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ARTICLE

Determining the Zero-Field Cooling/ Field Cooling Blocking Temperature from AC-Susceptibility data for Single-Molecule Magnets

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We present a general relation between the magnetisation blocking temperature (T_B) measured using the zero-field cooling/field cooling technique (ZFC/FC) and their temperature-dependent spin relaxation time obtained from ac-susceptibility and magnetisation decay measurements. The presented mathematical approach provides ZFC/FC blocking temperatures at any heating rate (R_H), providing comparable values to those obtained experimentally, as demonstrated by testing 106 examples for reported single-molecule magnets (SMMs) where the ZFC/FC curve was measured. This procedure is examined in further detail for a new single-molecule magnet $[Dy(OPAd_2Bz)_2(H_2O)_4Br]Br_2 \cdot 4THF$ (**1**) (OPAd₂Bz: di(1-adamantyl)benzylphosphine oxide). For this compound, ZFC/FC measurements were made at a broad range of heating rates (0.01 K/min - 5 K/min), which agreed with the general behaviour predicted from ac-susceptibility data. We discuss how the demagnetisation mechanism determines the sensitivity of T_B with respect to the heating rate: T_B is mostly insensitive to R_H for Orbach relaxation, while there is a larger sensitivity for Raman-limited systems. Our conclusions provide a clear physical interpretation of ZFC/FC blocking temperatures, aiding in the proper contextualization of this figure of merit.

Introduction

In the early 1990s, the discovery of Single Molecule Magnets (SMMs) sparked a revolution in the field of molecular magnetism. These molecular transition metal coordination compounds exhibit a magnetic memory effect, which arises from the blocking magnetisation via an anisotropy barrier (U_{eff}) for prolonged periods in the absence of an external magnetic field and below a critical temperature known as the blocking temperature (T_B).¹⁻⁵ SMMs have garnered extensive investigation due to their immense technological potential in molecular spintronics, ultra-high-density data storage, and quantum information technologies using spin qubits.^{6-11, 12,}

However, a significant challenge in the field remains, necessitating the achievement of a magnetic memory effect at practical/high temperatures while maintaining high thermal stability in the presence of air and humidity.^{13, 14} Among the promising candidates, mononuclear SMM complexes containing a single magnetic ion represent the smallest nanomagnets with modulable magnetic anisotropy achieved through precise control of the electronic structure, involving the selection of metal ions and ligands.¹⁵⁻²⁶ Notably, the Dy^{III} ion, with its unquenched orbital momentum and large magnetic anisotropy, has emerged as a leading candidate to revolutionize technology based on electron spin.^{15-20, 27-29}

Experimental and computational studies have revealed that strong axial crystal fields, achieved through axial distribution of ligands, are crucial for Dy^{III} complexes to exhibit remarkable SMM behaviour.^{15-20, 30-32} More recent approaches seek for the attenuation of vibrational displacements to hamper Raman relaxation.^{33, 34} For future systems, some theoretical works suggest exploring surface deposition of SMMs³⁵ and higher oxidation states³⁶ in case of lanthanide complexes. In the quest to develop practical SMM applications, reaching a blocking temperature (T_B) above liquid nitrogen temperature (77 K) is crucial. The Dy^{III} mononuclear $[Dy(C_5Me_5(Cp^{iPr5}))][B(C_6F_5)_4]$ ³⁷ and the mixed-valence Dy^{III}Dy^{II} dinuclear $[Dy_2I_3(Cp^{iPr5})_2]$ metallocene³⁸ compounds have achieved a landmark performance with $U_{eff} = 2217$ K and 2347 K, respectively, and $T_B = 80$ K in both cases, surpassing this crucial barrier. The

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uniaxial local symmetry stabilizes the largest $m_j = \pm 15/2$ ground state,^{39, 40} in the former, and the collinearity of the local anisotropy axes and the strong 4f-radical coupling in the latter, resulting in significant separation from the first and higher excited states.^{38, 41, 42} However, compounds with such low coordination are unstable and the need for more stable systems with similar magnetic properties arises. Different high-order symmetry axes, such as trigonal bipyramidal (D_{3h}),^{43, 44} square antiprismatic (D_{4d}),⁴⁵⁻⁴⁹ sandwich,^{37, 50-54} and pentagonal bipyramidal (D_{5h}),⁵⁵⁻⁷³ have been recommended to favour slower relaxation of magnetisation by reducing transverse anisotropy and suppressing Quantum Tunnelling of the Magnetisation (QTM). The presence of a high-order symmetry axis also promotes the collinearity of anisotropic axes of the excited and ground states, leading to larger U_{eff} values.^{74, 75} Nonetheless, it is essential to engineer molecular vibrations to control the spin lifetime of SMM complexes,⁷⁶ as flexible lattices are responsible for fast relaxation. Addressing the requirements of high-temperature performance and thermal air and humidity stability, mononuclear Dy^{III} SMMs with D_{5h} geometry hold a fair position, displaying in many cases stability against these factors with U_{eff} and T_{B} value as high as 1162 K⁶³ and 36 K,⁷⁰ respectively. Although some recent mononuclear Dy^{III} SMMs with D_{5h} geometry have been shown to be air-sensitive, the majority are stable.^{60, 61, 73, 77} Recently, the role of the spin-vibrational coupling in designing high-performance pentagonal bipyramidal Dy^{III} SMMs has been unravelled using a combination of Density Functional Theory (DFT) and Complete Active Space Self-Consistent Field (CASSCF) calculations.³³ There are about thirty examples of mononuclear Dy^{III} SMMs with D_{5h} geometry, but those employing axial bulky phosphine oxide type ligands (high electron density) and weak donor equatorial ones (e.g., water),^{56-59, 62, 64} are relatively scarce. These D_{5h} based SMMs represent a highly efficient approach to constructing new high-performance SMMs.

As mentioned previously, the Dy^{III} metallocene compounds [$\text{Dy}(\text{C}_5\text{Me}_5(\text{Cp}^{\text{iPr}_5}))[\text{B}(\text{C}_6\text{F}_5)_4]$] and [$\text{Dy}_2\text{I}_3(\text{Cp}^{\text{iPr}_5})_2$] show the highest blocking temperature reported to date. This value was measured by the maximum temperature at which magnetic hysteresis is observed (herein $T_{\text{B-H}}$). However, there are two other ways to quantify the blocking temperature: the temperature at which the magnetic relaxation time is equal to 100 seconds ($T_{\text{B-100}}$) and the maximum in the zero-field cooled (ZFC) magnetic susceptibility ($T_{\text{B-ZFC}}$). For the dysprosium metallocene cation, these values are 67 and 52 K, respectively. This example remarks how different the blocking temperature can be depending on the measurement technique. Furthermore, key experimental parameters can also influence T_{B} significantly. In the case of magnetic hysteresis measurements, $T_{\text{B-H}}$ varies by the field sweep rate, where faster sweep rate programs lead to higher blocking temperatures. Focusing on ZFC/FC experiments, $T_{\text{B-ZFC}}$ is sensitive to the heating rate, with faster heating rates leading to higher blocking temperatures. Unfortunately, the experimentally employed heating rate is often missing in literature reports, hindering a rigorous comparison between systems from different publications. Another issue is related to the misunderstanding of $T_{\text{B-ZFC}}$ definition, since some authors refer to this value as the temperature where ZFC and FC curves diverge, which corresponds to the irreversibility temperature (T_{irrev}), which is higher than that of $T_{\text{B-ZFC}}$.⁷⁸ Although $T_{\text{B-100}}$ usually does not depend strongly on the measurement conditions, the 100 seconds definition is arbitrary and it is not clear why the blocking temperature at this specific relaxation time is more informative of SMM behaviour than other thresholds. Blocking temperatures are

convenient as “single-molecule magnet” performance metrics since they condense a complex magnetic relaxation dependence in a single figure. Moreover, the existence of a magnetic blocking temperature provides a clear definition of a “molecular magnet” which goes beyond the presence of slow relaxation of the magnetisation. However, other demagnetisation parameters as magnetic coercivities and parameters such as demagnetisation barriers (U_{eff}) are also relevant for the assessment of SMM performance.

In this paper, we propose a new approach to estimate $T_{\text{B-ZFC}}$ at any heating rate from the temperature-dependent spin relaxation time obtained from ac-susceptibility and magnetisation decay measurements, to advance towards a more harmonized definition of T_{B} . In this way, $T_{\text{B-ZFC}}$ data from different studies can be better compared, as many literature examples of ZFC/FC experiments do not inform the heating rate. Furthermore, the model allows for the estimation of $T_{\text{B-ZFC}}$ in cases where the ZFC/FC experiment was not done. Experimentally, performing the ZFC/FC experiment together with AC-magnetometry measurements is not a practical problem, so the main use of our proposed method is not to avoid the ZFC/FC experiment but to provide a new tool to contextualize and estimate ZFC/FC blocking temperatures.

To validate this new model, we have compared $T_{\text{B-ZFC}}$ values for 106 literature examples of SMMs that have reported with the ZFC/FC data, including both lanthanide and transition metal systems. Furthermore, we conducted a detailed ac-susceptibility and ZFC/FC study for a new Dy^{III} SMM with D_{5h} geometry. Concretely, we measured ZFC/FC curves for a wide range of heating rates, demonstrating that the presented model is accurate in predicting $T_{\text{B-ZFC}}$ values and captures the heat rate dependence of the blocking temperature.

Results and Discussion

Mathematical Model for ZFC/FC Blocking Temperature determined from AC Susceptibility

Our first goal is relating the blocking temperature measured by zero field cooling experiments with an expression in terms of the temperature dependent relaxation time. Experimentally, susceptibility is calculated as the ratio between the magnetic moment and the applied magnetic field. The isothermal (static) susceptibility is:

$$\chi_T = \frac{M_{\text{eq}}}{B} = \frac{gS(P_{\uparrow} - P_{\downarrow})_{\text{eq}}}{B} \quad (1)$$

Where M_{eq} is the magnetic moment corresponding to equilibrium population at a given temperature and magnetic field (B), g is the Landé factor, S is the spin and $P_{\uparrow} - P_{\downarrow}$ is the population difference between spin up and down species. The expression for the non-equilibrium susceptibility measured in the ZFC experiment is analogous to Eq. 1 when the magnetic moment $P_{\uparrow} - P_{\downarrow}$ term is out of equilibrium.

Combining the equilibrium and out of equilibrium expressions for magnetic susceptibility, χ_{ZFC} is defined as:

$$\begin{aligned}\chi_{ZFC} &= \frac{(P_{\uparrow} - P_{\downarrow})}{(P_{\uparrow} - P_{\downarrow})_{eq}} \chi_T \\ &= \chi_T \left[\frac{(P_{\uparrow} - P_{\downarrow}) - (P_{\uparrow} - P_{\downarrow})_{eq}}{(P_{\uparrow} - P_{\downarrow})_{eq}} + 1 \right] \\ &= \chi_T \left[\frac{\Delta M}{(P_{\uparrow} - P_{\downarrow})_{eq}} + 1 \right]\end{aligned}\quad (2)$$

The numerator in the r.h.s of Eq. 2 is the difference between the equilibrium and out of equilibrium magnetic moments (ΔM). The kinetic equation for a system after a perturbation is:

$$\frac{d\Delta M}{dt} = -\tau^{-1}(T)\Delta M \quad (3)$$

Where the relaxation rate τ^{-1} is temperature dependent. In the ZFC experiment, the sample is initially cooled in absence of an external direct magnetic field. After reaching a cryogenic temperature, the magnetic moment is measured using a small magnetic field and the sample is heated at a rate R_H (K/s):

Hence, Eq. 3 becomes:

$$\frac{d\Delta M}{dT} = -\tau^{-1}(T)\Delta M/R_H \quad (4)$$

The general solution of Eq. 4 is:

$$\Delta M = C_1 \exp\left(-R_H^{-1} \int \tau^{-1} dT\right) \quad (5)$$

where C_1 is the magnetisation at the beginning of the ZFC heating step, if all spins remain frozen when the magnetic field needed for the measurement of the heating curve is turned on, $C_1 = -\tanh\left(-\frac{\beta g S B}{T}\right)$ and the combination of Eqs. 2 and 5 yields the simple form:

$$\chi_{ZFC} = \chi_T \left[-\exp\left(-R_H^{-1} \int \tau^{-1} dT\right) + 1 \right] \quad (6)$$

In practice, the magnetic moment is not zero at the beginning of the heating step. This is the typical situation in ZFC/FC experiments and depends on the orientational distribution of magnetic moments, their alignment with respect to the external field and operational parameters, as the time needed to stabilize the initial temperature on each experiment. Since this parameter is sample and experiment dependent, we assume it as an effective constant C'_1 , with a value between 0 and 1. In this way, Eq. 7 becomes:

$$\chi_{ZFC} = \chi_T \left[-C'_1 \exp\left(-R_H^{-1} \int \tau^{-1} dT\right) + 1 \right] = \lambda \chi_T \quad (7)$$

Where term in parenthesis is the fraction of relaxed magnetic moments ($0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$). Eq. 7 allows for the determination of the blocking temperature by the evaluation of the maximum of χ_{ZFC} for an arbitrary χ_T . Importantly, Eq. 7 can be applied to different experimental conditions (such as the presence of magnetic fields) if these effects are present in the data that produced the τ^{-1} function. Although all results from this paper can be obtained by the former equation, we are also interested in an analytical expression for T_B . Thus, the maximum of χ_{ZFC} is expressed as:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d\chi_{ZFC}}{dT}(T_B) = 0 &= \frac{d\chi_T}{dT} - \frac{d\chi_T}{dT} C'_1 \exp\left(-R_H^{-1} \int_0^{T_B} \tau^{-1} dT\right) \\ &+ \chi_T R_H^{-1} \tau^{-1}(T_B) C'_1 \exp\left(-R_H^{-1} \int_0^{T_B} \tau^{-1} dt\right)\end{aligned}\quad (8)$$

$$\chi_T R_H^{-1} \tau^{-1}(T_B) C'_1 \exp\left(-R_H^{-1} \int_0^{T_B} \tau^{-1} dT\right) = \frac{d\chi_T}{dT} \left[-1 + C'_1 \exp\left(-R_H^{-1} \int_0^{T_B} \tau^{-1} dT\right) \right] \quad (9)$$

$$\chi_T / \frac{d\chi_T}{dT} = \frac{R_H \left[-1 + C'_1 \exp\left(-R_H^{-1} \int_0^{T_B} \tau^{-1} dT\right) \right]}{\left[\tau^{-1}(T_B) C'_1 \exp\left(-R_H^{-1} \int_0^{T_B} \tau^{-1} dT\right) \right]} \quad (10)$$

For simplicity, we consider that the isothermal susceptibility reasonably follows the Curie law:

$$\chi_T / \frac{d\chi_T}{dT} = -T_B \quad (11)$$

The assumption of Curie law greatly simplifies the following equations but can be reversed if needed.

Hence, the blocking temperature is:

$$T_B = \frac{R_H \left[1 - C'_1 \exp\left(-R_H^{-1} \int_0^{T_B} \tau^{-1} dT\right) \right]}{C'_1 \exp\left(-R_H^{-1} \int_0^{T_B} \tau^{-1} dT\right) \tau^{-1}(T_B)} \quad (12)$$

Eq. 12 can be expressed in a way that the l.h.s coincides with the term in square brackets from Eq. 7:

$$1 - C'_1 \exp\left(-R_H^{-1} \int_0^{T_B} \tau^{-1} dT\right) = \frac{T_B}{T_B + R_H \tau(T_B)} \quad (13)$$

Thus, the blocking temperature can be estimated knowing the heating rate, the temperature dependence of τ and C'_1 . In sum, T_B can be either obtained by Eqs. 7 or 12, where the latter expression gives an explicit term for T_B by assuming the Curie law. We analysed how these two approaches perform for a selected group of experimental literature examples (see Section 3 and Table S7 in ESI) and concluded that both equations provide satisfactory results for T_B , especially for larger values of C'_1 . In general, the Curie Law assumption from Eq. 13 gives slightly lower calculated T_B values than Eq. 7, which employs the experimental dependence of χ . In conclusion, we recommend employing any of the two equations with $C'_1 = 1$ to obtain reliable estimations for $T_{B-ZFC/FC}$.

Synthesis and Characterization of the Dy^{III} SMM with D_{5h} symmetry

In view of the previous considerations, we focused our efforts on the preparation of a mononuclear Dy^{III} coordination complex [Dy(OPAd₂Bz)₂(H₂O)₄Br]Br₂·4THF (**1**) (OPAd₂Bz: di(1-adamantyl)benzylphosphine oxide) close to ideal pentagonal bipyramidal geometry, which fulfils all the desired characteristics to obtain SMMs with high U_{eff} and T_B , that is, strong axial crystal field, humidity and air stability, and rigid networks to avoid rapid relaxation. A strong axial crystal field is created by the two bulky di(1-adamantyl)benzylphosphine oxide ligands located in axial positions, which lead to magnetic hysteresis that remains open up to 14 K, one of highest values for air/humidity stable SMMs synthesized to date. Four water molecules and one bromide anion are located in equatorial positions, which is a structural difference with respect to previous compounds with axial phosphine oxide ligands, where five water molecules are located instead.^{56-59, 62} Furthermore, we will provide detailed insight into the mechanism that governs the magnetic relaxation of complex **1** by using *ab initio* CASSCF based computational methods.

Complex **1** was prepared by the solvothermal reaction of the ligand di(1-adamantyl)benzylphosphine oxide with anhydrous DyBr₃ in anhydrous tetrahydrofuran and in 2:1 molar ratio using a 15 ml Teflon-lined stainless container and keeping it at 100 °C for three days (see ESI for further details). The resulting solution from the solvothermal reaction was allowed to evaporate at room temperature for several days, whereupon large colourless prismatic single-crystals of [Dy(OPAd₂Bz)₂(H₂O)₄Br]Br₂·4THF (**1**) were obtained, which are air-stable (Fig. 1).

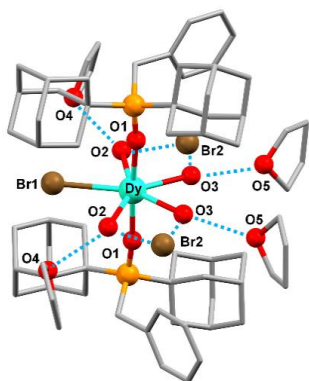


Figure 1. Perspective view of the molecular structure of [Dy(OPAd₂Bz)₂(H₂O)₄Br]Br₂·4THF (**1**). Code colours: dysprosium (cyan), oxygen (red), bromide (brown), phosphorus (orange), and carbon (grey). Hydrogen atoms are omitted for clarity. Blue dashed lines indicate hydrogen bond interactions.

The molecular structure of **1** consists of [Dy(OPAd₂Bz)₂(H₂O)₄Br]²⁺ cationic units, with its charge balanced by two free bromide anions, and four crystallization THF molecules (Fig. 1). The two latter interact with the cationic unit *via* hydrogen bonds. Within the cationic unit, the seven-coordinate Dy^{III} centre exhibits a pentagonal bipyramidal geometry (PBPY-7), very close to an ideal D_{5h} polyhedron, as supported by the continuous shape measures analysis,⁷⁹ which provides a S(PBPY-7) value of 0.948 (where 0 corresponds to the ideal D_{5h} geometry) (Table S1, ESI). Two bulky OPAd₂Bz ligands occupy the axial positions, whereas four water molecules and one bromide ion are in the equatorial plane (Fig. 1). The axial Dy–O1 distances (2.210(3) Å) are shorter than the equatorial Dy–O2/O3 (average value of 2.365 Å) and Dy–Br1 (2.8860(6) Å) ones, which indicates that the cationic unit shows a compressed PBPY-7 geometry with an almost linear axial O1–Dy–O1 angle (176.73(16)°) and equatorial Br1–Dy–O2, O2–Dy–O3 and O3–Dy–O3 angles of 74.24(9)°, 71.88(13)° and 68.12(17)°, respectively, close to the ideal angle of 72° (Table S3, ESI). The coordinated bromide atom seems to generate certain steric repulsion with the water molecules close to it, which is reflected in a Br1–Dy–O2 angle greater than 72°. In turn, this brings about the closeness between these two water molecules with the other two, thus showing O2–Dy–O3 and O3–Dy–O3 angles less than 72°. The P–O1–Dy angle is also very close to linearity (173.67(19)°) and the angles between the equatorial and axial atoms are around 90° (Table S3, ESI). Specifically, the local symmetry of the DyO₆Br coordination sphere is C_{2v}, with the C₂ axis lying along the line connecting the coordinated bromide anion and the Dy^{III} ion (Fig. 1). Each coordinated water molecule interacts with one free bromide anion and one THF molecule *via* hydrogen bonds. The O2...Br2 and O3...Br2 donor-acceptor distances show respective values of 3.161(4) Å and 3.154(3) Å, whereas those for the O2...O4(THF) and O3...O5(THF) donor-acceptor distances are 2.802(6) Å and 2.774(19)

Å, respectively. Moreover, the shortest Dy...Dy intermolecular distance for **1** is 12.1090(3) Å, which indicates that the [Dy(OPAd₂Bz)₂(H₂O)₄Br]²⁺ units are well separated in the structure. There are no π...π stacking interactions between the aromatic benzene rings of different units. The free bromide atoms establish van der Waals interactions with the benzene hydrogens inside the same unit (3.0386(5) Å), and with the hydrogens of the CH₂ (2.6475(5) Å) and adamantyl groups (2.7673(5) Å) of adjacent units (Figure S3).

Magnetic measurements

The DC magnetic properties of **1** were studied in the 2–300 K temperature range under an applied magnetic field of 0.5 T and the magnetisation was studied in the field range 0 to 7 T at temperatures between 2 and 7 K, see Figure S4. It is worth remarking that the obtained curves clearly show the typical features of magnetisation blocking in an efficient mononuclear Dy^{III}-SMM (deep decrease of $\chi_M T$ at low temperature, sinusoidal behaviour of the magnetisation at low field, divergence between FC and ZFC magnetic susceptibilities at low temperature, and magnetic hysteresis, see below and Figures S4–S11).

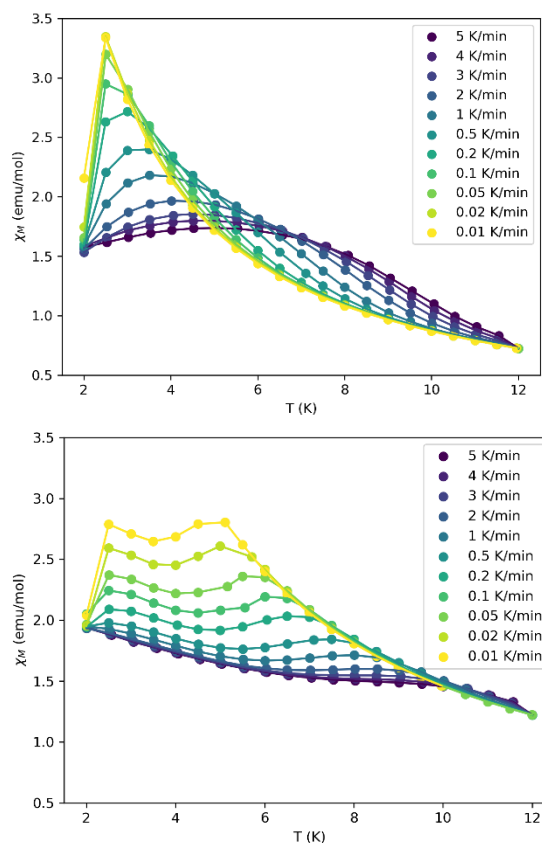


Figure 2. Temperature dependence of χ_M at ZFC conditions at different heating rates and with an applied field of 50 Oe (above) and 500 Oe (below). FC data are omitted for a better appreciation of the ZFC curves. ZFC/FC curves for all data are available as Electronic Supporting Information (Figures S5–S6).

The ZFC/FC magnetic susceptibilities were collected at two magnetic fields and with a wide range of heating rates to evaluate T_B and compare with the proposed model (see Figure 2). For the small field, 50 Oe, at very low heating rates, the ZFC/FC opens slightly at very low temperatures. When increasing the heating rate,

the ZFC and FC curves differ more and the temperatures at which the curves diverge rise to larger values. The maximum of the ZFC curve signalling T_b goes from 2.5 K at 0.01 K/min to 5 K at 5 K/min (Table S4). When increasing the field to 500 Oe, the blocking temperatures rise significantly, which is probably due to the suppression of the relaxation through QTM. At very low heating rates (0.01 K/min), the blocking temperature is around 5 K and reaches 8 K at 2 K/min. Faster heating rates did not provide values for the blocking temperature since the ZFC curve had no clear maximum (see Figure 2).

Alternating current (AC) magnetic susceptibility measurements were performed to study the slow relaxation of the magnetisation. To obtain the maximum number of relaxation times and be able to study a larger temperature range, two equipment were employed to study the 1-10000 Hz frequency range, a SQUID MPMS XL and a PPMS-9, (see details in the ESI). At zero external DC field, the in-phase (χ_M') and out-of-phase (χ_M'') components of the AC susceptibility show frequency-dependent peaks (Figures S8 and S9) with well-defined maxima in the χ_M'' vs. T plot in the 20 K – 40 K range for higher frequencies (Figure S9), indicating a high magnetisation reversal barrier. The χ_M'' vs. frequency plot displays temperature-dependent maxima in the 19–27 K range (Figure S10). The relaxation times were extracted from fitting of frequency dependence of χ_M'' at different temperatures using the generalized Debye model. The extracted relaxation times are collected in Table S6.

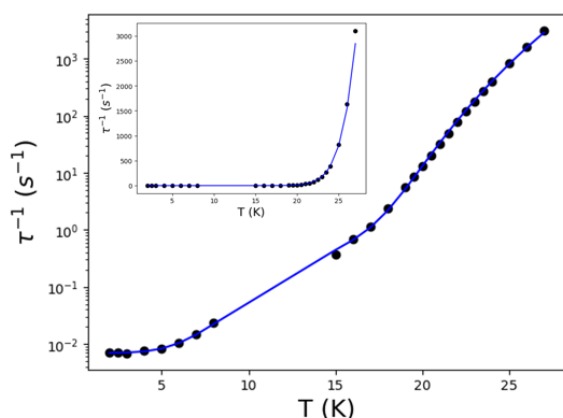


Figure 3. Plot of $\ln(\tau^{-1})$ vs temperature for **1** (in the inset, τ^{-1} vs temperature as in Eq. 14). The values at lower temperatures correspond to the obtained from the magnetisation decay and the values at higher temperatures are the ones derived from the fit of the AC susceptibility data to a generalized Debye function. The blue line corresponds to the fit of the data with Eq. 14.

Magnetisation decay experiments were performed to evaluate relaxation times at lower temperatures. An exponential decay of the magnetisation was clearly observed until 8 K. The obtained data was fit using a stretched exponential function (Figure S7) which is commonly employed in the obtention of relaxation times from magnetisation decay measurements.^{80,81} The obtained τ values are collected on Table S5 and represented in Figure 3 as the $\ln(\tau^{-1})$ vs temperature together with the obtained values from the AC susceptibility measurements. At very low temperature, there is a constant region indicative of quantum tunnelling relaxation. The onset of the Raman regime is discernible from magnetisation decay data, which trend matches with the lowest points measured by ac-susceptibility. The transition between Raman and Orbach

demagnetisation is clearly visible around 18K. As the three magnetic relaxation mechanisms are identified in the $\tau^{-1}(T)$ curve, the following equation was employed:

$$\tau^{-1} = \tau_{QTM}^{-1} + CT^n + \tau_0^{-1} e^{U_{eff}/kT} \quad (14)$$

Where the effective demagnetisation barrier was adjusted to a value of 427.7 K (297.3 cm^{-1}), with a preexponential factor τ_0 of 4.66 $\times 10^{-11}$ s. Raman and tunnelling were fitted to $C = 2.64 \times 10^{-7} \text{K}^{-n} \text{s}^{-1}$, $n = 5.28$ and $\tau_{QTM} = 142.7$ s, respectively.

For completeness, the field dependent magnetisation measurements at different temperatures were acquired (Figure 4), with a sweep rate of 20 mT s^{-1} . Compound **1** shows clear magnetic hysteresis which remains open up to 14 K, which is one of highest values for air/humidity stable SMMs synthesized to date. The butterfly shape of the hysteresis loop arises from a faster relaxation around zero field and a slower relaxation at intermediate fields. This compound retains a large magnetisation that falls only when $H < 20$ mT, which can be attributed to the unsuppressed Quantum Tunnelling of the Magnetisation due to symmetry deviation, hyperfine and dipole interactions. When the temperature increases, the hysteresis loop narrows as the relaxation speeds up and results in smaller coercive fields and remanent magnetisation. The hysteresis loop shows a coercive field of 1 T and a remanent magnetisation of 2 μ_B at 3 K at a sweep rate of 20 mT s^{-1} ,

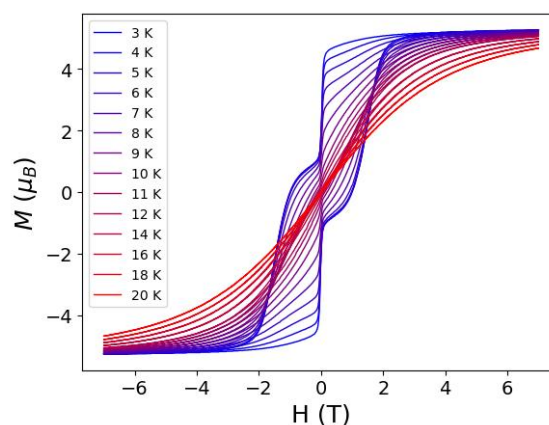


Figure 4. Magnetic hysteresis measurements/hysteresis plot for **1** with a sweep rate of 20 mT s^{-1} .

Ab initio calculations

Ab initio calculations based on the experimental X-ray structural data were performed to provide insight into the mechanism that governs the magnetic relaxation of complex **1**. In particular, multiconfigurational CASSCF calculations implemented in ORCA 5.0.3 program package⁸²⁻⁸⁴ and the CASSCF/RASSI-SO/SINGLE_ANISO approach using OpenMOLCAS⁸⁵⁻⁸⁷ were carried out. Both programs agree in the general description of the double well potential associated with the ground ${}^6\text{H}_{15/2}$ multiplet. To avoid redundancy in the discussion, we present the ORCA results in the manuscript while OpenMOLCAS data are presented in the Electronic Supporting information for comparison. These methodologies are quite helpful to elucidate and predict the electronic structure and relaxation mechanism of single-molecule magnet complexes.

The computed eight Kramers' doublets (KDs) for **1**, corresponding to the ${}^6\text{H}_{15/2}$ ground state of the Dy^{III} ion, span an energy range of

about 674 cm^{-1} (Electronic Supporting Information, Table S8). The computed temperature dependence of $\chi_{\text{M}}T$ reproduces rather well the experimental temperature dependence of $\chi_{\text{M}}T$ (Figure S4, ESI). The ground KD (KD1) is a pure $m_j = |\pm 15/2\rangle$ state that is highly anisotropic ($g_{zz} = 19.86$) with negligible transverse components ($g_{xx} \sim g_{yy} < 1.10^{-3}$), establishing thus a strong magnetic anisotropy axis. These g -values suggest strongly suppressed QTM within the ground KD (Figure 5), which is consistent with the relatively large experimental value for τ_{QTM} (142.7 s). The anisotropy g_{zz} axis is almost collinear with the pseudo- C_5 axis lying along the axial O–Dy–O bonds (the deviation between the g_{zz} axis and O–Dy–O direction is 1.5° , see Figure S13 and Figure 5 bottom). This strong uniaxial magnetic anisotropy is consistent with the weak ligand field from aqua and bromine ligands in the equatorial plane and the strong donor ligands in the axial positions.

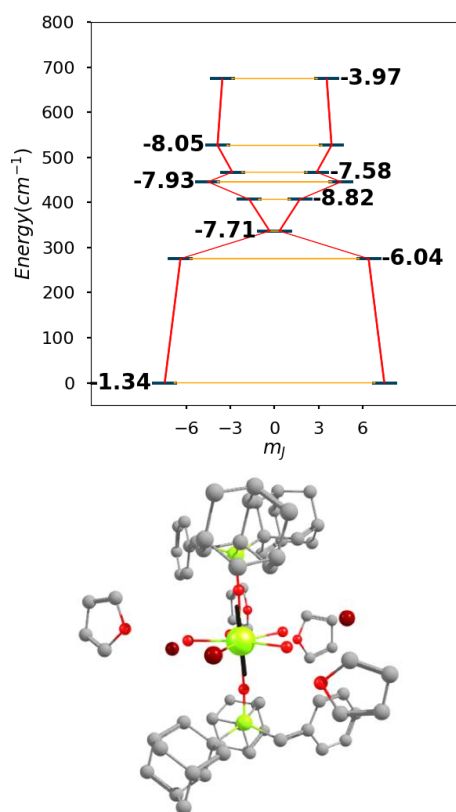


Figure 5. (top) *Ab initio* magnetisation blocking barrier for **1**, where the Kramers' doublets (KDs) are represented as dark blue bars and tunnelling relaxation times (τ_{QTM}) between the connecting pairs are indicated as orange lines and the values are represented in log 10 scale. (bottom) Molecular structure for **1** with the calculated orientation of the main magnetic axis of the ground Kramers' doublet (KD1) (black line). Colour code: Dy(green), O(red), P(orange), Br(brown) and C(grey).

The first excited state (KD2) lies at 275.2 cm^{-1} above the ground state. This KD2 is also axial in nature, with $g_{zz} = 16.92$, $g_{xx} = 0.13$, and $g_{yy} = 0.27$. In this case, the g_z tensor passes through the O–Dy–O direction again and presents a deviation of 6.4° with respect to the g_{zz} anisotropy axis of the ground state. The transverse components of KD2 can be large enough to promote magnetic relaxation via the first excited state, giving a calculated magnetisation barrier U_{cal} of 275.2 cm^{-1} (396 K), which is close to the experimental energy barrier U_{eff} of 427.7 K. The next excited

state (KD3) is close in energy (336.6 cm^{-1} , 484 K) and shows large transverse components of g ($g_{xx} = 0.42$ and $g_{yy} = 1.63$). Tunnelling relaxation times were calculated according to an *ab initio* model based on spin-dipolar interaction.⁸⁸ For the ground state (KD1) the calculated tunnelling time is 4.6×10^{-2} s while for the first excited state (KD2) it is much faster (9.1×10^{-7} s), which is consistent with the large transverse g -tensors obtained for this latter, confirming that the magnetic relaxation for **1** occurs via the first excited state (KD2).

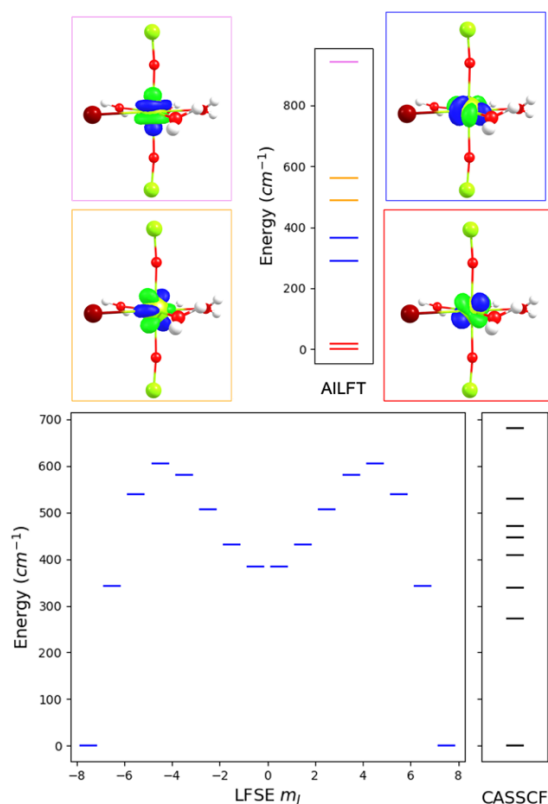


Figure 6. (top) *f*-orbital energy splitting obtained from AILFT calculations, blue, red, orange, and violet levels correspond to $f_{\pm 3}$, $f_{\pm 2}$, $f_{\pm 1}$ and f_0 orbitals, respectively. One orbital for each block is depicted next to their corresponding levels, where atoms not belonging to the immediate coordination environment of the Dy^{III} ion are omitted for clarity. (bottom) LFSE and CASSCF energy levels (in cm^{-1}) for **1** are represented in blue and black colours, respectively.

The effect of the *f*-orbital splitting in the observed magnetic anisotropy can be investigated in further detail by considering the individual contributions of each $f_{\pm n}$ orbital block to the demagnetisation barrier, as shown previously by some of us.⁸⁹ In the case of **1**, the high axiality of the coordination environment dictates an orbital splitting where the most destabilized orbital corresponds to the f_0 (f_{z^3}) orbital, laying along the z -axis with an energy of 854 cm^{-1} (violet level in Figure 6, top). Interestingly, the most stable orbital block is not the one lying on the xy plane ($f_{y(3x^2-y^2)}$ and $f_{x(x^2-3y^2)}$ orbitals, collectively named $f_{\pm 3}$) but the next block, which functions have a first order dependency with respect to z (f_{xyz} and $f_{z(x^2-y^2)}$ orbitals, collectively named $f_{\pm 2}$) (red levels in Figure 6, top). Figure 6 (bottom) compares the CASSCF energies of the m_j sublevels of the ground $^6\text{H}_{15/2}$ multiplet with the ones derived from the orbital energies weighted by their

contributions to each sublevel in a ligand field stabilization energy (LFSE) approach.⁸⁹ The agreement between both data sets is satisfactory as both present an isolated ground doublet, separated by ca. 300 cm⁻¹ from a dense pack of seven doublets spanning around 300-400 cm⁻¹. The pattern of the double well resembles a “M” letter, like the pattern derived from CASSCF (Figure 5, top). Considering that magnetic relaxation probably proceeds by the first excited doublet, the contribution of each orbital block to anisotropy can be estimated from the LFSE energy difference between the $m_j = \pm 13/2$ and $m_j = \pm 15/2$ states, which is $2/3 * (E_{f_{\pm 1}} - E_{f_{\pm 2}})$. In this case, the average energy of the $f_{\pm 1}$ and $f_{\pm 2}$ orbital blocks is 9.5 cm⁻¹ and 523.7 cm⁻¹, resulting in a gap of 342.8 cm⁻¹.

Model assessment

The accuracy of the presented model can be evaluated for **1** since the temperature dependence of the relaxation time was successfully fitted to the combination of tunnelling, Raman and Orbach contributions. Employing Eq. 7, the ZFC curve can be simulated, and the maximum is obtained numerically. The effect of different demagnetisation mechanisms can be analysed by modifying the $\tau(T)$ curve to include diverse combinations of Orbach, tunnel, and Raman mechanisms. Our analysis starts with the ZFC/FC determined using a field of 500 Oe. At this field, the tunnelling mechanism should be mostly suppressed so only the Orbach and Raman mechanisms will be considered in the integration of $\tau^{-1}(T)$. It is important to stress that the heating step in ZFC/FC measurements is done with an external magnetic field which can affect demagnetisation parameters, especially tunnelling. Thus, care must be taken to account for this effect. Figure 7 presents the simulated ZFC curves for all the experimentally determined heating rates (0.01 K/min-5 K/min). Pleasingly, the position of the ZFC maxima is similar to the temperature range of the experiment (vide supra). In the same way as the analysis of the experimental ZFC/FC curves, data associated with the slower heating rates show ZFC curves where the $T_{B-ZFC/FC}$ is clearly discernible, while the faster heating rates show a less clear maximum.

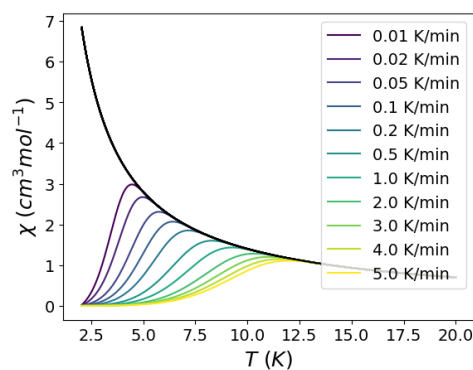


Figure 7. Simulated ZFC/FC curve for the sum of Orbach and Raman mechanisms, using the demagnetisation parameters fitted for **1**. C_1' was assumed to be one and the susceptibility was fixed to $\chi T = 14.17 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ K mol}^{-1}$.

The former simulations are now repeated incorporating tunnelling relaxation to the integration of $\tau^{-1}(T)$. The reference experimental data is now the ZFC/FC curve measured at 50 Oe, which should present a smaller quenching of tunnelling than the 500 Oe results. Figure 8 shows the simulated curves under these conditions. The comparison between Figures 7 and 8 clearly indicates that tunnelling is efficient in lowering the $T_{B-ZFC/FC}$ for **1**, in the same way

that ZFC/FC data at 500 Oe show larger blocking temperatures than 50 Oe results. This highlights an important and probably overlooked experimental parameter that affects the blocking temperatures measured by ZFC/FC experiments: the external field necessary to record the magnetic moment along the temperature program, which adds to the importance of reporting the heating rate in these experiments.

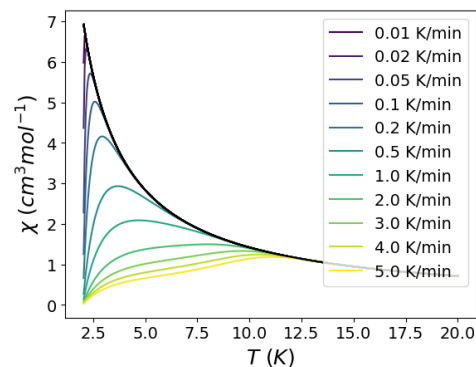


Figure 8. Simulated ZFC/FC curve for the sum of tunnelling, Orbach and Raman mechanisms, using the demagnetisation parameters fitted for **z**. C_1' was assumed to be one and the susceptibility was fixed to $\chi T = 14.17 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ K mol}^{-1}$.

A more quantitative comparison between the experimental and calculated blocking temperatures is presented in Figure 9. As mentioned earlier, the model can capture the effect of tunnelling in **1**, which diminishes the blocking temperature by around 5K. The agreement is quantitative at low heating rates but departs for faster programs (see red dashed line in Figure 9). Small modifications to the tunnelling value reveal a high sensitivity of the blocking temperature, where correcting the tunnelling time by a factor of 0.25 provides a simulated curve that agrees with the 50 Oe experiment in the complete range of heating rates (dot-dashed red line in Figure 9). This factor might seem a drastic correction, but it is significantly lower than the error bars of the magnetisation decay measurements calculated from the β parameter, according to Chilton and coworkers.⁹⁰ In this case, the range of relaxation times is even larger since a combination of magnetisation decay and ac-susceptibility are combined. The 500 Oe data also agrees with simulations, where the low heating rate results agree perfectly and depart by a couple of K at faster rates. Overall, the performance of the model is satisfactory since it allowed us to predict $T_{B-ZFC/FC}$ accurately and capture the heating rate dependency.

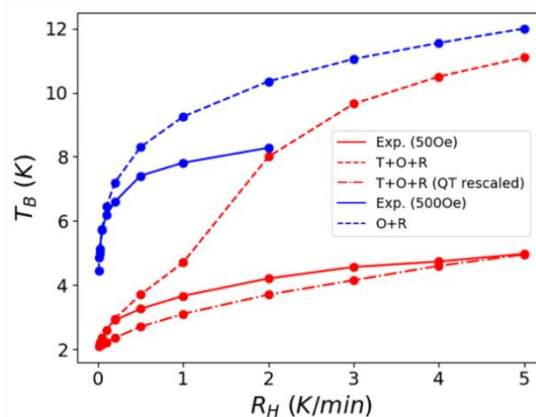


Figure 9. Comparison between experimental (solid lines) and simulated (dashed or dot-dashed lines) blocking temperatures. Data corresponding to 50 Oe and 500 Oe measurements are depicted in red and blue colours, respectively.

The demagnetisation mechanism limiting the blocking temperature can be estimated by repeating the same simulations including each demagnetisation mechanism separately. The tunnelling mechanism limits T_B to 2-3K for slow heating rates while it keeps most of the magnetic moment frozen at faster temperature programs, without reaching a maximum in the simulated temperature range (2-20K) (See Figure S12, left). The Raman-only simulation is similar to the one Orbach+Raman results from Figure 8, indicating that Raman relaxation is responsible for the simulated blocking between 4-12K. The Orbach-only plot shows blocking temperatures in a higher temperature range (14K-17K). Hence, it does not determine the value of T_B in this case (see Figure S12, right).

To assess the broader accuracy of the presented approach, a literature search for experimental examples of $T_{B-ZFC/FC}$ was performed. Such values can be also obtained for any single-molecule magnet system by introducing the spin relaxation parameters on the web page <https://tbzfcfc.streamlit.app>. By reconstructing the $\tau(T)$ curve using fitted parameters, we can calculate T_B using Eq. 7. Unfortunately, the heating rate is not always informed, so we have assumed lower and higher limit values for this parameter when R_H information is missing (0.2 K/min and 5 K/min to account for a slow and fast sweeping rate).

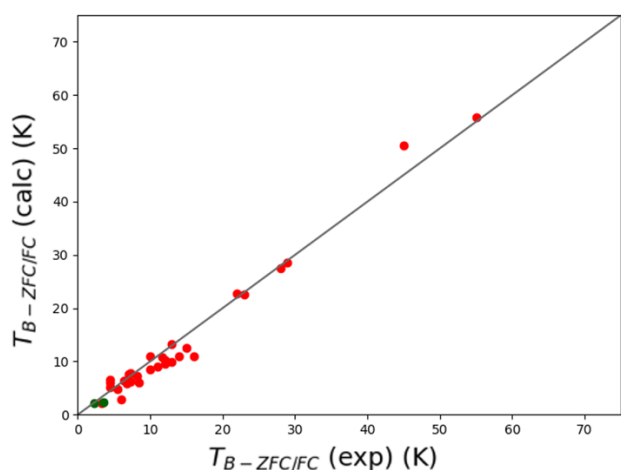


Figure 10. Comparison between the experimental zero-field cooling/field cooling blocking temperatures and the ones calculated using Eq. 12. Only 37 cases (35 lanthanide and two transition metal compounds depicted in red and green, respectively) with a reported heating rate are considered (see Fig. 11 for the other systems). The black line represents the perfect agreement between both values.

Table S9 compares experimental and predicted values for ZFC/FC blocking temperatures for 97 lanthanide SMMs reported in literature.^{13, 14, 37, 38, 41, 50, 51, 60, 61, 63, 65, 91-136} and nine transition metal complexes¹³⁷⁻¹⁴⁵. The lanthanide benchmark set contains mononuclear and polynuclear complexes based on Dy^{III}, Tb^{III}, Er^{III} and Ho^{III} ions, heteronuclear complexes containing Dy^{III} or Tb^{III} ions and transition metals, and diluted systems. The nine transition compounds are Mn₁₂ complexes, tetranuclear and mononuclear iron and cobalt complexes. The fitting parameters for ac-

susceptibility data range from systems involving combinations of Orbach, Raman, and tunnelling, Orbach and Raman, Orbach and tunnelling, Raman and tunnelling, to Orbach-only terms. Besides, the list includes complexes exhibiting two or three relaxation processes, where one of them (usually the main process) was considered to calculate T_B . As is observed in this list, some authors inform the T_{irrev} (indicated with an asterisk) instead $T_{B-ZFC/FC}$, and others report both values. It is possible to observe that T_{irrev} is always higher than $T_{B-ZFC/FC}$ value, as expected. In some cases, the difference between T_{irrev} and $T_{B-ZFC/FC}$ values exceeds 10 K (e.g 78 K and ~55 K, respectively, for complex 3 in Table S9). Another issue to highlight is the lack of information about the heating rate (R_H). For 97 lanthanide complexes in Table S9, R_H value was only included in the original paper for 35 complexes, while only for two transition metal complexes (see Figure 10). Reported R_H values ranging from 0.189 to 5 K/min, demonstrating that there is no consensus on this important parameter that defines the T_B value. In most cases, the reported $T_{B-ZFC/FC}$ lies in the range of T_B obtained with R_H of 0.2 K/min and 5 K/min, or close to these values (see Figure 11). Similarly, when R_H is informed, the obtained T_B with this heating rate is close to the reported $T_{B-ZFC/FC}$ (see Figure 10), demonstrating the accuracy and broad applicability of the presented approach.

The large amount of data collected in Table S9 allows to investigate if a fixed relaxation time like T_{B-100} can be useful as a descriptor for ZFC/FC blocking temperatures. Figure S15 presents the relaxation time at the experimental $T_{B-ZFC/FC}$ for the data presented in Table S9 as a function of the heating rate. Clusters of data are observed around the most common R_H values (0.2-04 K/min, 2 K/min and 5 K/min). In all cases, a high dispersion of relaxation times is observed, especially for slow heating rates. In the case of the cluster ranging 0.2-04 K/min, the maximum and minimum relaxation times are 282 s and 1 s. Thus, a unique reference relaxation time cannot be used to define ZFC/FC blocking temperatures, even at a fixed heating rate.

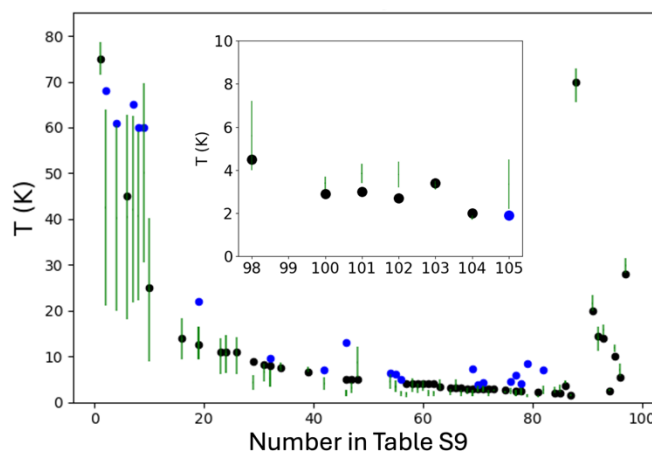


Figure 11. Comparison between the experimental T_{B-ZFC} blocking (black dots) or T_{irrev} irreversible (blue dots, values in Table S9 indicated with an asterisk) temperatures for the 62 lanthanide systems (7 transition metal systems in the inset) without reported heating rate. The x-axis indicates the complex number in Table S9. The green bar corresponds to the limit values calculated using Eq. 12 using with R_H 0.2 K/min and 5 K/min.

For systems without the reported heating rate value, the limiting values of the blocking temperature calculated with R_H 0.2 K/min and 5 K/min are shown in Fig. 11. As can be seen, in practically all

cases, the $T_{B-ZFC/FC}$ value falls within the calculated range. However, the T_{irrev} values are outside of the bar limits but always above in agreement with the fact that the irreversibility temperature (T_{irrev}) must be higher than T_{B-ZFC} .⁷⁸

Conclusions

This work discusses the various metrics for quantifying blocking temperatures and the challenges associated with each method. The new proposed approach for estimating $T_{B-ZFC/FC}$ from ac-susceptibility parameters offers a practical way to compare the performance of SMMs in the literature and estimate T_{B-ZFC} without the need for extensive measurements. Thus, the T_{B-ZFC} blocking temperature for a given heating rate can be estimated from the relaxation time data, which is the most common magnetic characterization in SMMs. In this context, the synthesis and characterization of the Dy^{III} SMM with D_{5h} symmetry, $[Dy(OPAd_2Bz)_2(H_2O)_4Br]Br_2 \cdot 4THF$ (**1**) allowed to test the predictions for the blocking temperature in a broad range of heating rates and two different static magnetic fields. Furthermore, complex **1** is an interesting example of an air and humidity-stable SMM with high U_{eff} and T_B values, adding to the scarce list of examples of SMMs with D_{5h} symmetry.

Magnetic measurements confirm the SMM behaviour of complex **1**, with a ZFC/FC blocking temperature in the range of 2.5K-8K, depending on the heating rate and the magnitude of the probe magnetic field. The presence of magnetic hysteresis and the large coercive field and remanent magnetisation values further support its SMM properties. Additionally, AC magnetic susceptibility measurements reveal a high magnetisation reversal barrier, indicating slow relaxation of magnetisation. Ab initio calculations provide insight into the electronic structure and relaxation mechanism of complex **1**. The calculations confirm the strong uniaxial magnetic anisotropy and reveal that magnetic relaxation occurs primarily via the first excited state (KD2).

In summary, the study of complex **1** exemplifies the potential of stable SMMs with D_{5h} geometry and axial ligands in achieving high-performance SMMs. The proposed approach for estimating T_{B-ZFC} provided accurate values of the ZFC/FC blocking temperature of **1**, properly captured the heating rate and probe field dependence of $T_{B-ZFC/FC}$, and identified the Raman and tunnelling mechanisms as the ones determining the blocking temperature. The possibility of relating the spin relaxation mechanisms directly to the blocking temperature opens a way for a better understanding on T_B tuning, which is a fundamental parameter of SMMs. Furthermore, the proposal successfully predicted blocking temperatures for many literature examples of SMMs, offering a valuable tool for characterizing and comparing SMMs in future research.

Author contributions

Y. G. and M. A. P.: investigation, data analysis D. A.: software; M. M. Q. M., E. C., S. G. C., E. R. and D. A.: conceptualization, investigation, data analysis, validation, supervision, resources, funding acquisition; all authors contributed to the writing and editing of the article.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

Data availability

The data supporting this article have been included as part of the ESI. Estimation of the blocking temperature for any single-molecule magnet system by introducing the spin relaxation parameters on the web page <https://tbzfcfc.streamlit.app>.

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