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# Isotope Effect on Adsorbed Quantum Phases: Diffusion of H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> in Nanoporous Carbon

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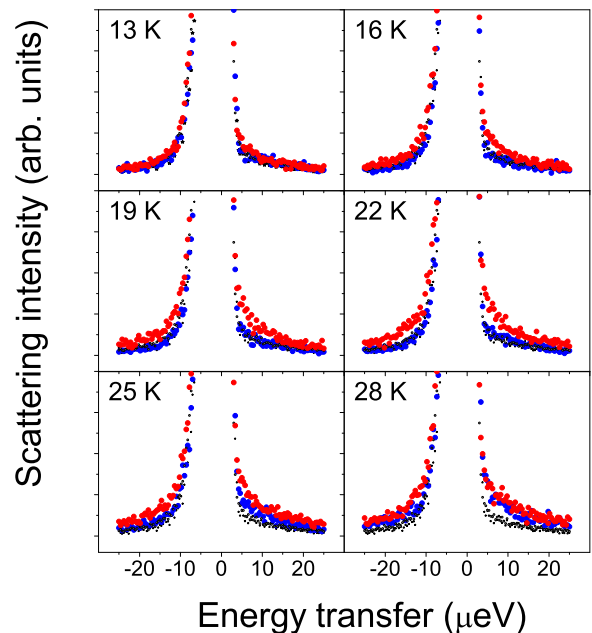
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Quasielastic neutron scattering of H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> in the same nanoporous carbon at 10-40 K demonstrates extreme quantum sieving, with D<sub>2</sub> diffusing up to 76 times faster. D<sub>2</sub> also shows liquid-like diffusion while H<sub>2</sub> exhibits Chudley-Elliott jump diffusion, evidence of their different relationships with the local lattice of adsorption sites due to quantum effects on intermolecular interactions. The onset of diffusion occurs at 22 – 25 K for H<sub>2</sub> and 10 – 13 K for D<sub>2</sub>. At these temperatures, H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> have identical thermal de Broglie wavelengths that correlate with the dominant pore size.

It has been known that separation of deuterium from a H<sub>2</sub>/D<sub>2</sub> mixture is possible through preferential adsorption [1] at low temperature on porous materials, but only recently it was understood that quantum effects [2] and restricted rotation [3] are what cause significant differences between adsorbed isotopes of the same chemical species, effects which can be utilized for their separation. Deuterium, with a higher mass than hydrogen, has a lower ground state energy, and thus may be more strongly adsorbed at low temperatures [4]. In nanoporous materials, when the thermal de Broglie wavelength  $\lambda_B$  is comparable with the effective confinement distance, quantization becomes important. This results in reduced dimensionality of the confined fluid and energy barriers for molecules entering the pores; in other words, the adsorbent acquires isotope separation properties [2]. Separation based on quantum effects has recently received intense scrutiny because of its potential for hydrogen isotope separation by preferential equilibrium adsorption of the heavier isotope [5–8]. Experimental studies have confirmed enhanced D<sub>2</sub> adsorption from H<sub>2</sub>/D<sub>2</sub> mixtures on porous carbons [9], carbon nanotubes [10], zeolites [11], and metal organic frameworks [12] but the selectivity ratio was always lower than theoretical predictions [13].

Separation is also possible through kinetic quantum sieving. Bhatia et al. [14–17] predicted that, at sufficiently low temperatures, hydrogen diffuses slower than deuterium when confined in nanopores with size close to the molecular diameter. For diatomic molecules, quantized rotation [3, 18] and roto-translation coupling [19] introduce strong orientation effects which increase the energy barriers for self-diffusion, and dramatically favor transport of D<sub>2</sub> over H<sub>2</sub> [17]. Bhatia et al. used quasielastic neutron scattering (QENS) and experimentally confirmed differences in diffusivity between H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> in zeolite and carbon molecular sieves (CMS) at low temperatures [20–22]. The kinetic selectivity (ratio of the D<sub>2</sub> self-diffusion coefficient to that of H<sub>2</sub>) had inverse quadratic temperature variation, with a maximum of about 2 for Takeda 3A CMS at the lowest temperature investigated (40 K). The  $T^{-2}$  variation of kinetic selectiv-



Red: Deuterium; Blue: Hydrogen; Black: Resolution function

FIG. 1. (Color online.) Raw scattering intensity data showing the scattering in vacuum and at several temperatures after loading H<sub>2</sub> or D<sub>2</sub>. Data for H<sub>2</sub> were collected in a previous experiment [23].

ity (as opposed to the  $T^{-1}$  variation in classical systems) is a signature of the diffusion of the lighter isotope being more hindered by quantum effects [22]. These experiments were conducted at temperatures above the critical point of bulk H<sub>2</sub> (33.2 K) and D<sub>2</sub> (38.3 K). At lower temperatures, when molecules may form a liquid or solid phase on the adsorbent, intermolecular interactions will likely result in further differences between the isotopes. Since quantum effects vary inversely with temperature, low temperature measurements should demonstrate even higher values of kinetic selectivity.

We previously reported [23] QENS results for H<sub>2</sub> confined in narrow nanopores ( $< 7 \text{ \AA}$ ) of polyfurfuryl alcohol-derived activated carbon (PFAC) at tempera-

tures (10-37 K) crossing the triple point (13.9 K) and critical point of bulk H<sub>2</sub>. Here we report new QENS results for D<sub>2</sub> adsorbed on the same carbon (Fig. 1), obtained using the same equipment, procedure, and conditions. At temperatures lower than those explored by previous researchers, we find significantly higher D<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub> kinetic selectivity than previously reported [22]. In addition, the two isotopes, exhibit completely different diffusion mechanisms due entirely to quantum effects (Fig. 2).

PFAC was obtained and characterized as previously reported [23, 24]. Briefly, it has 1530 m<sup>2</sup>/g BET surface area [25] and 0.99 cm<sup>3</sup>/g total pore volume, of which 0.21 cm<sup>3</sup>/g is contained in narrow nanopores ( $H_{eff} < 7$  Å). Here  $H_{eff}$  is the effective pore width between solid carbon walls, defined as  $H_{eff} = H - 3.4$  Å, where 3.4 Å is the carbon atom diameter and  $H$  is the center-to-center distance between carbon atoms in opposite pore walls [26].

QENS measurements were performed on the backscattering spectrometer (BASIS) of the Spallation Neutron Source at Oak Ridge National Laboratory [27]. Following our previous procedure [23], about 1g of PFAC sample was outgassed at 400°C to  $< 10^{-4}$  Pa and sealed under dry He in the aluminum cell used for measurements. The instrumental resolution function, determined from the background spectrum at 7 K for PFAC under vacuum, has a half width at half maximum (HWHM) of 1.5 μeV. High purity D<sub>2</sub> was adsorbed to saturation at 77 K. The excess gas was evacuated ( $< 10^{-4}$  Pa) at 35 K, the cell was sealed, and temperature was lowered to 10 K. QENS spectra were collected every 3 K from 10 to 40 K, with 1.5-2 h acquisition times at each temperature. As temperature increased, the quasielastic (QE) scattering signal broadened continuously due to the gradually increasing mobility of adsorbed molecules. Using DAVE software [28] the QE scattering at each temperature was obtained from the fit of scattering intensity vs. energy transfer. The fit included elastic (delta function) and QE (Lorentz function with HWHM dependent on momentum transfer,  $Q$ ) components, broadened by the instrumental resolution, plus a linear background.

Figure 1 shows raw QENS data for the two isotopes measured at several temperatures. Two identical background plots measured separately before introduction of D<sub>2</sub> (or H<sub>2</sub>) are also shown. When the adsorbed gas is present, the increase of temperature produces gradual broadening of the scattering signal profile which departs from the elastic line recorded in vacuum. The broadening of the scattering line begins at lower temperatures in the D<sub>2</sub>-loaded carbon than in the H<sub>2</sub>-loaded sample.

This broadening is quantified in Figure 2, which shows the HWHM at each  $Q$ . Results indicate that D<sub>2</sub> becomes mobile between 10 and 13 K; in contrast, H<sub>2</sub> became mobile on PFAC between 22 and 25 K [23]. Below these temperatures, scattering is barely distinguishable

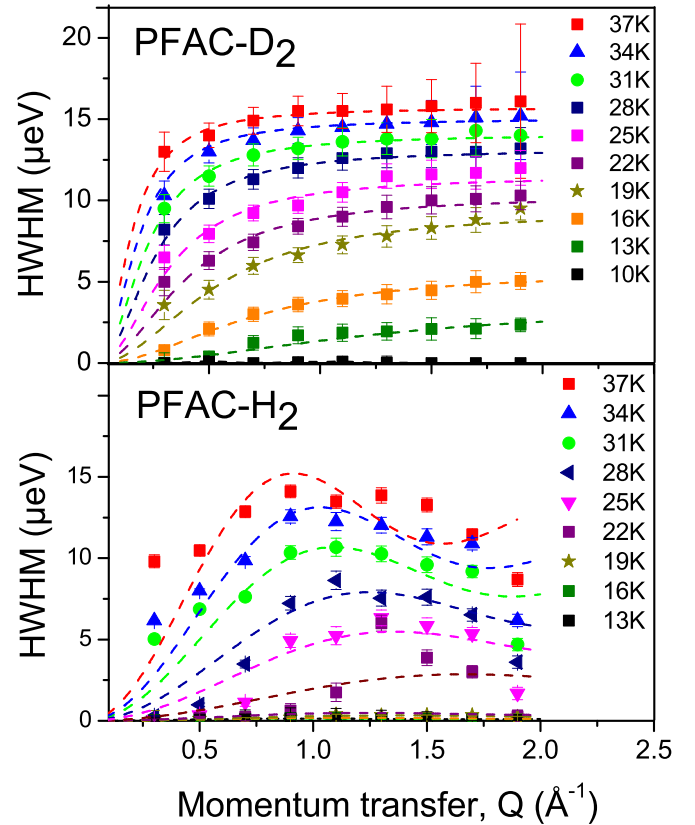


FIG. 2. (Color online.)  $Q$ -dependence of HWHM of the scattering component for D<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub> in PFAC. Dotted lines show model fitting according to Eq. 1 for D<sub>2</sub> and Eq. 2 for H<sub>2</sub>.

from the instrument resolution. Since all conditions were identical, including the amount of H<sub>2</sub> (D<sub>2</sub>) adsorbed ( $\sim 35$  % of monolayer coverage based on the BET surface area), the results can be accurately compared. The main differences are that (1) diffusion of H<sub>2</sub> is more restricted than D<sub>2</sub>, based on the mobility onset temperatures; and (2) the two isotopes have different diffusion mechanisms, as shown by the variation of HWHM of the QE component versus  $Q$  (Fig. 2, where H<sub>2</sub> data are re-plotted from Ref. [23]). The D<sub>2</sub> data were fitted well by a liquid-like diffusion model [29] where particles execute random jumps of lengths  $a$  distributed as  $a(L) = Le^{-L/L_0}$ , whose signature is a sigmoidal HWHM variation with  $Q$ :

$$HWHM(Q) = \frac{\hbar}{\tau} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{1 + Q^2 \langle L^2 \rangle / 6} \right); D = \frac{\langle L^2 \rangle}{6\tau}. \quad (1)$$

In contrast, the non-monotonic behavior of the H<sub>2</sub> data cannot be fit using Eq. 1. Instead, this data was fit by the fixed-length jump model ( $L = L_0 = \text{const}$ ) initially developed by Chudley and Elliott (CE) to describe a liquid phase close to its melting point which locally has a lattice-like structure [30]

$$HWHM(Q) = \frac{\hbar}{\tau} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{QL_0} \sin(QL_0) \right); D = \frac{L_0^2}{6\tau}. \quad (2)$$

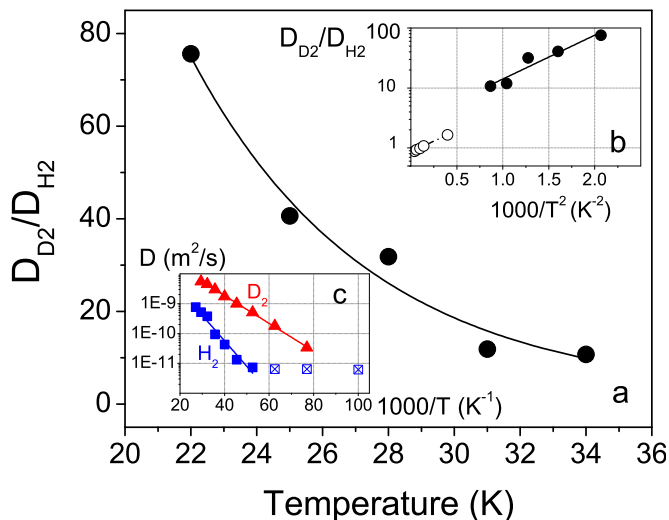


FIG. 3. (Color online.) (a) Temperature dependence of kinetic selectivity. (b) Kinetic selectivity variation versus  $T^{-2}$  showing quantum molecular sieving of quantized molecules ( $\bullet$  this work;  $\circ$  data from Ref. [22]); (c) Classical plot of diffusion coefficients showing delayed mobility onset for adsorbed H<sub>2</sub>.

This model describes dynamic behavior when motions near a particular site are occasionally interrupted by discrete jumps to neighboring vacant lattice sites at a well-defined distance. The model has been generalized to jump diffusion on 2D or 3D lattice. The CE jump diffusion model was also found to fit data well for H<sub>2</sub> in a different porous carbon in our previous QENS study [23].

Diffusion coefficients were calculated from fit parameters  $L$  and  $\tau$  (residence time). The kinetic selectivity is shown in Figure 3(a), and varies between 10 and 76. To our best knowledge, these are the highest kinetic selectivity values ever measured for D<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub> quantum sieving on carbons. On a logarithmic scale, selectivity depends linearly on  $T^{-2}$ , as expected for self-diffusion of quantized H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> [22]. Figure 3(b) compares our data with those measured at higher temperatures for Takeda 3A CMS [22]. Classical analysis of diffusion coefficients,  $\ln(D) = \ln(D_o) - E_{act}/(k_B T)$ , in Fig. 3(c) gives  $E_{act}/k_B = 110$  K,  $D_o = 1.58 \times 10^{-7}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s for D<sub>2</sub>; and  $E_{act}/k_B = 229$  K,  $D_o = 4.31 \times 10^{-7}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s for H<sub>2</sub>. Diffusion of quantized molecules at low temperature is further analyzed in the supplementary information.

The difference in the HWHM variation versus momentum transfer (Fig. 2) suggests that the isotopes diffuse quite differently. Since the carbon substrate and the experimental conditions were the same, the explanation for this difference must be due to the different quantum nature of the isotopes at low temperature. Phase diagrams for each hydrogen isotope on graphite derived from specific heat data [31] show a solid triangular  $\sqrt{3} \times \sqrt{3}$  phase in register with the underlying graphene lattice at coverages below 65 % of a monolayer, which melts into a

2D fluid phase at temperatures between 10-18 K for D<sub>2</sub> and 10-21 K for H<sub>2</sub>, depending on coverage. Wiechert [31] hypothesized that the formation and stability of the registered phase, which is quite different than the bulk solids, is due to the repulsive intermolecular interactions between the molecules. The zero-point motion of the molecules adds a repulsive contribution to the intermolecular interactions, and tends to localize the particles into the potential minima of the graphite surface. The larger zero-point motion of H<sub>2</sub> as compared to D<sub>2</sub> results in a slightly higher melting temperature of the solid registered triangular lattice at high coverage.

Previous models of quantum sieving have ignored intermolecular interactions; but below the critical point they can not be ignored. Because of stronger quantum effects, the effective size is larger for H<sub>2</sub> than for D<sub>2</sub>, resulting in more repulsive effective H<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub> interactions than for D<sub>2</sub>. Due to its smaller zero-point motion, D<sub>2</sub> prefers a more closely packed structure than H<sub>2</sub> and its registered triangular lattice is less stable. Our preliminary calculations support this model [32]. Thus when adsorbed on graphite, we expect D<sub>2</sub> to be closer to a 2D liquid phase after becoming mobile, while H<sub>2</sub> still interacts locally with a lattice-like structure. This picture is supported by low temperature neutron scattering measurements of H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> adsorbed on Grafoil [33, 34], which also found differences in the behavior of the isotopes above their melting temperatures. Nielsen et al. [33] concluded that on melting, D<sub>2</sub>, ‘is probably gas-like,’ while H<sub>2</sub> ‘molecules show solid like behavior up to 31 K’ [34].

To explain the difference between the diffusion mechanism of the two isotopes observed here, we argue that a similar model applies locally in porous carbons. Detailed STEM images obtained recently for PFAC [35] show convincingly that this material is comprised of curved graphene sheets with sizes of a few nanometers. Examination of over a hundred atomic resolution STEM images show that the basic building blocks of PFAC are composed mostly of carbon atoms arranged hexagonally as in graphene, interrupted occasionally by 5- and 7-atom rings which induce local curvature (as in Figs. 3 c,d of Ref. [35]). Our 3D model of graphitic sheets in nanoporous carbons developed from those images (Fig. 6 of Ref. [35]) is that dislocation lines of nonhexagonal defects define large areas of 2D ordered graphene extending up to 2 or 3 nm. However, the spatial range accessed in our QENS experiments is shorter, only about 20 Å, calculated as  $d = 2\pi/Q$  where  $Q = 0.3$  Å<sup>-1</sup> is the lowest  $Q$  value. On these almost flat or weakly undulated graphenes, the sub-monolayers of adsorbed H<sub>2</sub> (D<sub>2</sub>) are expected to experience short range arrays of local potential minima not much different than on exfoliated graphite. Adsorbed H<sub>2</sub> would be constrained to a similar triangular array of adsorption sites which would allow only constant jump lengths between occupied and free positions, while preventing closer H<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub> approach

due to strong repulsions.

This picture is strongly supported by the good match between the nearest-neighbor distance in the triangular lattice of adsorption sites (4.26 Å) on graphite [33] with the jump length fit parameters for our QENS data for H<sub>2</sub> on PFAC (4.02 ± 0.82 Å) and UMC (4.74 ± 0.67 Å). These jump lengths do not change much with temperature. On the other hand, after becoming mobile, D<sub>2</sub> exhibits jump lengths that increase with temperature (from 3.6 Å at 16 K to 16.2 Å at 37 K).

In addition to the difference in the shape of the QE scattering patterns, a large difference exists between the temperatures where mobility is first observed: 22-25 K for H<sub>2</sub> and 10-13 K for D<sub>2</sub>. However, on another ultramicroporous porous carbon (UMC) H<sub>2</sub> becomes mobile at a slightly lower temperature (19-22 K), while its diffusion obeys the same Chudley-Elliott mechanism [23]. While the consistency of the CE mechanism for H<sub>2</sub> on different carbons supports our hypothesis of a strongly correlated adsorbed H<sub>2</sub> layer in register with the graphene-like lattice, the variation in the mobility onset temperature for the two isotopes on the same carbon points to another quantum effect. Narrow porosity restricts the mobility of quantized molecules. We calculated the pore size distribution (PSD) from CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption data collected at 273 K using the non-local density functional theory (NLDFT) and the slit-shaped pore model (Quantachrome software). In this model [36], porous carbon is regarded as a collection of independent pores of various widths. At very low temperature, adsorbates populate first the pores with highest adsorption energy. From the cumulative pore surface distribution versus pore width (Fig. 4) we estimate that H<sub>2</sub> (D<sub>2</sub>) with average surface densities of about 35 % of a BET monolayer is located with high probability in the nanopores with 3.5 Å < H<sub>eff</sub> < 5.5 Å. The local adsorbate density in these preferentially occupied pores is much higher than the mean surface coverage based on BET surface area, as theoretically predicted [37] and confirmed experimentally [38]. At room temperatures, these narrow nanopores can accommodate one or two monolayers of adsorbed H<sub>2</sub> or D<sub>2</sub>. However, at very low temperatures, the higher zero-point motion energy in narrow nanopores will create a preference for larger pores, particularly for lighter H<sub>2</sub>.

We hypothesize that, on raising the temperature, molecules become mobile when the effective size of the quantized species becomes smaller than a characteristic size parameter of the adsorbent. The hard-core size of quantized molecules was defined [21] as the C–H<sub>2</sub> separation  $\sigma_0$  where the quartic Feynman-Hibbs (FH) repulsive potential is  $U_{FH}(\sigma_0) = 0$  (see supplementary material). The thermal de Broglie wavelength  $\lambda_B = h/\sqrt{(2\pi\mu k_B T)}$  is a measure of position delocalization. The sum  $\lambda_B + \sigma_0 = \rho$  defines the smallest pore width that allows detectable mobility at the time scale of our measurements based on momentum transfer with imping-

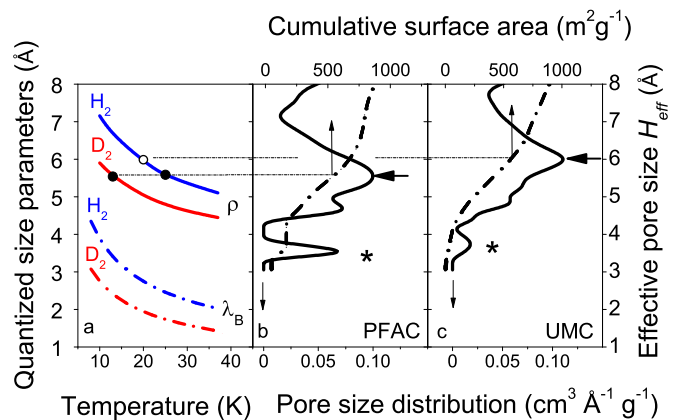


FIG. 4. (Color online.) (a) Temperature variation of de Broglie wavelength ( $\lambda_B$ ) and size parameter ( $\rho$ ) for quantized molecules. Marks show mobility onset temperatures for H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> on PFAC (this work, • and for H<sub>2</sub> on UMC ◦, Ref. [23]). (b) Differential PSD and cumulative surface area distribution versus pore size for PFAC and (c) UMC.

ing neutrons. Thus defined,  $\rho$  is similar with the quantum effective pore size introduced by Liu et al. [39] for quantum sieving on metal-organic frameworks. Figure 4(a) shows the variation of  $\lambda_B$  and  $\rho$  with temperature. Comparison with Fig. 4(b) suggests that the mobility occurs at temperatures where  $\rho$  becomes comparable with the prevailing effective pore width ( $\sim 5.6$  Å) in PFAC. H<sub>2</sub> becomes mobile at a higher temperature than D<sub>2</sub> because of its larger quantum spreading. For additional confirmation we plot in Figure 4(c) the PSD of UMC [40]. The lower mobility onset temperature for UMC correlates with UMC having a slightly larger statistical mode of nanopores width ( $\sim 6$  Å). In line with Kumar and Bhatia [14] it appears that steric hindrance caused by quantum delocalization ( $\lambda_B$ ) and enlarged effective size of quantized molecules ( $\sigma_0$ ) are important enabling factors of D<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub> separation at these low temperatures. The difference between PFAC and UMC porosity is expected to significantly change their respective D<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub> selectivity at higher temperatures (see supplementary information).

In conclusion, high kinetic selectivity for D<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub> quantum sieving was found for PFAC at temperatures between the triple point and the critical point of bulk gases, where D<sub>2</sub> is more mobile than H<sub>2</sub>. In a temperature window of about 10 K the two isotopes exhibit distinct diffusion mechanisms which we explain by different registry of the two isotopes relative to the lattice of adsorption sites caused by the different strength of quantum effects on their intermolecular interactions. We also observed that the thermal de Broglie wavelength of H<sub>2</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> at their respective mobility onset temperatures are identical and correlated with the dominant pore size.

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