

## Encapsulation of Pb-Free $\text{CsSnCl}_3$ Perovskite Nanocrystals with Bone Gelatin: Enhanced Stability and Application in $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ Sensing

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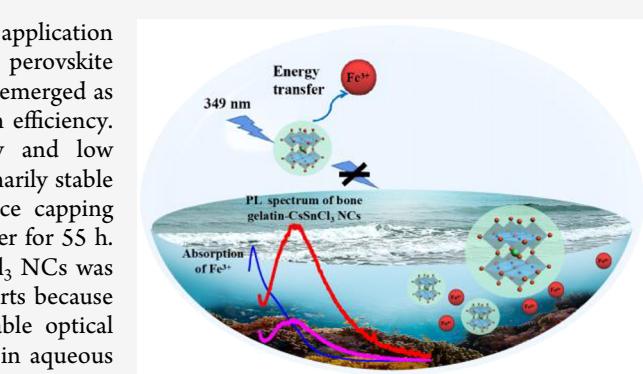
Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** The toxicity of the Pb element limits the large-scale application of inorganic cesium–lead halide ( $\text{CsPbX}_3$ , with  $\text{X} = \text{Cl}$ ,  $\text{Br}$ , and  $\text{I}$ ) perovskite nanocrystals (NCs). Pb-free cesium–tin halide ( $\text{CsSnX}_3$ ) NCs have emerged as a viable alternative because of its excellent photoelectric conversion efficiency. However, the applications are hampered by its poor stability and low photoluminescence quantum yield (PLQY). In this study, extraordinarily stable  $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs were prepared by exploiting bone gelatin as surface capping agents, which retain 95% of the photoluminescence intensity in water for 55 h. Additionally, after bone gelatin encapsulation, the PLQY of  $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs was found to increase from 2.17% to 3.13% for the uncapped counterparts because of an improved radiative recombination rate. With such remarkable optical properties of the bone gelatin– $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs, metal ions like  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  in aqueous solutions can be readily detected and monitored, signifying the potential application of such stable bone gelatin– $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs in the development of fluorescence sensors and detectors.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

Perovskite nanocrystals (NCs) are a new kind of functional nanomaterial with a typical chemical formula of  $\text{ABX}_3$ , where A and B represent different metal cations and X refers to anions such as halogen.<sup>1</sup> Inorganic NCs have been widely used in the field of photoelectronics<sup>2</sup> because of their unique optical properties.<sup>3</sup> Current research of NCs is mainly focused on inorganic cesium–lead halide ( $\text{CsPbX}_3$ , with  $\text{X} = \text{Cl}$ ,  $\text{Br}$ , and  $\text{I}$ ) NCs because of their high photoluminescence quantum yield (PLQY),<sup>4</sup> narrow peak width,<sup>5</sup> and ready manipulation of photoluminescence (PL) emission in the entire visible range.<sup>6</sup> However, the Pb element in  $\text{CsPbX}_3$  NCs may be leached in the form of water-soluble compounds into the environment, posing a threat to the environment and human health.<sup>7</sup> Therefore, it is necessary to develop environmentally benign Pb-free NCs.

Among these,  $\text{CsSnX}_3$  NCs are of particular interest thanks to their narrow band gap and low exciton binding energy,<sup>8</sup> with a photoelectric conversion efficiency of up to 14.81%,<sup>9</sup> which is the highest ever reported for Pb-free perovskite solar cells thus far. Therefore,  $\text{CsSnX}_3$  NCs have been attracting extensive attention as viable alternatives to  $\text{CsPbX}_3$  NCs in the field of optoelectronics.<sup>10</sup> However, compared with  $\text{CsPbX}_3$  NCs,  $\text{CsSnX}_3$  NCs generally exhibit only poor stability, in which  $\text{Sn}^{2+}$  can be easily converted into  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$ .<sup>11</sup> Consequently, antioxidants, such as triphenylphosphine<sup>12</sup> and triphenyl oxalate,<sup>13</sup> have been used to impede the oxidation of  $\text{Sn}^{2+}$ .

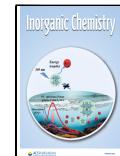


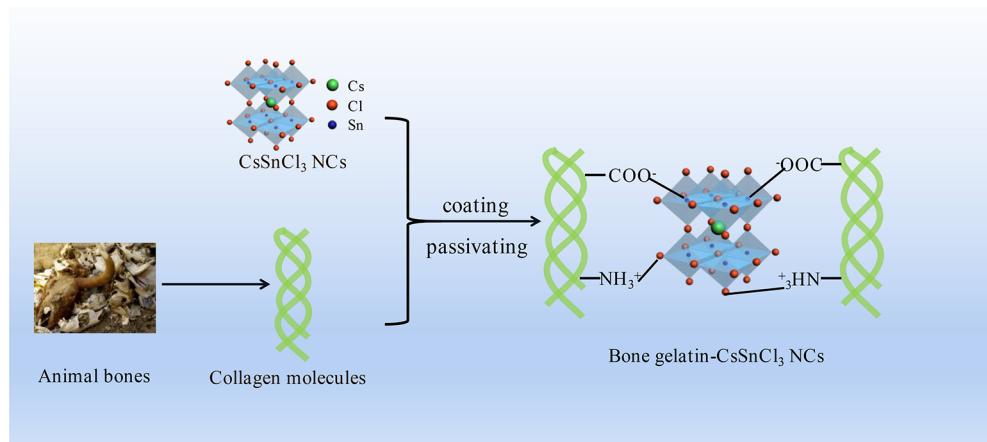
In addition, strong electron-withdrawing groups with large steric hindrance can strongly interact with  $\text{Sn}^{2+}$  and prevent the destruction of  $\text{CsSnX}_3$  NCs by water and oxygen. For example, Wang et al.<sup>14</sup> treated  $\text{CsSnBr}_3$  films with perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA), and the absorption strength of the films remained unchanged after being placed in air for 16 h. However, materials like PFOA often contain a pungent odor and may have a negative impact on the environment and human health.<sup>15</sup> Furthermore, the materials used to coat NCs are often hydrophobic organics, such as superhydrophobic porous organic polymer frameworks<sup>16</sup> and paraffin,<sup>17</sup> which can reduce the water solubility of NCs and thus limit its application. Therefore, it remains a major challenge to develop new environmentally friendly capping agents that can improve the stability and water solubility of  $\text{CsSnX}_3$  NCs.

Bone gelatin is a water-soluble polymeric material obtained by the hydrolysis of collagen from animal bones and behaves as a kind of bidentate capping ligand, where the carboxyl and amino groups can strongly chelate to  $\text{CsSnX}_3$  NCs and effectively improve the stability.<sup>18</sup> In an early study,<sup>11</sup> we

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**Scheme 1. Schematic Illustration of the Encapsulation of  $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs by Bone Gelatin**

encapsulated  $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs with gelatin made from waste skin collagen. The obtained material retained 77.46% of the PL intensity after 3 days in water. Both bone gelatin and skin gelatin are natural polymers containing carboxyl, amino, and long molecular chains. The utilization of bone gelatin can enrich the source of capping reagents for NCs stabilization, rendering it possible to further explore their applications, such as fluorescence sensing of transition-metal ions like  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ .

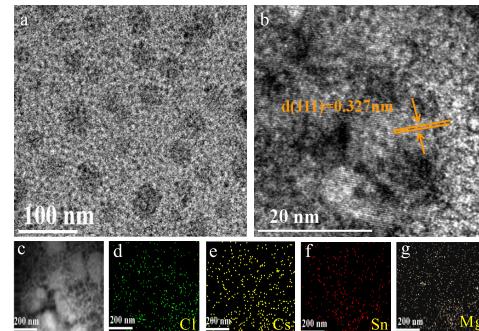
$\text{Fe}^{3+}$  is an essential trace element in organisms.<sup>19</sup> However, when the content of  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  in water exceeds the standard, it will affect the color and smell of water and could enter the human body through the food chain, causing harm to human health and the earth's natural ecological environment.<sup>20</sup> Hence, it is of critical significance to develop effective technologies for the sensitive detection of  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  in water. PL-based methods have been attracting immense attention because of their high sensitivity, simplicity, and rapid response. In the past, optical approaches based on organic dyes, such as Rhodamine B, have often been used for  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  detection, but their disadvantages are apparent, such as cumbersome functional group modification, low selectivity, and toxicity.<sup>21</sup> In comparison to these conventional organic dyes, NCs possess outstanding properties, in particular, facile sample preparation and adjustable absorption across the optical spectrum, which make NCs an outstanding candidate for the fluorescence detection of  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ . Nevertheless, NCs exhibit only poor stability in aqueous media and thus have been mainly used for the detection of nonaqueous substances, such as edible oil<sup>22</sup> and hydrogen sulfide.<sup>23</sup> Thus, it is of both fundamental and technological significance to develop water-soluble NCs such that the detection of  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  in water is possible.

In the present study, we describe a facile and low-cost procedure for the effective encapsulation of  $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs with bone gelatin, where the oxidation of  $\text{Sn}^{2+}$  to  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$  was markedly impeded during the growth of NCs. The results showed that the PLQY of bone gelatin– $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs was 3.13%, markedly higher than that of the uncapped counterparts (2.17%). Because of the rich hydrophilic carboxyl and amino groups in bone gelatin, the capped  $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs exhibited good water solubility and, remarkably, also high sensitivity and selectivity in the detection of  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  in water based on PL emission.

## 2. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 2.1. Synthesis and Morphological Characterization of $\text{CsSnCl}_3$ NCs.

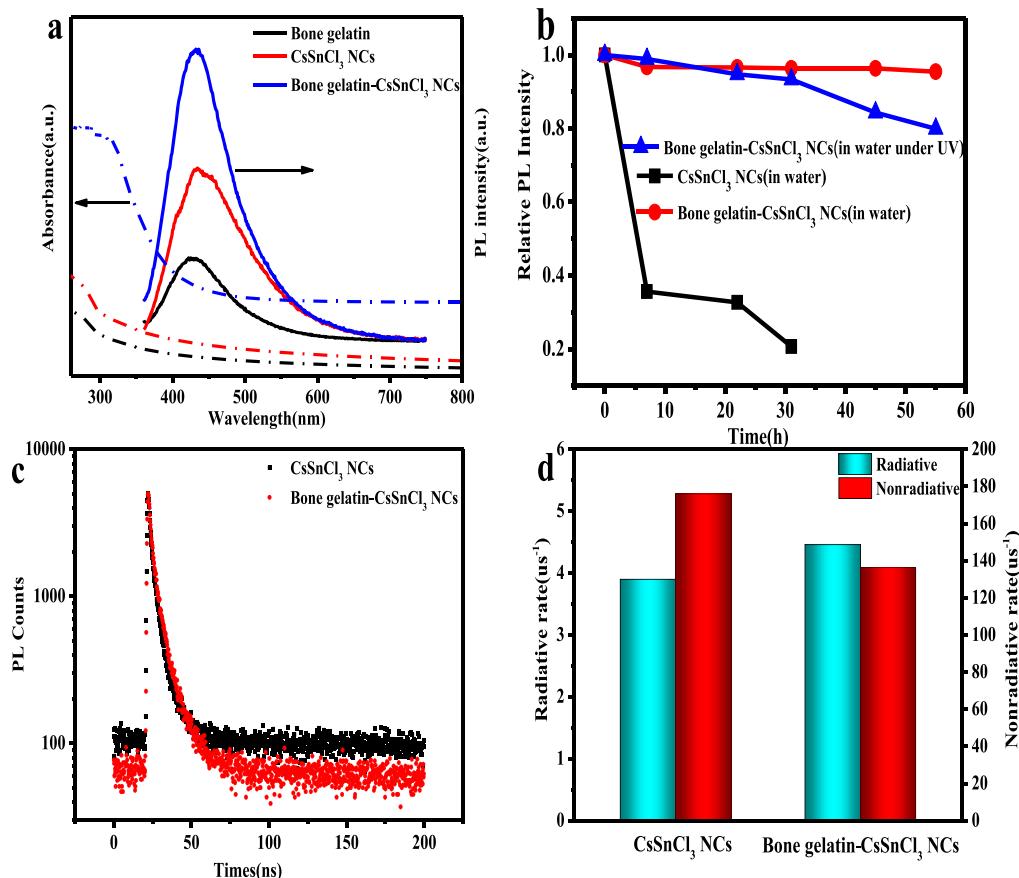
As depicted in Scheme 1, bone gelatin was



**Figure 1.** (a–c) TEM images of bone gelatin– $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs and the corresponding EDS-based elemental maps: (d) Cl; (e) Cs; (f) Sn; (g) Mg. The scale bars are (a) 100, (b) 20, and (c–g) 200 nm.

prepared by freeze-drying of animal bone powders treated with acid and alkali, and  $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs were synthesized separately via a thermal procedure with  $\text{Cs}_2\text{CO}_3$  and  $\text{SnCl}_2$  in a nitrogen atmosphere.<sup>11</sup> Bone gelatin– $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs were obtained by mixing bone gelatin and  $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs in glycerol at ambient temperature (details are given in the Supporting Information). From the Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectrum in Figure S1, the obtained bone gelatin can be seen to display several major vibrational bands at 1650, 1550, and 1230  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , which are characteristic of amides I (C=O stretch), II (N–H bending), and III (C–O stretching), respectively, indicating the formation of a special triple-helix conformation.<sup>24</sup> The morphology of bone gelatin was then characterized by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) measurements. Figure S2a depicts a representative SEM image of bone gelatin, which exhibited a lamellar structure and a somewhat rough surface. Gel permeation chromatography (GPC) measurements (Figure S2b) showed a rather narrow relative molecular weight distribution, suggesting high purity and a relatively mono-disperse composition. As shown in Table S1, the number-average ( $M_n$ ) and weight-average ( $M_w$ ) molecular weights of the obtained bone gelatin were 37 675 and 138 808 Da, respectively.

The dimensions and morphology of the  $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs and bone gelatin– $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs were first examined and compared by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) measurements. In Figure S3, we can see that the  $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs exhibited a cubic shape with an average size of  $25 \pm 5$  nm. After bone gelatin coating, the average size of the  $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs reached  $38 \pm 3$



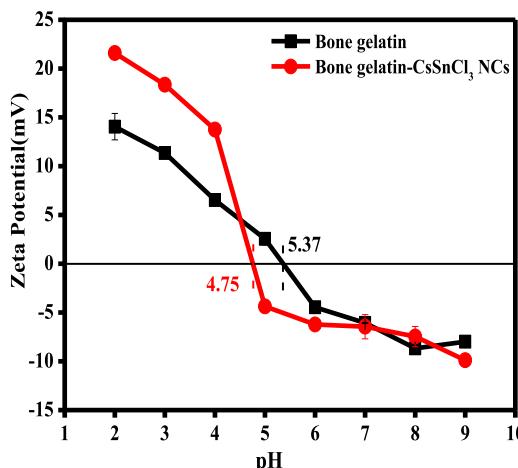
**Figure 2.** (a) UV–vis absorption (dash-dotted) and PL emission (solid) curves of bone gelatin, CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs, and bone gelatin–CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs. The PL emission curves were acquired upon excitation at 349 nm. (b) Time-resolved PL intensity of uncapped and bone gelatin–CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs in air and under UV radiation. (c) Time-resolved PL decays of uncapped and bone gelatin–capped CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs. (d) Histograms of the radiative and nonradiative recombination rates for uncapped and bone gelatin–CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs.

**Table 1.**  $\tau_{av}$  and PLQY Values of Bone Gelatin–CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs and Relevant Pb-Free Perovskites

sample	$\tau_{av}$ (ns)	PLQY (%)	ref
bone gelatin–CsSnCl <sub>3</sub> NCs	7.11	3.13	this work
skin gelatin–CsSnCl <sub>3</sub> NCs	8.84		11
CsSnCl <sub>3</sub> NCs	2.14	0.17	13
CsSnBr <sub>3</sub> nanowires	1.1		26
CsSnBr <sub>3</sub> cubic nanocages	6.52	2.1	14
AgBiI <sub>4</sub> quantum dots	4.6	4	27

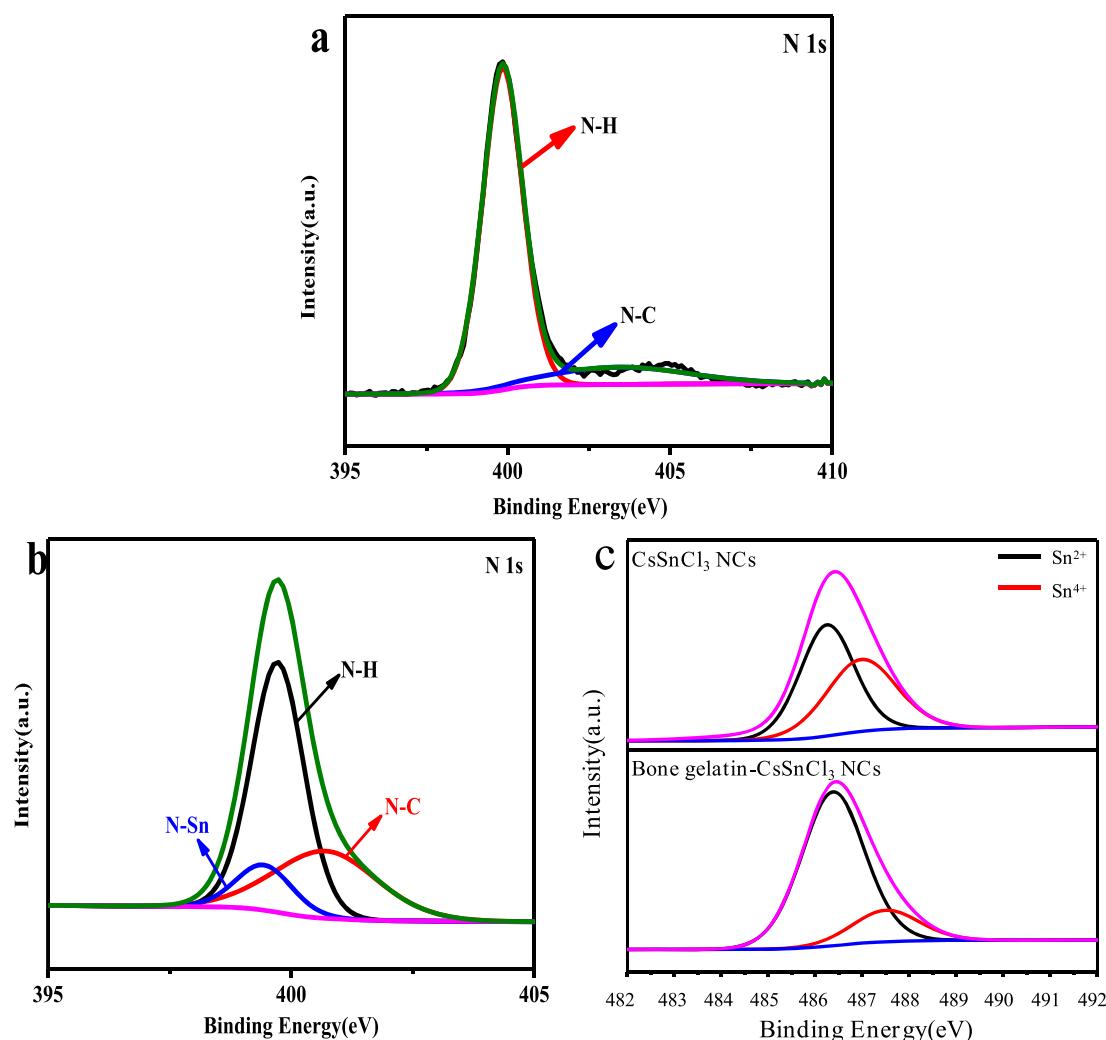
nm. From the high-resolution TEM image in Figure 1b, well-defined lattice fringes can be seen with an interplanar spacing of 0.327 nm, corresponding to the (111) surfaces of the CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs in Figure S3b (JCPDS 74-2058). Additionally, energy-dispersive spectroscopy (EDS)-based elemental mapping analysis (Figure 1c–g) showed that the elements of Cl, Cs, and Sn were enriched within the dark regions of the bright-field TEM image, whereas the element Mg in bone gelatin was distributed rather evenly across the sample. Among them, the Mg element came from bone gelatin and the Cl, Cs, and Sn elements came from the CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs, suggesting uniform encapsulation of the CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs within bone gelatin.

**2.2. Optical Properties and Stability Characterization.** Encapsulation of CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs with bone gelatin led to a marked variation of the optical properties. The PL emission and absorption spectra of bone gelatin, as-prepared CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs, and bone gelatin–CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs are shown in Figure 2a.



**Figure 3.**  $\zeta$  potential of bone gelatin–CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs and bone gelatin.

The as-prepared CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs dispersed in cyclohexane exhibited a characteristic absorption peak at 349 nm and an emission maximum ( $\lambda_{em}$ ) at 436 nm. Such absorption and emission characteristics were retained after bone gelatin coating, indicating that bone gelatin did not introduce distortion in the band energy of the CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs. However, the (normalized) emission intensity of bone gelatin–CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs was markedly higher than the sum of bone gelatin and CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs. This is likely because the long molecular chains



**Figure 4.** N 1s XPS spectra of (a) bone gelatin and (b) bone gelatin–CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs. (c) Sn 3d<sub>5/2</sub> XPS spectra of bone gelatin–CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs and CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs.

of bone gelatin facilitate the effective encapsulation of CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs and reduce the surface defects, thus enhancing the fluorescence emission of CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs.

It is well-known that the Sn<sup>2+</sup> of CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs can be easily oxidized to Sn<sup>4+</sup> under ambient conditions, which compromises the material structural stability. Therefore, we compared the stability of CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs with and without bone gelatin encapsulation in water and under photoirradiation. Figure 2b shows the variation of the PL emission intensity of CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs with and without bone gelatin capping dispersed in water for up to 60 h. It can be seen that only 35% of the initial PL intensity was retained with the uncapped CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs in water after only 7 h. By sharp contrast, the bone gelatin–CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs remained at 95% of the PL intensity after being dispersed in water for 55 h (Figure 2b). Note that the latter is also markedly higher than that of skin gelatin–CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs reported previously (80% retention after 48 h),<sup>11</sup> most likely because of the high carboxyl content in bone gelatin compared to that in skin gelatin (Table S2), considering that the carboxyl moiety is the point of anchor on the NCs.<sup>25</sup>

Figure 2c shows the normalized PL emission decay profiles of CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs with and without bone gelatin encapsulation. After bone gelatin modification, the PLQY of CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs was found to increase from 2.17% to 3.13% and the average

fluorescent lifetime ( $\tau_{av}$ ) increased from 5.56 to 7.11 ns. As can be seen from Table 1,  $\tau_{av}$  and PLQY of the bone gelatin–CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs were even higher than those of other Pb-free NCs reported in the literature. This suggests a reduced content of structural defects (trap states) within the NCs after surface functionalization with bone gelatin.

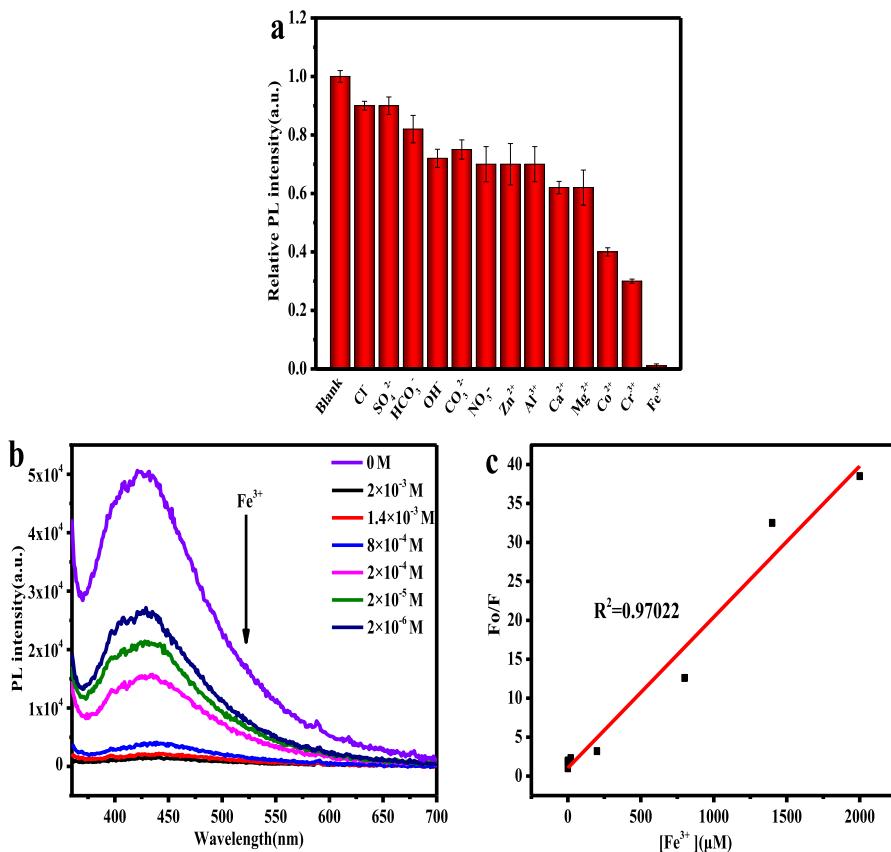
Figure 2d shows the radiative ( $\Gamma_{rad}$ ) and nonradiative ( $\Gamma_{nonrad}$ ) recombination rates for CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs with and without bone gelatin encapsulation, which are estimated by the following equations:<sup>10</sup>

$$\Gamma_{rad} = \frac{\text{PLQY}}{\tau_{av}} \quad (1)$$

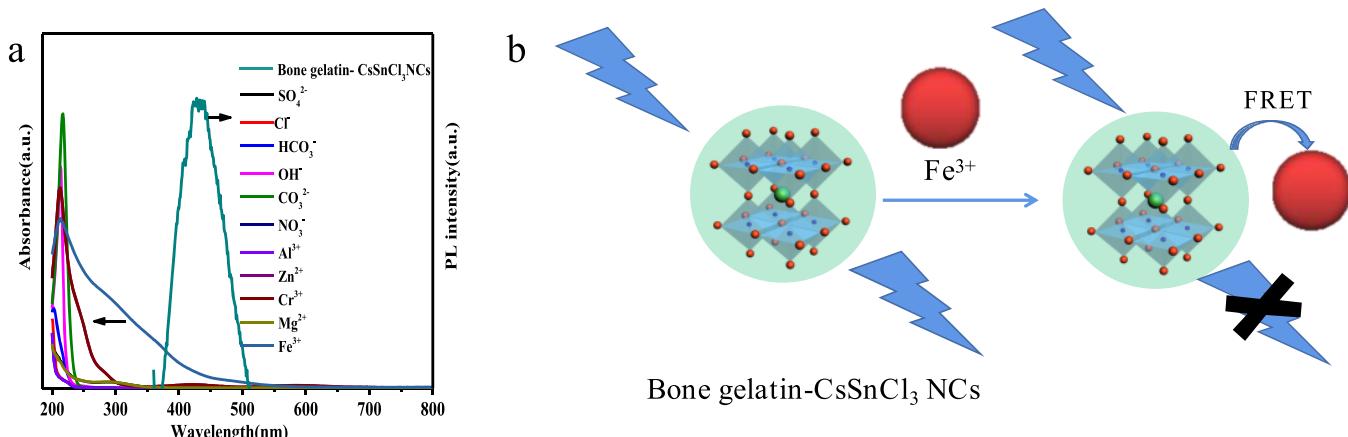
$$\Gamma_{nonrad} = \frac{1 - \text{PLQY}}{\tau_{av}} \quad (2)$$

Obviously, after bone gelatin coating, the nonradiation recombination rate of CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs decreased from 175.95 to 136.25  $\mu\text{s}^{-1}$ , whereas the radiation recombination rate increased from 3.90 to 4.46  $\mu\text{s}^{-1}$ . This suggests that bone gelatin effectively stabilized the excited state by suppressing the formation of nonradiative recombination pathways.

$\zeta$ -potential analysis (Figure 3) shows that the isoelectric point (pI) of bone gelatin was 5.37, which decreased somewhat



**Figure 5.** (a) PL emission intensity at 349 nm of bone gelatin–CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs with the addition of a range of cations and anions at a concentration of 0.2 mM. (b) PL emission spectra of bone gelatin–CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs with the addition of Fe<sup>3+</sup> ions at various concentrations. (c) Stern–Volmer plots for the  $F_0/F$  values and different Fe<sup>3+</sup> ion concentrations.



**Figure 6.** (a) PL emission spectrum of bone gelatin–CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs and absorption spectra with the addition of different ions (0.2 mM) in aqueous solution. (b) Diagram of the detection mechanism of bone gelatin–CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs for Fe<sup>3+</sup> ions.

to 4.75 with bone gelatin–CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs. Note that bone gelatin is an amphoteric electrolyte, where the pI is related to the ratio of the –COOH to –NH<sub>2</sub> moieties.<sup>28</sup> In the bone gelatin–CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs, it is likely that the –COO<sup>-</sup> groups bind to Sn<sup>2+</sup>, which promoted the ionization of –COOH and led to a decreased pI.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were then carried out to analyze the surface chemical composition and valence states of the samples. Figure S4a shows the peaks of C 1s, N 1s, and O 1s in bone gelatin. From the survey spectrum in Figure S4b, the elements of C 1s, N 1s,

O 1s, Cs 3s, Sn 3d, and Cl 2p can be clearly resolved. It can be seen from the fitting peaks of N 1s in Figure 4b that, in addition to the N–H peak at 399.6 eV and the N–C peak at 400.8 eV in bone gelatin (Figure 4a), there was also a Sn–N peak at 399.9 eV.<sup>11</sup> This suggests that encapsulation of the CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs was due to coordination of the –NH<sub>2</sub> of bone gelatin to the Sn<sup>2+</sup> centers in the NCs. The content of Sn<sup>4+</sup> in CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs and bone gelatin–CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs was determined by deconvolution of the XPS spectra of Sn 3d<sub>5/2</sub>.<sup>29</sup> Both CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs and bone gelatin–CsSnCl<sub>3</sub> NCs were determined after 2 days of exposure to oxygen. As shown in

Figure 4c, the  $\text{Sn}^{4+}$  content was considerably lower in bone gelatin– $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs, indicating greatly suppressed  $\text{Sn}^{2+}$  oxidation. This is because the protective effect of bone gelatin increases the antioxidant capacity of  $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs.

**2.3.  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  Ion Sensing.** With their good water stability and antioxidant capacity, bone gelatin– $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs displayed great potential as a PL sensor for metal ions in aqueous media. From Figure 5a, we can see that the PL emission intensity at 349 nm of bone gelatin– $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs in water diminished somewhat upon the addition of a range of metal cations and anions at a concentration of 0.2 mM, such as  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{OH}^-$ ,  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Al}^{3+}$ ,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ , and  $\text{Co}^{2+}$ , and was almost completely quenched by  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ . This suggests that bone gelatin– $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs may serve as a unique sensing platform for  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ .

As shown in Figure 5b, with an increase of the  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  concentrations, the PL intensity of bone gelatin– $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs decreased accordingly, which can be fitted by the Stern–Volmer equation<sup>30</sup>

$$F_0/F = 1 + K_{sv}[C] \quad (3)$$

where  $F_0$  and  $F$  represent the PL emission intensities of the bone gelatin– $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs in the absence and presence of a  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  ion, respectively,  $[C]$  is the concentration of  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ , and  $K_{sv}$  is a Stern–Volmer constant. Linear regression yields the relationship  $F_0/F = 0.735 + 4.609[C]$ , with a correlation coefficient ( $R^2$ ) of 0.97022 and a quenching constant ( $K_{sv}$ ) of  $4.6 \times 10^3 \text{ M}^{-1}$ . The calibration curve shows the linear ranges from 0 to 2000  $\mu\text{M}$ , and the limit of detection was calculated to be 8  $\mu\text{M}$  ( $\text{S}/\text{N} = 3$ ).

The PL spectrum of bone gelatin– $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs and the absorption spectra upon the addition of different ions (0.2 mM) in aqueous solution are shown in Figure 6a. Compared with other ions, only the absorption spectrum of  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  overlapped significantly with the emission profile of the bone-gelatin-capped  $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs, suggesting that quenching of the PL emission was due to fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET).<sup>25</sup> A mechanism of action between bone-gelatin– $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs and  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  was proposed and is shown in Figure 6b, where bone gelatin– $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs and  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  serve as the energy donor and acceptor, respectively. In the absence of  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ , bone gelatin– $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs will fluoresce once the electrons in the NCs are excited and radiation transition occurs. In the presence of sufficient  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ , the energy of bone gelatin– $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs is transferred to  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ , which inhibits its radiation transition and causes fluorescence quenching of the NCs.

### 3. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, highly stable bone gelatin– $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs were prepared by the simple mixing of bone gelatin and  $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs. This is most likely due to the  $-\text{COOH}$  and  $-\text{NH}_2$  moieties in bone gelatin that effectively passivate the surface defects of  $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs. The long molecular chains of bone gelatin helped to facilitate the encapsulation of  $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs within the polymer matrix and inhibit the degradation and oxidation of  $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs in water or under photoirradiation. Notably, with bone gelatin encapsulation, the  $\text{CsSnCl}_3$  NCs showed a higher PLQY and longer  $\tau_{av}$  than the uncapped counterparts. The excellent water stability and PL emissive properties of the bone gelatin-passivated NCs could be exploited as fluorescence probes to monitor  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  in aqueous solution, likely because of FRET.

## ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### SI Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.inorgchem.2c00354>.

Experimental details, FTIR and XPS spectra, SEM and TEM images, GPC curve, carboxyl and amino group contents, and molecular weights ([PDF](#))

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## Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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