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Near-IR luminescent lanthanide complexes with 1,8-diaminoanthraquinone-based chromophoric ligands†

Oliver J. Stacey, Benjamin D. Ward, Angelo J. Amoroso and Simon J. A. Pope*

Three new chromophoric anthraquinone-based multidentate ligands have been synthesised in a step-wise manner from 1,8-dichloroanthraquinone. The ligands each comprise two dipicolyl amine units and react with trivalent lanthanide ions to form monometallic complexes of the form \([\text{Ln(L)}]^{3+}\) as indicated by MS studies and elemental analyses. Supporting DFT studies show that the monometallic species are highly favoured (>1000 kJ mol\(^{-1}\)) over the formation of a 2 : 2 dimetallic congener. Both ligands and complexes absorb light efficiently (\(\varepsilon \sim 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}\)) in the visible part of the spectrum, with \(\lambda_{\text{abs}}\) ca. 535–550 nm through an intramolecular charge transfer (ICT) transition localised on the substituted anthraquinone unit. In all cases the complexes show a fluorescence band at ca. 675 nm due to the ICT emitting state. The corresponding Nd(\(\text{III}\)), Yb(\(\text{III}\)) and Er(\(\text{III}\)) complexes also reveal sensitised near-IR emission characteristic of each ion following excitation of the ICT visible absorption band at 535 nm.

Introduction

The use of substituted anthraquinone derivatives as ligands, or as a component of ligands, for metal ions is well known and has been recently detailed.\(^1\) The commercial availability of a number of substituted anthraquinone species, together with their rich electronic and redox properties, has allowed wide-ranging variants to be investigated. Anthraquinones have been historically used as dyes and pigments,\(^2\) but are also well known in nature (occurring in both plant and insect life) providing stimulation for biological and medicinal products\(^3\) based on the anthraquinone core (for example, Fig. 1).

The electronic properties of substituted anthraquinones have been investigated in detail.\(^4\) Unsubstituted anthraquinone possesses dominant \(1\pi\text{–}1\pi^*\) transitions between 220–350 nm with a much weaker \(1\text{n}\text{–}1\pi^*\) transition, due to the presence of the carbonyl groups, around 400 nm.\(^5\) The addition of substituents to the anthraquinone core profoundly influences these optical properties. Of most interest are the influence of electron donating groups, such as amine, hydroxyl, alkoxy, which impart varying degrees of intra-molecular charge transfer (ICT) character to \(1\pi\text{–}1\pi^*\) transitions; for example, 1-aminoanthraquinone has a lowest energy absorption at ca. 480 nm.\(^5,6\) Multiple amino-substituents can bathochromically shift the absorption wavelength; in 1,4-versus 1,5-substituted species, computational studies have suggested that the varied distribution of the HOMO dominates the modulation of the HOMO–LUMO energy gap.\(^7\)

The coordination chemistry of a small number of both acyclic and macrocyclic ligands based upon 1,8-disubstituted
anthraquinones have been reported. For example, Pd(II) can form square planar complexes with 1,8-diamino-derived ligands including coordinative participation of the quinone. The rich optical characteristics of anthraquinone species has encouraged significant interest in their application as chromo-genic sensors. Ligands possessing a variety of receptor environments for binding metal ions have been developed, including a colourimetric response to Cu(II) with strong perturbation of the ICT bands of the anthraquinone chromo-phore.

Very recent work by Sykes and Mariappan has described sulfur, selenium and tellurium analogues of 1,8-anthraquinone-18-crown-5 for the targeted binding of Pb(II).

Our own studies have investigated the development of Au(i) complexes of alkynylalkoxy derivatives of anthraquinone for use as fluorescent cell imaging agents. Alkynyl groups can also be directly attached to the anthraquinone core and explored in Pt(II) coordination chemistry.

We have previously shown that anthraquinone-based chromophores can be covalently linked to DO3A-like binding sites for trivalent lanthanide ions allowing both monometallic and dimetallic variants to be synthesised, the latter investigated for DNA binding interactions and the resultant modulation of Gd(III)-enhanced water relaxivity properties.

This paper focuses on the stepwise synthesis of three new acyclic polydentate ligands that are based upon a 1,8-diamino-substituted anthraquinone core. The aim of the work was to explore the use of these visible light absorbing antennae as sensitizing moieties for near infrared (near-IR) emitting Ln(III). The synthesis and characterisation of the new compounds are discussed together with the time-resolved luminescence pro-perties of the complexes.

Results and discussion

Synthesis and characterisation of the ligands and complexes

The new chromophoric ligands were synthesised (Scheme 1) from commercially available 1,8-dichloroanthraquinone; reaction with an excess of 1,2-diaminoethane, 1,3-diaminopropane or 1,3-diamino-2-propanol yielded the disubstituted anthra-quinone pro-ligand intermediates, Pro-L<sub>1</sub>-<sub>3</sub>. These compounds were isolated as highly coloured solids: the reaction was con-veniently indicated by the progressive colour changes of the reaction mixture whereby transformation from yellow to red indicated formation of the monosubstituted intermediate, and a further change to deep purple was indicative of the 1,8-disubstituted target (see ESI†). Of course, such observable changes render the reactions highly amenable to thin layer chromato-graphy, allowing convenient in situ monitoring of the reaction progress. Subsequent treatment of the pro-ligands with four equivalents of 2-pyridinecarboxaldehyde in the presence of NaBH(OAc)<sub>3</sub> yielded the three multidentate ligands, L<sub>1</sub>-<sub>3</sub>, via a reductive amination procedure (Scheme 1). The corresponding lanthanide complexes (Ln-L<sub>1</sub>-<sub>3</sub>) were obtained as deep purple coloured solids through treatment of the ligands with Ln(OTf)<sub>3</sub>.

The three ligands, and their precursors, possessed good solubility in a range of common organic solvents and were characterised using a range of spectroscopic and analytical techniques. Of particular note in the <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectra of the species were the presence of NH resonances (as broadened tri-plets) around δ<sub>H</sub> 9.75 ppm, which indicated the formation of the characteristic amino-substituted anthraquinone moieties. This particular resonance proved to be a convenient diagnostic signal for differentiating between the desired disubstituted species and any monosubstituted impurities. IR spectroscopy clearly confirmed the presence of the NH groups (∼3300 cm<sup>−1</sup>) and dicarbonyl quinone unit with ν(CVO) at ca. 1600 cm<sup>−1</sup>. HR mass spectrometry confirmed the proposed formulations for the ligands in each case.

The paramagnetic Ln(III) complexes were also characterised using MALDI mass spectrometry which revealed the character-istic isotopic distribution for a monometallic complex in each case (see ESI†), with no evidence for dimetallic species. The stoichiometry of a selection of the complexes was quantitat-ively confirmed using elemental analyses, suggesting a 1 : 1 (Ln : L) ratio. It should be noted that despite the identical reac-tion conditions and ligand batches used for the synthesis of the different Ln(III) complexes we were unable to obtain, despite repeated attempts, representative elemental analyses for some of the complexes (notably Gd and Yb complexes), which revealed incomplete combustion as indicated by low C, H and N values, which has been noted before for some
lanthanide complexes. The CHN elemental analyses obtained for the complexes of L\textsuperscript{2} show that the complexes exist as the triation and therefore the putative alcohol donors are not deprotonated.

Computational modelling studies

Whilst the structures of the complexes [Ln(L\textsuperscript{n})X\textsubscript{3}] are postulated as 1 : 1 complexes, it is theoretically possible that the complexes could exist as 2 : 2 dimeric species (with a resultant 6\textsuperscript{+} charge), with the formulation [Ln\textsubscript{2}(L\textsuperscript{2})\textsubscript{2}]X\textsubscript{6}; such species are of course compatible with the obtained CHN elemental analyses. In this context, HXTA (N,N-(2-hydroxy-5-methyl-1,3-xylylene)bis-(N-(carboxymethyl)glycine)) derived ligands are known to form Na\textsubscript{4}[Ln(HXTA)]\textsubscript{2} dimetallic species with lanthanide ions (with a resultant 4\textsuperscript{−} charge).

DFT models were therefore employed to probe the likely structures of each of the ligands coordinated to either Y or La (thus giving two examples across an ionic radii range). In addition to calculating the structures of [Ln(L\textsuperscript{n})\textsuperscript{3+}]\textsuperscript{2}, two hypothetical dimeric structures [Ln\textsubscript{2}(L\textsuperscript{2})\textsubscript{2}]\textsuperscript{6+}, for Ln = Y and La were also investigated. The calculated structure of [La(L\textsuperscript{2})\textsuperscript{3+}]\textsuperscript{3+} is shown in Fig. 2. Whilst the calculations do not account for explicit solvent interactions for such highly charged species, the calculations nevertheless give overwhelming support for the complexes existing in a monomeric state. An analysis of the calculated free energies for the monomer → dimer trans-formations give G = 1197 kJ mol\textsuperscript{−1} and 1075 kJ mol\textsuperscript{−1} for Y and La respectively. Whilst it is inappropriate to ascribe chemi-cal accuracy to these values, we infer that the formation of dimeric complexes is highly unlikely for this class of ligands.

For the complexes with L\textsuperscript{1} and L\textsuperscript{2}, the metal ions are 8-coordinate, whilst those with L\textsuperscript{3} are calculated to be 10-coordinate. In each of the structures, the Ln(\textit{n}) ion is completely encapsulated by the ligand, with an interaction between the “inside” carbonyl and the metal ion inferred by d\textsubscript{Ln–O} = 2.249 Å ([Y(L\textsuperscript{1})\textsuperscript{3+}], 2.269 Å ([Y(L\textsuperscript{2})\textsuperscript{3+}], 2.347 Å ([Y(L\textsuperscript{3})\textsuperscript{3+}], 2.349 Å ([La(L\textsuperscript{1})\textsuperscript{3+}], 2.434 Å ([La(L\textsuperscript{2})\textsuperscript{3+}], 2.457 ([La(L\textsuperscript{3})\textsuperscript{3+}], which are well within the sum of the covalent radii (\(\sum r_{\text{cov}(Y)} + r_{\text{cov}(O)}\)) = 2.56 Å; \(\sum r_{\text{cov}(La)} + r_{\text{cov}(O)}\) = 2.73 Å). In each structure, one of the secondary amine nitrogens coordinates to the metal ion, whilst the non-coordinating amine internally hydrogen bonds with the coordinating carbonyl group.

For the complexes of L\textsuperscript{3}, two viable conformations were evident from the calculations; those with one- and two hydroxyl groups coordinated to the metal ion. Calculations of the lanthanum congener suggest that the isomer with two co-ordinated hydroxyl groups is the more stable, by 73 kJ mol\textsuperscript{−1}.

Electronic properties: UV-vis and luminescence data

The UV-vis absorption spectra of the free ligands were obtained on acetonitrile solutions, revealing absorbing bands throughout the visible and UV regions. The anthraquinone π−π* transitions contribute between 260−350 nm with pyridine-centred π−π* absorptions at shorter wavelengths <300 nm. The lowest energy absorption band peaked at 547, 550 and 542 nm for L\textsuperscript{1}, L\textsuperscript{2} and L\textsuperscript{3} respectively, with corresponding molar absorptivities ca. 10\textsuperscript{4} M\textsuperscript{−1} cm\textsuperscript{−1}. The lowest energy band can be assigned to an intramolecular charge transfer (ICT) dominated transition\textsuperscript{20} that is anthraquinone-centred and derived from the amine-donor/quinone-acceptor chromophore (note that this is distinct from the quinone based n−π* which lies at much higher energy). This obser-vation is consistent with previous reports on amino-substi-tuted anthraquinone species.\textsuperscript{21} The subtle variation in the wavelength of the absorption is likely to reflect the donating ability of the particular amine substituent, with stronger donors inducing a bathochromic shift in the ICT band.

Excitation of the ICT band for each of the ligands resulted in visible emission ca. 630 nm with a corresponding excitation peak at ca. 540 nm, which strongly correlates with the assigned ICT band in the absorption spectra. The resultant Stokes’ shift (~2700 cm\textsuperscript{−1}) and short lifetime (\(\tau \sim 1−2\) ns) are consistent with a fluorescence from an ICT dominated excited state. Both absorption and emission data obtained in a range of solvents showed that these chromophores show classical positive solvatochromism (see ESIFT), wherein polar solvents induce a bathochromic shift in the absorption/emission bands.

As expected the ligand-centred bands in each case domi-nated the absorption spectra of the complexes, where the lowest energy absorption was again attributed to the ICT band of the anthraquinone ligand. However, upon complexation of Ln(\textit{n}), each spectrum revealed a subtle hypsochromic shift for this transition, suggesting a minor perturbation of the ICT state in the presence of the trivalent metal ion. Visible region luminescence studies on the Gd(\textit{n}) complexes firstly revealed retention of the anthraquinone-based emission and secondly, a notable bathochromatic shift (relative to the free ligands) of the ligand-based ICT fluorescence to ca. 664−679 nm; this latter observation provided key spectroscopic evidence for the stability of the complexes in solution.

In order to assess the potential of these new anthra-quinone-based ligands as sensitising chromophores, additional low temperature measurements were obtained on solvent
glasses (ethanol/methanol 5 : 1) at 77 K for the Gd(III) complexes. It was noted that the peak position at 77 K was hypso-chromically shifted relative to the room temperature fluorescence peak. This shift is therefore attributed to the medium and temperature effects upon the ICT fluorescent state. It has been noted previously that amino-substituted anthraquinones, in contrast to halo-substituted variants, do not generally show phosphorescence with only limited evidence for a \( ^3\pi\rightarrow\pi^* \) emissive state.

For the near-IR Ln(III) complexes, the observed dual emission characteristics in methanol solution were due to two origins. Firstly, each of the complexes retained the ICT anthraquinone-based fluorescence at ca. 670 nm; secondly, additional weaker bands based fluorescence at ca. 670 nm; secondly, additional weaker bands in the near-IR region were observed, which are associated with the lanthanide-centred transitions and consistent with the inclusion of a Ln(III) ion. For the Ln-based emission these new chromophores facilitate long wavelength visible light sensitisation. This was best illustrated with L\(^1\); for Yb-L\(^3\) excitation at 535 nm yielded the characteristic structured Yb(III) emission at 950–1050 nm consistent with \( ^2\text{F}_{5/2} \rightarrow ^2\text{F}_{7/2} \) (Fig. 4). Nd-L\(^3\) revealed near-IR emission at 1058 nm \( ^4\text{F}_3/2 \rightarrow ^4\text{I}_{15/2} \) with a much weaker feature at ca. 1340 nm, corresponding to \( ^4\text{F}_3/2 \rightarrow ^4\text{I}_{13/2} \); Er-L\(^3\) gave a very weak broad emission feature centred around 1540 nm and assigned to the \( ^4\text{I}_{13/2} \rightarrow ^4\text{I}_{15/2} \) transition. Near-IR steady state spectra obtained for the Ln(III) complexes of L\(^1\) and L\(^2\) only revealed extremely weak peaks, which were often superimposed or obscured by the tail of the anthraquinone-based ICT fluorescence (for example see Fig. S5, ESI†). However, it was possible to obtain supporting near-IR luminescence lifetime measurements (Table 1; see also further examples of fitted decay profiles in Fig. S5–S12, ESI†), providing decay profiles for each of the near-IR complexes. It is noteworthy that the lifetime values obtained in MeOH for the Nd(III) species are short. Non-radiative deactivation of Nd(III) is enhanced by C–H and N–H oscillators, and it is clear from the modelling studies that these will be proximate to the Nd(III) centre. Although unlikely, given the supporting evidence from the analogous Yb(III) complexes, partial dissociation of the ligand in solution cannot be ruled out. Overall, time-resolved measurements on the complexes confirmed the long-lived nature of the Ln-based emission and also allowed a qualitative insight into the likely extent of solvation at the Ln(III) centre.

Using the values obtained in CH\(_3\)OH/CD\(_3\)OD allowed the approximation of q, the number of Yb(III)-bound solvent molecules (Table 1), calculated from \( q = (k_{\text{OH}} - k_{\text{OD}}) = 0.05 \) where \( k_{\text{H}} \) and \( k_{\text{p}} \) are the observed rate constants for the luminescence in \( \mu s^{-1} \). The calculations show that for the Yb(III) complexes, q reduced from \( \sim 4 \) (L\(^1\)) to \( \sim 2.5 \) (L\(^2\)) to \( \sim 1 \) (L\(^3\)). This suggests that for Yb-L\(^2\) the coordination sphere is probably six coordinate and likely to comprise the dipicolyl amine units with minimal contribution from the more remote anthraquinone core (Fig. 3); the latter is supported by the minimal perturbation of ligand-centred bands in the UV-vis spectra of the L\(^2\) complexes. The data for Yb-L\(^1\) is consistent with an intermediate situation where the Yb(III) is less solvated and the hypsochromically shifted anthraquinone absorption band of the complex possibly alludes to a coordinative contribution from the quinone unit (Fig. 5) as supported by the computational studies described earlier.

For Yb-L\(^3\) the low q value and long lifetime in MeOH suggests a much more effective exclusion of solvent from the inner coordination sphere. This could be attributed to the coordinative participation of the oxygen donors of the two 1,3-diaminopropan-2-ol moieties, which can contribute to give a potential octadentate donor set for Yb(III) (Fig. 5). The computational modelling studies support such an interaction. For the analogous parameters obtained from the Nd(III) species the general trend is the same with respect to the obtained q values (using \( q = 290(k_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}} - k_{\text{CD}_3\text{OD}}) = 0.4 \) although they are generally larger, as expected for the much larger ionic radius. It should also be noted that the associated errors of q values for non-aminocarboxylate type ligand architectures could be very significant. Nonetheless, the increased inner sphere solvation for the Ln(III) complexes of L\(^1\) and L\(^2\) helps to explain

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**Table 1** Electronic spectroscopic data for the ligands and complexes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>Vis. absorption(^a)</th>
<th>Vis. emission(^b)</th>
<th>Near-IR τ/ns(^c)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L(^1)</td>
<td>547</td>
<td>636</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nd-L(^1)</td>
<td>539</td>
<td>665</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gd-L(^1)</td>
<td>538</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Er-L(^1)</td>
<td>540</td>
<td>650</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yb-L(^1)</td>
<td>539</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L(^2)</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>632</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nd-L(^2)</td>
<td>545</td>
<td>679</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gd-L(^2)</td>
<td>546</td>
<td>679</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Er-L(^2)</td>
<td>548</td>
<td>678</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yb-L(^2)</td>
<td>543</td>
<td>675</td>
<td>441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L(^3)</td>
<td>542</td>
<td>633</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nd-L(^3)</td>
<td>532</td>
<td>673</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gd-L(^3)</td>
<td>535</td>
<td>672</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Er-L(^3)</td>
<td>535</td>
<td>671</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yb-L(^3)</td>
<td>534</td>
<td>671</td>
<td>1300</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) In MeOH. \(^b\) In aerated MeOH, \( \lambda_{\text{ex}} = 535 \) nm. \(^c\) \( \lambda_{\text{ex}} = 355 \) nm.

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**Fig. 3** Excitation (black), room temperature (blue) and low temperature (red) emission spectra for [Gd(L\(^2\))]OTf\(^+\).
the relative weakness of the observed near-IR emission bands of those species and the shorter lifetimes in methanol.

**Experimental section**

All reactions were performed with the use of vacuum line and Schlenk techniques. Reagents were commercial grade and used without further purification. $^1$H and $^{13}$C-$^1$H NMR spectra were recorded on an NMR-FT Bruker 400 or 250 MHz and $^{31}$P-$^1$H NMR spectra on a Joel Eclipse 300 MHz spectro-meter and recorded in CDCl$_3$ or MeOD solutions. $^1$H and $^{13}$C-$^1$H NMR chemical shifts (δ) were determined relative to internal tetramethylsilane, Si(CH$_3$)$_4$ and are given in ppm.

Low-resolution mass spectra were obtained by the staff at Cardiff University. High-resolution mass spectra were carried out at the EPSRC National Mass Spectrometry Facility at Swansea University, UK. Elemental analyses provided by London Metropolitan University. UV-Vis studies were performed on a Jasco V-650 spectrophotometer fitted with a Jasco temperature control unit in MeCN or MeOH solutions (10$^{-5}$ M) at 20 °C. Photophysical data were obtained using a Jobin-Yvon–Horiba Fluorolog spectrometer fitted with a JY TBX picosecond photodetection module in MeCN, MeOH or H$_2$O solutions. Emission spectra were uncorrected and excitation spectra were instrument corrected. The pulsed source was a Nano-LED configured for 372 or 459 nm output operating at 500 kHz. Luminescence lifetime profiles were obtained using the Jobin-Yvon–Horiba Fluorohub single photon counting module and the data fits yielded the lifetime values using the provided DAS6 deconvolution software.

Scalar relativistic DFT calculations were carried out using the Gaussian 09 package, with relativistic effects incorporated via the use of appropriate effective core potentials (ECPs). Geometry optimisations were performed at the M06 level, with a basis set consisting of the Stuttgart-Dresden basis set plus ECP on Y and La, and cc-PVDZ on all remaining atoms. The D3 version of Grimmes dispersion correction was included for all calculations. Geometry optimisations were performed without symmetry constraints; the nature of the resulting molecular structures (i.e. minimum vs. saddle point) were verified with analytical frequency calculations.

**Synthesis**

Synthesis of Pro-L$^1$. Ethylene diamine (4.5 mL, 18 mmol) was added to a stirring suspension of 1,8-dichloroanthra-quinone (0.5 g, 1.8 mmol) in DMSO (5 mL). The mixture was heated to 150 °C for 3 h under dinitrogen and, after rapid addition of cold water to the hot solution and continued stir-ring for 1 h, the crude product was collected by filtration. The residue was then purified by column chromatography (silica) and the product was eluted as a purple (third) band using DCM–EtOAc (9 : 1). The solvent was removed in vacuo, and the product re-precipitated from methanol/diethyl ether, filtered and dried (yield 0.79 g, 34%). $^1$H NMR (250 MHz, CDCl$_3$): δH 9.68 (2H, t, J$_{HH}$ = 5.0 Hz), 7.50–7.36 (4H, m), 6.98 (2H, dd, J$_{HH}$ = 8.3, 1.0 Hz), 3.35 (4H, q, J$_{HH}$ = 5.8 Hz), 3.00 (4H, t, J$_{HH}$ = 6.3 Hz) ppm. IR ν$_{max}$ (solid): 3271 (NH), 1612 (CO), 1566 (CO) cm$^{-1}$.

Synthesis of L$^1$. Pro-L$^1$ (0.23 g, 0.71 mmol) and 2-pyridine carboxaldehyde (0.27 mL, 2.8 mmol) were added to a stirring solution of sodium trisacetoxyborohydride (0.9 g, 4.2 mmol) in 1,2-dichloroethane (3.5 mL). The suspension was stirred under dinitrogen for 48 h. The reaction mixture pH was neutralized with sat. aq. NaHCO$_3$ before the product was extracted with ethyl acetate. The solvent was removed in vacuo to yield a dark purple solid (yield 0.41 g, 83%). $^1$H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl$_3$): δH 9.75 (2H, t, J$_{HH}$ = 5.1 Hz), 8.41 (4H, d, J$_{HH}$ = 4.8 Hz), 7.36 (4H, m), 6.98 (2H, dd, J$_{HH}$ = 8.3, 1.0 Hz), 3.35 (4H, q, J$_{HH}$ = 5.8 Hz), 3.00 (4H, t, J$_{HH}$ = 6.3 Hz) ppm. IR ν$_{max}$ (liquid): 3271 (NH), 1612 (CO), 1566 (CO) cm$^{-1}$.
Synthesis of Pro-L\(^2\). 1,3-Diaminopropanol (1.5 mL, 18 mmol) was added to a stirring suspension of 1,8-dichloro-anthraquinone (0.5 g, 1.8 mmol in DMSO (4.5 mL). The mixture was heated to 150 °C for 4 h. Cold water was added and the crude mixture was stirred for 1 h before the product was collected by filtration. The precipitate was washed with ether and collected by filtration to afford a dark purple solid (yield = 0.15 g, 23%). \(^1\)H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl\(_3\)) \(\delta H 7.46-7.44\) (2H, m), 7.38-7.34 (m, 2H), 7.01-6.97 (m, 2H), 3.23 (4H, q, \(J_{HH} = 5.2\) Hz), 2.64 (4H, t, \(J_{HH} = 6.8\) Hz), 2.01-1.89 (4H, m) ppm. IR \(\nu_{max}\) (solid): 3272 (NH), 1612 (CO), 1573 (CO) cm\(^{-1}\). UV-vis (ε/M\(^{-1}\) cm\(^{-1}\)) (MeCN) \(\lambda_{max}\): 238 (38 900), 325 (5800) (sh), 547 (9400) nm.

Synthesis of L\(^1\). L\(^1\) was obtained by treating L\(^2\) (0.15 g, 0.43 mmol) with 2-pyridine carboxaldehyde (0.16 mL, 1.67 mmol) to afford a yellow solid (81 mg, 0.43 mmol) (yield 460 mg, 67%). MALDI MS (LD+) found m/z = 1032.3; calculated 1032.2 for [M+2OTf\(^{-}\)+H\(^+\)]\(^+\).

Synthesis of L\(^2\). Pro-L\(^2\) (68 mg, 0.095 mmol) (yield 97%, 87%). MALDI MS (LD+) found m/z = 1098.6; calculated 1098.5 for [M+2OTf\(^{-}\)+H\(^+\)]\(^+\).

Synthesis of L\(^3\). L\(^3\) was obtained by treating L\(^2\) (60 mg, 0.084 mmol) and Er(OTf\(^3\)) (52 mg, 0.084 mmol) (yield 97%, 87%). MALDI MS (LD+) found m/z = 1032.3; calculated 1032.2 for [M+2OTf\(^{-}\)+H\(^+\)]\(^+\).
Synthesis of [Yb(L^2)](OTf)_3. As for [Gd(L^2)](OTf)_3 but using Yb(OTf)_3 (47 mg, 0.074 mmol) (yield 40 mg, 42%). MALDI MS (LD+) found m/z = 893.1; calculated 893.3 for [M = 3OTf + 2H + 2H2O]^+. Selected IR v_{max} (solid): 3291 (NH), 1618 (CO), 1570 (CO), 1270 (OTf ), 1225 (OTf ), 1032 (OTf ) cm\(^{-1}\). UV-vis (ε/M\(^{-1}\) cm\(^{-1}\)) (MeCN) \(\lambda_{max}\): 258 (27 100), 315 (5500), 539 (10 100) nm.

Synthesis of [Nd(L^2)](OTf)_3. As for [Gd(L^2)](OTf)_3 but using Nd(OTf)_3 (51 mg, 0.073 mmol) (yield 74 mg, 80%). MALDI MS (LD+) found m/z = 864.0; calculated 864.2 for [M = 3OTf + 2H + 2H2O]^+. Selected IR v_{max} (solid): 1615 (CO) 1273 (OTf ), 1225 (OTf ), 1032 (OTf ) cm\(^{-1}\). UV-vis (ε/M\(^{-1}\) cm\(^{-1}\)) (MeCN) \(\lambda_{max}\): 258 (42 000), 315 (7700), 539 (13 400) nm. Elemental analysis calculated for C_{4}H_{4}O_{8}N_{3}O_{13}F_{3}S_{2}Nd: C, 42.22; H, 3.15; N, 8.75%; found C, 42.13; H, 3.09; N, 8.81%.

Synthesis of [Er(L^2)](OTf)_3. As for [Gd(L^2)](OTf)_3 but using Er(OTf)_3 (45 mg, 0.073 mmol) (yield 62 mg, 65%). MALDI MS (LD+) found m/z = 889.1; calculated 889.3 for [M = 3OTf + 2H + 2H2O]^+. Selected IR v_{max} (solid): 3294 (NH), 1618 (CO), 1573 (CO), 1270 (OTf ), 1225 (OTf ), 1031 (OTf ) cm\(^{-1}\). UV-vis (ε/M\(^{-1}\) cm\(^{-1}\)) (MeCN) \(\lambda_{max}\): 258 (30 400), 304 (9000), 535 (15 700) nm.

Synthesis of [Yb(L^3)](OTf)_3. As for [Gd(L^3)](OTf)_3 but using Yb(OTf)_3 (47 mg, 0.074 mmol) (yield 34 mg, 34%). MALDI MS (LD+) found m/z = 916.125; calculated 916.268 for [M = 3OTf - 2H]^+. Selected IR v_{max} (solid): 3368 br (NH and OH), 1615 (CO), 1572 (CO), 1271 (OTf ), 1224 (OTf ), 1031 (OTf ) cm\(^{-1}\). UV-vis (ε/M\(^{-1}\) cm\(^{-1}\)) (MeCN) \(\lambda_{max}\): 258 (29 000), 311 (4800), 534 (9000) nm.

Synthesis of [Nd(L^3)](OTf)_3. As for [Gd(L^3)](OTf)_3 but using L^3 (59 mg, 0.079 mmol) and Nd(OTf)_3 (55 mg, 0.079 mmol) (yield 83 mg, 79%). MALDI MS (LD+) found m/z = 888.181; calculated 888.241 for [M = 3OTf - 2H]^+. Selected IR v_{max} (solid): 3457 br (NH and OH), 1616 (CO), 1570 (CO), 1271 (OTf ), 1224 (OTf ), 1031 (OTf ) cm\(^{-1}\). UV-vis (ε/M\(^{-1}\) cm\(^{-1}\)) (MeCN) \(\lambda_{max}\): 257 (30 300), 302 (8100), 532 (13 400) nm. Elemental analysis calculated for C_{4}H_{4}N_{3}O_{13}F_{3}S_{2}Nd: C, 42.12; H, 3.31; N, 8.36%; found C, 42.03; H, 3.34; N, 8.25%.

Synthesis of [Er(L^3)](OTf)_3. As for [Gd(L^3)](OTf)_3 but using L^3 (60 mg, 0.080 mmol) and Er(OTf)_3 (49 mg, 0.080 mmol) (yield 90 mg, 82%). MALDI MS (LD+) found m/z = 914.4; calculated 914.3 for [M = 3OTf ]^+. Selected IR v_{max} (solid): 3410 br (NH and OH), 1616 (CO), 1570 (CO), 1270 (OTf ), 1223 (OTf ), 1032 (OTf ) cm\(^{-1}\). UV-vis (ε/M\(^{-1}\) cm\(^{-1}\)) (MeCN) \(\lambda_{max}\): 258 (16 900), 303 (4300), 535 (7600) nm. Elemental analysis calculated for C_{4}H_{4}N_{3}O_{13}F_{3}S_{2}Er: C, 41.41; H, 3.25; N, 8.22%; found C, 41.38; H, 3.34; N, 8.19%.

Conclusions

In summary, we have presented the synthesis and characterisation of three new 1,8-disubstituted anthraquinone derived ligands that can bind trivalent lanthanide ions. The optical characteristics of the ligands provide effective visible light absorption and emission character via ICT excited states. The chromophores facilitate visible light sensitization of the Ln-based near-IR emission with the relative intensities of the emission bands dictated by the extent of inner sphere solvent exclusion from the Ln(III) centre.

Computational modelling studies on the three different ligands with either Y(III) or La(III) showed that these complexes are likely to exist as 1 : 1 species rather than 2 : 2 formulations. The calculations show that the latter is >1000 kJ mol\(^{-1}\) less favourable. In the absence of solid state structural information, the use of time-resolved luminescence measurements to probe the coordination sphere of the lanthanide ions allows a qualitatively insight into ligand binding modes. In this context, L^3, based upon the 1,3-diamino-2-propanol linking framework, provides a potentially octadentate donor set for the metal ion and leads to quite effective encapsulation of Yb(III) and shield-ing from solvent molecules as evidenced by the luminescence lifetimes. Such a binding mode was also supported by the computational modelling work. Further work will investigate the enhancement and optimisation of these ligand frame-works towards water-soluble variants; such systems should be amenable as prospective bimodal (optical/MR) imaging agents.

Acknowledgements

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Notes and references

9 For example: K. Mariappan, P. N. Basa, V. Balasubramanian, S. Fuoss and A. G. Sykes, Polyhedron, 2013, 55, 144.