

1 Engineering of Hollow Periodic Mesoporous 2 Organosilica Nanorods for Augmented Hydrogen 3 Clathrate Formation

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21

22 ABSTRACT

23 Hydrogen (H₂) storage, in the form of clathrate hydrates, has emerged as an attractive
24 alternative to classical storage methods like compression or liquefaction. Nevertheless, the
25 sluggish enclathration kinetics along with low gas storage capacities in bulk systems is
26 currently impeding the progress of this technology. To this end, unstirred systems coupled with
27 porous materials have been shown to tackle the aforementioned drawbacks. In line with this
28 approach, the present study explores the use of hydrophobic periodic organosilica
29 nanoparticles, later denoted as Hollow Ring-PMO (HRPMO), for H₂ storage as clathrate
30 hydrates at mild operating conditions (5.56 mol% THF, 7 MPa, and 265-273 K). The surface
31 of the HRPMO nanoparticles was carefully decorated/functionalized with THF-like moieties,
32 which are well-known promoter agents in clathrate formation when applied in classical,
33 homogeneous systems. The study showed that, while the non-functionalized HRPMO can
34 facilitate the formation of binary H₂-THF clathrates, the incorporation of surface-bound
35 promotor structures enhances this process. More intriguingly, tuning the concentration of these
36 surface-bound promotor agents on the HRPMO led to a notable effect on solid-state H₂ storage
37 capacities. An increase of 3% in H₂ storage capacity, equivalent to 0.26 wt.%, along with a
38 substantial increase of up to 28% in clathrate growth kinetics, was observed when an optimal
39 loading of 0.14 mmol/g of promoter agent was integrated into the HRPMO framework. Overall,
40 the findings from this study highlight that such tuning effects in solid-state have the potential
41 to significantly boost hydrate formation/growth kinetics and H₂ storage capacities, thereby
42 opening new avenues for the ongoing development of H₂ clathrates in industrial applications.

43

44 KEYWORDS: Hydrogen storage, Hydrogen clathrates, Hydrophobic porous solids,
45 Promoters, Tetrahydrofuran (THF), Solid state tuning.

46

47 1. Introduction

48 While global energy demands are ever-increasing, the extraction and transport of fossil fuels
49 have become progressively more taxing on the environment. On top of this, these resources are
50 finite, so it is of vital importance that a transition to cleaner and more sustainable energy
51 sources is made. Hydrogen (H_2), which is clean, carbon neutral, if produced from renewable
52 resources, and has about 2.5 times more calorific value than fossil fuels is increasingly being
53 seen as a crucial pillar of energy security for the associated governments/nations[1, 2]. This is
54 evidenced by H_2 demand climbing 4% in 2022 from pre-pandemic levels of 91 million tonnes
55 in 2019 to an estimated 180 million tonnes by 2030[3]. Given the significant use of H_2 now
56 and in the coming decades, safety and suitability in storage and transportation are essential,
57 however, these are the main limitations impeding the transition of innovative H_2 technologies
58 from production to mobility or energy applications.

59 H_2 , by virtue of its low density (0.08 g/l) requires a large volume for a given amount of
60 energy and the classical H_2 storage approach in its molecular form includes compression,
61 liquefaction, and cryo-compressed technologies[4]. Although these are the more established
62 and mature technologies, they have a variety of drawbacks, such as expensive vessel costs to
63 maintain high pressures (20-70 MPa), heaviness and bulkiness of gas cylinders, higher safety
64 standards, high liquefaction energies, and boil-off losses up to 4% a day[5-8]. Other storage
65 solutions, such as Adsorption[9-15], Metal hydrides[16-22], Liquid Organic Hydrogen Carriers
66 (LOHC)[23], Ammonia[24], etc., have been proposed in addition to these conventional
67 methods, and tremendous research on these materials is actively being developed in pursuit of

68 better H₂ storage capacities to confront their sluggish kinetics, poor reversibility, cycling
69 instability, and thermal management issues[1, 25-28].

70 Aside from the above-mentioned H₂ storage systems, hydrate/clathrate based (trapping H₂ in
71 hydrate cages) technology is relatively new and promising, attracting significant interest owing
72 to its advantages. Essentially, trapping H₂ in hydrate cages is environmentally favorable as
73 water (H₂O) is the principal storage medium, with extremely low concentrations of the
74 promoter molecules (< 6 mol%) if incorporated[29-31]. Second, the stored molecular H₂ can
75 be quickly recovered by pressure or temperature swings with no loss of H₂O or promoter
76 molecules. Gas hydrates or Clathrates hydrates, are ice-like crystalline materials formed under
77 favorable thermodynamic conditions when suitable guest (usually apolar) molecules are
78 trapped/encaged within the 3-dimensional H₂ bonded host (H₂O) molecules[32]. Pure H₂ forms
79 a classical sII hydrate structure with 136 H₂O molecules having a skeleton of sixteen
80 dodecahedron (small) and eight hexakaidecahedron (large) cages between 0.75 and 3.1 GPa at
81 295 K[33]. Although multiple H₂ occupancy in small and large cages enhances storage
82 capacity, the pressures mentioned above render them undesirable for any commercial or
83 industrial applications[30, 34-36]. In order to make it industrially viable, incorporating a
84 promoter molecule (tetrahydrofuran: THF) within the large cages, resulting in a binary H₂-THF
85 hydrate, demonstrated a substantial advancement in H₂ storage via hydrates at pressures as low
86 as 5 MPa and 279.6 K[31]. Despite a tremendous reduction in pressure conditions, the addition
87 of promoter molecules results in a low overall H₂ storage capacity as they occupy large cages
88 and leave only small ones for H₂. Nevertheless, Lee et al.[37] and other researchers[38]
89 reported to overcome this barrier by tuning the THF concentration from the stoichiometric
90 value of 5.56 mol% to a significantly lower value of 0.15 mol%, allowing H₂ to penetrate some
91 of the large cages. Conversely, many other researchers argue that the H₂ storage is independent

92 of the THF concentration and was unable to replicate equivalent storage capacities by tuning
93 [39-42].

94 These groundbreaking and contentious findings paved the way for various strategies to
95 improve H₂ storage via hydrate technology at moderate pressures and temperatures. Although
96 significant studies have gained insights into the cage occupancies, overall storage capacities,
97 and thermodynamics with various promoters (THF being reported as the best promoter thus
98 far)[43-45], the authors believe that the constraints on mass transfer rate and enclathration
99 kinetics have largely been overlooked, which is a significant impediment to foster this
100 technology. The formation of hydrates from the bulk aqueous phase, in particular, is associated
101 with a slow H₂ uptake rate due to insufficient contact/interaction between H₂ and H₂O or H₂O
102 + promoter molecules, which can take up to a few hours or week to reach its maximal storage
103 capacity[37, 40, 46, 47] and mechanical mixing which has the potential to accelerate the
104 kinetics, has major limitations including high energy costs for stirring[48-50]. Other studies
105 attempted to improve the mass diffusion by exposing the high pressure H₂ gas to pre-
106 synthesized fine (< 45µm and 250 µm) THF-hydrate, however, this method is not compatible
107 with continuous cycles as fine THF or other promoter hydrate particles relapse to bulk/liquid
108 phase upon melting[40, 46, 51-53]. Given the challenges of synthesizing a binary H₂-THF
109 hydrate from a bulk aqueous phase, it is imperative to emphasize on quiescent or unstirred
110 systems that would provide accelerated kinetics in developing an efficient and cost-effective
111 H₂ based technology. So far it is evident from the literature that decreasing the particle size or
112 increasing the surface-to-volume ratio enhances the hydrate growth kinetics; however, there
113 has been limited research available on boosting the kinetics of binary H₂-THF hydrates in an
114 unstirred system packed with porous support materials[39, 51, 54-58]. It is important to note
115 that when exploiting porous materials, multiple variables might contribute significantly to
116 hydrate formation and kinetics such as pore volume, size, and network for gas saturation at the

117 interface, surface chemistry, and wettability. Contemporary work has shown that hydrophobic
118 porous materials are more efficient than hydrophilic porous materials as H₂O molecules
119 thermodynamically prefer to minimize their free energy by clustering near the hydrophobic
120 surfaces which amplifies their mobility to promote hydrate nucleation and growth[57-68].

121 Considering the superiority of hydrophobicity, the present study attempts to design and
122 develop such a porous material paving the pathway for faster enclathration kinetics of binary
123 H₂ hydrates. Unlike activated carbons, having low dimensional pore networks, this study
124 focuses on periodic mesoporous organosilicas (PMOs) that are carefully architected in terms
125 of pore sizes, network and are additionally functionalized with a highly mobile promoter
126 molecule, THF (thanks to its extended ether chain linking the surface) to investigate their
127 affinity towards forming H₂ hydrate with and without their use in the aqueous phase.
128 Accordingly, the kinetics of binary H₂-THF hydrate formation and H₂ gas uptake are evaluated
129 by exploiting the porous materials at 265 K, 269 K, and 273 K with an initial pressure of 7
130 MPa.

131

132 2. Experimental methods

133 2.1 Materials synthesis

134 Cetylammmoniumbromide (CTAB), NH₃(aq) (25%), ethanol (EtOH), HCl_{aq} (37%), and
135 tetraethyl orthosilicate (TEOS) were purchased from ChemLab. Pluronic F-127 was purchased
136 from Merck Life Science. The organosilanes 1,1,3,3,5,5-hexaethoxy-1,3,5-trisilacyclohexane
137 (HETSCH) and tetrahydrofurfuryloxypropyltriethoxysilane (THFP TES) were purchased from
138 Gelest. All chemicals were used without any additional purification.

139 Hollow ring PMO (HRPMO) materials with a variation of the added amount of THF-like
140 functionalities were prepared as candidates for the H₂-THF clathrate formation. Their synthesis
141 is based on our earlier reported work[69]. In a typical synthesis, a closed flask of 500 ml was

142 charged with 290 ml (16 mol) H₂O, 3 g (8.23 mmol) CTAB, 1.23 g (9.76 μmol) F-127 and 10
143 ml (0.134 mmol) NH₃ (aq, 25%). The whole was left to stir at room temperature until a
144 homogeneous solution was formed. After the addition of 3 ml (13.5 mmol) TEOS, the flask
145 was kept for 2 hours under stirring conditions resulting in the formation of a white solution. At
146 the same time, a mixture of HETSCH and THFP TES was made by mixing a variation of
147 volumes of both monomers (Table 1) in a vial using a shaker. This monomer solution was
148 subsequently added dropwise to the surfactant solution, after which the mixture was continued
149 to be stirred for 2 more hours at room temperature. Afterward, the flask was placed in an oven
150 where the PMO framework is aged for 48 hours at 373 K. Upon cooling down, the white solids
151 were collected through (vacuum) assisted filtration and subsequently washed with water and
152 ethanol. Surfactant removal was achieved by dispersing the collected residue in a flask
153 containing 600 ml ethanol and 7 ml HCl_{aq} (37%), and leaving it to stir at room temperature for
154 24 hours. Upon collection of the solids through (vacuum) assisted filtration, the residue was
155 washed extensively with ethanol until a neutral pH was reached. The solid materials were dried
156 at 393 K under vacuum conditions (< 5 mbar), resulting in the final HR_x-THF_y-PMO materials.
157 In this nomenclature, x and y represent the ratio of HETSCH and THFP TES respectively,
158 added to the reaction mixture (Table 1).

159

160 2.2. Materials characterization methods

161 Two-dimensional transmission electron microscopy (2D TEM) pictures were taken using a
162 JEOL JEM-1010 TEM instrument operated at 100kV without spherical aberration (Cs)
163 correction. The powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) pattern was measured with a Bruker D8
164 Advance with autochanger using Cu K-alpha irradiation with a wavelength (λ) of 0.154 nm in
165 a Bragg-Brentano geometry. PXRD diffractograms were determined in the range of 0.2-10°
166 with a step-size of 0.015°. The porosity of the materials was assessed through N₂-sorption, as

167 performed on a Micromeritics TriStar 3000 analyzer operated at 77 K. Prior to the analyses,
168 the samples were degassed at 393 K for 24 h. Surface areas were determined using the
169 Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method, while pore radii (r_p) were calculated using DFT
170 methods. Total pore volumes (V_{tot}) were determined at a relative pressure of $\frac{P}{P_0} = 0.95$. A
171 Thermo Nicolet 6700 Fourier Transform IR (FT-IR) spectrometer, attached with a liquid N₂
172 cooled MCT detector was used to perform FT-IR measurements. The samples were heated to
173 393 K under vacuum, for 15 min prior to measurement. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA)
174 was performed using a Netzsch STA 449 F3 Jupiter instrument within a temperature range of
175 293 – 1173 K under air with a heating rate of 10 K/min

176

177 2.3. Experimental apparatus and procedure

178 The schematic layout of the experimental setup is shown in Figure 1. The hydrate formation
179 tests were performed in high pressure stainless steel cylindrical reactor (effective inner volume:
180 150 cm³, designed pressure 34.4 MPa) purchased from Swagelok (316L-50DF4-150). The high
181 pressure reactor was immersed in a mixture of water-ethylene glycol circulating bath (CORIO
182 CP-1000F, JULABO GmbH, stability: ± 0.03 K) to maintain the cold and stable temperatures
183 inside the reactor which was measured by a K-type thermocouple purchased from Testo SE &
184 Co. KGaA. The pressure in the reactor was monitored using a pressure transmitter (PAA3X-
185 30 MPa; KELLER AG für Druckmesstechnik; a range of 0-30 MPa absolute, with $\pm 0.01\%$ FS
186 accuracy) for every 1 sec. H₂ gas (99.99% purity) used in this study was supplied by Air
187 Liquide Benelux Industries.

188 All the tests were performed using a standard approach as presented in earlier publications[70,
189 71], here we provide a summary of the same. Prior to the starting of experiments, the reactor
190 was thoroughly cleaned with H₂O and dried to remove any impurities. The experiments
191 commenced by adding a 1:5 ratio[69] of synthesized material (dried overnight at 348 K) to a

192 certain concentration of the THF solution. Subsequently, the reactor was rapidly pressurized
 193 (0.2 MPa) and depressurized with H₂ gas at least 10 times to remove any atmospheric gases.
 194 Following that, the reactor was immersed in a water-ethylene glycol bath at 298 K and
 195 gradually pressurized with H₂ gas to a predetermined initial experimental pressure of 7 MPa.
 196 These ambient thermodynamic conditions were chosen to prevent any hydrate formation and
 197 sufficient time was provided for the system to stabilize at these conditions before cooling the
 198 reactor to the experimental temperature. The experiments were considered to be complete when
 199 no significant pressure drop (0.02 MPa in 30 min) was observed due to the enclathration of H₂
 200 gas in the hydrate cages. Each in this study was repeated two times.

201 At any given real-time, the amount of H₂ gas consumed during hydrate formation was
 202 quantified using the compressibility factor equation of state as shown in (Eq. 1), the normalized
 203 gas uptake (NG_t , hydrate growth) was quantified using (Eq. 2), the percentage of H₂O to
 204 hydrate conversion is determined by (Eq. 3) and (Eq. 4)

205

$$\Delta n_{H_2,t} = V_r \left[\left(\frac{P}{zRT} \right)_{t=0} - \left(\frac{P}{zRT} \right)_t \right] \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

206

$$NG_t = \frac{\Delta n_{H_2,t}}{n_{H_2O}} \quad (\text{moles of } H_2 / \text{moles of } H_2O) \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

207

$$WtH(\%) = \frac{(\Delta n_{H_2,t} + \Delta n_{THF}) \times Hn}{n_{H_2O}} \times 100 \quad (\text{Eq. 3})$$

208

$$\Delta n_{THF} = \Delta n_{H_2,t} \frac{\text{number of large cages}}{\text{number of small cages}} \quad (\text{Eq. 4})$$

209

210 where, $\Delta n_{H_2,t}$ is the moles of H₂ gas consumed at any given time t ; V_r is the reactor's gas-
 211 phase volume measured using the helium expansion method[70, 71]; T and P are the
 212 temperature and pressure within the reactor; z is the compressibility of H₂ gas calculated using
 213 the Lemmon-Huber-Leachman correlation[72]; R is the ideal gas constant; n_{H_2O} is the moles
 214 of H₂O introduced into the reactor; n_{THF} is the moles of THF consumed for hydrate formation
 215 with the assumption that THF occupies only the large cages of classic sII hydrate, and Hn
 216 refers to hydration number, which is considered to be 5.67 in order to comply with other binary
 217 H₂-THF hydrate experiments available in the literature[73].

218 The H₂ storage capacity relative to the sample's H₂O content (hydrate storage capacity: $q_{H_2}^W$),
 219 H₂ capacity relative to the dry mass of the solid (dry weight storage capacity: $q_{H_2}^A$), and H₂
 220 capacity relative to the total mass of the system (total weight storage capacity: $q_{H_2}^T$), were also
 221 evaluated as shown in (Eqs. 5, 6, and 7)

$$q_{H_2}^W(\text{wt. \%}) = \frac{m_{H_2}}{(m_{H_2O} + m_{H_2})} \times 100 \quad (\text{Eq. 5})$$

$$q_{H_2}^A(\text{wt. \%}) = \frac{m_{H_2}}{(m_{solid} + m_{H_2})} \times 100 \quad (\text{Eq. 6})$$

$$q_{H_2}^T(\text{wt. \%}) = \frac{m_{H_2}}{m_{tot}} \times 100 \quad (\text{Eq. 7})$$

224 Here, m_{H_2O} , m_{solid} , and m_{H_2} are masses of the H₂O, dried solid in the reactor, and quantity of
 225 enclathrated H₂ as calculated from (Eq. 1), respectively. The m_{tot} in (Eq. 7) refers to the total
 226 mass of the system, considering the mass of the dried solid, H₂O, THF, as well as the
 227 enclathrated H₂.

228 Another essential representation, the volumetric gas storage capacity ($\frac{\text{volume of gas at STP}}{\text{volume of hydrate}}$)
 229 was determined using (Eq. 8)[74]

230

$$\text{Volumetric } H_2 \text{ storage capacity} \left(\frac{\text{volume of gas at STP}}{\text{volume of hydrate}} \right) = K \times NG_t \quad (\text{Eq. 8})$$

231

$$K = \frac{v}{\frac{M_{w,hyd}}{(\rho_{hyd} \times n_{wh})}} \quad (\text{Eq. 9})$$

232

$$M_{w,hyd} = (136 * 18.01) + (8 * 72.11) + (16 * 2.016) \quad (\text{Eq. 10})$$

233

$$\rho_{hyd} = \frac{M_{w,hyd}}{(A \times \lambda^3)} \quad (\text{Eq. 11})$$

234 where K is the proportionality coefficient and is defined as shown in (Eq. 9), v is the volume
 235 of gas at STP conditions ($22.4 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ mmol}^{-1}$ of gas), $M_{w,hyd}$ is molecular weight (g mol^{-1}) of sII
 236 hydrate relative to the thermodynamic promoter used in this study (THF), which is calculated
 237 as shown in (Eq. 10), n_{wh} is the mole of H_2O per mole of sII hydrate (i.e. 136), ρ_{hyd} (g cm^{-3})
 238 is the density of hydrate, calculated using (Eq. 11), A is the Avogadro constant ($6.023 \times 10^{23} \text{ mol}^{-1}$)
 239 ¹⁾[75] and λ is the lattice parameter (17.145 \AA), when THF is used as a promoter and
 240 pressurized with H_2 gas[76].

241

242 3. Results and discussion

243 3.1. Material characterizations

244 The porosity of the PMO materials was assessed through N_2 -sorption and the resulting
 245 isotherms of the as-synthesized materials are displayed in Figure 2a. All materials exhibit a
 246 type IV isotherm, characteristic of the mesoporous nature of the PMO framework. The
 247 observed H_2 hysteresis loop indicates that cavitation and percolation phenomena are happening
 248 during desorption, implying an inkbottle-like shape of the mesopores in the material. Compared

249 to HRP MO, the addition of THF-moieties in the framework initially causes a decrease in
250 surface area by 21% (Table 2, entries 1 and 2). Upon increasing the THF content in the
251 framework even more, a steady increase in the surface area is observed (Table 2, entries 3 and
252 4). This can be attributed to the incorporation of randomly organized THFP TES groups in the
253 PMO matrix, which concurrently induces a reduction of the pore sizes of the materials (Figure
254 2b). These findings are corroborated through means of XRD analysis (Figure 2c) where the
255 characteristic (100) reflection is shifted towards higher values of 2θ , demonstrating a decrease
256 in the d-spacing of the framework (Table 2). Clear signs of the siliceous nature of the PMO
257 materials can be recognized through FT-IR spectra (Figure 2d), owing to its typical C-H, Si-
258 OH, and Si-O stretch vibrations at $3000\text{-}2870\text{ cm}^{-1}$, $3700\text{-}3550\text{ cm}^{-1}$, and $1150\text{-}1000\text{ cm}^{-1}$
259 respectively. More careful investigation of the region of $3000\text{-}2800\text{ cm}^{-1}$ indicates the presence
260 of novel organic structures in the framework, in the form of THF moieties, for the $\text{HR}_x\text{-THF}_y\text{-}$
261 PMOs.

262 Further confirmation of the incorporation of THF-moieties was found through inspection of
263 the TGA profiles, as displayed in Figure S1, which revealed increasing weight losses at 1173
264 K when larger amounts of THFP TES were added to the reaction mixture (Table 1). Upon
265 inspection of TEM images, it is found that all PMO materials exhibit a tubular morphology
266 with the long and short axis of the tubes ranging from $1\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ to several 100 nm respectively
267 (Figure S2). Additionally, the tubes are found to be hollow in nature, with wall thicknesses
268 ranging in the order of 10-30 nm. Coincidentally, when more THFP TES was added to the
269 reaction mixture the walls become thicker as well as more disordered, substantiating the N_2
270 sorption and XRD results.

271

272 3.2. Effect of the framework composition on H_2 storage

273 To investigate the influence of THF functionalized hydrophobic porous material (HRPMO)
274 on hydrate formation kinetics and H₂ storage capacity, a set of experiments were initially
275 performed on non-functionalized HRPMO with stoichiometric (5.56 mol%) THF solution at
276 temperatures ranging from 265 K to 273 K with an initial pressure of 7.0 MPa. Considering the
277 data available in the literature[77], the equilibrium pressure of H₂-THF binary hydrate is \approx 0.1
278 MPa at 277.5 K, implying that the equilibrium pressures at the temperature conditions studied
279 in this work are expected to be less than 0.1 MPa. However, due to the unavailability of phase
280 equilibrium data at the temperatures studied in this work, we limit ourselves to comparing the
281 driving force with 0.1 MPa, thus the experiments performed in this work correspond to having
282 a driving force $>$ 6.9 MPa between equilibrium pressures at corresponding temperatures.
283 Veluswamy and Linga[73] also reported that a driving force $>$ 5 MPa is necessary to form a
284 considerable amount of H₂-THF binary hydrates. Table 3. summarizes the experimental
285 conditions, as well as H₂-THF hydrate formation results for both THF functionalized and non-
286 functionalized HRPMO. To ensure consistency, 0.5 g of material was used in all the
287 experiments.

288 Gas hydrate formation being an exothermic process, a sudden rise in sample bed temperature
289 (measured by K-type thermocouple; Testo SE & Co. KGaA) was considered to be the onset of
290 hydrate nucleation, followed by hydrate crystal growth, where the pressure drop observed
291 within the reactor due to gas enclathration was translated to H₂ uptake. Figure 3 shows H₂
292 storage capacity in a non-functionalized HRPMO at 265 K, 269 K, and 273 K. The time zero
293 in Figure 3 and the subsequent gas uptake Figures in this article corresponds to the onset of
294 hydrate crystal formation (observed from the first temperature spike). As can be seen from
295 Figure 3, a maximum H₂ storage capacity ($q_{H_2}^w$) of 0.25 wt.% was achieved at 269 K;
296 corresponding to 22.74 mmol H₂/mol H₂O, followed by a decrease in storage capacity as
297 temperature increased. On the other hand, the three gas uptake curves at different temperatures

298 also demonstrate the consistency of hydrate formation with a minor standard deviation. It can
299 also be seen that the H₂ uptake plateaus off at \approx 40 min after nucleation, with 80% of maximum
300 storage capacity achieved in \approx 8 min, 9 min, and 16.5 min at 265 K, 269 K, and 273 K
301 respectively.

302 Figures 4a, 4b, and 4c exhibit the H₂ storage capacities of THF-like functionalized HRPMO
303 materials at three different temperatures. The hydrate growth curves show good consistency
304 across the board, as seen by minimal standard deviations. As can be observed, the gas uptake
305 curves show a significant increase before it reaches a plateau, and altering the proportion of
306 these functionalities on the HRPMO produced substantial results in H₂ uptake (Table 3), with
307 HR₉₅-THF₅-PMO outperforming HR₈₀-THF₂₀-PMO followed by HR₅₀-THF₅₀-PMO at all
308 temperatures studied. For instance, at the lowest temperature of 265 K, HR₉₅-THF₅-PMO
309 attained a maximum H₂ storage capacity of 0.26 wt.%, which is \approx 13.6% and 21% higher than
310 that of HR₈₀-THF₂₀-PMO and HR₅₀-THF₅₀-PMO, respectively. These results also imply that
311 higher amounts of THF-like functionalities added to HRPMO induce a reduction of final H₂
312 uptake. The H₂ storage capacity at different temperatures for respective materials is shown in
313 Figure S3. Another noteworthy effect of the surface chemistry tuning of the materials lies in
314 the time required to form the H₂ clathrates. It was found that the presence of surface-bound
315 THF-like moieties could significantly stimulate clathrate formation, with the effect becoming
316 more pronounced at higher temperatures (Figure 5). A comparison of the clathrate formation
317 performances at 273 K of non-functionalized HRPMO and HR₉₅-THF₅-PMO demonstrates that
318 the THF-like moieties could enhance the hydrate growth kinetics (time required to reach 80%
319 of maximum storage capacity) by at least 28%.

320 Furthermore, Figure 5 shows the H₂ gas uptake (hydrate growth) curves in non-
321 functionalized HRPMO and HR₉₅-THF₅-PMO, and as can be seen, the materials tuned with
322 THF-like functionalities exhibit relatively higher (at least 3%, inclusive of standard deviation)

323 H₂ gas uptake than HRP MO at all temperatures. These findings unequivocally indicate that the
324 solid-state tuning of the material with the promoter (THF) molecule-like functional groups
325 can improve overall H₂ storage capacities rather than tuning the THF concentration in the
326 solution as reported by Lee et al.[37], which is still being debated. To corroborate the
327 suggestion from Lee et al[37], the non-functionalized HRP MO and HR₉₅-THF₅-PMO were
328 also tested with 0.1 and 0.3 mol% THF solution, however, no clathrate formation was observed
329 at 265 K for a period of 12 hrs.

330 Based on previous literature reports on hydrophobic porous materials for H₂-THF clathrate
331 formation, a following mechanistic hypothesis could be drawn for the HRP MO and HR_x-
332 THF_y-PMO materials. While pristine HRP MO has been demonstrated to be hydrophobic, due
333 to the organic nature of the utilized organosilica monomer[69], it still shows some degree of
334 hydrophilicity due to the presence of Si-OH functionalities throughout the surface. The
335 integration of THF-like moieties on the surface of the HR_x-THF_y-PMO on the other hand
336 further enhances the hydrophobicity of the porous structure compared to the HRP MO. The
337 degree of surface hydrophobicity has been shown to influence clathrate formation in two major
338 ways[59, 65], as depicted in Figure 6. Hydrophilic surfaces tend to form a structured
339 organization of water molecules near the surface, known as non-freezable water causing high
340 energy requirements to form ice structures. Hydrophobic surfaces tend to perturb the structural
341 organization of the otherwise strongly ordered surface bound water, lowering the energy
342 requirements necessary to reorganize water molecules towards other crystalline structures
343 (Figure 6, left). The second major influence results from the increase in the concentration of
344 adsorbed gas-molecules (H₂ in this work) on the hydrophobic surface (Figure 6, right). This
345 gas-enriched layer on the surface of the porous medium increases the driving force of clathrate
346 formation, significantly stimulating the formation kinetics.

347 It is scientifically known that pure H₂-H₂O forms sII hydrate at extremely high pressures and
348 can yield a maximum H₂ storage capacity of 5.6 wt.% if both small and large cages occupy 2
349 and 5 H₂ molecules, respectively[30, 78] (a probable theoretical maximum H₂ storage
350 capacities in sII hydrate are presented in Table 2). On the other hand, when THF
351 (thermodynamic promoter) is added to H₂O in stoichiometric concentrations, the H₂ can only
352 occupy small cages, leaving large cages for THF, resulting in an overall decreased storage
353 capacity of 1.3 wt.%, when occupied by 1 H₂ molecule and 2.5 wt.% when occupied by 2 H₂
354 molecules. However, as can be seen from Table 3, in an H₂-promoter (stoichiometric conc.)-
355 H₂O system at different thermodynamic conditions, the maximum H₂ storage capacity is < 1.3
356 wt.% indicating that the fractional H₂ occupancy in small cages is less than 1 or not all small
357 (5¹²) cages are filled at those conditions, which on the other hand can be enhanced by increasing
358 the pressure of the system. Table 3 also shows that solid state tuning of the material can
359 improve the H₂ storage capacity by enclathrating more H₂ molecules in 5¹² cages at relatively
360 low pressures as compared to literature. Although powder-THF hydrate shows better H₂
361 enclathration, it is to be noted that the fine THF hydrate particles relapse to liquid phase upon
362 melting which is not compatible with continuous cycles.

363

364 4. Conclusion

365 H₂ storage in the form of clathrate hydrates, while being an attractive alternative to
366 compression or liquefaction, remains an energetically intensive process. Additives such as THF
367 have been extensively applied to reduce the necessary energy input in the form of lowered
368 formation pressures and milder temperatures. Nevertheless, the constraints on mass transfer
369 rate and enclathration kinetics in bulk systems have been hampering the advancement of this
370 technology. To this end, unstirred systems coupled with hydrophobic porous materials are
371 being explored due to their ease of handling, recyclability, and potential to accelerate the

372 kinetics of hydrate formation. In this study, hydrophobic Hollow Ring-PMO (HRPMO)
373 nanoparticles with a variation in the concentration of surface-bound THF-like moieties were
374 designed as a novel additive for enhanced H₂ clathrate formation. Their performance was
375 assessed under the stoichiometric concentration of THF solution at 7 MPa in a range of
376 different temperatures (265 K, 269 K, and 273 K) using a volumetric approach. The results
377 revealed that THF-functionalized HRPMO significantly accelerated clathrate formation,
378 reducing the time to reach maximum storage capacity by up to 28%, especially at higher
379 temperatures when compared with non-functionalized HRPMO. Despite having lower surface
380 area and pore volume than the non-functionalized HRPMO, a 3% increase in H₂ storage
381 capacity (inclusive of standard deviation) equating to 0.26 wt.% at lower temperature was
382 observed when 0.14 mmol/g of the promoter was incorporated in the framework. A similar
383 trend in H₂ uptake was observed even at other temperatures studied in this work. On the other
384 hand, higher loadings of promoter agent resulted in a considerable reduction in storage
385 capacities. These findings emphasize the significance of tuning the porous materials with THF-
386 like moieties for higher gas storage capacities and these findings resemble previously reported
387 cases that expressed the dependence of H₂ storage capacities on the THF concentrations in H₂-
388 THF binary clathrates. However, to the best of our knowledge, this is the first report where
389 such a solid-state storage capacity tuning effect is observed using solid additives for H₂
390 clathrate formation. These findings substantiate the importance of carefully fine-tuning the
391 surface chemistry of additives for clathrate formation and help further pave the way towards
392 industrially viable H₂ storage in the form of clathrate hydrates. In conclusion, it is also strongly
393 recommended to undertake a comprehensive molecular-level investigation in order to attain a
394 more profound understanding of the solid-state tuning effects on supporting materials and their
395 role in augmenting H₂ storage capacities.

396 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

397 **Geert Watson:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Methodology,
398 Formal analysis, Conceptualization. **Nithin B. Kummamuru:** Writing – review & editing,
399 Writing – original draft, Methodology, Formal analysis, Conceptualization. **Pascal Van Der**
400 **Voort:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Methodology, Funding acquisition,
401 Conceptualization. **Sammy W. Verbruggen:** Supervision, Funding acquisition. **Patrice**
402 **Perreault:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Methodology, Funding acquisition,
403 Conceptualization.

404

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414 **Notes**

415 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

416 **Supporting Information**

417 **The supporting information is available free of charge on the Publications website at**
418 **DOI:**

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430 **Table 1.** Quantity of the added organosilanes in the HR_x-THF_y-PMO synthesis

Sample	V_{HETSCH} (ml) n_{HETSCH} (mmol)	V_{THFPTES} (ml) n_{THFPTES} (mmol)
HRPMO	3	/
	8.24	
HR ₉₅ -THF ₅ -PMO	2.85	0.15
	7.83	0.48
HR ₈₀ -THF ₂₀ -PMO	2.4	0.6
	6.59	1.94
HR ₅₀ -THF ₅₀ -PMO	1.5	1.5
	4.12	4.85

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Table 2. Overview of the characteristics of the PMO materials.

Entry	Sample	THFP TES loading (mmol/g)^a	S_{BET} (m²/g)	V_{tot} (cm³/g)^b	r_p (nm)^c	d-spacing (nm)^d
1	HRPMO	/	790	0.90	1.89	5.04
2	HR ₉₅ -THF ₅ -PMO	0.14	620	0.56	1.77	5.01
3	HR ₈₀ -THF ₂₀ -PMO	0.48	650	0.85	1.65	4.47
4	HR ₅₀ -THF ₅₀ -PMO	1.11	850	0.71	1.29	3.88

^a Determined using TGA profiles between 200-900°C; ^b Determined at P/P^o=0.95; ^c Determined using a NLDFT method assuming a silica matrix exhibiting cylindrical pores on the adsorption branch with relative fitting errors <1%; ^d Determined using Bragg's law with $\lambda=0.154$ nm)

Table 3. Summary of H₂ storage capacities in H₂/THF(5.56 mol%)/H₂O system in functionalized and non-functionalized HRP MO at different thermodynamic conditions

System	P (MPa)	T (K)	NG_t (moles H ₂ /moles H ₂ O)	WtH (%)	$q_{H_2}^W$ (wt.%)	$q_{H_2}^A$ (wt.%)	$q_{H_2}^T$ (wt.%)	Volumetric H ₂ storage (v/v)
Non-functionalized HRP MO	7	265	22.75	19.35	0.254	1.042	0.205	22.83
	7	269	20.55	17.46	0.229	0.941	0.185	20.61
	7	273	19.38	16.48	0.216	0.889	0.174	19.45
HR ₉₅ -THF ₅ -PMO	7	265	23.61	20.08	0.264	1.081	0.212	23.70
	7	269	21.53	18.31	0.240	0.986	0.194	21.61
	7	273	20.08	17.09	0.224	0.921	0.181	20.17
HR ₈₀ -THF ₂₀ -PMO	7	265	20.77	17.68	0.232	0.952	0.187	20.85
	7	269	19.45	16.54	0.217	0.892	0.175	19.53
	7	273	17.51	14.89	0.196	0.804	0.158	17.58
HR ₅₀ -THF ₅₀ -PMO	7	265	19.49	16.59	0.218	0.895	0.176	19.58
	7	269	18.21	15.49	0.203	0.836	0.164	18.28
	7	273	16.52	14.05	0.185	0.759	0.149	16.59

Table 4. Theoretical storage capacity of H₂ in sII hydrate cages

System	Small cage (5 ¹²)	Large cage (5 ¹² 6 ⁴)	H ₂ storage capacity (wt.%)
H ₂ -H ₂ O	1	1	1.94
	1	2	2.56
	1	3	3.19
	1	4	3.80
	1	5	4.40
	2	1	3.18
	2	2	3.80
	2	3	4.40
	2	4	5.00
	2	5	5.60
H ₂ -THF-H ₂ O	1	0	1.30
	2	0	2.56

Table 5. H₂ storage capacity in sII hydrates below 15 MPa using promoters (stoichiometric conc.)

System	P (MPa)	T (K)	H ₂ storage capacity (wt.%)	Occupancy of 5 ¹² cages* (%)	Ref.
THF in Porous media (HR ₉₅ -THF ₅ -PMO)	7.0	265	0.26	10.05	This work
	7.0	269	0.24	9.14	
	7.0	273	0.22	8.37	
THF-Bulk solution/stirring	13	279.2	0.183	6.96	[79]
DIOX-Bulk solution/stirring	12.3	271.15	0.216	8.22	[74]
THF in Porous media	11.6	270	0.4	15.25	[55]
Powdered DXN hydrate	12.0	233	0.4	15.25	[80]
ECP-Bulk solution	12.2	273.25	0.310	11.81	[53]
THF-Bulk solution/stirring	7.0	278.2	0.14	5.25	[73]
	5.0	278.2	0.12	4.40	
	5.0	278.2	0.13	4.76	
	5.0	278.2	0.10	3.92	
Powdered THF hydrate	5.0	265.1	0.18	6.85	[81]
	5.0	269	0.16	6.10	
	5.0	273.2	0.15	5.71	
Powdered THF hydrates	6.5	269.5	0.23	8.75	[82]
	6.5	269.5	0.23	8.75	
	6.5	269.5	0.20	7.61	
	8.4	269.5	0.25	9.52	
	6.5	269.5	0.23	8.75	
	3.6	269.5	0.19	7.23	
	6.5	266.7	0.26	9.90	
	6.5	269.5	0.23	8.75	
	6.5	275.1	0.21	7.99	

Powdered THF hydrate	6.7	270	0.36	13.63	[40]
	12.2		0.46	17.70	
	6.2		0.38	14.56	
	12.1		0.55	21.13	
	12.4		0.32	12.28	
Powdered THF hydrates	10.7	277.15	0.19	7.23	[52]
	11.4		0.26	9.90	

*Considering two H₂ molecules in a single small cage

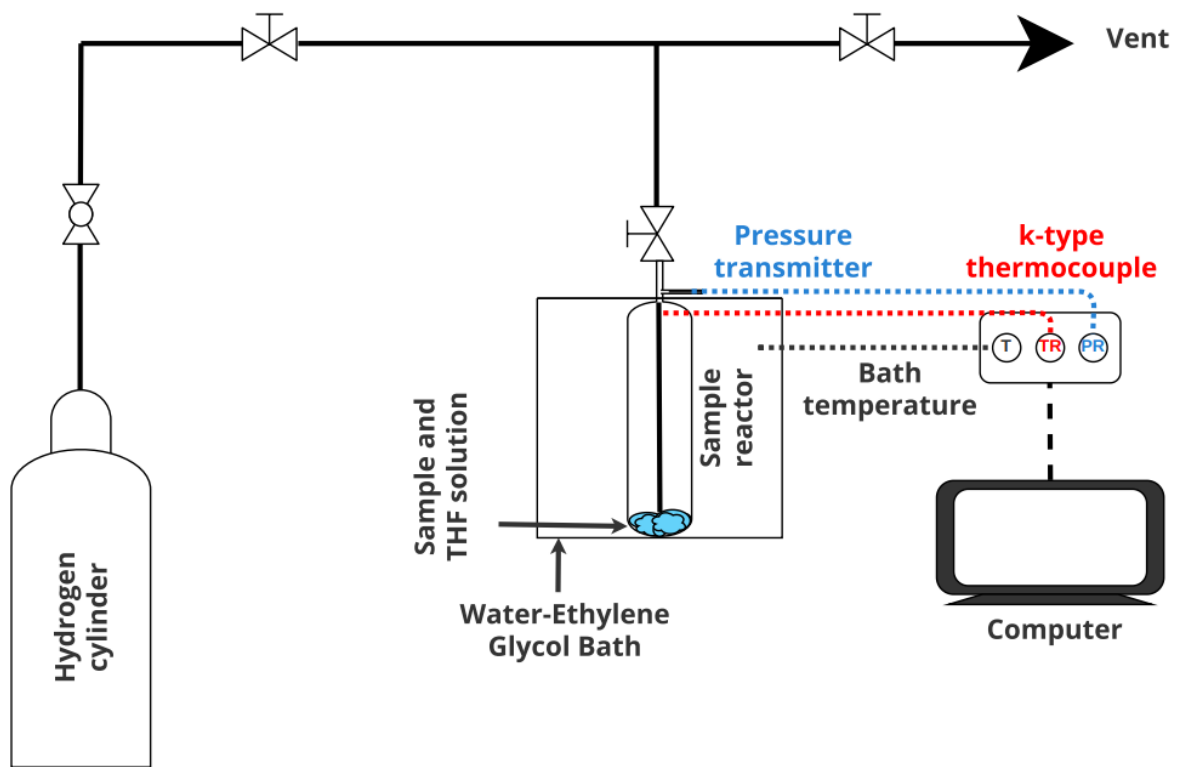


Figure 1. The schematic of the experimental setup for the study of binary H₂-THF hydrate formation in HRPMO

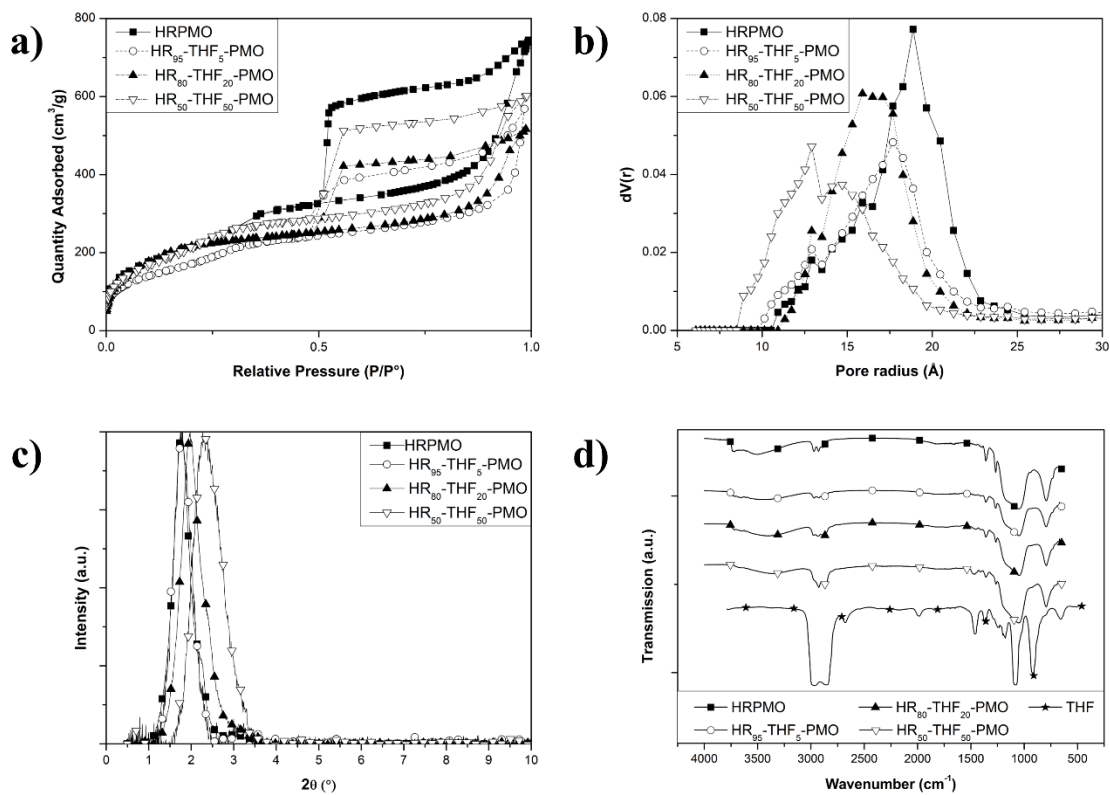


Figure 2. Overview of the characteristics of the PMO materials: a) N₂ sorption isotherms, b) DFT calculated pore size distributions, c) XRD diffractograms, d) FTIR spectra.

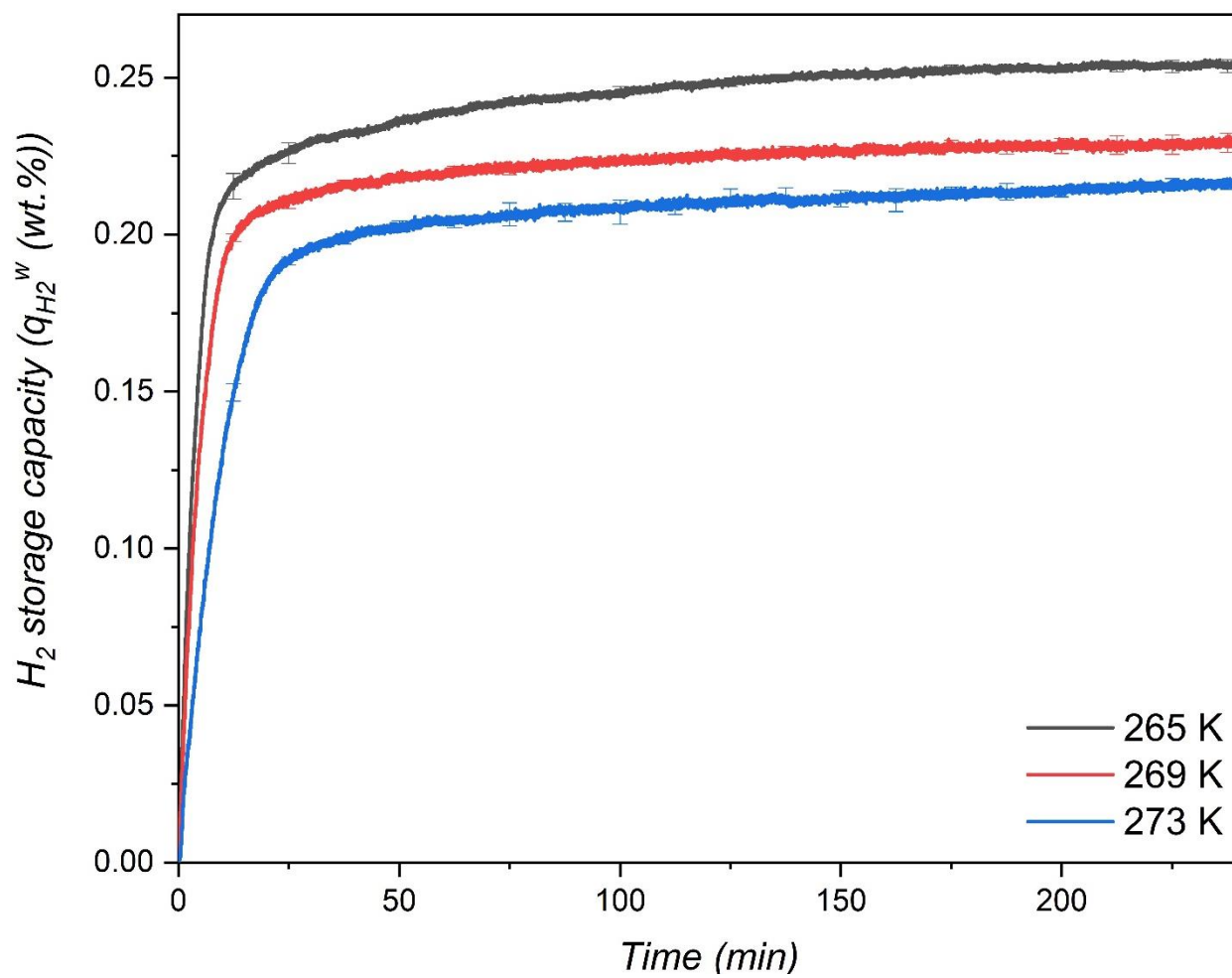
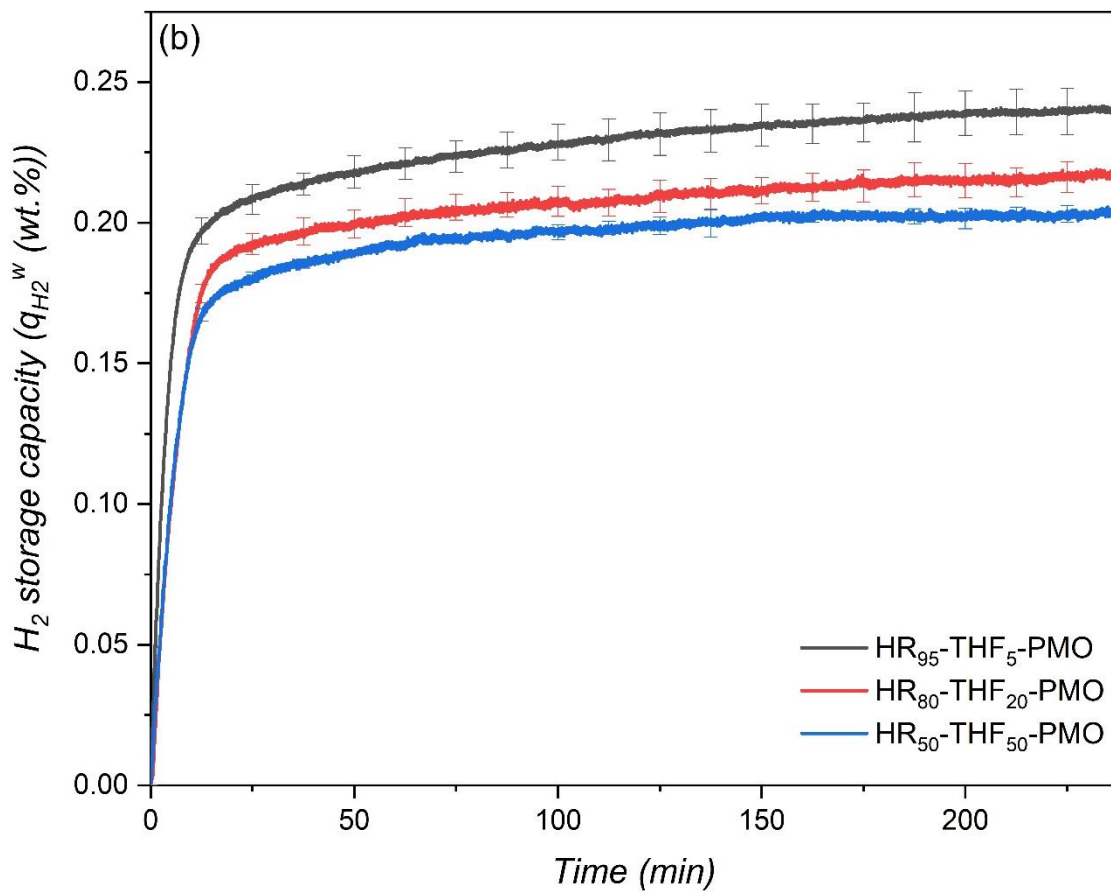
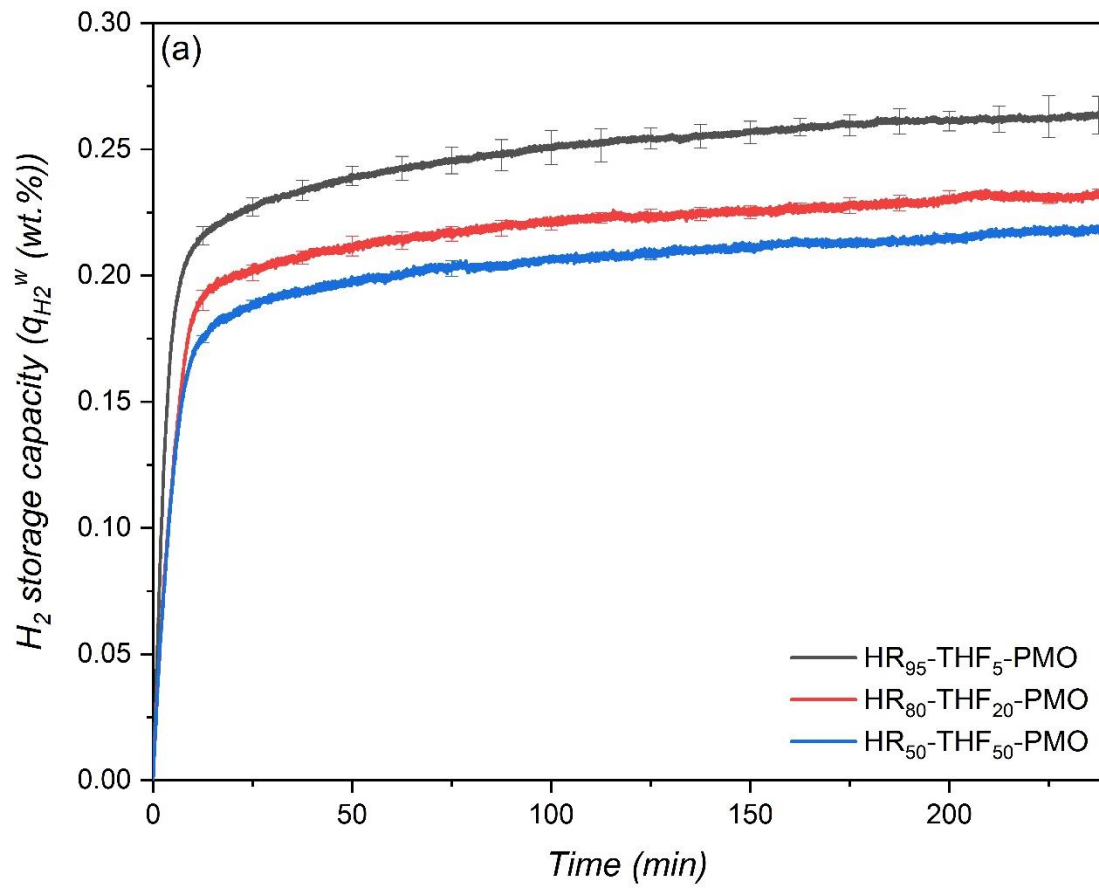


Figure 3. H₂ storage capacity at three different temperatures in non-functionalized HRPMO



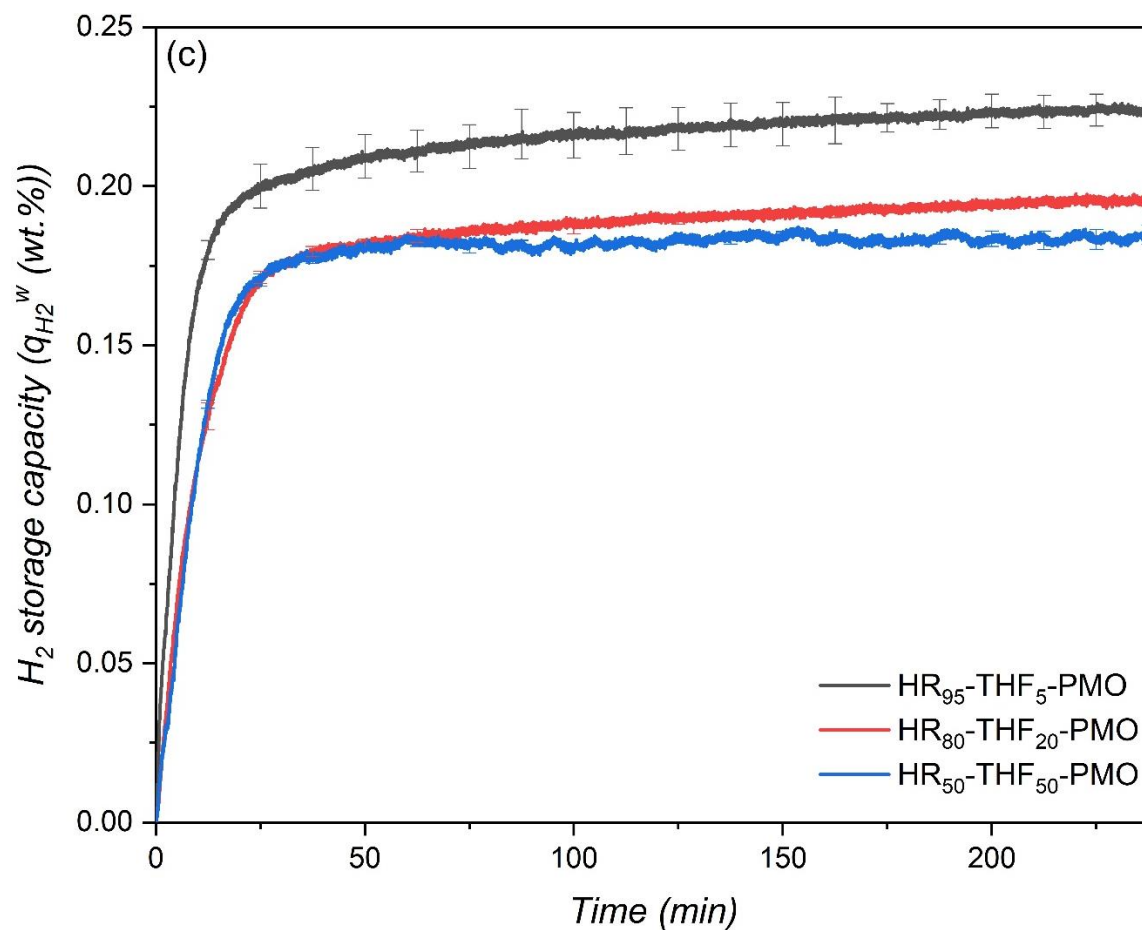


Figure 4. H₂ storage capacities in three different THF-like functionalized materials at three different temperatures; (a): 265 K, (b): 269 K, (c): 273 K

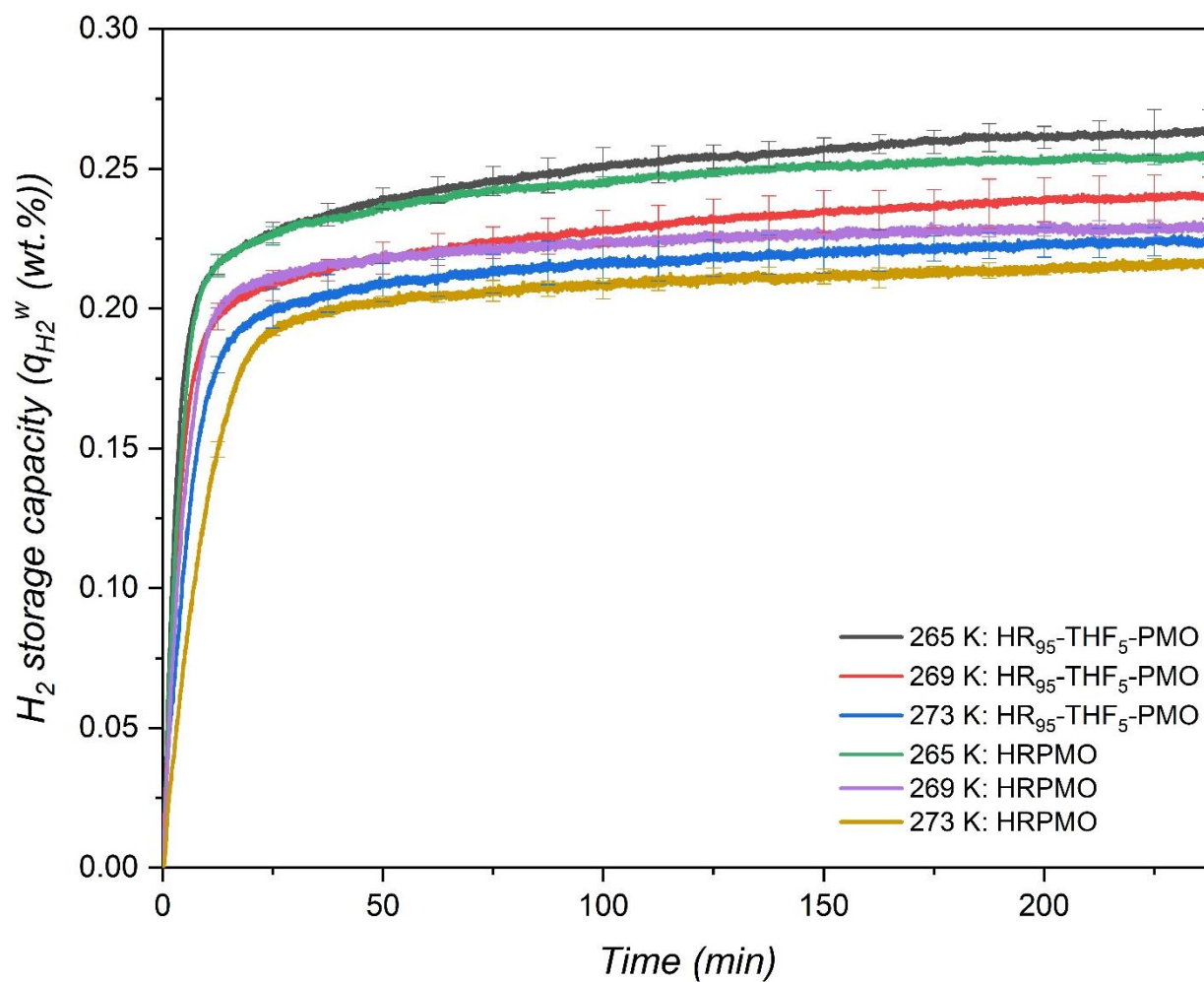


Figure 5. H₂ gas uptake (hydrate growth) curves in non-functionalized HRPMO and HR₉₅-THF₅-PMO at different temperatures

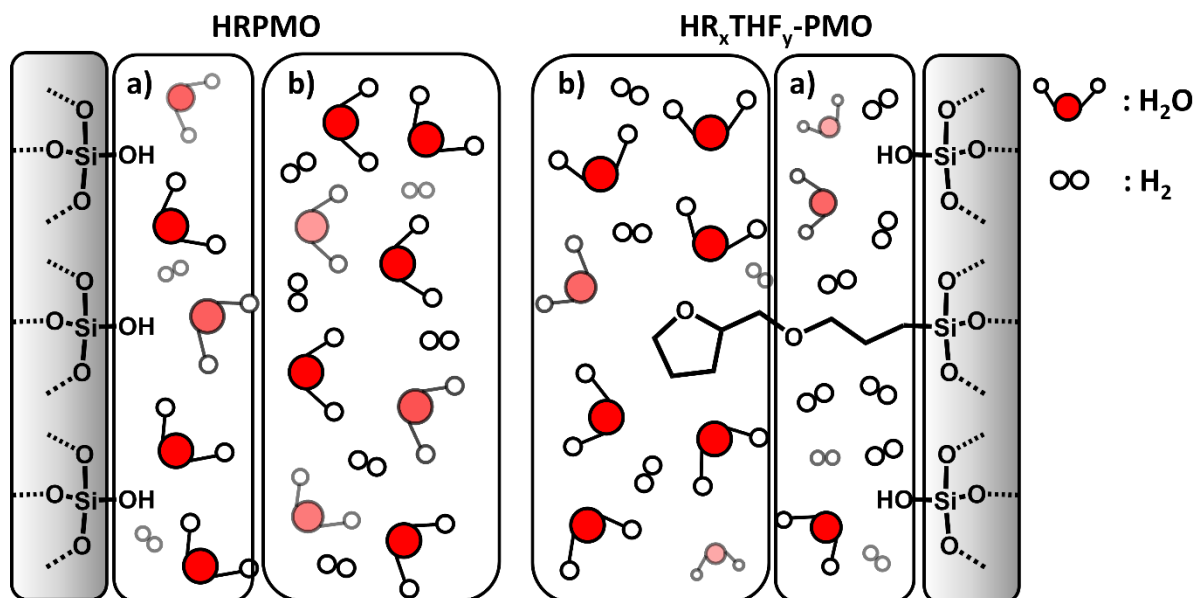


Figure 6: Depiction of clathrate formation mechanisms in HRP MO (left) versus HR_x-THF_y-PMO (right).

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