Structure–Property Relationships in Amorphous Microporous Polymers

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Structural models and physical properties of several amorphous microporous polymers (AMPs) have been investigated using molecular dynamics simulations in an all-atom framework. The modeled structures of AMPs are quantitatively consistent with experimental observations. A linear relationship between the accessible surface area (ASA) and mass density of AMPs has been established. In the AMP network constituted by planar nodes, near-neighbor nodes are oriented parallel to each other. The microporous structural models are further validated by the calculation of CO₂ and N₂ adsorption isotherms at 298 and 77 K, respectively, obtained through Grand Canonical Monte Carlo (GCMC) simulations. The isotherms and isosteric heat of adsorption computed within



a force field approach are able to well reproduce the experimental results. The nature of interactions between the functional groups of the AMPs framework and CO_2 have been identified. An excellent CO_2 uptake with high heat of adsorption has been observed in AMPs containing nitrogen-rich building blocks.

1. INTRODUCTION

Porous organic polymers have attracted considerable research interest due to their fine-tuned microporosity, large surface area,¹⁻³ and good stability.⁴⁻⁸ Several porous organic polymers are envisaged as potential materials for the storage and separation of gases such as CO_2 ,⁹⁻¹⁸ H₂,¹⁹⁻²⁵ and CH_4^{26-28} as well as for the adsorption of organic solvents.²⁹ They include crystalline covalent organic frameworks (COF)^{30–33} and amorphous microporous polymers (AMP) such as polymers of intrinsic microporosity (PIM),^{34–37} conjugated microporous polymers (CMP),^{38–40} and porous aromatic frameworks (PAF).^{41,42} In general, AMPs are kinetically controlled products⁴³ and do not show long-range periodic order in their structure. Their amorphous nature offers a wide and vital scope for molecular simulations.⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶ Simulations can provide useful insights into the molecular-level structure, 47-49 organization, and gas adsorption processes^{41,50} in a manner that is complementary to experimental techniques. Ideally, they can also provide a rationale to understand the structure-property relationship in AMPs. It is in this spirit that we approach the problem herein.

Density is one of the important physicochemical parameter in polymer manufacturing process. In CMPs, it is useful to have prior knowledge of the density of polymer material in order to synthesize potential candidates for the removal of oil spills.^{51–54} To our knowledge, the density of none of the AMPs has been reported experimentally so far in the literature, likely due to their porous nature. In the present work, we provide an empirical relationship between the accessible surface area of an AMP and its density. As the former can be experimentally determined, this relation could be potentially used to obtain an estimate of the density of the sample. In pursuit of this aim, employing MD simulations, we have arrived at atomistic models of several AMPs whose synthesis and property characterization have been reported in the literature. All the AMPs considered here possess nodes and linkers which are π electron-rich and may additionally contain nitrogen-rich molecular groups. The extended conjugation and CO₂-philic nature of these moieties enable these polymers for CO_2 sorption. Our structural models are quantitatively validated against experimental properties. In particular, Grand Canonical Monte Carlo simulations were carried out to obtain CO₂ and N2 adsorption isotherms. Predictions of adsorption isotherms of CO₂ in various AMPs for which experimental data have not vet been reported are also made. From a microscopic perspective, the following interactions between the polymer framework and CO_2 were found to be vital: (i) hydrogen bonding between O of CO₂ and H of pyrrole N-H or carbazole C-H, (ii) $\pi - \pi$ interaction of CO₂ with triazine or phenyl rings, and (iii) Lewis acid-base interaction between C of CO_2 and O of C=O groups.

2. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

2.1. Structural Properties. MD simulations using an empirical force field were carried out on model AMPs. The schematic representations of monomeric and oligomeric units of various AMPs which have been considered in our simulations are shown in Figure 1. Details of these simulations,

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Figure 1. Schematic representations of monomeric and oligomeric units of various AMPs. Superscripts denote the reference in which the experimental synthesis and characterization of the compounds are described.

protocols, and interaction potentials are provided in the Supporting Information. The modeled structures of Py-PP,55 TSP-2,⁵⁶ HCMP-1,⁵¹ TPE-CMP,⁵⁷ CMP-1,⁵⁸ TSP-1,⁵⁶ CMP-3,⁵⁹ Tr-NPI,² Tr-PPI,² and Td-PPI² were characterized through calculations of (i) accessible surface area, (ii) powder X-ray diffraction pattern, and (iii) adsorption isotherms of CO₂. The quantity that is commonly studied to experimentally characterize the AMPs in terms of porosity is the surface area (calculated using the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) relation for N₂ sorption isotherm measured at 77 K⁶⁰). It has been suggested that for crystalline solids the solvent accessible surface area (ASA) calculated using the Monte Carlo method is the most appropriate for a comparison to the experimentally determined BET surface area, rather than the geometric method (Connolly surface).⁶¹ The validity of this equivalence has not been tested for amorphous porous solids yet. The appropriateness of this assumption has also been verified by us by calculating the BET surface area of all the AMPs⁶² through the calculation of their N2 adsorption isotherms obtained from GCMC simulations at 77 K. The results are presented later. However, in the following discussion, we employ ASA as a measure of porosity, as it is computationally easier to calculate than the BET surface area.

Many of the AMPs studied here have been simulated at different system sizes—varying both the number of nodes and number of linkers in an oligomer as well as by varying the number of oligomers in the simulation as well. Results from all these simulations are presented in the Supporting Information. Unless stated otherwise, the main text contains results from the smallest system size studied.

The accessible surface areas of model structures obtained from MD simulations were calculated using a Monte Carlo code developed by Snurr and co-workers.⁶³ A probe diameter value for N2 of 3.681 Å was employed in these ASA calculations. As reported in our earlier study on tetraphenylethene-based conjugated microporous polymer, TPE-CMP,⁵⁷ equilibrium MD simulations indeed yield structures that are denser and less porous than that of the experimental sample. This is not unexpected as the simulations yield a structure which is thermodynamically controlled (and dense), although lacking in long-range periodicity, while the experimental sample is one which is likely to be kinetically controlled (depending on conditions of synthesis) and possessing large porosity. In order to obtain a ASA which is comparable to that of the experimental sample, the density of the model compound was decreased manually, in steps. At each step, post energy minimization, MD simulations in the constant NVT ensemble for over 2 ns were carried out, and subsequently the ASA was calculated. This process was continued until the calculated and experimental ASA values nearly matched. This procedure yields many model structures for each microporous polymer each with a different ASA. In principle, such structures for a particular compound constitute an ensemble which could represent experimental samples obtained under different synthetic conditions.^{64,65} However, further analysis are carried out only on those models whose ASA are comparable to that of experimental sample. These values for different AMPs are tabulated in Table 1. The table also contains the percentage of

void volume in the modeled structures, which will be discussed later.

Table 1. Comparison between Accessible Surface Area (m ²)
g) of AMPs of Simulated Models and Experiment;
Percentage of Void Space in the Model Structures Estimated
Using Mercury ⁶⁷

AMP	ASA (simul)	$S_{\rm BET} (m^2/g)^a$	ASA (expt)	% of void space
Td-PPI	2198	2209	2213 ²	78.0
Py-PP	1072	1071	1070 ⁵⁵	32.1
TSP-2	911	919	913 ⁵⁶	31.0
TPE-CMP	852	853	854 ⁵⁷	23.1
HCMP-1	843	845	842 ⁵¹	22.9
CMP-1	835	837	834 ⁵⁸	22.2
TSP-1	561	567	563 ⁵⁶	21.1
Tr-NPI	575	579	567 ²	19.6
CMP-3	537	517	522 ⁵⁹	19.6
Tr-PPI	404	395	400 ²	15.2
a Surface area	calculated	from N adec	rntion isothe	orme (obtained

"Surface area calculated from N_2 adsorption isotherms (obtained through GCMC simulations with MCIN⁷¹) using the BET method.

How realistic are the structural models that possess the same ASA as that of experiment? The procedure adopted here to come up with porous structures of AMP was adopted earlier by us in the case of tetraphenylethene-based conjugated microporous polymer, TPE-CMP.⁵⁷ In that work, we had compared the powder X-ray diffraction pattern calculated for the structural model against the experimental result. The same was shown in Figure 3a of ref 57, and the comparison was excellent. Incidentally, the experimentally determined PXRD patterns of TSP-1,⁵⁶ TSP-2,⁵⁶ Td-PPI,⁶⁶ Tr-PPI,⁶⁶ Tr-NPI,² and Py-PP⁵⁵ are available. Thus, we compare powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) patterns calculated for the model structures (whose ASA matches with the experimental value) using Mercury⁶⁷ against experimental data. Figure S11a-f exhibits the same, and again the match between experiment and theory is reasonable. We are unable to make similar comparisons for other AMPs as their experimental patterns are not available in the literature. On the basis of the good agreement in the powder patterns, we believe that the computed structural models for AMPs are reasonable representations of the experimental ones.

The ASA of several AMPs has been plotted against their mass densities in Figure 2 and Figure S10. To reiterate, only one data point per AMP corresponds to the ASA value reported experimentally; the same are indicated by plus symbols in Figure 2. These symbols can be fitted to a straight line. The fits suggest the following categorization of AMPs: (i) ones containing C, H, and N: HCMP-1, CMP-1, CMP-3, Py-PP, TPE-CMP, TSP-1, and TSP-2; (ii) AMPs containing C, H, N, and O atoms: Tr-NPI, Tr-PPI, and Td-PPI. The parameters of fit are $m = -5008 \text{ m}^5/\text{kg}^2$, $c = 4880 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ for AMPs without the C=O group and $m = -2297 \text{ m}^5/\text{kg}^2$, $c = 2981 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ for AMPs possessing the C=O group. Here, m and c are the slope and intercept of the best fit line. These relationships could be useful not only for synthetic and process chemists but also in molecular modeling. Density is a critical input for atomistic MD simulations. As the same is not determined experimentally, modellers can employ these expressions while setting up the AMP system of interest. It is also noteworthy that models of an AMP with ASA values other than that of experiment fall on the same line as the one connecting the experimental data points.



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Figure 2. Correlation between the accessible surface area and density of various AMPs. Plus (+) symbols correspond to modeled AMPs possessing the experimentally measured accessible surface areas. Other symbols denote models of various AMPs obtained at different computational "synthetic" conditions. The invariance of the correlation with system size is demonstrated in Figure S10.

Among the few ways that the structure of AMPs can be characterized is the pair correlation function,⁶⁸ g(r). These have been calculated between different molecular groups to understand the effect of building block arrangements on the ASA. Pair correlation functions (PCFs) between center of masses of nodes are shown in Figure 3.



Figure 3. (a) Comparison of the intermolecular pair correlation functions between nodes of modeled AMPs and (b) Angle distribution of ring normals of near-neighbor nodes present within an oligomer in AMPs.

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While the energy-minimized structures of the nodes of Tr-PPI and Tr-NPI are trigonal pyramidal, those of TPE-CMP⁵⁷ and Td-PPI are tetrahedral in their geometries. Such node structures allow the polymer network to grow three-dimensionally. The corresponding oligomer structures are shown in Figures S7-S9. The three-dimensional network topology causes the node-node distance in TPE-CMP, Tr-NPI, Tr-PPI, and Td-PPI to be larger than those of the other (largely two-dimensional) AMPs. The same is reflected in the position of the first peak of the node-node g(r) in Figure 3a. From Figure 3a and Table 1, we can realize that the ASA of the microporous polymer increases with increase in the distance between nodes. The difference in the geometries of the monomers thus considerably influences ASA. For instance, the ASA of Td-PPI is larger than that of Tr-PPI, although both the networks have the same linker, perylene polyimide (PPI). The possibility of pyramidal inversion around the N-center in Tr-PPI induces the formation of hyperbranched networks compared to closed ring structures, as reported in the literature.^{66,69} Therefore, this flexibility in the conformation of the building block in Tr-PPI has been recognized to hamper its surface area.⁶⁹ In the case of Td-PPI, the three-dimensional network is formed from the conformationally more rigid tetrahedral geometry of tetraphenylmethane. As a result, it forms a closely packed 3-D network, with higher surface area. The height of the first peak in the node–node g(r) of Td-PPI is larger than in Tr-PPI or Tr-NPI. This is due to the node rigidity in the former and the larger node-node distance.

In order to further characterize the structure of AMPs, the orientational order between neighboring nodes was calculated from the configurations obtained from MD simulations.⁷² One set of AMPs shown in Figure 3b(i) possess neighboring nodes whose planes are oriented parallel to each other; however, the other set (Figure 3b(ii)), consisting of TPE-CMP, Tr-NPI, Tr-PPI, and Td-PPI, are structured in such a fashion that the ring planes of neighboring nodes are oriented in all possible directions, although a parallel orientation is marginally more preferred. It is to be noted that the nodes in the latter set are three-dimensional in nature while those in the former set are largely planar. The near-planarity of the nodes themselves make internode angles to be either 0 or 180°. As a consequence, the height of the first peak in the node–node g(r) in AMPs with planar nodes is less than or comparable to unity; in the case of AMPs with nonplanar nodes, the g(r) peaks are much taller, as can be seen from Figure 3a(ii).

The connectivity among the pores and void spaces in the modeled AMPs were obtained using N_2 with a probe radius of 1.82 Å through Mercury.⁶⁷ The same is shown in Figure 4. AMPs shown in Figure 4a-d,i,j possess large surface areas, and the voids are interconnected to each other in either two or three dimensions. However, the pore architecture in AMPs with lesser surface area (Figure 4e-h) is largely one-dimensional. The percentages of void volume of various AMPs are tabulated in Table 1. ASA is seen to increase with increase in the percentage of void space in polymer network.

2.2. Adsorption Isotherms of N_2 and CO_2 . The adsorption isotherms of N_2 in different AMPs at 77 K were calculated using GCMC simulations.⁷¹ These calculations were undertaken so as to compare against experimentally determined isotherms as well as to calculate their surface area using the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method.⁶² In particular, the plus symbol in the plot of ASA–density correlation in Figure 2 refer to the experimentally determined BET surface area, while



Figure 4. Pore architecture in the structural models of various AMPs determined through Mercury:⁶⁷ (a) Py-PP, (b) TSP-2, (c) HCMP-1, (d) CMP-1, (e) TSP-1, (f) Tr-NPI, (g) CMP-3, (h) Tr-PPI, (i) Td-PPI, and (j) TPE-CMP. The green region indicates voids for N_2 while atoms of the polymer are in line representation. Edges of the cubic simulation cell and its dimensions are mentioned.

the rest of the symbols refer to the solvent accessible surface area (ASA) calculated by us for the structural models simulated herein. Thus, in principle, one needs to show that, at least for the compounds studied here, the ASA matches the BET result. This too provides a compelling reason for us to calculate the N_2 isotherms for some of the AMPs.

The N₂ isotherms in TSP-1, TSP-2, and TPE-CMP were calculated up to $P/P_0 = 1$. However, to calculate the BET surface area, one needs only low pressure ($<P/P_0 = 0.35$) adsorption data.⁶² Hence, we have calculated the amount of N₂ uptake up to $P/P_0 = 0.2$ for the remaining AMPs. The calculated isotherms are compared against experimental data in Figure 5. The surface areas of several AMPs which were obtained by applying BET model on the calculated N₂ adsorption isotherms at 77 K are tabulated in Table 1. The calculated BET surface areas (S_{BET}) compare well against the reported experimental values. This acts as a further validation of our modeled structures.



Figure 5. Comparison of adsorption isotherms at 77 K of N_2 in (a) TSP-1,⁵⁶ TSP-2,⁵⁶ (b) TPE-CMP,⁵⁷ (c) HCMP-1,⁵¹ CMP-1,⁵⁸ and CMP-3,⁵⁹ and (d) Tr-NPI,² Tr-PPI,² and Td-PPI² calculated using MCIN code⁷¹ (closed symbols) against experimentally measured data (open symbols) obtained from literature. References to experiments are provided in Table 1.



Figure 6. Comparison of adsorption isotherms at 298 K of CO_2 in (a) TSP-1,⁵⁶ TSP-2,⁵⁶ and CMP-1⁵⁸ and (b) Tr-NPI,² Tr-PPI,² and Td-PPI² calculated using MCIN code⁷¹ (closed symbols) against experimentally measured data (open symbols).

Further, the adsorption isotherms of CO_2 in several AMPs at 298 K were obtained using GCMC simulations.⁷¹ Experimental data are available in the literature for six of these compounds. TSP-1 and TSP-2 contain triazine and carbazole groups, respectively, and are considered to be bifunctionalized task-specific porous polymers with good surface area (562.5 and 913.0 m²/g for TSP-1 and TSP-2, respectively) and thermal stability (up to 800 °C). Because of the presence of CO₂-philic nitrogen-rich building blocks in the polymer frameworks, these materials exhibit excellent CO₂ uptake abilities.⁷³ In TSP-2, the maximum CO₂ storage can be up to 18.0 wt % at ambient conditions, which is more than that reported in other many

porous organic polymers.^{58,74–78} Computational results for TSP-1, TSP-2, Tr-NPI, Tr-PPI, Td-PPI, and CMP-1 are compared against experimental data in Figure 6a,b, and the comparison is rather good. Noticeably, CO_2 isotherms in CMP-1 (see Figure 6b) and in TPE-CMP (see Figure 4F of ref 57), which too do not contain any polar atom,⁵⁷ could be quantitatively reproduced without the inclusion of sorbent–sorbate electrostatics. GCMC simulations of CO_2 adsorption in AMPs without C=O, C=N, and N-H groups but modeled with Gasteiger charges on all the atoms yielded nearly identical adsorption isotherms as those carried out without sorbent–sorbate electrostatics. Hence, in the current paper, we adopted

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the same procedure for calculating the CO_2 adsorption isotherms in the following AMPs: Py-PP, HCMP-1, and CMP-3, which too do not carry any polar atoms. The calculated CO_2 adsorption isotherms for all the AMPs are shown in Figure 7. TSP-2 exhibits the maximum uptake of CO_2 at ambient conditions.



Figure 7. Adsorption isotherms of CO_2 in several AMPs at 298 K calculated using GCMC simulations.

The remarkable agreement between the isotherms determined through experiments and by simulations further reinforces the idea that the model structures are representative of the compounds. The models have been further validated by a comparison of the isosteric heat of adsorption $(Q_{\rm st})$ for CO₂ against experimental results. $Q_{\rm st}$ was computed from the fluctuations in the number of particles and in the total energy⁷⁹ from the GCMC run at low pressures as follows:

$$Q_{st} = RT - \frac{\langle UN \rangle - \langle U \rangle \langle N \rangle}{\langle N^2 \rangle - \langle N \rangle^2}$$
(1)

where U is the total energy, and N is the number of adsorbed molecules, and the angular brackets denote ensemble averages.

 Q_{st} values for CO₂ at 0.05 atm in TSP-1 and TSP-2 have been calculated to be 28.6 and 31.0 kJ/mol, respectively. These values are in good agreement with the experimentally obtained zero coverage isosteric heat of adsorption for CO₂ in TSP-1 and TSP-2, which are 28.1 and 30.3 kJ/mol,⁵⁶ respectively. In addition, Q_{st} for CO₂ in Tr-NPI, Tr-PPI, and Td-PPI obtained at 0.1 atm are tabulated in Table 2. The table also provides the experimentally determined heats of adsorption wherever available. Figure 7 and Table 2 suggest that AMPs consisting nitrogen-rich building blocks exhibit excellent CO₂ uptake ability with significant heat of adsorption.

The remarkably high heats of adsorption can be understood in terms of CO₂ interactions with specific functional groups of the AMP. To understand these, we have examined several configurations of the adsorbed gas obtained from GCMC simulations at low pressures. Possible interactions between CO₂ and TSP-1, TSP-2, HCMP-1, and Tr-NPI identified from the GCMC simulations are shown in Figure 8. CO₂ is seen to be involved in (i) hydrogen bonding between H of pyrrole N–H and carbazole C–H and O of CO₂, (ii) π – π interaction with triazine ring and phenyl moieties, and (iii) Lewis acid–base interactions with the O of napthalene dianhydride's C==O group and C of CO₂. Given the absence of electronic degrees of

Table 2. Comparison between Isosteric Heat of Adsorption $(Q_{st} (kJ/mol))$ Values of CO₂ Calculated from GCMC Simulations via Eq 1 and Experimental Data in Various AMPs

AMP	simulation (kJ/mol)	experiment (kJ/mol)
Td-PPI	20.1	
Py-PP	23.4	
TSP-2	30.9	30.3 ⁵⁶
TPE-CMP	27.6	30.0 ⁵⁷
HCMP-1	22.9	
CMP-1	23.5	27.0 ⁵⁸
TSP-1	28.6	28.1 ⁵⁶
Tr-NPI	25.5	
CMP-3	22.1	
Tr-PPI	26.7	



Figure 8. Snapshots from GCMC simulations. Possible interactions between CO_2 in (a) TSP-1, (b) TSP-2, (c) HCMP-1, and (d) Tr-NPI. Color scheme: Polymer atoms: C = gray, H = tan, O = red, and N = blue; CO_2 : C = green and O = red.

freedom in our simulations, these interactions have been identified on established geometric criteria alone.^{80–83}

3. CONCLUSIONS

Several amorphous microporous polymers (AMPs) have been modeled and characterized using force field based atomistic molecular dynamics simulations. The model structures were validated against experimentally determined accessible surface area, N₂ adsorption isotherms, powder X-ray diffraction pattern, and CO₂ gas uptake wherever such data were available. A crucial result from the current work is the establishment of a linear correlation between the accessible surface area of an AMP and its mass density. Unlike the former, the latter is hard to determine experimentally; thus, the relationship determined herein can aid experimentalists to estimate the density of the synthesized compound. The relationship is also a prediction from computation which requires experimental validation.

Intermolecular structural correlation between the building blocks of the compounds were investigated. Increase in the ASA of the compounds was found to be correlated to an increase in the distance between nodes. Further, the orientational ordering between near-neighbor nodes was determined by calculating the angle distribution between their ring normals. AMPs with planar nodes were found to have networks in which near-neighbor nodes are oriented parallel to each other. The topology of voids in these compounds was also characterized.

Adsorption isotherms of CO_2 at 298 K in many AMPs were obtained through atomistic GCMC simulations within the rigid framework approximation. The absence of flexibility in the systems studied herein appears not to influence the adsorption amount of CO_2 . We have also been able to predict the adsorption isotherms of CO_2 for microporous polymers which have not been measured experimentally yet. We found that microporous polymers containing nitrogen-rich building blocks show an excellent CO_2 uptake with a high heat of adsorption.

Specific sites of adsorption existing in microporous polymers with which CO_2 interacts have been identified. These include carbazole, triazine, phenyl ring, and N–H and C=O groups. The van der Waals, Lewis acid–base, hydrogen bonding, and $\pi-\pi$ interactions influence vitally the adsorption of CO_2 in these solids; this understanding can aid in the design of other novel architectures involving such functional groups.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

S Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acs.jpcb.5b08842.

Computational details for generating structural models for AMPs, comparison between calculated PXRD patterns of model structures and experimental data (Figure S11), details of the GCMC simulation for CO_2 adsorption isotherms, and additional figures (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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