

Highly-Selective and Reversible O₂ Binding in Cr₃(1,3,5-benzenetricarboxylate)₂

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The separation of O₂ from air is carried out in industry using cryogenic distillation on a scale of 100 Mtons/year,¹ as well as using zeolites in portable devices for medical applications.² Thus, there is a clear benefit to developing materials that might enable this process to be carried out with a lower energy cost. Recently, the need for such materials has become even more apparent, owing to the potential for using oxyfuel combustion as a means of eliminating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel-fired power plants.³ Here, instead of separating CO₂ from N₂, as in postcombustion capture, O₂ is separated from the N₂ in air prior to combustion. Advantages of this scenario include the greater partial pressure of O₂ in air (0.21 bar) compared to CO₂ in a typical flue gas (0.10–0.15 bar) and the fact that, although pure O₂ is needed, it is not necessary to remove 100% of it from the air stream.

In addition, there is the chemical advantage of being able to distinguish O₂ from N₂ via its greater propensity for accepting negative charge transferred from a redox-active transition metal center. Indeed, this mechanism provided the foundation for a great deal of chemistry involving molecular complexes, particularly of cobalt(II), used for the reversible capture and transport of O₂.⁴ By isolating such transition metal centers within the pores of a zeolite,⁵ it is further possible to inhibit the formation of O₂-bridged structures that can diminish the performance of molecular complexes. For example, Cr²⁺ ions exchanged into zeolite A led to a reversible O₂ loading of 2.7 wt % at 298 K.^{5a} We envision that metal–organic frameworks, which can present both high surface areas and open metal coordination sites,⁶ may form the basis for a new generation of O₂ capture materials with good air permeability, a high loading capacity, and a tunable O₂ adsorption enthalpy. Herein, we report the synthesis of the first Cr^{III}-based metal–organic framework, Cr₃(BTC)₂ (BTC³⁻ = 1,3,5-benzenetri-carboxylate), which displays both a high O₂ loading capacity and strong selectivity for binding O₂ over N₂ at 298 K.

Analogous to the synthesis of Mo₃(BTC)₂,⁷ the reaction of Cr(CO)₆ with trimesic acid in DMF yielded Cr₃(BTC)₂·*n*DMF as a purple microcrystalline solid. X-ray powder diffraction data revealed the compound to be isostructural with Cu₃(BTC)₂·3H₂O.⁸ It thus features the porous three-dimensional framework structure depicted in Figure 1A, wherein Cr₂(O₂CR)₄(DMF)₂ paddle-wheel complexes are linked via triangular BTC³⁻ bridging ligands. The DMF solvent was exchanged with methanol, and the material was desolvated by heating at 160 °C under vacuum for 48 h to afford Cr₃(BTC)₂ as a yellow-green solid. Once activated, the compound reacts rapidly in air to generate a deep forest green solid.

Rietveld analysis of powder neutron diffraction data collected for Cr₃(BTC)₂ showed retention of the framework structure, albeit with a shortening of the intermetal separation within the paddle-wheel units.

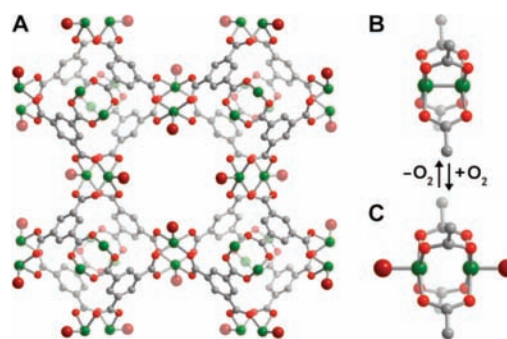


Figure 1. Portions of the structure of Cr₃(BTC)₂, where green, red, and gray spheres represent Cr, O, and C atoms, respectively, while large red spheres represent either bound DMF molecules in the solvated structure or bound O₂ molecules upon desolvation and exposure to O₂. Atomic positions shown correspond to the results obtained from Rietveld refinement of powder neutron diffraction data for activated (B) and O₂-loaded (A and C) samples. Note that the Cr–Cr distance lengthens from 2.06(2) Å in B to 2.8(1) Å in C upon coordination of O₂.

The observed distance of 2.06(2) Å is in line with the formation of a Cr–Cr quadruple bond upon loss of the axial solvent molecules.⁹ Consistent with this open framework structure, the N₂ gas adsorption isotherm measured at 77 K revealed a type I adsorption isotherm with BET and Langmuir surface areas of 1810 and 2040 m²/g, respectively (Figure S1). The latter value is comparable to the Langmuir surface areas of 2175 and 2010 m²/g determined for Cu₃(BTC)₂¹⁰ and Mo₃(BTC)₂,⁷ respectively.

Given the likelihood that the exposed Cr^{III} centers might engage in charge transfer interactions with O₂ but not N₂, Cr₃(BTC)₂ was tested for the selective uptake of O₂ at 298 K (Figure 2). Indeed, while the N₂ adsorption isotherm climbs gradually to a capacity of 0.58 wt % at 1 bar, the O₂ isotherm rises sharply, reaching 11 wt % at just 2 mbar. The latter loading corresponds to ~0.8 molecules of O₂ per Cr center, near the value of 1 (or 14.4 wt %) expected if every metal in the framework were available to bind an O₂ molecule. Based on interpolated uptakes of 0.73 mmol/g O₂ at 0.21 bar and 0.033 mmol/g N₂ at 0.78 bar (reflecting the corresponding partial pressures in air), Cr₃(BTC)₂ exhibits an exceptional O₂/N₂ selectivity factor of 22. To our knowledge, the highest selectivity factor observed previously is ~4 for cobalt(II) complexes appended to a silica support.¹¹ Moreover, both the selectivity and gravimetric capacity are much greater than previously reported for O₂ uptake in any metal–organic framework.¹²

The temperature and evacuation time required to release O₂ to regenerate the capture material were tested. Heating at 50 °C under dynamic vacuum for 48 h was optimal and afforded a material that reabsorbed O₂ with a somewhat reduced capacity of 9.1 wt % at 0.21 bar. As shown in the inset of Figure 2, repeated cycling performed on a separate sample under such conditions indicated a gradual reduction

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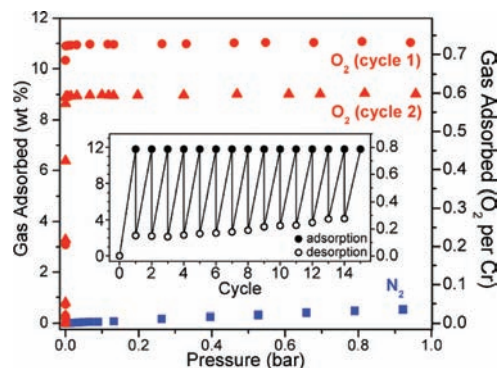


Figure 2. Uptake of O₂ (red symbols) and N₂ (blue squares) by Cr₃(BTC)₂ at 298 K. The compound saturates with O₂ at ~2 mbar but shows little affinity for N₂. Upon evacuation, the O₂ isotherm for a second cycle reveals a slightly reduced capacity, while the isotherm for a third cycle (not shown) is essentially identical to the second. Inset: Uptake and release of O₂ by a different sample of Cr₃(BTC)₂ over 15 consecutive cycles at 298 K. Desorption was carried out by heating at 50 °C under vacuum for 48 h.

in the O₂ loading capacity. This behavior is likely a consequence of incomplete release of bound O₂ under the regeneration conditions and/or partial decomposition of the material as a result of the highly exothermic reaction with O₂. Consistently, we observed a 5% loss in surface area of the material after the two cycles (Figure S1), only minor changes to the powder X-ray diffraction patterns upon oxygenation (Figure S3), and an increase in sample weight after the first O₂ desorption cycle.

The nature of the interaction between Cr₃(BTC)₂ and O₂ was probed using a variety of spectroscopic techniques. As shown at the right in Figure 3, upon exposure to O₂ an infrared absorption band at 1129 cm⁻¹ appears and increases in intensity with dosage (Figures 3, S6). We assign this band to a ν_{O-O} vibrational mode and note that its frequency lies between those previously assigned for a Cr^{III}-η²-superoxide species (1027–1104 cm⁻¹)¹³ and a putative end-on superoxide moiety bound to a Cr^{III} porphyrin complex (1142 cm⁻¹).¹⁴ Two additional, weaker absorption features are also observed, and we attribute these to an overtone of the 1129 cm⁻¹ mode and to a ν_{O-O} mode arising from a superoxide or peroxide adduct (see Supporting Information). In the UV–vis–nIR spectra, new absorption features at 13 430, 15 840, and 20 600 cm⁻¹ are observed upon exposure to O₂ (Figure 3, left). These bands disappear after deoxygenation of the sample, consistent with the reversible O₂ binding observed in the gas uptake experiments.

In an effort to determine the oxidation state of chromium in the O₂-loaded sample, X-ray absorption spectra of the DMF-solvated, activated, and oxygenated frameworks were measured (Figure S7). Two intense absorption maxima at 5996 and 5992 eV, consistent with a square pyramidal Cr coordination geometry, are evident in the spectrum of the activated sample. These transitions are expectedly weaker in the solvated and O₂-loaded samples, indicating coordination at the axial sites of the paddle-wheel units. Significantly, the first moment energy increases by 0.07 eV in going from the activated to the oxygenated samples (Figure S8). This, together with the infrared spectrum, suggests that there is partial charge transfer from the Cr^{II} center to the bound O₂ molecule but not necessarily complete charge transfer to give a Cr^{III}-superoxide adduct.

A Rietveld refinement of neutron powder diffraction data collected at 4 K on a sample of Cr₃(BTC)₂ loaded with ~1 equiv of O₂ per Cr atom provides direct structural evidence for the binding of O₂ to the metal centers. The best fit afforded a model in which 0.87(3) O₂ molecules are coordinated to the axial sites of each paddle-wheel unit (Figure 1), while 0.197(7) occupy the smallest pore openings within the framework (Figure S5). The model further indicates an increased Cr–Cr separation of 2.8(1) Å and a distance of 1.97(5) Å between

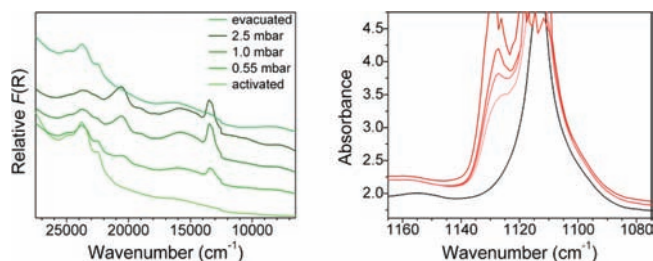


Figure 3. Diffuse reflectance UV–vis–nIR (left) and infrared (right) spectra of Cr₃(BTC)₂ under various loadings of O₂. On the right, dosage of O₂ increases from the black (no O₂) to pink to dark red traces.

the Cr atom and the centroid of the bound O₂ molecule (Table S3). We note that although the resolution of the data was insufficient to determine the orientation of O₂, the observed metal–centroid distance is more likely consistent with a side-on coordination mode.

The foregoing results demonstrate the reversible, selective binding of O₂ at a high loading capacity within Cr₃(BTC)₂, a metal–organic framework featuring open Cr^{II} coordination sites. Future work will attempt to improve framework stability and reduce the energy required for deoxygenation by varying the metal or attenuating the donor strength of the bridging ligand through addition of electron-donating/withdrawing substituents.

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Supporting Information Available: Full experimental details. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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