

Amine-functionalized metal-organic framework ZIF-8 toward colorimetric CO₂ sensing in indoor air environment

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ABSTRACT

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) has been shown to contribute to human health consequences indoors, such as shortness of breath, nasal and optic irritation, dizziness, and nausea. In this work, we explore the potential of metal–organic frameworks (MOFs) as highly-porous, crystalline sorbents for sensitive colorimetric CO₂ detection. In particular, the zeolitic imidazolate framework (ZIF-8) is chosen as the sorptive material due to its chemical stability and tunable CO₂ affinity. The colorimetric gas sensor is developed in methanol with three components: (i) MOF ZIF-8 as a high surface area adsorbent; (ii) ethylenediamine (ED) as the CO₂-affinitive basic function; and (iii) phenolsulfonphthalein (PSP) as the pH indicator. Colorimetric assays and ratiometric analysis confirm a colorimetric response to variable CO₂ concentrations of relevance to indoor air quality. The color response is attributed to a zwitterion mechanism whereby ED reacts with CO₂ to form a zwitterionic intermediate. This intermediate is then deprotonated by the pH indicator, shifting the pH and inducing a color change. Given its simple fabrication, rapid and obvious response, and stability in ambient environment, the ZIF-8-based colorimetric sensor provides a promising route for an improved indoor air quality monitoring.

Keywords: Metal-organic framework (MOF); zeolitic imidazolate framework (ZIF); colorimetric sensing; zwitterion mechanism; air quality monitoring; RGB value.

1. Introduction

In recent decades, the design of “green” buildings—energy-efficient homes and offices with lower rates of ventilation [1,2]—has been pursued to reduce building environmental footprint. However, decreased ventilation rates in “green” operation can result in elevated levels of indoor pollutants, which introduces health risks to building occupants [2]. Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is an odorless, colorless gas whose accumulation indoors imposes detrimental consequences on human health. The primary source of CO₂ indoors is attributed to building occupant metabolism [1], with minimum background CO₂ concentrations of ~400 ppm [3]. However, in some urban areas, rising anthropogenic emissions from industrial sources have developed outdoor CO₂ concentrations as high as 500 ppm, leading to increased indoor CO₂ concentrations [1]. Similarly, with increased building occupancy and exacerbated ventilation conditions, indoor CO₂ levels can easily exceed 1,000 ppm [3]. Thorough studies in the literature associate indoor climate variables (humidity, temperature, CO₂ concentration, and volatile organic compound concentration) with *sick building syndrome (SBS)*, which entails adverse health symptoms experienced indoors such as shortness of breath, optic and nasal irritation, tightness of the chest, dizziness, and fatigue [1, 4-5]. Inside automobiles, previous research has reported the dangerous nature of elevated CO₂ levels as high as 3,500 ppm, which are associated with compromised decision-making and drowsiness at the wheel [6]. Relatedly, the CO₂ permissible exposure limit (stipulated by the U.S. Occupational Health and Safety Administration) is set at 5,000 ppm [7], which has been correlated with an increased diastolic blood pressure and mental effort to complete tasks, as well as an overall diminished personal wellbeing [1,8]. Higher CO₂ concentrations (above 10,000 ppm) can induce respiratory acidosis, rapid breathing, metabolic stress, increased brain blood flow, and loss of consciousness [1].

Given these precarious conditions for human health, various efforts have emerged toward development of CO₂ monitors for indoor deployment. The chief problem in gas sensing is the design of a sensor that is highly-sensitive to targeted species, energy-efficient, inexpensive to fabricate, stable, and convenient for users. Nondispersive infrared (NDIR) CO₂ sensors are popular commercial instruments that relate absorbed IR radiation to analyte concentration according to the Beer-Lambert law [9]. For CO₂ sensing, optical bandpass filters absorb IR wavelengths except the characteristic CO₂ absorption wavelength (4.26 μm) to minimize signal interference [9]. Advantages of the NDIR device include low limits of detection (< 100 ppm), high accuracy, and longevity (> 10 years) [9]. However, the CO₂ NDIR sensor has traditionally been challenged by power consumption and cost, as well as scalability limitations from necessary pathlengths (~cm) to enable ppm-level detection [9].

In contrast to the NDIR sensing technology, colorimetric sensing boasts several advantages, including easy preparation, user convenience, and obvious responses detectable by the human eye [10]. For example, the common colorimetric CO₂ sensor is developed based on a pH indicator and a lipophilic organic base in aqueous solutions [11,12]. When CO₂ is absorbed and reacts with the base, the indicator responds to the change in pH of the aqueous environment, thus triggering an immediate color change [11,12]. However, the solution-based colorimetric approach is limited by the handling and storage of the liquid phase and slow recovery kinetics

[11]. For versatile colorimetric CO₂ sensing, porous, inexpensive, robust, and simply-synthesized solids are desired as the ideal sorbents and supports toward a reliable visual readout [11]. Some solid colorimetric devices, such as tertiary amino alcohols and dyes immobilized on porous γ -aluminum oxide supports [11], have been shown to exhibit a reversible colorimetric CO₂ response (at 500 ppm and up). In clinical settings, commercialized colorimetric polymer-film CO₂ sensors loaded with Metacresol purple have been deployed for patient endotracheal tube placement, sensitive to CO₂ partial pressures of 5,000 ppm (and up) [13-14]. Sol-gel matrices [15] and polymer-based sensing arrays [16] have been constructed to colorimetrically detect toxic gases in the atmosphere beyond CO₂, such as volatile organic compounds and SO₂.

Toward the realization of a prototypical gas sensor, we have investigated the potential of metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) as sorbents for indoor colorimetric CO₂ detection. MOFs are highly-porous, crystalline extended structures composed of metal clusters (or cations) coordinated to organic ligands [17-19]. Due to their structural and compositional tunability [20-23], MOFs offer a diverse array of functions, including gas separations and storage [24-27], chemical sensors [28-30], and heterogeneous catalysis [31, 32]. For this work, the zeolitic imidazolate framework (ZIF) is selected from MOF candidates. ZIFs are tetrahedrally-coordinated transition metal ions coordinated by imidazolate linkers; the metal-imidazolate-metal angle is similar to the 145° Si-O-Si angle in zeolites, which give these materials “zeolite-like” topologies [33]. Specifically, we identify ZIF-8, a well-studied MOF constructed from the linkage of zinc (Zn²⁺) ions and imidazolate (mIm⁻) ligands [34]. ZIF-8 contains 3.4 Å six-member pore apertures and 11.6 Å pore cavities accessible for CO₂ adsorption [35]. Furthermore, several theoretical and computational studies [36-38] have shown preferential CO₂ adsorption sites associated with the organic linker, including sites near the C=C bond of the linker (by the pore aperture) and the cage center. ZIF-8 also exhibits notable structural flexibility [39-42], as well as a high thermal and chemical stability [43-45]. In recent studies, MOF-based sensors have been reported to detect CO₂ levels relevant to indoor quality using chemiresistive techniques [29] and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy [46], both requiring external power for their operations. On the other hand, the sensor presented here, based on colorimetry, exhibits an obvious color change to the human eye, and hence is passive.

Colorimetry is employed here as the transduction mechanism to develop a MOF-based device whose CO₂ affinity is of interest to indoor environment. In our study, the MOF-based colorimetric CO₂ sensor, referred to as PSP-ED/ZIF-8, is developed from three components: (a) the adsorbent, ZIF-8; (b) the basic primary amine, ethylenediamine; and (c) the pH indicator, phenolsulfonphthalein. Given the wide range of CO₂ levels that humans can experience within homes, offices, and vehicles [1, 6-7], the prototype is exposed to 700 – 7,500 ppm CO₂ in variable humidity. Across this span of CO₂ concentrations, highly-reproducible red-green-blue (RGB) intensities developed from smartphone video are used to quantify the colorimetric response. Furthermore, the interplay of ZIF-8, ethylenediamine, and phenolsulfonphthalein toward colorimetric CO₂ detection is discussed, as well as future endeavors toward comprehension of water suppression of sensing behavior.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Synthesis of the PSP-ED/ZIF-8

PSP-ED/ZIF-8 synthesis follows a modified procedure adapted from Cravillon et. al [47]. 1.04 g of zinc nitrate hexahydrate $[\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}]$; Fischer Scientific] and 1.04 g of 2-methylimidazole (Hmim, 99%, Sigma-Aldrich) are dissolved in 60 ml of methanol (Fischer Chemical), separately, and then mixed and allowed to react at room temperature overnight (with no stirring). Pristine ZIF-8 crystals are then partially activated, washing three times with methanol using a Beckman Coulter Inc. Microfuge®18 Centrifuge at 12,000 rpm for 5-min. For characterizing the pristine ZIF-8, the washed ZIF-8 crystals are dried at 60 °C on a hot plate overnight. Then, the ZIF-8 crystals are recovered, placed in an oven, and heated at 110 °C (in air) for 24 h.

For the synthesis of PSP-ED/ZIF-8 material, a 2% ethylenediamine (99%, Sigma-Aldrich) solution (% v/v) in methanol is produced by adding 400 µl of ethylenediamine to 19.6 ml of methanol. 10 mg of phenolsulfonphthalein (Acros Organics) is then dissolved into this solution. Aliquots of this solution are then mixed with the partially-activated ZIF-8 (80 mg ZIF-8/ml colorimetric solvent) with prolonged sonication to achieve the PSP-ED/ZIF-8 solution. Optical images of the material at various stages of synthesis are depicted in **Fig. S1**.

2.2 Material characterization methods

Powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) patterns are collected with a Bruker diffractometer (Cu $K\alpha$ radiation, $\lambda = 1.54 \text{ \AA}$, 40 kV, 40 mA). Nitrogen adsorption isotherms are measured at 77 K using Tristar II 3020 volumetric adsorption analyzers manufactured by Micromeritics (Norcross, GA). Before adsorption measurements, the samples are out-gassed under vacuum for 24 h at 150 °C. The specific surface area of the samples is calculated using the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method within the relative pressure range of 0.01 to 0.95 (p/p_0). Sample particle size is acquired using scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Hitachi S-5000). A thin Au/Pd layer is sputter deposited on the samples to afford some electrical conductivity to the material prior to SEM imaging.

2.3 Gas sensing characterization

Quantitative assessment of colorimetric CO_2 sensing is accomplished through ex-situ ultraviolet-visible diffuse reflectance spectroscopy with a Cary 5000 (Instrument No. 5.2) spectrophotometer at a scan rate of 600 nm/min. The Kubelka-Munk transform, $F(R)$, shown as **Eq. 1**, is a two-flux model that relates the material's diffuse reflectance (R) to an absorption coefficient (K) and scattering coefficient (S), which depends on several parameters such as particle size and loading [48-53].

$$F(R) = \frac{(1-R)^2}{2R} = \frac{K}{S} \quad (\text{Eq.1})$$

Colorimetric sensing experiments using UV-vis spectroscopy are conducted as follows. Cellulose filter paper (VWR North American) is first cut into a 0.7 cm x 0.7 cm square, affixed to a piece of double-sided black tape of same size, placed inside the UV-vis sample enclosure,

and used as a blank in the UV-vis spectrophotometer. Then, another cellulose filter paper of the same size is cut and 15 μl of PSP-ED/ZIF-8 solution is drop-cast on it. After 120 s sitting in ambient environment, most of the methanol evaporates. This coated paper is similarly placed in the spectrophotometer and a “Pre-CO₂ exposure” plot of reflectance (% R) vs wavelength (nm) is recorded.

After this run, the sample enclosure is partially opened and placed inside a specifically designed plexiglass enclosure (9 cm x 7.4 cm x 3.6 cm). Colorimetric CO₂ uptake in variable humidity is achieved by connecting the enclosure to a gas manifold (**Fig. S2**), which allows computer-controlled delivery of CO₂ and relative humidity via mass flow controllers (Bronkhorst) set by LabView software. A cylinder of 22,000 ppm CO₂ balanced in nitrogen is used (Praxair). Purge and balance streams are provided by passing house air through pressure swing adsorption dryers to remove humidity and an activated carbon scrubber to eliminate contaminants. Different humidity levels are created via a bubbler and controlled by the same feedback calibration system set by the LabView program. A wireless GasLab Plus CM-501 NDIR sensor is integrated in the apparatus to calibrate the achieved CO₂ and humidity levels set in LabView (as shown in **Fig. S3**). For the measurements reported here, the total gas flow rate is kept constant at 300 standard cubic centimeters per minute (sccm) and the flow stream temperatures are measured at room temperature (22.0 ± 0.5 °C).

For a given trial, the system is first purged with dry air until < 500 ppm CO₂ and the desired humidity are achieved. Then, the sample is exposed to the desired CO₂ concentration while the NDIR sensor logs the data until steady state is reached. The sample enclosure is then placed back in the spectrometer and UV-vis spectra are collected. For each trial, the % R data are converted to F(R) values (using **Eq. 1**) and plotted. In typical absorbance spectra, phenolsulfonphthalein exhibits a color change from purple ($\lambda_{\text{max}} = 570$ nm) in basic environment to yellow ($\lambda_{\text{max}} = 443$ nm) in acidic environments [54]. For each CO₂ exposure (dry or humid), the ratios of the F(R) values at 443 and 570 nm are computed and plotted against CO₂ concentration (ppm). For each CO₂ exposure, at least two trials are averaged, and the standard deviation is depicted as error bars.

Optical images of the samples under various environments are also obtained using the direct exposure technique (all exposures at 300 sccm). For direct exposure measurements, colorimetric ZIF-8 sensors are drop-cast on cellulose filter paper and allowed to dry for 120 s in ambient environment. Then, a video (using a Google Pixel smartphone) is recorded with applied CO₂ and relative humidity (for 10 s). After 10 s, the CO₂ atmosphere is removed, and the sensor recovers over 15 s intervals before subsequent exposure. Background CO₂ and relative humidity are logged with the GasLab Plus CM-501 CO₂ NDIR sensor.

RGB values are extracted from optical images (captured via Google Pixel smartphone) using MATLAB software. Each image is read into the MATLAB script as a 1.3” x 1.3” square and outputted as a 125 x 125-pixel RGB distribution. RGB values range from 0 to 255, where 0 corresponds to minimal intensity and 255 maximum intensity of visible light. Absolute yellow, for example, would have a RGB value of (255, 255, 0), whereas absolute purple would be (255, 0, 255). Because the center of the drop-cast PSP-ED/ZIF-8 is exposed using the direct exposure

method, RGB values are obtained with the Y-axis held constant at 62 pixels, with the X-axis ranging from 60 to 80 pixels. Mean RGB values (and standard deviations) for variable CO₂ concentration and relative humidity are computed using OriginPro software and tabulated.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Material characterization

Fig. 1 displays the XRD patterns obtained on the as-synthesized pristine ZIF-8, the PSP-ED/ZIF-8, as well as the simulated ZIF-8 (refcode: VELVOY) [55]. The major characteristic diffraction peaks at $2\theta = 7.3, 10.4, 12.6, 14.6, 16.4, 17.9, 22.0, 24.4,$ and 26.6° associated with the (011), (002), (112), (022), (013), (222), (114), (233), and (134) planes are observed [56]. These results are consistent with prior reports of the pristine MOF developed in methanol at room temperature, indicating formation of the expected sodalite structure [56]. The PSP-ED/ZIF-8 sensor stability is assessed using XRD (**Fig. S4**). Over a 4-week timespan (at room temperature), the bulk PSP-ED/ZIF-8 material retains its crystallinity in ambient environment, demonstrating no loss of the structural integrity of ZIF-8 when mixed with phenolsulfonphthalein and ethylenediamine in methanol. MOF structural resistance to environmental factors, such as moisture and basicity, is imperative toward feasible use under various conditions [57]. In accordance with the Pearson acid-base concept, the strength of the soft ligand (imidazole) and soft metal (Zn²⁺) interaction offers ZIF-8 a high chemical stability [58].

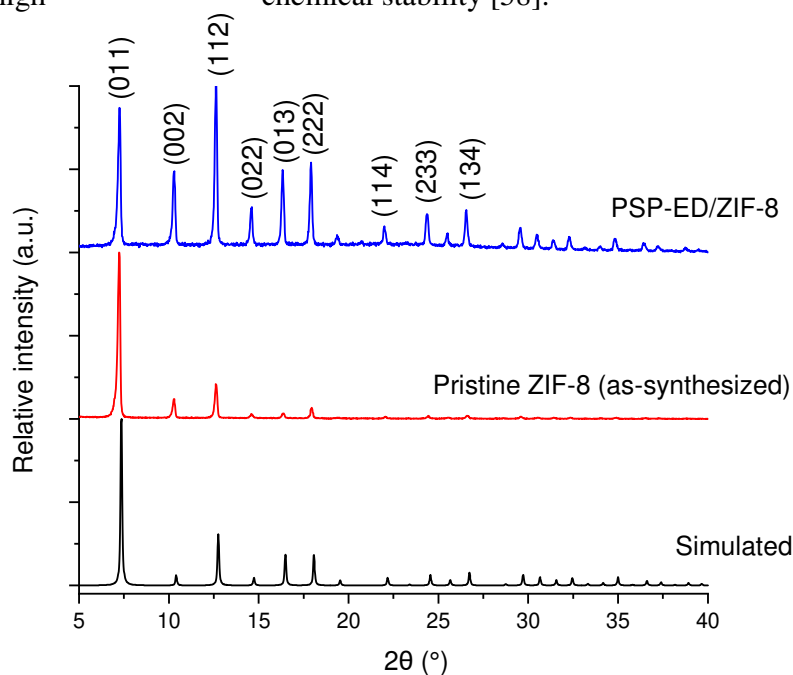


Fig. 1. Powder X-ray diffraction patterns (Cu K- α radiation, $\lambda = 1.54 \text{ \AA}$).

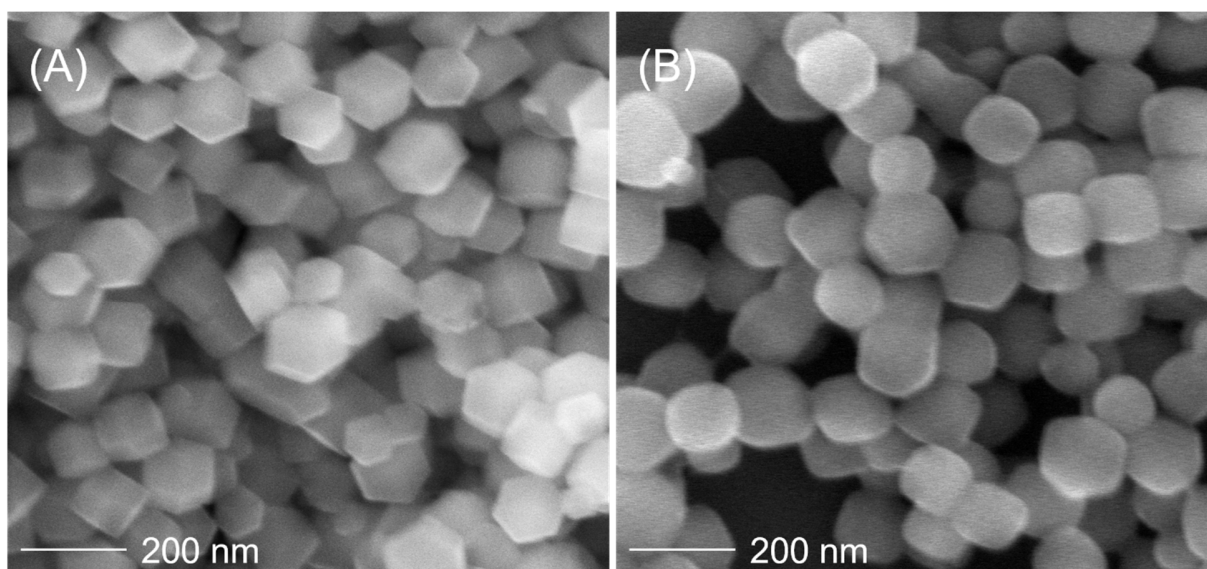


Fig. 2. SEM images for (A) washed pristine ZIF-8 and (B) PSP-ED/ZIF-8 (2% ED). Size bar = 200 nm.

Representative SEM images of pristine ZIF-8 (washed) and PSP-ED/ZIF-8 are shown in **Fig. 2**. With the MOF precursor molar ratio used (metal: linker: solvent – 1:3.62:847) at room temperature in methanol, ZIF-8 nanocrystals (consistent in size with reported values in the literature) are obtained [59]. For the activated pristine ZIF-8, the BET surface area (calculated from the nitrogen isotherm in **Fig. S5**) is measured to be 1,485 m²/g, which is likewise in agreement with previously reported values [60, 61].

3.2 Colorimetric analyses in dry environment

Representative colorimetric images of fresh PSP-ED/ZIF-8 exposed to CO₂ (dry) using the direct-exposure technique are shown in **Fig. 3**. With increased CO₂ exposure, the drop-cast PSP-ED/ZIF-8 (initially purple) demonstrates an obvious color shift to higher intensities of yellow. This colorimetric shift is rendered possible through collaboration of phenolsulfonphthalein, ethylenediamine, and ZIF-8. To highlight the critical role of all three components, the colorimetric responses to just phenolsulfonphthalein, phenolsulfonphthalein/ethylenediamine, and phenolsulfonphthalein/ZIF-8 materials are compared to PSP-ED/ZIF-8. As can be seen in **Fig. 3A**, all three components — ZIF-8, ethylenediamine, and phenolsulfonphthalein— are necessary to achieve a visible response. Without any of these components, the sensors exhibit no visible response to even high levels of CO₂.

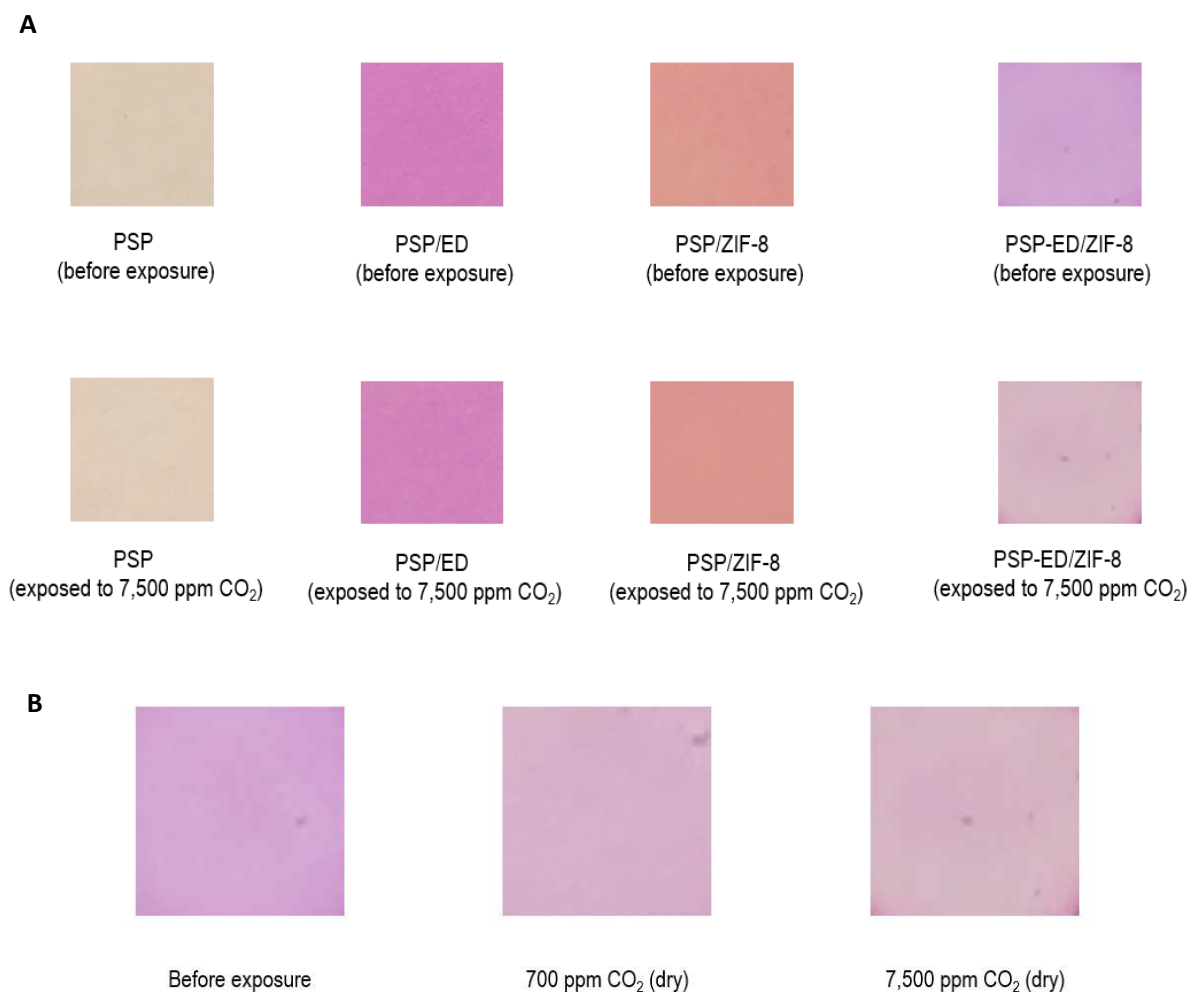


Fig. 3. (A) Effects of various components in colorimetric response to 7,500 ppm CO₂. First column: 15 μ l of a methanolic 0.5 mg/ml phenolsulfonphthalein solution drop-cast on cellulose filter paper. Second column: 15 μ l of a methanolic 0.5 mg/ml phenolsulfonphthalein /ethylenediamine solution (2% ED, %v/v) drop-cast on cellulose filter paper. Third column: 15 μ l of an 80 mg/ml ZIF-8 solution (prepared from a methanolic 0.5 mg/ml phenolsulfonphthalein solution) drop-cast on cellulose filter paper. Fourth column: 15 μ l of PSP-ED/ZIF-8 drop-cast on cellulose filter paper. (B) Colorimetric response of PSP-ED/ZIF-8 before CO₂ is applied, when 700 ppm CO₂ is applied, and when 7,500 ppm CO₂ is applied. All under dry conditions.

Average RGB values for PSP-ED/ZIF-8 exposed to dry CO₂ are shown in **Table S1**, respectively. As observed in **Fig. 3B**, the degree of yellow achieved intensifies as the CO₂ concentration exposed increases from 700 to 7,500 ppm. In accordance with these colorimetric results, the mean G-value increases with increasing dry CO₂ concentration, whereas the mean B-value decreases. While the R-values corresponding to dry CO₂ exposure do not exhibit a particular trend, the more drastic and consistent rise in green intensities and decrease in blue intensities indicate a stronger yellow color with increasing dry CO₂ concentration.



Fig. 4. PSP-ED/ZIF-8 profiles before target gas exposure; exposed to 2,000 ppm carbon dioxide (dry); dry house air; 200 ppm acetone (in dry air); and 200 ppm carbon dioxide (in dry air).

In addition to CO₂, volatile organic compound (VOC) and carbon monoxide (CO) exposure is linked to the development of specific human health symptoms indoors [2]. VOCs (such as acetone)—which are commonly released from aerosols, cleansers, and related household products—are associated with nasal, throat, and eye irritation [62, 63]. Similarly, fatigue is frequently observed with exposure to moderate CO levels indoors [64]. **Fig. 4** compares the response of PSP-ED/ZIF-8 to CO₂ (in dry house air), dry house air, acetone (in dry house air), and CO (in dry house air), all flowing at 300 sccm. Whereas an obvious yellow color change occurs in the presence of CO₂, the sensitivity of PSP-ED/ZIF-8 to both 200 ppm acetone and CO is significantly lower. However, compared to the freshly drop-cast PSP-ED/ZIF-8, a slight color change is observed in the dry acetone and CO exposures, which is attributed to the trace CO₂ present in the balance house air (373 ± 2 ppm). Given the poor response to acetone and CO even at elevated levels (whereas their usual concentrations in indoor air are < 10 ppb [63] and < 30 ppm [64], respectively), the PSP-ED/ZIF-8 sensor exhibits a strong affinity for CO₂ compared to these indoor pollutants in dry atmosphere.

For the low partial pressures of CO₂ involved in this study, the visible change in colorimetric response to variable CO₂ concentrations can be difficult to qualitatively distinguish by human eye. In a similar manner to published work involving phenolsulfonphthalein absorbance spectra in cell culture media [65], plots of the 443/570 nm F(R) ratios from the UV-vis data are developed for each sensor at a specific humidity to draw quantifiable differences. First, F(R) vs. wavelength (nm) plots are collected (shown in **Fig. 5**). With increasing the concentration of CO₂, the exposed sensor becomes more yellow and the F(R) value at 570 nm decreases.

Ratiometric profiles from ex-situ diffuse reflectance UV-vis measurements are shown in **Fig. 6** for the PSP-ED/ZIF-8 sensor. For this sensor, a broad range of target concentrations (700 – 7,500 ppm CO₂) is tested. With increasing CO₂ concentration, the colorimetric ratios (red symbols) noticeably rise from 0.283 to 0.701 ratiometric units, and the corresponding colorimetric CO₂ response visibly intensifies from 700 to 7,500 ppm CO₂ exposures under 0% relative humidity.

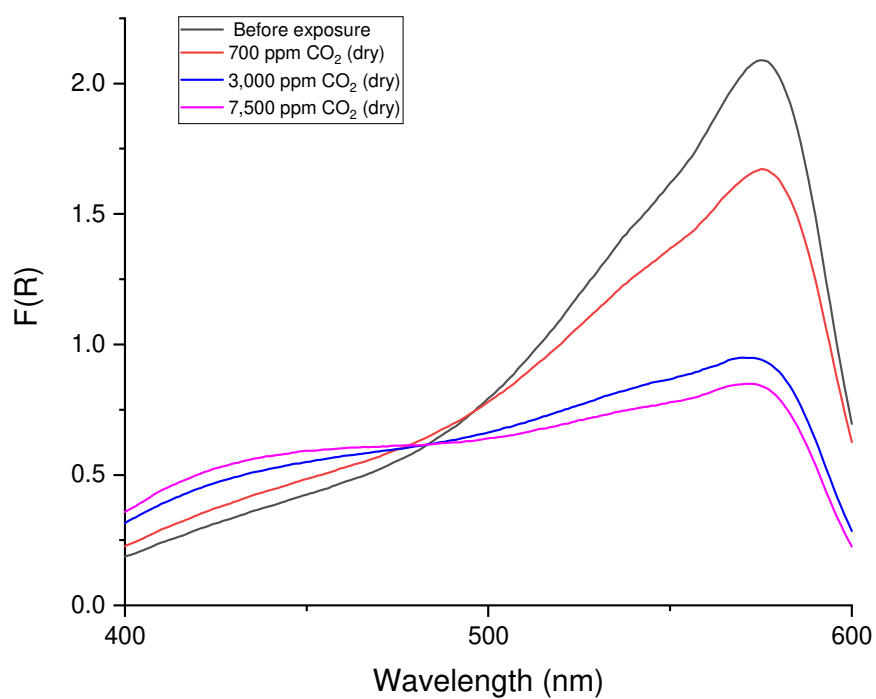


Fig. 5. $F(R)$ vs wavelength (nm) profiles with PSP-ED/ZIF-8 in variable dry CO_2 environment.

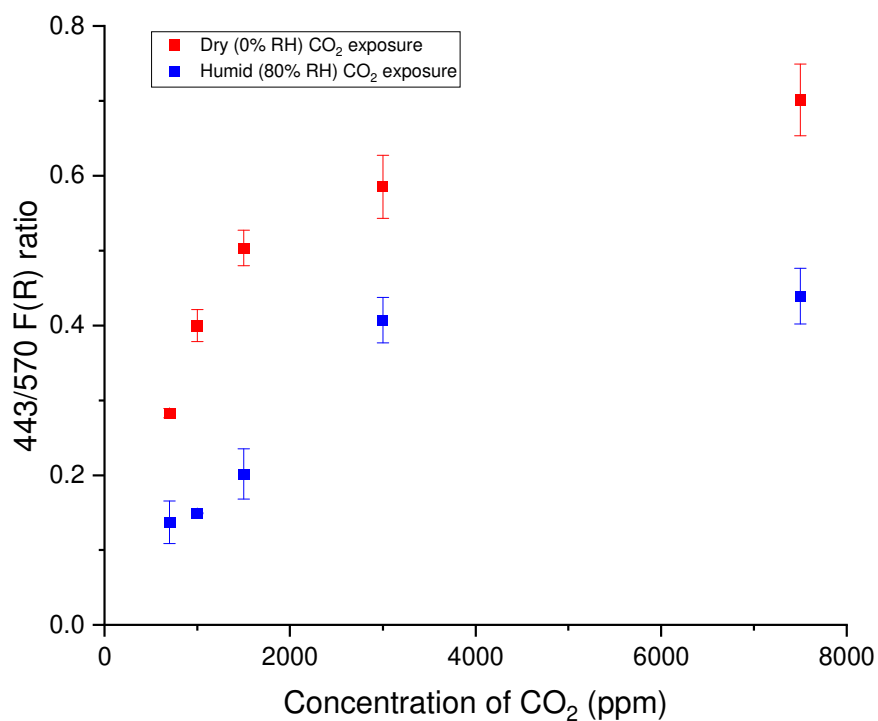
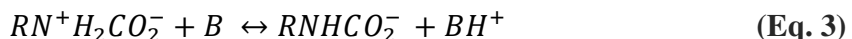


Fig. 6. UV-vis ratiometric profiles (700-7,500 ppm CO_2) of PSP-ED/ZIF-8 in variable humidity.

The observed colorimetric behavior is consistent with proposed reactions between ethylenediamine, CO₂, and other bases. In previous work, ethylenediamine has been grafted onto ZIF-8 via post-synthetic modification to provide basic sites toward an enhanced, solid-state CO₂ adsorption [66]. For the reported colorimetric analyte studies, the observed CO₂ response (in methanol) is proposed to occur via a two-step zwitterion mechanism [67-72], whereby (in this instance) CO₂ is adsorbed on ZIF-8 to react with the other colorimetric sensor components. In aqueous and nonaqueous solvents, ethylenediamine and CO₂ react (**Eq. 2**) to form a 1°,3°-zwitterion intermediate, RH₂N⁺—COO⁻:



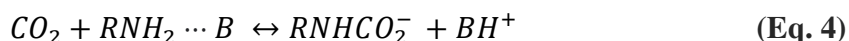
The 1°,3°-zwitterion is then deprotonated (**Eq. 3**) by a base, B, which could be unreacted ethylenediamine, H₂O, solvent molecules, or other species in the system [67-72]. When phenolsulfonphthalein (pKa: 7.9) participates as the base, the deprotonation step shifts the pH from above 8.2 to below 6.8 and induces a colorimetric response from fuchsia to yellow [73].



Repeat exposures at 700, 3,000, and 7,500 ppm CO₂ (dry) are depicted in **Fig. S6**. The colorimetric CO₂ response occurs within seconds as the CO₂ concentrations are repeatedly introduced and removed. However, partial recovery is obtained with each sensor, as the final color after a third dry CO₂ exposure is modestly more yellow than that of the fresh sensor prior to dosage. While some solid-state MOF sensors demonstrate reversible CO₂ detection [74], amine-based liquid gas sensors can suffer from sluggish kinetics [11]. As shown in **Eq. 3**, the carbamates formed upon zwitterionic deprotonation in protic solvent are thermodynamically stable, requiring thermal regeneration processes to reuse the sensor [11]. Thus, the sensor presented here is envisioned as a single-use sensor for colorimetric CO₂ sensing, which is commensurate with modern acid-base commercialized colorimetric sensors implemented in hospital care [13].

As shown in **Fig. 3**, the combined interaction of phenolsulfonphthalein, ethylenediamine, and ZIF-8 with CO₂ facilitates colorimetric gas detection. Based on the BET measurements with the pristine MOF, ZIF-8 is expected to provide a high surface area for CO₂ adsorption, as well as accommodate both phenolsulfonphthalein and ethylenediamine for the two-step zwitterion reaction. Amine scrubbers (loaded with aqueous alkanolamines) are typically employed in CO₂ capture, whereby CO₂ absorption can be represented via film theory: CO₂ first diffuses from the bulk gas phase to the gas-liquid interface, then diffuses into the bulk liquid phase, and finally reacts with the amine via the zwitterion mechanism [75, 76]. However, in the absence of ZIF-8, the cellulose filter paper absorbs methanol, phenolsulfonphthalein, and ethylenediamine, preventing a finite layer with enough thickness to perform the physical and chemical CO₂ absorption steps associated with amine chemistry. Finally, the absence of ethylenediamine (with either phenolsulfonphthalein dissolved in methanol or phenolsulfonphthalein and ZIF-8 mixed in methanol) precludes the formation of the zwitterion, which is necessary for deprotonation by the dye. Thus, it is apparent that the cooperative chemistry of ZIF-8, phenolsulfonphthalein, and ethylenediamine generate a color change upon CO₂ adsorption.

Despite its decades of implementation, however, the validity of the zwitterion mechanism remains contested in the literature [77]. Ben Said et. al [78] performed density functional theory calculations that associated the development of the 1°,3°-zwitterion with high activation energy barriers and concluded this mechanism improbable. In addition, da Silva and Svendsen [79] used Hartree-Fock computational methods to study the mechanisms for reaction between CO₂ and aqueous alkanolamines. Their *ab initio* results suggested that a 1°,3°-zwitterion with a significant lifetime was unlikely [79]. Several authors have instead raised the single-step termolecular mechanism [77, 79-81] as an alternative reactive pathway, whereby an amine species reacts with one molecule of CO₂ and one molecule of base, B, according to **Eq. 4**. The termolecular reaction mechanism has been shown consistent with the reaction kinetics of CO₂ and several amines, such as monoethanolamine (MEA), aminoethylethanolamine, and diethylenetriamine [81].



Formation of the 1°,3°-zwitterion, however, has been supported in some other reports. Xie et al. [82] simulated an aqueous CO₂-MEA system using a conductor-like polarizable continuum model and *ab initio* quantum mechanics/molecular mechanics. In contrast with prior authors, they posit that a two-step mechanism with a 1°,3°-zwitterion intermediate is a favorable reaction path [82]. Given the ongoing debate in the literature, it is difficult to precisely ascertain the reactive chemistry between adsorbed CO₂ and ED. However, due to its widespread use in aqueous and nonaqueous CO₂-amine systems, the zwitterion mechanism is situated in this work.

3.3 Colorimetric analyses in humid environment

The effect of ambient humidity on the colorimetric response of PSP-ED/ZIF-8 is also investigated. Representative colorimetric images for PSP-ED/ZIF-8 exposed 1,500 ppm CO₂ at various humidity are provided in **Fig. 7**. While under dry conditions, the sensor responds quickly and obviously, the colorimetric sensor exhibits a suppressed response to CO₂ with incremented humidity.

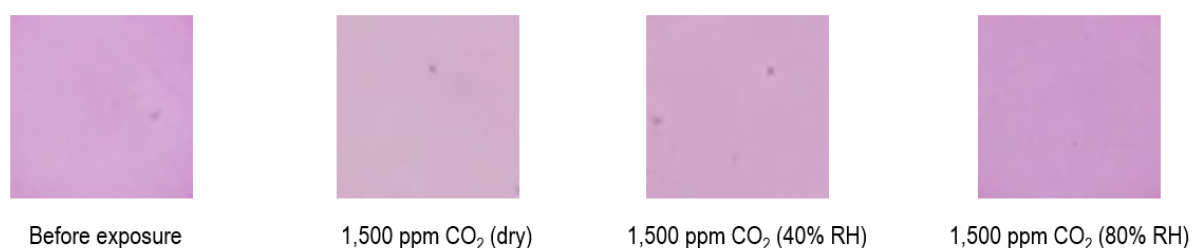


Fig. 7. Fresh exposure of PSP-ED/ZIF-8 (2% ED) to 1,500 ppm CO₂ in (A) dry environment; (B) 40% RH and (C) 80% RH.

The RGB mean values (shown in **Table S2**) demonstrate a reduced colorimetric CO₂ response in humid environment. With increased humidity, the R- and B-values increase, whereas the G-values generally decrease, leading to a diminished color change.

With increasing the concentration of CO₂, the suppressive effect of humidity remains apparent. RGB and ratiometric UV-vis profiles for 700, 3,000, and 7,500 ppm CO₂ doses also reflect weaker colorimetric CO₂ responses upon 80% RH exposure. As shown in **Table S3**, once 80% RH is introduced, the green intensities decrease, and the blue intensities increase for all humid CO₂ concentrations compared to their dry values. The R-values for humid CO₂ exposure are higher than those upon dry CO₂ exposure. This combined decrease in G-values (and increase in R- and B-values) correspond to a less yellow color, indicating a suppressed CO₂ response. Similarly, as depicted in **Fig. 6** and **Table S4**, the 443/570 nm F(R) ratios for humid CO₂ exposure are lower than those of dry exposure.

The exact mechanism of water interference in the colorimetric CO₂ sensing dynamics remains unclear. Differences in chemisorptive behavior in dry and humid environment have been observed in MOF studies. Flaig et. al [83] used solid-state ¹³C cross-polarization magic angle spinning nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy to characterize CO₂ chemisorption in a diamine-functionalized IR-MOF-74-III. In dry environment, carbamic acid formation is observed from one amine reacting with CO₂ [83]. However, humidified (95% RH) conditions converted CO₂ into ammonium carbamates upon reaction with two amines [83].

Under humid conditions, as seen with diamine-functionalized-IR-MOF-III, it is possible that the reaction stoichiometry of the colorimetric CO₂ sensing mechanism has altered toward a reduced CO₂ capacity. Assuming a pseudo steady-state hypothesis on the zwitterion

intermediate concentration, the rate of reaction between CO₂ and primary amines (such as ethylenediamine) in aqueous (or nonaqueous) solvents can be approximated by **Eq. 5** [84]

$$R_{CO_2} = \frac{-k_2\{CO_2\}[RNH_2]}{\frac{k_{-1}}{\sum k_B[B]} + 1} \quad (\text{Eq. 5})$$

where k_2 is the forward rate of reaction of CO₂ and ethylenediamine (**Eq. 2**), k_{-1} is reverse rate of reaction of CO₂ and ED (**Eq. 2**), and $\sum k_B[B]$ is the summation of bases present in the system eligible to deprotonate the zwitterion (**Eq. 3**) [84].

Under the first asymptotic limit, $\frac{k_{-1}}{\sum k_B[B]} \ll 1$ and deprotonation occurs much more rapidly compared to the reverse reaction in **Eq. 2** [84, 85]. The simplified rate law is first order with respect to CO₂ and primary amine, which has been found experimentally for aqueous CO₂-MEA systems at 303K [84-87] and CO₂-ED systems in methanol at 303K [69]. At the other asymptotic limit, $\frac{k_{-1}}{\sum k_B[B]} \gg 1$ [84, 85]. When a primary amine (such as ethylenediamine) contributes most to zwitterion deprotonation, **Eq. 5** becomes second-order with respect to the amine [81, 82]. The second asymptotic limit recovers the termolecular kinetics associated with **Eq. 4**, which Aboudheir et. al [88] showed for high CO₂-loaded (0.1-0.49 mol/mol), concentrated (3 to 9 M) aqueous MEA systems between 293 and 333 K.

Between these asymptotic limits, fractional reaction orders can be observed, as shown experimentally with CO₂-ED systems in pure and aqueous ethylene glycol solutions [69]. However, while such stoichiometric changes have been observed in amine-CO₂ systems, it is uncertain how the presence of ZIF-8 and phenolsulfonphthalein alters the reaction kinetics. Toward elucidation of the mechanistic colorimetric sensing mechanism between CO₂, ZIF-8, phenolsulfonphthalein, ethylenediamine, and potential interferants (such as H₂O), kinetic studies are required in methanolic solvent, which future studies will aim to provide.

Despite the characteristic water resistance of ZIF-8 from the methyl groups associated with its ligands and coordinatively saturated Zn²⁺ sites [43, 89], ZIFs can show favorable H₂O adsorption isotherms through incorporation of hydrophilic moieties. Notably, ZIF-90 and SIM-1 display significant H₂O adsorption at 298 K compared to ZIF-8 due to the hydrophilic functional groups associated with their linkers, imidazole-2-carboxaldehyde and 4-methylimidazole-5-carbaldehyde [90]. In other work, amine-functionalized solid-state ZIF-8 (from toluene reflux) was shown to exhibit a 1-2% suppression of CO₂ adsorption upon exposure to 10% RH [91]. In this context, we suspect that hydrophilic interactions between ethylenediamine and H₂O molecules could promote H₂O adsorption [92] and, under humid environment, disrupt the colorimetric CO₂ adsorption achieved in dry environment.

Alongside hydrogen bonding interactions between ethylenediamine and H₂O, the participation of H₂O in the zwitterion mechanism is another possible source of interference in the colorimetric CO₂ sensing. When hydrophilic ethylenediamine molecules are exposed to humid CO₂, the attracted H₂O molecules can engage in the second step of the zwitterion mechanism and deprotonate the intermediate species [92]. The presence of hydrophilic ethylenediamine groups,

then, could promote water adsorption, which subsequently introduces competition with phenolsulfonphthalein for deprotonation of the zwitterion and affects the apparent color [92].

Humid interference remains a challenge in colorimetric analyte detection using various materials [93, 94]. Because humidity can disrupt colorimetric sensing through physical adsorption or chemical interactions, corrective measures can be difficult to precisely accomplish [94]. Toward addressing the effects of humidity on sensing performance, desiccants have been employed, as well as water-insoluble dyes compatible with hydrophobic substrates (such as polyvinylidene difluoride) [94]. The chemical tunability of MOFs can also be manipulated to enhance hydrophobic character. Using a post-synthetic shell-ligand exchange reaction (SLER), Liu et. al [95] substituted the outermost shell of ZIF-8 particles with 5,6-dimethylbenzimidazole and achieved an improved water-resistance and water stability. Thus, we remain optimistic in achieving a MOF colorimetric sensor with water-repelling attributes suitable for accurate detection of indoor chemical species.

4. Conclusions

In this work, we have designed and characterized a simple, chemically-stable, methanolic MOF-based colorimetric sensor toward detection of low CO₂ partial pressures of interest in indoor air quality monitoring. Colorimetric images, RGB values, and UV-vis spectroscopic studies show that PSP-ED/ZIF-8 is sensitive to CO₂ concentrations typical of indoor air in dry environment, with a lower limit of detection below 1,000 ppm CO₂.

Despite an excellent response to CO₂ in dry environment, PSP-ED/ZIF-8 suffers in the presence of humidity. Both qualitative colorimetric images and quantitative UV-vis ratiometric profiles indicate colorimetric reduction upon exposure to humid CO₂. Here, the hydrophilic nature of ethylenediamine is expected to facilitate H₂O adsorption onto ZIF-8 and thus interfere with the visible CO₂ colorimetric detection otherwise achieved in dry environment. Competition between phenolsulfonphthalein and H₂O for zwitterion deprotonation is also considered as a possible source of suppression of the colorimetric CO₂ response. However, the nature of water interference remains unknown and necessitates the pursuit of kinetic studies to clarify the colorimetric CO₂ sensing mechanism.

The ZIF-8 colorimetric sensor offers a simple detection of CO₂ via incorporation of reactions between ethylenediamine, phenolsulfonphthalein, and CO₂. Through integration of water-resistant functionalities, the MOF gas sensor will be enhanced to develop a competitive colorimetric device robust to the variable humidity characteristic of indoor air environment.

CRedit authorship contribution statement:

Adrian K. Davey: Conceptualization; Data curation; Formal analysis; Funding acquisition; Investigation; Software; Validation; Writing-original draft. **Xiang Gao:** Conceptualization; Funding acquisition; Supervision; Writing – review & editing. **Yong Xia:** Investigation. **Zhou Li:** Investigation. **Matthew N. Dods:** Investigation; Resources; Writing – review & editing. **Steven Delacruz:** Investigation. **Aifei Pan:** Conceptualization. **Sanket Swamy:** Investigation. **David Gardner:** Conceptualization; Writing – review & editing. **Carlo Carraro:** Writing –

review & editing. **Roya Maboudian:** Conceptualization; Funding acquisition; Project administration; Resources; Supervision; Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of Competing Interest:

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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