

Porous Organic Cages for Sulfur Hexafluoride Separation

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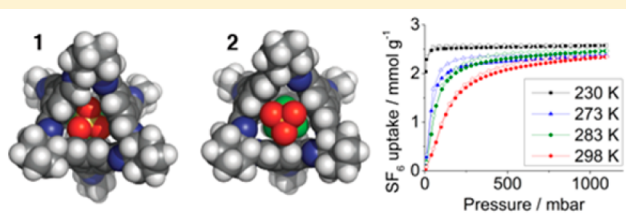
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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: A series of porous organic cages is examined for the selective adsorption of sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆) over nitrogen. Despite lacking any metal sites, a porous cage, CC3, shows the highest SF₆/N₂ selectivity reported for any material at ambient temperature and pressure, which translates to real separations in a gas breakthrough column. The SF₆ uptake of these materials is considerably higher than would be expected from the static pore structures. The location of SF₆ within these materials is elucidated by X-ray crystallography, and it is shown that cooperative diffusion and structural rearrangements in these molecular crystals can rationalize their superior SF₆/N₂ selectivity.



INTRODUCTION

Sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆) is a much more potent greenhouse gas than CO₂,^{1,2} with an estimated atmospheric lifetime of 800–3200 years.¹ The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change found SF₆ to be the most potent greenhouse gas that it evaluated, with a global warming potential 23,900 times higher than CO₂.³ Nonetheless, SF₆ has valuable and widespread industrial uses. For example, SF₆ or SF₆/N₂ mixtures are often used to insulate electrical equipment.^{2,4} SF₆ is also a good thermo-acoustic insulator for windows, a contrast agent in medical applications, and a plasma etchant in the semiconductor industry.⁵ There is much current interest in finding effective materials for the separation of SF₆ from gas mixtures to prevent its release into the atmosphere and to allow economically viable capture and reuse.⁶ Pressure swing adsorption/desorption processes using a suitable porous material offer considerable energy savings over liquefaction, but this requires high selectivity for SF₆ adsorption over N₂ adsorption.⁷ Various porous solids have been tested for SF₆ adsorption or separation⁸ such as carbons,^{9,10} zeolites,^{11–13} metal–organic frameworks (MOFs),^{5,6} and pillared clays.¹⁴ Until now, the most selective of these materials have been zeolite 13X¹² and a series of isostructural MOFs with a high density of unsaturated metal sites.⁶ The success of these materials was attributed to their pore diameters (10 and 11 Å, respectively), which were identified by Monte Carlo simulations as close to ideal.

All microporous solids tested for SF₆ separation so far have been insoluble, extended networks or macromolecules. Nitschke et al. demonstrated that a metal–organic capsule could capture and release SF₆ in solution,²⁷ but such molecular

separation of SF₆ by a cage molecule has not yet been shown in the gas phase. However, there is also growing interest in porous molecular cages.^{15–26} These cages contain an internal void that is accessible via well-defined windows, and the rigid structure of the cages prevents collapse, thus providing porosity for guest molecules. Porous organic cages have been synthesized from imines,^{15–17} boronic esters,²⁸ and by direct carbon–carbon bond forming reactions.²⁹ Apparent Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface areas for nitrogen as high as 3758 m² g^{−1} have been achieved.³⁰ Since these cages are discrete molecules, as opposed to frameworks, they are soluble in common organic solvents and can be processed into support materials and precipitated or crystallized into the solid state as required. We previously reported a class of [4 + 6] cycloimine cage compounds that show gas uptakes and physicochemical stabilities that are remarkable for molecular organic crystals.^{31–33} The gas sorption properties of these cages depends both on their molecular structure, and on their crystal packing, and many of these cages can exist as multiple polymorphs.^{31,34,35} These cages are excellent candidates for the molecular separation of noble gases,³⁶ chiral molecules,³⁶ and hydrocarbon isomers.^{37–39} In this study, a series of these organic cages (Figure 1) was investigated for their potential in the separation of SF₆. One cage, CC3, shows remarkably high SF₆ selectivity, and this is related to the flexible nature of the molecular cage crystal.

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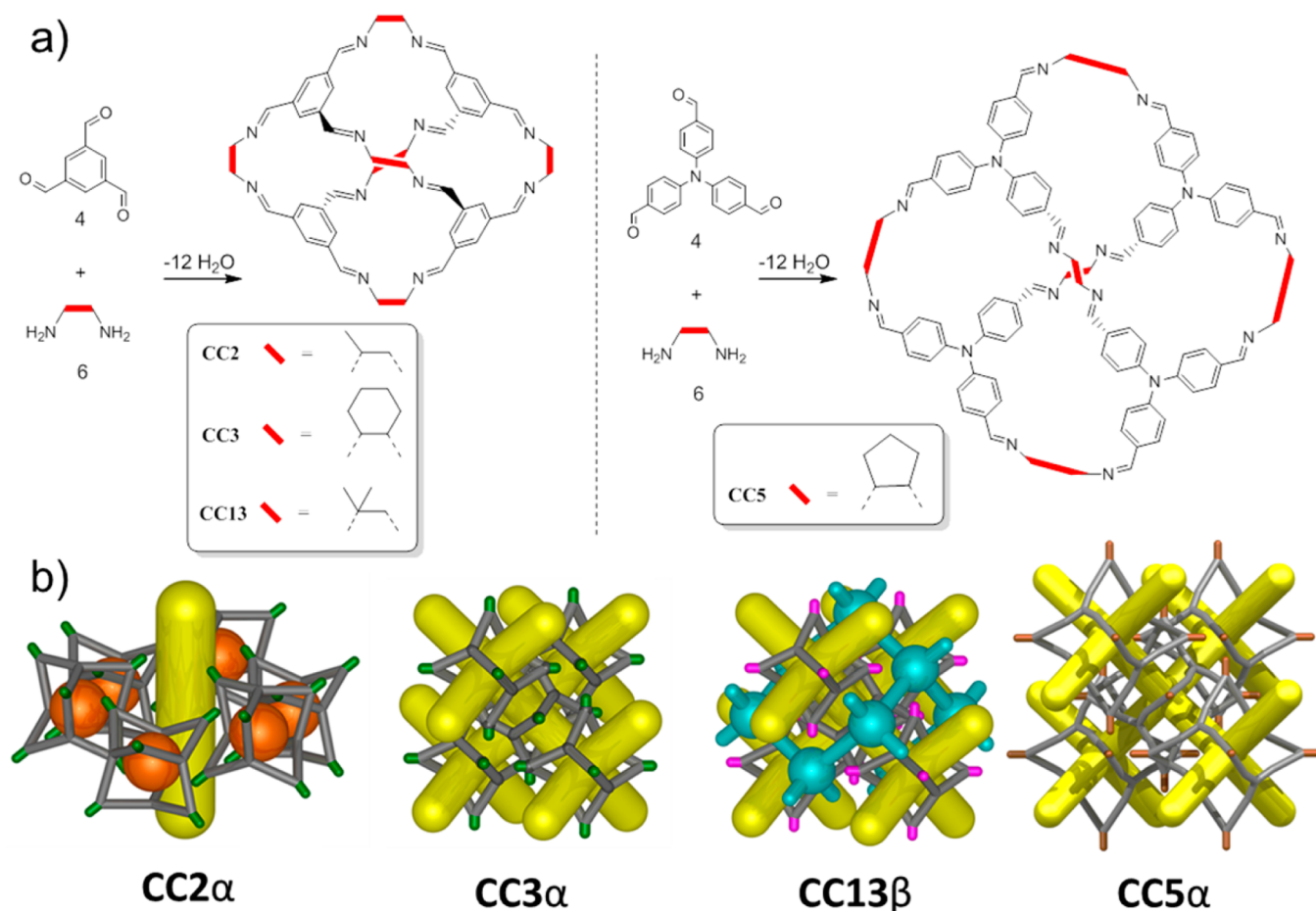


Figure 1. (a) Synthesis and structure of cages CC1, CC2, CC5, and CC13. (b) Simplified structural representations of the packing and porosity of these cages as derived from single crystal structures. CC2α exhibits one-dimensional pore channels (yellow) in addition to internal cage cavities (orange), which may also be accessible depending on the size of the guest. CC3α has a 3D diamondoid pore network (yellow). CC13β packs with the same diamondoid pore network as CC3α (running through the inside of the cages, shown in yellow), but with an additional, narrower interpenetrating diamondoid pore network between the cages (cyan). CC5α packs in the same window-to-window fashion, but the cages and hence the pore channels (yellow) are larger.

METHODS

Materials and Synthesis. 1,3,5-Triformylbenzene (TFB) was purchased from Manchester Organics, UK and used as received. 2-Methyl-1,2-propanediamine was purchased from TCI Europe and used as received. All other chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used as received. All cages were synthesized as described previously.^{31,33,40,41}

Gas Sorption Analysis. Powder samples were degassed offline at 100 °C for 15 h under dynamic vacuum (10^{-5} bar) before analysis, followed by degassing on the analysis port under vacuum, also at 100 °C. Isotherms were measured using a micromeritics 3flex surface characterization analyzer, equipped with a Cold-Edge technologies liquid helium cryostat chiller unit for temperature control.

Single Crystal Diffraction Data. Evacuated prism shaped single crystals of CC3α were exposed to dry SF₆ at 1 bar pressure. The crystals were transferred to a sample vial and after 28 h a single crystal data collection was recorded.

Single crystal X-ray data for CC3-S·(SF₆)_{2.5}·(H₂O)₃ was measured at beamline I19, Diamond Light Source, Didcot, UK using silicon double crystal monochromated synchrotron radiation ($\lambda = 0.6889$ Å, Kappa 4-circle goniometer, Rigaku Saturn724+ detector).⁴² Empirical absorption corrections, using equivalent reflections, were applied by the program SADABS.⁴³ The structure was solved by SHELXD,⁴⁴ and refined by full-matrix least-squares on $|F|^2$ by SHELXL,⁴⁴ interfaced through the program OLEX2.⁴⁵ Absolute configuration was determined using *a priori* knowledge of the cage chirality. For full

refinement details, see the [Supporting Information](#) (SI). Supplementary single crystal XRD data, including structure factors, is available free of charge from the Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre (CCDC) via www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk/data_request/cif.

Crystal data for CC3-S·(SF₆)_{2.5}·(H₂O)₃, CCDC number CCDC 1437443: Formula C₁₄₄H₁₇₄F₁₅N₂₄O₃S_{2.5}; $M = 2654.40$ g·mol⁻¹; triclinic space group *P*1, colorless prism shaped crystal; $a = 17.385(5)$, $b = 17.425(6)$, $c = 17.479(6)$ Å; $\alpha = 60.384(3)$, $\beta = 60.308(3)$, $\gamma = 60.168(3)^\circ$; $V = 3768(2)$ Å³; $\rho = 1.170$ g·cm⁻³; $\mu = 0.108$ mm⁻¹; $F(000) = 1405$; crystal size = $0.13 \times 0.07 \times 0.07$ mm³; $T = 100(0)$ K; 52 288 reflections measured ($1.376 < \theta < 25.503^\circ$), 28 131 unique ($R_{\text{int}} = 0.0448$), 22 028 ($I > 2\sigma(I)$); $R_1 = 0.0894$ for observed and $R_1 = 0.1091$ for all reflections; $wR_2 = 0.2549$ for all reflections; max/min difference electron density = 0.801 and -0.923 e·Å⁻³; data/restraints/parameters = 28 131/363/1786; GOF = 1.037. Flack parameter 0.14(4). The structure was refined with the TWINLAW [100 001 010] and BASF refined to 0.227(2).

Laboratory X-ray Powder Diffraction. Powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) data were collected in transmission mode on loose powder samples held on thin Mylar film in aluminum well plates on a Panalytical X'Pert PRO MPD equipped with a high throughput screening (HTS) XYZ stage, X-ray focusing mirror, and PIXcel detector, using Cu Kα radiation. Data were measured over the range 4–50° in $\sim 0.013^\circ$ steps over 60 min.

In Situ PXRD Gas-Loading. In situ powder diffraction data under an SF₆ atmosphere were collected at beamline I11 at Diamond Light Source using the low pressure capillary gas cell.⁴⁶ A finely ground

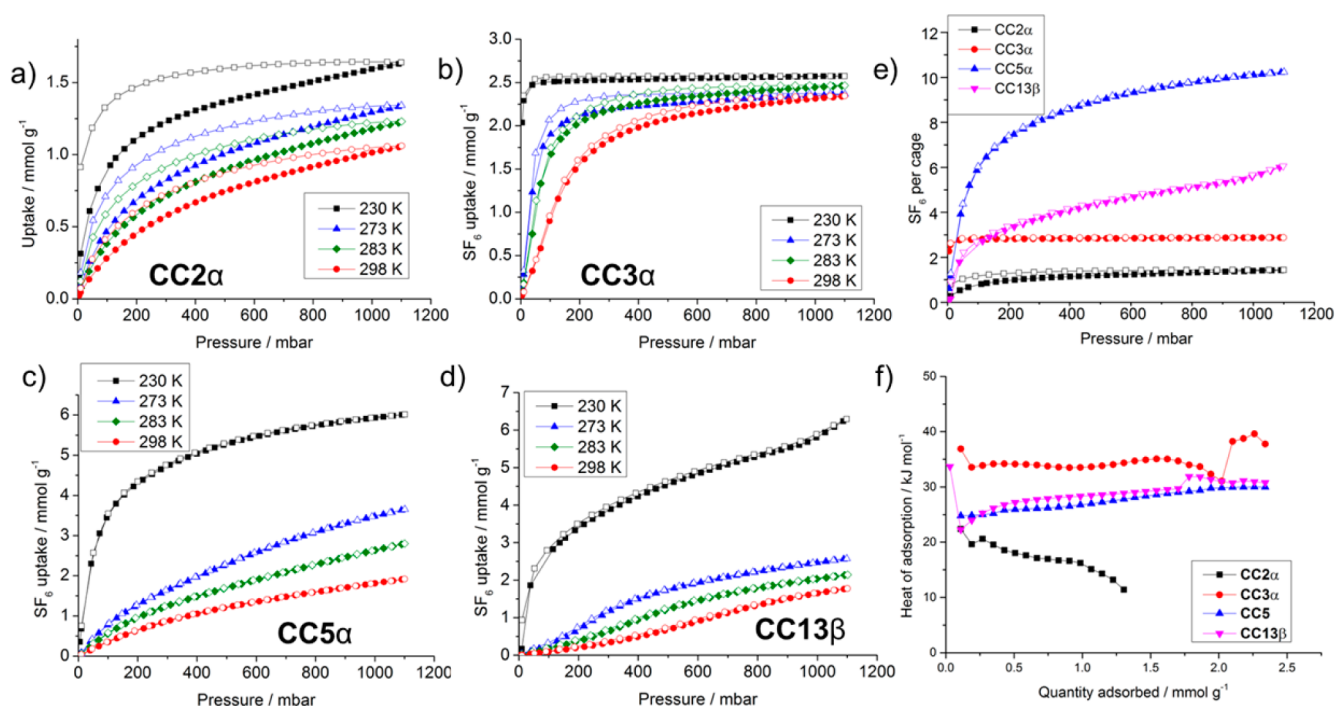


Figure 2. Gas sorption isotherms for the uptake of SF₆ in the various cages; adsorption curves shown as filled symbols, desorption curves as unfilled symbols. (a) CC2 α , (b) CC3 α , (c) CC5 α , and (d) CC13 β . (e) This plot shows the uptake expressed in terms of the number of SF₆ molecules per cage molecule at 230 K. (f) Heat of adsorption of SF₆ for the various cages.

sample of CC13 β was packed in a 0.7 mm diameter borosilicate capillary and mounted on the low-pressure capillary gas cell. Samples were activated by heating to 350 K using an Oxford Cryostream Plus under dynamic vacuum (approximately 10⁻⁵ mbar). Data were collected using the Mythen-II position sensitive detector (PSD) at 230 K. An initial powder diffraction profile of guest-free CC13 β was collected under dynamic vacuum. The sample was rocked through $\pm 15^\circ$ in θ to improve powder averaging. Gas was dosed into the system, initially to 2.7 bar and then 3 bar. Samples were allowed to equilibrate at both pressures for approximately 45 min after gas was dosed into the cell. PXRD data were collected during this time to monitor equilibration. The sample was then evacuated at 373 K under dynamic vacuum and the powder profile collected to confirm removal of the guest from the pore structure.

Metadynamics Simulations. A 100 ns well-tempered metadynamics simulation was performed with DL_POLY2.20⁴⁷ and PLUMED2.⁴⁸ The OPLS-AA force field parameters,⁴⁹ and the Leapfrog Verlet algorithm⁵⁰ with a time step of 0.5 fs was used. The Nose-Hoover thermostat⁵¹ was used to keep the temperature fixed at 300 K and no interactions were applied between periodic images in a cubic system with cell length 39 Å. A time step of 0.5 fs with sampling step of 1 ps was chosen and full molecular motion was allowed throughout the simulation. The collective variable along which the metadynamics bias was accumulated measured the distance between the center of mass of the fully flexible CC3 and the sulfur atom of the SF₆. Gaussian hills with a width of 0.15 nm and an initial height of 1.2 kJ mol⁻¹ were added every 500 MD steps and the so-called well-tempered factor was set equal to 10. The free energy surface was calculated using the “sum_hills” utility of PLUMED2 with the minimum shifted to zero. An additional well-tempered metadynamics simulation using two collective variables (the distance and a torsion angle) was performed to analyze the mechanism further; see the SI for further details.

Breakthrough Experiments. Breakthrough curves were measured for a fixed bed of CC3 α or zeolite 13X at 298 K using a 90:10 (v/v) N₂/SF₆ gas mixture. The breakthrough curves were measured using an automated breakthrough analyzer (manufactured by Hiden Isochema, Warrington, U.K.). CC3 α was made into small pellets (500–700 μ m),

which were packed into an adsorption bed for the breakthrough experiment. The materials were activated in situ by heating to appropriate activation temperatures and flowing helium through the column. Desorption of N₂/SF₆ was performed by flowing helium through the bed at the same flow rate as the breakthrough experiment. The effluents were measured by an in-line mass spectrometer. Further details are in the SI.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Gas adsorption analyses revealed that all four cages were porous to SF₆, but with marked differences in terms of adsorption capacities that relate to their structures (Figure 2). It is interesting that SF₆ is adsorbed by the smaller cages at all: from a simple static representation of their crystal structures, SF₆ would not be expected to be able to diffuse through the pore channels of CC2 α , CC3 α , and CC13 β . However, these organic crystals are somewhat flexible.⁵² They are composed of discrete molecules held together by weak intermolecular dispersion forces, rather than covalently bonded frameworks, and this has been shown previously to allow “porosity without pores”.^{53–55} Hence CC2 α , CC3 α , and CC13 β can adsorb SF₆, despite the fact that this gas is larger than the static window diameter in the cages. The kinetic diameter of SF₆ is 5.5 Å,⁵⁶ and thus one might not expect it to diffuse into the smaller imine cages (CC2, CC3, CC13) since their window diameters are ~ 3.6 Å.⁵² Indeed, previous unbiased MD simulations for CC3 α demonstrated that SF₆ did not escape the cage cavity in which it was originally positioned over a 10 ns simulation using a force field tailored to describe the flexibility in imine cages.⁵² Hence, to analyze the SF₆ diffusion mechanism for these smaller cages and to calculate the energetic barrier to this event, we carried out well-tempered metadynamics simulations of SF₆ and a single CC3 molecule (see the SI for full simulation details). To understand the diffusion mechanism, we can think of the SF₆ molecule as two connected triangular faces, rather

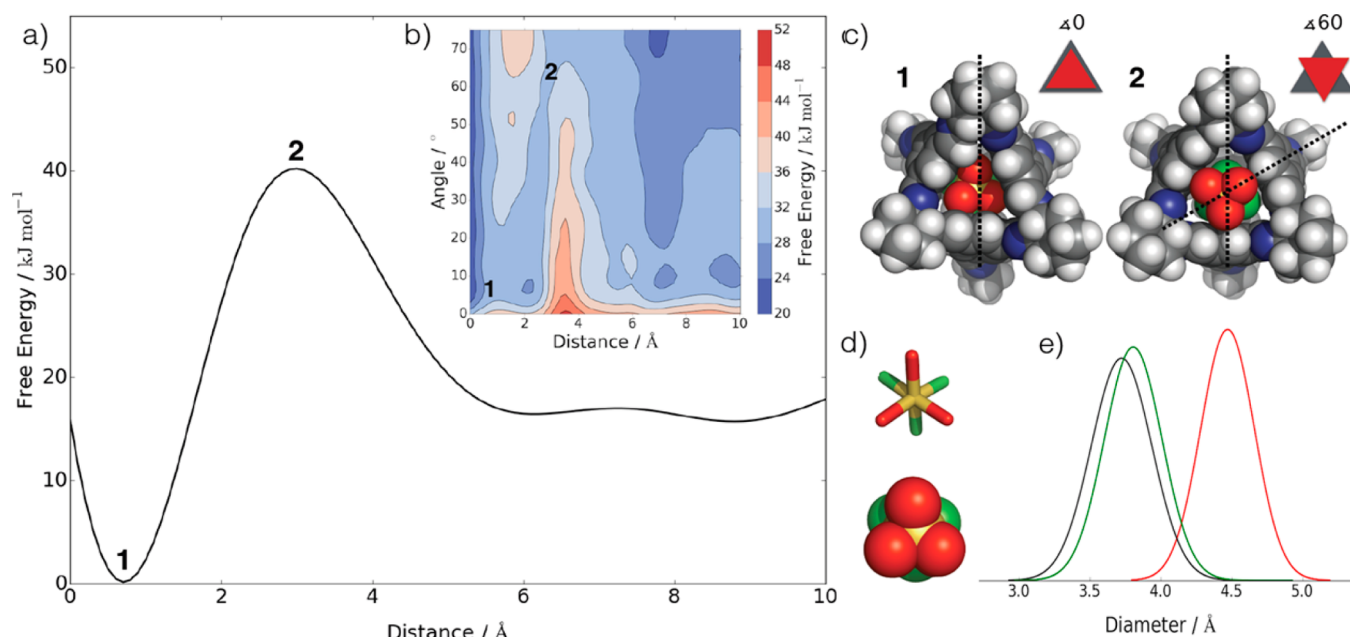


Figure 3. (a) Free energy surface for a single SF₆ molecule diffusing through the window of a single CC3 cage as a function of the distance between the centers of mass of CC3 and SF₆. (b) The 2D free energy as a function of the distance used for (a) and the angle of rotation as shown in part (c). (c) CC3 and SF₆ configurations corresponding to the positions marked 1 (left) and 2 (right) on the plots. Structure 1 corresponds to the global minimum orientation with SF₆ in the CC3 cavity, and structure 2 represents the structure at highest point of the free energy surface, when SF₆ is placed exactly in the center of the window. The angle used for the y-axis in panel (b) is indicated on these configurations. This angle is small when the SF₆ begins to escape from the cage and increases as the SF₆ reaches position 2. (d) Stick and spacefill representations of the SF₆ molecule. The three fluorine atoms that diffuse through the window first are colored red. (e) Comparison of the pore envelope of the CC3 window, for an empty cage (black), for CC3 with SF₆ occupying the cage cavity (green), and for cage where SF₆ is positioned in the window (red).

than a sphere that describes the widest possible diameter. As can be seen in Figure 3 and Movie S1, SF₆ exits the cage by first aligning its outermost triangular face with the triangular cage window. There is then a rotation of ~60° (Figure 3a–d) such that the second face can align with the cage window and thus pass through. The barrier to the SF₆ diffusion through the flexible cage window is calculated to be at most 40 kJ mol⁻¹, and the configurations near the saddle point have the center of the SF₆ traversing the window. While crystal packing effects would likely influence this barrier to a small extent, it is of similar magnitude to that previously calculated for the allowed *para*-xylene diffusion in the same host system.³⁷ It is therefore reasonable that the SF₆ diffuses, albeit slowly, in this system. A comparison of a single empty CC3 window diameter distribution with the measured window diameter during the SF₆ passage (Figure 3e) reveals the cooperative character of the mechanism. Clearly, the cage window size increases when the SF₆ is inside the window.

CC3 α shows the highest affinity for SF₆ of the four cages tested, and a steep type I isotherm that saturates at low pressures (Figure 2b). This is manifested in the highest heat of adsorption of ~35–40 kJ mol⁻¹ (Figure 2f). The saturation uptake corresponds to around 2.9 SF₆ molecules per CC3 cage (Figure 2e). This is consistent with one SF₆ molecule in the internal cage cavity, plus one SF₆ molecule shared in each of the four window–window sites surrounding every cage, equating to a maximum theoretical loading of 3 SF₆ molecules per CC3 cage. CC2 α shows the lowest SF₆ uptake and the lowest heat of adsorption (Figure 2a, f). The 1D pore channels in CC2 α ,³³ which run between the hexagonally arrayed cages, are wide enough to accommodate SF₆. The uptake of 1.4 SF₆ molecules per cage (Figure 2e) confirms that these 1D channels must be

at least partially occupied. CC5 α displays the highest SF₆ adsorption capacity, of 10.2 SF₆ per cage, in line with its larger internal void size and its higher surface area and pore volume.⁴¹ However, the heat of adsorption is much lower than for CC3 α , and hence CC5 α adsorbs less SF₆ at lower pressures. CC13 β gives a lower heat of adsorption than CC3 α , despite having a similar pore structure. The difference between the high temperature (298 K) and low temperature (230 K) SF₆ uptakes for CC13 β is significant. At 230 K, CC13 β adsorbs around 6 SF₆ molecules per cage—that is, twice as much gas as CC3 α . This can be rationalized only if the SF₆ molecules are located in the intercage sites, of which there are three per CC13 (Figure 1b; blue nodes), as well as in the cage cavities and the window–window sites. While these intercage sites were shown previously to be accessible to nitrogen,³¹ the size of the nodes relative to SF₆ suggested to us that significant rearrangement would be required to accommodate this larger gas. To explore this, the adsorption of SF₆ in CC13 β was monitored by PXRD (Figure 4). The PXRD pattern changes significantly as the structure is loaded with SF₆, losing intensity in the high angle range. This is consistent with the preservation of the long-range packing of the cage modules, but a more disordered local structure, which could allow the large SF₆ guest to diffuse through the crystal. This reorganization of the CC13 structure allows the incorporation of such a large quantity of SF₆ (6 per cage), which cannot not be rationalized by the original empty structure. It is remarkable that the crystallinity is restored completely to its initial state after removal of the SF₆, even after multiple cycles (Figure S1). This behavior is allowed by the relatively weak dispersion forces between the cages, which enable reorganization in response to guests.

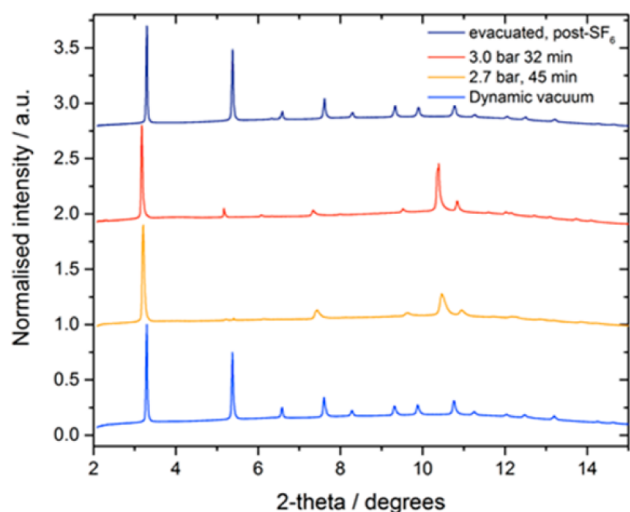


Figure 4. Powder X-ray diffraction data for in situ SF_6 loading of $\text{CC13}\beta$ at 230 K. Under excess pressures of SF_6 , the $\text{CC13}\beta$ structure becomes more disordered at short-range, indicated by loss of high angle diffraction intensity. The original profile is totally regained after guest removal by vacuum.

The SF_6 isotherms for $\text{CC3}\alpha$ suggested excellent potential for SF_6 separation from nitrogen, and therefore the nitrogen isotherms were measured at equivalent temperatures (Figure S2) to allow the calculation of ideal adsorbed solution theory (IAST) predicted selectivity (Figures 5 and S3).⁵⁷ The

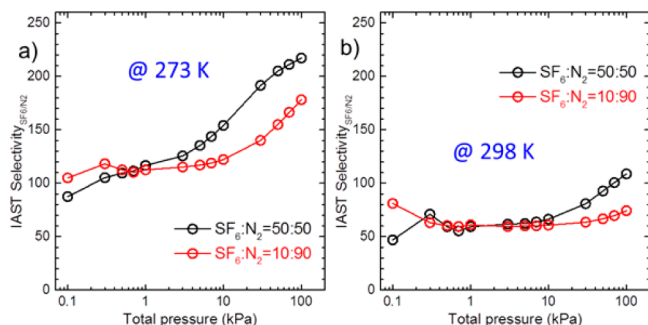


Figure 5. IAST selectivity plots for SF_6 over N_2 for $\text{CC3}\alpha$ at $\text{SF}_6:\text{N}_2$ ratios of 50:50 and 10:90 at (a) 273 K and (b) 298 K.

industrially relevant composition for separation of an SF_6/N_2 mixture is $\text{SF}_6:\text{N}_2 = 10\%:90\%$.^{6,12} At 1 bar pressure, $\text{CC3}\alpha$ gives a selectivity of 178 at 273 K and 74 at 298 K. This surpasses the most promising candidate material previously reported, UiO-66-Zr (selectivity = 74, at 1 bar, 293 K)⁵⁸ and other similar framework materials such as Zn-MOF-74 (selectivity = 46, at 1 bar, 298 K),⁶ Ca-A zeolite (28 at 1 bar, 298 K),¹³ and zeolite-13X (44 at 1 bar, 298 K).¹² The total capacity of $\text{CC3}\alpha$ for SF_6 is higher than that of many of the frameworks reported (e.g., UiO-66-Zr is ~ 1.5 mmol, at 293 K and 1 bar), but lower than that of the highest (Mg-MOF-74 = 6.42 mmol g^{-1} at 1 bar, 298 K).

A crystallographic study allowed for the location of SF_6 in $\text{CC3}\alpha$ to be accurately determined (Figures 6 and S4). Well-ordered SF_6 molecules were located, with full site occupancies, in the intrinsic CC3 cavities (Figure S4). CC3 provides an ideal fit for SF_6 in terms of both size and geometry of the cage cavity (Figure 6), which explains the high heat of adsorption that we observe. The ordering of SF_6 molecules in the CC3 cavities

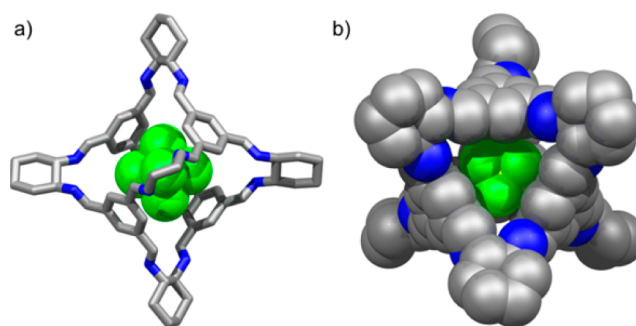


Figure 6. (a) Resolved position of SF_6 in the CC3 cavity determined from the single crystal structure; (b) space filling representation as viewed through a cage window.

transforms the crystallographic symmetry from $F4_132$, as determined for the empty $\text{CC3}\alpha$ host, to $P1$, but this does not alter the crystal packing of the CC3 molecules.

IAST calculations are useful to suggest selectivity in a separation of two or more gases for an adsorptive separation process, but IAST does not accurately represent a gas mixture flowing through a packed bed of material.⁵⁸ In particular, IAST calculations say little about separation kinetics since the calculations are derived from single-component gas sorption isotherms that are collected at thermodynamic equilibrium. Therefore, breakthrough experiments were carried out to establish the practical potential of $\text{CC3}\alpha$ for N_2/SF_6 separations, and in particular to demonstrate that the SF_6 diffusion kinetics are sufficiently fast for real separations. All breakthrough experiments were performed at 298 K with a 90:10 (v/v) N_2/SF_6 mixture. The breakthrough curves and desorption curves for N_2 and SF_6 flowing through a bed of $\text{CC3}\alpha$ are shown in Figure 7. The selectivity determined from

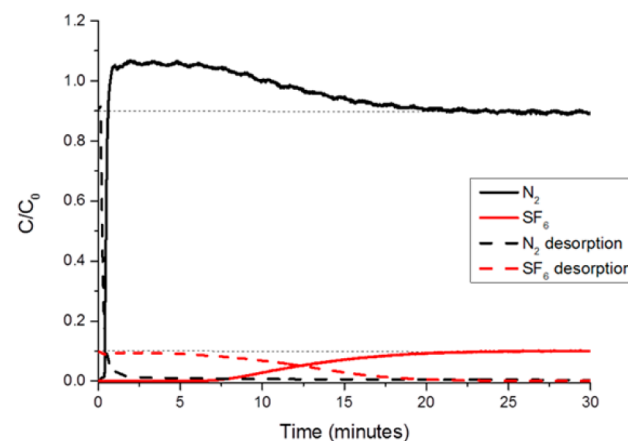


Figure 7. N_2/SF_6 (90:10) breakthrough curve for $\text{CC3}\alpha$ at 298 K. Total flow rate was 25 mL min^{-1} , and pressure was 1 bar. Desorption was performed by flowing helium through the bed at the same flow rate and pressure.

the relative uptake capacities is 76.5, in good agreement with the IAST calculations. Nitrogen breaks through the column within 1 min, whereas SF_6 does not start to break through until after 6.5 min and does not completely break through until approximately 20 min. The large difference in breakthrough time between N_2 and SF_6 reflects the much higher affinity of $\text{CC3}\alpha$ toward SF_6 . The breakthrough curve for N_2 shows the characteristic “roll-up” as the concentration at the outlet is

temporarily higher than at the inlet as the SF₆ is preferentially adsorbed and displaces the N₂. The desorption was performed by flowing helium through the column under the same conditions as for breakthrough. N₂ is desorbed quickly from the column, with 97% of the gas being desorbed within the first minute. As expected, SF₆ is desorbed more slowly, with full desorption taking about 20 min, approximately the same time as for full breakthrough.

Breakthrough and desorption curves for CC3 α and zeolite 13X at three different gas flow rates are compared in Figures S5 and S6. In each case, the desorption of SF₆ from CC3 takes approximately the same time as the full breakthrough. However, for zeolite 13X with a 25 mL min⁻¹ flow rate, SF₆ desorption takes twice as long as it does to breakthrough (Figure S6). The more rapid desorption efficiency of CC3 α therefore gives it a potential advantage over zeolite 13X as a material for N₂/SF₆ separation.⁵⁹

SUMMARY

Intrinsically porous molecules, as opposed to framework or network materials, have been investigated for SF₆ uptake separation. Despite the pore limiting diameters in CC3 α being considerably narrower^{36,52} than the 11 Å recommended as the optimum pore size by simulation,⁶⁰ this cage shows unprecedented selectivity for SF₆ over N₂. Our simulations suggest this may be a result of the flexibility of the CC3 α molecular crystal, which allows SF₆ to diffuse by cooperative effects, before the structure relaxes back to produce a closer, near-ideal interaction with the SF₆ guest. This hypothesis is further supported by research reported by Camp and Sholl while this Article was being written.⁶¹ In that study, transition state theory methods were used to simulate the diffusion of various gases in CC3 α , and it was found for SF₆ that no diffusion would be expected in a static system, while diffusion should be possible if the flexibility of the host is taken into account. The IAST selectivity of CC3 α for an industrially relevant mixture of 10:90 SF₆:N₂ at 298 K and 1 bar is higher than that of other reported materials. Breakthrough experiments confirmed that CC3 α is effective for separation of N₂ and SF₆. Also, desorption curves show that SF₆ is more efficiently desorbed from CC3 α than from zeolite 13X. Flexibility in MOFs has been found to provide higher gas capacities.⁶² Similarly, the flexibility of molecular crystals, such as CC3 α , allows for a stronger gas binding with SF₆, which gives these materials potential for practical gas separations under flow.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/jacs.5b11797.

Crystallographic details, analysis equipment and conditions, and further characterization details (PDF)

CC3 SF₆ crystallographic data (CIF)

Example of the mechanism via which the SF₆ molecule diffuses through one of the four CC3 windows from the internal cavity of CC3 to the exterior (MPG)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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