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# Superior High-Energy-Density Biocidal Agent Achieved with a 3D Metal–Organic Framework

Jichuan Zhang, Zhenye Zhu, Mingqing Zhou, Jiaheng Zhang,\* Joseph P. Hooper, and Jean'ne M. Shreeve\*



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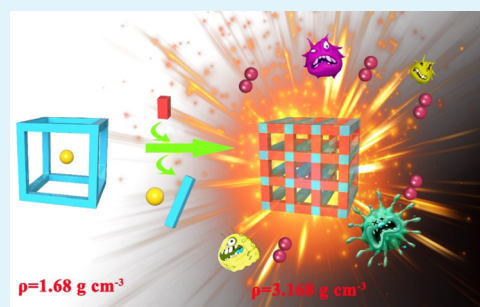
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Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** A significant number of challenges are encountered when developing biocidal agents with high throwing capacity for biosafety applications. Now a three-dimensional metal–organic framework (3D MOF) {MOF (2), [Cu(atrz)(IO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>]<sub>n</sub> (atrz = 4,4'-azo-1,2,4-triazole)} was obtained using a postsynthetic method from MOF (1) {[Cu(atrz)<sub>3</sub>(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>]<sub>n</sub>}. Benefiting from the oxygen-rich and small volume of the iodate (IO<sub>3</sub>) ligands (2.73 Å) in MOF (2) compared to the atrz ligand (7.70 Å) in MOF (1), the density of MOF (2) is 3.168 g cm<sup>-3</sup>, nearly twice that of its precursor. Its detonation velocity of 7271 ms<sup>-1</sup> exceeds that of TNT (trinitrotoluene) and its detonation pressure of 40.6 GPa is superior to that of HMX (cyclotetramethylenetetranitramine) (1,3,5,7-tetranitro-1,3,5,7-tetraoctane, 39.2 GPa), which are the highest detonation properties for a biocidal agent. Its superior detonation performance results in its main product, I<sub>2</sub>, being distributed over a wide area, markedly reducing the diffusion of harmful microorganisms. This study offers novel insight not only for high-energy-density materials but also for huge potential applications as biocidal agents.

**KEYWORDS:** 3D metal–organic framework, biocidal agent, energetic materials, high energy density, iodine



## INTRODUCTION

Development in modern science and technology has allowed people to live in environments with increased biosafety relative to the previous century. Frequent occurrences of biocrises cause widespread disasters for people, animals, and the environment.<sup>1,2</sup> These crises result from various reasons including the use of bioweapons by extremists, leakage of bioagents from storage, and outbreaks of organisms and toxins (such as SARS, Ebola, H7N9, and African Swine fever).<sup>3–8</sup> For example, in 2001, a series of letters containing anthrax spores were sent by mail in the USA. In the process, 22 people were seriously injured, five of whom died, and probably thousands were contaminated and advised to use antibiotics for an extended period of time.<sup>9</sup> At the beginning of 2020, the outbreak of COVID-19 has caused many deaths all over the world.<sup>10</sup> The growth in the number of biocrises has led to an increase in the scope and magnitude of highly infectious diseases.<sup>11,12</sup> Traditional biocidal methods require a significant effort to distribute antibiological agents. However, this tends to be inefficient, susceptible to infection for people, and cannot be distributed over a large range, especially in those places that are difficult to reach. Preventing the diffusion of these harmful microorganisms and improving their rapid elimination on a large scale is an enormous challenge.

Iodine is an efficient biocidal agent for bacteria, fungi, yeasts, viruses, spores, and protozoan parasites (a 99.999% kill in 10 min at 25 °C).<sup>13</sup> However, since it sublimes readily, elemental

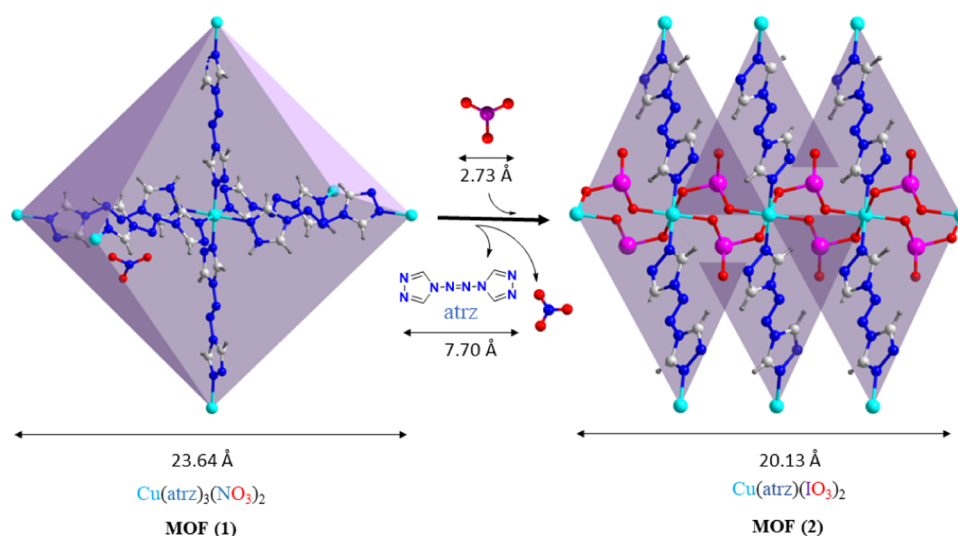
iodine itself is not useful as an antibiological agent. Until recently, the emergence of iodine-containing energetic compounds, which can kill harmful microorganisms by releasing I<sub>2</sub> upon initiation, was a milestone for both energetic materials and antibiological agents.<sup>14–27</sup> These compounds not only improved the biocidal efficiency but also precluded the sublimation of iodine in the antibiological agents. Nevertheless, the drawbacks of the current iodine-containing energetic agents are notable. (1) The detonation performances of all of the reported iodine-containing compounds are low {only one compound, 3,3,3-trinitropropyl-1-ammonium periodate is higher than that of TNT (2,4,6-trinitrotoluene)}, while its iodine content is only 32.9%, and its decomposition temperature is only 138 °C,<sup>27</sup> which is unsuitable for a biocidal agent. (2) The energy level of most iodine-containing compounds is too low to allow ignition, and the mixture of iodine-containing agents with explosives complicates the process of energetic iodine-containing agents and may likely result in accidents. (3) Nearly all of the iodine-containing agents are obtained through organic syntheses that result from costly multistep reactions

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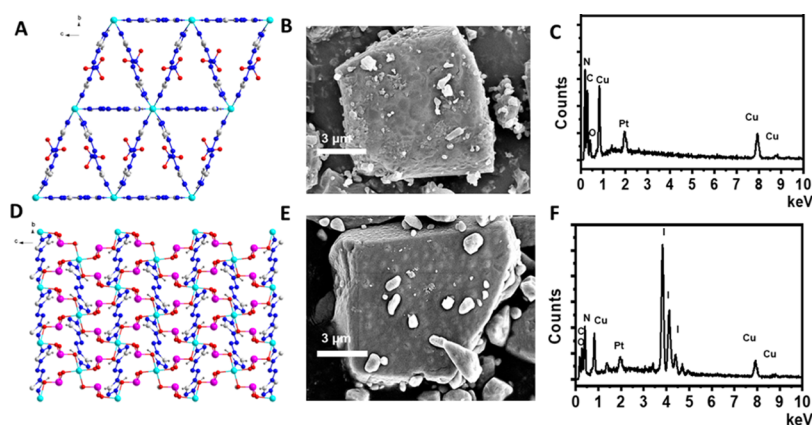
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**Figure 1.** Change in the crystal sizes of MOF (1) and MOF (2).



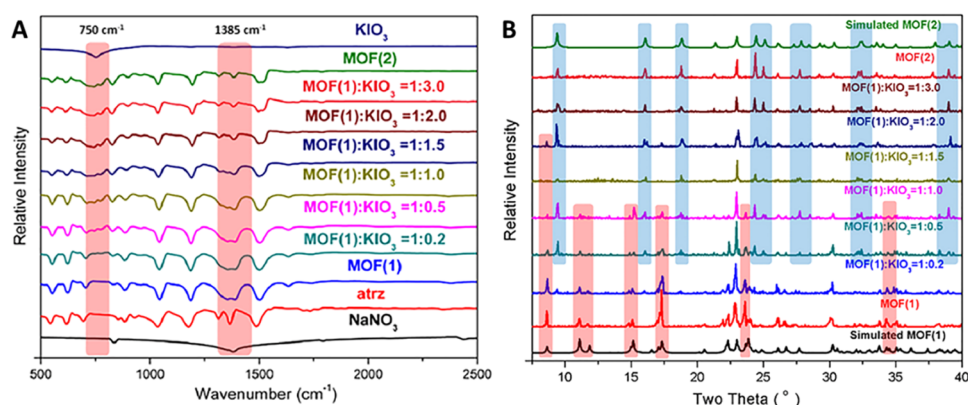
**Figure 2.** (A, D) Packing structure of MOF (1) and MOF (2) viewed from a-axis, respectively. (B, E) SEM (scanning electron microscopy) images of MOF (1) and MOF (2), respectively. (C, F) EDX (energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy) scans of MOF (1) and MOF (2), respectively.

and produce organic waste that is not environmentally friendly. Therefore, developing novel iodine-containing agents that exhibit superior detonation properties by a simple method is worthwhile as well as being significantly challenging.

Three-dimensional metal–organic frameworks (3D MOFs) have been utilized extensively in catalysts, drug transportation, absorption, and separation since the beginning of the 21st century due to their excellent porosity.<sup>28,29</sup> Energetic 3D MOFs are a unique type of 3D MOFs that are comprised of energetic nitrogen-rich ligands and metal ions.<sup>30–32</sup> Energetic 3D MOFs have drawn significant attention since the first report of MOF (1),  $[\text{Cu}(\text{atrz})_3(\text{NO}_3)_2]_n$  (atrz = 4,4'-azo-1,2,4-triazole), because of its high thermal stability and low sensitivity.<sup>33</sup> Just as with traditional energetic materials, the primary aim of energetic 3D MOFs is to achieve high energy density (minimum porosity). However, their detonation properties and densities still have not been realized because (1) the presence of two or three ligands in the unit cell leads to a low oxygen balance in the energetic 3D MOFs, even with oxygen-rich anions ( $\text{NO}_3$ ,  $\text{ClO}_4$ ), and (2) the empty volumes of most energetic 3D MOFs are higher than those of organic compounds, leading to an energetic density even lower than that of the organic compounds. For example, the oxygen balance of MOF (1) is  $-58.82\%$ , and the length of atrz is 7.70

Å, resulting in the density of MOF (1) to be only  $1.64 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ , which is even lower than those of most organic energetic compounds (Figure S1). Although several strategies have been employed including introducing more energetic molecules or anions in the holes of 3D MOFs or replacing ligands with smaller-volume nitrogen-rich ligands to increase the energetic densities of 3D MOFs, the desired results are still elusive.<sup>34–37</sup> Hence, employing a novel strategy to change this situation is necessary.

Recently, a postsynthetic method has become increasingly interesting for preparing MOFs because the conditions employed are mild, which facilitates the investigation of their synthesis mechanisms.<sup>38</sup> In addition, the  $\text{IO}_3^-$  anion serves both roles of being iodine and oxygen rich. Due to the larger atomic radius and lower electronegativity of iodine relative to fluorine and chlorine anions, the coordination ability of the  $\text{IO}_3^-$  anion is strong.<sup>39,40</sup> Thus, if the  $\text{IO}_3^-$  anion replaces one or two nitrogen-rich ligands in an energetic 3D MOF, the oxygen balance, density, and energy level of the new MOF will be increased greatly, and the new MOF will exhibit a biocidal effect upon decomposition. Now  $\text{KIO}_3$  was chosen to exchange with MOF (1), and the properties including crystal structure, energetic performance, and biocidal effect of the resulting MOF were studied extensively.



**Figure 3.** Transformations of FT-IR (A) and XRD (B) during postsynthesis.

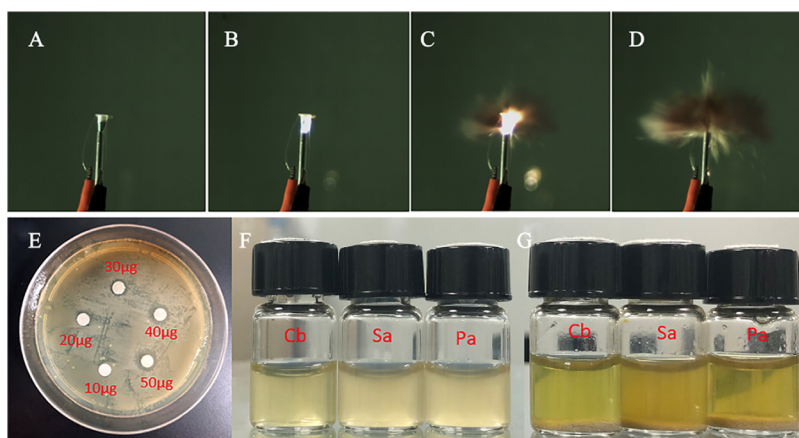
## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**Synthesis and Single-Crystal Structure.** MOF (1) was immersed in a solution of  $\text{KIO}_3$  (2.1 M) for 24 h at room temperature. The color of the crystals changed from blue to baby blue (S2, Supporting information). The resulting crystal structure was determined by X-ray diffraction to be monoclinic ( $P21/c$ ), with one Cu, one atrz ligand, and two  $\text{IO}_3^-$  anions in each unit cell of MOF (2)  $[\text{Cu}(\text{atrz})(\text{IO}_3)_2]_n$ . Two atrz ligands that play the role of a counterion in MOF (1) were replaced by  $\text{IO}_3^-$  anions for the same role. The coordination of Cu in MOF (2) approaches a regular octahedron and is similar to that found in MOF (1). Due to the diameter of  $\text{IO}_3^-$  (2.73 Å), which is less than that of atrz, the lengths of the two diagonals of the rectangle in MOF (2) were found to be only 20.13 Å, which is still shorter than that of a single diagonal in MOF (1) (Figure 1). In addition, the lengths of Cu–N and Cu–O bonds of 2 are 1.997, 1.994, and 2.318 Å, respectively, which are shorter than the three Cu–N bonds (2.009, 2.030, and 2.381 Å, respectively) in MOF (1), correspondingly. The shorter Cu–N/O coordination bonds and  $\text{IO}_3^-$  ligands in MOF (2) relative to MOF (1) give rise to a void volume (inverse with packing index) of MOF (2) as low as 22.3% (packing index 77.7%; Figure S1a). The closer packing of MOF (2) compared to MOF (1) is seen from Figure 2A,D. Meanwhile, the characterizations of scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) (Figures 2B,C,E,F and S3) show distinct differences between MOF (1) and MOF (2). The MOF (2) is the second-lowest void volume based on 485 3D MOFs of transition metals, and it is just slightly higher than that of the lowest one (22.0%,  $[\text{CuBT}(\text{H}_2\text{O})]_n$ , BT = 5,5'-bistetrazolate).<sup>41</sup> The packing index of MOF (2) is not only higher than that of MOF (1) (68.7%) but also higher than that of the majority of the energetic organic compounds (Figure S1b). The density of MOF (2) is 3.168 g  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ , which is almost twice that of its precursor (1.68 g  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ , 173 K).

To study the process and mechanism of exchange, MOF (1) was added to solutions that contained 0.2/0.5/1.0/1.5/2.0/3.0 M of  $\text{KIO}_3$  at room temperature, respectively (S2). The resulting samples changed gradually from blue to baby blue over 24 h. After filtering and drying, these samples were characterized by FT-IR (Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy) (Figure 3A), XRD (X-ray diffraction) (Figure 3B). In FT-IR spectra, the characteristic peak of the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  anion is at  $\sim 1385 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and that of the  $\text{IO}_3^-$  anion is at  $\sim 750 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . With a gradual increase in the proportion of  $\text{KIO}_3$ , the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  anions of MOF (1) were gradually replaced by  $\text{IO}_3^-$ . This led to a

decrease in the intensity of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in these samples and an enhanced intensity of  $\text{IO}_3^-$ . Similarly, when the molar ratios between  $\text{KIO}_3$  and MOF (1) increased gradually, the XRD characteristic peaks ( $2\theta^\circ$ : 8.6, 11.1, 11.7, 15.1, 17.3, 22.0, 22.6, 23.6, 26.2, 30.1, 33.9) of MOF (1) got increasingly weaker, while the characteristic peaks of MOF (2) ( $2\theta^\circ$ : 9.5, 16.1, 18.8, 21.3, 23.0, 24.4, 25.0, 27.8, 32.4, 37.8, 39.0) were found to get stronger. Finally, the combination of elemental analysis, FT-IR, and XRD tests shows that when the molar ratio between  $\text{KIO}_3$  and MOF (1) is 2:1, crystalline MOF (1) was nearly converted completely into MOF (2). When this ratio was increased to 3:1, MOF (1) was 100% changed into MOF (2), which is supported by elemental analysis. Calculations based on NBO charge distribution and coordination bond energy (S4 and S5) were conducted to investigate the driving force of the exchange. The calculated results show that the charge density of the O atom ( $\text{IO}_3^-$ ) was  $-1.227$ , which is considerably higher than that of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ( $-0.561$ ), suggesting that the possibility of the formation of a coordination bond between  $\text{IO}_3^-$  and Cu is markedly higher than that between Cu and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . The calculated energies of the three Cu–N bonds in MOF (1) are 406.2, 409.5, and 254.0 kJ  $\text{mol}^{-1}$ , which are much lower than the two Cu–O bonds (673.1 and 654.1 kJ  $\text{mol}^{-1}$ ) and the one Cu–N (614.9 kJ  $\text{mol}^{-1}$ ) bond of MOF (2). These results show that exchange between MOF (1) and  $\text{KIO}_3$  occurs readily and that  $\text{IO}_3^-$  enhances the stability of MOF (2) relative to that of MOF (1). The structure of MOF (2) is strengthened greatly, which is also supported by HPLC (high-performance liquid chromatography) tests. The HPLC tests of solubility show that MOF (1) is  $\sim 17$  times (7.06 g  $\text{L}^{-1}$ ) more soluble in water than MOF (2) (S6). The solubility of MOF (2) was calculated to be 0.42 g  $\text{L}^{-1}$ , showing that it is slightly soluble in water. Given the above results of calculations and HPLC tests, MOF (2) could be synthesized from hot water (80 °C) in 30 s on a large scale using atrz,  $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ , and  $\text{KIO}_3$  in a molar ratio 1:1:2 (S7).

**Physicochemical Properties.** Excellent thermal stability and acceptable sensitivity values are basic requirements for promising energetic materials as well as biocidal agents. The decomposition temperature (onset) of MOF (2) is 267 °C measured at a nitrogen flow rate of 5 °C  $\text{min}^{-1}$  using a differential scanning calorimeter (DSC Q2000, S8). This value is not only higher than those of all of the  $\text{IO}_3^-$ -containing organic compounds (their thermal stabilities are  $\leq 190$  °C)<sup>24</sup> but also higher than that of the classic explosive RDX (cyclotrimethylenetrinitramine,  $T_d = 210$  °C), and it is



**Figure 4.** (A–D) Images of the explosion initiation captured by a high-speed camera with an interval of 0.2 ms. (E) Bactericide effect on *E. coli*. (F) Suspension solutions of three breeding bacteria. (G) Addition of the explosion products of MOF (2) into three breeding bacteria solutions in 30 min (dead bacteria: precipitate on the bottom of the culturing bottles).

comparable with HMX (cyclotetramethylenetetranitramine,  $T_d = 280\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ). Sensitivities to impact and friction were determined based on the BAM Standard,<sup>42,43</sup> which gave impact and friction sensitivities of MOF (2) of 18 J and 60 N (S9), respectively. These are considerably less sensitive than most reported  $\text{IO}_3^-$  examples. Higher thermal stability and lower sensitivity than those of  $\text{IO}_3^-$ -based organic compounds should arise from the strong coordination bonds in MOF (2). It should be noted that  $\text{IO}_3^-$  increases the oxygen balance of MOF (2) to  $-12.47\%$  from  $-57.65\%$  for MOF (1). This is also higher than that of TNT ( $-74.00\%$ ), RDX ( $-21.62\%$ ), and HMX ( $-21.62\%$ ). The increased oxygen balance is very helpful in improving the detonation performance.

The heat of combustion of MOF (2) was determined to be  $3469\text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  with an Oxygen Bomb Calorimeter (PARR 1341EB, BOMB CALORI PLAIN). Its heat of formation was calculated to be  $1181\text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  using Hess's law (S9), which arises from the high heat of formation of the nitrogen-rich ligand<sup>44</sup> and the strong coordination bonds. With an experimental density of  $3.11\text{ g cm}^{-3}$  at room temperature and heat of formation in hand, the detonation velocity of MOF (2) was calculated by Cheetah 8.0 to be  $7271\text{ ms}^{-1}$ , which is the highest detonation velocity among all reported iodine-containing compounds and superior to that of TNT ( $6881\text{ m}^{-1}$ ), and its detonation pressure is 40.61 Gpa, exceeding that of HMX (39.50 Gpa). This is higher than those of all reported detonation pressure values of iodine-containing compounds.<sup>14–27</sup> The surprisingly elevated detonation properties of MOF (2) are the result of an ideal combination of high heat of formation, high density, and excellent oxygen balance, which could disperse the explosion products over a larger area.

The iodine content of MOF (2) is 43.98%. When it was initiated, 43.17%  $\text{I}_2$  would be released by MOF (2), which was predicted by Cheetah 8.0 (S10 and Cheetah calculation file). This was observed as a purple cloud with a high-speed camera with an interval of 0.2 ms (Figure 4A–D). The iodine released plays the main role in the bactericidal effect, which was proved by biocidal tests in both solid and liquid phases. The small amount of Cu as well as CuO formed quickly after the explosion could also be useful as biocides.<sup>45,46</sup> The solid biocide tests were conducted according to previous work.<sup>15</sup> *Escherichia coli* (Ec), *Staphylococcus aureus* (Sa), and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (Pa) were chosen as representatives

of harmful microorganisms because they are widely distributed on the earth and easily infect people.<sup>47–49</sup> The explosion products of MOF (2) were collected in an oxygen bomb with water and added to five circular papers (diameter = 3 mm) with varying amounts of decomposed samples of MOF (2) (10, 20, 30, 40, 50  $\mu\text{g}$  portions, respectively). The circles were placed in the culture medium. The results showed that when the MOF (2) concentration was 30  $\mu\text{g}$ , all bacteria were annihilated in 30 min (Figures 4E and S11). Based on the size of circles ( $28.26\text{ mm}^2$ ), the effective biocidal quality of MOF (2) for  $1\text{ km}^2$  would be 1.06 ton. Given that the harmful microorganisms can also exist in water, the biocidal tests of these three bacteria were conducted in aqueous solutions. Products of MOF (2) were added into three vials, respectively, which contain these three breeding bacteria. Half an hour later, bacteria in each of the three vials were killed completely (Figure 4F,G), and the minimum biocidal concentrations responding to MOF (2) for these three bactericides are the same, at  $3\text{ mg mL}^{-1}$ . Although the biocidal capacity of MOF (2) is slightly lower than that of DIDNPT (2,6-diiodo-3,5-dinitro-4,9-dihydrodipyrzolo [1,5-a:S',1'-d][1,3,5]triazine), (Table S5),<sup>15</sup> which could kill bacteria over  $1\text{ km}^2$  with about 0.8 ton, the detonation performance of MOF (2) is considerably higher than that of DIDNPT and could distribute the products of MOF (2) to a larger area to kill much more harmful bacteria.

## CONCLUSIONS

In summary, iodine-containing 3D MOF (2) was obtained by methods of exchange and synthesis, and the exchange process and mechanism were studied extensively. Distinct from the reported 3D MOFs, the short and strong coordination ability of  $\text{IO}_3^-$  anions play both the role of the ligand as well as a counterion. This results in (1) the oxygen balance of MOF (2) at  $-12.47\%$ , which is higher than those of classic explosives such as TNT, RDX, and HMX and its precursor MOF (1); (2) the density of MOF (2) is  $3.168\text{ g cm}^{-3}$ , which is nearly twice relative to MOF (1); and (3) high thermal stability and low sensitivity among iodate compounds. High density, high heat of formation, and a less negative oxygen balance give rise to a detonation velocity for MOF (2) of  $7271\text{ m s}^{-1}$ , which is the highest detonation velocity found for iodine-containing compounds. Additionally, its detonation pressure is higher

than that of HMX. Superior detonation performance combined with excellent biocidal effects suggests that the explosion products including iodine (a biocide) could be distributed over a large area, which will prevent the diffusion of harmful microorganisms through annihilation. This study provides a novel inroad into high-energy-density materials and potentially valuable biocidal agents in infection control.

## ■ EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

**Safety Precautions.** Although none of the energetic MOFs described herein have exploded or detonated in the course of this research, these materials should be handled with extreme care using the best safety practices.

**General Methods.** MOF (1) was prepared according to the literature.<sup>32</sup> All other materials were commercially available and used without further purification. Powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) patterns of the samples were analyzed with monochromatized Cu K $\alpha$  ( $\lambda = 1.54178 \text{ \AA}$ ) incident radiation by Bruker D8 Advance X-ray diffractometer operating at 40 kV voltage and 50 mA current. PXRD patterns were recorded from 5 to 80° ( $2\theta$ ) at 298 K. IR spectra were recorded using KBr pellets with a FT-IR spectrometer (Thermo Nicolet AVATAR 370). Density was determined at room temperature by employing a Micromeritics AccuPyc II 1340 gas pycnometer. Decomposition (onset) temperatures were recorded using a dry nitrogen gas purge and a heating rate of 5 °C min<sup>-1</sup> on a differential scanning calorimeter (DSC, TA Instruments Q2000). Elemental analyses (C, H, N) were performed with a Vario Micro cube Elemental Analyser. Impact and friction sensitivity measurements were made using a standard BAM Fall hammer and a BAM friction tester.

**X-ray Crystallography.** Single blue block-shaped crystals of MOF (2) were used as received. A suitable crystal 0.12 × 0.12 × 0.08 mm<sup>3</sup> was selected and mounted on a nylon loop with paratone oil on a Bruker APEX-II CCD diffractometer. The crystal was kept at a steady temperature  $T = 173(2) \text{ K}$  during data collection. The structure was solved with ShelXT<sup>50</sup> structure solution program using the Intrinsic Phasing solution method and using Olex2<sup>51</sup> as the graphical interface. The model was refined with version 2018/3 of ShelXL<sup>52</sup> using least-squares minimization.

## ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### SI Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsami.0c12251>.

Statistic works; exchange experiments and comparison of the single-crystal structures of MOF (1) and MOF (2); characterizations of SEM and EDX; NBO calculations; energy calculations of coordination bonds; HPLC; synthesis of MOF (2); thermal stability; physicochemical properties; determination of I content; and biocidal experiments and fluorescent staining (PDF) Notional detonation/combustion properties (PDF)

Data was collected using a BRUKER CCD (charge coupled device) based diffractometer equipped with an Oxford low-temperature apparatus operating at 173 K (TXT)

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### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

## ■ ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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