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1 Enhanced Ultraviolet Photon Capture in Ligand-Sensitized Nanocrystals

2
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8
9 **Abstract**

10 The small absorption cross-sections ($\epsilon < 10 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) characteristic of Laporte-forbidden
11 transitions in the f-elements have limited the practical implementation of lanthanide nanoparticles in
12 solar capture devices. While various strategies designed to circumvent the problems of low f-f
13 oscillator strengths have been investigated, comparatively little work has explored the utility of organic
14 ligands with high absorption coefficients ($\epsilon \sim 10^3\text{-}10^5 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) in sensitizing excited states in
15 lanthanide nanocrystals. Here, we detail the photophysics of $\text{NaGd}_{1-x}\text{Eu}_x\text{F}_4$ nanoparticles featuring
16 surface display of the ligand 3,4,3-LI(1,2-HOPO), an aromatic antenna functioning as the terminal light
17 absorber in this system. The result is a ligand-nanocrystal hybrid which converts UV (250-360 nm)
18 light into red Eu(III) luminescence with an external quantum yield of 3.3%. We analyze this
19 sensitization process, responsible for a 10^4 fold increase in luminescence relative to metal-centered
20 excitation, through a quantitative treatment of energy transfer between ligand and metal states.

21
22 *Keywords: sensitization, lanthanide, ligand antenna, energy transfer, nanocrystal.*

46 The problem of spectral mismatch between semiconductor band gaps and Earth's terrestrial solar
47 spectrum remains an issue plaguing the efficiency of modern photovoltaics^{1,2}. A number of methods
48 have been proposed and implemented to address this problem, including the incorporation of materials
49 absorbing at different wavelengths in multi-junction photovoltaics, modification of the intrinsic Si band
50 gap through advanced nanofabrication methods, and the respective up- and down-conversion of low-
51 and high-frequency EM radiation into photons suited for bulk Si absorption³⁻⁶.

52 Currently, research in the field of spectral conversion is dominated by lanthanide photophysics,
53 where exploitation of f-element nanocrystals has resulted in a wide array of potential
54 downconverters⁷⁻¹². However, the maturation of these prototype systems into practical applications
55 has largely been hampered by the low molar absorptivities of f-f transitions ($< 10 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$)^{13,14}.
56 Routes previously explored to address this challenge include the relaxation of Laporte selection rules
57 through the embedding of lanthanide ions in low-symmetry crystal hosts and the employ of parity-
58 allowed, $d \rightarrow f$ charge transfer in divalent lanthanides such as Eu(II)¹⁵. By contrast, the possibility of
59 photosensitizing nanocrystalline lanthanides with organic ligands remains a relatively novel method of
60 enhancing f-block nanoparticle light absorption, though a recent study has implemented such schemes
61 in light upconversion¹⁶, and some work exploring the photochemical effects surface ligands have on
62 lanthanide nanoparticle luminescence has been conducted¹⁷⁻²³.

63 In this report, we describe the construction of Eu-doped, rare-earth nanoparticles featuring a
64 hydroxypyridinone (HOPO) ligand derivative, 3,4,3-LI(1,2-HOPO) (abbreviated '343'), as an
65 ultraviolet photosensitizer. These constructs depart significantly from known systems such as dye-
66 sensitized TiO₂ nanoparticles, where the stated purpose of photon absorption is generation of
67 delocalized charge carriers, rather than the efficient production and radiative decay of lower-frequency
68 excitons, the central focus of this work.

69 It has been previously shown that population of Eu(III) excited states in the Eu(III)-343 solution
70 complex occur via energy transfer from the 343 triplet state following UV absorption by the ligand²⁴⁻
71 ²⁷. Surface display of this lanthanide chelator on nanoparticle surfaces is achieved through substitution
72 of 1-oleate ligands retained on the nanoparticles following their initial synthesis. The resultant
73 nanocrystals show good performance as UV \rightarrow Vis converters, with red luminescence resulting from
74 UV exposure serving as a diagnostic of Eu(III) sensitization by 343. Here, funneling light into
75 europium ⁵D_j manifolds via energy transfer from aromatic ligand absorbers benefits from the high
76 molar absorptivity of 343 ($\epsilon_{320 \text{ nm}} \sim 17,000 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) relative to f-f transitions. The net effect is an
77 expansion of light absorption by over three orders of magnitude relative to typical lanthanide
78 nanocrystals, where metal-centered excitation is generally employed, while dramatically improving
79 peak luminescence relative to direct Eu excitation. As a consequence of 343's broad absorption profile,
80 this scheme also significantly increases the spectral bandwidth available for nanoparticle light
81 conversion, a notable improvement over the narrow absorption lines typical of lanthanides.

82
83 Absorption data acquired after the displacement of 1-oleate by 343 on nanocrystal surfaces
84 reveal spectra representing the superposition of a broad ultraviolet transition ($\lambda_{\text{max}} = 317 \text{ nm}$) and
85 Rayleigh scattering. The spectral shape and transition energy of the UV absorption are characteristic of
86 the 343 ligand and are not observed in the absorption spectra of the unmodified particles (Figure 1).
87 Additionally, the normalized difference spectrum between the ligand-modified and unmodified
88 particles looks virtually identical to that of the free ligand. Taken together, these data indicate that the
89 343 chelator effectively binds lanthanide ions at the surface of NaGdF₄ nanoparticles, as predicted from

90 the extremely high thermodynamic binding affinity of the ligand for trivalent lanthanide ions ($\log \beta_{\text{Eu-343}}$
91 $= 20.2$ and $\log \beta_{\text{Gd-343}} = 20.5$)²⁶.

92 Emission spectra of Eu-doped, 343-modified nanocrystals dispersed in ethanol reveal a strong
93 dependence of the Eu(III) luminescence on excitation in the ultraviolet region that is absent in the
94 unmodified nanocrystals (Figure 2). Specifically, the $^5\text{D}_0 \rightarrow ^7\text{F}_2$ Eu transition exhibits an excitation
95 dependence reflective of the 343 absorption spectrum, with metal-centered emission observed at
96 excitation wavelengths ranging from 300-360 nm and peaking around 340 nm (Figure 3). This
97 correspondence between the nanoparticle action spectrum and the 343 absorption spectrum, along with
98 concomitant Eu emission upon UV irradiation, demonstrates energy transfer between ligand and metal
99 states is operative. This observation is consistent with previous reports describing Eu(III) sensitization
100 by 343 phosphorescence in the Eu-343 molecular complex.²⁵ The absence of europium luminescence
101 in no-343 and undoped NaGdF₄-3,4,3 controls upon UV excitation corroborate the interpretation that
102 the red emission from these particles is dependent on ligand-to-metal energy transfer between 343
103 surface chelators and the Eu(III) lattice dopants. Probes of nanocrystal luminescence upon 464 nm
104 europium excitation ($^7\text{F}_{0,1} \rightarrow ^5\text{D}_2$ transition), with the same instrument parameters as used for UV
105 ligand excitation, revealed a peak intensity at 612 nm (5×10^4 counts s^{-1}) four orders of magnitude
106 smaller than the ligand-sensitized metal luminescence (2×10^8 counts s^{-1} ; S.1), a dramatic improvement
107 for this nanoparticle system. Previous studies of related systems have yielded substantially smaller
108 luminescence enhancements, when reported^{19,21}.

109 The conditions used for achieving nanoparticle ligation allowed for the likelihood of particle
110 surface etching, with aqueous Eu^{3+} and Gd^{3+} arising as potential byproducts. Such free ion formation
111 would result in assembly of the Eu-343 solution complex during ligand incubations. It was therefore
112 necessary to verify that the observed luminescence was genuine nanoparticle emission, as opposed to
113 residual emission by the molecular complex. To test for this possibility, the final washes of all
114 nanoparticles following ligand addition were saved and tested for Eu luminescence. Our data show that
115 the free complex is indeed produced during the ligand addition. However, the luminescence intensity of
116 the wash represents a minor fraction (< 0.0045) of the total emission signal after only four wash cycles
117 (Figure 2, inset).

118 Overall sensitization efficiencies were evaluated through determination of nanoparticle external
119 quantum yields using the integrated sphere method. Variability in syntheses between independent
120 nanoparticle batches resulted in a quantum yield of 3.3 ± 0.6 %. To quantitatively determine the
121 sources of non-radiative losses in this system, we use our findings to provide estimates of the ligand to
122 metal energy transfer rate and efficiency. Our approach is rooted in first calculating the average energy
123 transfer efficiency ($\langle \eta \rangle$) through equation (1)²⁸:

$$124 \quad \langle \eta \rangle = 1 - \sum_j \frac{\tau_{DAj}}{\tau_{Dj}} c_j \quad (1),$$

125 To account for the multiple donor states arising from splitting of the 343 triplet, we present
126 modifications of the typical rate and energy efficiency equations used for energy transfer. Here, an
127 averaged energy transfer rate is comprised of a weighted summation of emissive state lifetimes
128 according to their respective spectral contributions, where τ_{Dj} and τ_{DAj} are the respective lifetimes of the
129 j th 343 triplet donor (D) levels in the absence and presence of the europium acceptor (A). The
130 normalized coefficient, c_j , is used to represent the spectral contribution of individual states j to the
131 overall transient decay. An average rate of energy transfer between ligand and metal states is then
132 found according to equation (2):

$$\langle k_T \rangle = \frac{\langle \eta \rangle \langle k_D \rangle}{1 - \langle \eta \rangle} \quad (2).$$

133

134 Here, $\langle k_T \rangle$ is the averaged energy transfer rate, while $\langle k_D \rangle$, the expectation value for the 343 triplet
 135 decay rate in the absence of acceptor (Eu^{3+}) ion, is defined as:

$$\langle k_D \rangle = \sum_j k_{Dj} c_j \quad (3),$$

136

137 with k_{Dj} expressing the decay rate of the j th component of the 343 triplet.

138

139 Donor luminescence lifetimes in the presence and absence of europium acceptor quenching
 140 were quantified through time-resolved measurement of 343 phosphorescence from NaGdF_4 -343
 141 nanoparticles under 317 nm excitation at 77 K. Steady-state measurement of the 343 ligand at 77 K
 142 reveals a broad emission centered around 525 nm, assigned to the triplet, and a minor peak around 415
 143 nm assigned to residual singlet luminescence (Figure 4). Monitoring the ligand triplet's decay at 525
 144 nm yields a decay process composed of three distinct processes (S.2). Averaging data over three trials
 145 reveals that two of these three phases display significant quenching upon europium substitution,
 146 suggesting that these are states implicated in energy transfer between the ligand and metal. This
 147 conclusion is also supported by Gaussian deconvolution of the 343 triplet steady-state luminescence,
 148 which reveals two overlapping electronic contributions to the 525 nm emission signal used for time-
 149 dependent probes (Figure 4). Both components display decay constants in a range characteristic of
 150 triplet state deactivation and spectral overlap with the hypersensitive $\text{Eu}^{3+} {}^7\text{F}_{0,1} \rightarrow {}^5\text{D}_2$ absorption at 464
 151 nm (S.1, S.2). In the undoped case, $k_1 = 1513 \pm 301 \text{ s}^{-1}$, and $k_3 = 29.7 \pm 3.9 \text{ s}^{-1}$, while for europium-
 152 incorporated particles, $k_1 = 2652 \pm 216 \text{ s}^{-1}$ and $k_3 = 47.5 \pm 9.1 \text{ s}^{-1}$. Europium substitution, at the low
 153 concentration used for this study, does not significantly perturb the relative contributions of the fast and
 154 slow phases to the transient decay. At this wavelength, we find that $f = 0.3$ and 0.1 for the fast and slow
 155 components, respectively (S.2). A third phase contributing to the time-resolved spectra is largely
 156 unchanged by the 5% europium substitution, displaying decay rates that are statistically equivalent
 157 between the samples and Eu-free controls ($k_2 = 238.6 \pm 8.8 \text{ s}^{-1}$ and $240.8 \pm 20.5 \text{ s}^{-1}$, respectively; $f =$
 158 0.6). Such behavior suggests that this component is not responsible for energy transfer observed
 159 between ligand and metal states in this system.

159

160 Comparison of the calculated energy transfer rate with measured 343 excited state lifetimes
 161 provides insight into the origins of the low quantum yields observed with this pilot system. Workup of
 162 the relevant spectral data yields a mean energy transfer rate of 124 s^{-1} and an energy transfer efficiency
 163 of 0.17 between the 343 triplet excited state and the europium ${}^5\text{D}_j$ manifold. This energy transfer rate is
 164 considerably lower than the weighted decay time measured for the 343 donor (600 s^{-1}), indicating that
 165 ligand triplet-to-ground state deactivation is favored over energy transfer in this system. It should be
 166 emphasized that this value of the transfer efficiency is likely an upper bound in our system, as these
 167 values are derived from cryogenic measurements, temperatures where triplet decay through non-
 168 radiative decay paths would be reduced relative to luminescence quenching at room temperature.
 169 Regardless, these findings indicate that poor coupling between the 343 triplet and europium-centered
 170 states largely accounts for the energetic losses, and correspondingly low quantum yields, observed
 171 during metal sensitization in these nanocrystals. It is therefore clear, despite its remarkable brightness,
 172 that the system described here could be significantly optimized through improvements of the
 173 ligand/lanthanide coupling.

173

174 This work suggests ligand-sensitized nanoparticles may serve as a viable route through which

175 the constraints of solar spectrum/semiconductor band gap mismatch, and the low absorption cross-
176 sections of lanthanides, may be overcome for solid-state systems. However, the characterizations
177 presented in this work are largely fundamental in nature, and incorporation of this technology into any
178 commercial solar capture device first requires practical studies on luminescence optimization of these
179 nanoparticle chelates, particularly through their dependence on Eu content and ligand:nanoparticle
180 ratios. Furthermore, having demonstrated the viability of this approach opens up the possibility of
181 sensitizing rare-earth fluorides suited for transforming UV light into NIR emission, where Si
182 photocurrent response is greatest. While the much-studied $\text{Pr}^{3+}/\text{Yb}^{3+}$ and $\text{Tb}^{3+}/\text{Yb}^{3+}$ couples provide
183 intuitive starting points for this effort^{2,29–31}, previous work in our group has indicated that utilizing
184 $\text{Pr}^{3+}/\text{Yb}^{3+}$ co-substitution will require a ligand better-suited for Pr^{3+} sensitization, as 343 displays poor
185 coupling with the praseodymium $^3\text{P}_j$ levels required for two-photon downconversion via Yb^{3+} ($^2\text{F}_{5/2} \rightarrow$
186 $^2\text{F}_{7/2}$) luminescence²⁶. Natural extensions of the system outlined here also include sensitizing curium-
187 doped $\text{NaGdF}_4 / \text{NaYF}_4$ lattices, a concept inspired by earlier reports of a high quantum yield (~45%) in
188 the Cm^{3+} -343 metal-ligand complex³². Such work is forthcoming.

189

190 **Methods**

191 *Nanoparticle Synthesis*

192 Nanoparticles were synthesized according to the methods of Wang et al.⁴. Reaction compositions were
193 3.8 ml $\text{Gd}(\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2)_3 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (Sigma-Aldrich), 200 μl $\text{Eu}(\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2)_3 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (Sigma-Aldrich) in a
194 solvent composition of 8 ml 1-oleic acid (Alfa Aesar) and 12 ml 1-octadecene (90%, Sigma-Aldrich).

195

196 *Ligand Surface Functionalization*

197 Aliquots (2 ml) of nanoparticles in cyclohexane were precipitated by addition of 2 ml of ethanol.
198 Particles were pelleted via centrifugation at 13000 rpm for 5 minutes. The solvent was decanted and the
199 pellets resuspended in 2 ml ethanol using sonication. Centrifugation was then repeated and the solvent
200 removed. Fresh ethanol (2 ml) was used to resuspend the particles before their addition to a 10 ml
201 round bottom flask. Afterwards, 1 ml of 75 mM 3,4,3-LI(1,2-HOPO) (Ash Stevens, Inc.) in pH 6.0 50
202 mM Hepes was added, and the reaction was capped. The mixture was stirred overnight at 75 °C, to
203 promote ligand binding to the nanoparticles, and washed five times in ethanol using alternating
204 centrifugation and sonication steps.

205

206 *Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM)*

207 TEM images were collected on a JEOL JEM-2100 LaB6 microscope. Stock suspensions of
208 nanoparticles in cyclohexane were diluted by 1/5 in ethanol and dropcast onto TEM grids. Samples
209 were mounted onto a single-tilt sample holder. Images were collected using a high-tension voltage of
210 200 kV (112 μA beam current), with exposure times limited to 100 ms.

211

212 *UV-Vis Spectroscopy*

213 Absorption spectra were collected on a Molecular Devices SPECTRAmax Plus 384 UV-Vis
214 spectrometer. Nanoparticle suspensions were formed in ethanol and scattering at 500 nm was
215 measured. Samples were diluted appropriately so that their A_{500} values were approximately 0.3, an
216 optical density yielding stable colloidal suspensions in this solvent. Absorption spectroscopy also
217 provided a qualitative measurement of nanoparticle:surface ligand ratios, through comparison of
218 scattering intensities (A_{500}) relative to the peak 343 absorption at 325 nm.

219

220 *Steady-State Luminescence Spectroscopy*

221 Steady-state luminescence spectra were acquired on a Jobin Yvon Horiba Fluorolog system.
222 Luminescence spectra of nanoparticles were collected using a 317 nm excitation wavelength sourced
223 from a xenon arc lamp, 1 nm excitation / 3 nm emission slit settings and 1.0 s integration times at 1 nm
224 resolution. Due to the overlap of our emission window (550-750 nm) with the second-harmonic of our
225 excitation beam, a 400 nm longpass filter (S.8) was placed between the sample and detector to remove
226 beam-generated interference for all luminescence measurements. Excitation (action) spectra were
227 collected by monitoring the $^5D_0 \rightarrow ^7F_2$ transition at 612 nm using 1 nm slits for both excitation and
228 emission monochromators and 1.0 s integration times at 1 nm resolution. Nanoparticle samples were
229 prepared as dilute solutions in ethanol to ensure stability of the suspension over the course of data
230 collection ($A_{500} \sim 0.3$; 0.1 mg ml^{-1}).

231 Determination of the triplet state of 3,4,3-LI(1,2-HOPO) was achieved through measurement of the 77
232 K spectrum of the Gd-343 metal-ligand complex (180 μM) and NaGdF₄-343 nanoparticles in ethanol.
233 Spectra were acquired using parameters of 1 nm excitation / 3 nm emission slits, 317 nm excitation, 1.0
234 s integration times and a luminescence window spanning 325 to 750 nm. For emission wavelengths
235 longer or exceeding 600 nm, the 400 nm long pass filter was again used to remove secondary harmonic
236 noise originating from the excitation source.

237

238 *Time-resolved Luminescence Spectroscopy*

239 Donor luminescence lifetimes were acquired through measurement of the 343 phosphorescence decay
240 rate at 77 K, using the Fluorolog system in time-resolved (MCS lifetime) mode. Excitation parameters
241 were as follows: 317 nm excitation, 14 nm excitation bandpass; 525 nm observation, 1 nm emission
242 bandpass; $10 \mu\text{s channel}^{-1}$ and $3000 \text{ channels sweep}^{-1}$ (30.0 ms observation window). Time-resolved
243 data were fit to multi-exponential decay functions in MATLAB with the minimum number of
244 components needed to provide a zero residual (Supporting Information).

245

246 *Quantum Yield Determination*

247 External quantum yields were determined using an integrated sphere according to the methodology of
248 de Mello et. al³³. Our placement of a neutral density filter between the sphere's exit port and the PMT
249 detector when measuring the excitation beam signals requires a small modification of de Mello's
250 equation:

251

$$\Phi = f_{exc} \left[\frac{P_c - (1-A)P_b}{L_a A} \right];$$

252

$$A = 1 - \frac{L_c}{L_b}.$$

253

254

255 $P_{b,c}$ are the integrated Eu emission spectra acquired under the respective conditions of indirect and
256 direct excitation in the sphere. $L_{a,b,c}$ represent the filtered, integrated excitation beam as measured for
257 the respective cases of no sample, indirect sample excitation and direct sample excitation. The factor
258 f_{exc} represents the fraction of excitation light transmitted by the filter. The filter's light transmission at
259 355 nm was determined through measurement of the lamp excitation beam at 355 nm with 1 nm
260 excitation and emission slit settings at an 0.1 nm resolution in both the presence and absence of the

261 filter. A light transmission factor, calculated from the ratio of the integrated spectra of filtered to
262 unfiltered light, was found to be 0.160 at 355 nm (S.4). The integrated sphere setup used for these
263 experiments was benchmarked using quinine sulfate as a standard (literature value: $\Phi = 0.54$). Quinine
264 sulfate standards (Sigma-Aldrich) were prepped as dilute solutions (peak absorption ~ 0.05) in 50 mM
265 H_2SO_4 . Five independent determinations gave $\Phi = 0.557 \pm .046$ (8.2% error; S.6).
266 Samples were made such that the particle scattering intensity at 500 nm was ~ 0.3 and the ligand
267 absorption intensity at 355 nm fell in the approximate range of 0.01 - 0.07 (after subtracting light
268 scatter contributions to the scatter intensity by using the ligand-free nanoparticles as a baseline).
269 Instrument parameters were as follows: Eu emission spectra were collected using 1 nm slits for both
270 excitation and emission, under 355 nm sample excitation and a 550-750 nm observation window at 1
271 nm spectral resolution. Quinine sulfate spectra were acquired similarly, with a 365-600 nm emission
272 range. Lamp spectra at 355 nm were collected using both emission and excitation slits of 1 nm, an
273 observation window from 350-358 nm, and 0.05 nm resolution. All spectra for quantum yield
274 calculations were collected using 4.0 s signal integration times.
275 Corrections for quantum yield luminescence spectra consisted of two types: the subtraction of residual
276 solvent autoluminescence and a response adjustment for any wavelength-dependent light transmission
277 bias of the sphere. Subtractive corrections were done through acquisition of luminescence spectra using
278 pure ethanol using the same excitation parameters as for the sample.
279 Spectral adjustments for wavelength-dependent response of the sphere were determined by measuring
280 the luminescence spectra of either quinine sulfate (400-600 nm) or fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC,
281 Sigma-Aldrich) from 600-710 nm both inside and outside the integrated sphere. An empirical response
282 function describing the integrated sphere's light transmission bias, $r(\lambda)$, was then derived from the
283 following relation:

$$r(\lambda) = \frac{S_{No\ Sphere}(\lambda)}{S_{sphere}(\lambda)},$$

285
286
287 where S is the luminescence spectrum of quinine sulfate or FITC. Integrated sphere luminescence
288 spectra were then corrected for sphere response through multiplication by $r(\lambda)$.

290 **Supporting Information**

291 Detailed descriptions of f-f nanoparticle excitation, time-resolved luminescence, TEM imaging, optics
292 characterizations and raw quantum yield data for both standards and samples can be found in the
293 Supporting Information.

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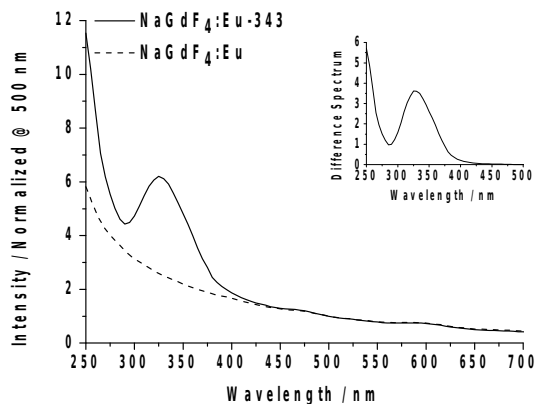
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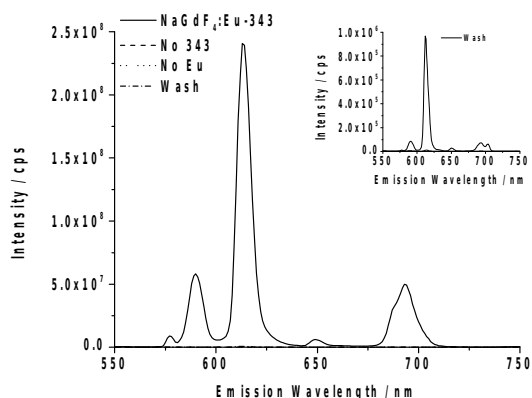
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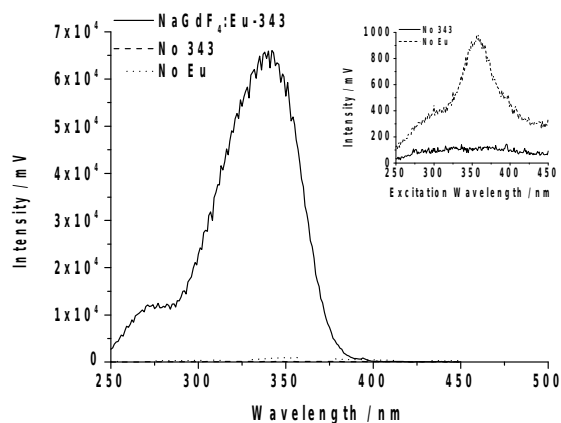
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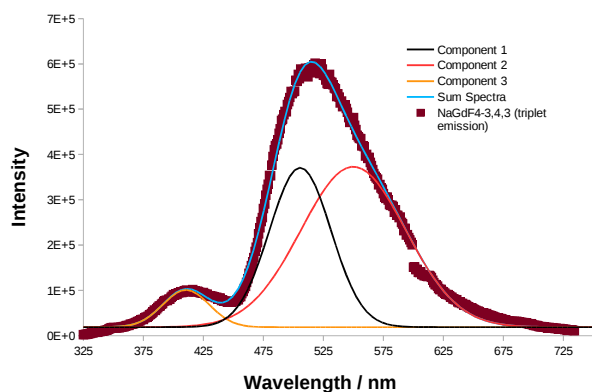
309 **Figure 1.** Absorption spectra of NaGd_{0.95}Eu_{0.05}F₄ nanoparticles with and without
 310 3,4,3-LI(1,2-HOPO) surface modification suspended in ethanol. Inset: difference
 311 spectrum between modified and unmodified nanoparticles.



312
 313 **Figure 2.** Nanoparticle luminescence spectra. Nanoparticles featuring 343
 314 surface ligands (solid) display intense europium emission upon UV irradiation (λ_{exc}
 315 = 317 nm); excitation of unmodified, europium-doped nanoparticles (dash) and
 316 undoped nanoparticles containing 343 (dot) result in no observable luminescence
 317 under those same conditions (dilute suspensions in ethanol, $A_{500} \sim 0.3$; 0.1 mg ml⁻¹).
 318 Inset: magnified view of wash spectra in ethanol, with Eu-free and ligand-free
 319 controls still resulting in no observable signal on that scale.



320
 321 **Figure 3.** Nanoparticle excitation (action) spectra in ethanol measured at 612 nm. The broadness of the
 322 343 absorption spectrum results in a nanoparticle action spectrum with a spectral bandwidth
 323 significantly greater than those of the narrow transitions typical of lanthanides. The minor peak seen in
 324 no-Eu control (inset, magnified scale) is a result of broad luminescence from the broad 343 emission,
 325 which has residual overlap with the Eu luminescence region.



326
 327 **Figure 4.** Emission spectrum ($\lambda_{\text{exc}} = 317 \text{ nm}$) of 3,4,3-LI(1,2-HOPO) (bound to control nanoparticles as
 328 $\text{NaGdF}_4\text{-343}$) in ethanol at 77 K (red squares). The peak emission around 525 nm is a composition of
 329 states (components 1 & 2) which comprise the 343 triplet manifold. The Gaussian character of these
 330 deconvoluted states suggests a significant degree of heterogeneous broadening in the ligand
 331 luminescence. Overlap of multiple components at 525 nm provides a physical basis for the observed
 332 multi-exponential character of time-resolved probes at this wavelength.

Table of Contents Graphic

