Yao Chen and Shengqian Ma* **Microporous lanthanide metal-organic frameworks**

Abstract: Microporous metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) based on lanthanide metal ions or clusters represent a group of porous materials, featuring interesting coordination, electronic, and optical properties. These attractive properties in combination with the porosity make microporous lanthanide MOFs (Ln-MOFs) hold the promise for various applications. This review is to provide an overview of the current status of the research in microporous Ln-MOFs, and highlight their potential as types of multifunctional materials for applications in gas/solvent adsorption and separation, luminescence and chemical sensing and catalysis.

 Keywords: catalysis; gas adsorption; lanthanide MOF; luminescence; microporous; sensor.

Yao Chen: Department of Chemistry, University of South Florida, 4202 E. Fowler Avenue, Tampa, FL 33620, USA

Introduction

 Microporous lanthanide metal-organic frameworks (Ln-MOFs) continue to attract an escalating attention in the MOF research area, owing to their unique optical, magnetic properties and characteristic coordination preferences of lanthanide metal ions and related clusters. Compared with first-row transition metal ions, they usually exhibit high coordination number and connectivity, which could facilitate the formation of stable three-dimensional networks. The lanthanide-based luminescence has been of intense interest over decades. However, the luminescence studies of Ln-MOFs have largely been conducted until recently. Compared with the discrete molecular lanthanide complexes, Ln-MOFs are attractive because of their high thermal stability and high luminescence output. Luminescence can be enhanced by both the lanthanide metal centers and the organic linker. The quantum yield, intensity and brightness can also be increased by the antenna effect, which could be induced by the interaction between the metal and ligand (Moore et al. 2009, Rocha et al. 2011). In addition, the microporosity of Ln-MOFs offers the opportunity for fine-tuning of the luminescence behavior by trapping molecules in the framework to influence the lanthanide emission, and the relative high surface areas of microporous Ln-MOFs also suggest it could serve both as a preconcentrator and detection medium. Therefore, chemical sensing represents a promising application of Ln-MOFs. Microporous Ln-MOFs are also promising candidates for heterogeneous catalysis application, since lanthanide ions have a flexible coordination sphere and can create coordinatively unsaturated metal centers, and the high surface areas of them represent another advantage benefiting their catalytic performances. Additionally, the permanent microporosity, together with tunable pore sizes of Ln-MOFs, affords them potential for applications in gas/solvent storage or separation. Indeed, over the past decade, a remarkable amount of effort has been dedicated to developing microporous Ln-MOFs as types of multifunctional materials for various applications (Table 1) (Reineke et al. 1999, Snejko et al. 2002, Wang et al. 2002, 2008, 2011, Deluzet et al. 2003, Ghosh and Bharadwaj 2004, Zhao et al. 2004, Chen et al. 2005, Guo et al. 2005, 2006a, Gándara et al. 2007, Rieter et al. 2007, Huang et al. 2009, Kostakis et al. 2009, Liao et al. 2009, Lim et al. 2009, Rocha et al. 2009, White et al. 2009b, Zhao et al. 2009a,b,c,d, Han et al. 2010, Jiang et al. 2010a, Khan et al. 2010, Lan et al. 2010, Lee et al. 2010, Lin et al. 2010, Pereira et al. 2010, Silva et al. 2010, Cai et al. 2011, Datcu et al. 2011, Gu et al. 2011, Liu et al. 2011, Nayak et al. 2011, Sun et al. 2011, Yang et al. 2011a, Knope et al. 2012).

 The aim of this review is to give a broad overview of recent developments of functional microporous Ln-MOFs, with focus on their interesting properties and potential applications, such as gas/solvent adsorption and separation, luminescence and chemical sensing, and catalysis.

^{*}Corresponding author: Shengqian Ma, Department of Chemistry, University of South Florida, 4202 E. Fowler Avenue, Tampa, FL 33620 , USA, e-mail: sqma@usf.edu

(*Table 1 continued*)

Table 1 Properties and potential applications for selected lanthanide metal-organic frameworks (MOFs).

TATB, 4,4',4"-s-triazine-2,4,6-triyl-tribenzoate; BDC, 1,4-benzenedicarboxylate; BTC, 1,3,5-benzenetricarboxylate NDC, 2,6-naphthalenedicarboxylate; 1,5-NDS, 1,5-naphthalenedisulfonate; 2,6-NDS, 2,6-naphthalenedisulfonate; H₂pvdc, 4,4-[(2,5-dimethoxy-1,4-phenylene)di-2,1-ethenediyl]bisbenzoic acid; H₂cmp, (carboxymethyl)iminodi(methylphosphonic acid); BPT, biphenyl-3,4′,5-tricarboxylate; BTB, 1,3,5-benzenetrisbenzoate; H₂hfipbb, 4,4′-(hexafluoroisopropylidene)bis(benzoic acid); N-H₂BDC, 2-amino-1,4-benzenedicarboxylic acid; H_shedp, etidronic acid; H₂pydc, 2,5-pyridinedicarboxylic acid; ntb, tris-(benzimidazol-2-ylmethyl) amine; pdc, pyridine-2,6-dicarboxylate; pda, 1,4-phenylenediacetate; TDC, thiophene- 2,5-dicarboxylate; TTP, 1,1',1"-(2,4,6-trimethylbenzene-1,3,5-triyl)tris(methylene)tripyridinium-4-olate; H₂ATPT, 2-aminoterephthalic acid; phen, 1,1'-phenanthroline; H₂phenDCA, 1,1'-phenanthroline-2,9-dicarboxylic acid; dhbdc, benzene-2,5-dihydroxy-1,4-dicarboxylate; m-BDTH₂, 1,3-benzeneditetrazol-5-yl; CTC, cis, cis-1,3,5-cyclohexanetricarboxylic acid; H₃TPO, tris-(4-carboxylphenyl)phosphineoxide; IDC , imidazole-4,5-dicarboxylate; TDA , thiophene-2,5-dicarboxylic acid anion; AQDS , anthraquinone-2,6-disulfonate; bpdc, 4,4′-biphenyldicarboxylic acid; H₃ImDC, 4,5-imidazoledicarboxylic acid; H₃PPA, phosphonoacetic acid; H₂pzdc, pyrazinedicarboxylic acid; OBA, 4,4′-oxybis(benzoate); Hcbmp, 2-(carboxylic acid)-6-(2-benzimidazolyl) pyridine; hpzc, 3-hydroxypyrazine-2-carboxylate; PTMTC, polychlorotriphenylmethyl tricarboxylate radical.

Gas/solvent adsorption of microporous Ln-MOFs

 Porous MOFs possess some merits which are beneficial for gas/solvent sorption application, such as high surface areas (Férey 2008), uniform and tunable pore sizes. In addition, a variety of chemical compositions and topologies allow the optimization of adsorption properties via rational design and syntheses of targeted MOFs (Ma et al. 2010). To this point, microporous Ln-MOFs have recently been explored for applications in gas/solvent adsorption.

 Among different types of organic ligands employed for the construction of Ln-MOFs, carboxylate-based linkers are of particular interest due to their high propensity to afford porous structures. Utilizing some polytopic carboxylates, Rosi et al. designed and synthesized a series of Ln-MOFs with rod packing motifs. Among those structures, Tb-1,3,5-benzenetricarboxylate (Tb-BTC, MOF-76) demonstrated permanent microporosity and molecular sieving behaviors, as revealed from the sorption isotherms of different gas/solvent molecules (N_2 , Ar, CH₂Cl₂, C₆H₆, C_6H_{12}). The rod shaped secondary building units (SBUs) play a role of efficiently preventing the interpenetration, thus enabling accessible porosity of MOF-76 (Rosi et al. 2005). Also, using BTC ligand, Luo et al. prepared a porous rare-earth MOF, Y-BTC [Y(BTC)(H₂O)·4.3H₂O], under solvothermal conditions (Luo et al. 2008). This Y-MOF possesses tetragonal pores with a size of approximately 6 Å , and it exhibited highly selective sorption behavior of

dihydrogen over dinitrogen. The pore size of ∼ 6 Å has been suggested to maximize the interactions between the H , molecules and the pore walls, thus leading to a high volumetric hydrogen uptake capacity of 28.8 g/L at 77 K and 10 bar. Because of the similarity of lanthanide metal ions, a series of isostructural microporous Ln-MOFs enantiomers, $Ln(BTC)(H₂O)$ ·[dimethylformamide DMF)]_{1,1} (Ln=Y, Tb Dy, Er and Yb) with interesting (6,6)-connected topology were reported by Jiang et al. (2010a). These Ln-MOF structures feature free windows of 6~7 Å with accessible exposed metal sites, and exhibited moderate surface areas but high thermal stability (over 450°C) (Figure 1). Another interesting example of BTC-based Ln-MOF is $Dy(BTC)(H_2O)\cdot DMF$, reported by Guo et al. (2006a). The dissociation of the guest and terminal coordinated molecules in the Dy-BTC MOF rendered the permanent porosity and accessible Lewis acid sites, which afforded interesting performances in hydrogen adsorption, sensing, and catalysis. Extending the BTC ligand to the 1,3,5-benzenetrisbenzoate (BTB) ligand, Devic et al. (2005) reported a 3D microporous Ln-MOF, MIL 103 [Tb(BTB)($\rm H_2O$) \cdot 2(C₆H₁₂O)] and the guestfree MIL-103 exhibited a typical type I isotherm, with a Langmuir surface area over 1000 m^2g^1 and pore size larger than 10 \AA (Figure 2).

 The porosity of MOFs plays an important role in their properties (such as gas/solvent adsorption, catalysis, sensing or drug delivery), and the extension of ligand length has been widely used to increase the porosity, but sometimes may lead to interpenetration of the frameworks. The control of interpenetration using different strategies

Figure 1 Nitrogen gas adsorption isotherm at 77 K for MIL-103 degassed overnight at 150°C. P/P_0 is the ratio of gas pressure (P) to saturation pressure $(P_0 = 750 \text{ mm Hg})$. *V* is the adsorbed volume. [Reprinted with permission from Jiang et al. (2010), Copyright © 2010 American Chemical Society.]

has been reported, and recently also extended to Ln-MOFs (Kondo et al. 2000, Rosi et al. 2005, Ma et al. 2007, Ma and Lin 2008, Shekhah et al. 2009, Zhang et al. 2009, Farha et al. 2010). He et al. reported the first example of the control of interpenetration in Ln-MOFs (He et al. 2010). They constructed a series of porous noninterpenetrated Ln-MOFs $[Er_{2}(BDC)_{3}(phen)_{2} \cdot 3H_{2}O, Tm_{2}(TBDC)_{3}(DMF)_{2}(H_{2}O)_{2} \cdot 4H_{2}O$ and $\text{Er}_{2}(\text{TBDC})_{3}(\text{phen})_{2}$ -4 DMF-2H_{2} O], by using a sterically bulky ligand and a terminal chelating ligand to replace BDC and coordinated solvent molecules (Scheme 1). The sterically

Figure 2 (A) Left-handed and right-handed helical chains along the c-axis in enantiomers. (B) View of the 3D structure with P4322 space group along the c-axis, exhibiting 1D helical channels of about 6-7 Å for each side, and accessible Ln^{3+} sites can be obtained after removing the coordinated aqua molecules, which are denoted as green. The H atoms and free dimethylformamide (DMF) molecules are omitted for clarity; Ln, O, and C atoms are drawn as blue, red, and gray circles, respectively. [Reprinted with permission from Devic et al. (2005), Copyright © 2005 American Chemical Society.]

Scheme 1 Schematic representation of the interpenetrating net (left) and the noninterpenetrating net constructed with an organic ligand with a large steric-hindrance group (right). [Reprinted with permission from He et al. (2010), Copyright © 2010 American Chemical Society.]

bulky groups from the ligands not only prevented the interpenetration of the frameworks, but also facilitated the generation of microporous Ln-MOFs with wavy channels and a limited aperture for passage of guest molecules, which lead to selective gas sorption properties via the molecular sieving effect.

 Although interpenetration could reduce the porosity, it may increase the wall thickness and constrict the pore size of the framework, thus resulting in enhancement of thermal stability. This has been exemplified by a doubly interpenetrated microporous framework, PCN-17, which was synthesized and characterized by Zhou and co-workers for selective gas adsorption applications (Ma et al. 2008). The lanthanide ytterbium ion was used to coordinate with H_3TATB (TATB=4,4',4"-S-triazine-2,4,6triyl tribenzoate) ligand to form PCN-17 $(\text{Yb}_{4}(\mu_{4}-\text{H}_{2}\text{O})$ $(C_{24}H_{12}N_3O_6)_{8/3}(SO_4)_2$ 3H₂O 10DMSO) in DMSO at 145^oC for 72 h. The sulfate bridging ligand was used to coordinatively link the doubly interpenetrated frameworks and further reduce the pore size (Figure 3). Therefore, the framework possesses ultramicropores with pore sizes around 3.5 Å (excluding van der Waals radii) and demonstrated high thermal stability of up to ~480 °C, which could be attributed to the coordinatively linked interpenetration in the microporous 3D framework (Scheme 2). In addition, PCN-17 exhibited uncommon selective adsorption of O_2 over N_2 , H_2 over CO, and H_2 over N_2 (Figure 4), which originates from the molecular sieving effect exerted by the small pore size (\sim 3.5 Å). The same group also extended this system to other lanthanide metal ions, and constructed a series of isostructural microporous Ln-MOFs: $PCN-17(Dy)$, $PCN-17(Er)$, $PCN-17(Y)$, and $PCN-17(Y)$ 17(Yb) with similar coordinatively linked interpenetration (Ma et al. 2009). The shrinking of their unit cell parameters followed the lanthanide contraction trend. TGA profiles indicated that these Ln-MOFs possess high thermal

Figure 3 (A) A single (8,3)-net. (B) Doubly interpenetrated nets. (C) Through sulfate bridges coordinatively linked interpenetrated framework (yellow spheres represent sulfur and red spheres represent the square-planar SBU). [Reprinted with permission from Ma et al. (2008), Copyright © 2008, Wiley-VCH.]

stability (up to 550° C), and that all of these Ln-MOFs possess confined pore sizes, which afford interesting selective gas adsorption properties.

Scheme 2 (A) A single net. (B) Two doubly interpenetrated nets. (C) Interpenetrated nets linked by a coordinative bond. The vertical gold dotted line represents a $π$ - $π$ interaction; the blue solid line represents coordinative bonding. [Reprinted with permission from Ma et al. (2008), Copyright © 2008, Wiley-VCH.]

Figure 4 Gas-adsorption isotherms of the activated PCN-17. (A) CO₂ at 195 K; (B) H_{2} , O₂, N₂, and CO at 77 K (for H₂, P₀ represents a relative standard; STP: standard temperature and pressure..). [Reprinted with permission from Ma et al. (2008), Copyright © 2008, Wiley-VCH.]

 Owing to different intermolecular forces in the precursor solution, such as ionic interactions, hydrogen bonding, and π - π interactions, MOFs can easily aggregate to form amorphous particles or condensed solids without porosity during the reaction processes. The utilization of a structure-directing agent such as a template for the arrangement of different components into long-range ordered frameworks, or for the construction of the porous structures, represents a way to control the structure and porosity of MOFs (de Lill et al. 2005, Ni et al. 2006, Taylor et al. 2008a,b, deKrafft et al. 2009, Liang et al. 2009, McHale et al. 2010, Tanaka et al. 2010). However, this strategy faces the challenge of maintaining the integrity and the porosity of the structure after removal of the template molecules which are encapsulated in the crystal lattice. Recently, a templatefree, coordination-directed assembly method was proposed by Zhang et al. for synthesis and stabilization of porous Ln-MOFs (Ln=Eu, Gd, Yb) (Zhang et al. 2011). The Ln-MOFs were synthesized using a series of different π -conjugated dicarboxylate ligands with different alkyl side-chains (L1-L8) (Scheme 3). The functionalization of ligands by long alkyl side chains has been proven to be an effective strategy to prevent the aggregation of

 Scheme 3 Chemical structures of the ligands with different π -conjugation lengths and side chains. [Reprinted with permission from Zhang et al. (2011), Copyright © 2011, Wiley-VCH.]

the Ln-MOF nanoparticles and lead to a more crystalline structure (Figure 5). Those Ln-MOFs indicated excellent porosity with large windows, which endow them potential for various applications.

 Besides porosity, the enhancement of the heats of adsorption is another critical component in improving gas adsorption performances (e.g., H_2 , CO₂) of Ln-MOFs at ambient temperature. It has been well established

Figure 5 (A) SEM and TEM (inset) images of Eu-L1. (B) HRTEM side view of a representative Eu-L1 particle showing the ordered nanochannels. (C) XRD data of Eu-L1 (black) and Eu-Gd-Yb-L1 (blue) nanoparticles. Inset: schematic illustration showing the relationship between the lattice constant a and d_{100} of the hexagonal packed pattern. (D) HRTEM image of an Eu-Gd-Yb-L1 nanoparticle, inset: magnified view of the hexagonal packed pores. (E) EDAX data measured by STEM mode. The data are collected from the region marked with a red square. [Reprinted with permission from Zhang et al. (2011), Copyright © 2011, Wiley-VCH.]

that coordinatively unsaturated metal sites can provide stronger binding for gas molecules than H-bonding interactions or dispersion forces, and the immobilization of unsaturated metal centers into porous frameworks has been extensively explored to increase the gas uptake capacities of MOFs. Mohapatra et al. (2009) reported the embedding of alkali metal ions into a 3D Ln-MOF $\{ [\text{KHo} (\text{C}_{2}\text{O}_{4})_{2} (\text{H}_{2}\text{O}_{4}] \text{n} \}$ (Figure 6), which exhibited permanent porosity with size selective vapor adsorption properties and high storage capabilities for H_2 and CO_2 after the removal of the K-bound water aqua ligands. As a result of the exposure of the unsaturated K-sites on the pore surfaces, the Ln-MOF indicated high heats of adsorption for $H₂$ (approx. -10 kJ/mol).

Luminescence and sensing

 Lanthanide metal ions feature their intricate and characteristic optical properties due to the gradual filling of their 4f orbitals (Table 2) (Binnemans 2009, Eliseeva and Bünzli 2010) from $4f^0$ to $4f^{14}$, which generates a variety of electronic levels (Figure 7). The light-emitting properties of Ln^{3+} make $Ln-MOFs$ hold the promise for the development of light-emitting devices and tunable luminescent sensors.

Luminescence of microporous Ln-MOFs

 Although the lanthanide-based luminescence has been intensively exploited over decades, luminescent Ln-MOFs are still at the early stage of development (Cui et al. 2012). There are several features which distinguish microporous Ln-MOFs from other luminescent materials. Owing to the electronic $[Xe]4f^n$ configurations $(n=0-14)$ of Ln³⁺, a rich variety of electronic levels can be generated and the energies are well defined due to the shielding of the 4f orbitals by the filled $5s^25p^6$ subshells (Figure 7). Therefore, lanthanide metal ions are less sensitive to the chemical environments in which the lanthanide ions are inserted. As a corollary, each Ln^{3+} exhibits narrow and recognizable 4f-4f transitions. Most lanthanide ions can generate luminescent emissions from ultraviolet (UV) to visible and near-infrared (NIR) ranges (Table 3) (Bünzli et al. 2010). Moreover, lanthanide metal ions exhibit long lifetimes of the excited state, which enables the applications of time-resolved detection or luminescence microscopy (Connally and Piper 2008).

 However, due to the forbidden f-f transitions, the direct excitation of lanthanide ions can only provide weak light adsorption, which is a drawback for the applications of lanthanide luminescence. Ln-MOFs offer a variety of

Figure 6 $\,$ (A) View of the coordination environment of Ho<code>II</code> and <code>K</code> in {KHo(C₂O,)2(H₂O),}n (1). (B) View of the 3D framework of 1 showing square shaped channel along the crystallographic c axis. (D) View of the 3D framework along parallel to a-axis showing small channels. K-bound water molecules were removed. [Reprinted with permission from Mohapatra et al. (2009), Copyright © 2009 American Chemical Society.]

Element	Symbol	Atomic number (Z)	Configuration Ln^{3+}	Ground state Ln ³⁺
Lanthanum	La	57	[Xe]	${}^{1}S_{0}$
Cerium	Ce	58	[Xe]4f ¹	$^2\mathsf{F}_{5/2}$
Praseodymium	Pr	59	[Xe]4f ²	${}^{3}H_{4}$
Neodymium	Nd	60	[Xe]4f ³	$^{4}I_{9/2}$
Promethium	Pm	61	[Xe]4f ⁴	5 ¹ ₄
Samarium	Sm	62	[Xe]4f ⁵	${}^6H_{5/2}$
Europium	Eu	63	[Xe]4f ⁶	${}^{7}F_{0}$
Gadolinium	Gd	64	[Xe]4f ⁷	$^8{\mathsf S}_{7/2}$
Terbium	Tb	65	[Xe]4f ⁸	${}^{7}F_{6}$
Dysprosium	Dy	66	$[Xe]4f^9$	$^6\mathsf{H}_{\scriptscriptstyle 15/2}$
Holmium	Ho	67	$[Xe]4f^{10}$	$\binom{5}{8}$
Erbium	Er	68	$[Xe]4f^{11}$	$^{4}I_{15/2}$
Thulium	Tm	69	$[Xe]4f^{12}$	$\rm{^{3}H_{6}}$
Ytterbium	Yb	70	$[Xe]4f^{13}$	$^2\mathsf{F}_{7/2}$
Lutetium	Lu	71	$[Xe]4f^{14}$	$^1\mathsf{S}_{{}_0}$

Table 2 Electronic structure of lanthanide ions. [Reprinted with permission from Binnemans (2009), Copyright © 2009 American Chemical Society.]

strategies for the excitations, because both the lanthanide ions and the organic ligands can provide sources to generate luminescence, and metal-ligand charge transfer related luminescence can contribute to another dimension of luminescence (Scheme 4). Sometimes, guestinduced luminescence can also play an important role in the luminescent functionalities.

 The ligand-to-metal charge transfer (LMCT), metalto-ligand charge transfer (MLCT), and 4f-5d transitions can funnel energy onto the lanthanide ions. Among the diverse forms of energy transfers within MOFs,

luminescence sensitization or the antenna effect has been widely explored. Three steps are involved in this process: light absorbance by the organic ligands around the lanthanide ions, energy transfer from organic ligands to the lanthanide ions, and then luminescence generation from the lanthanide ions. It is noteworthy that, because of the stabilization within MOFs, the fluorescence properties (such as fluorescence intensity, lifetimes, and quantum efficiencies) of organic linkers within MOFs frameworks may differ from those of the free molecules after the coupling with Ln^{3+} . In addition, energy transfers from one lanthanide ion to another have also been observed to enhance the luminescence intensity in heterolanthanide MOFs.

 Indeed, Ln-MOFs feature predictable structures and tunable luminescence, and the porosity of MOFs could afford multifunctionalities (Chandler et al. 2007). Currently, the luminescent applications of Ln-MOFs focus on targeted chemical sensors, light-emitting devices and biomedical related detections.

 One of the important features for microporous Ln-MOFs lies in that the guest molecules in the pores can have a significant influence on their luminescent properties. Wen et al. reported two guest molecule induced l uminescent porous Ln-MOFs, $\left[\text{Ln}_2(\text{fumarate})_2(\text{oxalate}) \right]$ $(H_2O)_4$. $4H_2O$ (Ln=Eu, Tb) (Zhu et al. 2007) in which reversible changes of luminescence intensities upon de-/ rehydration of the frameworks were observed (Figure 8). Water molecules within the frameworks were found to enhance the luminescence significantly and this kind of luminescence upon water adsorption affords potential for

Figure 7 A summary of electronic excited-state energy levels for the Ln(III) series. [Reprinted with permission from Binnemans (2009), Copyright © 2009 American Chemical Society.]

Table 3 Selected luminescent properties of lanthanide ions. [Reprinted with permission from Bünzli (2010), Copyright © 2010 American Chemical Society.]

ªG, ground state; I, main emissive state; F, final state; gap, energy difference between I and the highest SO level of F. ʰValues for the equations, (Rosi et al. 2005) ^botherwise stated, and ranges of observed lifetimes in all media, if available, between parentheses. ^cDoped in $\rm Y_2O_2$ or in YLiF $_4$ (Ho), or in YAI $_3$ (BO $_3$) $_4$ (Dy). 4 Luminescence from 5 D $_1$, 5 D $_2$, and 5 D $_3$ is also sometimes observed. e Luminescence from four other states has also been observed: "D_{5/2}, ^{2p}3_{/2}, "G_{11/2}, ₂H_{9/2}. ^rComplexes with organic ligends: 0.5–1.3 ms; (Luo et al. 2008, Jiang et al. 2010); solid-state inorganic compound: ≈ 2 ms.

Scheme 4 Schematic representation of energy absorption, migration, emission, and processes in MOFs. A, absorption; F, fluorescence; P, phosphorescence; L, lanthanide-centered luminescence; ISC, intersystem crossing; ET, energy transfer; IC, internal conversion; S, singlet; T, triplet. Plain arrows indicate radiative transitions; dotted arrows indicate nonradiative transitions. [Reprinted with permission from Cui et al. (2012), Copyright © 2012 American Chemical Society.]

water sensing application. The antenna effect induced by the neutral guest molecule 4,4 $^{\prime}$ -dipyridyl in [Eu $_{2}^{\prime}$ (adipic acid)₃(H₂O)₂]·4,4'-dipyridyl (de Lill et al. 2005) was recently reported by de Lill et al. The template (guest) molecule (4,4-dipyridyl) is shown to sensitize the fluorescence of lanthanide metal centers $(Eu³⁺)$ by guest-host energy transfer after excitation of the guest molecule. More recently, a temperature-controlled guest encapsulation method was reported by Zhang et al. (2010) and the Ln-MOF materials exhibited an efficient light-harvesting property.

 Energy transfer from one lanthanide ion to another can also influence the luminescent properties of Ln-MOFs. Guo et al. proposed a method to tune the luminescence by changing the ratio of lanthanide ions (Guo et al. 2010). Due to the energy transfer from Tb^{3+} to $Eu³⁺$, the fluorescence intensity at 540 nm changes with the Tb^{3+}/Eu^{3+} ratio. Another example to exploit the energy transfer between Tb^{3+} to Eu³⁺ was illustrated by

Figure 8 The emission spectra (A) and excitation spectra (B) of 1Eu and 2Tb, their dehydrated and rehydrated phases. For the as-prepared, dehydrated, and rehydrated samples, the measurement was performed under the same instrumental conditions (slits, scanning speed, etc.) at room temperature. The excitation wavelength for emission spectra is 394 nm for Eu and 330 nm for Tb, and the monitor wavelength for excitation spectra is 617 nm for Eu and 545 nm for Tb, respectively. [Reprinted with permission from Zhu et al. (2007), Copyright © 2007 American Chemical Society.]

a Tb $(1,3,5-BTC)$ MOF (Liu et al. 2010). It was observed that among the four bands of the emission spectrum of Tb (1,3,5-BTC)(H₂O)·3H₂O MOF, (correspond to the ${}^{5}D_{4}$ \rightarrow ${}^{7}F_{5}$ transitions of the Tb³⁺), the strongest band (543 nm) is located in the green region. After doping Tb(1,3,5-BTC) MOF with the Eu³⁺ ion, the luminescence color of the MOF can be easily tuned from green to green-yellow, yellow, orange, and red-orange. That is because of the characteristic emission of the Eu³⁺ in the Eu³⁺ doped MOF, Tb(1,3,5-BTC)(H₂O)·3H₂O:Eu (x=0.1–10 mol %). With the increase in Eu^{3+} concentration, the luminescence intensity of the $Tb³⁺$ decreases, while that of the Eu³⁺ increases, which caused the color change (Figure 9).

 The luminescence of Ln-MOFs can also be tuned by the exchange of metal ions in anionic frameworks. An anionic Ln-MOF $\text{K}_{5}\text{[Tb}_{5}\text{(IDC)}_{4}\text{(ox)}_{4}\text{] (IDC}=$ imidazole-4,5-dicarboxylate, ox = oxalate) was presented by Lu et al. (2009) and the cation guest K^+ ions within the frameworks were exchanged with various cations. However, the luminescent intensities of the frameworks exchanged with various cations are quite different (Figure 10A). It was observed

that after the addition of $Ca²⁺$ ions, the emission intensity and the fluorescence lifetime ${}^{(5)}D_4 \rightarrow {}^{7}F_5$) of Tb³⁺ was significantly increased (Figure 10B). While some other cations, such as Na⁺, NH₄⁺, Mg²⁺, Sr²⁺, Ba²⁺, Zn²⁺, Cd²⁺, Hg²⁺, and Pb²⁺ have no influence on the luminescent intensity, transition metal ions of Mn^{2+} , Fe²⁺, Co²⁺, Ni²⁺, and Cu²⁺ can decrease the luminescent intensities.

 Recently, there has been an escalating interest in the development of lanthanide near-IR-emitting (NIR) materials because of their potential applications in NIR luminescent optical devices (Guo et al. 2005, White et al. 2009a,b, Yang et al. 2011b). Compared to Eu-MOFs and Tb-MOFs in the visible region, emissive NIR LnMOFs $(Ln = Yb, Nd and Er)$, however, are much less developed, because: (1) it is difficult for most ligands to sensitize Yb^{3+} , Nd³⁺ and Er³⁺; and (2) the energy gap between the first excited emitting state and the fundamental level of these ions is quite small, thus being easily matched by the C-H, C-C, O-H, and N-H vibrations of the organic ligands. However, it is possible to overcome these limitations by rational design of the MOF structures. This was recently exemplified by White et al. (2009b) in the creation of a luminescent barcoded system based on the multiple NIR emitting of Ln-MOFs (Figure 11). A chromophore ligand, $\rm H_2$ pvdc, was used to excite a series of $\rm Ln\text{-}MOFs$ with different amounts of Yb^{3+} and Er^{3+} ions. By controlling the reactant stoichiometry, the relative intensity of the Yb^{3+} and Er^{3+} NIR emissions are linearly correlated to their ratio.

Chemical sensing of microporous Ln-MOFs

 The optical properties and luminescence output of Ln-MOFs make them promising candidates for the applications in sensing of cations/anions, small molecules, gases/vapors and some other sensing such as pH, temperature, ionizing radiation and explosives (Xu et al. 2011). Moreover, the porosity within microporous Ln-MOFs can allow the reversible uptake and release of sensing substrates, thus offering the opportunity for the exploration of reversible and recyclable luminescent sensors. The tunable pore size of microporous MOFs may permit the selective recognition and sensing of small molecules, cations and anions. In addition, the open metal sites and functional sites such as Lewis basic/acidic sites within microporous Ln-MOFs can afford different interactions with guest molecules, thus enhancing the sensitivity of the sensors.

 One of the widely studied microporous Ln-MOFs is Tb-BTC (MOF-76), which possesses one-dimensional

Figure 9 (A) Perspective view of the packing along the c axis of the Tb(1,3,5-BTC)(H₂O)·3H₂O. (B) Emission spectra of the Tb(1,3,5-BTC)-(H₂O)·3H₂O:Eu (x=0.1–10 mol%) under 304 nm excitation. (C) The photographs for the luminescent MOF Tb(1,3,5-BTC)(H₂O)·3H₂O:Eu (x=0 for A, 0.1% for B, 0.3% for C, 0.5% for D, 5% for E, and 10% for F) under excitation of a 254 nm ultraviolet lamp. (D) CIE chromaticity diagram for the Tb(1,3,5-BTC)(H₂O)·3H₂O:Eu. [Reprinted with permission from Liu et al. (2010), Copyright © 2010, The Royal Society of Chemistry.]

channels (6.6 \times 6.6 Å²), which are partially occupied by the terminal solvent molecules (Figure 12). Chen et al. reported the fluoride sensing property of MOF-76, and discussed the possible mechanisms of the luminescent sensing of MOF-76 (Chen et al. 2008b). The luminescence intensity of MOF-76 increases upon incorporation of different amounts of NaX (X=F, Cl and Br) or $\text{Na}_{2}X$ $(X^2 = CO_3^2$ and SO_4^2) in methanol, and the extraordinary enhancement of luminescence intensity was observed for fluoride; this selectivity was also observed in other solvents such as DMF. The authors proposed that the recognition and sensing of anions relied on O-H moieties of the terminal solvents. The hydrogen bonding between the anion and solvent methanol modifies the energy of the O-H bond stretching, leading to the enhancement of luminescence intensity. Moreover, since the hydrogenbonding interaction between the fluoride anion and the solvent was stronger than other anions, the intensity change was more remarkable than others. Given that the hydrogen bonding interactions with anions can be induced by these N-H and O-H moieties, microporous

Ln-MOFs with $N-H$ and $O-H$ containing linkers and terminal organic solvents are promising candidates for anion sensors. The authors also proposed that, owing to the tunable interactions between the terminal solvents and fluoride anions by changing the pore structures and curvatures of Ln-MOFs, more reversible luminescent Ln-MOFs could be realized as anions sensors. Another Ln-BTC, Eu(BTC), which is isostructural with MOF-76, was also reported by Chen et al. for reversible small molecule sensing (Chen et al. 2007).

 A different mechanism for recognition and sensing of anions was suggested by Wong et al. for ${[Tb(Mucicate)]_{15}}$ $(H_2O)_2$. 5H₂O₁, in which O-H groups of organic linkers are used for the recognition and sensing of anions (Wong et al. 2006). Owing to the large number of OH groups in mucic acid (Figure 13), the hydrogen bonding interaction between the numerous OH groups and anions induced the anion response of the channels. In addition, due to the molecular sieving effect of the microporous frameworks, only small anions are allowed to go through the micropores, while larger anions are blocked.

Figure 10 $\,$ (A) Luminescent intensities of a ${}^5D_4 \rightarrow {}^7F_5$ transition for an emulsion of $\mathsf{K}_{\mathsf{5}}[\mathsf{TD}_{\mathsf{5}}(\mathsf{IDC})_{\mathsf{4}}(\mathsf{ox})_{\mathsf{4}}]$ in DMF (10⁻³ m) at 545 nm upon the addition of various cations (excited at 307 nm). (B) Emission spectra of an emulsion of K₅[Tb₅(IDC)₄(ox)₄] in DMF (10⁻³ м) in the presence of ∼0−3 equivalent of Ca²⁺ ions (from CaCl₂, excited at 307 nm). [Reprinted with permission from Lu et al. (2009), Copyright © 2009 American Chemical Society.]

 The utilization of microporous Ln-MOFs for recognition and sensing of cations has also been explored (Dinca and Long 2008). To make use of the preferential binding of lanthanide ions (Ln^{3+}) to carboxylate oxygen atoms over pyridyl nitrogen atoms, Chen et al. developed a method for synthesizing $\text{[Eu(pdc)}_{\text{1.5}}(\text{dmf})\text{]}\cdot\text{(DMF)}_{\text{0.5}}(\text{H}_{2}\text{O})_{\text{0.5}}$ (pdc = pyridine-3,5-dicarboxylate), which features free Lewis basic pyridyl sites for the recognition and sensing of metal ions (Figure 14) (Chen et al. 2009a). A variety of metal ions (Na⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺, Ca²⁺, Mn²⁺, Co²⁺, Cu²⁺, Zn²⁺ or Cd²⁺) were incorporated within $[Eu(pdc)]$. DMF in DMF solutions, and among them Co^{2+} and Cu^{2+} had the most significant impact on the change of luminescence intensity, owing to their weak binding of the pyridyl nitrogen atoms.

Figure 11 (A) Schematic representation of the approach adopted by White et al. to design photoluminescent barcoded systems based on the use of multiple NIR-emitting Ln³⁺ ions. (B) Nd³⁺, Yb³⁺ and Er³⁺ emission from [(Nd_{0.09}Er_{0.55}Yb_{0.36})₂(pvdc)₃(H₂O)₂]·6DMF·8.5H₂O. [Reprinted with permission from White et al. (2009), Copyright © 2009 American Chemical Society.]

It is possible to enhance the selectivity either by constructing porous luminescent MOFs with tuned micropores, or immobilizing various Lewis basic sites to induce preferential binding with respect to different metal ions. In this regard, Chen's group reported a microporous Ln-MOF with highly selectivity in the sensing of $Cu²⁺$ in aqueous solution (Xiao et al. 2010), and Luo and Batten developed a distinct Ln³⁺-doped pathway to target MOF-based luminescent sensing of metal ions (Luo and Batten 2010).

 Recently, Harbuzaru et al. (2008) reported a very rare example of Ln-MOFs (ITQMOF-1) with a fast response time and rapid reversible behavior for sensing ethanol vapor molecules. ITQMOF-1 possesses a microporous hydrophobic structure based on the ultrahydrophobic ligand 4,4 ′ -(hexafluoroisopropylidene)bis(benzoic acid) (HFIPBB). With the combination of photoluminescent Ln^{3+} centers and the ultrahydrophobic ligand HFIPBB, ITQMOF-1-Eu was used to sense ethanol in air. The air stream was alternatively saturated or unsaturated with ethanol. It was observed that ITQMOF-1-Eu indicated a

Figure 12 Single crystal X-ray structure of MOF-76b activated in methanol containing NaF with the model of fluoride (green) at the center of the channel involving its hydrogen-bonding interaction with terminal methanol molecules (methanol oxygen, purple; the methyl group from methanol is omitted for clarity). [Reprinted with permission from Chen et al. (2008), Copyright © 2008 American Chemical Society.]

rapid decrease of the emission intensity in the presence of ethanol and a rapid recovery when the sample is exposed to air (Figure 15), and this could be explained by the coordination of ethanol to the Ln^{3+} ions.

 The same group also reported an interesting pH sensing material in the pH range of biological interest

Figure 13 Diagrams of (A) the 2D network of $\{[\text{Tb}(\text{Mucicate})_{1.5}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_{2}]\cdot\}$ 5H₂O}_n, and (B) the structure of mucic acid. [Reprinted with permission from Wong et al. (2006), Copyright © 2006, Wiley-VCH.]

Figure 14 Crystal structure of 1, viewed along crystallographic *a* axis indicating immobilized Lewis basic pyridyl sites oriented towards pore centers. C gray, N purple, O red, Eu green polyhedra. Hydrogen atoms, terminal DMF molecules, and solvent molecules are omitted for clarity. [Reprinted with permission from Chen et al. (2009), Copyright © 2009, Wiley-VCH.]

(5-7.5) (Harbuzaru et al. 2009), based on a photoluminescent Eu-MOF, ITQMOF-3, which contains two different types of Eu³⁺ sites (Eu1 and Eu2). Different from ITQMOF-1, ITQMOF-3 contains a sensitizing ligand H_2 PhenDCA (L) and both the carboxylate and phenanthroline moieties of the ligand coordinate to the Eu ion centers (Figure 16). ITQMOF-3 has a layered structure with two different kinds of sheets (sheet A and B), and each kind of sheet contains one type of Eu^{3+} ions (Eu1 or Eu2). These two types of Eu centers display different transition lines in their emission

Figure 15 Test for sensing capabilities of the ITQMOF-1-Eu material. Variation of the fluorescence signal intensity at 619 nm under alternating streams of air saturated with ethanol (signal intensity decreases) and ethanol-free air (signal intensity increases). [Reprinted with permission from Harbuzaru et al. (2008), Copyright © 2008, Wiley-VCH.]

Figure 16 (A) Optical microscopy image of ITQMOF-3-Eu under UV light. (B) Eu2 coordination environment. (C) Eu1 coordination environment. C gray, H white-gray, N blue, Eu green, O red. (D) Intensity variation of the Eu2 ${}^5D_{\rm o}\, {}^7F_{\rm o}$ transition from high (pH 7.5) to low (pH 5) pH values; the inset shows the linear variation of Ir with the pH value. [Reprinted with permission from Harbuzaru et al. (2009), Copyright © 2009, Wiley-VCH.]

spectrum. Since the Eu2 center in sheet B forms a dimer with the O-H group, the increase in pH can enhance the intensity of the Eu2 transition line (Figure 16D), which enables ITQMOF-3 to act as a possible miniaturized pH sensor prototype, especially in biological systems.

 The sensing of small molecules by microporous Ln-MOFs was recently reported by Guo et al. (2011). A robust and highly porous near infrared (NIR) luminescent Yb-MOF, Yb $(BPT)(H_2O)$ · $(DMF)_{1.5}(H_2O)_{1.25}$ (BPT=biphenyl-3,4',5-tricarboxylate), was synthesized by the solvothermal reaction of $Yb(NO_{3})_{3}\cdot 6H_{2}O$ and $H_{3}BPT$ in mixed solvents of DMF, ethanol, and water, and indicated high selectivity and sensitivity in sensing of various small molecules (Figure 17).

Figure 17 (A) The PL spectra and (B) the ${}^{2}F_{5/2} {}^{2}F_{7/2}$ transition intensities of 1a introduced into various pure solvent emulsions when excited at 304 nm. [Reprinted with permission from Guo et al. (2011), Copyright © 2011, The Royal Society of Chemistry.]

Catalysis application

 Unlike homogenous catalysts, heterogeneous catalysts act in a different phase than the reactants, and the major advantage of heterogeneous catalysts lies in the recyclability of catalysts. The most widely used solid-state catalysts in chemical industries are zeolites, which are microporous crystalline materials. Compared to inorganic zeolites, MOFs are usually synthesized under mild conditions, and it is possible to tune their pore/channel sizes and alter the surface functionality by incorporating suitable metal ions or bridging ligands with desired size, shape, chirality, or electronic properties. In addition, the tunable porosity within the frameworks could provide size/shape, or region selectivity, as widely observed in microporous zeolite catalysts. All these have prompted the development of MOFs for heterogeneous catalysis applications (Kesanli and Lin 2003, Kitagawa et al. 2004). The utilization of metal ions as active centers represents one of most common ways to generate catalytically active MOFs (Lee et al. 2009).

Since lanthanide ions have flexible coordination spheres and can create coordinately unsaturated metal centers (Kitagawa et al. 2006), Ln-MOFs have been explored as promising candidates for heterogeneous catalysis.

 Of various Ln-MOFs, Tb-MOFs and Eu-MOFs are very attractive because of their versatile coordination geometry and possible high framework stability in water. Choi et al. (2010) reported a Eu-MOF as a photocatalyst for the oneelectron oxidation of organic compounds. In this experiment, commercial sources of aromatic sulfides and aliphatic and aromatic amines were used as electron donors after purification. Their findings are encouraging, and demonstrate the possibility that Eu-MOFs could work as efficient photocatalysts under UV light irradiation.

 Heterogeneous catalysis performances of a series of 2D lamellar Ln-MOFs were recently reported (Evans et al. 2001, Ngo and Lin 2002), $\text{Ln}(L\text{-}H_2)(L\text{-}H_3)(H_2O)_4\text{-}xH_2O$ (Ln=La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Sm, Gd, Tb, $x=9-14$, with the presence of both Lewis and Broństed acid sites. The work showed that the Ln-MOFs could be used as chiral Lewis acid catalysts in the cyanosilylation of aldehydes, ring opening of mesocarboxylic anhydride, and Diels-Alder reactions. Cunha-Silva et al. also reported a series of layered Ln-MOFs with formula as $\text{[Ln(H}_{2}\text{cmp})(\text{H}_{2}\text{O})\text{]}$ (Cunha-Silva et al. 2009). The materials were used as solid acid catalysts for the reaction of cyclodehydration of xylose to furfural, and normally give typical $40-77\%$ xylose conversions and $25-42\%$ furfural yields after 4 h reaction, as shown in Table 4. Among these structures, the catalytic performance of $[Y(H_{2}cmp)]$ (H_2O)] was studied in detail. The maximum selectivity was reached at 84% with 83% conversion in the first run, and the solid catalyst could be recycled.

 Gustafsson et al. (2010) reported some homeotypic MOFs of $[Ln(btc)(H_2O)]$ guest, all of which have the

Table 4 Cyclodehydration of xylose to furfural in the presence of $[RE(H₂cmp)(H₂O)]$ at 443 K. [Reprinted with permission from Cunha-Silva et al. (2009), Copyright © 2009, The Royal Society of Chemistry.] a Calculated for 4 h of reaction.

tetragonal structure containing 1D channels. The materials were assessed as Lewis acid catalysts in the cyanosilylation of aldehydes yielding cyanohydrins. Compared to other MOF catalysts, a higher activity of cyanosilylation of benzaldehyde was observed, and the catalysts were claimed to be recycled and reused without loss of their activity and crystallinity.

 The solvothermal synthesis of a new family of 3-D isostructural Ln-MOFs with the formula $\left[{\rm Ln}_2({\rm pda})_{\rm 3}({\rm H}_2{\rm O})\right]$ -2H $_2{\rm O}$ was recently reported by Ren et al. (2011). The Ln-MOFs consist of 1D Ln-COO helixes which are cross-linked by the $-CH_2C_6H_4CH_2$ spacers of the pda² anions in a 3D compressed honeycomb-shaped network with 1D open channels, which are occupied by guest solvents and coordinated water molecules. Both guest and coordinated water molecules could be removed after activation under dynamic vacuum at 200 $^{\circ}$ C for 4 h, and this afforded the generation of the unsaturated Lewis-acidic metal sites for their catalysis studies. However, of those Ln-MOFs, only $[{\rm Tb}_{\rm 2}({\rm dpa})_{\rm 3}]$ can efficiently catalyze the acetalization reaction of aldehyde with methanol under mild reaction conditions. Their results showed that a high conversion of 78% could be reached after 10 h reaction, while other Ln-MOFs exhibited low yields even with a longer reaction time. The authors also reported that dehydration and rehydration were reversible for those Ln-MOFs; this demonstrated the possibility of recovery of the catalyst from the heterogeneous reaction mixtures, which was reflected in their experiment data that a 70% high yield of dimethyl acetal was obtained after the third cycle (Table 5).

 Several series of rare-earth polymeric frameworks [RPF4 (Gándara et al. 2008), RPF5 (Gándara et al. 2009), RPF9 (Gándara et al. 2010)] were reported, which were prepared on the basis of different kinds of rare-earth coordination polyhedral. These materials can act as active and selective bifunctional heterogeneous catalysts in oxidation reactions of methyl phenyl sulfide. However, the catalytic reactions only took place on the surface of MOFs, because the micropores of the frameworks blocked the substrates from accessing the active metal centers on the pore walls.

 Although there have been reported numerous catalytically active Ln-MOFs, the development of microporous Ln-MOFs for heterogeneous catalysis is still at the early stage, and will receive more attention in the near future.

Perspectives

 The remarkable structural diversity in combination with the functional organic and inorganic components and porosity,

Table 5 Acetalization of benzaldehyde with methanol using a variety of [Ln $_{\textrm{\tiny{2}}}$ (dpa) $_{\textrm{\tiny{3}}}$] MOFs[a] [Reprinted with permission from Ren et al. (2011), Copyright © 2011, Wiley-VCH.]

a Reaction conditions: benzaldehyde (1 mmol), catalyst (100 mg), and methanol (3 ml), room temperature. bDetermined by GC–MS. c Yield of first reuse. d Yield of second reuse. e Yield of third reuse. f Reaction was performed in the presence of water (100 μ l).

affords microporous Ln-MOFs great potential for various applications, such as gas/solvent adsorption, photoluminescence, chemical sensors, and heterogeneous catalysis as highlighted above. The research of microporous Ln-MOFs is

still in its infancy and much remains to be further investigated: (1) because of the highly flexible coordinative behavior of lanthanide metal ions, strategies need to be developed for the construction of extended Ln-MOF structures with large pores and high surface areas; (2) in order to accurately evaluate the luminescence of different samples, it is necessary to incorporate the quantum yield or quantum efficiency in future studies; (3) albeit numerous interesting Ln-MOFs with novel properties have been prepared, the engineering of them into devices for optical, chemical sensor, biomedical detection, and other industrial applications remains a challenge but definitely warrants exploration; (4) the development of porous Ln-MOFs to mimic zeolites for size/shape and region catalysis represents an exciting direction in the field and should be worthy of more attention and dedication. Indeed, with the increasing interest from both academia and industry, microporous Ln-MOFs will remain at the forefront of the materials research, and great progress and breakthroughs in developing them as multifunctional materials will be expected in the near future.

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Yao Chen Department of Chemistry University of South Florida 4202 E. Fowler Avenue Tampa, FL 33620 USA

Yao Chen obtained her BS degree from Qingdao University of Science & Technology in 2006, and received her MS degree from Nanjing University of Technology in 2009 under the supervision of Dr. He Huang. She is currently a PhD student in the Department of Chemistry at University of South Florida, under the supervision of Dr. Shengqian Ma. Her research interest focuses on the development of functional porous MOF materials for biological-related applications.

Shengqian Ma Department of Chemistry University of South Florida 4202 E. Fowler Avenue Tampa, FL 33620 USA **sqma@usf.edu**

Dr. Shengqian Ma received his B.S. degree from Jilin University, China in 2003, and graduated from Miami University (Ohio) with a PhD degree under the supervision of Hong-Cai Joe Zhou (currently at Texas A&M University) in 2008. After finishing a 2-year Director's Postdoctoral Fellowship at Argonne National Laboratory, he joined the Department of Chemistry at University of South Florida as an Assistant Professor in August 2010. His research interest focuses on the development of functional porous materials for energy and biological-related applications.