would not be attainable from more rigid building blocks.

The terdentate heteroaromatic 2,6-bis(1,2,3-triazol-4-yl)pyridine (btp) motif has been featured frequently in the literature in recent times and has been incorporated into amorphous polymers and macromolecules through metal-templated synthesis, as well as in the formation of metal-supramolecular gels. Reports of MOFs featuring the 1,2,3-triazole motif and, to a greater extent, the 1,2,4-triazole motif have become relatively ubiquitous in the literature; however, there are no reports of btp derived MOFs. The btp motif has been shown to form stable coordination complexes with both transition and trivalent lanthanide (Ln(III)) ions. Its variability is useful when greater versatility is desirable compared to the analogous 2,2′-6′,2″-terpyridine, with a broad range of derivatives available through “click” chemistry. Thus, convenient development of neutral nitrogen containing btp heterocycle linkers possessing rich coordination chemistry capable of generating functional MOFs is readily achieved through the facile incorporation of divergent metal binding ability in the form of multiple carboxylate functionality. With this in mind, we set out to demonstrate the synthesis of a three-dimensional anionic MOF.
using the flexible btp ligand, $\text{H}_3\text{L}$. The tricarboxylic acid $\text{H}_3\text{L}$ contains four distinct functional groups capable of metal coordination: the btp terdentate chelating motif and the three carboxylate groups (upon deprotonation). Herein we demonstrate that the coordination of the terdentate motif with metal ions results in conformational switching in btp; in the presence of a cation the $\text{syn} \leftarrow \text{syn}$ conformation $^{11e,12d,17b}$ is observed (Scheme 1).

Scheme 1. Conformational Changes of the btp Motif (left) and of the Aryl Arms around the Methylene Linker (right)

However, the unbound btp moiety displays triazoles $\text{anti} \leftarrow \text{anti}$ (or “kinked”) with respect to the pyridyl nitrogen atom $^{11e,12d,17b}$ due to the nitrogen lone pair repulsion and an intramolecular hydrogen bonding interaction between the triazole hydrogen atoms and the pyridyl nitrogen atom. $^{11e}$ There is also a third possibility, the $\text{syn} \leftarrow \text{anti}$ conformation. The multiple coordinating directionality together with the conformational freedom of semiflexible ligands like $\text{H}_3\text{L}$ makes them very appealing for the design of new architecturally diverse MOFs which also possess desirable functional properties.

The unique chemical and physical properties of MOFs have ensured that they continue to be the focus of much scientific attention. $^{10}$ These properties, including luminescence $^{18b,20}$ chemical separation, $^{21}$ sensing, $^{24a,21}$ and ion exchange $^{14a,22}$ among others, $^{28}$ arise from their ability to adsorb and recognize specific guests through various host–guest interactions within rationally designed, monodisperse pores. The uptake of specific guests by MOFs in the development of luminescent materials has potential for application in fluorescent sensing and in the development of next generation solid state lighting devices, guest-facilitated extension of the network in the remaining $c$ axis direction through an $R_2^2(12)$ motif. $^{26}$ The proximal $\text{N}3$ atom of one triazole ring faces in toward the pyridyl nitrogen atom as the former acts as a hydrogen bond acceptor for the carboxylic acid $\text{O}3$ hydrogen bond donor ($d(\text{D} \cdots \text{A})$ is 2.574(4) Å, $\angle(\text{O} \cdots \text{H} \cdots \text{O})$ is 173.7(2)$^\circ$); $d(\text{D} \cdots \text{A})$ is 2.665(4) Å, $\angle(\text{O} \cdots \text{H} \cdots \text{O})$ is 163.2(15)$^\circ$). The btp $\text{syn} \leftarrow \text{anti}$ orientation facilitates extension of the network in the remaining $c$ axis direction through an $R_2^2(12)$ motif. $^{26}$ The proximal $\text{N}5$ atom of one triazole ring faces toward the pyridyl nitrogen atom as the former acts as a hydrogen bond acceptor for the carboxylic acid $\text{O}3$ hydrogen bond donor ($d(\text{D} \cdots \text{A})$ is 2.664(4) Å, $\angle(\text{O} \cdots \text{H} \cdots \text{N})$ is 147.9(12)$^\circ$).

$\text{RESULTS AND DISCUSSION}$

The heteroaromatic btp ligand $\text{H}_3\text{L}$, the synthesis of which was previously reported as part of recent gelation studies with Eu(III), $^{12c}$ was crystallized by evaporation from CH$_3$OH. The diffraction data were collected, and the structure model was refined in the monoclinic $P2_1/c$ space group with one molecule in the asymmetric unit (Figure 1). Crystallographic refinement details can be found in Table 1. Powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) analysis confirmed the phase purity (Figure S28 in Supporting Information).

Figure 1. (left) X-ray crystal structure of tricarboxylic acid btp ligand $\text{H}_3\text{L}$ displaying a three-dimensional hydrogen bonded network. Hydrogen atoms not involved in hydrogen bonding interactions omitted for clarity. (right) Topology diagram for the cds network formed by $\text{H}_3\text{L}$ with each of the pink spheres representing the four connecting nodes defined by $\text{H}_3\text{L}$ molecules.

The pyridyl and two triazolyl units are essentially co-planar. The planar conformation of btp facilitates the $\pi \cdots \pi$ stacking interactions among molecules along the $b$ axis; the perpendicular distance between the parallel mean planes of btp cores is 3.290(3) Å. The benzoic acid arms adopt a trans-like conformation relative to the central btp core, facilitating packing along the $a$ and $b$ axes through two pairs of $R_2^2(8)$ cyclic carboxylic acid dimers per molecule $^{26}$ (the distances and angles for the two donor–acceptor pairs: $d(\text{D} \cdots \text{A})$ is 2.574(4) Å, $\angle(\text{O} \cdots \text{H} \cdots \text{O})$ is 173.7(2)$^\circ$; $d(\text{D} \cdots \text{A})$ is 2.665(4) Å, $\angle(\text{O} \cdots \text{H} \cdots \text{O})$ is 163.2(15)$^\circ$). The btp $\text{syn} \leftarrow \text{anti}$ orientation facilitates extension of the network in the remaining $c$ axis direction through an $R_2^2(12)$ motif. $^{26}$ The proximal $\text{N}3$ atom of one triazole ring faces in toward the pyridyl nitrogen atom as the former acts as a hydrogen bond acceptor for the carboxylic acid $\text{O}3$ hydrogen bond donor ($d(\text{D} \cdots \text{A})$ is 2.664(4) Å, $\angle(\text{O} \cdots \text{H} \cdots \text{N})$ is 147.9(12)$^\circ$). Simultaneously, the proximal $\text{N}5$ of the other triazole unit is rotated away from the pyridyl nitrogen atom, resulting in a hydrogen bonding interaction between the triazolyl C–H hydrogen bond donor and the 4-pyridyl carboxylic acid O4 acceptor ($d(\text{D} \cdots \text{A})$ is 3.075(4) Å, $\angle(\text{C} \cdots \text{H} \cdots \text{O})$ is 163.4(2)$^\circ$). This is, to the best of our knowledge, the first time this btp conformation has been observed in the crystalline phase, contrasting with the more common $\text{syn} \leftarrow \text{syn}$ orientation $^{11e,12c,15,17b,19}$ adopted when chelation of a metal ion occurs and the $\text{anti} \leftarrow \text{anti}$ conformation, $^{11e,12c,17b,19}$ which is observed for the unbound ligand.
Table 1. Crystallographic Refinement Details for H$_3$L and Compounds 1 and 2

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Each **btp** molecule is connected to four other neighboring molecules as a result of the hydrogen bonding, giving rise to an overall 4-fold interpenetrated three-dimensional extended structure (Figure S2). The nets are described by the cd$^6$s topology, where each H$_3$L molecule is defined as a 4-connecting node (Figure 1). In the idealized cd$^6$s topology, square planar nodes connect to orthogonally oriented square planar nodes. This is manifested in the crystal structure of H$_3$L by an ABAB packing fashion along the c axis with the mean planes defined by the atoms comprising the **btp** moieties in alternating A and B layers twisted relative to each other by an angle of 45.97(15)$^\circ$ (Figure S1), as opposed to 90$^\circ$ in the idealized cd$^6$s topology.

The crystal structure also shows that despite the symmetric nature of the ligand there was no disorder detected over the two triazole ring junctions, each Possessing 100% Occupancy in their respective orientations throughout the system. The study of the solid state structure of H$_3$L provides insights into the molecular geometry of such compounds known to form gels through similar hydrogen bonding interactions (the synthesis, morphological, and rheological studies of the hydrogen of H$_3$L have been previously reported as stated above).12c This is an area in which there is a large gap between design efforts and actual knowledge of the supramolecular structure of the gels (i.e., the molecular arrangement of gelator molecules within the gel fibers, the junction zones, etc.).

**Synthesis and Structure of Poly-[Zn$_7$L$_6$]·[H$_2$NMe$_2$]$_4$·(H$_2$O)$_{45}$ (1).** Faint yellow hexagonal crystals of 1 were obtained upon reaction of H$_3$L and zinc(II) nitrate hexahydrate in a mixture of 95:5 DMF/H$_2$O in a sealed vial heated to 100 °C. The reaction was complete after 40 h. A second crystalline phase (2) was present in the initial reaction mixture possessing Zn:HL (1:1) stoichiometry. Although 2 could be characterized crystallographically (Supporting Information), we were unable to reproducibly generate the phase selectively. Via optimization of the synthesis, such that the zinc(II) nitrate hexahydrate was present in slight excess (1.2 equiv), the coordination polymer with formula poly-[Zn$_7$L$_6$]·[H$_2$NMe$_2$]$_4$·(H$_2$O)$_{45}$ was exclusively produced in high yield as confirmed by powder XRD analysis (Figure S29). The asymmetric unit contains one molecule of L and two unique zinc sites; one of these sites is present at full crystallographic occupancy, while the other occupies a special position, with a total of 1$^{1/6}$ Zn atoms per molecule of L (i.e., Z’ = 0.16667).

There are four dimethylammonium cations, which could not be located crystallographically, for every Zn$_7$L$_6$ repeat unit for charge balance. The nature of the cations was instead ascertained using IR and NMR spectroscopy; in the IR spectrum of 1 after soaking with CH$_3$CN, a broad absorbance at 2977 cm$^{-1}$, typical for cationic ammonium N–H stretches, indicated the presence of dimethylammonium.29 The digestion of the crystals of 1 in deuterated TFA allowed the characteristic dimethylammonium proton resonances to be seen in the $^1$H NMR spectra at 2.89 ppm, integrating appropriately in a 4:4 ratio accounting for an L$_4$/dimethylammonium$_4$ stoichiometric ratio (Figures S12 and S13). The dimethylammonium cations most likely originate from in situ hydrolysis of the DMF solvent.30 The total contents of the channels of an air-dried sample of 1 were determined by the combination of thermogravimetric and elemental analysis, suggesting a void metric ratio (Figures S12 and S13). The dimethylammonium cations most likely originate from in situ hydrolysis of the DMF solvent.30 The total contents of the channels of an air-dried sample of 1 were determined by the combination of thermogravimetric and elemental analysis, suggesting a void metric ratio (Figures S12 and S13). The dimethylammonium cations most likely originate from in situ hydrolysis of the DMF solvent.30 The total contents of the channels of an air-dried sample of 1 were determined by the combination of thermogravimetric and elemental analysis, suggesting a void metric ratio (Figures S12 and S13). The dimethylammonium cations most likely originate from in situ hydrolysis of the DMF solvent.30 The total contents of the channels of an air-dried sample of 1 were determined by the combination of thermogravimetric and elemental analysis, suggesting a void metric ratio (Figures S12 and S13). The dimethylammonium cations most likely originate from in situ hydrolysis of the DMF solvent.30
The structural model for 1 was refined in the cubic Fd3m space group manifesting as a three-dimensional coordination polymer. The extended system is comprised of two distinct coordination environments (Figure 2); Zn1 displays a pseudo-

trigonal bipyramidal coordination environment as a result of the btp syn−syn chelation and the binding of two monodentate carboxylate oxygen atoms on the benzyl arms of two adjacent ligands.

The geometry of Zn1 shows some deviation from that of an idealized trigonal bipyramid with a value of $r_e = 0.72$. The basal plane of the coordination polyhedron consists of the pyridyl N4 atom and the pair of monodentate carboxylate oxygen atoms, O1 and O5, whereas the apical sites are occupied by the two proximal triazolyl nitrogen atoms, N3 and N5. The bite angles $\angle$(N3−Zn1−N4) and $\angle$(N4−Zn1−N5) are 76.6(2)$^\circ$ and 74.4(2)$^\circ$, respectively. The N4−Zn1 bond length is 2.081(6) Å, and the N−Zn distances are 2.158(6) and 2.206(6) Å for triazole atoms N3 and N5, respectively. The O1−Zn1 and O5−Zn1 bond lengths are 1.924(4) and 1.937(4) Å, respectively. The second unique Zn(II) coordination environment has an octahedral character and is coordinated by six monodentate carboxylate groups. This coordination environment is particularly unusual; crystallographically characterized examples of fully monodentate [Zn(RCOO)$_6$] centers have until now been reported in only homo- or heterometallic clusters featuring $\mu_2$-O$_2$O’ bridging to additional metal ions. This bridging is usually brought about by the formal 4− charge of the central coordination sphere. However, in the present case, the noncoordinating oxygen atoms are involved in C−H···O hydrogen bonding interactions with the nearby triazole C−H groups ($d$(C−H) 3.003(9) Å, $\angle$(C−H···O) is 149.1(4)$^\circ$), negating their ability to coordinate to an additional cation. The two C−O bonds are the same length within error, consistent with a fully ionic carboxylate rather than the more localized bonding mode observed in Zn1. This highly Lewis basic site is the most likely candidate for hydrogen bonding interactions with the intrinsically disordered dimethylammonium cations. A similar hydrogen bonding interaction also occurs involving the noncoordinating oxygen atoms from the Zn1 coordination sphere and is common for btp and other 1,2,3-triazole-containing species. The octahedral Zn2 node links six btp ligands, each coordinating through the 4-pyridyl carboxylate position. All six metal−ligand bonds are equivalent (the O1−Zn2 distance is 2.087(6) Å), as the Zn2 atom resides coincident with crystallographic improper rotation axes.

The intricate connectivity of btp and zinc ions within complex 1 makes direct comparison of the topology to a known three-dimensional net challenging. Avoiding the nontrivial trinodal 3,4,6-connected network described at by assigning nodes to each unique metal and ligand, we arrived at the most sensible topological description by assigning a six-connected node to the central octahedral zinc ion Zn2 which further encompasses all six of the coordinated ligand molecules and their btp-chelated Zn1 ions (Figure 3). With this description, the network “links” are simply the Zn−carboxylate bonds involving Zn1, and each of these nodes as defined above links to only six others. Any two adjacent nodes are linked to each other by 4 Zn−carboxylate links occurring through the pair of symmetry related Zn1−O1 and Zn1−O5 bonds (Figure S3). The resulting network topology, although somewhat esoteric, is described by the crs (cristobalite) net, equivalent to the augmented dia-e net. The six-connecting nodes result in a net of edge-sharing truncated tetrahedra ([3 4 6$^4$], purple) and smaller tetrahedra ([3$^3$], green). No interpenetration was evident in the structure of 1.

The crystal packing is dominated by rhomboidal cages connected face-to-face to four equivalent cages by the octahedral Zn2 centers (Figure S4). The remaining two faces, not occupied by Zn2 octahedral sites, are directed into the large solvent channels, which exist in all three dimensions (Figure S4).

A mixture of straight channels and undulated channels are interconnected; the three-dimensional network of pores, in total, account for approximately 45% of the total unit cell volume. It should be noted that, taking into account the dimethylammonium cations (64 of which per unit cell, which account for only ca. 2.5% of the total unit cell volume), the volume of these channels still allows for considerable solvent-accessible volume. These channels are irregularly hexagonal in nature and alternate between two distinct sizes, i.e., approximately 21 and 14 Å at their maximum edge-to-edge interatomic distances, respectively (Figure S5). The aromatic rings of the ligand benzoate arms dominate the makeup of the edges of the two differing hexagonal channels with the Zn1 centers at each of the six corners. Following the elucidation of the channel system in the structure of 1, we turned our attention to guest exchange studies.
Following CH₃CN exchange, the sample was activated at 100 °C, and gas adsorption experiments were also undertaken. The volatile mass loss (Figure S7) due to the shorter four week exchange with atmospheric water shows a lesser extent of solvent lability over an extended period. An intermediate stage of solvent exchange, predominantly of DMF, as observed by ¹H NMR of the digested fresh sample (Figure S13). There was a more substantial loss in mass for the freshly prepared sample but a lesser loss in mass for samples which were air-dried, indicative of the channel solvent being exchanged with water in the atmosphere. This observation explains why the thermal profiles of 1, regardless of initial solvent occupying the channels (DMF or MeCN), behave similarly after exposure to the atmosphere for an extended period. An intermediate stage of solvent exchange with atmospheric water shows a lesser extent of volatile mass loss (Figure S7) due to the shorter four week period of time it was in contact with the atmosphere. This observation that DMF solvent molecules had been exchanged with water molecules was corroborated after elemental analysis of the CH₃CN exchanged material showed a loss of crystallinity after drying (see Figure S30). This outcome is disappointing for a three-dimensional framework material; nonetheless, such instability can be rationalized as a consequence of the flexibility of the btp ligand supporting the bulk material and may also be related to the expected lability of the pivotal Zn² node.

Thermal and Gas Adsorption Studies. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) of freshly isolated 1 revealed a multistep desolvation profile upon heating in a nitrogen atmosphere (Figure S6). The freshly prepared, predominantly DMF-filled compound experienced a loss in mass between approximately 60 and 120 °C, which then flattened at 160 °C between 65% and 61% residual mass before another sharp decrease in mass occurred at 350 °C due to decomposition. The total loss in mass was approximately 39% (wt) in the 40 → 350 °C temperature range. After 1 was soaked in MeCN, a rapid loss in mass was observed beginning at room temperature and reaching a plateau at approximately 73% residual mass below 100 °C (Figure S7). From these data it can be concluded that the lattice solvent molecules in 1 are readily exchanged for the more volatile MeCN upon soaking.

The effect of exposing a sample of 1 to the atmosphere was also investigated using thermogravimetric analysis. The thermal profiles of samples of 1 which had been air-dried over the course of four months were strikingly similar (Figure S7) and in contrast to that of a freshly prepared sample comprised predominantly of DMF, as observed by ¹H NMR of the digested fresh sample (Figure S13). There was a more substantial loss in mass for the freshly prepared sample but a lesser loss in mass for samples which were air-dried, indicative of the channel solvent being exchanged with water in the atmosphere. This observation explains why the thermal profiles of 1, regardless of initial solvent occupying the channels (DMF or MeCN), behave similarly after exposure to the atmosphere for an extended period. An intermediate stage of solvent exchange with atmospheric water shows a lesser extent of volatile mass loss (Figure S7) due to the shorter four week period of time it was in contact with the atmosphere. This observation that DMF solvent molecules had been exchanged with water molecules was corroborated after elemental analysis of an air-dried sample, which indicated the presence of water within the channels and could not be suitably fitted due to DMF within the channels.

On the basis of the substantial capacity of 1 for neutral guest molecules, gas adsorption experiments were also undertaken. Following CH₃CN exchange, the sample was activated at 100 °C under dynamic vacuum overnight. Surprisingly, the CO₂ (273 K), H₂ (77K), and N₂ (77K) adsorption isotherms showed much lower than expected uptake for the thermally activated material (Figures S8–10), with a maximum loading of ~3.75 wt % CO₂ at 1 atm and 278 K and lower loadings for N₂ and H₂. These data suggest that the large and interconnected channels in the as-synthesized material are contracted or collapsed following evacuation. X-ray powder diffraction analysis of the CH₃CN exchanged material showed a loss of crystallinity after drying (see Figure S50). This outcome is disappointing for a three-dimensional framework material; nonetheless, such instability can be rationalized as a consequence of the flexibility of the btp ligand supporting the bulk material and may also be related to the expected lability of the pivotal Zn² node.

Cation Exchange Experiment. Due to the apparent reduction in free volume of 1 upon evacuation, an alternative investigation into the guest uptake properties was undertaken, taking advantage of the anionic framework of 1. It was found that soaking 1 in concentrated solutions of cationic dyes, such as ethidium bromide and methylene blue, for 3 days resulted in uptake of the dyes, evident from a color change observed in the individual crystals (Figure 5).

Figure 4. (left) Perspective view of the solvent channels in the crystal structure of 1, with the hydrogen atoms omitted for clarity. (right) Perspective view of the solvent-accessible surface (blue) highlighting the channels that exist in a single unit cell.

Figure 5. Optical microscope photographs of crystals of 1 (A) before cation exchange and after cation exchange with (B) ethidium bromide and (C) methylene blue.
upon addition the supernatant took on the color of the escaping dye molecules as they were exchanged with the TEA cations. Specific aliquots of the supernatant solution were taken at defined time intervals, and the indicative absorbance was recorded. In each case, the dye-loaded samples showed a release of the respective dye molecule into the supernatant. The absorbance plot and release profile for methylene blue are shown in Figure 6.

Bands at 204 and 247 nm did not undergo any significant changes indicative of the excess TEAI in the solution mixture, while the absorbance of the bands at 293 and 655 nm increased as the methylene blue guest molecules were liberated from the solid. The concentration increased substantially until between 90 and 120 min after the TEAI solution was added, and at this point no further increase was observed. The changes in the absorption spectrum could be quantified using the measured extinction coefficient of methylene blue in CH$_3$CN, measured in a 16.4 mM solution of TEAI in CH$_3$CN ($\varepsilon_{\text{max}} = 37,000$, 655 (77,000)). The amount of methylene blue dye released from the first TEAI soaking corresponds to 23% of the total cationic species required for charge balance within the framework. Further release of dye was observed when a fresh solution of TEAI (3 mL) was added to the same sample of 1 after removal of the original supernatant (Figure S17), and the release was at its maximum between 100 and 150 min after which no further substantial increase was observed. It was calculated from this that a further 8% of dye had been exchanged. A third replacement of the supernatant with a fresh solution of TEAI in CH$_3$CN gave rise to a further release of 4% of dye (Figure S18). In each case, the blue color of the crystals remained evident following soaking, indicating that complete removal of the dye guest was not forthcoming under these conditions. The same cation exchange was carried out with ethidium bromide solution in CH$_3$CN (Figure S19). Approximately 9% of the total cationic species, in the form of the ethidium cation, was released when TEAI solution was added. The samples were then digested in deuterated TFA; the $^1$H resonance of 2.91 ppm indicative of the dimethylammonium cation was not observed in the dye-soaked, TEAI-exchanged samples (Figure S14). The small amount of methylene blue and ethidium bromide still present in the samples accounted for the release of blue and red colors, respectively, into solution upon digestion of the crystals in TFA-$d_1$. In particular, the residual methylene blue was evidenced by the diagnostic methyl resonance at 3.59 ppm (Figure S15) which integrated to 0.4 proton per L, equating to <10% of the total cationic species. This also contributes to the explanation of why the total amount of methylene blue released by exchange with TEAI solution was observed to be less than the total possible. However, the most contributory factor to the total release of methylene blue, accounting for only approximately ca. 35% of the amount expected, is most likely the less than complete exchange of the dimethylammonium cation. However, the remaining dimethylammonium was efficiently replaced by TEA during the second cation exchange step. Integration of the $^1$H NMR resonance...
indicative of a TEA cation at 3.29 and 1.38 ppm shows the exchange with methylene blue, and any original dimethylammonium was almost quantitative, i.e., 6:4 (L/TEA) ratio evidenced by peaks $\epsilon_1$, and 2 integrating in a 1:1:33:2 ratio (Figure S15).

The smaller volume of the TEA cation and higher concentration of the stock solution used relative to methylene blue most likely account for the more favorable uptake by 1. For this same reason, methylene blue was less efficient compared to TEA in the replacement of the dimethylammonium cation initially but was more favorable than the substantially larger ethidium cation. Although complete exchange of the lattice cations in 1 with larger cations was not observed, the uptake of up to 35% of methylene blue, and complete exchange for tetraethylammonium, is an encouraging observation for the use of 1 as a cation exchange material and implies the retention of a considerable solvent-accessible volume.

**Spectroscopic Monitoring of Ln(III) Exchange and Sensitization Studies.** It is well-known that the btp terdentate motif is capable of sensitizing Ln(III) luminescent states$^{11e,15a,16,19c}$ with some reports achieving photoluminescence quantum yields of 70% in CH$_3$CN solution. With this in mind, and encouraged by the ability of 1 to readily undergo cation exchange, we treated a sample of 1 which had been previously soaked in CH$_3$CN initially with Eu(CF$_3$SO$_3$)$_3$ 6H$_2$O solution in CH$_3$CN, containing 0.16 equiv of Eu(III) with respect to 1. Sensitization of Eu(III) by 1 occurred immediately, evidenced by the characteristic red phosphorescence emitted from the crystals of 1 under UV radiation at 365 nm, which was clearly visible to the naked eye as demonstrated in Figure 7. It should be noted that prior to exchange with Ln(III) ions, the as-synthesized 1 did not display any measurable luminescence whatsoever, despite using a range of UV excitation wavelengths. The phosphorescence changes were also monitored at specific time intervals (Figure 7).

Eu(III) centered phosphorescence intensity plateaued when 1 was treated with dilute Eu(CF$_3$SO$_3$)$_3$ 6H$_2$O in CH$_3$CN (1 mL, 0.16 equiv, 0.32 equiv with respect to 1). Upon addition of more concentrated solutions (1 mL, 3.5 equiv with respect to 1) further increases in phosphorescence intensity were observed over time. It should be noted that the absolute phosphorescence intensities could not be quantitatively determined as a function of time due to the unpredictable scattering and packing effects of the solid materials. Nonetheless, we observed an unmistakable qualitative increase in overall phosphorescence intensity (further details of the Eu(III) sensitization experiment can be found in the Supporting Information). The lanthanide emission was shown to be rapidly quenched upon addition of TEA in CH$_3$CN solution (6.39 mM, 1 mL) (Figure S27). This is a result of the rapid displacement of the cationic Eu(III) ions by the TEA cations.

The same experiment was carried out with Tb(III) by treating a sample of 1 which had been previously soaked in CH$_3$CN with a Tb(CF$_3$SO$_3$)$_3$ 6H$_2$O solution in CH$_3$CN (0.16 equiv with respect to 1). Immediately, sensitization of Tb(III) occurred, which was evidenced by the characteristic green phosphorescence emitted from the crystals of 1 under UV radiation at 365 nm, as shown in Figure 8.

As before, the Tb(III) emission changes were monitored at specific time intervals showing an increase in Tb(III) centered phosphorescence over time. To begin, a dilute solution of Tb(III) was added (1 mL, 0.16 equiv with respect to 1), and as in the case of the Eu(III), upon addition of more concentrated solutions (3.5 equiv with respect to 1) further increases in the phosphorescence intensity were observed over time (further details of the Tb(III) sensitization experiment can be found in the Supporting Information, including blending of the red and green colors emitting from 1). It was also investigated if there was any leeching of ligand from the extended structure of 1 by taking UV–vis spectra of the supernatants of each sample. There was no indication of btp absorption bands observed (Figure S25 (left)). We also concluded that the metal centered phosphorescence was produced exclusively by the crystals after it was confirmed there was no phosphorescence observed from the supernatants when crystals of 1-Eu and 1-Tb were not in the beam path (Figure S25 (right)).

Radiative lifetime studies were also carried out, displaying bi-exponential radiative decay curves indicative of two Eu(III) environments and two Tb(III) environments in 1-Eu and 1-Tb, respectively. The observed radiative lifetimes had values on average of $\tau_1 = 0.48(01)$ ms and $\tau_2 = 1.91(10)$ ms for the Eu(III) species and on average of $\tau_1 = 0.92(01)$ ms and $\tau_2 = 4.45(14)$ ms for the Tb(III) species. A summary of the observed lifetimes is presented in Table S1 of the Supporting Information.

**CONCLUSION**

A three-dimensional anionic coordination polymer, 1, with the formula $\text{[Zn}_7\text{L}_6\text{(H}_2\text{NMe}_2)_4\text{(H}_2\text{O)}_{45}]$ derived from a semi-flexible tricarboxylic acid btp ligand was synthesized in good yield with excellent bulk purity achieved. A second crystalline phase, 2, which was present as a byproduct in initial attempts, was successfully removed through synthetic optimization. The extended structure of 1 was characterized using conventional methods: single crystal and powder X-ray diffraction analysis and gas adsorption studies together with thermogravimetric and elemental analysis. A crystal structure of the btp ligand, H$_3$L, was also obtained, displaying a three-dimensional hydrogen bonding network. While a reduction in void volume was observed following the complete evacuation of 1, efficient guest exchange was observed in solution, using cationic dye molecules as probes. Uptake and sensitization of Eu(III) and Tb(III) within the framework of 1 was also achieved. These observations demonstrate the potential of materials exhibiting poor structural resilience to complete evacuation, such as 1, as nonetheless useful cation exchange matrices for the develop-
ment of functional luminescent materials. Efforts are currently being made to appropriately tune the uptake of various luminescent guests by I in the pursuit of customizable white light emitting materials.

**EXPERIMENTAL SECTION**

**Materials and Methods.** All solvents and chemicals were purchased from commercial sources and used without further purification.

Melting points were determined using an Electrothermal IA9000 digital melting point apparatus and are uncorrected. Infrared spectra were recorded on a PerkinElmer Spectrum One FT-IR spectrometer equipped with a universal ATR sampling accessory. Thermogravi-
metric analysis was performed on a PerkinElmer Pyris 1 TGA instrument equipped with an ultramicrobalance with a sensitivity of 0.1 μg. The temperature range was from 25 to 500 °C with a scan rate of 5 °C/min (Figures S6 and S7). Emission (fluorescence, phosphorescence, and excitation) spectra and lifetimes were recorded on a Varian Cary Eclipse Fluorimeter at 298 K. Phosphorescence data were collected between 570 and 720 nm for Eu(III) emission and between 565 and 575 nm for Tb(III) emission with a measurement delay time of 0.1 ms. Phosphorescence lifetimes of the Ln(III) excited states were measured in the time-resolved mode at 298 K. Elemental analysis was carried out on an Exeter Analytical CE440 elemental analyzer at the microanalysis laboratory at the School of Chemistry and Chemical Biology, University College Dublin. Phase purity of all crystalline materials was confirmed with X-ray powder diffraction patterns recorded with a Bruker D2 Phaser instrument using Cu Kα (λ = 1.5405 Å) radiation. Samples were finely ground and applied to a quartz sample holder. Data were measured at room temperature in the 2θ range of 5−55° in 0.01° increments with concurrent rotation in φ of 1 rpm. Additional X-ray powder diffraction data for I were collected at 100 K on a Bruker Apex-II Duo instrument using Cu Kα radiation in the 2θ range of 2−55° and converted to θ vs intensity data by integration of Debye rings obtained from the area detector data. Raw data were compared with the simulated patterns from the single crystal X-ray crystallographic data collected at 100 K (Figures S28, S29, and S33). Gas sorption isotherms were measured using a Quantachrome Autosorb IQ gas sorption analyzer. Chemically pure (CP, N4,5 grade) He, N2, H2, and CO2 gases were used for the measurements.

**Crystallography.** Single crystal X-ray data for H3L were collected at 100 K on a Rigaku AFC12 goniometer equipped with an enhanced sensitivity (HG) Saturn 72+ detector mounted at the window of an FR-E+ Superbright Mo Kα rotating anode generator (λ = 0.71075 Å) with HF varimax optics. Unit cell parameters were refined against all data and an empirical absorption correction applied in CrystalClear. The data for H3L were solved by direct methods using SHELXS-2013 and refined on F2 by SHELXL-2013 using ShelXle. Hydrogen atoms (except OH protons which were found from the difference map and then fixed with U(eq) = 1.2Ueq(O)) were positioned geometrically and refined using a riding model with d(CH) = 0.95 Å, Ueq = 1.2Ueq(C) for aromatic protons, d(CH) = 0.99 Å, Ueq = 1.2Ueq(C) for CH2. All non-hydrogen atoms were refined anisotropically.

X-ray data for I and 2 were collected on a Bruker APEX-II DUO diffractometer using microfocus Cu Kα (λ = 1.5405 Å) radiation. All data collections were carried out using standard ω and φ scans at 100 K with temperature control provided by a Cobra cryostream. The data were reduced and multiscan absorption corrections applied using SADABS within the Bruker APEX3 software suite. All data sets were solved with direct methods using SHELXS and refined on F2 by full-matrix least-squares procedures with SHELXL-2014 within the OLEX-2 GUI. All non-hydrogen atoms were freely refined with anisotropic displacement parameters, while hydrogen atoms were assigned to geometric positions and refined with a riding model with U(eq) equivalent to 1.2 or 1.5 times the isotropic equivalent of the carrier atom. The data sets for I and 2 contained regions of diffuse electron density consistent with delocalized lattice solvent molecules. The diffuse electron density regions’ scattering contribution to the measured structure factors was accounted for using SQUEEZE allowing for more representative refinement statistics for the framework atoms. The solvent channel contents were ascertained using TGA, NMR, and elemental analysis, and a discussion of the correlation of each with the SQUEEZE calculations can be found in the Supporting Information.

**Synthetic Procedures.** Synthesis of H3L. Synthesis of H3L was carried out according to a literature procedure. Synthesis of Poly-[ZnL]·[H2NMe2]2·(H2O)45 (1). To a 95-5 DMF/H2O mixture (1 mL) were added H3L (15 mg, 0.029 mmol, 1 equiv) and zinc(II) nitrate hexahydrate (11 mg, 0.036 mmol, 1.2 equiv), and the mixture was sealed and heated at 100 °C for 40 h. The resulting faint yellow crystals were isolated by filtration, washed with DMF, and dried under suction: 13 mg, 0.021 mmol, 72%; mp 348 °C (Figure S29).

**Synthesis of Poly-[ZnHL] (2).** Compound 2 formed as a side-product impurity in the synthesis of 1. It was characterized by single crystal and powder X-ray diffraction analysis. There were difficulties in optimizing the synthetic conditions required to produce pure phase 2. Ensuring there was a slight excess of zinc(II) nitrate hexahydrate (1.2 equiv with respect to H3L) gave rise to pure phase 1.

**ASSOCIATED CONTENT**

**Supporting Information**

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acs.inorgchem.8b00080.

Crystallography, thermogravimetric analysis, gas adsorption studies, IR data, modeled solvent channel occupancies, NMR data, cation exchange experiments, Ln(III) sensitization studies, and powder XRD and structural studies of second crystallographic phase poly-[Zn(HL)] (2) (PDF)

**Accession Codes**

CCDC 1582309–1582311 contain the supplementary crystallographic data for this paper. These data can be obtained free of charge via www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk/data_request/cif, or by emailing data_request@ccdc.cam.ac.uk, or by contacting The Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre, 12 Union Road, Cambridge CB2 1EZ, UK; fax: +44 1223 336033.

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Notes
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