

Metal-organic Frameworks in Cooling and Water desalination: Synthesis to Application

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Abstract

Energy-efficient alternative desalination and cooling systems are pivotal in addressing the incredible increase in ~~the~~ energy and water demands worldwide. Sorption-based technology is a unique system that could help in solving the energy and water crisis and cut down the overall carbon footprint. Such systems' performance relies on the adsorption characteristics of the employed nanoporous adsorbent. Although different nanoporous materials were developed, metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) are fast becoming a key working substance in water capture applications due to their interesting adsorption characteristics. Owing to the chemical tunability of MOFs, scientists developed thousands of MOFs in the last few decades. With the increasing interest in MOFs, this review paper provides a comprehensive survey of MOFs adsorbents and their roles in cooling and water desalination systems. Herein, three aspects are covered, the synthesis processes, the adsorption characteristics, and the implementation of MOFs at the system level. Many challenges are discussed, such as mass production, the energy demand for synthesis, and the chemical modulation of MOFs to enhance their adsorption characteristics. Many ~~types of~~ MOFs are presented, but the sorption characteristics of most of them have not been tested yet. Subsequently, a small number of the presented MOFs have been employed in sorption applications. Accordingly, a gap should be filled to test and employ the MOFs in sorption applications.

Highlights:

- Synthesis of various types of MOFs are discussed.
- Progress of MOFs adsorbents in cooling and water desalination is summarized.
- Challenges of MOF in cooling and water desalination are presented.

Keywords: Metal organic frameworks (MOFs), Adsorption desalination; Cooling, [Applications](#)[Challenges](#).

Word count: 8500

1. Introduction

Energy and water demand are experiencing a persistent rise due to the continuous population growth and socio-economic development [1, 2]. According to the EU, the energy used to cool buildings across Europe, ~~which most of it~~ most of which comes from fossil fuel, is likely to increase by 72% by 2030 [3]. 40% shortfall in freshwater resources is expected by 2030 [4]. The insistent need to handle this problem has stimulated international industries and governments; for instance, the EU countries have committed to cut the greenhouse gas emissions by 40% (from 1990 levels); through increasing renewable energy in power production by 32%, and make an improvement in energy efficiency by 32.5% in 2030 [5, 6]. Although waste heat recovery resulted in improving the efficiency of the current desalination technologies [7, 8] would results in securing fresh water at lower costs with lower environmental impacts [9-11], still the usage of ~~the~~ renewable energy is the best choice [12, 13]. Using renewable energy resources like solar energy could alleviate the energy and water problem [14-16]. However, there is always a shift between the energy demand of the presence of ~~the~~ sun. So, energy conversion and management using thermally driven systems for cooling and desalination could address this problem. Among several candidates of thermally driven systems, the sorption-based system for cooling desalination (i.e., hybrid adsorption system) is a promising technology because it uses environmentally friendly working fluids, has a low maintenance cost, and could work continuously (24/7) with relatively low operating cost [17]. The sorption-based system could also be utilized for several applications like thermochemical energy storage, separation, heating, wastewater treatment, refrigeration, and desiccant air conditioning [18-21].

The characteristics of ~~the~~ sorption-based systems depends mainly on the adsorbent nanoporous material employed in the system [22]. Specifically, the effectiveness of sorption cycles fundamentally depends on the ability of solid nanoporous adsorbent material to capture vapor refrigerant during a ~~certain~~ specific time [23, 24]. Therefore, high surface area per unit mass and high pore volume per unit mass of the nanoporous solid adsorbents are the main parameters that should be considered in the selection of the more suitable adsorbents for sorption technology for cooling and desalination applications. The Brunauer Emmet Teller (BET) surface area per unit mass (SSA) of commonly used adsorbents like silica gel, zeolite, and activated carbon varies from 150 m²/g to 3100 m²/g [25-27]. These values are still relatively small and not adequate for sorption application. So, the domain of nanoporous materials has been enlarged to develop highly porous hybrid materials. A new category of adsorbent materials with much surface area has been developed and called metal-organic frameworks (MOFs). The word MOF was first presented in 1995 by Yaghi [28], and has been used in many prospective applications, like catalysis, gas separation, gas storage, and drug delivery [29, 30]. Recently, this sort of nanoporous materials has been suggested for heat transmission systems due to its interesting microstructure [20].

Traditional adsorbents usually need either high desorption temperatures (e.g., zeolites 13X or NaA) or have unwanted linear isotherm shape (e.g., silica gel). Besides, the small surface area and pore volume of traditional adsorbents limit the performance of the adsorption cycle. MOFs are promising adsorbents for sorption cycles due to their extra-large porosity, unique adsorption properties, and tunable adsorption behavior. However, their stability and long-time synthesis process are the main challenges facing this family of nanoporous materials. In this paper, ~~the~~ synthesis and preparation of various ~~types of~~ MOFs are reviewed and presented ~~in an appropriate wa~~appropriately. The challenges facing applying and adapting the MOFs for heat transformation applications are discussed. Also, the experimental studies that employed the MOFs for water desalination have been presented.

2. Synthesis and characteristics of MOFs

Conventional adsorbent materials “such as silica gel and zeolite” ~~have challenge~~ low capacity/update and relatively slow adsorption kinetics [17]. With excellent hydrophilicity, extra-ordinary structure, and specific host-guest interactions, MOFs seem to be the coming species of sophisticated nanoporous materials for various purposes such as thermal energy storage [31], gas storage [32, 33], cooling [34], indoor moisture control [35], and water desalination [36] [24]. The reticular synthesis method is usually applied for MOFs synthesis [37]. Secondary building units (SBUs) shown in Fig. 1 are strongly bonded to organic linkers for building up open crystalline frameworks (i.e., MOFs) with a porosity that could go

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up to 90% with tremendous interior specific surface area (SSA) per unit mass, as illustrated in Fig. 2. MOFs' high porosity leads to a high surface area beyond 6,000 m²/g [[38](#), [39](#)]. Infinite and ordered frameworks can be formed spontaneously if ways can be suggested of connecting centers with either an octahedral or tetrahedral valence by rod-like linking units. The synthesis flexibility of MOFs has led to thousands of porous materials being constructed and reported within the last years, as shown in Fig. 3.

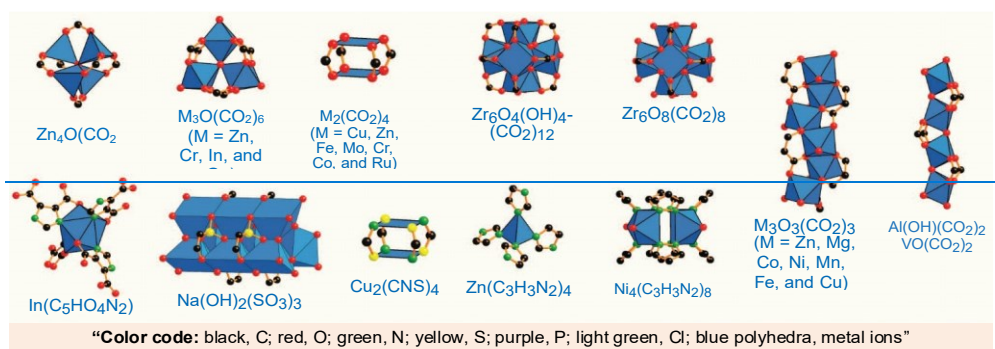
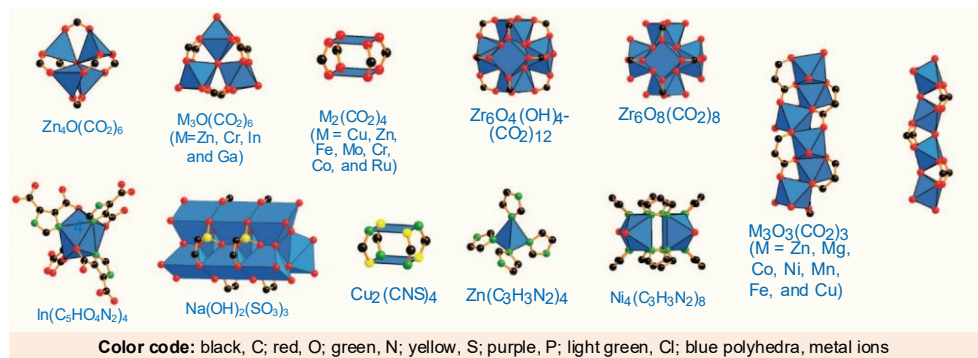


Figure 1 Inorganic secondary building units (SBUs) (Adapted from [38])

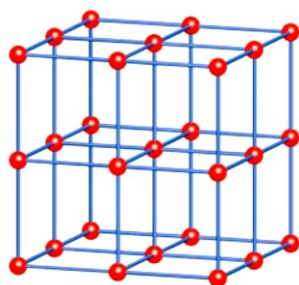


Figure 2 The topology of the MOFs structure. Color code: metal ions: red, organic linkers: blue [38].

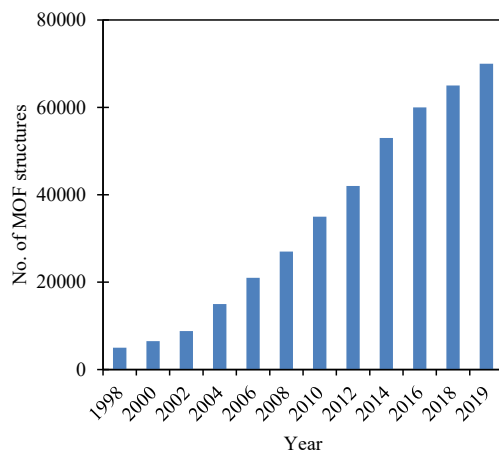


Figure 3 Reported MOFs in the Cambridge Structural Database (CSD) [40]

Abundant types of MOFs are constructed via diverse ways such as solvothermal or hydro synthesis [41], mechano-chemical synthesis [42], microwave-assisted synthesis [43], electrochemical synthesis [44], and sonochemical synthesis [45]. These methods have their own features for building up MOFs with diverse functionalization, physiochemical merits, and scale-up capability [45]. All these methods can be classified into two classes: conventional and unconventional techniques. The following section presents how MOFs are chemically formed in a comprehensive manner using different methods ~~emphasizing with more emphasis on~~ the conventional synthesis, which is a straightforward method of preparation of MOFs. The synthesis is generally performed by mixing salt and organic solutions at a specific temperature, following by a filtration or drying process to produce the final product [46].

2.1 Conventional methods

In the conventional method, a chemical reaction is performed using classical electric heating in the absence of parallelization of reactions. One of the main factors in MOFs synthesis is the reaction temperature. Solvothermal and non-solvothermal reactions are usually implemented. The solvothermal reaction is the reaction that occurs in a sealed chamber under pressure above the solvent boiling pressure. In turn, the non-solvothermal reaction occurs at the boiling point or below at the ambient conditions, making this method of synthesis much simple.

2.1.1 *Synthesis of MOF at room temperature*

MOF-2 [47], MOF-3 [48], and MOF-5 [49] were prepared by slow diffusion of TEA “organic amine trimethylamine” into metal salt. MOF-2 ($\text{Zn}(\text{BDC})$ (DMF) (H_2O)) can be yielded at room temperature by slow vapor diffusion of triethylamine ($\text{N}(\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3)_3$) and toluene (C_7H_8) into DMF “dimethylformamide” solution, having a mixture of $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$. MOF-2 is produced as colorless prism-shaped crystals where BDC is the linkers and Zinc is the metal ions [47]. Similarly, MOF-3 ($\text{Zn}_3(\text{BDC})_3 \cdot 6\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$) is formed via the copolymerization method at room temperature [48]. When the *n*-propanol solution of triethylamine diffuses into the mixture (10 mL) at room temperature, the copolymerization process initiates, and block-shaped crystals form after 12 days. The crystals are gathered and washed with acetone ($(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{CO}$) and methanol (CH_3OH), and then left to dry in the air to give MOF-3 structure. MOF-5 ($\text{Zn}_4\text{O}(\text{BDC})_3 \cdot (\text{DMF})_8$) was constructed when hydrogen peroxide (with a small amount) was mixed with a mixture of triethylamine, a solution of zinc (II) nitrate, H_2BDC , DMF, and chlorobenzene ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{Cl}$) [49]. It was reported that the free volume of MOF-5 is about $1.04 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$. Results showed that MOF-5 has the highest porosity and the most stable one.

Huang et al. [50] synthesized two MOFs (which are called metal-organic coordination polymers (MOCPs)) using a direct mixing synthesis method at room temperature. It was reported that MOCPs are highly porous and thermally stable up to 300°C . MOCP-L material can be formed by directly adding pure organic amine TEA to DMF solution having $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and H_2BDC while a strong stirring is applied at room temperature. MOCP-L was produced whose structure is the same as MOF-5. Another MOF called MOCP-H was obtained by adding 3 drops of H_2O_2 aqueous solution to the synthesis solution. The two MOFs were found to be thermally stable. An alternative method using a room temperature synthesis was presented to prepare MOF-5, MOF-74, MOF-177, HKUST-1 (MOF-199), and IRMOF-0 [51] ambient temperature, as presented in Table 1. MOF-5 and MOF-177 were prepared using the same procedure as the following: salt and organic solutions were mixed under quick stirring, and the precipitate appeared almost instantly. The formed material was collected and evacuated overnight to vacuum pressure, then activated at a certain temperature for a specific period. Another method of producing MOF-177 at 100°C was proposed in Ref. [52]. A solution of DEF, H_3BTB , and $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ was prepared and put in a sealed Pyrex tube that heated to 100°C , kept for 23 h, and then cooled ($12^\circ\text{C}/\text{h}$). MOF-177 framework (block-shaped crystals) was formed, collected, and washed by DEF ($4 \times 2 \text{ ml}$) and finally dried in air. MOF-199 was produced by mixing organic and salt solutions. The same amount of DMF, EtOH, and H_2O were mixed to form a solvent mixture [51]. Benzene tricarboxylic acid ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_6\text{O}_6$) and $\text{Cu}(\text{OAc})_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ were added separately to 12 the solvent mixture. The mixtures were mixed and

stirred, and then triethylamine (Et_3N) was mixed with the reaction and stirred for almost a day. ~~Deep-The~~
~~deep~~ blue solid material was gathered by filtration, washed with DMF (2×25 mL), then immersed overnight in CH_2Cl_2 (50 mL). Then, the product was evacuated to less than 0.05 bar overnight, and its color turned to blue-violet. IRMOF-0 can be produced at room temperature using an organic solution of acetylene dicarboxylic acid ($\text{C}_4\text{H}_2\text{O}_4$) and DMF and salt solution of $\text{Zn}(\text{OAc})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ [51]. After mixing the two solutions, the new solution was mixed with Triethylamine, and the reaction took place all night. Solid material was picked up by filtration and washed with 2×15 mL DMF. Then, it was evacuated overnight to 0.01 torr where IRMOF-0 was yielded.

Getachew et al. [53] presented the preparation of a MOF-2 at room temperature without using any amine. The organic linker solution was prepared by dissolving H_2BDC in DMF. The zinc salt solution was formed by dissolving $\text{Zn}(\text{OAc})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ in H_2O . Continuous stirring at room temperature was applied to mix the two solutions. After 15 min, a white precipitate appeared. After filtering the precipitate, it was washed repeatedly with DMF and drained off for 12h. The N_2 -adsorption method reported that the SSA of MOF-2 was about $361 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$.

Table 1 Synthesis of various MOFs at room temperature using salt and organic solutions

MOF	Salt solution	Organic linker solution	Processes after forming	Comments	Ref.
MOF-2	$\text{Zn}(\text{OAc})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ (7.24 mmol + 0.61 mol)	$\text{H}_2\text{BDC} + \text{DMF}$ (4.1 mmol + 0.2 mol)	Filtration, washing, drying.	- A_s was 270 m ² /g. - V_p was 0.094 cm ³ /g.	[47, 54, 55]
MOF-5	$\text{Zn}(\text{OAc})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{DMF}$ (77.4 mmol + 500 mL)	$\text{C}_8\text{H}_6\text{O}_4 + \text{N}(\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3)_3 + \text{DMF}$ (30.5 mmol + 8.5 mL + 400 mL)	Filtration, immersing, activation, evacuation.	- Activation occurred at 120°C for 6 h under vacuum. - 4.92 g was yielded. - A_s was found to be 3909 m ² /g.	[38, 51, 56]
MOF-74	$\text{Zn}(\text{OAc})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{DEF}$ (3.13 mmol + 20 mL)	$\text{C}_8\text{H}_6\text{O}_6 + \text{DMF}$ (1.20 mmol + 20 mL)	Filtration, washing, immersing, activation, evacuation.	- 69.5 mg was yielded. - Activation occurred at 260°C for 12 h under vacuum. - A_s was found to be 1187 m ² /g.	[51, 57, 58]
MOF-177	$\text{Zn}(\text{OAc})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{DEF}$ (11.4 mmol + 25 mL)	$\text{C}_{27}\text{H}_{18}\text{O}_6 + \text{DEF}$ (1.43 mmol + 25 mL)	Filtration, washing, immersing, activation, evacuation.	- Activation occurred at 120°C for 12 h under vacuum. - 190 g was yielded. - A_s was found to be 4944 m ² /g.	[51, 59, 60]
MOF-199	$\text{Cu}(\text{OAc})_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{DMF}/\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{EtOH}$ (1:1:1) (4.31 mmol + 12 mL)	$\text{C}_9\text{H}_6\text{O}_6 + \text{DMF}/\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{EtOH}$ (1:1:1) (2.38 mmol + 12 mL)	Filtration, washing, immersing, evacuation	- Activation occurred at 120°C for 6 h under vacuum. - 316 g was yielded. - A_s was not reported.	[51, 61]
IRMOF-0	$\text{Zn}(\text{OAc})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{DMF}$ (36.4 mmol + 60 mL)	$\text{C}_4\text{H}_2\text{O}_4 + \text{DMF}$ (17.6 mmol + 50 mL)	Filtration, washing, evacuation	- Activation occurred at 120°C for 12 h under vacuum. - A_s was not reported.	[51, 62, 63]

A_s : Langmuir surface area, V_p : pore volume

2.1.2 *Synthesis of MOFs by heating*

MIL-100, which stands for Material of Institute Lavoisier, was synthesized as following [64]: Metallic chromium (Cr) was dissolved in 5M hydrofluoric acid, then H₂O and H₃BTC “1,3,5-benzene tricarboxylic acid” were added to the solution. In a hydrothermal unit, the mixture was heated at 20 °C/h till 220 °C, and kept at 220 °C for 96 h, and then left to cool naturally, forming a green powder. The material was collected, cleaned, and finally dried in the air, yielding MIL-100. The hydrothermal reaction was followed to prepare a highly crystallized green powder (MIL-101) using H₂BDC, Cr(NO₃)₃·9H₂O, fluorhydric acid, and water [65]. The reaction lasted for 8 hours at 220 °C to produce the chromium terephthalate (MIL-101). The SSA was more than 4100 m²/g. Yang et al. [66] prepared MIL-101(Cr) (MIL-101TM) from TMAOH-Cr(NO₃)₃-H₂BDC-H₂O, and used it to store hydrogen. The SSA was 3197 m²/g, and the specific pore volume was 1.73 cm³/g. Jhung et al. [43] synthesized the porous chromium trimer (MIL-100) following the methodology presented by Ferey et al. [64], except the heating was applied using microwave irradiation. A reactant mixture was prepared using Cr(NO₂)₃·9H₂O, H₂BDC (benzene dicarboxylate), HF, and H₂O with a concentration of 1:1:1:280, then put in a sealed Teflon autoclave and the temperature was increased to 210 °C. The product was collected from the solution, filtered twice, and then solvothermally treated for 20 h at 100 °C using 95% v/v ethanol. The formed material was filtered, cleaned, and finally dried in air at 150 °C. Changing the molar concentration of each component in the reaction mixture and the heating time without HF led to various versions of MIL-101 with different surface area as shown in Table 2.

Table 2 MIL-101s synthesis at 210 °C [64]

MIL-101 type	Molar composition	Heating time	SSA	V _p
A	CrCl ₃ ·6H ₂ O:TPA:H ₂ O (1:1:250)	6 h	2735	1.43
B	“CrCl ₃ ·6H ₂ O:TPA:H ₂ O (1:1:400)”	24 h	3160	1.54
C	“CrCl ₃ ·6H ₂ O:TPA:H ₂ O (1:1:550)”	24 h	ND	ND

Rowse and Yoghi [67] supposed an alternative way to form MOF-199 (Cu₂(C₉H₃O₆)_{4/3}) (HKUST-1). Benzene-1,3,5-tricarboxylic acid₁ and Cu(II) nitrate hemi-pentahydrate were fluxed in a solution with having equal concentrations of DMF concentrations, ethanol₁ and H₂O in a bottle with stirring for 900 sec. The bottle was sealed and put in an 85 °C furnace for 20 h, where octahedral crystals were yielded afterward in a small amount. The crystals were rinsed with DMF, immersed in methanol that refilled three times in 3 days. The crystals were removed under vacuum at a temperature of 170

°C, producing MOF-199 in a porous form. IRMOF-2, IRMOF-3, IRMOF-6, IRMOF-9, IRMOF-13, and IRMOF-20 were also formed using the same strategy [67]. For instance, IRMOF-2 ($\text{Zn}_4\text{O}(\text{C}_8\text{H}_3\text{BrO}_4)_3$) was prepared by dissolving 2-Bromobenzene-1,4-dicarboxylic acid and $\text{ZnNO}_3 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ “zinc nitrate tetrahydrate” in N,N-diethylformamide (BASF) in a glass beaker. The beaker was sealed and kept for 40 h at 100 °C to form cubic crystals. The crystals were rinsed with DMF, immersed in chloroform for 3 days, forming IRMOF-2 [67]. Other types of IRMOF were prepared by changing the reaction duration and temperature and the organic linkers presented in Table 3. IRMOF-20 has the highest SSA and specific pore volume of 3409 m^2/g and 1.53 m^3/g , respectively. However, these types of IRMOFs exhibited low stability of sorption applications. Rosi et al. [68] formed crystal structures of many new MOFs of various structure kinds used rod secondary building units. Every MOF has one of Co, Zn, Cd, Mn, Pb, or Tb, and organic linkers, as shown in Table 3. MOF-69A, B, and C were synthesized by mixing a building unit and solution of organic linkers in a vial. The mixture was then stored in a capped bottle at a specific temperature for certain days, as illustrated in Table 3.

MOF-71, MOF-72, and MOF-73 were produced by dissolving a salt solution and acid in an organic linker solution. The solid mixture was frozen using a liquid nitrogen bath to 0.2 Torr and flame-sealed. The ~~temperature of the tube's~~ temperature was increased in an iso-temperature oven and kept for a certain period, and then MOF is cooled and washed in DMF. Hexagonal plate-like crystals (MOF-71) were gathered from the oven, cleaned in DMF ($3 \times 3 \text{ mL}$)₂ and air-dried. MOF-74, known as CPO-27-Zn, can be formed at 105 °C using a mixture of $\text{H}_2\text{-DHBDC}$, $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 4(\text{H}_2\text{O})$, DMF, and water [68]. The mixture was stored and chilled in a liquid nitrogen bath to 200 mmHg. The temperature of the sealed tube was increased at a rate of 120 °C/h to 105°C for 20 h. The tube temperature was then decreased to room temperature while yellow needle crystals were formed and then air-dried. Rowsell and Yaghi supposed an alternative route to prepare MOF-74 ($\text{Zn}_2(\text{C}_8\text{H}_2\text{O}_6)$) [67]. A mixture of 2,5-Dihydroxybenzene-1,4-dicarboxylic acid, DMF, and $\text{ZnNO}_3 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ with stirring in a 1.0 L bottle, and then deionized water was added. The tightly capped bottle was stored for 20 h in an oven at 100 °C, where trigonal block structure was yielded afterward. The crystals were rinsed with DMF, immersed in methanol that refilled three times in 6 days. The crystals were removed under vacuum at a temperature of 270°C, producing MOF-74 in porous form.

Dietzel et al. [69] proposed another process to produce MOF-74 (CPO-27-Ni) by mixing two solutions in a Teflon-lined autoclave at 110 °C for three days. One solution is nickel acetate tetrahydrate ($\text{C}_4\text{H}_{14}\text{NiO}_8$) and H_2O , and another mixture of 2,5-dihydroxyterephthalic acid and THF. A yellow-green fine crystalline material was gathered, filtered, and then cleaned using water. Dietzel's research team used the same process to produce CPO-27-Co and CPO-27-Zn [70]. For

preparation CPO-27-Co, a solution of cobalt salt of acetic acid in water was mixed with ~~a solution of~~ H₄DOBDC and dissolved in THF. The mixture was sealed and put into 110 °C autoclave for 72 h. Similarly, CPO-27-Zn was formed by mixing NaOH solution and [Zn(NO₃)₂].6H₂O solution in THF during stirring. At 110 °C, the mixed solution was capped and heated up in an autoclave for three days, then a light-yellow substance (CPO-27-Zn) was gathered by filtration and washing.

MOF-75 was formed at 85 °C as following: a solid mixture was prepared by dissolving Tb(NO₃)₃.5H₂O and 2,5-thiophene carboxylic acid (H₂-TDC) in 1 mL of DMF [68]. 1.5 mL of 2-Propanol (VC₃H₈O) was mixed with the DMF solution. The solution was cooled and vacuumed in N_{2(l)} bath to 0.2 Torr and then kept to 85 °C for 15 h. The tube temperature was then reduced to room temperature to form MOF-75, which is colorless polyhedral crystals. MOF-76 was synthesized by added H₃BTC, Tb(NO₃)₃.5H₂O, DMF, ethanol, and H₂O to a solvothermal vessel. 2 °C/min heating rate was applied to the sealed vessel to reach 80°C for 24 h. 1 °C/min cooling rate was applied to cool down the vessel to the room temperature. Colorless crystals (MOF-76) were formed and gathered by filtration and air-dried. The same strategy was applied to form MOF-77, MOF-78, MOF-79, and MOF-80 using different solutions, as illustrated in Table 3. It is found that the preparation of these types of MOFs takes a long time and consumes more energy. MOF-75 takes about 15 h to be prepared at 85 °C, while MOF-70 takes a week to be formed at room temperature.

Table 3 Explanation of the chemical formula of various MOFs, their Organic Carboxylates linkers, and reaction conditions

Reaction duration/temperature	Chemical formula	Organic linker	MOF type	Comment	Ref.
15h/85°C	$\text{[Tb(TDC) (NO}_3\text{) (DMF)}_2\text{]}$	TDC	MOF-75	- 8-coordinated Tb(III) bounded by 4 carboxyl groups formed Tb-O-C rods. - It was formed as colorless polyhedral crystals.	[68]
15h/100°C	$\text{[Zn}_3\text{(OH)}_2\text{(1,4-BDC)}_2\text{(DEF)}_2\text{]}$	1,4-BDC	MOF-69C	- It was insoluble in common organic solvents. - colorless rod-like crystals.	
15h/100°C	$\text{[Co(1,4-BDC)(DMF)}_2\text{]}$	1,4-BDC	MOF-71	- “6-coordinated Co(II)” centres having 4 bridging carboxyl groups formed Co-O-C rods. - The MOF channels were $1.34 \times 0.43 \text{ nm}^2$. - The structure was similar to that of MIL-47.	
18h/100 °C	$\text{Zn}_4\text{O(C}_8\text{H}_5\text{NO}_4\text{)}_3$	BASF	IRMOF-3	- Solvothermal method was used. - A_s was $3062 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$. - V_p was $1.07 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$.	[67]
18h/100°C	$\text{Zn}_4\text{O(C}_{10}\text{H}_6\text{O}_4\text{)}_3$	BASF	IRMOF-6	- Solvothermal method was used. - A_s was $3263 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$. - V_p was $1.14 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$.	
18h/100°C	$\text{Zn}_4\text{O(C}_{14}\text{H}_8\text{O}_4\text{)}_3$	DMF	IRMOF-9	- Solvothermal method was used. - A_s was $2613 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$. - V_p was $0.9 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$.	
18h/100°C	$\text{Zn}_4\text{O(C}_8\text{H}_2\text{O}_4\text{S}_2\text{)}_3$	BASF	IRMOF-20	- Solvothermal method was used. - A_s was $4346 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$. - V_p was $1.53 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$.	
20h/85°C	$\text{Cu}_2\text{(C}_9\text{H}_3\text{O}_6\text{)}_{4/3}$	DMF	HKUST-1	- Solvothermal method was used. - A_s was $2175 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$. - V_p was $0.75 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$.	[67]
20h/105°C	$\text{[Zn}_2\text{(DHBDC) (DMF)}_2\text{(H}_2\text{O)}_2\text{]}$	DHBDC	MOF-74	- A_s was $245 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$. - Adsorption isotherm of Type I was observed.	[68]
20h/130°C	$\text{[Cd}_2\text{(HPDC)}_2\text{(CHP) (H}_2\text{O)}_2\text{]}$	HPDC	MOF-79	- “6- and 7-coordinated Cd(II)” centres built Cd-O-C rods. - It was rectangular pale-yellow crystals.	
24h/80°C	$\text{[Tb(BTC) (H}_2\text{O)}_{1.5}\text{(DMF)}_2\text{]}$	BTC	MOF-76	- A_s was $334 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$. - V_p $0.121 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$. - Adsorption isotherm of Type I was observed.	
24h/80°C	$\text{[Tb(PDC)}_{1.5}\text{(H}_2\text{O)}_2\text{(DMF)}_2\text{]}$	PDC	MOF-80	- It was rectangular pale-yellow crystals. - “8-coordinated Tb(III)” forming square antiprisms formed the rods. - It had channels of $1.93 \times 0.58 \text{ nm}^2$.	
24h/85°C	$\text{[Co(HPDC) (H}_2\text{O) (DMF)}_2\text{]}$	HPDC	MOF-78	- 6-coordinated Co(II) centres built Co-O-C rods. - It was rectangular pink crystals.	
40h/70°C	$\text{Zn}_4\text{O(C}_{18}\text{H}_8\text{O}_4\text{)}_3$	DMF	IRMOF-13	- Solvothermal method was used.	

				- A_s was 2100 m ² /g. - V_p was 0.73 cm ³ /g.	[67]
40h/100°C	Zn ₄ O(C ₈ H ₃ BrO ₄) ₃	BASF	IRMOF-2	- Solvothermal method was used. - A_s was 2544 m ² /g. - V_p was 0.88 cm ³ /g.	
40h/185°C	Zn ₂ (ATC)	ATC	MOF-77	- tetrahedral Zn(II) centres formed Zn-O-C rods. - It was tetragonal layer rod packing. - It was stable in air and insoluble in water.	[68]
48h/100°C	⁵⁵ Mn ₃ (BDC) ₃ (DEF) ₂ ²²	1,4-BDC	MOF-73	- A_s was 181 m ² /g. - V_p was 0.061 cm ³ /g. - Adsorption isotherm of Type I was observed.	
50h/140°C	⁵⁵ Cd ₃ (1,3-BDC) ₄ (Me ₂ NH2) ₂ ²²	1,3-BDC	MOF-72	- It was constructed from Cd-O-C rods composed of alternating 6-coordinated Cd(II) centres. - It was colorless rod-shaped crystals.	
96h/220°C	Cr ₃ F(H ₂ O) ₃ O [C ₆ H ₃ -(CO ₂) ₃] ₂ · 28H ₂ O	H ₃ BTC	MIL-100	- Combined chemistry–simulation approach was applied. - A_s was 3100 m ² /g. - V_p was 1.16 cm ³ /g.	[64]
1 week/25°C	⁵⁵ Zn ₃ (OH) ₂ (BPDC) ₂ (DEF) ₄ (H ₂ O) ₂ ²²	BPDC	MOF-69A	- It was insoluble in common organic solvents. - It was formed as colorless rod-like crystals.	[68]
1 week/25°C	⁵⁵ Zn ₃ (OH) ₂ (NDC) ₂ (DEF) ₄ (H ₂ O) ₂ ²²	NDC	MOF-69B	- It was insoluble in common organic solvents. - It was formed as colorless rod-like crystals.	
1 week/25 °C	⁵⁵ Pb(1,4-BDC) (C ₂ H ₅ OH)(C ₂ H ₅ OH) ²²	1,4-BDC	MOF-70	- 8-coordinated Pb(II) centres formed the Pb-O-C rods. - It was formed as colorless rod-like crystals. - The MOF channels were 1.31×0.54 nm ² .	
A _s : Langmuir surface area, V _p : pore volume.					

Eddaoudi et al. [71] added functional groups to the phenylene links of MOF-5 (IRMOF-1) to form a new MOF. The functional groups were -Br, -NH₂, -C₂H₄-. IRMOF-2 and IRMOF-3 were prepared by dissolving acid and salt solution in organic linker solution in a glass container. The container was tightly covered, sealed, and stored in an oven for a period, and cubic crystals were yielded. The crystals were rinsed using DMF and submerged in chloroform for 3 days. After activation, porous material was prepared at room temperature under a vacuum. Later, IRMOF-3-AM1 was formed by modifying IRMOF-3 using a post-synthetic modification reaction [71]. Measurements showed that IRMOF-3-AM1 and IRMOF-3 have comparable thermal stability. The water-based green reaction process was applied to synthesize aluminum fumarate MOF [72]. Al₂(SO₄)₃·18H₂O was added to water. 6.66 g was dissolved. Fumaric acid and NaOH solution were added to water while stirring in a glass beaker. A clear solution was formed by adding a droplet of a deprotonated fumaric acid solution while stirring on a hotplate at 90°C. White produce was precipitated within 1.0 h. A centrifugal spinning machine was used to separate the product from the reaction mixture, and then it was washed and dried at 80 °C, yielding AlFum MOF. Furukawa et al. [73] prepared solvothermally many MOFs by heating solutions having zirconium salts as illustrated in Table 4.

Table 4 Preparation of different zirconium MOFs (Zr-MOF) using solvothermal method

MOF	Salt solution	Organic linker solution	Reaction temperature/Duration	Processes after forming	Comment	Ref.
MOF-801-SC	ZrOCl ₂ ·8H ₂ O+Fumaric acid (0.23 g, 0.70 mmol)+(0.081 g, 0.70 mmol)	DMF/formic acid (35 mL/5.3 mL)	120°C/24h	1. Washing 3 times with DMF. 2. Rinsing with anhydrous DMF 3 times/day for 3 days. 3. Immersing in 0.01 L of CH ₃ OH for 3 days. 4. Drying under vacuum for 24 h at 150°C.	- A _s was 770 m ² /g. - V _p was 0.27 cm ³ /g. - d _p was 0.56 nm.	[73, 74]
MOF-801-P (microcrystalline powder form)	ZrOCl ₂ ·8H ₂ O+Fumaric acid (16 g, 50 mmol)+(5.8 g, 50 mmol)	DMF/formic acid (200 mL/70 mL)	130°C/6h	1. Filtering. 2. Washing 3 times with 0.02 L of fresh DMF, and another 3 times with 0.05 L of CH ₃ OH. 3. Rinsing with 0.05 L of DMF 3 times/day for 3 days. 4. Immersing in 0.1 L of CH ₃ OH for 3 days. 5. Drying at 150 °C under vacuum for 24 h.	- A _s was 1070 m ² /g. - V _p was 0.45 cm ³ /g. - d _p was 0.56 nm.	[73, 75]
MOF-802	ZrOCl ₂ ·8H ₂ O+H ₂ PZDC (0.40 g, 1.3 mmol)+(0.27 g, 1.5 mmol)	DMF/formic acid (50 mL/35 mL)	130°C/72h	1. Washing 3 times with 0.005 L of DMF. 2. Rinsing with 0.01 L of DMF 3 times/day for 3 days. 3. Immersing in 0.01 L of C ₃ H ₆ O for 3 days. 4. Drying under vacuum for 24 h at 120 °C.	- A _s was < 20 m ² /g. - V _p was < 0.01 cm ³ /g. - d _p was 0.56 nm.	[73, 76]
MOF-805	ZrOCl ₂ ·8H ₂ O+H ₂ NDC-(OH) ₂ (0.032 g, 0.1 mmol)+(0.012 g, 0.05 mmol)	DMF/formic acid (10 mL/2 mL)	120°C/24h	1. Washing 3 times with 0.003 L of DMF. 2. Rinsing with 0.005 L of DMF 3 times/day for 3 days. 3. Immersing in 0.005 L of CH ₃ OH for 3 days. 4. Drying under vacuum for 24 h at 120 °C.	- A _s was 1370 m ² /g. - V _p was 0.48 cm ³ /g. - d _p was 0.86 nm.	[73, 77]
MOF-806	ZrOCl ₂ ·8H ₂ O+H ₂ BPDC-(OH) ₂ (0.032 g, 0.1 mmol)+(0.014 g, 0.05 mmol)	DMF/formic acid (10 mL/ 2 mL)	120°C/48h	1. Washing 3 times with 0.003 L of DMF. 2. Rinsing with 0.005 L of DMF 3 times/day for 3 days. 3. Immersing in 0.005 L of C ₃ H ₆ O for 3 days. 4. Drying at 120°C under vacuum for 24h.	- A _s was 2390 m ² /g. - V _p was 0.85 cm ³ /g. - d _p was 1.01 nm.	[73, 78]
MOF-808	ZrOCl ₂ ·8H ₂ O+H ₃ BTC (0.16 g, 0.5 mmol)+(0.11 g, 0.5 mmol)	DMF/formic acid (20 mL/20 mL)	100°C/7 days	1. Washing 3 times with 0.01 L of DMF. 2. Rinsing with 0.01 L of DMF 3 times/day for 3 days. 3. Immersing in 10 mL of C ₃ H ₆ O for 3 days. 4. Drying under vacuum for 24 h at 150 °C.	- A _s was 2390 m ² /g. - V _p was 0.84 cm ³ /g. - d _p was 1.84 nm.	[73, 79]
MOF-841	ZrOCl ₂ ·8H ₂ O+H ₄ MTB (0.32 g, 1.0 mmol)+(0.12 g, 0.25 mmol)	DMF/formic acid (40 mL/25 mL)	130°C/48h	1. Washing 3 times with 0.005 L of DMF. 2. Rinsing with 0.01 L of DMF 3 times/day for 3 days. 3. Immersing in 0.01 L of C ₃ H ₆ O for 3 days. 4. Drying under vacuum for 24 h at 120 °C.	- A _s was 1540 m ² /g. - V _p was 0.53 cm ³ /g. - d _p was 0.92 nm.	[73, 80]
MOF-812	ZrOCl ₂ ·8H ₂ O+H ₄ MTB	DMF/formic acid	130°C/24h	MOF-812 appears in low amount while preparing MOF-841.	- It was not investigated for	[73, 81]

	(0.064 g, 0.20 mmol)+ (0.048 g, 0.10 mmol)	(10 mL/6 mL)			water sorption since it was formed along with MOF-841.	
“A _s : Langmuir surface area, V _p : pore volume, d _p : pore diameter”.						

Deng et al. [82] presented a general method to form crystalline MOFs. The method was based on combining groups of 2-8 links of various functional groups while the ~~ratio of the link~~link ratio was organized. First, crystals of multivariate MOFs were formed by mixing $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and DMF with the acid of the chosen organic links at the conditions of MOF-5 synthesis [37,59]. Several MOFs can be synthesized using different linkers, as shown in Fig. 4. John et al. [25] applied a simple, green, and ultrafast route to prepare Zn-BDC MOF and Cu-BDC MOF at room temperature. Although the synthetic procedure was accomplished within 6 min, the BET surface area of Zn-BDC MOF and Cu-BDC MOF was very low at 4.3197 and 0.3290 m^2/g , respectively. Nasruddin et al. [83] applied the solvothermal reaction method to prepare mesoporous of Lanthanum (III)-MOF (La-NDC MOF). N_2 gas-based adsorption-desorption isotherm data was used to measure the nanostructure of the formed MOF. The SSA of La-NDC MOF was 270.38 m^2/g , and the specific pore volume was 0.16 cm^3/g . The results make this type of MOF is not suitable for cooling and desalination applications. Abedini et al. [84] synthesized Co-MOF-74 and Cu-MOF-74 using the same approaches presented in Ref. [85, 86]. Cu-MOF-74 had SSA of 1227 m^2/g and specific pore volumes of 0.69 cm^3/g . Co-MOF-74 had SSA of 1152 m^2/g and pore volume of 0.62 cm^3/g . These low values make these MOFs are not suitable for sorption-based applications. Furukawa et al. [87] proposed ultrahigh porosity MOFs using the solvothermal technique. $\text{Zn}_4\text{O}(\text{CO}_2)_6$ unit was connected with BTB, BTE, BBC, NDC, or BPDC to form MOF-177, MOF-180, MOF-205, or MOF-210, respectively. MOF-210 had the highest SSA of 6240 m^2/g and a specific pore volume of 3.6 m^3/g . Reinsch et al. [88] from Christian-Albrechts-University (CAU) prepared six MOFs, named CAU-10-X, where X could be H, CH_3 , OCH_3 , NO_2 , NH_2 , or OH. CAU-10-H had the highest SSA of 635 m^2/g , which was used later in adsorption chiller [89]. Zhou et al. [90] formed UiO-66 crystals via a two-step modulated synthesis at 120 °C. According to the amounts of acetic acid modulator added, UiO-66-0, UiO-66-1, UiO-66-2, and UiO-66-4 were prepared. UiO-66-2 exhibited the highest specific pore volume of 0.65 m^3/g and SSA of 1462 m^2/g and. Nanoporous UiO-66 was also prepared using the solvothermal method [21, 73]. Han and Chakraborty studied the adsorption characteristics UiO-66 (Zr)+water. It was found that the hydroxyl (-OH) and amino (-NH₂) functional group enhances water uptake from 0.05 to 0.32 kg/kg. Compared to parent UiO-66, OH-UiO-66 could produce 10.6 m^3 more daily desalinated water per ton of adsorbent.

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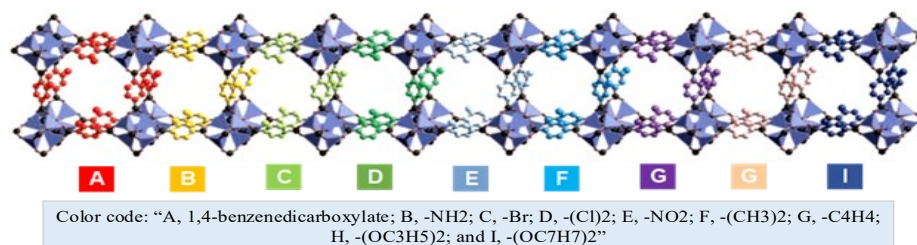


Figure 4 General structure of various MTV-MOF-5 (Adapted from [82])

2.2 Unconventional methods

The unconventional preparation of MOFs is ordinarily a mechano-chemical technique (sometimes called mechanosynthesis) where organic linker and metal salt are grinded-ground in a pestle and mortar [91]. Mechanochemistry has received special interest from chemists/engineers to accelerate reactions between solids quantitatively, without either using a solvent or only little amounts [92]. Generally, three various mechanochemical ways applied for MOFs synthesis: neat grinding (NG), in which solvent is not used, LAG "liquid-assisted grinding", which is faster and more versatile, and ILAG "ion-and-liquid assisted grinding" that utilizes a catalytic liquid to promote the MOF preparation [93]. Recently, extrusion and compression way can be followed for the pilot-scale formation of MOFs [94].

HKUST-1 ($\text{Cu}_3(\text{BTC})_2$) was prepared via NG in a shaker mill [95, 96] and via the microwave synthesis method [97]. Its SSA was measured as $1364 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ when 15 min grinding time was applied [79]. The same technique was applied to form ZIF-8 (zeolitic imidazolate framework), and the SSA was $1480 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$, and pore volume was $1.05 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$ [98]. Paseta et al. [99] also prepared ZIF-8 using simple high-pressure synthesis. This methodology is a fast route that offers new insights into industrial implementation. $\text{Al}(\text{fumarate})(\text{OH})$ was synthesized via mechanochemical method using a twin-screw extruder at 150°C . The MOF's SSA was $1010 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ [100]. The same technique was also applied to prepare ZIF-8, HKUST-1, and MAF-4. This method was effective for covalent chemical synthesis under solvent-free. Singh et al. [101] formed MIL-78 via mechanical milling of single and mixed rare earth carbonates with TMA. Volkringer et al. [102] made MIL-100 (Al), having a BET specific surface area of $2152 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$. Lenzen et al. [103] used H_2TDC as the linker to form a highly stable Al-MOF (called CAU-23). CAU-23 was formed with a high amount under green synthesis conditions. Its BET specific surface area was $1250 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$, and was found to be suitable for water adsorption with an-uptake of 0.37 g/g . Hu et al. [104] prepared a highly hydrophobic N-coordinated

UiO-66(Zr) via the fast mechano-chemical method. Its surface area was $1217 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ and pore volume was $0.40 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$ that is similar to that prepared via a solvothermal approach [105].

Schlesinger et al. [106] prepared $\text{Cu}_3(\text{btc})_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})_3$ MOF using six various synthetic ways: solvothermal, atmospheric pressure and reflux, microwave-assisted, ultra-sonic, and mechanochemical conditions. The fastest way to produce $\text{Cu}_3(\text{btc})_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})_3$ was the microwave-assisted solvothermal synthesis. The SSA was $1499 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ and a specific pore volume was $0.79 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$.

Khan and Jhung [107] used the ultrasonic irradiation method to form HKUST-1 at a reaction time of 1 min. The SSA was $1156 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ and the specific pore volume was $0.4 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$. Abbasi et al. [108] formed CuBTC MOF ($\text{Cu}_3(\text{BTC})_2$) using either the mechanosynthesis (denoted M-CuBTC) or ultrasonic method (denoted U-CuBTC). The ultrasonic technique showed a decrease in the surface area. Ou et al. [109] synthesized PSP-MIL-53 by placing SP acrylate in the voids of MIL-53, succeeded by in situ polymerization. PSP-MOF was used for water desalination and yielded 139.51 kg/day at a low energy consumption of 0.11 Wh/L . This adsorbent showed good stability and cycling performance. Teo et al. [110] prepared Aluminium Fumarate (Al-Fum) MOF using a spinning machine. Fumaric acid and aluminum chloride hexahydrate were mixed and put into a beaker having DMF and was stirred for 96 h at 130°C . Then, a centrifugal spinning machine was used to separate the mixture to get the Al-Fum MOF after activation at 150°C . The SSA was $792.26 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ and the specific pore volume was $0.926 \text{ m}^3/\text{g}$. Masoomi et al. [111] synthesized Cd(II) based MOF (TMU-7) by incorporation of V-shaped flexible dicarboxylate ligand and the N-donor pillar ligand using the sonochemical method. Its Bet surface area was low at $393 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$, which means it is not suitable for sorption applications.

2.3 Challenges and opportunities of MOFs syntheses

Although thousands of MOFs have been prepared using different techniques, MOFs face strong challenges ~~to be able to~~ compete with conventional adsorbents similar to silica gel, activated carbons, and polymers. Most of the proposed synthesis ~~ways methods~~ have a low production rate, need critical experimental conditions, and are followed by energy-intensive post-treatments, which sometimes ~~have negative impacts on~~ negatively impact the environment. Cost-efficiency is the main bottleneck, controlled by the high capital investment cost of the commercial-scale yield units. This issue could be solved by attempting to preparing MOFs using cheap synthons. Besides, the low productivity and low thermal stability of the most proposed MOFs are ~~a~~ barriers facing their implementation in commercial applications.

To raise the probability of ~~developing having a~~ stable MOF, metals ~~having of~~ higher valence such as iron (Fe), aluminum (Al), zirconium (Zr), and vanadium (V) are more recommended than metals like Zn and Cu whose valence numbers are low [112]. Using such metals can enhance the life cycle

of MOFs sufficiently enough to compete with other conventional adsorbents; this directly fosters the cost efficiency of the commercialized MOF-based systems by prolonging their lifespan enough to pay back their initial investment.

Synthesize time is a critical challenge that directly impacts cost efficiency. Time-consuming is also a challenge. For instance, the synthesis of MOFs via hydrothermal or solvothermal methods needs many days to crystallize the material. This problem could be solved using a Nonconventional methods ~~or~~ and micro-wave irradiation are the most promising avenues to address such a challenge. They ~~that~~ ~~has~~ have several advantages, such as rapid crystallization, narrow distributions of particulate diameter, controllable morphology, phase selectivity, and effective process parameter assessment. This approach has seldom been used for preparing inorganic-organic hybrid MOFs [113]. Regarding the surface area, post-synthetic modification covalently or coordinatively on MOFs is a favorable approach to introduce highly active sites [114].

Besides the high SSA and high pore volume, the more suitable MOFs for water sorption and heat transformation applications should also have high uptake, long thermochemical stability, relatively high thermal diffusivity, and high adsorption kinetics. All these parameters should be considered in the selection of suitable MOFs for such applications. Therefore, the most important parameters are discussed in the following sections.

There are sSeveral approaches were recently investigated to apply MOFs into adsorbent bed heat exchangers, such as spray coating by Kummer et al. [1], in-situ synthesis by Tan et al. [2], metal foam coating by Pinheiro et al. [3], and packing into finned heat exchanger by Saleh et al. [4]. Given the exceptional surface area of MOFs, coating and in-situ synthesis showed the best balance between the thermal and adsorption performance compared to packed beds due to minimal adsorbent/heat exchanger contact thermal resistance. Such approaches are the most promising to overcome the low thermal diffusivity of MOFs.

1. Kummer, H., et al., *A Functional Full-Scale Heat Exchanger Coated with Aluminum Fumarate Metal–Organic Framework for Adsorption Heat Transformation*. Industrial & Engineering Chemistry Research, 2017. **56**(29): p. 8393-8398.
2. Tan, B., et al., *In Situ Synthesis and Performance of Aluminum Fumarate Metal–Organic Framework Monolithic Adsorbent for Water Adsorption*. Industrial & Engineering Chemistry Research, 2019. **58**(34): p. 15712-15720.
3. Pinheiro, J.M., et al., *Copper foam coated with CPO-27(Ni) metal–organic framework for adsorption heat pump: Simulation study using OpenFOAM*. Applied Thermal Engineering, 2020. **178**: p. 115498.

3. Adsorption characteristics of the MOFs

MOF is a species of tunable adsorbents of high porosity and extra-ordinary surface area. For example, NU-110 MOF has SSA of 7140 m²/g, which is 2.5 that of conventional adsorbents of extra-ordinary surface area (e.g., Maxsorb III). The extra-ordinary properties of MOFs make such materials encouraging candidates for various applications like desalination, separation process, and gas storage such as (e.g., hydrogen, carbon dioxide, and methane). The selection of a MOF for a certain application fundamentally depends on its pores surface area, which is directly measured by quantifying the adsorption capacity. Figure 5 shows the SSA and the corresponding pore volumes for a range of MOFs compared to conventional adsorbents. **It was reported that [NU-110 has the largest pore size and surface area, followed by MOF-210 and NU-100.](#)**

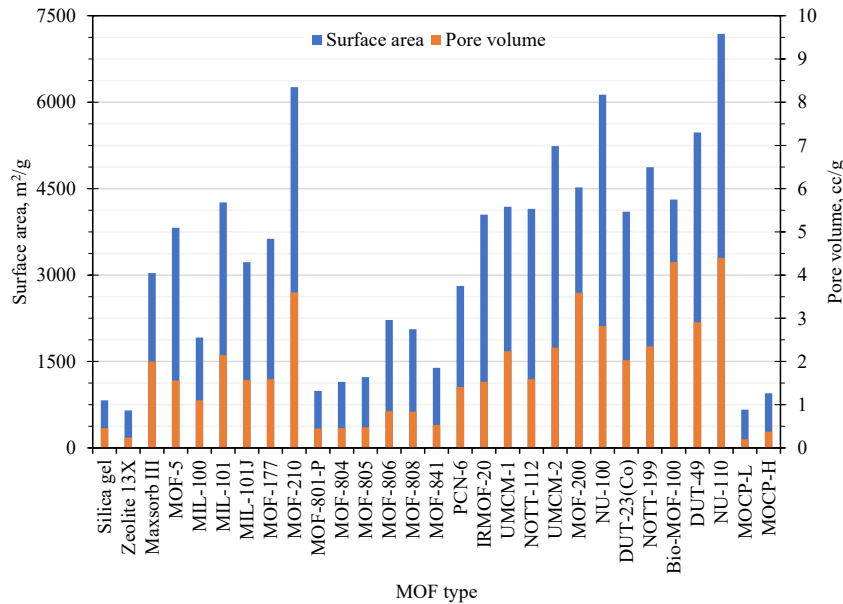


Figure 5. Specific surface area (SSA) and specific pore volume of several MOF types.

3.1 Adsorption isotherms of MOFs

Several MOF topologies have been developed, each of which shows distinctive adsorption characteristics. The developed MOF topologies may be grouped on the bases of metal ions used. The most reported metals from the material level to the device and system level are aluminum (Al), zirconium (Zr), iron (Fe), chromium (Cr), copper (Cu), magnesium (Mg), and nickel (Ni). Figure 6 presents an overview of the reported range of the maximum equilibrium uptake for seven MOF

groups. Cr-MOF shows the widest range of the maximum equilibrium uptake amongst the reported MOF groups.

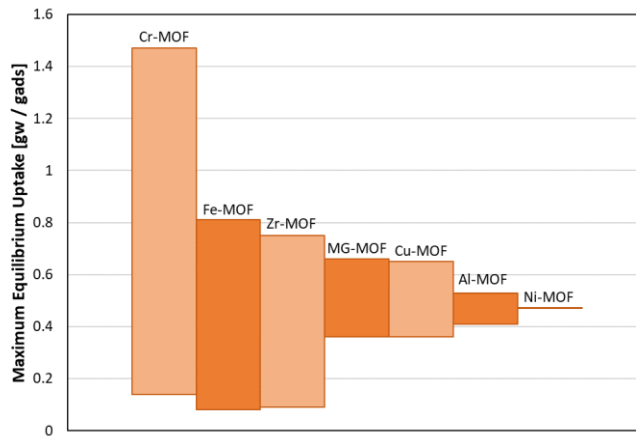


Figure 6 The range of the reported maximum equilibrium water uptake of various MOF groups [115-138].

The adsorption isotherm is a crucial characterization parameter at the material level, which governs the relationship between the adsorbate's relative pressure and its adsorption capacity. The adsorption capacity is the amount of adsorbed adsorbate taken up by the unit mass of the adsorbent. Moreover, the relative pressure in the closed-loop adsorption applications corresponds to the ratio between the saturation pressures of the adsorbate at the temperature of the adsorbate container to that at the temperature of the adsorbent. Traditionally, there are six types of adsorption isotherms, and each type and the maximum equilibrium uptake govern the thermodynamic cyclic performance of an adsorbent, Figure 7. The desired cyclic performance differs according to the application. For example, the type-I is the most preferable in adsorption cooling applications. The adsorption/desorption processes are most desirable at low relative pressure to meet the cooling temperature demand at the evaporator (adsorbate container).

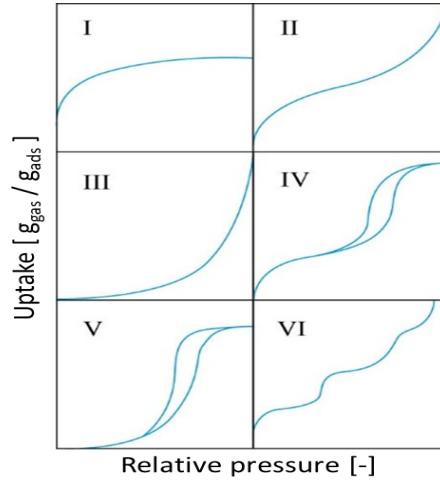


Figure 7 Types of adsorption isotherms [139]

Rezk et al. [125] [114] reported the cyclic uptake of two types of MOFs, named MIL-100 and Cu-BTC, of two different types of isotherms. For the cooling application of 5°C desired temperature in the evaporator (adsorbate container), the cyclic uptake of Cu-BTC significantly outperforms ~~that of~~ MIL-100; whereas, the difference of the cyclic uptake is less significant in case of the evaporator temperature increased 10°C. Owing to the stability concerns of Cu-BTC and the flexibility of the evaporation temperature in the water desalination application, MIL-100 might be more suitable as illustrated in Figure 8. Generally, most of the closed-loop water adsorption cycles concern the adsorption isotherm profile in the narrow range of partial pressure of 0.05-0.25 Pa/Pa; this is assuming the condensation and adsorption temperature are about 34°C, evaporation temperature range of 5-12°C, and desorption temperature range of 65-100°C. The evaporation temperature in the water desalination is less concerned compared to adsorption cooling and heat transformation applications. Therefore, the operating range for water desalination applications could be wider.

Figure 9 presents the water adsorption isotherms onto a selected range of MOFs, and the operating range of ~~the~~ closed-loop adsorption cycle; the corresponding maximum water uptakes are furnished in Table 5. The selected MOFs/water pairs were utilized in closed-loop applications such as adsorption cooling and water desalination. It is apparent from this figure that most of the reported MOFs showed S-shape (type-V) isotherm, whereas MIL-53 (Fe), Cu-BTC, CPO-27 (Ni), and Mg MOF-74 showed type-I isotherm. MIL-101 (Cr) exhibits the highest water adsorption capacity; the isotherm profile limits its application. CPO-27 Ni is the most recommended MOF because of its isotherm profile, which shows rapid uptake at low vapor pressure, good maximum equilibrium

uptake, and a great deal of thermal stability. CU-BTC showed slightly higher water adsorption capacity, but its inferior uptake at low vapor pressure and stability drastically limit its application.

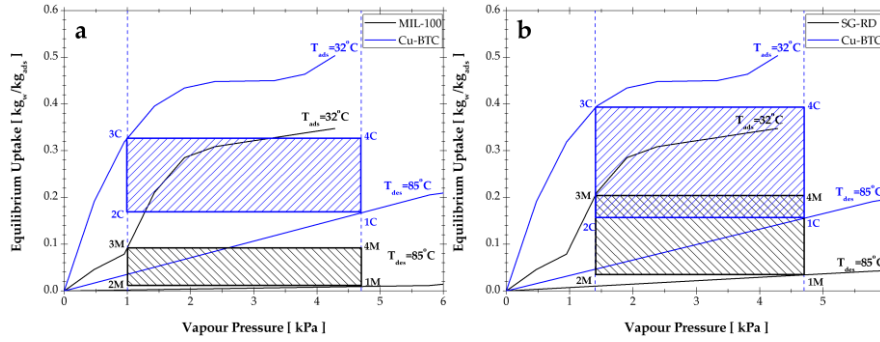


Figure 8. Comparison between two MOFs at different cyclic operating conditions [125].

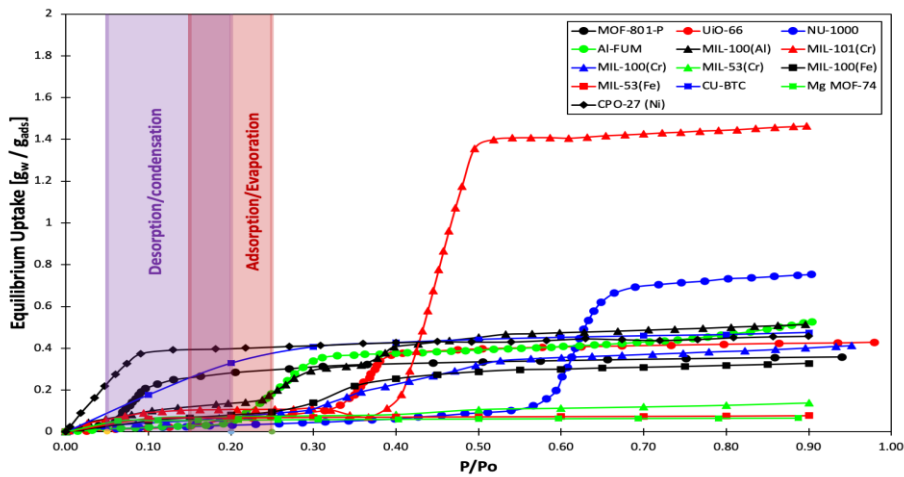


Figure 9 Adsorption isotherms of different MOF topologies

Table 5 Maximum water vapour uptake of the reported MOFs

Group	MOF	Maximum water uptake	References
Zr-MOF	MOF-801	0.4	[67, 127]
	UiO-66	0.45	[67, 127, 129] [129, 138]
	NU-1000	0.75	[67]
Al-MOF	Al-Fum	0.53	[110, 115, 118, 121]
	MIL-100(Al)	0.5	[117]

Cr-MOF	MIL-101(Cr)	1.47	[110, 115, 133, 140] [69, 116, 122, 126, 138]
	MIL-53 (Cr)	0.14	[133]
	MIL-100(Cr)	0.4	[124]
Fe-MOF	MIL-100 (Fe)	0.81	[125, 127]
	MIL-53 (Fe)	0.08	[133]
Cu-MOF	CU-BTC	0.65	[115, 125-128]
Mg-MOF	Mg-MOF-74	0.66	[128, 130]
Ni-MOF	CPO-27 Ni MOF	0.47	[121, 124, 133]

3.2 Isotherm adjustment

Generally, S-shape isotherms indicate the adsorption onto mesoporous surfaces via multilayer adsorption followed by capillary condensation. The capillary condensation phenomenon occurs below the saturation vapor pressure and restrains pores filling during the adsorption process. MOFs that show type-I isotherms might have a relatively high surface area, but the micropores accessibility is limited, and monolayer adsorption takes place. Boreskov Institute of Catalysis invented the concept of chemically embedding inorganic salt inside a hot porous structure. This concept might improve the adsorption capacity and the adsorbent isotherm of the developed composite. Building on this concept, Eman et al. [141], recently impregnated MIL-101 (Cr) with calcium chloride.

Interestingly, the investigation showed a positive correlation between the adsorption characteristics of MIL-101 (Cr) impregnated with calcium chloride at low working relative pressure. However, the impregnation adversely impacted the BET surface area. Other phenomena need to be considered in the bulk applications at the component level, such as agglomeration and salt leakage.

4. Sorption systems of MOFs/water adsorption pairs

Adsorption cooling systems (ACS) are becoming more interested in engineering and energy research fields due to the continuous increase of space cooling and heating demands. Employment of low-grade heat sources (<150°C) from renewable energy sources like solar energy or waste heat sources from industry could reduce the consumption of fossil fuel and thus reducing the emissions of CO₂. Adsorption technologies express the utilizing of low-grade heat for generating cooling, power, and freshwater.

ACS with silica gel as adsorbent material has some drawbacks such as size, performance, and cost limitations. ~~In~~ On the contrary, MOF materials are novel porous materials with extra-ordinary adsorption capacity because of their high SSA, volume, and pore size. The main limitations of employing MOF in ACS and desalination applications are its limited hydrothermal stability and high

cost. Therefore, researchers try to develop new MOF adsorption material with high hydrothermal stability and low cost. This part of the review expresses the employment of MOF materials in adsorption cooling systems and desalination.

Ehrenmann et al. [120] presented the first hydrothermal testing of adsorbent materials for utilization in thermally powered ACS. The study investigated the stability of different available adsorbent materials. A cycling test rig was performed to recognize life-cycle stress. Rezk et al. [125] expressed the adsorption features of HKUST-1 and MIL-100 MOFs experimentally. It was indicated that HKUST-1 has 93.2% higher adsorption uptake than silica gel, which could cause a rise in specific cooling power (SCP) and decreasing ACS size. Rezk et al. [125] studied adsorption properties experimentally for ethanol onto six MOF materials using DVS analyzer device. Results indicated that MIL-101Cr adsorption capacity was the highest among the tested MOFs by 1.2 kg/kg_{ads}. MIL-101Cr showed 20 successive stable cycles at 25 °C. Results showed that employing of MIL-101Cr/Ethanol pair achieved T_{evap} of -15°C with SCP of 63 W/kg. Saha et al. [142] presented experimental ethanol adsorption characteristics on MIL-101Cr for cooling applications, which were studied gravimetrically utilizing a magnetic suspension. Adsorption uptake was 1.1 kg/kg_{ethanol} at 30°C. Elsayed et al. [122] investigated CPO-27(Ni) and AlFum “aluminum fumarate”, which had high hydrothermal stability and water uptake of 0.47 kg/kg_{ads} and 0.53 kg/kg_{ads}, respectively. The study aimed to measure the adsorption characteristics and cyclic stability of these two MOF materials. It was indicated that the CPO-27(Ni) had better performance than the AlFum at low T_{evap} (5°C) and high T_{des} (≥ 90 °C), while the AlFum had higher suitability at T_{evap} =20°C and T_{des} =70°C.

Shi et al. [121] investigated the available CPO-27(Ni) MOF commercial feasibility for automotive ACS through theoretical modeling and experimental facility. A theoretical study of 2.4 kW two beds ACS for cars’ air conditioning was investigated using the Simulink model. ~~Adsorption~~ The adsorption air conditioning system reached 440 W/ kg SCP and 0.456 COP at 130°C driving temperature, which could be provided by the exhaust gas. Automotive ACS with CPO-27(Ni) had better performance than SAPO-34 (with 42% greater in SCP), leading to a further compact system. Al-Mousawi et al. [143] studied utilizing AQSOAZ02(SAPO-34) and MIL101Cr in ACS for producing power and cooling at several operating conditions, as illustrated in Fig. 10. Results illustrated that there was potential for producing a power effect without decreasing the cooling effect. Maximum SCP was 681 W/ kg_{SAPO-34} and 1367 W/kg_{MIL101Cr}, while specific power generation (SP) was 73 W/kg_{SAPO-34} and 95 W/kg_{MIL101Cr}.

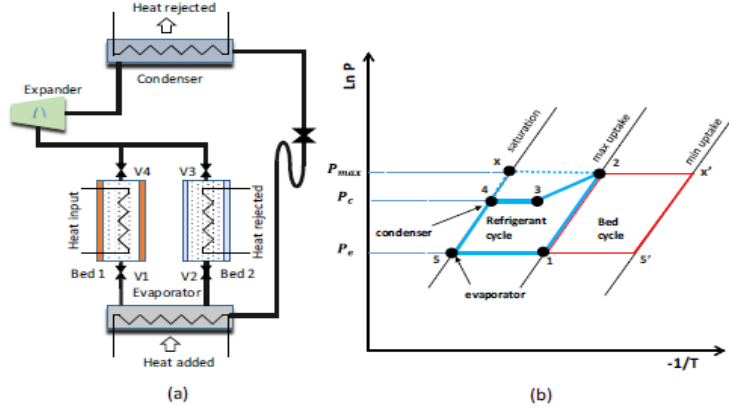


Figure 10. ACS for producing power and cooling (a) Schematic diagram. (b) Isosteric diagram [143].

Youssef et al. [144] illustrated the utilizing CPO-27(Ni) adsorbent for cooling and desalination applications experimentally, as illustrated in Fig. 11. Results illustrated that by rising evaporator temperature and decreasing condenser temperature, SCP was increased. The investigated system could produce 65 Rton/ton.ads at ($T_{evap}=20$ °C). SDWP was realized 22.8 m³/ton.day at $T_{evap}=40$ °C, $T_{con}=5$ °C and $T_{des} = 95$ °C. Youssef et al. [145] investigated the ALFum theoretically for cooling/desalination applications. Figure 12 illustrates a schematic diagram of two beds ADS that had been used in this study. Results expressed that at 85°C regeneration temperature and 30°C T_{evap} , ALFum could yield 11.3 m³/ton.day and 90.9 Rton/ ton SCP, while AQSOA-Z02 and silica-gel produced 6.4 and 8.4 m³/ton.day and SCP of 50.5 and 62.4 Rton/ton respectively. Moreover, at low T_{des} of 65°C and T_{evap} of 10°C, ALFum yielded 3.4 m³/ton.day and 20 Rton/ton, which were higher than AQSOA-Z02 and silica-gel.

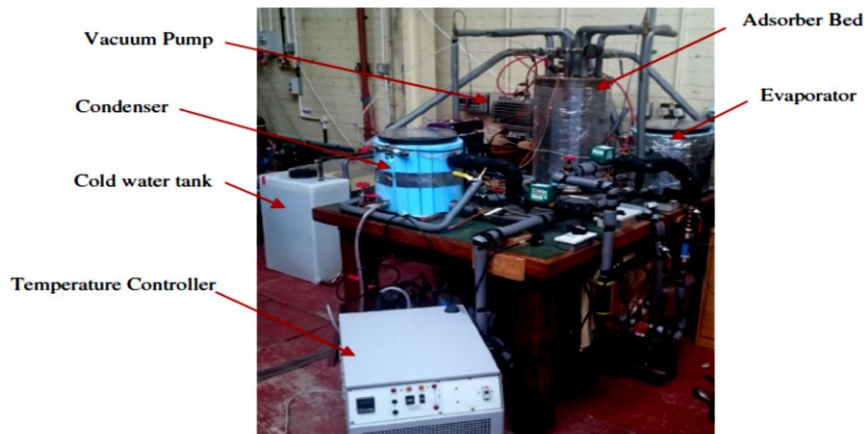


Figure 11. Pictorial view for ACS test rig [144]

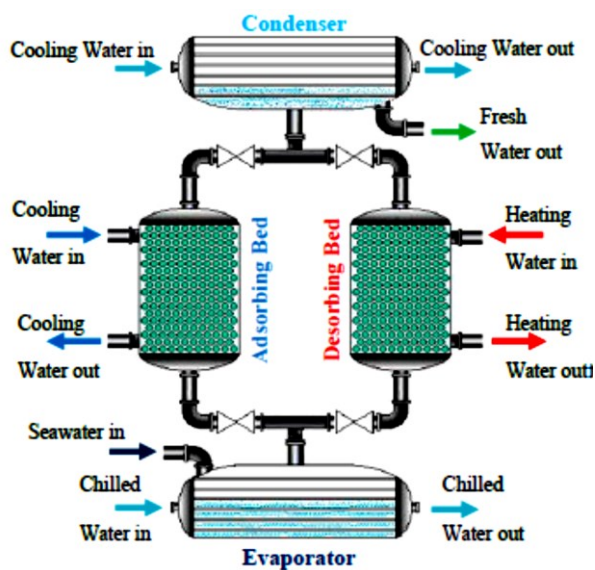


Figure 12. Schematic diagram of two-bed ADS [145]

Tatlie [146] studied ACS performance utilizing zeolite and MOF coated on a heat exchanger. The study investigated a theoretical model to estimate the best adsorbent coating thicknesses. Zeolite LiX coatings could produce higher power than zeolite NaX coatings by about 10–20%. Kummer -et al. [147] presented an innovative binder-based MOF coating for ACS applications. The adsorption properties of HKUST-1/methanol and Mil-101(Cr)/methanol pairs were studied. The adsorption

capacities were up to 1.22 kg/kg. Qadir et al. [148] enhanced the ACS performance utilizing an innovated “multi-walled carbon nanotube” MWCNT/MIL-100(Fe) composite adsorbent. It was obtained that innovated material could yield 455 W/kg SCP. Teo et al. [110] presented surface characteristics of alkali (Li⁺, Na⁺, K⁺) doped MIL-101(Cr) MOF. The adsorption properties were experimentally performed. The result obtained that proposed surface modification increased water adsorption capacity at low relative pressure. Elsayed et al. [149] investigated enhancing thermal conductivity and vapor adsorption uptake of MIL-101(Cr) utilizing hydrophilic graphene oxide (GRO). Results illustrated that adding (2%) GrO to MIL-101(Cr) increased the vapor adsorption capacity. Raising thermal conductivity was realized by adding 20-30% of GrO. Adding further 2% of GrO decreased the vapor adsorption uptake but realizing a significant increase in the thermal conductivity by around 2.5 times.

Al-Mousawi et al. [150] -used different multi-bed ACS to produce cooling and electricity. ~~Seven~~ ~~Seven-beds~~ arrangements and seven-time ratios (R) were studied employing AQSOA-Z02 and ALFum and Silica-gel. It was indicated that utilizing three-bed arrangements with R=0.5 created the best performance (SCP and SP) for ACS with utilizing silica-gel, ALFum (for $T_{des} > 120$ °C), and AQSOA-Z02 (for $T_{des} = 160$ °C). Also, Using two-bed arrangements with R=1 generated the maximum COP for all adsorption materials. Dakkama et al. [151] developed MOF utilizing a nickel-based coordination polymer with open metal sites of organic frameworks for producing ice and freshwater. Figure 13 presents a schematic of the investigated system. Results showed that the optimal salinity was 35,000 ppm for highest ice production of 8.3 ton/day/ton_{Nads}, COP was 0.9, and freshwater production was 1.8 ton/day/ton_{Nads}.

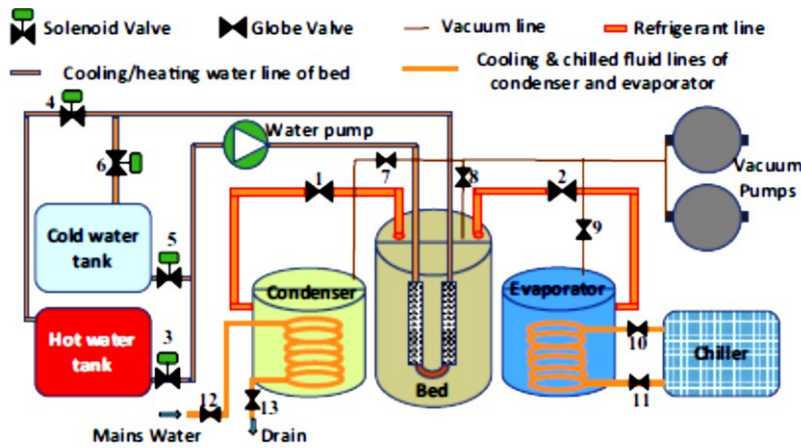


Figure 13. The schematic diagram for ice making and water desalination [151]

Elsayed et al. [116] evaluated the performance of two beds ADS by Simulink software to evaluate the utilizing of MOFs (CPO-27(Ni), MIL-101(Cr), and AlFum for AD “adsorption desalination”. The result of CPO-27(Ni) showed that CPO-27(Ni) yielded about 4.3 m³/ton/day under $T_{evap} = 5^{\circ}\text{C}$, while AlFum yielded about 6 m³/ton.day under $T_{evap} = 20^{\circ}\text{C}$. Simultaneously, MIL-101(Cr) achieved the highest SDWP of 11 m³/ton.day. Kayal et al. [60] reported a green technique for manufacturing AlFum. Vapor uptake on AlFum showed S-shape isotherm type with a significant increase in vapor uptake in a range of (P/Ps = 0.2–0.3), ~~which expressing efficient utilizing~~ expressing efficient utilization in cooling applications. The investigated green technique for manufacturing AlFum displayed greater SCP by comparing to conventional AlFum for ACS. This technique provided a proposal for the manufacturing scale of AlFum. Teo et al. [26] developed and characterized formic acid modulated (FAM) of AlFum. An intensification in micropores distribution was detected for adding 10 ml formic acid to the AlFum. It was indicated that FAM AlFum MOFs enhanced the vapor uptake rates by 12.5% compared to the conventional AlFum for efficient utilizing in cooling applications. Qadir et al. [152] presented a new algorithm for predicting two-bed ACS performance with adjusting cycle time utilizing MIL-100(Fe). Figure 14 illustrates a schematic design of solar ACS with a two-bed configuration. The study also presented the influence of different configurations of a solar collector on the performance of ACS. Solovyeva et al. [136] expressed that at T_{ads} of 30°C, the MOF-801 could provide a cooling effect at $T_{evap} = 5^{\circ}\text{C}$ with low regenerating temperature heat (80–85°C). The SCP reached 2 kW/kg.

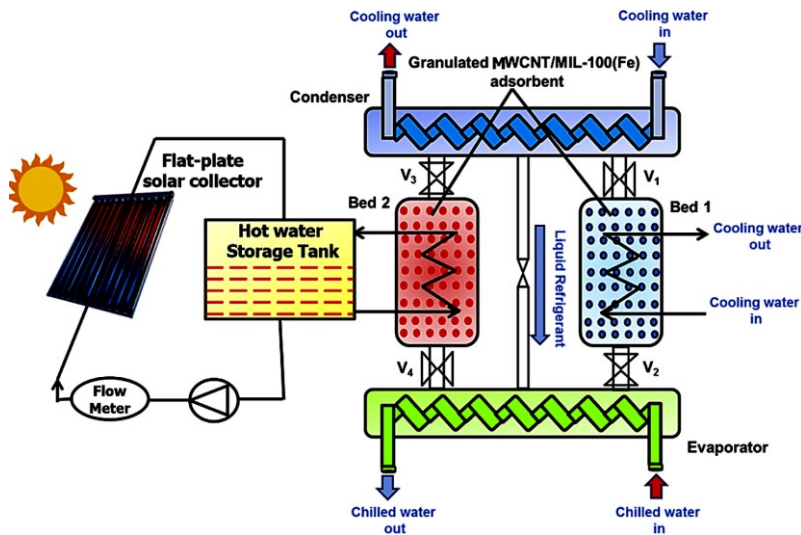


Figure 14. A schematic of the two-bed solar ACS [152].

5. Future research direction of MOFs

There are several avenues to promote the efficient utilization of MOFs in water adsorption applications to enhance the energy conversion performance at the component and system levels. A more comprehensive range of stable MOFs of S-shaped isotherms, otherwise called step-like isotherms, of high uptake at the operating partial pressure of 0.05-0.25 are needed to execute the adsorption/desorption process isothermally with the lowest possible second law deficiency [5]. They in turn, enhance the energy conversion efficiency at the system level. Although the adsorption performance of MOFs is exceptional, their thermal performance is still problematic. Therefore, it is highly advisable to use MOF as a reagent in efficient adsorption composites. Recently several graphene-based composites have been developed that showed advanced adsorbent and thermal characteristics [6]. Enhancing MOFs' thermal characteristics enhances energy conversion efficiency at the component and system level because of the intermittent operation nature of adsorption systems that require thermally agile materials to provide a fast enough thermal response. More research is required at the component level to study different practical and stable coating and in-situ synthesis of MOFs; this can significantly enhance the adsorbent/heat exchanger contact thermal resistance.

4. Saleh, M.M., et al., *Wire fin heat exchanger using aluminium fumarate for adsorption heat pumps*. Applied Thermal Engineering, 2020. **164**: p. 114426.
5. Jiang, Y., et al., *Thermodynamic limits of adsorption heat pumps: A facile method of comparing adsorption pairs*. Applied Thermal Engineering, 2019. **160**: p. 113906.
6. Rocky, K.A., et al., *Recent advances of composite adsorbents for heat transformation applications*. Thermal Science and Engineering Progress, 2021. **23**: p. 100900.

5.6. Summary

An in-depth survey about MOFs has been conducted showing synthesizing, adsorption characteristics, and sorption applications. Different ways of synthesizing have been presented, including conventional and unconventional ways such as;

- Direct coupling
- Microwave-assisted
- Microfluidic
- Spray-drying
- Microemulsion
- Electrospinning

The adsorption capacities and isotherms of different MOFs have also been presented, showing a discrepancy in the equilibrium uptake values between the different MOFs. Although MIL-101(Cr) shows the highest recorded maximum equilibrium uptake of 1.4 kg/kg, its adsorption isotherm was challenging in the cyclic operation, particularly in the adsorption cooling cycles. Building on the challenges of the adsorption characteristics of MOFs, it is essential to discuss their cyclic adsorption characteristics in the context of adsorption cooling and adsorption water desalination. Apart from the maximum equilibrium uptake, the desired cyclic operating temperature is crucial in selecting the MOF adsorbent. That led to recommending CPO-27 Ni of about 0.47 kg/kg maximum equilibrium uptake for cooling due to its excellent adsorption characteristics at low vapor pressure, achieving the desired evaporative temperature. Another promising approach of hybridizing MIL-101(Cr) with inorganic salts to modify its adsorption characteristics has been discussed. This approach might lead to better utilization of such a MOF for cooling application.

The second part introduces an overview of the adsorption capacity and isotherms of a chosen range of MOFs in water capture applications. It provides an insight into the relationship between the adsorption isotherms and their cyclic characteristics, including the potential of adjusting the adsorption isotherms to enhance their cyclic characteristics at a given range of operating temperatures. The collected data about the studied adsorption systems that are utilizing MOFs are summarized in Table 6. ~~Figure 15 also illustrates a comparison between the previous studies which investigated ACS employing MOF material as adsorbent materials.~~ Applications of MOFs in sorption cooling and/or desalination have also been included in this review showing a promising future. A SDWP value of 11.4 m³/ton/day has been detected with a relatively low driving temperature of 85 °C. 2 kW/kg SCP has also been achieved by employing MOF-801/water.

It is clear that many MOFs have been made, but the adsorption characteristics of most of them have not been tested yet. Subsequently, a small number of the presented MOFs have been employed in sorption applications. Accordingly, the door is still open for further efforts in this area to test more of these materials and to employ them in sorption applications.

Table 6 A comparison between previous studies that investigated ACS with MOF materials.

MOF materials	No. of bed	T _{cw} (°C)	T _{hw} (°C)	SDWP (m ³ /ton/day)	SCP (W/kg)	COP (-)	Refs.
MIL-101Cr/Ethanol	2	-	-	—	63	0.18	[135]
Aluminium Fumarate/water	—	30	85	—	—	0.4	[122]
CPO-27Ni MOF/water	—	30	85	—	—	0.67	[122]
CPO-27(Ni)/water	2	30	130	—	440	0.46	[121]
MIL101Cr/water	2	30	100	—	250	0.36	[143]

CPO-27Ni MOF/water	1	20	110	6.9	200	–	[144]
Aluminium Fumarate	2	30	85	11.3	320	0.48	[145]
MWCNT/MIL-100(Fe)	2	30	100	–	455	0.6	[148]
Aluminium Fumarate/water	2	–	100	–	320	0.54	[150]
CPO-27Ni MOF/water	1	–	95	1.8	–	0.9	[141]
CPO-27Ni MOF/water	2	25	150	4.6	134	–	[116]
Aluminium Fumarate	2	25	90	6.3	182	–	
MIL101Cr/water	2	25	150	11	315	–	
MIL- 100(Fe)	2	–	85	–	230	0.6	[142]
MOF-801/water	–2	29.51 4.8	8580	–	200054 0	0.647 7	[136]

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