

Modulating pyrene-based covalent organic framework via BF₂ functionalization for facilitated photocatalytic proton-coupled electron-transfer reductions

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The investigation of charge carrier kinetics has long been a cornerstone of polymer photocatalysis research. However, the role of proton transport behavior in photocatalytic processes has often been underappreciated, despite its fundamental importance in proton-coupled electron-transfer reactions. Addressing this gap, we present a novel BF₂-bridged covalent organic framework (C2-COF-BF₂) that undergoes post-synthetic modification with boron trifluoride, designed to confer a dual functional advantage. Specifically, the incorporated BF₂ moieties are engineered to induce a donor-acceptor effect and potentially serve as continuous supply sites for activated protons. This bifunctional role not only enhances charge separation and migration while suppressing electron-hole recombination but also facilitates proton transport, thereby enabling improved performance in both photocatalytic hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) and H₂O₂ production. Remarkably, the photocatalytic HER performance of C2-COF-BF₂ (AQY_{450 nm} = 8.78%) ranks among the highest efficiencies reported for COF-based photocatalysts to date. These findings highlight an innovative pathway for advancing the rational design of COF photocatalysts, offering a synergistic optimization of charge carrier kinetics and mass transfer processes to achieve unprecedented photocatalytic efficiency.

covalent organic frameworks, BF₂ functionalization, photocatalytic proton-coupled electron-transfer reductions, charge separation and migration, proton transport

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1 Introduction

The urgent transition from conventional fossil fuels to sustainable energy sources is imperative for ensuring the long-term viability of modern human society. Among renewable

energy options, solar energy stands out as an abundant and virtually inexhaustible resource with immense potential to meet the escalating global energy demands [1,2]. Efficiently harnessing solar energy through its conversion into chemical energy, particularly in the form of green hydrogen—the “holy grail” of sustainable energy—offers a transformative strategy to address global energy scarcity [3]. This pursuit has driven extensive research into the development of advanced photocatalysts for various reactions such as water

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splitting and H_2O_2 production, with significant strides made in polymeric systems, including polymeric carbon nitride [4–8], conjugated microporous polymers [9–13], linear polymers [14–17], and covalent organic frameworks (COFs) [18–22], *etc.*

COFs, distinguished by their crystalline, porous, and π -conjugated architectures interconnected through robust covalent bonds, have emerged as exceptional materials platforms owing to their modular synthetic design, precisely tunable pore geometries, and electron-rich backbones, conferring remarkable versatility across numerous applications [23–47]. COFs represent particularly promising candidates for photocatalytic applications [34–47], combining the advantages of organic materials—such as synthetic flexibility and sustainability—with the structural order and stability typically associated with inorganic systems. Their ability to integrate light-harvesting, charge separation, and catalytic functions within a single, customizable framework positions COFs as a cornerstone of next-generation photocatalytic technologies, with potential applications in sustainable energy production and environmental remediation.

Within this materials class, fluorine-functionalized COFs (F-COFs) have attracted attention for their distinctive properties [48–52], including strong electron-withdrawing effects, enhanced oxygen affinity, and superior chemical stability. These attributes have enabled their use in diverse fields, such as energy storage [53–55], adsorption and storage [51,56–58], electrocatalysis [59,60], and proton conduction [50]. However, only a limited number of F-COFs have been employed within the realm of photocatalysis [61–65]. Despite extensive investigations into key parameters such as photon absorption, energy level alignments, charge separation and transport, and water affinity to elucidate their photocatalytic behavior, the potential role of fluorine-induced modifications in proton transfer—an essential factor

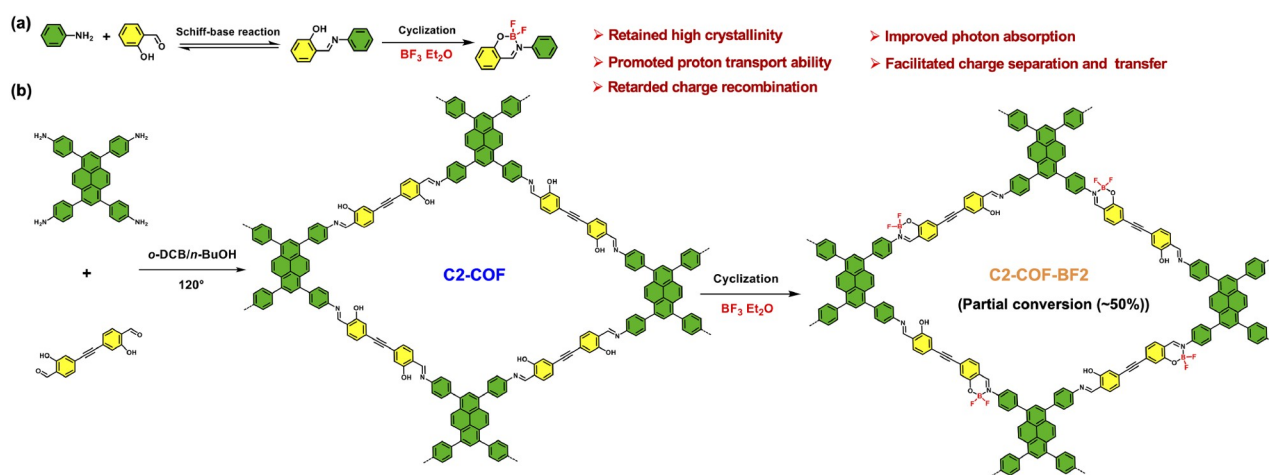
in photocatalytic proton-coupled electron-transfer (PCET) reactions—has been largely overlooked [66]. Given the fundamental involvement of protons in photocatalytic processes, addressing this gap is crucial for advancing the design and performance of COF-based photocatalysts.

In this study, we introduce a novel BF_2 -bridged COF (C2-COF- BF_2) synthesized via post-synthetic modification (PSM) of C2-COF using $\text{BF}_3 \cdot \text{OEt}_2$ (Scheme 1). This strategy aims to elucidate the effects of F incorporation on the physicochemical properties and photocatalytic performance of C2-COF- BF_2 , with a particular emphasis on proton transport dynamics. The incorporation of electron-deficient BF_2 moieties is expected to deliver dual functional benefits: first, creating a donor-acceptor (D-A) architecture to enhance light absorption, exciton dissociation, and charge transfer efficiency; and second, improving proton transport and fostering favorable interactions with protons. These synergistic enhancements are anticipated to significantly elevate the efficiency of photocatalytic PCET reactions, including the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) and H_2O_2 production. As expected, C2-COF- BF_2 exhibits a HER rate exceeding that of its unmodified counterpart by more than threefold, alongside an over twofold increase in H_2O_2 production. These findings underscore the transformative potential of fluorine integration via PSM, presenting a promising strategy for optimizing charge carrier kinetics, facilitating proton transport, and advancing the design of COF-based photocatalysts for green energy applications.

2 Experimental

2.1 C2-COFs synthesis

4,4',4'',4'''-(Pyrene-1,3,6,8-tetrayl)tetraaniline (PyTA) (14.2 mg, 0.025 mmol), 4,4'-(1,2-ethynediyl)bis[2-hydroxybenzal-



Scheme 1 (Color online) (a) Scheme representation of the formation of BF_2 -functionalization molecules. (b) The synthetic routes for C2-COF- BF_2 (Approximately 50% imine groups in C2-COF were converted to boranil linkages via cyclization. The structure shown represents a typical local environment).

dehyde] (M1) (13.3 mg, 0.05 mmol), *n*-BuOH (1 mL) and *o*-DCB (1 mL) were added to a 10 mL ampoule and sonicated for 2 min to form a homogeneous mixture. Subsequently, 6.0 M aqueous acetic acid (0.2 mL) was added to the dispersion. The ampoule was degassed using three freeze-pump-thaw cycles under liquid nitrogen and then flame-sealed. The sealed ampoule was heated at 120 °C for 3 d. After cooling to room temperature, the resulting yellow powder was collected by filtration and washed several times with acetone and tetrahydrofuran (THF), respectively. The precipitate was then subjected to Soxhlet extraction with THF for 24 h. Finally, the product was obtained by drying at 70 °C under reduced pressure for 2 h.

2.2 C2-COF-BF₂ synthesis

Firstly, C2-COF (13 mg, 0.0125 mmol) was uniformly dispersed in 6 mL toluene in a 100 mL flask by sonication. Following the addition of BF₃·OEt₂ (7 μL, 0.05 mmol), the mixture was degassed and purged with Ar through 3 cycles of evacuation and refilling. The flask was then heated at 85 °C for 3 h. The resulting powder was collected by filtration and washed several times with methanol until the filtrate became colorless. Finally, the red precipitate was obtained by drying at 70 °C under vacuum.

3 Results and discussion

The construction of the targeted BF₂-bridged COF, C2-COF-BF₂, involves a two-step process (Scheme 1b). Initially, a Schiff-base condensation reaction between PyTA and M1 yielded C2-COF. Subsequently, C2-COF was converted to C2-COF-BF₂ via treatment with BF₃·OEt₂ (Details see the experimental section). Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) profiles (Figure 1a) revealed characteristic peaks at *ca.* 1620 cm⁻¹, attributed to C=N bonds in both COFs. Notably, the absence of aniline N-H stretching bands, typically observed between 3200 and 3400 cm⁻¹, and the carbonyl group (C=O) band at *ca.* 1660 cm⁻¹, was noted (Figure S1, Supporting Information online), confirming complete condensation in C2-COF. Meanwhile, the emergence of three new signals at *ca.* 1050, 1430, and 1530 cm⁻¹ corresponds to B-N, B-O, and B-F within C2-COF-BF₂, respectively, providing compelling evidence for successful BF₂ incorporation. Moreover, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis of the N 1s region unraveled signals at 399.1 and 400.3 eV, ascribable to C=N and B-N bonds (Figure 1b), respectively. Additionally, the deconvoluted peaks in the O 1s XPS spectrum (Figure S2a) at 531.3 and 532.9 eV are assigned to B-O and C-O in C2-COF-BF₂. Compared to C2-COF, noticeable signals were detected in the B 1s and F 1s spectra of C2-COF-BF₂ (Figure S2b, c),

indicating successful insertion of BF₂ moieties [61,67,68]. Quantitative XPS analysis showed that in C2-COF-BF₂, the N content was approximately twice that of B, while the F content was roughly twice that of B (Table S1, Supporting Information online). The observed excess oxygen likely originates from atmospheric water or oxygen adsorbed on the sample surface. Based on this, we estimate the imine-to-boranil conversion rate at 46.5%. Complementary inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) results indicated a boron content of *ca.* 1.55 wt% in C2-COF-BF₂, suggesting an imine-to-boranil conversion efficiency of *ca.* 44.3%, aligning well with the XPS analysis. Furthermore, solid-state ¹³C nuclear magnetic resonance spectrometry (¹³C ssNMR) (Figure S3) confirmed the presence of alkynyl moieties (~90 ppm) and imine linkages (~159 ppm) in both COFs. Direct confirmation of boron incorporation in C2-COF-BF₂ was obtained through solid-state ¹¹B NMR spectroscopy (Figure S4), which revealed a characteristic signal at -0.62 ppm, indicative of coordinated BF₂ units [69,70]. This finding confirms the successful bonding and anchoring of BF₂ moieties within the COF framework.

The crystalline structures of the COFs were assessed via powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD). C2-COF exhibited high crystallinity with prominent PXRD peaks at 2θ values of 3.10°, 6.06°, and 9.18° (Figure 1c), corresponding to the (100), (200), and (300) facets, respectively. Likewise, C2-COF-BF₂ (Figure 1d) displayed analogous diffraction peaks and crystalline facets. Simulation with AA stacking for both COFs matched the experimental results well, signifying that both COFs adopt AA stacking modes (Figure 1c, d). Interestingly, C2-COF-BF₂ maintained high crystallinity after PSM, even demonstrating a slight enhancement as evidenced by the narrower full-width-at-half-maximum (FWHM) of the (100) facet for C2-COF-BF₂ (0.45°) compared to that of C2-COF (0.50°). This enhancement in crystallinity may be attributed to the Lewis acidic properties of BF₃·OEt₂, which promote reversible defect repair mechanisms within the imine-linked COF. During thermal treatment, the dynamic nature of imine linkages facilitates reversible bond formation and cleavage, enabling the incorporation of BF₂ moieties into the framework while simultaneously healing structural defects, thereby enhancing overall framework crystallinity. Additionally, the PSM with BF₃·OEt₂ introduces a step of reorganization in the COF framework. During this process, the initially less-ordered network may reorganize into a more thermodynamically stable crystalline state as the imine linkages are converted, thereby enhancing the crystallinity.

The high crystallinity of both COFs was further substantiated by the distinct lattice fringes observed in the transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images (Figures S5 and S6). Moreover, the high-angle annular dark field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF STEM)

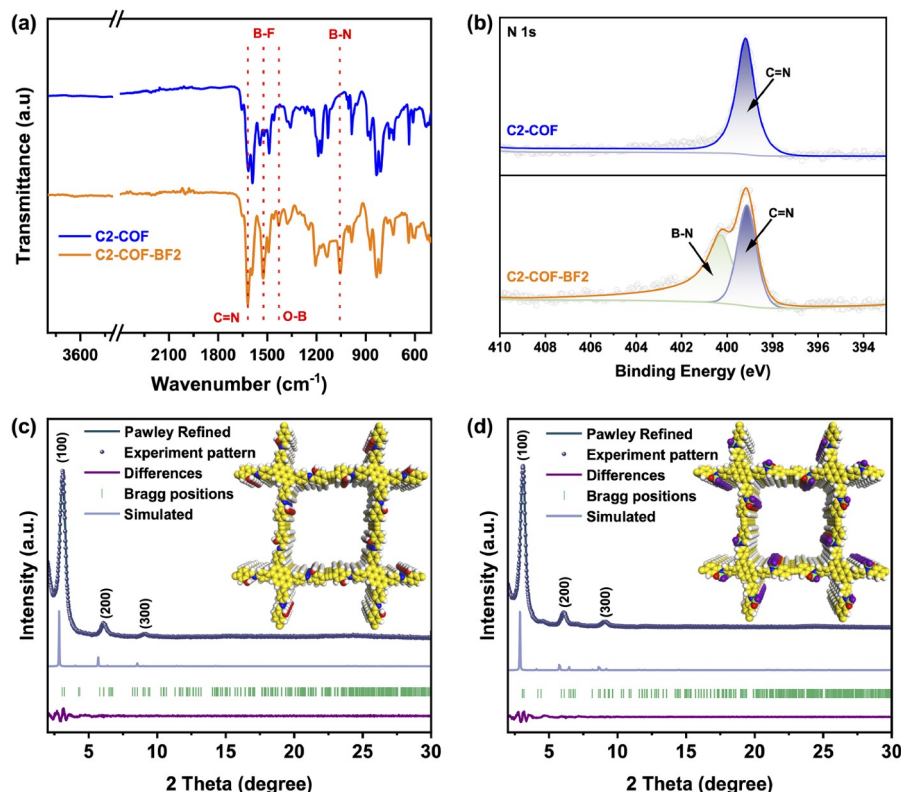


Figure 1 (Color online) (a) FTIR and (b) N 1s XPS spectra of C2-COF and C2-COF-BF2. PXRD patterns of (c) C2-COF and (d) C2-COF-BF2.

elemental mapping images revealed a uniform distribution of C, O, and N elements within C2-COF (Figure S5). Similarly, C, F, O, N, and B elements were found to be homogeneously spread throughout the framework of C2-COF-BF2 (Figure S6). These observations provide compelling evidence for the successful reaction between $\text{BF}_3 \cdot \text{OEt}_2$ and imine motifs, resulting in the incorporation of BF_2 into the framework while preserving high crystallinity after PSM. The porosity of the as-prepared COFs was subsequently assessed via N_2 sorption isotherm at 77 K, yielding specific Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface areas of 954 and 1201 $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$ for C2-COF and C2-COF-BF2, respectively (Figure S7). The counterintuitive increase in the BET specific surface area of C2-COF-BF2 may be ascribed to its enhanced crystallinity following PSM. Moreover, the PSM process likely facilitates the formation of more uniform and accessible nanopores, thereby augmenting the total surface area. Pore size distribution analyses unveiled the presence of one dominant mesopore with a diameter of *ca.* 2.79 and 2.59 nm for C2-COF and C2-COF-BF2, respectively (Figure S8). Furthermore, both COFs exhibited good thermal stability, with no significant weight loss observed up to 300 °C, as demonstrated by thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) (Figure S9).

As shown in the UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (DRS) (Figure 2a), C2-COF-BF2 exhibited a broader light-harvesting range than C2-COF. This enhancement was re-

lated to the integration of the electron-deficient BF_2 moieties, which induced the D-A interactions. Their optical bandgaps could be calculated as 2.11 and 1.86 eV for C2-COF and C2-COF-BF2, respectively (Figure S10). Additionally, the flat-band potentials of C2-COF and C2-COF-BF2 derived from Mott-Schottky plots (Figure S11) were estimated to be -0.80 and -0.90 V, respectively. Accordingly, the energy level plot could be depicted (Figure 2b), clarifying that both COFs hold sufficient thermodynamic driving force for photocatalytic HER and H_2O_2 production.

To elucidate the impact of the BF_2 -bridge on the charge separation and recombination kinetics, temperature-dependent photoluminescence (PL) spectra were conducted. Obviously, both COFs experienced the thermal quenching of their PL emission in the temperature range of 80–300 K (Figure 2c, d). By fitting the integrated PL intensities as a function of temperature employing the Arrhenius equation [12,71–74], the exciton binding energy (E_b) was determined as *ca.* 57 and 44 meV for C2-COF and C2-COF-BF2, respectively. Such a considerably low E_b value for C2-COF-BF2 is conducive to exciton dissociation, and thus facilitates photocatalysis [15,17,75,76]. Additionally, the steady-state PL emission intensity significantly attenuated from C2-COF to C2-COF-BF2 (Figure 2e), signifying suppressed charge recombination in the more structurally ordered C2-COF-BF2 [62,74,77,78]. Moreover, the average

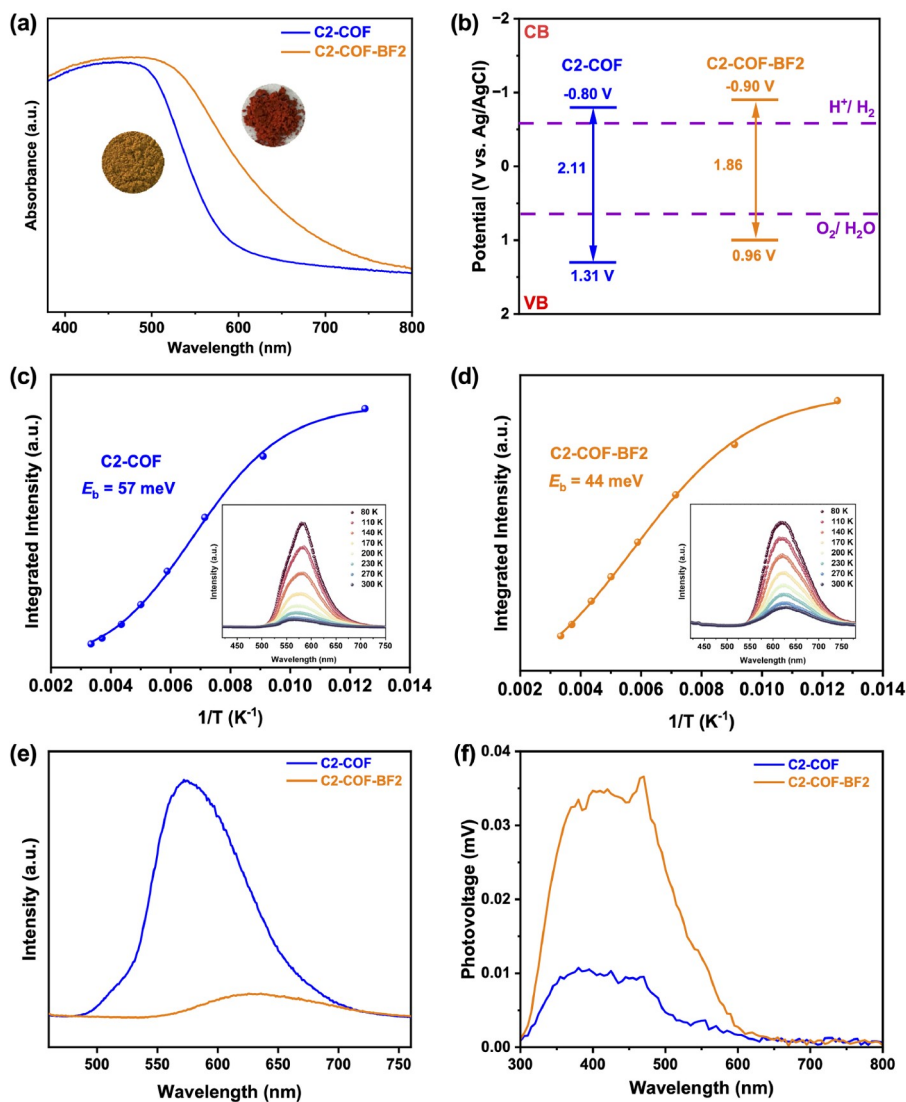


Figure 2 (Color online) (a) UV-vis DRS profiles (insets are the optical images of C2-COF and C2-COF-BF2). (b) The band diagrams of these COFs. Integrated PL emission intensity as a function of temperature from 80 to 300 K for (c) C2-COF and (d) C2-COF-BF2 (inset: temperature-dependent PL spectra). (e) The PL spectra results ($\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 420$ nm). (f) Steady-state surface photovoltage spectroscopy results.

lifetimes deduced from time-resolved PL spectra of the COFs were 0.9 and 1.12 ns for C2-COF and C2-COF-BF2, respectively (Figure S12). The longer lifetime of C2-COF-BF2 indicates more chances for photoinduced charges to be involved in the photocatalytic process, again highlighting the strategic introduction of BF_2 moieties to inhibit the recombination of photogenerated electron-hole pairs effectively. The observations suggest that BF_2 -functionalization within C2-COF-BF2 could improve the separation efficiency of photogenerated charge upon light irradiation.

To obtain theoretical insights, we conducted density functional theory (DFT) calculations on the highest occupied molecule orbital (HOMO) and the lowest unoccupied molecule orbital (LUMO), as well as the Bader charges within these COFs. Comparatively, C2-COF-BF2 exhibits higher spatially separated delocalization of HOMO and LUMO

(Figure S13) than those of C2-COF (Figure S14), demonstrating that the charge carrier recombination could be significantly suppressed and theoretically favored the charge separation, consistent with its lower E_b value. Bader charge analysis offers valuable insights into the assessment of charge transfer dynamics. Noticeably, the incorporation of BF_2 motifs into C2-COF effectively strengthened the electron-withdrawing ability of the acceptor (Figure S15). Consequently, the strong electron push-pull interactions would be generated for C2-COF-BF2, which could substantially reduce Coulombic electrostatic interactions and, in turn, lower the E_b . Therefore, the fluorinated molecular engineering strategy is a reliable protocol to expedite the charge migration kinetics.

Subsequently, we performed photoelectrochemical measurements to further analyze the charge migration behaviors.

As expected, C2-COF-BF₂ manifested much stronger photocurrent response (Figure S16) and considerably smaller electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) radius upon dark or light irradiation (Figure S17). These results revealed that the C2-COF-BF₂ features more efficient photoinduced carrier separation and migration. Moreover, C2-COF-BF₂ also illustrated exceptional surface photovoltage spectroscopy (SPV) responses (Figure 2f) [79]. This result implies that an increased number of photoirradiation-induced carriers are generated and efficiently transferred from the interior to the surface of the C2-COF-BF₂ during photocatalysis. These findings align with the conclusions derived from DFT and PL analyses, once again underscoring the pivotal role of the F-substitution in C2-COF-BF₂ for the effective charge separation and migration.

Achieving desirable interactions between photocatalysts and substrates is critical for two-phase photocatalytic reactions, since good interaction between the active site and the proton, coupled with rapid proton transport in the pore channel, could effectively promote the efficiency of the photocatalytic reaction throughout the process. Given this, we then explored the correlation between proton transport within COF photocatalysts and photocatalytic activity. The impedance spectroscopy measurements were first conducted to assess proton conductivity performance at 98% relative humidity (RH) across a temperature range from 303 to 333 K. Notably, C2-COF exhibited substantial resistance to

proton transport, particularly at 333 K, to the extent that a measurable value could not be obtained (Figure S18). In contrast, the conductivities of C2-COF-BF₂ significantly enhanced to 6.258×10^{-8} , 7.489×10^{-8} , 9.090×10^{-8} , and 1.002×10^{-7} S cm⁻¹, respectively (Figure 3a and Figure S19). Subsequently, the activation energy (E_a) of proton transport was calculated to be 0.163 eV using Arrhenius plots (Figure 3b). With an E_a value below 0.4 eV, the proton conduction in C2-COF-BF₂ was consistent with the Gröthhuss hopping mechanism [50,52,80]. The explanation for the low activation energy suggested that the fluorinated networks have low resistance to proton transport, thereby making them conducive to proton conduction. The fluorine species in the pore wall were assembled into a dense hydrogen bonding network with the adsorbed water molecules, resulting in a Gröthhuss mechanism for fluorinated C2-COF-BF₂ that carried out proton conduction by hopping through a well-connected hydrogen bonding network. This mechanism is facilitated by the interactions between fluorine atoms and hydrogen atoms, which play a pivotal role in establishing the necessary conditions for efficient proton transport. Furthermore, the water contact angles (WCA) measurements of these samples were tested (Figure S20). Due to hydrogen bonding interaction given by the fluorine atoms, C2-COF-BF₂ exhibited superior hydrophilicity in WCA (28.6°) to C2-COF (35.4°), demonstrating promoted interaction between the photocatalyst interface and water. Moreover, the inner pore environment of

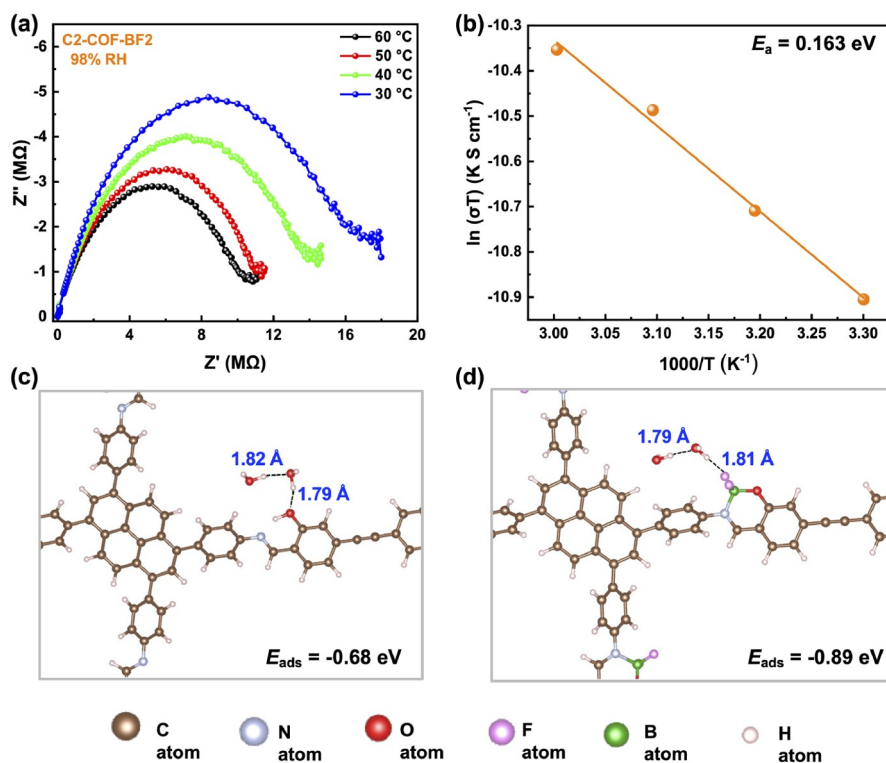


Figure 3 (Color online) (a) Nyquist plots of fluorinated C2-COF-BF₂ at 98% RH. (b) Arrhenius plots for C2-COF-BF₂. (c) C2-COF and (d) C2-COF-BF₂ to calculate double water adsorption model structures.

these samples was further elucidated by water vapor uptake experiments at 298 K, where C2-COF-BF₂ (0.66 g g⁻¹) showed a higher total water uptake than C2-COF (0.50 g g⁻¹) (Figure S21).

Notably, the DFT calculation outcomes also evidence that the BF₂ moieties in C2-COF-BF₂ can offer sites to concentrate H₂O molecules and protons. Additionally, the adsorption energies for both single-H₂O and double-H₂O adsorption models on C2-COF-BF₂ are stronger than those of the hydroxyl groups in C2-COF (Figure 3c, d and Figure S22). This endows that the BF₂ units could act as efficient proton extractors, potentially accelerating proton transfer and enhancing the kinetics of artificial photosynthesis. As a result, photogenerated carriers from the surfaces of the photocatalysts are able to carry out reduction reactions with the activated protons more promptly, thus apt to promote photocatalytic activity.

Based on the aforementioned experimental and theoretical results, photocatalytic HER in the presence of both COFs

was initially conducted to verify our hypothesis. The HER performance of these COFs was evaluated using 3 wt% Pt as the co-catalyst. In contrast, C2-COF-BF₂ presented a HER rate of 200 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$ (per 10 mg) (Figure 4a), over 3 times than that of C2-COF (65 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$) (per 10 mg) under visible light illumination ($\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$) (experimental details see Supporting Information online). And an apparent quantum yield (AQY) of 8.78% at 450 nm, 8.53% at 500 nm, 1.77% at 600 nm and 0.67% at 650 nm were achieved (Figure 4b) for C2-COF-BF₂. Notably, this value (AQY_{450 nm} = 8.78%) represents one of the highest reported values for COF photocatalysts to date (Table S3). Moreover, C2-COF-BF₂ still maintained stable and continuous HER activity during a 6-h long-term experiment (Figure 4c) and 4-circles test within 16 h (Figure 4d). Notably, the recovered C2-COF-BF₂ sample was re-characterized by FTIR (Figure S23) and PXRD (Figure S24), and no apparent change was observed, verifying its robust skeleton.

Furthermore, a secondary assay was conducted to evaluate

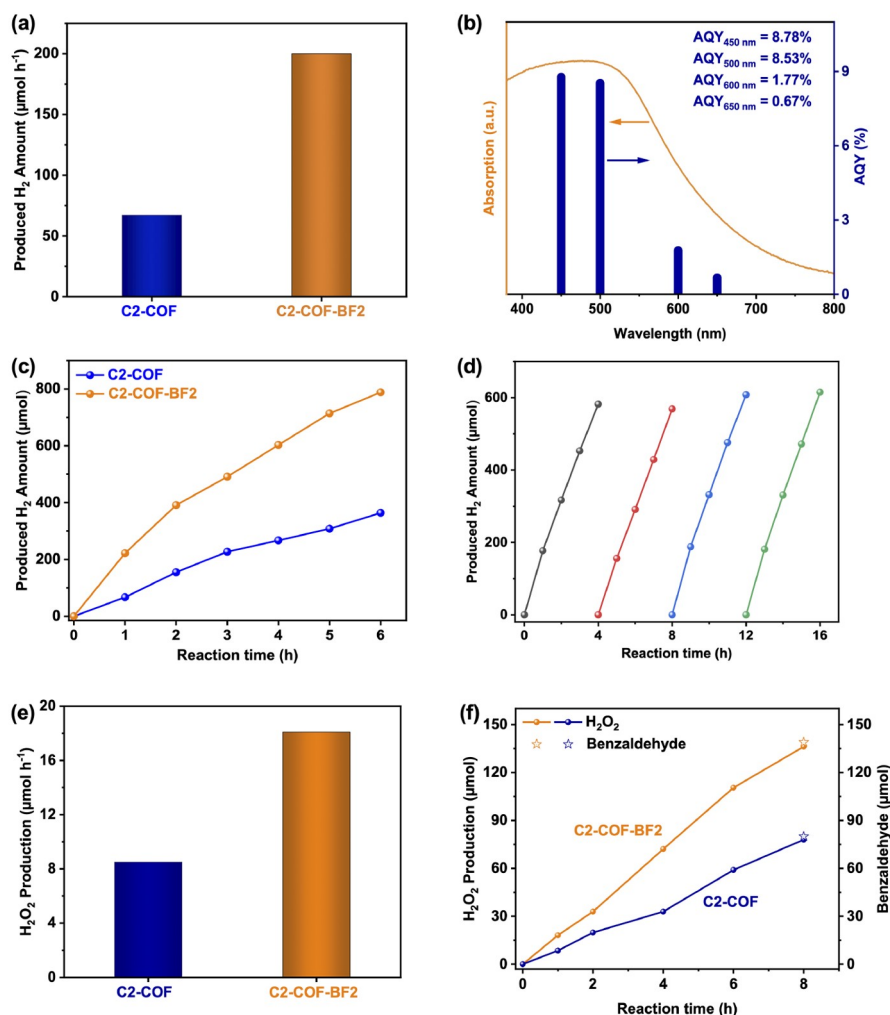


Figure 4 (Color online) Photocatalytic performances of C2-COF and C2-COF-BF₂. (a) H₂ evolution rates ($\lambda > 420 \text{ nm}$). (b) The wavelength-dependent AQYs of C2-COF-BF₂. (c) Long-term H₂ evolution. (d) 4-Circles test for C2-COF-BF₂. (e) H₂O₂ generation under visible-light irradiation. (f) Long-term H₂O₂ generation experiments.

the photocatalytic performance of these COFs, with particular emphasis on H_2O_2 production through the oxygen reduction reaction. Notably, C2-COF-BF₂ achieved a H_2O_2 production rate (HPPR) of about $18.1 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$ (per 10 mg), significantly surpassing that of C2-COF, which was approximately $8.5 \mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$ (per 10 mg) (Figure 4e) in a biphasic system (experimental details see Supporting Information online). These COFs maintained stable and continuous HPPR activity throughout an 8-h prolonged experiment (Figure 4f). The H_2O_2 production efficiency of C2-COF-BF₂ also surpasses that of some previously reported COF systems (Table S4). Concurrently, benzyl alcohol underwent oxidation to benzaldehyde at the oxidation end by photogenerated holes. The correlation between HPPR and HER performance underscores the efficacy of fluorine incorporation in these COFs. This modification significantly enhances charge separation and facilitates proton transport, which is crucial for efficient photocatalytic charge-induced reactions.

4 Conclusions

In summary, this study employs a PSM strategy to propose a BF₂-bridged COF (C2-COF-BF₂) and systematically elucidates the role of BF₂-functionalization in enhancing photocatalytic PCET reductions, including HER and H_2O_2 production, underscoring the role of proton transport. The BF₂ motifs within C2-COF-BF₂ function as efficient proton extractors, hypothesized to accelerate proton transport and thereby promote catalytic performance. Concurrently, the BF₂-insertion induces pronounced electron push-pull effects, which facilitate the charge separation and transfer kinetics, while impeding charge recombination. These synergistic enhancements contribute to the superior HER efficiency and HPPR of C2-COF-BF₂, demonstrating a remarkable boost in photocatalytic activity. Both experimental and theoretical results provide compelling evidence supporting these findings. This approach offers valuable insights for the advancement of high-performance photocatalysts and paves the way for future innovations in sustainable energy applications.

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Conflict of interest The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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