Glass Formation and Meltability of Metal-Organic Frameworks

Dissertation

kumulativ

zur Erlangung des akademischen Grades Doktor-Ingenieur Dr.-Ing.

vorgelegt dem Rat der Chemisch-Geowissenschaftlichen Fakultät der Friedrich-Schiller-Universität Jena von M.Sc. Vahid Nozari geboren am 20.12.1992 in Dubai, United Arab Emirates

Gutachter:

- 1. Prof. Dr. Lothar Wondraczek, Friedrich-Schiller-Universität Jena, Germany
- 2. Dr. Thomas Douglas Bennett, University of Cambridge, UK
- 3. Prof. Dr. Sebastian Henke, Technische Universität Dortmund, Germany

Tag der Verteidigung: 20.10.2021

Dedicated to

My Wife, Ayda and my family

Abstract

Melt-quenched (MQ) glasses derived from metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) have emerged very recently as tunable organic-inorganic hybrid glasses, showing potential applications in gas separation. Zeolitic imidazolate frameworks (ZIFs) are a subclass of MOFs which have shown high meltability. ZIF-62, a mixed-linker ZIF, has been investigated extensively because of its low melting temperature and high thermal stability. Application of glasses formed from MOFs on an industrial scale requires large-scale production of parent crystals. However, in large-scale production of mixed-linker MOFs, both kinetics and thermodynamics of synthesis play significant roles. The importance of both factors originates from a heterogeneous linker distribution in mixed-linker MOFs where each type of linker can form different crystalline phases during synthesis, altering thermal properties and more importantly, the meltability. The parameters which affect the formation of different crystalline polymorphs in ZIF-62, and the methods required to detect such structural heterogeneity in the final material are investigated, while possible phase transformations are also discussed.

Among a huge number of crystalline MOFs (over 70,000), only small number of them have shown the ability to melt. Decomposition of the framework prior to its melting transition is an obstacle hindering the transition to the liquid state while heating. Porosity and metal-ligand interactions have been identified as parameters determining meltability of such frameworks. To overcome these constraints, an ionic liquid (IL) containing its sodium salt was incorporated into the cages of ZIF-8, a highly porous, normally non-meltable ZIF. After mechanical amorphization, the structure of the resultant composite and stability of IL molecules in the collapsed pores were examined, and the effect of structural collapse on ionic conduction, as a macroscopic property, was investigated.

After understanding the IL incorporation and structural characterization of IL@ZIF-8 composite, interactions between the IL and ZIF-8 were investigated at elevated temperatures with the aim to diminish melting constraints; by decreasing the potential melting temperature of ZIF-8 below its decomposition temperature, it is possible to reach liquid phase, and melt a highly porous non-meltable ZIF. IL molecules were observed to stabilize the electrostatic interactions between Zn-sites and dissociated linkers in ZIF-8 and IL ions at high temperature, at the same time decreasing the porosity, thereby satisfying melting criterion of non-meltable MOFs. After melting IL@ZIF-8

and subsequent quenching, glassy IL@ZIF-8 composites were obtained. The structure of the IL@ZIF-8 glass was investigated in detail and IL incorporation approach was introduced as a possible route to melt other non-meltable MOFs, extending the application of MOF glasses by widening their range of chemical and physical properties.

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor Prof. Lothar Wondraczek. He has been a great support and motivation for me during my research in his lab. I am grateful and honored to be a part of his research group and being able to work with him. I would like to deeply thank him for everything he has provided to me. I have learned a lot from him. In addition, a special thanks to my co-advisor Dr. Courtney Calahoo, who has been a great guidance and help for me. She has always been patient, keen, and inspiring in our discussions and research works. I am very happy to get to know her not only as a great researcher, but also as a great friend who cares a lot. I also would like to thank my thesis committee members for their valuable time and insightful feedbacks. I am grateful to our collaboration partner Dr. Thomas D. Bennett in University of Cambridge for his constructive and invaluable assistance.

I would like to thank all the group members for sharing their knowledge and experience, being supportive and creating a friendly atmosphere and working environment. Special thanks to our Crew members being a source of fun during our Coffee breaks and "only one beer" events.

Finally, I would like to thank my parents who has done everything to support me in my studies and sacrificed their emotions for being far from their children. I owe them a lot and I hope that I could give them a sense of happiness and satisfaction as a son. I am so lucky to have my amazing brother Hadi who showed me the right path in my life and taught me how to withstand difficulties. Without him it would be impossible for me to find my way and progress until this point. My special thanks go to Darya, a great friend and sister who has supported me not only in my ambitions but also in every aspect of my life. I will never forget her motivating and morale-boosting emails which gave me hope and energy.

Most importantly, I wish to thank my loving and supportive wife, Ayda. I can't express my gratefulness of having her in my life. She has been the source of happiness, positive energy, and love since we started together our journey back in bachelor's studies. During these years, besides being the most amazing wife in the world, she is my best and closest friend. I wish one day I could be as supportive and warm-hearted as she is. Without her courage and support I would not be able to progress.

Table of contents

Abstracti
Acknowledgmentiii
List of abbreviations and symbolsvi
List of figures
1. Introduction
1.1. Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs)1
1.2. Glass
1.3. Melt-quenched MOF glasses4
1.4. Melting constraints in non-meltable ZIFs/MOFs
1.5. Ionic Liquids (ILs)7
1.6. IL-incorporated MOF composites9
1.7. Interactions between IL and MOF in IL@MOF composites11
2. Cumulative summary
 2.1. Structural integrity and meltability in glass-forming MOFs
2.2. Effect of IL on the glass formation of non-meltable MOFs
2.2.1. Sodium Ion Conductivity in Superionic IL-Impregnated Metal-Organic
Frameworks: Enhancing Stability Through Structural Disorder
2.2.2. Ionic Liquid Facilitated Melting of the Metal-Organic Framework ZIF- 8
3. Summary
4. Zusammenfassung
5. Bibliography
Erklärung zu den Eigenanteilen des Promovenden138

Anrechnung der Publikationsäquivalente	139
Selbstständigkeitserklärung	. 141
Curriculum Vitae	142
List of publications	143
List of conferences	144

List of abbreviations and symbols

MOF	Metal-organic framework
CCDC	Cambridge crystallographic data center
ZIF	Zeolitic-imidazolate framework
Im	Imidazolate
bIm	Benzimidazolate
T _m	Melting temperature
$T_{ m g}$	Glass transition temperature
T _d	Decomposition temperature
SCL	Supercooled liquid
t _{obs}	Observation time
$ au_{ m R}$	Relaxation time
IL	Ionic liquid
DSC	Differential scanning calorimetry
NMR	Nuclear magnetic resonance
DFT	Density functional theory
XRD	X-ray diffraction
VT-XRD	Variable-temperature x-ray diffraction
TGA	Thermogravimetric analysis
SEM	Scanning electron microscopy
S-IL	Salt-IL
FTIR	Fourier transform infrared
BET	Brunauer-emmet-teller
AC	Alternative current
am	Amorphized by ball-milling
$R_{\rm DC}$	Direct current resistance
$E_{\rm A}$	Activation energy

$K_{\rm B}$	Boltzmann's constant
d_p	Pore diameter
LT	Low temperature
HT	High temperature
ag	Amorphized by melt-quenching
LSM	Laser scanning microscopy
PDF	Pair distribution function
TG-MS	Thermogravimetric analysis coupled with mass spectrometry
m/z	Mass to charge
СР	Cross polarization
S/N	Signal to noise
SS	Solid state
MID	Multiple ion detection
S(Q)	Structure factors
FSDP	First sharp diffraction peak

List of figures

1. Introduction

1.1. Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs)

Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) are porous crystalline networks constructed from coordination of organic linkers to inorganic metal nodes. Flexibility in choice of constituents based on the size, geometry, and functionality of organic linkers and metal sites have led to the existence of over 70,000 MOF crystal structures in the Cambridge Crystallographic Data Center (CCDC), having a wide variety of physical and chemical properties.^{1–4} Figure 1 illustrates examples of different organic linkers and metal nodes used in formation of MOFs. MOF chemistry has attracted extensive attention since the crystal structure of MOF-5, the first robust and highly porous MOF, was reported in 1999.⁵ The structure consisted of $Zn_4O(CO_2)_6$ as metal centers coordinated by 1,4benzenedicarboxylate (BDC²⁻) organic linkers forming a framework with 61% porosity and surface area of 2320 m²/g, significantly higher than those observed for common porous materials such as zeolites, activated carbons, and mesoporous silicas with surface area and pore volumes in the range of 1,000 m²/g and 0.3–1.1 cm³/g.⁶ Progress in the field resulted in emergence of Nu-110, ([Cu₃(BHEHPI); BHEHPI⁶⁻ = 5,5',5"- ((((benzene-1,3,5-triv)tris(benzene-4,1-div))) tris(ethyne-2,1-divl))-tris(benzene-4,1-divl)) tris(ethyne-2,1-divl))triisophthalate]) with a record porosity, having a surface area and pore volume of over 7,000 m²/g and 4 cm³/g.⁷ Due to their tunable characteristics these materials have been applied extensively to various applications such as gas storage and separation,⁸ catalysis,⁹ sensing,¹⁰ and ion conduction.¹¹

MOFs have been investigated extensively for drug delivery applications.^{12–14} Because of the highly porous nature of MOF crystals, adsorbed/anchored molecules can release rapidly, impeding controlled and efficient release of a potential drug molecule from the pores. In general, MOFs are synthesized in powder form. However, in some applications such as gas separation it is necessary to process such powders into a mechanically robust shape and bulk geometry, facilitating their handling and usage.¹⁵ To overcome these challenges, structural amorphization of MOFs has been introduced recently.¹⁶ This can be achieved via different methods: pressure-induced structural collapse, ball-milling, melt-quenching, hot-pressing, and re-melting.^{17–21}. For instance, calcein, a

Metal-organic framework



Figure 6. Illustration of organic linkers and metal nodes used in MOFs. Reproduced from Ref. [4] with permission from the publisher under license number 4951960361043. Copyright © 2016, Macmillan Publishers Limited.

drug molecule, was introduced into a Zr-based MOF, UiO-66. Structural amorphization by ballmilling entrapped the guest molecule in the pores leading to delayed release of the drug from the collapsed structure (30 days) compared to crystalline UiO-66 (only 2 days).²² Furthermore, the pressure-induced amorphization approach was used to trap radio-active iodine molecules, produced as a harmful by-product from the nuclear energy industry, in ZIF-8 [Zn(mIm)₂, Zn(C₄H₅N₂)₂] pores. Accordingly, iodine was loaded in ZIF-8 and subsequent amorphization under 0.34 GPa of pressure led to structural collapse, trapping iodine molecules and impeding diffusion of iodine out of the pores.²³ The structural flexibility in MOFs facilitates the same degree of amorphization, compared to traditional porous zeolites, to occur at much lower accessible pressures (almost an order of magnitude lower).^{24,25}

1.2. Glass

Unlike crystalline materials that are well-ordered atomic structures, glasses lack long-range order and atomic periodicity.²⁶ Glass is defined as a non-equilibrium and non-crystalline material that shows a glass transition (T_g). Although amorphous materials are also non-crystalline, they are different from glasses. The distinct difference is the presence of glass transition in the glass, however, all amorphous materials do not show the glass transition.²⁷ In terms of structure, glasses show similar structures to their parent supercooled liquid (SCL) when above T_g .²⁸ The supercooled liquid is found in the region between the T_m and T_g (*see* Figure 2).²⁹



Figure 7. Schematic representation of specific volume (or enthalpy) versus temperature plot for a glass-forming substance. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [29]. Copyright © 1996, American Chemical Society.

As illustrated in Figure 2, if a liquid reaches the region below T_m without crystallizing, it forms a supercooled liquid. As the temperature of a supercooled liquid is decreased, its viscosity increases, the constituent molecules move more and more slowly. At a certain temperature the motion of the molecules will be very slow that they will not be able to rearrange. As a result, the material will be "frozen", that we refer to it as a glass. According to Figure 2, T_g of a material is not an exact value and it can be different if a different cooling rate is used. Using a smaller cooling rate allows the sample to stay more in equilibrium (*i.e.*, the supercooled liquid state) until lower temperatures.

Since the glass is thermodynamically unstable, it relaxes toward supercooled liquid state once it is formed. When the glass is heated it reaches the supercooled liquid at $T_{\rm g}$, where experimental or observation time ($t_{\rm obs}$) is comparable to the relaxation time of the supercooled liquid ($\tau_{\rm R}$). The relaxation does not only occur at high temperatures, but also at any non-zero positive temperature, but the timescales differ.^{30,31} Traditional glass synthesis dates to around 6,000 years ago when oxide glasses were synthesized.³² Progress in glass science and technology over the years resulted in developing a huge number of glasses (400,000 compositions) which played an important role in establishing the current modern civilization.^{32,33} In addition to three main categories of glasses, which are metallic, organic, and inorganic, very recently, MOF glasses have been synthesized by melting their parent crystals and are considered as a new class of hybrid organic-inorganic glasses.²¹

1.3. Melt-quenched MOF glasses

Among amorphization approaches, melt-quenching allows fabrication of bulk MOF glasses in desired shapes, enabling their application in different areas such as membrane-based gas separations. A membrane fabricated by melting crystalline ZIF-62 on an alumina support resulted in enhanced separation selectivity for CO₂/CH₄, CO₂/H₂, and CO₂/N₂ gas mixtures. The glass membrane out-performed crystalline ZIF-62 by showing three times higher separation selectivity.³⁴ Zeolitic imidazolate frameworks (ZIFs) are a subclass of MOFs in which some of them show melt-quenching property. Topology of ZIFs are very similar to inorganic zeolites: tetrahedral Zn²⁺ and Co²⁺ are coordinated by imidazolate (organic) linkers instead of oxygens in SiO₄⁴⁻ and AlO₄⁵⁻ tetrahedra.^{35–37} Melt-quenching has been observed for a limited number of ZIFs such as ZIF-4

 $[Zn(Im)_2, Im: C_3H_3N_2^-]$ and ZIF-62 $[Zn(Im)_{1.75}(bIm)_{0.25}, Im: C_3H_3N_2^-, bIm: C_7H_5N_2^-]$, both having **cag** topology.^{20,38} Theoretical studies on the mechanism of ZIF-4 melting revealed that melting happens via dissociation of an imidazolate and rapid coordination of a neighboring imidazolate to the under-coordinated Zn sites (*see* Figure 3).³⁹



Figure 8. Molecular mechanism of ZIF-4 melting. Reproduced from Ref. [39] with permission from the publisher under license number 4952650848893. Copyright © 2017, Nature Publishing Group.

Structural differences between crystalline and amorphous ZIF-4 (achieved by ball-milling, heating, and shear stress) were investigated using neutron and synchrotron X-ray total scattering data. Results showed that local bonding below 6 Å, defined as the short-range order, the ZnN₄ environments were similar in all samples, however, structural differences appeared in long-range order, above 6 Å.⁴⁰ Similar 'short-range' structural order was shown for ZIF-62 and TIF-4 [Zn(Im)_{1.5}(mbIm)_{0.5}, Im: C₃H₃N₂⁻, mbIm: C₈H₇N₂⁻] glasses, retaining metal–organic–metal connectivity.²⁰ Similarly, the same structural order has been observed in silica glass up to 3.1 Å, retainment of tetrahedral coordination around Si sites.⁴¹ The longer distances in local order of ZIFs compared to silica is due to larger bridging imidazolate linkers compared to oxygens.

To tune or modify the properties of MOF glasses, glass blends and glass fluxes have been introduced. MOF glass blends can be formed by mixing two glass-forming MOFs. For example, mixing crystalline ZIF-62 and ZIF-4, heating to the highest T_m , and subsequent quenching, results in a blended glass phase with only a single glass transition temperature (T_g), showing successful liquid-phase mixing between two distinct MOF glasses. Using this approach, T_g of blended MOF glasses can be tuned by adjusting the mixing ratios of constituent phases.⁴² A different approach, called flux melting, was used to form a composite MOF glass, this time with only one glass-forming phase. This mechanism uses a high-temperature liquid phase of a meltable MOF as a flux to melt/dissolve the other phase. Here, the selection criteria of constituents require that the $T_{\rm m}$ of the glass-forming MOF to be lower than the decomposition temperature ($T_{\rm d}$) of the other MOF. This was shown for a blended glass derived from ZIF-62, the major phase consisting 80 wt%, and ZIF-8, only 20 wt%, which is not meltable. The obtained flux melted glass had no Bragg scattering, showing its glassy nature with improved porosity towards H₂.⁴³ To take advantage of inorganic glass domains and improve mechanical properties of MOF glasses, composite glasses were fabricated by combining ZIF-62 as a MOF glass, and an inorganic phosphate glass. Selection criteria was to choose an inorganic glass which had a $T_{\rm g}$ very close to $T_{\rm m}$ of ZIF-62. Characterization of the final hybrid glass indicated presence of two distinct $T_{\rm g}$'s, which showed regions of each glass domain bonded together interfacially. Observed electrical and mechanical properties of the hybrid glass were in between the two separate glass domains.⁴⁴

1.4. Melting constraints in non-meltable ZIFs/MOFs

As mentioned previously, only a handful number of ZIFs/MOFs have shown meltability. The reason why other MOFs do not show melting lies in the fact that their T_d are lower than their T_m ($T_d < T_m$), meaning that the structure decomposes before reaching the liquid phase.

Studies on the mechanism of MOF melting showed that meltable MOFs obey Lindemann's melting criterion. According to Lindemann's criterion, melting occurs when the vibrational displacement of atoms while heating reaches a certain characteristic displacement.⁴⁵ However, this criterion does not apply in non-meltable MOFs/ZIFs such as ZIF-8 [Zn(mIm)₂, Zn(C₄H₅N₂)₂]. ZIF-8 as a commercially available MOF has a sodalite (**sod**) topology and has significantly higher porosity compared to meltable ZIFs such as ZIF-4, ZIF-zni, and ZIF-62.³⁵ ZIF-8 has surface area of around 1200 m²/g, three times higher compared to ZIF-4, ZIF-zni, and ZIF-62 (ZIF-62-bIm_{0.05}) with surface areas of 300, 4, and 476 m²/g, respectively.^{46,47} This difference in porosity is more evident when comparing pore diameters (d_p), defined as the diameter of the largest sphere that can fit into the pores, of ZIF-8 (11.6 Å) with that of ZIF-4 (2.1 Å) and ZIF-62 (1.3 Å).⁴⁸

High porosity (larger cavities) induces a higher energy barrier for linker mobility which results in creating higher steric hindrance for the stabilization of dissociated linkers (during melting) around Zn sites. Another parameter that has been identified as affecting melting is the Zn–N or Zn–linker

bonding strength.⁴⁹ Theoretical studies show that ZIF-8 has an activation energy of 177 kJ mol⁻¹ for Zn–linker bond cleavage, whereas, it is lower in case of ZIF-4, 81 kJ mol⁻¹, and ZIF-zni, 160 kJ mol⁻¹.⁴⁹ It can be concluded that, extent of interionic interactions between the metal site and the linker plays an important role in meltability. According to the structural characteristics in meltable MOFs/ZIFs, melting could happen if both high free energy from the linker mobility because of porosity and interionic interactions, from the metal–ligand bonding strength, could be reduced at the same time. One approach to address this is to incorporate a guest-molecules in the pores of MOFs, which can decrease porosity and, at the same time, interact with the host framework. Moreover, the potential guest molecule must have the proper size and geometry that can be incorporated in the pores, while being sufficiently thermally stable to withstand high temperatures during heating. Potential candidates fulfilling all these requirements can be ionic liquids (ILs).

1.5. Ionic Liquids (ILs)

Ionic Liquids (ILs) are salts that are generally liquid at room temperature ($T_{\rm m} < 100$ °C). The reason behind their liquid state at low temperature is that in conventional inorganic salts such as NaCl ($T_{\rm m} = 803$ °C), the interaction is long-range Coulomb forces between the net charges of cations and anions. However, in ILs, long-range Coulomb forces are replaced by softened Coulomb forces due to bulky size and asymmetric charge distribution in ions leading to highly directional interaction.^{50,51} ILs are composed of organic cations and inorganic or organic anions; combination of cations and anions results in formation of an almost infinite number of ILs with different physical and chemical properties.^{52–55} Molecular structure of common cations and anions are illustrated in Figure 4.

ANIONS



CATIONS

Figure 9. Examples of common cations and anions in ILs. Reproduced from Ref. [55] by permission of The Royal Society of Chemistry under license number 1080129-1.

This compositional variety renders tunable ILs to be used in different applications such as catalysis,⁵⁶ gas separation,⁵⁷ and electrochemistry.⁵⁸ Changing ion pairs results in altered physicochemical properties making IL "designer solvents".⁵⁹ Because of their very low vapor pressure, ILs have negligible volatility, making them alternative solvents to conventional organic solvents.⁵² Another characteristic of ILs is their miscibility with a wide range of inorganic and organic substances, a property that does not exist in other solvents. This is originating from the difference in interatomic and intermolecular interactions in ILs: while conventional solvents only have hydrogen bonding, dipole-dipole interactions, and van der Waals interactions, ILs have electrostatic interactions, defined as attraction or repulsion interactions between charges species.⁵¹ Interactions between cation and anion is a major parameter in determining ion mobility, viscosity, thermal stability, melting points and extent of their interactions as guest molecules with host material.^{51,60,61}

1.6. IL-incorporated MOF composites

ILs have been used to tune the MOF properties as a post-functionalization approach to improve MOF performance in different applications such as gas separation, catalysis, and ion conduction.^{62–66} An illustration of an IL-incorporated MOF composite is presented in Figure 5.⁶⁷



Figure 10. Illustration of an IL-incorporated MOF composite. Reproduced from Ref. [67] by permission of John Wiley & Sons, Inc. under license number 4984160097160.

IL@MOF composites can be synthesized using three main techniques: wet impregnation, capillary action, and ship-in-a-bottle. Depending on the targeted application, an appropriate synthesis route can be selected.⁶²

For gas separation, ILs can tune the affinity of MOFs toward certain molecules, adjust the molecular sieving capability of MOFs by occupying the pore space, and creating new adsorption sites favorable for specific gasses. For instance, [BMIM][PF₆] was incorporated in ZIF-8 pores and the resulting composite, [BMIM][PF₆]@ZIF-8, showed enhanced CO₂ uptake at lower pressures (0.4 bar) which enhanced separation selectivity of CO₂/CH₄ and CO₂/N₂ more than double compared to pristine ZIF-8. Observed increase in selectivity was attributed to creation of new adsorption sites in ZIF-8 after IL confinement.⁶⁸ In a different study, a hydrophilic IL, [HEMIM][DCA], was deposited on a hydrophobic MOF, ZIF-8, to form a core (ZIF-8)-shell (IL) type composite. The chosen IL had very low CH₄ solubility, however, CO₂ solubility was an order of magnitude higher compared to CH₄. This resulted in the IL acting as a smart gate in separation

of CO₂ from CH₄. The composite showed 45 times higher CO₂/CH₄ selectivity compared to parent ZIF-8 at 1 mbar and 25 $^{\circ}$ C.⁶⁹

For catalysis, a heterogeneous catalyst used for catalytic oxidative desulfurization of fuel oils such as gasoline, was synthesized by immobilization of an IL, 1-methylimidazolium-3-propylsulfonate hydrosulfate [PSMIM][HSO4], on a zirconium-based MOF, UiO-66. Benzothiophene (BT, chemical formula: C₈H₆S) was used to test the desulfurization performance of the [PSMIM][HSO4]/UiO-66 catalyst. The [PSMIM][HSO4]/UiO-66 catalyst outperformed the pristine UiO-66 catalyst in the desulfurization reaction, showing 90.6 % removal of the BT for up to six times of use at the optimum reaction conditions. Using such catalysts, SO_x, a poisonous compound to metal catalysts used in refining processing units, can be removed.⁷⁰ In a different study, a composite catalyst was prepared from an IL. *N*-methyl-2-pyrrolidonium methyl sulfonate, [NMP][CH₃SO₃], and MIL-101(Cr) as the MOF. The aim was to produce amyl acetate, a solvent in different applications, via esterification of acetic acid with amyl alcohol. 80 % conversion was achieved for the IL/MOF catalyst and the catalytic performance was stable without losing any activity after cycling six times. The authors also used the IL/MOF catalyst in the Friedel–Crafts anylation: Pristine MIL-101(Cr) showed no conversion for the acylation of anisole with acetic anhydride, however, with the IL/MOF catalyst a conversion of 80 % was achieved.⁷¹

Another application of IL@MOF composites is their use in electrochemical devices as electrolytes. ILs have been used extensively as electrolytes, however, freezing happens at low temperatures. For instance, in automobile applications, freezing leads to lowering ion mobility and subsequent low ion conduction performance. To avoid freezing of ILs, some solvents are added, decreasing the freezing point of the solution. Nonetheless, those solvents are volatile and flammable, causing safety problems in electrochemical devices.⁷² An approach to solve this issue was to confine ILs in MOF pores so that freezing could be avoided as a result of host-guest interactions. Phase behavior and ionic conductivity of [EMIM][TFSA] inside micropores of ZIF-8 was investigated at low temperatures using differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) and ¹⁹F NMR, nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy. Results showed that bulk [EMIM][TFSA] (1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)amide) possessed a phase transition, freezing at around -9 °C, however [EMIM][TFSA]/ZIF-8 showed no phase transitions below -23 °C, ascribed to the nanoconfinement effect. As a result, [EMIM][TFSA]/ZIF-8 exhibited enhanced ion conductivity at low temperatures compared to bulk [EMIM][TFSA].

IL@MOF composites have been extensively used for Li⁺ ion conduction via dissolving a Li-salt in an IL and subsequent incorporation in MOF pores.^{74,75} Li-doped IL, (EMI_{0.8}Li_{0.2})TFSA/ZIF-8 (20 mol% LiTFSA in [EMIM][TFSA]), was incorporated into ZIF-8 and ionic conductivity performance was investigated. (EMI_{0.8}Li_{0.2})TFSA/ZIF-8 showed decreased conduction performance compared to the bulk (EMI_{0.8}Li_{0.2})TFSA. However, they observed comparable activation energy values. Moreover, higher IL loadings could enhance the ion conduction in the composite. The authors showed that Li-ions were diffusing in the pores via exchanging the solvated anions.⁷⁶ Another study measured Li⁺-ion conductivity by incorporating TFSA [EMIM_{0.8}Li_{0.2}][TFSI] into MOF-525 (Cu). MOF-525 (Cu) was chosen since it has open metal sites in the structure where the anionic component of the Li salt could be grafted, so that Li⁺-ions could diffuse more freely through pores. The composite showed a higher Li transference number, 0.36, compared to the bulk IL.⁷⁷ Due to uneven distribution of lithium sources on Earth and extensive usage of lithium in electrochemical applications, future usage of limited lithium resources requires a proper alternative.⁷⁸ Accordingly, sodium-based electrochemical energy storage systems have been introduced. Recently, researchers have been trying to develop suitable candidates for solidstate sodium-based electrolytes.⁷⁹ In real-world applications, such electrolytes need to be stable in the absence of an inert atmosphere.⁸⁰ To address this problem, charge carrier ions need to be protected from contact and avoid reactions with the guest molecules present in ambient atmosphere. Structural amorphization of MOFs impregnated by ILs, where ILs are trapped in MOF pores, can be investigated as a possible solution, where the interaction of unwanted molecules with ILs/salts is hindered.

1.7. Interactions between IL and MOF in IL@MOF composites

As discussed above, interaction of ILs with MOF shows advantageous outcomes, improving the MOF performance in a targeted application such as gas separation and ion conduction. It was shown that the interactions between IL molecules and the MOF structure is crucial in creating new interaction sites favorable for adsorption, catalysis, and ion conduction.⁶² Interactions between different ILs and MOFs have been extensively investigated experimentally, as well as

computationally at low temperatures. A simulation study investigated IRMOF-1 supported IL membranes for CO₂ capture.⁸¹ Four different ILs with identical cation and different anions were used and the results demonstrated that the anion of the IL plays an important role in the extent of interactions between the IL and the MOF. In a different study, combining DFT calculations and experimental vibrational spectroscopy, the molecular interactions between a Cu-based MOF, copper benzene-1-3-5-tricarboxylate (CuBTC), and an IL, 1-ethyl-3- methylimidazolium ethyl sulfate ([EMIM][EtSO₄]), was investigated. Their computational results showed that the IL-anion was interacting with the MOF Cu²⁺ ions causing the transfer and redistribution of electron density over the MOF metal sites. This result was further confirmed by showing elongated Cu-O bond distances between MOF linkers and metal centers. This was further manifested in the experimental vibrational spectra, observing redshifts in the IR bands associated with Cu–O bonding. The authors concluded that intermolecular interactions between the linker molecules and Cu weakens upon interaction with the IL ions.⁸² Weakening of metal-ligand bonding was further shown via incorporating seven different imidazolium-based ILs in CuBTC pores, all having the same cation but varying anions. It was shown that when the interionic interactions within the IL were higher, then the IL interacted more strongly with the MOF structure and Cu-O bonding became weaker resulting in lower thermal stability of the IL@MOF composites.⁸³

Most of the reported studies on IL@MOF composites have investigated the interactions between ILs and MOFs at low temperatures. However, a more rigorous study of interactions between IL and MOF at elevated temperatures is needed. Because of stronger IL-MOF interactions at high temperatures, porosity and metal–linker bonding strength can be reduced, which are identified as required criterion for the melting of non-meltable MOFs.⁴⁹

2. Cumulative summary

In this dissertation, the experimental findings have been published in peer reviewed journals. Thus, the results and discussion section of the thesis will be illustrated in the form of a compilation of publications in the peer reviewed journals in 2.1.1, 2.2.1, and 2.2.2 sections.

2.1. Structural integrity and meltability in glass-forming MOFs

Structural amorphization and melting of MOFs were introduced by Bennett et al.⁸⁴ in 2010, where several phase transitions resulting in the formation of dense ZIF-zni polymorph upon heating of ZIF-4 was observed, followed by glass formation, with final melting upon further heating of the formed dense ZIF-zni.³⁸ Among meltable ZIFs, ZIF-62 has been studied extensively because of its relatively low $T_{\rm m}$ and high thermal stability, rendering a larger melting window (>100 K) compared to other ZIFs.²⁰ ZIF-62 has Im and bIm as organic linkers, categorized as a heterolinker ZIF with a canonical stoichiometry of Zn(Im)_{1.75}(bIm)_{0.25}.⁴⁸ Comparing melting behavior of ZIF-4 and ZIF-62, an approach towards lowering $T_{\rm m}$ of ZIFs is to substitute some of the already coordinated linkers, Im in the ZIF-4 case, with a different or bulkier linker (bIm in case of ZIF-62). This change in linker composition decreases $T_{\rm m}$ of ZIF-4, 863 K, to 710 K of ZIF-62.²⁰ Aiming to lower the melting temperature of ZIF-62, the effect of linker composition, *i.e.*, changing the Im:bIm ratio, on $T_{\rm m}$ was investigated.⁸⁵ By varying the Im:bIm ratio in Zn(Im)_{2-x}(bIm)_x, where x = 0.02-0.35, $T_{\rm m}$ could be tuned by 70 K.

This compositional effect was further investigated in heterolinker (or mixed-linker) ZIFs by introducing structural disorder upon inclusion of multiple linkers which resulted in lowering the melting temperature. For instance, by inclusion of a third linker in a ZIF, Im, bIm, and mbIm as in ZIF-UC-1b [Zn(Im)_{1.66}(bIm)_{0.22}(mbIm)_{0.12}] the structure could be melted at a lower T_m (691 K) compared to that of ZIF-62 (710 K). It was shown that static atomic displacement and distortion in orientation of linkers induced structural disorder, causing lower T_m .⁸⁶ Statistical models revealed that coordination of different linkers to metal centers has certain probabilities, which are controlled thermodynamically and kinetically. Dissimilar steric hindrances and metal–linker interactions

results in favorable coordination of certain linkers; Im, bIm, and mbIm linkers surrounding Zn show the following probability: Im>bIm>mbIm, meaning that Im linkers are favored to be coordinated to Zn compared to bIm and mbIm.⁸⁶ This has to be taken into account, particularly, in scaling-up the synthesis of mixed-linker ZIFs. Another crucial parameter in ZIF synthesis is the reaction temperature and time. Extending the reaction temperature and time has been shown to influence the phase of the final ZIF crystals. During ZIF-4 synthesis (having **cag** topology), higher temperature and longer reaction times led to formation of ZIF-zni [a dense polymorph of Zn(Im)₂], having **zni** topology.⁸⁷ Moreover, starting from the same precursors, different isomeric crystals of [Zn(Im)₂] such as ZIF-1 **crb**, ZIF-2 **crb**, ZIF-3 **dft**, ZIF-4, ZIF-6 **gis**, and ZIF-10 **mer**, can be formed. Among these isomeric crystals, ZIF-1, ZIF-3, and ZIF-4 show similar thermal phase transformations upon heating.³⁵ The presence of different phases (as impurities) may preclude the formation of these mixed-linker type glasses and their usage in targeted applications. According to above-mentioned arguments, consequences of linker heterogeneity and synthesis conditions on the variability of thermal properties in mixed-linker ZIFs need to be investigated.

Structural integrity, meltability, and variability of thermal properties in the mixed-linker zeolitic imidazolate framework ZIF-62

Nozari, V.; Calahoo, C.; Longley, L.; Bennett, T. D.; Wondraczek, L. Structural Integrity, Meltability, and Variability of Thermal Properties in the Mixed-Linker Zeolitic Imidazolate Framework ZIF-62. J. Chem. Phys. 2020, 153 (20), 1–21. DOI: 10.1063/5.0031941

Metal–organic framework (MOF) glasses have emerged as a new class of melt-quenched glasses; however, so far, all MOF glass production has remained at lab-scale; future applications will require large-scale, commercial production of parent crystalline MOFs. Yet, control of synthetic parameters, such as uniform temperature and mixing, can be challenging, particularly, when scaling-up production of a mixed-linker MOF or a zeolitic imidazolate framework (ZIF). Here, we examine the effect of heterogeneous linker distribution on the thermal properties and melting behavior of ZIF-62. X-ray diffraction (XRD), Raman, and ¹H nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopies revealed little discernable structural difference between samples of ZIF-62 synthesized in our lab and by a commercial supplier. Differential scanning calorimetry and variable temperature/isothermal XRD revealed the samples to have significantly different thermal behavior. Formation of ZIF-zni was identified, which contributed to a dramatic rise in the melting point by around 100 K and also led to the alteration of the macroscopic properties of the final glass. Parameters that might lead to the formation of unexpected phases such as an uneven distribution of linkers were identified, and characterization methods for the detection of unwanted phases are provided. Finally, the need for adequate consideration of linker distribution is stressed when characterizing mixed-linker ZIFs.

Reprinted from [Nozari, V.; Calahoo, C.; Longley, L.; Bennett, T. D.; Wondraczek, L. Structural Integrity , Meltability ,and Variability of Thermal Properties in the Mixed-Linker Zeolitic Imidazolate Framework ZIF-62. J. Chem. Phys. 2020, 153 (20), 1–21], with the permission of AIP Publishing under license number 4961321229026.

The Journal of Chemical Physics

Structural integrity, meltability, and variability of thermal properties in the mixed-linker zeolitic imidazolate framework ZIF-62

Cite as: J. Chem. Phys. **153**, 204501 (2020); https://doi.org/10.1063/5.0031941 Submitted: 05 October 2020 . Accepted: 01 November 2020 . Published Online: 23 November 2020

🔟 Vahid Nozari, ២ Courtney Calahoo, ២ Louis Longley, Thomas D. Bennett, and ២ Lothar Wondraczek



ARTICLES YOU MAY BE INTERESTED IN

Ultrathin porphyrin and tetra-indole covalent organic frameworks for organic electronics applications

The Journal of Chemical Physics 153, 044702 (2020); https://doi.org/10.1063/5.0010164

Thermodynamic study on the magnetic transition and structural phase transition in $[(CH_3)_2NH_2][Na_{0.5}Fe_{0.5}(HCOO)_3]$ by using the Landau phenomenological model Journal of Applied Physics **128**, 204101 (2020); https://doi.org/10.1063/5.0027326

Intramolecular-rotation driven triplet-to-singlet upconversion and fluctuation induced fluorescence activation in linearly connected donor-acceptor molecules The Journal of Chemical Physics **153**, 204702 (2020); https://doi.org/10.1063/5.0029608



Your Qubits. Measured. Meet the next generation of quantum analyzers Readout for up to 64 qubits Operation at up to 8.5 GHz,

 Operation at up to 8.8 dr mixer-calibration-free
 Signal optimization



J. Chem. Phys. **153**, 204501 (2020); https://doi.org/10.1063/5.0031941 © 2020 Author(s). 153, 204501

Zurich

Instruments



Structural integrity, meltability, and variability of thermal properties in the mixed-linker zeolitic imidazolate framework ZIF-62

Cite as: J. Chem. Phys. 153, 204501 (2020); doi: 10.1063/5.0031941 ГŢJ Submitted: 5 October 2020 · Accepted: 1 November 2020 · Published Online: 23 November 2020 Vahid Nozari, 1 🔟 Courtney Calahoo, 1 问 Louis Longley, 2 问 Thomas D. Bennett, 2 and Lothar Wondraczek 💷 匝

AFFILIATIONS

The Journal

of Chemical Physics

¹Otto Schott Institute of Materials Research, University of Jena, Jena, Germany ²Department of Materials Science and Metallurgy, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, United Kingdom

³Center of Energy and Environmental Chemistry, University of Jena, Jena, Germany

^{a)}Author to whom correspondence should be addressed: lothar.wondraczek@uni-jena.de

ABSTRACT

Metal-organic framework (MOF) glasses have emerged as a new class of melt-quenched glasses; however, so far, all MOF glass production has remained at lab-scale; future applications will require large-scale, commercial production of parent crystalline MOFs. Yet, control of synthetic parameters, such as uniform temperature and mixing, can be challenging, particularly, when scaling-up production of a mixed-linker MOF or a zeolitic imidazolate framework (ZIF). Here, we examine the effect of heterogeneous linker distribution on the thermal properties and melting behavior of ZIF-62. X-ray diffraction (XRD), Raman, and ¹H nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopies revealed little discernable structural difference between samples of ZIF-62 synthesized in our lab and by a commercial supplier. Differential scanning calorimetry and variable temperature/isothermal XRD revealed the samples to have significantly different thermal behavior. Formation of ZIF-zni was identified, which contributed to a dramatic rise in the melting point by around 100 K and also led to the alteration of the macroscopic properties of the final glass. Parameters that might lead to the formation of unexpected phases such as an uneven distribution of linkers were identified, and characterization methods for the detection of unwanted phases are provided. Finally, the need for adequate consideration of linker distribution is stressed when characterizing mixed-linker ZIFs.

© 2020 Author(s). All article content, except where otherwise noted, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/). https://doi.org/10.1063/5.0031941

INTRODUCTION

Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) are porous, crystalline, and "tunable" materials composed of organic linkers coordinated to inorganic metal centers;^{1,2} component selection results in an almost infinite number of possible framework structures having a wide range of physical and chemical properties. These properties enable implementation in a variety of different applications such as gas storage, gas separation, and catalysis.^{3,4} MOFs are typically synthesized in the form of microcrystalline powders although this is problematic as specialized and/or high-stress applications require MOFs formed in robust, bulk geometries.

To overcome this challenge, melt-quenching of these hybrid framework materials has been proposed, leading to bulk glasses.

Accordingly, MOF glasses have emerged as a new class of meltquenched glasses with unique and potentially advantageous properties stemming from their tunability and structural chemistry, which can be exploited in crystalline and glassy states alike.⁸ This ability to form bulk, shapeable materials with enhanced processability and durability, without loss of chemical selectivity, greatly broadens the applicability of MOFs in many fields.

Thus far, only a small number of MOFs have been reported to demonstrate substantial meltability. Zeolitic imidazolate frameworks (ZIFs) are a subclass of MOFs some of which show meltquenching behavior; they often have topologies similar to those found in inorganic zeolites (tetrahedral SiO₄⁴⁻ and AlO₄⁵⁻ species are replaced by isotypic tetrahedral Zn²⁺ or Co²⁺ coordinated by imidazolates, which take the place of the oxygen anion).9-11 For

J. Chem. Phys. 153, 204501 (2020); doi: 10.1063/5.0031941 C Author(s) 2020

153. 204501-1

The Journal of Chemical Physics

ARTICLE

scitation.org/journal/jcp

instance, crystal structures of ZIF-4, Zn(Im)₂ with **cag** topology, ZIF-zni, Zn(Im)₂ with **zni** topology, ZIF-62, Zn(Im)_{1.75}(blm)_{0.25} with **cag** topology, and ZIF-7, Zn(blm)₂ with **sod** topology are illustrated in Fig. 1.¹²⁻¹⁴ ZIF-62 is one of the most extensively studied MOF glasses because of its relatively low melting temperature and high thermal stability, resulting in a large processing window.¹⁵ ZIF-62 is a mixed-linker (or heterolinker) ZIF consisting of imidazolate (Im, C₃H₃N₂⁻) and benzimidazolate (blm, C₇H₅N₂⁻) linkers with the standard stoichiometry of 7:1 Im to bIm or Zn(Im)_{1.75}(bIm)_{0.25}.¹⁶

ZIF-62 glass, a_g ZIF-62, shows promising results in gas separation applications. For instance, a_g ZIF-62 membranes fabricated by Wang *et al. via* melting crystalline ZIF-62 powder on an alumina support showed separation selectivity for different gas mixtures (CO₂/CH₄, CO₂/H₂, and CO₂/N₂). Indeed, the glassy ZIF-62 showed three times higher CO₂/N₂ selectivity compared to its crystalline counterpart at elevated pressures.¹⁷ These observations demonstrate the potential of MOF glasses to be implemented in industrial applications.

Nevertheless, the most challenging issue remains unsolved since bringing MOF glasses into real world applications requires scaling-up the synthesis procedures.¹⁷ In this, several parameters are crucial to the structural integrity and phase purity of the final product, such as reaction time and temperature.^{18,19} The presence

of structural defects or tiny amounts of impurities may change the thermal behavior; this can induce a considerable increase in melting temperature or reduce the melting window of the material.¹³ This is a concern not only for commercial materials but also when analyzing the behavior of newly synthesized materials, where phase purity plays a significant role in dictating thermal behavior. Currently, the MOF glass field tries to identify new meltable MOFs/ZIFs from among a huge number of available crystalline MOFs; thus, small impurities may play a large role by either broadening the melting window or, worse, by falsely identifying melting compositions as non-glass forming.²⁰

In mixed-linker ZIFs, effects of linker ratio on thermal behavior of the corresponding ZIF have been investigated before, and it was shown that increasing the structural disorder, through inclusion of multiple ligands, causing static atomic displacement or distortion in orientation, resulted in lower melting temperature.^{13,21} Statistical models indicate that in mixed-linker ZIFs, different Zn²⁺linker coordination spheres have corresponding probabilities. These different zinc environments are both kinetically and thermodynamically driven: respective steric hindrances of individual linkers and preferred coordination of each linker to metal sites result in some metal center–linker interactions being more common. For instance, ZIF-62 crystals form with a propensity of Zn to be coordinated by Im over bIm linkers,²¹ possibly promoting regions of



FIG. 1. Crystal structure of (a) ZIF-4 $[Zn(Im)_2]$, (b) ZIF-ari $[Zn(Im)_2]$, (c) ZIF-62 $[Zn(Im)_{1.75}(bm)_{0.25}]$, and (d) ZIF-72 $[Zn(bm)_2]$. Brown, carbon; blue, nitrogen; pink, hydrogen; gray, zinc tetrahedra. Crystallographic data are taken from Refs. 12–14.

J. Chem. Phys. **153**, 204501 (2020); doi: 10.1063/5.0031941 © Author(s) 2020

scitation.org/journal/jcp

higher-than-average Im coordination. This suggests that homogeneous linker distribution (e.g., through controlling synthesis parameters such as time and temperature) is a crucial factor in tailoring the physical properties of mixed-linker ZIFs/MOFs.

In this study, we investigate the structural and thermal properties of two variants of ZIF-62, one produced in the lab and the other commercially, with different degrees of linker homogeneity. The structures of these samples are studied using x-ray diffraction (XRD), proton nuclear magnetic resonance (¹H NMR), and Raman spectroscopy. Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) and variable temperature/isothermal XRD (VT-XRD) measurements are used to identify the differences in thermal properties, origin of unexpected phases, and changes in the melting behavior of the materials. Important parameters affecting the synthesis processes of a mixed-linker material are addressed, and guidelines to control these issues are discussed.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We compare the structures of the two differently manufactured ZIF-62 samples, obtained via lab synthesis and from a commercial supplier, respectively (denoted as ZIF-62-synthesized and ZIF-62-commercial). Structural characterization was performed using XRD, ¹H NMR, and Raman spectroscopy, as shown in Figs. 2 and S1. Figure 2(a) compares the XRD patterns of samples of ZIF-62commercial, ZIF-62-synthesized, and ZIF-62-calculated using crystallographic data from the literature.¹³ The XRD patterns of both ZIF-62-synthesized and ZIF-62-commercial display good agreement with the calculated one, with only slight changes in the intensity of some reflections. Figure S2 illustrates the differences in XRD patterns between ZIF-62-synthesized, ZIF-62-commercial, and ZIF-62-calculated. Similarly, the Raman spectra in Fig. S1 are consistent with the previously reported literature and reveal the same features for both samples indicating identical chemical bonding environments. $^{15}\,$

In mixed-linker ZIFs or MOFs such as ZIF-62, acid-digested ¹H NMR spectroscopy provides useful information about the integrity of the linkers as well as linker stoichiometry present in the frame-As presented in Fig. 2(b), ¹H NMR spectra for the work. ZIF-62-commercial and ZIF-62-synthesized samples are wellmatched, confirming that the linkers are intact. Further analysis on the linker composition showed that the linker ratio, defined as bIm/(bIm + Im), deviates slightly from the canonical ZIF-62 linker ratio of 0.125 for both ZIF-62-synthesized (0.156) and ZIF-62-commercial (0.135) samples. Accordingly, linker compositions can be written as $Zn(Im)_{1.69}(bIm)_{0.31}$ and $Zn(Im)_{1.73}(bIm)_{0.27}$ for ZIF-62-synthesized and ZIF-62-commercial, respectively, and compared to the canonical composition, Zn(Im)1.75(bIm)0.25. This suggests that both ZIF-62-synthesized and ZIF-62-commercial samples possess similar chemical structures and have slightly more bIm in the structure, as has been reported extensively in the literature.

Frentzel-Beyme et al.¹³ demonstrated that the melting temperature of ZIF-62 can be tuned (~70 °C difference) by varying the Im:bIm ratio in $Zn(Im)_{2-x}(bIm)_x$, where x = 0.02-0.35. Motivated by this, we investigated the thermal properties of ZIF-62-synthesized and ZIF-62-commercial, starting with the ubiquitous technique of differential scanning calorimetry paired with thermo-gravimetric analysis (DSC-TGA). Figure 3 shows the calorimetric behavior of ZIF-62-commercial and ZIF-62-synthesized samples. According to Fig. 3(a), both ZIF-62-commercial and ZIF-62-synthesized samples show no mass loss upon heating to 600 °C, implying that there is no thermal decomposition prior to this temperature. On the other hand, DSC scans in Fig. 3(b) illustrate significant differences in temperature-driven enthalpic behavior. Although the scan for ZIF-62-synthesized shows the expected thermal response upon heating (an endotherm at ~400 °C, characteristic of ZIF-62 melting), that of ZIF-62-commercial contained a variety of complex



FIG. 2. Structural characterization of ZIF-62-synthesized and ZIF-62-commercial samples: (a) XRD patterns. The ZIF-62-calculated pattern was obtained using crystallographic data taken from Ref. 13. (b) ¹H NMR spectra. Peaks attributed to D₂O/solvent are marked with asterisks. Insets show the structures of Im (imidazolate) and blm (benzimidazolate) linkers of ZIF-62.

J. Chem. Phys. **153**, 204501 (2020); doi: 10.1063/5.0031941 © Author(s) 2020

The Journal of Chemical Physics

scitation.org/journal/jcp



FIG. 3. Thermal behavior of ZIF-62-synthesized and ZIF-62-commercial samples: (a) TGA scans performed under nitrogen; (b) DSC scans recorded at 10 °C min⁻¹; (c) VT-XRD measurement of ZIF-62-synthesized; (d) VT-XRD measurement of ZIF-62-commercial; colored regions represent phase transitions in the corresponding DSC scans.

features related to various phase transitions, which are different from any kind of thermal behavior that has been reported for ZIF-62 so far. 15,17,18,24

As noted above, this behavior could be attributed to differences in the linker ratio, originating from higher amounts of bIm in ZIF-62-synthesized compared to ZIF-62-commercial. However, ZIF-62 with higher-than-ideal bIm content has been investigated and showed almost identical enthalpic responses in DSC traces.^{13,25} Considering linker ratio deviation between ZIF-62-synthesized and ZIF-62-commercial, the expected melting temperature difference would be less than 10 °C.¹⁵ To uncover the unusual phase transitions found in our DSC measurements, we performed VT-XRD on both ZIF-62-synthesized and ZIF-62-commercial samples. The results are presented in Figs. 3(c) and 3(d), respectively. We focused on 2-theta values in the range of 8° -25° since most of the crystalline features occur in this range. VT-XRD on ZIF-62-synthesized [Fig. 3(c)] shows the expected loss of crystallinity upon melting starting at ~400 °C, as evidenced by the disappearance of sharp Bragg diffraction peaks and the appearance of broad amorphous scattering, in good agreement with DSC data.

In contrast, ZIF-62-commercial [Fig. 3(d)] first goes through a partial amorphization step around 300 °C (shown as a decrease in diffraction peaks particularly at higher 2-theta values in XRD and an endotherm in DSC), which is followed by the appearance and growth of new crystalline peaks starting at 400 °C (detectable in the DSC trace as an exothermic peak at almost the same temperature) and finally amorphization of the newly emerged crystalline phase (in agreement with the broad endotherm starting at 500 °C in DSC). Rather than full amorphization above 300 °C, the diminishing diffraction peaks (and retention of ZIF-62 peaks) may indicate that another phase which overlaps closely with the ZIF-62 diffraction peaks is amorphizing in this temperature range. We note that small differences between phase transition temperatures as measured by DSC and VT-XRD may arise due to the different atmospheres used: DSC was performed under nitrogen and VT-XRD under argon. To confirm the unexpected DSC scan of ZIF-62-commercial, the experiment was repeated, with consistent results (Fig. S3).

Diffraction patterns and corresponding sample micrographs representative for each selected temperature in the DSC and

J. Chem. Phys. **153**, 204501 (2020); doi: 10.1063/5.0031941 © Author(s) 2020

The Journal of Chemical Physics

ARTICLE

scitation.org/journal/jcp

VT-XRD of ZIF-62-commercial are illustrated in Fig. 4(a). As the temperature rises, the crystalline ZIF-62-commercial partially amorphizes and subsequently, a new crystalline phase, matching the XRD pattern of ZIF-zni, emerges. ZIF-zni, a dense zinc imidazolate framework, is a thermodynamically stable ZIF polymorph of ZIF-4, Zn(Im)2, with zni topology26 (ZIF-4 has cag topology and crystallizes in the Pbca space group like ZIF-62^{16,27}). To confirm the formation of ZIF-zni, several isothermal XRD measurements were performed (360 °C for 14 h, 430 °C for 7 h, and 500 °C for 5 h), and the morphologies of the resulting samples were studied using scanning electron microscopy (SEM). We note that different temperatures and times were chosen to allow for the separation and identification of morphological differences between phases as follows: both ZIF-62 and zni phases (360 °C for 14 h), only the zni phase (430 °C for 7 h), and fully amorphous (500 °C for 5 h). In isothermal XRD at 360 °C for 14 h, ZIF-62 and ZIF-zni crystal phases exist in the final XRD pattern, which can also be seen in corresponding SEM images, as small rounded ZIF-62 crystals appear along with the rod-shaped zni phase.²

When we examined the sample after the isothermal experiment at 430 $^{\circ}$ C for 7 h, we find that only the crystalline ZIF-zni phase remains, confirmed by the presence of only rod-shaped crystals (along with the substantial amorphous phase) in the SEM images. Finally, ZIF-zni becomes fully amorphous upon the isothermal run at 500 $^{\circ}$ C for 5 h; no crystals can be detected in its SEM images.

Previous reports showed that ZIF-zni can be formed via two routes: direct synthesis of ZIF-zni from its chemical precursors and recrystallization from amorphized isomeric $Zn(Im)_2$ while providing enough thermal energy to the system.^{39,30} Comparing the enthalpic behavior of ZIF-62-commercial sample with other ZIF structures, almost identical phase transformations that have been observed for ZIF-1, ZIF-3, and ZIF-4 are detected in the ZIF-62-commercial sample.³⁹ Crystallization of the zni phase was further examined via analyzing the integrated intensity of the most intense reflection in the temperature range where we observed crystallization in DSC and VT-XRD (2theta of 15°, ascribed to {400} and {112} reflections of the zni



FIG. 4. Formation of ZIF-zni phase upon heating ZIF-62-commercial. (a) XRD patterns obtained at different temperatures. ZIF-zni XRD was calculated using the crystallographic data from the literature.¹⁴ Isothermal XRD measurements along with SEM images obtained after isothermal XRD runs at: (b) 360 °C for 14 h, (c) 430 °C for 7 h, and (d) 500 °C for 5 h.

J. Chem. Phys. **153**, 204501 (2020); doi: 10.1063/5.0031941 © Author(s) 2020

scitation.org/journal/jcp

The Journal of Ch<u>emical Physics</u>

crystal structure). Figure S4 illustrates the growth of the **zni** phase with rising temperature (the intensity of the doublet at 2-theta = 15° almost doubles upon an increase of 60° C). This indicates that there are regions in the sample where sufficiently low amounts of bIm are present. Upon heating, these Im-rich pockets recrystallize to the **zni** phase.

Reaction time and temperature can significantly influence the formation of the final crystalline product. For example, starting with zinc nitrate tetrahydrate Zn(NO3)2 · 4H2O and imidazolate with slightly different stoichiometric ratios, different isomeric crystals can be synthesized such as ZIF-1 crb $[Zn(Im)_2 \cdot (Me_2NH)], ZIF-2 \ \textbf{crb} \ [Zn(Im)_2], ZIF-3 \ \textbf{dft} \ [Zn(Im)_2],$ ZIF-4 cag $[Zn(Im)_2 \cdot (DMF)(H_2O)]$, ZIF-6 gis $[Zn(Im)_2]$, and ZIF-10 mer [Zn(Im)2], which have the identical Zn(Im)2 formula but very different crystal structures.9 We note that N,N-dimethylformamide (DMF) was used as the solvent for the synthesis of isomer crystals except ZIF-3 in which a mixture of DMF and N-methylpyrrolidone (NMP) was used as the solvent. Calculated XRD patterns of these isomer crystals are shown in Fig. S5. It can be seen that the ZIF-4 XRD pattern is the closest to that of ZIF-62, which is explained by the fact that both crystallize in the Pbca space group with cag topology.

According to our DSC, VT-XRD, and calculated XRD patterns of Zn(Im)₂ isomer crystals, the *in situ* formation of ZIF-zni during heating can be attributed to the presence of Im-rich, ZIF-4-like regions in the ZIF-62-commercial sample. This is likely due to inhomogeneous coordination processes of the Im and bIm linkers to Zn^{2+} during the up-scaled commercial synthesis. To estimate the amount of the ZIF-4-like phase, enthalpy of crystallization for the **zni** phase from the crystallization peak in the DSC scan (Fig. S6) was calculated, obtaining a value of 11.67 J g⁻¹. The enthalpy of **zni** formation from pristine ZIF-4 has been reported at 50 J g^{-1,31} Based on the corresponding enthalpy of crystallization for **zni** in ZIF-62-commercial, an equivalent of ~23.3% of the ZIF-4-like phase is nominally present in the ZIF-62-commercial sample.

It has been shown previously that extending the synthesis time and increasing the synthesis temperature resulted in **zni** formation during the synthesis of ZIF-4.²⁶ To examine this effect in the commercial sample, SEM analysis was performed on as-received ZIF-62commercial and ZIF-62-synthesized samples, as presented in Fig. 5. As can be seen from Fig. 5(a), there is no **zni** phase (rod-shaped crystals) in the ZIF-62-synthesized sample, whereas in the ZIF-62commercial case, as seen in Fig. 5(b), a small number of rod-shaped **zni** crystals can be detected, which proves the formation of **zni** phase during ZIF-62-commercial synthesis. Corresponding meltquenched glasses of ZIF-62-commercial and ZIF-62-synthesized samples are illustrated in Fig. 5(c).

Quantification of the **zni** phase in ZIF-62-commercial using Rietveld refinement is presented in Fig. 6. Results revealed 1.8% of the **zni** phase in the ZIF-62-commercial sample (*see* the section titled "Materials and methods" for further details).

Accordingly, our results demonstrate that ZIF-zni and ZIF-4-like pockets were formed during ZIF-62-commercial synthesis. Moreover, as ZIF-62-commercial was heated, additional ZIF-zni is formed via recrystallization of amorphized ZIF-4-like pockets. In many cases, the presence of a small impurity, unwanted chemicals/phases, or phase separation can significantly influence the macroscopic properties of glasses. As illustrated in Fig. 5(c), meltquenched glasses formed from ZIF-62-synthesized and ZIF-62commercial are different, while the glass of the ZIF-62-synthesized sample is transparent (consistent with the literature), the glass of ZIF-62-commercial is completely opaque because of the presence of **zni** crystals. These macroscopic differences in these two



FIG. 5. Morphology of ZIF-62-synthesized and ZIF-62-commercial samples: (a) ZIF-62-synthesized and (b) ZIF-62-commercial, yellow arrows highlight rod-shaped zni crystals. (c) Melt-quenched glasses obtained from ZIF-62-synthesized and ZIF-62-commercial upon heating the powder samples to 450 °C with a ramp rate of 5 °C min⁻¹ and subsequent cooling to room temperature.

J. Chem. Phys. **153**, 204501 (2020); doi: 10.1063/5.0031941 © Author(s) 2020



scitation.org/journal/jcp





glasses would clearly hamper the use of such glasses in optical applications.

We hypothesize that, based on the evidence presented, the ZIF-62-commercial sample undergoes incongruent melting. This may be a result of inhomogeneous linker distribution during synthesis which manifests in dispersed ZIF-4-like regions in ZIF-62. In collapsible framework structures such as ZIF-62, allowing the synthesis reaction to reach its maximum entropy (complete mixing of Im and bIm linkers) is of great importance. However, providing too much energy helps the reaction to find the enthalpic minimum and form the thermodynamically stable state (ZIF-zni). To show the complex behavior of ZIF-62-commercial, a pseudo-phase diagram is illustrated in Fig. 7(a). Although many ZIFs, including those in this study, are metastable, precluding a proper equilibrium phase diagram, due to their deep energy well, we believe that such a pseudophase diagram is still a useful tool for understanding the melting behavior of these complex systems.

According to the pseudo-phase diagram in Fig. 7(a), we can hypothesize possible linker ratios that result in incongruent melting. Even though enthalpic behavior of the system can be controlled, inhomogeneities might occur because the reaction is also affected by kinetics. At any linker ratio of Im and bIm, Im-rich regions and bIm-rich regions can form, and incongruent melting may occur. Without reaching complete mixing, it is possible for the material to be composed of two or more compositional points on the pseudo-phase diagram (at constant T). The melting behavior of ZIF-62-synthesized shows that, it is clearly possible to avoid the pink "liquid + ZIF-zni" region entrely as was investigated by Frentzel-Beyme *et al.*¹³ (their experimental data points are included in the phase diagram). However, this is not achieved only by satisfying the proper linker ratio ([Im/bIm]): From NMR of ZIF-62-commercial, we expect that the material would not go through incongruent melting (X = 0.27). Instead, linker heterogeneity creates at least two different local Zn^{2+} -linker environments and constrains ZIF-62-commercial to go through two different paths upon heating, as illustrated by the two white composition points in the phase diagram. Figure 7(b) illustrates the behavior of ZIF-62-commercial linker distribution during synthesis, showing the early clustering of Im linkers. In Fig. 7(c), continued synthesis produces both canonical and Im-rich ZIF-62 phases, along with small amounts of ZIF-zni crystals. When such kind of ZIF-62 phases, and the final product is a melted, amorphous ZIF-62 phase with **zni** crystals, as shown in Fig. 7(d).

Moreover, in order for MOFs/ZIFs to perform as expected in gas storage, gas separation, and catalysis applications, the parent material must be sufficiently phase-pure to guarantee optimal performance.32,33 Specifically, in a glass derived from ZIF-62, the presence of a small amount of ZIF-zni can significantly influence the gas separation and catalytic performance since adsorption and diffusion of certain molecules will no longer be possible in dense zni regions, while it would be possible in the absence of such unfavorable phases.^{13,17} We note that both ZIF-62 and ZIF-zni crystal habits have been described previously in detail, and the morphological differences between them enabled us to detect the presence of zni in ZIF-62. Similarly, amorphization of ZIF-62 upon heating allowed clear discernment of ZIF-zni peaks in the XRD patterns at higher temperatures, corroborating the formation of ZIF-zni during commercial synthesis. However, in other systems, there may be different crystal phases with the same crystal habits, hindering easy phase identification, while contributing to unexpected behavior and performance in applications.

J. Chem. Phys. **153**, 204501 (2020); doi: 10.1063/5.0031941 © Author(s) 2020

The Journal of Chemical Physics

ARTICLE

scitation.org/journal/jcp





Furthermore, when identifying new meltable MOFs/ZIFs, the inhomogeneity of linker distribution and/or the presence of impurities or other crystalline phases can change the thermal properties substantially, impeding the accurate evaluation of thermal stability and melting windows. Given that thermal behavior is a deciding factor in application-driven MOF research and is arguably the most important factor in the discovery and characterization of novel amorphous MOFs, we believe that more effort should be spent on characterizing the linker distribution in mixed-linker ZIFs. Without proper consideration of linker heterogeneity, thermal characterization is only applicable to *that* singularly synthesized MOF and should not be generalized for all MOFs of that composition and topology. Although linker distribution analysis adds an extra step to investigations, it also brings attention to the fact that we now have an additional method to tune the physical MOF properties.

We can tentatively summarize the important characterization steps to confirm the homogeneity of a mixed-linker MOF/ZIF material after synthesis in terms of subsequent transformation into a glassy state. Typical structural characterization must be combined with in-depth thermal analysis. XRD, SEM, Raman/FTIR, and NMR spectroscopy can provide useful information about overall structural and linker integrity; at the first glance, this information may confirm that the material has the intended structure. However, the

J. Chem. Phys. **153**, 204501 (2020); doi: 10.1063/5.0031941 © Author(s) 2020 most important step is the evaluation of the thermal behavior: it probes the dynamics of the system revealing differently behaved inhomogeneities and phases. Only by combining DSC with VT-XRD (and SEM) were the different phase changes of the inhomogeneous regions apparent. The information presented in this work provides a roadmap to identify synthesis differences, which may occur in mixed-linker MOFs/ZIFs.

CONCLUSION

In summary, we investigated the structural heterogeneity and thermal properties of meltable variants of ZIF-62. Our results showed that in such mixed-linker MOFs/ZIFs, uneven distribution of linkers might cause formation of polymorphs, which can result in significant changes in thermal properties. This can cause a dramatic increase in melting temperature and/or change the macroscopic properties, which is of importance for accurate characterization and in further processing of materials such as glasses. Thermal characterization methods such as DSC and VT-XRD are of great importance in testing the integrity and characteristics of a mixedlinker MOF/ZIF product. From a practical standpoint, results presented here can provide a guideline for characterizing the success of
scitation.org/journal/jcp

scaling-up or large-scale production of ZIFs/MOFs. Yet, the striking differences in thermal behavior also stress the necessity of determining linker distribution in mixed-linker ZIFs and highlight that linker heterogeneity is an additional route to tune MOF physical properties.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials

ZIF-62-synthesized was prepared using the same procedure reported previously¹⁵ and compared to a commercial ZIF-62 material as-received from ACSYNAM. Both materials were heated at 170 °C under vacuum overnight prior to use.

X-ray diffraction

VT-XRD and isothermal XRD experiments were conducted using a Rigaku Smartlab diffractometer (Cu K_{α} x-ray source with a wavelength of 1.54059 Å) with a Hypix-3000 (horizontal configuration) in 1D scanning mode. The voltage and current of the x-ray tube were set to 40 kV and 50 mA, respectively. For both experiments, the general Bragg-Brentano geometry was used with a 10 mm length-limiting slit as the incident section, a 2.5° Soller slit with a K_β filter, and an anti-scattering slit in the receiving part. A powder sample (~40 mg) was placed in a corundum holder and installed on a HTK1200N (Anton Paar) heating stage. The vacuum stage was connected to the heating stage, and all the connections were sealed. The sample compartment was flushed two times using argon gas in the chamber and pulling vacuum afterward. A turbo-molecular pump (TMP) was used to evacuate the sample compartment. After the final evacuation step, a continuous argon flow of 50 ml min⁻¹ was used during the whole experiment. For VT-XRD, a temperature control loop was set using "constant up down measurement" mode. Target temperature and ramp rate were set to 600 °C and 5 °C min⁻¹, respectively. Diffraction patterns were collected in the 2θ range of $8^{\circ}-25^{\circ}$ with a step size of 0.03° and at a speed of 50° min⁻¹. Setting these conditions resulted in obtaining a diffraction pattern every 6 °C. Isothermal XRD experiments were conducted using the "constant up down measurement temperature loop" mode. Target temperatures and holding times were set to 360 °C, 430 °C, and 500 °C and 14 h, 7 h, and 5 h, respectively. Diffraction patterns were collected in the 20 range of $8^{\circ}\text{--}25^{\circ}$ with a step size of 0.03° and at a rate of 10° min⁻¹. The set ramp rate provided diffraction patterns every 6 min. XRD data presented in Fig. 2(a) were collected using a Rigaku MiniFlex diffractometer in the 2θ range of $5^{\circ}-40^{\circ}$ with a step size of 0.01°. Rietveld refinement was performed using GSAS-II software.³⁴ Instrumental parameters were extracted using LaB₆ as the reference.

Differential scanning calorimetry coupled with thermo-gravimetric analysis (DSC-TGA)

DSC-TGA analyses were performed using a Netzsch STA 449 F1 instrument. Approximately, 15 mg of each sample was placed in a platinum crucible and gently pressed by hand to ensure a good contact between the crucible and the powder sample. All the measurements were performed under 20 ml min⁻¹ nitrogen flow. First, the sample was heated to 120 $^{\circ}$ C with a ramp of 20 $^{\circ}$ C min⁻¹ and

J. Chem. Phys. **153**, 204501 (2020); doi: 10.1063/5.0031941 © Author(s) 2020 equilibrated for 4 h to remove any volatiles. Subsequently, it was heated to 600 $^{\circ}$ C with a ramp rate of 10 $^{\circ}$ C min⁻¹.

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

The morphology of samples after isothermal XRD runs and as-synthesized and as-received commercial samples were analyzed using a JSM-7001 F electron microscope (Jeol Ltd., Japan). Approximately, 10 mg of each sample was placed on the carbon tape pasted on an aluminum cell. Samples were coated with a thin layer of carbon prior to measurement. Working distance and voltage were set to 15 mm and 15 kV, respectively.

Raman spectroscopy

Raman spectra for powder samples were collected using Renishaw inVia Raman microscope at 20× magnification with an excitation wavelength of 785 nm. Samples were placed on a glass slide and flattened. Spectra were collected in the wavenumber range of 500 cm⁻¹–1600 cm⁻¹ with 50% laser power, acquisition time of 10 s, and one accumulation.

Nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy

 1 H NMR spectra were measured on a Bruker 300 MHz spectrometer. Approximately, 6 mg of each sample was digested in a mixture of DCl (20%)/D₂O (0.1 ml) and DMSO-d₆ (0.6 ml). Data analysis was performed in TopSpin software.

Glass samples

Approximately, 100 mg of ZIF-62-commercial and ZIF-62synthesized were pressed into pellets (1 cm diameter) with 0.7 tons for 1 min. Prepared pellets were transferred into a tube furnace (Carbolite), and the furnace was flushed with nitrogen gas for half an hour before heating to 450 °C at 5 °C min⁻¹ and holding for 10 min. After heating, the pellets were left to cool down to room temperature at the natural rate of cooling of the tube furnace. Both heating and cooling steps were done under a constant nitrogen flow.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

See the supplementary material for further structural and thermal characterizations.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work received funding from the European Research Council through ERC Grant No. 681652. T.D.B. acknowledges the Royal Society for a University Research Fellowship (No. UF150021) and the Leverhulme Trust for a Philip Leverhulme Prize. L.L. acknowledges an EPSRC studentship.

The authors declare that they have no competing financial interests, or other interests that might be perceived to influence the results and discussion reported in this paper.

ARTICLE

scitation.org/journal/jcp

DATA AVAILABILITY

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

REFERENCES

¹H. Furukawa, K. E. Cordova, M. O'Keeffe, and O. M. Yaghi, Science 341, 1230444 (2013).

²H.-C. Zhou, J. R. Long, and O. M. Yaghi, Chem. Rev. 112, 673 (2012).

³J.-R. Li, R. J. Kuppler, and H.-C. Zhou, Chem. Soc. Rev. 38, 1477 (2009).

⁴J. Lee, O. K. Farha, J. Roberts, K. A. Scheidt, S. T. Nguyen, and J. T. Hupp, Chem. Rev. 38, 1450 (2009).

⁵A. Ahmed, M. Forster, R. Clowes, P. Myers, and H. Zhang, Chem. Commun. 50, 14314 (2014).

⁶S. Wei, Y. Liu, J. Zheng, S. Huang, G. Chen, F. Zhu, J. Zheng, J. Xu, and G. Ouyang, Chem. Commun. 55, 7223 (2019).

T. D. Bennett and S. Horike, Nat. Rev. Mater. 3, 431 (2018).

⁸J. M. Tuffnell, C. W. Ashling, J. Hou, S. Li, L. Longley, M. L. Ríos Gómez, and T. D. Bennett, Chem. Commun. 55, 8705 (2019).

9K. S. Park, Z. Ni, A. P. Côté, J. Y. Choi, R. Huang, F. J. Uribe-Romo, H. K. Chae, M. O'Keeffe, and O. M. Yaghi, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 103, 10186

-Eur. J. 9, 5673 (2003).

¹²D. W. Lewis, A. R. Ruiz-Salvador, A. Gómez, L. M. Rodriguez-Albelo, F.-X. Coudert, B. Slater, A. K. Cheetham, and C. Mellot-Draznieks, CrystEngComm 11, 2272 (2009).

¹³L. Frentzel-Beyme, M. Kloß, P. Kolodzeiski, R. Pallach, and S. Henke, J. Am. em. Soc. 141, 12362 (2019).

¹⁴E. C. Spencer, R. J. Angel, N. L. Ross, B. E. Hanson, and J. A. K. Howard, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 131, 4022 (2009).

¹⁵ A. Qiao, T. D. Bennett, H. Tao, A. Krajnc, C. M. Doherty, A. W. Thornton, J. C. Mauro, G. N. Greaves, and Y. Yue, Sci. Adv. 4, eaao6827 (2018).

¹⁶H. F. Rahul Banerjee, A. Phan, B. Wang, C. Knobler, and O. M. Y. Michael O'Keeffe, Science 319, 939 (2008).

17 Y. Wang, H. Jin, Q. Ma, K. Mo, H. Mao, A. Feldhoff, and X. Cao, Angew. Chem., Int. Ed. 59, 4365 (2020).

¹⁸M. Stepniewska, M. B. Østergaard, C. Zhou, and Y. Yue, J. Non-Cryst. Solids 530, 119806 (2020).

19 M. F. Thorne, M. L. R. Gómez, A. M. Bumstead, S. Li, and T. D. Bennett, Green Chem. 22, 2505 (2020).

²⁰A. M. Bumstead, M. L. Ríos Gómez, M. F. Thorne, A. F. Sapnik, L. Longley, J. M. Tuffnell, D. S. Keeble, D. A. Keen, and T. D. Bennett, CrystEngComm 3627 (2020).

²¹M. L. Ríos Gómez, G. I. Lampronti, Y. Yang, J. C. Mauro, and T. D. Bennett, Dalton Trans. 49, 850 (2020).

22 L. Longley, S. M. Collins, C. Zhou, G. J. Smales, S. E. Norman, N. J. Brownbill, C. W. Ashling, P. A. Chater, R. Tovey, C. Schönlieb, T. F. Headen, N. J. Terrill, Y. Yue, A. J. Smith, F. Blanc, D. A. Keen, P. A. Midgley, and T. D. Bennett, Nat. n. 9, 2135 (2018).

²³A. M. Bumstead, M. F. Thorne, and T. D. Bennett, "Identifying the liquid and glassy states of coordination polymers and metal-organic frameworks," Faraday s. (published online).

24 T. D. Bennett, Y. Yue, P. Li, A. Qiao, H. Tao, N. G. Greaves, T. Richards, G. I. Lampronti, S. A. T. Redfern, F. Blanc, O. K. Farha, J. T. Hupp, A. K. Cheetham, and D. A. Keen, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 138, 3484 (2016).

25 R. S. K. Madsen, A. Qiao, J. Sen, I. Hung, K. Chen, Z. Gan, S. Sen, and Y. Yue, cience 367, 1473 (2020).

²⁶A. K. Cheetham, E. R. Barney, E. G. Bithell, M. T. Dove, A. K. Soper, J.-C. Tan, T. D. Bennett, D. A. Keen, A. L. Goodwin, and M. G. Tucker, Phys. Rev. Lett. 104, 115503 (2010).

²⁷T. D. Bennett, P. Simoncic, S. A. Moggach, F. Gozzo, P. MacChi, D. A. Keen, J.-C. Tan, and A. K. Cheetham, Chem. Commun. 47, 7983 (2011).

²⁸J. Zhang, A. Qiao, H. Tao, and Y. Yue, J. Non-Cryst. Solids 525, 119665

(2019). ²³T. D. Bennett, D. A. Keen, J.-C. Tan, E. R. Barney, A. L. Goodwin, and A. K. Cheetham, Angew. Chem. 123, 3123 (2011).

³⁰C. Zhou, M. Stepniewska, J. M. Sørensen, L. Scarpa, G. Magnacca, V. Boffa, 275 - 577 T. D. Bennett, and Y. Yue, Microporous Mesoporous Mater. 265, 57 (2018).

³¹J. Zhang, L. Longley, H. Liu, C. W. Ashling, P. A. Chater, K. A. Beyer, K. W. Chapman, H. Tao, D. A. Keen, T. D. Bennett, and Y. Yue, Chem. Commun. 55, 2521 (2019).

³²M. Zeeshan, V. Nozari, M. B. Yagci, T. Isık, U. Unal, V. Ortalan, S. Keskin, and A. Uzun, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 140, 10113 (2018).
 ³³ M. Hovestadt, S. Friebe, L. Helmich, M. Lange, J. Möllmer, R. Gläser, A. Mund-

stock, and M. Hartmann, Molecules 23, 889 (2018).

³⁴B. H. Toby and R. B. Von Dreele, J. Appl. Crystallogr. 46, 544 (2013).

J. Chem. Phys. 153, 204501 (2020); doi: 10.1063/5.0031941 C Author(s) 2020

Supplementary material

for

Structural Integrity, Meltability, and Variability of Thermal Properties in the Mixed-linker Zeolitic Imidazolate Framework ZIF-62

Vahid Nozari¹, Courtney Calahoo¹, Louis Longley², Thomas D. Bennett², Lothar Wondraczek^{1,3,*}

¹Otto Schott Institute of Materials Research, University of Jena, Jena, Germany ² Department of Materials Science and Metallurgy, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, United Kingdom ³Center of Energy and Environmental Chemistry, University of Jena, Jena, Germany



Figure S1. Raman spectra of ZIF-62-commercial and ZIF-62-synthesized. Asterisk in ZIF-62-synthesized represents a small band at 867 cm⁻¹ assigned to the solvent peak (DMF).¹



Figure S2. Differences in XRD patterns of ZIF-62-commercial, ZIF-62-synthesized, and ZIF-62-calculated.



Figure S3. Repeat of DSC scan of ZIF-62-commercial using the same method provided in methods section.



Figure S4. Area under the peak at 20 of 15° obtained from VT-XRD measurements. Amorphous humps in the XRD patterns were subtracted, and the area under the peak was calculated by fitting the peak using a Gaussian function in Fityk software.



Figure S5. XRD patterns of ZIF-62-commercial and calculated Zn(Im)₂ isomeric structures using crystallographic data from literature.²⁻⁴ Vertical lines compare position of ZIF-62-commercial patterns with its corresponding isomers.



Figure S6. Enthalpy of crystallization obtained for zni phase from the crystallization peak.

Reference:

¹ R.N. Widmer, G.I. Lampronti, N. Casati, S. Farsang, T.D. Bennett, and S.A.T. Redfern, Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys. **21**, 12389 (2019).

² L. Frentzel-Beyme, M. Kloß, P. Kolodzeiski, R. Pallach, and S. Henke, J. Am. Chem. Soc. **141**, 12362 (2019).

³ D.W. Lewis, A.R. Ruiz-Salvador, A. Gómez, L.M. Rodriguez-Albelo, F.X. Coudert, B. Slater, A.K. Cheetham, and C. Mellot-Draznieks, CrystEngComm **11**, 2272 (2009).

⁴ E.C. Spencer, R.J. Angel, N.L. Ross, B.E. Hanson, and J.A.K. Howard, J. Am. Chem. Soc. **131**, 4022 (2009).

2.2. Effect of IL on the glass formation of non-meltable MOFs

Extending possible applications and identifying new MOF glasses requires accessing the liquid state of these crystalline materials. Important melting constraints were identified as porosity and metal-ligand interactions.⁴⁹ To overcome such constraints, incorporation of ILs, and the resulting interactions between ILs and MOFs, is a possible approach. To investigate the effect of IL on the meltability of non-meltable MOFs, the first step is to infiltrate IL molecules inside the pores. Although stability of IL molecules in crystalline composites was studied before and it was shown that ILs were stable in the pores, the effect of amorphization on the stability of IL molecules in the collapsed pores is still unexplored.⁸⁸ Structural amorphization by mechanical ball-milling was investigated for MOFs where certain molecules were trapped, and the release kinetics was controlled thanks to amorphization.^{19,22} Here we used mechanical ball-milling to collapse the pores which were filled with a salt-IL (S-IL) mixture beforehand. Ionic conduction performance was used as a probe to examine the structure-property relationships of the amorphized composites. Presence of IL molecules in the pores was further evidenced by comparing the stability towards mechanical amorphization of pristine MOF versus its IL-incorporated counterpart.

In the next step, influence of IL incorporation on the thermal properties and meltability of a nonmeltable MOF is examined. Previous studies showed that melting temperatures can be altered via substitution of a different metal or organic linker. Moreover, network topology was identified as a parameter influencing the melting of ZIFs.⁸⁹ Here the challenging issue is that, in general, this approach can only be applied to decrease the melting temperature of meltable MOFs, since there is no defined protocol on choosing likely combination of metals and organic linkers which lead to melting. A relatively simple approach is desirable if it to be used as a general approach towards melting of non-meltable MOFs. In this work, IL incorporation was used as a simple post-synthesis approach to tune the thermal properties of a non-meltable MOF. The choice of IL composition is another advantageous property providing a wide variety of chemical functionalities which can be used to introduce functionalities or induce desired interactions.

By IL incorporation, ions are occupying the pore space resulting in substantial decreases in porosity.⁹⁰ Therefore, the first constraint which is steric hindrance, because of porosity, is resolved once the IL is incorporated inside pores. According to the melting mechanism described in previous

Sections, in non-meltable MOFs, dissociated linkers cannot easily re-form metal-linker bonds at other metal centers and this destabilizes the lattice leading to decomposition.³⁹ However, since the ILs are mostly liquid, they offer easier ion mobility in the pores and availability of interaction sites where charge stabilization is needed within the framework, so that the charge stabilization will be no longer a barrier.⁹¹ As discussed in the previous section, IL molecules were observed to interact with MOF structure. Experimental and theoretical studies investigated such interactions at room temperature and results showed that interactions are mostly electrostatic forces between IL ions and MOF constituents. However, a detailed study of interactions at high temperature was needed since the extent of such electrostatic interactions is expected to be different at elevated temperatures. The second constraint for melting can be overcome if stronger interactions at high temperatures weakens the intermolecular bonding energies within the MOF network. To study this possibility, in-depth characterization towards determination of interaction sites between IL ions and MOF structure in IL@MOF composites is investigated. The role of IL in thermal amorphization and melting of the MOF is determined, and interactions during the melting and after obtaining the melt-quenched glass are explained.

Sodium Ion Conductivity in Superionic IL-Impregnated Metal-Organic Frameworks: Enhancing Stability Through Structural Disorder

Nozari, V.; Calahoo, C.; Tuffnell, J. M.; Adelhelm, P.; Wondraczek, K.; Dutton, E.; Bennett, T. D.; Wondraczek, L. Sodium Ion Conductivity in Superionic IL-Impregnated Metal-Organic Frameworks : Enhancing Stability Through Structural Disorder. Sci. Rep. 2020, 10, 3532

Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) are intriguing host materials in composite electrolytes due to their ability for tailoring host-guest interactions by chemical tuning of the MOF backbone. Here, we introduce particularly high sodium ion conductivity into the zeolitic imidazolate framework ZIF-8 by impregnation with the sodium-salt-containing ionic liquid (IL) (Na_{0.1}EMIM_{0.9})TFSI. We demonstrate an ionic conductivity exceeding 2×10^{-4} S·cm⁻¹ at room temperature, with an activation energy as low as 0.26 eV, i.e., the highest reported performance for room temperature Na⁺-related ion conduction in MOF-based composite electrolytes to date. partial amorphization of the ZIF-backbone by ball-milling results in significant enhancement of the composite stability towards exposure to ambient conditions, up to 20 days. While the introduction of network disorder decelerates IL exudation and interactions with ambient contaminants, the ion conductivity is only marginally affected, decreasing with decreasing crystallinity but still maintaining superionic behavior. This highlights the general importance of 3D networks of interconnected pores for efficient ion conduction in MOF/IL blends, whereas pore symmetry is a less stringent condition.

Copyright © 2020, Nozari, V.; Calahoo, C.; Tuffnell, J. M.; Adelhelm, P.; Wondraczek, K.; Dutton, E.; Bennett, T. D.; Wondraczek, L. This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons CC BY license.

SCIENTIFIC REPORTS natureresearch

OPEN Sodium Ion Conductivity in Superionic IL-Impregnated Metal-Organic Frameworks: Enhancing Stability Through Structural Disorder

Vahid Nozari¹, Courtney Calahoo¹, Joshua M. Tuffnell^{2,3}, Philipp Adelhelm^{4,5}, Katrin Wondraczek⁶, Siân E. Dutton ³, Thomas D. Bennett³ & Lothar Wondraczek^{1,5*}

Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) are intriguing host materials in composite electrolytes due to their ability for tailoring host-guest interactions by chemical tuning of the MOF backbone. Here, we introduce particularly high sodium ion conductivity into the zeolitic imidazolate framework ZIF-8 by impregnation with the sodium-salt-containing ionic liquid (IL) (Na_{0.1}EMIM_{0.9})TFSI. We demonstrate an ionic conductivity exceeding $2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ S} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1}$ at room temperature, with an activation energy as low as 0.26 eV, *i.e.*, the highest reported performance for room temperature Na⁺-related ion conduction in MOF-based composite electrolytes to date. Partial amorphization of the ZIF-backbone by ball-milling results in significant enhancement of the composite stability towards exposure to ambient conditions, up to 20 days. While the introduction of network disorder decelerates IL exudation and interactions with ambient contaminants, the ion conductivity is only marginally affected, decreasing with decreasing crystallinity but still maintaining superionic behavior. This highlights the general importance of 3D networks of interconnected pores for efficient ion conduction in MOF/IL blends, whereas pore symmetry is a less stringent condition.

Crystalline metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) consist of metal nodes as coordination centers and organic linkers which self-assemble to form a three-dimensional network. Chemical tailoring of both the inorganic node and the organic linker enables property design for a wide range of applications such as gas storage, gas separation, catalysis and ion conduction^{1,2}. An alternative route to tune the properties of a given MOF is post-synthetic modification, for example, by applying pressure, temperature or other exogenous stimuli³. Depending on stimulus intensity, such post-treatment can lead to structural collapse and solid-state amorphization of the framework^{4–7}. The formation of amorphous MOFs through solid-solid transitions (or, similarly, through quenching of MOF-liquids) is of particular interest due to the distinct variations in chemical, mechanical and physical properties which can be obtained as a result of structural disorder⁸.

Amorphization of MOFs can be achieved via different techniques, including pressure-induced structural collapse, ball-milling, melt-quenching, hot-pressing, and re-melting⁸⁻¹⁰. Of these, ball-milling, or mechanosynthesis, which can also be used to synthesize crystalline MOFs, is the most universally applicable route. The low minimum shear moduli of MOFs have previously been shown to be responsible for facile collapse of systems such as UiO-66 ([Zr₆O₄(OH)₄(1,4-BDC)₆], BDC = benzenedicarboxylate)¹¹. Using calcein as a model drug incorporated into crystalline UiO-66, it was demonstrated that amorphization via ball-milling leads to delayed release of the guest molecule: the timescale of release was increased from ~2 days in the crystalline structure to one month in the amorphous composite as a result of structural collapse¹². Here, we investigate how structural collapse can also

¹Otto Schott Institute of Materials Research, University of Jena, Jena, Germany. ²Department of Materials Science and Metallurgy, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, United Kingdom. ³Cavendish Laboratory, Department of Physics, University of Cambridge, CB3 0HE, United Kingdom. ⁴Institute of Technical and Environmental Chemistry, University of Jena, Jena, Germany. ⁵Center of Energy and Environmental Chemistry, University of Jena, Jena, Germany. ⁶Leibniz Institute of Photonic Technologies, Jena, Germany. *email: lothar.wondraczek@uni-jena.de be used to enhance the stability of composite MOF materials, generated by impregnation of a crystalline MOF with an ionic liquid (IL).

Its are salts which are liquid at temperatures <100 °C. Similarly to MOFs, Its are chemically tunable through the choice of constituent cations and anions^{13,14}. They have recently been used for post-synthetic modification of MOF structures by infiltration of the crystalline pore-network^{15,16}. The resulting composites have been proposed for use in catalysis, gas separation or ion conduction¹⁵. Thus far, however, most such studies have been focused on proton and Li⁺ ion conduction. For instance, Fujie et al.¹⁷ studied ionic conduction in an IL (1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide, [EMIM][TFSI])- incorporated ZIF-8 composite. It was shown that the IL molecules inside of the ZIF-8 pores do not exhibit a phase transition at low temperature, implying that no freezing of the ionic liquid takes place. As a result, this nanoconfinement effect produced a higher ionic conductivity of the composite as compared to the bulk IL at low temperature. Following-up on this work, the same authors investigated lithium ion diffusion in ZIF-8 mediated by an IL-salt mixture of [EMIM] [TFSI] and LiTFSI¹⁸. They reported that Li⁺ diffuses through micropores via the exchange of the solvating TFSI⁻ anions similar to the Grotthuss mechanism in proton conductivity^{19,20}. Very recently, Yoshida *et al.*²⁰. studied ionic conduction in a mesoporous MOF, PCN-777, [Zr₆O₄(OH)₁₀(H₂O)₆(TATB)₂] (H₃TATB: 4,4,4-striazine-2,4,6-triyl-tribenzoic acid), impregnated with [EMI][N(CN)2]. The hybrid showed an ion conductivity of 4.4×10^{-3} S·cm⁻¹ at room temperature with an activation energy of 0.20 eV. The authors showed that superionic conduction in the composite was due to the formation of a bulk-like IL region within the mesopores. On a broader perspective, the strategy of using composite structures for tuning electrical and mechanical properties of electrolytes is followed in different research fields. Solid/liquid composites such as the soggy-sand concept²¹, gel electrolytes²², solid/solid composites (e.g. an inorganic fillers dispersed in a polymer matrix²³, bicontinuous structures²⁴, inorganic/inorganic composites²⁵ and glass ceramics^{26,27}) are important examples – with MOF-based materials being a new contender.

Further reports on Li⁺ ion conductivity in MOF structures include the work of Wang *et al.*²⁸, who synthesized a composite by incorporating [EMIM_{0.8}Li_{0.2}][TFSI] into MOF-525 (Cu). The composite showed ionic conductivity of 3.0×10^{-4} S·cm⁻¹ at room temperature, with a Li transference number of 0.36, *i.e.*, higher than the pure IL. Whilst this approach relies on the non-MOF component to introduce lithium ions for conduction, the open metal sites in certain MOF frameworks have also been utilized via post-synthetic modification. By grafting the anionic component of a lithium salt directly onto an unsaturated metal center, the lithium ion is free to conduct. For example, LiOtBu-grafted UiO-66 exhibits room temperature ionic conductivities of 1.8×10^{-5} S·cm⁻¹ and an activation energy of $0.18 \, eV^{29}$, and LiClO₄ (in propylene carbonate) grafted onto HKUST-1 showed a room temperature ionic conductivity of $0.38 \,$ mS·cm⁻¹ and an activation energy of $0.18 \, eV^{30}$.

Lithium-ion conduction has been investigated extensively for its importance in electrochemical energy storage³¹. However, uneven distribution on Earth (coupled with the changing geopolitical climate) and increasing demand for lithium in electronic devices, electric vehicles and grid storage, have created concerns for the future of rechargeable lithium ion batteries³². As an alternative, electrochemical energy storage systems based on sodium are also considered, although at present with a still much smaller variety of generally suitable material candidates³³. There have been some early studies regarding Na⁺-related ion conduction in MOFs. Cepeda *et al.*³⁴. explored Li⁺ and Na⁺ conduction in {[ScM(μ_4 -pmdc)₂(H₂O)₂]-solv)_n [EHU1(Sc,M)] (where M = Li, Na; pmdc = pyrimidine-4,6-dicarboxylate; solv = corresponding solvent). The corresponding Li⁺ and Na⁺ conductivity was 3.8×10^{-7} s cm⁻¹, respectively. Recently, Na⁺-ion conductivity of 1.8×10^{-5} S ccm⁻¹ at room temperature³⁵. One of the issues impeding the application of such electrolytes in real-world devices is the lack of stability outside of inert atmospheres³⁶. Here, we speculate that this problem can be addressed by hindering the interactions of secondary guest molecules (*i.e.*, originating from the surrounding atmosphere) with the composite by amorphizing the MOF framework and, thus, trapping the IL molecules inside the pores of the amorphous system; however with consideration of a possible trade-off with performance.

Starting from the above hypothesis, we address the two major subjects of achieving enhanced ion conductivity and, at the same time, enhanced stability by IL infiltration of a MOF and subsequent amorphization so as to obtain a highly conductive amorphous composite. For this, we started with incorporating an imidazolium-based IL, 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide, [EMIM][TFSI], containing its corresponding sodium salt [Na][TFSI] into crystalline ZIF-8. This composite (S-IL@ZIF-8) was demonstrated to exhibit superionic properties. Subsequent partial amorphization of the composite using ball-milling lead to significantly enhanced stability under an ambient atmosphere as compared to the crystalline counterpart.

Results and Discussion

Crystallinities and morphologies of the pristine ZIF-8 and S-IL@ZIF-8 composites were investigated using XRD and SEM (Figs. 1a and S1). The small variations in peak intensities between the pristine ZIF-8 and ZIF-8 after S-IL incorporation are attributed to confinement of S-IL in the ZIF-8 pores, as has previously been shown in the literature¹⁸. SEM images confirm that the morphology of the ZIF-8 rystals remains intact after S-IL incorporation (Fig. S1), with FTIR spectra confirming the presence of the S-IL within the composite (Fig. 1c). We find that some vibrational features in S-IL were shifted to higher frequency upon incorporation into ZIF-8; peaks located at 610, 1052, 1165, 1177, and 1347 cm⁻¹ which are assigned to SO₂ antisymmetric bending, SNS antisymmetric stretching, (N)CH₂ and (N)CH₃CN stretching, CF₃ antisymmetric stretching, and SO₂ antisymmetric stretching are shifted to 616, 1058, 1177, 1199, and 1351 cm⁻¹, respectively³⁷. As shown in previous studies reporting on incorporation of different ILs in MOFs³⁸⁻⁴², these distinct shifts in peak positions confirm the successful confinement of S-IL mixture inside ZIF-8.

Both BET surface area and pore volume (Fig. S2 and Table S1) of ZIF-8 decreased significantly after S-IL confinement (from 1297.3 $m^2 g^{-1}$ and 0.641 cc STP g^{-1} respectively in ZIF-8, to 7.29 $m^2 g^{-1}$ and 0.006 cc STP g^{-1}



Figure 1. (a) XRD patterns of the pristine ZIF-8, S-IL@ZIF-8 composite, and S-IL@ZIF-8 composites ballmilled for fifteen and thirty minutes, respectively. Inset show highlighted regions of XRD spectra for a_m (S-IL@ ZIF-8)-15 mins and a_m (S-IL@ZIF-8)-30 mins samples. (b) Quantification of crystallinity and amorphous fractions as a function of ball-milling time using Rietveld-refinement. Square and triangle symbols represent S-IL@ZIF-8 composite and pristine ZIF-8, respectively. (c) FTIR spectra of pristine ZIF-8, S-IL mixture and S-IL@ZIF-8 composite. The spectral resolution is 2 cm⁻¹. Shifted peaks in S-IL@ZIF-8 compared to S-IL mixture spectra are highlighted in different colors. Peak deconvolution was performed using a Voigt function in Fityk software⁵⁹.

respectively in S-IL@ZIF-8), indicating that the S-IL solution occupies the pores in ZIF-8^{43,44}. Since the thermal stability limit of such composites determines the potential application of the electrolytes in the desired operation conditions, thermogravimetric analysis was conducted and the corresponding decomposition temperatures were measured (Fig. S3a and Table S2). According to the onset temperatures of decomposition, the S-IL@ZIF-8 composite starts decomposing at a lower temperature (388 °C) compared to bulk S-IL (423 °C). This is a small decrease, and the high thermal stability of the composite remains suitable for applications in electrochemical energy storage devices. In good agreement with the IR peak shifts, the lower decomposition temperature for S-IL@MOF is attributed to the immobilizing interaction between IL molecules and the MOF framework^{44,45}. Consistent with this result, DSC profiles (Fig. S3b) contain no evidence of any phase transition occurring in the S-IL@ZIF-8 composite up to the decomposition temperature (388 °C). The DSC signal at temperatures above 400 °C is attributed to thermal decomposition of the samples.

Using alternating current (AC) electrical impedance spectroscopy, the ionic conductivity of the S-IL@ZIF-8 composite was investigated using the thermal sweep protocol depicted in Fig. 2a (*see* also Methods section). The obtained Nyquist plots for the S-IL@ZIF-8 composite show the typical behavior expected for ionic conductors: a semicircle arched upwards at higher frequency and a tail in the low frequency region (Fig. 2b–e)^{34,66,47}. The error bars in Nyquist plots according to instrument accuracy are depicted for each frequency point in Fig. S4. Ionic resistance values were extracted from the data by taking the intersection between the semicircle and the tail, as reported previously³⁰. We found the difference between the typical method for calculating the resistance, fitting the semicircle with a circle function, to differ from taking the intersection by less than four precent.

For solid state electrolyte applications, the importance of sample stability over multiple thermal sweeps and repetitive measurements is paramount. Ionic conductivities of each heating and cooling cycle are very similar, with only a slight increase in conductivity observed upon first heating cycle. This may be attributed to the thermal relaxation of the composite in pellet form during the first heating cycle. The second heating and cooling cycles overlap completely. Nyquist plots of the three isothermal consecutive measurements at each temperature step (Fig. 2b–e) and the corresponding Arrhenius plots (Fig. 3a) of the heating and cooling cycles validate that there is no hysteresis and the composite is stable upon heating and cooling cycles with multiple measurements at each step.

From the slope of the Arrhenius plots we derived activation energies for each cycle. The activation energy for the first heating cycle is slightly higher than that of the other cycles, most likely originating from thermal relaxation effects. The average value of the activation energy for the S-IL@ZIF-8 composite is 0.26 eV, which is among the lowest values observed for MOF-based ionic conductors^{34,35,46}. Together with the ZIF-8 pore aperture $(\sim 3.4 \text{ Å})^{48}$, the observed value of activation energy suggests that Na⁺ ions are conducting through micropores similar to a Grotthuss mechanism by exchanging the solvating TFSI⁻ anions (we note that coordination environment in the bulk S-IL is $[Na(TFSI)_3]^{2-})^{49}$. Similar observations have been made previously on Li⁺ migration in ZIF-8¹⁸. The composite exhibits an ionic conductivity of $\sim 2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ S} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1}$ at room temperature. To the best of our knowledge, this is the highest reported value in the literature for Na⁺-related ion conduction in MOF-based composite electrolytes so far^{34,35}. Such low activation energy and high conductivity classify the composite as a superionic conductor⁵⁰.

An independent high temperature thermal sweep impedance measurement was carried out in a separate laboratory (in University of Cambridge) within the temperature range of 25 °C to 125 °C with 20 °C increments (Fig. S5). Very good reproducibility was observed for the activation energy value (0.26 eV).



Figure 2. Thermal sweep AC impedance measurements of S-IL@ZIF-8 composite. (a) Temperatureprogrammed thermal sweep protocol for impedance measurements of S-IL@ZIF-8 composite. Purple diamonds with lower half filled indicate the isothermal, three fifteen-minutes spaced runs at each equilibrated temperature step. (b-e) Nyquist plots of each heating and cooling cycle, where the blue to red transition indicates increasing the temperature from 25 °C to 85 °C with 10 °C increments. At each temperature step, the first, second and third run is indicated with square, circle and triangle symbols, respectively. The error bars are too small to be seen in this scale; corresponding error bars are shown in Fig. S4 at different scaling. Insets in Fig. 2b-e show semicircles above 55 °C. The solid lines are a guide for the eye.

The instability of composites or other types of electrolytes in humidity or ambient air is a challenging issue, as it places a limit on the applicability outside of inert atmospheres. Here, we address this subject by partially amorphizing the MOF framework via ball-milling of the crystalline S-IL@ZIF-8 composite. In doing so, we aim for enhanced material stability while maintaining the ionic conducting performance7,51-54. Ball-milling was performed on separate batches of S-IL@ZIF-8 composites under an inert atmosphere for fifteen to ninety minutes. However, as a result of gradually reducing pore volume, the IL was partially expelled from the composite upon ball-milling for 60 and 90 minutes, thus, we focus only on the partially amorphized samples of a_m (S-IL@ZIF-8)-15 mins and a_m(S-IL@ZIF-8)-30 mins. During ball-milling, the particle size was observed to decrease (Fig. S1). Most notably, crystallinity was observed to decrease to 29% and 54% (see Methods section) for a_m(S-IL@ZIF-8)-30 mins and a_m(S-IL@ZIF-8)-15 mins, respectively (Figs. 1, S1), differentiated from the effect of particle size by the progressive rise in diffuse scattering observed in the inset of Fig. 1a. Full amorphization of pristine ZIF-8 occurred after 60 and 90 min of ball milling (Fig. 1b). Corresponding SEM micrographs of the amorphized ZIF-8 samples (a_m(ZIF-8)-60 mins and a_m(ZIF-8)-90 mins) are provided in Fig. S11. XRD patterns in Fig. S6 compare the stability of pristine ZIF-8 and the S-IL@ZIF-8 composite towards ball-milling: the observed differences between the collapse time of S-IL@ZIF-8 and that of pristine ZIF-8 reported previously are ascribed to the presence of a liquid medium within the MOF pores during ball-milling, which enhances the resistance to structural

SCIENTIFIC REPORTS | (2020) 10:3532 | https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-60198-w





collapse by ball-milling^{7,55}. We can conclude that the presence of IL molecules increases the mechanical stability of pristine ZIF-8.

⁶FTIR spectra of a_m (S-IL@ZIF-8)-15 mins and a_m (S-IL@ZIF-8)-30 mins (Fig. S7) confirm that the samples retained their chemical integrity and that, at the same time, the S-IL solution remained inside of the pores upon ball-milling. Corresponding TGA scans revealed similar thermal decomposition as with the crystalline composites. BET surface area and pore volume (Fig. S2 and Table S1) of the a_m (S-IL@ZIF-8)-15 mins and a_m (S-IL@ZIF-8)-30 mins were significantly decreased as compared to those of pristine ZIF-8, which is consistent with a previous study on ball-milling of ZIF-8⁷. We note that the BET surface area of the a_m (S-IL@ZIF-8)-30 min sample

slightly exceeds that of a_m (S-IL@ZIF-8)-15 min; this may originate from the smaller particle size in the a_m (S-IL@ZIF-8)-30 min sample (see Fig. S1).

The results of AC impedance measurements conducted under inert atmosphere on partially amorphized samples are summarized in Fig. 3b. The partially amorphized samples exhibit a somewhat lower ionic conductivity of 2.97 × 10⁻⁵ S cm⁻¹ and 1.26 × 10⁻⁵ S cm⁻¹ for a_m(S-IL@ZIF-8)-15 mins and a_m(S-IL@ZIF-8)-30 mins, respectively, as compared to the crystalline composites (2 × 10⁻⁴ S cm⁻¹) at room temperature (Fig. 3b). Also, the activation energy increases slightly from 0.26 eV for S-IL@ZIF-8 to 0.28 and 0.30 eV for a_m(S-IL@ZIF-8)-15 mins and a_m(S-IL@ZIF-8)-30 mins, respectively. Both observations indicate that amorphization exerts a disrupting effect on the interconnected conduction channels within the MOF framework.

For evaluating the stability of crystalline S-IL@ZIF-8 in comparison to a_m(S-IL@ZIF-8)-30 mins, we monitored the ion conductivity by re-measuring after exposure to ambient air (T = 20 °C, humidity ~45%) for different periods of time (i.e., from 2-20 days). The corresponding Arrhenius plots are presented in Fig. S8, demonstrating the effects of exposure: conductivities for both crystalline and amorphized samples decrease relative to the values of samples which were kept under inert conditions. For the crystalline composite, this decrease appears significant already after two days of exposure, where the conductivity was found to decrease by about 8%, and further by ~20% after 20 days of exposure when measured at 85 °C. The relative change in ionic conductivity is plotted in Fig. 3c after normalizing the difference between ambient and inert atmosphere storage. For the partially amorphized sample under identical storage conditions, the decrease is only 6% after 20 days (when measured at 85 °C). When re-measured at room temperature (25 °C), the decrease in conductivity is more substantial for the crystalline sample (up to one third after 20 days of storage), while the partially amorphized sample shows only 15% decrease even after 20 days of storage. Moreover, the change in activation energies are more significant in crystalline composite compared to the partially amorphous one. For example, in the crystalline composite, the activation energy increases from 0.26 eV to 0.38 eV and 0.4 eV after two and six days of exposure, respectively, whereas the activation energy in the partially amorphous composite remained unchanged after two days and increased slightly to 0.28 eV after six days of exposure (the notable temperature dependence of degradation indicates a certain amount of recovery when re-drying the material). Clearly, partial MOF amorphization provides a powerful tool for enhancing the stability of conduction processes in IL@MOF composites. At the moment, we do not have definite answer as to the mechanism of this effect. However, we infer that amorphization impedes the interaction of guest molecules with the composite which in turn enhances long-term stability.

Conclusion

In summary, we report on a promising composite electrolyte via encapsulation of an IL into a crystalline MOF (ZIF-8), showing very high sodium ion conduction with low activation energy. We investigated the effect of structural amorphization on the ionic conductivity of this emerging class of collapsed MOF composites. Partially amorphized MOFs exhibit notably enhanced stability in terms of persistence of high ionic conductivity under ambient conditions as compared to their crystalline counterparts. This provides a novel tool for tailoring the functionality of MOF composites by generating structural disorder; in particular, a major shortcoming of many MOF-based materials can be addressed in this way while keeping the advantages of functionalization. This 'best of both worlds' situation expands the possible applications for MOFs in which crystalline composites may have serious drawbacks.

Methods

Preparation of S-IL (a) **ZIF-8 composites.** The IL, 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl) imide, [EMIM][TFSI] (>99%) and its corresponding sodium salt, sodium bis (trifluoromethylsulfonyl) imide, [Na][TFSI] (9.5%), were purchased from IoLiTec and Solvionic, respectively, and used as received. Water contents of the IL and salt were measured using Karl-Fischer titration and found to be less than 20 ppm. ZIF-8 was purchased from ACSYNAM Inc. All the compounds were stored inside an Ar-filled glovebox upon arrival, with O₂ and H₂O levels of less than 0.1 ppm. Because of the viscosity increase upon dissolving more salt in the IL, salt-IL (S-IL) solutions were prepared by dissolving 10 mol% of salt in its corresponding IL. The mixture was stirred overnight at 70 °C to obtain a fully dissolved and clear S-IL solution (with three TFSI⁻ coordinated to each Na⁺ in the S-IL system)⁴⁹. ZIF-8 was evacuated at 125 °C under vacuum overnight prior to use in order to remove moisture and other impurities. The S-IL(a)ZIF-8 composite loaded with 35 wt% S-IL solution (*i.e.*, the maximum loading to obtain the composite in powder form) with ionic conductivity of 6×10^{-3} S cm⁻¹ at 25 °C was prepared using the capillary action method^{49,56}. The theoretical volume occupancy of S-IL from S-IL density (1.54 g cm⁻³)⁴⁹ and ZIF-8 pore volume (0.64 cm³ g⁻¹) was 55%. Based on the number of supercages per mol of ZIF-8 (1.0 $\times 10^{23}$ cages mol⁻¹)⁴⁴, the number of S-IL is each cage was calculated to be 1.89 on average. The S-IL solution was added dropwise into ZIF-8 and mixed thoroughly using mortar and pestle to obtain homogeneous powder samples. This procedure was repeated for several times until the whole S-IL mixture was added to ZIF-8 pores, the as-prepared composite took around one hour. To enhance the diffusion of S-IL solution into ZIF-8 pores, the as-prepared composite took around one hour. To enhance the diffusion of S-IL avoitin method was prepared using the capillary 80°C overnigh

X-ray diffraction (XRD). X-ray diffractograms were collected using a Rigaku SmartLab diffractometer (Cu K_{α} X-ray source with wavelength of 1.54059 Å) with a HyPix-3000 (horizontal configuration) detector in 1D scanning mode. The voltage and current of the X-ray tube were set to 40 kV and 50 mA, respectively. General Bragg-Brentano geometry was employed with a 10 mm length-limiting slit at incident section and a 2.5° Soller slit with a K_{β} filter in receiving part. The diffraction patterns were obtained in the 2 Θ range of 5 to 50° with step size of 0.01° at a rate of 10° min⁻¹. Rietveld- refinement⁵⁷ was performed to quantify the crystalline and amorphous

SCIENTIFIC REPORTS | (2020) 10:3532 | https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-60198-w

phases in ball-milled samples, using the MAUD $^{\rm 58}$ software package. The ${\rm LaB}_6$ diffractogram was selected for reference.

Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA). A Netzsch STA 449 F1 instrument was used for TGA and differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) analysis. Approximately 10 mg of each sample were placed in a platinum crucible; measurements were performed under 20 ml·min⁻¹ nitrogen flow. First, the samples were heated up to 120 °C with a ramp of 20 °C min⁻¹ and equilibrated for eight hours to remove any volatiles. Subsequently, the samples were heated up to 700 °C at a rate of 10 °C min⁻¹.

Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy. FTIR spectra were collected for the pristine ZIF-8, [EMIM][TFSI], [Na][TFSI], as well as the crystalline and amorphized S-IL@ZIF-8 composites using a Thermo Scientific Nicolet iS10 model FTIR spectrometer equipped with an attenuated total reflection mode. Background (64 scans) and sample (128 scans) spectra were measured with a resolution of 2 cm⁻¹. The Fityk software was used to evaluate the collected spectra[®].

Brunauer-emmet-teller (BET) analysis. An Autosorb iQ instrument from Quantachrome Instruments was used for BET surface area and pore volume analysis. N₂ adsorption at 77 K was carried-out to quantify the BET surface area of the samples. Around 50 mg of each sample were loaded into a 9 mm diameter cell inside a glovebox, sealed from atmosphere and installed on to the instrument. Prior to measurement, the samples were outgassed for 20 h under high vacuum (10⁻⁸ mbar) at 125 °C to remove any kind of impurities from the sample.

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM). The morphology of the pristine ZIF-8 as well as of the crystalline and amorphous S-IL@ZIF-8 composites was analyzed using a JSM-7001F microscope (Jeol Ltd, Japan). Approximately 10 mg of each sample were placed on a carbon tape pasted on a cell. The working distance for all samples was set to 15 mm. Samples were coated with a thin layer of carbon before measurements.

Ball-milling amorphization. Amorphization of the S-IL@ZIF-8 composite was performed using a Retsch PM 100 planetary ball mill. For each ball-milling run, around 1000 mg of sample with forty grinding balls of 5 mm in diameter were placed in a 50 ml jar. The jar and grinding balls were stored in the glovebox one day prior to tests, then, the samples were loaded and sealed using clamps inside the glovebox. The instrument was set to 650 rpm with one-minute intervals during the 15, 30, 60 and 90 minutes of runs. After milling, amorphized samples were recovered inside the glovebox and stored in sealed containers. The corresponding samples were referred to as a_m(S-IL@ZIF-8)-15 mins and a_m(S-IL@ZIF-8)-30 mins, respectively.

lonic conductivity measurements. A Novocontrol Alpha-A Analyzer was used to carry-out AC impedance measurements in the frequency range of 10^{-1} to 10^{7} Hz⁶⁰. Approximately 450 mg of powder sample were pressed into a pellet of 1.4 mm thickness and 20 mm in diameter by applying 3 tons of pressure load for one minute inside an Ar-filled glovebox. The pellet was placed and sealed in a BDS 1308 sample holder with gold-plated electrodes (Novocontrol Technologies). Thermal sweep tests were performed for two heating and cooling cycles between 25 °C and 85 °C with 10 °C increments and isothermal dwell times, see Fig. 2a. To ensure thermal equilibration within the sample and instrument chamber prior to any measurement, each temperature change was followed by an isothermal hold period with a duration of thirty minutes in case of heating and ninety minutes in case of cooling. At each equilibrated temperature step three consecutive runs of impedance measurement were performed with a fifteen-minute interval between each run. Air-stability tests were performed in the same way after exposure of the crystalline and amorphized samples to ambient atmosphere for two, six and twenty days. Ionic conductivities were determined using the following equation, which considers all of the mobile ionic species.

$$\sigma = \left(\frac{1}{R_{DC}}\right) \left(\frac{l}{A}\right)$$

where $R_{\rm DC}$ was calculated at the intersection point between the high frequency semi-circle and the low frequency tail in *Nyquist* plots $(-Z'' \text{ vs. } Z')^{30}$. *l/A* is the geometric ratio between sample thickness *l* and electrode area *A*. The activation energy E_A was determined from the Arrhenius plot of log (σT) versus (1/T) accordingly:

$$\sigma T = \sigma_0 exp \bigg(\frac{E_{\rm A}}{k_{\rm B}T} \bigg)$$

where $k_{\rm B}$ is Boltzmann's constant⁶⁰.

Received: 27 September 2019; Accepted: 4 February 2020; Published online: 26 February 2020

References

- 1. Zhou, H.-C., Long, J. R. & Yaghi, O. M. Introduction to Metal–Organic Frameworks. Chem. Rev. 112, 673–674 (2012).
- Furukawa, H., Cordova, K. E., O'Keeffe, M. & Yaghi, O. M. The chemistry and applications of metal-organic frameworks. Science. 341, 123044 (2013).
- 3. Wang, Z. & Cohen, S. M. Postsynthetic modification of metal-organic frameworks. Chem. Soc. Rev. 38, 1315–1329 (2009).
- Cheetham, A. K. et al. Structure and Properties of an Amorphous Metal-Organic Framework. Phys. Rev. Lett. 104, 115503 (2010).
 Dodson, R. A., Wong-Foy, A. G. & Matzger, A. J. The Metal-Organic Framework Collapse Continuum: Insights from Two-Dimensional Powder X-ray Diffraction. Chem. Mater. 30, 6559–6565 (2018).

SCIENTIFIC REPORTS | (2020) 10:3532 | https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-60198-w

- 6. Chapman, K. W., Halder, G. J. & Chupas, P. J. Pressure-induced amorphization and porosity modification in a metal-organic framework. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 131, 17546-17547 (2009).
- 7. Cao, S., Bennett, T. D., Keen, D. A., Goodwin, A. L. & Cheetham, A. K. Amorphization of the prototypical zeolitic imidazolate framework ZIF-8 by ball-milling. Chem. Commun. 48, 7805–7807 (2012).
- Tuffnell, J. M. et al. Novel Metal—Organic Framework Materials: Blends, Liquids, Glasses and Crystal-Glass Composites. Chem. Commun. 55, 8705–8715 (2019).
- 9. Katsenis, A. D. et al. In situ X-ray diffraction monitoring of a mechanochemical reaction reveals a unique topology metal-organic framework. Nat. Commun. 6, 1-8 (2015)
- 10. Bennett, T. D. & Horike, S. Liquid, glass and amorphous solid states of coordination polymers and metal-organic frameworks. Nat. Rev. Mater. 3, 431-440 (2018). 11. Bennett, T. D. et al. Connecting defects and amorphization in UiO-66 and MIL-140 metal-organic frameworks: A combined
- experimental and computational study. *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.* 18, 2192–2201 (2016).
 Orellana-Tavra, C. *et al.* Amorphous metal-organic frameworks for drug delivery. *Chem. Commu*
- n. 51, 13878-13881 (2015)
- Greaves, T. L. & Drummond, C. J. Protic ionic liquids: Properties and applications. Chem. Rev. 108, 206–237 (2008).
 Welton, T. Room-Temperature Ionic Liquids. Solvents for Synthesis and Catalysis. 99, 2071–2083 (1999).
- Kinik, F. P., Uzun, A. & Keskin, S. Ionic Liquid/Metal-Organic Framework Composites: From Synthesis to Applications. ChemSusChem 10, 2842–2863 (2017).
- Fujie, K. & Kitagawa, H. Ionic liquid transported into metal-organic frameworks. Coord. Chem. Rev. 307, 382–390 (2015).
 Fujie, K., Otsubo, K., Ikeda, R., Yamada, T. & Kitagawa, H. Low temperature ionic conductor: Ionic liquid incorporated within a
- metal-organic framework. *Chem. Sci.* **6**, 4306–4310 (2015). 18. Fujie, K., Ikeda, R., Otsubo, K., Yamada, T. & Kitagawa, H. Lithium Ion Diffusion in a Metal-Organic Framework Mediated by an
- Ionic Liquid. Chem. Mater. 27, 7355-7361 (2015).
- 19. Horike, S. et al. Order-to-disorder structural transformation of a coordination polymer and its influence on proton conduction. Chem. Commun. 50, 10241-10243 (2014).
- Yoshida, Y., Fujie, K., Lim, D.-W., Ikeda, R. & Kitagawa, H. Superionic Conduction over a Wide Temperature Range in a Metal-Organic Framework Impregnated with Ionic Liquids. Angew. Chemie Int. Ed. 58, 10909–10913 (2019). 21. Pfaffenhuber, C., Göbel, M., Popovic, J. & Maier, J. Soggy-sand electrolytes: Status and perspectives. Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys. 15,
- 18318–18335 (2013).
- Liang, S. et al. Gel polymer electrolytes for lithium ion batteries: Fabrication, characterization and performance. Solid State Ionics 318, 2–18 (2018).
- 23. Weston, J. E. & Steele, B. C. H. Effects of inert fillers on the mechanical and electrochemical properties of lithium salt-poly(ethylene oxide) polymer electrolytes. Solid State Ionics 7, 75-79 (1982). 24. Zekoll, S. et al. B. P. Hybrid electrolytes with 3D bicontinuous ordered ceramic and polymer microchannels for all-solid-state
- batteries. Energy Environ. Sci. 11, 185–201 (2018). 25. Chen, L. et al. PEO/garnet composite electrolytes for solid-state lithium batteries: From "ceramic-in-polymer" to "polymer-in-
- ceramic". Nano Energy 46, 176–184 (2018).
 Koksbang, R., Olsen, I. I. & Shackle, D. Review of hybrid polymer electrolytes and rechargeable lithium batteries. Solid State Ionics
- 69, 320-335 (1994).
- 27. Blanchard, D. et al. Nanoconfined LiBH₄ as a fast lithium ion conductor. Adv. Funct. Mater. 25, 184-192 (2015).
- Wang, Z. et al. A Metal Organic-Framework-Based Electrolyte with Nanowetted Interfaces for High-Energy-Density Solid-State Lithium Battery. Adv. Mater. 30, 1–7 (2018).
- Ameloot, R. et al. Ionic conductivity in the metal-organic framework UiO-66 by dehydration and insertion of lithium tert-butoxide. Chem. A Eur. J. 19, 5533–5536 (2013).
- 30. Shen, L. et al. Creating Lithium-Ion Electrolytes with Biomimetic Ionic Channels in Metal-Organic Frameworks. Adv. Mater. 30, 1 - 8(2018)
- 31. Lin, Z., Xia, Q., Wang, W., Li, W. & Chou, S. Recent research progresses in ether- and ester-based electrolytes for sodium-ion batteries. InfoMat 1-14 (2019).
- 32. Dunn, B., Kamath, H. & Tarascon, J. Electrical Energy Storage for the Grid: A Battery of Choices. Science. 334, 928 (2011). Vaalma, C., Buchholz, D., Weil, M. & Passerini, S. The demand for lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) has been increasing since their commer- cialization in 1991 and their widespread use in portable electronics. *Nat. Perspect.* (2018).
- Cepeda, J. et al. Scandium/Alkaline Metal-Organic Frameworks: Adsorptive Properties and Ionic Conductivity. Chem. Mater. 28, 2519–2528 (2016).
- Park, S. S., Tulchinsky, Y. & Dinca, M. Single-Ion Li⁺, Na⁺, and Mg²⁺ Solid Electrolytes Supported by a Mesoporous Anionic Cu-Azolate Metal-Organic Framework. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 139, 13260–13263 (2017).
- 36. Li, S., Qiu, L., Shi, C., Chen, X. & Yan, F. Water-resistant, solid-state, dye-sensitized solar cells based on hydrophobic organic ionic plastic crystal electrolytes. Adv. Mater. 26, 1266-1271 (2014).
- 37. Kiefer, J., Fries, J. & Leipertz, A. Experimental vibrational study of imidazolium-based ionic Liquids: Raman and infrared spectra of 1-ethyl-3methylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl) imide and 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium ethylsulfate. Appl. Spectrosc. 61, 1306-1311 (2007)
- Zeeshan, M. et al. Core-Shell Type Ionic Liquid/Metal Organic Framework Composite: An Exceptionally High CO₂/CH₄ Selectivity. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 140, 10113–10116 (2018).
- Kinik, F. P. et al. [BMIM] [PF₆] Incorporation Doubles CO₂ Selectivity of ZIF-8: Elucidation of Interactions and Their Consequences on Performance. ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 8, 30992–31005 (2016).
- Nozari, V., Keskin, S. & Uzun, A. Toward Rational Design of Ionic Liquid/Metal–Organic Framework Composites: Effects of Interionic Interaction Energy. ACS Omega 2, 6613–6618 (2017).
- 41. Dhumal, N. R., Singh, M. P., Anderson, J. A., Johannes, K. & Kim, H. J. Molecular Interactions of a Cu-Based Metal Organic Framework with a Confined Imidazolium-Based Ionic Liquid: A Combined Density-Functional Theory and Experimental Vibrational Spectroscopy Study. J Phys Chem C 120, 3295-3304 (2016).
- Mohamedali, M., Ibrahim, H. & Henni, A. Incorporation of acetate-based ionic liquids into a zeolitic imidazolate framework (ZIF-8) as efficient sorbents for carbon dioxide capture. Chem. Eng. J. 334, 817–828 (2018).
- Ban, Y. et al. Confinement of Ionic Liquids in Nanocages: Tailoring the Molecular Sieving Properties of ZIF-8 for Membrane-Based CO₂ Capture. Angew. Chemie Int. Ed. 54, 15483–15487 (2015).
- Zeeshan, M., Nozari, V., Keskin, S. & Uzun, A. Structural Factors Determining Thermal Stability Limits of Ionic Liquid/MOF Composites: Imidazolium Ionic Liquids Combined with CuBTC and ZIF-8. Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 58, 14124–14138 (2019).
- Koyuturk, B., Altintas, C., Kinik, F. P., Keskin, S. & Uzun, A. Improving Gas Separation Performance of ZIF-8 by [JMIM][BF₄] Incorporation: Interactions and Their Consequences on Performance. *J. Phys. Chem. C.* 121, 10370–10381 (2017).
 Wiers, B. M., Foo, M. L., Balsara, N. P. & Long, J. R. A solid lithium electrolyte via addition of lithium isopropoxide to a metal-organic framework with open metal sites. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 133, 14522–14525 (2011).
- 47.
- Wu, J. F. & Guo, X. Nanostructured Metal-Organic Framework (MOF)-Derived Solid Electrolytes Realizing Fast Lithium Ion Transportation Kinetics in Solid-State Batteries. Small 15, 1-7 (2019).

- 48. Park, K. S. et al. Exceptional chemical and thermal stability of zeolitic imidazolate frameworks. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. 103, 10186-10191 (2006)
- Monti, D., Jónsson, E., Palacín, M. R. & Johansson, P. Ionic liquid based electrolytes for sodium-ion batteries: Na b solvation and ionic conductivity. J. Power Sources 245, 630–636 (2014).
- Linford, R. G. & Hackwoodt, S. Physical Techniques for the Study of Solid Electrolytes. *Chem. Rev.* 81, 327–364 (1981).
 Bennett, T. D. *et al.* Hybrid glasses from strong and fragile metal-organic framework liquids. *Nat. Commun.* 6, 1–7 (2015)
- Tao, H., Bennett, T. D. & Yue, Y. Melt-Quenched Hybrid Glasses from Metal–Organic Frameworks. Adv. Mater. 29, 1–6 (2017).
 Gaillac, R. et al. Liquid metal–organic frameworks. Nat. Mater. 16, 1149–1154 (2017).
- 54. Bennett, T. D. et al. Melt-Quenched Glasses of Metal-Organic Frameworks. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 138, 3484-3492 (2016).
- Baxter, E. F. et al. A comparison of the amorphization of zeolitic imidazolate frameworks (ZIFs) and aluminosilicate zeolites by ball-milling. Dalt. Trans. 45, 4258–4268 (2016).
- 56. Yoshida, Y. & Kitagawa, H. Ionic Conduction in Metal-Organic Frameworks with Incorporated Ionic Liquids. ACS Sustain. Chem. Eng. 7, 70-81 (2019).
- Bish, D. L. & Howard, S. A. Quantitative phase analysis using the Rietveld method. J. Appl. Crystallogr. 21, 86–91 (1988).
 Ferrari, M. & Lutterotti, L. Method for the simultaneous determination of anisotropic residual stresses and texture by x-ray
- Ferrari, M. & Lutterfort, J. Method for the simultations of anisotropic residual success and texture by x-ray diffraction. J. Appl. Phys. 76, 7246–7255 (1994).
 Wojdyr, M. Fityk: A general-purpose peak fitting program. J. Appl. Crystallogr. 43, 1126–1128 (2010).
 Griebenow, K., Bragatto, C. B., Kamitsos, E. I. & Wondraczek, L. Mixed-modifier effect in alkaline earth metaphosphate glasses. J. Non. Cryst. Solids 481, 447–456 (2018).

Acknowledgements

This project has received funding from the European Research Council (ERC) under the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation program (ERC grant UTOPES, grant agreement no. 681652). JMT acknowledges funding from NanoDTC ESPSRC Grant EP/L015978/1. TDB would like to thank the Royal Society for a University Research Fellowship and for their support (UF150021). We gratefully acknowledge S. Fuhrmann for technical support with XRD measurement and data analysis.

Author contributions

V.N., L.W. and T.D.B. jointly conceived of the project. V.N. conducted composite synthesis and amorphization experiments. V.N. and J.M.T. performed impedance spectroscopy, supervised by P.A., S.D. and L.W. V.N., C.C. and K.W. recorded IR spectra. All other physical characterization was conducted by V.N. and managed jointly by L.W., T.D.B., K.W., S.D., P.A. and C.C. V.N., C.C. and L.W. wrote the first version of the manuscript. All authors subsequently contributed to in-depth discussions and manuscript revision.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

Supplementary information is available for this paper at https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-60198-w.

Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to L.W.

Reprints and permissions information is available at www.nature.com/reprints.

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons license, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons license and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this license, visit http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/.

© The Author(s) 2020

Supplementary material

for

Sodium Ion Conductivity in Superionic IL-Impregnated Metal-Organic Frameworks: Enhancing Stability Through Structural Disorder

Vahid Nozari¹, Courtney Calahoo¹, Joshua M. Tuffnell^{2,3}, Philipp Adelhelm^{4,5}, Katrin Wondraczek⁶, Sian E. Dutton³, Thomas D. Bennett² and Lothar Wondraczek^{1,5,*}

¹Otto Schott Institute of Materials Research, University of Jena, Jena, Germany
²Department of Materials Science and Metallurgy, University of Cambridge, United Kingdom
³Cavendish Laboratory, Department of Physics, University of Cambridge, United Kingdom
⁴Institute of Technical and Environmental Chemistry, University of Jena, Jena, Germany
⁵Center of Energy and Environmental Chemistry, University of Jena, Germany
⁶Leibniz Institute of Photonic Technologies, Jena, Germany



Figure S1. SEM images of (**a**) ZIF-8; (**b**) S-IL@ZIF-8; (**c**) a_m(S-IL@ZIF-8)-15 mins and (**d**) a_m(S-IL@ZIF-8)-30 mins.



Figure S2. N₂ gas adsorption-desorption measured on pristine ZIF-8, S-IL@ZIF-8 and amorphized samples at 77 K. Empty symbols represent the desorption part. Lines are drawn to guide the eye.

Sample	BET surface area (m ² /g)	DFT pore volume (cc STP/g)
ZIF-8	1297	0.641
S-IL@ZIF-8	7.29	0.006
a _m (S-IL@ZIF-8)-15 mins	11.99	0.048
a _m (S-IL@ZIF-8)-30 mins	12.03	0.049

Table S1. BET surface area and pore volume analysis. Instrumental error range is within four percent.



Figure S3. (**a**)Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) and (**b**) Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) curves obtained with a heating rate of 10 °C min⁻¹ under nitrogen flow of 20 ml min⁻¹.

Table S2. Onset temperatures T_{onset} and decomposition temperatures T_{decomp} for various		
samples. The onset temperature is defined as the temperature at which the sample has		
lost two percent of its initial mass. Decomposition temperatures are obtained from		
intersection of two tangent lines from horizontal and vertical parts of the TGA curves.		

Sample	T _{onset} (°C)	T _{decomp} (°C)
ZIF-8	543	613
S (salt)	400	421
IL	411	444
S-IL	423	444
S-IL@ZIF-8	388	428
a _m (S-IL@ZIF-8)-15 mins	388	435
a _m (S-IL@ZIF-8)-30 mins	373	435



Figure S4. Error propagation of the impedance measurements based on instrumental error. At each data point, depending on its individual frequency and impedance values, the error bars are were calculated. The error bars start from 0.2 % in low frequency region to 10 % at the highest frequency value.



Figure S5. Variable temperature AC impedance measurement of S-IL@ZIF-8 on a different lab on a similar setup showing: (**a**) the thermal sweep protocol of two heating and cooling cycles with long thermal equilibration times (blue line) and indication of the three conductivity measurements at each temperature step (orange points); (**b**) Nyquist plots at each temperature step (circles; lines are drawn to guide the eyes) where the color transition from blue to red represents the increasing temperature from 25 °C to 125 °C in 20 °C increments (only the second up and down temperature sweeps are shown for clarity); and (**c**) Arrhenius plot of the ionic conductivity for each of the heating and cooling temperature sweeps (inset: activation energies extracted from each of these data sets). Error bars are too small to be visible on this scale. The solid lines are a guide for the eye. These independent conductivity measurements were performed between 10⁻¹ Hz and 10⁻⁷ Hz using a Solartron 1260 impedance/gain-phase analyser. The sample pellet is placed in an impedance cell in which the sample is contacted to two stainless steel blocking electrodes. Swagelok PTFE ferrules were used to seal the impedance cell to allow

measurements to be carried out in an argon atmosphere. The impedance cell could then be placed in a Lenton chamber furnace (EF 11/8B) which was monitored using a thermocouple controlled by the raspberry pi in order to measure the impedance as a function of temperature.



Figure S6. XRD patterns of a_m(S-IL@ZIF-8)- 30 mins and a_m(ZIF-8)- 20 mins. Pristine ZIF-8 was ball-milled using the same conditions as for S-IL@ZIF-8 composite. a and b are normalized and as-measured intensities, respectively.



Figure S7. FTIR spectra of S-IL@ZIF-8 composite (black) and of its corresponding amorphized sample ball-milled for fifteen (blue) and thirty minutes (red). Spectra resolution is 2 cm⁻¹.



Figure S8. Arrhenius plots obtained from conductivity measurements during temperature cycling on samples having been exposed for two, six and twenty days to ambient atmosphere for: (**a**) crystalline sample, S-IL@ZIF-8 and (**b**) partially amorphized sample, a_m(S-IL@ZIF-8)-30 mins. Note that the scale of the y-axis is the same in both figures. Error bars are in the range of four percent.



Figure S9. XRD patterns of amorphized ZIF-8 samples ball-milled for sixty (blue) and ninety (red) minutes.



Figure S10. SEM images of (a, b) $a_m(ZIF-8)$ -60 mins and (c, d) $a_m(ZIF-8)$ -90 mins.

2.2.2

Ionic Liquid Facilitated Melting of the Metal-Organic Framework ZIF-8

Nozari, V.; Calahoo, C.; Tuffnell, J. M.; Keen D. A.; Bennett, T. D.; Wondraczek, L. Ionic Liquid Facilitated Melting of the Metal-Organic Framework ZIF-8, submitted to Nature Communications.

Hybrid glasses from melt-quenched metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) have been emerging as a new class of materials, which combine the functional properties of crystalline MOFs with the processability of glasses. However, only a handful of the vast variety of crystalline MOFs have been identified as being meltable. Porosity and metal-linker interaction strength have both been identified as crucial parameters in the trade-off between thermal decomposition of the organic linker and, more desirably, melting. For example, the inability of the prototypical zeolitic imidazolate framework (ZIF) ZIF-8 to melt, is ascribed to the instability of the organic linker upon dissociation from the metal center. Here, we demonstrate that the incorporation of an ionic liquid (IL) into the porous interior of ZIF-8 provides a means to reduce its melting temperature to below its thermal decomposition temperature ($T_{\rm m} < T_{\rm d}$). Experimental evidence shows that the Tm of ZIF8 obtained by IL infiltration is around 381 °C, and that the glass forming ability (T_g/T_m) of such melts is above 0.9, *i.e.* higher than those previously reported for other meltable MOFs. Our structural studies show that the prevention of decomposition, and successful melting, is due to the IL interactions stabilizing the rapidly dissociating ZIF-8 linkers upon heating. This understanding may act as a general guide for extending the range of meltable MOF materials and, hence, the chemical and structural variety of MOF-derived glasses.
I Ionic Liquid Facilitated Melting of the Metal-Organic Framework ZIF-8

Vahid Nozari¹, Courtney Calahoo¹, Joshua M. Tuffnell², David A. Keen³, Thomas D. Bennett²
 and Lothar Wondraczek^{1,4*}

¹Otto Schott Institute of Materials Research, University of Jena, Jena, Germany

5 ²Department of Materials Science and Metallurgy, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, United Kingdom

³ISIS Facility, Rutherford Appleton Laboratory, Harwell Campus, Didcot, Oxfordshire, United Kingdom

⁴Center of Energy and Environmental Chemistry, University of Jena, Jena, Germany

4

6

7

8

9 Abstract

Hybrid glasses from melt-quenched metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) have been emerging as a 10 new class of materials, which combine the functional properties of crystalline MOFs with the 11 processability of glasses. However, only a handful of the vast variety of crystalline MOFs have 12 13 been identified as being meltable. Porosity and metal-linker interaction strength have both been 14 identified as crucial parameters in the trade-off between thermal decomposition of the organic 15 linker and, more desirably, melting. For example, the inability of the prototypical zeolitic imidazolate framework (ZIF) ZIF-8 to melt, is ascribed to the instability of the organic linker 16 17 upon dissociation from the metal center. Here, we demonstrate that the incorporation of an ionic 18 liquid (IL) into the porous interior of ZIF-8 provides a means to reduce its melting temperature to 19 below its thermal decomposition temperature ($T_m < T_d$). Experimental evidence shows that the T_m of ZIF-8 obtained by IL infiltration is around 381 °C, and that the glass forming ability (T_g/T_m) of 20 21 such melts is above 0.9, *i.e.* higher than those previously reported for other meltable MOFs. Our 22 structural studies show that the prevention of decomposition, and successful melting, is due to the IL interactions stabilizing the rapidly dissociating ZIF-8 linkers upon heating. This understanding 23 24 may act as a general guide for extending the range of meltable MOF materials and, hence, the 25 chemical and structural variety of MOF-derived glasses.

27 Introduction

28 Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) are porous crystalline three-dimensional networks composed 29 of organic linkers coordinated to inorganic metal centers. They are of great interest owing to their structural tunability and potential applications in gas storage and separation, catalysis, drug 30 delivery, and clean water harvesting.¹⁻⁵ Research on developing new structures has led to the 31 discovery of over 70,000 MOFs, mostly in the form of polycrystalline powders.⁶ The use of such 32 33 powders in certain applications requires handling and processing into bulk and mechanically 34 stable shapes or geometries. For instance, preparation of pellets is a possible route, however, 35 pellet formation and achievement of the required mechanical stability can be challenging.⁷ 36 Alternative routes for the fabrication of bulk, shapeable, and robust architectures with enhanced 37 processability are therefore highly desired, thereby broadening the range of potential MOF applications.8 38

39 Liquid MOFs and melt-quenched MOF glasses have emerged recently as a new class of 40 materials, offering processable bulk shapes which still retain the advantageous chemical functionality of crystalline MOFs.⁹ Zeolitic imidazolate frameworks (ZIFs) are a subset of MOFs 41 having similar topologies as those which are found in inorganic zeolites (tetrahedral Zn²⁺ are 42 coordinated by imidazolates instead of tetrahedral SiO4⁴⁻ and AlO4⁵⁻ species bonded via corner-43 shared oxygens).¹⁰⁻¹² However, only a handful of ZIFs have been observed to form melt-44 quenched glasses.^{13–15} The limited meltability of crystalline MOFs results from the 45 decomposition temperature (T_d) being lower than the melting temperature (T_m) of the MOF 46 framework. In the majority of cases, the organic linkers decompose prior to metal-ligand 47 48 coordination bond breakage and reformation (i.e. melting). This prevents the material from 49 reaching the potential liquid state. Post-processing strategies by which $T_{\rm m}$ could be reduced to 50 below $T_{\rm d}$ would enable access to a much more diverse array of MOF glasses. This could open a 51 wide variety of physicochemical properties, and significantly broaden the range of potential 52 applications.

The microscopic mechanism of ZIF melting, the breaking and re-formation of Zn–N bonds (referred to as defect formation) has been observed for meltable ZIFs such as ZIF-4 [Zn(Im)₂, Zn(C₃H₃N₂)₂], ZIF-zni [Zn(Im)₂, Zn(C₃H₃N₂)₂], and ZIF-62 [Zn(Im)_{2-x}(bIm)_x, Zn(C₃H₃N₂)₂- $_x(C_7H_5N_2)_x$ for 0 < x < 0.35].^{13,14,16} This mechanism occurs via rapid dissociation and

replacement of an initially coordinated linker with a neighboring linker.⁹ Melting requires that the vibrational displacement of atoms in the crystal structure reaches a characteristic level (instability),¹³ which is achieved by heating.¹⁷ However, in the more open networks such as ZIF-8 [Zn(mIm)₂, Zn(C₄H₅N₂)₂], the calculated temperature at which Lindemann's ratio reaches the threshold for melting exceeds those of ZIF-4 (1200–1500 K) and ZIF-zni (1500–1750 K). As a result, the higher energy barrier for linker mobility in ZIF-8 precludes framework melting.¹⁸

ZIF-8, a commercially available ZIF with sodalite topology, has been investigated extensively in 63 the literature for a wide range of applications such as microelectronics,¹⁹ catalysis,²⁰ drug 64 delivery,²¹ and gas separation.²² Theoretical studies on ZIF-8 melting revealed that the bond 65 66 cleavage activation enthalpy and entropy of ZIF-8 exhibited a significant difference (43% for 67 enthalpy and 60% for entropy) between Zn-N and Zn-Im coordination (where Im is the center of 68 mass of the imidazolate linker). However, for other ZIFs such as ZIF-4 and ZIF-zni variations of activation enthalpy and entropy in Zn-N and Zn-Im are less than 3%. This difference showed 69 70 that Zn-N bonding strength is not the only parameter determining meltability. The specific 71 behaviour of ZIF-8 was further confirmed in simulation studies which found Zn to retain fourfold 72 coordination up to 1250 K. The extent of interionic interactions, *i.e.*, interactions between metal 73 cations and organic anions, is therefore a crucial factor for melting; weaker interionic interactions facilitate melting.¹⁸ 74

75 The energy of defect formation was found to be similar for ZIF-8, ZIF-4 and ZIF-zni, i.e., 71 kJ mol⁻¹, 56 kJ mol⁻¹ and 67 kJ mol⁻¹, respectively.¹⁸ The striking difference between these three 76 77 ZIFs is in their surface area or porosity; ZIF-8 has a dramatically higher porosity as compared to the other two ZIFs (~ 1200 vs. 400 and 4 m^2g^{-1}).^{23–25} This difference is even more evident (see 78 Figure 1a) when comparing the pore diameter d_p of ZIF-8 (11.6 Å) with those of ZIF-4 (2.1 Å) 79 and ZIF-62 (1.3 Å), Figure 1a,²⁶ suggesting that porosity is a key factor determining meltability. 80 There is thus a major constraint which prevents the melting of ZIF-8. Specifically, the relatively 81 82 high porosity of the framework, which is linked to the absence of charge stabilization of the newly dissociated linker.¹⁸ Hence, melting should occur where the high free energy (stemming 83

from the highly porous nature of ZIF-8) and interionic interactions between the metal cation and organic anion are both diminished. Following this hypothesis, we incorporated an ionic liquid (IL), 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethanesulfonyl)imide, [EMIM][TFSI] into ZIF-



Figure 1. Crystal structure of ZIF-8 and ZIF-62 and molecular structure of [EMIM][TFSI] used in IL@ZIF-8 composite. (a) Crystal structures and pore diameters of ZIF-8 and ZIF-62. Orange spheres in crystal structures show corresponding free space in the cages.²⁶ Crystallographic data of ZIF-8 and ZIF-62 are taken from literature.^{24,25} (b) Molecular structure of [EMIM][TFSI]. Color codes: Zn – purple tetrahedra, N – blue, C – grey, S – yellow, O – red, F – olive. H – omitted for clarity.

87 8 pores aiming to decrease the $T_{\rm m}$ of ZIF-8 below its $T_{\rm d}$ and reaching liquid state as a result of 88 interactions between the IL and ZIF-8 at elevated temperatures.

Interactions between different ILs and MOFs have been extensively investigated experimentally and computationally at low temperatures. It has previously been shown that the interactions between IL molecules and the MOF structure are crucial in creating new functional sites favorable for adsorption, catalysis, and ion conduction.²⁷ For example, a simulation study investigated IRMOF-1 supported IL membranes for CO_2 capture. Four different ILs with fixed cation and different anions were used to demonstrate that the anion of the IL plays an important role in the extent of interactions between IL and MOF.²⁸

Combined density functional theory (DFT) calculations and experimental vibrational
spectroscopy have also been used to probe the molecular interactions between a Cu-based MOF,
copper benzene-1-3-5-tricarboxylate (CuBTC), and an IL, 1-ethyl-3- methylimidazolium ethyl
sulfate ([EMIM][EtSO₄]). Here, the results showed that interactions between the IL-anion and
4

 Cu^{2+} ions caused the transfer and redistribution of electron density over the metal sites. A 100 101 corresponding red-shift was observed in the experimental vibrational spectra in IR bands 102 associated with Cu-O bonding. It was concluded that intermolecular interactions between the linker molecules and Cu weaken upon simultaneous interaction with IL ions.²⁹ Weakening metal-103 ligand bonding was further shown via incorporating seven different imidazolium-based ILs in 104 105 CuBTC pores. It was shown that when the interionic interaction within the IL was higher, the IL 106 was interacting strongly with the structure and Cu-O bonding became weaker, resulting in a lower thermal stability of the IL@MOF composites.30 107

Here, we use the synergistic concepts of (i) an adjustment of metal-linker bond strength and (ii) a
greater extent of energetic stabilization of a newly dissociated linker, to investigate the ionic
liquid mediated melting of a prototypical porous framework, ZIF-8.

111

112 Results

113 [EMIM][TFSI] was chosen since it is a hydrophobic IL, enabling incorporation into the 114 hydrophobic pores of ZIF-8.³¹ It has a very high T_d (~ 440 °C) compared to other imidazolium-115 based ILs.^{31,32} 35 wt% of [EMIM][TFSI] was loaded into ZIF-8 using a wet impregnation 116 technique (*see* methods section for further details). The resultant composite is herein referred to 117 as IL@ZIF-8 (**Figure 1**). The IL loading was adjusted in such a way to obtain a powder sample 118 without presence of excess liquid.

The IL@ZIF-8 composite was characterized using X-ray diffraction (XRD) (**Figure 2a**), scanning electron microscopy (SEM) (Supplementary Figure S1), and Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) (**Figure 2b**). XRD and SEM results confirmed that IL incorporation did not damage the crystal structure and morphology of ZIF-8. FTIR measurements were carried out in order to examine the incorporation of IL into ZIF-8 and show that all IL IR features are present in the composite sample. These results are in agreement with previous studies on crystalline IL@MOF composites.^{33–36}

To study the bonding interactions between the IL and ZIF-8 at high temperature, thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) coupled with differential scanning calorimetry (DSC), TGA-DSC, were done on ZIF-8, the IL and the IL@ZIF-8 composite (**Figure 2c, d**). No phase 129 transitions were observed in pristine ZIF-8 and the bulk IL before the start of decomposition at 130 around 550 °C and 440 °C respectively. A small endothermic peak at 381 °C was noted in the IL@ZIF-8 composite, very close to the decomposition temperature (~ 412 °C). To properly 131 assign this feature to melting, IL@ZIF-8 was heated at 387 °C and 390 °C under nitrogen 132 133 (slightly above T_m , defined as the offset temperature of melting peak) for 30 and 40 minutes, 134 defined as LT (low temperature) and HT (high temperature) conditions, respectively. After heating, samples were cooled down to room temperature at a rate of 50 °C·min⁻¹. The obtained 135 136 samples are henceforth referred to as ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT) and ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT).



138 Figure 2. Structural characterization, enthalpic responses, and thermogravimetric analysis.

(a) XRD patterns of ZIF-8, IL@ZIF-8 crystalline composite, ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT) and ag(IL@ZIF8-HT) samples. Crystallographic data is taken from literature.²⁵ (b) FTIR spectra obtained for

141 ZIF-8, IL, crystalline IL@ZIF-8 composite, ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT), and ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT). (c) DSC

scans of ZIF-8, IL, IL@ZIF-8, and $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$ samples with heating rate of 5 °C·min⁻¹. T_m and T_d are indicated as offset temperature of melting peak and onset temperature of decomposition of IL@ZIF-8, respectively. T_g is defined as the onset temperature of glass transition peak of $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$. (d) Thermogravimetric analysis of ZIF-8, IL, IL@ZIF-8, and $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$ with heating rate of 5 °C·min⁻¹. T_d 's were obtained from the first derivative weight traces.

148 Throughout these experiments, the heating temperature and time were selected in such a way that 149 fully and partially amorphous samples could be acquired for HT and LT conditions respectively, 150 as demonstrated by XRD analysis (see Figure 2a). The XRD pattern of ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT) 151 contains broad diffuse scattering characteristic of a glass (with a small unidentified Bragg peak at 152 11.6°). A pure sample of ZIF-8 subjected to the same (HT) treatment, retained its crystallinity. 153 However, ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT) contained weak diffuse scattering, alongside Bragg peaks 154 reminiscent of the starting crystalline phase. This suggests that the effects of temperature and 155 time are extremely important in glass formation of composite samples.

156 A DSC up-scan (**Figure 2c**) performed on $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$ revealed a glass transition 157 temperature (T_g) of 322 °C (595 K), confirming the glassy nature of this sample. With the melting 158 temperature of ~ 381 °C (654 K), this results in a nominal value of T_g/T_m of ~ 0.91, which even 159 surpasses the ultrahigh glass forming ability of 0.84 which was reported for melts of ZIF-62.³⁷



Figure 3. Confocal microscopy images showing the evidence of melting and glass formation in: (a-c) $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$ and (d-f) $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$. Scale bars are 100 μ m.

160

161 Confocal microscopy images displayed in Figure 3 show clear evidence of macroscopic flow as 162 a result of melting, as well as direct light transmittance and smooth glassy surfaces. Macroscopic flow and melting of the IL@ZIF-8 heated from room temperature to 390 °C were recorded in situ 163 164 using a laser scanning microscope (LSM), while no morphological changes were observed for the 165 parent ZIF-8. Results are provided as Supplementary Information video S1 and S2 for ZIF-8 and IL@ZIF-8, respectively. All these observations show that ZIF-8, a non-meltable MOF, becomes 166 167 meltable through incorporation of an IL into its pores and subsequent heating of the infiltrated 168 crystalline composite. 169

169 To uncover the microscopic mechanism which facilitates the melting of the IL@ZIF-8 170 composite, FTIR, TGA, thermogravimetric analysis coupled with mass spectrometry (TG-MS), 171 ¹H NMR, ¹³C NMR, and total scattering measurements were performed on ZIF-8, IL, IL@ZIF-8, 172 $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$, and $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$ samples. As expected, IR bands in the glassy 173 composites are broader compared to crystalline ZIF-8 and the IL@ZIF-8 composite (*see* Figure 174 **2b**). Further analysis of deconvoluted spectra in Supplementary Figure S2 and S3, corresponding 175 to 600–800 cm⁻¹ (out of plane bending of imidazole ring) and 800–1700 cm⁻¹ (in-plane bending 176 and entire ring stretching of imidazole ring) regions, revealed that the IR bands belonging to ZIF-

177 8 are shifted in IL@ZIF-8, ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT), and ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT) samples. The shifts are 178 summarized in Supplementary Table S1 and S2. They reflect a clear difference in the interactions 179 between ZIF-8 and IL in crystalline IL@ZIF-8, and in the melt-quenched glasses, $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-$ 180 LT) and $a_{g}(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$. The shifts are significantly larger in $a_{g}(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$ and 181 $a_{g}(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$ compared to crystalline IL@ZIF-8, representing stronger electrostatic 182 interactions between the metal center and organic linker of ZIF-8 and the anion and cation of the 183 IL component in these samples, respectively. The shifts show that most of the IR bands of ZIF-8 184 are shifted to lower frequencies (red shifted), indicating that intramolecular bonding within the 2methylimidazolate ring of ZIF-8 becomes weaker as a result of intense interaction with IL ions, 185 which only occurs at higher temperatures.^{29,38} The resulting interaction becomes stronger when 186 temperature and heating time increase, as evidenced by larger red shifts in IR features of 187 188 $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$ compared to $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$.

189 The thermal stability of bulk IL, pristine ZIF-8, and IL@ZIF-8 composites was examined with 190 the same thermal treatment used to melt the $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$ and $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$ samples. 191 TGA measurements are presented in Supplementary Figure S4, demonstrating the differences 192 between IL vs. IL@ZIF-8 weight losses. Corresponding quantitative values are provided in 193 Supplementary Table S3. Consistent with the XRD result obtained for ZIF-8-HT, pristine ZIF-8 194 shows almost no mass loss (1.0 and 0.9 % for LT and HT conditions, respectively), while, bulk 195 IL loses 17.5 and 50.0 % of its initial mass when heated to LT and HT conditions, respectively, 196 attributed to decomposition of IL that happens mostly in the isothermal heating step (see 197 Supplementary Figure S4). The thermal stability of ILs has been studied in dynamic and isothermal TGA experiments previously.³⁹ ILs mostly decompose at lower temperatures when 198 heated isothermally as compared to the onset decomposition temperature in dynamic heating 199 200 conditions.^{32,39-41} In the present case, the IL@ZIF-8 composite showed 20.7 % and 34.4 % weight loss for LT and HT heating conditions, respectively. 201

To understand whether the decomposed species are from IL or ZIF-8 in IL@ZIF-8, we probed the possible decomposition products by conducting TG–MS analysis. TG–MS experiments were conducted on bulk IL and IL@ZIF-8 composites with LT and HT heating conditions. As for the decomposition of bulk [EMIM][TFSI], it was previously found that elimination and nucleophilic substitution are major mechanisms of decomposition.⁴² At high temperatures (over 350 °C), decomposition of the anion to more nucleophilic groups such as NH₂ and F, and subsequent

attack of cation methyl and ethyl groups resulted in the detection of different decomposition products in isothermal and scanning TGA-MS experiments. According to the results shown in Supplementary Figure S5, almost all mass to charge ratios, m/z, coming from IL@ZIF-8 match the masses detected from the bulk IL at LT and HT conditions. Assignment of m/z values to decomposition products has been reported previously.^{40,42} Moreover, TG–MS shows that detection of masses occurs in the isothermal segments of LT and HT heating conditions. This agrees with mass losses observed in TGA experiments (*see* Supplementary Figure S4).

Digested liquid ¹H NMR was also performed on ZIF-8, IL, IL@ZIF-8, $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$, and a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT) samples to ascertain the stability of the ZIF-8 linker and IL; the spectra are discussed in the Supplementary Information. The results suggest large-scale decomposition of the IL and some linker decomposition within the glass, as also indicated by the darkened color in the optical images (**Figure 3**).

220 The top of Figure 4 compares the ¹H-¹³C cross-polarization (CP) NMR spectra for ZIF-8, 221 IL@ZIF-8, ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT), and ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT). CP experiments result in much higher 222 signal/noise (S/N) than single-pulse experiments, but also only allow observation of solid-like carbons (¹H T_1 times must be longer than the time needed for ¹H–X polarization transfer).⁴³ There 223 224 are three main carbon peaks highlighted with blue boxes from the mIm linker of ZIF-8: CH_3 (C₁), CH (C4.5) and C (C2) at 14.26, 124.67 and 151.66 ppm; the peaks from pure ZIF-8 are sharp with 225 226 widths of 0.2-0.3 ppm indicating crystallinity. As heat is applied, a broad shoulder emerges in 227 ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT) and almost all sharp peaks are absent in ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT), agreeing with the 228 XRD results displayed in Figure 2a. Although these NMR experiments only probe short-range 229 interactions, the broadness and sharpness of the peaks are clear indications of the degree of 230 crystallinity, allowing for assignment of the peaks to amorphous and crystalline features in 231 Figure 4. The variety of electronic environments found in broad NMR peaks is assumed to be 232 from varying bond angles and bond lengths, and strongly indicates a system without long-range order. This loss of crystallinity is confirmed for the $a_o(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$, and $a_o(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$ by 233 both XRD and pair distribution function (PDF) measurements, as well as by single-pulse ¹³C 234 235 NMR (Supplementary Figures S12-S16).



Figure 4. Top. ¹H-¹³C CP NMR of ZIF-8, IL@ZIF-8, ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT), and ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT).
Spinning sidebands are marked with asterisks. Bottom. Insets of fits for C₂:C, C_{4,5}:CH and C₁:
CH₃ (methyl) carbons. For the fits of ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT) *please see* Supplementary Figure S17.

For a more thorough discussion of the ${}^{1}H{-}{}^{13}C$ spectra, we turn to the fits of the C (C₂), CH (C_{4,5}) and CH₃ (C₁) peaks, respectively, in the bottom of **Figure 4**. Upon IL addition, the three main carbon peaks remain mostly unchanged, yet, a substantially shifted second peak emerges

downfield (higher ppm) of the CH₃ (C₁) and CH (C_{4,5}) peaks. Since the intensity of crosspolarization peaks in liquids is very low (as can be seen for pure EMIM peaks in IL@ZIF-8 in the top of **Figure 4** and in Supplementary Figure S18), these new peaks in the IL@ZIF-8 in **Figure 4** correspond to ZIF-8 interacting with the IL. Moreover, Supplementary Figure S20 confirms the appearance of a new peak at approximately 15.4 ppm in IL@ZIF-8 that does not exist in either pure IL or ZIF-8. Finally, IL-ZIF-8 interactions are further corroborated by the different chemical shifts of IL vs. IL@ZIF-8 in Supplementary Figure S19.

250 For the HT condition, $a_{g}(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$, in the bottom of **Figure 4**, there are at least three types 251 of carbon peaks. The first type of peak, a very slight retention of the sharp ZIF-8 and IL-252 associated sharp ZIF-8 peaks, is in simple agreement with the XRD results. We note that the LT 253 condition shows the same trends (Supplementary Figure S17). Like the IL-associated carbon 254 peaks, the broad peaks (bottom of Figure 4) are found downfield of the sharp peaks, indicative of 255 interactions with IL and/or strain of ZIF-8 linkers. The third type of peak is located upfield (lower ppm), identified as free ZIF-8 linkers which are unbonded to Zn^{2+} .⁴⁴ Overall, the spectral regions 256 257 representing amorphous features and the free linker are very wide and sometimes contain more 258 than one clear peak; these large ppm ranges represent the many different types of chemical 259 environments and bonding which exist after heating. Returning to more quantitative single-pulse ¹³C NMR, in Supplementary Figure S21, we find that for the C₂ carbon in the LT sample roughly 260 261 21%, 58%, and 21% can be identified as crystalline, amorphous, and free linker, respectively.

262 Simultaneously, in Figure 5a and Supplementary Figure S19, we also find a large increase in S/N 263 for the IL peaks in ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT) and ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT), indicating that much more of the IL 264 is now immobilized and behaving like a solid. This result is unsurprising in consideration of the 265 collapse of the pores as evidenced by the dramatic differences in the out-of-plane bending and 266 C=N stretches in the IR after heating (see Supplementary Table S1 and S2). The most substantial 267 changes in chemical shifts, *i.e.*, electronic environments, are observed for the C_d:CH₂ and C_a:CH₃ 268 carbons in EMIM (see Supplementary Figure S19). In the heat-treated samples, we further 269 observe the formation of imidazole, highlighted in gold, confirming the loss of ethyl and methyl 270 from EMIM observed in the ¹H NMR results. Finally, for the a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT) sample, the 271 signals from C_h in the IL cation and C_1 in imidazole are very broad, which is in line with our ¹H 272 NMR and literature which reveal this hydrogen to be the most reactive and likely to interact with other molecules in the material.45,46 273

The ¹H-¹⁵N CP NMR spectra for ZIF-8, IL@ZIF-8 and in a_r(IL@ZIF-8-LT) are provided in 274 Figure 5b, perfectly matching the trends of ¹H-¹³C CP NMR, Figure 4a. Upon heating, a broad 275 shoulder appears downfield along with a broad peak upfield identified again as free-linker. The 276 277 free-linker peak position represents a much different environment than that of the original ZIF-8 278 linker. This is expected, given that the nitrogen of the ZIF-8 linker bonds directly to the Zn^{2+} metal center: the shift direction suggests the formation of Zn-H bonding as the imidazole peak is 279 found at -171.6 ppm in DMSO.⁴⁷ This general increase in shielding *i.e.*, electron density, on the 280 nitrogen of the mIm applies for the carbon atoms of the ZIF-8 linker as well, as all the assigned 281 282 free-linker peaks have lower chemical shifts than their corresponding intact framework peaks.

283





Figure 5. (a) EMIM Peaks Comparison. Decoupled ¹³C SSNMR of IL, ¹H-¹³C CP SSNMR of IL@ZIF-8, $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$, and $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$. Pronounced broadening and shifting of the IL carbon peaks in $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$, and $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$ confirms immobilization of the IL and collapse of ZIF-8 pores at elevated temperatures. For clarity, IL cation peaks are highlighted, while the ZIF-8 peaks are greyed out in the heat-treated samples. In the $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$ and $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$ spectra appearance of Im cations can be observed in gold. (b) ¹H-¹⁵N CP NMR Comparison of ZIF-8, IL@ZIF-8, and $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$.

293

According to literature, strong interionic interactions occur between [EMIM] and [TFSI] within 295 the IL.⁴⁸ Moreover, it has been shown that IL ([BMIM][TFSI]) interacts with ZIF-8 via the N or 296 S atoms of the IL anion and Zn sites in ZIF-8.³⁵ Although ILs are composed of charged ions, they 297 also are molecules with substantial intermolecular hydrogen bonding.⁴⁹ For example, the S=O 298 group in trifluoromethanesulfonic acid has been found to form a hydrogen bond with a CH 299 carbon in an imidazole ring.^{50,51} Surprisingly to most chemists, several studies show the protons 300 attached to sp³ carbons (methyl and ethyl groups) of EMIM forming H-bonds with halogens and 301 nitrogen.^{33,49} We are unsure of the strength of the interaction between CH₃ and an H-acceptor 302 such as S=O, but our ¹H-¹³C CP NMR agrees: the interactions between ZIF-8 linker hydrogens 303 304 and IL ions explain the reason that only the ZIF-8 linker CH (C4,5) and CH3 (C1) carbons are affected by the incorporation of IL, while the ZIF-8 linker C2 or lone C is mostly unaffected by 305 IL incorporation. Furthermore, hydrogen bonding results in positive shifts (deshielding) of carbon 306 peaks in conjugated ring-systems, just like our emerging peaks in IL@ZIF-8 in Figure 4.52 Thus, 307 we believe the IL anion to interact with the ZIF-8 mIm linkers via H-bonding as shown in Figure 308 309 6a.



310

Figure 6. Schematic of possible interactions between IL and ZIF-8. (a) upon IL addition (b)
Melting/amorphization of IL@ZIF-8 at 381 °C.

14

We know from DSC that melting of the system occurs well before substantial mass loss (381 °C vs. 410 °C). Given the evidence of amorphization and formation of free linkers from the solidstate NMR, alongside the proposed mechanism of melting in ZIFs,⁹ we suggest that upon dissociation from the Zn^{2+} metal centers, the 2-methylimidazolate linkers are stabilized by electrostatic interactions with the IL ions, which leads to a *stable* liquid (see **Figure 6b**).

318 After incorporation into ZIF-8 and subsequent heating at LT and HT conditions, mass 319 spectroscopy and solution ¹H NMR tell us that much of the IL anion is lost and that the IL cation 320 loses some of its methyl/ethyl groups upon heating. The leaving groups and percentages of each, 321 based on the area under the TG-MS curves, are shown in Figure 7a. The mass loss curves were 322 also used to calculate the elemental composition of the final LT and HT samples, in Figure 7b 323 and 7c, respectively. The general trends are that zinc remains, while fluorine, oxygen and sulfur 324 content decrease substantially in the LT sample and are absent entirely in the HT sample. 325 Commensurately, the carbon and nitrogen concentrations also increase, however, they do so in an 326 unexpected fashion: the increase in nitrogen content is more than double that of the carbon 327 content. Indeed, the many possible decomposition products from the IL make it challenging to 328 discern the exact structure of the resulting glass after further heating. Nevertheless, one possible 329 structure for the LT sample is depicted in Figure 7b, where some of the original IL cation and 330 anion can be found, as some F, S and O remains, but where there are also new molecules, such as 331 imines (ketimines, aldemines, sulfinyl imines and fluoro-substituted amines), which contain the 332 elements known to remain, and are liquids at RT and fairly stable in the absence of water 333 (expected from our BET measurements in Supplementary Figure S22 and Supplementary Table 334 S9), especially in the case of hexafluoroacetone, $(CF_3)_2CNH$.

335 In the HT sample, only Zn, C, N and H remain in the material, yet again the increase in N content 336 is notably high. Consequently, we believe only imines (ketimines, aldemines) without fluorine substitution to remain, which are stabilized by interactions with the Zn^{2+} sites, as has been shown 337 with silver in the literature.⁵³ In fact, if the R' group is not H, these molecules are specifically 338 known as Schiff bases when they act as negatively charged ligands to form metal complexes.⁵⁴ 339 340 For example, such an R' group could come be one of the ethyl/methyl groups that are lost from 341 the EMIM cation, as shown by both the solution ¹H NMR and ¹³C SS NMR. Although the exact 342 composition of the partially decomposed IL and ZIF-8 mixture is hard to determine, the mass loss 343 from the ZIF-8 linkers is low and the net result is the formation of a glass.



Decomposition during isothermal step

Figure 7. Route of decomposition and possible final compositions. (a) Likely leaving groups
and their percentages of the total mass loss observed from mass spectrometry. Detected masses <
1 wt% loss are not included. Possible final compositions of (b) ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT) and (c)
16

 $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$ as determined from the peak area of the MS curves. R₁ is H/F or CH_{3-x}F_x and

R₁' is only $CH_{3-x}F_x$ and, while R_2 is only an H-containing organic group, H or CH_3 and R_2 ' is only CH₃.

To further investigate, and compare, the structures of the crystalline and glassy composites, room temperature synchrotron X-ray total scattering experiments were conducted on the IL, ZIF-8, IL@ZIF-8, $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$, and $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$ samples. For comparison with the heat treated samples, $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$ and $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$, a sample of ZIF-8 was amorphized (*see* Supplementary Figure S23) via ball milling for 30 minutes at 30 Hz in a shaker-type grinding mill - as detailed in the Methods section. This ball-milled sample is herein referred to as a_mZIF-8 , in accordance with prior nomenclature.¹⁵

358 The structure factors, S(Q) in Supplementary Figure S24a show Bragg peaks for the ZIF-8 and 359 IL@ZIF-8 samples, in agreement with the XRD data collected in this work. The intensity of the 360 Bragg peaks is reduced for the ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT) sample (see Supplementary Figure S24) but it is clear that the sample has not been fully amorphized. As expected, the S(Q)s for the IL and a_mZIF-361 362 8 samples show a noticeable absence of Bragg scattering, indicating their amorphous nature. The S(Q) for the $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$ sample is most similar to the S(Q) of a_mZIF-8 , both of which have 363 a broad first sharp diffraction peak (FSDP) often described as a manifestation of intermediate 364 range order in glasses.^{55,56} In addition to this broad peak at ~1 Å⁻¹ in the S(Q) of $a_{c}(IL@ZIF-8-$ 365 HT), there is a small sharper peak at 0.52 Å⁻¹. This matches the scattering vectors observed for 366 367 (011) in PXRD of ZIF-8.

368 From the background corrected X-ray total scattering data, the real space pair distribution function (PDFs), G(r) could be extracted by Fourier transform and were subsequently converted 369 to D(r) in order to emphasize the peaks at high r.^{57–59} These peaks correspond to atom-atom 370 correlations in the sample, with the peak position determined by the inter-atomic distances 371 372 between atom pairs and the intensity is proportional to the product of the scattering factors from 373 all of the atoms which correspond to a particular interatomic distance. As such, PDF analysis is a 374 powerful tool for studying amorphous materials and glasses as the local short-range order can 375 still be probed, but the presence of disorder and loss of structural coherence at longer length 376 scales leads to the absence of peaks at this extended regime.



Figure 8. Ambient temperature X-ray pair distribution function data. (a) A comparison of the X-ray pair distribution functions, D(r) of IL@ZIF-8 with its constituent components. (b) A comparison of the X-ray pair distribution functions, D(r) of $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$, ZIF-8 and a a_m ZIF-8. The limit of short-range order is shown along with the chemical connectivity of the ZIF-8 structure which accounts for the correlations within this limit.

380 As the X-ray atomic form factor is proportional to the atomic number, Z, the relatively light 381 elements such as those in the IL component do not contribute as intensely as correlations with the 382 heavier zinc atoms in ZIF-8. Additionally, the IL only accounts for a theoretical 35 wt% of the 383 composite sample, so the overall contribution of the IL towards the PDF pattern of the IL@ZIF-8 384 composite is expected to be small. Even so, a comparison of the PDFs of the IL@ZIF-8 385 composite, along with its constituent components in Figure 8a, shows that for correlations in 386 which there are peaks in both the IL and ZIF-8 patterns (e.g. the peaks at ~ 1.4 Å), the intensity of 387 the corresponding peaks in the IL@ZIF-8 composite is greater than in the pure ZIF-8 pattern. For 388 peaks which only correspond to correlations in ZIF-8 (e.g., the peaks at 2.01, 3.01, 4.17 and 6.02 389 Å), the intensity is smaller than in pure ZIF-8 due to the reduced ZIF-8 content in the composite.

390 Long-range order was evident in the ZIF-8 and IL@ZIF-8 samples, with peaks in the D(r)391 extending out to 25 Å (see Supplementary Figure S24b). However, the D(r) for the $a_{e}(IL@ZIF-8-$ 392 HT) sample appears largely featureless at extended distances (> 6.02 Å) which would be 393 consistent with the vitrification of the ZIF-8 component. This loss of long-range order, alongside the retention of the local structure (short-range order), is consistent with glass formation, as has 394 been observed for other glass forming MOFs.³⁷ The retained short range order is very similar to 395 that exhibited by the pure ZIF-8 sample (see Figure 8b), suggesting that the secondary building 396 397 block units (i.e. the Zn(2-MeIm)₄ clusters) of ZIF-8 are still intact, though, their arrangement at 398 extended length scales is disrupted. The presence of this short-range order also suggests that the 399 sample has not completely decomposed due to the heating procedure, or due to beam damage, 400 consistent with the digestive ¹H NMR data. Finally, the PDF patterns of the ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT) 401 sample and the a_mZIF-8, shown in Figure 8b are remarkably similar which supports the 402 successful amorphization of the ZIF-8 framework within the composite.

403

404 Discussion

In summary, the incorporation of an ionic liquid into the pores of ZIF-8 makes this otherwise unmeltable compound meltable. Based on structural investigations, we hypothesize that melting is achieved by reducing the melting temperature of ZIF-8 to below its thermal decomposition temperature, using electrostatic interactions of the IL at the ZIF-8 pores' interior surface in order to stabilize the rapidly dissociating ZIF-8 linkers upon heating. Although the methyl in mIm

(ZIF-8 linker) likely changes the Zn²⁺-linker bonding in ZIF-8 relative to meltable ZIF-4 (where 410 411 only Im is present), the largest change is in topology: the sodalite ZIF-8 topology is over three times as porous as the cag ZIF-4 topology.¹⁸ The IL anion and cation interact strongly with the 412 Zn²⁺ and linker, respectively, and the IL is less constrained than the ZIF-8 linker; upon 413 414 infiltration, it decreases the internal surface area of ZIF-8 (see Supplementary Figure S22 and 415 Supplementary Table S9 for surface area and pore volume analysis). Thus, the high porosity of 416 ZIF-8, or the low mobility and isolation of its linkers no longer present a barrier to melting: the IL ions are immediately available to exchange with the rapidly dissociating Zn^{2+} -linker bond and 417 prevent decomposition at elevated temperatures. More generally, we conclude that a suitable, *i.e.*, 418 419 strongly bonding, IL stabilizes ZIF (and potentially other MOF) melts by reducing the lifetime of unstable configurations via $Zn^{2+}-N^{-}$ bonding and H-bonding. The corresponding melt-quenched 420 glass has a glass forming ability which exceeds even those of previously reported superstrong 421 422 glasses from conventionally meltable ZIFs.

This approach strongly broadens the variety of hybrid glass chemistries which may be derived from the MOF family. It offers exciting opportunities to melt other non-meltable crystalline MOFs, enabling a broad range of new hybrid glasses with a variety of physicochemical properties and corresponding applications, in particular, ones which are derived from MOF architectures with large pore size.

428

429

430 Methods.

431 Preparation of IL@ZIF-8 composite. ZIF-8 and the IL, 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium 432 bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide, [EMIM][TFSI] (>99%), were purchased from ACSYNAM Inc 433 and IoLiTec, respectively. To remove moisture and volatile impurities, ZIF-8 was evacuated at 434 105 °C under vacuum overnight. IL@ZIF-8 composite was prepared using wet impregnation at a 435 stoichiometric IL loading of 35 wt%, according to previous reports. Briefly, 0.35 g of IL was 436 dissolved in 20 mL acetone and stirred for 1 h at room temperature in a sealed container to hinder 437 acetone evaporation. Afterwards activated ZIF-8 (0.65 g) was added to the solution and the 438 mixture was stirred at 35 °C for about 7 h under open atmosphere until the acetone was

evaporated. The resultant powder sample was dried overnight at 105 °C to remove remainingacetone.

441 Glass samples. Approximately 25 mg of powder IL@ZIF-8 composite was placed in a platinum 442 crucible and pressed by hand to provide a better contact with the crucible. To facilitate an even 443 heat transfer in the sample, a smaller platinum crucible that could fit inside the sample crucible was placed on the sample. To obtain $a_0(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$ and $a_0(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$, the sample was 444 heated to 120 °C with a ramp rate of 20 °C·min⁻¹ and kept for 45 minutes, followed by heating to 445 387 °C and 390 °C with a ramp rate of 10 °C·min⁻¹ and kept for 30 and 40 minutes, respectively. 446 447 Afterwards the sample was cooled down to room temperature with a ramp rate of 50 °C·min⁻¹. 448 All heating and cooling steps were performed under nitrogen flow (20 mL·min⁻¹).

449 **X-ray diffraction (XRD).** A Rigaku MiniFlex diffractometer (Cu K $_{\alpha}$ X-ray source with 450 wavelength of 1.54059 Å) was used to collect diffractograms in the 2 θ range of 5 to 40° with step 451 size of 0.02°. The voltage and current of the X-ray tube were set to 40 kV and 15 mA, 452 respectively.

453 Ambient Temperature X-ray Pair Distribution Function (XPDF). Synchrotron X-ray total 454 scattering data were measured at the Diamond Light Source, UK (EE20038). Samples were hand 455 ground and loaded into borosilicate capillaries with a 1.17 mm inner diameter. The ZIF-8 and 456 crystalline IL@ZIF-8 samples required the use of a beam filter due to detector saturation, giving 457 a transmission factor of 0.519; all other samples were used without this beam filter. Data were collected for an empty capillary (used as a background) and for all samples to a Q_{max} of 25.0 Å⁻¹ 458 $(\lambda = 0.161669 \text{ Å}, 76.69 \text{ keV})$ with a collection time of 10 mins per sample. Data normalization, 459 460 background subtraction and subsequent Fourier transform was performed using the GudrunX program to obtain the pair distribution functions (PDFs) for each sample.^{57,58} The atomic 461 compositions used for this analysis were calculated from TG-MS data for the a_e(IL@ZIF-8-LT) 462 463 and ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT) samples.

Amorphization of ZIF-8 via ball-milling. 50 mg of ZIF-8 was loaded into a 10 mL stainless
steel jar with 2 x 7 mm stainless steel ball bearings. The jar was then placed into a Retsch
MM400 grinder mill operating at 30 Hz for 30 min. The successful amorphization was confirmed
by powder X-ray diffraction.

468 Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy. FTIR spectra were collected using a Thermo

469 Scientific Nicolet iS10 model FTIR spectrometer in attenuated total reflection mode. 64 and 128

470 scans were measured for background and sample spectra with 2 cm⁻¹ resolution. Evaluation of the 471 spectra was done using Fityk software.⁶⁰

472 Thermogravimetric analysis coupled with differential scanning calorimetry (TGA-DSC).

473 Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) and DSC analysis were performed using a Netzsch STA 449 474 F1 instrument. Approximately 15 mg of each sample was placed in a platinum crucible and 475 gently pressed by hand to ensure a good contact between crucible and the powder sample. All measurements were performed under 20 mL·min⁻¹ of nitrogen flow. First the sample was heated 476 to 120 °C with a ramp of 20 °C·min⁻¹ and equilibrated for four hours to remove any volatiles. 477 478 Subsequently, it was heated to 600 °C with a ramp rate of 5 °C·min⁻¹. To obtain the glass 479 transition temperature (T_g) , $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$ in powder form was placed in a platinum crucible and heated to 400 °C with 5 °C·min⁻¹ ramp rate. T_m , T_d , and T_g are determined as the intersection 480 of the starting baseline and the tangent to the DSC curve at the maximum gradient point. 481

Thermogravimetric analysis coupled with mass spectrometry (TG–MS). TG–MS analysis
was performed using Netzsch STA 449 F1/QMS 403 instrument with multiple ion detection
(MID) mode. Approximately 15 mg of each sample was placed in a platinum crucible and TG–
MS analysis was performed for the samples at LT (387 °C for 30 minutes) and HT (390 °C for 40
minutes) conditions under 20 mL·min⁻¹ of nitrogen flow.

487 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM). A JSM-7001 F microscope (Jeol Ltd, Japan) was used to 488 analyze the morphology of ZIF-8 and IL@ZIF-8 samples. Approximately 10 mg of each sample 489 was placed on a carbon tape and pasted on an aluminum cell. Prior to measurement, samples 490 were coated with a thin layer of carbon. Voltage and working distance were set to 20 kV and 14 491 mm, respectively.

Digital optical microscopy. Imaging the glass samples was done using a Keyence VHX-6000 digital microscope with VHX-H2MK software and VHX-500 3D viewer 1.02. A VH-Z100UR differential interference contrast lens was used and the images were created by focal scanning along z-axis and stacking images. Top lights with side-lit lightening configuration was used to capture the photos with variable magnifications (200X, 250X, and 300X).

497 Confocal laser scanning microscopy. Melting of IL@ZIF-8 composite was recorded using a
498 Carl Zeiss Axio imager-Z1m LSM700 confocal laser scanning microscope. ZIF-8 and IL@ZIF-8
499 powders were placed on a quartz disc (5 mm diameter) and placed in a Linkam T95-HT stage.
500 Samples were heated to 390 °C with a ramp rate of 10 °C·min⁻¹ under 18 mL·min⁻¹ of argon flow.
501 Images were captures in one-minute intervals and ZEN-black software was used to create videos
502 from captured images.

503 **Nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy** (¹**H NMR).** A Bruker 300 MHz spectrometer was 504 used to measure ¹H NMR spectra. Approximately 6 mg of each sample was digested in 0.7 mL of 505 a stock solution of DCl (20%)/D₂O (0.889 mL) and DMSO-d₆ (3 mL). Data analysis was 506 performed in TopSpin software. Predicted ¹H NMR spectra of decomposed IL structures was 507 generated using *www.nmrdb.org* after drawing the corresponding chemical structure of 508 decomposed EMIM cations.^{61,62}

509 Solid-state Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (SSNMR) Spectroscopy. Single-pulse ¹³C as well as ¹H-¹³C and ¹H-¹⁵N cross-polarization (CP) SSNMR was done using a Bruker Avance III 400 (9.4 510 T magnet, 400.17 MHz for ¹H, 100.62 MHz for ¹³C and 40.55 MHz for ¹⁵N) equipped with a 4 511 512 mm MAS probehead. Carbon and nitrogen spectra were referenced to the external standard α glycine (carbonyl peak at 176.5 ppm and ¹⁵N peak at 32.9 ppm, respectively). For single-pulse 513 ¹³C experiments, relaxation times were varied from 10 - 150 s for the crystalline IL@ZIF-8 514 515 sample and the intensity for the longest relaxing carbon (C without any H) was found to be invariant for D1 > 100 s (t₁ \approx 20 s); this relaxation time was used for all the single-pulse ¹³C 516 experiments, assuming that glassy and IL carbons would relax faster. A 90° pulse of 10 µs (25 517 kHz) was used for single-pulse ¹³C, as were optimized on adamantane previously, spinning at 10 518 519 kHz, while the number of scans varied from 800 to 4104, depending on the sample. Finally, for 520 the collection of the IL spectrum, no spinning was used, a 90° pulse of 3.5 µs (71 kHz) was used 521 with SPINAL-64 decoupling was also used at an rf field of 49 kHz.

522 For ${}^{1}\text{H}{}^{-13}\text{C}$ CP, a 2.4 μ s (104 kHz) ${}^{1}\text{H}$ 90° pulse was used with a contact time of 2 ms with a 523 recycle delay of 2.5 s at an ${}^{13}\text{C}$ rf field of 71 kHz whilst the ${}^{1}\text{H}$ rf field amplitude was ramped up 524 to a maximum of 81 kHz. The number of scans varied from 2 300 to 68 000 for ZIF-8 *vs*. 525 $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$. In the case of ${}^{1}\text{H}{}^{-15}\text{N}$ CP, a 2.5 μ s (100 kHz) ${}^{1}\text{H}$ 90° pulse was used with a 526 contact time of 3 ms with a recycle delay of 2.5 s at an ${}^{15}\text{N}$ rf field of 56 kHz whilst the ${}^{1}\text{H}$ rf field

amplitude was ramped up to a maximum of 68 kHz. The number of scans varied from 24 000 to
168 000 for ZIF-8 vs. ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT). Spinal-64 decoupling was applied with an rf field
strength of 104 and 100 kHz for ¹³C and ¹⁵N, respectively. ¹³C was collected spinning at 10 kHz,
while ¹⁵N was spun at 12 kHz.

Brunauer-Emmet-Teller (BET) analysis. An Autosorb iQ instrument from Quantachrome Instruments was used for BET surface area and pore volume analysis of ZIF-8, IL@ZIF-8, $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$, and $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$ samples. To quantify the BET surface area N₂ adsorption at 77 K was performed. Around 50 mg of each sample were used for each measurement. Samples were outgassed for 20 h under high vacuum (10⁻⁸ mbar) at 125 °C prior to measurement to remove any kind of impurities.

537

538 Acknowledgements

539 This work received funding from the European Research Council through ERC grant no. 681652 540 (LW). TDB acknowledges the Royal Society for a University Research Fellowship (UF150021), 541 the Leverhulme Trust for a Philip Leverhulme Prize, and the University of Canterbury Te Whare 542 Wananga o Waitaha, New Zealand, for a University of Cambridge Visiting Canterbury 543 Fellowship. JMT acknowledges funding from the NanoDTC EPSRC Grant EP/L015978/1. We 544 extend our gratitude to Diamond Light Source, Rutherford Appleton Laboratory, UK, for access 545 to Beamline 115-1 (EE20038) as well as Michael F. Thorne and Lauren N. McHugh at the 546 University of Cambridge, for their assistance in carrying out room temperature XPDF 547 measurements.

548

549 **References**

- Furukawa, H., Cordova, K. E., O'Keeffe, M. & Yaghi, O. M. The Chemistry and
 Applications of Metal-Organic Frameworks. *Science*. 341, 1230444 (2013).
- McDonald, T. M. *et al.* Cooperative insertion of CO₂ in diamine-appended metal-organic
 frameworks. *Nature* 519, 303–308 (2015).
- Lee, J. *et al.* Metal-organic framework materials as catalysts. *Chem. Soc. Rev.* 38, 1450–1459 (2009).

- Horcajada, P. *et al.* Porous metal-organic-framework nanoscale carriers as a potential
 platform for drug deliveryand imaging. *Nat. Mater.* 9, 172–178 (2010).
- 5. Xu, W. & Yaghi, O. M. Metal-Organic Frameworks for Water Harvesting from Air,
 Anywhere, Anytime. ACS Cent. Sci. 6, 1348–1354 (2020).
- Moghadam, P. Z. *et al.* Development of a Cambridge Structural Database Subset: A
 Collection of Metal-Organic Frameworks for Past, Present, and Future. *Chem. Mater.* 29,
 2618–2625 (2017).
- Ahmed, A., Forster, M., Clowes, R., Myers, P. & Zhang, H. Hierarchical porous metalorganic framework monoliths. *Chem. Commun.* 50, 14314–14316 (2014).
- 565 8. Hindocha, S. & Poulston, S. Study of the scale-up, formulation, ageing and ammonia
 566 adsorption capacity of MIL-100(Fe), Cu-BTC and CPO-27(Ni) for use in respiratory
 567 protection filters. *Faraday Discuss.* 201, 113–125 (2017).
- 568 9. Gaillac, R. et al. Liquid metal-organic frameworks. Nat. Mater. 16, 1149–1154 (2017).
- 569 10. Park, K. S. *et al.* Exceptional chemical and thermal stability of zeolitic imidazolate
 570 frameworks. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 103, 10186–10191 (2006).
- 571 11. Tian, Y. Q. *et al.* Design and generation of extended zeolitic metal-organic frameworks
 572 (ZMOFs): Synthesis and crystal structures of zinc(II) imidazolate polymers with zeolitic
 573 topologies. *Chem. A Eur. J.* 13, 4146–4154 (2007).
- 574 12. Tian, Y. Q. *et al.* The Silica-Like Extended Polymorphism of Cobalt(II) Imidazolate
 575 Three-Dimensional Frameworks: X-ray Single-Crystal Structures and Magnetic Properties.
 576 *Chem. A Eur. J.* 9, 5673–5685 (2003).
- 577 13. Bennett, T. D. *et al.* Melt-Quenched Glasses of Metal-Organic Frameworks. *J. Am. Chem.*578 Soc. 138, 3484–3492 (2016).
- Tao, H., Bennett, T. D. & Yue, Y. Melt-Quenched Hybrid Glasses from Metal–Organic
 Frameworks. *Adv. Mater.* 29, 1–6 (2017).
- Tuffnell, J. M. *et al.* Novel metal-organic framework materials: Blends, liquids, glasses
 and crystal-glass composites. *Chem. Commun.* 55, 8705–8715 (2019).

- Frentzel-Beyme, L., Kloß, M., Kolodzeiski, P., Pallach, R. & Henke, S. Meltable MixedLinker Zeolitic Imidazolate Frameworks and Their Microporous Glasses: From Melting
 Point Engineering to Selective Hydrocarbon Sorption. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 141, 12362–
 12371 (2019).
- 587 17. Stillinger, F. H. A Topographic View of Supercooled Liquids and Glass Formation.
 588 Science. 267, 1935–1939 (1995).
- 589 18. Gaillac, R., Pullumbi, P. & Coudert, F. X. Melting of Zeolitic Imidazolate Frameworks
 590 with Different Topologies: Insight from First-Principles Molecular Dynamics. *J. Phys.*591 *Chem. C* 122, 6730–6736 (2018).
- 592 19. Stassen, I. *et al.* Chemical vapour deposition of zeolitic imidazolate framework thin films.
 593 *Nat. Mater.* 15, 304–310 (2016).
- Tran, U. P. N., Le, K. K. A. & Phan, N. T. S. Expanding applications of metal-organic
 frameworks: Zeolite imidazolate framework zif-8 as an efficient heterogeneous catalyst for
 the knoevenagel reaction. *ACS Catal.* 1, 120–127 (2011).
- 597 21. Sun, C. Y. *et al.* Zeolitic imidazolate framework-8 as efficient pH-sensitive drug delivery
 598 vehicle. *Dalt. Trans.* 41, 6906–6909 (2012).
- Song, Q. *et al.* Zeolitic imidazolate framework (ZIF-8) based polymer nanocomposite
 membranes for gas separation. *Energy Environ. Sci.* 5, 8359–8369 (2012).
- Bennett, T. D. *et al.* Facile mechanosynthesis of amorphous zeolitic imidazolate
 frameworks. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 133, 14546–14549 (2011).
- Lewis, D. W. *et al.* Zeolitic imidazole frameworks: Structural and energetics trends
 compared with their zeolite analogues. *CrystEngComm* 11, 2272–2276 (2009).
- Morris, W. *et al.* NMR and X-ray study revealing the rigidity of zeolitic imidazolate
 frameworks. *J. Phys. Chem. C* 116, 13307–13312 (2012).
- Rahul Banerjee, Anh Phan, Bo Wang, Carolyn Knobler, Hiroyasu Furukawa, Michael
 O'Keeffe, O. M. Y. High-Throughput Synthesis of Zeolitic Imidazolate Frameworks and
 Application to CO₂ Capture. *Science*. 939, 939–944 (2008).

- Kinik, F. P., Uzun, A. & Keskin, S. Ionic Liquid/Metal–Organic Framework Composites:
 From Synthesis to Applications. *ChemSusChem* 10, 2842–2863 (2017).
- 612 28. Gupta, K. M., Chen, Y., Hu, Z. & Jiang, J. Metal-organic framework supported ionic
 613 liquid membranes for CO₂ capture: anion effects. *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.* 14, 5785–94
 614 (2012).
- Dhumal, N. R., Singh, M. P., Anderson, J. A., Johannes, K. & Kim, H. J. Molecular
 Interactions of a Cu-Based Metal Organic Framework with a Confined Imidazolium-Based
 Ionic Liquid: A Combined Density-Functional Theory and Experimental Vibrational
 Spectroscopy Study. *J Phys Chem C* **120**, 3295–3304 (2016).
- 619 30. Nozari, V., Keskin, S. & Uzun, A. Toward Rational Design of Ionic Liquid/Metal–Organic
 620 Framework Composites: Effects of Interionic Interaction Energy. *ACS Omega* 2, 6613–
 6618 (2017).
- Huddleston, J. G. *et al.* Characterization and comparison of hydrophilic and hydrophobic
 room temperature ionic liquids incorporating the imidazolium cation. *Green Chem.* 3,
 156–164 (2001).
- Maton, C., De Vos, N. & Stevens, C. V. Ionic liquid thermal stabilities: Decomposition
 mechanisms and analysis tools. *Chem. Soc. Rev.* 42, 5963–5977 (2013).
- Kinik, F. P. *et al.* [BMIM][PF₆] Incorporation Doubles CO₂ Selectivity of ZIF-8:
 Elucidation of Interactions and Their Consequences on Performance. *ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces* 8, 30992–31005 (2016).
- 34. Nozari, V., Zeeshan, M., Keskin, S. & Uzun, A. Effect of methylation of ionic liquids on
 the gas separation performance of ionic liquid/metal-organic framework composites. *CrystEngComm* 20, 7137–7143 (2018).
- 633 35. Ban, Y. *et al.* Confinement of Ionic Liquids in Nanocages: Tailoring the Molecular
 634 Sieving Properties of ZIF-8 for Membrane-Based CO₂ Capture. *Angew. Chemie Int. Ed.*635 54, 15483–15487 (2015).
- 636 36. Fujie, K., Otsubo, K., Ikeda, R., Yamada, T. & Kitagawa, H. Low temperature ionic
 637 conductor: ionic liquid incorporated within a metal–organic framework. *Chem. Sci.* 6,

- 638 4306–4310 (2015).
- 639 37. Qiao, A. *et al.* A metal-organic framework with ultrahigh glass-forming ability. *Sci. Adv.*640 4, 1–8 (2018).
- 38. Dutta, R., Rao, M. N. & Kumar, A. Investigation of Ionic Liquid interaction with ZnBDCMetal Organic Framework through Scanning EXAFS and Inelastic Neutron Scattering. *Sci. Rep.* 9, 14741 (2019).
- 644 39. Cao, Y. & Mu, T. Comprehensive investigation on the thermal stability of 66 ionic liquids
 645 by thermogravimetric analysis. *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* 53, 8651–8664 (2014).
- 40. Hao, Y., Peng, J., Hu, S., Li, J. & Zhai, M. Thermal decomposition of allyl-imidazoliumbased ionic liquid studied by TGA-MS analysis and DFT calculations. *Thermochim. Acta*501, 78–83 (2010).
- Kue, Z., Zhang, Y., Zhou, X. Q., Cao, Y. & Mu, T. Thermal stabilities and decomposition
 mechanism of amino- and hydroxyl-functionalized ionic liquids. *Thermochim. Acta* 578,
 59–67 (2014).
- 42. Chen, Y., Cao, Y., Shi, Y., Xue, Z. & Mu, T. Quantitative research on the vaporization and
 decomposition of [EMIM][Tf₂N] by thermogravimetric analysis-mass spectrometry. *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* 51, 7418–7427 (2012).
- 43. Packer, K. J., Harris, R. K., Kenwright, A. M. & Snape, C. E. Quantitative aspects of solid
 state 13C n.m.r. of coals and related materials. *Fuel* 62, 999–1002 (1983).
- 44. Baxter, E. F. *et al.* Combined experimental and computational NMR study of crystalline
 and amorphous zeolitic imidazolate frameworks. *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.* 17, 25191–
 25196 (2015).
- 45. Noack, K., Schulz, P. S., Paape, N. & Kiefer, J. The role of the C2 position in interioric
 interactions of imidazolium based ionic liquids : a vibrational and NMR spectroscopic
 study. *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys* 14153–14161 (2010).
- 46. Wulf, A., Fumino, K. & Ludwig, R. Spectroscopic evidence for an enhanced anion-cation
 interaction from hydrogen bonding in pure imidazolium ionic liquids. *Angew. Chemie* -*Int. Ed.* 49, 449–453 (2010).

- 666 47. Chen, B. C., Von Philipsborn, W. & Nagarajan, K. 15N-NMR Spectra of Azoles with Two
 667 Heteroatoms. *Helv. Chim. Acta* 66, 1537–1555 (1983).
- 48. Fujii, K. *et al.* Liquid structure of room-temperature ionic liquid, 1-ethyl-3methylimidazolium bis-(trifluoromethanesulfonyl) imide. *J. Phys. Chem. B* 112, 4329–
 4336 (2008).
- 49. Dong, K., Zhang, S. & Wang, J. Understanding the hydrogen bonds in ionic liquids and
 their roles in properties and reactions. *Chem. Commun.* 52, 6744–6764 (2016).
- 50. Stejskal, J., Dybal, J. & Trchová, M. The material combining conducting polymer and
 ionic liquid: Hydrogen bonding interactions between polyaniline and imidazolium salt. *Synth. Met.* 197, 168–174 (2014).
- 51. Zhang, Q. G., Wang, N. N. & Yu, Z. W. The hydrogen bonding interactions between the
 ionic liquid 1-Ethyl-3-methylimidazolium ethyl sulfate and water. J. Phys. Chem. B 114,
 4747–4754 (2010).
- 679 52. Gowda, C. M. *et al.* Hydrogen bonding and chemical shift assignments in carbazole
 680 functionalized isocyanides from solid-state NMR and first-principles calculations. *Phys.*681 *Chem. Chem. Phys.* 13, 13082–13095 (2011).
- 682 53. Casas, J. M., Forniés, J., Martín, A. & Rueda, A. J. Synthesis of a dinuclear platinum683 silver complex containing a reactive acetone imine prepared in situ from acetone and
 684 ammonia and stabilized by metal complexation. *Organometallics* 21, 4560–4563 (2002).
- 54. Sinn, E. & Harris, C. M. Schiff base metal complexes as ligands1. *Coord. Chem. Rev.* 4, 391–422 (1969).
- 55. Shatnawi, M. T. M. The First Sharp Diffraction Peak in the Total Structure Function of
 Amorphous Chalcogenide Glasses: Anomalous Characteristics and Controversial Views.
 New J. Glas. Ceram. 06, 37–46 (2016).
- 690 56. Crupi, C., Carini, G., González, M. & D'Angelo, G. Origin of the first sharp diffraction
 691 peak in glasses. *Phys. Rev. B Condens. Matter Mater. Phys.* 92, 1–7 (2015).
- Soper, A. K. GudrunN and GudrunX: programs for correcting raw neutron and X-ray
 diffraction data to differential scattering cross section. *Tech. Reports* RAL-TR-201,
 29

694 (2011).

695	58.	Soper, A. K. & Barney, E. R. Extracting the pair distribution function from white-beam X-
696		ray total scattering data. J. Appl. Crystallogr. 44, 714–726 (2011).

- 59. Keen, D. A. A comparison of various commonly used correlation functions for describing
 total scattering. *J. Appl. Crystallogr.* 34, 172–177 (2001).
- 699 60. Wojdyr, M. Fityk: A general-purpose peak fitting program. *J. Appl. Crystallogr.* 43, 1126–
 700 1128 (2010).
- Aires-de-Sousa, J., Hemmer, M. C. & Gasteiger, J. Prediction of ¹H NMR chemical shifts
 using neural networks. *Anal. Chem.* 74, 80–90 (2002).
- Banfi, D. & Patiny, L. www.nmrdb.org: Resurrecting and processing NMR spectra on-*Chimia (Aarau).* 62, 280–281 (2008).

705

706 Data Availability

The data that support the findings of this study are shown in the manuscript or supportinginformation, or available from the corresponding author on any request.

709

710 Author Contributions

711 LW, VN and TDB conceived of this study. Sample synthesis, preparation, thermal analysis and 712 optical spectroscopy were done by VN. CC conducted NMR studies. X-ray total scattering 713 measurements and interpretations were carried out by JMT, with the assistance of DAK and 714 TDB. Microscopic investigations were performed by VN, CC and LW. VN and CC wrote the 715 first draft of the manuscript with the help of LW. All authors were involved in data interpretation, 716 critical discussion and manuscript revisions.

718 Additional Information

719 The authors declare no competing interests.

1	Supplementary information for
2	
3	Ionic Liquid Facilitated Melting of the Metal-Organic Framework ZIF-8
4	
5	Vahid Nozari ¹ , Courtney Calahoo ¹ , Joshua M. Tuffnell ² , David A. Keen ³ , Thomas D. Bennett ²
6	and Lothar Wondraczek ^{1,4*}
7	
8	¹ Otto Schott Institute of Materials Research, University of Jena, Jena, Germany
9	² Department of Materials Science and Metallurgy, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, United Kingdom
10	³ ISIS Facility, Rutherford Appleton Laboratory, Harwell Campus, Didcot, Oxfordshire, United Kingdom
11	⁴ Center of Energy and Environmental Chemistry, University of Jena, Jena, Germany
12	
13	
14 15	This file contains Supplementary Discussion of NMR Results, Supplementary Figures S1 to S24, Supplementary Tables S1 to S9 and Supplementary References 1-9.
16	
17	
18	
19	
20	
21	
22	
25	
25	
26	
27	
	1

28 NMR results.

29

30 ¹H NMR results of ZIF-8 protons.

31 Results for ZIF-8 protons are presented in Supplementary Figure S6 and Supplementary Tables 32 S4-S6. The $H_{4,5}/H_1$ ratio in Supplementary Table S5 shows that after IL incorporation the ratio for pristine ZIF-8 (0.67 \pm 5%) is preserved in IL@ZIF-8 sample (0.66 \pm 5%) showing that the 33 ZIF-8 linker is intact in the IL@ZIF-8 composite. However, we observed a decrease in this ratio 34 to 0.59 \pm 5% and 0.55 \pm 5% in ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT) and ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT) glasses, respectively. 35 36 Supplementary Table S6 illustrates the ratio of H₁ and H_{4.5} protons in the IL@ZIF-8 composite 37 and the glasses, with respect to the pristine ZIF-8. The percentage of $H_{4,5}$ protons are decreased 38 from 65.29 % of IL@ZIF-8 to 59.09 and 48.10 % for $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$ and $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$, 39 respectively. However, the percentage decrease in H₁ protons is less; almost no change was 40 detected for $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$ (66.79 %) and it decreased to 58.15 % for $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$.

41

42 ¹H NMR results of IL protons.

The NMR results of IL protons shows complex behavior for a_{σ} (IL@ZIF-8-LT) and a_{σ} (IL@ZIF-8-43 44 HT), as can be seen from Supplementary Figures S7a, S8a, S9a, S10a, and S11a. Overall, there 45 are major changes in the chemical shifts of the IL protons (see Supplementary Table S7); the 46 appearance of additional sets of peaks proves significant changes in electronic environment and 47 the occurrence of new environments upon heating. The predicted ¹H NMR shifts of the protons in 48 EMIM, considering all the possible decompositions/detachments of alkyl groups in 49 Supplementary Figures S7b, S8b, S9b, S10b, and S11b, suggest that the appearance of the new 50 peaks is consistent with partial decomposition of the IL. Supplementary Table S8 indicates 51 intensity of each EMIM proton in the samples and compares the intensities with those observed 52 for IL@ZIF-8.

The results show that the EMIM-h and EMIM-a environments in EMIM, are significantly changed within the $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$ and $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$ samples, whereas those in EMIM-b & c remain mostly intact. This is in accordance with literature results, showing that the cation and anion interaction in imidazolium-based ILs occurs via the EMIM-h position. EMIM-h is the most acidic hydrogen in the cation of imidazolium-based ILs, responsible for directional hydrogen bonds between the ions. It can be used as a probe for determining the strength of interionic interactions.^{1,2} The lower amount of EMIM protons in $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$ compared to $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$ indicates a greater degree of decomposition of the IL molecules in $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$, consistent with TG-MS results.

62

63 ¹³C NMR single-pulse results.

Supplementary Figure S12 displays the single-pulse quantitative ¹³C NMR spectra of the four 64 samples: ZIF-8, IL@ZIF-8, ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT) and ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT), while Supplementary 65 66 Figures S13 – S15 show the ppm ranges which correspond to the three main carbon peaks from the mIm linker of ZIF-8: CH₃ (C₁), CH (C_{4.5}) and C (C₂), respectively.³ The IL peaks are 67 discernible as extremely sharp doublets or triplets (see Supplementary Figure S16 for 68 assignments⁴), while the ZIF-8 peaks tend to be broader. In the single-pulse ¹³C NMR of the 69 70 a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT), Supplementary Figure S12, it is very clear that many of the ZIF-8 peaks have 71 broadened (with some sharper peaks indicative of crystallinity at LT), while any evidence of the 72 sharp IL peaks is missing, indicating the loss or immobilization of the IL carbons. Finally, in Supplementary Figure S13, only broad peaks exist at the HT condition for the a_v(IL@ZIF-8-HT) 73 74 sample.

Although cross-polarization (CP) is inherently non-quantitative and sensitive to the proximity and 75 amount of protons, single-pulse ¹³C NMR can provide information on the amount of IL that has 76 been incorporated into ZIF-8. The deconvolution of both methyl groups of the IL cation and ZIF-77 8 (Ce of EMIM and C1 of mIm linker) in Supplementary Figure S16 shows 16 mol% IL and 84 78 79 mol% ZIF-8, respectively, which corresponds to about 26 wt% loading of IL. Although this is 80 lower than expected from the synthesis procedure, 26 wt% is still a high loading. For quantification of the ZIF-8 carbons, it is important that the magnetization relaxes entirely; 81 anything less than complete relaxation will likely result in underestimation of the ZIF-8 content. 82 83 ¹³C NMR in solids, especially when not attached to any protons, can have surprisingly long relaxation times, $T_1 > 20$ s. It is clear that there are some discrepancies for the %loading 84 depending on the chosen analysis technique: TGA, ¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR find 34.3 wt%, 21 85 wt%, and 26 wt% loading, respectively. Unfortunately, all of these techniques have challenges 86

making them less-than-ideally suited for accurate determination of wt% loading in these types of systems. TGA analysis does not differentiate between whether the IL in on the surface or in the pores, while quantitative ¹³C NMR is challenging due to long relaxation times. Solution ¹H NMR using D₂O/DCl can result in the exchange of any acidic proton with deuterium, rendering that proton signal invisible to NMR.⁵ For example, Hasani *et al.*⁶ used a $H_2O + D_2O$ mixture to observe the exchange rate between water and the acidic NH proton on ethylimidazolium. In summary, a reliable measure of loading inside of the pores for IL@MOF composites still remains to be found.



Supplementary Figure S1. SEM images of a, b ZIF-8. c, d IL@ZIF-8.





113 Peaks are deconvoluted in Fityk using a Voigt function.⁷




Supplementary Table S1. IR shifts in IL@ZIF-8, $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$, and $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$ compared to pristine ZIF-8 in the region 600-800 cm⁻¹ (out of plane bending of imidazole ring). Shifts are calculated by subtracting peak positions in crystalline and glassy composite from the corresponding peaks in ZIF-8.

	600-800 cm ⁻¹					
ZIF-8	sh	ift in IR peaks compared to ZIF-8				
	IL@ZIF-8	ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT)	ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT)			
679.04	0.17	-10.78	-11.97			
683.94	0.3	-7.83	-8.46			
694.02	-0.42	-9.38	-9.53			
739.63	0.69	-9.8	-8.53			
746.78	0.87	-7.53	-7.41			
753.06	0.45	-3.52	-4.55			
759.54	-0.19	0.02	-0.96			

Supplementary Table S2. IR shifts in IL@ZIF-8, $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$, and $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$ compared to pristine ZIF-8 in the region 800-1700 cm⁻¹ (in-plane bending and entire ring stretching of imidazole ring). Shifts are calculated by subtracting peak positions in crystalline and glassy composite from the corresponding peaks in ZIF-8.

	800-1700 cm ⁻¹						
ZIF-8	shift in IR peaks compared to ZIF-8						
	IL@ZIF-8	ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT)	ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT)				
952.59	1.46	-0.94	-1.13				
992.36	1.06	0.95	0.52				
1145.97	-0.58	-1.12	-3.17				
1176.76	0.81	-2.25	-2.41				
1308.06	1.7	0.74	0.55				
1418.13	3.53	-0.44	-0.84				
1453.97	0.63	3.56	5.57				
1480.28	-3.49	4.24	5.17				
1509.6	-0.28	-1.64	-1.7 <mark>1</mark>				
1584.79	1.48	-9.58	-10.87				



150 Supplementary Figure S4. Thermal stability of bulk IL, pristine ZIF-8, and IL@ZIF-8 151 composite at melting conditions of 387 °C 30 minutes and 390 °C 40 minutes corresponding to 152 LT and HT, respectively. Olive and dark green lines related to y-axis show the heat profiles used 153 to form ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT) and ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT) glasses.

- 162 Supplementary Table S3. Mass losses from DSC-TGA recorded after heating bulk IL, pristine
- 163 ZIF-8, and IL@ZIF-8 composite to the same melting temperatures and time of IL@ZIF-8: 387
- 164 °C 30 minutes, LT, and 390 °C 40 minutes, HT.

Sample	Mass loss (%)
IL-LT	17.5
IL-HT	50.0
ZIF-8-LT	1.0
ZIF-8-HT	0.9
IL@ZIF-8-LT	20.7
IL@ZIF-8-HT	34.4

- 180
- 181





Supplementary Figure S5. TG-MS curves for LT and HT heat treatments. a IL heated at LT. b
IL@ZIF-8 heated at LT. c IL heated at HT. d IL@ZIF-8 heated at HT. TG-MS experiments were
performed under constant nitrogen atmosphere.



Supplementary Figure S6. ¹H NMR of ZIF-8, IL@ZIF-8, $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$, and $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$. Top figures show methyl-protons (H₁) and imidazole-protons (H_{4,5}) in ZIF-8. Solvent peaks are marked with asterisk. (H,D)₃O⁺ peaks are marked with #, please see Longley *et al.*⁵ for more details about solvent interactions.

205 Supplementary Table S4. Digested ¹H NMR chemical shifts of ZIF-8, IL@ZIF-8, ag(IL@ZIF-

206 8-LT), and ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT) samples.

Chemical shifts / ppm				
sample	H ₁	H _{4,5}	DMSO-d ₆	Impurity
ZIF-8	2.46	7.31	2.51	6.95

IL@ZIF-8	2.44	7.28	2.50	7.13
ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT)	2.46	7.30	2.51	7.04
ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT)	2.46	7.29	2.51	7.05

210 Supplementary Table S5. $H_{4,5}/H_1$ ratio from ¹H NMR integration of imidazole and methyl

211 protons.

Intensity relative to DMSO-d ₆					
sample	H ₁	H _{4,5}	H _{4,5} /H ₁		
ZIF-8	1.91	1.29	0.67		
IL@ZIF-8	1.26	0.84	0.66		
ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT)	1.28	0.76	0.59		
ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT)	1.11	0.62	0.55		

Supplementary Table S6. Intensity of H₁ and H_{4,5} singlets in IL@ZIF-8, ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT), and
 ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT) with respect to pristine ZIF-8.

Intensity relative to pure ZIF-8					
sample	H ₁	$\mathbf{H}_{4,5}$			
ZIF-8	100.00	100.00			
IL@ZIF-8	65.95	65.29			

ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT)	66.79	59.09
ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT)	58.15	48.10



Supplementary Figure S7. ¹H NMR of EMIM protons. **a** ¹H NMR of EMIM-e protons. **b** Predicted ¹H NMR of EMIM-e with possible decomposed structure.

In the following ¹H NMR results, prediction of ¹H NMR spectra was done using
 www.nmrdb.org.^{8,9}



Supplementary Figure S8. ¹H NMR of EMIM protons. **a** ¹H NMR of EMIM-a protons. **b** Predicted ¹H NMR of EMIM-a with possible decomposed structure.



Supplementary Figure S9. ¹H NMR of EMIM protons. **a** ¹H NMR of EMIM-d protons. **b** Predicted ¹H NMR of EMIM-d with possible decomposed structure.



Supplementary Figure S10. ¹H NMR of EMIM protons. **a** ¹H NMR of EMIM-b & c protons. **b** Predicted ¹H NMR of EMIM-b & c with possible decomposed structure.



Supplementary Figure S11. ¹H NMR of EMIM protons. **a** ¹H NMR of EMIM-h protons. **b** Predicted ¹H NMR of EMIM-h with possible decomposed structure.

269 Supplementary Table S7. Digested ¹H NMR chemical shifts of IL protons in IL@ZIF-8,

 $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$, and $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$ samples.

Chemical shifts / ppm						
sample	EMIM- h	EMIM-b & c	EMIM-d	EMIM-a	EMIM-e	DMSO-d ₆
IL@ZIF-8	8.95	7.47/7.56	4.05	3.71	1.27	2.50
ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT)	8.89/8.9 8	-	3.98/4.12	3.61/3.77	1.09/1.22/1.30	2.51
ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT)	8.88/8.9 8	-	3.98/4.12	3.61/3.77	1.06/1.22/1.30	2.51

Supplementary Table S8. Intensity of IL protons in IL@ZIF-8, ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT), and
 ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT) with respect to EMIMTFSI protons in IL@ZIF-8.

Intensity relative to EMIMTFSI protons					
sample	EMIM-h	EMIM-b & c	EMIM-d	EMIM-a	EMIM-e
IL@ZIF-8	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT)	56.47	97.55	64.89	62.63	77.96
ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT)	38.64	97.20	41.49	39.50	49.72



- 285 Supplementary Figure S12. ¹³C single pulse of ZIF-8, IL@ZIF-8, ag (IL@ZIF-8-LT) and
- 286 ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT).



- 288 Supplementary Figure S13. ¹³C of C₁ or CH₃ in ZIF-8, IL@ZIF-8, a_g (IL@ZIF-8-LT) and
- 289 ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT).

287



292 Supplementary Figure S14. ¹³C of C₄, ₅ or CH in ZIF-8, IL@ZIF-8, a_g (IL@ZIF-8-LT) and

293 ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT).







Supplementary Figure S16. Comparison of fitting of single-pulse 13 C NMR of the C₁ or CH₃ region in ZIF-8 (a) decoupled and (b) coupled. Both fits have the same approximate amount of IL and ZIF-8.







Supplementary Figure S18. ¹³C single-pulse of IL cation, EMIM. Decoupled vs. pulse sequence

- 307 with no decoupling.



312 Supplementary Figure S19. ${}^{1}H-{}^{13}C$ CP NMR. a. C_{h} or C b. C_{a} :CH₃ and C_{d} :CH₂. CH₃ regions in

- 313 IL cation EMIM.



317 Supplementary Figure S20. 13 C and $^{1}H^{-13}$ C CP NMR of CH₃ regions in ZIF-8.





319

320 Supplementary Figure S21. ¹³C single-pulse fitting of C₁ or lone C region in ZIF-8 in the LT

321 sample.







324 Supplementary Figure S22. N₂ isotherms obtained at 77 K for ZIF-8, IL@ZIF-8, ag(IL@ZIF-8-

325 LT) and ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT). Open symbols represent desorption isotherms.

sample	Surface area $(m^2 g^{-1})$	Pore volume ($cm^3 g^{-1}$)	
ZIF-8	1752	0.634	
IL@ZIF-8	11	0.005	
ag(IL@ZIF-8-LT)	10	0.003	
ag(IL@ZIF-8-HT)	8	0.001	

332 Supplementary Table S9. BET Surface area and pore volume results.

highlight for the second seco

Supplementary Figure S23. Powder X-ray diffraction pattern for a sample of ZIF-8 which has
been amorphized via ball-milling (30 min, 30 Hz) showing only broad features. The data have
been background subtracted and normalized.



Supplementary Figure S24. Ambient temperature X-ray PDF data. (a) X-ray total scattering structure factor, S(Q) of the IL, ZIF-8, IL@ZIF-8, $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-LT)$, $a_g(IL@ZIF-8-HT)$ and a_m -ZIF-8 samples. (b) Corresponding X-ray pair distribution functions, D(r).

346 References

347		
348 349 350	1.	Noack, K., Schulz, P. S., Paape, N. & Kiefer, J. The role of the C2 position in interionic interactions of imidazolium based ionic liquids : a vibrational and NMR spectroscopic study. <i>Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys</i> 14153–14161 (2010).
351 352 353	2.	Wulf, A., Fumino, K. & Ludwig, R. Spectroscopic evidence for an enhanced anion-cation interaction from hydrogen bonding in pure imidazolium ionic liquids. <i>Angew. Chemie - Int. Ed.</i> 49 , 449–453 (2010).
354 355 356	3.	Baxter, E. F. <i>et al.</i> Combined experimental and computational NMR study of crystalline and amorphous zeolitic imidazolate frameworks. <i>Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.</i> 17 , 25191–25196 (2015).
357 358 359 360	4.	Chen, Y., Li, S., Xue, Z., Hao, M. & Mu, T. Quantifying the hydrogen-bonding interaction between cation and anion of pure [EMIM][Ac] and evidencing the ion pairs existence in its extremely diluted water solution: Via 13C, 1H, 15N and 2D NMR. <i>J. Mol. Struct.</i> 1079 , 120–129 (2015).
361 362	5.	Longley, L. <i>et al.</i> The Reactivity of an Inorganic Glass Melt with ZIF-8. <i>Dalt. Trans.</i> submitted , (2021).
363 364 365	6.	Hasani, M., Nordstierna, L. & Martinelli, A. Molecular dynamics involving proton exchange of a protic ionic liquid–water mixture studied by NMR spectroscopy. <i>Phys.</i> <i>Chem. Chem. Phys</i> 21 , 22014 (2019).
366 367	7.	Wojdyr, M. Fityk: A general-purpose peak fitting program. J. Appl. Crystallogr. 43, 1126–1128 (2010).
368 369	8.	Aires-de-Sousa, J., Hemmer, M. C. & Gasteiger, J. Prediction of 1H NMR chemical shifts using neural networks. <i>Anal. Chem.</i> 74 , 80–90 (2002).
370 371	9.	Banfi, D. & Patiny, L. www.nmrdb.org: Resurrecting and processing NMR spectra on- line. <i>Chimia (Aarau).</i> 62 , 280–281 (2008).
372		

3. Summary

In conclusion, this work investigated meltability and glass formation of metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) as a new class of organic-inorganic hybrid glasses. MOF glasses take advantage of chemical tunability of crystalline MOFs, provides easier processing and handling of such materials in certain applications, and broadens their usage. Among huge number of crystalline MOFs, only a handful of them can be melted. To enable large-scale application of newly emerged MOF glasses, two major parameters need to be addressed: 1) large-scale production of meltable MOF crystals, allowing production of bulk MOF glasses. 2) overcoming melting constraints in non-meltable MOFs, extending the number of meltable MOFs.

At first, we studied the thermal properties and structural integrity of a commercially available and meltable zeolitic imidazolate framework, ZIF-62. We showed that in a mixed-linker ZIF/MOF, heterogeneity in linker coordination can result in the formation of different polymorph crystals from each organic linker. In a commercial variant of ZIF-62, we identified the presence of two different crystal phases other than the main phase, which were ZIF-zni and ZIF-4. The presence of such polymorphs alters thermal properties by either a drastic increase in the melting temperature (100 °C in the case of ZIF-62) or by hindering a melting transition. The formation of such secondary phases not only affects thermal properties and glass formation but also can impair other applications such as catalysis and gas separation. To identify new meltable MOF/ZIF candidates and evaluate their phase integrity, thermal characterization techniques such as differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) and variable temperature x-ray diffraction (VT-XRD) analysis must be combined with common structural characterization tools, especially in the case of mixed-linker ZIFs/MOFs. These findings can facilitate the successful large-scale production of such heterolinker glass-forming ZIFs/MOFs.

To investigate the melting of non-meltable MOFs by considering the melting constraints, we introduced a simple post-synthesis method of ionic liquid (IL) incorporation into nanopores of non-meltable MOFs. IL@MOF composites benefit from tunable chemical and physical properties of ILs such as hydrophilicity, presence of functional groups, adjustable size, very low melting temperature, and most importantly, high thermal stability.

In the second part, we investigated the incorporation of a salt-IL mixture, Na_{0.1}EMIM_{0.9}TFSI, in a high porous and crystalline MOF, ZIF-8. The effects of structural amorphization, via mechanical ball-milling, on the crystallinity, stability of salt-IL mixture in the pores, and ion conduction performance were studied. The results exhibited that salt-IL was successfully encapsulated in ZIF-8 pores, showing a very high ion conductivity (2×10^{-4} S cm⁻¹) at room temperature. Ball-milling was able to amorphize the structure and trap the salt-IL in collapsed pores. As the amorphization degree increased, the ion conduction performance decreased. However, amorphous composites showed better stability in ion conduction than their crystalline counterparts when exposed to ambient conditions. Moreover, it was shown that the presence of IL molecules in the pores could improve the stability of the composite toward mechanical ball-milling. This showed that the structural amorphization is a useful approach enabling the application of MOFs in certain applications where crystalline MOFs would fail.

According to the melting mechanism identified for ZIF-4, a meltable ZIF, dissociated organic linkers from the metal sites are replaced by neighboring linkers so that initial coordination environment of the metal sites is preserved. However, in more porous frameworks such as ZIF-8, because of very isolated linkers, high free energy prevents the charge stabilization withing the framework. As a result, incorporation of ILs in the pores, provides available anionic and cationic species in the pores, thus a charge stabilization with the metal sites and organic linkers can be achieved.

In the last part, high free energy and interionic interactions, identified as the constraints hindering the melting of ZIFs/MOFs, were addressed. Overcoming these constraints can force the potential melting temperature to be below the thermal decomposition temperature, enabling the melting of non-meltable MOFs/ZIFs. ZIF-8, a non-meltable and highly porous ZIF, was infiltrated with an IL, [EMIM][TFSI]. As a result, the porosity of ZIF-8 was decreased, and the IL was observed to interact with ZIF-8. Upon heating the IL@ZIF-8 crystalline composite, the enthalpic response showed a melting transition at 381 °C as a result of enhanced electrostatic interactions, and IL@ZIF-8 was melted. NMR results of obtained glasses show that the prevention of ZIF-8 decomposition, and successful melting, is due to the IL interactions stabilizing the rapidly dissociating ZIF-8 linkers upon heating. Electrostatic interactions between dissociated 2-methylimidazolate linkers from the Zn²⁺ metal centers and the IL ions were identified as the charge stabilization mechanism, which leads to a stable liquid. Moreover, pair distribution function results

(PDF), confirmed the successful amorphization of the ZIF-8 phase in the glass sample as the loss of long-range order was observed in the glass whilst short-range order was preserved.

For the first time, experimental melting of ZIF-8 was observed at relatively low temperatures, whereas computational studies estimated the melting temperature of ZIF-8 to occur around 1400 °C. We demonstrated that both constraints, defined as parameters hindering the melting of highly porous crystals can be diminished by encapsulating ILs in MOFs/ZIFs. This approach can be applied to melt other non-meltable MOF/ZIF structures, introducing a large number (over 70,000) of potential new MOF glasses, having a wide variety of physical and chemical properties.

4. Zusammenfassung

Zusammenfassend wurde in dieser Arbeit die Schmelzbarkeit und Glasbildung von metallorganischen Gerüsten (*metal-organic frameworks*, MOFs) als eine neue Klasse von organisch-anorganischen Hybridgläsern untersucht. MOF-Gläser machen sich die chemische Abstimmbarkeit kristalliner MOFs zunutze, ermöglichen eine einfachere Verarbeitung und Handhabung solcher Materialien in bestimmten Anwendungen und erweitern deren Einsatzmöglichkeiten. Von der großen Anzahl kristalliner MOFs kann nur eine Handvoll von ihnen geschmolzen werden. Um eine großtechnische Anwendung neuartiger MOF-Gläser zu ermöglichen, müssen zwei wichtige Parameter berücksichtigt werden: 1) die großtechnische Produktion von schmelzbaren MOF-Kristallen, die die Herstellung von MOF-Gläsern in Masse ermöglicht. 2) Überwindung der Schmelzbeschränkungen bei nicht schmelzbaren MOFs, wodurch die Anzahl der schmelzbaren MOFs erhöht wird.

Zunächst untersuchten wir die thermischen Eigenschaften und die strukturelle Integrität eines kommerziell erhältlichen und schmelzbaren zeolithischen Imidazolatgerüsts, ZIF-62. Wir konnten zeigen, dass in einem ZIF/MOF mit gemischten Linkern die Heterogenität der Linker-Koordination zur Bildung unterschiedlicher polymorpher Kristalle aus jedem organischen Linker führen kann. In einer kommerziellen Variante von ZIF-62 identifizierten wir außer der Hauptphase zwei verschiedenen Kristallphasen, nämlich ZIF-zni und ZIF-4. Das Vorhandensein solcher Polymorphe verändert die thermischen Eigenschaften, indem es entweder die Schmelztemperatur drastisch erhöht (100 °C im Fall von ZIF-62) oder das Erreichen des Schmelzübergangs behindert. Die Bildung solcher Phasen beeinflusst nicht nur die thermischen Eigenschaften und die Glasbildung, sondern kann auch andere Anwendungen wie Katalyse und Gastrennung beeinträchtigen. Um neue schmelzbare MOF/ZIF-Kandidaten zu identifizieren und ihre Phasenintegrität zu bewerten, müssen thermische Charakterisierungstechniken, wie die Differential-Scanning-Kalorimetrie (DSC) und die Analyse der Röntgenbeugung bei variabler Temperatur (VT-XRD), mit gängigen Werkzeugen zur strukturellen Charakterisierung kombiniert werden, insbesondere im Fall von ZIFs/MOFs mit gemischten Linkern. Daraus gewonnene Erkenntnisse können die großtechnische Herstellung solcher glasbildender ZIFs/MOFs mit verschiedenen Linkern erleichtern.

Um das Schmelzen von nicht schmelzbaren MOFs unter Berücksichtigung der Schmelzbeschränkungen zu untersuchen, haben wir eine einfache Post-Synthese-Methode zur Einbindung ionischer Flüssigkeit (IL) in Nanoporen von nicht schmelzbaren MOFs eingeführt. IL@MOF-Komposite profitieren von den abstimmbaren chemischen und physikalischen Eigenschaften von ILs, wie z.B. Hydrophilie, das Vorhandensein funktioneller Gruppen, einstellbare Größe, sehr niedrige Schmelztemperatur und - vor allem - hohe thermische Stabilität.

In einem zweiten Teil wurde der Einbau einer Salz-IL-Mischung, Na_{0.1}EMIM_{0.9}TFSI, in ein hochporöses und kristallines MOF, ZIF-8, untersucht. Der Effekt der strukturellen Amorphisierung durch mechanisches Kugelmahlen wurde im Hinblick auf die Kristallinität, die Stabilität der Salz-IL-Mischung in den Poren und die Ionenleitfähigkeit untersucht. Die Ergebnisse zeigten, dass Salz-IL erfolgreich in ZIF-8-Poren eingebunden wurde und dadurch eine sehr hohe Ionenleitfähigkeit $(2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ S cm}^{-1})$ bei Raumtemperatur erreicht werden konnte. Durch Kugelmahlen konnte die Struktur amorphisiert, und das Salz-IL in kollabierten Poren einfangen werden. Mit zunehmendem Amorphisierungsgrad nahm die Ionenleitfähigkeit ab. Der amorphe Verbundstoff zeigte jedoch eine verbesserte Stabilität der Ionenleitung, wenn dieser normalen Umgebungsbedingungen ausgesetzt wurde. Außerdem wurde gezeigt, dass die Anwesenheit von IL-Molekülen in den Poren die Stabilität des Komposits gegenüber mechanischem Kugelmahlen verbessern kann. Dies zeigte, dass die strukturelle Amorphisierung ein nützlicher Ansatz ist, der die Anwendung von MOFs in bestimmten Anwendungen ermöglicht, in denen kristalline MOFs versagen würden.

Gemäß dem Schmelzmechanismus, der für ZIF-4, ein schmelzbares ZIF, identifiziert wurde, werden dissoziierte organische Linker von den Metallstellen durch benachbarte Linker ersetzt, sodass die ursprüngliche Koordinationsumgebung der Metallstellen erhalten bleibt. In poröseren Gerüsten wie ZIF-8 verhindert jedoch die hohe freie Energie aufgrund der sehr isolierten Linker die Ladungsstabilisierung innerhalb des Gerüsts. Infolgedessen bietet der Einbau von ILs in die Poren verfügbare anionische und kationische Spezies in den Poren, wodurch eine Ladungsstabilisierung mit den Metallstellen und organischen Linkern erreicht werden kann.

Im letzten Teil wurden die hohe freie Energie und die interionische Wechselwirkung als Hemmnisse für das Schmelzen von ZIFs/MOFs identifiziert. Die Überwindung dieser Einschränkungen kann die potenzielle Schmelztemperatur unter die thermische Zersetzungstemperatur senken und damit das Schmelzen von nicht schmelzbaren MOFs/ZIFs ermöglichen. ZIF-8, ein nicht schmelzbares und hochporöses ZIF, wurde mit einer IL, [EMIM][TFSI], infiltriert. Als Ergebnis wurde die Porosität von ZIF-8 verringert, und eine Interaktion von IL mit ZIF-8 konnte beobachtet werden. Beim Erhitzen zeigte der kristalline IL@ZIF-8-Verbundwerkstoffs einen Schmelzübergang bei 381 °C als Ergebnis verstärkter elektrostatischer Wechselwirkungen, und IL@ZIF-8 wurde aufgeschmolzen. NMR-Ergebnisse der erhaltenen Gläser zeigen, dass die Verhinderung der ZIF-8-Zersetzung und das erfolgreiche Schmelzen auf die IL-Wechselwirkungen zurückzuführen ist, welche die schnell dissoziierenden ZIF-8-Linker beim Erhitzen stabilisieren. Elektrostatische Wechselwirkungen zwischen dissoziierten 2-Methylimidazolat-Linkern aus den Zn²⁺-Metallzentren und den IL-Ionen wurden als der Mechanismus zur Ladungsstabilisierung identifiziert, der zu einer stabilen Flüssigkeit führt. Darüber hinaus bestätigten die Ergebnisse der Paarverteilungsfunktion (PDF) die erfolgreiche Amorphisierung der ZIF-8-Phase in der Glasprobe, da der Verlust der Fernordnung im Glas beobachtet wurde, während die Nahordnung erhalten blieb.

Zum ersten Mal wurde das experimentelle Schmelzen von ZIF-8 bei einer relativ niedrigen Temperatur beobachtet, während Simulationsstudien die Schmelztemperatur von ZIF-8 auf etwa 1400 °C schätzten. Wir konnten zeigen, dass beide Einschränkungen, definiert als Parameter, die das Schmelzen hochporöser Kristalle behindern, durch das Einbinden von ILs in MOFs/ZIFs verringert werden können. Dieser Ansatz lässt sich auch auf andere nicht schmelzbare MOF/ZIF-Strukturen anwenden, wodurch eine große Anzahl (über 70,000) potenzieller neuer Gläser mit einer Vielzahl physikalischer und chemischer Eigenschaften entsteht.

5. Bibliography

- Furukawa, H.; Cordova, K. E.; O'Keeffe, M.; Yaghi, O. M. The Chemistry and Applications of Metal-Organic Frameworks. *Science*. 2013, *341* (6149).
- (2) Eddaoudi, M.; Kim, J.; Rosi, N.; Vodak, D.; Wachter, J.; O'Keeffe, M.; Yaghi, O. M. Systematic Design of Pore Size and Functionality in Isoreticular MOFs and Their Application in Methane Storage. *Science* 2002, *295* (5554), 469–472.
- Moghadam, P. Z.; Li, A.; Wiggin, S. B.; Tao, A.; Maloney, A. G. P.; Wood, P. A.; Ward, S. C.; Fairen-Jimenez, D. Development of a Cambridge Structural Database Subset: A Collection of Metal-Organic Frameworks for Past, Present, and Future. *Chem. Mater.* 2017, 29 (7), 2618–2625.
- Howarth, A. J.; Liu, Y.; Li, P.; Li, Z.; Wang, T. C.; Hupp, J. T.; Farha, O. K. Chemical, Thermal and Mechanical Stabilities of Metal-Organic Frameworks. *Nat. Rev. Mater.* 2016, *1* (15018), 1–15.
- (5) Design and Synthesis of an Exceptionally Stable and Highly Porous Metal-Organic Framework. *Nature* 1999, 402 (November), 276–279.
- (6) Furukawa, H.; Yaghi, O. M. Storage of Hydrogen, Methane, and Carbon Dioxide in Highly Porous Covalent Organic Frameworks for Clean Energy Applications. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2009, 131 (25), 8875–8883.
- (7) Farha, O. K.; Eryazici, I.; Jeong, N. C.; Hauser, B. G.; Wilmer, C. E.; Sarjeant, A. A.; Snurr, R. Q.; Nguyen, S. T.; Yazaydin, A. Ö.; Hupp, J. T. Metal-Organic Framework Materials with Ultrahigh Surface Areas: Is the Sky the Limit? *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 2012, *134* (36), 15016–15021.
- Li, J. R.; Sculley, J.; Zhou, H. C. Metal-Organic Frameworks for Separations. *Chem. Rev.* 2012, *112* (2), 869–932.
- (9) Lee, J.; Farha, O. K.; Roberts, J.; Scheidt, K. A.; Nguyen, S. T.; Hupp, J. T. Metal–Organic Framework Materials as Catalysts. *Chem. Soc. Rev.* 2009, *38* (5), 1450.

- (10) Kreno, L. E.; Leong, K.; Farha, O. K.; Allendorf, M.; Van Duyne, R. P.; Hupp, J. T. Metal-Organic Framework Materials as Chemical Sensors. *Chem. Rev.* 2012, *112* (2), 1105–1125.
- (11) Horike, S.; Umeyama, D.; Kitagawa, S. Ion Conductivity and Transport by Porous Coordination Polymers and Metal-Organic Frameworks. *Acc. Chem. Res.* 2013, *46* (11), 2376–2384.
- Horcajada, P.; Chalati, T.; Serre, C.; Gillet, B.; Sebrie, C.; Baati, T.; Eubank, J. F.; Heurtaux, D.; Clayette, P.; Kreuz, C.; et al. Porous Metal-Organic-Framework Nanoscale Carriers as a Potential Platform for Drug Deliveryand Imaging. *Nat. Mater.* 2010, *9* (2), 172–178.
- (13) Horcajada, P.; Serre, C.; Maurin, G.; Ramsahye, N. A.; Balas, F.; Vallet-Regí, M.; Sebban, M.; Taulelle, F.; Férey, G. Flexible Porous Metal-Organic Frameworks for a Controlled Drug Delivery. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2008, 130 (21), 6774–6780.
- (14) Horcajada, P.; Serre, C.; Vallet-Regí, M.; Sebban, M.; Taulelle, F.; Férey, G. Metal–Organic Frameworks as Efficient Materials for Drug Delivery. *Angew. Chemie* 2006, *118* (36), 6120– 6124.
- (15) Rubio-Martinez, M.; Avci-Camur, C.; Thornton, A. W.; Imaz, I.; Maspoch, D.; Hill, M. R. New Synthetic Routes towards MOF Production at Scale. *Chem. Soc. Rev.* 2017, *46* (11), 3453–3480.
- (16) Bennett, T. D.; Cheetham, A. K. Amorphous Metal-Organic Frameworks. *Acc. Chem. Res.* 2014, 47 (5), 1555–1562.
- Bennett, T. D.; Simoncic, P.; Moggach, S. A.; Gozzo, F.; MacChi, P.; Keen, D. A.; Tan, J. C.; Cheetham, A. K. Reversible Pressure-Induced Amorphization of a Zeolitic Imidazolate Framework (ZIF-4). *Chem. Commun.* 2011, *47* (28), 7983–7985.
- (18) Erkartal, M.; Durandurdu, M. Pressure-Induced Amorphization, Mechanical and Electronic Properties of Zeolitic Imidazolate Framework (ZIF-8). *Mater. Chem. Phys.* 2020, 240 (July 2019).
- (19) Cao, S.; Bennett, T. D.; Keen, D. A.; Goodwin, A. L.; Cheetham, A. K. Amorphization of the Prototypical Zeolitic Imidazolate Framework ZIF-8 by Ball-Milling. *Chem. Commun.* 2012, 48 (63), 7805–7807.

- Bennett, T. D.; Yue, Y.; Li, P.; Qiao, A.; Tao, H.; Greaves, N. G.; Richards, T.; Lampronti, G. I.; Redfern, S. A. T.; Blanc, F.; et al. Melt-Quenched Glasses of Metal-Organic Frameworks. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2016, 138 (10), 3484–3492.
- (21) Bennett, T. D. Liquid, Glass and Amorphous Solid States of Coordination Polymers and Metal–Organic Frameworks. *Nat. Rev. Mater.* 2018, 3 (11), 431–440.
- (22) Orellana-Tavra, C.; Baxter, E. F.; Tian, T.; Bennett, T. D.; Slater, N. K. H.; Cheetham, A. K.; Fairen-Jimenez, D. Amorphous Metal-Organic Frameworks for Drug Delivery. *Chem. Commun.* 2015, *51* (73), 13878–13881.
- (23) Chapman, K. W.; Sava, D. F.; Halder, G. J.; Chupas, P. J.; Nenoff, T. M. Trapping Guests within a Nanoporous Metal-Organic Framework through Pressure-Induced Amorphization. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 2011, *133* (46), 18583–18585.
- (24) Ortiz, A. U.; Boutin, A.; Fuchs, A. H.; Coudert, F. X. Investigating the Pressure-Induced Amorphization of Zeolitic Imidazolate Framework ZIF-8: Mechanical Instability Due to Shear Mode Softening. J. Phys. Chem. Lett. 2013, 4 (11), 1861–1865.
- Hazen, R. M.; Sharp, Z. D. Compressibility of Sodalite and Scapolite. *Am. Mineral.* 1988, 73, 1120.
- (26) Zanotto, E. D.; Mauro, J. C. The Glassy State of Matter: Its Definition and Ultimate Fate. J. Non. Cryst. Solids 2017, 471 (June), 490–495.
- (27) Gupta, P. K. Non-Crystalline Solids: Glasses and Amorphous Solids. J. Non. Cryst. Solids 1996, 195 (1–2), 158–164.
- (28) Bykov, V. N.; Koroleva, O. N.; Osipov, A. A. Structure of Silicate Melts: Raman Spectroscopic Data and Thermodynamic Simulation Results. *Geochemistry Int.* 2009, 47 (11), 1067–1074.
- (29) Ediger, M. D.; Angell, C. A.; Nagel, S. R. Supercooled Liquids and Glasses. J. Phys. Chem.
 1996, 100 (31), 13200–13212.
- (30) Debenedetti, P. G.; Stillinger, F. H. Review Article Supercooled Liquids and the Glass Transition. *Nature* 2001, 410 (March), 259.

- (31) Angell, C. A. Formation of Glasses from Liquids and Biopolymers. Science. 1995, 267
 (5206), 1924–1935.
- (32) Morse, D. L.; Evenson, J. W. Welcome to the Glass Age. *Int. J. Appl. Glas. Sci.* 2016, 7 (4), 409–412.
- (33) Mauro, J. C.; Zanotto, E. D. Two Centuries of Glass Research: Historical Trends, Current Status, and Grand Challenges for the Future. *Int. J. Appl. Glas. Sci.* **2014**, *5* (3), 313–327.
- (34) Wang, Y.; Jin, H.; Ma, Q.; Mo, K.; Mao, H.; Feldhoff, A.; Cao, X. A MOF Glass Membrane for Gas Separation. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* 2020, 59, 4365–4369.
- (35) Park, K. S.; Ni, Z.; Côté, A. P.; Choi, J. Y.; Huang, R.; Uribe-Romo, F. J.; Chae, H. K.;
 O'Keeffe, M.; Yaghi, O. M. Exceptional Chemical and Thermal Stability of Zeolitic Imidazolate Frameworks. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 2006, *103* (27), 10186–10191.
- (36) Tian, Y. Q.; Zhao, Y. M.; Chen, Z. X.; Zhang, G. N.; Weng, L. H.; Zhao, D. Y. Design and Generation of Extended Zeolitic Metal-Organic Frameworks (ZMOFs): Synthesis and Crystal Structures of Zinc(II) Imidazolate Polymers with Zeolitic Topologies. *Chem. - A Eur. J.* 2007, *13* (15), 4146–4154.
- (37) Tian, Y. Q.; Cai, C. X.; Ren, X. M.; Duan, C. Y.; Xu, Y.; Gao, S.; You, X. Z. The Silica-Like Extended Polymorphism of Cobalt(II) Imidazolate Three-Dimensional Frameworks: X-Ray Single-Crystal Structures and Magnetic Properties. *Chem. A Eur. J.* 2003, 9 (22), 5673–5685.
- (38) Bennett, T. D.; Tan, J. C.; Yue, Y.; Baxter, E.; Ducati, C.; Terrill, N. J.; Yeung, H. H. M.; Zhou, Z.; Chen, W.; Henke, S.; et al. Hybrid Glasses from Strong and Fragile Metal-Organic Framework Liquids. *Nat. Commun.* 2015, *6*, 1–7.
- Gaillac, R.; Pullumbi, P.; Beyer, K. A.; Chapman, K. W.; Keen, D. A.; Bennett, T. D.;
 Coudert, F.-X. Liquid Metal–Organic Frameworks. *Nat. Mater.* 2017, *16*, 1149–1154.
- (40) Keen, D. A.; Bennett, T. D. Structural Investigations of Amorphous Metal-Organic Frameworks Formed: Via Different Routes. *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.* 2018, 20 (11), 7857– 7861.
- (41) Wright, A. C.; Shakhmatkin, B. A.; Vedishcheva, N. M. The Chemical Structure of Oxide
Glasses: A Concept Consistent with Neutron Scattering Studies? *Glas. Phys. Chem.* 2001, 27 (2), 97–113.

- (42) Longley, L.; Collins, S. M.; Zhou, C.; Smales, G. J.; Norman, S. E.; Brownbill, N. J.; Ashling, C. W.; Chater, P. A.; Tovey, R.; Schönlieb, C.; et al. Liquid Phase Blending of Metal-Organic Frameworks. *Nat. Commun.* **2018**, *9* (2135), 2135.
- (43) Longley, L.; Collins, S. M.; Li, S.; Smales, G. J.; Erucar, I.; Qiao, A.; Hou, J.; Doherty, C. M.; Thornton, A. W.; Hill, A. J.; et al. Flux Melting of Metal-Organic Frameworks. *Chem. Sci.* 2019, *10* (12), 3592–3601.
- (44) Longley, L.; Calahoo, C.; Limbach, R.; Xia, Y.; Tuffnell, J. M.; Sapnik, A. F.; Thorne, M. F.; Keeble, D. S.; Keen, D. A.; Wondraczek, L.; et al. Metal-Organic Framework and Inorganic Glass Composites. *Nat. Commun.* 2020, *11* (1), 1–12.
- (45) Stillinger, F. H. A Topographic View of Supercooled Liquids and Glass Formation. *Science*. **1995**, 267 (5206), 1935–1939.
- (46) Bennett, T. D.; Cao, S.; Tan, J. C.; Keen, D. A.; Bithell, E. G.; Beldon, P. J.; Friscic, T.; Cheetham, A. K. Facile Mechanosynthesis of Amorphous Zeolitic Imidazolate Frameworks. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 2011, *133* (37), 14546–14549.
- (47) Lin, R.; Hou, J.; Li, M.; Wang, Z.; Ge, L.; Li, S.; Smart, S.; Zhu, Z.; Bennett, T. D.; Chen, V. Interfacial Engineering of a Polymer-MOF Composite by: In Situ Vitrification. *Chem. Commun.* 2020, *56* (25), 3609–3612.
- (48) Rahul Banerjee, Anh Phan, Bo Wang, Carolyn Knobler, Hiroyasu Furukawa, Michael O'Keeffe, O. M. Y. High-Throughput Synthesis of Zeolitic. *Science*. 2008, *319* (February), 939–944.
- (49) Gaillac, R.; Pullumbi, P.; Coudert, F. X. Melting of Zeolitic Imidazolate Frameworks with Different Topologies: Insight from First-Principles Molecular Dynamics. J. Phys. Chem. C 2018, 122 (12), 6730–6736.
- (50) Weingärtner, H. Understanding Ionic Liquids at the Molecular Level: Facts, Problems, and Controversies. *Angew. Chemie - Int. Ed.* 2008, 47 (4), 654–670.
- (51) Marsh, K. N.; Boxall, J. A.; Lichtenthaler, R. Room Temperature Ionic Liquids and Their

Mixtures - A Review. Fluid Phase Equilib. 2004, 219 (1), 93-98.

- (52) Rogers, R. D.; Seddon, K. R. Ionic Liquids Solvents of the Future? *Science*. 2003, 302, 792.
- (53) Wasserscheid, P.; Keim, W. Ionic Liquids-New "Solutions" for Transition Metal Catalysis.
 Angew. Chem. Int. Ed 2000, 39, 3772–3789.
- (54) Welton, T. Room-Temperature Ionic Liquids. Solvents for Synthesis and Catalysis. *Chem. Rev.* 1999, 99 (8), 2071–2084.
- (55) Azov, V. A.; Egorova, K. S.; Seitkalieva, M. M.; Kashin, A. S.; Ananikov, V. P. "Solventin-Salt" Systems for Design of New Materials in Chemistry, Biology and Energy Research. *Chem. Soc. Rev.* 2018, 47 (4), 1250–1284.
- (56) Sheldon, R. Catalytic Reactions in Ionic Liquids. Chem. Commun. 2001, 1 (23), 2399–2407.
- (57) Hasib-ur-Rahman, M.; Siaj, M.; Larachi, F. Ionic Liquids for CO₂ Capture-Development and Progress. *Chem. Eng. Process. Process Intensif.* **2010**, *49* (4), 313–322.
- (58) Galiński, M.; Lewandowski, A.; Stepniak, I. Ionic Liquids as Electrolytes. *Electrochim. Acta* 2006, *51* (26), 5567–5580.
- (59) Vidal, L.; Riekkola, M. L.; Canals, A. Ionic Liquid-Modified Materials for Solid-Phase Extraction and Separation: A Review. *Anal. Chim. Acta* 2012, 715, 19–41.
- (60) Zhang, S.; Sun, N.; He, X.; Lu, X.; Zhang, X. Physical Properties of Ionic Liquids: Database and Evaluation. J. Phys. Chem. Ref. Data 2006, 35 (4), 1475–1517.
- (61) Awad, W. H.; Gilman, J. W.; Nyden, M.; Harris, R. H.; Sutto, T. E.; Callahan, J.; Trulove,
 P. C.; Delong, H. C.; Fox, D. M. Thermal Degradation Studies of Alkyl-Imidazolium Salts and Their Application in Nanocomposites. 2004, 409, 3–11.
- (62) Kinik, F. P.; Uzun, A.; Keskin, S. Ionic Liquid/Metal–Organic Framework Composites: From Synthesis to Applications. *ChemSusChem* 2017, *10* (14), 2842–2863.
- (63) Ye, C.; Qi, Z.; Cai, D.; Qiu, T. Design and Synthesis of Ionic Liquid Supported Hierarchically Porous Zr Metal-Organic Framework as a Novel Brønsted-Lewis Acidic Catalyst in Biodiesel Synthesis. *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* 2019, 58 (3), 1123–1132.

- (64) Ding, M.; Jiang, H. L. Incorporation of Imidazolium-Based Poly(Ionic Liquid)s into a Metal-Organic Framework for CO₂ Capture and Conversion. ACS Catal. 2018, 8 (4), 3194–3201.
- (65) Fujie, K.; Kitagawa, H. Ionic Liquid Transported into Metal-Organic Frameworks. *Coord. Chem. Rev.* 2016, 307, 382–390.
- (66) Yoshida, Y.; Kitagawa, H. Ionic Conduction in Metal-Organic Frameworks with Incorporated Ionic Liquids. *ACS Sustain. Chem. Eng.* **2019**, *7* (1), 70–81.
- (67) Fujie, K.; Yamada, T.; Ikeda, R.; Kitagawa, H. Introduction of an Ionic Liquid into the Micropores of a Metal-Organic Framework and Its Anomalous Phase Behavior. *Angew. Chemie - Int. Ed.* 2014, 53 (42), 11302–11305.
- (68) Kinik, F. P.; Altintas, C.; Balci, V.; Koyuturk, B.; Uzun, A.; Keskin, S. [BMIM][PF₆] Incorporation Doubles CO₂ Selectivity of ZIF-8: Elucidation of Interactions and Their Consequences on Performance. *ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces* 2016, *8* (45), 30992–31005.
- (69) Zeeshan, M.; Nozari, V.; Yagci, M. B.; Islk, T.; Unal, U.; Ortalan, V.; Keskin, S.; Uzun, A. Core-Shell Type Ionic Liquid/Metal Organic Framework Composite: An Exceptionally High CO₂/CH₄ Selectivity. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 2018, *140* (32), 10113–10116.
- (70) Wu, J.; Gao, Y.; Zhang, W.; Tan, Y.; Tang, A.; Men, Y.; Tang, B. Deep Desulfurization by Oxidation Using an Active Ionic Liquid-Supported Zr Metal-Organic Framework as Catalyst. *Appl. Organomet. Chem.* **2015**, *29* (2), 96–100.
- (71) Hassan, H. M. A.; Betiha, M. A.; Mohamed, S. K.; El-Sharkawy, E. A.; Ahmed, E. A. Stable and Recyclable MIL-101(Cr)–Ionic Liquid Based Hybrid Nanomaterials as Heterogeneous Catalyst. J. Mol. Liq. 2017, 236, 385–394.
- (72) Armand, M.; Endres, F.; MacFarlane, D. R.; Ohno, H.; Scrosati, B. Ionic-Liquid Materials for the Electrochemical Challenges of the Future. *Nat. Mater.* 2009, 8 (8), 621–629.
- (73) Fujie, K.; Otsubo, K.; Ikeda, R.; Yamada, T.; Kitagawa, H. Low Temperature Ionic Conductor: Ionic Liquid Incorporated within a Metal–Organic Framework. *Chem. Sci.* 2015, 6 (7), 4306–4310.
- (74) Ameloot, R.; Aubrey, M.; Wiers, B. M.; Gõmora-Figueroa, A. P.; Patel, S. N.; Balsara, N.

P.; Long, J. R. Ionic Conductivity in the Metal-Organic Framework UiO-66 by Dehydration and Insertion of Lithium Tert-Butoxide. *Chem. - A Eur. J.* **2013**, *19* (18), 5533–5536.

- (75) Shen, L.; Wu, H. Bin; Liu, F.; Brosmer, J. L.; Shen, G.; Wang, X.; Zink, J. I.; Xiao, Q.; Cai, M.; Wang, G.; et al. Creating Lithium-Ion Electrolytes with Biomimetic Ionic Channels in Metal–Organic Frameworks. *Adv. Mater.* 2018, *30* (23), 1–8.
- (76) Fujie, K.; Ikeda, R.; Otsubo, K.; Yamada, T.; Kitagawa, H. Lithium Ion Diffusion in a Metal-Organic Framework Mediated by an Ionic Liquid. *Chem. Mater.* 2015, 27 (21), 7355–7361.
- (77) Wang, Z.; Tan, R.; Wang, H.; Yang, L.; Hu, J.; Chen, H.; Pan, F. A Metal Organic-Framework-Based Electrolyte with Nanowetted Interfaces for High-Energy-Density Solid-State Lithium Battery. *Adv. Mater.* 2018, *30* (2), 1–7.
- (78) Dunn, B.; Kamath, H.; Tarascon, J. Electrical Energy Storage for the Grid : A Battery of Choices. *Science*. 2011, 334 (6058), 928.
- (79) Vaalma, C.; Buchholz, D.; Weil, M.; Passerini, S. A Cost and Resource Analysis of Sodium-Ion Batteries. *Nat. Rev. Mater.* 2018, 3.
- (80) Li, S.; Qiu, L.; Shi, C.; Chen, X.; Yan, F. Water-Resistant, Solid-State, Dye-Sensitized Solar Cells Based on Hydrophobic Organic Ionic Plastic Crystal Electrolytes. *Adv. Mater.* 2014, 26 (8), 1266–1271.
- (81) Gupta, K. M.; Chen, Y.; Hu, Z.; Jiang, J. Metal-Organic Framework Supported Ionic Liquid Membranes for CO₂ Capture: Anion Effects. *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.* 2012, *14* (16), 5785– 5794.
- (82) Dhumal, N. R.; Singh, M. P.; Anderson, J. A.; Johannes, K.; Kim, H. J. Molecular Interactions of a Cu-Based Metal Organic Framework with a Confined Imidazolium-Based Ionic Liquid: A Combined Density-Functional Theory and Experimental Vibrational Spectroscopy Study. J Phys Chem C 2016, 120, 3295–3304.
- (83) Nozari, V.; Keskin, S.; Uzun, A. Toward Rational Design of Ionic Liquid/Metal–Organic Framework Composites: Effects of Interionic Interaction Energy. ACS Omega 2017, 2 (10), 6613–6618.
- (84) Cheetham, A. K.; Barney, E. R.; Bithell, E. G.; Dove, M. T.; Soper, A. K.; Tan, J.-C.;

Bennett, T. D.; Keen, D. A.; Goodwin, A. L.; Tucker, M. G. Structure and Properties of an Amorphous Metal-Organic Framework. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2010**, *104*, 115503.

- (85) Frentzel-Beyme, L.; Kloß, M.; Kolodzeiski, P.; Pallach, R.; Henke, S. Meltable Mixed-Linker Zeolitic Imidazolate Frameworks and Their Microporous Glasses: From Melting Point Engineering to Selective Hydrocarbon Sorption. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2019, 141 (31), 12362–12371.
- (86) Ríos Gómez, M. L.; Lampronti, G. I.; Yang, Y.; Mauro, J. C.; Bennett, T. D. Relating Structural Disorder and Melting in Complex Mixed Ligand Zeolitic Imidazolate Framework Glasses. *Dalt. Trans.* 2020, 49 (3), 850–857.
- (87) Zhang, J.; Qiao, A.; Tao, H.; Yue, Y. Synthesis, Phase Transitions and Vitrification of the Zeolitic Imidazolate Framework: ZIF-4. J. Non. Cryst. Solids 2019, 525 (September), 3–7.
- (88) Zeeshan, M.; Nozari, V.; Keskin, S.; Uzun, A. Structural Factors Determining Thermal Stability Limits of Ionic Liquid/MOF Composites: Imidazolium Ionic Liquids Combined with CuBTC and ZIF-8. *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* 2019, 58, 14124–14138.
- (89) Bumstead, A. M.; Ríos Gómez, M. L.; Thorne, M. F.; Sapnik, A. F.; Longley, L.; Tuffnell, J. M.; Keeble, D. S.; Keen, D. A.; Bennett, T. D. Investigating the Melting Behaviour of Polymorphic Zeolitic Imidazolate Frameworks. *CrystEngComm* 2020, 22 (21), 3627–3637.
- (90) Ban, Y.; Li, Z.; Li, Y.; Peng, Y.; Jin, H.; Jiao, W.; Guo, A.; Wang, P.; Yang, Q.; Zhong, C.; et al. Confinement of Ionic Liquids in Nanocages: Tailoring the Molecular Sieving Properties of ZIF-8 for Membrane-Based CO₂ Capture. *Angew. Chemie Int. Ed.* 2015, 54 (51), 15483–15487.
- Welton, T. Room-Temperature Ionic Liquids . Solvents for Synthesis and Catalysis. *Chem. Rev.* 1999, 99 (1), 2071–2083.

Erklärung zu den Eigenanteilen des Promovenden

Für alle in dieser kumulativen Dissertation verwendeten Manuskripte liegen die notwendigen Genehmigungen der Verlage ("Reprint permission") für die Zweitpublikation vor.

Die Co-Autorinnen/-Autoren der in dieser kumulativen Dissertation verwendeten Manuskripte sind sowohl über die Nutzung, als auch über die oben angegebenen Eigenanteile der weiteren Doktorandinnen/Doktoranden als Co-Autorinnen/-Autoren an den Publikationen und Zweitpublikationsrechten bei einer kumulativen Dissertation informiert und stimmen dem zu (es wird empfohlen, diese grundsätzliche Zustimmung bereits bei Einreichung der Veröffentlichung einzuholen bzw. die Gewichtung der Anteile parallel zur Einreichung zu klären).

Die Anteile der Promovendin/des Promovenden sowie der weiteren Doktorandinnen/Doktoranden als Co-Autorinnen/Co-Autoren an den Publikationen und Zweitpublikationsrechten bei einer kumulativen Dissertation sind in der Anlage aufgeführt.

Name des Promovenden	Datum	Ort	Unterschrift
Vahid Nozari			

Ich bin mit der Abfassung der Dissertation als publikationsbasierte Dissertation, d.h. kumulativ, einverstanden und bestätige die vorstehenden Angaben.

Name Betreuer	Datum	Ort	Unterschrift
Prof. Lothar Wondraczek			

Anrechnung der Publikationsäquivalente

1) Structural Integrity, Meltability, and Variability of Thermal Properties in the Mixed-Linker Zeolitic Imidazolate Framework ZIF-62. J. Chem. Phys. 2020, 153 (20), 1–21.

Autoren	Konzeption des Forschungsa nsatzes	Planung der Untersuchungen	Datenerhebung	Datenanalyse und interpretation	Schreiben des Manuskripts	Vorschlag Anrechnung Publikationsäquiv alente
1. Vahid	×	×	×	×	×	1.0
Nozari						
2. Courtne	ey					
Calahoo						
3. Louis						
Longley						
4. Thomas	5					
D. Bennet	t					
5. Lothar						
Wondracz	zek					

2) Sodium Ion Conductivity in Superionic IL-impregnated Metal-Organic Frameworks: Enhancing Stability Through Structural Disorder. *Sci. Rep.* 2020, 10, 3532.

Autoren	Konzeption des Forschungsa nsatzes	Planung der Untersuchungen	Datenerhebung	Datenanalyse und interpretation	Schreiben des Manuskripts	Vorschlag Anrechnung Publikationsäquiv alente
1. Vahid Nozari	×	×	×	×	×	1.0
2. Courtne Calahoo	еу					
3. Joshua Tuffnell	M.					

4. Philipp
Adelhelm
5. Katrin
Wondraczek
6. Siân E.
Dutton
7. Thomas
D. Bennett
8. Lothar
Wondraczek

3) Ionic Liquid Facilitated Melting of the Metal-Organic Framework ZIF-8. Submitted to *Nature Communications*.

Autoren	Konzeption des Forschungsa nsatzes	Planung der Untersuchungen	Datenerhebung	Datenanalyse und interpretation	Schreiben des Manuskripts	Vorschlag Anrechnung Publikationsäquiv alente
1. Vahid	×	×	×	×	×	1.0
Nozali						
2. Courtne	ey					
Calahoo						
3. Joshua	М.					
Tuffnell						
4. David	A .					
Keen						
5. Thoma	5					
D. Bennet	t					
6. Lothar						
Wondracz	zek					

Selbständigkeitserklärung

Ich erkläre, dass ich die vorliegende Arbeit selbständig und unter Verwendung der angegebenen Hilfsmittel, persönlichen Mitteilungen und Quellen angefertigt habe.

Ort, Datum

Vahid Nozari

List of publications

Nozari Vahid, Calahoo Courtney, Tuffnell Joshua M., Keen David A., Bennett Thomas D., Wondraczek Lothar. ''Ionic Liquid Facilitated Melting of the Metal-Organic Framework ZIF-8". Submitted to *Nature Communications*.

Nozari Vahid, Calahoo Courtney, Longley Louis, Bennett Thomas D, Wondraczek Lothar. "Structural Integrity, Meltability, and Variability of Thermal Properties in the Mixed-linker Zeolitic Imidazolate Framework ZIF-62". *The Journal of Chemical Physics*. 2020, 153 (20), 1– 21.

Nozari Vahid, Calahoo Courtney, Tuffnell Joshua M., Adelhelm Philipp, Wondraczek Katrin, Dutton Siân E., Bennett Thomas D., Wondraczek Lothar. "Sodium ion conductivity in Superionic IL-impregnated Metal-organic frameworks: enhancing Stability through Structural Disorder". *Scientific reports*, 2020, 10 (1), 3532.

Zeeshan Muhammad, **Nozari Vahid**, Keskin Seda, Uzun Alper. "Structural factors determining thermal stability limits of ionic liquid/MOF composites: Imidazolium ionic liquids combined with CuBTC and ZIF-8". *Industrial & Engineering Chemistry Research*, 2019, 58 (31), 14124-14138

Maghsoudi Hafez, Nozari Vahid, Zamzami S Reza ''Diffusion of methane in high-silica CHA zeolite''. *Heat and Mass Transfer*, 2019, 55 (6), 1619-1625

Zeeshan, Muhammad*; **Nozari, Vahid***; Keskin, Seda; Uzun, Alper." Core-shell Type Ionic Liquid/Metal Organic Framework Composite: An Exceptionally High CO₂/CH₄ Selectivity". *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, 2018, 140 (32), 10113-10116 (**Equally contributed*)

Nozari, Vahid, Zeeshan Muhammad, Keskin Seda, Uzun Alper. 'Effect of methylation of ionic liquids on the gas separation performance of ionic liquid/metal–organic framework composites''. *CrystEngComm*, 2018, 20 (40), 7137-7143

Nozari, Vahid, Keskin Seda, Uzun Alper. "Toward Rational Design of Ionic Liquid/Metal– Organic Framework Composites: Effects of Interionic Interaction Energy". *ACS Omega*, 2017, 2 (10), 6613–6618

List of conferences

Euro-MOF-2019, France	November 2019
Exceptionally High Na-ion Conduction via Infiltration of an Ionic Liquid into M	OF pores
9 th Otto Schott Colloquium, Germany	September 2019
Exceptionally High Na-ion Conduction via Infiltration of an Ionic Liquid into M	OF pores
UK-MOF-2018, United Kingdom	April 2018
Toward Rational Design of Ionic Liquid/Metal-Organic Framework Composites	
12 th Nanoscience and Nanotechnology Conference, Turkey	June 2016
Improving Gas Separation Performance of ZIF-8 by the Incorporation [BMIM][PF ₆]	of Ionic Liquid