

# Science



## Balancing Volumetric and Gravimetric Uptake in Highly Porous Materials for Clean Energy

Zhijie Chen,<sup>1,†</sup> Penghao Li,<sup>1,†</sup> Ryther Anderson,<sup>2,†</sup> Xingjie Wang,<sup>1</sup> Xuan Zhang,<sup>1</sup> Lee Robison,<sup>1</sup> Louis R. Redfern,<sup>1</sup> Shinya Moribe,<sup>1,6</sup> Timur Islamoglu,<sup>1</sup> Diego A. Gómez-Gualdrón,<sup>2</sup> Taner Yildirim,<sup>3</sup> J. Fraser Stoddart,<sup>1,4,5</sup> and Omar K. Farha<sup>1,7,\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Department of Chemistry and International Institute of Nanotechnology, Northwestern University, 2145 Sheridan Road, Evanston, Illinois 60208, United States

<sup>2</sup> Department of Chemical and Biological Engineering, Colorado School of Mines, Golden, Colorado 80401, United States

<sup>3</sup> NIST Center for Neutron Research, National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg, Maryland 20899, United States

<sup>4</sup> Institute for Molecular Design and Synthesis, Tianjin University, 92 Weijin Road, Tianjin 300072, China

<sup>5</sup> School of Chemistry, University of New South Wales, Sydney, NSW 2052, Australia

<sup>6</sup> Future Mobility Research Department, Toyota Research Institute of North America, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48105, United States

<sup>7</sup> Department of Chemical & Biological Engineering, Northwestern University, 2145 Sheridan Road, Evanston, Illinois 60208, United States

<sup>†</sup>These authors contributed equally to this work.

\*Corresponding author. Email: [o-farha@northwestern.edu](mailto:o-farha@northwestern.edu)

# MAIN TEXT

**ABSTRACT:** A huge challenge facing scientists is the development of adsorbent materials which exhibit ultrahigh porosity but maintain balance between gravimetric and volumetric surface areas for the on-board storage of hydrogen and methane gas—alternatives to conventional fossil fuels. Here we report the simulation-motivated synthesis of ultraporous metal–organic frameworks (MOFs) based on metal trinuclear clusters, namely NU-1501-M (M = Al or Fe). Relative to other ultraporous MOFs, NU-1501-Al exhibits concurrently a high gravimetric Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) area of  $7310 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  and a volumetric BET area of  $2060 \text{ m}^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  while satisfying the four BET consistency criteria. The high porosity and surface area of this MOF yielded impressive gravimetric and volumetric storage performances for hydrogen and methane: NU-1501-Al surpasses the gravimetric methane storage DOE target ( $0.5 \text{ g g}^{-1}$ ) with a uptake of  $0.66 \text{ g g}^{-1}$  ( $262 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ (STP) cm}^{-3}$ ) at 100 bar/270 K and a 5–100 bar working capacity of  $0.60 \text{ g g}^{-1}$  ( $238 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ (STP) cm}^{-3}$ ) at 270 K; and it also shows one of the best deliverable hydrogen capacity ( $14.0 \text{ wt}\%$ ,  $46.2 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ ) under a combined temperature and pressure swing ( $77 \text{ K}/100 \text{ bar} \rightarrow 160 \text{ K}/5 \text{ bar}$ ).

## Introduction

In 2017, for the first time in history, the U.S. transportation sector, which includes cars, trucks, planes, trains, and boats, overtook power plants as the largest source of greenhouse gas emissions in the country.<sup>(1)</sup> This progression continued in 2018 as the transportation sector emitted 1.87 billion tons of  $\text{CO}_2$  and power plants emitted 1.76 billion tons of  $\text{CO}_2$ , and this trend is projected to continue.<sup>(1)</sup> This shift in  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions makes finding alternative sources of cleaner energy for transportation even more important and judicious.

Methane and hydrogen are both alternatives to gasoline for potential use as fuel for the transportation sector.(2, 3) Methane is envisioned as a transitional fuel, as its combustion still emits CO<sub>2</sub>, but the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> released is less than gasoline.(4) Hydrogen, on the other hand, is envisioned as the “fuel of the future” as hydrogen-powered fuel cell vehicles are zero-emission automobiles.(2) However, the transportation, storage, and operations of hydrogen and methane powered vehicles currently require high pressure compression (*i.e.*, 700 bar for H<sub>2</sub> and 250 bar for CH<sub>4</sub>), which is both costly and potentially unsafe.(2, 5) To encourage research in this important field, the US Department of Energy (DOE) established metrics for the development of on-board storage and delivery systems for alternative fuels for the transportation sector.(2, 6) For methane, these targets include a gravimetric storage capacity of 0.5 g g<sup>-1</sup> and a volumetric storage capacity of 263 cm<sup>3</sup> (STP) cm<sup>-3</sup>. For hydrogen, these targets (for 2020) include a gravimetric storage capacity of 4.5 wt % and a volumetric storage capacity of 30 g/L.

Developing new adsorbent materials is one of the strategies to reach these targets for the safe and cost-effective storage of methane and hydrogen. In particular, high-surface area porous materials(3, 7-9)—often thought of as having a surface area of 2,000 m<sup>2</sup>/g or greater—such as metal–organic frameworks (MOFs),(3, 5, 8, 10-16) porous carbons,(5, 17) covalent organic frameworks(18) and porous organic polymers(19-22) have been investigated intensively as candidate adsorbents for the on-board storage of clean-energy gases. The properties of these adsorbents could enable gas loadings to power vehicles under less extreme loading pressure (e.g. 100 bar) than that is currently needed by the storage systems used in methane- and hydrogen-powered vehicles. Among these adsorbents, MOFs, constructed from inorganic nodes and organic linkers, have gained prominence as appealing materials for gas storage(23-27) due to their tailorable pore chemistry and geometry,

and amenability for rational design facilitated by clear-cut structure-property relationships. Furthermore, surface areas in MOFs have been reported to reach ultrahigh values.(28-30)

When using these adsorbents, the tank pressure goes down as fuel is consumed until there is no longer a gradient driving the flow of methane or hydrogen to the engine, which typically occurs at 5 bar.(2, 26) At this pressure there may be a significant fraction of gas still adsorbed. Therefore, the deliverable capacity—the amount of stored gas delivered to the engine during operation—becomes a critical design parameter when designing adsorbents. The deliverable capacity for the 100 bar → 5 bar pressure swing has received exceptional interest because 100 bar is the highest refueling pressure for which all-metal Type I pressure tanks can be safety-compliant, circumventing the need for more expensive carbon fiber-reinforced composite vessels for hydrogen storage.(2, 31) *As both size and weight requirements for the on-board tank must be met to make the storage system feasible, it is crucial to consider the optimization of volumetric and gravimetric deliverable capacities in MOFs as concurrent objectives rather than separate ones.*(13, 32-34)

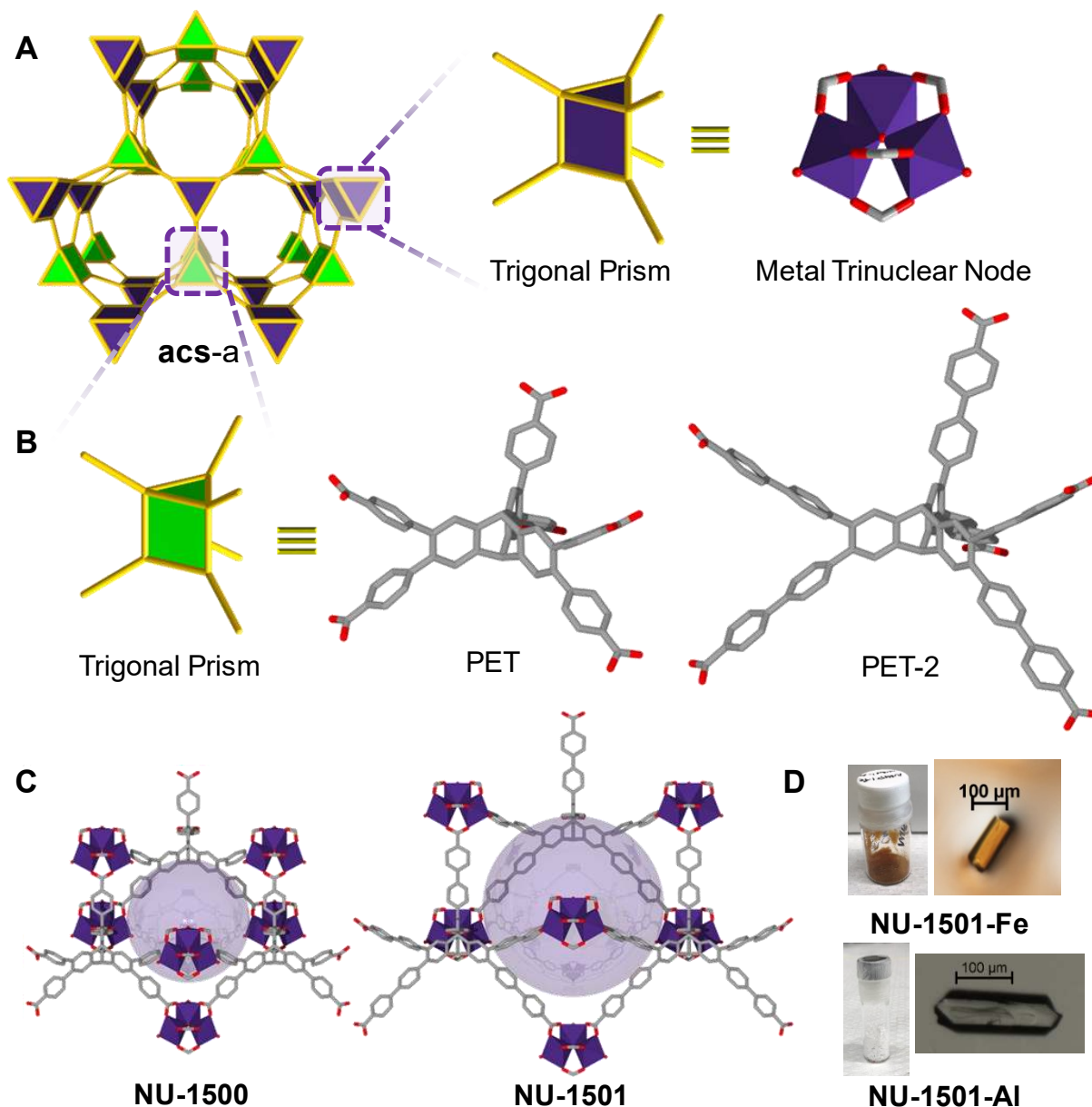
As the existence of a trade-off between gravimetric and volumetric capacities has become apparent,(33) there is a great challenge in providing satisfactory volumetric and gravimetric capacities within a single material. For example, microporous HKUST-1(5, 35), with a relatively low gravimetric Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) area of  $1980 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  (a volumetric BET area of  $1740 \text{ m}^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ), exhibits high volumetric storage but moderate gravimetric  $\text{CH}_4$  uptake ( $281 \text{ cm}^3$  (STP)  $\text{cm}^{-3}$  and  $0.23 \text{ g g}^{-1}$  at 100 bar/ 298 K), while mesoporous MOF-210(7), with a comparatively high gravimetric BET area of  $6240 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  (a volumetric BET area of  $1560 \text{ m}^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ), shows high gravimetric storage capacity yet low volumetric  $\text{CH}_4$  uptake ( $0.48 \text{ g g}^{-1}$  and  $168 \text{ cm}^3$  (STP)  $\text{cm}^{-3}$  at 80 bar/ 298 K). Typically, ultraporous MOF materials—*i.e.*, MOF-210(7), NU-110(28), and DUT-

60(30)—with high gravimetric BET areas, though containing high pore volumes and large pore sizes, show relatively low volumetric areas, which limits their applications in gas storage that requires a balance of volumetric and gravimetric capacities. Clearly, one key step toward a satisfactory trade-off between volumetric and gravimetric capacities would be to impart a single material with both high volumetric and gravimetric surface areas.

## Results and Discussion

To pursue both high gravimetric and volumetric surface areas in a single material, we used NU-1500(36) as a starting point. This class of material has several appealing characteristics, including (i) high porosity and surface area with a relatively small pore size of  $\sim 1.4$  nm; (ii) a broad degree of designability—the combination of rigid trigonal prismatic linkers and  $M_3O$  metal trimers will form MOFs with the **acs** net; (iii) good moisture stability for ease of processing; (iv) and finally the versatility of metal trimers allow it to be synthesized from  $M^{3+}$  metals, including abundant metals such as aluminum and iron. To start, we synthesized a new aluminum MOF, NU-1500-Al— $[Al_3(\mu_3-O)(H_2O)_2(OH)(PET)]$ , which exhibits 6-c **acs** topology and has rigid trigonal prismatic triptycene-based organic ligands—*i.e.*, peripherally extended triptycene(37) ( $H_6PET$ )—and aluminum  $\mu_3$ -oxo-centred trinuclear clusters(38) (**Fig. S5 and S10**). We confirmed the permanent microporosity of activated NU-1500-Al by nitrogen ( $N_2$ ) adsorption isotherm at 77 K, which exhibited an apparent BET area of  $3560 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ —satisfying the four BET consistency criteria(39, 40)—and which also had an experimental total pore volume of  $1.46 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ , in good agreement with the value for the simulated structure and previously reported(36) NU-1500-Fe (**Figs. S15-17**). The volumetric BET area of NU-1500-Al is estimated to be  $\sim 1770 \text{ m}^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , based on the crystallographic density from the simulated structure. The pore-size distribution from a density

functional theory (DFT) model with slit pore geometry revealed one type of pore centered at 1.4 nm, which agrees with the previous values from other NU-1500 analogues(36) (Fig. S19).



**Fig. 1.** (A-C) Schematic representation of NU-1501-M (M = Fe and Al) with the 6-c acs net. Atom color scheme: C, grey; metal, polyhedron with Northwestern University (NU) purple; O, red. H atoms are omitted for the sake of clarity. (D) Optical images of the single crystals of NU-1501.

On account of its high micropore volume and surface area, high-pressure H<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> sorption studies were conducted on NU-1500-Al at the National Institute for Standards and Technology (NIST) (**Figs. S31-36**). At 100 bar, NU-1500-Al adsorbed ~0.34 g g<sup>-1</sup> (237 cm<sup>3</sup> (STP) cm<sup>-3</sup>) and ~0.39 g g<sup>-1</sup> (273 cm<sup>3</sup> (STP) cm<sup>-3</sup>) of CH<sub>4</sub> at 296 K and 270 K, respectively, with deliverable capacities of 0.29 g g<sup>-1</sup> (202 cm<sup>3</sup> (STP) cm<sup>-3</sup>) and ~0.32 g g<sup>-1</sup> (224 cm<sup>3</sup> (STP) cm<sup>-3</sup>) between 5 bar and 100 bar. The volumetric deliverable capacities of 5–100 bar for NU-1500-Al are comparable to those of benchmark methane storage materials, such as MOF-905(25) (203 cm<sup>3</sup> (STP) cm<sup>-3</sup>; 5–80 bar at 298 K), HKUST-1(5) (207 cm<sup>3</sup> (STP) cm<sup>-3</sup>; 5–100 bar at 298 K), and Al-*soc*-MOF-1(13) (201 cm<sup>3</sup> (STP) cm<sup>-3</sup>; 5–80 bar at 298 K) (**Table S6**). NU-1500-Al adsorbed ~8.6 wt% (46.8 g L<sup>-1</sup>) of H<sub>2</sub> at 100 bar and 77 K, with a deliverable capacity of 8.2 wt% (44.6 g L<sup>-1</sup>) under combined temperature and pressure swing condition: 77 K/100 bar → 160 K/5 bar, which agrees with the tank design conditions proposed(41) by the DOE (**Table S7**).

Motivated by the results from NU-1500, we first set out to understand the trade-off between gravimetric and volumetric surface area (GSA and VSA, respectively). To accomplish this, a topologically diverse (58 topologies) 2800-MOF database, including 50 isorecticular MOFs to NU-1500, was created using the ToBaCCo(42) code (**Figs. S50-54**). Both gravimetric and volumetric surface areas were calculated geometrically for the created structures. Plotting these two quantities against each other (**Fig. 2A**) reveals their tradeoff, which can be quantified by their *normalized* product (GSA x VSA).

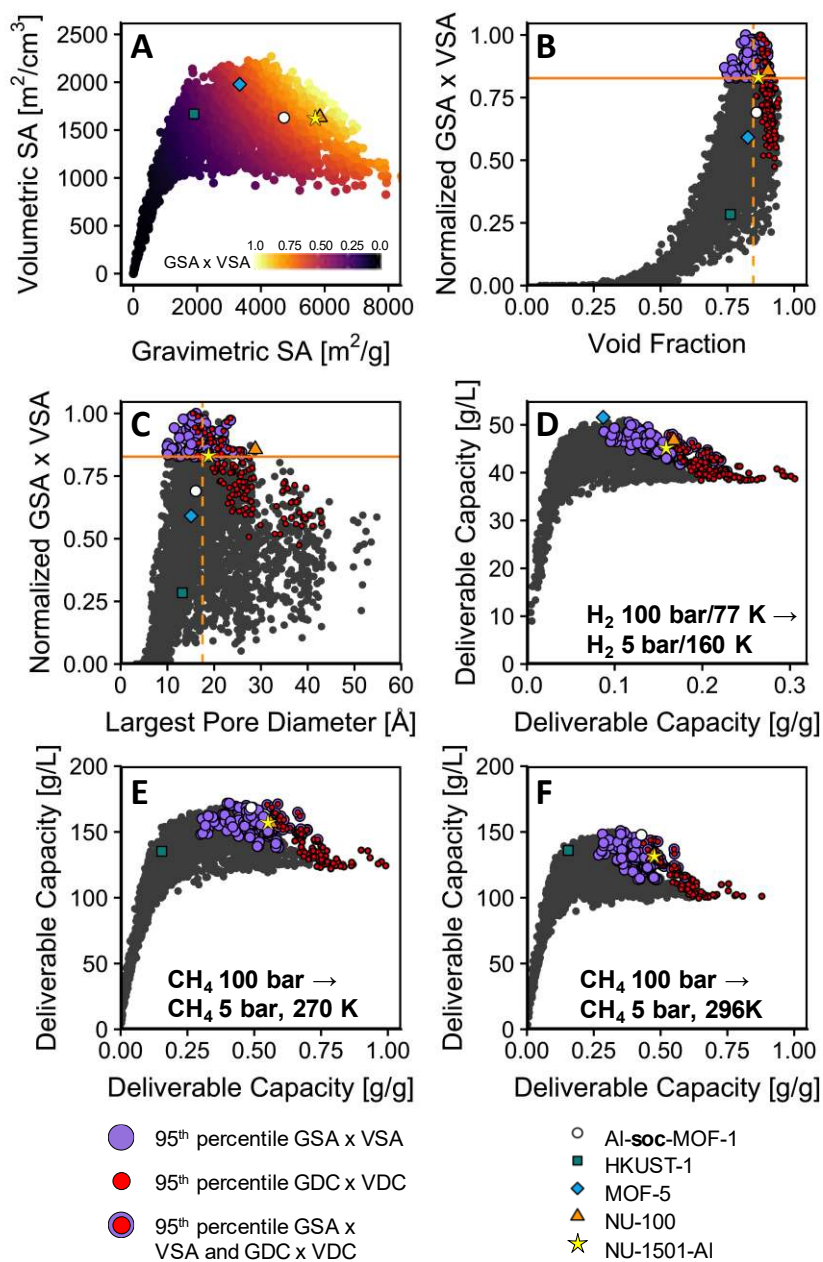
The GSA x VSA product show a volcano-type relationship between MOF helium void fraction (VF) and largest pore diameter (LPD) (**Fig. 2B, C**), with MOFs at the top of the volcano presenting the ideal trade-off (GSA x VSA product in the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile). The intermediate MOFs in this database that still exhibit these ideal qualities display an average VF of 0.85 and an average LPD

of 17.2 Å. By comparison, NU-1500 presents values of 0.76 and 12.7 Å, respectively, indicating opportunities to improve the tradeoff by refining the MOF design. Indeed, the obtained structure-property relationships revealed the value of extending the rigid triptycene-based ligand of the NU-1500 by one phenyl ring, going from PET to PET-2(43) (**Fig. 1**).

We coined the PET-2-based structure as NU-1501 and noticed that it presents properties ( $VF = 0.87$ ,  $LPD = 18.8$  Å) closer to the average of the MOFs in the ideal trade-off region. Note that simply meeting either property value does not guarantee an ideal tradeoff. For instance, MOFs with “ideal”  $VF$  cover a wide range for the  $GSA \times VSA$  product. Thus, NU-1501 has other complementary features that boost its  $GSA \times VSA$  product such as low metal to organic atom ratio. For example, **Figs. S51E** and **51F** show that MOFs with lower metal atom to organic atom ratios tend to have higher  $GSA \times VSA$ , which is simply because organic atom moieties (e.g. aromatic rings) tend to provide large adsorption surfaces while being light compared to metals.

To understand the implications of an ideal  $VSA$  vs  $GSA$  trade-off, we predicted methane and hydrogen deliverable capacities for the MOFs in the database (**Fig. 2E, F**). Notably, there is broader peak in the gravimetric deliverable capacity ( $GDC$ ) vs. volumetric deliverable capacity ( $VDC$ ) than in the  $VSA$  vs.  $GSA$  tradeoff, meaning that MOFs with maximally high  $GDC$  (and thus generally maximally high  $GSA$ ) are included in the ideal tradeoff region. From **Fig. S54** we see that there are many MOFs within the ideal tradeoff region for deliverable capacity that have too high a  $GSA$  to be in the ideal tradeoff region for surface area. NU-1501 lies exactly at the boundary of MOFs in the ideal tradeoff region for deliverable capacity and MOFs in the ideal tradeoff region for surface area (in all cases), meaning that NU-1501-Al maintains maximally high  $VSA$  for MOFs with  $GDC \times VDC$  in the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile (most others having higher  $GSA$  and lower  $VSA$ ).





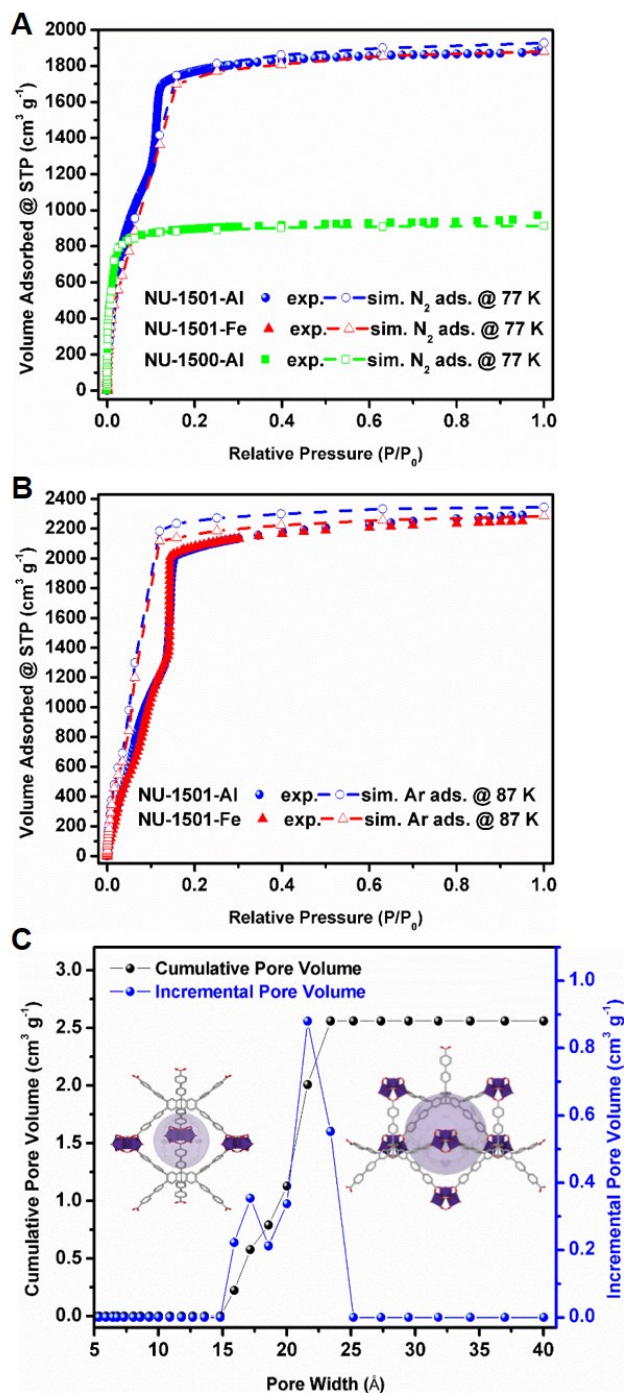
**Fig. 2.** (A) Volumetric SA vs. gravimetric SA, colored by the product of the two. NU-1501-Al lies in the ideal tradeoff region, characterized as being just past the peak of volumetric SA. Al-soc-MOF-1, HKUST-1, MOF-5, and NU-100 are shown as a comparison. (B) The product of GSA and VSA versus void fraction. The orange line shows the cutoff for being in the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile of GSA x VSA. The dashed, orange line shows the average void fraction for MOFs in the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile.

(C) Analogous to B) except plotting GSA x VSA versus MOF largest pore diameter. (D) Volumetric deliverable capacity (VDC) vs. gravimetric deliverable capacity (GDC) for hydrogen. Purple points show MOFs in the ideal region (95<sup>th</sup> percentile of GSA x VSA) of the GSA/VSA tradeoff. Red points show MOFs in the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile of GDC x VDC. Red points outlined in purple show MOFs in both regions. (E) Analogous to D) expect for methane VDC and GDC at 270 K. (F) Analogous to D) except for methane VDC and GDC at 296 K.

Inspired by the computational results above, we decided to synthesize expanded versions of **acs**-MOFs—*i.e.*, NU-1501 which feature an extended ligand design, H<sub>6</sub>PET-2 (**Figs. S1-4**). Solvothermal reactions of H<sub>6</sub>PET-2 with AlCl<sub>3</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O and FeCl<sub>3</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O yielded (**Fig. 1D**) colorless and yellow-orange hexagonal block crystals. Single-crystal X-ray diffraction (SCXRD) studies of these materials (NU-1501-Al and NU-1501-Fe) revealed non-catenated structures crystallizing in a hexagonal space group (*P-6m2*) (**Tables S1-2**). The μ<sub>3</sub>-oxo-centred trinuclear metal inorganic clusters are linked by the fully deprotonated trigonal prismatic ligands, H<sub>6</sub>PET-2, to yield a 3-periodic **acs**-MOF having one type of open hexagonal channels with a pore size of ~2.2 nm. We predicted the formula to be [M<sub>3</sub>(μ<sub>3</sub>-O)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>2</sub>(OH)(PET-2)] (M = Al or Fe), with the terminal anionic groups on the trinuclear node being -OH, as supported by the absence of chloride signals from EDS analysis (**Figs. S11-13**). We confirmed the phase purities of the bulk NU-1501-Al and NU-1501-Fe based on similarities (**Fig. S6**) between the simulated and as-synthesized PXRD patterns.

The permanent porosity of NU-1501-Al and NU-1501-Fe after supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> activation have been confirmed by reversible N<sub>2</sub> and Ar adsorption and desorption isotherms at 77 K and 87 K, respectively. Both materials have very similar isotherms (**Fig. 3** and **Figs. S18-24**). The experimental total pore volumes of NU-1501-Al, calculated from the N<sub>2</sub> and Ar adsorption

isotherms, are 2.91 and 2.93 cm<sup>3</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, which agree well with the simulated values from the single crystal structure. The pore-size distribution based on a DFT model revealed that NU-1501-Al has pore sizes ranging from 1.5 to 2.5 nm, with two types of pores centered at ~1.7 and 2.2 nm, which agrees well with the two pores from the single crystal structure. The apparent BET area of NU-1501-Al based on the N<sub>2</sub> adsorption isotherm is estimated to be 7310 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> after satisfying all four BET consistency criteria.<sup>(39, 40)</sup> If only the first two BET consistency criteria are fulfilled—as in the recently reported<sup>(30)</sup> ultraporous material, DUT-60—the apparent BET area is estimated to reach 9150 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> (**Table S3**). Moreover, the apparent BET area of NU-1501-Al, based on the Ar adsorption isotherm attains 7920 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> after satisfying the first three BET consistency criteria, which is in line with the simulated BET area of 7760 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> from the simulated Ar adsorption isotherm (**Table S4**). It should be noted that the deviation from the BET criteria should be minimized when it is not possible to select a region fulfilling all four consistency criteria, as in the case of the BET area calculation<sup>(40)</sup> from the Ar adsorption isotherm of NU-1501-Al. To the best of our knowledge, the gravimetric BET area (7310 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>) of NU-1501-Al is the highest reported value for all porous materials after satisfying all four BET criteria, despite the pore volume (about 2.90 cm<sup>3</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>) being lower than those of ultraporous materials having BET areas larger than 7000 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> (**Table S5**). Remarkably, the volumetric BET area of NU-1501-Al reaches 2060 m<sup>2</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup> based on the crystallographic density. This BET area is among the highest of all reported porous materials with BET areas higher than 5000 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>, and is much higher than that of similar ultraporous MOFs such as NU-110(28) (1585 m<sup>2</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>), MOF-210(7) (1560 m<sup>2</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>), and DUT-60(30) (1466 m<sup>2</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>). Importantly, the isotherm is highly reproducible, as illustrated by the similarities of isotherms taken from four different batches at Northwestern University and at NIST (**Fig. S18**).



**Fig. 3.** (A) Experimental and simulated  $N_2$  (77 K) adsorption isotherms of NU-1501 and NU-1500-Al. (B) Experimental and simulated Ar (87 K) adsorption isotherms of NU-1501. (C) DFT pore size distribution of NU-1501-Al from  $N_2$  (77 K) adsorption isotherm. The dashed lines are used to guide the eyes for simulated data.

As revealed by the geometrical calculation of the pore size distribution from the crystal structures (**Fig. S49**), there are two main features that allow NU-1501-Al to maintain a higher volumetric surface area over other MOFs—*i.e.*, MOF-210(7), NU-100(8), NU-110(28), and DUT-60(30)—with similar gravimetric surface areas and higher pore volumes: (i) the largest pore of NU-1501-Al is much smaller than those of MOF-210(7), NU-100(8), NU-110(28), and DUT-60(30) and (ii) NU-1501-Al has only one dominant pore.

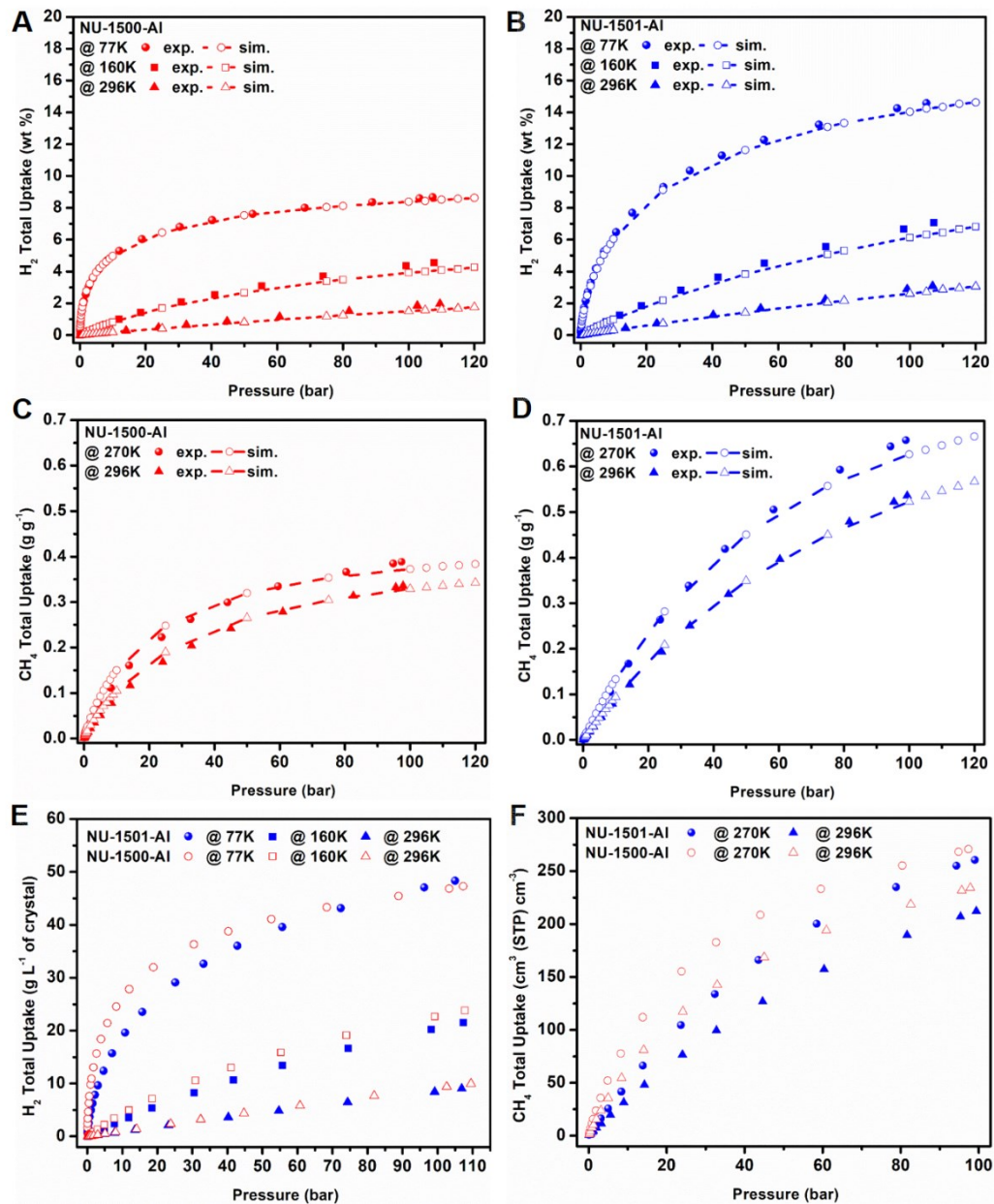
The iron-based analogue of NU-1501 (NU-1501-Fe) shows similar gravimetric and volumetric BET areas ( $7140 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  and  $2130 \text{ m}^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) as the aluminum-based NU-1501 and also features similarly sized experimental pore volume ( $2.90 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ) as NU-1501-Al, illustrating the versatility of this MOF design and synthetic strategy (**Fig. S20**). Molecular simulations further revealed that NU-1501-Al and NU-1501-Fe have higher geometric surface areas ( $5714$  and  $5513 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ , respectively) calculated with the  $\text{N}_2$  probe than that of NU-1500-Al ( $3634 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ) (**Table S8**). Additionally, the trivalent metal-based trimer (*i.e.*,  $\text{Al}_3\text{O}$  or  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}$ ) of NU-1501 produces a relatively more stable framework than the traditional ultraporous MOFs with BET areas larger than  $6000 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  based on  $\text{Zn}_4\text{O}$  or copper paddlewheel building units.<sup>(7, 28, 30, 36)</sup> The overall stability of NU-1501 was tested via SCXRD, PXRD and  $\text{N}_2$  sorption measurements after soaking in liquid water, and variable temperature PXRD studies (**Table S2 and Figs. S7-9, 14, 25-27**). To this end, NU-1501 represents an ultraporous material balancing both gravimetric and volumetric BET areas simultaneously—*i.e.*, larger than  $7000 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  and  $2000 \text{ m}^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ —making them promising candidates for clean energy related gas storage (*i.e.*,  $\text{H}_2$  and  $\text{CH}_4$ ).

Considering the exceptional gravimetric and volumetric surface areas, methane and hydrogen high-pressure sorption experiments were performed on activated NU-1501 at NIST (**Fig. 4 and Figs. S37-48**). NU-1501-Al displays one of the top gravimetric methane uptakes among MOF

materials at 80 bar—0.60 g g<sup>-1</sup> at 270 K and 0.48 g g<sup>-1</sup> at 296 K. The 5-80 bar methane working capacities of NU-1501-Al are 0.44 g g<sup>-1</sup> (174 cm<sup>3</sup> (STP) cm<sup>-3</sup>; 296 K) and ~0.54 g g<sup>-1</sup> (214 cm<sup>3</sup> (STP) cm<sup>-3</sup>; 270 K). These methane capacities are comparable to those of other MOF materials such as MOF-210(7), Al-**soc**-MOF-1(13), ST-2(44) and MOF-905(25). At room temperature, the gravimetric deliverable methane capacity of NU-1501-Al at working pressure between 80 bar (adsorption) and 5 bar (desorption) is comparatively similar to that of the benchmark Al-**soc**-MOF-1 while the volumetric deliverable capacity is slightly lower (**Fig. 5**). Notably, NU-1501-Al adsorbed ~0.54 g g<sup>-1</sup> (214 cm<sup>3</sup> (STP) cm<sup>-3</sup>) and ~0.66 g g<sup>-1</sup> (262 cm<sup>3</sup> (STP) cm<sup>-3</sup>) of CH<sub>4</sub> at 100 bar and at 296 K and 270 K, respectively. Deliverable capacities between 5 bar and 100 bar are 0.50 g g<sup>-1</sup> (198 cm<sup>3</sup> (STP) cm<sup>-3</sup>; 296 K) and ~0.60 g g<sup>-1</sup> (238 cm<sup>3</sup> (STP) cm<sup>-3</sup>; 270 K), suggesting NU-1501-Al is among the best porous crystalline materials for methane storage (**Table S6**). The uptake capacities of NU-1501-Al surpass the materials-level gravimetric CH<sub>4</sub> storage DOE target (0.5 g g<sup>-1</sup>) at 100 bar at both room temperature and 270 K.(6, 9, 25) The gravimetric deliverable capacity at 270 K and 5-100 bar—*i.e.*, 0.60 g g<sup>-1</sup>—is even higher than that of the recently reported record MOF materials (**Table S6**). The gravimetric methane uptakes at 100 bar at 296 K and 270 K are also much higher than those of the microporous isostructural NU-1500-Al (0.34 g g<sup>-1</sup> at 296K and 0.39 g g<sup>-1</sup> at 270 K; at 100 bar), despite similar volumetric uptake (214 vs. 237 cm<sup>3</sup> (STP) cm<sup>-3</sup> at 296 K; 262 vs. 273 cm<sup>3</sup> (STP) cm<sup>-3</sup> at 270 K). This suggests the isorecticular extension of NU-1500 to NU-1501 significantly increases gravimetric methane capacity without sacrificing volumetric performance. Additionally, at near freezing temperatures, NU-1501-Al shows (**Fig. 5F**) a higher volumetric 5-100 bar deliverable methane capacity than HKUST-1 (238 cm<sup>3</sup> (STP) cm<sup>-3</sup> at 270 K vs. 195 cm<sup>3</sup> (STP) cm<sup>-3</sup> at 273 K) due to the much lower unused methane uptake at 5 bar while having a considerably better gravimetric 5-100 bar deliverable capacity (0.60 g g<sup>-1</sup> at 270 K

vs.  $0.16 \text{ g g}^{-1}$  at 273 K). NU-1501-Fe, compared to NU-1501-Al, adsorbed slightly less  $\text{CH}_4$  ( $\sim 0.52 \text{ g g}^{-1}$  at 296 K and  $\sim 0.63 \text{ g g}^{-1}$  at 270 K; at 100 bar) under the same conditions due to the slightly lower surface area and pore volume (**Figs. S45-48**).

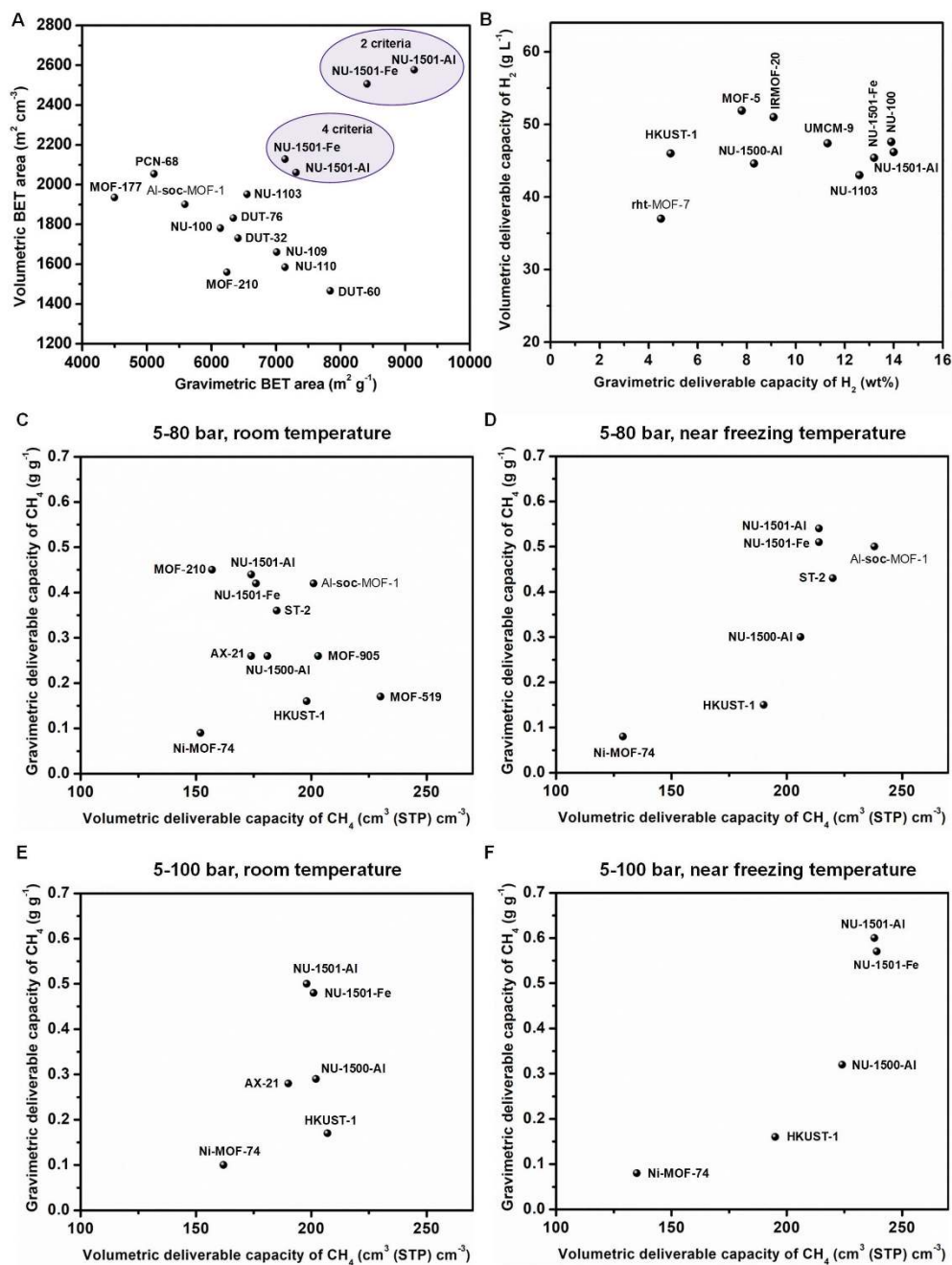
The isosteric heats of adsorption ( $Q_{\text{st}}$ ) of NU-1501-Al for  $\text{CH}_4$  (**Figs. S42**) were calculated from the isotherms and found to be 9.7 and  $10.9 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  at low and high loading, respectively. The experimental  $Q_{\text{st}}$  of NU-1501-Al is close to the enthalpy of adsorption calculated from Monte Carlo simulations in the grand canonical ensemble (GCMC) simulations at low pressure— $10.3 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  (**Table S9**). This data suggests moderate host-guest interactions occur between the framework and methane gas, which is ideal for achieving high deliverable capacities. The  $Q_{\text{st}}$  value of NU-1501 is slightly less than NU-1500-Al ( $13.7 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ ) and is most likely due to smaller pore size of NU-1500. The simulated adsorption isotherms at various temperatures and pressures closely resemble the experimental isotherms, further validating the successful activation of the materials and the high-pressure adsorption results of NU-1501.



**Fig. 4.** (A-B) Experimental and simulated hydrogen adsorption uptake for NU-1501-Al and NU-1500-Al at 77 K, 160 K and 296 K. (C-D) Experimental and simulated methane adsorption uptake for NU-1501-Al and NU-1500-Al at 270 K and 296 K. In this work, the capacity (in wt%) of H<sub>2</sub> is calculated according to  $\text{wt}\% = (\text{mass of H}_2) / (\text{mass of H}_2 + \text{mass of MOF}) \times 100\%$ . The dashed lines are used to guide the eyes for simulated data. (E-F) Volumetric adsorption uptake of hydrogen and methane for NU-1501-Al and NU-1500-Al, calculated based on crystallographic density.



Remarkably, NU-1501-Al and NU-1501-Fe are among the best MOFs for hydrogen storage under combined temperature and pressure swing conditions (77 K/100 bar  $\rightarrow$  160 K/5 bar) (**Fig. 5B** and **Table S7**).<sup>(33, 34, 41, 45)</sup> H<sub>2</sub> adsorption isotherms revealed NU-1501-Al adsorbs ~14.5 wt% (47.9 g L<sup>-1</sup>) of H<sub>2</sub> at 100 bar and 77 K, with a high deliverable capacity of 14.0 wt% (46.2 g L<sup>-1</sup>) under the conditions: 77 K/100 bar  $\rightarrow$  160 K/5 bar. NU-1501-Fe shows a slightly lower deliverable capacity (13.2 wt%; 45.4 g L<sup>-1</sup>) than NU-1501-Al under the same conditions. The experimental H<sub>2</sub> adsorption isotherms closely match the simulated isotherms at various temperatures, which confirmed the near complete activation of the MOFs. In addition, both the absolute uptake at 100 bar/ 77 K and the deliverable capacities of NU-1501-Al for H<sub>2</sub> are much higher than those of NU-1500-Al while maintaining nearly identical volumetric uptake and capacities (14.0 wt% vs. 8.2 wt% and 46.2 g L<sup>-1</sup> vs. 44.6 g L<sup>-1</sup> under the aforementioned operational condition), further demonstrating the effectiveness of extension of this **acs**-MOF platform in balancing the gravimetric and volumetric performance of H<sub>2</sub> storage. In agreement with the simulated results, the experimental gravimetric uptake of H<sub>2</sub> for NU-1501-Al at 100 bar and 296 K is ~2.9 wt% (volumetric uptake: 8.4 g L<sup>-1</sup>) far exceeds the values of reported MOFs (generally between 1–2 wt % at 100 bar at room temperature).<sup>(11, 12, 46)</sup>



**Fig. 5.** (A) Trade-off between gravimetric and volumetric BET area for selected ultrahigh porous materials. (B) Trade-off between gravimetric and volumetric deliverable hydrogen capacity under combined temperature and pressure swing condition: 77 K/100 bar  $\rightarrow$  160 K/5 bar. (C-F) Trade-off between gravimetric and volumetric deliverable methane capacity of MOFs for 5–80 bar and 5–100 bar at room temperature and near freezing temperature. Methane adsorption isotherms of

MOFs in this work are performed at 296 K and 270 K, and methane adsorption isotherms of other materials for comparison are performed at 298 K and 273 K. For details of comparison, see **Tables S6-7** and **Fig. S28-30**.

Additionally, the  $Q_{st}$  values from the  $H_2$  adsorption isotherms at various temperatures indicated NU-1501-Al exhibits small  $Q_{st}$  values of 4 and 2.6  $\text{kJ mol}^{-1}$  at low and high loading, respectively. The  $Q_{st}$  for  $H_2$  of NU-1501 at low loading is close to the enthalpy of adsorption from GCMC simulations at low pressure and slightly less than the  $Q_{st}$  of NU-1500-Al—*i.e.*, 4.9  $\text{kJ mol}^{-1}$  (**Table S9**). These values indicate the MOFs have modest host–guest interactions and that the large hydrogen capacities observed experimentally is driven by adsorbate–adsorbate interactions and the frameworks’ substantial porosities. The combination of the experimentally obtained high-pressure hydrogen adsorption studies and GCMC molecular simulations demonstrate that the NU-1501 series are promising candidate materials for the on-board storage of hydrogen gas due to their ultrahigh gravimetric and volumetric surface areas and moderate pore volumes of  $\sim 2.90 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$  (in comparison to traditional ultraporous MOFs) and balance both volumetric and gravimetric capacity.

## Conclusions

In conclusion we have rationally designed and synthesized a class of ultraporous MOFs, NU-1501, with narrow mesoporosity and which exhibit pore diameters less than 2.5 nm. These MOFs balance both the gravimetric and volumetric BET areas, which make them ideal candidates for new adsorbent materials for the safe and effective storage of methane and hydrogen gas for on-board storage tanks. Particularly, NU-1501 has the highest apparent gravimetric BET areas among porous materials after satisfying all four BET consistency criteria. With a moderate pore volume compared to the conventional ultraporous materials such as MOF-210(7), NU-110(28), and DUT-

60(30), NU-1501 exhibits impressive volumetric BET areas. The combination of experiment and molecular simulation reveals that NU-1501 achieves outstanding gravimetric uptake, volumetric uptake, and delivery capacities of methane and hydrogen simultaneously under practical operational conditions, making these materials a novel class of promising MOF adsorbent candidates for the storage and delivery of methane and hydrogen—clean energy carriers related to the carbon-neutral energy system. Finally, the unambiguous structure-property relationship derived from the performance of this material, high-throughput computational modeling, and experimental results will fuel the design and synthesis of the next-generation of ultraporous sorbents for storage and delivery of clean fuel sources.

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Crystallographic information for NU-1501-Al and NU-1501-Fe can also be found in Supplementary Data. MOFkey(47): Al.PZUNVLJATCTESM.MOFkey-v1.acs (NU-1500-Al), Fe.GKGWJFNTVGTMJR.MOFkey-v1.acs (NU-1501-Fe), Al.GKGWJFNTVGTMJR.MOFkey-v1.acs (NU-1501-Al). All other relevant data supporting the findings of this study are presented in the paper or the Supplementary Materials.

## **SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS**

Materials and Methods  
Supplementary Text  
Figs. S1 to S54  
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Captions for Data S1 to S3  
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Data S1 to S3