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# Flue-gas and direct-air capture of CO<sub>2</sub> by porous metal–organic materials

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Sequestration of CO<sub>2</sub>, either from gas mixtures or directly from air (direct air capture), is a technological goal important to large-scale industrial processes such as gas purification and the mitigation of carbon emissions. Previously, we investigated five porous materials, three porous metal–organic materials (MOMs), a benchmark inorganic material, **Zeolite 13X** and a chemisorbent, **TEPA-SBA-15**, for their ability to adsorb CO<sub>2</sub> directly from air and from simulated flue-gas. In this contribution, a further 10 physisorbent materials that exhibit strong interactions with CO<sub>2</sub> have been evaluated by temperature-programmed desorption for their potential utility in carbon capture applications: four hybrid ultramicroporous materials, **SIFSIX-3-Cu**, **DICRO-3-Ni-i**, **SIFSIX-2-Cu-i** and **MOFOUR-1-Ni**; five microporous MOMs, **DMOF-1**, **ZIF-8**, **MIL-101**, **UiO-66** and **UiO-66-NH<sub>2</sub>**; an ultramicroporous MOM, **Ni-4-PyC**. The performance of these MOMs was found to be negatively impacted by moisture. Overall, we demonstrate that the incorporation of strong electrostatics from inorganic

moieties combined with ultramicropores offers improved CO<sub>2</sub> capture performance from even moist gas mixtures but not enough to compete with chemisorbents.

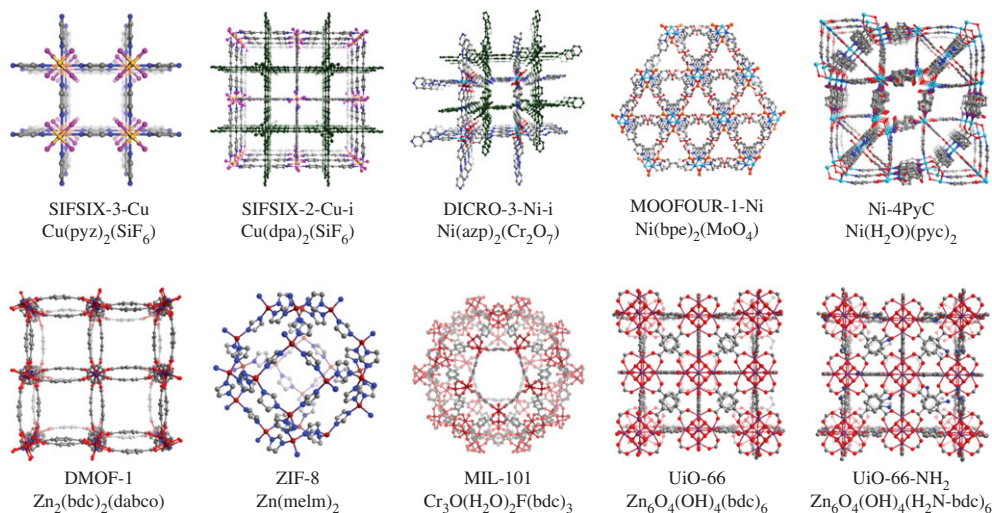
This article is part of the themed issue 'Coordination polymers and metal–organic frameworks: materials by design'.

## 1. Introduction

Anthropogenic emissions of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) are accepted as a significant risk to global climate. Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration has surpassed 400 ppm on several occasions since 2013, which represents an increase of over 100 ppm since pre-industrial revolution levels [1]. At the 2015 United Nations Climate Change Conference, the 196 parties in attendance signed an agreement calling for zero net anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions to be reached during the second half of the twenty-first century [2]. There are two pathways currently being considered for the reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions: (i) CO<sub>2</sub> removal from CO<sub>2</sub>-rich post-combustion industrial point sources (i.e. flue-gas capture) and (ii) the removal of CO<sub>2</sub> from the atmosphere via direct air capture (DAC) [3]. Although addressing the increase in global CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations presents a scientific and technological challenge of the highest order [4], it also presents an opportunity because DAC becomes more viable at higher CO<sub>2</sub> levels and CO<sub>2</sub> is a useful commodity. Carbon capture and storage technologies focus on capturing and storing CO<sub>2</sub>. Carbon capture and utilization looks to exploit the large volumes of CO<sub>2</sub> produced by industrial practices for use in other applications [5]. For example, CO<sub>2</sub> is currently used as a feed gas in the chemical industry for the production of various alcohols [6], dimethyl ether [7], biodiesel [8] and polymers [9]. These large-scale processes are suited to the high volumes of CO<sub>2</sub> associated with post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture. However, other niche applications such as the use of CO<sub>2</sub> gas in greenhouses to encourage photosynthesis or in algae farms to promote biofuels production may be more applicable to smaller scale CO<sub>2</sub> capture via DAC technologies. DAC may also be feasible for mitigating emissions from mobile sources and, if recycling costs are minimal, might represent an approach to the introduction of new carbon negative technologies. The catch is that DAC is handicapped by the relative availability of CO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere (0.0004 atm versus 0.15 atm in post-combustion capture) and, in the case of physisorption, by competition with other gases and vapours, such as N<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O [10]. DAC is therefore much more challenging to physisorbents than post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture, but it may be practical if an adsorbent offers optimum uptake, appropriate CO<sub>2</sub> selectivity over N<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O and facile recyclability [11].

At present, DAC systems typically employ solid supported amine-based adsorbents, wherein amine functional groups are tethered to the surface of cellulose [12,13], porous polymer networks [14,15] and porous silica materials [10,16–19]. Chemisorption of CO<sub>2</sub> is feasible but in order for chemisorbents to be recycled one must reverse the chemical reaction that captures CO<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, although chemisorbents achieve moderate CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacities (0.5–3.6 mmol g<sup>-1</sup>) for DAC, they also typically require elevated temperatures for sorbent regeneration (more than 100°C). It has also been found that gas constituents such as NO<sub>x</sub>, SO<sub>x</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> itself can negatively impact amine-modified solids by poisoning the chemisorbent and deactivating the amine adsorption sites [20–22]. Furthermore, amine-modified materials are sometimes subject to thermal and oxidative degradation [23,24]. DAC using physisorbent materials has been much less studied, presumably due to the lack of suitable candidate materials. In principle, advanced sorbents that capture CO<sub>2</sub> through highly selective physisorption offer great promise, because they require much less energy for recycling. Unfortunately, existing classes of physisorbent materials do not meet the requirements for DAC, mainly high CO<sub>2</sub> selectivity over N<sub>2</sub> ( $S_{CN}$ ) and H<sub>2</sub>O ( $S_{CW}$ ), which are major constituents of air.

Recently, we reported a systematic study of DAC performance for a number of benchmark physisorbents [10]; prototypical metal–organic materials (MOMs) **HKUST-1** and **Mg-MOF-74**, a zeolite, **Zeolite 13X**, and a hybrid ultramicroporous material (HUM) [25], **SIFSIX-3-Ni**. A highly adsorbent amine-modified chemisorbent material, **TEPA-SBA-15**, was included in the



**Figure 1.** Ten physisorbent materials were evaluated in this study. Elements C, O, N, Si, F, Cu, Cr, Ni, Mo, Zn and Zr are represented by grey, red, blue, yellow, pink, salmon, dark red, sky blue, orange, brown and purple, respectively; H atoms have been omitted for clarity. The dark green net represents the second interpenetrated network in **SIFSIX-2-Cu-i** and **DICRO-3-Ni-i**.

study for comparison. All four physisorbent materials were observed to exhibit a dramatic decrease in performance with respect to CO<sub>2</sub> uptake in the presence of water vapour. **SIFSIX-3-Ni** exhibited the highest CO<sub>2</sub> uptake from DAC of the physisorbent materials at 4.071 CO<sub>2</sub> kg<sup>-1</sup> adsorbent. While the chemisorbent **TEPA-SBA-15** was unaffected by water vapour, its energetics and recyclability were not as favourable as those of **SIFSIX-3-Ni**. In this contribution, we examine the performance of 10 additional benchmark physisorbent materials for capturing CO<sub>2</sub> from flue-gas and DAC using a combination of temperature-programmed desorption (TPD), thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) and mass spectrometry (MS). **SIFSIX-3-Cu** [26], **DICRO-3-Ni-i** [27], **MOOFOR-1-Ni** [28], **SIFSIX-2-Cu-i** [26], **Ni-4-PyC** [29], **ZIF-8** [30], **DMOF-1** [31], **UiO-66** [32], **UiO-66-NH<sub>2</sub>** [33] and **MIL-101** [34] were evaluated for their performance with respect to DAC and five other CO<sub>2</sub>-rich gas mixtures. The 10 physisorbents studied herein represent two classes of MOMs that have been widely studied for carbon capture (figure 1).

The rich structural and functional diversity of MOMs means that they can be tuned for specific purifications and separations of gas mixtures [35]. **SIFSIX-3-Cu** [26], **SIFSIX-2-Cu-i** [26], **DICRO-3-Ni-i** [27] and **MOOFOR-1-Ni** [28] are hybrid ultramicroporous materials (HUMs) [11,25,26,28,36], which exhibit ultramicropores (less than 0.7 nm) and comprise metal cation nodes linked by two types of linkers: neutral organic ligands and anionic inorganic pillars. The use of an appropriately charged inorganic pillar means that the resulting network is uncharged and creates a relatively high electrostatic contribution that, when combined with tight binding sites, enables strong interactions between adsorbent and adsorbate (large  $Q_{st}$ ) and ultra-high selectivity for polarizable gases such as CO<sub>2</sub> versus less polarizable gases such as N<sub>2</sub>. **ZIF-8** [30], **DMOF-1** [31], **UiO-66** [32], **UiO-66-NH<sub>2</sub>** [33] and **MIL-101** [34] are prototypical examples of physisorbent MOMs, also known as metal-organic frameworks, MOFs [37,38], or porous coordination polymers, PCPs [39–41]. **Ni-4-PyC** [29] is a recently reported example of an ultramicroporous MOM and, being built from a single small ligand; **Ni-4-PyC** exhibits similar pore dimensions to HUMs (0.35 and 0.48 nm). However, there is a reduced electrostatic contribution due to the lack of an inorganic pillar. These sorbents were synthesized following the literature methods (see the electronic supplementary material). Each of the sorbents was characterized via powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD; electronic supplementary material, figures S3–S12) to verify phase purity. Sorbents were then subjected to solvent exchange and activation using published procedures; details for the exchange process and activation protocols are given in the electronic supplementary material. After activation, each sorbent was subjected to sorption experiments to verify a match with their

**Table 1.** TPD coupled with mass spectrometry.

sorbent	DAC (1 atm; 49% RH)				moist CO <sub>2</sub> (0.15 atm; 75% RH) <sup>b</sup>				dry CO <sub>2</sub> (0.15 atm)	
	CO <sub>2</sub>	H <sub>2</sub> O	CO <sub>2</sub> l kg <sup>-1</sup> (l l <sup>-1</sup> )	S <sub>CW</sub>	CO <sub>2</sub>	H <sub>2</sub> O	CO <sub>2</sub> l kg <sup>-1</sup> (l l <sup>-1</sup> )	S <sub>CW</sub>	CO <sub>2</sub>	CO <sub>2</sub> l kg <sup>-1</sup> (l l <sup>-1</sup> )
SIFSIX-3-Ni <sup>a</sup>	<8% (8.0)	>92% (93)	4.07 (6.55)	5.43	62% (76)	38% (46)	38.69 (62.29)	0.27	100% (109)	55.49 (89.34)
HKUST-1 <sup>a</sup>	1% (2.1)	99% (178)	1.07 (0.95)	0.63	8.5% (12.8)	>91% (137)	6.52 (5.78)	0.02	100% (70)	35.64 (31.61)
Mg-MOF-74 <sup>a</sup>	<4% (6.3)	>96% (171)	3.21 (2.94)	2.60	51% (68)	49% (65)	34.62 (31.71)	0.17	100% (235)	119.64 (109.59)
Zeolite 13X <sup>a</sup>	1% (1.5)	99% (146)	0.76 (0.99)	0.63	22% (26.3)	78% (93)	13.39 (17.54)	0.05	100% (140)	71.27 (93.36)
TEPA-SBA-15 <sup>a</sup>	93% (158)	7% (12)	80.44 n.a. <sup>c</sup>	830	92% (130.3)	8% (11)	66.33 n.a. <sup>c</sup>	1.92	100% (152)	77.38 n.a. <sup>c</sup>
SIFSIX-3-Cu	13.8% (14.1)	>86% (88)	7.18 (11.55)	10.03	65% (101)	35% (54)	51.42 (82.68)	0.31	100% (119)	60.58 (97.41)
DICRO-3-Ni-i	>2% (1.9)	<97% (80)	0.97 (1.40)	1.47	<53% (19.2)	>47% (17.2)	9.77 (14.08)	0.19	100% (23.9)	12.17 (17.54)
SIFSIX-2-Cu-i	1% (1.6)	99% (155)	<1.00 (1.247)	0.63	59.5% (18.1)	40.5% (12.3)	9.21 (11.48)	0.24	100% (31)	15.78 (19.68)
MOOFOUR-1-Ni	>5% (2.5)	<95% (49)	1.27 (1.60)	3.29	60% (39)	40% (26)	19.85 (25.01)	0.25	100% (58)	29.53 (37.21)
Ni-4-PyC	2% (3.3)	98% (154)	1.68 (1.74)	1.28	61% (15.6)	39% (10.1)	7.94 (8.20)	0.26	100% (26)	13.24 (13.68)
DMOF-1	>2% (1.3)	<98% (56)	1.00 (0.83)	1.28	56% (9.7)	44% (7.7)	4.94 (4.08)	0.21	100% (17.3)	8.81 (7.28)
ZIF-8	23% (2.3)	77% (7.6)	1.20 (1.10)	18.67	75% (2.5)	25% (>1)	1.27 (1.16)	0.50	100% (1.8)	0.92 (0.84)
MIL-101	<1% (<1.0)	>99% (95)	<1.00 (0.62)	<0.63	40% (11.2)	60% (16.8)	5.70 (3.53)	0.11	100% (33.1)	16.85 (10.45)
UiO-66	<1% (0.7)	>99% (195)	0.36 (1.45)	<0.63	29.6% (8.4)	70.4% (19.6)	4.28 (5.30)	0.07	100% (31.8)	16.19 (20.04)
UiO-66-NH <sub>2</sub>	<2% (11.2)	>98% (237)	5.70 (7.38)	1.28	46.7% (51.3)	53.3% (58.5)	26.12 (33.83)	0.15	100% (59)	30.04 (38.90)

<sup>a</sup>Previously reported adsorbents [10].

<sup>b</sup>Water saturated gas feeds were obtained by bubbling each pure gas through deionized water.

<sup>c</sup>Density for TEPA-SBA-15 is indeterminable. Mass of analyte in mg g<sup>-1</sup>.

reported apparent surface area, uptake capacity and isosteric enthalpy of adsorption for CO<sub>2</sub> (Isotherms; electronic supplementary material, figures S13–S22).

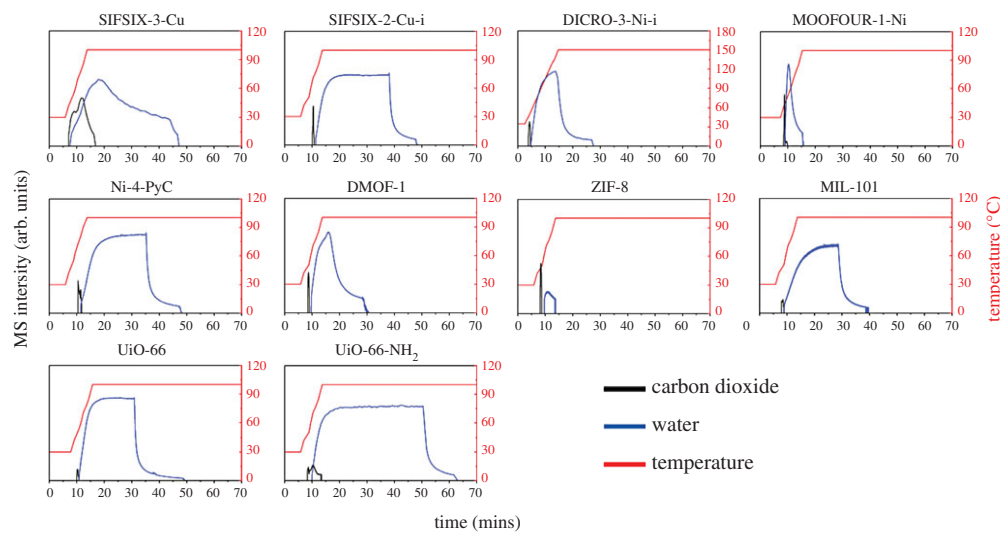
The CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption performance of each physisorbent was evaluated using pristine, activated samples exposed to a specific gas mixture for a prescribed time period before being subjected to TPD. In a typical TPD experiment, a sample was placed in a quartz reactor cell positioned within

a tube furnace. This cell was heated to a temperature that promotes expulsion of guest molecules from the host in the presence of He carrier gas. The exhaust gas was continuously monitored using a mass spectrometer. These experiments provide the identity and relative quantity of gases and vapours desorbed by the sample as a function of temperature, or, if temperature is held constant, as a function of time. They also afford an understanding of the energy required for recycling the adsorbent. In short, TPD experiments address relative CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>O uptake and afford at least a qualitative indication of the ease with which the sorbent can be recycled. In conjunction with the DAC experiments where the material was exposed to laboratory atmosphere, the 10 physisorbents were also subjected to TPD–TGA experiments in which each material was exposed to five additional gas mixtures following a protocol previously established [10]. Each of the five gas mixtures was selected to address a different aspect of the sorbent's performance with respect to CO<sub>2</sub> sorption. Data from the DAC and TPD–TGA experiments on the 10 adsorbents, as well as the five previously studied materials [10], are presented in table 1 (for full dataset of results, see the electronic supplementary material).

## 2. Results and discussion

In terms of DAC from laboratory atmosphere, **SIFSIX-3-Cu** exhibits the highest gravimetric uptake of CO<sub>2</sub> (7.181 CO<sub>2</sub> kg<sup>-1</sup>) of the 10 physisorbents examined during this study, outperforming **SIFSIX-3-Ni**, the top physisorbent from our previous study. **SIFSIX-3-Cu** was previously found to exhibit a high  $Q_{st}$  (56 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>) and high CO<sub>2</sub> uptake at low partial pressure (1.24 mmol g<sup>-1</sup>) during single-component CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption experiments [11]. **SIFSIX-3-Cu** exhibits a higher  $Q_{st}$  and gravimetric uptake at 400 ppm than **SIFSIX-3-Ni** (50.8 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>, 1.10 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> respectively), which explains why the DAC uptake of CO<sub>2</sub> for **SIFSIX-3-Cu** (7.18 l CO<sub>2</sub> kg<sup>-1</sup>) is larger than that of **SIFSIX-3-Ni** (4.07 l CO<sub>2</sub> kg<sup>-1</sup>). The ultramicroporous pore channel and high electrostatic contribution of the inorganic SiF<sub>6</sub><sup>2-</sup> pillar is key to the DAC performance of the **SIFSIX-3-M** compounds [26]. However, whereas pristine **SIFSIX-3-Cu** performs best in terms of DAC performance, it was found to be inherently unstable when exposed to elevated temperature and humidity (40°C, 75% RH). Indeed, the PXRD pattern was completely changed (electronic supplementary material, figure S100) and surface area lost (electronic supplementary material, figure S101).

**UiO-66-NH<sub>2</sub>** was observed to exhibit the next highest gravimetric uptake of CO<sub>2</sub> (5.71 CO<sub>2</sub> kg<sup>-1</sup>) of the 10 physisorbents examined during this study. The 'decoration' of the terephthalic acid linker with an amine group to form **UiO-66-NH<sub>2</sub>** has a significant effect on the CO<sub>2</sub> uptake by this adsorbent compared with the parent material, **UiO-66** (DAC < 1.0 l CO<sub>2</sub> kg<sup>-1</sup>), under all adsorption conditions. The reason **UiO-66-NH<sub>2</sub>** outperforms **UiO-66** is again correlated with isosteric enthalpy of adsorption ( $Q_{st}$ ). **UiO-66** and **UiO-66-NH<sub>2</sub>** exhibit  $Q_{st}$  values of 25.5 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> and 35.1 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup>, respectively [42,43]. High  $Q_{st}$  values are reflective of stronger adsorbate/adsorbent interactions, but they also require higher regeneration energies during the desorption process to liberate the adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> [44]. The improvement in CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and increase in enthalpy of adsorption of **UiO-66-NH<sub>2</sub>** over **UiO-66** is attributed to the addition of the highly polar amine group; this in turn increases the affinity of **UiO-66-NH<sub>2</sub>** towards polarizable gases such as CO<sub>2</sub> [43,45]. The addition of highly polar ligands also leads to a considerable enhancement of CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> selectivity ( $S_{CN}$ ) [46,47]. The affinity of **UiO-66-NH<sub>2</sub>** towards CO<sub>2</sub> SiF<sub>6</sub><sup>2-</sup> has previously been observed to increase with an increase in the amine density [48]. This phenomenon also has been observed in other amine functionalized MOMs [49–53]. The increase in the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed may also be as a result of a *quasi*-chemisorption interaction between CO<sub>2</sub> and the functional amino group in **UiO-66-NH<sub>2</sub>**, whereby CO<sub>2</sub> interacts with the amine to form anhydrous carbamates in the absence of H<sub>2</sub>O or bicarbonate species under moist conditions as observed in other amine functionalized porous materials [54]. This increased affinity towards CO<sub>2</sub> also improves  $S_{CW}$  compared with that of the parent **UiO-66** material and is supported by TPD experiments, which estimate the relative ease of regeneration of the sorbent. The DAC plot in figure 2 reveals that **UiO-66-NH<sub>2</sub>** requires



**Figure 2.** TPD plots for DAC for the 10 sorbents studied. The red curve depicts the temperature profile used for desorption. The MS signal for  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  are given by the black and blue curves, respectively.

notably more energy and time to liberate  $\text{CO}_2$  compared with **UiO-66** and the other physisorbents studied herein.

Comparing **SIFSIX-3-Cu** and **Ni-4-PyC** provides insight into the relative impact of two key aspects of HUMs: the presence of ultramicropores and the strong electrostatics by use of inorganic pillars. The use of ultramicropores alone has been shown to significantly enhance the selective adsorption of  $\text{H}_2$  over  $\text{CO}_2$  [55] or  $\text{CO}_2$  over other gases [17,56,57] via size-selective exclusion. However, size exclusion requires very precise and uniform pore size, which is difficult to design and has only been observed in a few instances. While both adsorbents exhibit similar pore dimensions (3.5 and 4.8 Å for **Ni-4-PyC** and 3.5 Å for **SIFSIX-3-Cu**), **Ni-4-PyC** lacks inorganic pillars ( $\text{SiF}_6^{2-}$  anions), which results in a reduced electrostatic contribution and  $Q_{\text{st}}$  values (34 versus 56  $\text{kJ mol}^{-1}$ ) [29]. This, in turn, results in lower  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake at very low partial pressures such as those in the atmosphere [26]. **Ni-4-PyC** exhibits lower  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake (1.68  $\text{l CO}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ) from the laboratory atmosphere compared with **SIFSIX-3-Cu** (7.18  $\text{l CO}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ), which further suggests that electrostatics plays an important role in the performance of physisorbent materials in terms of  $S_{\text{CN}}$  and  $S_{\text{CW}}$  and that pore size alone does not determine the adsorption performance of ultramicroporous materials.

**SIFSIX-2-Cu-i** and **MOOFOUR-1-Ni** performed only marginally better than the non-HUM physisorbents. While **MOOFOUR-1-Ni** (1.271  $\text{CO}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ) has a very high  $Q_{\text{st}}$  (56  $\text{kJ mol}^{-1}$ ), its larger pores (ca 7 Å) are borderline supermicroporous [36]. Comparing **SIFSIX-2-Cu-i** (less than 1.0  $\text{l CO}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ) with **SIFSIX-3-Cu**, we see the former has a somewhat larger pore size (ca 5 Å), but also a lower density of inorganic pillars than the latter due to the interpenetrated nature of this compound. These two factors combine to create a lower  $Q_{\text{st}}$  (31.9  $\text{kJ mol}^{-1}$ ) for **SIFSIX-2-Cu-i** and presumably account for the decreased DAC performance. Of the non-HUM physisorbents in this study, **UiO-66-NH<sub>2</sub>** aside, **ZIF-8** performed the best, adsorbing 1.2  $\text{l CO}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$  from the laboratory atmosphere. **DMOF-1**, **MIL-101** and **UiO-66** all adsorbed less than 1.0  $\text{l CO}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$  under these conditions.

When the materials were exposed to simulated flue-gas (moist 0.15 atm  $\text{CO}_2$ /0.85 atm  $\text{N}_2$ ), **SIFSIX-3-Cu** was again the top performer of the 10 adsorbents studied herein in terms of gravimetric  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake, adsorbing 51.42  $\text{l CO}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ . This is comparable to **SIFSIX-3-Ni** and **Mg-MOF-74**, which were previously found to adsorb 38.69  $\text{l CO}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$  and 34.62  $\text{l CO}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ , respectively [10]. **UiO-66-NH<sub>2</sub>** (26.12  $\text{l CO}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ), **MOOFOUR-1-Ni** (19.85  $\text{l CO}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ) and **Ni-4-PyC** (12.57  $\text{l CO}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ) were the next best materials under simulated flue-gas conditions.

The addition of moisture to the gas stream significantly impacts CO<sub>2</sub> uptake by the physisorbent materials studied herein. The gravimetric CO<sub>2</sub> uptake from moist simulated flue-gas was reduced by up to 62% when compared with dry flue-gas results obtained for the 10 physisorbents examined in this study. The presence of water vapour in CO<sub>2</sub> containing gas streams can have a detrimental effect on physisorbent materials both in terms of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption performance [10,58] and overall stability of the adsorbent [59–62]. The selectivity of sorbent materials for CO<sub>2</sub> over H<sub>2</sub>O ( $S_{CW}$ ) is an important aspect in determining the suitability of sorbent materials for CO<sub>2</sub> capture via post-combustion and DAC methods. From the current study, **ZIF-8** performed best in terms of  $S_{CW}$  for both DAC ( $S_{CW} \sim 18.7$ ) and moist simulated flue-gas ( $S_{CW} \sim 0.5$ ). ZIF frameworks are inherently hydrophobic as long as the imidazolate linkers do not contain hydrophilic functional groups [63–65]. Despite the high  $S_{CW}$  for **ZIF-8**, it exhibits low overall gravimetric CO<sub>2</sub> uptake for both DAC (1.2 l CO<sub>2</sub> kg<sup>-1</sup>) and simulated flue-gas (1.27 l CO<sub>2</sub> kg<sup>-1</sup>). **SIFSIX-3-Cu** was the next best physisorbent in terms of CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>O selectivity (DAC  $S_{CW} \sim 10.03$ ), which is almost double that of our previous benchmark physisorbent, **SIFSIX-3-Ni** (DAC  $S_{CW} \sim 5.43$ ).

The regeneration performance of the 10 materials studied in this contribution was also examined using TPD experiments (figure 2). The results of these experiments correlates well with the isosteric enthalpy of adsorption ( $Q_{st}$ ) determined from pure CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption isotherms. However, while pure gas isotherms can be used as an indicator of a material's likely ability to selectively adsorb CO<sub>2</sub> over competing gases such as N<sub>2</sub>, TPD studies are necessary to examine the adsorption performance of MOMs when exposed to specific adsorption conditions such as atmosphere and simulated flue-gas conditions. The results of TPD experiments illustrate that water competition is a significant issue when carrying out adsorption studies under humid conditions on physisorbent materials. Consequently, chemisorbents are still the current benchmark materials for CO<sub>2</sub> capture via DAC, with CO<sub>2</sub> uptakes of up to 80.44 l CO<sub>2</sub> kg<sup>-1</sup> reported in previous studies [10,12,16]. **TEPA-SBA-15** exhibits the highest  $S_{CW}$  under all adsorption conditions. However, as mentioned previously, chemisorbent materials can suffer from a high-energy penalty in terms of sorbent regeneration.

### 3. Conclusion

Capture of CO<sub>2</sub> either from flue-gas or directly from air presents a challenge but also an opportunity to play a significant role in tackling greenhouse gases such as CO<sub>2</sub> over the coming century. In this contribution, we examine the use of benchmark MOMs for their potential use in CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption processes under humid conditions, particularly DAC and moist-simulated flue-gas. Competition with water vapour was found to significantly reduce the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption performance of the physisorbent materials compared with anhydrous conditions. However, there was quite a wide range in performance, with both pore size and pore chemistry affecting the performance of physisorbents studied herein. Humid conditions exacerbated the situation and even wider ranges of uptakes and selectivity were observed. The functionalization of organic ligands with hydrophobic decoration, such as methyl groups in the case of **ZIF-8**, may be an approach that could be used to improve  $S_{CW}$  of physisorbents. However, our results indicate that increased electrostatics generated by inorganic pillars in HUMs or grafted amines are most effective at improving  $Q_{st}$  and overall CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption performance. In conclusion, competition with water vapour is a significant challenge for implementation of physisorbent materials in CO<sub>2</sub> capture, either from DAC or from flue-gas. Control of pore size and pore chemistry through crystal engineering may be a successful strategy to improve CO<sub>2</sub> capture performance even in the presence of water vapour and must be further addressed if physisorbents are to compete with chemisorbents in terms of uptake. However, the best physisorbents studied herein were found to be much easier to recycle than the benchmark chemisorbent **TEPA-15-SBA**, suggesting that faster and less energy intensive recycling of physisorbents could compensate for the lower uptake values.

**Data accessibility.** The datasets supporting this article have been uploaded as part of the electronic supplementary material.

**Authors' contributions.** D.G.M., J.J.P. and M.J.Z. designed project; A.B. performed ligand synthesis; K.J.C., A.K., H.S.S., R.S. and D.G.M. performed MOMs synthesis; K.J.C., J.J.P. and M.L. performed sorption data collection and analysis; D.G.M. and T.C. performed temperature-programmed desorption; all authors contributed in manuscript writing and gave final approval for publication; M.J.Z. and T.C. performed project supervision.

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