

# Metal-Organic Frameworks and Porous Coordination Polymers: Properties and Applications<sup>†</sup>

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In this review, properties and applications of metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) and porous coordination polymers (PCPs) are described. Many MOFs and PCPs are highly flexible and responsive to external stimuli. Sometimes they transform their structures to others by maintaining the single crystallinity. For decades, MOFs and PCPs have been regarded as a class of the promising materials for hydrogen storage and carbon dioxide capture applications since they adsorb large amounts of gases at low temperatures. However, their gas uptake capacities decrease dramatically at ambient temperature compared to those at low temperatures because they physisorb gases by weak interaction energies. Therefore, to enhance gas storage and separation abilities of MOFs and PCPs at ambient temperature, we have modified their pore spaces. In this review, some characteristic properties of MOFs and PCPs will be introduced, and various strategies for modifying the pore spaces of PCPs and MOFs for hydrogen storage and carbon dioxide capture will be presented.

<sup>†</sup>Based on parts of the lecture given at the 64th Conference of the Japan Society of Coordination Chemistry, held in Tokyo from September 19-21, 2014, on the occasion of the International Award 2014 of the Japan Society of Coordination Chemistry.

## ■ ■ 1. Introduction

Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) and porous coordination polymers (PCPs) generally have defined structures, permanent porosity, and high specific surface areas. They are synthesized from metal and organic building blocks by solvothermal reactions or self-assembly. MOFs and PCPs are considered to be a class of the most promising materials for hydrogen storage and for gas separation such as carbon dioxide capture from the flue gas or natural gas. However, gas adsorption on the pore surface of MOFs and PCPs is physisorption, and the interaction energy between the adsorbents and gas is too weak. Therefore, even though large amount of gases can be stored in the materials at a low temperature, the

storage capacity falls down to very low values at ambient temperature. To enhance hydrogen gas storage in MOFs and PCPs, we have modified their pore spaces by various methods such as generating accessible metal sites, fabricating metal nanoparticles (NPs), including proper organic guests, and incorporating specific metal ion binding sites in the ligand. The generation of accessible metal sites is based on “Kubas” interactions of hydrogen molecules with the metal ions. The production of metal nanoparticles in PCPs, without using extra reducing agent and NP-stabilizing agents just at room temperature, is based on the redox chemistry between the redox-active components of the MOFs or PCPs and the metal ions. To capture CO<sub>2</sub> selectively from the industry flue gas that contains not only CO<sub>2</sub> but also other gases, we have developed smart 3-dimensional (3D) PCPs with very small pores, which are highly flexible. Since CO<sub>2</sub> molecule has much higher polarizability and quadrupole moment than other gases, it would interact much more strongly with the flexible PCPs with very small pores and open up the windows while other gases cannot. We have also created various strategies such as post-synthetic modification of pore space with highly flexible carboxyl pendants, impregnation of metal ions in the pores of a MOF, and inclusion of branched polyethylenimine units in the pores of porous organic polymer. These induce stronger interactions with the CO<sub>2</sub> molecules, and enhance the gas uptake capacities and the selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption

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from the mixture gas. This review is based on the award lecture, and presents the properties of MOFs and PCPs and various strategies for modifying their pore spaces for hydrogen storage and carbon dioxide capture applications.

## 2. Synthetic methods of MOFs and PCPs

### 2.1. Solvothermal reactions

Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) and porous coordination polymers (PCPs) can be synthesized from metal and organic building blocks by the solvothermal reactions or self-assembly at room temperature.<sup>1,2</sup> In particular, when the metal salts are heated with carboxylic acid, metal forms metal cluster units that have specific geometries, so called secondary building units (SBUs).<sup>1</sup> By the combination of SBUs and ligands, which have specific geometries, various types of 3D MOFs can be constructed as described in Fig. 1. In these MOFs and PCPs, SBUs generally are located at the nodes of the frameworks and the ligands at the struts.

Coordination	Coordination figures	net	Coordination	Coordination figures	net
3	Tri angle	Tri angle	ScI <sub>3</sub>		
3	Tri angle	Tri angle	TiK <sub>2</sub>		
3,4	Tri angle	Sq pl	PtO <sub>2</sub>		
3,4	Tri angle	Td	Boracic		
4	Tri angle	Oh	TiO <sub>2</sub> (rutile)		
4	Sq pl	Sq pl	NbO, CeSO <sub>4</sub>		
4	Td	Td	Diamond, sechite		
4,4	Sq pl	Td	PtS (cooperite)		
4,6	Td	Oh	Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> (corundum)		
4,8	Td	Cubic	CaF <sub>2</sub> (fluorite)		
6	Oh	Oh	Primitive cubic		
8	Cubic	Cubic	Body-centered cubic		

Fig. 1 Various framework structures constructed from the combination of metal clusters and organic ligands.

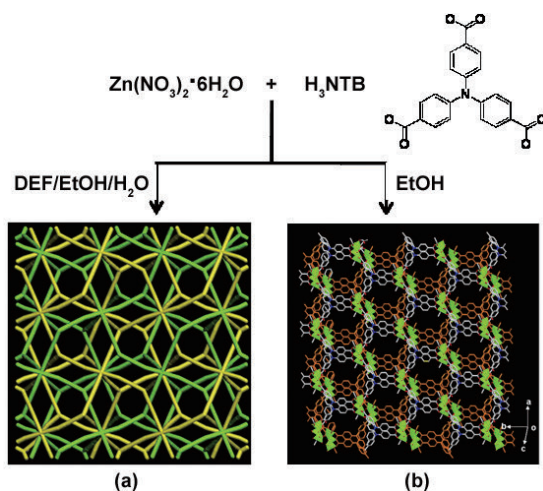


Fig. 2 Two different frameworks formed from Zn(II) and H<sub>3</sub>NTB in the different solvent systems. (a) [Zn<sub>4</sub>O(NTB)<sub>2</sub>]<sub>n</sub>·3nDEF·nEtOH having doubly interpenetrated PdF<sub>2</sub> structure.<sup>3</sup> (b) [Zn<sub>3</sub>(NTB)<sub>2</sub>(EtOH)<sub>2</sub>]<sub>n</sub>·4nEtOH.<sup>4</sup>

In the solvothermal synthesis of MOFs, reaction conditions such as solvent system and reaction temperature determine the resulting framework structures. For example, when Zn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O and 4,4',4''-nitrilotrisbenzoic acid (H<sub>3</sub>NTB) are heated in the mixed solvent system of DEF/EtOH/H<sub>2</sub>O and EtOH, respectively, different MOFs, [Zn<sub>4</sub>O(NTB)<sub>2</sub>]<sub>n</sub>·3nDEF·nEtOH and [Zn<sub>3</sub>(NTB)<sub>2</sub>(EtOH)<sub>2</sub>]<sub>n</sub>·4nEtOH, are resulted (Fig. 2).<sup>3,4</sup>

In addition, the presence or absence of small amount of acid in the solvent system also affects the product. For example, two different 3D MOFs, [Zn<sub>4</sub>O(NTN)<sub>2</sub>]<sub>n</sub>·10DMA·7H<sub>2</sub>O (SNU-150) and [Zn<sub>5</sub>(NTN)<sub>4</sub>(DEF)<sub>2</sub>][NH<sub>2</sub>(C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>)<sub>2</sub>]<sub>2</sub>·8DEF·6H<sub>2</sub>O (SNU-151), were synthesized from the same metal and organic building blocks but in the different solvent systems, particularly in the absence and the presence of small amount of acid (Fig. 3).<sup>5</sup> SNU-150 is a doubly interpenetrated neutral framework while SNU-151 is a non-interpenetrated anionic framework including diethylammonium cations in the pores. Although charged MOF SNU-151 has smaller surface area (BET, 1563 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>) than the neutral MOF SNU-150 (BET, 1852 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>), the former exhibits superior gas storage and gas separation abilities than the latter.

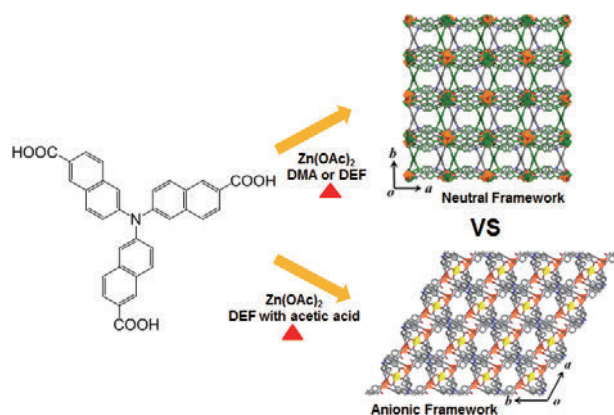
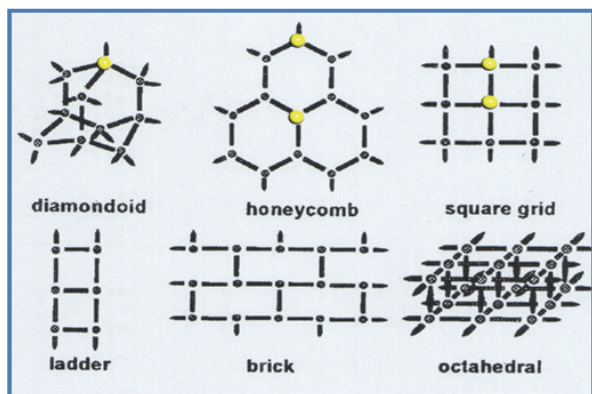


Fig. 3 Preparation of neutral framework (SNU-150) and charged framework (SNU-151) in the presence and absence of small amount of acid.<sup>5</sup>

### 2.2. Self-assembly

We have also synthesized various coordination polymers from the self-assembly of square-planar Ni(II) or Cu(II) macrocyclic complexes as metal building blocks and carboxylate ligands as organic building blocks at room temperature.<sup>2</sup> In particular, the Ni(II) or Cu(II) macrocyclic complexes act as linear linkers that connect the ligands to form networks whose topologies are solely determined by the ligands (Fig. 4). Contrary to the case of MOFs, in this case, organic ligands are located at the nodes and metal building blocks are at the struts. For example, the self-assembly of Ni(II) or Cu(II) macrocyclic complexes with a ligand of

tetrahedral geometry results in the diamondoid networks.<sup>6,7</sup> In case of trigonal shaped ligand 1,3,5-benzenetricarboxylate ( $\text{BTC}^{3-}$ ), honeycomb or brickwall networks are constructed depending on the solvent system.<sup>8</sup> In this particular case, addition of other solvents such as pyridine changes the coordination mode of the ligand to metal ion, and alters the network structure.

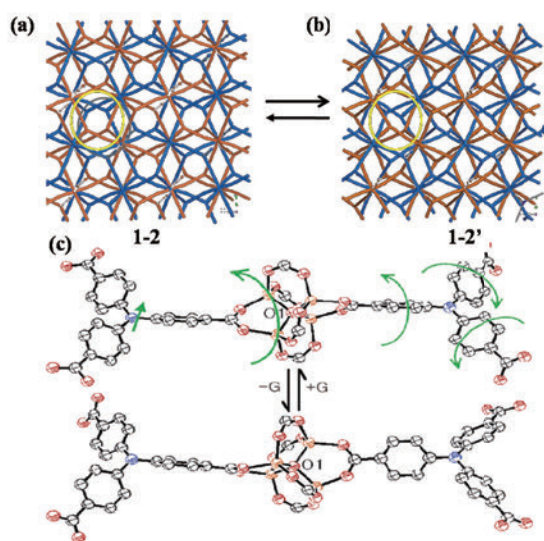


**Fig. 4** Self-assembly of organic building blocks and square-planar macrocyclic complexes: Topology of resulting network is determined by the ligand geometry.<sup>2</sup>

### 3. Properties of MOFs and PCPs

#### 3.1. Flexibility of MOFs and PCPs

Some MOFs and PCPs are highly flexible and responsive to external stimuli. Sometimes, they change their structures on guest removal, guest exchange, and anion exchange by maintaining their single crystallinity, which are called

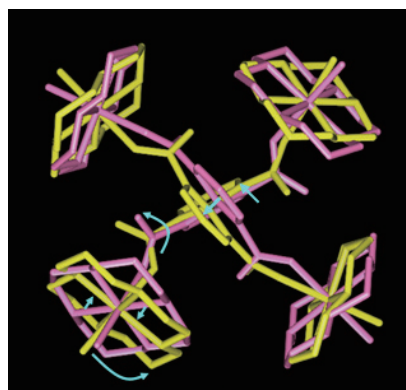


**Fig. 5** Reversible transformations of a MOF structure on guest removal and reintroduction. (a) Doubly interpenetrated  $\text{PdF}_2$ -net of as-synthesized  $[\text{Zn}_4\text{O}(\text{NTB})_2] \cdot 3\text{DEF} \cdot \text{EtOH}$ . (b) Desolvated structure of  $[\text{Zn}_4\text{O}(\text{NTB})_2]$ . (c) Rearrangements of the framework structure by the dynamic motions of molecular components.<sup>3</sup>

single-crystal to single-crystal transformations. For instance, a bilayer network prepared from bismacroscopic  $\text{Ni}(\text{II})$  complex and  $\text{BTC}^{3-}$  ( $\text{BTC} = 1,3,5\text{-benzenetricarboxylate}$ ) ligand exhibited sponge-like behavior, shrinking and swelling depending on the amount of guest solvent molecules included in the networks.<sup>9,10</sup> In addition, this bilayer network maintains their single crystallinity during the guest removal and guest exchange.

For the 3D MOF,  $[\text{Zn}_4\text{O}(\text{NTB})_2] \cdot 3\text{DEF} \cdot \text{EtOH}$  (**1**) ( $\text{DEF} = N,N'$ -diethylformamide), which was prepared from the solvothermal reaction of  $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2$  and 4,4',4''-nitritotrisbenzoic acid ( $\text{H}_3\text{NTB}_3$ ) in  $\text{DEF}/\text{EtOH}/\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (5;3;2, v/v), the pore size and shape changed on guest removal due to dynamic motions of the molecular components, in particular, the rotation of aromatic rings around the  $\text{Zn}_4\text{O}$  metal cluster unit as verified by the single crystal X-ray structure analyses (Fig. 5).<sup>3</sup>

When the guest solvent molecules included between the layers of 2D square-grid coordination polymer  $\{[\text{Ni}(\text{cyclam})]_2[\text{BPTC}]\}_n \cdot 2n\text{H}_2\text{O}$  are removed, interlayer distances are reduced due to the rotation, sliding, and bending motions of the molecular components via a single crystal to single crystal transformation (Fig. 6).<sup>11</sup>



**Fig. 6** Dynamic motions of molecular components on removal of guest solvent molecules included between 2D layers.<sup>11</sup>

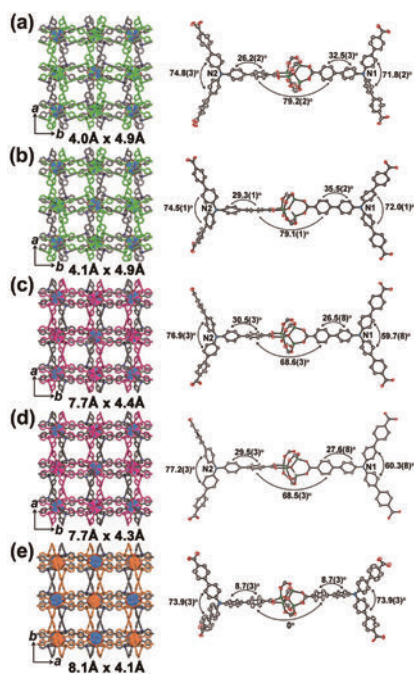
In a 3D MOF  $[\text{Zn}_3(\text{NTB})_2(\text{EtOH})_2]_n \cdot 4n\text{EtOH}$ , ethanol molecules are coordinated at the  $\text{Zn}(\text{II})$  ion as well as being included in the pores of the MOF. When the coordinated  $\text{EtOH}$  as well as the guest  $\text{EtOH}$  molecules were removed by the heat-evacuation method, the coordination geometry of  $\text{Zn}(\text{II})$  was changed from trigonal bipyramid to tetrahedral by changing the bond angles and bond distances around the metal ions with retention of the single crystallinity of the MOF.<sup>4</sup>

#### 3.2. Responsive Properties of MOFs and PCPs

MOFs are often highly responsive to the external stimuli such as activation methods, temperatures, and external



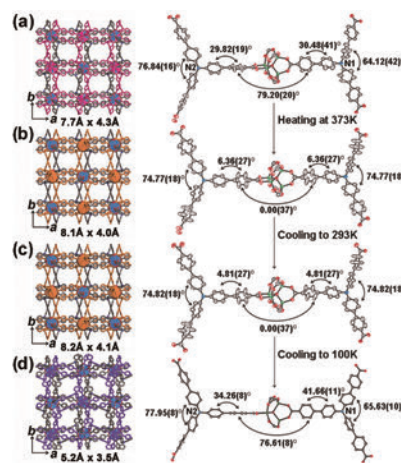
chemical reagents, and change their structures or oxidation states of metal ions or ligands in the MOFs. For example, when  $[\text{Zn}_4\text{O}(\text{TCBPA})_2] \cdot 19\text{DMA} \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (**SNU-77**), which was synthesized from DMA (*N,N*-dimethylacetamide) solution of  $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and an extended carboxylic acid tris(4-carboxybiphenyl)amine ( $\text{H}_3\text{TCBPA}$ ), was activated by the various activation methods such as guest exchange with toluene followed by evacuation at room temperature, direct activation with supercritical  $\text{CO}_2$ , and evacuation of the guest-exchanged sample at high temperature, it underwent the single-crystal to single-crystal transformations to afford **SNU-77R**, **SNU-77S**, and **SNU-77H**, respectively.<sup>12</sup> These guest free MOFs have different window sizes and shapes as characterized by single crystal X-ray structures (Fig. 7).



**Fig. 7** X-ray crystal structures of (a) **SNU-77**, (b) **SNU-77'**, (c) **SNU-77R**, (d) **SNU-77S**, and (e) **SNU-77H**. Doubly interpenetrated networks are represented in two different colors. The numbers below each figure represent the effective aperture size.<sup>12</sup>

The guest-free structure was also affected by the temperature change as verified by the variable temperature synchrotron X-ray single-crystal analyses (Fig. 8).

Despite the different fine structures, **SNU-77R**, **SNU-77S**, and **SNU-77H** show similar gas sorption properties due to the nonbreathing nature of the framework and an additional structural change upon cooling to cryogenic gas sorption temperature. In particular, **SNU-77H** exhibits high surface area (BET, 3670 m<sup>2</sup>g<sup>-1</sup>), high pore volume (1.52 cm<sup>3</sup>g<sup>-1</sup>), and exceptionally high uptake capacities for N<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub>, and CH<sub>4</sub> gases.<sup>12</sup>



**Fig. 8** Structural transformations of **SNU-77R** on sequential temperature changes. (a) at 293 K, (b) 373 K, (c) 293 K (2<sup>nd</sup>), and then (d) 100 K.<sup>12</sup>

### 3.3. Ligand exchange

Some MOFs are also responsive to the external organic reagents. For example, when  $[Zn_2(TCPBDA)(H_2O)_2] \cdot 30DMF \cdot 6H_2O$  (**SNU-30**) ( $H_4TCPBDA = N,N,N',N'$ -tetrakis(4-carboxyphenyl)-biphenyl-4,4'-diamine), in which water molecules are coordinated at the paddle wheel SBUs, was immersed in DMF solution of bpta (3,6-di(4-pyridyl)-1,2,4,5-tetrazine) at 80 °C for 3 h, it replaces coordinated water molecules with bpta, which divides the channels of the MOF and results in reduction of the pore sizes.<sup>13</sup> The modified MOF exhibits selective CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption over N<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>, and CH<sub>4</sub> while desolvated **SNU-30'** adsorbs all gases such as N<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub>, and CH<sub>4</sub> gases.

### 3.4. Guest Ion exchange

MOFs and PCs that contain guest anions in the pores can undergo ion exchange. By immersion of the solids in the solution of other anion source, the guest anions of the MOFs can be exchanged with external ones since the MOFs recognize the external chemicals as stimuli and response to them. For example, the self-assembly of AgX (X = NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, CF<sub>3</sub>SO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and ClO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup>) with ethylenediaminetetrapropionitrile (EDTPN, C<sub>14</sub>H<sub>20</sub>N<sub>6</sub>) results in [Ag(C<sub>14</sub>H<sub>20</sub>N<sub>6</sub>)(NO<sub>3</sub>)] (**1**), [Ag(C<sub>14</sub>H<sub>20</sub>N<sub>6</sub>)]CF<sub>3</sub>SO<sub>3</sub> (**2**), and [Ag(C<sub>14</sub>H<sub>20</sub>N<sub>6</sub>)]ClO<sub>4</sub> (**3**). Even though compounds **1-3** have the same 1:1 Ag:L stoichiometry, they have topologies of 1D, 2D layer, and a box-like 2D, respectively. When crystal **2** was immersed in the aqueous solutions of NaNO<sub>3</sub> and NaClO<sub>4</sub>, respectively, CF<sub>3</sub>SO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> anion in **2** was exchanged with NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and ClO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> quantitatively in the crystalline state. The anion-exchange was reversible between **1** and **2** but irreversible from **1** or **2** into **3**. Interestingly, concomitant with the anion exchange, structural transformations underwent in the crystalline states, as evidenced by PXRD

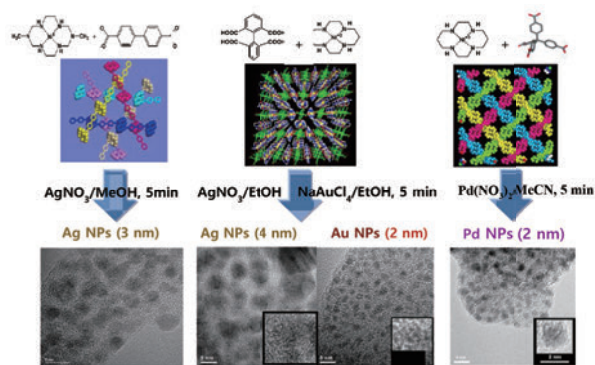
patterns, accompanying the changes in the cell dimensions.<sup>14</sup>

### 3.5. Redox properties

Some PCPs and MOFs, when they contain redox active metal ions or ligands, are redox active and react with redox agents. For example, the PCPs constructed from Ni(II) macrocyclic complexes are commonly redox active and reduce iodine or metal ions, since Ni(II) macrocyclic species incorporated in the network can be easily oxidized to the Ni(III) species.

A bilayer network,  $[\text{Ni}_2(\text{C}_{26}\text{H}_{52}\text{N}_{10})]_3[\text{BTC}]_4 \cdot 6\text{C}_5\text{H}_5\text{N} \cdot 36\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , which was self-assembled from Ni(II) bismacrocyclic complex  $[\text{Ni}_2(\text{C}_{26}\text{H}_{52}\text{N}_{10})(\text{Cl})_4] \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{Na}_3\text{BTC}$  (BTC = 1,3,5-benzenetricarboxylate) in water in the presence of DMSO and pyridine, reacted with iodine to generate networks incorporating mixed valence metal ion species, Ni(II) and Ni(III), and include  $\text{I}_3^-$  anions in the channels.<sup>15</sup>

Furthermore, the PCPs assembled from Ni(II) macrocyclic complexes and carboxylate ligands reacted with the solutions of metal ions such as Ag(I),<sup>11,16</sup> Au(III),<sup>11</sup> and Pd(II)<sup>7</sup> to generate small (2–4 nm) and monodispersed Ag, Au, and Pd nanoparticles, respectively, in the pores (Fig. 9).<sup>17</sup> These processes occurred in the absence of extra reducing or stabilizing agents, and also without heating or irradiation. In all cases, the structures of PCPs were retained even after the formation of NPs as evidenced by the PXRD patterns.



**Fig. 9** Fabrication of metal nanoparticles in PCPs by immersion of the redox-active PCPs in the metal ion solutions.<sup>7,11,16</sup>

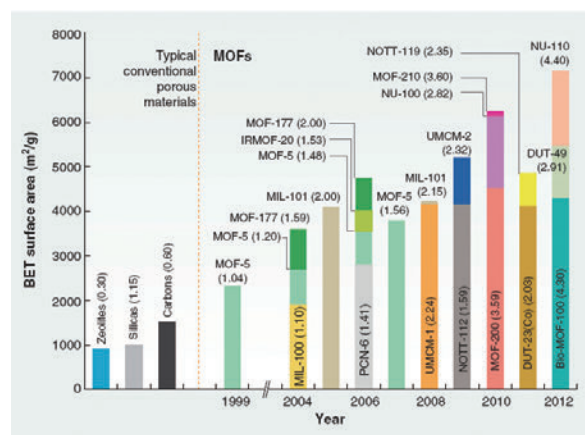
The MOFs constructed of redox active organic ligands also react with metal ions to afford metal nanoparticles. For example, when  $[\text{Zn}_3(\text{NTB})_2(\text{EtOH})_2] \cdot 4\text{EtOH}$  (EtOH = ethyl alcohol), which was constructed from redox active ligand, 4,4',4''-nitrilotrisbenzoate ( $\text{NTB}^{3-}$ ), was immersed in the MeCN solution of  $\text{Pd}(\text{NO}_3)_2$  for 5–30 min, the Pd nanoparticles of size  $3.0 \pm 0.4$  nm were formed in the channels (aperture size,  $7.7 \text{ \AA}$ ) of the MOF, and the nitrogen atom of the  $\text{NTB}^{3-}$  ligands were oxidized to amine radicals. Even after the formation of much bigger Pd NPs than the pore size of the MOF, the structure of the MOF was maintained as evidenced

by PXRD data, since the possible maximum destruction of the MOF skeleton by Pd NPs formed was less than 0.7 % by volume according to the calculation.<sup>18</sup>

The advantage of this metal-NPs fabrication method is that the amount of NPs formed in the PCPs or MOFs can be controlled by the immersion time of the solid in the metal ion solutions. Interestingly, the sizes of NPs depend only on the structures of the PCPs, and they are independent of the immersion time, concentration of the metal ion solutions, temperature, and type of the solvent.<sup>17</sup>

### 3.6. Porosity of MOFs and PCPs

A numerous MOFs and PCPs, which have relatively small to very large surface area, have been reported (Fig. 10). The surface areas of MOFs and PCPs can be easily controlled by the ligand design. In general, when the ligand length is extended, the surface area of the material is increased. For the doubly interpenetrated  $\text{PdF}_2$  type networks constructed from the solvothermal reaction of  $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2$  with 4,4',4''-nitrilotrisbenzoate ( $\text{NTB}^{3-}$ ) and with tris(4-carboxyphenyl) amine ( $\text{H}_3\text{TCBPA}$ ) that contains one more phenyl ring in the branches of the ligand,<sup>12</sup> respectively, the surface area ( $3670 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ) of the MOF with the extended ligand ( $\text{TCBPA}^{3-}$ ) is significantly greater than that ( $1120 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ) of the MOF with  $\text{NTB}^{3-}$  ligand.<sup>3,12</sup> The same things are generally true with other cases also.<sup>19</sup> The highest BET surface area of MOFs reported so far is  $7140 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  for NU-110.<sup>20</sup>



56 bar with a total capacity of  $164 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$  at 77 K and 70 bar in **NU-100** that has BET surface area of  $6,143 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ .<sup>22a</sup> The highest total  $\text{H}_2$  storage capacity reported so far is  $176 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$  (excess  $86 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$ ) at 77 K and 80 bar in **MOF-210**, which has BET surface area of  $6240 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ .<sup>22b</sup>

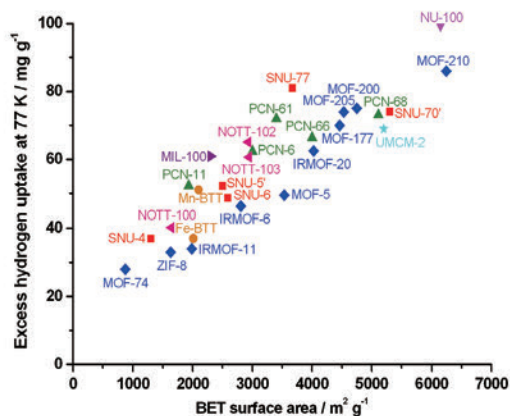


Fig. 11 Excess  $\text{H}_2$  storage capacities at 77 K under high pressure vs. BET surface areas of MOFs.<sup>21</sup>

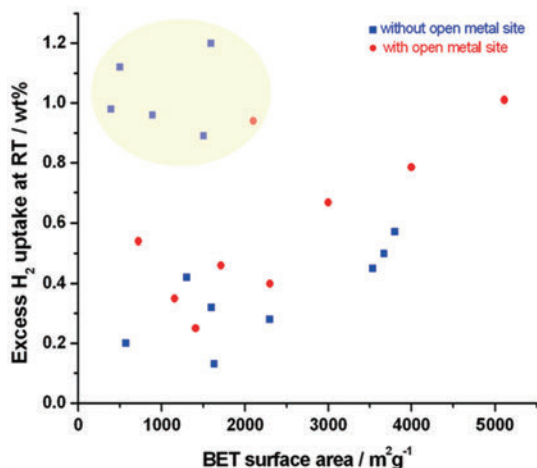


Fig. 12 Room temperature  $\text{H}_2$  uptake capacities vs. BET surface areas of MOFs.<sup>21</sup>

Despite that large amounts of  $\text{H}_2$  gas can be stored in PCPs and MOFs at low temperatures such as 77 K and 87 K, their  $\text{H}_2$  storage capacities at ambient temperature fall down to very low values, ca. 10% of the cryogenic capacities, since the gas adsorption on the pore surfaces of the materials is physisorption and it has very low interaction energy with the adsorbents. The isosteric heats of the  $\text{H}_2$  adsorption in common MOFs such as MOF-5 are  $4 - 7 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ . Furthermore, the room-temperature  $\text{H}_2$  storage capacities of MOFs have little relationship with the surface areas of the materials as shown in Fig. 12. Therefore, in order to enhance the gas storage of MOFs at ambient temperature, interaction energies between the materials and  $\text{H}_2$  gas should be increased by modifying the pore spaces of the MOFs. We have tried various modification methods such as incorporation of functional groups in the ligand, construction of charged

MOFs, generation of accessible metal sites, embedding metal nanoparticles (NPs) in the MOF, inclusion of specific metal ions or organic molecules as guests, and incorporation of specific cation binding sites in the framework.

#### 4.1. Hydrogen storage in MOFs incorporating functional groups in the ligands

Incorporation of functional groups in the ligand requires elaborate synthetic works, but the effects on  $\text{H}_2$  storage are rather minor. By synthesizing *N,N'*-bis(3,5-dicarboxyphenyl) pyromellitic diimide ( $\text{H}_4\text{BDCPPI}$ ) as an organic building block, we prepared 3D MOFs,  $\{[\text{Cu}_2(\text{BDCPPI})(\text{DMF})_2] \cdot 10\text{DMF} \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}\}_n$  (**SNU-50**) and  $\{[\text{Zn}_2(\text{BDCPPI})(\text{DMF})_3] \cdot 6\text{DMF} \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}\}_n$  (**SNU-51**) (Fig. 13).<sup>23</sup> Despite that the desolvated solid  $[\text{Cu}_2(\text{BDCPPI})]_n$  (**SNU-50'**) contains vacant coordination sites at the metal ions as well as functional groups in the ligand, it adsorbs 2.10 wt% of  $\text{H}_2$  at 1 atm and 77 K, and total 7.85 wt% of  $\text{H}_2$  at 77 K and 60 bar. Activated sample of **SNU-51** does not adsorb any gas, independent of the activation temperature, due to collapse of the framework. The isosteric heat of the  $\text{H}_2$  adsorption in **SNU-50'** is  $7.1 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ , which is only ca. 2–3  $\text{kJ mol}^{-1}$  higher than those of the common MOFs.

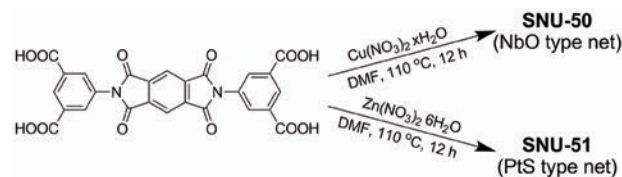


Fig. 13 Synthesis of MOFs by using *N,N'*-bis(3,5-dicarboxyphenyl) pyromellitic diimide ( $\text{H}_4\text{BDCPPI}$ ).<sup>23</sup>

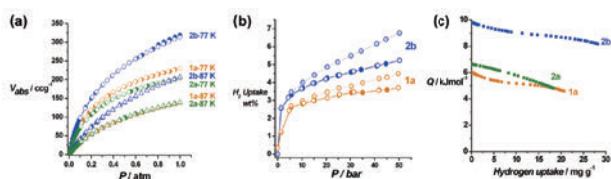
#### 4.2. Hydrogen storage in MOFs with accessible metal sites

This method is based on “Kubas” interaction of hydrogen molecule with a metal ion, which involves donation of the  $\sigma$ -orbital electron of dihydrogen to metal and  $\pi$ -backdonation of the metal electron to  $\sigma^*$ -orbital of dihydrogen. In MOFs, metal ions in paddle-wheel type SUBs are commonly coordinated with solvent molecules, which can be removed by activation to generate accessible metal sites (AMSs). Thus formed AMSs can directly interact with hydrogen molecules, resulting in stronger interactions between the MOF and hydrogen.

For example, two porous MOFs having the same NbO-net topology,  $[\text{Zn}_2(\text{ABTC})(\text{DMF})_3] \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O} \cdot 10\text{DMF}$  (**1**) and  $[\text{Cu}_2(\text{ABTC})(\text{H}_2\text{O})_2] \cdot 10\text{DMF} \cdot 6(1,4\text{-dioxane})$  (**2**), were synthesized from the solvothermal reactions of  $\text{H}_4\text{ABTC}$  (1,1'-azobenzene-3,3',5,5'-tetracarboxylic acid)



with  $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$  in DMF at  $100^\circ\text{C}$  for 12 h and with  $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$  in DMF/1,4-dioxane/ $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (4:3:1 v/v) at  $80^\circ\text{C}$  for 24 h, respectively.<sup>24</sup> By activating the MOFs under the precisely controlled conditions,  $[\text{Zn}_2(\text{ABTC})(\text{DMF})_2]_3$  (**1a**) and  $[\text{Cu}_2(\text{ABTC})(\text{DMF})_2]_3$  (**2a**) with no AMS, and  $[\text{Cu}_2(\text{ABTC})]_3$  (**2b**) with AMSs were obtained. The framework structure of **1a** was the same as that of **1**, and those of **2a** and **2b** were same as that of **2**, as evidenced by the PXRD patterns. The MOF (**2b**) with AMSs adsorbed 2.87 wt% of  $\text{H}_2$  gas at 77 K and 1 atm, which was significantly higher than the other two MOFs having no AMS (2.07 wt% for **1a** and 1.83 wt% for **2a**). The excess  $\text{H}_2$  uptake of **2b** at 77 K and 50 bar is 5.22 wt% (total 6.76 wt%), which is much higher than 3.70 wt% (total 4.49 wt%) in **1a**. This enhancement is mainly due to the reduced mass effect by removal of the coordinated solvent molecules. The volumetric  $\text{H}_2$  storage capacity is also enhanced by the presence of AMSs; volumetric storage ratios of **2b:1a** and **2b:2a** at 77 K and 1 atm are 105% and 120%, respectively, and that of **2b:1a** at 77 K and 40 bar is 117%. Furthermore, the zero coverage isosteric heat of  $\text{H}_2$  adsorption in the MOF with AMSs reached to  $11.7 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ , which is significantly higher than those of the other two,  $7.24 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  and  $6.53 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ , respectively. Therefore, it is evident that the MOF with AMSs enhances  $\text{H}_2$  adsorption in wt% as well as by per volume of sample ( $\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) via offering the stronger interaction with  $\text{H}_2$  molecules, although its reduced mass is the major contribution in higher wt% for the  $\text{H}_2$  uptake (Fig. 14).



**Fig. 14** (a)  $\text{H}_2$  gas sorption isotherms at 77 K (●) and 87 K (▲) up to 1 atm  $\text{H}_2$  for **1a** (orange), **2a** (green), and **2b** (blue). (b) Excess (—) and total (---)  $\text{H}_2$  adsorption isotherms at high pressures and 77 K. Filled shape, adsorption; open shape, desorption. (c) Isosteric heat of  $\text{H}_2$  adsorption for **1a** (orange), **2a** (green), and **2b** (blue).<sup>24</sup>

#### 4.3. Hydrogen storage in a MOF embedded with palladium nanoparticles

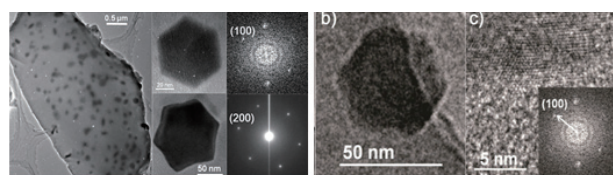
To enhance hydrogen storage, metal nanoparticles that strongly bind hydrogen have been fabricated in MOFs or PCPs. As mentioned previously, we have developed a simple method for fabricating metal nanoparticles in MOFs and PCPs without using extra reducing agent or NP-stabilizing agent just at room temperature, based on the redox chemistry between the redox-active components of the MOFs or PCPs and the

external metal ions.

By simple immersion of the redox active MOF,  $[\text{Zn}_3(\text{NTB})_2(\text{EtOH})_2] \cdot 4\text{EtOH}$  (EtOH = ethyl alcohol), which incorporates redox-active ligand 4,4',4''-nitrilotrisbenzoate ( $\text{NTB}^{3-}$ ), in the MeCN solution of  $\text{Pd}(\text{NO}_3)_2$  for ca. 5–30 min, Pd NPs (size:  $3.0 \pm 0.4 \text{ nm}$ ) were fabricated in the pores of the MOF.<sup>18</sup> The amount of Pd loaded in the MOF was controlled by the immersion time of the MOF in the Pd(II) solution, which affected hydrogen uptake capacity of the MOF. In case of 3 wt% Pd NPs loaded MOF,  $\text{H}_2$  adsorption was enhanced by 350% at 77 K and 1 atm, and by 230% at room temperature and high pressures. Solid Pd NPs(3 wt%)@[SNU-3] $^{x+}(\text{NO}_3^-)_x$  exhibited selective gas sorption properties for  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2$  gases over  $\text{N}_2$ , implying its potential application in gas separation processes also.

#### 4.4. Hydrogen storage in a MOF embedded with magnesium nanocrystals

To combine a MOF, which physisorbs hydrogen, with a material that chemisorbs great amounts of hydrogen, we have fabricated magnesium (Mg) NPs in the pores of a MOF.<sup>25</sup> SNU-90 was synthesized from  $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2$  and aniline-2,4,6-tribenzoic acid, which showed BET surface area of  $4240 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  and pore size of 1.25 nm. First, chemical vapour of  $\text{MgCp}_2$  was deposited to the activated MOF to afford  $\text{Mg}(\text{Cp})_2$ @SNU-90'. And then, it was heated at  $200^\circ\text{C}$  under argon atmosphere to afford the MOF embedded with hexagonal disk shaped magnesium nanocrystals with size of av.  $60 \pm 18 \text{ nm}$  and thickness of av.  $37 \pm 12 \text{ nm}$  (Fig. 15).



**Fig. 15** High resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) images of  $\text{Mg}@SNU-90'$ . On exposure to air, Mg nanocrystal changes to a star shape.<sup>25</sup>

By changing the reaction conditions of vapor deposition process of  $\text{Mg}(\text{Cp})_2$ , various amounts of  $\text{Mg}(\text{Cp})_2$  could be loaded in the MOF, which resulted in the MOFs embedded with various amounts of Mg nanocrystals (NCs). The MOFs impregnated with Mg nanocrystals show the same PXRD patterns as that of the pristine MOF, since only less than 4.6% of MOF's skeleton by volume can be destroyed according to calculation, even if all Mg NCs would destroy the MOF framework. As the amount of Mg embedded in the MOF increases, the BET surface area, pore volume, and  $\text{H}_2$  uptake

capacity at 77 K and 87 K under 1 atm decrease because Mg NCs occupy the surface and pore space of the MOF. At 298 K and high pressure, however, the H<sub>2</sub> uptake in Mg(1.26 wt% )@SNU-90' increases by 20%, compared to that of pristine SNU-90', suggesting that the Mg NCs provide a positive effect on H<sub>2</sub> adsorption at 298 K. Importantly, the zero-coverage isosteric heat of the H<sub>2</sub> adsorption increases as the amount of Mg increases, up to 11.6 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> for Mg(10.5 wt% )@SNU-90' from 4.55 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> for SNU-90' (Table 1, Fig. 16).

Contrary to hydrogen physisorption, hydrogen chemisorption increases as the amount of Mg NCs loaded in the MOF increases. At 473 K under 30 bar, the H<sub>2</sub> uptake capacity of Mg(10.5 wt% )@SNU-90' became 0.71 wt% (volumetric H<sub>2</sub> storage capacity, 3.1 g L<sup>-1</sup>), which is remarkably higher than that (0.29 wt%) of Mg(6.5 wt% )@SNU-90' under the same conditions (Table 1), despite that the former exhibits much lower surface area and pore volume. As for the chemisorption temperatures, 10.5 wt% Mg loaded sample starts to absorb H<sub>2</sub> at 50 °C, which is ca. 450 °C lower than the temperature of the H<sub>2</sub> chemisorption in the bulk magnesium. Furthermore, contrary to the physisorption, the H<sub>2</sub> chemisorption in Mg@SNU-90' increases as the temperature is raised. The chemisorption temperatures of the present materials are significantly lower (by > 200 K) than that (673 K under 10 bar) of bare Mg powder ranging 50 - 100 µm in size.<sup>26</sup> On estimation from the hydrogen chemisorption data, the H<sub>2</sub> absorption in Mg alone is 7.5 wt% at 473 K and 30 bar, indicating that more than 90% of Mg NCs in the sample absorbs H<sub>2</sub>. This is much greater than any form of Mg previously reported, such as Mg nanoparticles incorporated in a polymer<sup>27</sup> or bare Mg powder.<sup>28</sup> The H<sub>2</sub> desorption properties of Mg@SNU-90' examined by the temperature programmed desorption mass spectroscopy (TPD-MS) analysis indicates that H<sub>2</sub> can be desorbed at T > 523 K and 1 atm. In short, Mg NCs@SNU-90' stores hydrogen by physical adsorption at low temperatures (< 25 °C) and by chemisorption at high temperatures (> 50 °C). It offers synergistic effects on both physic- and chemi- sorption of H<sub>2</sub>, increasing the isosteric heat

of H<sub>2</sub> physisorption by ca. 7 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> and uptake capacity at 298 K and 80 bar by 20%, and decreasing the chemisorption/desorption temperatures by 200 K as well as converting more than 90% of Mg to MgH<sub>2</sub>.

#### 4.5. Hydrogen storage in a MOF including crown ether guests

We expected that inclusion of 18-crown-6 (18C6) or 15-crown-5 (15C5) in a MOF would increase the hydrogen uptake in the MOF, since the oxygen atoms of crown ether possess the partial charge of -0.47 ~ -0.48 according to our calculation.<sup>29</sup> We included 18C6 and 15C5, respectively, in the MOF that was synthesized from benzophenone-4,4'-dicarboxylic acid (H<sub>2</sub>BPnDC), 4,4'-bipyridine (bpy), and Cu(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>·2.5H<sub>2</sub>O.<sup>30</sup> The MOF has pore size that is big enough to accommodate the crown ether molecules. By immersing the MOF in the solutions of a crown ether with various concentrations, various amounts of 18C6 and 15C5, respectively, were included in the MOF.<sup>29</sup> The hydrogen uptake capacity in the MOF was decreased as the amount of crown ether inclusion increases. However, the isosteric heats (*Q<sub>st</sub>*) of the H<sub>2</sub> adsorption in the MOF was increased to 10.4 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> and to 9.07 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> upon inclusion of 18C6 and 15C5, respectively, compared with 7.74 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> for the pristine MOF. These enhancements by 2.7 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> and 1.3 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, are comparable to the effect of the accessible metal sites in the MOFs, and much greater than the effect of the inclusion of alkali metal or alkaline earth metal ions in the MOFs, which enhances *Q<sub>st</sub>* values by ca. 0.2 - 1.1 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>.<sup>31-35</sup>

#### 4.6. Hydrogen storage in a MOF incorporating specific metal binding sites

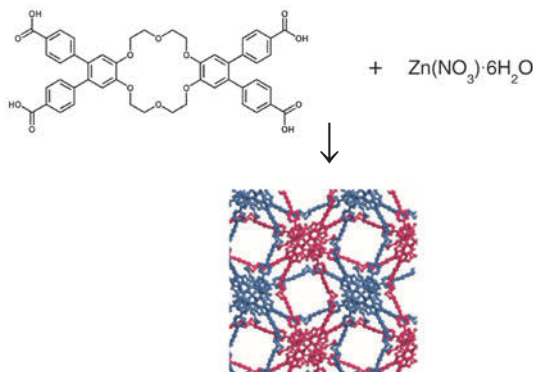
In order to construct a MOF that adsorbs hydrogen molecules with stronger interaction energy than the common MOFs, a MOF incorporating 18C6 moiety in the struts has been prepared.<sup>36</sup> [Zn<sub>5</sub>(µ<sub>3</sub>-OH)<sub>2</sub>(TBADB-18C6)<sub>2</sub>·4DMF]·13DMF·12H<sub>2</sub>O (SNU-200, TBADB-18C6 = 4,4',5,5'-terabenzoic acid dibenzo-18-crown-6, DMF = *N,N*-dimethylformamide) binds K<sup>+</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, and methyl viologen (MV<sup>2+</sup>) cations in the cavity of 18C6 moiety, and includes the counter anions in the pores, via the single-crystal to single-crystal transformation. The samples were activated with supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>. Even after binding of cations and anions (K<sup>+</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, MV<sup>2+</sup>/Cl<sup>-</sup>, SCN<sup>-</sup>), the surface area of the MOF did not decrease, compared to that of as-synthesized SNU-200. The material exhibits a higher isosteric heat (*Q<sub>st</sub>*) of the H<sub>2</sub> adsorption (7.70 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>) than the common Zn based MOFs due to the partial charge of the oxygen atoms in 18Cr6 moiety.

**Table 1** Hydrogen adsorption data in a MOF impregnated with Mg nanocrystals.<sup>25</sup>

compound	Mg/Zn mol/mol (wt%)	N <sub>2</sub> uptake cm <sup>3</sup> g <sup>-1</sup>	surface area m <sup>2</sup> g <sup>-1</sup>	H <sub>2</sub> uptake, wt%		<i>Q<sub>st</sub></i> kJ mol <sup>-1</sup>
				at 1 atm	at high pressures (condition)	
SNU-90'	N/A	1135	4244 <sup>a</sup>	1.21 (77 K) 0.74 (87 K)	8.81 (77 K, 75 bar) 0.45 (298 K, 80 bar)	4.55
Mg(1.26 wt% )@SNU-90'	0.15 (1.26)	1104	4154 <sup>a</sup>	1.24 (77 K) 0.65 (87 K)	8.74 (77 K, 89 bar) 0.54 (298 K, 90 bar)	5.68
Mg(6.52 wt% )@SNU-90'	0.85 (6.52)	559	2056 <sup>a</sup>	0.72 (77 K) 0.40 (87 K)	0.29 (473 K, 30 bar)	7.24
Mg(10.5 wt% )@SNU-90'	1.40 (10.5)	378	1371 <sup>a</sup>	0.60 (77 K) 0.47 (87 K)	0.20 (323 K, 80 bar) 0.24 (415 K, 40 bar) 0.71 (473 K, 30 bar)	11.6



Among  $K^+$ ,  $NH_4^+$ , and  $MV^{2+}$  bound SNU-200 analogues, the  $K^+/SCN^-$  bound MOF shows the most highly enhanced isosteric heat ( $Q_{st}$ ) of the  $H_2$  adsorption ( $9.92 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ ) because of the presence of the accessible metal sites on  $K^+$  cations that directly interact with  $H_2$  molecules.<sup>36</sup>



**Fig. 16** Synthesis of the MOF incorporating a crown ether moiety in the struts.<sup>36</sup>

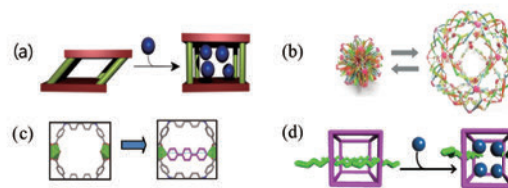
## 5. Carbon Dioxide Capture in MOFs and PCPs

Every year, ca. 30 Giga tons of carbon dioxide ( $CO_2$ ) are emitted worldwide, of which 60-70% is originated from the power plant and industry. In order to mitigate the recent environmental crises such as global warming and ocean acidification, efficient  $CO_2$  capture technologies should be developed. The MOFs and PCPs may be the excellent candidate materials for  $CO_2$  capture from the power plant exhaust. Typical post-combustion flue gas from a coal-fired power plant contains  $N_2$  (73-77%),  $CO_2$  (15-16%),  $H_2O$  (5-7%), and other gases such as  $O_2$  (3-4%),  $SO_2$  (800 ppm),  $SO_3$  (10 ppm),  $NO_x$  (500 ppm),  $HCl$  (100 ppm),  $CO$  (20 ppm), and hydrocarbon (10 ppm), with the emission temperature of 313 ~ 343 K and the emission pressure of 1 atm. Therefore, the materials for  $CO_2$  capture from the flue gas should have a high adsorption selectivity of  $CO_2$  over  $N_2$  at a low  $CO_2$  partial pressure (ca. 0.15 atm) and a high  $CO_2$  uptake capacity at elevated temperatures as well as an outstanding water stability, fast adsorption and desorption kinetics, and an excellent regenerability.

### 5.1. Strategies of carbon dioxide capture by using flexible MOFs and PCPs.

To capture  $CO_2$  selectively from the flue gas by using porous solids, we designed highly flexible 3D PCPs and MOFs whose channels or pores might open and close depending on the gas type, temperature, and pressure (Fig. 17). We expected

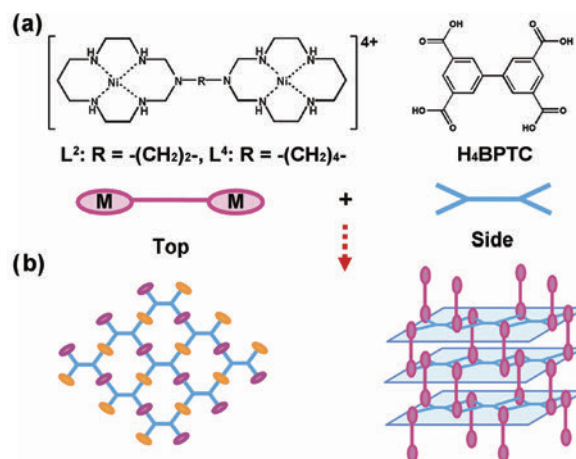
that  $CO_2$  would interact with the host network much more strongly than other gases because of the higher quadrupole moment ( $1.34 \times 10^{-39} \text{ Cm}^2$ ) and polarizability ( $2.63 \times 10^{-24} \text{ cm}^3$ ) of  $CO_2$ , and opens up the windows of flexible PCPs, which are closed for other gases (Fig. 17).



**Fig. 17** Several strategies for capturing  $CO_2$  by using flexible PCPs and MOFs.

### 5.2. Selective $CO_2$ capture by the 3D PCPs having flexible pillars

Two flexible 3D PCPs with very small pores,  $[(Ni_2L^2)(BPTC)] \cdot 6H_2O \cdot 3DEF$  and  $[(Ni_2L^4)(BPTC)] \cdot 14H_2O$ , were self-assembled from Ni(II) bismacrocylic complexes linked with flexible ethyl and butyl groups, respectively, and 1,1'-biphenyl-3,3',5,5'-tetracarboxylate ( $BPTC^{4-}$ ) as shown in Fig. 18.<sup>37</sup>



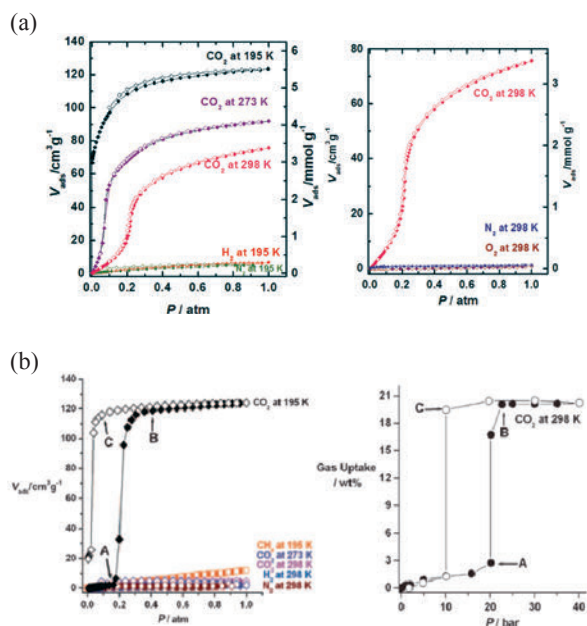
**Fig. 18** (a) Alkyl-bridged Ni(II) bismacrocylic complexes and  $H_4BPTC$ . (b) Construction of 3D PCPs from 2D layers and alkyl pillars. Bismacrocylic complexes located upward and downward with respect to a 2D plane are indicated by the different colors.<sup>37</sup>

The X-ray crystal structures indicate that the resulting 3D PCPs,  $[(Ni_2L^2)(BPTC)] \cdot 6H_2O \cdot 3DEF$  and  $[(Ni_2L^4)(BPTC)] \cdot 14H_2O$ , are consisted of 2D coordination polymers and highly flexible alkyl pillars, ethyl and butyl pillars, respectively. The 2D grids are constructed of square-planar Ni(II) macrocylic complex as a linear linker and  $BPTC^{4-}$  as a square-shape organic building block. The alkyl pillars are highly tilted. Interestingly, butyl pillars are much more tilted ( $68.4^\circ$ ) than the ethyl pillars ( $40.5^\circ$ ).

The activated PCPs having ethyl and butyl pillars, SNU-M10 and SNU-M11, respectively, hardly adsorb  $N_2$ ,  $H_2$ ,

and CH<sub>4</sub> gases even at low temperatures, but they adsorb CO<sub>2</sub> selectively (Fig. 19). The materials have thermal stability up to 300 °C, and air- and water- stability. The CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption isotherms show gate opening and closing phenomena. The gate opening pressure increases as the temperature increases. The gate opening pressure of **SNU-M11** at 298 K is ca. 20 bar, which is much higher than the CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure of flue gas, and thus the material cannot be applied in post combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture.

Contrary to **SNU-M11**, **SNU-M10** uptakes high amount of CO<sub>2</sub> at 298 K (9.2 wt%, 47.2 cm<sup>3</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>, 2.1 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> at STP at 1 atm), and shows high CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> selectivity (98:1) at 298 K. Although **SNU-M10** is a highly efficient CO<sub>2</sub> capture material, some problems should be still solved before the practical applications, such as lowering the cost of the material and developing the mass production method.

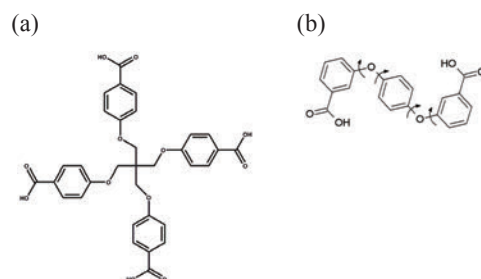


**Fig. 19** CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption isotherms of **SNU-M10** (a) and **SNU-M11** (b).<sup>37</sup>

### 2.3. Selective CO<sub>2</sub> capture by the MOFs constructed from flexible organic building blocks

A flexible non-interpenetrated 3D MOF, {[Cu<sub>2</sub>(TCM)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>2</sub>]·7DMF·3(1,4-dioxane)·MeOH}<sub>n</sub> (**SNU-21**), was prepared from the solvothermal reaction of flexible organic building block, tetrakis[4-(carboxyphenyl)oxamethyl]methane (H<sub>4</sub>TCM) and Cu(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>·2.5H<sub>2</sub>O in DMF/1,4-dioxane/MeOH (Fig. 20a).<sup>38</sup> The paddle-wheel type {Cu<sub>2</sub>(O<sub>2</sub>CR)<sub>4</sub>} building units are connected by TCM<sup>4-</sup> tetrahedral building blocks to afford a PtS type framework that generates 3D channels. The

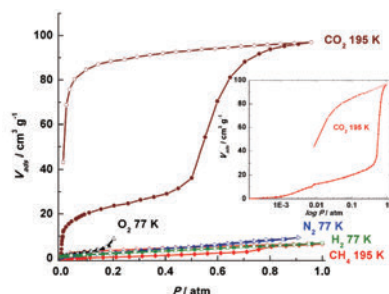
MOF was activated by two different methods, the supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> treatment and the heat-evacuation, which resulted **SNU-21S** and **SNU-21H**, respectively. Although they have same chemical formula, [Cu<sub>2</sub>(TCM)]<sub>n</sub>, by losing the coordinated water molecules as well as guest solvent molecules, **SNU-21S** showed higher sorption capacities than **SNU-20H** for N<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, and CO<sub>2</sub> gases as well as higher isosteric heats of gas adsorption, indicating that supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> activation method is superior to the heat-evacuation method. The PXRD patterns indicate that it is associated with the different structural transformations of the flexible framework during the different activation processes. **SNU-21H** and **SNU-21S** show selective and reversible CO<sub>2</sub> capture abilities at room temperature, with the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacities of 9.65 wt% and 11.1 wt% at 1 atm, respectively. Their CO<sub>2</sub>(0.15 atm)/N<sub>2</sub>(0.85 atm) selectivities at 298 K and 1 atm are 10.6 for **SNU-21H** and 15.5 for **SNU-21S**.



**Fig. 20** Flexible organic building blocks. (a) tetrakis[4-(carboxyphenyl)oxamethyl]methane (H<sub>4</sub>TCM). (b) 3,3'-(1,4-phenylenebis(oxy))dibenzoic acid (H<sub>2</sub>mpm-PBODB).

In order to capture CO<sub>2</sub> at room temperature, the material should have optimum flexibility, since not all flexible MOFs or PCPs capture carbon dioxide selectively at room temperature. For example, we prepared a flexible MOF {[Zn<sub>2</sub>(mpm-PBODB)<sub>2</sub>bpy]·3DMF}<sub>n</sub> (**SNU-110**) by using an organic ligand containing flexible joints, 3,3'-(1,4-phenylenebis(oxy))dibenzoic acid (H<sub>2</sub>mpm-PBODB) (Fig. 20b).<sup>39</sup> The desolvated solid [Zn<sub>2</sub>(mpm-PBODB)<sub>2</sub>bpy]<sub>n</sub> (**SNU-110'**) resulted by activation of **SNU-110** with supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> fluid hardly adsorbs N<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub> gases at 77 K, indicating that it has smaller window size than the kinetic diameter (2.89 Å) of H<sub>2</sub>. However, the material uptakes 97 cm<sup>3</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> of CO<sub>2</sub> at 195 K despite that CO<sub>2</sub> has much larger kinetic diameter than H<sub>2</sub>, indicating that CO<sub>2</sub> can open up the window of the MOF due to its high quadrupole moment and polarizability. **SNU-110'** shows a two-step CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption curve related with structural transformation by CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption, together with a big desorption-hysteresis (Fig. 21). The selectivity for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption over N<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>, and CH<sub>4</sub> at 195 K is 35:1, 61:1, and 15:1, respectively. However, this material hardly adsorbs CO<sub>2</sub> at 298 K, and thus cannot be applied in practical carbon

capture from the industrial flue gas. The result demonstrates that the material should have optimum flexibility to allow CO<sub>2</sub> to open up its windows at room temperature.



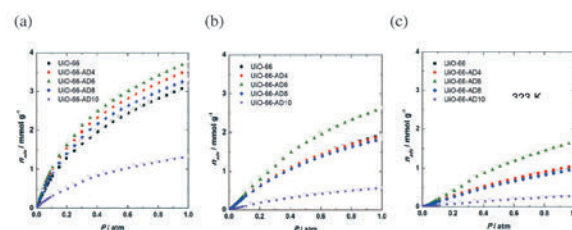
**Fig. 21** Gas adsorption isotherms of **SNU-110'**. Inset: CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption at 195 K versus  $\log P$ . Filled shapes: adsorption, open shapes: desorption.<sup>39</sup>

#### 5.4. Selective CO<sub>2</sub> capture by modifying a MOF with flexible carboxyl pendants

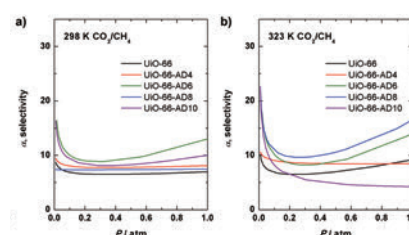
Another strategy of developing MOFs for CO<sub>2</sub> capture application was to introduce flexible carboxyl pendants exposed to the channels of the MOFs. For this, a stable MOF, UiO-66, was modified by the post-synthetic ligand exchange. The terephthalate ligand in UiO-66 was exchanged with a series of alkanedioic acids (HO<sub>2</sub>C(CH<sub>2</sub>)<sub>*n*-2</sub>CO<sub>2</sub>H) to afford the MOFs incorporating various flexible carboxyl pendants (UiO-66-AD*n*; *n* = 4, 6, 8, and 10, where *n* denotes the number of carbons in a pendant).<sup>39</sup> The ligand substitution occurred partially, and the extent of ligand exchange depended on the immersion time of the MOF in the solution of alkanedioic acid. The NMR, IR, PXRD, TEM, and mass spectral data suggested that one terephthalate linker in UiO-66 was substituted with two alkanedioates to afford free carboxyl pendants in the pores. The analysis of NMR spectra of the samples that were partially digested by adjusting the amount of acid indicated that the ratio of alkanedioic acid/terephthalic acid increased with the lesser amount of acid, indicating that the ligand substitution proceeded from the outer layer of the MOF particle.

Although N<sub>2</sub> gas adsorption data indicated that the surface area and the pore volume of all UiO-66-AD*n*s were decreased compared to those of UiO-66 and the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacities of UiO-66-AD*n* (*n* = 4, 8) were similar to that of UiO-66, the CO<sub>2</sub> uptake of UiO-66-AD6 was most highly increased among the samples, by 34% at 298 K and by 58% at 323 K, compared to those of UiO-66 (Fig. 22). The IAST (ideal adsorption selectivity theory) selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption over CH<sub>4</sub> was enhanced for all UiO-66-AD*n*s compared to that of UiO-66 at 298 K (Fig. 23). In particular, UiO-66-AD6 with adipic acid pendants showed the most highly increased selectivity of

CO<sub>2</sub> over CH<sub>4</sub> at ambient temperature, suggesting that it is a promising material for CO<sub>2</sub> separation of landfill gas.



**Fig. 22** CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption isotherms at a) 273 K, b) 298 K, and c) 323 K for UiO-66 (■), UiO-66-AD4 (●), UiO-66-AD6 (▲), UiO-66-AD8 (◆), and UiO-66-AD10 (★). Filled shapes: adsorption; open shapes: desorption.<sup>39</sup>

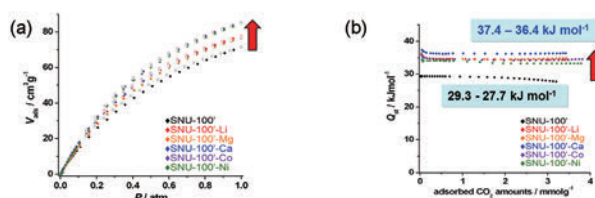


**Fig. 23** Estimated IAST selectivity of the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption from the mixture of CO<sub>2</sub>:CH<sub>4</sub> = 50:50 at (a) 298 K, and (b) 323 K.

#### 5.5. CO<sub>2</sub> capture in anionic MOF impregnating metal cations

Similarly to hydrogen storage in MOFs, we expected that impregnation of proper guest molecules in the pores of MOFs, such as charged metal ions, would increase the interaction energy between the materials and CO<sub>2</sub> gas molecules, enhancing the CO<sub>2</sub> uptake capacity and adsorption selectivity. We synthesized an anionic MOF, [Zn<sub>3</sub>(TCPT)<sub>2</sub>(HCOO)] [NH<sub>2</sub>(CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>]<sub>2</sub>·5DMF (**SNU-100**, TCPT = 2,4,6-tris-(4-carboxyphenoxy)-1,3,5-triazine), by heating the DMF solution of Zn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O and H<sub>3</sub>TCPT at 90 °C for 24 h. The NH<sub>2</sub>(CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> cations included in the pores of **SNU-100** were exchanged with various metal ions such as Li<sup>+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Co<sup>2+</sup>, and Ni<sup>2+</sup>.<sup>40</sup> The metal ions still coordinating water molecules even after the activation significantly enhanced uptake capacity, selectivity, and the isosteric heat of the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption while it affects rather slightly the H<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> adsorption (Fig. 24). This is attributed to the electrostatic interactions between the extra-framework metal ions and CO<sub>2</sub>. The CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity at 298 K and 1 atm reached to 16.8 wt% in of **SNU-100'-Co**, and the adsorption selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub> over N<sub>2</sub> at room temperature and the isosteric heats of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption increased to 40.4 and 37.4 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, in **SNU-100'-Ca**, compared with 14.1 wt%, 25.5, and 29.3 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> for the parent MOF (**SNU-100'**).

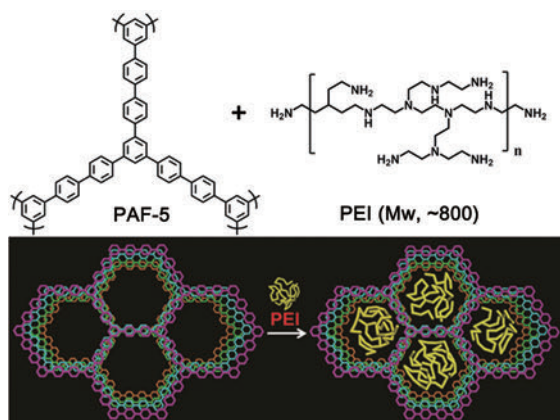




**Fig. 24** (a) CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption isotherms at 298 K for anionic MOF including various metal cations in the pores (SNU-100'-M). Filled shapes: adsorption. Open shapes: desorption. (b) Q<sub>st</sub> of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption.<sup>40</sup>

### 5.6. CO<sub>2</sub> capture by porous organic polymer impregnating flexible polymeric amine

As a similar strategy for capturing CO<sub>2</sub> by using flexible MOFs with very small pores, we chose a porous organic polymer, PAF-5, which has BET surface area of 2070 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> and large pore size of 2.11 nm, and blocked its pores with a flexible polyethylenimine (Fig. 25).<sup>41</sup> We believed that when flexible polymer PEI units blocked the windows of PAF-5, the material would hardly adsorb N<sub>2</sub> gas while adsorbing CO<sub>2</sub> since it would allow CO<sub>2</sub> to open up the closed windows because of the high polarizability and quadrupole moment of CO<sub>2</sub>. In addition, numerous amine functional groups in PEI would strongly interact with CO<sub>2</sub>, which increase the capacity and the selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption.

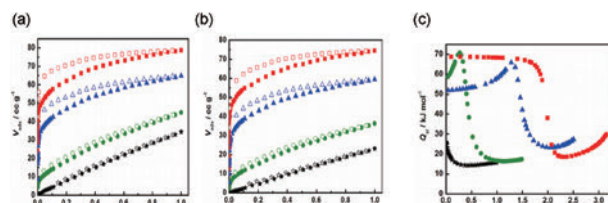


**Fig. 25** PAF-5 impregnated with branched PEI (Mw = ca. 800).<sup>41</sup>

By changing the concentration of PEI in MeOH as well as the immersion time of PAF-5 in the PEI solution, we prepared 10, 30, 40 wt% PEI loaded samples. Interestingly, the impregnated PEI was not released even by the activation under the high vacuum due to the C-H... $\pi$  interactions between the ethylene groups of PEI and phenyl rings of PAF-5. The N<sub>2</sub> uptake at 77 K decreases as the amount of PEI increases, and 40 wt% PEI loaded sample hardly adsorbs N<sub>2</sub> gas. The BET surface area and the pore volume of 40 wt% PEI loaded sample became 40 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> and 0.046 cm<sup>3</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, which are only 2% and 3% of those for the

pristine PAF-5. Contrary to N<sub>2</sub> adsorption, CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption increases as the amount of PEI increases (Fig. 26). In addition, while pristine PAF-5 shows linearly increasing CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption isotherm and adsorbs only small amount of CO<sub>2</sub> at 0.15 atm of CO<sub>2</sub>, the PEI-loaded samples exhibit type-I curves to increase their CO<sub>2</sub> uptake capacities drastically at low CO<sub>2</sub> pressure. Therefore, for the PEI-loaded adsorbents, a sharp increase in the CO<sub>2</sub> uptake at low CO<sub>2</sub> pressure (0.15 atm) together with the big decrease in the N<sub>2</sub> adsorption drastically enhances the adsorption selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub> over N<sub>2</sub>. In particular, PEI(40 wt%)cPAF-5 adsorbs 10, 14, and 16 times greater amount of CO<sub>2</sub> than pristine PAF-5 under 0.15 atm of CO<sub>2</sub> pressure at 298 K, 313 K, and 323 K, respectively. The CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> (15:85) adsorption selectivity of PEI(40 wt%)cPAF-5 reached to 2160 at 313 K, which is the highest value reported so far.

The plot of Q<sub>st</sub> values versus CO<sub>2</sub> uptake shows two distinctive regions. The first region at low CO<sub>2</sub> loading reaches to ca. 70 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>, and the second region at the higher CO<sub>2</sub> loading falls down to ca. 20 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>. Interestingly, as amount of PEI increases, the first region covers broader range of CO<sub>2</sub> uptake, indicating that it corresponds to chemisorption of CO<sub>2</sub> on PEI and the second region to physisorption on the surface of PAF-5.



**Fig. 26** Gas sorption properties of PAF-5 (★), PEI(10 wt%)cPAF-5 (●), PEI(30 wt%)cPAF-5 (▲), and PEI(40 wt%)cPAF-5 (■). (a) N<sub>2</sub> at 77 K. (b) CO<sub>2</sub> at 313 K. (c) Isothermic heat of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption. Filled shapes: adsorption process; Open shapes: desorption process.<sup>41</sup>

The material PEI(40 wt%)cPAF-5 shows high CO<sub>2</sub> uptake capacity (11.1 wt% at 313 K under 0.15 atm of CO<sub>2</sub>), high adsorption selectivity (2160 at 313 K) for CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> (15:85), fast adsorption and desorption kinetics (within 10 min.), water stability, and yet low energy penalty for regeneration of the adsorbents (413 K with 11.1 wt% working capacity). Therefore, it is a promising material for the practical application in CO<sub>2</sub> capture from flue gas, once several problems still left are solved, such as cost down of the material and development of large scale up methods.

## 6. Summary and Prospects

Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) and porous coordination

polymers (PCPs) are formed by the connectivity of metal and organic building blocks. We have synthesized various MOFs and PCPs by solvothermal reactions and self-assembly, and explored their characteristic properties such as flexibility, responsiveness to external stimuli, selective binding of guest molecules, and redox properties. The MOFs and PCPs have large pore surface areas and relatively low density, and thus they are the good candidates for the materials that can be applied in gas storage and gas separation, in particular, hydrogen storage and carbon dioxide capture. However, the gas sorption in these materials is physisorption, and it has very weak interaction energy with the gas. Therefore, their gas sorption capacities fall down to very low values as the temperature is elevated to that of practical applications. Therefore, to enhance gas storage capacity at ambient temperature, we have created various pore modification strategies. To enhance hydrogen storage in MOFs, we have generated accessible metal sites, fabricated metal nanoparticles or included proper guest molecules in the pores of MOFs, and synthesized MOFs incorporating specific metal binding sites. To selectively capture carbon dioxide from the flue gas or natural gas, which contains not only CO<sub>2</sub> but also other gases, we designed highly flexible MOFs or PCPs with very small pores, which allow CO<sub>2</sub> to open the windows of the materials while prohibiting other gases to enter into the pores. For CO<sub>2</sub> capture at ambient temperature, however, flexibility of the material should be fine-tuned; otherwise it captures CO<sub>2</sub> only at low temperatures. Also, we modified the pores of MOFs by introducing proper guest molecules such as metal ions or polymeric amines, which enhance CO<sub>2</sub> uptake capacity as well as selectivity. Despite that a great deal of efforts has been made in our group and others to develop the materials that can be practically applied in hydrogen storage and carbon dioxide capture, many problems are still left unsolved. Therefore, further studies with innovative ideas should be performed. Perhaps, combination of several strategies presented in this account may lead to development of excellent materials.

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## Profile



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