

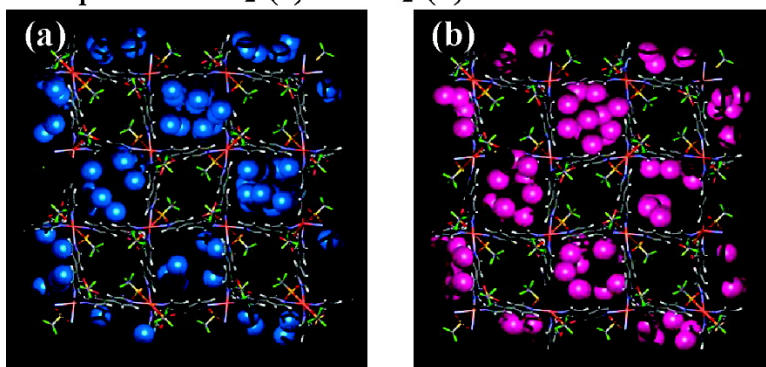
## Quantum Sieving Effect of Three-Dimensional Cu-Based Organic Framework for H and D

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Snapshots of H<sub>2</sub> (a) and D<sub>2</sub> (b) on CuBOTf



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## Quantum Sieving Effect of Three-Dimensional Cu-Based Organic Framework for H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub>

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**Abstract:** The crystal structure of [Cu(4,4'-bipyridine)<sub>2</sub>(CF<sub>3</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>]<sub>n</sub> metal-organic framework (CuBOTf) of one-dimensional pore networks after pre-evacuation at 383 K was determined with synchrotron X-ray powder diffraction measurement. Effective nanoporosity of the pre-evacuated CuBOTf was determined with N<sub>2</sub> adsorption at 77 K. The experimental H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> adsorption isotherms of CuBOTf at 40 and 77 K were measured and then compared with GCMC-simulated isotherms using the effective nanoporosity. The quantum-simulated H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> isotherms at 77 K using the Feynman–Hibbs effective potential coincided with the experimental ones, giving a direct evidence on the quantum molecular sieving effect for adsorption of H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> on CuBOTf. However, the selectivity for the 1:1 mixed gas of H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> was 1.2. On the contrary, experimental H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> isotherms at 40 K had an explicit adsorption hysteresis, originating from the marked pore blocking effect on measuring the adsorption branch. The blocking effect for quantum H<sub>2</sub> is more prominent than that for quantum D<sub>2</sub>; the selectivity for D<sub>2</sub> over H<sub>2</sub> at 40 K was in the range of 2.6 to 5.8. The possibility of the quantum molecular sieving effect for H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> adsorption on [Cu<sub>3</sub>(benzene-1,3,5-tricarboxylate)<sub>2</sub>(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>3</sub>]<sub>n</sub> of three-dimensional pore networks was also shown at 77 K.

### Introduction

The global warming effect has given a critical warning to human beings. Therefore, chemistry has focused on developing highly efficient chemical technologies to reduce energy consumptions and emissions. The intensive research on nanoporous materials, being key materials to realize environmentally friendly technology, has been accelerated by worldwide demands. Zeolites, activated carbons, and porous glasses are representatives of traditional nanoporous materials that have been widely used in various technologies.<sup>1</sup> New nanoporous materials of hopeful applicants for highly efficient chemical technologies are classified into three groups; single-walled nanocarbons such as single-walled carbon nanotubes (SWCNTs),<sup>2,3</sup> mesoporous silicas of a well-ordered pore structure such as MCM-41,<sup>4</sup> and metal-organic frameworks (MOFs).<sup>5,6</sup> The mesoporous silicas have larger nanopores than the other two groups, which have been tried to be applied to catalysis and separation engineering.

Nanocarbons of high electrical conductivity and great stability have been actively studied for energy storage and sensors. The MOFs are not thermally stable compared with other two groups. On the contrary, the nanopore structure of the MOF can be designed and synthesized according to a specific application.<sup>7–15</sup> That is, the MOF can have great potential applications. One hopeful application is on clean energy storage materials. Many papers on hydrogen and methane adsorption on MOFs have been published, stimulating science and technologies.<sup>16–34</sup> The great feature of the MOFs for gas storage is an inherent structure

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flexibility, which can accommodate molecules to form a new clathrate lattice. Kondo et al. showed that a Cu-based MOF expands the *c*-axis by 30% on CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption.<sup>35</sup> As the absolute storage amount of MOFs for supercritical hydrogen is not necessarily larger than that of nanoporous carbons, a new application potential of the MOFs must be examined. Separation of a valuable substance is one of basic technologies. Zeolites and carbon molecular sieves have contributed to modern technologies such as air separation; these nanoporous materials are effective for separation of molecules having different size and shape.<sup>36</sup> Consequently, isotopic separation for H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub>, for example, cannot be done by these traditional molecular sieving materials. Johnson et al. developed quantum molecular sieving effect of SWCNT for the isotopic separation with path integral method<sup>37–39</sup> on the basis of the hard sphere model by Beenakker et al.<sup>40</sup> They showed the possibility that the bundled SWCNT gives a high selectivity for T<sub>2</sub> over H<sub>2</sub> at 20 K. Tanaka et al. evidenced experimentally the quantum molecular sieving effect for H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> using single wall carbon nanohorns through measuring of equilibrium adsorption isotherms.<sup>41–43</sup> The additional experimental evidence on the quantum molecular sieving effect for nanoporous carbons have been published recently.<sup>44</sup>

Furthermore, a theoretical study by Kumar et al.<sup>45,46</sup> showed the possibility of the quantum molecular sieving for H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> due to their marked diffusion difference. Some experimental kinetic molecular sieving has been presented recently.<sup>47,48</sup> Therefore, we need to study the quantum molecular sieving effect on MOFs whose pore structure is highly tunable. At the first stage of the study, authors tried to get explicit evidence on the quantum molecular sieving effect for adsorption of H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> on MOF having a simple pore network structure with both of experimental and quantum simulation techniques. We chose [Cu(4,4'-bipyridine)<sub>2</sub>(CF<sub>3</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>]<sub>n</sub> (denoted as "CuBOTf" in this article) having one-dimensional nanopore channels for this research. [Cu<sub>3</sub>(benzene-1,3,5-tricarboxylate)<sub>2</sub>(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>3</sub>]<sub>n</sub> (denoted as "Cu-BTC") of three-dimensional pore networks,<sup>11</sup> which exhibits high adsorptivity for supercritical H<sub>2</sub>, was used for the experimental comparison.

### Experimental Details and Simulation

We synthesized a large amount of CuBOTf powder (10 g in one batch) by the method described in the literature,<sup>49</sup> using tetrahydrofuran as a solvent. The Cu-BTC powders were also synthesized for comparison after the procedure described in the literature,<sup>11</sup> because Cu-BTC exhibits a promising H<sub>2</sub> adsorptivity.<sup>32</sup> The crystal structure of the CuBOTf preheated at 383 K in vacuo was obtained using a synchrotron X-ray powder diffraction (XRPD) pattern at the Super Photon Ring (SPring-8, Hyogo, Japan). The XRPD pattern of the preheated CuBOTf powder was measured at room temperature with the radiation wavelength of 0.1001 nm. The structure analysis of CuBOTf was performed by a direct method using software EXPO2004.<sup>50</sup> The powder X-ray diffraction pattern of Cu-BTC crystals was collected on a X-ray diffractometer (RIGAKU, mini Flex) with Cu K $\alpha$  radiation (30kV, 15mA). Thermogravimetric analyses (TGA) of the synthesized samples were performed under a nitrogen flow of 100–150 mL/min over a range of temperatures from ambient temperature to 773–1100 K at a heating rate of 3–5 K/min.

The nitrogen adsorption isotherm of CuBOTf was measured gravimetrically at 77 K after pretreatment at 383 K under 1 mPa for 2 h. The H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> adsorption isotherms of CuBOTf at 77 and 40 K were then measured with laboratory-designed volumetric adsorption equipment. The H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> adsorption isotherms of Cu-BTC were measured at 77 K using an automatic adsorption equipment (Autosorb-1, Quantachrome). All samples for H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> adsorption were outgassed under 1 mPa before each adsorption measurement (CuBOTf: 383 K for 5 h, Cu-BTC: 473 K for 2 h).

The grand canonical Monte Carlo (GCMC) simulation<sup>51</sup> was used to compute N<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>, and D<sub>2</sub> adsorption isotherms of only CuBOTf, assuming that the CuBOTf has a rigid structure of one-dimensional pore networks at all temperatures. This is because the synchrotron X-ray diffraction patterns at room temperature and 77 K almost coincided with each other. In this study, we did not simulate the adsorption isotherms of Cu-BTC having three-dimensional pore networks. The Lennard-Jones (LJ) potential was used to model fluid–fluid interaction potentials:

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$$V_{\text{LJ}}(r) = 4\epsilon_{\text{ff}} \left[ \left( \frac{\sigma_{\text{ff}}}{r} \right)^{12} - \left( \frac{\sigma_{\text{ff}}}{r} \right)^6 \right] \quad (1)$$

where  $r$  is the distance between two molecules. N<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub> molecules were treated as a structureless spherical particle, and the LJ interaction parameters used in this work are  $\sigma_{\text{ff}} = 0.3615$  nm and  $\epsilon_{\text{ff}}/k_{\text{B}} = 101.5$  K for N<sub>2</sub>,<sup>52</sup> and  $\sigma_{\text{ff}} = 0.2958$  nm and  $\epsilon_{\text{ff}}/k_{\text{B}} = 36.7$  K for H<sub>2</sub>,<sup>53,54</sup> respectively. The same interaction parameters for H<sub>2</sub> were used for D<sub>2</sub>. The Feynman–Hibbs (FH) effective potential<sup>55,56</sup> was used to introduce quantum effects in hydrogen isotope adsorption; the following quadratic FH effective potential<sup>57</sup> was used:

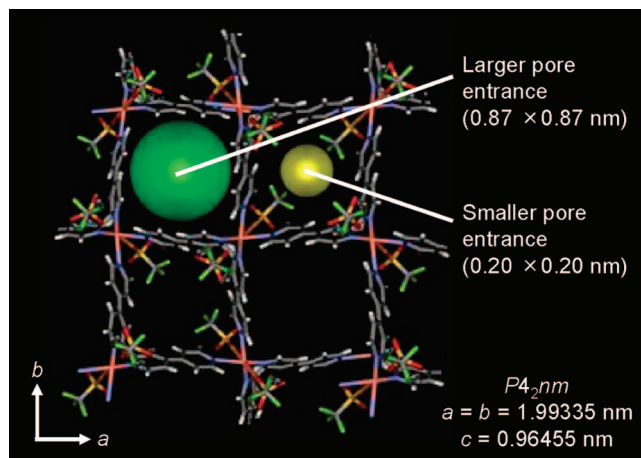
$$V_{\text{FH}}(r) = V_{\text{LJ}}(r) + \frac{\hbar^2}{24\mu k_{\text{B}} T} \left[ V_{\text{LJ}}''(r) + \frac{2}{r} V_{\text{LJ}}'(r) \right] \quad (2)$$

where  $\mu = m/2$  ( $m$  is mass of a quantum fluid molecule) is the reduced mass of a pair of interacting fluid molecules. The interaction potentials of an adsorbate molecule with the atoms in the CuBOTf framework were modeled by the all-atoms OPLS force field (OPLS-AA)<sup>58,59</sup> without any electrostatic interactions. The solid–fluid interaction parameters  $\epsilon_{\text{sf}}$  and  $\sigma_{\text{sf}}$  were calculated by the Lorentz–Berthelot combining rules. The interaction potentials between a quantum H<sub>2</sub> (or D<sub>2</sub>) molecule and the solid atoms in the CuBOTf framework were calculated by eq 2 replacing  $\epsilon_{\text{ff}}$  and  $\sigma_{\text{ff}}$  with  $\epsilon_{\text{sf}}$  and  $\sigma_{\text{sf}}$ , respectively, and assuming  $\mu = m$ .

The probabilities of a single displacement, creation, and deletion were set to 0.4, 0.3, and 0.3, respectively. The system was equilibrated for  $2.5 \times 10^7$  Monte Carlo steps, after which data were collected for another  $2.5 \times 10^7$  steps. The fluid–fluid and solid–fluid interactions were truncated at distances of  $4.09 \sigma_{\text{ff}}$  and  $4.09 \sigma_{\text{sf}}$ , respectively. Periodic boundary conditions were applied along the crystallographic  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  axes. The GCMC simulations yield an absolute adsorbed amount ( $N_{\text{abs}}$ ), and thus it must be converted to a surface excess adsorption ( $N_{\text{exc}}$ ) for comparison with experimental data. In the present study, the surface excess adsorption was calculated by  $N_{\text{exc}} = N_{\text{abs}} - \rho_{\text{b}}V$ , where  $\rho_{\text{b}}$  is the bulk density of gas and  $V$  is the volume of the internal pore spaces of the CuBOTf framework. In the grand canonical ensemble, the volume, temperature, and adsorbate chemical potential are fixed, and thus we need to obtain the pressure of bulk fluid as a function of chemical potential at the same temperature to compare with experimental isotherms. In this study, we also performed Monte Carlo simulations with the FH effective potential in the canonical ensemble (FH-MC), which was combined with the Widom test particle insertion method<sup>60</sup> to determine excess chemical potentials of quantum hydrogen isotopes at 77 and 40 K. The pressures of quantum hydrogen isotopes were calculated simultaneously during the FH-MC simulations. As an H<sub>2</sub> molecule does not specifically interact with a D<sub>2</sub> molecule, ideal adsorption solution theory (IAST)<sup>61</sup> was applied to predict mixture adsorption isotherms for H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub>, leading to the selectivity  $S(\text{D}_2/\text{H}_2)$  of D<sub>2</sub> over H<sub>2</sub>. Details of calculation are shown in the Supporting Information.

## Results and Discussion

The crystal structure of preheated CuBOTf (Figure 1) belongs to the tetragonal space group  $P4_2nm$  (no. 102),  $a = b =$



**Figure 1.** Schematic view of the frameworks of CuBOTf. Effective diameters of the pore entrances are shown with large spheres. (Brown: Cu; gray: C; blue: N; red: O; yellow: S; yellow green: F; white: H.)

1.9933(5) nm,  $c = 0.9645(5)$  nm,  $V = 3.83219$  nm<sup>3</sup>,  $M = 674.08$ ,  $Z = 4$ , and  $\rho = 1.17$  g/cm<sup>3</sup> ( $R_{\text{p}} = 0.0843$ ,  $R_{\text{wp}} = 0.1463$ ). The fundamental framework structure consists of Cu(II) ions and 4,4'-bipyridine units forming a 3D framework of two identical interwoven nets of the topological type, which is similar to the framework previously reported.<sup>49</sup> It has nanoporous channels extending to the direction of the crystallographic  $c$  axis. The network topology of CuBOTf produces two types of the latter channels; one is limited by 2-fold entangled 4<sub>1</sub> helices, while the other is simply formed by the stacking of the folded squares, and each has a square section (ca.  $1.1 \times 1.1$  nm<sup>2</sup>, in terms of center-to-center distance of Cu(II) ions) with a chessboard disposition. The structure of preheated CuBOTf is almost identical to that determined by Carlucci et al. at 204 K.<sup>49</sup> The cross sections of the 1D channels of the CuBOTf framework are  $0.87 \times 0.87$  nm<sup>2</sup> and  $0.20 \times 0.20$  nm<sup>2</sup>, respectively. Here, the H<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> molecules are adsorbed only in the large pores of the preheated CuBOTf framework because the molecular diameters of H<sub>2</sub> ( $\sigma_{\text{ff}} = 0.2958$  nm) and N<sub>2</sub> ( $\sigma_{\text{ff}} = 0.3615$  nm) are larger than the entrance of the small pore ( $0.20 \times 0.20$  nm<sup>2</sup>). However, the low reliability factor of the X-ray diffraction analysis suggests orientational disorders of CF<sub>3</sub>SO<sub>3</sub> anions in the preheated CuBOTf, indicating the pore blocking even for larger pores of 0.87 nm (Figure S1, Supporting Information). The X-ray powder diffraction pattern of synthesized Cu-BTC crystals which was used for comparison coincided with that in the literature (Figure S2, Supporting Information).<sup>11</sup> TGA curve of the CuBOTf sample showed a gradual weight loss from 300 K and it reached 10.2% at 473 K due to detachment of guest molecules in CuBOTf, and then the framework decomposes over a temperature ranges 550–700 K (Figure S3, Supporting Information). Therefore, in this study, we preheated CuBOTf at 383 K for gas adsorption experiments. The difference of sample weight (10.7%) before and after the preheating almost coincided with the weight loss by the detachment of guest molecules determined from the TGA data (10.2%). The TGA curve of synthesized Cu-BTC crystals showed over 20% of weight loss up to 383 K showing dehydration (Figure S4, Supporting Information).<sup>11</sup>

The experimental N<sub>2</sub> adsorption isotherm of preheated CuBOTf at 77 K (Figure S5, Supporting Information) is of type I, suggesting that the preheated CuBOTf is highly microporous. Simulated N<sub>2</sub> adsorption isotherms of the CuBOTf framework at 77 K is of type I isotherm. However, the experimental N<sub>2</sub>

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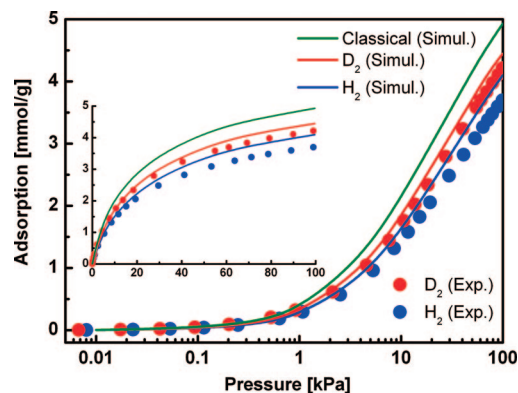
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**Figure 2.** Simulated and experimental adsorption isotherms of CuBOTf for H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> at 77 K. The circles represent the experimental adsorption isotherms, while the lines represent the simulated isotherms from the CuBOTf model. Feynman–Hibbs effective potential is used for quantum simulation, while Lennard-Jones potential is used for classical simulation. The pressures are given in logarithmic (inset is in linear) scales.

adsorption amounts at  $P/P_0 = 0.95$  is 0.618 times smaller than that from simulation. Here, the pore volume from the crystal structure was evaluated using a hydrogen atom of the van der Waals radius as the probe (PLATON Software) and the experimental pore volume was obtained assuming the liquid density of adsorbed N<sub>2</sub>. As the adsorption isotherm simulated with GCMC is not affected by the pore blocking, the differences can most likely be ascribed to the pore narrowing due to the orientational disorders of CF<sub>3</sub>SO<sub>3</sub> anions in the CuBOTf. Thus, only 0.618 of the pores in the CuBOTf sample is available for N<sub>2</sub> adsorption due to the pore narrowing. We therefore introduced an effective nanoporosity factor of 0.618 for the GCMC simulation.

The experimental and simulated adsorption isotherms of CuBOTf for H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> at 77 K (Figure 2) show that the experimental adsorbed amount of D<sub>2</sub> exceeds that of H<sub>2</sub> over a whole range of pressures by about 13% due to the quantum effects. Here, the reproducibility in the adsorption measurements of H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> were within 3% and thereby the observed difference between H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> is valuable. Moreover, classical simulation using LJ potential instead of FH effective potential for quantum simulation, gave the adsorption amounts which are greater than those for quantum H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> by 20%. This reveals that the quantum effects are essential for hydrogen isotope adsorption even at 77 K. The quantum simulation isotherms are in good agreement with the experimental isotherms for both H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub>; the predictions from the simulation coincided with experiments over a wide range of pressures without any refinements of the OPLS-AA force field, indicating that the potentials used are appropriate for modeling of the CuBOTf framework atoms. Although Cu-BTC has nanopores comparable to those of CuBOTf, the adsorption amount for D<sub>2</sub> was larger than that for H<sub>2</sub> at 77 K by 20%, being a more evident difference between D<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub> adsorption than CuBOTf (Figure S6, Supporting Information). This adsorption difference should stem from the quantum molecular sieving effect, indicating that marked quantum molecular sieving effect can be observed widely for many kinds of MOFs.

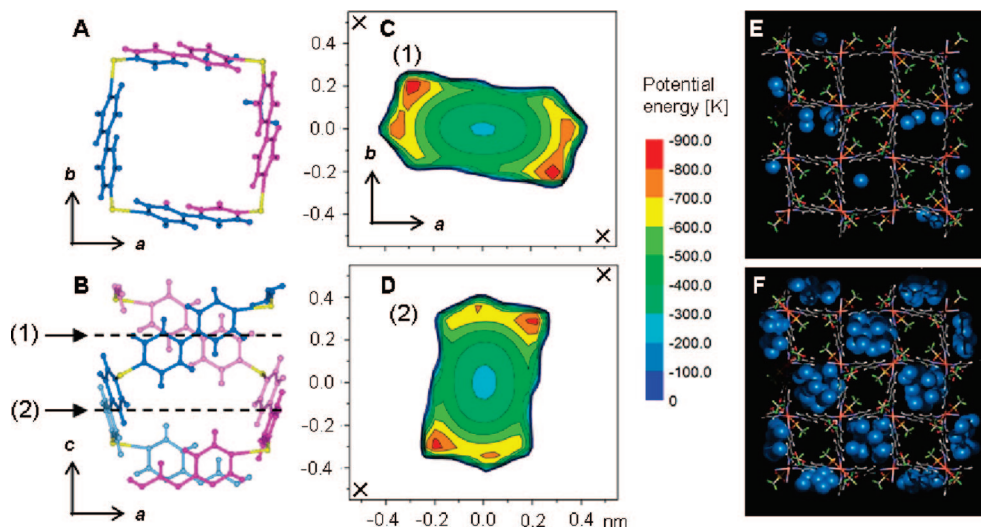
The potential energy contour of H<sub>2</sub> at 77 K is shown in Figure 3. In the larger pore of CuBOTf limited by 2-fold entangled 4<sub>1</sub> helices along the *c* axis (Figure 3A and 3B), the corners near the Cu(II) ions give the largest interaction potential energy (Figure 3C and 3D). This adsorption process can be understood

from configurational snapshots of adsorbed H<sub>2</sub> in CuBOTf at 77 K obtained from the simulations. The H<sub>2</sub> molecules start to be adsorbed at the corners of the 1D channels and the 4,4'-bipyridine units of CuBOTf at low pressures (Figure 3E), followed by the filling of H<sub>2</sub> molecules in the inner spaces of the pore at 100 kPa (Figure 3F).

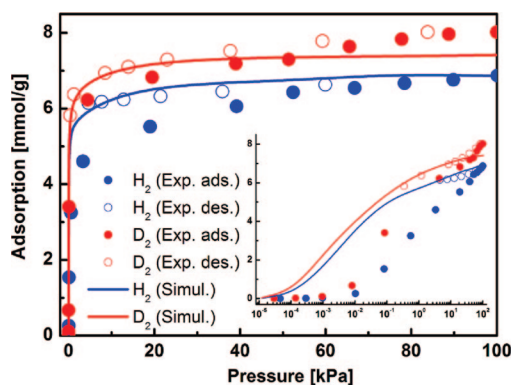
Experimental and simulated adsorption isotherms of CuBOTf for H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> at 40 K are shown in Figure 4. Both experimental isotherms for H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> are representative of the Langmuir type, indicating an intensive molecule-pore wall interaction. It is evident that the adsorption amount of D<sub>2</sub> is larger than that of H<sub>2</sub> by 13% above 60 kPa, being similar to that at 77 K. The simulated isotherm of H<sub>2</sub> after the correction using the effective nanoporosity factor agrees well with the experimental isotherm of the desorption branch rather than the adsorption branch in the pressure range of 5 to 100 kPa. However, the experimental adsorption branch deviates seriously from the simulated isotherm below 50 kPa for H<sub>2</sub> and below 20 kPa for D<sub>2</sub>. For example, the observed value is only 0.75 of the simulated value for H<sub>2</sub> at 5 kPa. The discrepancy between the simulation and experimental adsorption branches becomes considerable with the decrease of the H<sub>2</sub> pressure, although the discrepancy for D<sub>2</sub> is not as marked. Although the experimental desorption branches below 100 Pa are not determined due to the experimental difficulty, the discrepancy between the simulated and experimental isotherms should be inherent to the adsorption branch. The fact that desorption amount is larger than the adsorption amount in nanoporous systems is often attributed to an insufficient equilibration due to the limited diffusion of adsorptive molecules in small pores. Recently Skoulidas and Sholl reported that gas diffusion at room temperature depends on the gas loading, sort of gases, and pore structure for several MOF systems with molecular dynamics simulations.<sup>62</sup> Consequently, diffusion process should be even more important at low temperature in the nanopores of the CuBOTf.

Then we examine the effect of the equilibration time on adsorption. The H<sub>2</sub> adsorption amount measured at 3–6 h after a dose of H<sub>2</sub> gas was smaller than that at 6–12 h by 20% over the whole pressure range (Figure S7, Supporting Information). Accordingly, diffusion of quantum H<sub>2</sub> is suppressed by the narrow 1D nanopores. Recent theoretical studies on quantum molecular sieving for H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> by Kumar et al.<sup>45,46</sup> predict that the diffusion rate of quantum H<sub>2</sub> molecules is smaller than that of quantum D<sub>2</sub> molecules in nanopores of zeolites rho. The observed discrepancy between the simulated and experimental adsorption amounts in the low pressure region for H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> can be interpreted by the above-mentioned quantum diffusion effect. Certainly, the discrepancy for D<sub>2</sub> is not as marked as that for H<sub>2</sub>, although the D<sub>2</sub> adsorption was measured at 2–3 h after introduction of D<sub>2</sub> gas (H<sub>2</sub> at 6–10 h). It is noteworthy that H<sub>2</sub> molecules behave as if they are greater in molecular size than D<sub>2</sub> molecules even in the diffusion process due to quantum effects. The isosteric heat of adsorption data also supports the presence of the quantum diffusion effect. The experimental  $q_{st}$  values determined from the adsorption branches at 40 and 77 K were 3 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> for H<sub>2</sub> and 4 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> for D<sub>2</sub>, being smaller than the corresponding values from simulation (6.2 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> for H<sub>2</sub> and 6.4 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> for D<sub>2</sub>) (Figure S8, Supporting Information). This discrepancy can be attributed to the experimental adsorption amount which is underestimated due to the very slow diffusion of quantum H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> at 40 K.

(62) Skoulidas, A. I.; Sholl, D. S. *J. Phys. Chem. B* **2005**, *109*, 1576–15768.

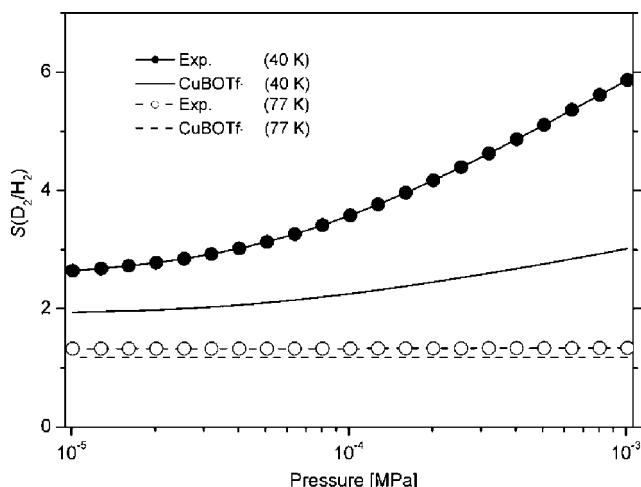


**Figure 3.** (A) Top view from the *c* axis and (B) side view from the *b* axis of the larger pore of CuBOTf model. (C), (D) Potential energy contour maps for H<sub>2</sub> at 77 K with the FH effective potential of the inside of the larger pore at different positions along the *c* axis ((1), (2)), with the positions of the Cu(II) ions are denoted in the contour map with a cross. (E), (F) Configurational snapshots of adsorbed H<sub>2</sub> molecules in the framework of CuBOTf obtained from simulations at 77 K and (E) *P* = 1 kPa, (F) *P* = 100 kPa.



**Figure 4.** Simulated and experimental adsorption isotherms of CuBOTf for H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> at 40 K. The circles represent the experimental adsorption and desorption isotherm, while the lines represent the simulated isotherms from the CuBOTf model. The relative pressures are given in linear (inset is in logarithmic) scales.

We have applied IAST to the present single-component isotherms from experiments and simulations for the CuBOTf model to predict selectivities of D<sub>2</sub> over H<sub>2</sub> at 40 and 77 K in the pressure range between 0.01 to 1 kPa. The calculation details are given in the Supporting Information. We have assumed a bulk concentration of 0.50 D<sub>2</sub> for mixture adsorption of CuBOTf. The selectivity values (Figure S5, Supporting Information) from simulations at 77 K ( $S(D_2/H_2) = 1.3$ ; corresponds to the 0.57 D<sub>2</sub> in the CuBOTf framework) are in good agreement with those from experiments ( $S(D_2/H_2) = 1.2$ ; 0.55 D<sub>2</sub>). In contrast, the selectivity values predicted from simulations at 40 K increase monotonically with pressure ( $S(D_2/H_2) = 1.9$  to 3.0; 0.66 to 0.75 D<sub>2</sub>), and do not agree quantitatively with the experimental prediction ( $S(D_2/H_2) = 2.6$  to 5.8; 0.72 to 0.85 D<sub>2</sub>), giving larger selectivity than those from simulations (Figure 5). The reason for this discrepancy should be due to the small effective diameter of a D<sub>2</sub> molecule at 40 K compared with H<sub>2</sub>, which is caused by quantum effects. Specifically, D<sub>2</sub> molecules can diffuse into the 1D channels of CuBOTf framework at low pressures more easily than H<sub>2</sub>, even though D<sub>2</sub> is heavier than H<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, the experimental quasi-equilibrium adsorption



**Figure 5.**  $S(D_2/H_2)$  in CuBOTf calculated by IAST over the pressure range  $10^{-5}$  to  $10^{-3}$  MPa at 77 and 40 K. Experimental values are shown in circles with line, and simulated values from CuBOTf model are shown in lines.

of D<sub>2</sub> is larger than that of H<sub>2</sub> at low pressures, resulting in the relatively large selectivity value. The relatively faster diffusion of D<sub>2</sub> than that of H<sub>2</sub> is experimentally evident as described previously. This selectivity  $S(D_2/H_2)$  of CuBOTf at 40 K is much higher than the published data of single-wall carbon nanohorns at 77 K. However, the single wall carbon nanohorn has a structure different from single wall carbon nanotube and the predicted selectivity of carbon nanotubes for quantum molecular sieving is sensitive to the interaction potential and rotational-translational coupling.<sup>63</sup> Accordingly, we need the experimental values of the quantum selectivity of carbon nanotube for comparative discussion with MOFs. The selectivity of D<sub>2</sub> over H<sub>2</sub> might be improved if we can exchange linker molecules in the framework for ones with steric influence, which cause a lowering of the diffusivity of quantum H<sub>2</sub> with its larger effective diameter than quantum D<sub>2</sub>. The diffusivity of hydrogen

(63) Garberoglio, G.; DeKlavan, M. M.; Johnson, J. K. *J. Phys. Chem. B* **2006**, *110*, 1733–1741.

isotopes below 77 K appears to be an interesting subject for further studies. Adsorption kinetic measurement and quasi-elastic neutron scattering should provide a more clear insight into the dynamic behaviors of adsorbed quantum hydrogen isotopes in MOFs.

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**Supporting Information Available:** Detailed description on materials, adsorption measurement of H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> at low temperature, determination and calculation of isosteric heat of adsorption, calculation method of selectivity of D<sub>2</sub> over H<sub>2</sub>, potential parameters for the atoms in CuBOTf framework, X-ray diffraction patterns of CuBOTf samples and the model structures, X-ray diffraction patterns of Cu-BTC, TGA curve of CuBOTf, TGA curve of CuBTC, N<sub>2</sub> adsorption isotherms of CuBOTf at 77 K, experimental H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> adsorption isotherms of Cu-BTC at 77 K, experimental H<sub>2</sub> adsorption isotherms of CuBOTf at 40 K with different equilibration time, and isosteric heats of adsorption for H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub>. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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