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Study of the Inorganic Substitution in a Functionalized UiO-66 Metal-Organic Framework

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Thesis submitted to the Benjamin M. Statler College of Engineering and Mineral Resources at West Virginia University

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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ABSTRACT

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Metal-Organic Frameworks (MOFs) have received considerable attention and fast development in the past few years. These materials have demonstrated a wide range of applications due to their porosity, tailorability of optical properties, and chemical selectivity. This report catalogs common MOF designs based on application and diversity in various fields, as well as conduct an in-depth study of inorganic substitution in a functionalized MOF.

This study investigates the band gap modulation in response to inorganic ion substitution within a thermally stable UiO-66 Metal-Organic Framework (MOF). A combination of density functional theory (DFT) predictions in conjunction with experimental predictions were used to map out the complete composition space for three inorganic ions (Zr, Hf, Ti) and three functional groups. The three functional groups include an amino group (NH_2) , a nitro group $(NO₂)$, and a hydrogenated case (H) . The smallest determined band gap was for a partially substituted $\text{Ui0-66(Ti}_{5}\text{Zr}_{1})$ -NH₂ resulting in 2.60eV. Theoretical findings support that Ti can be fully substituted within the lattice resulting in a predicted band gap as low as 1.62(2.77)eV. Band gap modulation was reasoned to be a result of a mid gap state introduced through the amino functionalization and HOMO shifting as a result of increased binding of the Ti-O-C bonds.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of MOF

MOF based materials have received considerable attention and achieved fast development due to their wide applications in gas adsorption $[1, 2]$, storage $[3]$, separation $[4, 5, 6, 7]$, catalysis, sensing, molecular recognition, drug delivery, and more recently the application for photocatalysis.[8, 6] While the task of synthesizing a stable MOF proves difficult, the task of designing a MOF material that embodies several optimized material characteristics proves even more daunting. The attributes of interest for this research is centered around the application of the proposed MOF materials as a photocatalyst.[8, 6, 9] More specifically, this study has narrowed the focus to the influence of the inorganic portion of the MOF design on the light absorption properties of the MOF material. This study will use a combination of experimental and first principle computational techniques to explore the continuous design space of three inorganic substitutions in a UiO-66 MOF. The design space was limited to a UiO-66(M)-R, [M=Zr, Ti, Hf; R=BDC, BDC+NO₂, BDC+NH₂] material system, which the Zr and Ti elements have been experimentally determined and the Hf was only computationally determined.

MOFs are functional inorganic-organic hybrid materials, are very interesting family of crystalline porous solids. They are constructed from inorganic metal ions and multiconnected organic bridging ligands to form infinitely uniform networked architectures in space.[10] MOFs have high surface area, tunable pore size, great chemical variation, with limited thermal stability. The objective in the development of a MOF based photocatalyst is to tailor several, often competing attributes. These attributes, which include high areal density of reaction sites, large utilization of the solar spectrum, and chemical selectivity are a few of the limiting attributes that required optimization. Compounding these multifaceted attributes with an nearly endless design space the task of optimizing a MOF structure becomes a daunting task. To aid in the design task the following study employs a computational first principle techniques in conjunction with experimental validation at key design points.

The zirconium and titanium based MOF (UiO-66 (Zr)) and UiO-66 (Ti)) have been demonstrated previously in the literature [11, 12] in a diverse range of applications. This is attributed to higher thermo and chemical stability of the underlying framework, as well as electrically conductive compared to other types of MOFs.[6, 7, 12] These MOF's have been extensively studied for the applications of photocatalysis, hydrogen generation, gas storage, drug delivery, etc. [6] However, solar energy utilization requires thermally stable [13] and electrically conductive[14] material. Furthermore, the proposed material must utilize as much of the visible region of the electromagnetic spectrum for efficient carrier ionization. By decreasing the band gap the electrons require less energy to overcome the band gap spanning from the LUMO to the HOMO. This is because the proposed MOF material is semiconductive in nature it is hypothesized that techniques used for inorganic substitution, such as substitutional doping, should also apply to MOF materials. That being said, the mechanism for modulating the band gap is also hypothesized to be different due to the inorganic-organic bonding inherit to these MOF materials. Understanding the importance of minimizing the band gap of the structure to achieve a more desirable result is what this study will investigate to a great extent.

The open structure of the MOF results in an increased surface area for unique uniaxial bonding of organic linkers, which provides an avenue to modulate the band structure. The MOF structure chosen for this study is based on the well established $U_1O-66(Zr)$ [11]. To tailor the band gap of the structure, most research approaches have modulate and modify the ligand coordination. This is a very effective way and has attained lots of attention in recent years. The most common and effective way to tailor the band gap is where benzenedicarboxylate (BDC) is modified with an amino group (NH_2) and a nitro group (NO_2) resulting with UiO-66(Zr)-R, $[R = H, NH_2, NO_2]$.[8, 15, 3, 4] This study will explore similar techniques, however, will focus on substitution of the inorganic ions situated at the corners in the UiO-66 MOF. The approach will be to substitute Zr ions in the host MOF with a compatible ion with a similar oxidation state. Using the guidance of previous experimental synthesis this study will also explore every variation of Zr, Ti, Hf elements in combination (substitutional doping of the structure) to explore all possible outcomes for the band gap. This study will implement the first principle density functional theory (DFT) predictions [16] that will be verified and validated with available experimental [17, 18, 19, 20] results and results synthesized for this study.

1.2 Catalog of Common MOFs

These MOFs have drawn considerable awareness because of the potential exploiting properties of both organic and inorganic components within a single material. As well as their modulating nature and synthesis conditions, these organic/inorganic molecules offer tunable properties based on shape, size, and functionality.[21, 22, 23] These common MOFs tend to have features that allow for the ability to target structures of particular typologies that tend to be appropriate in certain applications by using a molecular building block approach. This approach is a design strategy for the construction of solid materials. These material's metal ions, coordination clusters, and organic ligands are pre-designed to have very specific geometry and directionality upon coordination to assist as building blocks to target structures.[21]

The study of MOF is a field of research that has rapidly risen to in modern chemistry. This field has grown from the initial to the very influential reports toward advanced design strategies, structural appreciation, and topological analysis in which has depicted a range of interesting material properties. Thus combines together diverse scientific disciplines in conjunction with synthetic methodologies and structural analysis with the sole purpose of making new generations of MOFs. This research area has surpassed its original development in coordination and super molecular chemistry to embrace materials that deal in separational science, theory, electronics, magnetism, and catalysis.[21, 22] This is why this investigation aspires to catalog recognized work in this developing new field.

Extensive time was spent on classifying numerous research areas that depict MOFs in their investigations. This yielded over two-hundred different research publications that investigate MOFs to a great degree. This just shows how much attention MOFs have attained in the past few years due to its diverse applications. These various MOFs are classified in Appendix A of this study, which briefly depict the title of the publication, formula, and application of the researched MOFs. These publications are classified under MOF's as catalyst, common photocatalytic MOFs, and more related to this study the publications of UiO-66 MOF, and the replacement of Zr/BDC in UiO-66 MOF. These publications really assisted in understanding and figuring out the relevant data to be derived of this investigation.

The reader should note that most of these publications have been conducted within the past ten years. Although MOF based structures was proposed nearly 20 years ago [24] and experimentally demonstrated 15 years ago, only recently has there been extensive experimental exploration. The reason for the delay is due to the necessity of first developing a substantial foundation of MOF synthetic chemistry.[24] However, with significant amount of such chemistry in place, it has been possible for researchers in this area to envision a variety of strategies that can be evaluated experimentally in a quick manner. Along with diverse applications, MOFs have really gained more attention as catalytic material.

1.3 Catalog of Known Catalytic MOFs

Catalyst material (substance) are known to increase the rate of a chemical reaction. This is refereed to as catalysis in which a catalyst material will contribute to the chemical reaction. These reactions happens much faster and require less activation energy. One great aspect of catalytic materials are that they do not get absorbed or consumed in the chemical reaction. Meaning that the material can continue to catalyze the reaction of the reactant, and often small amount of the catalytic material is needed.

However, only a few dozen reports of chemical catalysis by MOF crystalline have appeared to date. In Appendix B Table B.1 are the majority of known cataloged MOF catalytic material taken from the publications in Appendix A Table A.1 (MOFs as Catalyst) as well as provided from the literature.[24, 25, 26, 27] Appendix B Table B.1 also depicts descriptions of the specific catalyzed reaction and what substrate was used for the MOF Material. References to each specific catalog of known catalytic MOF is given as well as reference materials to assist with identification of each chemical formula within Appendix B Table B.2.

One of the earliest proposed applications [28] and demonstration for crystalline MOF materials are as heterogeneous catalysis. These materials are porous and robust, and therefore well suited to catalysis under extreme conditions. This porosity yields internal surface areas that are relatively large which facilitates their catalytic reactivate. The uniformity of their pore and channel sizes accounts for much of the catalytic selectivity.[24] Although these relevant features are shared with other materials, however crystalline MOFs differ in other important ways. For instance, MOFs contain organic components, and MOFs can be synthesized in much greater chemical variety.[23] In addition, to good thermal stability, some MOFs demonstrate stability to substantially above 500*◦*C [24, 29] and many exhibit permanent microporosity. MOFs are superior in comparison to traditional catalysts because of their desirable topology and high surface area which allows for accommodation of guest molecules.

1.4 Photocatalytic MOFs

Additionally, the HOMO-LUMO gap can easily be tuned through modification of the inorganic or organic units of the molecule during its synthesis. Thus, efficient visible light harvesting can be achieved using MOFs. They consist of a microporous structure which

has a surface area exceeding traditional porous materials such as zeolites and carbons.[30] Additionally, their pore volume values are associated among the highest reported for any material. This porousness is due to the presence of the strong metal ligand interactions which allow for removal of a solvent molecule without structural collapse of the framework. The influential features of MOFs such as pore size, shape, and chemical environment can be finely tuned by the selection of the metal and ligand building blocks of the MOF.

These MOFs act as a molecular filter, by which molecules can diffuse through its pores. Another means of interaction is that of guest molecule with transition states for the reactions formed within the scope of the pores. Synthesizing MOFs is usually performed by adding the molecular building blocks into solutions or through solvothermal procedures. This possibility for modifying the organic ligands and consequently the pore size and shape allows tailoring the MOF material to suit the needs of various applications. In Appendix A Table A.2 common photocatalytic MOFs are cataloged and expressed with the appropriate application for each specific MOF.

CHAPTER 2

COMPUTATIONAL AND EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

2.1 Material Design

The material of interest (UiO-66(M)-BDC) has experimentally demonstrated excellent thermal and chemical stability for which can be implemented for various applications.[15, 12, 31] The objective of the study is to investigate how the UiO-66 structure can be modified to allow better conditions for light absorption. More specifically, the objective will be to understand how the inorganic portion can contributes to the modulation of the band gap.

The main structural modification was substitution of the inorganic ion with all possible positions in the unit cell (UiO-66(M)-BDC, $M = Ti$, Zr , Hf). The MOF structure has inorganic elements at the outer corners and a single length linker (UiO-66). The conventional unit cell has 456-atoms and at the body centered position is a pore; however, to reduce the computational strain, a primitive unit cell consisting of 114-atoms is used for this study (Figure 2.1). The six inorganic positions are clearly illustrated in Figure 2.1 of the primitive unit cell. Also, the functionalized groups that consisted of amino group (NH_2) and the nitro group (NO_2) design is illustrated in Figure 2.1. Part a of Figure 2.1 illustrates the original linker design, part b is the structure with the replacement of one hydrogen atom on the linkers aromatic ring with a nitro group (NO_2) , and part c is the replacement of one hydrogen atom with an amino group (NH2).

Every configuration combination of the three inorganic elements (Zr, Hf, Ti) were calculated in the six positions within the primitive unit cell. Because there are six positions for ion substitution there is a series of sub-cases that must be considered to account for all possible coordination of the substitutional species. For example, if four of the six position are filled with Zr and the remaining two are filled with Ti. The question arises which

Figure 2.1 Top figure illustrates the primitive unit cell of $UiO-66(M)$, $(M = Ti, Zr, Hf)$. Shows the 114-atom primitive unit cell. The six positions that were modified are depicted in the figure and in the center of the cell the linker design is clearly shown. The unit cell is made of inorganic (gray), carbon (dark blue), oxygen (red), hydrogen (white), and nitrogen (light blue). The bottom figure shows the unit cell of the three linker design. Part (a) is UiO-66(M), part (b) is UiO-66(M)-NO₂, and part (c) is UiO-66(M)-NH₂.

two positions within the unit cell should the two Ti occupy. This defines the sub-case for each configuration and for this study the two ions were simulated at every possible combination and the total energy was determined. The sub-case configuration with the lowest configuration was taken as the most favorable configuration. There is a total of 729 trials that had to be executed and analyzed just for one of the three functionalization cases. Once the data was analyzed for the BDC, only the best (lowest gap size) was functionalized for each case and that consisted of 28 trials for the $BDC-NO₂$ and 28 trials for $BCD-NH₂$. Also, each trail had various operations that had to be done in sequence to obtain proper data. The reader should note that this is a tremendous amount of computational and analytically challenging process. Typically each trial took approximately 30 hours of computational time, it is noted that 12 trails could be run at a given time due to the allocated time for this project. This is an area that needs to be developed from a statistical point of view to decrease the computational expense for larger design spaces.

2.2 Computational Details

A density functional theory (DFT) approach [16] was implemented to predict the ground state thermodynamic properties (lowest posible energy level) for each of the thermodynamic steps. To reduce the computational expense of the simulations, only a single primitive cell was simulated for each configuration. In addition, a pseudodized wave function approach was used to reduced the computational expense. The functional form of the pseudowave functions were based on Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) ultrasoft potentials with a cut-off wave function energy of 680 eV (50 Ry). Several other functionals such as BLYP and their hybrid counter parts were investigated but the PBE was found to be most accurate and stable for the given unit cell. The k-point mesh was sampled using a Monkhorst Pack $4x4x4$ grid with a offset of $1/4,1/4,1/4$. To account for the Van der Waals interaction a Van der Waals correction term [32, 33] was incorporated, which introduced some empiricism into the calculation. The scaling parameter (S6) were specified to be 0.75 and cut-off radius for the dispersion interaction was 200 angstroms. Both the ion and unit cell geometries were relaxed to a relative total energy less than 1x10*−*¹⁰ and overall cell pressure of less than 0.5kBar. The reader should be made aware that pure DFT predictions of band gap are often under predicted due to the over-analyticity of the functionals and exchange-correlation terms. Therefore, the band gaps reported in this study should not be used as absolutes but used to study the trends.

2.3 Experimental Details

Synthesis UiO-66(Zr) MOFs with different side functional groups H, $NO₂$ and $NH₂$ were synthesized according to previous paper [11] with a solvothermal method. Synthesis of the UiO-66(Ti-Zr)-R $(R=H, NO_2, and NH_2)$ follows the procedure found in the literature [18]. The UiO-66(Ti-Zr)-NH² MOFs were synthesized via a post-exchange method according to the literature [34]. The UV-Vis absorption spectra for all materials were acquired on a Shimadzu 2550 UV-VIS spectrometer under the diffuse-reflection model using an integrating sphere. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was recorded to determine the chemical status of elements on a PHI 5000 Versa Probe system. The corresponding UV-Vis spectrum for all of the samples synthesized is found in Figure 2.2 and the corresponding band gap values are found in Table 3.1.

2.3.1 Experimental Synthesis

The UiO-66(Zr) MOFs with different side functional groups H, NO_2 and NH_2 were synthesized according to previous paper with a solvothermal method [11] The UiO-66(Ti,Zr)- NH2 MOFs were synthesized via a post-exchange method according to the literature [34]. Asprepared $\text{UiO-66(Zr)}\text{-}NH_2$ was dispersed in toluene under N2 flow, then appropriate amount of Titanium butoxide was added to yield different Ti substitution ratios. The mixture was stirred at 100C under N_2 protection for different time intervals. The final product was collected with centrifuge and washed with toluene for multiple times, and dried under vacuum at 120C.

The four atomic concentrations for the titanium substitution are provided in Table 2.1. Notice that on the fourth trial all of the inorganic ions were substituted except one results in a $Ti₅Zr₁$. The inability to fully substitute Ti on the lattice is a result of the experimental techniques and the binding energy of the final Ti ion. However, the fully substituted Ti can be synthesized based on the theoretical calculation, which predict a stable configuration.

Figure 2.2 Plot of the experimental UV-Vis spectrum for UiO-66(Zr)and UiO-66(Zr,Ti)-R $(R=H, NO₂, and NH₂)$. The fraction of Ti_xZr_{x^{-1}} correspond to the six ion positions avail-</sub> able in a single primitive. Complete experimental substitution of Ti was not experimentally demonstrated (only five of the six position on the primitive cell were substituted) but theoretically calculated, this suggest that full substitution should be possible. The corresponding experimental band gap values can be found in Table 3.1.

Table 2.1 Atomic concentrations of Ti and Zr in four representative samples for the UiO-66(Ti*x*Zr¹*−^x*)-NH2. The last two columns correspond to the number of inorganic position fill in the primitive unit cell, which had six positions. Note, the fourth trial did not reach full substitution due to experimental limitations.

	Trial Ti Concentration Zr Concentration Ti/Zr		η_{Zn}	η_{Ti}
			6.00 ± 0.00	
3.37	4.01	0.84	3.26 2.74	
8.41	2.99	2.81	1.57 4.42	
11.63	1.95	5.96	0.86 5.14	

The UV-Vis absorption spectra for all materials were acquired on a Shimadzu 2550 UV-VIS spectrometer under the diffuse-reflection model using an integrating sphere. The UV-Vis for all samples can be found in the main article and the UV-Vis for the four Ti exchange trials that correspond to Table 2.1 can be found in Figure 2.3.

After the Ti-Zr exchange, clear Ti2p peaks were detected with XPS for all samples, as shown in Figure 2.4. As demonstrated in paper [34], Ti has been successfully partially substituted Zr in $U_1O-66-NH_2$. The substitution ratio was dependent on the Ti precursor concentration and the exchange time period.

Figure 2.3 Plot of the UV-Vis for four different Ti exchanges on the UiO-66(Zr) lattice. This plot corresponds to Table 2.1.

Figure 2.4 Plot of the XPS spectra for Ti2p after Ti-Zr exchange.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Results and Discussion

The substitutional exchange of the inorganic ions was carried out for a single unit cell by substituting the inorganic ion for one of three ions, which include Zr, Hf, Ti. The band gaps were then predicted using DFT calculation and compared to experimental values at the end point of the design space. It has been confirmed in previous studies [15] that this particular metal-organic (UiO-66) structure exhibits semiconductor type band gaps. This is reasoned based on the moderate band gap size and the electron charge transfer behavior. Under this assumption it is accepted that this particular structure should be able to be subsitutionally doped. However, it is uncertain how the substitutional doping will manifest itself in modulation of the band structure. It has been well demonstrated that functionalization of the organic linkers provides a profound influence on the band gap by introducing mid gap states. Using the aid of DFT predictions in conjunction with validation with experimental findings the following discussion will elaborate on the exchange of the inorganic ion on the modulation of the band gap.

A summary of the band gap prediction can be found in Figure 3.1, which illustrates the band gap modulation for three inorganic ions and three functionalizations. In all three of the functionalization cases the smallest band gap was realized for a titanium inorganic ion. It is noted though comparison of the contours across each of the ternary plots of Figure 3.1 that the modulation trends are not consistent for each functionalization case (note the independent contours). The most noticeable deviation out of all three ternary is the BDC functionalization case. Here this incorporation of Zr results in slight increase of 0.2eV over the pure Hf case. This is not the case for the other two functionalization

Table 3.1 Calculated and experimentally determined band gap energies for the three MOF linker designs and three functionalizations. The DFT values in parentheses are the band gap energies ignoring a mid-gap impurity band. The experimental data was determined using UV-Vis spectrometer, see Figure 2.2. The asterisk (*) next to the experimental values denotes only partial substitution of Ti on the Zr host sites, $Ti₅Zr₁$.

Design	DFT (eV)	Experimental UV-Vis (eV)
$Zr-BDC$	2.96(3.15)	3.76
$Zr-BDC+NO2$	2.62(3.19)	2.93
$Zr-BDC+NH2$	1.94(3.10)	2.75
Ti-BDC	2.67(2.80)	
$Ti-BDC+NO2$	2.35(2.87)	
$Ti-BDC+NH2$	1.62(2.77)	$2.60*$
Hf-BDC	2.74(3.11)	
$Hf-BDC+NO2$	2.66(3.17)	
$Hf-BDC+NH2$	1.98(2.96)	

where the fully doped Hf case results in the largest band gap. This provides an overview of the very essence of this study and this is evident that the inorganic portion of the MOF is changing the charge state of aromatic ring or light sensitive portion of the MOF structure. Fortunately, through the use of DFT modeling it is possible to ascertain information about the nature of the inorganic ion that is not readily available from a pure experimental point of view.

To better understand how the band gap energy is modulated for different configurations, the density of states (DOS) allows visual inspection of the number of states as a function of energy level. Figure 3.2 are plots of the DOS along the outer edge of each ternary plot. These surface plots of the total density of states permit the inspection of each state as different inorganic ions are substitutionally doped into the structure. Note, these are DFT predictions of the band gap energies and the band gap is typically under predicted with DFT modeling, however, the relative comparison of the band gap energy is still permitted. As can be seen in Figure 3.2, Ti proves to have the lowest overall band gap. It is evident that the Ti has a strong influence on the valance band edge and subsequently the band gap

Figure 3.1 Illustration of three ternary plots for all possible combinations of the three inorganic elements (Zr, Ti, Hf) for three functionalizations (BDC-R, $\mathbb{R} = \mathbb{H}$, NO₂, NH₂)). The contour colors of each ternary plot corresponds to the predicted band gap, which was determined from the DFT predictions. The implemented Ti structures proved to have the lowest band gap for all three functionalizations. A UiO-66(Ti)- NH_2 proved to have the lowest band gap with a corresponding value of 1.61eV considering a impurity band. Experimental values were determined a the corners and are provided in Table 3.1. Note, these band gaps are known to be under predicted when compared to experimental values due to inherent approximations of DFT.

(Fermi energy across all configurations has been aligned in Figure 3.2). One aspect that is noted when comparing across the three functionalization is the mid-gap states, which are a result of the functionalization. It is noted that the $NH₂$ results in a significant mid-gap state. More interesting, for the $NO₂$ functionalized case there is a mid-gap state introduced near the valance band edge, which is shifted in the positive energy direction for the Ti case. Again this provide some evidence that the Ti ions are influencing the charge states of the aromatic carbon, which the functionalization are bonded.

Figure 3.3 are the molecular density of states for the all of the functionalizations cases at the end points of the design space. It becomes apparent from Figure 3.3 which molecular orbitals contribute to the total band gap energy, the lines designated by total is the total density of states (as provided in Figure 3.2). Figure 3.3 permits considerable insight of the molecular orbital states that is not readily accessible from a pure experimental point of view. Figure 3.3a-c correspond to the three different functionalizations. In Figure 3.3a and the

Figure 3.2 Plot of the density of states (DOS) along outer edge of composition along the ternary plot provided in Figure 3.1. Part a is $UiO-66(M)$, Part b is $UiO-66(M)$ -NO₂, and Part c is $UiO-66(M)$ -NH₂. The Fermi energy is aligned for each of the figures. The lowest band gap is associated with titanium inorganic ion, UiO-66(Ti)-R. The inorganic ion significantly modulates the HOMO, which is associated with the p-orbitals of the aromatic carbon atoms.

Figure 3.3 Plot of the partial density of states (PDOS) of the molecular orbitals for the three MOF designs. Part a is $UiO-66(M)$, part b is $UiO-66(M)-NO_2$, and part c is UiO-66(M)-NH2. The Ti ion modifies the C-O pi-pi bond state, which results in modulation of the HOMO C and O states.

Ti case, the HOMO level is attributed to the Ti ion (inorganic) orbitals. There is also a noticeable modification of the oxygen and carbon states, in the case of Ti. This behavior confirms that the Ti is modifying the oxygen and aromatic carbon states and ultimately the band gap. However, based on the total density of states, it is the HOMO that is undergoing the most modulation as a result of of the inorganic substitution. In Figure 3.3a for the Ti case there is a considerable modulation of the HOMO oxygen and carbon states. This is apparent in all three functionalization cases, Figure 3.3a-c.

The inorganic ion (Ti, Hf, Zr) within the structure is bound by an oxygen and then to the aromatic carbon, as seen in Figure 2.1. The binding of the titanium with oxygen is a more complicated interaction when compared to Hf and Zr because of the hybridization bonding of Ti with oxygen. The binding with Ti-O is greater than the binding between Hf-O and Zr-O as illustrated in Figure 3.4 with decreased bond length. This is to be expected as a result of lower atomic number of Ti. However, this increased binding leads to a change in the state nearest the HOMO level as shown in Figure 3.3. The sp³d hybrid bonding(evident from the directional bonding) of titanium with oxygen is reasoned to be the indirect influence of the photosensitive aromatic carbon resulting in modulation of the band gap. Similar bonding interactions are evident in simple inorganic configuration of titanium oxides. However, in this case the Ti-O, bonds acts to influence a neighboring binding of the organic linker. More specifically, the Ti-O cluster act like the sp2 pi-pi binding of aromatic carbon and can be visually confirmed through inspection of the local density of states (Figure 3.4). The pi-pi electron clouds are slightly distorted by the Ti-O cluster, confirming a change in the charge state of the photosensitive aromatic carbon. This similar influence is also induced by the functional groups that bond with the pi orbitals of the aromatic ring, which also induce a band gap modulation. Similar agreement can be found in the literature [35]. Interestingly, the functional induced band modulation depends on the nature of the functional group and the type of functional group and not on the number of functional groups on the linker. The linker's pi orbitals contribute to the top levels of the HOMO, however, functional groups seem to have no effect to the LUMO [35].

The functionalized cases play a critical role in contributing to the band gap modulation. In the UiO-66(Zr)-BDC structure, upon Ti substitution and subsequent functionalization there is further modulation of the band gap. A visual confirmation of the change in local density for the three inorganic substitutions are depicted in Figure 3.4 for the amino functionalization. This density plots corresponds to the grayed region of the partial density of states plot, Figure 3.3c. At first glance the density distribution for the three structures look similar, however, after close inspection of the inorganic ions, it is apparent that Ti has an influence on the HOMO level. As shown in Figure 3.4 the ion distance between the inorganic ion and the oxygen results in an in-direct influence to the photosensitive aromatic carbon. The Zr has the larger distance followed by Hf and Ti, which is a similar trend to the band gap with Ti having the lowest.

A summary of the predicted DFT and the experimental band gap values are provided in Table 3.1. The predicted band gaps in this study are corroborable with other studies[8, 7, 9, 15] and the experimental values conducted in this study. The lowest band gap was UiO- $66(Ti)$ -NH₂. This is a results of both a mid gap state as a results of the functionalization and modulation of the HOMO level as a results of the Ti-O-C interaction. While, the full exchange of Ti within UiO-66(Zr) was not feasible experimentally there is reason to belive a fully exchanged UiO-66(Ti) should be able to be synthesized based on stability of structure from a theoretical point of view. However, the post-exchange method demonstrated in this study demonstrates the possibility to apply this method to other stable MOF design to further modulate their optical properties.

Figure 3.4 Plot of the integrated local density of state for UiO-66(M)-NH₂ [M=Hf,Zr,Ti]. Top figure a illustrates Zr unit cell, b illustrates Ti unit cell, and c illustrates Hf unit cell. These figures shown correspond to the grayed region in Figure 3.3c . The Ti substitution is associated with decreased bond length between Ti-O and associated decrease in the band gap.

CHAPTER 4

CONCLUSION

This thesis catalogs common MOF designs based on application and diversity in various fields, as well as conduct an in-depth study of a UiO-66(M) $|M = \text{Ti}, \text{Zr}, \text{Hf}|$ MOF structure with three linker designs of BDC, $BDC-NO₂$, and $BDC-NH₂$. There appeared trends in the catalog of certain MOF materials for certain applications. For instance, cataloged UiO-66 and MIL structured MOFs appeared more commonly in catalyst and photocatalytic applications due to their high porosity. The in-depth study of MOF structure was analyzed from a computational and experimental perspective, DFT calculations confirmed a reduction of band gap with increased exchange of inorganic Zr ion with a Ti. The resulting band gap size, which was smallest for the fully substituted Ti-BDC-NH² functionalized yielding a band gap of 1.62(2.77)eV. The decrease in band gap was reasoned to be a result of the increased deformation of Ti-O bonding resulting in a modulation of the aromatic carbon O-C binding and ultimately a modulation of the band gap. The amino functionalization proved to introduce a mid gap state the band that further reduced the band gap. While experimental synthesis only resulted in partial exchange of Zr and Ti (approximate experimental structure $\text{UiO-66(Ti}_5\text{Zr}_1)\text{-}NH_2$) the theoretical results suggest that full substitution should result in a stable structure. Furthermore, the experimental ion exchange method employed in this study has potential in other MOF structures for further band gap modulation through inorganic ion exchange.

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APPENDIX A

Cataloged Research of MOFs

Table A.1 MOFs as Catalyst

Table A.2 Common Photocatalytic MOFs

Table A.3 UiO-66 MOF

Table A.4 Replacement of Zr/BDC in UiO-66 MOF

APPENDIX B

Catalog of Catalytic MOFs

Table B.1 Known Catalytic MOFs

