Nanoscale



REVIEW View Article Online View Journal | View Issue



Cite this: Nanoscale, 2025, 17, 6390

Latest developments in the synthesis of metal-organic frameworks and their hybrids for hydrogen storage†

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Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) are promising materials for hydrogen (H₂) storage due to their versatile structures, high surface areas and substantial pore volumes. This paper provides a comprehensive review of MOF synthesis and characterization, as well as their practical applications for H₂ storage. We explore various MOF synthesis techniques, highlighting their impact on the nanopore structure and functionality. Special emphasis is placed on strategies for enhancing H₂ storage capacities by increasing specific surface areas, optimizing pore size distributions, and facilitating H₂ release by improving thermal conductivity. Key advances in MOF-based hybrids, such as MOFs combined with carbonaceous materials, metals or other inorganic materials, are discussed. This review also addresses the effectiveness of linker functionalization and the introduction of unsaturated metal centers to optimize H₂ storage under ambient conditions. We conclude that the development of competitive MOF-based hybrids, particularly those that incorporate carbons, offers significant potential for improving H₂ storage and recovery, enhancing thermal stability and increasing thermal conductivity. These advancements are in line with the US Department of Energy (DOE) specifications and pave the way for future research into the optimization of MOFs for practical H₂ storage applications.

Received 27th September 2024, Accepted 1st February 2025 DOI: 10.1039/d4nr03969f

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1. Introduction

Hydrogen (H₂) is a promising alternative energy carrier due to its potential to reduce greenhouse gas emissions when produced from renewable energy sources. However, efficient and safe storage of H₂ remains a major challenge.¹ Although H₂ has the highest specific energy density, 33.6 kW h kg⁻¹, it also has the lowest volumetric energy density, 0.0108 MJ L⁻¹, measured under standard conditions,² which is 3000 times less than that of gasoline.³ Hydrogen appears to be one of the most promising alternatives to achieve carbon neutrality, offering a clean energy source to replace fossil fuels in industries, transportation and power systems.⁴ Produced from renewables, it enables deep decarbonization and ensures a stable energy supply, driving the transition to a sustainable, low-carbon future.⁵

Storing H_2 at pressures above 70 MPa or at temperatures below $-253~^{\circ}\text{C}$ is a possible alternative for increasing H_2

density during transport and storage, but it requires harsh conditions and raises public safety concerns. Adsorption of $\rm H_2$ at -196 °C, the boiling point of liquid nitrogen, enables $\rm H_2$ to be stored at moderate pressures, of the order of 5 MPa, but requires high-surface area materials with a suitable pore size distribution (PSD) and high bulk density.

A wide range of carbon-based materials has been thoroughly studied for $\rm H_2$ storage, showing that excess $\rm H_2$ adsorption capacities at room temperature are lower, typically less than 2 wt%, compared with capacities observed at $\rm -196~^{\circ}C$, which remain generally below 7 wt%. For this reason, metal–organic frameworks (MOFs) have emerged as promising candidates for $\rm H_2$ storage due to their tunable porosity, high surface area and the possibility of tailoring their properties to specific applications. Excess $\rm H_2$ storage capacities in the range of 2.4 to 9.1 wt% have been obtained in MOFs with Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) areas ($\rm A_{BET}$) of up to 6000 m² g⁻¹. The highest $\rm H_2$ storage capacity reported to date is 9.05 wt% at $\rm -196~^{\circ}C$ and 7 MPa for NU100.

Due to the limitations of the BET method, these very high $A_{\rm BET}$ values are more indicative of pore volume than the actual surface area. Indeed, when excess H_2 storage capacities at $-196~{}^{\circ}{\rm C}$ are plotted as a function of $A_{\rm BET}$ for a large number of MOFs, the observed trend does not follow Chahine's heuristic

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[†]Electronic supplementary information (ESI) available. See DOI: https://doi.org/ 10.1039/d4nr03969f

rule of 1 wt% H₂ per 500 m² g⁻¹ of surface area. Moreover, increasing A_{BET} leads to an increase in average pore volume and thus to a decrease in adsorbent-sorbate interactions and isosteric enthalpy of adsorption. The increase in pore volume also results in a reduction of particle density. Indeed, while absolute gravimetric H₂ capacities reach values as high as 120 mg H₂ per g (12 wt%), volumetric H₂ capacities peak at values of around 40 kg H_2 per m³. Thus, MOFs with high A_{BET} and high absolute H2 uptake on a gravimetric basis are not necessarily those with the highest H₂ uptake on a volumetric basis.

In this field, MOF hybrids, i.e., MOFs combined with other materials, such as other MOFs, carbon-based materials or metallic particles, have shown promise as a viable choice for H₂ adsorption by increasing their adsorption capacity through an increased specific surface area. 9,10 The addition of carbonbased materials to produce MOF hybrids can improve thermal conductivity and allow tuning of the chemical composition to provide greater selectivity11 for H2 adsorption compared with other gases. A bibliometric analysis (conducted in English in the Scopus database, followed by an analysis using the Bibliometrix package in R language) was carried out to give an overview of the use of MOFs for H2 adsorption. A clear upward trend in the use of MOFs for H₂ storage is observed over time, with a peak of 111 publications in 2024 (last access 15 August 2024) (Fig. S1†). Another bibliometric analysis has been performed, now considering the use of MOF-based hybrids for H2 adsorption. A clear upward trend in the use of MOF-based hybrid materials for H2 storage is observed over time, especially after 2016, peaking in 2024 (last access 15 August 2024) with 27 publications, followed by 2019 and 2022 with 24 publications each (Fig. S2†).

This review aims to provide a comprehensive overview of the current state of research in H₂ storage, using MOFs as materials of interest, focusing on the enhancement of the properties of MOF hybrids, the challenges faced and future prospects, including their potential applications in the energy industry.

Basic aspects of MOF synthesis and characterization

MOFs or porous coordination polymers (PCPs) are materials containing metal ions connected by organic linkers to form a 3D network.¹⁴ The metal ions form primary building units (PBUs) with precise geometric structures, linked by secondary building units (SBUs). 15 Commonly used metal ions include Cr³⁺, Fe³⁺, Co²⁺ and Zn²⁺, is with coordination numbers from 2 to 7, yielding various geometries such as linear, T-shaped, tetrahedral, square planar, octahedral, etc.¹⁷ Organic linkers, such as carboxylates, phosphates, sulfonates, etc., can form coordination bonds, with fumaric, succinic, and terephthalic acids being low-cost options. Other ligands such as peptides, carbohydrates, amino acids and cyclodextrins are also used. 18 Different classes of MOFs exist, of which "MOFs" is the abbreviation and general name, 19 and their discovery is the result of the collective efforts of many research groups and laboratories around the world. Several major laboratories have made significant contributions to the field of MOFs, including materials from Universitetet i Oslo (UIO), Institut Lavoiser (MIL) and Northwestern University (NU), among others (Fig. S3a†).

MOFs have high surface area, tunable pore size and diverse functionalities, making them attractive for various applications such as gas storage, separation, catalysis and sensing.²⁰ In Fig. 1a, $(-CO_2)x$ represents the organic linker, with x being the number of linkers associated with the cluster, giving rise to the crystalline geometry of the MOF. MOFs are also highly customizable, with the ability to vary not only the metal ion (Fig. 1b) and the organic linker (Fig. 1c), but also the synthesis conditions to tailor the material's properties and provide different varieties of MOFs with varied characteristics of interest.

2.1. MOF synthesis

The energy required for MOF synthesis, to allow linkage between PBUs and SBUs, can be provided by a variety of synthesis approaches, including solvothermal/hydrothermal, sonochemical, electrochemical, microwave-assisted mechanochemical, which can be applied to produce MOFs with contrasting structures and features. Table 1 shows some advantages and disadvantages of each of these approaches, which are briefly reviewed, from the classical solvothermal/ hydrothermal route to the Resonant Acoustic Mixing (RAM) route:

- Solvothermal (with organic solvents) or hydrothermal synthesis (with water) takes place in sealed vessels above the boiling point of the liquid medium under standard pressure.²¹ Conventional solvothermal/hydrothermal synthesis involves heating metal ions, linkers and solvents together (80-200 °C)²² in a polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE)-lined autoclave (for high temperatures) or in scintillation vials (for lower temperatures). 16 The synergy of pressure, temperature and solvent produces single crystals due to the material's solubility in a hot and pressurized solvent, whether organic or aqueous, 22 which favors reaction and crystal growth. Although solvothermal/ hydrothermal synthesis produces well-formed MOFs with controlled size, it requires longer synthesis times and often organic solvents. Zheng et al.23 compared hydrothermal, reflux, vessel, and microwave methods to synthesize MOF-303 for water harvesting from desert air. The hydrothermal method took 24 h, while the reflux and vessel methods needed 4 to 8 h. Microwave synthesis was the fastest at 5 min.

- Non-solvothermal synthesis takes place at temperatures below the boiling point of the solvent under standard pressure, usually at room temperature.16 For instance, some widely used MOFs such as MOF-5, MOF-74, MOF-177, HKUST-1, IRMOF-0, MIL-53(Al), MOF-2 and ZIF-7 have been successfully synthesized under ambient conditions. 24-28 The shape of the crystals obtained and the percentage of purity are strongly influenced by the reaction temperature.²⁹ Yields are also affected by

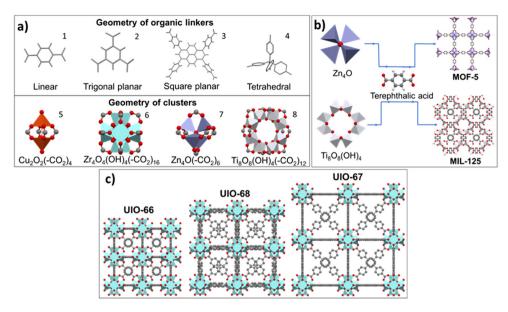


Fig. 1 (a) Geometry of some organic linkers (1: BDC; 2: BTC; 3: H4TBAPy and 4: tetraphenylmethane) (adapted from ref. 12 and 13), and geometry of some clusters; (b) assembly of two different clusters with the same organic linker to obtain two MOFs; (c) assembly of the same cluster $(Zr_4O_4(OH)_4(-CO_2)_{16})$ with 3 linkers to obtain three different MOFs.

temperature, as shown by Lestari et al.,30 who reported a 24% yield for HKUST-1 at room temperature versus 99% at 120 °C. However, by using ambient temperature, other synthetic routes emerge as alternatives, broadening the horizons for future research.

- Sonochemical synthesis uses ultrasound to create nanomaterials with the help of sound-wave-induced bubbles. The small bubbles promote interactions between particles up to 13 eV, leading to significant reactions. The bubble stages - formation, growth and collapse - induce chemical reactions in the synthesis of MOFs. 31,32 Reaction time has a significant influence on crystal size in sonochemical synthesis. Qiu et al.33 found that short runs (5-10 min) produced spherical nanocrystals of 50-100 nm, while longer runs (30-90 min) produced needle-shaped crystals of 700-900 nm. Vaitsis et al. concluded that ultrasound outperforms electrical and microwave heating due to its simplicity, faster reactions and improved energy efficiency, but with the use of organic solvents.³⁴
- Electrochemical synthesis was first used to synthesize HKUST-1 in 2005, paving the way for various electrochemical methods and materials design for MOFs, including MOF-5,35 MIL-53,³⁶ MIL-100(Fe)³⁷ and ZIF-8.³⁸ Electrosynthesis is practical and cost-effective, as it operates under milder conditions and within shorter timescales. It offers advantages such as mild reactions, easy operation and efficient charge transfer, which promotes rapid MOF crystal growth. 35,39 Antonio et al. 40 used electrosynthesis to prepare titanium(III)-based MOFs, namely Ti^{III}-MIL-101 and Ti^{III}-MIL-102, and extended it to other Ti^{III}-MIL structures using TiCl₄. The materials produced by electrosynthesis showed similar characteristics to the more expensive TiCl₃, demonstrating its cost-effectiveness. However, electrochemical synthesis often involves organic solvents,

which can potentially impact the surface area, pore volume and thermal stability.41

- Microwave-assisted synthesis is an effective method for high-throughput syntheses, as it heats the material uniformly due to molecular dipolarity and ionic conduction. 42 Rapid microwave heating can generate hot spots that give rise to metastable materials.43 However, after careful control of the synthesis conditions, this approach increases efficiency as crystals disperse throughout the solution, leading to faster and higher yields due to rapid consumption of reagents.44 Although crystals are smaller than with traditional methods, microwave crystallization reduces synthesis time and material use while maintaining the surface area. 45-47 Wu et al. 48 synthesized conductive, partially carbonized metal-organic frameworks with ruthenium nanoparticles using household microwave ovens. Among them, Ru@p-Co3HHTP2-3.2% exhibited excellent performance in the electrocatalytic H₂ evolution reaction. These studies highlight the potential of microwaveassisted methods for the efficient synthesis of advanced materials with enhanced H₂-related properties, but they are generally associated with the use of organic solvents.
- Ionothermal synthesis uses ionic liquids (ILs) as solvents or templates, resulting in MOFs with a negatively charged skeleton structure. The IL cations are firmly integrated into the MOF framework. 49 ILs have properties that can be advantageous over traditional solvents, such as their extremely low vapor pressures. They can advantageously replace organic solvents such as N,N-dimethylformamide (DMF). 50 This synthesis can operate at lower temperatures such as 30 °C, consuming less energy than the solvothermal approach. Peng et al. synthesized mesoporous Cu-MOF nanoplates using ILs.51 The resulting material had high crystallinity and combined the pro-

Table 1 Advantages and disadvantages of different MOF synthesis methodologies/strategies

Synthesis method	Advantages	Disadvantages
Solvothermal/hydrothermal	 ○ High crystallinity⁶³ ○ Control of morphology^{64,65} ○ Control of particle size⁶⁶ 	O Long synthesis times ³⁰ O Use of organic solvents ⁶⁷
Non-solvothermal	○ Energy saving by using room temperature ^{68,69}	 ○ Low yield⁷⁰ ○ Use of organic solvents²⁶
Sonochemical/ultrasound	 ○ Control of crystal growth³³ ○ High yield^{71,72} ○ Short synthesis times⁷³ 	○ Use of organic solvents ⁷⁴
Electrochemical	 ○ Easy to scale⁷⁵ ○ Short synthesis times^{76,77} 	O Reduction in $A_{\rm BET}^{-39,41}$ O Use of organic solvents ⁷⁸
Microwave-assisted	○ Short synthesis times ^{79,80}	 ○ Small crystal size⁴⁴ ○ Use of organic solvents²¹
Ionothermal	O Ionic liquids replace organic solvents ^{81,82}	O Reduction in A_{BET}^{83}
Mechanochemical	○ Solvent-free ^{57,84} ○ Short synthesis times ⁸⁵	O Difficult to control morphology and particle size ⁸⁶

perties of a mesoporous material with small particle sizes. In 2014, Liu et al. introduced an innovative approach for immobilizing ILs into ZIF-8 membranes. ZIF-8's inherent hydrophobicity and ability to act as a template with an ionic liquid effectively confined the IL within the membranes and reduced leaching when exposed to water.⁵²

- Mechanochemical synthesis uses mechanical energy, such as compression, shear or friction, to facilitate chemical transformations. This technique is particularly relevant to green chemistry, as it eliminates or reduces the need for solvents.⁵³ Mechanochemical synthesis is a promising method for the large-scale production of MOFs due to its advantages, such as solvent-free reactions at room temperature and relatively short reaction times of 10 to 60 min. Ball milling is the primary process used to crush precursors between balls, resulting in bond breakage, defects and increased reactivity.54,55 Over the past decade, mechanochemical synthesis of MOFs has performed well compared with conventional techniques, as shown in reviews⁵⁶ or book chapters.⁵⁷ Although ball milling is widely used, it has limitations such as sample damage and non-uniform mixing. Other methods, such as RAM, can overcome these problems. RAM uses low-frequency, high-intensity acoustic energy to gently mix materials without physical contact with balls.58 Titi et al. demonstrated that the RAM

technique is more advantageous than ball milling for synthesizing ZIF-L, ZIF-8 and HKUST-1.⁵⁹ RAM enables larger batches to be synthesized while retaining control over product composition and particle size.

MOF formation, layout and shape are affected not only by the building blocks, but also by factors such as solvent, pH, temperature, reagent concentration, reaction time, molar ratios, counter ions and pressure. These factors fall into two categories (Fig. S3b†): (1) compositional parameters - solvent, pH, molar ratios, counter ions, and concentration; and (2) process parameters - pressure, time, and temperature. 60 In assembly processes, solvents coordinate with metal ions or integrate into the lattice.61 Although they do not integrate directly into the MOF, solvents play a role in structure orientation and crystal growth. The choice of solvent influences ligand deprotonation, which in turn has an impact on the MOF structure. 60 For instance, using different solvents, Banerjee et al. revealed various crystal structures in MOFs synthesized with magnesium and 3,5-pyridine dicarboxylic acid (PDC).62 Water coordinated best with magnesium, but the maximum A_{BET} value achieved was 52 m² g⁻¹. Acidity/basicity has a significant influence on the crystallization and growth of inorganic-organic composite materials. pH has an impact on ligand deprotonation, strengthening the bond between ligands

and metal ions through pH adjustments. 60 Temperature also has a significant impact on MOF characteristics, as demonstrated by Biemmi *et al.*, who found that temperature variations (from 75 to 180 $^{\circ}$ C) altered the morphology and purity of HKUST-1. 29

Synthesis time has a significant effect on MOFs' crystal size, as shown by Xu et~al. who synthesized MOF-808 at 120 °C using ZrCl₄/BTC (3:1 ratio) for 36–96 h. ⁸⁷ During the first 36–72 h, $A_{\rm BET}$ and micropore volume increased from 1052 to 2177 m² g⁻¹ and from 0.30 to 0.72 cm³ g⁻¹, respectively. After 72–96 h, $A_{\rm BET}$ and micropore volume decreased to 968 m² g⁻¹ and 0.28 cm³ g⁻¹, respectively. Suresh et~al. ⁸⁸ studied various process parameters to optimize MOF synthesis for H₂ storage. The researchers investigated the effect of reagent concentration, temperature and reaction time on crystal size distribution. Shorter reactions (12–18 h) at higher temperatures (110–150 °C) produced cubic crystals with a wide size distribution (200–1300 µm), whereas longer reactions (24–72 h) at lower temperatures (60–90 °C) produced crystals with a narrower size distribution and with a 15% reduction in $A_{\rm BET}$.

2.2. MOF characterization

Characterizing MOFs is a crucial step in understanding their structure and properties. The main techniques to characterize a MOF are as follows: X-ray diffraction (XRD), to identify the crystal structure and unit cell dimensions; scanning electron microscopy (SEM), which provides images of surface morphology and particle size distribution (Fig. 2a); thermogravimetric analysis (TGA), to determine thermal stability and weight loss behavior upon heating (Fig. 2c); gas sorption analysis, to determine pore volume, pore size distribution and the surface area (Fig. 2b); Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), to identify functional groups present; and elemental analysis to find out the composition of the MOF, usually in terms of carbon, nitrogen and oxygen contents. These analyses provide valuable information on the physical and chemical properties of MOF materials. This information is crucial for understanding their potential applications.

Other promising but less explored techniques are described in Fig. 2. Confocal fluorescence microscopy has the unique ability to capture three-dimensional images at the level of individual crystals (Fig. 2e), while offering the sensitivity needed to investigate the initiation of defect formation. Raman spectroscopy provides detailed information on the molecular vibrations and vibrational modes present in a material, which can be useful for studying the structure, composition and properties of MOFs. Confocal laser scanning microscopy can be used to observe the stability of MOF hybrids if they contain a fluorescent component such as carbon dots (CDs). XPS spectra are used to analyze the elemental composition and chemical state of a material's surface, to confirm the doping of a MOF (Fig. 2d), and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) can be used to study the structure of organic components in MOFs and the interaction between organic molecules and metal ions (Fig. 2f).

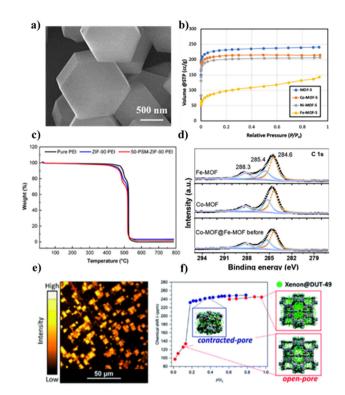


Fig. 2 Main MOF characterization techniques: (a) SEM images of ZIF-8 (reproduced from ref. 89 © 1996-2024 MDPI); (b) nitrogen adsorption isotherms at -196 °C of MOF-5 and doped MOF-5 (reproduced from ref. 90 © 1996-2024 MDPI); (c) TGA of pure PEI, ZIF-90 PEI and 50-PSM-ZIF-90 PEI membranes (reproduced from ref. 91 © 1996-2024 MDPI); (d) XPS spectra of Fe-MOF, Co-MOF, Co-MOF@Fe-MOF, and the hybrid MOF (reprinted with permission from ref. 92; Copyright © 2024 with permission from Elsevier, Also Lancet special credit, reprinted from The Lancet from ref. 92; Copyright © 2024 with permission from Elsevier); (e) confocal fluorescence imaging of defects in a MOF-5 single-crystal (reproduced from ref. 93 © 1999-2024 John Wiley & Sons, Inc. or related companies); (f) chemical shift of xenon adsorbed in DUT-49 at -73 °C measured during the adsorption experiment (red symbols indicate DUT-49op signals; blue symbols indicate DUT-49cp signals) (reprinted with permission from ref. 94; Copyright(2017) American Chemical Society).

Fundamental properties and performance of MOFs for hydrogen storage

The characteristics required to design the ideal MOF for $\rm H_2$ sorption have been reported in several studies. 15,95,96 In general, MOFs must have a high surface area and a large number of relatively small, interconnected pores to maximize $\rm H_2$ adsorption. Low-density MOFs are disadvantageous as they can lead to weak $\rm H_2$ – $\rm H_2$ interactions in the channels, reducing adsorption capacity. Additionally, volumetric $\rm H_2$ storage capacities are also reduced. When used near room temperature, the inner surface of MOFs must feature local polar groups to enhance interactions between MOFs and $\rm H_2$ molecules, and this requirement relates specifically

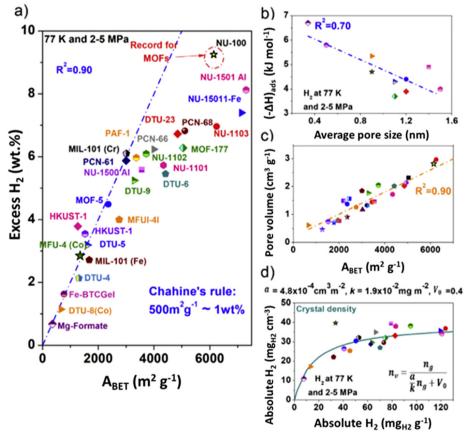
to the properties of the organic linker used in MOF synthesis.

3.1. Specific surface area

H₂ is adsorbed on the surface of the material and stored in the pores (physisorption). In general, micropore volume is directly related to the surface area of a material. Consequently, to enhance H2 adsorption capacity at −196 °C, it is necessary to increase both specific surface area (SSA) and micropore volume within the MOF. Fig. 3a shows a limitation of the BET method in representing excess H₂ uptake in wt% (at -196 °C) of MOFs as a function of their A_{BET} . It demonstrates that for very high A_{BET} , Chahine's heuristic rule is not valid, as the BET method accounts for pore volume more than SSA. The isosteric enthalpy of adsorption $((-\Delta H)_{ads})$ exhibits a linear decrease with increasing average pore diameter (Fig. 3b). This phenomenon is attributed to stronger adsorption forces in

narrow pores, due to overlapping van der Waals forces. The presence of 1.5 to 2.5 nm pores has been shown to significantly enhance H2 storage capacity at high pressures. However, nanopores smaller than 1.5 nm are found to be the most efficient for H2 storage at all pressure levels.97 H2 interactions with MOFs can be enhanced by reducing pore size, with the optimum size corresponding to the kinetic diameter of the H₂ molecule (0.289 nm), 98 although porous materials with a unimodal PSD of around 0.3 nm and high surface areas are difficult to obtain.

Fig. 3c illustrates a linear relationship between SSA and pore volume for different MOF families. This behavior was previously reported by Gómez-Gualdrón et al., who calculated the $A_{\rm BET}$ of microporous and mesoporous MOFs. 99 In Fig. 3d, absolute volumetric H2 adsorption is plotted against absolute gravimetric H₂, showing that for MOFs with high BET areas, a plateau in H₂ uptake on a volumetric basis is reached. The latter was determined using the following equation, deduced



(▶▶★♦•) ref. 104, (● ● •) ref. 112, (♠ ▶ ■) ref. 113, (☆) ref. 8, (▶ ◆ ●) ref. 114, (● ● ⊕ ★ ★ 🛊 🛊 🛊 🛊 🛊 ref. 115, (♦ ■) ref. 116. (a) Chahine's rule (dotted line) applied to MOFs; (b) isosteric heat of adsorption $(-\Delta H)_{ads}$ as a function of average pore size; (c) evolution of pore volume with A_{BET} ; (d) volumetric versus gravimetric absolute hydrogen uptake of porous materials using the density of the single crystal for its calculation for MOFs: model proposed by Balderas-Xicohténcatl et al. in ref. 101. The absolute uptake from the excess reported data was calculated using REPROF software to calculate the density of H_2 gas and assuming that the volume of the adsorbed phase volume is equal to V_{pore} . (reprinted with permission from ref. 117; Copyright © 2024 with permission from Elsevier. Also Lancet special credit, reprinted from The Lancet from ref. 117; Copyright © 2024, with permission from Elsevier).

from H₂ uptake on several MOFs, at -196 °C and in a pressure range of 2 to 2.5 MPa:100,101

$$n_{
m v} = rac{n_{
m g}}{rac{lpha}{k} n_{
m g} + V_0}.$$

In this equation, n_v and n_g are the volumetric and gravimetric absolute uptakes, respectively; α represents the slope of the relationship between volumetric absolute hydrogen uptake (measured at -196 °C and 2.0-2.5 MPa) and the volumetric surface area, which is derived from single-crystal densities; κ is the H_2 surface density, and V_0 is the density of the MOF singlecrystal.

The ability of any adsorbent to store H₂ (wt%) is closely linked to its SSA. Moreover, there is a linear correlation between the wt% of H₂ stored and the BET area. ¹⁰² The shapes of N2 isotherms observed for physisorption on MOFs, which are often type I with minimal or no hysteresis, indicate the presence of well-defined microporous structures. The pronounced rise at very low p/p^0 is attributed to adsorbent-adsorbate interactions in these narrow micropores. 20,103

3.2. Isosteric enthalpy of hydrogen adsorption

In gas storage, especially in H2 storage on MOFs, van der Waals forces are considered the main gas-adsorbent interaction and contribute to the decrease in H2 storage pressure in the system.¹⁹ For practical storage applications, a reversible mechanism is required for the adsorption and release of H₂ from its storage material. The low physisorption of H2 on MOFs offers an advantage in this regard, as it allows H2 to be adsorbed on pore surfaces within the MOF and readily released on demand. However, the challenge lies in the low $(-\Delta H)_{ads}$ of H_2 on most known MOFs. For optimum hydrogen storage and release cycles at room temperature, an adsorbent should have a $(-\Delta H)_{ads}$ between 15 and 25 kJ mol⁻¹. This range is crucial when considering the system's operating pressures. The release pressure corresponds to the pressure after most of the hydrogen has been released from the adsorbent. If $(-\Delta H)_{ads}$ is too high, desorption will require higher temperatures or lower pressures, which may not be practical under ambient conditions. Conversely, the storage pressure is the pressure at which the adsorbent is fully loaded with hydrogen. If $(-\Delta H)_{ads}$ is too low, the adsorbent may not retain hydrogen effectively at this pressure, leading to inefficient storage. 104-106 Unfortunately, the majority of MOFs exhibit $(-\Delta H)_{ads}$ values between 5 and 12 kJ mol⁻¹.¹⁰⁷

Recent studies have provided H2 adsorption isotherms for more than 30 MOFs, covering a pressure range of up to 1 bar. 108 Among the challenges posed by these porous materials for H₂ adsorption are: achieving high H₂ uptake under ambient conditions, improving the kinetics of H2 adsorption and desorption, and increasing material stability and durability. While MOFs exhibit significant H2 uptake at cryogenic temperatures, reaching up to 99.5 mg g⁻¹ (approximately 9 wt%) at 56 bar and -196 °C,8 their storage capacities at room temperature are generally less than 1 wt%. 95 This limitation is

due to the weak interaction, typically ranging from -12 to -5 kJ mol⁻¹, between H₂ molecules and MOFs. However, as temperature increases, H2 storage capacity decreases significantly, and none of the existing MOFs currently meet the target set by the US DOE at room temperature. 107 According to the US DOE, materials must have a minimum H₂ uptake capacity of 5.5 wt% under moderate temperature and pressure conditions.

The amount of energy released by interactions between the MOF surface and H2 molecules can be determined by analyzing H2 adsorption isotherms obtained at least at two distinct temperatures, typically -196 and -186 °C. This is achieved by fitting the experimental data to either the virial equation or the Langmuir-Freundlich equation. 107 Bae and Snurr 110 conducted a study of H2 storage and release with a MOF at pressures between 1.5 and 120 bar using Grand Canonical Monte Carlo simulations. The aim was to determine the ideal value of $(-\Delta H)_{ads}$ to maximize H_2 delivery. The simulations revealed that the optimum $(-\Delta H)_{ads}$ value for this purpose is approximately 20 kJ mol⁻¹, in agreement with other works. 104-106

Linker functionalization seems to be an effective approach for enhancing the H2 adsorption enthalpy of MOFs and improve hydrogen storage capacity, either through direct modification or post-synthetic modification of the linker. 118 In this context, Han et al. enhanced UiO-66 by incorporating dihydroxy and dialkoxy groups into its linker. This modification resulted in UiO-66-(OCH₂CH₃)₂, which exhibited a 98.3% improvement in performance compared to the unmodified UiO-66.119

The incorporation of different functional groups such as -CH₃, -NH₂, -OH, and -Br into the organic linker results in a series of isoreticular MOFs whose fundamental framework remains unchanged and which can effectively increase the $(-\Delta H)_{\rm ads}$. The potential of linker functionalization can be seen with tetrazolate-based ligands, which generate a series of robust, microporous materials. Dinca et al. 121 successfully synthesized nitrogen-rich MOFs using 1,4-benzeneditetrazolate as an organic linker, achieving H2 storage densities of up to 1.46 wt% at ambient pressure. Wang et al. covalently modified MOFs (IRMOF-3, UMCM-1-NH2 and DMOF-1-NH2) with a series of anhydrides or isocyanates: storage adsorption capacities (gravimetric and volumetric gas uptakes) and $(-\Delta H)_{ads}$ demonstrated that post-synthetic covalent modifications can greatly enhance the sorption affinity of MOFs for H_{2} . 122

Another way to strengthen the interaction between hydrogen and MOFs is through the introduction of unsaturated metal sites. Developing these sites effectively enhances the enthalpy, thereby improving hydrogen storage performance. This is commonly achieved by removing coordinated solvents using methods such as heating, vacuum heating, or supercritical drying. 123 Sengupta et al. synthesized a robust Cu(1)-based MOF, called NU-2100, which contains open metal sites. To access these open metal sites, the MOF underwent an activation process. The study concluded that the activated MOF exhibited a high enthalpy of adsorption of 30 kJ mol⁻¹. 124

3.3. Hydrophobicity

To achieve optimal performance and recyclability in H₂ storage, one of the most important objectives is to improve the water stability of MOFs, which are sensitive to moisture. 125,126 When MOFs are exposed to moisture from the air, the organic ligands in the framework are replaced by water molecules. This substitution disrupts the metal-linker bonds, which are generally the weakest points of the MOF structure. As a result, the MOF structure partially decomposes, leading to a reduction in SSA. 127,128 There are two approaches for addressing this challenge. The first is the direct synthesis of waterstable MOFs, which can be achieved by incorporating nonpolar functional groups into the organic linkers. 129,130 The second method involves post-synthetic modifications, which include encapsulation of hydrophobic guest molecules in the MOF's pores and channels, 131 as well as functionalization of the MOF's external surface. 132 Qian et al. have synthesized a hydrophobic DUT-4 by a facile solution-immersion approach. After exposure to aqueous solutions, DUT-4 treated with a hydrophobic coating successfully preserved its crystal structure, morphology, surface area and H₂ uptake capacity. 133

3.4. Thermal conductivity

Thermal conductivity within MOFs is a crucial but often overlooked issue in numerous adsorption-based applications, including gas storage and separation. In adsorptive gas storage applications, the heat generated by exothermic gas adsorption can potentially lead to a considerable increase in temperature (hot spots) and decrease the MOF's adsorption capacity if not promptly dissipated.¹³⁴ Effective thermal conductivity is a crucial parameter for assessing the rate at which adsorption heat dissipates and for devising strategies to maintain a lower temperature in a fuel storage tank while it is being filled with hydrogen.135 Islamov et al. reported that MOFs exhibit enhanced thermal conductivity when they have high densities (>1.0 g cm⁻³), ¹³⁶ small pores (<1 nm)¹³⁷ and four-connected metal nodes. 138 The highly porous nature and low density of MOFs prevent efficient phonon transport¹³⁹ and result in low thermal conductivities (<2 W m⁻¹ K⁻¹).¹⁴⁰

3.5. Tap density

The use of MOF powders in large industrial reactors can lead to pressure drops, clogs and complex handling. To mitigate these issues, MOF powders are shaped into defined structures using various methods such as pelletization, extrusion, granulation, spray-drying or 3D printing. 141 This shaping process usually involves the incorporation of binders to improve the mechanical stability of the pellets, which is highly advantageous. Binders generally fall into two categories: organic binders, which include starch, cellulose and polyvinyl alcohol, and inorganic binders, such as clay, silica and graphite. 142,143 Factors such as pore collapse, pore blocking and amorphization of the crystalline structure can lead to a reduction in the storage capacity of compressed MOFs. 144 Packing efficiency is a key factor in determining the H2 storage capacity of MOFs.

Research on the packing density on real MOF samples with different crystal shapes and sizes is the most effective method for gaining insight into packing efficiency. The choice of the synthesis method and the precise adjustment of various parameters (such as temperature, synthesis time, pH, concentration, etc.) are essential in determining the size and shape of the resulting crystal. 145 Suresh et al. designed a strategy to improve packing efficiency and significantly increase the volumetric storage density of H₂ gas by controlling the crystal morphologies and crystal size distributions for MOF-5.88 This strategy has the potential to minimize the structural damage when the MOF is compacted, thereby maximizing the H2 storage capacity compared with compacted commercial MOF-5. The synthesis method chosen can also alter the crystal size. For example, Leng et al. synthesized MIL-101(Cr) by mechanosynthesis, obtaining crystals between 40 and 200 nm, in contrast to the 300 to 500 nm crystals achieved by solvothermal methods. 146 The choice of the appropriate synthesis route thus plays an important role in MOF crystal size, which can result in better packing.88

3.6. Thermal stability

The thermal stability of a MOF refers to its ability to avoid irreversible changes to its structure when heated to a specific temperature. 147 Yuan et al. highlight that the stability of MOFs is strongly influenced by various factors, such as the framework structure, particle size, crystal defects, and operational conditions, 126 but overall, two factors have been identified to contribute the most to the stability of MOFs: the properties of the linkers and the metal-linker bonds. 148

Recognizing the key influence of linkers on the thermal stability of MOFs, Mohamed et al. studied the impact of using functionalized linkers in MOF-5. They concluded that nonfunctionalized linkers exhibit greater thermal stability. 149

The thermal stability of amorphous regions of MOFs is generally much lower than that of crystalline regions of similar composition. 150 During the heat treatment process, degradation of MOF structures can lead to amorphization, melting, cluster dehydration or dehydrogenation of the organic ligand. 151-153 Increased thermal stability results in more stable and durable materials.

Hydrogen adsorption on MOFs and their hybrids

MOF hybrids are materials that combine MOFs with other substances to create new materials with improved properties or functionalities.163 The aim of combining MOFs with alternative materials is to overcome the limitations of MOFs, such as low stability, poor mechanical properties or high production costs. In addition, the hybrids can be tailored to specific applications such as H2 capture, with improved efficiency and performance. 164-167 Table 2 presents the advantages and disadvantages of certain types of MOF hybrids. The following sections provide a detailed description of each selected hybrid.

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Table 2 Advantages and disadvantages of different MOF hybrids

Hybrids	Advantages	Disadvantages
Interpenetrated MOFs (IMOFs)	 ○ Improved framework stability¹⁵⁴ ○ Larger adsorption selectivity¹⁵⁵ 	○ Surface area potentially decreased 156
MOF-on-MOF	O Properties of different MOFs combined 157	○ Difficult synthesis ¹¹
MOF/carbon-based materials	○ Increased $A_{\rm BET}^{158}$ ○ Increased H_2 adsorption $(-196 ^{\circ}{\rm C})^{159}$ ○ Increased thermal conductivity 143	O Decreased crystallinity ¹⁵⁹
MOF/metal particles and ions	\odot Increased H $_2$ adsorption (25 $^{\circ}$ C) 160 \odot Enhanced adsorption enthalpy 161	O Decreased surface area ¹⁶²

4.1. MOF@MOF hybrids for hydrogen adsorption

MOF@MOF hybrids refer to materials composed of two MOFs combined into a single system. By combining two MOFs, it is possible to achieve various advantages aimed at increasing H₂ adsorption capacity, such as reducing pore size, increasing gas selectivity and improving MOF stability. 168,169 Fig. 5 shows the influence of combining two MOFs on H2 adsorption at −196 °C and 25 °C. Combining MOFs by interpenetration can have a reducing effect on the SSA of the resultant hybrids. However, all samples show an increase in H₂ adsorption.

4.1.1. Interpenetrated MOFs (IMOFs). The presence of large pore spaces in the MOF system can be associated with instability and subsequent collapse of the structure. To solve this problem, interpenetration (also called catenation or interweaving) can be used, as it allows the entanglement of two identical MOFs (homo IMOFs) or two different MOFs (hetero IMOFs) that are not directly connected but cannot be separbonds^{154,170–172} ated without breaking (Fig. 4). Interpenetration minimizes vacant zones and has the potential to significantly improve framework stability. It allows empty spaces to be occupied and generates repulsive forces that prevent individual networks from collapsing. Consequently, the synthesis of MOFs with adjustable pore sizes using elongated organic linkers poses considerable challenges, as the formation of interwoven frameworks should be preferred to improve stability.¹⁷³ Catenation can be used to produce materials with fine pores and enhance adsorption heat by increasing the overlap of attractive potential between opposing pore walls. As a result, the interpenetrated framework shows a significant reduction in pore size, resulting in stronger interaction with H₂ molecules. 100

Ma et al. (2007) investigated the effect of interpenetration on H₂ adsorption in PCN-6, a porous coordination network. The N₂ adsorption isotherm at -196 °C shows that the non-

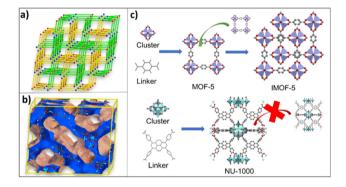


Fig. 4 (a) Topological representations of interpenetration along the a-axis; (b) the 1D channel viewed along the a-axis (a) and (b) reproduced from ref. 174, with these figures having been published in CCS Chem. [2022]; [Ultrahigh hydrogen uptake in an interpenetrated Zn₄O-based metal-organic frameworkl is available online at https://10.31635/ ccschem.021.202000738; (c) simplified topology of an interpenetrated MOF-5 and the impossibility of NU-1000 interpenetration.

interpenetrated material has a Langmuir surface area of $2700 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$, while the interpenetrated material has a Langmuir surface area of 3800 m² g⁻¹, representing a 41% increase. Interpenetration resulted in a 133% increase in volumetric H₂ uptake (3.94 kg m⁻³ for non-interpenetrated frameworks vs. 9.19 kg m⁻³ for interpenetrated frameworks) and a 29% increase in gravimetric H2 uptake (1.35 wt% for non-interpenetrated frameworks and 1.9 wt% for interpenetrated frameworks). 185

Jiang et al. also used a MOFMC for H2 storage, an interpenetrated MOF-5@Multi-Walled Carbon Nanotubes (MWCNTs), called Int-MOFMC-meso. 175 The latter was able to store 2.02 wt% H₂ at -196 °C under 1 bar. This value is higher than those obtained for the aforementioned MOFMC materials and indicates better thermal and moisture stability. However, the

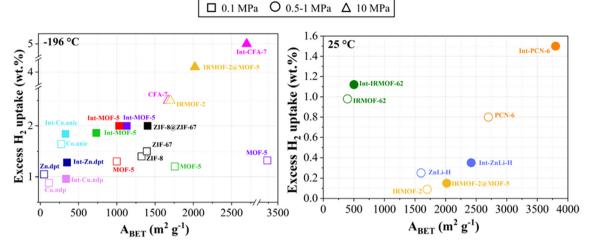


Fig. 5 Excess H₂ storage capacities of MOFs and their MOF@MOF hybrids at -196 °C (left) and 25 °C (right). (□ ■ ref. 175); (□ ■ ref. 176); (□ ■ ref. 176); 177); (□ ■ ref. 178); (□ ■ ref. 174); (△ ▲ ref. 100); (○ ♠ , △ ▲ ref. 179); (□ ■ ref. 180); (□ ■ ref. 181); (○ ● ref. 182); (○ ● ref. 183); (○ ● ref. 184).

 $A_{\rm BET}$ was significantly lower than that of previous MOFMCs: 805 m² g⁻¹. According to the authors, the pores were not filled with zinc species or solvent, but it was the presence of an interpenetrated structure and the unsaturated metal site present on the mesopore surface that improved H₂ storage performance, even with a lower $A_{\rm BET}$. 175

4.1.2. MOF-on-MOF. Extensive studies on MOFs have led to the development of a promising class of hybrid materials known as MOF-on-MOF, as shown in Fig. 6a. The left-hand side of the figure shows the original MOF seed, while the right-hand side displays the MOF grown as a secondary layer. This demonstrates how two or more MOF units are combined to create a new hybrid material. 186 This approach results in unique properties that can be customized for specific appli-

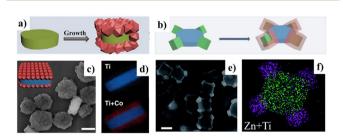


Fig. 6 (a) Scheme of a binary MOF-on-MOF heterostructure (reproduced from ref. 157; Copyright © 1999-2024 John Wiley & Sons, Inc. or related companies); (b) scheme of a ternary MOF-on-MOF heterostructure (ref. 188, reprinted with permission as indicated in the Terms and Conditions of the license); (c) SEM image of MOF MIL-125@ZIF-67 (ref. 188, reprinted with permission as indicated in the Terms and Conditions of the license); (d) element mapping image of MIL-125@ZIF-67 (reproduced from ref. 188, reprinted with permission as indicated in the Terms and Conditions of the license); (e) SEM image of MIL-125@ZIF-8 (reproduced from ref. 189 with permission from the Royal Society of Chemistry); (f) elemental mapping image of MIL-125@ZIF-8 (reproduced from ref. 189 with permission from the Royal Society of Chemistry).

cations. This method enables the distinct properties of different MOFs to be combined, such as high porosity, specific functionality or catalytic activity, and can also improve the stability and mechanical properties of the resulting material.187

In general, there are two main approaches for synthesizing MOF-on-MOF structures. The first approach involves a twostep process, with pre-synthesized host MOFs used as seeds in the first step, and guest MOFs are grown on them in the second step to form MOF-on-MOF structures. The second approach involves a one-pot process that controls the nucleation and growth kinetics of both host and guest MOFs. 11

The growth of guest MOFs can occur via five mechanisms, namely: epitaxial, heteroepitaxial, surfactant-assisted, nucleakinetic-guided, and ligand/metal ion-exchange growth. 11,190 However, current MOF-on-MOF systems mainly focus on compositions consisting of two or more components¹⁸⁸ (Fig. 6a and b). For example, Ikigaki et al. reported a ternary MOF-on-MOF copper structure, 191 composed of an oriented MOF-on-MOF film, with lower and upper MOF layers. The films were created by epitaxially matching the interface and "one-pot" and liquid-phase epitaxy methods for the layers with copper-based reactants.

To assess the interaction between MOFs involved in MOFon-MOF hybrids, their structures can be studied using SEM images, and element mapping enables their structures to be investigated through morphology analysis of two or more MOF varieties (see Fig. 6c-f). By integrating the aforementioned properties of various MOFs into MOF-on-MOF systems, it is possible to control gas adsorption capacity and selectivity while improving adsorbent stability. 11

Li et al. developed a MOF-on-MOF structure specifically designed for gas adsorption. The structure comprised a core composed of a mixture of bio-MOF-11 and bio-MOF-14, while a bio-MOF-14 shell encapsulated the core. Water stability testing confirmed that the hydrophobic bio-MOF-14 shell pro-

tected the water-sensitive core from degradation. The resulting MOF-on-MOF hybrids displayed selective gas storage properties and improved water stability. 192

Panchariya et al. synthesized two variants of zeolitic imidazolate frameworks (ZIFs), the core-shell ZIF-8@ZIF-67 and the ZIF-67@ZIF-8. Both exhibited high H₂ storage values, reaching 2.03 wt% for ZIF-8@ZIF-67 and 1.69 wt% for ZIF-67@ZIF-8. Under -196 °C and 1 bar conditions, the H₂ storage capacity of the hybrids improved by 41% and 18% compared with their ZIF-67 and ZIF-8 parents, respectively. According to the authors, these values of H₂ uptake indicate that the unique structural features of the core-shell materials, such as the confinement of a porous structure within another one and their elemental heterogeneity, were the main reasons. The best material in terms of H₂ storage, the core-shell ZIF-8@ZIF-67, had an $A_{\rm BET}$ of 1402 m² g⁻¹, higher than that of ZIF-8 with 1324 $\text{m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ and ZIF-67 with 1392 $\text{m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$. The authors suggested that this increase was due to the well-developed ZIF-67 shell over the ZIF-8 core, which did not block the ZIF-8 pores. Nevertheless, the core-shell ZIF-67@ZIF-8 was the second-best performing and had a lower $A_{\rm BET}$ than its ZIF parents, 1272 m² g⁻¹, indicating that the most important variables were the distinct surface and porosity characteristics of the core-shell topologies. 180 The results underscore the potential of MOF-on-MOF systems for efficient gas storage applications.

4.2. MOF hybrids with carbon-based materials or metals

The exceptional porosity and versatility of MOFs enable the synthesis of hybrids with a variety of materials, including polymers, graphene oxide, carbon nanotubes, metal nanoparticles, etc. 170,193 This can be achieved by growing MOFs on the surface or in the pores of other substrates or by incorporating additional materials into MOF cavities. As a result, hybrids can exhibit a combination of the properties of both components or even acquire new functionalities, such as water stability, or even improved mechanical properties. 194,195

Fig. 7 shows the various possible synthesis approaches for obtaining a MOF hybrid, including covalent modification at metal nodes (Fig. 7a) or organic ligands (Fig. 7b), encapsulation (Fig. 7c), layer-by-layer deposition (Fig. 7d), or nucleation in the presence of other materials (Fig. 7e). 196

MOF hybrids can be synthesized by various methods, such as in situ growth, post-synthetic modification and physical mixing. 180, 197, 198

- In situ growth: In this approach, carbon-based materials or metals are incorporated into the MOF structure during MOF synthesis. These materials can therefore serve as nucleation sites for MOF crystal growth, and their presence can influence the morphology, structure and properties of the resulting MOF hybrid. The designation for this approach is MOF@A, with "A" being another material that forms a non-covalent interaction between the two components. Alfe et al. used graphene-like (GL) materials to prepare HKUST-1@GL, MIL-96(Al)@GL and MIL-101(Fe)@GL by in situ growth. The materials obtained achieved good selectivity for CO2 over CH4 using MOF@GL

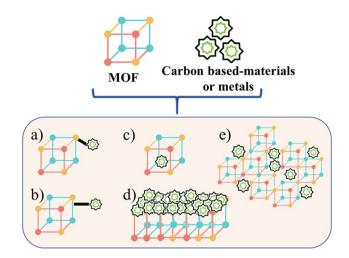


Fig. 7 Scheme of hybrid materials based on MOFs and carbons or metals: (a) covalent modification at metal nodes; (b) covalent modification at organic ligands; (c) encapsulation; (d) layer-by-layer deposition; and (e) nucleation in the presence of other materials (adapted from ref. 196).

hybrids. 199 Pt and Au nanoparticles were used as nucleation sites during ZIF-8 synthesis, enabling Pt and Au nanoparticles to be encapsulated. 200 He et al. synthesized MOF-5@Au²⁰¹ and Liu et al. synthesized UIO-66@Pt using a one-pot method in which the nanoparticles and MOFs were synthesized simultaneously.²⁰²

- Post-synthetic modification: In this approach, pre-synthesized MOFs are modified by introducing carbon-based materials or metals onto the MOF surface or into its pores once MOF synthesis has been completed. Post-synthetic modification methods allow other materials with specific properties or functionalities to be introduced into MOFs without altering the MOF structure. 203

Covalent modifications encompass both coordinated covalent modifications of metal clusters and covalent modifications of ligands. By employing covalent modification techniques, it is possible to synthesize MOF hybrids with small molecules, metals/metal clusters, covalent organic frameworks (COFs), polymers and graphene. 196,203 Rao et al. developed a composite membrane combining graphene oxide (GO) and UiO-66-NH₂ by tethering UiO-66-NH₂ to GO surfaces. The covalent attachment of UiO-66-NH2 with GO enabled the creation of a continuous proton transfer channel, contributing to the high performance of the composite membrane.²¹⁵

Post-synthetic modification also includes techniques such as coating, layering and other methods that do not rely on the formation of covalent bonds. For instance, Chen et al. developed a material comprising perovskite quantum dots (QDs) encapsulated in HKUST-1 by immersing HKUST-1 thin films in solutions containing QD precursors. QDs of 1.5-2 nm matched the pore size of HKUST-1 and the resulting material improved its stability under 70% relative humidity, whereas QDs alone decomposed under the same conditions. 216 Villajos et al. obtained a ZIF-8@Pd hybrid by synthesizing Pd nano-

particles in the presence of commercial ZIF-8²¹² and Hu et al. followed a similar route to obtain HKUST-1@Pd.²⁰⁹

- Physical mixing: This approach involves simply mixing MOFs and carbon-based or inorganic materials without any covalent or coordination bonds between them. This approach is relatively simple and straightforward but may result in phase separation or weak interactions between MOFs and other materials. Otal et al. stated that the inherent characteristics of MOFs, including crystallinity, structure and porosity, were maintained even after the modification of pre-synthesized MOFs. 217 Some studies confirm a significant improvement in H₂ sorption capacities when MOFs are mixed with carbonbased materials. 163,218 Prasanth et al. clearly demonstrated a substantial improvement in the H₂ sorption capacities of MIL-101 samples through the incorporation of Single-Walled Carbon Nanotubes (SWCNTs). H2 sorption capacities increased from 6.4 to 9.2 wt% at -196 °C and 6 MPa and from 0.2 to 0.6 wt% at 25 °C and 6 MPa. 218 In their feature article, Szcześniak et al. studied the incorporation of GO into different MOF matrices such as HKUST-1 and MIL-101(Cr). They observed that the presence of GO can significantly increase their surface area and influence their morphology and structure. The dense atomic structure of GO contributes to stronger dispersion interactions and a greater number of unsaturated coordination bonds when combined with MOFs, which is crucial for improving adsorption properties. 163

4.2.1. MOF hybrids with metal particles and ions for **hydrogen storage.** One of the most attractive structural features of some MOFs is coordinative unsaturation, which can be achieved by introducing additional terminal ligands bound to metal clusters.²¹⁹ Fig. 8 shows the influence of ion and metal particle doping on H2 adsorption. The addition of ions or nanoparticles often reduces the SSA of the hybrid, calling into question the reliability of using the BET area as an indicator of H₂ storage capacities in MOFs and MOF-derived materials. However, all samples show an increase in H2 adsorption, especially at room temperature (25 °C). To improve H₂ storage, it is thus crucial to design novel MOF materials that not only have customized pore sizes and substantial void volumes, but also contain highly efficient adsorption sites. Among these sites are exposed metal ions, whose binding enthalpy lies between -20 and -30 kJ mol⁻¹. ¹⁶¹

- Metal ion doping of MOFs: Metal ions can be introduced into the MOF matrix by ion exchange procedures as well as by chemical reduction methods, with the aim of increasing the adsorption enthalpy. Peedikakkal et al. showed that metalexchanged MOF-5@Ni and MOF-5@Co exhibit slightly higher $\rm H_2$ uptake (about 5 wt%) compared with the parent MOF-5. 90 Adsorption results by Prabhakaran and Deschamps revealed a substantial increase in the H2 uptake capacity of MIL-101 thanks to the synergistic modification involving activated carbon and lithium doping (at both -196 °C and 25 °C). The H₂ storage capacity (-196 °C, 1 bar) of the doped MOF (MIL-101@AC-Li) showed an H2 uptake of 1.60 wt% compared with 1.20 wt% in undoped MIL-101.²⁰⁴ Prabhakaran et al. demonstrated that Li⁺ doping (830 ppm) of MIL-101@SWCNTs improved H₂ uptake by more than twofold (4.96-10.43 mg g⁻¹) at 25 °C and 90 bar. 160

- Metal nanoparticles on MOFs: The synthesis of MOF hybrids with metal nanoparticles involves incorporating the latter into the MOF structure using template methods or presynthesis strategies. This introduction effectively increases the number of adsorption sites, boosts adsorption enthalpy and enables synergistic physical-chemical H₂ adsorption. In particular, MOF@Pd hybrids have received considerable attention because Pd can absorb large amounts of H2 at ambient temperature and pressure. Cheon et al. reported that H2 sorption capacity was increased to 1.48 wt% at -196 °C and 1 atm, com-

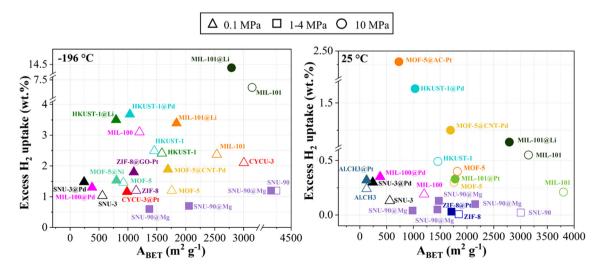


Fig. 8 Influence of adding metal particles into MOFs on the H₂ storage capacities of the resultant hybrid materials (○ ref. 204); (△ , △ ref. 205); (△ ▲ ref. 206); (△ ▲, ○ ● ref. 207); (○ ●, △ ▲ ref. 90); (□ ■ ref. 208); (○ ●, △ ▲ ref. 209); (△ ▲ ref. 210); (△ ▲ ref. 162); (○ ● ref. 211); (□ ■ ref. 212); (△ ▲ ref. 213); (△ ▲ ref. 214).

pared to 1.03 wt% for pure SNU-3 MOF (despite a 43% decrease in the surface area). 162 Zlotea et al. showed that the MIL-100(Al)@Pd hybrid doubled H2 uptake compared with the original MOF at room temperature.206 Yang et al. loaded Pt into MOF-5@CNT hybrids to further increase H2 storage capacity. The hybrid was prepared by in situ incorporation of the as-prepared Pt-loaded MWCNTs into MOF-5 crystals. Four materials were evaluated in terms of H2 uptake: MWCNTs $(A_{\text{BET}} = 147 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1})$, MWCNTs-Pt $(A_{\text{BET}} = 124 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1})$, MOF-5 $(A_{\text{BET}} = 1758 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1})$ and MOF@MWCNT-Pt $(A_{\text{BET}} = 1692 \text{ m}^2)$ g^{-1}). The authors studied H₂ uptake at -196 °C and 1 bar, as well as 25 °C and 100 bar. The highest H₂ uptake (-196 °C and 1 bar) was observed for MOF@MWCNT-Pt with 1.89 wt%, followed by MOF-5 with 1.20 wt%. At 25 °C and 100 bar, MOF@MWCNT-Pt showed much higher H2 uptake values compared to the other materials, reaching 1.25 wt%. 207

Prabhakaran and Deschamps synthesized a hybrid MOF by incorporating an AC, namely NORIT-RB3, during the synthesis of MIL-101, as well as lithium at different concentrations. H₂ adsorption capacities were evaluated at -196 °C and 25 °C, using pressures up to 100 bar. The highest H2 uptakes were obtained for the MIL-101-B@AC-Li material, with 14.4 wt% at -196 °C and 1.1 wt% at 25 °C, both at 100 bars. Although the A_{BET} of the MIL-101-B@AC-Li material was much lower, $2791 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ than those of MIL-101, 3148 m² g⁻¹, and MIL-101@AC, 3458 m² g⁻¹, and slightly lower than that of MIL-101-A@AC-Li, 2958 m² g⁻¹, all of these hybrids provided H_2 uptake capacities >100 mg g⁻¹ (10 wt%) at -196 °C. However, the significantly lower $A_{\rm BET}$ value of MIL-101-C@AC-Li (1868 m² g⁻¹) compromised higher H₂ uptakes, reaching a maximum of 87.70 mg g $^{-1}$ at -196 °C. 204

4.2.2. MOF hybrids with carbon materials for hydrogen storage. In this section, we examine how the addition of carbon materials improves the properties relevant to H₂ storage described in section 3.

- Increase in surface area: The addition of carbon-based materials to the MOF matrix often increases the SSA of the resulting MOF hybrid, enhancing its adsorption capacity at cryogenic and near-ambient temperatures. 199,204,220-222,226,227 Fig. 9 shows the effect of the BET area on H2 adsorption for pure MOFs and for MOF hybrids with carbon-based materials at different storage pressures.

Yang et al. prepared MOF-5@MWCNT hybrids using acidtreated MWCNTs and MOF-5. The resultant materials exhibited a higher Langmuir specific surface area, from 2160 to 3550 m 2 g $^{-1}$, resulting in an approximately 50% increase in H₂ storage capacity at 25 °C and 95 bar (from 0.3 to 0.6 wt%) and a 25% increase in H₂ storage capacity at -196 °C and 1 bar (from 1.2 to 1.5 wt%). Furthermore, these hybrids demonstrated significantly improved stability in the presence of ambient moisture. 131 Petit et al. synthesized copper-based MOF@graphite oxide hybrids, and four materials were evaluated for H2 adsorption: HKUST-1, HKUST-1@GO (5 wt%), HKUST-1@GO (9 wt%), and HKUST-1@GO (18 wt%). A_{BET} and H_2 uptake were 990 m² g⁻¹ and 2.2 wt% for HKUST-1, 989 m² g^{-1} and 2.4 wt% for HKUST-1@GO (5 wt%), 1002 m² g⁻¹ and 2.2 wt% for HKUST-1@GO (9 wt%), and 996 m2 g-1 and 2.0 wt% for HKUST-1@GO (18 wt%), respectively. The authors attributed the improved uptake to the formation of new small pores for the hybrids.221

Prasanth et al. incorporated SWCNTs into MIL-101, and the best-performing material, incorporating 8 wt% of SWCNTs, presented H₂ sorption capacities of 9.2 wt% (at -196 °C and 6 MPa) and 0.6 wt% (at 25 °C and 6 MPa) compared with 6.4 wt% and 0.2 wt%, respectively, for the pristine MIL-101. Although this material has a slightly lower SSA, the authors ascribed these higher H₂ sorption capacities to the reduction in pore size and the increase in micropore volume in the hybrid due to the incorporation of SWCNTs.218 Liu et al. hybridized Cu-MOFs with graphene oxide (GO) and achieved about

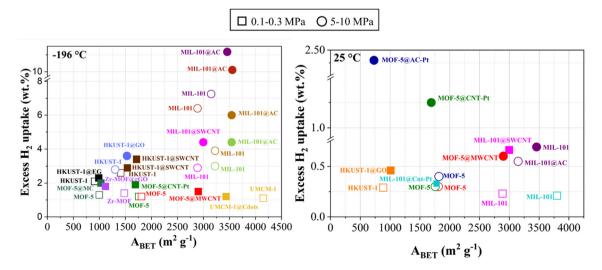


Fig. 9 Excess H₂ uptake of MOF hybrids reported in recent studies at -196 °C (left) and 25 °C (right) (○ ref. 220); (□ ref. 221); (□ ref. 222); (□ ref. 223); (○ •, □ ref. 131); (□ □, ○ • ref. 207); (□ □ ref. 175); (○ • ref. 224); (□ □ ref. 214); (○ •, ○ • ref. 158); (○ •, □ □ ref. 218); (○ •, ref. 159); (○ • ref. 204); (□ ■ ref. 225).

30% higher H₂ capacities at −196 °C and 4.2 MPa due to the increased SSA.²²⁰ Rallapalli et al. introduced activated carbon (AC) during the synthesis of MIL-101(Cr), and the best-performing material reached an A_{BET} of 3556 m² g⁻¹ and an H₂ uptake of 10.1 wt% at -196 °C and 6 MPa, outperforming pristine MIL-101 ($A_{\text{BET}} = 2887 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ and 6.4 wt% H₂ uptake under the same conditions¹⁵⁹). Li et al. used carbon nanodots (CDs) to prepare UMCM-1@CD materials and the best H₂ uptake was 1.2 wt% at -196 °C and 0.1 MPa, slightly higher than that of UMCM-1 with 1.1 wt%. The authors suggested that the improvement was due to specific interactions between polar functional groups, e.g. -COOH and -OH, on the CD surface and H2 molecules. 225 Yu et al. investigated MIL-101(Cr) and a MIL-101(Cr)@AC hybrid that displayed a maximum excess H_2 uptake (at -196 °C and 10 MPa) of 8.2 and 13.5 wt%, respectively, due to an increase in A_{BET} from 3407 for the pristine MOF to 3542 m² g⁻¹ for the hybrid. 158

The morphology, not just the texture, of the MOF hybrid often changes with the percentage of carbon-based material added. Fig. 10a and b show the HKUST-1@GO hybrid modified by increasing concentrations of GO from 1 to 2.5 g L^{-1} . The morphology of both samples changed significantly on reaching the highest GO concentration tested. In addition to the typical polyhedral crystals, distinctive rod- and flower-like structures appeared. Fig. 10c and d show the characteristic morphology of the Co-bpdc and Co-bpdc@MWCNT hybrids. In Fig. 10c, the Co-bpdc crystal exhibits a rectangular structure and Fig. 10d clearly shows the successful synthesis of a hybrid of MWCNTs with Co-bpdc.

Although GO had no measurable SSA by N₂ adsorption at -196 °C, the total SSA of the HKUST-1@GO hybrid remained constant or even increased with the addition of GO up to a GO concentration in solution of 2.5 g L⁻¹ (see Fig. 10e). ²²⁸

- Increase in thermal stability: The presence of a carbonbased material can also increase the thermal stability of the hybrid. 175,222 Policicchio et al. provided an overview of the thermal stability of hybrids obtained after the incorporation of

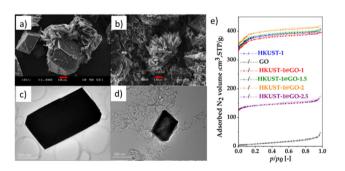


Fig. 10 (a) SEM images of HKUST-1@1g L⁻¹ GO; (b) SEM images of HKUST-1@2.5 g L⁻¹ GO. Scale bar is 10 μm (reproduced from ref. 228 © 1996-2024 MDPI); (c) TEM images of Co-bpdc (cobalt benzene-1,4dicarboxylate) as a pure MOF; (d) TEM images of Co-bpdc@MWCNTs as a hybrid (reproduced from ref. 229 © 1996-2024 MDPI); (e) N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms (-196 °C) of pristine GO, HKUST-1 and hybrid materials with different GO contents (reproduced from ref. 228 © 1996-2024 MDPI).

nanographite (nGr) during the synthesis of UiO-66. In addition to a notable increase in material porosity (~30%), linker decomposition in all hybrids occurred at a temperature of around 80 °C higher than that of the pure MOF, probably due to changes in heat capacity caused by the introduction of nGr.9

Jiang et al. studied the influence of introducing MWCNTs into the MOF-5 matrix, obtaining a hybrid that showed a 6% increase in thermal stability. 175 Rojas-Garcia et al. showed that HKUST-1@SWCNT materials exhibit improved thermal stability (320 °C) compared to pristine HKUST-1 (220 °C) using an InVia Renishaw Raman instrument equipped with a Linkam cell.222

- Increase in hydrophobicity: Kim et al. used carbon black to fabricate a hybrid with MOF-5 and demonstrated that it did not affect the integrity of the MOF-5 and effectively protected the framework from moisture. 230 For the same MOF, Yang and Park reported that an amorphous carbon-coated MOF-5 could be prepared by a simple thermal modification process carried out under an N2 atmosphere in a temperature range of 480-530 °C. Amorphous carbon-coated MOF-5 samples were found to have reduced BET areas (1740 vs. 3450 m² g⁻¹), but displayed better water stability compared with pristine MOF-5.²³¹ Jayaramulu *et al.* obtained a hybrid material using a highly fluorinated graphene oxide (HFG) and ZIF-8 (ZIF-8@HFG). The material exhibited superhydrophobic behavior with an exceptionally high water contact angle of 162°. 232
- Increase in thermal conductivity: The addition of carbonbased materials to a MOF boosts its thermal conductivity, making it more efficient at conducting and dissipating heat. The degree of improvement depends on factors such as the filler type, concentration and dispersion. Nandasiri et al. reported an ~23% improvement in thermal conductivity by adding GO to the MOF matrix MIL-101(Cr).²³³ The addition of 10 wt% expanded natural graphite to MOF-5 pellets with a density of 0.5 g cm⁻³ was previously found to improve thermal conduction near room temperature by a factor of 5 (compared with undoped MOF-5 pellets). 234 A similar behavior was observed by Farrando-Pérez et al. for the HKUST-1@graphite flake hybrid, showing that the thermal conductivity of the hybrid monolith (50 wt% graphite flakes) was 3.15 W m⁻¹ K⁻¹ νs . 0.49 W m⁻¹ K⁻¹ for the pure HKUST-1 monolith. In terms of H₂ uptake, the hybrid monolith with 10 wt% graphite flakes showed the best result with 1.7 wt% vs. 1.25 wt% for the pure HKUST-1 monolith. 143
- 4.2.3. MOF hybrids with other inorganic materials. Hybrids with MOFs have been used for various applications, such as CO₂ capture, and can include alternative materials such as zeolites, cellulose and clays.235 MOFs@clay hybrids include feedstock materials such as attapulgite, amino-clay, cordierite, kaolin and bentonite. Wang et al. studied the influence of introducing diatomite (Da) into the MIL-101 (Cr) matrix. Their study evaluated the H2 storage capacity of the Cr-MOF@Da hybrid at 25 °C and 1 bar. The H2 adsorption isotherms showed a linear increase as the wt% of diatomite increased, obtaining 0.022 wt% for Cr-MIL-101@Da-4. The hybrids also showed improved thermal stability. 236

MOF@clays have been the subject of research interest, especially for the development of complex geometries of MOFs using 3D printing.²³⁷ MOFs@zeolite hybrids combine the high SSA of MOFs with the high mechanical strength of zeolites. By selecting the type of synthesis, a core-shell structure can be obtained that may offer certain advantages, such as gas separation, hydrophobicity, etc. 238 For instance, Musyoka et al. fabricated a MIL-101(Cr)@zeolite-templated carbon (ZTC) hybrid for H₂ storage applications. H₂ adsorption measurements were carried out at -196 °C up to 1 bar. The hybrid material was compared with the individual materials and showed an increased surface area and H₂ uptake capacity of 2957 m² g⁻¹ and 2.55 wt%, respectively. These results are significantly better than those obtained with MIL-101 (2552 m g⁻¹, 2.39 wt%) and ZTC (2577 m² g⁻¹, 2.39 wt%). 239

5. Conclusions

The development of MOF-based hybrid adsorbents, combining MOFs with a variety of other materials and nanostructures, has attracted considerable interest in recent times. This approach aims to improve the performance and scalability of MOFs, opening up possibilities for future materials.

MOFs alone, due to their versatile structures, high surface areas and substantial pore volumes, are already considered promising materials for H₂ storage, as evidenced by NU100, which reaches 9.05 wt% at 7 MPa and -196 °C. Moreover, a variety of synthesis methods enables the nanopore structure of MOFs to be controlled, which is essential for their applicability in adsorption. Our review covered different synthesis techniques, delineating their respective advantages and drawbacks in controlling MOF parameters, as well as characterizing MOFs and their hybrids. By recognizing the potential of MOFs, increasing the SSA and optimizing pore size distribution should make it possible to increase H2 storage capacities in line with the DOE specifications.

To optimize hydrogen storage under ambient conditions, strategies such as linker functionalization and the introduction of unsaturated metal centers are highly effective. A notable example is that of exposed metal ions, which often have binding enthalpies ranging from -20 to -30 kJ mol⁻¹. Other advances concern the creation of competitive MOF hybrids, especially through the incorporation of carbon materials, which show promise in increasing adsorption capacity, improving thermal stability and enhancing thermal conductivity. To improve the selectivity and stability of MOFs, MOF@MOF hybrids offer a promising approach. By integrating the characteristics of two distinct MOFs into a single, unified material, this method effectively combines their advantages. Combinations such as MOF@carbon-based materials preserve the advantages of MOFs while improving thermal conductivity, surface area and ease of shaping.

In conclusion, MOF-based hybrids represent a promising approach for improving H2 storage capabilities, offering significant potential to meet the demanding standards set by the US DOE. Key areas of future research should focus on increasing the volumetric capacity of these materials, as their gravimetric performance is already outstanding, but volumetric improvements are essential for practical applications such as transportation and portable energy systems. These developments will play a decisive role in optimizing the performance of MOF hybrids and advancing their viability for commercial hydrogen storage applications.

Abbreviation

$(-\Delta H)_{\rm ads}$	Adsorption enthalpy	
$A_{ m BET}$	Brunauer–Emmett–Teller area	
BDC	1,4-Benzenedicarboxylic acid	
BET	Brunauer–Emmett–Teller	
BPDC	Biphenyldicarboxylate	

BTC Benzene-1,3,5-Tricarboxylic acid

CDs Carbon dots

Cobalt benzene-1,4-dicarboxylate Co-bpdc COFS Covalent organic frameworks DMF N,N-Dimethylformamide DOE U.S. Department of Energy

FTIR Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy

GLGraphene-like GO Graphene oxide H_2 Hydrogen ILs Ionic liquids

IMOFs Interpenetrated MOFs MIL Materials of Institut Lavoiser **MOFs** Metal organic frameworks **MWCNTs** Multi-walled carbon nanotubes

Nano graphite nGr

NMR Nuclear magnetic resonance NU Northewestern University Primary building units **PBUs PCPs** Porous coordination polymers

PDC 3,5-Pyridine dicarboxylic acid **PSD** Pore size distribution

PTFE Polytetrafluoroethylene

QDs Quantum dots **RAM**

Resonant acoustic mixing **SBUs** Secondary building units SEM Scanning electron microscopy

SSA Specific surface area

SWCNT Single-walled carbon nanotubes **TGA** Thermogravimetric analysis

UIO Universitetet i Oslo **XRD** X-ray diffraction analysis ZTC Zeolite-templated carbon

Author contributions

L.J.-L.: writing - original draft and formal analysis; R.M.-O.: review & editing, formal analysis, and supervision; L.G. A.:

writing - original draft and formal analysis; A.C.: review & editing and supervision; V.F. review & editing, supervision, project administration, and formal analysis.

Data availability

The data supporting this article have been included as part of the ESI.†

No primary research results, software or code have been included and no new data were generated or analysed as part of this review.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

Acknowledgements

This work was made possible thanks to (i) the SOLHYD project (ANR-22-PEHY-0007) funded by the Agence Nationale de la Recherche, (ii) the FRCR HyPE project funded by Région Grand-Est, and (iii) TALiSMAN and TALiSMAN2 projects funded by FEDER. De Araujo, L. G. acknowledges the MOPGA program, funded by the French Ministry of Europe and Foreign Affairs, in collaboration with the French Ministry of Higher Education and Research.

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