

Co(II)-Based 2D Coordination Polymer Featuring Energy Storage and Detection of Aqueous Inorganic Anions

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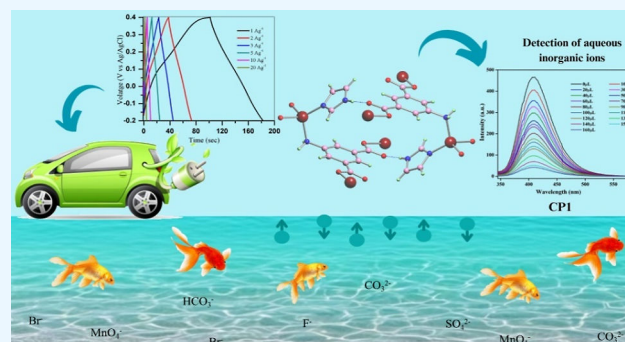


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ABSTRACT: Herein, we have synthesized a Co(II)-based 2D coordination polymer [Co(5-AIA)(Imidazole)]_n (CP1) (AIA = 5-aminoisophthalic acid) via a solvothermal approach. SCXRD (single-crystal X-ray diffraction) was utilized to analyze the crystal structure of fabricated CP1. Moreover, PXRD, TGA, FTIR, and SEM analyses were done to identify the structural features of fabricated CP1. The standard rod depiction of CP1 exhibits *hxl* underlying net topology, and the hydrogen-bonded network depicts *hcb* underlying net topology. The fluorescence detection of inorganic anions using CP1 showed a promising result of 90.3% for MnO₄⁻. The electrochemical analysis of CP1 was done under a basic medium utilizing a 3 M KOH electrolyte through CV (cyclic voltammetry) and GCD (galvanic charge–discharge) techniques which show a 134.75 F g⁻¹ specific capacity at a current density of 1 A g⁻¹. Furthermore, CP1 shows a 94% retention capacity after 2500 cycles at a 20 A g⁻¹ current density.



Furthermore, CP1 shows a 94% retention capacity after 2500 cycles at a 20 A g⁻¹ current density.

1. INTRODUCTION

In the modern era, environmental pollution has turned into a significant issue for the environment and public health, driven by population growth and industrial development. There are lots of pollutants in air and water pollution such as organic compounds, toxic gases, and heavy metals which are the cause of health risks.¹ MnO₄⁻ is a strong oxidizing agent. The exploitation and capricious release of MnO₄⁻ can trigger acute detriment to humans, e.g., coagulative necrosis of the stomach, esophagus, hemorrhage, and liver. Overdosing on MnO₄⁻ causes allergies, genetic abnormalities, cancer disorders, and carcinogenic effects on cells.² Therefore, the US Environmental Protection Agency listed MnO₄⁻ at the top of the pollutants list.³ Hence, it is crucial to develop accurate MnO₄⁻-sensing materials to protect the environment, as well as human health. However, owing to their similar strong oxidizing characteristics, MnO₄⁻, CrO₄²⁻, and Cr₂O₇²⁻ are typically difficult to separate from one another.^{4–6} The development of materials with precise selectivity for MnO₄⁻ sensing is both highly significant and extremely difficult. Hence, it is the need of the hour to develop more efficient and reliable sensing devices. Fluorescence-based CPs are gaining more attention in developing sensing devices owing to their simplicity, operability, selectivity, and sensitivity.^{7–10}

Alhaddad and El-Sheikh reported a Co(II)-MOF and examined the detection of various anions. Co(II)-MOF showed better detection of F⁻ ions with a 0.24 μg/L limit of detection and a 0.72 μg/L limit of quantification.¹¹ Ma et al. fabricated a new Eu-MOF by utilizing a 4,5-di(3,5-

dicarboxylphenoxy)phthalic acid ligand for sensing of MnO₄⁻ with an 88.2% detection limit.¹²

In recent times, as the population has grown enormously, energy demand has also increased. This growing demand for energy is encouraging scientists to develop new technologies to deliver and store energy in more efficient and sustainable ways as the depletion of fossil fuels, coal, and petroleum is also occurring rapidly.¹³ The rapid advancement of electronic devices and vehicles has created an urgent need for novel and better energy storage solutions. Hence, researchers are developing cost-effective, flexible, and high-performance supercapacitor devices to fulfill all of the requirements. SC materials are encouraging choices for energy storage applications.^{14–16} The essential functional components of SCs which are responsible for improving power density, better cycling stability, fast charge–discharge rate, and high performance include two electrodes (cathode and anode) where an electrochemical process takes place like charge storage, the electrolyte, which permits ion transport and prevents electronic conduction to complete the electric circuit. Hence, to fulfill all of the properties of SCs, the materials should have enormous

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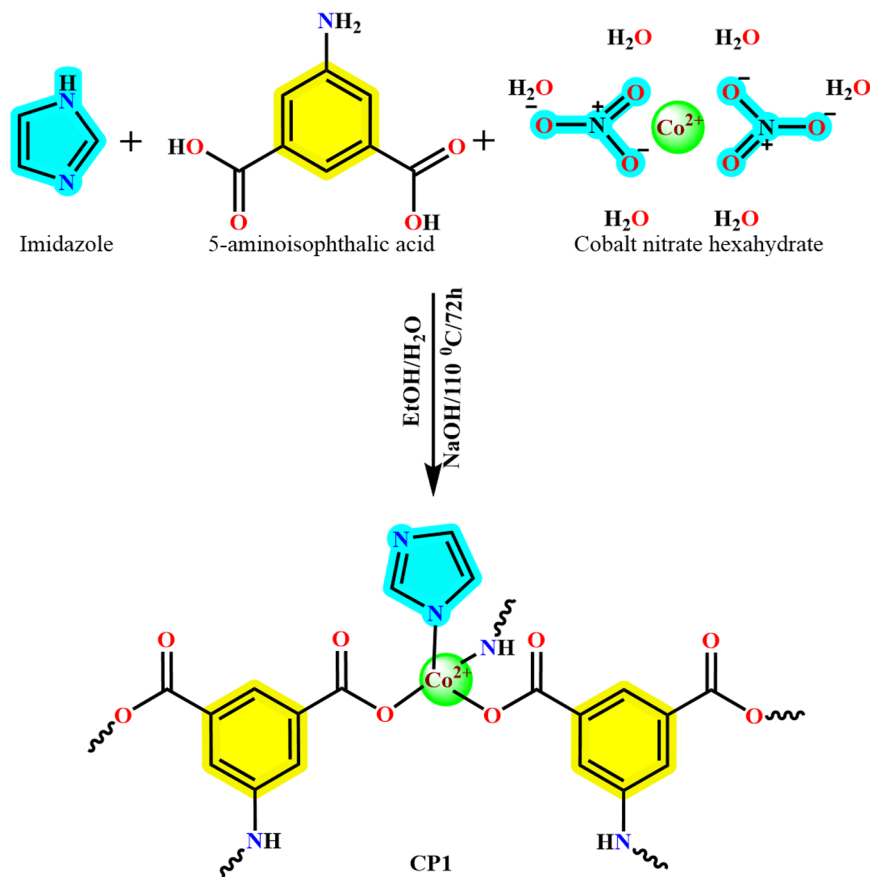
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Scheme 1. Scheme for the Synthesis of CPI



pore size, specific surface area, tunable morphology, good electrical conductivity, and good chemical/mechanical stability. CPs/metal–organic frameworks (MOFs) may meet the criteria for SC materials.

Coordination polymers (CPs) are a family of crystalline materials consisting of metal nodes and organic linkers. CPs show various properties, such as enormous pore size, tunable morphology, specific surface area, chemical/mechanical stability, and good electrical conductivity. CPs show a large number of applications including adsorption,^{17–20} catalysis,^{21–26} batteries,^{27–29} supercapacitors,^{30–35} drug delivery,^{36–38} sensing,^{39–41} magnetism,^{42–44} gas storage,^{45–47} wastewater treatment,^{48,49} separation,⁵⁰ and so on.

Somnath et al. reported a 3D Co-MOF named KA@MOF-S utilizing H₃BTC = 1,3,5-benzenetricarboxylic acid and Bimb = 1,4-bis[(1*H*-imidazol-1-yl)methyl]benzene organic ligands under solvothermal conditions. This fabricated MOF facilitates an excellent specific capacity of 648 F g⁻¹ at a current density of 1 A g⁻¹ with an 89.25% retention stability.⁵¹ Liu et al. developed a two-dimensional nanosheet Co-BTB-LB via a liquid–liquid interface-assisted approach.⁵² The developed nanosheet demonstrated an outstanding capacity of 4969.3 F g⁻¹ at a current density of 1 A g⁻¹.

A variety of CPs/MOFs (1D–3D) have been investigated in the literature for energy storage and inorganic anion detection. Nitrogen-rich organic ligands provide high basicity for deprotonation and stability to the framework by conjugation and provide versatility in creating functional groups. Moreover, organic ligands having multiple carboxylic groups provide multiple binding sites, higher surface area, fast redox activity,

flexibility, etc. Hence, to fulfill our requirement, we have used imidazole and 5-amino isophthalic acid organic ligands to synthesize our material. Herein, we reported the 2D Co(II)-based coordination polymer (CPI) for the detection of inorganic anions (F⁻, MnO₄⁻, Br⁻, HCO₃⁻, CO₃²⁻, and SO₄²⁻). The synthesized CPI facilitates outstanding selective detection of MnO₄⁻ with 90.3%; this result was obtained in triplicate. CPI showed good electrochemical energy storage with a specific capacity of 134.7 F g⁻¹ at 1 A g⁻¹ (current density) with a retention stability of CPI of 94% up to 2500 cycles. Hence, CPI can be used as a potential material for the fabrication of electrodes for energy storage.

2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

2.1. Reagents and Materials. Cobalt nitrate hexahydrate [Co(NO₃)₂·6H₂O], imidazole, and 5-amino isophthalic acid were purchased from Sigma Analytical grade (AR/ACS). All the solvents as well as NaOH were procured from Thermo Fisher Scientific, India, in AR grade. All the chemicals were used without any modification.

2.2. Methods and Instrumentation. The FTIR spectrum of CPI was recorded on a Thermo Scientific Nicolet model (iS50) using a KBr disk ranging from 4000 to 400 cm⁻¹. For thermal analysis of CPI, a Shimadzu TGA-50H instrument was used. Powder X-ray diffraction patterns were recorded using a Bruker D8 ADVANCE series 2 powder diffractometer (Cu K α radiation scan rate 30/min, 293 K) in order to analyze the bulk phase purity of CPI. The surface morphology as well as mapping and particle heterostructure of CPI were analyzed by a scanning electron microscope (JEOL JSM 6510LV

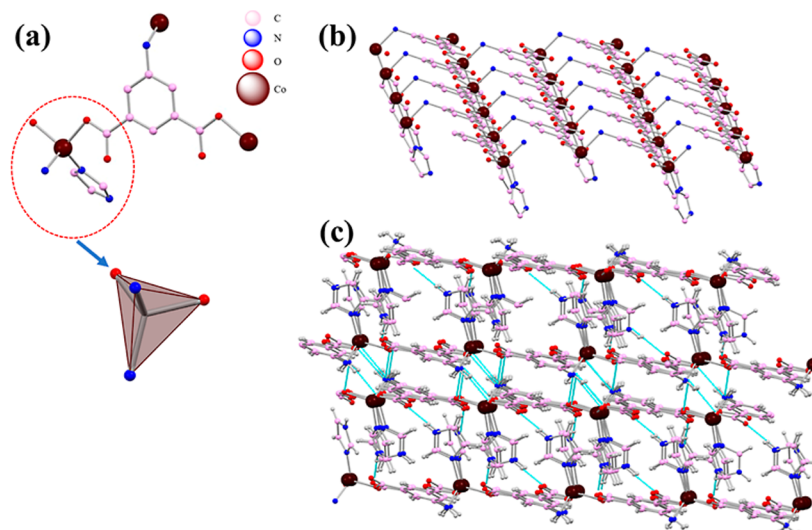


Figure 1. (a) Asymmetric unit of CPI, (b) 2D representation of CPI along the *b*-axis, (c) 3D view of CPI via hydrogen bonding.

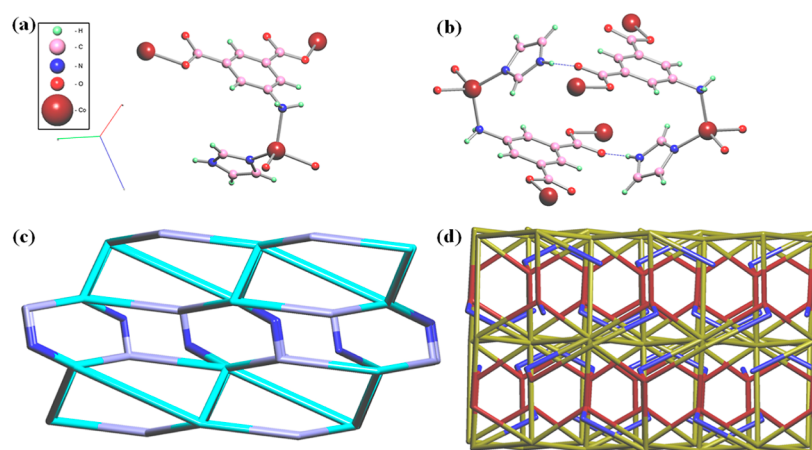


Figure 2. (a) Molecular representation of CPI, (b) hydrogen-bonded 3D structure of CPI, (c) *hxl* underlying net representation, and (d) hydrogen-bonded topological view of CPI along the *b*-axis, with *hcb* underlying net topology.

model) instrument coupled with JEOL/EO formate. The electrochemical analysis of CPI was carried out on an electrochemical workstation (Metrohm Autolab M204) at room temperature with a three-electrode system.

2.3. Single-Crystal X-ray Refinement. The crystallographic data of CPI was acquired by employing “XtaLAB Synergy, Rigaku, Japan” at a temperature of 293(2) K. The radiation utilized was monochromatic Mo $K\alpha$ radiation with a wavelength of 0.71073 Å. The determination of the crystal structure was done by utilizing Olex2,⁵³ which was further solved with the olex2.solve⁵⁴ structure solution program by employing charge flipping. Subsequently, Gauss–Newton minimization technology was implemented to improve the structure using the olex2.refine⁵⁴ refinement software. Table S1 summarizes the data pertaining to the crystal structure refinement of CPI, as well as other evidence related to the bond lengths and bond angles of CPI (Tables S2 and S3).

2.4. Synthesis of CPI. The synthesis of CPI has been done via a solvothermal approach. A mixture of 10 mg of imidazole (0.15 mmol) was taken in a beaker and dissolved in distilled water with continuous stirring for 30 min, and 20 mg of 5-aminoisophthalic (0.11 mmol) acid was taken in a separate beaker and dissolved in ethanol with continuous

stirring for 30 min. 80 mg of cobalt nitrate was added to the aqueous solution of imidazole with a few drops of NaOH to make the solution slightly alkaline. After 30 min, an ethanolic solution of 5-aminoisophthalic acid was poured into an aqueous solution of imidazole and the mixture was stirred for 10 min again. After stirring, the mixture was poured into a stainless-steel Teflon autoclave and put into a hydrothermal oven at 110 °C for 72 h. After 72 h, the mixture was cooled down at its own temperature for the next 12 h and then the mixture was filtered. Upon filtration, we got purple crystals which were appropriate for SCXRD (Scheme 1). Yield: 82%, IR (cm^{-1}): 3445 (br), 3256 (d), 3073 (s), 2958 (m), 2397 (m), 1772 (s), 1623 (s), 1548 (s), 1364 (d), 1083 (m), 808 (m), 722 (m), 648 (m), 590 (m), 447 (m).

2.5. Fabrication of Electrodes. The electrochemical study of CPI was achieved by a three-electrode system in 3 M KOH. The reference electrode was fabricated with Ag/AgCl, and the counter electrode was fabricated with platinum. The working electrode was fabricated with CPI (80%), poly(vinylidene fluoride) (PVDF) (10%), and carbon black (10%). The prepared electrode material was coated on a circular graphitic rod. Thorough electrochemical analysis was performed using various techniques like CV (cyclic voltam-

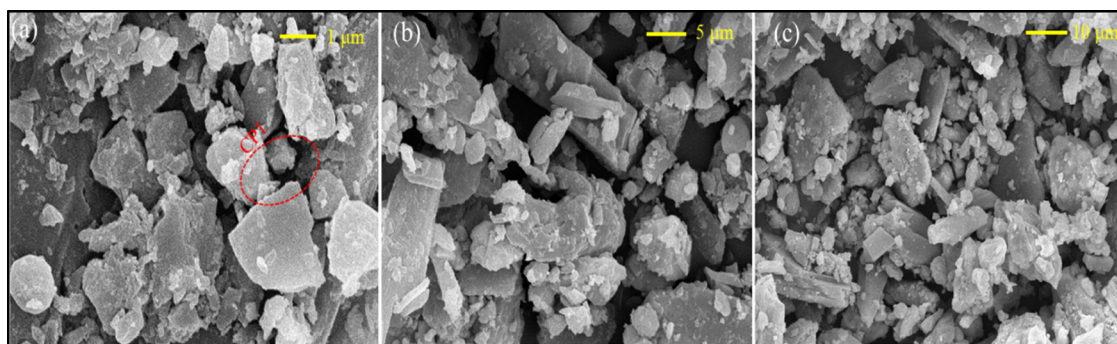


Figure 3. SEM images of CPI at various magnification ranges (a–c).

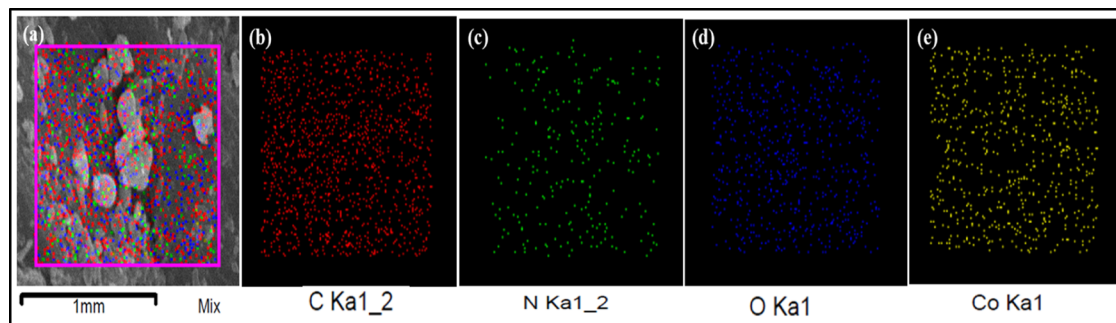


Figure 4. Elemental mapping of CPI was recorded at a 1 mm mixed selective area (a–e).

metry), GCD (galvanostatic charge–discharge), and EIS (electrochemical impedance spectroscopy) using Metrohm Autolab.

2.6. Efficiency Performance Evaluation. The specific capacitance (in $F\ g^{-1}$) of CPI was evaluated by using the equation given below

$$C_p = \frac{I \times \Delta t}{m \times \Delta v} \quad (1)$$

in which I denotes constant current, m denotes the mass of the electroactive material (i.e., $I/m =$ current density), and Δt and Δv signify constant discharge duration and potential window, respectively.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Structural Description and Topological Analysis of CPI. Single-crystal X-ray diffraction was utilized for the crystal analysis, and it showed that the crystal crystallizes in a monoclinic system with the $P2_1/c$ space group. The asymmetric unit of CPI governs a single unit of Co(II) ion, 5-amino isophthalic acid, and imidazole linker (Figure 1a) that shows distorted tetrahedral geometry. The extended 2D network of CPI shows a stair pattern (Figure 1b). Further, the hydrogen-bonding interaction constructs a 3D supramolecular network (Figure 1c). Topological analysis of CPI was examined by utilizing Topos Pro software (Figure 2a,b).^{55,56} The standard rod net depiction of CPI shows PS: $\{3^6 \cdot 4^6 \cdot 5^3\}$, uninodal net that governs hxl underlying net (Figure 2c). Further, simplifying the TTD collection of hydrogen-bonded network of CPI shows a point symbol for the net: $\{4^3 \cdot 6^2 \cdot 8\}\{4^9 \cdot 6^8 \cdot 8^4\}\{6\}$ with (2-c)(4-c)(7-c); 3-nodal net with hcb underlying net topology (Figure 2d).

3.2. PXRD, FTIR, TGA, and SEM Analysis. A single-crystal X-ray diffraction technique was employed to establish

the crystal structure of CPI. Other chemical and physical analyses, for instance, bulk phase purity, thermal stability, surface morphology, and functionality, were done by PXRD, TGA, SEM, and FTIR techniques, respectively. The bulk phase purity analysis was performed by powder X-ray diffraction technique which reveals that the PXRD pattern is in good agreement with the simulated pattern of CPI (Figure S1). Powder X-ray diffraction of CPI is also performed after the electrochemical study which reveals that PXRD patterns are perfectly matched before and after the electrochemical study of CPI (Figure S1). TGA was performed under a N_2 atmosphere at the rate of $10\ ^\circ C/min$ to examine the thermal stability. In the TGA plot of CPI, three stages of weight loss are examined in the temperature interval between 103 and $485\ ^\circ C$. The first stage from 103 to $203\ ^\circ C$ is due to the water loss. Moreover, 18% weight loss was observed at $225\ ^\circ C$ which is attributed to the elimination of the organic ligand (imidazole). The thermal stability plateau at $225\text{--}410\ ^\circ C$ is followed by a further weight loss phase where the primary framework collapses. At $400\ ^\circ C$, the disintegration process is complete, and weight loss is gradual (Figure S2). The FTIR study reveals the vibrational bands at various frequencies due to the presence of Co–N, Co–O, C=N, C–H, C–N, C=O, and C=C bonds.^{57,58} The FTIR spectrum exhibits a wide peak at $3445\ cm^{-1}$ corresponding to the –OH functional group. The vibrational peak at $3256\ cm^{-1}$ could be due to the presence of the –NH functional group. The vibrational frequencies at 3073 and $2958\ cm^{-1}$ could be due to the presence of –CH bonds of the benzene ring of the complex. The vibrational frequencies at 722 and $648\ cm^{-1}$ correspond to the presence of Co–O bonds, and the other vibrational bands at 590 and $447\ cm^{-1}$ correspond to the presence of Co–N bonds (Figure S3). To determine the surface morphology of CPI, SEM analysis was performed at various magnification ranges (Figure 3). The SEM images of CPI revealed that CPI contains a granular

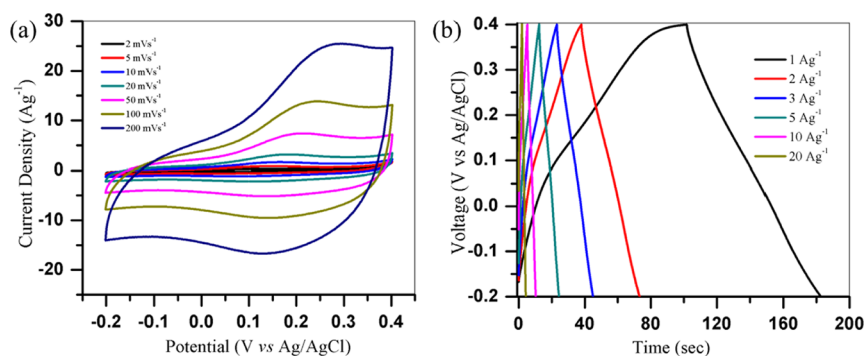


Figure 5. (a) CV profile of CP1 at various scan rates and (b) GCD of CP1 at various scan rates.

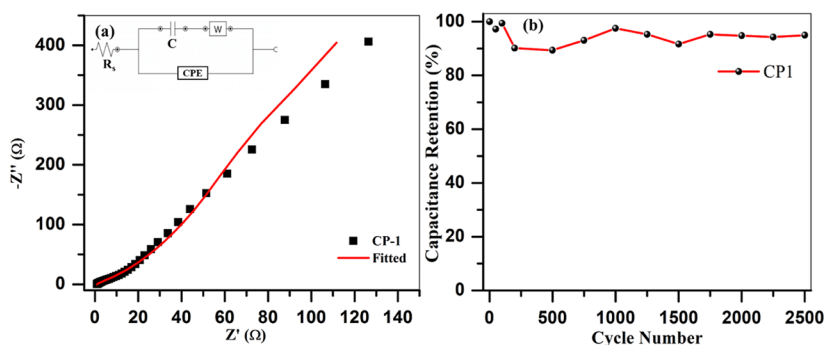


Figure 6. (a) Nyquist plot for the CP1 electrode material (inset figure for fitted circuit) and (b) cyclic stability of CP1 at a current density of 20 A g⁻¹.

morphology at various magnification ranges. The granular morphology could be ascribed to offering a larger surface area that enhances more reactive sites for the electrochemical process and also reduces the diffusion length to boost the reaction rate. Moreover, the elemental composition of CP1 was estimated by elemental mapping at the 1 mm range of specific elements (Figure 4).

3.3. Electrochemical Studies. Coordination polymers (CPs) are competitive materials for energy storage applications as they have tunable structural topology, prominent pore size, and large surface area. CPs containing metals like Co, Ni, and Cu have been shown to outshine the pseudocapacitive nature for energy storage applications. The electrochemical analysis of the fabricated electrode with CP1 was performed using CV at several scan rates (2–200 mV s⁻¹) within the potential window (-0.2 to 0.4 V) in 3 M KOH. Cyclic voltammetry discloses various features of working electrodes. CP1 showed differentiable peaks at 0.16 and 0.07 V corresponding to the redox couple of Co(II)/Co(III), which show its electrochemical activity. Again, the alignment of the CV spectrum of CP1 with the EDLC (electric double-layer capacitance) mechanism shows semirectangular features which reveal effective charge propagation on the surface of the electrode material.

Figure 5a shows the CV plots of the active electrode material across several scan rates varying between 2 and 200 mV s⁻¹. Additionally, the area inside every CV curve grows as scan rates rise for both redox peaks. Particularly, the integrated surface area of the CP1 electrode surpasses, resulting in a significant increase in specific capacitance. But at greater scan rates, the electrode tends to take on a semirectangular shape, indicating that electrolyte ions diffuse faster. This process probably helps to boost the energy storage efficiency, as seen in

Figure 5a. The CP1 structure facilitates more effective charge transfer by expanding the system's area of contact and modes.

GCD analysis was accomplished within a potential window of -0.2 to 0.4 V at several current densities from 1 to 20 A g⁻¹ for the evaluation of the capacitive behavior of the fabricated electrode CP1 in a 3 M KOH aqueous electrolyte solution, as shown in Figure 5b. The discharging time decreases as the current density increases, and capacitance also decreases. When the current density is 1 A g⁻¹, CP1 demonstrates a 134.75 F g⁻¹ specific capacitance. The GCD curves are not perfectly triangular shapes with nonlinear characteristics which indicates that CP1 shows pseudocapacitive behavior. Furthermore, as the current density increases from 1, 2, 3, 5, 10, to 20 A g⁻¹, the specific capacitance drops from 134.75, 117.3, 109.5, 100, 85.8, to 71.6 F g⁻¹, respectively. The redox characteristics at the electrode/electrolyte interface may be caused by the decrease in specific capacitance with an increase in the current density. This exceptional specific rate performance of CP1 could be ascribed to its porous features and electron hopping due to 5-amino isophthalic acid as well as imidazole linkers. Hence, based on the aforementioned results, CP1 could be a good electrode material for energy storage.

Moreover, in Figure 6, the EIS spectrum is plotted for the quantitative evaluation of SC electrodes over the 100 kHz–0.01 Hz frequency range at a 10 mV potential amplitude. The EIS spectrum reveals that the CP1 electrode can feature lower series resistance (R_s , encompassing solution resistance, contact resistance, etc.) and charge-transfer resistance (R_{ct}). Electrical resistance may be due to the rapid flow of electrons and electrolytic ions. The Nyquist plot for the CP1 electrode exhibits a pattern consisting of a slight semicircle that is attributed to the high-frequency region and a straight line in the low-frequency region, depicting solution resistance and

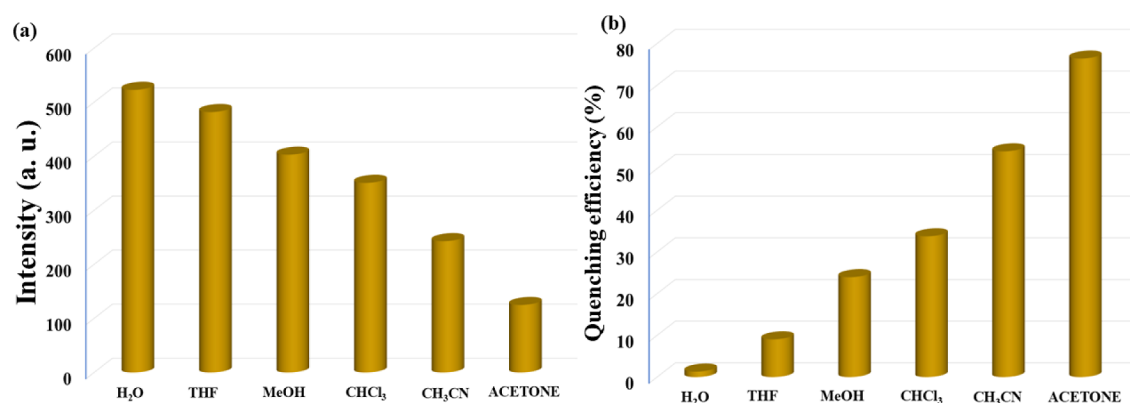


Figure 7. (a) Levels of fluorescence intensity for CPI at different solvent concentrations and (b) relative efficiencies of fluorescence quenching for CPI in water-based solutions with different solvent concentrations.

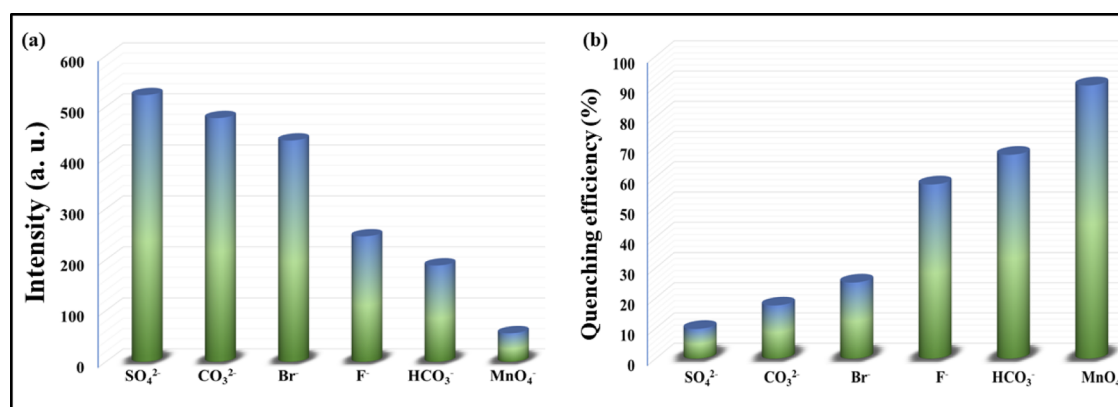


Figure 8. (a) The amount of fluorescence intensity and (b) the relative fluorescence quenching rates of CPI in water solutions (5×10^{-4} M) of different inorganic anions.

linear diffusion, respectively, as depicted in Figure 6a. EIS data were fitted to an equivalent circuit; the R_s value calculated from the points where the curves intersect the Z' axis (real axis) was $952 \text{ m}\Omega$, signifying minimum resistance in the CPI electrode material. Furthermore, the simulated C (pseudo-capacitance) and CPE (double layer) values were obtained to be 49.6 mF and $2.19 \text{ m}\Omega^{-1}\cdot\text{s}^N$ ($N = 0.998$), respectively, attributed to charge storage via the redox reaction and electrode/electrolyte junction interface.^{59,60} In the higher-frequency region, a slight semicircle appeared for Warburg ($27.0 \text{ m}\Omega^{-1}\cdot\text{s}^{1/2}$) that denoted linear diffusion. These findings demonstrate that the best conditions for creating the CPI electrode material are a lower concentration and a longer soaking time.

Furthermore, the long-term stability of the electrode material (CPI) was examined using charging–discharging at a 20 A g^{-1} current density with the same potential window of CV and GCD that shows $\sim 94\%$ retention capacity after completing 2500 cycles, as shown in Figure 6b. The specific capacitance also increased as compared to the obtained GCD at 20 A g^{-1} , and this phenomenon could have occurred due to pore expansion after electrolyte insertion/desertion or rapid electrolyte ion transport into the electrode material. We have compared several reported Co(II) based CPs, showing that CPI is suitable for an electrode material (Table S4).

3.4. Luminescence Sensing. In order to obtain a more thorough understanding of the sensing capacities of the produced CPI, we investigated sensing experiments in several solvents. To perform fluorescence sensing, a 3 mg sample of

crystalline CPI was immersed in 4 mL of different solvents, including water (H_2O), tetrahydrofuran (THF), methanol (MeOH), chloroform (CHCl_3), acetonitrile (CH_3CN), and acetone. For 30 min, the solution was subsequently exposed to ultrasonic treatment and kept for 24 h to create stable suspensions. The fluorescence emission of the suspensions was monitored across the 200–600 nm range at ambient temperature after being excited at 300 nanometers. The fluorescence intensity levels of stable solutions of CPI varied according to the solvent used (Figure 7a). The water solution of CPI exhibited a remarkable emission intensity of 545 nm upon excitation at 300 nm (Figure 7b). To get the efficiency of luminescence emission (Q), eq 2 was utilized. Fluorescence quenching was also examined through the application of Stern–Volmer (S–V) eq 3.

$$Q (\%) = \{(I_0 - I)/I_0\} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

$$I_0/I = 1 + K_{SV}[M] \quad (3)$$

where K_{SV} implies the quenching constant and $[M]$ signifies the molar concentration of the material. I_0 and I represent fluorescence emission intensities, respectively, before and after the introduction of the samples.⁶¹

3.5. Detection of Anions. To find out how well CPI can find inorganic anions, water solutions were mixed with 5×10^{-4} M of various K_nX ($X = \text{MnO}_4^-$, Br^- , CO_3^{2-}) and Na_nX ($X = \text{F}^-$, HCO_3^- , SO_4^{2-}) anions. Figure 8a shows the relative levels of CPI fluorescence intensities in water solutions (5×10^{-4} M) of different inorganic anions. It was found that the

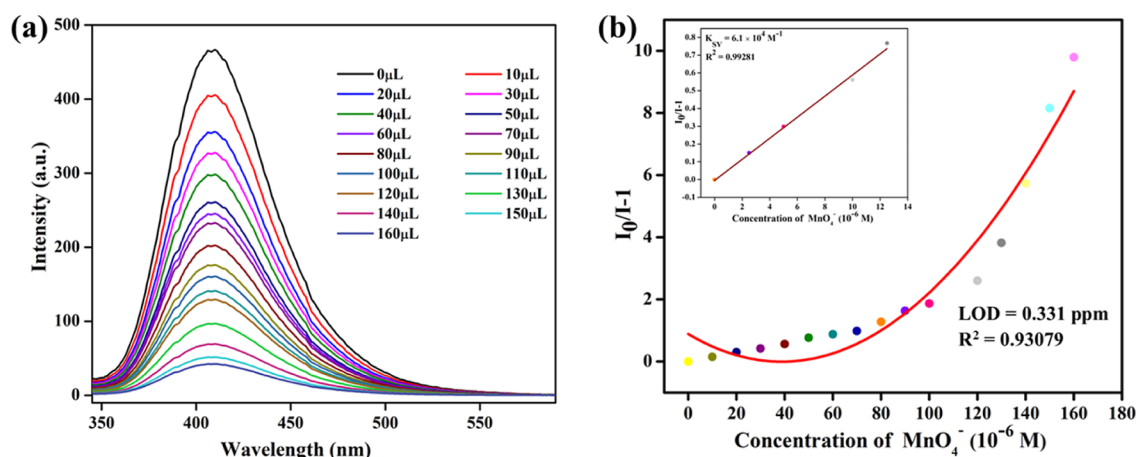


Figure 9. (a) Illustrates the observed intensity of fluorescence emission as specific compounds are incrementally added to the aqueous solutions of CP1. The panel displays the outcomes upon the addition of MnO₄⁻, and (b) shows the S–V plot of CP1 distributed in water following a progressive injection of MnO₄⁻ at a concentration of 1 mM. The graph shows the linear relationship between the concentration of MnO₄⁻ and the S–V curve of CP1 at low concentrations (inset).

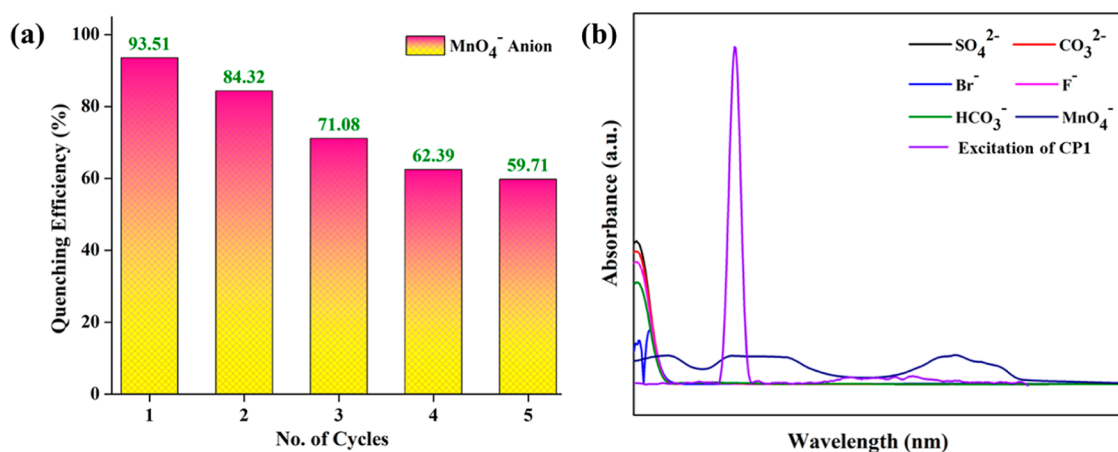


Figure 10. (a) Recyclability and reusability of CP1 for each cycle for MnO₄⁻ and (b) spectral overlap between the UV–vis absorption spectra of anions with the excitation spectra of CP1.

quenching efficiencies are 57.5% (F⁻), 90.3% (MnO₄⁻), 25.7% (Br⁻), 67.4% (HCO₃⁻), 17.5% (CO₃²⁻), and 9.8% (SO₄²⁻) (Figure 8b). It is interesting that MnO₄⁻ (90.3%) causes the highest quenching efficiency compared with other anions. This shows that MnO₄⁻ is very selective for being detected out of all of the anions that were tested. We tested how sensitive MnO₄⁻ is as a sensor in water by performing a quantitative fluorescence titration experiment. A water-based solution (1 mM) of MnO₄⁻ was added drop by drop to a stable CP1 solution that was spread out. After the solution became stable, the fluorescence intensity was determined separately. Gradually increasing the concentration of anions decreased the fluorescence intensity (Figure 9a). The Stern–Volmer (S–V) equation was also used to find the value of K_{SV} : $I_0/I = 1 + K_{SV}[M]$. The experimental data show that there is a linear association between the amount of MnO₄⁻ ($R^2 = 0.99281$) and the calculated value of K_{SV} at a low concentration of $6.1 \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1}$ for MnO₄⁻. The quench plot in Figure 9b shows that at low amounts, the rate of quenching is related in a straight line. Calculating $\text{LOD} = 3\sigma/m$ (where m signifies the slope and σ is used for the standard error) gives us the minimum detection limit for MnO₄⁻, which is $2.1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ M}$ (0.331 ppm). This means that CP1 can be utilized as a very sensitive fluorescence

sensing material to measure the amount of the MnO₄⁻ anion present.

3.6. Recyclability and Reusability. The purpose of observing the fluorescence emission spectra of CP1 in an aqueous solution was to determine its effectiveness as a fluorescence sensor for the MnO₄⁻ anions. It is possible to reuse the fluorescence intensity of CP1 for a minimum of five cycles, as shown in Figure 10a.

3.7. Possible Mechanism of Fluorescence Quenching. Recent research has suggested that framework collapse, ion exchange between different analytes, and competitive absorption/interaction mechanisms are frequently implicated in the identification of inorganic anions and solvents.⁶² To get a better understanding of how CP1 senses MnO₄⁻ through quenching impacts, supplementary analyses were executed. The UV–vis spectra were used to recognize the inhibition mechanism caused by MnO₄⁻. The breakdown of CP1 is unreliable for fluorescence quenching.^{63,64} The energy transfer reduction between the π & π^* orbitals of the N-containing ligands is responsible for the drop in fluorescence intensity seen amid the electron-transfer transitions of MnO₄⁻. To capture the sensing information, we used an excitation wavelength of 300 nm. This particular wavelength was selected

to ensure maximal absorption and effective excitation since it matches the excitation peak fluorophore. We obtained the best fluorescence emission at 300 nm, which improved the sensitivity and accuracy of the experiment. Additionally, by reducing the background influence, this decision produces more accurate and consistent findings for the experimental setup. The probability of resonance energy transfer is established by the extent of spectral overlap between the excitation bands of the fluorescence detectors CP1 and the absorption bands of the inorganic anions (analytes). The mechanism aligned with the ones reported by other teams. MnO_4^- is more likely to quench than other inorganic anions because of its UV–vis absorption spectra that overlap with the excitation spectra of CP1 (Figure 10b). From these variables, it can be concluded that inorganic anions compete with organic ligands for the absorption of excitation wavelength energy, as indicated by the overlaps between CP1 and MnO_4^- UV–vis spectra. Quenching occurs as a result of this competition.^{65,66}

4. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, the fabrication of a new 2D coordination polymer, $[\text{Co}(5\text{-AIA})(\text{imidazole})_n]$ (CP1), was done through the solvothermal method. CP1 exhibited a *hcb* underlying net topology. CP1 exhibits outstanding specific fluorescence detection characteristics for inorganic anions (MnO_4^-). Furthermore, CP1 facilitates better electrochemical energy storage capacity in the 3 M KOH electrolyte. However, CP1 exhibits remarkable stability with a low R_{ct} value and enormous specific capacitance. So, CP1 can be potentially employed in inorganic anion detection and electrochemical energy storage.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Data Availability Statement

No data was used for the research described in the article.

SI Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsomega.4c08913>. This data can be obtained free of charge via <http://www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk/conts/retrieving.html>, or from the Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre, 12 Union Road, Cambridge CB2 1EZ, UK; Fax: (+44) 1223-336-033; or Email: deposit@ccdc.cam.ac.uk.

Single-crystal data of CP1 (CIF)

Crystal data and structure refinement, bond lengths, and bond angles for CP1; PXRD patterns of simulated CP1, as-synthesized CP1, and after electrochemistry of CP1; thermogravimetric curve of as-synthesized CP (CP1); FTIR spectrum of CP1; and comparative study of various reported Co(II)-based CPs (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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