

Cu-TDPAT, an *rht*-Type Dual-Functional Metal–Organic Framework Offering Significant Potential for Use in H₂ and Natural Gas Purification Processes Operating at High Pressures

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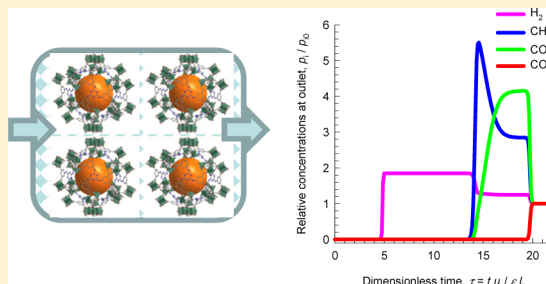
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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: The separations of CO₂/CO/CH₄/H₂, CO₂/H₂, CH₄/H₂, and CO₂/CH₄ mixtures at pressures ranging to 7 MPa are important in a variety of contexts, including H₂ production, natural gas purification, and fuel-gas processing. The primary objective of this study is to demonstrate the selective adsorption potential of an *rht*-type metal–organic framework [Cu₃(TDPAT)(H₂O)₃]·10H₂O·5DMA (Cu-TDPAT), possessing a high density of both open metal sites and Lewis basic sites. Experimental high pressure pure component isotherm data for CO₂, CO, CH₄, and H₂ are combined with the Ideal Adsorbed Solution Theory (IAST) for estimation of mixture adsorption equilibrium. The separation performance of Cu-TDPAT is compared with four other microporous materials, specifically chosen in order to span a wide range of physicochemical characteristics: MgMOF-74, MIL-101, LTA-5A, and NaX. For all mixtures investigated, the capacity of Cu-TDPAT to produce the desired product, H₂ or CH₄, satisfying stringent purity requirements, in a fixed bed operating at pressures exceeding about 4 MPa, is either comparable to, or exceeds, that of other materials.



1. INTRODUCTION

Metal–organic frameworks (MOFs) offer considerable potential for use in a variety of separations based on selective adsorption of one or more components from fluid mixtures.^{1–4} MOFs are composed of multifunctional organic molecules linked by metal cations and offer a nearly limitless number of combinations to form new structures, resulting in an immense versatility in the possible geometries and surface properties. The specific advantages offered by MOFs over traditionally used adsorbent materials such as zeolites and activated carbon include (1) chemical tunability to any specific separation application, (2) precisely controlled pore sizes spanning a wider range, 3–20 Å, (3) wider range of pore volumes, 0.2–2 cm³ g⁻¹, and (4) the possibility of incorporating functional groups decorating the pore walls. The chemical tunability of MOF adsorbents is advantageous for CO₂ capture,^{2,4–6} separation of O₂/N₂ mixtures,⁷ alkane/alkenes,^{8–10} and selective adsorption of ethyne.^{10–13} The ability to tune the channel dimensions is of particular importance in the separation of alkane isomers.¹⁴ The incorporation of functional groups serves to enhance the selectivity of separations.^{11,15}

The main focus of this article is on high-pressure separations of gaseous CO₂/CO/CH₄/H₂, CO₂/CH₄, CO₂/H₂, and CH₄/

H₂ mixtures, operating at pressures ranging to 7 MPa in Pressure Swing Adsorption (PSA) units.

Hydrogen is commonly generated by steam-reforming of methane. This process generates CO and H₂ that is converted by the water-gas shift reaction to generate CO₂ and more H₂. For production of H₂, significant amounts of CO₂ need to be removed, along with relatively smaller amounts of CO and CH₄, at pressures that often exceed 3 MPa.^{2,16–18} The PSA processes are commonly designed to produce H₂ at purity levels ranging from 98 to 99.99%.¹⁸ The commonly used adsorbents are LTA-5A^{19,20} (with Na⁺ and Ca²⁺ extra-framework cations) and NaX²¹ (also commonly denoted by its trade name 13X, with Na⁺ extra-framework cations) zeolites.

The purification of pure H₂ from refinery off-gases is important in the petroleum industry.²² The gas mixtures contain approximately 50% H₂ at 0.5–5 MPa.^{23–25} Here, the impurities are C1–C5 hydrocarbons of which CH₄/H₂ separation is the most difficult separation to achieve.

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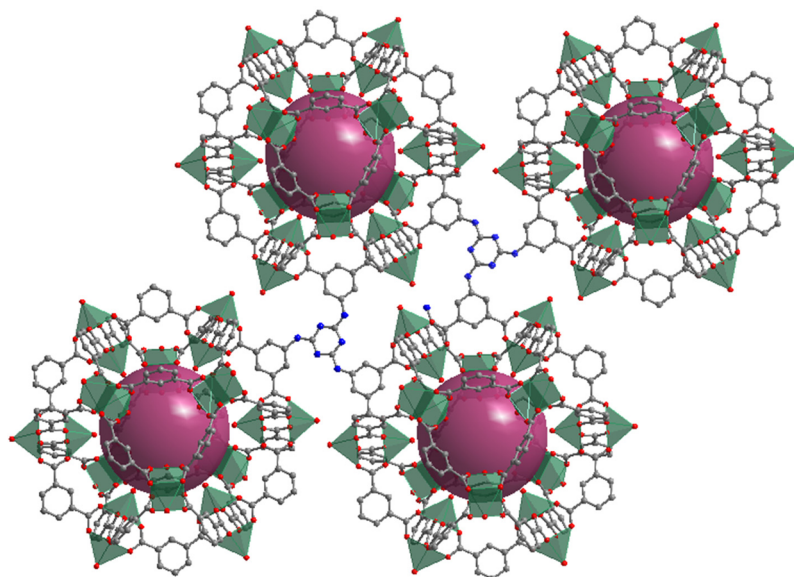


Figure 1. Crystal structure of Cu-TDPAT. Color scheme: copper, dark-green (shown as square pyramid); carbon, gray; oxygen, red; nitrogen, blue; void space, large violet sphere. H atoms are omitted for clarity. The structure shown here is the form including terminal water molecules, namely, $[\text{Cu}_3(\text{TDPAT})(\text{H}_2\text{O})_3]$. The framework remains intact upon removal of coordinated water molecules (see Figure S2 in the Supporting Information).

Separation of CO_2 from CH_4 is relevant to the purification of natural gas, which can have up to 92% CO_2 impurity at its source.¹² Removal of CO_2 , which is most commonly accomplished using amines, is conducted between 2 and 7 MPa.¹⁷ The separation requirements for production of liquefied natural gas (LNG) are rather stringent, often requiring the achievement of impurity levels of less than 500 ppm CO_2 in LNG.

The primary objective of this study is to demonstrate the selective adsorption potential of an *rht*-type metal–organic framework $[\text{Cu}_3(\text{TDPAT})(\text{H}_2\text{O})_3] \cdot 10\text{H}_2\text{O} \cdot 5\text{DMA} = \text{Cu-TDPAT}$, $\text{H}_6\text{TDPAT} = 2,4,6\text{-tris}(3,5\text{-dicarboxylphenylamino})\text{-1,3,5-triazine}$, for the aforementioned high-pressure purification processes. Cu-TDPAT²⁶ is the smallest member of (3,24)-connect nets of *rht* topology^{27–31} made of a three-armed hexacarboxylate ligand and 24 $\text{M}_2(\text{COO})_4$ paddle-wheel based supramolecular building blocks (SBBs),^{32,33} as shown in Figure 1. Cu-TDPAT is featured with a high density of both open metal sites (1.76 nm^{-3}) and Lewis basic sites (3.52 nm^{-3}). This dual functionality is the main reason for its high adsorption capacity and strong binding affinity toward CO_2 . In their earlier report, Li et al.²⁶ had examined the potential of Cu-TDPAT only for separation of CO_2/N_2 mixtures under near ambient pressures relevant to flue gas processing.

To underscore its potential, we compare the separation characteristics of Cu-TDPAT with four other adsorbents: MgMOF-74³⁴ (also denoted as CPO-27-Mg or $\text{Mg}_2(\text{dobdc})$ ($\text{dobdc}^{4-} = 2,5\text{-dioxido-1,4-benzenedicarboxylate}$), MIL-101,³⁵ LTA-5A, and NaX. While MgMOF-74 does not possess any Lewis basic sites, it has a very high density of open metal sites (4.3 nm^{-3}) and highly polarized Mg–O bonds, which are the major contributors to its exceptionally high binding affinity and uptake amount for CO_2 . The recent work of Herm et al.^{12,16} indicates that MgMOF-74 is attractive for H_2 and natural gas purification processes, outperforming NaX zeolite. MIL-101, whose selective adsorption potential for CO_2 , CO, and CH_4 has been investigated by Chowdhury et al.,³⁶ has the most porous framework. However, it lacks Lewis basic sites and has a very

small density of open metal sites (0.78 nm^{-3}). LTA-5A and NaX zeolites have the smallest pore volume, and the strong adsorption potential for CO_2 is attributable to Coulombic interactions with extra-framework cations.

2. ADSORPTION ISOTHERMS

Pure component isotherm measurements on a properly activated Cu-TDPAT sample were carried out for CO_2 , CO, CH_4 , and H_2 for pressures ranging to at least 5 MPa in order to be able to predict the high pressure separation performance with the required accuracy and reliability. Further details of synthesis and structure of Cu-TDPAT, along with the experimental details of the isotherm measurements and the isotherm fit parameters using the dual Langmuir–Freundlich model are provided in the Supporting Information accompanying this publication.

According to DFT calculations (see Supporting Information), the strongest adsorption sites of CO_2 are at unsaturated Cu metal centers that form the internal surface of the cages (Cu-1, namely, one of the two Cu atoms in each $\text{Cu}_2(\text{COO})_4$ paddle-wheel unit that points toward the cage void); there are 24 such Cu sites per unit cell. The adsorption of 1 molecule of CO_2 per Cu-1 metal corresponds with a molar loading of 1.88 mol kg^{-1} (8.24 wt %) at which the pure component isotherm exhibits a pronounced inflection; see Figure 2a. For adsorption of the other species CO, CH_4 , and H_2 , no such pronounced inflection in the isotherm occurs, as is evidenced in the comparisons of the isotherm data at 298 K in Figure 2b.

The required pure component isotherm data for MgMOF-74, MIL-101, LTA-5A, and NaX, along with the structural details, are obtained from literature sources; see Supporting Information.

3. ISOSTERIC HEAT OF ADSORPTION

The isosteric heat of adsorption, Q_{st} , defined as

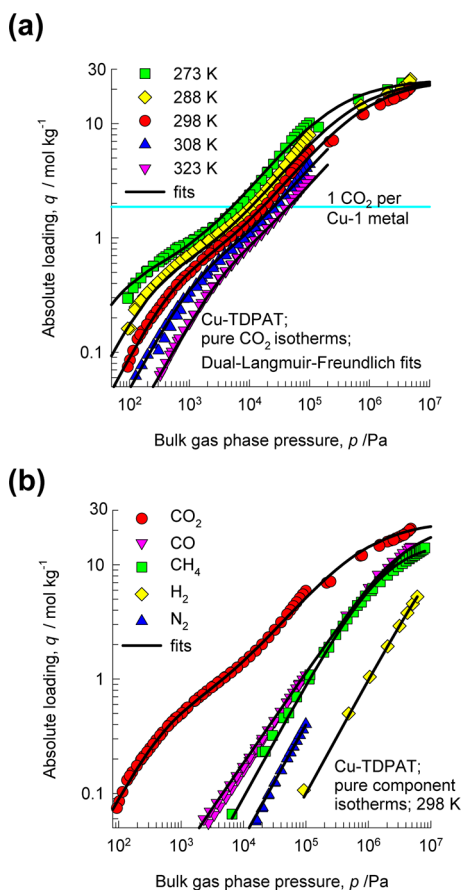


Figure 2. (a) Comparison of the experimentally determined absolute component loadings for CO₂ at 273 K, 288 K, 298 K, 308 K, and 323 K. (b) Comparison of the experimentally determined absolute component loadings for CO₂, CO, CH₄, H₂, and N₂ in Cu-TDPAT at 298 K. The continuous solid lines are the isotherm fits using fit parameters that are provided in the Supporting Information.

$$Q_{\text{st}} = RT^2 \left(\frac{\partial \ln p}{\partial T} \right)_q \quad (1)$$

were determined using the pure component CO₂ isotherm fits. Strictly speaking, the derivative in eq 1 is to be determined with the *absolute* loading, q , held constant; see Myers and Monson.³⁷ This aspect appears to be insufficiently appreciated in some of the published literature analyzing high-pressure adsorption data,^{36,38,39} while others have been careful in converting excess loadings to absolute loadings for the purposes of calculating Q_{st} .^{7,15,16,40–43} In Figure 3, the loading dependence of Q_{st} for Cu-TDPAT are compared with the corresponding ones for adsorption of CO₂ in MIL-101, MgMOF-74, LTA-5A, and NaX. The strong inflection in the CO₂ isotherm for Cu-TDPAT, at a loading of 1 CO₂ per Cu-1 atom, leads to a corresponding sharp decline in Q_{st} values. The Q_{st} for MgMOF-74 shows an analogous sharp decline when the loading approaches 1 CO₂ per Mg atom.⁴⁰ It is important to note that the plateau of Q_{st} at loadings in excess of 8 mol kg⁻¹ is higher for Cu-TDPAT than for MgMOF-74. We shall see later, that this has consequences for the separation performance at pressures in excess of 3 MPa for which the binding energy of CO₂ is higher in Cu-TDPAT than for MgMOF-74. For NaX zeolite, the value of Q_{st} has a constant value of 35 kJ mol⁻¹. MIL-101 has small pockets that preferentially locate CO₂; these

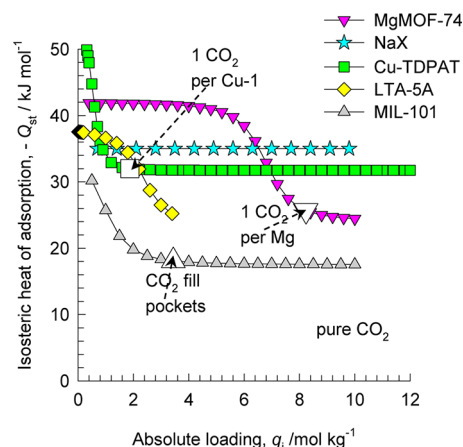


Figure 3. Comparison of isosteric heats of adsorption, Q_{st} , of CO₂ in Cu-TDPAT, MIL101, MgMOF-74, LTA-5A, and NaX. The calculations of Q_{st} are based on the use of the Clausius–Clapeyron equation, using *numerical* procedures for differentiation of the dual Langmuir–Freundlich model.

pockets are filled at a loading corresponding to 3.44 mol kg⁻¹, rationalizing the data presented in Figure 3.

4. IAST CALCULATIONS OF ADSORPTION SELECTIVITIES AND UPTAKE CAPACITIES

The selectivity of preferential adsorption of component 1 over component 2 in a mixture containing 1 and 2 can be formally defined as

$$S_{\text{ads}} = \frac{q_1/q_2}{p_1/p_2} \quad (2)$$

In eq 2, q_1 and q_2 are the *absolute* component loadings of the adsorbed phase in the mixture. In all the calculations to be presented below, the calculations of S_{ads} are based on the use of the Ideal Adsorbed Solution Theory (IAST) of Myers and Prausnitz.⁴⁴ The validity of IAST estimations of CO₂/CH₄, CO₂/H₂, CH₄/H₂, and CO₂/N₂ mixture equilibria in a variety of MOFs (MgMOF-74, MOF-177, and BTP-COF) and zeolites (FAU, LTA, MFI, and CHA) has been established in earlier publications by comparison of IAST calculations with molecular simulations of binary adsorption equilibrium.^{12,14,45,46} The demonstrated applicability of the IAST for MOF-177, FAU, and LTA also implies that the same would apply for MIL-101, NaX, and LTA-5A that have similar pore topologies and adsorption strengths. It should be noted that the applicability of the IAST is restricted to cases in which there is a homogeneous distribution of adsorbate species throughout the microporous framework. The IAST predictions will fail when strong segregation effects are present. Examples of segregated adsorption include preferential siting of CO₂ at the window regions,^{47–49} preferential location at the intersections of network of channels,⁵⁰ or within pockets.⁵¹ Other conditions under which IAST calculations are not of adequate accuracy are discussed by Cessford et al.⁵²

The pore topology and sizes of the large cages of Cu-TDPAT are similar to those of CuBTC (HKUST-1). Configurational-Bias Monte Carlo (CBMC) simulations of the pure component adsorption isotherms of CO₂, CH₄, and H₂, along with CBMC simulations of 50/50 CO₂/CH₄ and 15/85 CO₂/H₂ mixtures, are available in the published literature for CuBTC.^{5,14,49,53,54} A detailed analysis of this data, presented in Section 8 of the

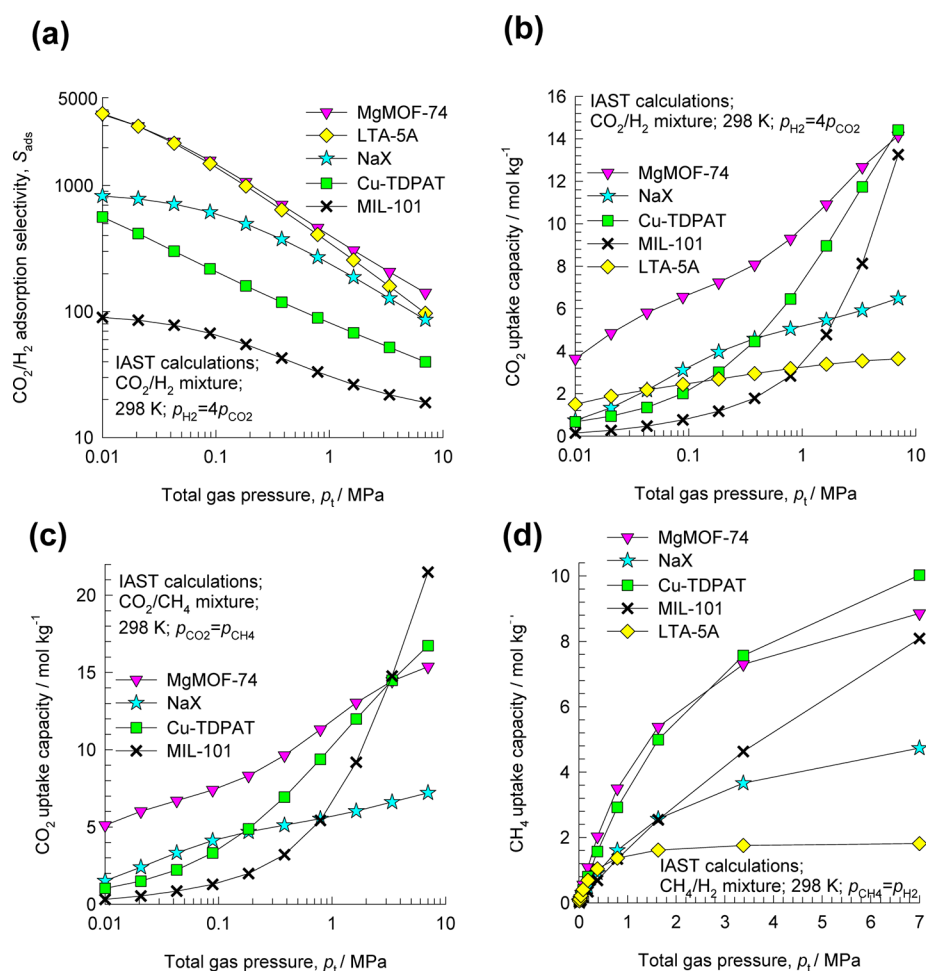


Figure 4. IAST calculations for (a) adsorption selectivity, (b) CO₂ uptake capacity of binary 20/80 CO₂/H₂ mixture at 298 K using five different adsorbents. (c) CO₂ uptake capacity of binary 50/50 CO₂/CH₄ mixture. (d) CH₄ uptake capacity of binary 50/50 CH₄/H₂ mixture.

Supporting Information, provide validation of the applicability of IAST to describe mixture adsorption in CuBTC. The same conclusion is expected to hold for Cu-TDPAT. Further validation, albeit indirect, of the IAST calculations will be provided below when comparing experimental breakthrough curves with simulations.

The IAST calculations need to be carried out using the pure component isotherm fits of *absolute* component loadings. This point needs to be emphasized here because the use of pure component isotherm fits in terms of excess loadings will lead to unreasonably high selectivities for high pressure separations, as has been demonstrated in recent work.⁵⁵ The accuracy of IAST calculations in estimation of mixture adsorption equilibrium has been established for a wide variety of guest–host combinations in zeolites and MOFs by comparison with molecular simulations.^{5,14,45,46,56,57}

Figure 4a illustrates the calculations of S_{ads} for 20/80 CO₂/H₂ mixtures. The highest selectivities are obtained with MgMOF-74 and LTA-5A over the entire pressure range and this is followed by NaX and Cu-TDPAT. MIL-101 has the lowest selectivity. The uptake of CO₂ in the *adsorbed* mixture is an appropriate measure of the capacity. Figure 4b presents IAST calculations of the CO₂ uptake capacities.

An examination of the data reveals that the selectivity and capacity factors do not go hand-in-hand. For operating pressures exceeding 1 MPa, LTA-5A and NaX zeolites have

lower uptake capacities; the reason for this can be traced to the pore volume of 0.25 and 0.28 cm³/g, which are significantly lower than that of the three MOFs. As a consequence of low pore volumes, the capacities of LTA-5A and NaX for CO₂ uptake becomes limiting for high-pressure operations. Put another way, MOFs with open structures are especially attractive for high-pressure separations; indeed, the recent patent issued for use of MIL-53 as adsorbent in H₂ purification is on the basis of its claimed *capacity* advantages.⁵⁸ MgMOF-74 is rather unique in that it has both high selectivity and high capacity. That is the reason that MgMOF-74 is often the adsorbent of choice for a variety of separations.^{12,14,16,40,59} The CO₂ uptake capacities for adsorption from CO₂/CH₄ mixtures show a similar trend; see Figure 4c.

For production of pure H₂ from CH₄/H₂ refinery gases, the uptake capacity of CH₄ is an important metric in comparing adsorbents, and the comparisons are provided in Figure 4d. It is noteworthy that Cu-TDPAT has a higher CH₄ uptake for pressures exceeding 2 MPa, exceeding even MgMOF-74. At a total pressure of 7 MPa, the uptake CH₄ capacity is 10 mol/kg, corresponding to 7.8 mol/L. This value is significantly higher than those for any of the 105 different MOFs examined by Wu et al.²⁵ in their large-scale computational screening study for CH₄/H₂ separation.

Further detailed results of IAST calculations of selectivity and capacity characteristics of all mixtures investigated here are provided as Supporting Information.

5. PACKED-BED BREAKTHROUGH SIMULATIONS AND EXPERIMENTS

It is well recognized that the separation characteristics of a PSA unit is dictated by a combination of adsorption selectivity and uptake capacity.^{60–62} Generally speaking, higher capacities are desirable because the adsorber bed can be run for longer lengths of time before the need for regeneration arises. For a rational choice of adsorbents for mixture separation at high pressures, we need to have a proper method of evaluation that combines the selectivity and capacity metrics in a manner that is a true reflection of the separation performance of a PSA unit. For this purpose, we perform transient breakthrough calculations following the methodologies developed and described in earlier works.^{59,62,63} A persuasive reason for performing such breakthrough calculations is that this procedure is the only one that ensures that the stringent purity constraints on the products, H₂ or CH₄, can be imposed in the comparisons.

Assuming plug flow of the gas mixture through the fixed bed maintained under isothermal conditions and negligible pressure drop, the partial pressures in the gas phase at any position and instant of time are obtained by solving the following set of partial differential equations for each of the species *i* in the gas mixture.

$$\frac{1}{RT} \frac{\partial p_i}{\partial t} = -\frac{1}{RT} \frac{\partial(v p_i)}{\partial z} - \frac{(1-\varepsilon)}{\varepsilon} \rho \frac{\partial q_i}{\partial t} \quad i = 1, 2, \dots n \quad (3)$$

In eq 3, *t* is the time, *z* is the distance along the adsorber, ρ is the framework density, ε is the bed voidage, *v* is the interstitial gas velocity, equal to the superficial gas velocity, *u*, divided by ε , *R* is the gas constant, and *T* is the temperature. The molar loadings of the species *i*, *q_i*, at any position *z*, and time *t* are determined from solution of the set of partial differential eqs 3. In these calculations, the loadings with a crystal at any given time *t* and position *z* are obtained from local thermodynamic equilibrium calculations using IAST.⁶³ Further details of the numerical procedures used to solve eq 3 to determine the transient breakthrough characteristics are available in the Supporting Information.

In order to establish the validity of the simulation methodology, breakthrough experiments were conducted for 50/50 CO₂/CH₄ and CO₂/H₂ mixtures in a setup similar to the one described by Britt et al;³⁴ details of the setup and procedure followed are supplied in the Supporting Information. Figure 5a,b provides a comparison of the breakthrough characteristics for 50/50 CO₂/CH₄ and CO₂/H₂ mixtures, respectively, for the activated and regenerated Cu-TDPAT samples. For both mixtures, there is close correspondence between breakthrough characteristics of the activated and regenerated samples. It was also established that the CO₂ uptake capacity remains practically unchanged even after repeated regenerations.

The continuous solid lines in Figure 5 represent solutions to eq 3 with data inputs corresponding to those in the experiments. The time at which CO₂ breaks through is very well predicted in the simulations. For natural gas and H₂ purification processes, the correct estimation of breakthrough

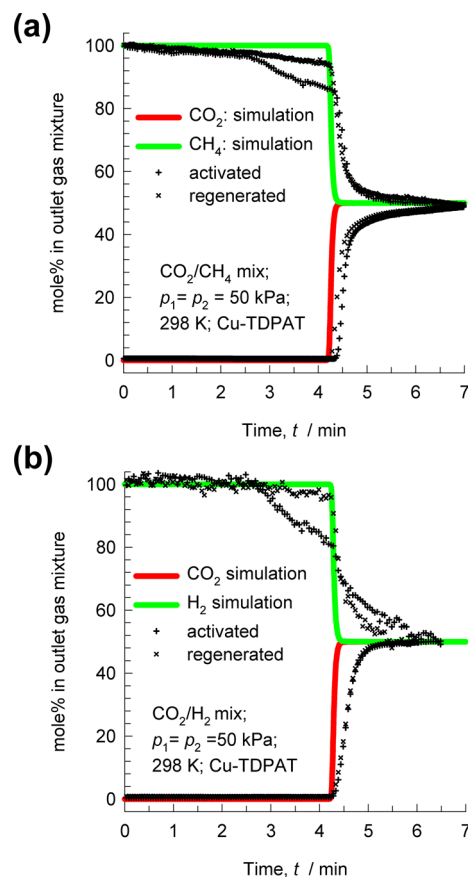


Figure 5. Experimentally determined breakthrough curves obtained for 50/50 (a) CO₂/CH₄ and (b) CO₂/H₂ mixtures using activated and regenerated samples. The smooth continuous lines are the simulation results.

times for CO₂ is of vital importance as they have a direct bearing on the CO₂ capture capacity, as will be elaborated later.

We also performed breakthrough simulations in which intracrystalline diffusion effects, described with the aid of rigorous Maxwell–Stefan diffusion equations are incorporated following the methodology described in earlier works.^{63,64} The diffusivities used for this purpose were those determined using MD simulations for the same set of guest molecules within CuBTC.^{5,14,49,53,54,65} CuBTC has a similar pore topology, cage size, and adsorption strengths as for Cu-TDPAT, and so, the diffusivities are expected to be similar in magnitude. The entire set of partial differential equations describing diffusion, adsorption, and convective flow were solved using the methodology developed in earlier work.⁶³ A comparison of the two sets of simulation results (details are provided in Section 11 of the Supporting Information) demonstrates that, even for a 400 μm crystal size, intracrystalline diffusion does not significantly influence the breakthrough times. Furthermore, any uncertainties in the diffusivity values assumed for Cu-TDPAT will have no impact on the breakthrough simulations. The excellent agreement between the breakthrough times obtained in the simulations and experiments also lead to the conclusion that the IAST calculations of adsorption equilibrium are of sufficient accuracy for the analysis presented below. In PSA practice, the MOF crystals, smaller than about 400 μm, will be embedded within a macroporous matrix before being packed into a fixed bed; consequently, diffusional effects will have no impact on the performance of Cu-TDPAT, even for

operations up to 7 MPa; simulation results supporting this conclusion are provided in Section 11 of the Supporting Information.

There are, however, deviations between the simulations and experiments *after* the CO₂ breaks through; the approach to the final steady-state is much sharper in the simulations than in the experiments. The reason for this is that the gas flow in the packed tubular bed is expected to be in laminar flow conditions, leading to a parabolic velocity profile. In the simulations, plug flow of the gas mixture is assumed with sharp velocity fronts traversing the bed. The deviations after the CO₂ breaks through have little consequence for the calculations of the amount of CO₂ captured because the adsorption cycle is terminated once the concentration level of CO₂ increases beyond the desired purity level.

Having established the accuracy of our breakthrough simulation methodology, we proceed to compare the separation performance of Cu-TDPAT with the other adsorbent materials. For this purpose, we compare the *equilibrium* behaviors, i.e., ignoring diffusional effects, of different materials in a fixed bed adsorber. Of the five different materials evaluated in this study, only LTA-5A is expected to suffer from severe diffusional limitations and its performance will be worse than that anticipated by an equilibrium model. The other four materials Cu-TDPAT, MgMOF-74, NaX, and MIL-101 have open structures, and the diffusivities are similar in magnitude.

6. COMPARISON OF BREAKTHROUGH CHARACTERISTICS OF DIFFERENT ADSORBENTS

In view of the wide variety of compositions and pressure ranges used in the H₂ production, natural gas purification, and fuel-gas processing, we performed breakthrough calculations for (a) 40/5/5/50 CO₂/CO/CH₄/H₂, (b) 40/10/50 CO₂/CH₄/H₂, (c) 20/80 CO₂/H₂, (d) 50/50 CO₂/CH₄, and (e) 50/50 CH₄/H₂ mixtures for pressures ranging from 0.1 to 7 MPa. The mixtures that we have considered do not include H₂O. Any moisture presumed is assumed to have been removed in initial pretreatment steps, involving condensation and dehumidification; this is common practice in natural gas processing and hydrogen production. The choice of these mixtures ensures that the conclusions to be drawn regarding the suitability of Cu-TDPAT are not restricted to a narrow range of compositions chosen. The complete set of simulation results for all mixtures is available in the Supporting Information. We begin by considering the results for a representative 40/5/5/50 CO₂/CO/CH₄/H₂ quaternary mixture, encountered typically in H₂ production.

Figure 6a shows typical gas phase concentrations at the exit of the adsorber packed with Cu-TDPAT for the separation of 40/5/5/50 CO₂/CO/CH₄/H₂ mixtures. The sequence of breakthroughs is in the order of increasing adsorption strengths: H₂, CH₄, CO, and CO₂. The breakthroughs of CH₄ and CO occur at almost the same time, and this is due to the fact that the adsorption strengths are nearly the same (cf. Figure 2b). The extent of impurities in H₂ produced are primarily dictated by the earlier breakthroughs of CH₄ and CO and only to a lesser extent by the breakthrough characteristics of CO₂ that is most strongly adsorbed. This also implies that the CH₄/H₂ and CO/H₂ adsorption selectivities are more significant determinants of the performance of the fixed bed adsorber than the CO₂/H₂ selectivity. Ranking adsorbents just on the basis of CO₂/H₂ selectivity is not justified even if CO₂ is the predominant impurity in the incoming gas stream; the less

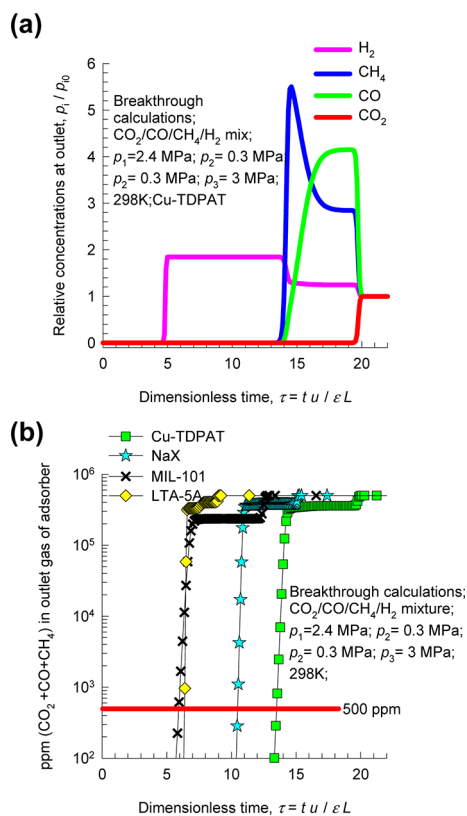


Figure 6. (a) Breakthrough characteristics a quaternary 40/5/5/50 CO₂/CO/CH₄/H₂ mixture in an adsorber packed with Cu-TDPAT and maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K and total pressure of 6 MPa. Video animations of the breakthrough simulations are available as Supporting Information. (b) Ppm (CO₂ + CO + CH₄) in outlet gas as a function of the dimensionless time, τ , defined by dividing the actual time, t , by the characteristic time, (L/v) . A comparison of the breakthrough characteristics of different adsorbents is presented in Figure 6b. Cu-TDPAT has the longest breakthrough time, followed by NaX. For industrial production of H₂, it is important to ensure that the sum of the impurities (CO₂ + CO + CH₄) in the outlet gas is below a specified level. We choose the impurity level to be 500 ppm (CO₂ + CO + CH₄) in outlet gas; this is a typical value in industry. When this impurity level is reached, the corresponding dimensionless breakthrough time, τ_{break} , can be determined.

strongly adsorbed CH₄, and CO determined the PSA performance to a larger extent. From the exit gas concentrations, we can determine the ppm (CO₂ + CO + CH₄) in outlet gas as a function of the dimensionless time, τ , defined by dividing the actual time, t , by the characteristic time, (L/v) . A comparison of the breakthrough characteristics of different adsorbents is presented in Figure 6b. Cu-TDPAT has the longest breakthrough time, followed by NaX. For industrial production of H₂, it is important to ensure that the sum of the impurities (CO₂ + CO + CH₄) in the outlet gas is below a specified level. We choose the impurity level to be 500 ppm (CO₂ + CO + CH₄) in outlet gas; this is a typical value in industry. When this impurity level is reached, the corresponding dimensionless breakthrough time, τ_{break} , can be determined.

Figure 7a, shows the influence of the total operating pressure on dimensionless breakthrough times, τ_{break} . The value of τ_{break} decreases for all materials with increasing pressure; this is due to limitations in the capacities with increasing pressure; this decrease becomes apparent for NaX, LTA-5A, and Cu-TDPAT for pressures exceeding about 2 MPa. MIL-101, that has the highest pore volume, displays almost no change in τ_{break} with increasing pressure. In other words, the decrease in τ_{break} is a reflection of the approach to pore saturation.

Figure 7b presents data on the number of moles of H₂ produced, with 99.95%+ purity, per kg of adsorbent material during the time interval 0– τ_{break} ; this quantity is obtained from a material balance across the fixed bed adsorber. The amount produced *per kg of material* is relevant for grass-roots design of

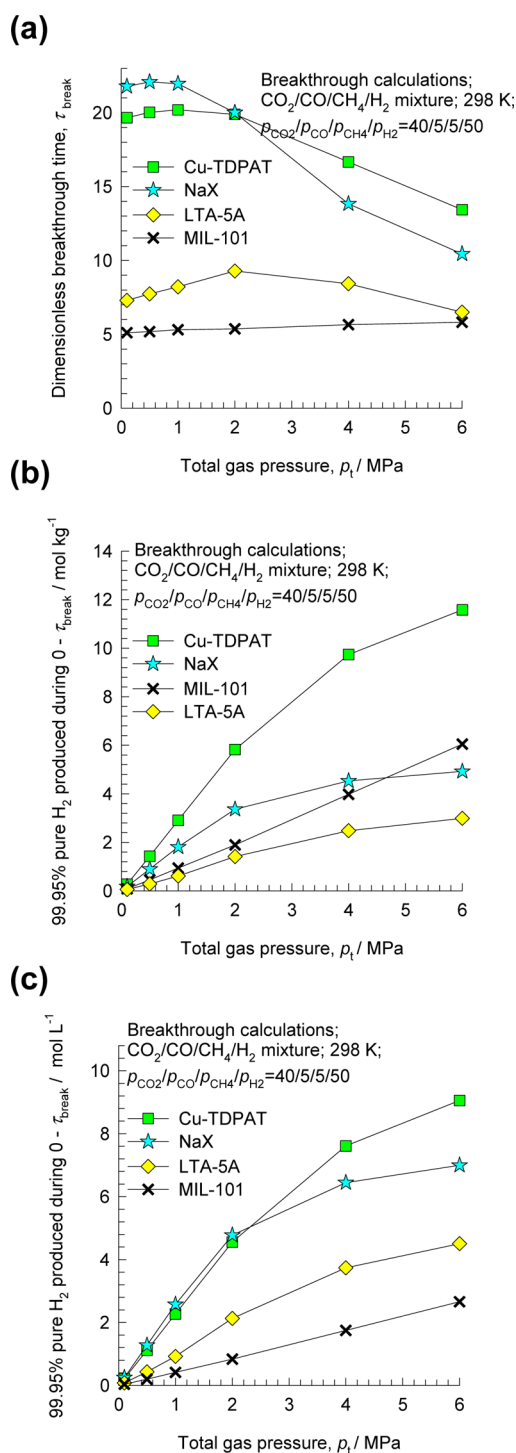


Figure 7. Influence of the total operating pressure on (a) dimensionless breakthrough times and the number of moles of 99.95%+ pure H_2 produced (b) per kg of adsorbent material and (c) per L of adsorbent material during the time interval $0 - \tau_{\text{break}}$. The breakthrough times, τ_{break} , correspond to those when the outlet gas contains 500 ppm ($\text{CO}_2 + \text{CO} + \text{CH}_4$).

PSA units; this metric is directly a reflection of the adsorbent cost. We note that, on a gravimetric basis, at a total pressure of 6 MPa, the production capacity of Cu-TDPAT is more than three times that of the commonly used industrial adsorbents NaX and LTA-5A zeolites.^{18,19} Particularly noteworthy is the performance of MIL-101 that has the poorest selectivity among

the four materials examined (cf. Figure 4a). Per kg of adsorbent, MIL-101 is able to produce more H_2 than either NaX and LTA-5A when the total system pressures exceed 4.5 MPa. The success of MIL-101 can be traced to the high gravimetric uptake capacity (cf. Figure 4b).

Figure 7c presents data on the number of moles of 99.95%+ pure H_2 produced per L of adsorbent material during the time interval $0 - \tau_{\text{break}}$. The volumetric production capacity is the relevant metric to use when deciding whether or not to replace the adsorbent currently used in an existing PSA unit. In this case, the adsorber dimensions are fixed, and therefore, the relevant comparison should be on a volumetric basis. Materials with more open structures such as MIL-101 have low framework densities and, consequently, significantly lower volumetric production capacities. For this reason, MIL-101 has the poorest volumetric production capacity over the entire pressure range. The comparison between Cu-TDPAT and NaX is interesting because NaX and Cu-TDPAT have roughly the same volumetric productivities for pressures below 2 MPa, but for $p_t > 2$ MPa, Cu-TDPAT outperforms NaX.

A combination of the results presented in Figure 7b,c would lead us to conclude that Cu-TDPAT is the *scenario robust* adsorbent of choice for use at H_2 production processes operating at pressures exceeding 4 MPa, performing well both for grass-roots design and also as replacement use in existing PSA units.

The relative costs of regeneration of the bed will be largely dictated by the desorption of the CO_2 captured during the interval $0 - \tau_{\text{break}}$. From a material balance on the adsorber, these values are determined to be 2.4, 4.4, 7.9, and 10.5 mol/kg, respectively, for LTA-5A, NaX, MIL-101, and Cu-TDPAT for 6 MPa operation. From the data on the isosteric heats of adsorption at these loadings (cf. Figure 3), the regeneration energy requirements can be calculated per kg of 99.95%+ pure H_2 produced; these values are 15.7, 11.5, 11.7, and 14.5 kJ/kg. In comparison with LTA-5A and MIL-101, the higher regeneration energy requirement for Cu-TDPAT will be compensated by the significantly higher productivity. It is also remarkable to note that Cu-TDPAT has not only a higher productivity but also a *lower* regeneration energy requirement than NaX.

In two recent publications on the evaluation of MOFs for H_2 and natural gas purifications, Herm et al.¹⁶ have presented IAST and breakthrough calculations for separation of $\text{CO}_2/\text{CH}_4/\text{H}_2$, CO_2/H_2 , CO_2/CH_4 , and CH_4/H_2 mixtures to demonstrate the superiority in the performance of MgMOF-74 when compared to NaX zeolite for operations up to 5 MPa. It is therefore important to compare the relative separation performances of Cu-TDPAT with MgMOF-74.

Figure 8a presents data on the separation of $\text{CO}_2/\text{CH}_4/\text{H}_2$ mixtures in a fixed bed adsorber packed with Cu-TDPAT, MgMOF-74, NaX, LTA-5A, and MIL-101. We note that, on a gravimetric basis, Cu-TDPAT becomes increasingly competitive with MgMOF-74 as the pressure increases, and for operations exceeding 3 MPa, Cu-TDPAT has a higher gravimetric H_2 production capacity than MgMOF-74; below 3 MPa, MgMOF-74 is the best adsorbent. Particularly noteworthy is the performance of MIL-101 that has the poorest selectivity among the five materials examined. Per kg of adsorbent, MIL-101 is able to produce more H_2 than either LTA-5A or NaX when the total system pressures exceed 4 MPa. The success of MIL-101 can be traced to the high gravimetric ($\text{CO}_2 + \text{CH}_4$) uptake capacity.

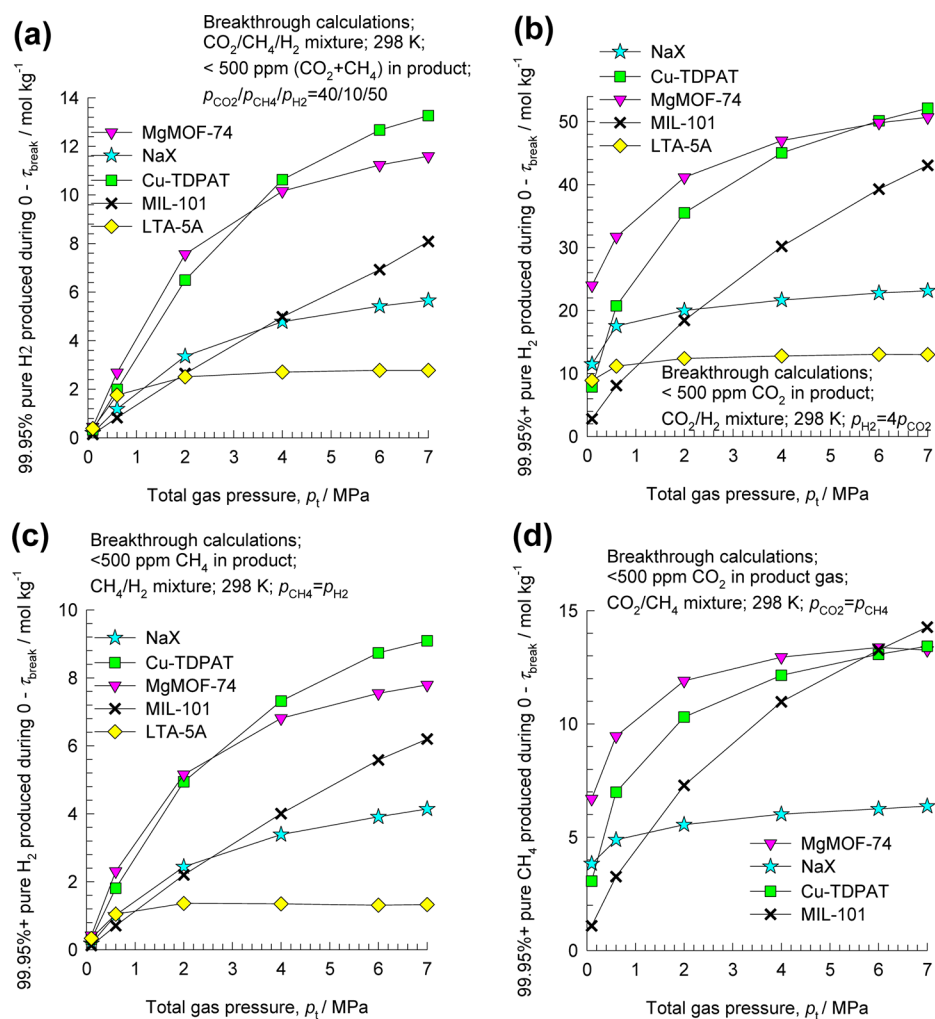


Figure 8. Influence of the total operating pressure on the number of moles of (a, b, d) 99.95%+ pure H₂ or (c) 99.95%+ pure CH₄ produced per kg of adsorbent material during the time interval 0– τ_{break} for separation of (a) 40/10/50 CO₂/CH₄/H₂, (b) 20/80 CO₂/H₂, (c) 50/50 CH₄/H₂, and (d) 50/50 CO₂/CH₄ mixtures. The breakthrough times, τ_{break} correspond to those when the outlet gas contains less than 500 ppm of impurity.

Analogous results are obtained for production of 99.95%+ pure H₂ by separation of CO₂/H₂ mixtures; see Figure 8b; Cu-TDPAT outperforms NaX, LTA-5A, and MIL-101 for all pressures exceeding 0.5 MPa. However, the performance of Cu-TDPAT is superior to that of MgMOF-74 only for pressures exceeding 6 MPa.

For production of 99.95%+ pure H₂ by separation of CH₄/H₂ mixtures relevant in the context refinery gas purifications, Cu-TDPAT has the highest productivity among five different materials when pressures exceed 2 MPa; see Figure 8c.

In natural gas purification, the crucial separation is that of the CO₂/CH₄ binary mixture. The gravimetric productivities of CH₄, containing less than 500 ppm CO₂, are compared in Figure 8d. We note that, while NaX is superior to Cu-TDPAT for operations at atmospheric pressure, the efficacy of Cu-TDPAT becomes evident for higher pressures. A further point to note is that Cu-TDPAT becomes increasingly competitive with MgMOF-74 as the pressure increases, and for operations at 6 MPa, Cu-TDPAT has a CH₄ productivity comparable to that of MgMOF-74. Particularly noteworthy is the performance of MIL-101 that has the poorest selectivity among the four materials examined. Per kg of adsorbent, MIL-101 is able to produce the most amount of 99.95%+ pure CH₄ when the total system pressures exceed 6 MPa. The superiority of MIL-101 is

not maintained when comparisons are made on the amount of CH₄, produced per L of adsorbent; indeed MIL-101 is the lowest productivity using this metric.

7. CONCLUSIONS

This work has demonstrated the potential of Cu-TDPAT for separation of CO₂/CO/CH₄/H₂, CO₂/CH₄/H₂, CO₂/H₂, CH₄/H₂, and CO₂/CH₄ mixtures at pressures ranging to 7 MPa in PSA units. The separation performance of Cu-TDPAT has been compared with MgMOF-74, MIL-101, LTA-5A, and NaX zeolites. For a realistic comparison, breakthrough calculations were performed for a fixed bed adsorber operating at 298 K; in these calculations, the adsorber was packed with the same volume of adsorbents. The following set of conclusions can be derived.

- (1) The capture capacity of a relatively stronger adsorbing component such as CO₂ from mixtures with relatively weaker adsorbing components is dictated by a combination of (a) adsorption selectivity and (b) uptake capacity of the strongly adsorbing species. High adsorption selectivities alone do not guarantee a high capture capacity in PSA units; this point is particularly relevant for materials with relatively low uptake capacities such as

LTA-5A and NaX that have high adsorption selectivities but suffer capacity limitations for operations at pressures in excess of 1 MPa.

- (2) The relative productivities of 99.95%+ pure H₂ or CH₄ can be judged either on a gravimetric (i.e., per kg of adsorbent) or volumetric (i.e., per L of adsorbent) basis. More open MOFs structures such as Cu-TDPAT and MIL-101, with large pore volumes, become increasingly attractive with increasing pressures.
- (3) For all mixtures, the productivity with Cu-TDPAT exceeds that of the commonly used zeolites NaX and LTA-5A, for pressures exceeding about 1 MPa. The zeolites have relatively low pore volumes and experience capacity limitations at high pressures.
- (4) For all CO₂-bearing mixtures examined, Cu-TDPAT is able to outperform MgMOF-74 on a gravimetric basis when the system pressure exceeds about 4 MPa. For H₂ purification from refinery gases, Cu-TDPAT outperforms MgMOF-74 above 2 MPa.

The major conclusion to emerge from this study is that Cu-TDPAT has significant potential for use as adsorbent in the grass-roots design of H₂ production, natural gas purification, and fuel-gas processing operations operating at high pressures.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

● Supporting Information

(a) Structural and synthesis details for Cu-TDPAT. (b) Details of experimental isotherm data measurements for Cu-TDPAT. (c) Isotherm fit parameters for all pure component isotherms of the four materials considered in this work, along with validation of the IAST. (d) Details of the numerical procedure used in breakthrough calculations. (e) Details of the experimental procedure for breakthrough measurements and comparison with breakthrough simulations including diffusion. (f) IAST calculation results of selectivity and capacity for all mixtures. (g) Breakthrough calculation results for all mixtures considered in this work. (h) Video animations showing 4-component breakthrough simulations. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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Supplementary Information (ESI) to accompany:

Cu-TDPAT, a *rht*-type Dual-Functional Metal–Organic Framework Offering Significant Potential for Use in H₂ and Natural Gas Purification Processes Operating at High Pressures

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1. Synthesis, structure and porosity of Cu-TDPAT

$[\text{Cu}_3(\text{TDPAT})(\text{H}_2\text{O})_3] \cdot 10\text{H}_2\text{O} \cdot 5\text{DMA}$ (Cu-TDPAT)¹ is the smallest member of (3, 24)-connect nets of *rht* topology²⁻⁶ made of a three-armed hexacarboxylate ligand and 24 $\text{M}_2(\text{COO})_4$ paddle-wheel based supramolecular building blocks (SBBs)^{7, 8}. Solvothermal reaction of 2,4,6-tris(3,5-dicarboxylphenylamino)-1,3,5-triazine (H_6TDPAT) with excess amount of $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ in a mixture of DMSO and DMA at 85 °C for 3 days produced blue, hexagonal-shaped crystals of Cu-TDPAT in high yield (83.3%, based on ligand).¹ The structure of Cu-TDPAT is highly porous and contains three different types of cages, cuboctahedron (*cub- O_h*), truncated tetrahedron (*T- T_d*), and truncated octahedron (*T- O_h*), as shown in Figure 1. The structure shown here is the form including terminal water molecules, namely $[\text{Cu}_3(\text{TDPAT})(\text{H}_2\text{O})_3]$. The framework remains intact upon removal of coordinated water molecules as is evident in Figure 2 which shows the XRD patterns of as-synthesized and outgassed samples. We note that the (see Figure S2 in the Supporting Information). The pore volume, BET and Langmuir surface areas are estimated to be $0.93 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$, $1938 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ and 2608, respectively, calculated from N_2 adsorption isotherms (77 K). Cu-TDPAT is featured with a high density of both open metal sites (1.76 nm^{-3}) and Lewis basic sites (3.52 nm^{-3}). This dual functionality is the main reason for its high adsorption capacity and strong binding affinity toward CO_2 .

2. MOF and zeolite structures chosen for comparison with Cu-TDPAT

While the main objective of the present study is to demonstrate the efficacy of Cu-TDPAT for separation of $\text{CO}_2/\text{CO}/\text{CH}_4/\text{H}_2$, CO_2/CH_4 , CO_2/H_2 , and CH_4/H_2 mixtures, we also compare its separation characteristics with four other microporous structures: MgMOF-74, MIL-101, LTA-5A, and NaX zeolite; for further details on these structures detailed information on pore sizes, surface areas, pore size distributions, along with pore landscapes are available in the published literature.⁹⁻¹² Figure 3 depicts the structural frameworks of MIL-101, MgMOF-74, LTA-5A, and NaX. The physical characteristics all four structures evaluated in this study are summarized in Table 1. Figure 4 presents a 3D bar plot

comparing the surface areas, pore volumes and framework densities of the five structures. A particularly noteworthy point is that the zeolites LTA-5A (with Na⁺ and Ca⁺⁺ extra-framework cations), and NaX zeolite (also commonly denoted by its trade name 13X, with Na⁺ extra-framework cations) have the smallest pore volume, lowest surface area and the highest framework density. At the other end of the spectrum, MIL-10 has the highest pore volume, highest surface area but the lowest framework density. We shall see later that these physical characteristics have important consequences for the breakthrough characteristics in a Pressure Swing Adsorption (PSA) unit.

While MgMOF-74 does not possess any Lewis basic sites, it has a very high density of open metal sites (4.3/nm³) and highly polarized Mg-O bonds, which are the major contributors to its exceptionally high binding affinity and uptake amount for CO₂. MIL-101, on the other hand, has the most porous framework among the three MOFs, however its lowest adsorbed amount and binding energy are attributed to lack of Lewis basic sites and a very small density of open metal sites (0.78 nm⁻³).

In all cases the comparisons are made for an operating temperature of 298 K. Also, the comparisons will be made on the performance of the selected materials in a fixed bed adsorber operating isothermally at 298 K.

3. DFT calculations

The adsorption energies of CO₂ in Cu-TDPAT were calculated by density functional theory (DFT). The structure model was constructed from the single crystal data of Cu-TDPAT. CO₂ molecule was manually placed at different positions near the Cu-TDPAT framework. Optimized ground-state geometries were obtained using generalized gradient approximation (GGA) in the parameterization of Perdew, Burke and Ernzerhof¹³ with a double numerical plus polarization (DNP) basis set. During the calculations, the framework atoms of Cu-TDPAT were fixed to be immobile. All of the calculations were performed using DMol3 implemented in the *Materials Studio* package (Materials Studio 4.0, Accelrys Software Inc., 2005). Integration accuracy, SCF tolerance, orbital cutoff and geometry optimization quality were all set to “FINE”. The DFT calculations confirm that both open-metal sites and Lewis basis sites in Cu-TDPAT have higher adsorption energies than the benzene site..

4. Experimental isotherm measurements in Cu-TDPAT

Low pressure and high pressure CO gas sorption experiments were performed on volumetric gas sorption analyzers using Autosorb-1 MP (Quantachrome Instruments) and HPVA-100 (Micromeritics), respectively.

Ultra-high-purity grade gases (CO₂, CO, CH₄, N₂, H₂) were used for isotherm determinations. Some salient details are provided below.

CO₂ isotherms

CO₂ of research grade (99.998%, GTS-Welco) was used. Prior to the gas adsorption experiments, an as-synthesized sample of Cu-TDPAT was treated by replacing non-volatile DMA and DMSO with methanol. Solvent-exchanged sample (~656 mg) was loaded and outgassed at 120 °C for 12 h under a high dynamic vacuum.

The isotherms were measured up to 4.8 MPa at both 298K and 288K. At 273K, data were collected up to 3.5 MPa before CO₂ starts to condense in the sample cell.

A part of the data for CO₂ isotherms correspond to those reported in earlier work of Li et al.¹ These data were extended to other temperatures, and higher pressures in some cases.

CO isotherms

Ultra high purity CO (99.995%) was used in all the isotherm determinations. Exhaust CO was vented into hood. Two CO monitors were installed for CO detection. The sample of Cu-TDPAT was activated at 398 K under high vacuum overnight. Outgassed samples in the amount of ~90 mg and 218 mg were used for low pressure and high pressure gas sorption measurements, respectively, and the weight of each sample was recorded before and after outgassing to confirm the removal of guest molecules and to ensure the framework integrity.

CH₄ isotherms

The data for CH₄, including both low- and high- pressure regions are those measured and reported in earlier work of Li et al.¹

H₂ isotherms

The data for H₂, including both low- and high- pressure regions are those measured and reported in earlier work of Li et al.¹

N₂ isotherms

The data for N₂, spanning only the low pressure region below 0.1 MPa, those measured and reported in earlier work of Li et al.¹

5. Fitting of pure component isotherms

For evaluating the performance of the five chosen adsorbent in separation of CO₂/CH₄, CO₂/H₂, and CH₄/H₂ gas mixtures we need to estimate the mixture adsorption equilibrium. For this estimation we rely on the Ideal Adsorbed Solution Theory (IAST) of Myers and Prausnitz.¹⁴ The accuracy of the IAST estimations have been established for a wide variety of guest-host combinations.^{9, 15-19} In using the IAST we need fits of the pure component isotherms for CO₂, CH₄, and H₂ for pressures ranging to at least 5 MPa in order to be able to predict the high pressure separation performance with the required accuracy and reliability.

Cu-TDPAT

The experimentally determined *excess* isotherm loadings were converted to *absolute* loadings using

$$q^{abs} = q^{excess} + \frac{pV_{pore}}{ZRT} \quad (1)$$

where Z is the compressibility factor. The Peng-Robinson equation of state was used to estimate Z . The accessible pore volume within the crystals, V_{pore} , was taken to be equal to experimentally determined value of 0.93 cm³/g.

The pure component isotherm data for CO₂, covering both the low and high pressure ranges measured for five different temperatures 273 K, 288 K, 298 K, 308 K, and 323 K were fitted with the dual-site Langmuir-Freundlich model

$$q = q_{A,sat} \frac{b_A p^{v_A}}{1 + b_A p^{v_A}} + q_{B,sat} \frac{b_B p^{v_B}}{1 + b_B p^{v_B}} \quad (2)$$

with T -dependent parameters b_A , and b_B

$$b_A = b_{A0} \exp\left(\frac{E_A}{RT}\right); \quad b_B = b_{B0} \exp\left(\frac{E_B}{RT}\right) \quad (3)$$

The exponents ν_A , and ν_B have non-unity values to cater for the steepness of the isotherms. The isotherm parameters are provided in Table 2. According to DFT calculations, the strongest adsorption sites of CO₂ are at unsaturated Cu metal centers that form the internal surface of the cages (Cu-1, namely one of the two Cu atoms in each Cu₂(COO)₄ paddle-wheel unit that points toward the cage void); there are 24 such Cu sites per unit cell. The adsorption of 1 molecule of CO₂ per Cu-1 metal corresponds with a molar loading of 1.88 mol kg⁻¹ (= 8.24 wt%) at which isotherm inflection occurs.

Table 3 presents the isotherm parameters for CO adsorption in Cu-TDPAT. Figure 5 provides a comparison of the experimentally determined absolute component loadings for CO at 273 K, 288 K, and 298 K with the isotherm fits using parameters specified in Table 3.

The pure component isotherms of CH₄, N₂ and H₂ in Cu-TDPAT do not demonstrate any inflection characteristics and the single-site Langmuir model

$$q = \frac{q_{sat}bp}{1+bp} \quad (4)$$

provides a compares an adequately good representation of the absolute component loadings.

MgMOF-74

For evaluating the performance of MgMOF-74 the pure component isotherm data for CO₂ and CH₄, were obtained from the works of Mason et al.²⁰, Herm et al.^{21, 22}, and Dietzel et al.²³. The measured experimental data on excess loadings were converted to absolute loadings for fitting purposes. The temperature-dependent fit parameters are specified in Tables 5, and 6. The pure component H₂ uptake data at 298 K are reported by Yaghi²⁴ in a document that is available on the web. The fit parameters are provided in Table 7.

NaX zeolite

For evaluating the performance of NaX zeolite we used the pure component isotherm data for CO₂, CH₄, and H₂ reported by Belmabkhout et al.²³ and Cavenati et al.²⁵ for a variety of temperatures. The excess loading reported in these papers are converted to absolute loadings using a pore volume of 0.28 cm³/g, along with the Peng-Robinson equation of state for estimation of the fluid phase densities within the pores. The temperature-dependent fit parameters are specified in Tables 8, and 9.

MIL-101

The measured experimental data on excess loadings published by Chowdhury et al.²⁶ on pure component isotherms for CO₂, and CH₄ at 295 K, 318 K, and 353 K in MIL-101 were first converted to absolute loadings using the Peng-Robinson equation of state for estimation of the fluid phase molar densities within the pores. The temperature-dependent fit parameters are specified in Tables 10, and 11. The pure component isotherm data for pure component H₂ at 298 K are reported by Latroche et al.²⁷. These data were fitted with the Langmuir constants specified in Table 12.

LTA-5A zeolite

Table 13 presents the 2-site Langmuir-Freundlich parameters for pure CO₂, CO, CH₄ and H₂ isotherms in LTA-5A zeolite. These fits are derived from fitting the data presented in Table 1 of Pakseresht et al.²⁸, along with Figure 6 of Sircar and Golden.²⁹

Figure 6 presents a comparison of uptake of CO₂ (expressed in absolute loadings) in Cu-TDPAT, MIL101, MgMOF-74, LTA-5A and NaX. The presented uptake data are based on the isotherm fits.

6. Isostatic heat of adsorption

The isosteric heat of adsorption, Q_{st} , defined as

$$Q_{st} = RT^2 \left(\frac{\partial \ln p}{\partial T} \right)_q \quad (5)$$

were determined using the pure component isotherm fits for CO₂ and CO. Strictly speaking, the derivative in equation (5) is to be determined with the *absolute* loading, q , held constant; see Myers and Monson.³⁰ This aspect appears to be insufficiently appreciated in some of the published literature

analyzing high pressure adsorption data,^{26, 31, 32} while others have been careful in converting excess loadings to absolute loadings for the purposes of calculating Q_{st} .^{20, 21, 33-37}

Figure 7 compares the isosteric heats of adsorption, Q_{st} , of CO₂ and CO in Cu-TDPAT. The calculations of, Q_{st} , are based on the use of the Clausius-Clapeyron equation, using *numerical* procedures for differentiation of the dual-Langmuir-Freundlich model.

7. Calculations of adsorption selectivity

The selectivity of preferential adsorption of component 1 over component 2 in a mixture containing 1 and 2, perhaps in the presence of other components too, can be formally defined as

$$S_{ads} = \frac{q_1/q_2}{p_1/p_2} \quad (6)$$

In equation (6), q_1 and q_2 are the *absolute* component loadings of the adsorbed phase in the mixture. In all the calculations to be presented below, the calculations of S_{ads} are based on the use of the Ideal Adsorbed Solution Theory (IAST) of Myers and Prausnitz.¹⁴ These calculations are carried out using the pure component isotherm fits of absolute component loadings. This point needs to be emphasized here, because the use of pure component isotherm fits in terms of excess loadings will lead to unreasonably high selectivities for high pressure separations, as has been demonstrated in recent work.¹²

8. Validation of IAST with the aid of CBMC mixture simulations

The validity of IAST estimations of CO₂/CH₄, CO₂/H₂, CH₄ /H₂, and CO₂/N₂ mixture equilibria in a variety of MOFs (MgMOF-74, MOF-177, BTP-COF) and zeolites (FAU, LTA, MFI, CHA) has been established in earlier publications by comparison of IAST calculations with molecular simulations of binary adsorption equilibrium.^{9, 17, 18, 22} The demonstrated applicability of the IAST for MOF-177, FAU and LTA also implies that the same would apply for MIL-101, NaX and LTA-5A that have similar pore topologies and adsorption strengths. It should be noted that the applicability of the IAST is restricted to cases in which there is a homogenous distribution of adsorbate species throughout the microporous framework. The IAST predictions will fail when strong segregation effects are present. Examples of

segregated adsorption include preferential siting of CO₂ at the window regions,³⁸⁻⁴⁰ preferential location at the intersections of network of channels,⁴¹ or within pockets.⁴² Other conditions under which IAST calculations are not of adequate accuracy are discussed by Cessford et al.⁴³

The pore topology and sizes of the large cages of Cu-TDPAT are similar to those of CuBTC (= HKUST-1) for which extensive investigations, both experimental and with the aid of molecular simulations, have already been conducted in the published literature. Configurational-bias Monte Carlo (CBMC) simulations of the pure component adsorption isotherms of CO₂, CH₄ and H₂, along with CBMC simulations of 50/50 CO₂/CH₄ and 15/85 CO₂/H₂ mixtures are available in the work of Krishna, van Baten and co-workers.^{9, 40, 44-46} We used this set of data to seek additional validation of the IAST for estimation of 50/50 CO₂/CH₄ and 15/85 CO₂/H₂ mixture adsorption equilibrium.

Figure 8a presents the CBMC simulations of the pure component adsorption isotherms of CO₂, CH₄ and H₂ in CuBTC (= HKUST-1) at 300 K. The continuous solid lines in Figure 8a are the dual-Langmuir-Freundlich fits of the pure component isotherms. Figure 8b compares the CBMC simulations of 50/50 CO₂/CH₄ mixture adsorption with IAST calculations (indicated by continuous solid lines). Figure 8c compares the CBMC simulations of 15/85 CO₂/H₂ mixture adsorption in CuBTC with IAST calculations. For both mixtures there is excellent agreement between CBMC mixture simulations and IAST (indicated by continuous solid lines). This provides validation of the use of IAST. The continuous solid lines are the IAST estimations of the component loadings.

9. Packed bed adsorber breakthrough calculations

It is now well recognized that the separation characteristics of a PSA unit is dictated by a combination of adsorption selectivity and capacity.⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹ For a rational choice of adsorbents for mixture separation at high pressures we need to have a proper method of evaluation that combines the selectivity and capacity metrics in a manner that is a true reflection of the separation performance of a PSA unit. For this purpose we perform transient breakthrough calculations following the methodologies developed and described in earlier works.^{10, 47, 50, 51} Figure 9 shows a schematic of a packed bed adsorber. Assuming

plug flow of the gas mixture through the fixed bed maintained under isothermal conditions and negligible pressure drop, the partial pressures in the gas phase at any position and instant of time are obtained by solving the following set of partial differential equations for each of the species i in the gas mixture.

$$\frac{1}{RT} \frac{\partial p_i(t, z)}{\partial t} = -\frac{1}{RT} \frac{\partial(v(t, z)p_i(t, z))}{\partial z} - \frac{(1-\varepsilon)}{\varepsilon} \rho \frac{\partial q_i(t, z)}{\partial t}; \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n \quad (7)$$

In equation (7), t is the time, z is the distance along the adsorber, ρ is the framework density, ε is the bed voidage, and v is the interstitial gas velocity, equal to the superficial gas velocity, u , divided by ε . The adsorber bed is initially free of adsorbates, i.e. we have the initial condition

$$t = 0; \quad q_i(0, z) = 0 \quad (8)$$

At time, $t = 0$, the inlet to the adsorber, $z = 0$, is subjected to a step input of the ternary gas mixture and this step input is maintained till the end of the adsorption cycle when steady-state conditions are reached.

$$t \geq 0; \quad p_i(0, t) = p_{i0}; \quad v(0, t) = u_0/\varepsilon \quad (9)$$

where u_0 is the superficial gas velocity at the inlet to the adsorber.

Invoking the constraint of negligible pressure drop, the overall material balance is obtained by summing equation (7) over the three component species

$$\frac{1}{RT} p_t \frac{\partial(v(t, z))}{\partial z} = -\frac{(1-\varepsilon)}{\varepsilon} \rho \frac{\partial q_t(t, z)}{\partial t} \quad (10)$$

Equation (10) allows the calculation of the interstitial gas velocity v along the length of the adsorber. For high pressure separations considered in this work, the variation of the gas velocity along the length of the adsorber, and with time, needs to be properly accounted for.

The molar loadings of the species i , $q_i(z, t)$ at any position z , and time t are determined from IAST calculations. Equation (7) is first subjected to finite volume discretization. Typically, the adsorber

length L is divided into 100 slices. The number of slices is determined by checking that the obtained breakthrough results do not change on increasing it. Combination of the discretized PDEs along with the algebraic IAST equilibrium model, results in a set of differential-algebraic equations (DAEs), which are solved using BESIRK.⁵² BESIRK is a sparse matrix solver, based on the semi-implicit Runge-Kutta method originally developed by Michelsen⁵³, and extended with the Bulirsch-Stoer extrapolation method.⁵⁴ Use of BESIRK improves the numerical solution efficiency in solving the set of DAEs. The evaluation of the sparse Jacobian required in the numerical algorithm is largely based on analytic expressions.⁵⁰ Further details of the adsorber model, along with the numerical procedures used in this work, are provided in our earlier works.^{17, 50, 51} Typical computation times for a binary gas mixture breakthrough are less than 100 s, allowing such transient adsorber calculations to be routinely used for screening purposes.

Figure 10 presents the calculations of the superficial gas velocity, $u(t, z) = v(t, z)\epsilon$, at the outlet of the adsorber packed with Cu-TDPAT. The feed mixture to the adsorber is a binary CO₂/CH₄ gas mixture maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K. In these calculations the partial pressures of CO₂ and CH₄ are taken to be equal to each other, i.e. $p_1 = p_2 = 3.5$ MPa. The y -axis is superficial gas velocity of the outlet gas mixture. The x -axis is the dimensionless breakthrough time, τ . The data show that the gas velocity changes with time, and is properly accounted for in the breakthrough calculations to be presented for all mixtures considered in this work.

10. Breakthrough experiments, and validation of breakthrough calculations

In order to establish the validity the use of the simulation methodology, breakthrough experiments were conducted for 50/50 CO₂/CH₄, CO₂/H₂ and CO₂/N₂ mixtures in the set-up depicted in Figure 11. This set-up was built following the lines in the paper of Britt et al.⁵⁵ In each experiment, a measured amount of Cu-TDPAT crystals were thoroughly ground and then packed into a stainless column (2.1 mm I.D. \times 150 mm) with silica wool filling the void space. The maximum size of the ground crystals is estimated to be about 100 μ m. The sample was in-situ activated under vacuum (approximately 10 Pa) at

120 °C for 10 hours to remove the adsorbed solvent and make the active sites accessible. After that, the sample was purged with CH₄ (or H₂ or N₂) flow (2.0 mL/min) for 1 hour while the temperature of the column was decreased to 25 °C. CO₂ flow was then introduced at 2.0 mL/min without changing the CH₄ (or H₂ or N₂) flow, resulting in 50/50 CO₂/CH₄, and CO₂/H₂ and CO₂/N₂ mixtures by volume. The effluent from the column was monitored by mass spectrometry (MS). The CO₂ saturated Cu-TDPAT was purged with CH₄ (or H₂ or N₂) flow (10 mL/min) for 3 hour at 80 °C for successive breakthrough experiments to examine its regenerability. Figures 12a, 12b and 12c provide a comparison of the breakthrough characteristics for 50/50 CO₂/CH₄, CO₂/H₂ and CO₂/N₂ mixtures, respectively, for the activated and regenerated samples. In all cases, there is close correspondence between breakthrough characteristics of the activated and regenerated samples. It was also established that the CO₂ uptake capacity remains practically unchanged even after repeated regenerations.

The continuous solid lines in Figure 12 represent solutions equation (7) with data inputs corresponding to those in the experiments. The time at which CO₂ breaks through is very well predicted in the simulations. For natural gas and H₂ purification processes, the focus of our work, the correct estimation of breakthrough times for CO₂ is of vital importance as they have a direct bearing on the CO₂ capture capacity, as will be elaborated later.

The paper by Bloch et al.⁵⁶ provides experimental validation of the breakthrough simulation methodology for ethene/ethane separations using FeMOF-74 adsorbent.

11. Influence of intra-crystalline diffusion on breakthrough characteristics of Cu-TDPAT

We also attempted to investigate whether the influence of intra-crystalline diffusion within the Cu-TDPAT crystallites influences the breakthrough characteristics. For this purpose, we repeated the breakthrough simulations including the influence of intracrystalline diffusion within crystallites of 1 mm size, which is about ten times the maximum size used in the experiments. These calculations will give an indication of the maximum influence of intra-crystalline diffusion effects. The diffusivity values used for this purpose were based on MD simulations of CO₂, CH₄, and H₂ diffusion within CuBTC,

which has comparable pore topology, cage size and adsorption strengths as Cu-TDPAT. Figure 13 presents a summary of the Maxwell-Stefan diffusivities for CO₂, CH₄, and H₂. The continuous solid lines in Figure 13 are the Reed and Ehrlich model^{57, 58} which leads to the following expression for the M-S diffusivity

$$D_i = D_i(0) \frac{(1 + \varepsilon_i)^{z-1}}{(1 + \varepsilon_i / \phi_i)^z} \quad (11)$$

expressed as a function of the fractional occupancy, θ_i defined by

$$\theta_i \equiv q_i / q_{i,sat} \quad (12)$$

where z is the coordination number, representing the maximum number of nearest neighbors within a cage. From an engineering point of view the precise choice of the value of z is not crucial, as the combination of z and ϕ_i prescribes the loading dependence. For the CuBTC structure we take $z = 5$. The other parameters are defined as follows (see Krishna et al.^{57, 59} for more detailed discussions and derivations)

$$\varepsilon_i = \frac{(\beta_i - 1 + 2\theta_i)\phi_i}{2(1 - \theta_i)}; \quad \beta_i = \sqrt{1 - 4\theta_i(1 - \theta_i)(1 - 1/\phi_i)} \quad (13)$$

The Reed and Ehrlich model parameters for CuBTC are reported in Table 14.

The breakthrough simulations for 50/50 CO₂/CH₄, CO₂/H₂, and CO₂/N₂ mixtures were repeated with the inclusion of the rigorous Maxwell-Stefan formulation for intra-crystalline diffusion.⁶⁰ The two sets of simulation results are compared in Figure 14. The simulation results including intra-crystalline diffusion within 400 μm crystals (indicated by crosses) yield virtually identical breakthrough times as those obtained with the assumption of thermodynamic equilibrium (indicated by continuous solid lines). The inclusion of diffusion effects leads to slightly more diffuse breakthrough characteristics *after* breakthrough.

There are, however, deviations between both sets of simulations and experiments, *after* the CO₂ breaks through; the approach to the final steady-state much sharper in the simulations than in the

experiments. The reason is that the packed tubular bed is expected to be in laminar flow conditions, leading to a parabolic velocity profile. In the simulations, plug flow of the gas mixture is assumed with sharp velocity fronts traversing the bed. The deviations after the CO₂ breaks through have little consequence for the calculations of the amounts CO₂ captured because the adsorption cycle is terminated once the concentration level of CO₂ increases beyond the desired purity level. In other words the gaseous effluent after CO₂ breaks through is not included in the product stream say for H₂.

In order to further investigate the influence of diffusion on the breakthrough characteristics, we carried out breakthrough calculations for 50/50 CO₂/CH₄ mixtures at 7 MPa inlet pressure with crystals of sizes 400 μm, 600 μm, and 800 μm. The breakthrough curves, expressed in terms of ppm CO₂ in the outlet gas are shown in Figure 15. We note that with increasing particle size, the breakthrough curves are more diffuse in nature. For a required purity say of 500 ppm CO₂ in the exit gas, the breakthrough times for particle sizes of 400 μm or smaller are found to be practically identical with those calculated based on the basis of thermodynamic equilibrium. Typically, crystal sizes, smaller than 400 μm, will be embedded into a matrix material before being packed into a fixed bed. We do not anticipate diffusion effects will have any significant impact on the predicted performance of Cu-TDPAT for high pressure purifications.

We proceed further by comparing the equilibrium behaviors of different adsorbent material. The ranking of materials will not be influenced by diffusion effects.

12. The variety of mixture separations analyzed in this work

In view of the wide variety of compositions, and pressure ranges used in the H₂ production, natural gas purification, and fuel-gas processing we performed breakthrough calculations for (a) 40/5/5/50 CO₂/CO/CH₄/H₂, (b) 40/10/50 CO₂/CH₄/H₂, (c) 20/80 CO₂/H₂, (d) 50/50 CO₂/CH₄, and (e) 50/50 CH₄/H₂ mixtures for pressures ranging from 0.1 MPa to 7 MPa. The complete set of simulation results for all mixtures is presented and discussed below, for each mixture, in detail. For the 40/5/5/50 CO₂/CO/CH₄/H₂ quaternary mixture, the discussions presented in this Supporting Information repeat

some, but not all, of the discussions in the main text of the manuscript. The discussions per mixture are on a “stand alone” basis, in order to assist readers who are interested to examine the details for only some specific mixture.

Each of the five mixture separations are discussed below in sequence.

13. Quaternary 40/5/5/50 CO₂/CO/CH₄/H₂ mixture separations

For industrial production of H₂, impurities such as need to be reduced to extremely low levels, typically lower than 500 ppm. Of these impurities, the adsorption strengths of CH₄ is the lowest and consequently the first component to breakthrough in a fixed bed adsorber will be CH₄. The concentration of the impurities can vary significantly depending on the specific processing application. For purposes of quantitative evaluation of different adsorbents we consider the separation of a CO₂/CO/CH₄/H₂ with the relative molar compositions 40/5/5/50, containing 40% CO₂, placing severe separation demands on the adsorbent. No CO isotherm data is available in the published literature for MgMOF-74, and so this MOF cannot be included in the evaluation.

Figure 16a presents the IAST calculations of the CO₂/H₂ adsorption selectivity *in the quaternary mixture*, and defined by equation (6). The highest selectivities are obtained with LTA-5A and NaX zeolites. This is followed by the two MOFs Cu-TDPAT, and MIL-101. The performance of a PSA unit is dictated not only by the adsorption selectivity but by the capacity to adsorb CO₂, CO, and CH₄. Generally speaking, higher capacities are desirable because the adsorber bed can be run for longer lengths of time before the need for regeneration arises. The sum of the component loadings of CO₂, CO, and CH₄ in the mixture, is an appropriate measure of the capacity. The component loading can be expressed either per kg or per L of adsorbent material. Figures 16b, and 16c present data on the IAST calculations of the (CO₂ + CO + CH₄) uptake capacities using these two metrics. Both metrics are relevant, as we will discuss later. An examination of the data presented in Figure 16 shows that the selectivity and capacity factors do not go hand-in-hand, especially when the operating pressures exceeding say 1 MPa. For $p_t > 1\text{MPa}$, LTA-5A and NaX zeolites have significantly lower capacities, both per kg and per L basis, than Cu-TDPAT whereas the selectivities of both zeolites are significantly

higher than that of Cu-TDPAT for the entire range of pressures. LTA-5A and NaX have pore volumes of $0.25 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$ and $0.28 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$, respectively, significantly lower than that of Cu-TDPAT ($0.93 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$) and MIL-101 ($1.38 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$). As a consequence, the capacity of NaX for $(\text{CO}_2 + \text{CO} + \text{CH}_4)$ uptake becomes limiting for operations significantly higher than 1 MPa. Put another way, MOFs with “open” structures are especially attractive for high pressure separations.

For a proper combination of the selectivity and capacity metrics, breakthrough calculations were performed for a fixed bed depicted in Figure 17a. The following parameter values were used: $L = 0.1 \text{ m}$; $\varepsilon = 0.4$; $v = 0.1 \text{ m/s}$ (at inlet). When comparing different materials, the fractional voidage is held constant at $\varepsilon = 0.4$. This implies the volume of adsorbents used in the fixed bed are the same for Cu-TDPAT, MIL-101, LTA-5A, and NaX. The total mass of the adsorbents used is governed by the framework density.

Figure 17b shows typical concentration profiles at the exit of the adsorber packed with Cu-TDPAT and maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K. In these calculations the total system pressure is 6 MPa. The sequence of breakthroughs is in the order of increasing adsorption strengths: H_2 , CH_4 , CO , and CO_2 . From the exit gas concentrations we can determine the ppm $(\text{CO}_2 + \text{CO} + \text{CH}_4)$ in outlet gas as a function of the dimensionless time, τ , defined by dividing the actual time, t , by the characteristic time, $\frac{L}{v}$. A comparison of the breakthrough characteristics of different adsorbents is presented in Figure 17c. Cu-TDPAT has the longest breakthrough time, followed by NaX. When the composition in the exit gas reaches a certain desired purity level, the adsorption cycle needs to be terminated and the contents of the bed regenerated. We arbitrarily choose the purity level to be 500 ppm $(\text{CO}_2 + \text{CO} + \text{CH}_4)$ in outlet gas. When this purity level is reached, the corresponding dimensionless breakthrough time, τ_{break} , can be determined.

To demonstrate how the choice of the best material alters with operating pressures, we carried out a series of breakthrough calculations for LTA-5A, NaX, MIL-101 and Cu-TDPAT for pressures ranging from 0.1 MPa to 6 MPa. Figure 18a, shows the influence of the total operating pressure on

dimensionless breakthrough times, τ_{break} . The value of τ_{break} decreases for all materials with increasing pressure; this is due to limitations in the capacities with increasing pressure; this decrease becomes apparent for NaX, LTA-5A, and Cu-TDPAT for pressures exceeding about 2 MPa. MIL-101 that has the highest pore volume, displays almost no change in τ_{break} with increasing pressure. In other words, the decrease in τ_{break} is a reflection of the approach to pore saturation.

Figure 18b presents data on the number of moles of H₂ produced per kg of adsorbent material during the time interval 0 – τ_{break} ; this quantity is obtained from a material balance across the fixed bed adsorber. The H₂ product is 99.95%+ pure, and contains the specified maximum impurities of 500 ppm (CO₂ + CO + CH₄). The amount produced *per kg of material* is relevant for grass-roots design of PSA units; this metric is directly a reflection of the adsorbent cost. We note that on a gravimetric basis, at a total pressure of 6 MPa, Cu-TDPAT has a production capacity that is more than three times that of the commonly used industrial adsorbents NaX and LTA-5A zeolites. Particularly noteworthy is the performance of MIL-101, that has the poorest selectivity amongst the four materials examined (cf. Figure 16a). Per kg basis of adsorbent, MIL-101 is able to produce more H₂ than both NaX and LTA-5A when the total system pressures exceed 4.5 MPa. The success of MIL-101 can be traced to the high gravimetric (CO₂ + CO + CH₄) uptake capacity (cf. Figure 16b).

Figure 18c presents data on the number of moles of 99.95%+ pure H₂ produced per L of adsorbent material during the time interval 0 – τ_{break} . The volumetric production capacity is the relevant metric to use when deciding whether or not to replace the adsorbent currently used in an existing PSA unit. In this case, the adsorber dimensions are fixed, and therefore the relevant comparison should be on a *volumetric* basis. Materials with more open structures such as MIL-101 have low framework densities and, consequently, significantly lower volumetric production capacities. For this reason, MIL-101 has the poorest volumetric production capacity over the entire pressure range. The comparison between Cu-TDPAT and NaX is interesting because NaX and Cu-TDPAT have roughly the same volumetric capacities for pressures below 2 MPa, but for $p_t > 2$ MPa, Cu-TDPAT outperforms NaX.

A combination of the results presented in Figures 18b, and 18c would lead us to conclude that Cu-TDPAT is the *scenario robust* adsorbent of choice for use at pressures exceeding 2 MPa, performing well both for grass-roots design and also as replacement use in existing PSA units.

Let us consider the hierarchy of H₂ production capacities at a chosen total pressure of 6 MPa. Figure 19 presents plots of the number of moles of 99.95%+ pure H₂ produced (a) per kg of adsorbent material, (b) per L of adsorbent material during the time interval 0 – τ_{break} against the breakthrough time τ_{break} . We note that there is a near-linear correlation between the dimensionless breakthrough time, τ_{break} , and the amount of 99.95%+ pure H₂ produced per L of adsorbent. This is a rational result because the breakthrough calculations were performed with the same *volume* of adsorbent materials. The higher the value of τ_{break} , the higher the amount of H₂ produced that can be produced. Put another way, the dimensionless breakthrough time, τ_{break} , is the proper metric that reflects a combination of selectivity and capacity metrics. The best adsorbent material is Cu-TDPAT. We note that the commonly used NaX and LTA-5A zeolites are significantly poorer in their H₂ production performances because of capacity limitations at high pressures.

It is also instructive to investigate the factors that lead to desirably high H₂ production, either on a gravimetric, or volumetric basis. Figure 20 presents 3D bar plots in which the two production metrics are plotted as a function of the adsorption selectivity (*x*-axis), and (CO₂ + CO + CH₄) uptake capacity (*y*-axis), both of which calculated on the basis of IAST for the quaternary mixture. The adsorption selectivities of NaX and LTA-5A are significantly higher than that of Cu-TDPAT, but the H₂ productions in an adsorber with NaX or LTA-5A are significantly lower, using either gravimetric or volumetric production metrics. In PSA operations at high pressures, capacity considerations are paramount and can over-ride selectivity deficiencies. This is best illustrated by MIL-101 which has the poorest selectivity, yet can compete with NaX zeolite.

The overall conclusions can be summarized as follows. NaX and LTA-5A zeolites suffer increasing capacity limitations as the pressure is increased beyond 2 MPa, and more open MOF structures such as MIL-101, and Cu-TDPAT become particularly attractive. The plots in Figure 20 underscore the fallacy

of ranking adsorbent purely on the basis of selectivity; capacity factors are of vital importance in PSA operations.

14. Ternary 40/10/50 CO₂/CH₄/H₂ mixture separations

For industrial production of H₂, impurities such as CO₂, CO, and CH₄ need to be reduced to extremely low levels, typically lower than 500 ppm. Of these impurities, the adsorption strengths of CH₄ is the lowest and consequently the first component to breakthrough in a fixed bed adsorber will be CH₄ as exemplified in the breakthrough curves for Cu-TDPAT in Figure 17b. We also note that due to the closeness of the pure component isotherms of CO, and CH₄ in Cu-TDPAT the breakthroughs of CO and CH₄ occur at almost the same time. We therefore investigated the separation of a ternary 40/10/50 CO₂/CH₄/H₂ mixture, in which the CO content used in the foregoing section is replaced by CH₄. A persuasive reason to investigate this mixture, is that the performance of MgMOF-74 can also be included in the comparison; this MOF was not included in the foregoing quaternary mixture separation investigations because of lack of data on the pure component CO isotherms.

Figure 21a presents the IAST calculations of the CO₂/H₂ adsorption selectivity *in the ternary mixture*, defined by equation (6). The highest selectivities are obtained with MgMOF-74 over the entire pressure range and this is followed by LTA-5A, NaX, and Cu-TDPAT. The performance of a PSA unit is dictated not only by the adsorption selectivity but by the capacity to adsorb CO₂, and CH₄. Generally speaking, higher capacities are desirable because the adsorber bed can be run for longer lengths of time before the need for regeneration arises. The sum of the component loadings of CO₂ and CH₄ in the mixture, is an appropriate measure of the capacity. The component loading can be expressed either per kg or per L of adsorbent material. Figures 21b, and 21c present data on the IAST calculations of the (CO₂ + CH₄) uptake capacities using these two metrics. Both metrics are relevant, as will be discussed below. An examination of the data presented in Figure 21 shows that the selectivity and capacity factors do not go hand-in-hand, especially when the operating pressures exceed say 1 MPa. For $p_t > 1$ MPa, LTA-5A and NaX have significantly lower capacities, both per kg and per L basis, than MgMOF-74, and Cu-TDPAT whereas the selectivities of both LTA-5A and NaX are higher than that

of Cu-TDPAT for the entire range of pressures. LTA-5A and NaX have pore volumes of 0.25 cm³/g and 0.28 cm³/g, respectively, significantly lower than that of MgMOF-74 (0.57 cm³/g) Cu-TDPAT (0.93 cm³/g) and MIL-101 (1.38 cm³/g). This is the reason that the capacity of LTA-5A and NaX for (CO₂ + CH₄) uptake becomes limiting for high pressure operations. Put another way, MOFs with “open” structures are especially attractive for high pressure separations. MgMOF-74 is rather unique in that it has both high selectivity and high capacity. That is the reason that MgMOF-74 is often the adsorbent of choice for a variety of separations.^{9, 10, 20-22}

For a proper combination of the selectivity and capacity metrics, breakthrough calculations were performed for a fixed bed depicted in Figure 22a. The following parameter values were used: $L = 0.1$ m; $\varepsilon = 0.4$; $v = 0.1$ m/s (at inlet). When comparing different materials, the fractional voidage is held constant at $\varepsilon = 0.4$. This implies the volume of adsorbents used in the fixed bed are the same for Cu-TDPAT, MIL-101, MgMOF-4, LTA-5A, and NaX. The total mass of the adsorbents used is governed by the framework density.

Figure 22b shows typical concentration profiles at the exit of the adsorber packed with Cu-TDPAT and maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K. In these calculations the total system pressure is 4 MPa. From the exit gas concentrations we can determine the ppm (CO₂ + CH₄) in outlet gas as a function of the dimensionless time, τ , defined by dividing the actual time, t , by the characteristic time, $\frac{L}{v}$; a comparison of the breakthrough characteristics of different adsorbents is presented in Figure 22c. MgMOF-74 has the longest breakthrough time, followed closely by Cu-TDPAT. When the composition in the exit gas reaches a certain desired purity level, the adsorption cycle needs to be terminated and the contents of the bed regenerated. We arbitrarily choose the purity level to be 500 ppm (CO₂ + CH₄) in outlet gas. When this purity level is reached, the corresponding dimensionless breakthrough time, τ_{break} , can be determined.

To demonstrate how the choice of the best material alters with operating pressures, we carried out a series of breakthrough calculations for MgMOF-74, NaX, LTA-5A, MIL-101 and Cu-TDPAT for

pressures ranging from 0.1 MPa to 7 MPa. Figure 23a, shows the influence of the total operating pressure on dimensionless breakthrough times, τ_{break} . The value of τ_{break} decreases for all materials with increasing pressure; this is due to limitations in the capacities with increasing pressure. MIL-101 that has the highest pore volume, displays almost no change in τ_{break} with increasing pressure. In other words, the decrease in τ_{break} is a reflection of the approach to pore saturation. For Cu-TDPAT the decrease in τ_{break} with increasing pressure is less steep than for MgMOF-74; this is because Cu-TDPAT has a more open structure and therefore capacity limitations are of lesser significance than for NaX, and MgMOF-74.

Figure 23b presents data on the number of moles of 99.95%+ pure H₂ produced per kg of adsorbent material during the time interval 0 – τ_{break} ; this quantity is obtained from a material balance across the fixed bed adsorber. The amount produced *per kg of material* is relevant for grass-roots design of PSA units; this metric is directly a reflection of the adsorbent cost. We note that on a gravimetric basis, Cu-TDPAT becomes increasingly competitive with MgMOF-74 as the pressure increases, and for operations exceeding 3 MPa, Cu-TDPAT has a higher gravimetric H₂ production capacity than MgMOF-74. Particularly noteworthy is the performance of MIL-101, that has the poorest selectivity amongst the five materials examined (cf. Figure 21a). On the basis of per kg of adsorbent, MIL-101 is able to produce more H₂ than either LTA-5A or NaX when the total system pressures exceed 4 MPa. The success of MIL-101 can be traced to the high gravimetric (CO₂ + CH₄) uptake capacity (cf. Figure 21b).

Figure 23c presents data on the number of moles of 99.95%+ pure H₂ produced per L of adsorbent material during the time interval 0 – τ_{break} . The volumetric H₂ production capacity is the relevant metric to use when deciding whether or not to replace the adsorbent currently used in an existing PSA unit. In this case, the adsorber dimensions are fixed, and therefore the relevant comparison should be on a *volumetric* basis. Materials with more open structures such as MIL-101 have low framework densities and, consequently, significantly lower volumetric production capacities. For this reason, MIL-101 has the poorest volumetric production capacity over the entire pressure range. The comparison between Cu-

TDPAT and LTA-5A and NaX is interesting because these three materials have roughly the same volumetric capacities for pressures below 2 MPa, but for $p_t > 2$ MPa, Cu-TDPAT outperforms both NaX and LTA-5A. At the highest pressures Cu-TDPAT approaches the volumetric productivity of MgMOF-74.

A combination of the results presented in Figures 23b, and 23c would lead us to conclude that Cu-TDPAT is the *scenario robust* adsorbent of choice for use at pressures exceeding 4 MPa, performing well both for grass-roots design and also as replacement use in existing PSA units.

Let us consider the hierarchy of H₂ production capacities at a chosen total pressure of 7 MPa. Figure 24 presents plots of the number of moles of 99.95%+ pure H₂ produced (a) per kg of adsorbent material, (b) per L of adsorbent material during the time interval $0 - \tau_{\text{break}}$ against the breakthrough time τ_{break} . We note that there is a perfect linear correlation between the dimensionless breakthrough time, τ_{break} , and the amount of 99.95%+ pure H₂ produced per L of adsorbent. This is a rational result because the breakthrough calculations were performed with the same volume of adsorbent materials. The higher the value of τ_{break} , the higher the amount of pure H₂ produced that can be produced. Put another way, the dimensionless breakthrough time, τ_{break} , is the proper metric that reflects a combination of selectivity and capacity metrics. The best adsorbent material for operation at 7 MPa is MgMOF-74, and this is followed by Cu-TDPAT. We note that NaX zeolite is significantly poorer in its pure H₂ production performance because of capacity limitations at high pressures.

It is also instructive to investigate the factors that lead to desirably high H₂ production, either on a gravimetric, or volumetric basis. Figure 25 presents 3D bar plots in which the two production metrics are plotted as a function of the adsorption selectivity (x -axis), and (CO₂ + CH₄) uptake capacity (y -axis), both of which calculated on the basis of IAST for the ternary mixture. To illustrate this, consider let us compare Cu-TDPAT, LTA-5A and NaX. The adsorption selectivities of NaX, and LTA-5A are significantly higher than that of Cu-TDPAT, but the H₂ productions in an adsorber with NaX or LTA-5A are significantly lower, using either gravimetric or volumetric production metrics. In PSA operations at high pressures, capacity considerations are paramount and can over-ride selectivity deficiencies. This

is best illustrated by MIL-101 which has the poorest selectivity, yet can compete with NaX zeolite on gravimetric production. MgMOF-74 is an exceptional MOF, and has a good combination of selectivity and capacity. It loses the competition with Cu-TDPAT only when (1) pressures exceed 3MPa, and (2) the comparison is made on a gravimetric basis. The plots in Figure 25 underscore the fallacy of ranking adsorbent purely on the basis of selectivity; capacity factors are of vital importance in PSA operations.

The overall conclusions can be summarized as follows. LTA-5A and NaX zeolites suffer increasing capacity limitation as the pressure is increased beyond 2 MPa, and more open MOF structures such as MgMOF-74, MIL-101 and Cu-TDPAT become particularly attractive. A further point to note is that even though Cu-TDPAT is less selective than MgMOF-74 (cf. Figure 21a), it becomes competitive with MgMOF-74 at pressures above 4 MPa (Figure 23).

15. Binary 20/80 CO₂/H₂ mixture separations

For production of high purity H₂, it is important to remove impurities such as CO₂, CO and CH₄. Such processes invariably use pressure swing adsorption and are operated at high pressures. The predominant impurity is CO₂. Therefore we shall compare the performance of MgMOF-74, MIL-101, Cu-TDPAT, LTA-5A and NaX for separation of CO₂/H₂ mixtures containing 20% CO₂ for pressures ranging from 0.1 MPa to 7 MPa. The analysis of the separation performance is precisely analogous to that employed in the foregoing analysis of CO₂/CO/CH₄/H₂ mixtures. We aim for production of H₂ with a purity level of 99.95% or more, corresponding to a maximum CO₂ content of 500 ppm. The obtained results are summarized in the same manner as in the previous section in Figures 26, 27, 29, 28, and 30. Indeed, the conclusions to be drawn are also analogous and can be summarized as follows. LTA-5A and NaX zeolite suffer increasing capacity limitation as the pressure is increased, and more open MOF structures such as MgMOF-74, MIL-101 and Cu-TDPAT become particularly attractive. While at ambient pressures LTA-5A and NaX have higher H₂ production capacities than Cu-TDPAT, the situation reverses as pressures are increased above 2 MPa. A further point to note is that even though Cu-TDPAT is less selective than MgMOF-74, it becomes competitive with this MOF at pressures above 4 MPa.

16. Binary 50/50 CO₂/CH₄ mixture separations

Natural gas purification requires removal of CO₂ from natural gas streams at pressures that can be as high as 7 MPa. We aim for natural gas production with a purity level of 99.95% or more, corresponding to a maximum CO₂ content of 500 ppm. Assuming that natural gas consists primarily of CH₄, let us compare the adsorption selectivities of MgMOF-74, MIL-101, Cu-TDPAT, and NaX zeolite. Figure 31a presents the IAST calculations of the adsorption selectivity defined by equation (6). In these calculations the partial pressures of CO₂ and CH₄ are taken to be equal to each other, i.e. $p_1 = p_2$. The highest selectivities are obtained with MgMOF-74 over the entire pressure range and this is followed by NaX zeolite and Cu-TDPAT. The performance of a PSA unit is dictated not only by the adsorption selectivity but by the capacity to adsorb CO₂ molecules. Generally speaking, higher capacities are desirable because the adsorber bed can be run for longer lengths of time before the need for regeneration arises. For CO₂ removal from natural gas, the component loadings of CO₂ in the mixture, is an appropriate measure of the capacity. The component loading can be expressed either per kg or per L of adsorbent material. Figures 31b, and 31c present data on the IAST calculations of the CO₂ uptake capacities using these two metrics. Both metrics are relevant, as we shall discuss below. An examination of the data presented in Figure 31 shows that the selectivity and capacity factors do not go hand-in-hand, especially when the operating pressures exceeding say 4 MPa. For example, NaX zeolite has a significantly lower capacity, both per kg and per L basis, than MgMOF-74, and Cu-TDPAT whereas the selectivity of NaX is higher than that of Cu-TDPAT for the entire range of pressures. NaX has a pore volume of 0.28 cm³/g significantly lower than that of Cu-TDPAT. This is the reason that the capacity of NaX for CO₂ uptake becomes limiting for high pressure operations. Put another way, MOFs with “open” structures are especially attractive for high pressure separations. MgMOF-74 is rather unique in that it has both high selectivity and high capacity. That is the reason that MgMOF-74 is often the adsorbent of choice for a variety of separations.^{9, 10, 20-22}

For a proper combination of the selectivity and capacity metrics, breakthrough calculations for a fixed bed depicted in Figure 32a. The following parameter values were used: $L = 0.3$ m; $\varepsilon = 0.4$; $v = 0.1$ m/s

(at inlet), corresponding to a superficial gas velocity $u = 0.04$ m/s (at inlet). These parameter values are the same as those used in earlier publications.^{10, 12, 47} When comparing different materials, the fractional voidage is held constant at $\varepsilon = 0.4$. This implies the volume of adsorbents used in the fixed bed are the same for Cu-TDPAT, MIL-101, MgMOF-4, and NaX. The total mass of the adsorbents used is governed by the framework density.

Figure 32b shows typical concentration profiles at the exit of the adsorber packed with Cu-TDPAT and maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K. In these calculations the partial pressures of CO₂ and CH₄ at the inlet to the adsorber is taken equal to each other, i.e. $p_1 = p_2 = 3.5$ MPa. From the exit gas concentrations we can determine the ppm CO₂ in outlet gas as a function of the dimensionless time, τ , defined by dividing the actual time, t , by the characteristic time, $\frac{L}{v}$; a comparison of the breakthrough characteristics of different adsorbents is presented in Figure 32c. MgMOF-74 has the longest breakthrough time, followed closely by Cu-TDPAT. When the composition in the exit gas reaches a certain desired purity level, the adsorption cycle needs to be terminated and the contents of the bed regenerated. We arbitrarily choose the purity level to be 500 ppm CO₂ in outlet gas. When this purity level is reached, the corresponding dimensionless breakthrough time, τ_{break} , can be determined.

To demonstrate how the choice of the best material alters with operating pressures, we carried out a series of breakthrough calculations for MgMOF-74, NaX, MIL-101, and Cu-TDPAT for pressures ranging from 0.1 MPa to 7 MPa. Figure 33a shows the influence of the total operating pressure on dimensionless breakthrough times, τ_{break} . The value of τ_{break} decreases for all materials with increasing pressure; this is due to limitations in the capacities with increasing pressure. MIL-101 that has the highest pore volume, displays the smallest decrease in τ_{break} with increasing pressure. In other words, the decrease in τ_{break} is a reflection of the approach to pore saturation. For Cu-TDPAT the decrease in τ_{break} with increasing pressure is less steep than for MgMOF-74; this is because Cu-TDPAT has a more

open structure and therefore capacity limitations are of lesser significance than for NaX, and MgMOF-74.

Figure 33b presents data on the number of moles of 99.5%+ pure CH₄ produced per kg of adsorbent material during the time interval $0 - \tau_{\text{break}}$; this quantity is obtained from a material balance across the fixed bed adsorber. The amount produced *per kg of material* is relevant for grass-roots design of PSA units; this metric is directly a reflection of the adsorbent cost. We note that while NaX is superior to Cu-TDPAT for operations at atmospheric pressure, the efficacy of Cu-TDPAT becomes evident for higher pressures. A further point to note is that Cu-TDPAT becomes increasingly competitive with MgMOF-74 as the pressure increases, and for operations exceeding 6 MPa, Cu-TDPAT has nearly the same CH₄ productivity as MgMOF-74. Particularly noteworthy is the performance of MIL-101, that has the poorest selectivity amongst the four materials examined (cf. Figure 31a). On the basis of per kg of adsorbent, MIL-101 is able to produce the most amount of 99.5%+ pure CH₄ when the total system pressures exceed 6 MPa. The success of MIL-101 can be traced to the high gravimetric CO₂ uptake capacity (cf. Figure 31b).

Figure 33c presents data on the number of moles of 99.5%+ pure CH₄ produced per L of adsorbent material during the time interval $0 - \tau_{\text{break}}$. The volumetric production capacity is the relevant metric to use when deciding whether or not to replace the adsorbent currently used in an existing PSA unit. In this case, the adsorber dimensions are fixed, and therefore the relevant comparison should be on a *volumetric* basis. Materials with more open structures such as MIL-101 have low framework densities and, consequently, significantly lower volumetric production capacities. For this reason, MIL-101 has the poorest volumetric production capacity over the entire pressure range. The comparison between Cu-TDPAT and NaX is interesting because NaX outperforms Cu-TDPAT on a volumetric basis for pressures below 1 MPa, but this trend is reversed at higher pressures. At the highest pressures Cu-TDPAT approaches the volumetric production capacity of MgMOF-74, but does not exceed it.

A combination of the results presented in Figures 33b, and 33c would lead us to conclude that Cu-TDPAT and MgMOF-74 are both the *scenario robust* MOFs of choice for use in natural gas purification

at pressures exceeding 3 MPa, performing well both for grass-roots design and also as replacement use in existing PSA units.

Let us consider the hierarchy of production capacities at a chosen total pressure of 7 MPa. Figure 34 presents plots of the number of moles of 99.5%+ pure CH₄ produced (a) per kg of adsorbent material, (b) per L of adsorbent material during the time interval 0 – τ_{break} against the breakthrough time τ_{break} . We note that there is a perfect linear correlation between the dimensionless breakthrough time, τ_{break} , and the amount of 99.5%+ pure CH₄ produced per L of adsorbent. This is a rational result because the breakthrough calculations were performed with the same volume of adsorbent materials. The higher the value of τ_{break} , the higher the amount of CH₄ produced. Put another way, the dimensionless breakthrough time, τ_{break} , is the proper metric that reflects a combination of selectivity and capacity metrics. The best adsorbent material for operation at 7 MPa is MgMOF-74, and this is followed by Cu-TDPAT. We note that NaX zeolites is significantly poorer in its CH₄ production performance because of capacity limitations at high pressures.

It is also instructive to investigate the factors that lead to desirably high production capacities, either on a gravimetric, or volumetric basis. Figure 35 presents 3D bar plots in which the two production capacity metrics are plotted as a function of the adsorption selectivity (x -axis), and CO₂ uptake capacity (y -axis), both of which calculated on the basis of IAST for the binary mixture. To illustrate this, consider let us compare Cu-TDPAT and NaX. The adsorption selectivity of NaX is significantly higher than that of Cu-TDPAT, but production capacity of NaX is significantly lower, using either gravimetric or volumetric productivity metrics. In PSA operations at high pressures, capacity considerations are paramount and can over-ride selectivity deficiencies. This is best illustrated by MIL-101 which has the poorest selectivity, yet can compete with NaX zeolite. MgMOF-74 is an exceptional MOF, and has a good combination of selectivity and capacity. It loses the competition with Cu-TDPAT only when (1) pressures exceed 3MPa, and (2) the comparison is made on a gravimetric basis. The plots in Figure 35 underscore the fallacy of ranking adsorbent purely on the basis of selectivity; capacity factors are of vital importance in PSA operations.

17. Binary 50/50 CH₄/H₂ mixture separations

MOFs and ZIFs have potential use in recovery of H₂ from a mixture of hydrocarbons in a refinery context. Amongst the hydrocarbons, CH₄ is the poorest adsorption strength, and consequently the separation performance is dictated by that of the mixture CH₄/H₂.^{45, 61-66} The separation of CH₄/H₂ mixtures is also of relevance in the process of purification of synthesis gas obtained from steam reforming of natural gas.^{63, 64}

The results of the evaluation of the five different materials for separation of CH₄/H₂ mixtures are presented in Figures 36, 37, 38, 39, and 40. The conclusions to be drawn can be summarized as follows. LTA-5A and NaX zeolites suffer increasing capacity limitations as the pressure is increased beyond 2 MPa, and more open MOF structures such as MgMOF-74, and Cu-TDPAT become particularly attractive. A further point to note is that even though Cu-TDPAT is less selective than MgMOF-74 (cf. Figure 36a), it becomes competitive with MgMOF-74 at pressures above 4 MPa (see Figures 38, 39, and 40).

Wu et al.⁶⁶ have reported the results of a large-scale computational screening study of 105 different MOFs to determine the best adsorbent for separation of CH₄/H₂ mixtures for pressures ranging to 4 MPa; their study concludes that the best adsorbent for this purpose is MOF-116. The results shown in Figures 38, 39, and 40 lead to the conclusion that Cu-TDPAT offers even higher production capacities than offered by MOF-116.

18. Notation

b_A	dual-Langmuir-Freundlich constant for species i at adsorption site A, Pa ^{-v_i}
b_B	dual-Langmuir-Freundlich constant for species i at adsorption site B, Pa ^{-v_i}
L	length of packed bed adsorber, m
p_i	partial pressure of species i in mixture, Pa
p_t	total system pressure, Pa

q_i	component molar loading of species i , mol kg ⁻¹
q_t	total molar loading in mixture, mol kg ⁻¹
$q_{\text{sat,A}}$	saturation loading of site A, mol kg ⁻¹
$q_{\text{sat,B}}$	saturation loading of site B, mol kg ⁻¹
Q_{st}	isosteric heat of adsorption, J mol ⁻¹
R	gas constant, 8.314 J mol ⁻¹ K ⁻¹
S_{ads}	adsorption selectivity, dimensionless
t	time, s
T	absolute temperature, K
u	superficial gas velocity in packed bed, m s ⁻¹
v	interstitial gas velocity in packed bed, m s ⁻¹
V_{pore}	pore volume, m ³ kg ⁻¹
z	distance along the adsorber, m
Z	Compressibility factor, dimensionless

Greek letters

ε	voidage of packed bed, dimensionless
ν	exponent in dual-Langmuir-Freundlich isotherm, dimensionless
ρ	framework density, kg m ⁻³
τ	time, dimensionless
τ_{break}	breakthrough time, dimensionless

Subscripts

i	referring to component i
A	referring to site A
B	referring to site B

Superscripts

abs referring to absolute loading

excess referring to excess loading

B referring to site B

Table 1. Structural data on the different MOFs and NaX evaluated in this study for comparison purposes. The data for MgMOF-74 and NaX are from Herm et al.²² and Krishna and Long⁴⁷. The data for MIL-101 are taken from Chowdhury et al.²⁶. The data for LTA-5A are from Pakseresht et al.²⁸ and Sircar and Golden.²⁹

MOFs	Surface area $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$	Pore volume $\text{cm}^3 \text{g}^{-1}$	Framework density kg m^{-3}
NaX zeolite	950	0.280	1421
LTA-5A	450	0.250	1508
MgMOF-74	1800	0.573	905
MIL-101	2674	1.38	440
Cu-TDPAT	1938	0.93	782

Table 2. Dual-site Langmuir-Freundlich parameters for pure CO₂ in Cu-TDPAT. These fits are based on experimental data for temperatures of 273 K, 288 K, 298 K, 308 K, and 323 K. It is to be noted that for all guest molecules the experimentally determined excess loadings were first converted to absolute loadings using the Peng-Robinson equation of state for estimation of the fluid density. The pore volume used is 0.93 cm³/g, determined experimentally.

$$q = q_{A,sat} \frac{b_A p^{\nu_A}}{1 + b_A p^{\nu_A}} + q_{B,sat} \frac{b_B p^{\nu_B}}{1 + b_B p^{\nu_B}}$$

$$q_{sat,A} = 0.46 \text{ mol kg}^{-1}$$

$$q_{sat,B} = 23.9 \text{ mol kg}^{-1}$$

$$b_A = b_{A0} \exp\left(\frac{E_A}{RT}\right);$$

$$b_{A0} = 1.33 \times 10^{-16} \text{ Pa}^{-\nu_A}$$

$$E_A = 72 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

$$\nu_A = 1.2$$

$$b_B = b_{B0} \exp\left(\frac{E_B}{RT}\right);$$

$$b_{B0} = 2.91 \times 10^{-9} \text{ Pa}^{-\nu_B}$$

$$E_B = 23.8 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

$$\nu_B = 0.75$$

Table 3. Dual-site Langmuir-Freundlich parameters for pure component isotherms of CO in Cu-TDPAT. These fits are based on experimental data that were carried out at 273 K, 288 K, 298 K. It is to be noted that for all guest molecules the experimentally determined excess loadings were first converted to absolute loadings using the Peng-Robinson equation of state for estimation of the fluid density. The pore volume used is 0.93 cm³/g, determined experimentally.

$$q = q_{A,sat} \frac{b_A p^{\nu_A}}{1 + b_A p^{\nu_A}} + q_{B,sat} \frac{b_B p^{\nu_B}}{1 + b_B p^{\nu_B}}$$

$$q_{sat,A} = 0.46 \text{ mol kg}^{-1}$$

$$q_{sat,B} = 23.9 \text{ mol kg}^{-1}$$

$$b_A = b_{A0} \exp\left(\frac{E_A}{RT}\right);$$

$$b_{A0} = 1.33 \times 10^{-16} \text{ Pa}^{-\nu_A}$$

$$E_A = 72 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

$$\nu_A = 1.2$$

$$b_B = b_{B0} \exp\left(\frac{E_B}{RT}\right);$$

$$b_{B0} = 2.91 \times 10^{-9} \text{ Pa}^{-\nu_B}$$

$$E_B = 23.8 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

$$\nu_B = 0.75$$

Table 4. 1-site Langmuir parameters for pure component isotherms of CH₄, N₂ and H₂ in Cu-TDPAT. These fits are based on experimental data that were carried out at 298 K. It is to be noted that for all guest molecules the experimentally determined excess loadings were first converted to absolute loadings using the Peng-Robinson equation of state for estimation of the fluid density. The pore volume used is 0.93 cm³/g, determined experimentally.

	$q_{A,sat}$ mol kg ⁻¹	b Pa ⁻¹	v_A dimensionless
CH ₄	16	5.77×10^{-7}	1
N ₂	24	1.69×10^{-7}	1
H ₂	38.5	2.6×10^{-8}	1

Table 5. Dual-site Langmuir parameter for adsorption of CO₂ in MgMOF-74. These parameters were determined by fitting adsorption isotherms for temperatures ranging from 278 K to 473 K. The fit parameters are those reported earlier in the work of Mason et al.²⁰

$$q \equiv q_A + q_B = \frac{q_{sat,A} b_A p}{1 + b_A p} + \frac{q_{sat,B} b_B p}{1 + b_B p}$$

$$q_{sat,A} = 6.8 \text{ mol kg}^{-1}$$

$$q_{sat,B} = 9.9 \text{ mol kg}^{-1}$$

$$b_A = b_{A0} \exp\left(\frac{E_A}{RT}\right);$$

$$b_{A0} = 2.44 \times 10^{-11} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$$

$$E_A = 42 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

$$b_B = b_{B0} \exp\left(\frac{E_B}{RT}\right);$$

$$b_{B0} = 1.39 \times 10^{-10} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$$

$$E_B = 24 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

Table 6. Dual-site Langmuir parameter for adsorption of CH₄ and H₂ in MgMOF-74. The CH₄ parameters were determined by fitting adsorption isotherm data reported in the work of Dietzel et al.⁶⁷. The reported excess loading data were converted to absolute loadings for fitting purposes.

CH₄:

$$q \equiv q_A + q_B = \frac{q_{sat,A} b_A p}{1 + b_A p} + \frac{q_{sat,B} b_B p}{1 + b_B p}$$

$$q_{sat,A} = 11 \text{ mol kg}^{-1}; \quad q_{sat,B} = 5 \text{ mol kg}^{-1}$$

$$b_A = b_{A0} \exp\left(\frac{E_A}{RT}\right); \quad b_B = b_{B0} \exp\left(\frac{E_B}{RT}\right);$$

$$b_{A0} = 3.01 \times 10^{-10} \text{ Pa}^{-1}; \quad b_{B0} = 4.08 \times 10^{-11} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$$

$$E_A = 20.5 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} \quad E_B = 16 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

Table 7. H₂: the absolute uptake data in MgMOF-74 at 298 K reported by Yaghi²⁴, a document that is available on the web. The fit parameters are therefore only for 298 K.

	Site A		
	$q_{i,A,sat}$ mol kg ⁻¹	$b_{i,A}$ Pa ⁻¹	$V_{i,A}$ dimensionless
H ₂	36	2.1×10^{-8}	1

Table 8. Dual-site Langmuir parameter for adsorption of CO₂ in NaX zeolite. These parameters were determined by fitting adsorption isotherm data reported in the works of Belmabkhout et al.²³ and Cavenati et al.²⁵, after converting the excess data to absolute loadings.

$$q \equiv q_A + q_B = \frac{q_{sat,A} b_A p}{1 + b_A p} + \frac{q_{sat,B} b_B p}{1 + b_B p}$$

$$q_{sat,A} = 3.5 \text{ mol kg}^{-1}$$

$$q_{sat,B} = 5.2 \text{ mol kg}^{-1}$$

$$b_A = b_{A0} \exp\left(\frac{E_A}{RT}\right);$$

$$b_{A0} = 3.64 \times 10^{-13} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$$

$$E_A = 35 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

$$b_B = b_{B0} \exp\left(\frac{E_B}{RT}\right);$$

$$b_{B0} = 6.04 \times 10^{-11} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$$

$$E_B = 35 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

Table 9. Dual-site Langmuir parameter for adsorption of CH₄ and H₂ in NaX zeolite. These parameters were determined by fitting adsorption isotherm data reported in the works of Belmabkhout et al.²³, after converting the excess data to absolute loadings.

CH₄:

$$q \equiv q_A + q_B = \frac{q_{sat,A} b_A p}{1 + b_A p} + \frac{q_{sat,B} b_B p}{1 + b_B p}$$

$$q_{sat,A} = 4 \text{ mol kg}^{-1}; \quad q_{sat,B} = 5 \text{ mol kg}^{-1}$$

$$b_A = b_{A0} \exp\left(\frac{E_A}{RT}\right); \quad b_B = b_{B0} \exp\left(\frac{E_B}{RT}\right);$$

$$b_{A0} = 3.66 \times 10^{-10} \text{ Pa}^{-1}; \quad b_{B0} = 3.75 \times 10^{-9} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$$

$$E_A = 14 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} \quad E_B = 14 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

H₂:

$$q = \frac{q_{sat} b p}{1 + b p}$$

$$q_{sat} = 18 \text{ mol kg}^{-1}$$

$$b = b_0 \exp\left(\frac{E}{RT}\right);$$

$$b_0 = 2.43 \times 10^{-9} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$$

$$E = 6 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

Table 10. Dual-site Langmuir parameters for pure CO₂ isotherms in MIL-101. These fits are based on the experimental data of Chowdhury et al.²⁶.

$$q \equiv q_A + q_B = \frac{q_{sat,A} b_A p}{1 + b_A p} + \frac{q_{sat,B} b_B p}{1 + b_B p}$$

$$q_{sat,A} = 1 \text{ mol kg}^{-1}$$

$$q_{sat,B} = 45 \text{ mol kg}^{-1}$$

$$b_A = b_{A0} \exp\left(\frac{E_A}{RT}\right);$$

$$b_{A0} = 3.31 \times 10^{-11} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$$

$$E_A = 36 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

$$b_B = b_{B0} \exp\left(\frac{E_B}{RT}\right);$$

$$b_{B0} = 1.98 \times 10^{-10} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$$

$$E_B = 18 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

Table 11. 1-site Langmuir parameters for pure CH₄ isotherms in MIL-101. These fits are based on the experimental data of Chowdhury et al.²⁶.

$$q = \frac{q_{sat} b p}{1 + b p}$$

$$q_{sat} = 34 \text{ mol kg}^{-1}$$

$$b = b_0 \exp\left(\frac{E}{RT}\right);$$

$$b_0 = 1.79 \times 10^{-9} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$$

$$E = 9.9 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

Table 12. 1-site Langmuir parameters for pure H₂ isotherms in MIL-101. These fits are based on the experimental data of Latroche et al.²⁷.

$$q = \frac{q_{sat}bp}{1+bp}$$

$$q_{sat} = 34 \text{ mol kg}^{-1}$$

$$b = b_0 \exp\left(\frac{E}{RT}\right);$$

$$b_0 = 1.79 \times 10^{-9} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$$

$$E = 9.9 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

Table 13. 2-site Langmuir-Freundlich parameters for pure CO₂, CO, CH₄ and H₂ isotherms in LTA-5A zeolite. The fits for pure CO₂, CO, CH₄ are derived from re-fitting the experimental data at 303 K presented in Table 1 of Pakseresht et al.²⁸. The isotherm fit for H₂ is based on the data presented in Figure 6 of Sircar and Golden,²⁹ that was combined with Configurational-Bias Monte Carlo simulation data.

	$q_{A,sat}$ mol kg ⁻¹	b_A Pa ^{-ν_i}	ν_A dimensionless	$q_{B,sat}$ mol kg ⁻¹	b_B Pa ^{-ν_i}	ν_B dimensionless
CO ₂	1.84	1.89×10 ⁻⁴	1.24	2.1	8.51×10 ⁻⁴	0.64
CO	68	6.44×10 ⁻⁵	0.41	0.9	8.88×10 ⁻¹⁵	2.8
CH ₄	2	5.77×10 ⁻⁶	1			
H ₂	15	2.05×10 ⁻⁸				

Table 14. Reed-Ehrlich parameters for a variety of species in CuBTC at 300 K.

Molecule	$D_i(0) / 10^{-8} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$	z	ϕ_i
CO ₂	0.8	5	$1.5 \exp(0.01\theta_i)$
CH ₄	1.7	5	$1.8 \exp(0.07\theta_i)$
H ₂	18	5	$1.15 \exp(-0.4\theta_i)$

19. References

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20. Captions for Figures

Figure 1. Three different cages in the Cu-TDPAT structure: cub- O_h (violet), T- T_d (purple) and T- O_h (orange). Color scheme: copper: dark-green (shown as square pyramid); carbon: grey; oxygen: red; nitrogen, blue; void space: large violet sphere. H atoms are omitted for clarity.

Figure 2. XRD patterns of as-synthesized and outgassed samples

Figure 3. Frameworks of MIL-101, MgMOF-74, LTA-5A, and NaX.

Figure 4. 3D bar plot comparing the framework densities, pore volumes, and surface areas of LTA-5A, NaX, MgMOF-74, Cu-TDPAT, and MIL-101.

Figure 5. Comparison of the experimentally determined absolute component loadings for CO at 273 K, 288 K, and 298 K with the isotherm fits using parameters specified in Table 3.

Figure 6. Comparison of uptake of CO₂ (expressed in absolute loadings) in Cu-TDPAT, MIL101, MgMOF-74, LTA-5A and NaX. The presented data are based on the isotherm fits.

Figure 7. Comparison of isosteric heats of adsorption, Q_{st} , of CO₂ and CO in Cu-TDPAT. The calculations of, Q_{st} , are based on the use of the Clausius-Clapeyron equation, using *numerical* procedures for differentiation of the dual-Langmuir-Freundlich model.

Figure 8. (a) Configurational-bias Monte Carlo (CBMC) simulations of the pure component adsorption isotherms of CO₂, CH₄ and H₂ in CuBTC (= HKUST-1) at 300 K. The continuous solid lines in (a) are the dual-Langmuir-Freundlich fits of the pure component isotherms. (b, c) CBMC simulations of (b) 50/50 CO₂/CH₄ and (c) 15/85 CO₂/H₂ mixture adsorption in CuBTC at 300 K. The continuous solid lines are the IAST estimations of the component loadings. The CBMC simulation results are taken from the works of Krishna, van Baten and co-workers.^{9, 40, 44-46}

Figure 9. Schematic of a packed bed adsorber.

Figure 10. Calculations of the superficial gas velocity at the outlet of the adsorber packed with Cu-TDPAT. The feed mixture to the adsorber is a binary CO₂/CH₄ gas mixture maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K. In these calculations the partial pressures of CO₂ and CH₄ are taken to be equal to each other, i.e. $p_1 = p_2 = 3.5$ MPa. The y -axis is superficial gas velocity of the outlet gas mixture. The x -axis is the dimensionless breakthrough time, τ .

Figure 11. Schematic illustration of the apparatus used for the breakthrough experiments. The pressure at the exit of the packed bed corresponds to 100 kPa.

Figure 12. Experimentally determined breakthrough curves obtained for 50/50 (a) CO₂/CH₄, (b) CO₂/H₂, and (c) CO₂/N₂ mixtures using activated and regenerated samples. The smooth lines represent our breakthrough simulations; for this purpose the framework density of the sample is taken to be 1117 kg/m³, corresponding to a sample containing 30 wt% water as in the experiments (this value determined from TGA of the sample used). The sample mass used in (a) and (b) was 100.5 mg of Cu-TDPAT crystals. For (c) the sample mass was 130 mg of Cu-TDPAT crystals. The experimental breakthrough times are corrected for the time delay between the exit of the packed bed and the entrance to the MS detection unit. The time delay was estimated to be 3.31 minutes in (a) and (b). For (c) the time delay was 3.7 minutes.

Figure 13. MD simulations of the Maxwell-Stefan diffusivities of CO₂, CH₄ and H₂ in CuBTC (= HKUST-1) at 300 K. These data are reported in the works of Krishna, van Baten and co-workers.^{9, 40, 44-46, 68} The continuous solid lines are the Reed-Ehrlich fits of the diffusivities using parameter values reported in Table 14.

Figure 14. Comparison of breakthrough simulations for 50/50 (a) CO₂/CH₄, (b) CO₂/H₂, and (c) CO₂/N₂ mixtures in which intra-crystalline diffusion effects are included (indicated by crosses) with those in which equilibrium conditions are assumed (continuous solid lines). For the case in which intra-crystalline diffusion effects are included the crystallite size is taken to be 400 μm, and the diffusivities of the individual species are those obtained in the MD simulations of the Maxwell-Stefan diffusivities of CO₂, CH₄ and H₂ in CuBTC (= HKUST-1) at 300 K. The diffusivity of N₂ is assumed to have the same value as that for CH₄.

Figure 15. Breakthrough characteristics of an adsorber packed with Cu-TDPAT and maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K. Ppm CO₂ in outlet gas as a function of the dimensionless time for various adsorbent materials. The partial pressures of CO₂ and CH₄ at the inlet to the adsorber are $p_1 = p_2 = 3.5$ MPa. The various curves are obtained with different crystal sizes.

Figure 16. Calculations using Ideal Adsorbed Solution Theory (IAST) of Myers and Prausnitz.¹⁴ for (a) CO₂/H₂ adsorption selectivity, (b) (CO₂ + CO + CH₄) uptake capacity, expressed as moles per kg of adsorbent, in equilibrium with a quaternary CO₂/CO/CH₄/H₂ gas mixture maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K, and (c) (CO₂ + CO + CH₄) uptake capacity, expressed as moles per L of adsorbent, in equilibrium with a ternary CO₂/CO/CH₄/H₂ gas mixture maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K. In these calculations the partial pressures of the three components are: $p_1/p_2/p_3/p_4=40/5/5/50$.

Figure 17. (a) Schematic of a packed bed adsorber. (b) Breakthrough characteristics a quaternary 40/5/5/50 CO₂/CO/CH₄/H₂ mixture in an adsorber packed with Cu-TDPAT and maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K. Video animations of the breakthrough simulations are available as Supporting Information. (c) Ppm (CO₂ + CO + CH₄) in outlet gas as a function of the dimensionless time for various adsorbent materials. The total operating pressure for the data in (b), and (c) corresponds to 6 MPa.

Figure 18. Influence of the total operating pressure on (a) dimensionless breakthrough times, and the number of moles of 99.95%+ pure H₂ produced (b) per kg of adsorbent material, and (c) per L of adsorbent material during the time interval $0 - \tau_{\text{break}}$. The breakthrough times, τ_{break} , correspond to those when the outlet gas contains 500 ppm (CO₂ + CO + CH₄).

Figure 19. Plot of the number of moles of 99.95%+ pure H₂ produced (a) per kg of adsorbent material, (b) per L of adsorbent material during the time interval 0 – τ_{break} against the breakthrough time τ_{break} for packed bed adsorber with step-input of mixture with partial pressures: $p_1 = 2.4$ MPa; $p_2 = 0.3$ MPa; $p_3 = 0.3$ MPa; $p_4 = 3$ MPa at 298 K. The breakthrough times, τ_{break} , correspond to those when the outlet gas contains 500 ppm (CO₂ + CO + CH₄).

Figure 20. 3D bar plots showing the dependence of the number of moles of 99.95%+ pure H₂ produced (a) per kg, and (b) per L of adsorbent in a fixed bed adsorber (z -axes) for CO₂/CO/CH₄/H₂ mixture with step-input of mixture with partial pressures: $p_1 = 2.4$ MPa; $p_2 = 0.3$ MPa; $p_3 = 0.3$ MPa; $p_4 = 3$ MPa on adsorption selectivity (x -axis), and the (CO₂ + CO + CH₄) uptake capacity (in mol kg⁻¹ plotted on the y -axis).

Figure 21. Calculations using Ideal Adsorbed Solution Theory (IAST) of Myers and Prausnitz.¹⁴ for (a) CO₂/H₂ adsorption selectivity, (b) (CO₂ + CH₄) uptake capacity, expressed as moles per kg of adsorbent, in equilibrium with a ternary CO₂/CH₄/H₂ 40/10/50 gas mixture maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K, and (c) (CO₂ + CH₄) uptake capacity, expressed as moles per L of adsorbent, in equilibrium with a ternary CO₂/CH₄/H₂ gas mixture maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K. In these calculations the partial pressures of the three components are: $p_1/p_2/p_3 = 40/10/50$

Figure 22.(a) Schematic of a packed bed adsorber. (b) Breakthrough characteristics of an adsorber packed with Cu-TDPAT and maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K. (c) Ppm (CO₂ + CH₄) in outlet gas as a function of the dimensionless time for various adsorbent materials. The total operating pressure for the data in (b), and (c) corresponds to 4 MPa.

Figure 23. Influence of the total operating pressure on (a) dimensionless breakthrough times, and the number of moles of 99.95%+ pure H₂ produced (b) per kg of adsorbent material, and (c) per L of adsorbent material during the time interval 0 – τ_{break} . The breakthrough times, τ_{break} , correspond to those when the outlet gas contains 500 ppm (CO₂ + CH₄).

Figure 24. Plot of the number of moles of 99.95%+ pure H₂ produced (a) per kg of adsorbent material, (b) per L of adsorbent material during the time interval 0 – τ_{break} against the breakthrough time τ_{break} for packed bed adsorber with step-input of mixture with partial pressures: $p_1 = 2.8$ MPa; $p_2 = 0.7$ MPa; $p_3 = 3.5$ MPa at 298 K. The breakthrough times, τ_{break} , correspond to those when the outlet gas contains 500 ppm (CO₂ + CH₄).

Figure 25. 3D bar plots showing the dependence of the number of moles of 99.95%+ pure H₂ produced (a) per kg, and (b) per L of adsorbent in a fixed bed adsorber (z -axes) for CO₂/CH₄/H₂ mixture with step-input of mixture with partial pressures: $p_1 = 2.8$ MPa; $p_2 = 0.7$ MPa; $p_3 = 3.5$ MPa on the adsorption selectivity (x -axis), and the (CO₂ + CH₄) uptake capacity (in mol kg⁻¹ plotted on the y -axis).

Figure 26. Calculations using Ideal Adsorbed Solution Theory (IAST) of Myers and Prausnitz¹⁴ for (a) CO₂/H₂ adsorption selectivity, (b) CO₂ uptake capacity, expressed as moles per kg of adsorbent, in equilibrium with a binary CO₂/H₂ gas mixture maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K, and (c) CO₂ uptake capacity, expressed as moles per L of adsorbent, in equilibrium with a binary CO₂/H₂ gas mixture maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K. In these calculations the partial pressures of CO₂ and H₂ are taken to be $p_2 = 4p_1$.

Figure 27. (a) Schematic of a packed bed adsorber. (b) Breakthrough characteristics of an adsorber packed with Cu-TDPAT and maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K. (c) Ppm CO₂ in outlet gas as a function of the dimensionless time for various adsorbent materials. In the calculations for (b) and (c) the partial pressures of CO₂ and H₂ at the inlet to the adsorber are $p_1 = 1.4$ MPa, $p_2 = 5.6$ MPa.

Figure 28. Influence of the total operating pressure on (a) dimensionless breakthrough times, and the number of moles of 99.95%+ pure H₂ produced (b) per kg of adsorbent material, and (c) per L of adsorbent material during the time interval $0 - \tau_{\text{break}}$. The breakthrough times, τ_{break} , correspond to those when the outlet gas contains 500 ppm CO₂.

Figure 29. Plot of the number of moles of 99.95%+ pure H₂ produced (a) per kg of adsorbent material, (b) per L of adsorbent material during the time interval $0 - \tau_{\text{break}}$ against the breakthrough time τ_{break} for packed bed adsorber with step-input of a 20/80 CO₂/H₂ mixture at 298 K and total pressure of 7 MPa. The breakthrough times, τ_{break} , correspond to those when the outlet gas contains 500 ppm CO₂.

Figure 30. 3D bar plots showing the dependence of the number of moles of 99.95%+ pure H₂ produced (a) per kg, and (b) per L of adsorbent in a fixed bed adsorber (z -axis) for 20/80 CO₂/H₂ mixture at 298 K and total pressures of 7 MPa on the adsorption selectivity (x -axis), and the CO₂ uptake capacity (expressed in mol kg⁻¹ plotted on the y -axis).

Figure 31. Calculations using Ideal Adsorbed Solution Theory (IAST) of Myers and Prausnitz.¹⁴ for (a) CO₂/CH₄ adsorption selectivity, (b) CO₂ uptake capacity, expressed as moles per kg of adsorbent, in equilibrium with a binary CO₂/CH₄ gas mixture maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K, and (c) CO₂ uptake capacity, expressed as moles per L of adsorbent, in equilibrium with a binary CO₂/CH₄ gas mixture maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K. In these calculations the partial pressures of CO₂ and CH₄ are taken to be equal to each other, i.e. $p_1 = p_2$.

Figure 32. (a) Schematic of a packed bed adsorber. (b) Breakthrough characteristics of an adsorber packed with Cu-TDPAT and maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K. (c) Ppm CO₂ in outlet gas as a function of the dimensionless time for various adsorbent materials. In the calculations for (b) and (c) the partial pressures of CO₂ and CH₄ at the inlet to the adsorber are $p_1 = p_2 = 3.5$ MPa.

Figure 33. Influence of the total operating pressure on (a) dimensionless breakthrough times, and the number of moles of 99.5%+ pure CH₄ produced (b) per kg of adsorbent material, and (c) per L of adsorbent material during the time interval 0 – τ_{break} . The breakthrough times, τ_{break} , correspond to those when the outlet gas contains < 500 ppm CO₂.

Figure 34. Plot of the number of moles of 99.5%+ pure CH₄ produced (a) per kg of adsorbent material, (b) per L of adsorbent material during the time interval 0 – τ_{break} against the breakthrough time τ_{break} for packed bed adsorber with step-input of a 50/50 CO₂/CH₄ mixture at 298 K and. The breakthrough times, τ_{break} , correspond to those when the outlet gas contains 500 ppm CO₂.

Figure 35. 3D bar plots showing the dependence of the number of moles of 99.5%+ pure CH₄ produced (a) per kg, and (b) per L of adsorbent in a fixed bed adsorber (*z*-axes) for equimolar CO₂/CH₄ mixture total pressure of 7 MPa on the adsorption selectivity (*x*-axis), and the CO₂ uptake capacity (in mol kg⁻¹ plotted on the *y*-axis).

Figure 36. Calculations using Ideal Adsorbed Solution Theory (IAST) of Myers and Prausnitz.¹⁴ for (a) CH₄/H₂ adsorption selectivity, (b) CH₄ uptake capacity, expressed as moles per kg of adsorbent, in equilibrium with a binary CH₄/H₂ gas mixture maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K, and (c) CH₄ uptake capacity, expressed as moles per L of adsorbent, in equilibrium with a binary CH₄/H₂ gas mixture maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K. In these calculations the partial pressures of CH₄ and H₂ are taken to be $p_1 = p_2$.

Figure 37. (a) Schematic of a packed bed adsorber. (b) Breakthrough characteristics of an adsorber packed with Cu-TDPAT and maintained at isothermal conditions at 298 K. (c) Ppm CH₄ in outlet gas as a function of the dimensionless time for various adsorbent materials. In the calculations for (b) and (c) the partial pressures of CH₄ and H₂ at the inlet to the adsorber are $p_1 = p_2 = 3.5$ MPa.

Figure 38. Influence of the total operating pressure on (a) dimensionless breakthrough times, and the number of moles of 99.95%+ pure H₂ produced (b) per kg of adsorbent material, and (c) per L of adsorbent material during the time interval 0 – τ_{break} . The breakthrough times, τ_{break} , correspond to those when the outlet gas contains 500 ppm CH₄.

Figure 39. Plot of the number of moles of 99.95%+ pure H₂ produced (a) per kg of adsorbent material, (b) per L of adsorbent material during the time interval 0 – τ_{break} against the breakthrough time τ_{break} for packed bed adsorber with step-input of a 50/5 CH₄/H₂ mixture at 298 K and total pressures of 7 MPa. The breakthrough times, τ_{break} , correspond to those when the outlet gas contains 500 ppm CH₄.

Figure 40. 3D bar plots showing the dependence of the number of moles of 99.95%+ pure H₂ produced (a) per kg and (b) per L of adsorbent in a fixed bed adsorber (z -axes) for equimolar CH₄/H₂ mixture at 298 K and total pressure of 7 MPa on the adsorption selectivity (x -axis), and the CH₄ uptake capacity (expressed in mol kg⁻¹ plotted on the y -axis).

Figure 1

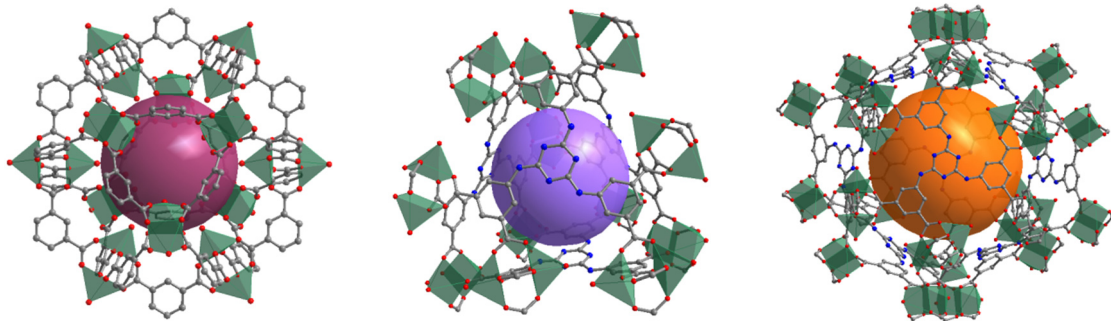


Figure 2

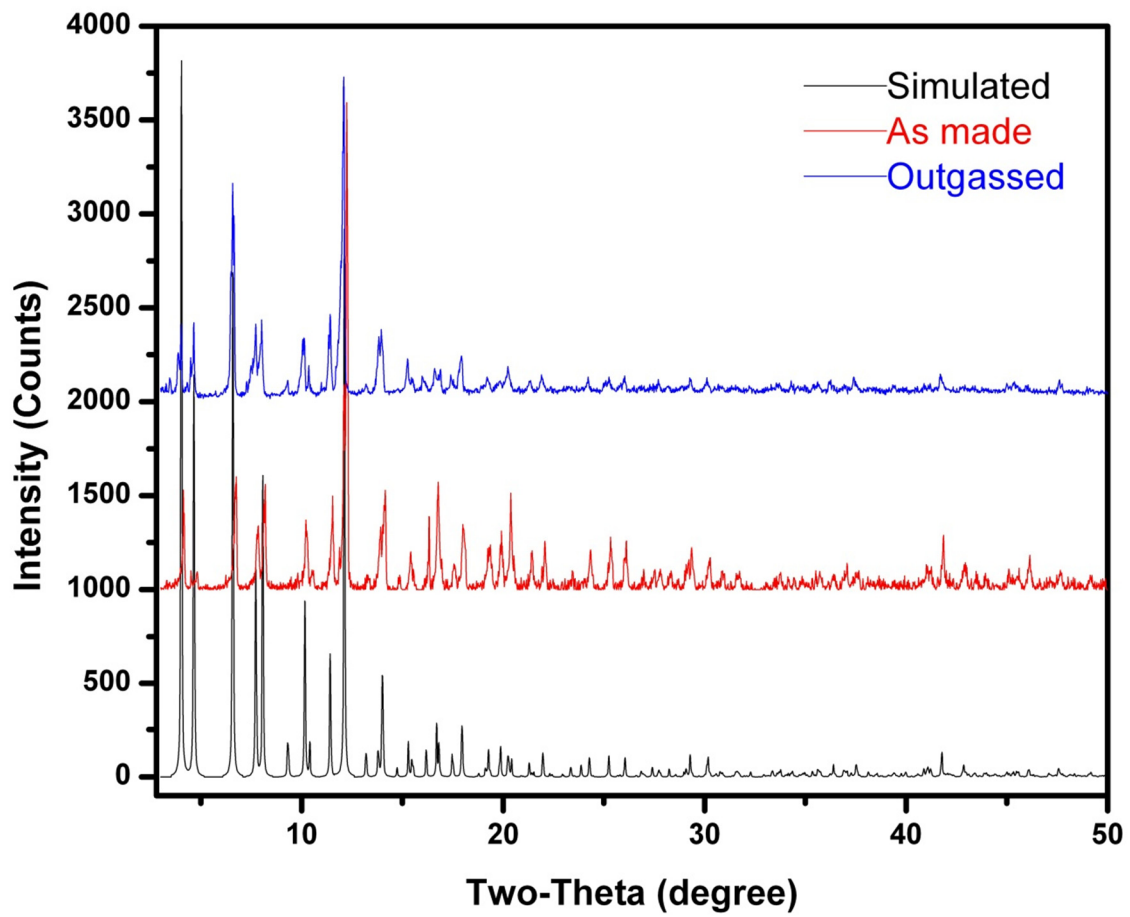


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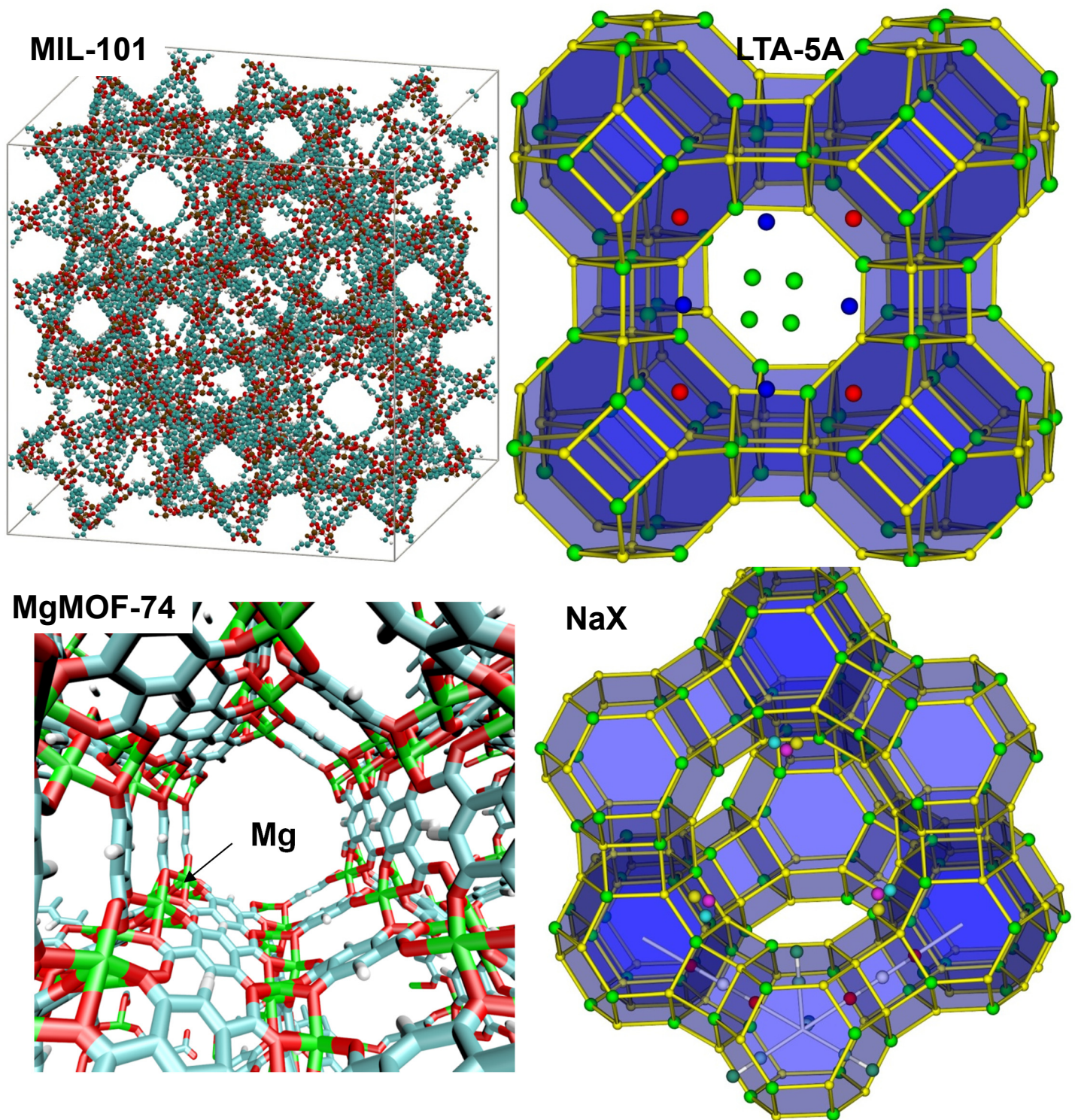


Figure 4

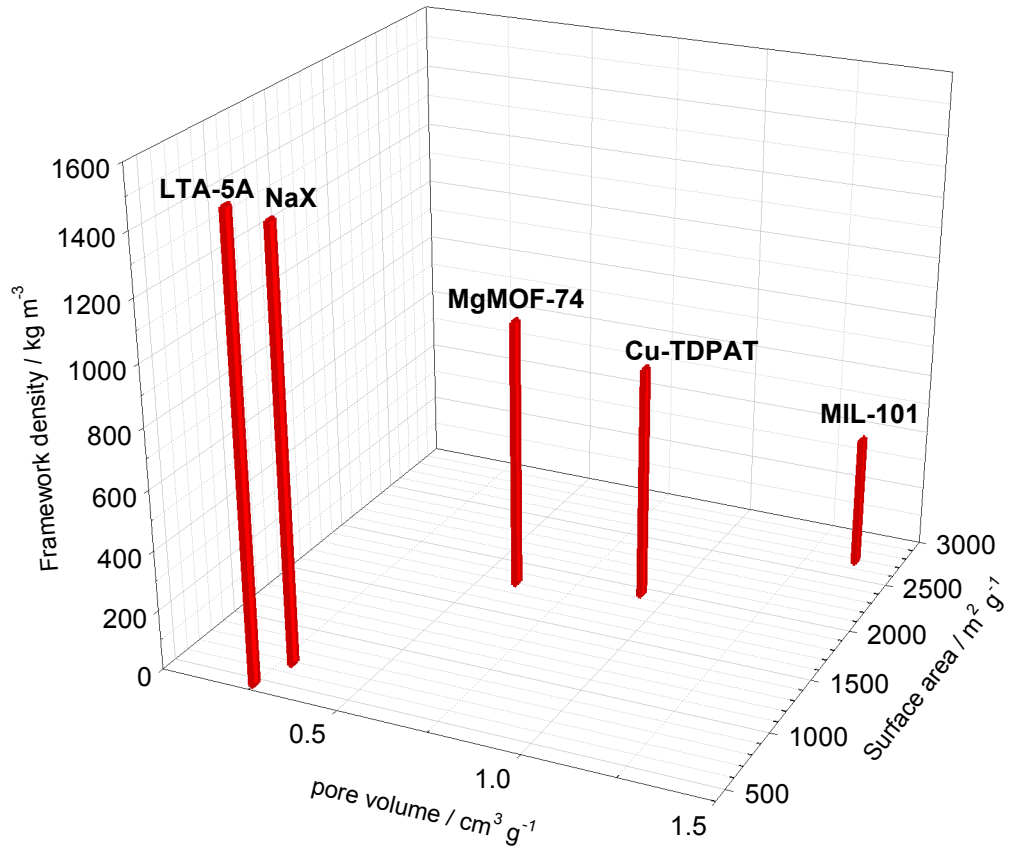


Figure 5

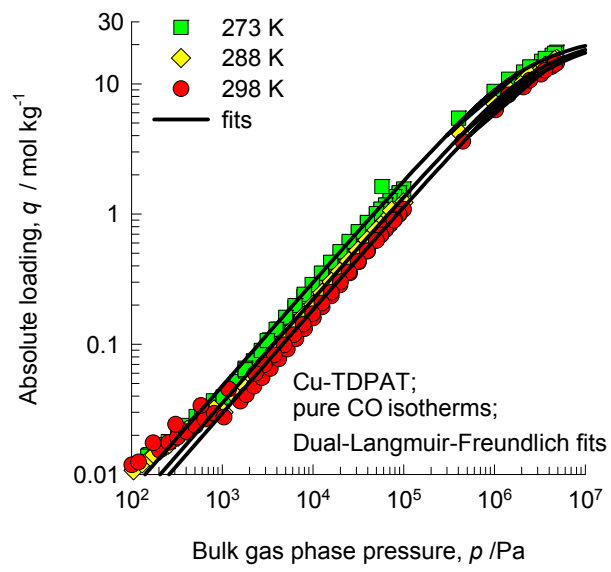


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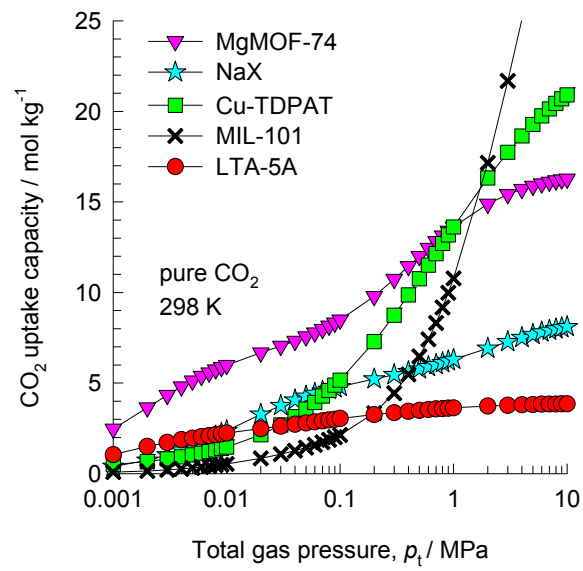


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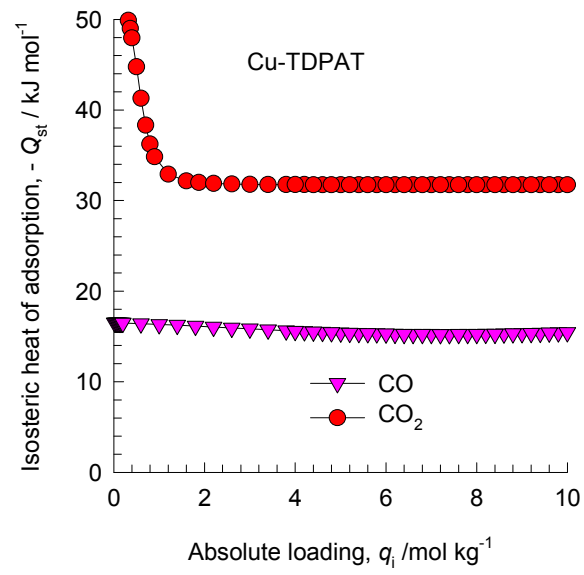


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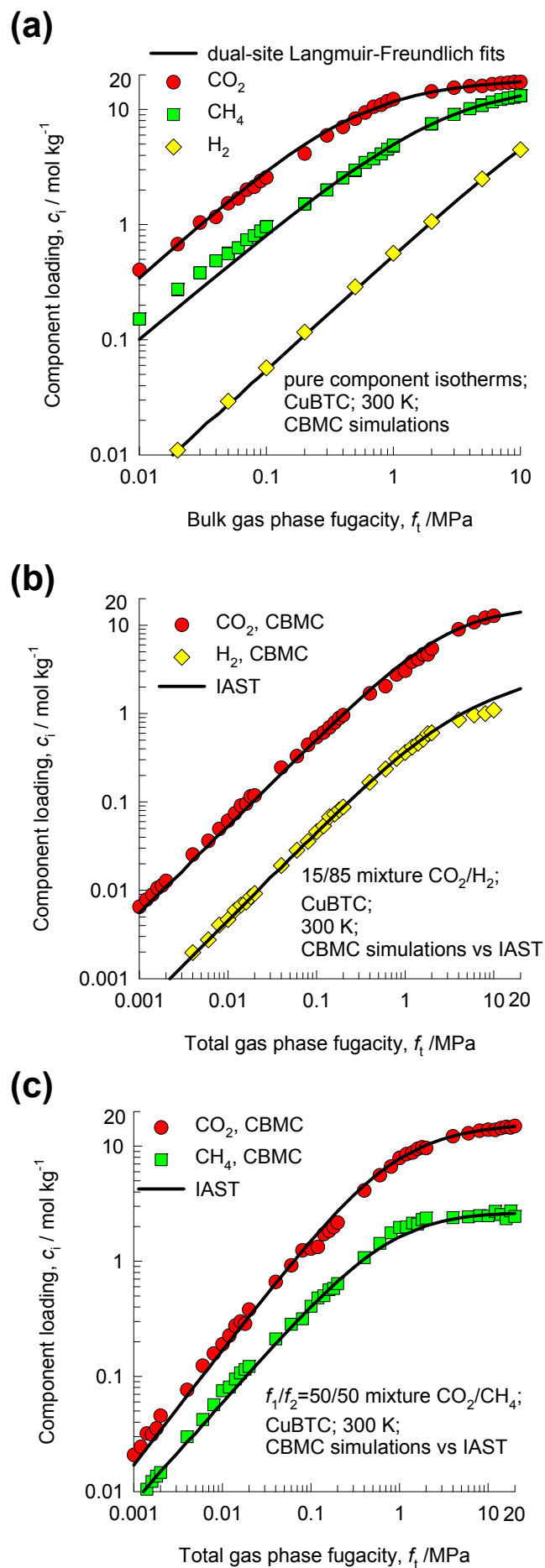


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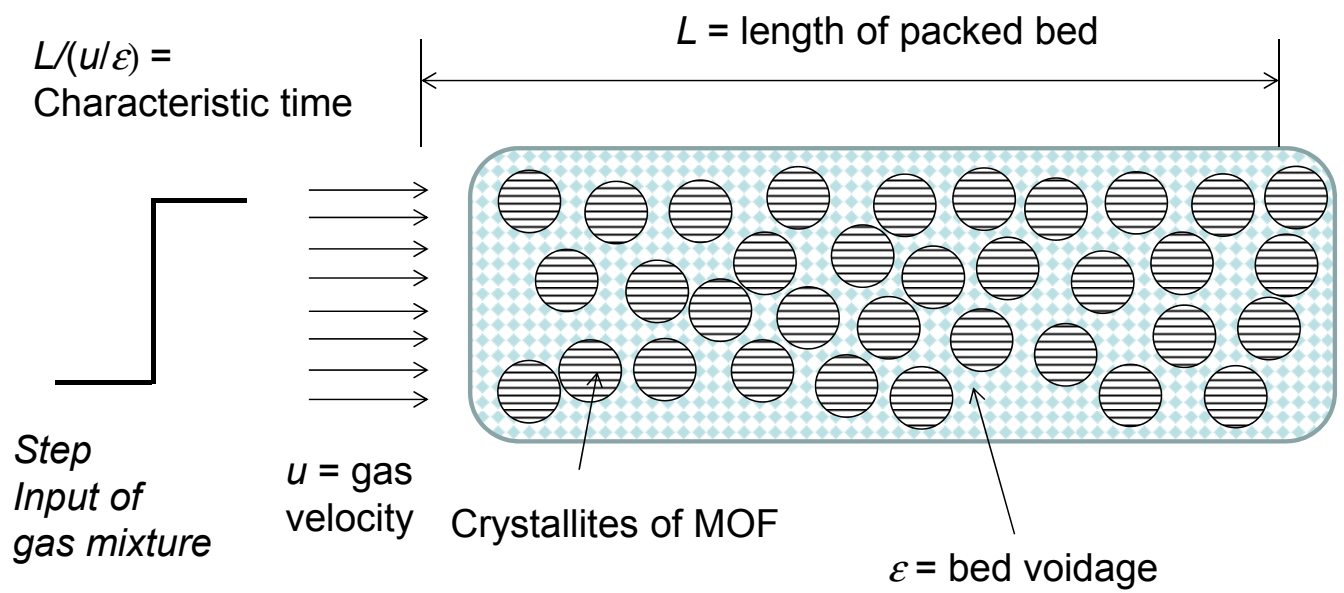


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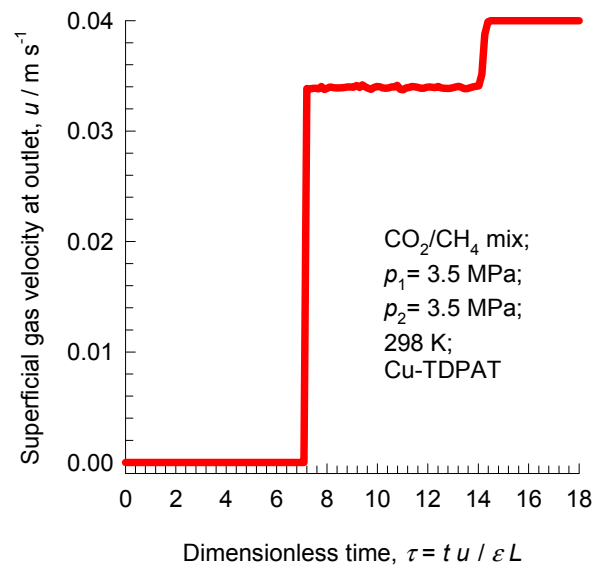


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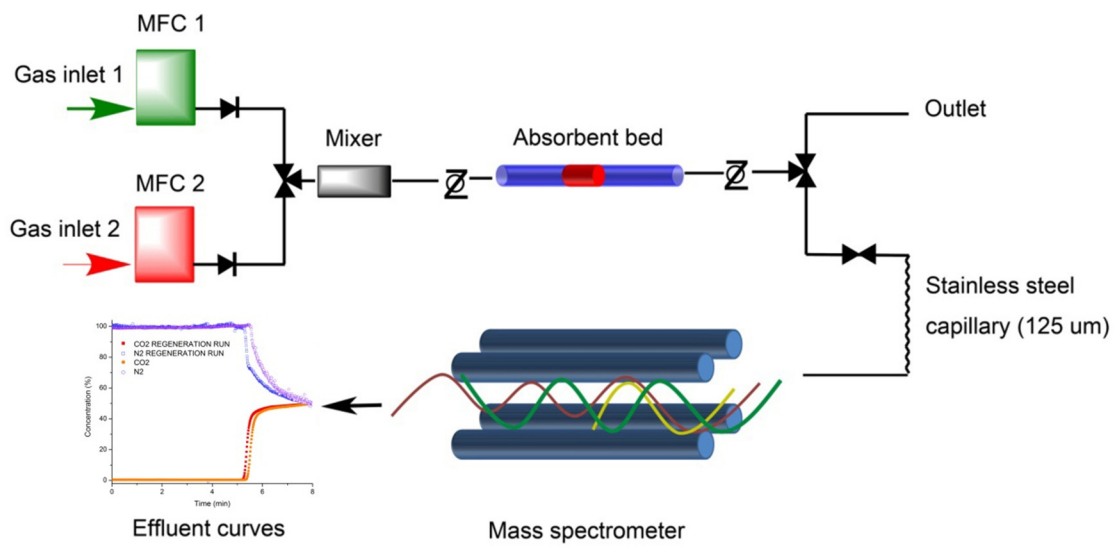


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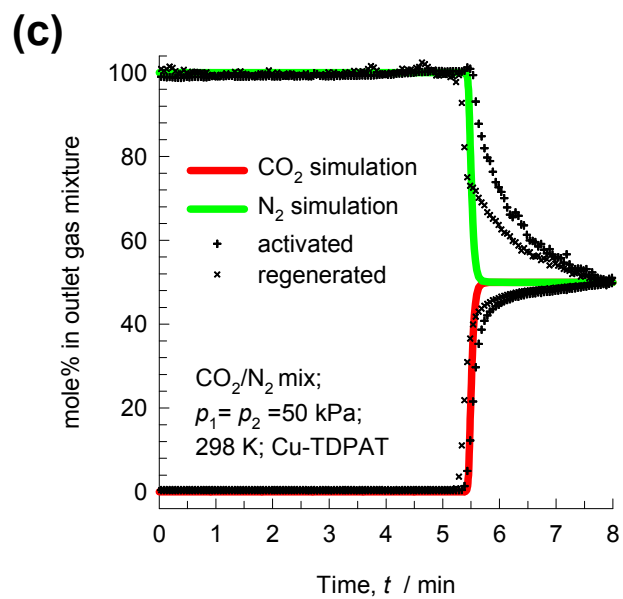
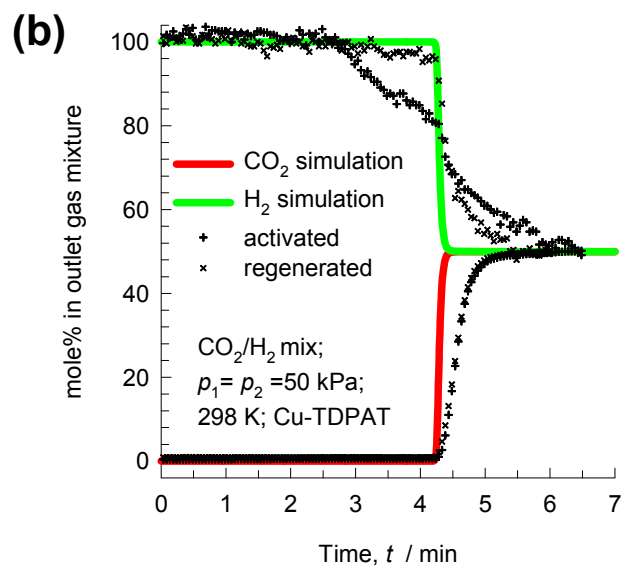
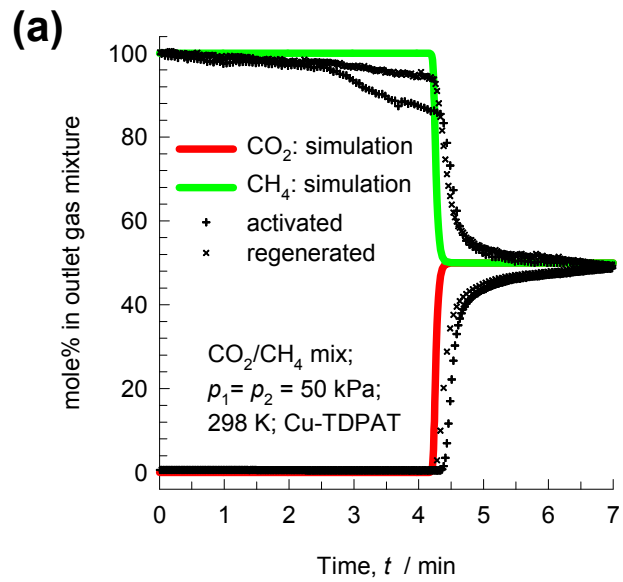


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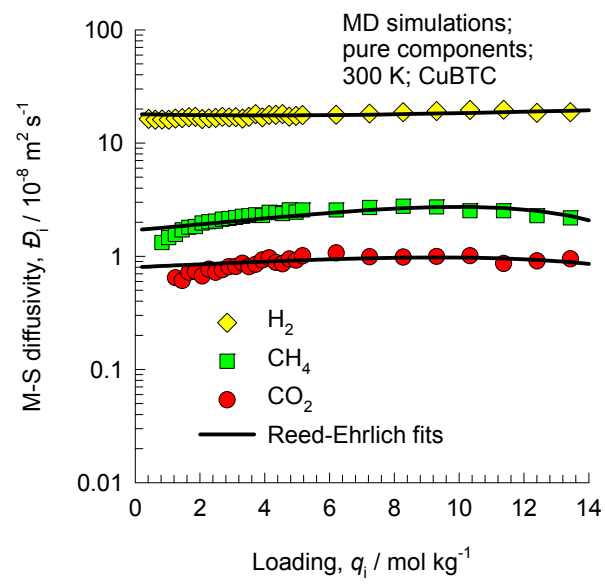


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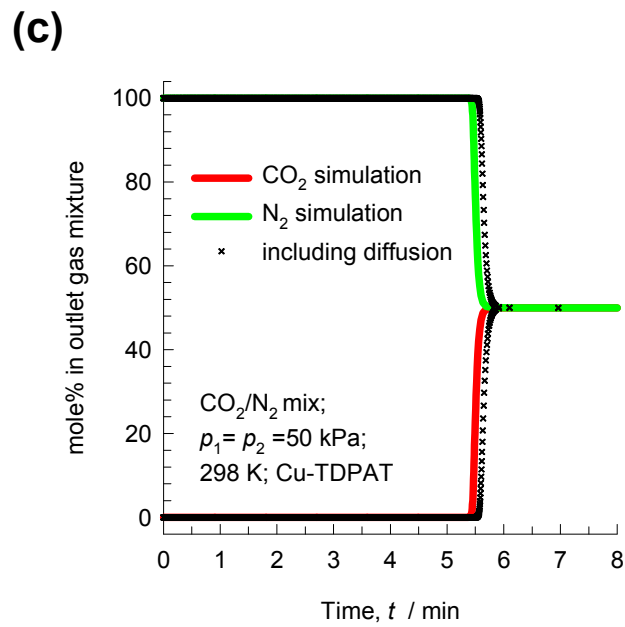
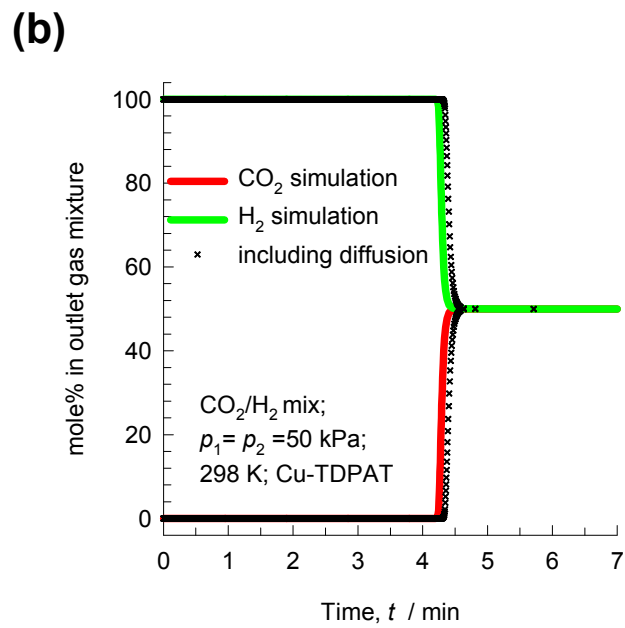
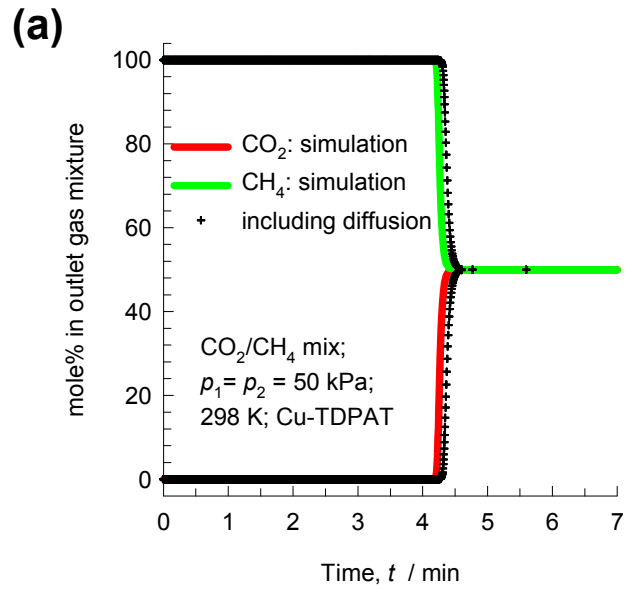


Figure 15

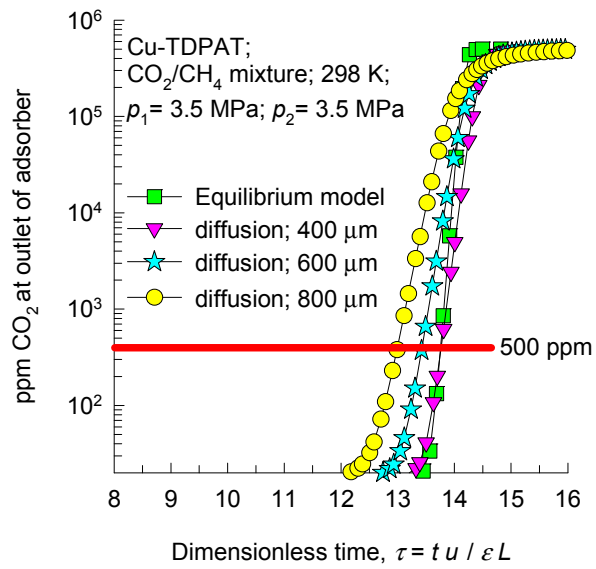


Figure 16

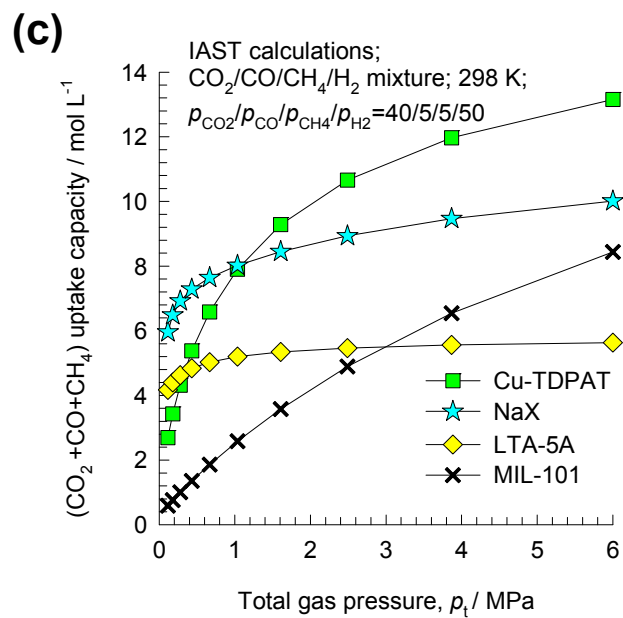
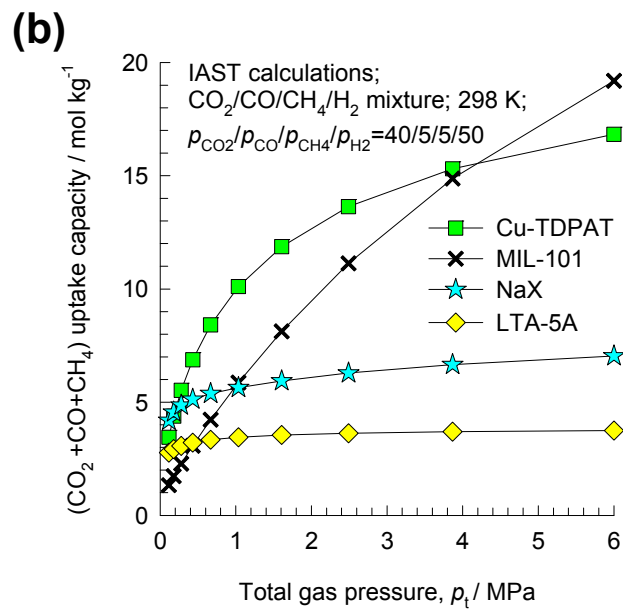
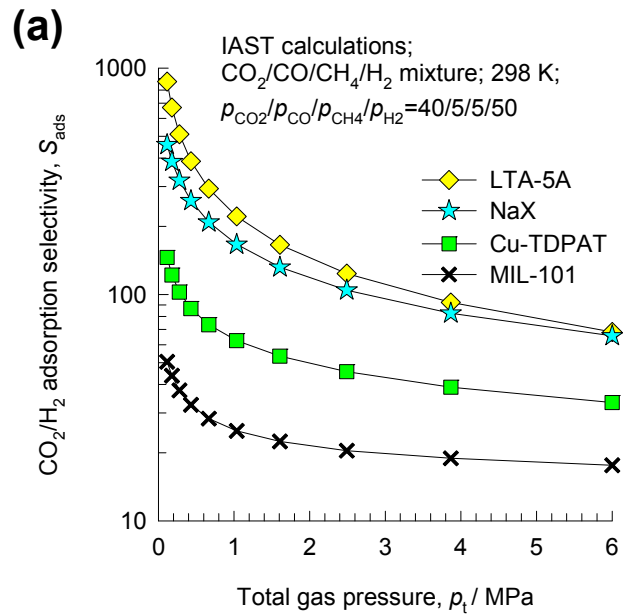


Figure 17

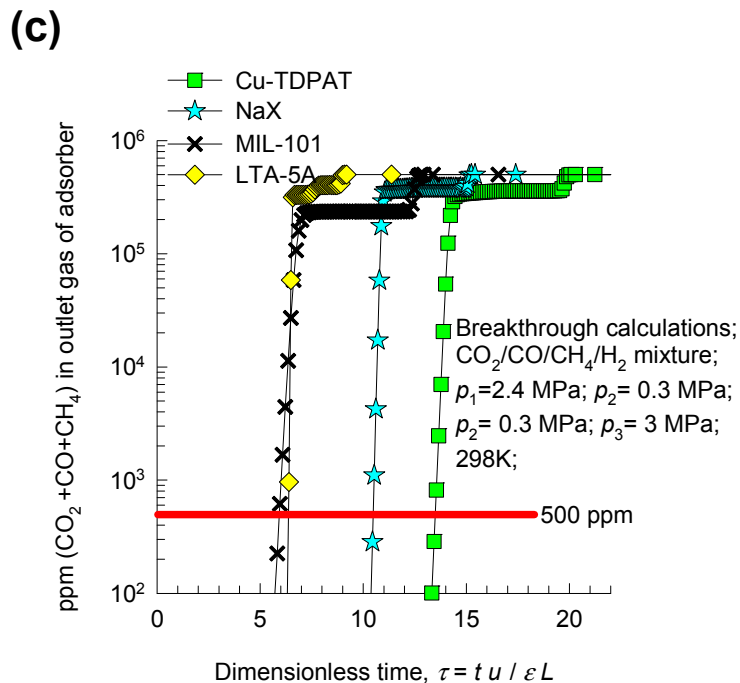
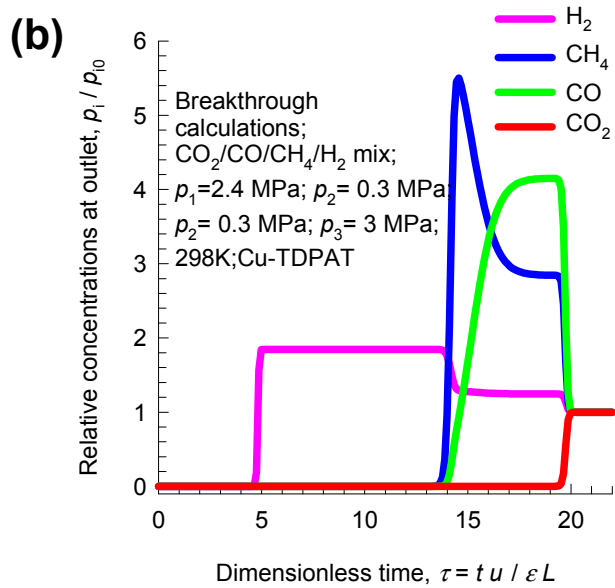
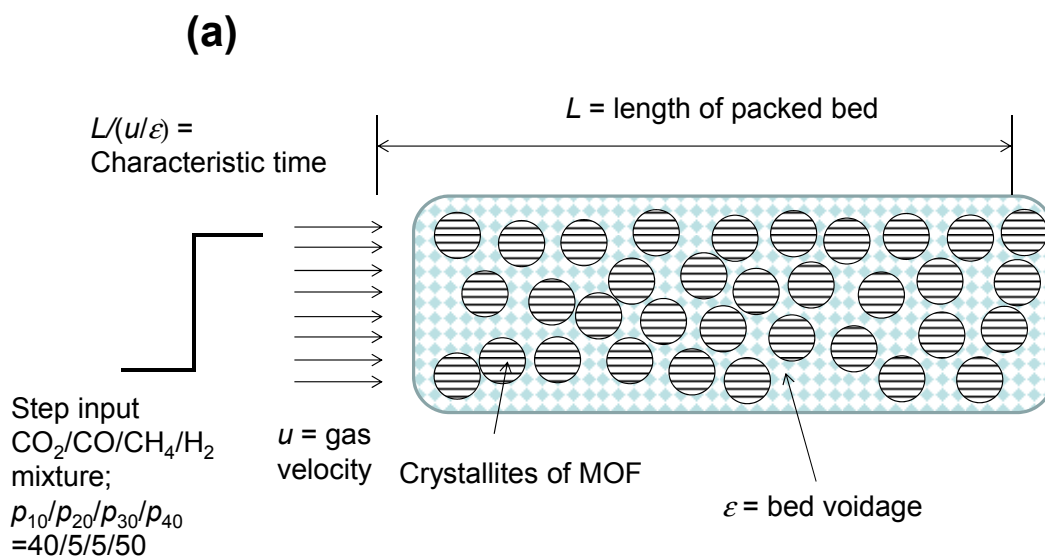


Figure 18

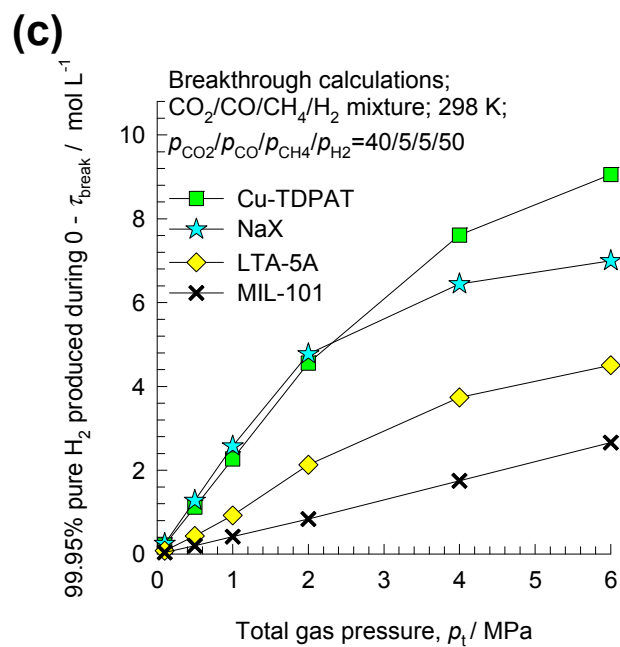
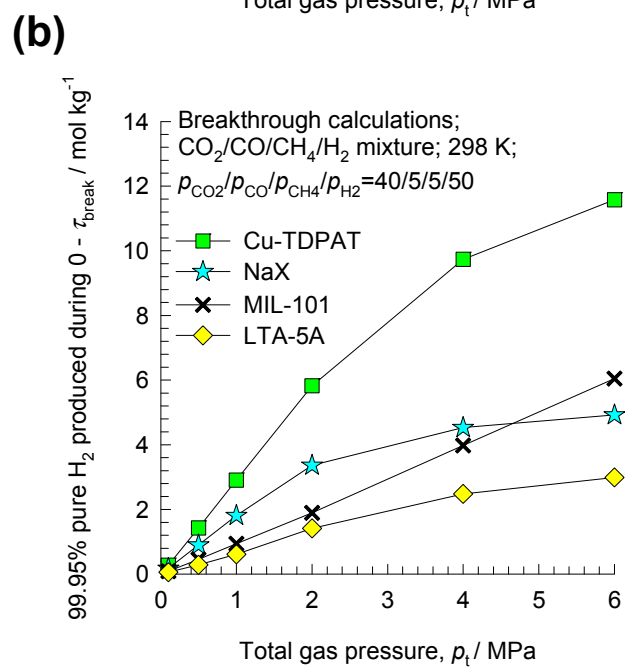
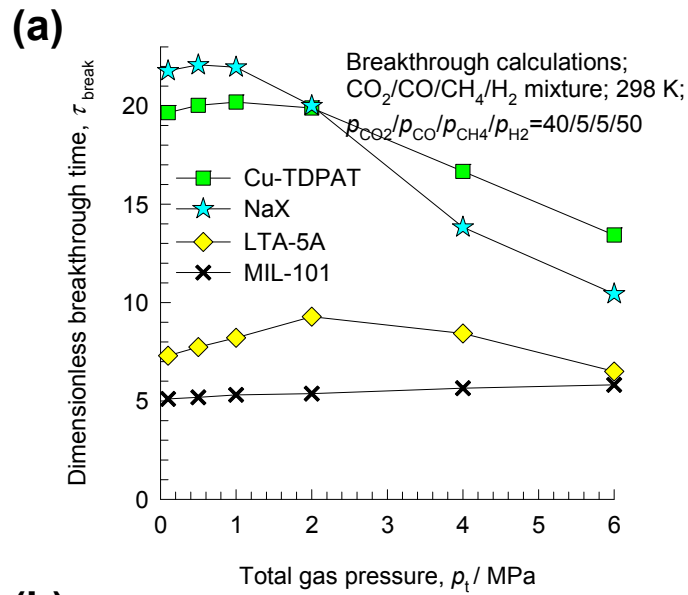


Figure 19

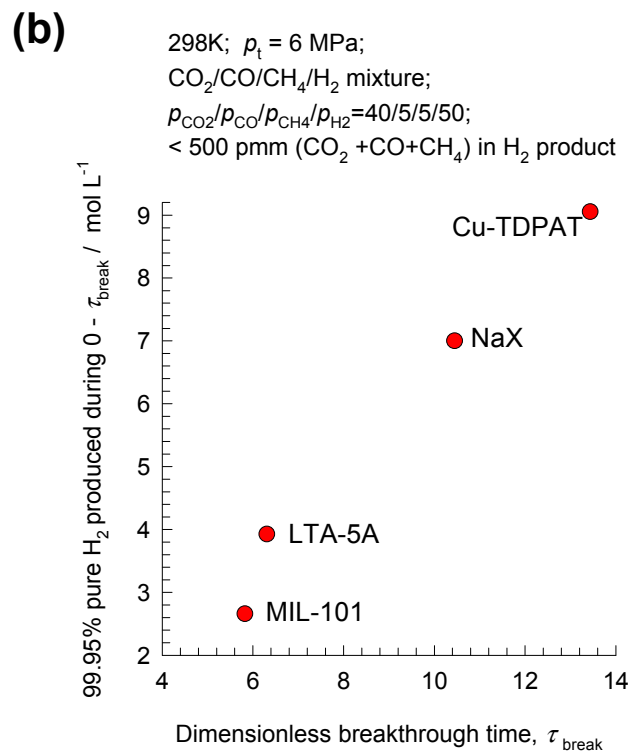
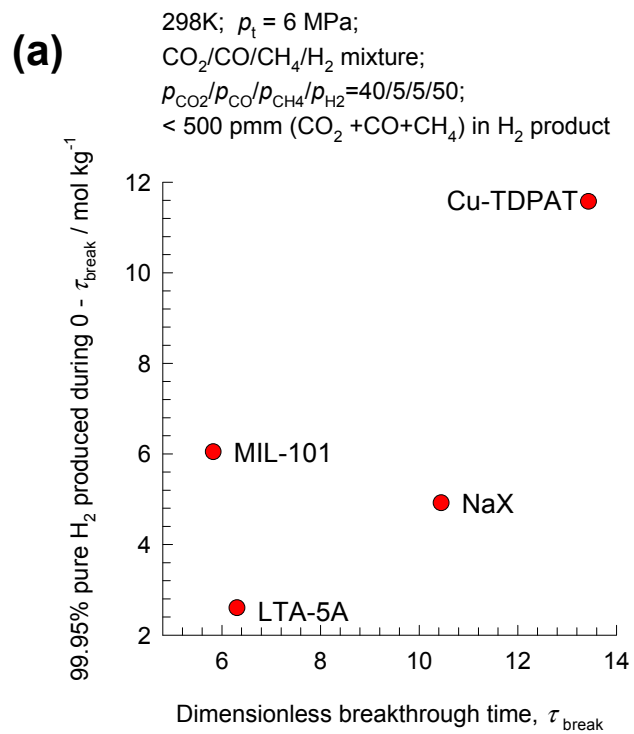
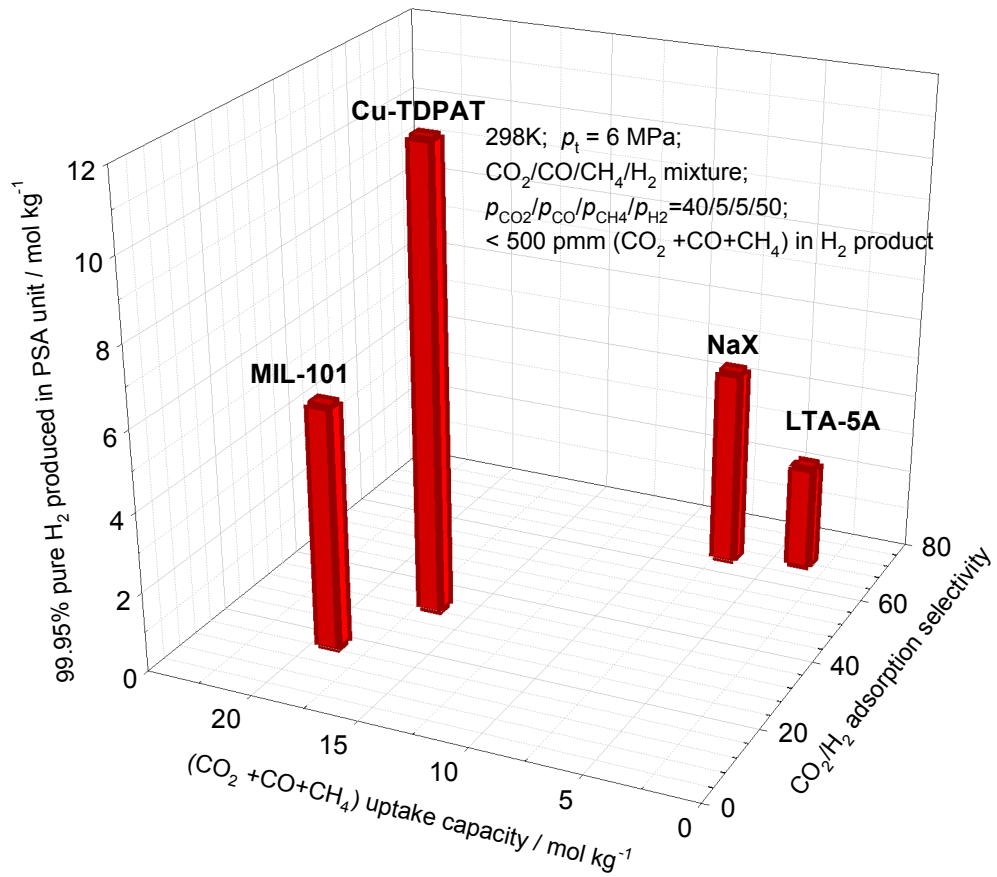


Figure 20

(a)



(b)

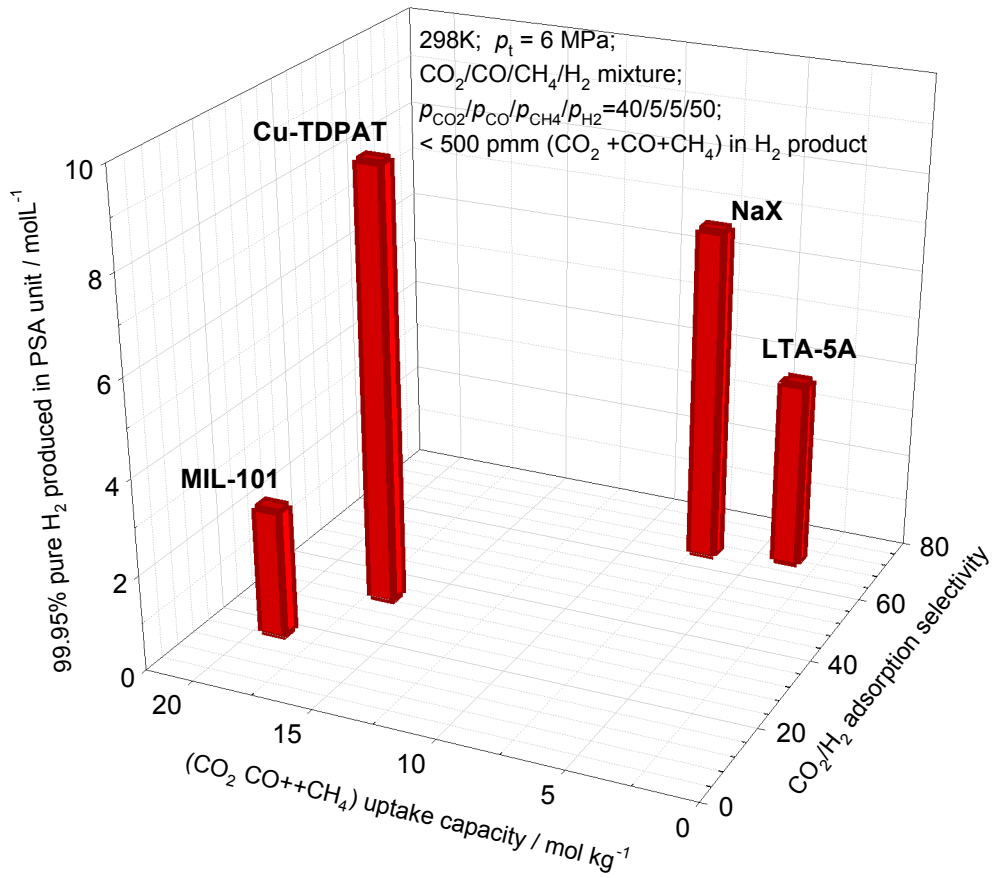


Figure 21

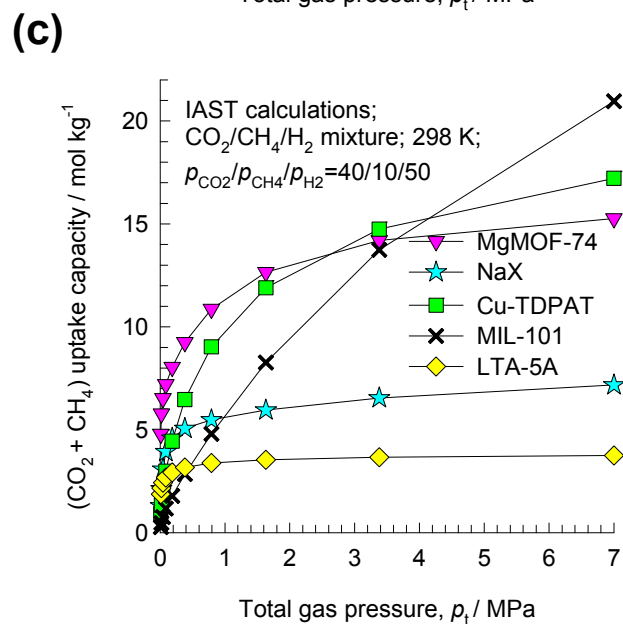
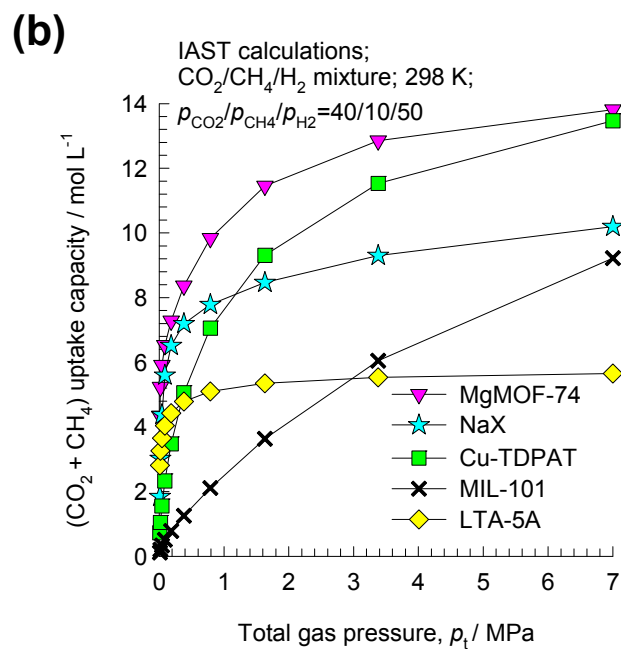
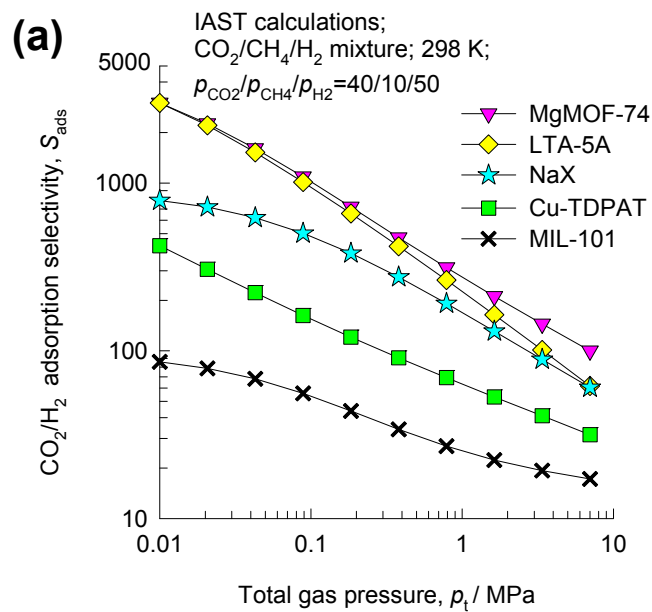


Figure 22

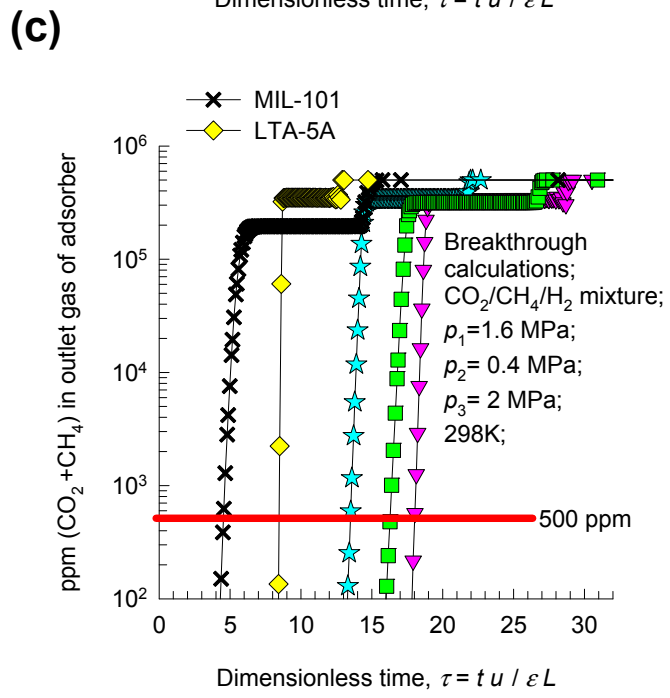
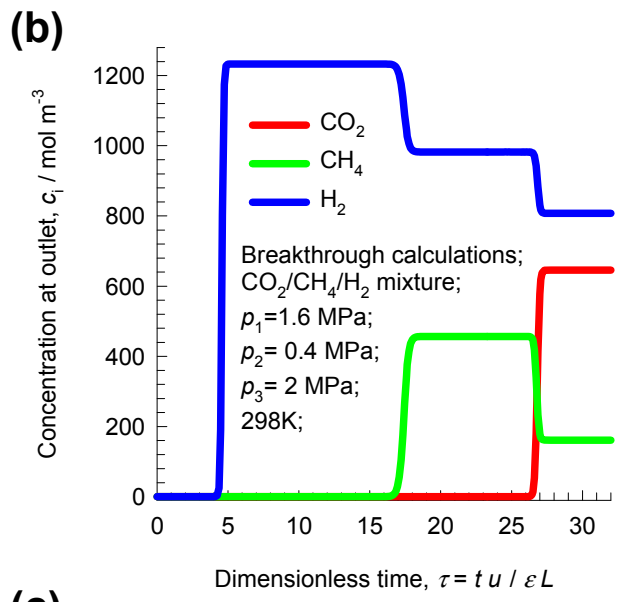
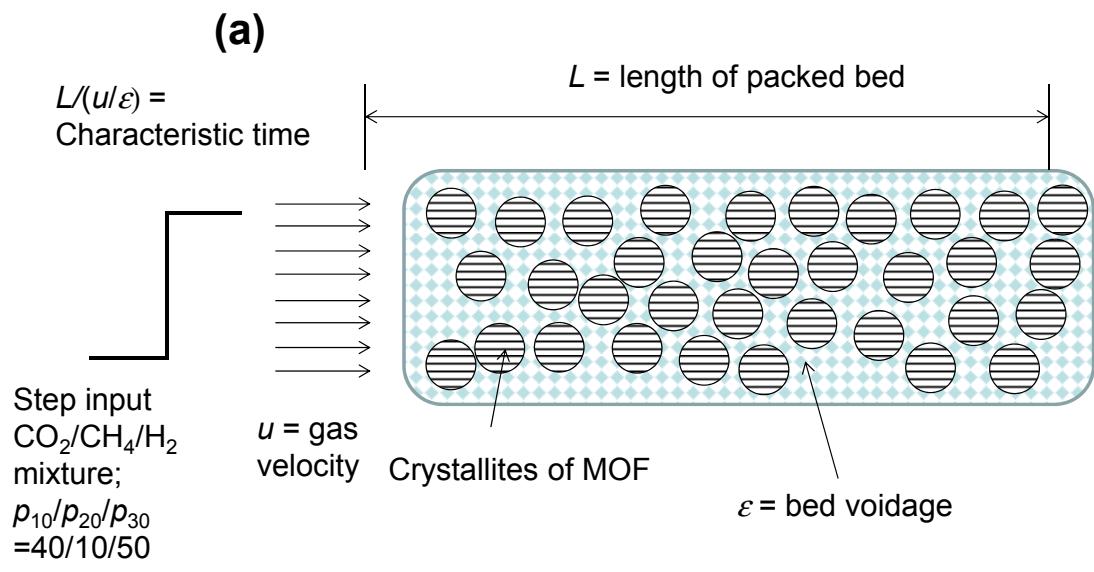


Figure 23

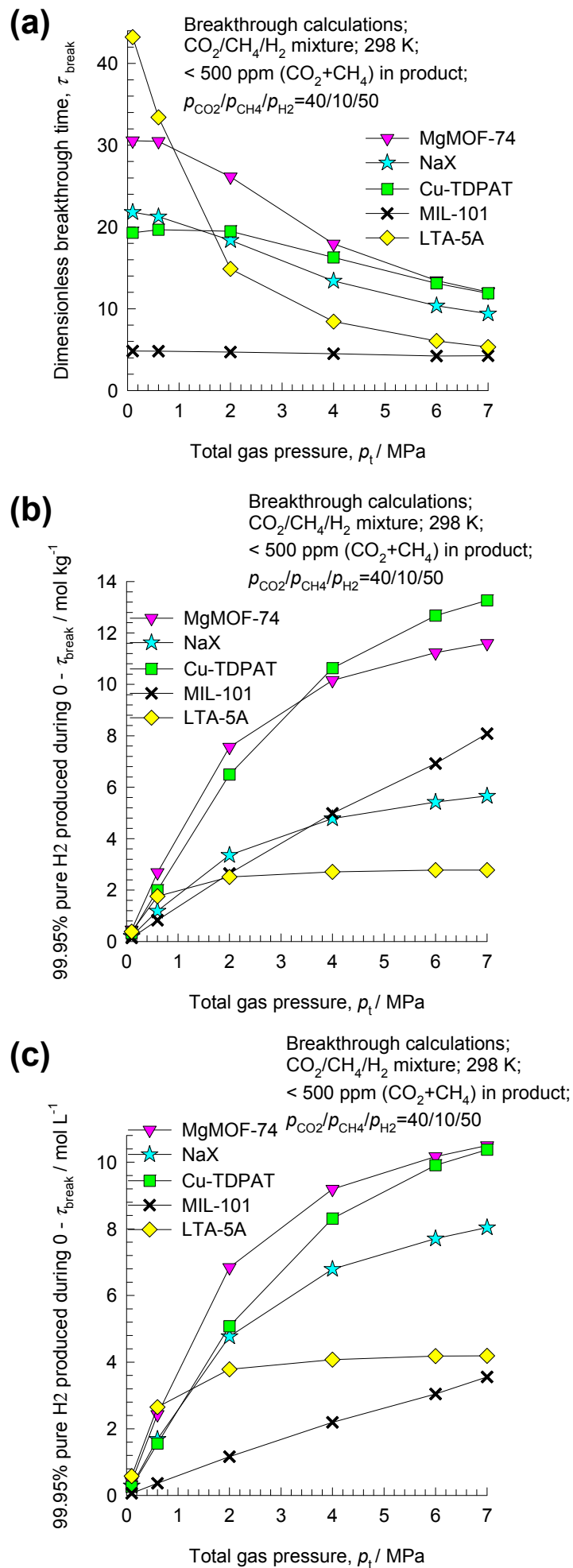


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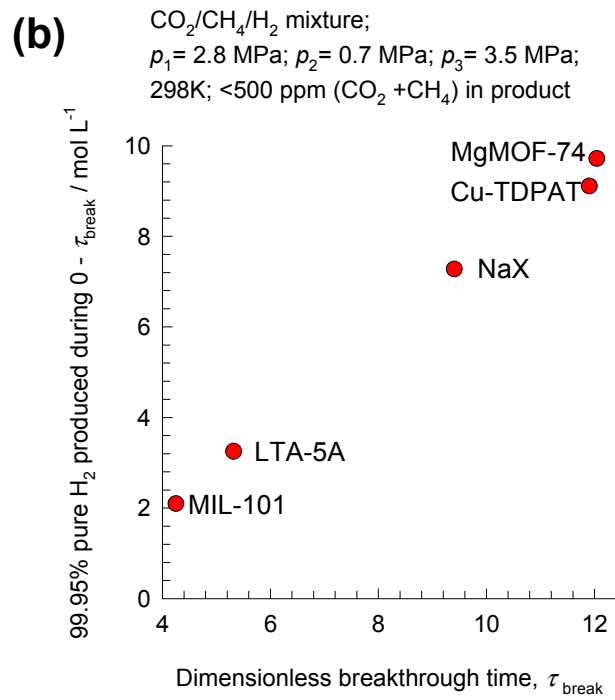
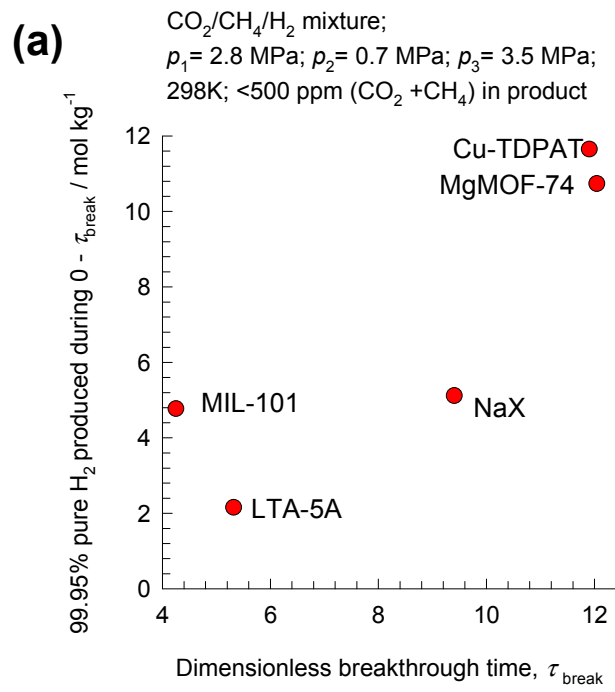
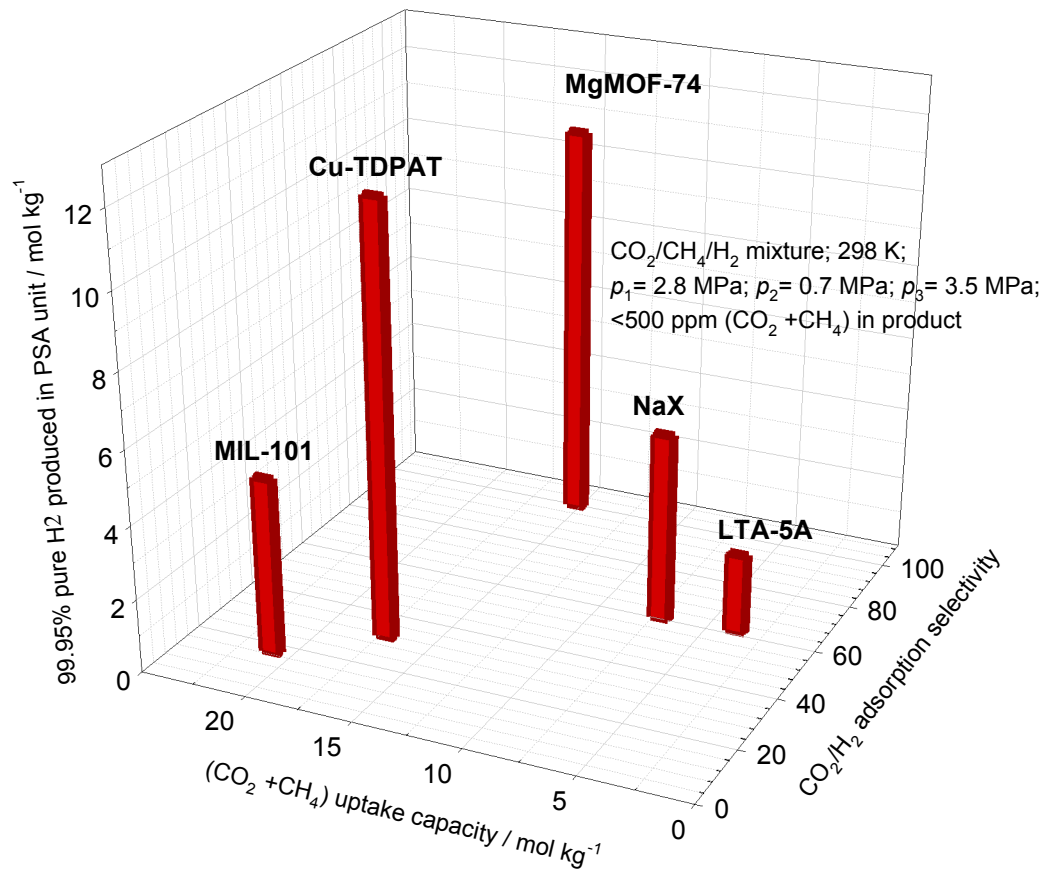


Figure 25

(a)



(b)

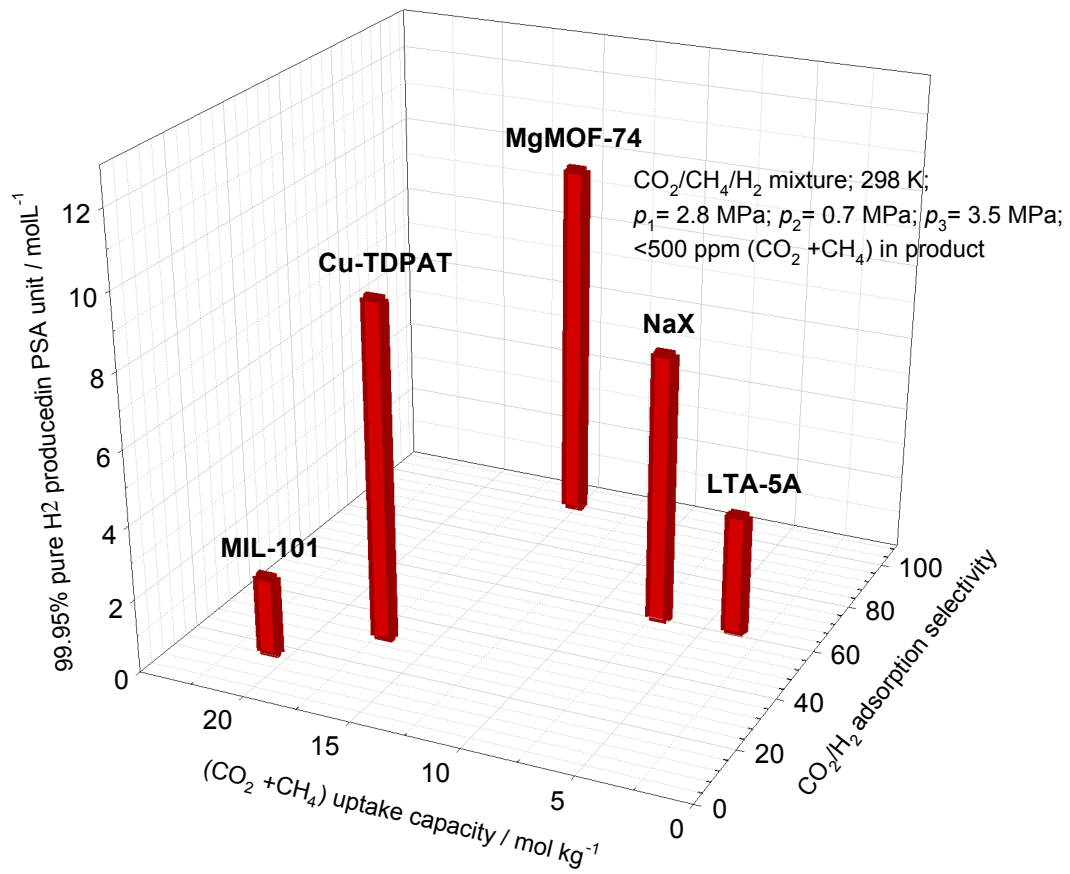


Figure 26

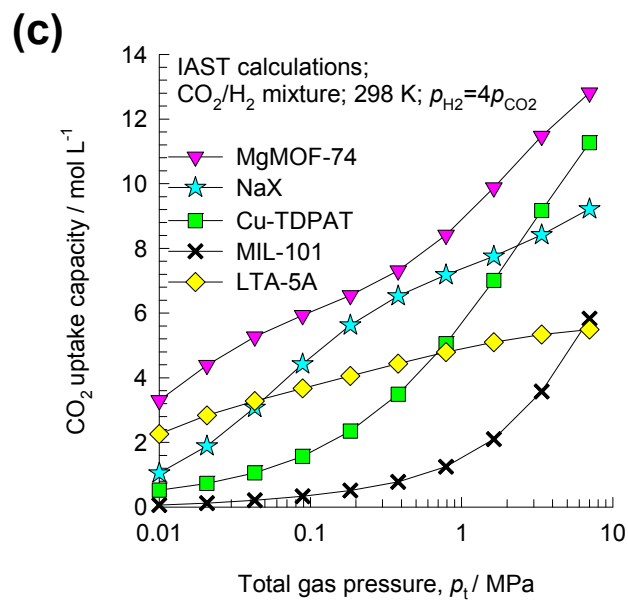
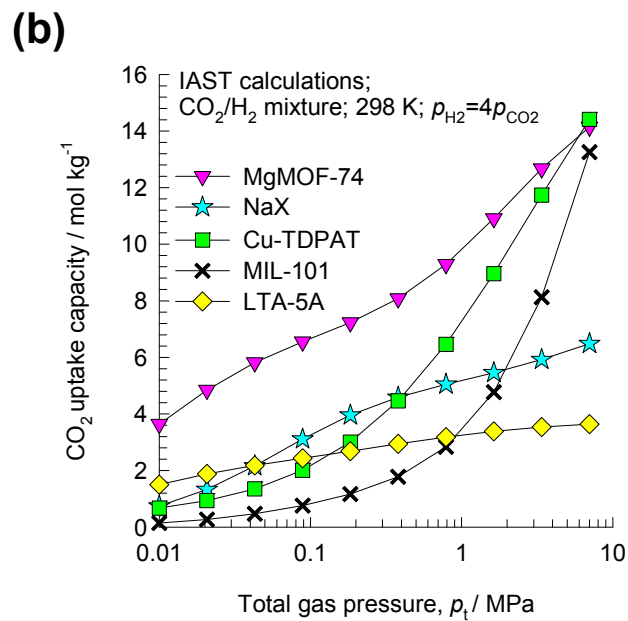
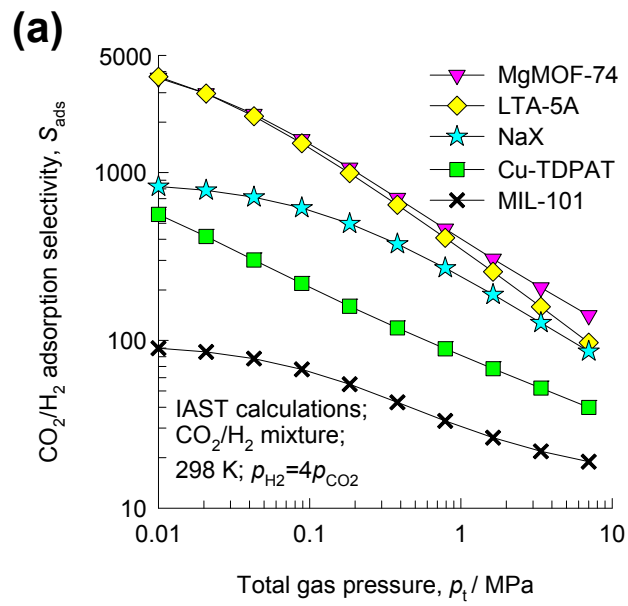
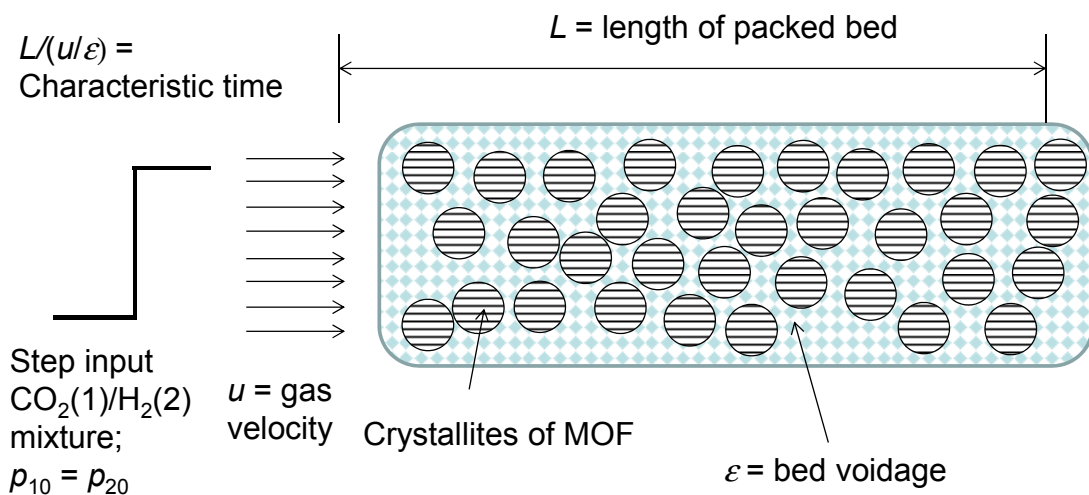
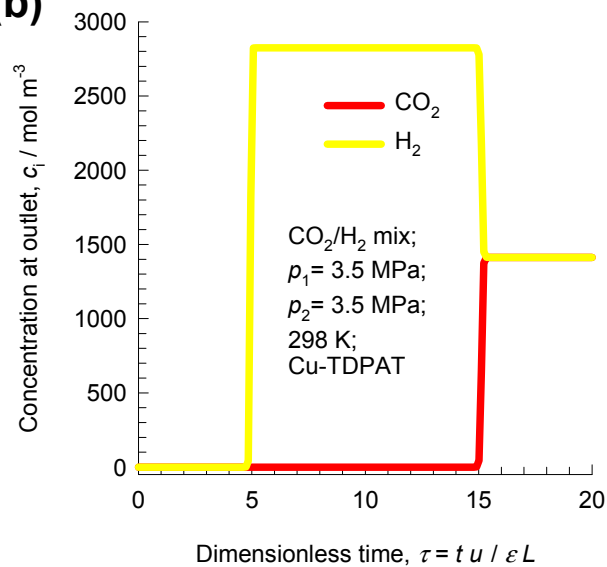


Figure 27

(a)



(b)



(c)

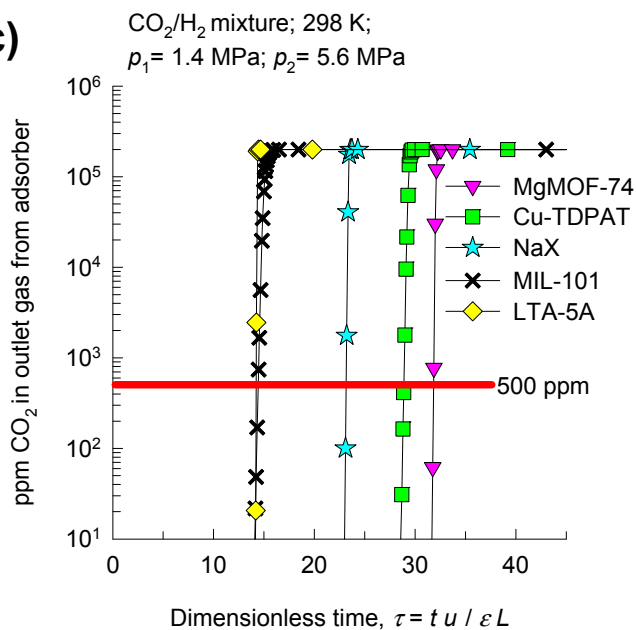


Figure 28

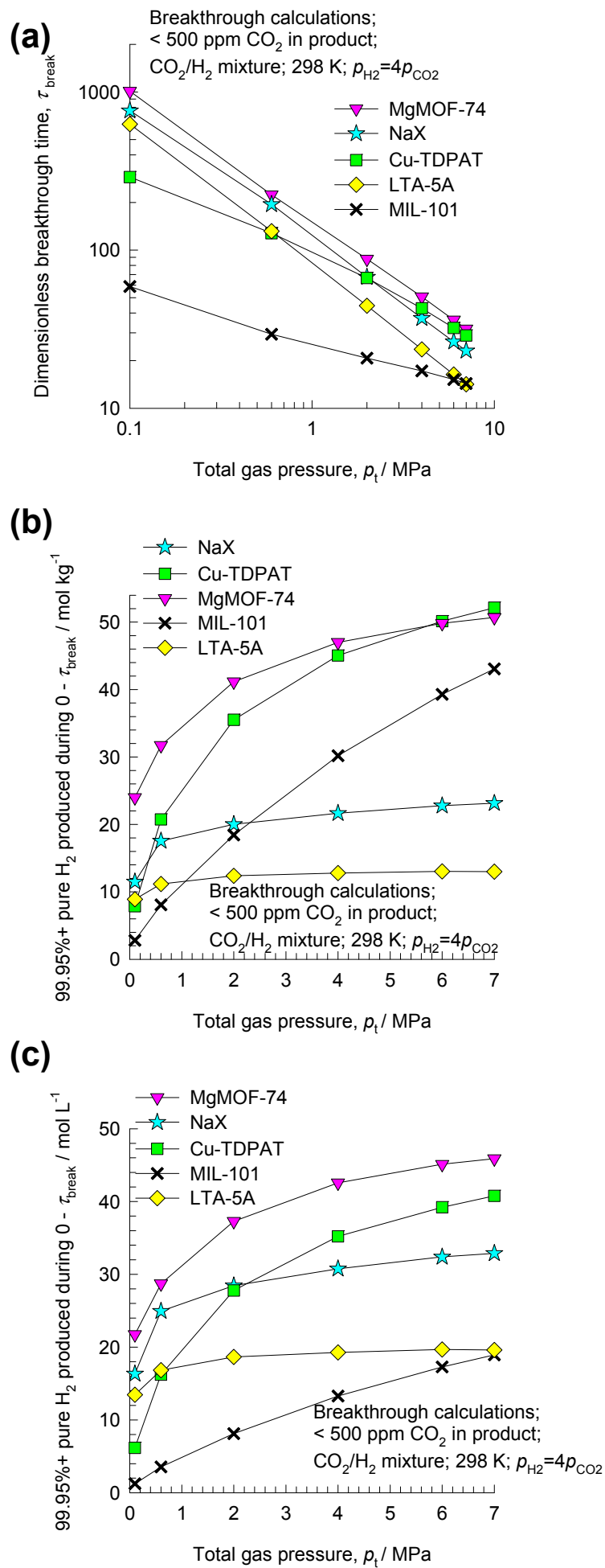


Figure 29

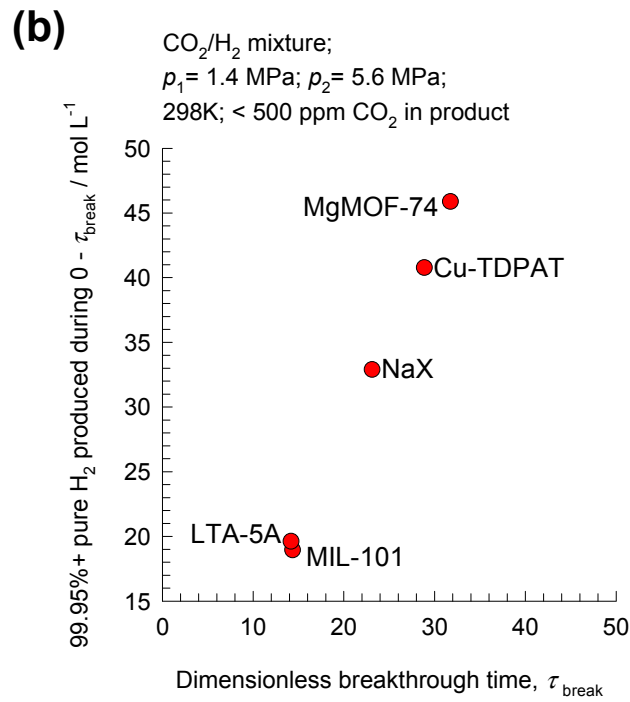
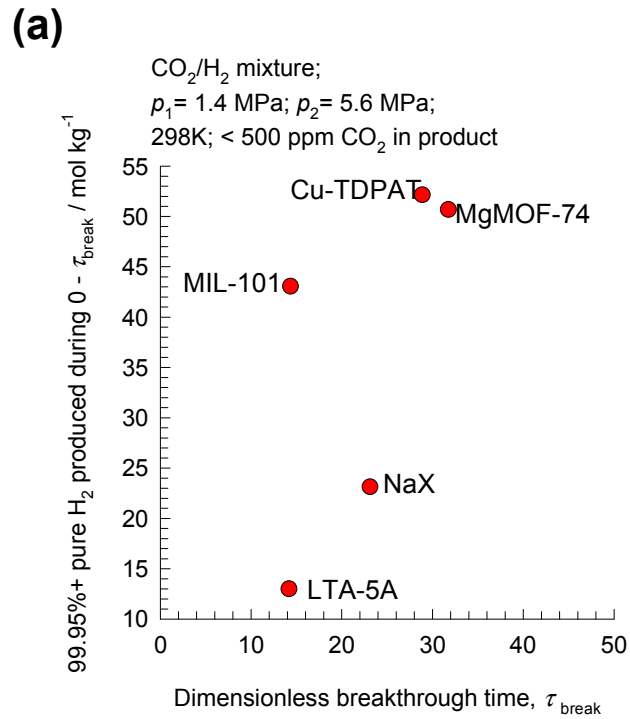
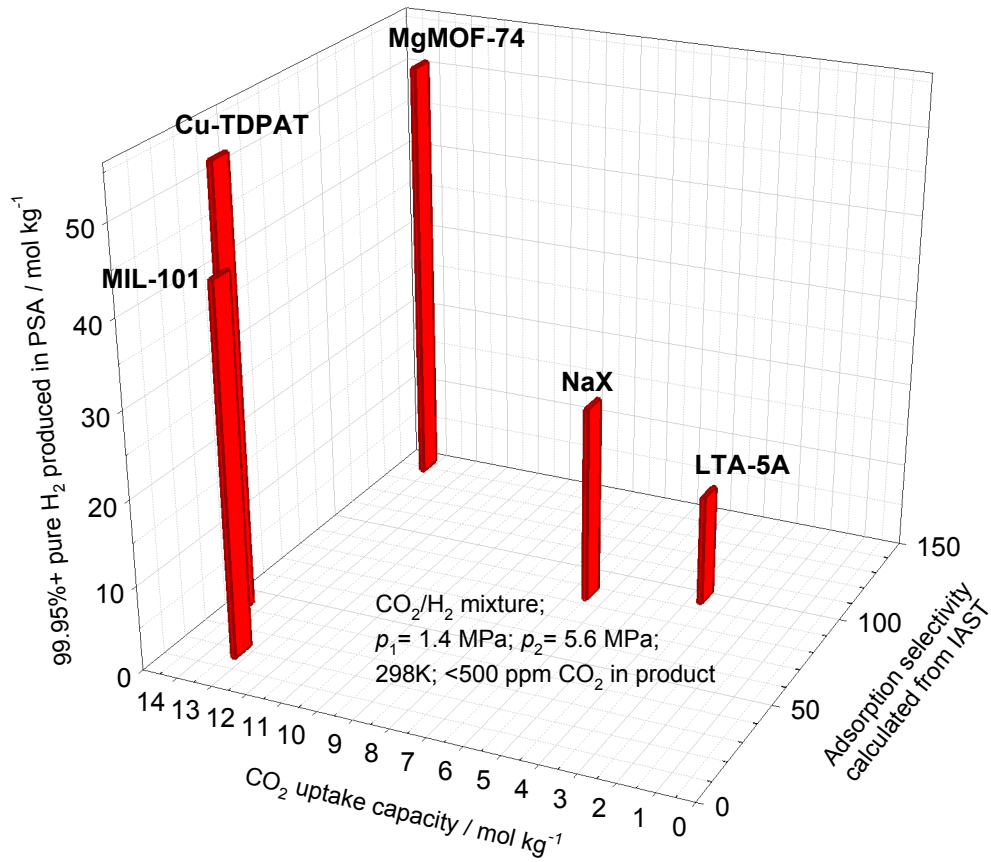


Figure 30

(a)



(b)

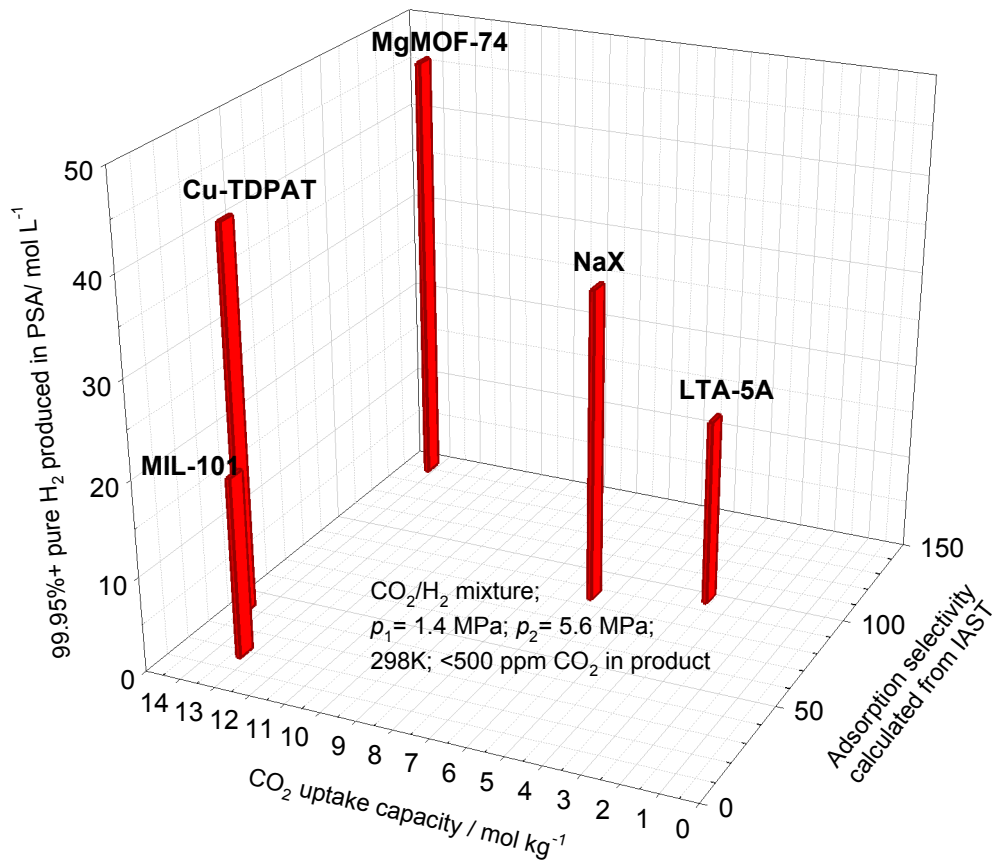


Figure 31

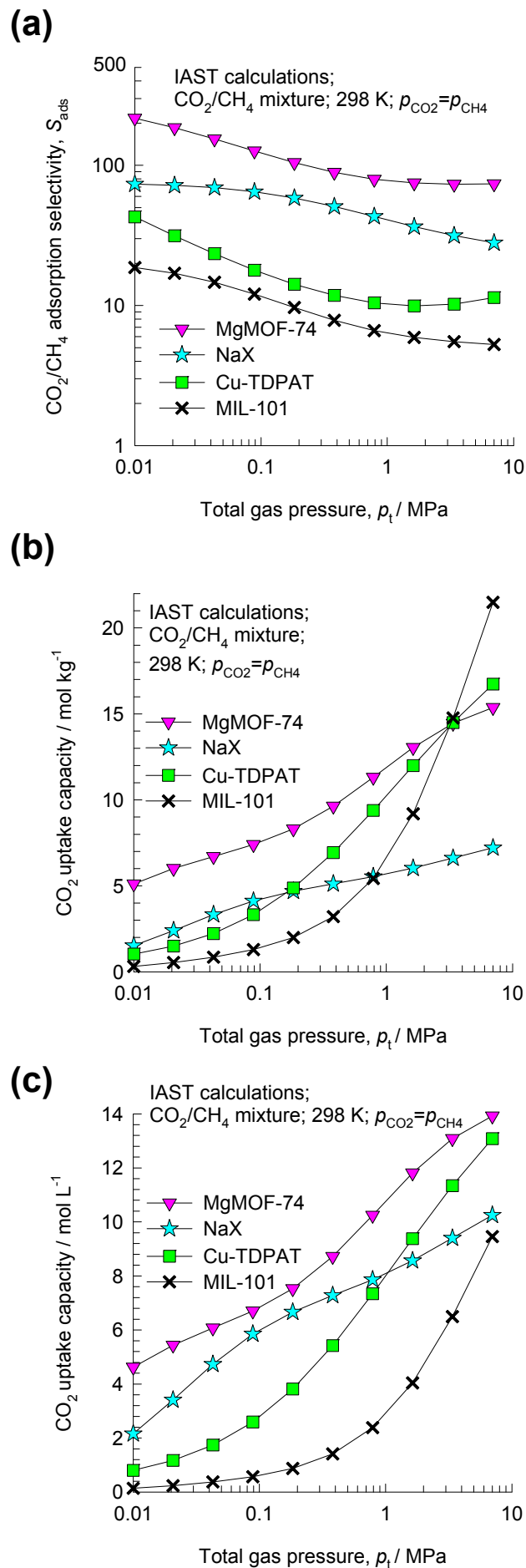


Figure 32

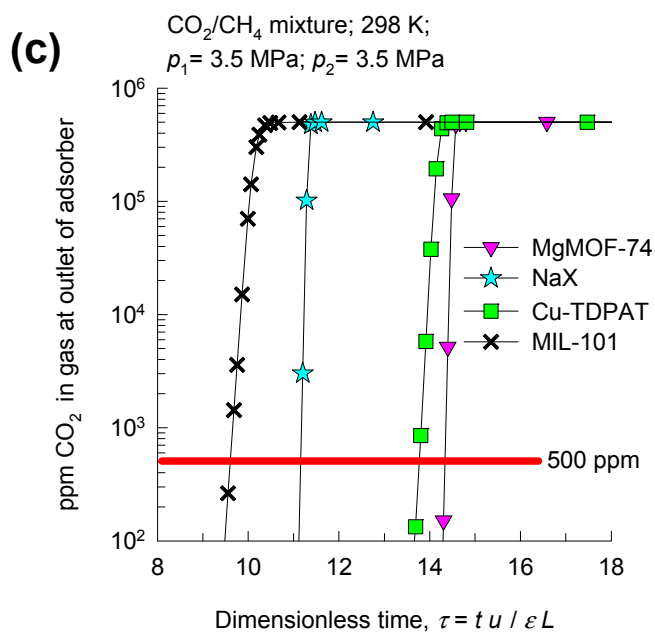
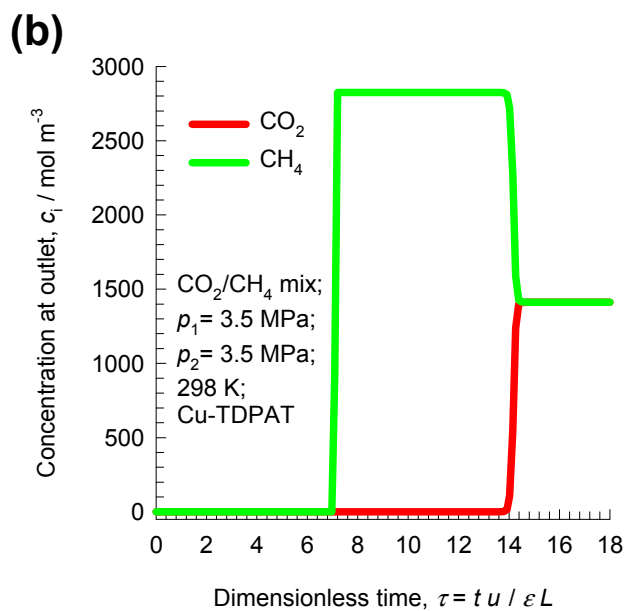
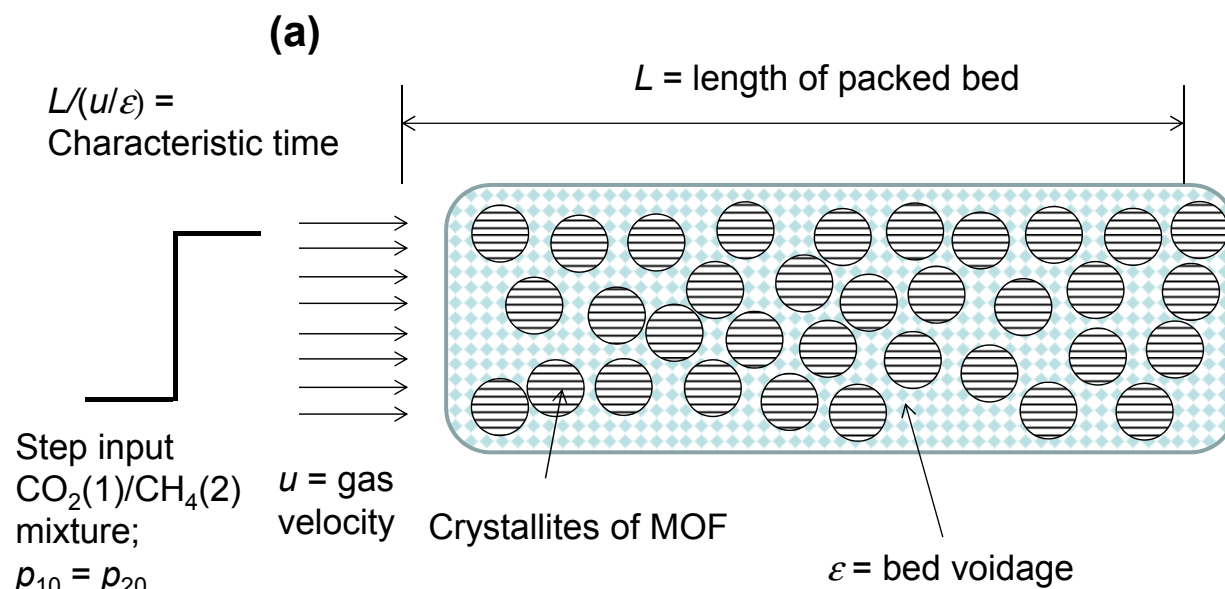


Figure 33

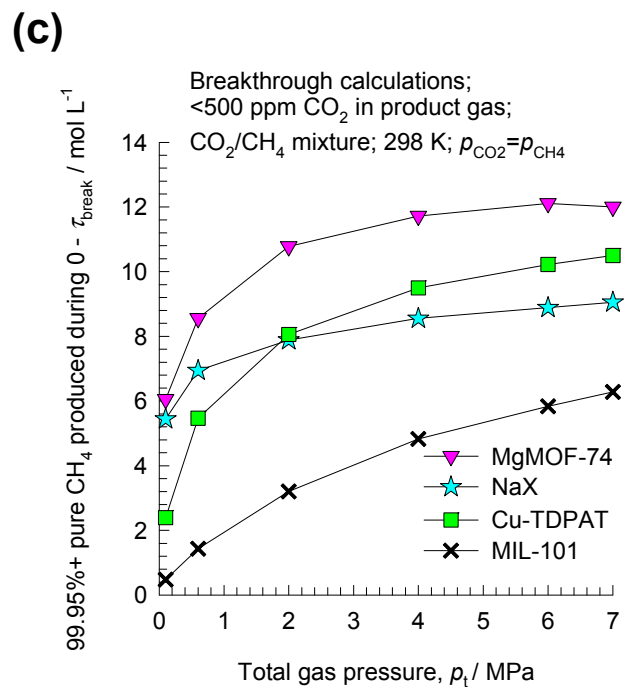
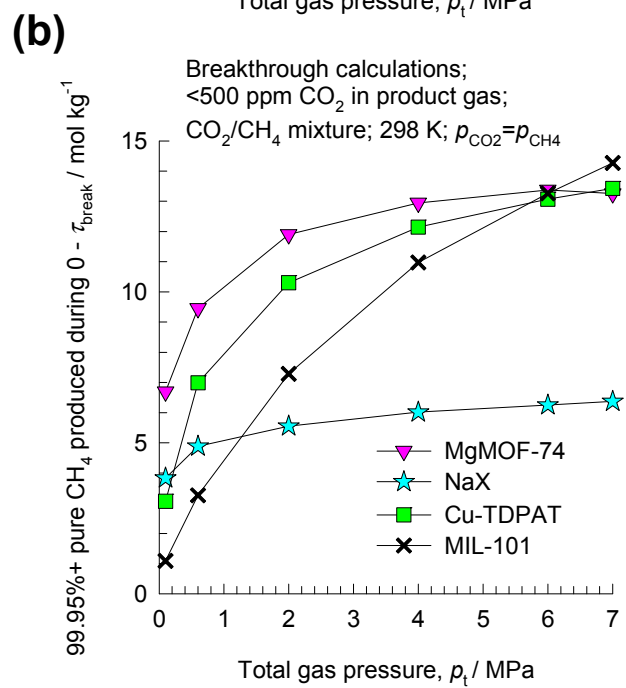
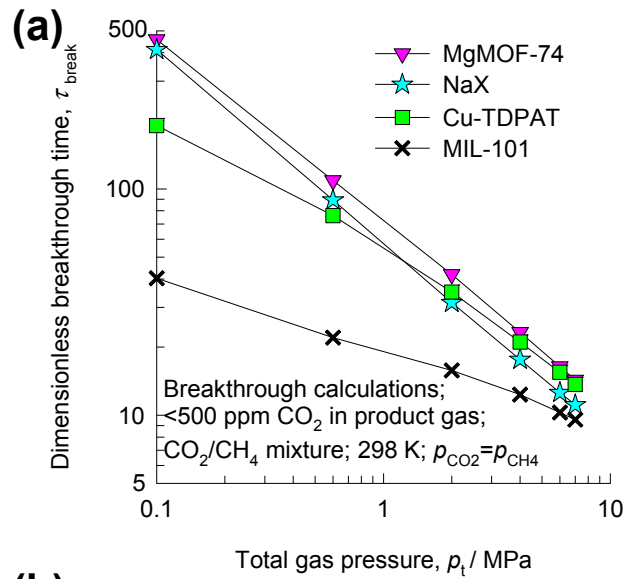


Figure 34

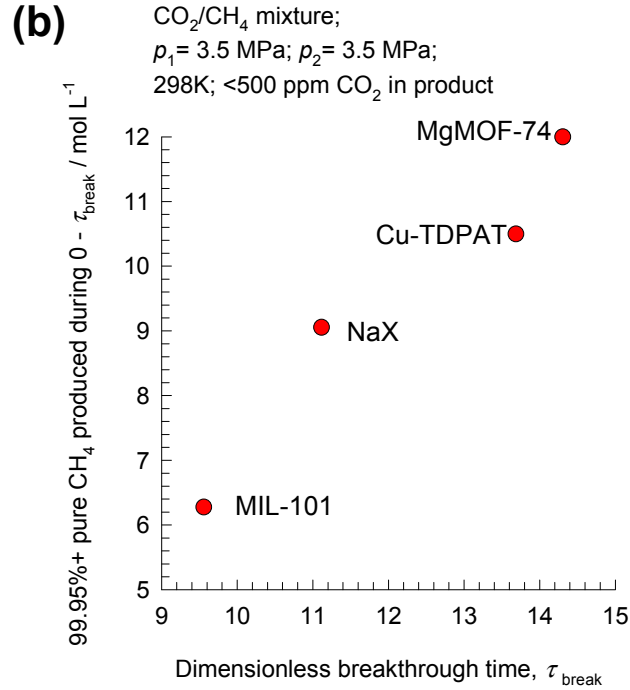
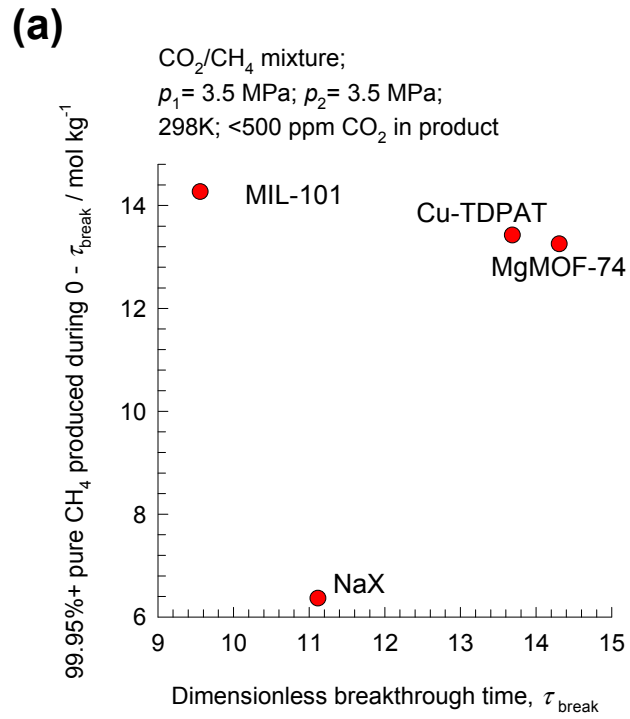


Figure 35

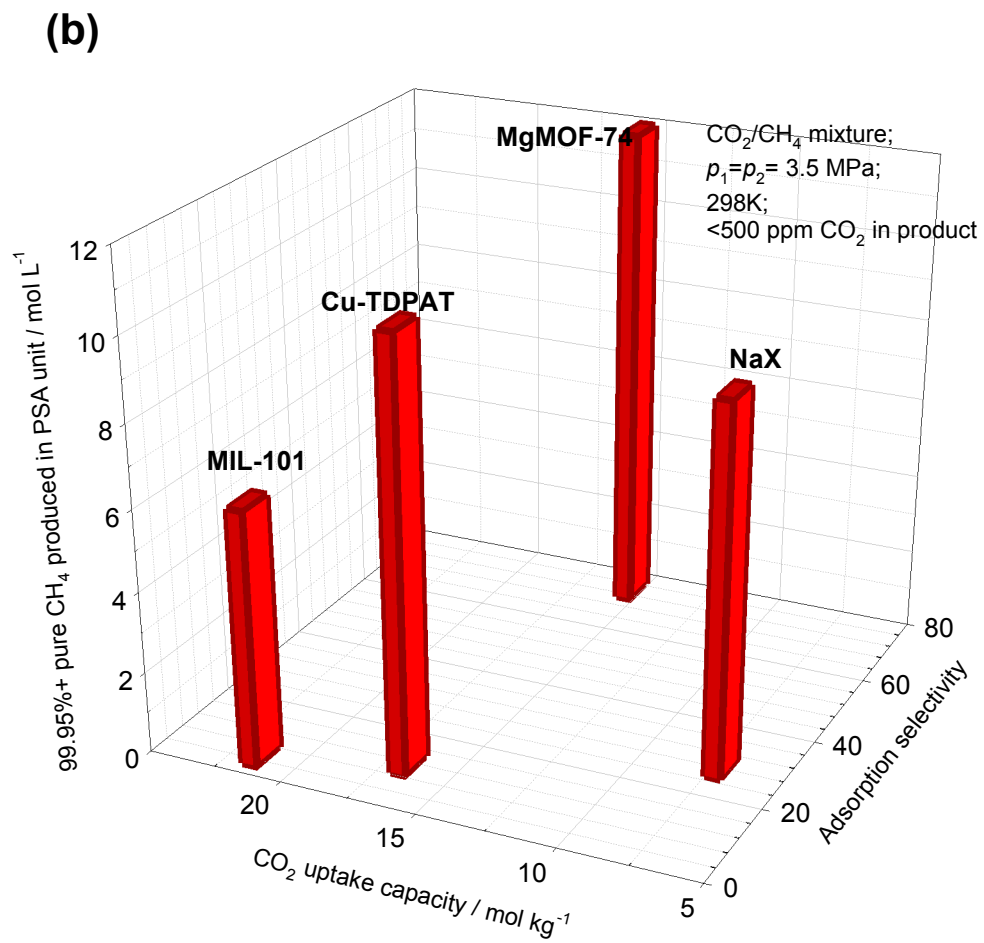
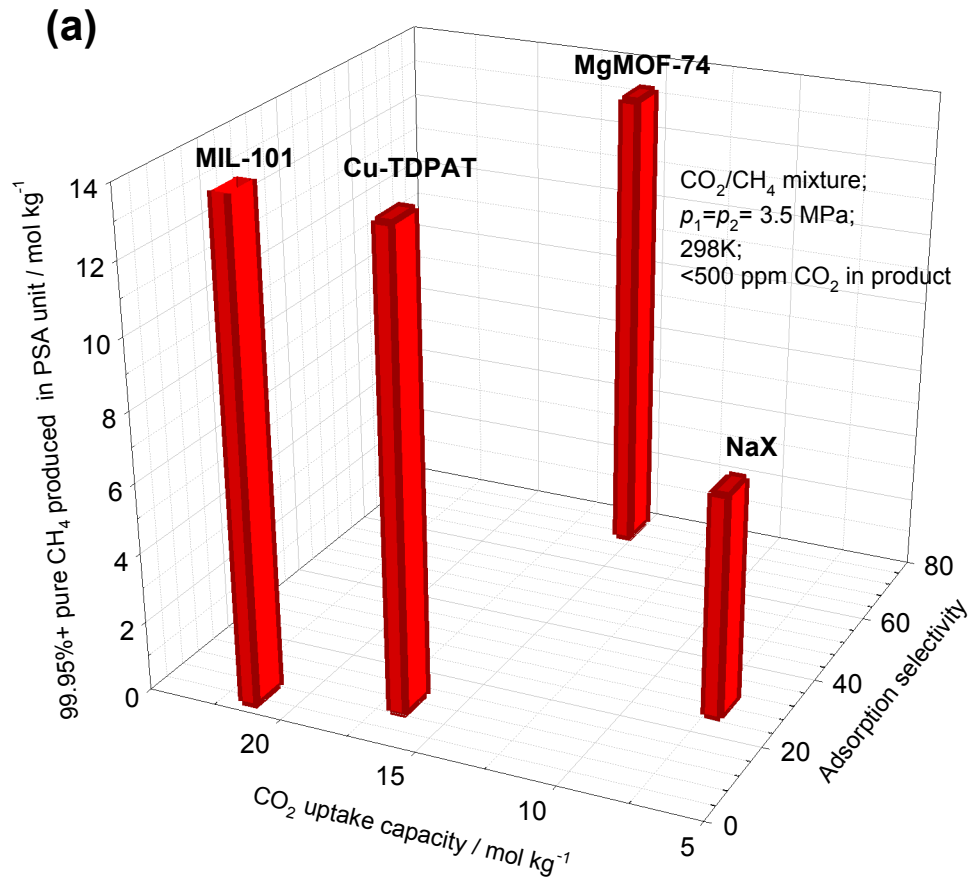


Figure 36

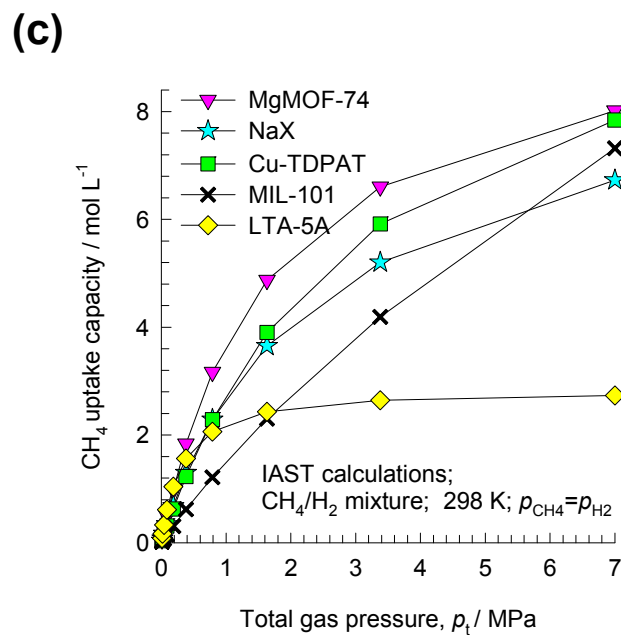
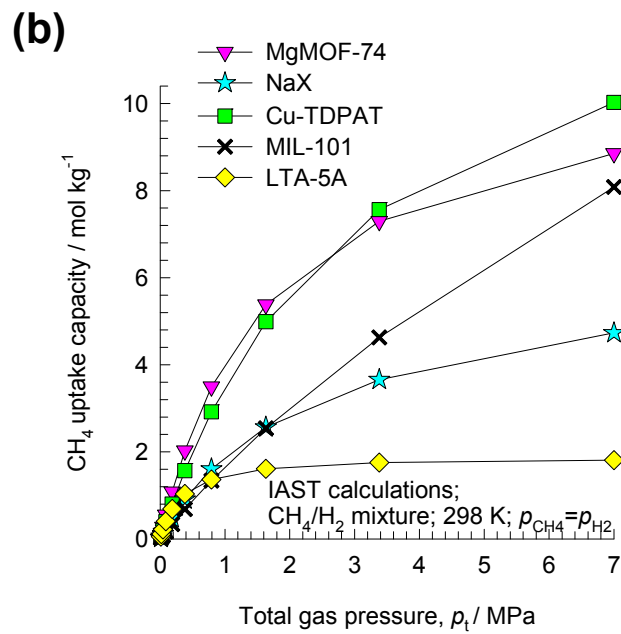
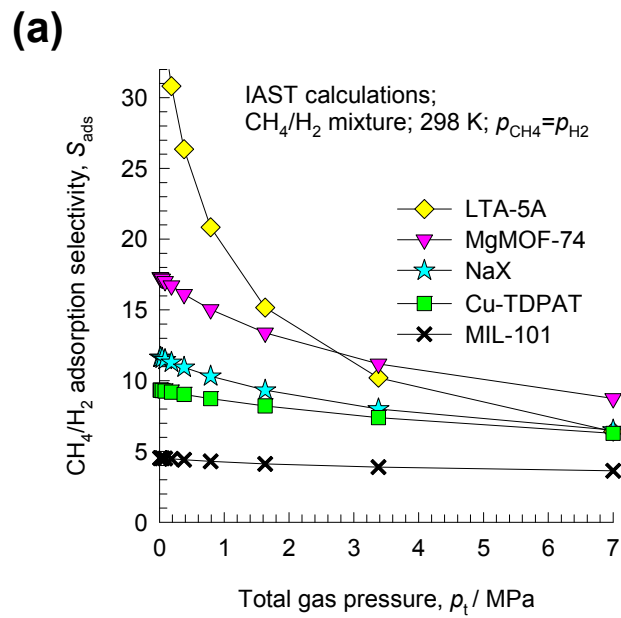


Figure 37

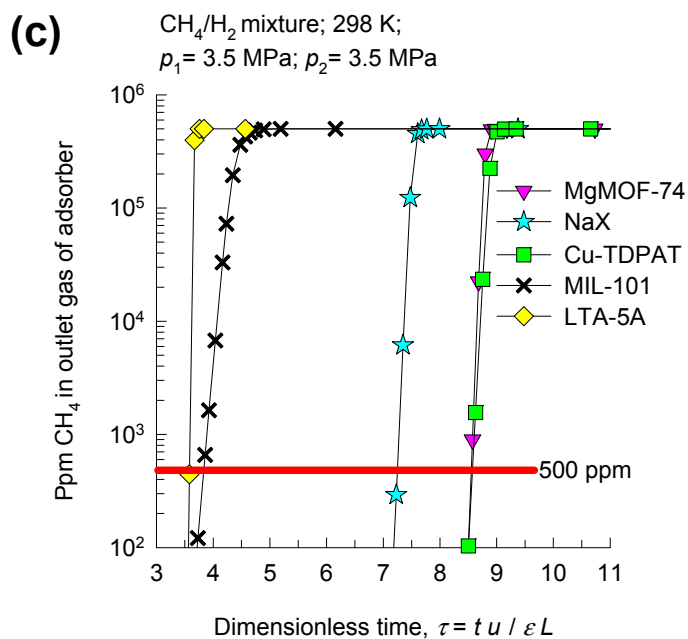
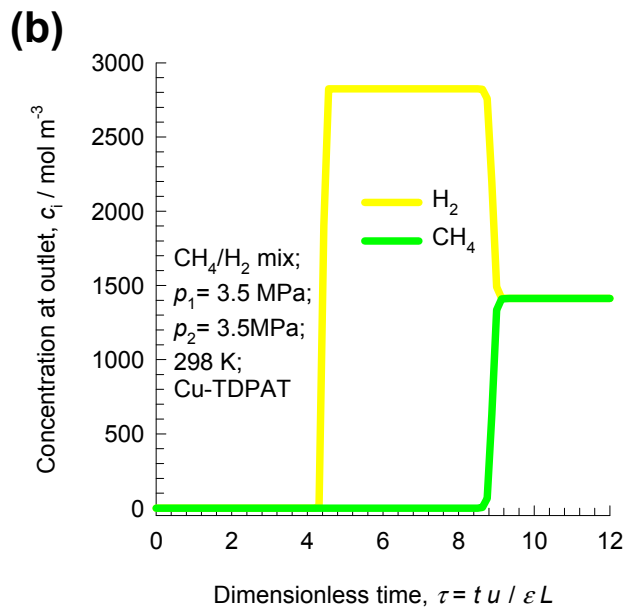
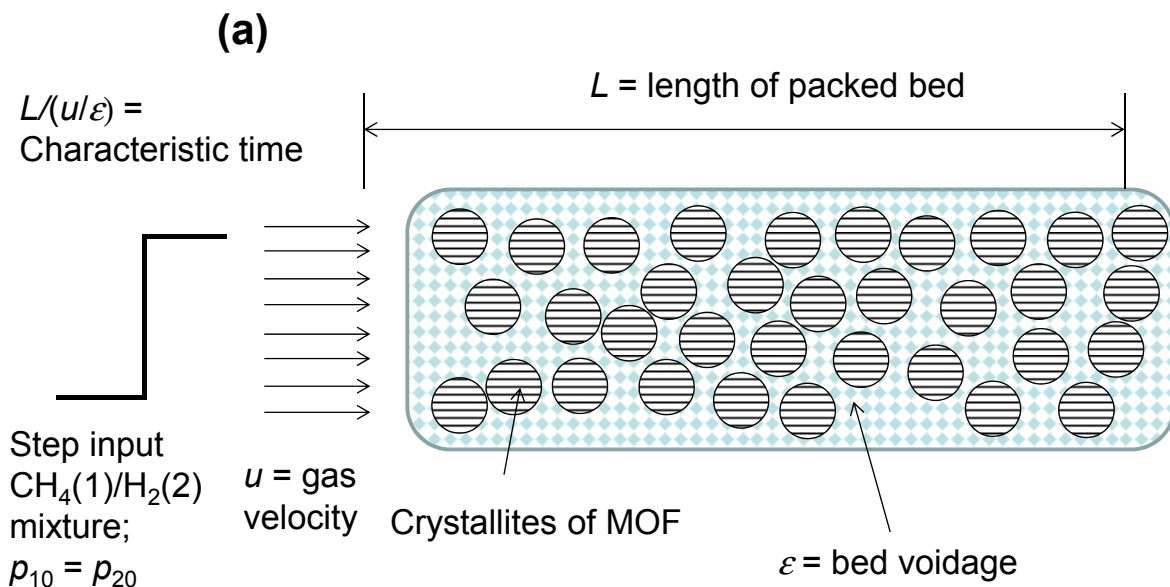


Figure 38

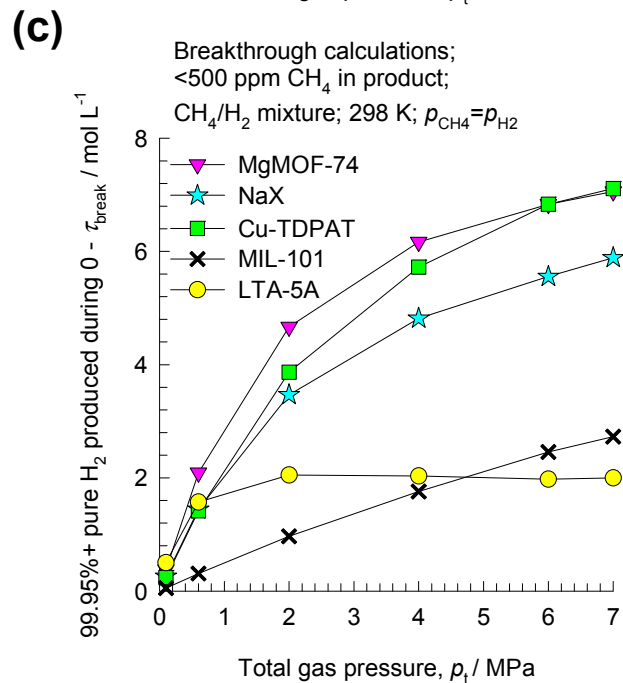
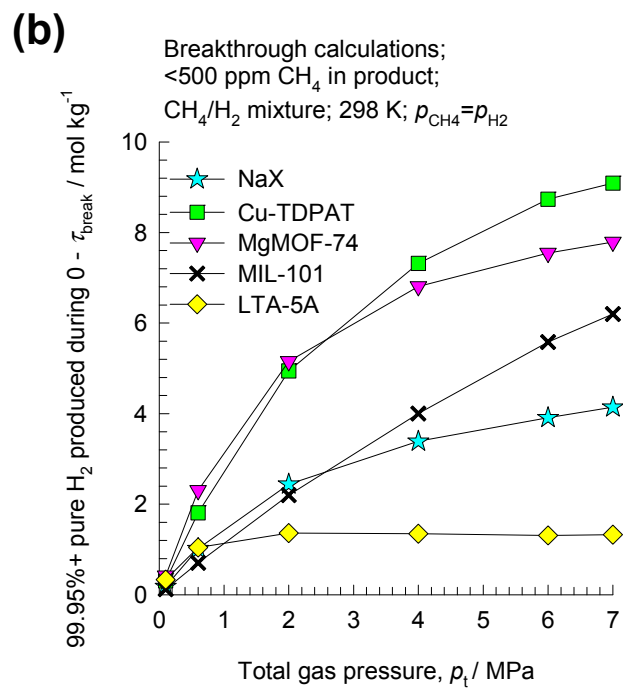
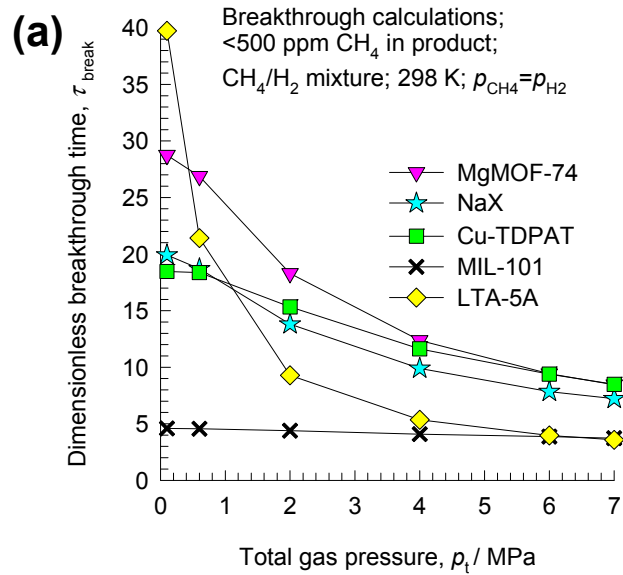


Figure 39

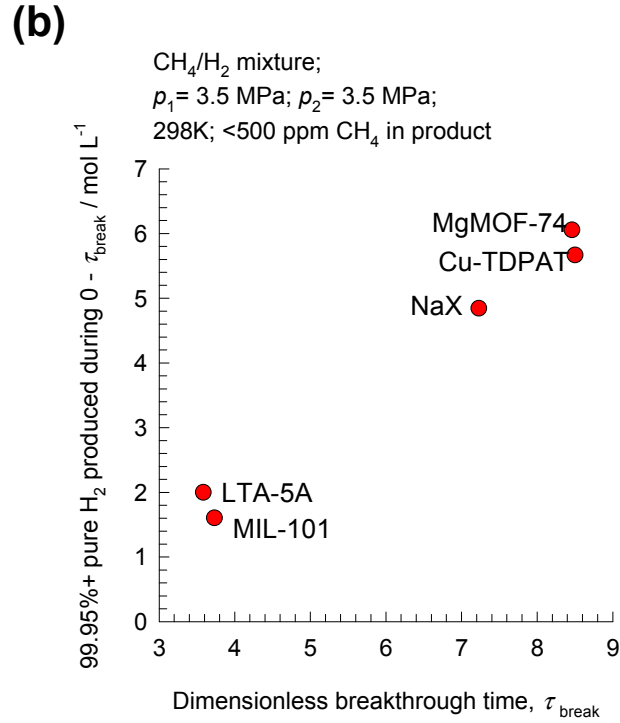
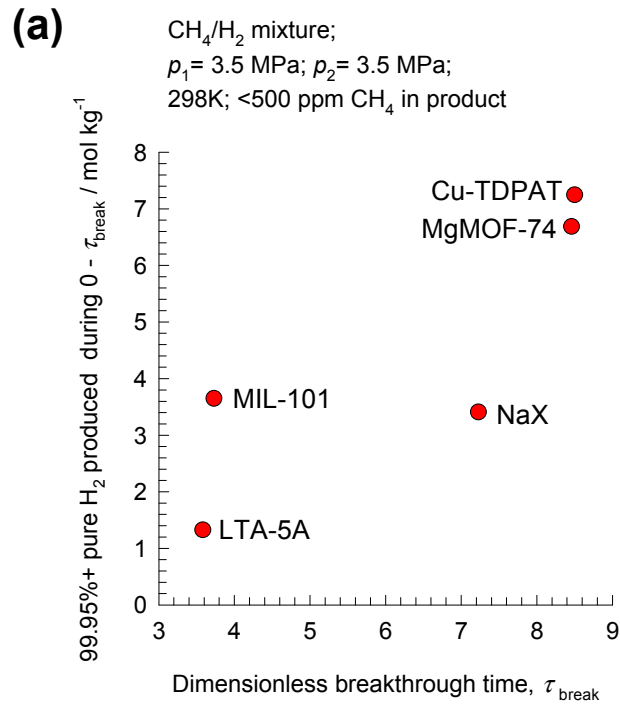
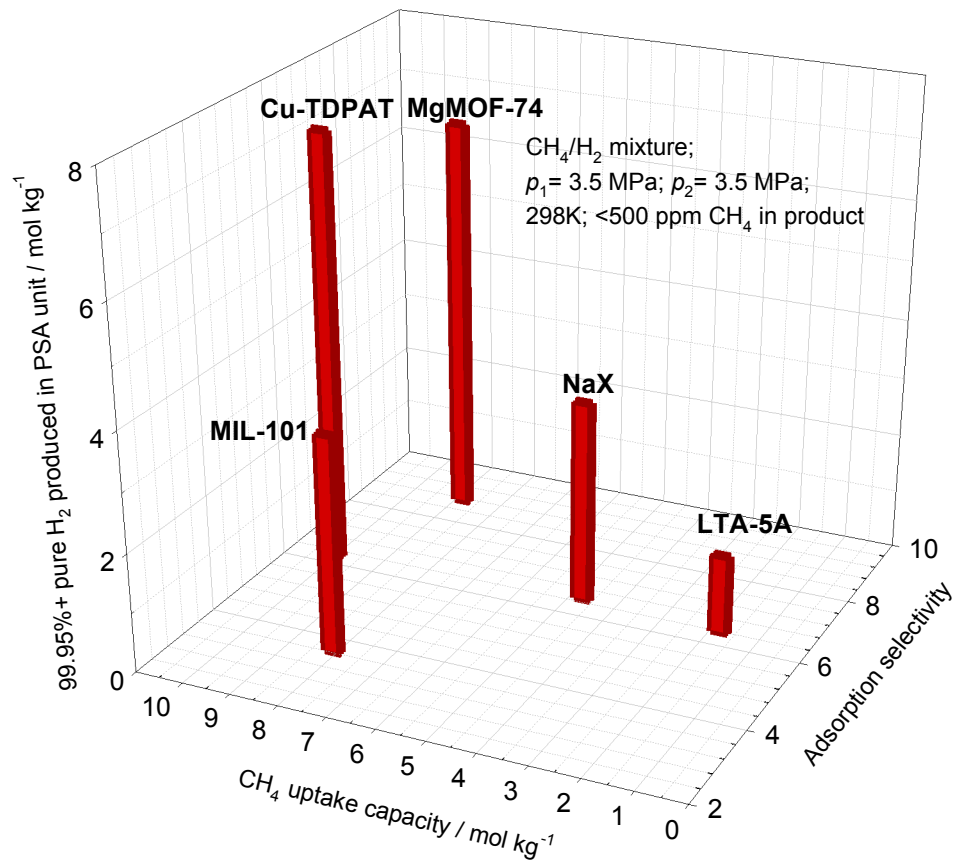


Figure 40

(a)



(b)

