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Assessing the versatility of molecular modelling as a strategy for predicting gas adsorption properties of chalcogels

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Abstract

Modelling gas adsorption of porous materials is nowadays an undeniable necessary in order to complement experiment findings with the purpose to enrich our fundamental understanding of adsorption mechanisms as well as develop better performing materials for gas mixture separation. In this contribution, we explore the possibility to use first-principles molecular dynamics (FPMD) and grand canonical Monte Carlo (GCMC) simulations to target the gas adsorption of disordered nanoporous chalcogenides (*i.e.* chalcogels). This computational scheme allows us to take advantage of the ability of FPMD to accurately describe the structure and bonding of the disordered nature of chalcogels as well as the potential of GCMC to model the adsorption mechanisms of porous networks. We assess the versatility of such scheme by evaluating the role of pore size, chemical stoichiometry and composition for multiple chalcogenide-based systems on nitrogen adsorption isotherms.

Keywords: first-principles molecular dynamics, porous materials, chalcogel, gas adsorption, grand canonical Monte Carlo, chalcogenide glasses

1 1. Introduction

The development of porous materials for gas adsorption, separation and purification is central to many energy and 2 environmental applications.[1] A great deal of progress has been made over the last decades in this field and many different porous materials have been studied for gas adsorption including metal-oxides [2, 3, 4, 5], zeolites [6, 7, 8, 9], porous carbon [10, 11, 12, 13], and metal-organic frameworks (MOFs).[14, 15] Keeping into consideration that the 5 ideal sorbent material needs to show enhanced uptake capacity, high selectivity, easy recyclability, as well as very 6 ood structural and chemical stability, the development of porous materials able to satisfy all these requisites still rep-7 resents a challenge. Porous gels [16, 17, 18, 19] and zeolitic chalcogenides [20, 21] have recently attracted increasing attention in the field of gas adsorption because of their high surface area and the soft Lewis base nature of chalcogen 9 elements (S, Se, and Te).[22]. Unlike nanocrystalline chalcogenides, glassy chalcogels feature amorphous networks 10 similar to those of amorphous silica. While their properties depend on the synthesis conditions, most chalcogels ex-11 hibit a high surface area owing to their mesoporous structure (pores from 2 to 50 nm) along with a smaller amount 12 of micropores (< 2 nm) and macropores (> 50 nm).[16, 17, 18, 23, 24, 25] As a result, chalcogels are considered 13 promising alternatives as adsorbent materials for gas transport and separation. However, despite the growing interest

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for this class of porous materials, the study of their adsorption properties is still limited. [26, 27, 28, 29] While ad-15 sorption and transport in porous materials such as zeolites, porous carbon and MOF are relatively well understood, 16 the specific case of chalcogels remains unclear with many questions left unexplained such as the role of the surface 17 chalcogenide chemistry and the specific interactions playing at the gas/solid interface in the confined environment. 18 This arises from a general limitation of the experimental studies of gas adsorption of chalcogels as most methods are 19 unable to detect the features of this buried gas/solid interface. In this respect, molecular modelling has proven to be 20 an efficient technique to investigate the gas adsorption of such porous materials. In few recent works, we resorted 21 on a computational scheme based on first-principles molecular dynamics (FPMD) and grand canonical Monte Carlo 22 simulations (GCMC) to identify the microscopic mechanisms of N2, CO2, H2 and CH4 adsorption in a prototypical 23 chalcogel made of glassy GeS₂ (g-GeS₂ hereafter).[30, 31] With the present contribution we aim to widen this first 24 work and to assess the versatility of such computational scheme to gain insights on the role of pore size, chemical 25 stoichiometry and composition for multiple chalcogenide-based systems on nitrogen adsorption isotherms. Gas ad-26 sorption of simple fluids such as N2 at 77 K is a routine technique which allows characterizing the specific surface, 27 porous volume, and pore size distribution of microporous and mesoporous media. This contribution is organized 28 as follows. In a first section, the main advantages of employing FPMD and GCMC simulations within the field of 29 modelling chalcogels are presented. In a second section, as case studies, the role of pore size, chemical stoichiometry 30 and compositions are analyzed and discussed. We critically assess our results by invoking available experimental data 31 before drawing a final set of conclusions and perspectives. 32

2. Computational methodology

The computational scheme proposed here is based on the employment of FPMD simulations where the electronic structure is described within the framework of the density functional theory (DFT) and it allows to accurately describe the chemistry and bonding of amorphous chalcogenides and GCMC simulations to model the adsorption mechanisms of porous chalcogels. In Figure 1 a schematic cartoon of the four main building blocks of this methodology is presented:

³⁹ 1. Producing of a chalcogenide glass structural model in quantitative agreement with experimental findings;

⁴⁰ 2. Building and refinement of chalcogenide surface models at finite conditions;

3. Modelling gas adsorption mechanisms of chalcogel with defined porosity;

4. Detailed analysis of the gas/solid interface chemistry and computation of other properties.

Three out of the four building blocks resort to FPMD simulations in order to produce realistic and reliable structural models of glassy chalcogenides as well as being able to accurately describe the chemical interactions involved at the gas/solid interface and compute other electronic properties that might be of interest for specifics cases. GCMC

simulations are used to model the gas adsorption and isotherms within the porous chalcogenide network.



Figure 1: Schematic representation of the computational methodology for modelling gas adsorption of chalcogel materials.

47 2.1. First-principles molecular dynamics: quantitative prediction of structure and bonding of bulk disordered chalco 48 genides and their surfaces

In this section we tentatively summarize the reasons of first-principles molecular dynamics (FPMD)[34] combined with density functional theory (DFT) as the computational method of choice for the proper description of the 50 chemistry and structure of disordered chalcogenides. Empirical interatomic potentials, routinely employed in classi-51 cal MD simulations, are found to generally fail in reproducing the correct chemical behavior for systems other than 52 those characterized by chemically ordered topologies (typical of oxide-based materials) as well as the presence of 53 structural defects such as miss-coordinations and homopolar bonding. Thanks to a proper description of the local 54 electronic structure, FPMD allows instead to face the hurdle of describing the complex interplay between differ-55 ent bonding interactions particular of disordered chalcogenide-based materials, whether liquids or glasses (such as 56 ionocovalency[35] and metavalent bonding[36] among others). Typically, glassy phases are created by means of 57 FPMD mimicking the melt-to-quench process used in the laboratory. Although employing a different time scale with 58 respect to the experiments, FPMD simulations allow nowadays to achieve a quantitative structural description of disor-59 dered chalcogenides. This performance, accurately reproducing experimental data, arises from a proper choice of the 60 FPMD computational scheme details such as the type of exchange-correlation (XC) functional, the role of dispersion 61 forces (such as van der Waals (vdW)) and the size and length of the system and simulation trajectory, respectively. For 62 the class of Ge-X based chalcogenide glasses with X being the chalcogen counter-ion (S, Se or Te), the generalized 63 gradient approximation (GGA) scheme together with the XC functional developed by Becke, [37] Yang, and Parr[38] 64

chemical composition	stoichiometry	n. atoms	box size L (Å)	density ρ (atoms Å ⁻³)	reference
$g-Ge_xS_y$	GeS ₄	480	24.845	0.0313	[42]
$g-Ge_xSe_y$	GeSe ₂	480	24.495	0.0327	[43]
-	GeSe ₄	480	24.871	0.0312	[42]
	GeSe ₉	260	19.900	0.0330	[44]
$g-Ge_xTe_y$	GeTe ₄	215	19.234	0.0302	[41]

Table 1: Details of the bulk chalcogenide glasses produced by FPMD and considered in this work.

(BLYP) has been found to offer quantitative description (>96%) for multiple structural properties (such as neutron and 65 X-ray structure factors, total and partial pair correlation functions). This capability arises from the ability of BLYP to 66 enhance the valance electron cloud localization of the local atomic arrangements with respect to other XC (Perdew, 67 Becke and Ernzehof (PBE)[39, 40] for instance).[41] Table I shows the details of the systems considered in the present work and for which a quantitative agreement with experimental data was found over last few years. The specifics of 69 the computational methodology employed for each system can be found in the references reported in Table I. The 70 role of vdW interactions has also be taken into attentive account, especially if the interest is towards the study of the 71 interactions of chalcogenide surfaces with other chemicals (such as gas or organic molecules). Multiple mathematical 72 formalisms are available to describe the vdW interactions based on empirical corrections or on first-principles calcu-73 lations making use of the electronic structure provided by DFT. However, regarding the specific case of disordered 74 chalcogenides, a thoughtful choice has to be undertaken with respect to vdW formalism used depending on the type 75 of system and chalcogen under study.[35, 45, 46] Typically a glass model is obtained by means of FPMD simulations 76 within about $\sim 100-300$ ps of thermal treatment plus few tens of ps of equilibration at the final finite temperature of 77 interest. This time frame is often statistically adequate to obtain a realistic structural model of the chalcogenide glass 78 of interest. Longer equilibration time can be eventually needed for the computation of other properties (electronic, 79 vibrational and thermal). Once the bulk chalcogenide glass model is obtained, the corresponding surface model can 80 be built by opening to a vacuum space the unit cell box along one direction and properly relax its structure at finite 81 temperature. This thermal treatment is needed in order allow surface local atomic rearrangements and structurally 82 relax the atoms at the surface. In so doing, the presence of dangling bonds is reduced to a minimum. Table II shows 83 the local and average coordinations around the atomic species for the surface models of the chalcogenides targeted in 84 this work. The reported values are evaluated by considering the whole systems and have been calculated including 85 neighbors separated by a cutoff corresponding to the first minimum in the partial pair correlation functions. All the 86 systems considered are mainly made of fourfold coordinated Ge and twofold coordinated X atoms. However, these 87 surface models show an increase in Ge and X atoms under- and over-coordinations contents at the expenses of the

		local coordination distribution $(\%)^a$ / charge $q(e)^b$						
species	coordination	g-GeS ₄	g-GeSe ₂	g-GeSe ₄	g-GeSe ₉	g-GeTe ₄		
Ge	II	6.3 / 0.99	6.9 / 0.57	10.4 / 0.76	11.5 / 0.68	_		
	III	11.5 / 1.02	19.4 / 0.62	21.9 / 0.78	15.4 / 0.79	18.6 / 0.58		
	IV	66.7 / 1.09	58.8 / 0.72	56.3 / 0.78	73.1 / 0.94	62.8 / 0.59		
	V	15.6 / 1.01	10.0 / 0.73	9.4 / 0.84	_	14.0 / 0.59		
Х	Ι	8.3 / -0.29	12.5 / -0.30	12.5 / -0.19	7.3 / -0.10	14.5 / -0.13		
	II	91.1 / -0.26	67.8 / -0.34	62.0 / -0.20	88.9 / -0.10	52.9 / -0.14		
	III	0.5 / -0.51	18.4 / -0.38	22.9 / -0.19	3.0 / -0.13	29.1 / -0.17		
\bar{n} / \bar{q}^c	Ge	3.92 / 1.06	3.57 / 0.66	3.58 / 0.77	3.62 / 0.89	3.77 / 0.56		
	Х	1.92 / -0.27	2.03 / -0.34	2.05 / -0.19	1.94 / -0.10	2.08 / -0.14		
	Ge	S		Se		Те		
α (a.u.) ^d	42	19		27		40		
E.N. ^e	2.01	2.5		2.4		2.01		

Table 2: Local atomic coordinations and charges of the glassy chalcogenide surfaces considered in this work. For completeness, polarizability and electronegativity values are also reported.

^{*a*} Atomic coordinations are calculated including neighbors separated by a cutoff corresponding to the first minimum of the corresponding partial pair correlation functions. ^{*b*} The atomic charges q are calculated by using the Qeq method developed by Rappé and Goddard et al. [47]. ^{*c*} Polarizability values are obtained from [48]. ^{*d*} Electronegativity values are obtained from [49].

fourfold and twofold coordinations with respect to the bulk counterparts. These results show that the surface mod-89 els show a slightly lower chemical order than the bulk counterparts. It is important to highlight that the decrease of 90 the chemical order degree characterizes the external layers of the surface models (about ~7-8 Å from the surface), 91 whereas in the inner-region the atom species keeps and/or recover coordination distributions typical of bulk models. 92 As an example, the inner-region region of g-GeSe₂ surface model shows a \sim 73% of Ge atoms fourfold coordinated 93 and \sim 86% of Se atoms twofold coordinated, which is inline with the contents found in the parent bulk model (\sim 76% 94 and ~93%, respectively). Regarding the analysis of chemical bonding, both the electron localization function (ELF) 95 and the maximally localized Wannier functions (MLWF) schemes are nowadays two widely used methodologies to 96 study the valence electron (de)localization and structure and infer on the type of chemical interactions involved in 97 amorphous chalcogenides. As an archetypal example, herein we report the typical information that can be extracted 98 resorting to the MLWF formalism, based on the notion of Wannier functions, the MLWF centers (WFCs) and their 99 spread. This scheme allows to seek further insight into the interplay between atomic structure and electronic proper-100 ties with respect to the standard information based on the electronic density of states. Recently, we have employed 101 these quantities to rationalize the extent of covalent vs ionic nature of bonding for g-GeS₄, g-GeSe₄ and g-GeTe₄. This 102 has ben achieved by relying on the correspondence between the distances identified in the atom-WFCs pair correla-103 tion functions $(g_{\alpha\beta}(r))$, with $\alpha = X$ and $\beta = WFCs$). The data $(g_{XW}(r))$ and WFCs spread) considered in the following 104 discussion can found be found in ref. [41] and [42]. In particular, three types of WFCs can be distinguished in this 105 series of binary glassy chalcogenides. The first type, labeled W_b , represents a clear fingerprint of Ge-X heteropolar 106

bonding and it is identified as the $g_{XW}(r)$ second peak found at about ~0.9 Å, ~1 Å and ~1.25 Å for g-GeS₄, g-GeSe₄ 107 and g-GeTe₄, respectively. The second type, labeled W_h, refers to homopolar X-X bonding and it corresponds to the 108 typical $g_{XW}(r \text{ third peak: } W_h \text{ is found at about } \sim 1.02 \text{ Å}, \sim 1.18 \text{ Å and } \sim 1.4 \text{ Å for } g \text{-} \text{GeS}_4, g \text{-} \text{GeS}_4 \text{ and } g \text{-} \text{GeTe}_4,$ 109 respectively. The third type, labeled W_{lp}, refers to lone pair valence electrons not participating directly to chemical 110 bonds but remaining localized in the proximity of the X atoms. Given the above definitions, the locations of the W_b 11 centers with respect to the X atoms can be used to compare the covalency vs ionicity degree of bonding that character-112 izes these glasses. The relative position of the $g_{XW}(r)$ second peak and the closer location to its origin allow to quantify 113 the greater ionic character of the Ge-X covalent bonds along the serie: g-GeS₄ > g-GeSe₄ > g-GeTe₄. This stems 114 from the fact that the centers of valence electronic localization (related to heterogeneous bonding) are systematically 115 closer to the S sites with respect to Ge sites than to the Se and Te sites, respectively. Furthermore, the inspection of 116 the electronic (de)localization degree (spread, ω) of the WFCs with respect to the X-WFCs distance allows to further 117 quantify the degree of polarity of the G-X bonding, which results following the serie Ge-S (higher polarity) > Ge-Se 118 Ge-Te (lower polarity). These conclusions are found in sound agreement with the expected trends on the basis 119 >of Pauling electronegativity scale and polarizability values (see Table II).[49, 48] In particular, the ω values and the 120 extension of its distribution with respect to X-WFCs distances allow to infer about the more softer (more polarizable, 121 i.e. higher polarizability) nature of Te atoms with respect to S and Se atoms. 122

Once the surface model of the amorphous chalcogenide system of interest is produced by means of FPMD simu-123 lations, its optimized structure can be used to build a slit-like pore by introducing a proper vacuum space with respect 124 to the pore width of interest. However, before switching to GCMC simulations for the study of gas adsorption and 125 isotherms, a suitable set of atomic charges have to be assigned to the atoms of the host porous network. This step, 126 together with the refinement of the chalcogenide glass ' structure, represent the main challenge of the proposed com-127 putational procedure. Indeed, classical potentials are often unable to describe deviations from chemically ordered 128 topologies occurring, for a given stoichiometry, in specific network structures (as glassy chalcogenides) made of in-129 terconnected tetrahedra. In the present work, we tentatively propose a set of atomic partial charges dependent on the 130 local coordination. This approach is based on the exploitation of the charge equilibration method developed by Rappé 131 and Goddard. This method is derived from atomic ionization energies and electron affinity values in order to compute 132 partial atomic charges of the atoms with respect to covalent radii. Thanks to the fact that the charge on each atom is 133 distributed over a Slater orbital having the size of the atom, the advantage of the Qeq method is to predict charges as a 134 function of the local coordination environment. [47] This charge assignment results particularly suitable for the present 135 case since it is shown to provide a physical picture of the glassy chalcogenide surfaces by describing the charge dis-136 tribution as a function of the chemical order. The chemical order for gassy chalcogenides is not only sensitive to the 137

composition but it can substantially differ from the perfect chemical order found in the crystalline parent phases. For 138 instance, in the case of glassy g-GeSe₂, we recall the perfect chemical order corresponds to the absence of any under-139 or over-coordinated Ge or Se atoms. To be noted that the trend of partial charges obtained with the Qeq method are 140 found to be in agreement with those obtained with the EQeq method[50] as well as with the Bader method[51, 52] 141 on the basis of charge densities computed by FPMD-DFT data. Whereas the Lowdin, [53] Mulliken, [54] and the 142 electrostatic potential-based (ESP)[55] methods lead to a nonzero net charge or to charges nearly insensitive to the 143 coordination number.[30] The Qeq (EQeq) and Bader methods capture the effect of local coordination on the partial 144 charges in chalcogenide materials. These methods provide reasonable partial charges for both the Ge and X atoms 145 as their absolute charge increases with the coordination. However, the absolute charge values obtained by the Bader 146 method are too large to be employed in classical simulations, conferring to the Ge and X atoms a nearly pure ionic 147 character.Oril The charge-coordination correlation found in the Qeq(EQeq) method seems more appropriate to be 148 employed for classical simulations such as GCMC or classical MD, presuming the potential parameters are consis-149 tent. Table I shows the atomic partial charges obtained by means of Qeq method for the g-GeS₄, g-GeS₄, g-GeS₄, and g-GeTe₄ 150 systems as well as g-GeSe₂ and g-GeSe₉. With this methods over-coordinated Ge (X) atoms possess a large positive 151 (negative) charge with respect to that corresponding to stoichiometric coordination. This is directly related to their 152 higher valence state which, in a formalism purely based on formal ionic charges [cations (Ge) and anions (X)], result 153 in an increased charge localization. Likewise, the absolute charge value decreases descending along the element of 154 the VI group of the periodic table for the counter-ion X ($q_S > q_{Se} > q_{Te}$). Along the Ge-Se serie, the absolute charge 155 value for Ge sites increases with the Se:Ge ratio and it is counterbalanced by a decrease of the charge value of Se 156 sties. Such method seems to be the best suited technique to describe changes in the valence (charge) state for different 157 coordinations (e.g. structural order) as well as different chemical compositions and stoichiometry. However, it has to 158 be underlined that it has not been demonstrated whether Qeq is as accurate as DFT-based methods reproducing QM 159 energies nor that the predicted changes in polarization during dynamics agree with QM. Moreover, problem using 160 this method could occur when high temperatures come into play or when extreme compositions are studied. With all 161 these cautions in mind, the charges determined by Qeq method, in the presence of rationally physical situations, are 162 reasonable and can be used to calculate the Coulomb interaction between atoms in (semi)empirical approaches. 163

164 2.2. Grand canonical Monte Carlo simulations: quantitative prediction of gas adsorption isotherms

Once a proper model of chalcogel pore is optimized by means of FPMD simulations, its structural model (i.e. atoms coordinates) and the corresponding charge atomic charge distribution (coordination dependent) can be employed to perform GCMC simulations in order to model the gas adsorption isotherm. The GCMC technique is a stochastic method applicable to a system having a constant volume V (the pore with the adsorbed phase) in equilib-

rium with an infinite reservoir of molecules imposing a chemical potential μ for each species (N₂) and temperature 169 T. The absolute adsorption isotherm is given by the ensemble average of each number of adsorbate molecule as a 170 function of the fugacity f_{N_2} of the reservoir (the latter is determined from the chemical potential μ_{N_2} . For the adsor-171 bate, given the fugacities and temperatures considered in this work, the gas pressure P is assumed to be equal to the 172 fugacity f_{N_2} (i.e. ideal gas assumption). We performed GCMC simulations of N₂ adsorption at T = 77 K for chalcogel 173 pores made of: g-GeS₄, g-GeSe₄ and g-GeTe₄ as well as g-GeSe₂ and g-GeSe₉. We model the N₂ adsorption isotherm 174 between the 0.0 and the N_2 saturation pressure P_0 . Nitrogen adsorption at low temperature is a routine laboratory 175 characterization technique of porous materials. For instance, the specific surface area of porous materials is usu-176 ally assessed from adsorption experiments. Nitrogen was described using the model of Potoff and Siepmann (Trappe 177 forcefield).[56] In this model, each N atom of the rigid N₂ molecule is a center of repulsion and dispersion interactions 178 via Lennar-Jones potential. In addition, each N atom bears a partial charge with $q_N = -0.482e$, charges interacting 179 through Coulombic forces. At the center of the N-N bond a partial charge q = +0.964e compensates the negative 180 charge on the N atoms. Such charge distribution mimics the measured quadrupole moment of the N₂ molecule. All 181 the interactions between the atoms of the N2 molecules and the Ge and X atoms of the chalcogels were calculated by 182 considering the intermolecular energy $U_{ij}(r)$ between two sites (i and j) as the sum of a Coulombic contribution and a 183 pairwise-additive Lennard-Jones (LJ) 12-6 potential. In our simulations, the LJ cross interaction parameters (σ_{ij} , ϵ_{ij}) 184 between unlike sites are calculated using the Lorentz-Berthelot mixing rules. The LJ parameters $(\sigma_{ij}, \epsilon_{ij})$ for the Ge 185 and X of the chalcogels were taken from Ref. [57]. The dispersive interactions were neglected beyond a cutoff of 10Å. 186 The electrostatic interactions were computed using the Ewald summation technique (the parameters were chosen so 187 that the relative accuracy in the Coulomb energy calculation is 10^{-5}). More details about the GCMC procedure and 188 potential parameters employed in this study can be found in ref. [30]. 189

¹⁹⁰ 2.3. Detailed analysis of the gas/solid interface chemistry and computation of other properties.

In order to refine the output configurations of the GCMC calculations of the systems made of N_2 adsorbed in the 191 chalcogels' pores, FPMD simulations can be employed with the purpose to further optimize the systems structure 192 and chemistry as well as compute other properties of interest. As an example, once the new chalcogels systems 193 are obtained containing different contents of gas molecules, MLWFs can be further computed to investigate into the 194 details the interactions involved between the gas molecules and the solid glassy surfaces. Furthermore, MLWFs can be 195 also employed to compute molecular dipoles to measure the induced polarization due to the interaction with the glassy 196 solid surface. This exploitation of MLWFs allows to obtain a deeper insight into the interactions between the adsorbed 197 gas molecules and the chalcogenide surfaces. Even for the case of apolar gas molecules for which the dipole moment 198 averaged over time is expected to be zero, the instantaneous molecular distortions can result in non-zero instantaneous 199

dipole moments (μ) and, in this respect, this analysis gives access to the local molecular polarization induced by the 200 solid surface. Recently, we investigated the case of CO₂ molecules adsorbed in a g-GeS₂ chalcogel slit-like pore.[58] 201 In this case, for the system made of a monolayer of CO₂ molecules physisorbed on a g-GeS₂ surface, the magnitude 202 of the induced μ_{CO_2} is found to be strongly dependent on the distance from the g-GeS₂ surface. Close to the solid 203 surface, the CO₂ molecules show a large μ_{CO_2} of about ~0.51 D, while departing from the surface μ_{CO_2} reaches values 204 close to those expected for the CO_2 in the gas phase (~0.1 D). The large variation of the dipole moments for the CO_2 205 molecules in contact with the solid surface can be explained by the high polarizability of both Ge and S atoms of the 206 g-GeS₂ surface. CO₂ molecules departing from the surface towards the empty space in the center of the pore restore 207 almost completely the μ_{CO_2} value typical of CO₂ molecules in the gas phase. Similarly, Karseemeijer *et al.* [60] and 208 Sun et al. [61] found values of μ_{CO_2} of about ~0.5 D for CO₂ molecules adsorbed on top of solid water. Interestingly, 209 our calculated dipole moments values are similar to those of induced μ_{CO_2} found for CO₂ molecules adsorbed in a 210 hydrated Ca-exchanged Montorillonite (in the range ~0.4-1.0 D).[62] While the oxygen dipole moment coming from 211 the electronic polarization in glassy silica was found weakly dependent from the local melt composition.[63] 212

213 2.4. Models and methods details relevant to this work

The bulk structural models of the chalcogenide glasses studied in this work were obtained by means of FPMD 214 simulations following the typical melt-quenching technique. The details about the chalcogenide systems considered 215 here are reported in Table I. The electronic structure was described within DFT by using as generalized gradient 216 approximation (GGA) the Becke, Lee, Yang, and Parr (BLYP) exchange-correlation functional [37, 38] The BLYP 217 functional was combined with the empirical Grimme dispersion correction for van der Waals (vdW) interactions.[59] 218 This theoretical scheme has been successfully validated on a wide range of glassy chalcogenides. More specifics 219 about the methodology used to obtain the different chalcogenide glasses can be found in the references reported in 220 Table I. The surfaces models were initially built from the parent bulk models by removing the periodic boundary 221 conditions along the z direction. By inserting the slab having a thickness Δ_z in a simulation box of a size h_z , one 222 defines a slit pore of width $H = h_z - \Delta_z$ via the use of periodic boundary conditions. More precisely, we took the pore 223 width (H) as the distance between the mean positions of the chalcogen and Ge atoms on the two opposite surfaces. 224 We prepared systems with H in between 2 to 4 in order to obtain Ge_xCh_y (with Ch:S,Se,Te) slit-like nanopores with 225 different widths. A selection of the output configurations obtained from the GCMC simulations were further refined 226 by means of FPMD simulations with applying a friction force on the atom dynamics (ion velocities scaled by a factor 227 0.95 at each step) in order to optimize the systems at T = 0 K. The surface models were then equilibrated by FPMD 228 at finite temperature and volume. The above calculations on clusters were performed with the CPMD code. 229



Figure 2: Left: N₂ adsorption isotherms at 77 K for porous *g*-GeSe₄ with slit-like pores of width *H* (indicated next to each adsorption isotherm). Adsorbed amounts are in μ mol/m². For the sake of clarity, adsorption isotherms have been shifted up. Pressures are in relative units with respect to the bulk saturating pressure *P*₀ for N₂ at 77 K. Right: Typical molecular configurations for N₂ adsorbed in *g*-GeSe₄ pore with *H* = 3.6 4: (from left to right) *P*/*P*₀ = 0.01, *P*/*P*₀ = 0.80, and *P*/*P*₀ = 0.99. The ochre and cyan spheres are the Ge and Se atoms of the chalcogenide surfaces, respectively. The blue spheres are the atoms of the N₂ molecules.

230 3. Case studies

231 3.1. Pore size effect

Figure 2 shows the N₂ adsorption isotherm for g-GeSe₄ nanopores with H = 2, 3 and 4 nm computed at 77 K. The 232 data obtained for the three pores confirm the typical behavior observed in the experiments of adsorption/condensation 233 in solid nanopores. At low pressures, the adsorbed amount increases in a continuous fashion upon increasing the 234 pressure with the N_2 forming an adsorbed film at the g-GeSe₄ pore surface. Beyond adsorption of the first layer, the 235 slope of the adsorption isotherm decreases once the pore gets filled along the multilayer adsorption regime. Then, at 236 pressure lower than the bulk saturating vapor pressure P_0 , capillary condensation occurs. As expected on the basis 23 а of capillary condensation theories such as Derjaguin and Derjaguin-Broekhoff-De Boer model, [3, 5] the capillary 238 condensation pressure increases with increasing the pore width H: the condensation pressures for the nanopores with 239 $H = 2, 3, \text{ and } 4 \text{ nm are } \sim 0.10 P/P_0, \sim 0.59 P/P_0, \text{ and } \sim 0.89 P/P_0, \text{ respectively. Figure 2 also shows typical molecular$ configurations of N₂ molecules adsorbed at different relative pressures upon adsorption in the nanopore with H = 4241 nm. Regardless of the pore width, the surface of g-GeSe₄ nanopores is covered with a homogeneous film at the onset 242 of capillary condensation. A discontinuous transition (i.e., capillary condensation) between the partially filled and 243 completely filled configurations occurs when the adsorbed film becomes unstable, in line the results found for g-GeS₂ 244 and typical experimental data.[31] Note that for a proper quantitative comparison with experimental data this has to be 245 normalized to the corrected Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) [32] surface area. Generally, it is appropriate to correct 246 the BET surface to account for the overestimate of the true geometrical surface areas by about 25-30%.[4, 33] 247

248 3.2. Chemical stoichiometry - Se:Ge ratio effect

Figure 3 shows the N₂ adsorption isotherm for nanopores with H = 2 nm computed at 77 K for Ge_xSe_y chalcogels 249 with different Se:Ge ratio $\phi_{Se/Ge}$: 2, 4 and 9 for g-GeSe₂, g-GeSe₄, and g-GeSe₉ respectively. The N₂ adsorbed amount 250 is normalized with respect to the pore surface area in order to take into account the different size of the simulated 251 system (see Table I for details). We recall that the pore surface areas considered in this work allows to rule out any 252 possible size effect, in accordance with the previous results obtained for the g-GeS₂ system. [31, 58] The data obtained 253 for the three systems show a similar trend that follows the typical behavior observed for adsorption/condensation 254 experiments in solid nanopores as discussed in the previous section. The onset of capillary condensation within 255 the pore occurs at similar relative pressure for systems with $\phi_{Se/Ge} = 2$ and 4 ($P/P_0 \sim 0.1$) whereas for the $\phi_{Se/Ge} =$ 256 9 system it occurs at larger relative pressure ($P/P_0 \sim 0.2$). Figure 3 (inset) shows the comparison between the N₂ 257 adsorption isotherms in the range $0.0 < P/P_0 < 0.25$ for the three systems. The non-negligible difference found 258 corresponds to a lower adsorbed amount of N₂ at low pressure (< $0.15 P/P_0$) for the g-GeSe₉ system with respect to 259 g-GeSe₂ (~ -11% and ~ -9% at P/P_0 ~0.01 and P/P_0 ~0.1 respectively). This result suggests a weaker interaction 260 between N₂ molecules and the Se atoms of the chalcogel surface with respect to the interaction between N₂ molecules 26 and the Ge atoms. The stronger interaction between N₂ and chalcogels with lower $\phi_{Se/Ge}$ arises from the interplay 262 between the electronegativity and electropositive charge of Ge atoms and its larger polarizability with respect to Se 263 $(\alpha_{Ge} \sim 42 vs \alpha_{Se} \sim 27)$.[48]. The specific gas interactions with these surfaces is a key factor determining the behavior 264 of gas mixtures through porous structures. Our data is found in fair agreement with the experimental behavior for 265 adsorption/condensation obtained by Armatas et al.[18] for $Ge_x Se_y$ chalcogels, where a system with a greater Se:Ge 266 ratio is found to promote lower N₂ adsorption at the same relative pressure ($\phi_{Se/Ge} \sim 0.44$ vs $\phi_{Se/Ge} \sim 0.21$). 267

268 3.3. Chemical composition - chalcogen effect

Figure 4 shows the N₂ adsorption isotherm for nanopores with H = 3 nm computed at 77 K for chalcogels made 269 of different chalcogen counter-ions: g-GeS₄, g-GeS₄, and g-GeTe₄. The data obtained for the three systems show a 270 similar trend that follows the typical behavior observed for adsorption/condensation experiments in solid nanopores 271 as discussed in the previous section. The onset of capillary condensation within the pore occurs at similar relative 272 pressure for the sulfide and selenide systems ($P/P_0 \sim 0.6$) whereas for the telluride system it occurs at larger relative 273 pressure ($P/P_0 \sim 0.8$). Figure 3 (right panel) shows the comparison between the N₂ adsorption isotherms in the range 274 $0.0 < P/P_0 < 0.25$ for the three systems. At a given relative pressure, the amount of N₂ adsorbed on the chalcogel 275 surface is found to be strongly related to the nature of the chalcogen counter-ion and following the series g-GeS₄ > 276 g-GeSe₄ > g-GeTe₄. For example, at relative pressure of $P/P_0 \sim 0.3$, g-GeSe₄ and g-GeTe₄ show a lower adsorbed of 277



Figure 3: N₂ adsorption isotherms at 77 K for slit-like pores with H = 2 nm made of Ge_xSe_y chalcogels with different Se:Ge ratio $\phi_{Se/Ge} = 2, 4$ and 9 for *g*-GeSe₂, *g*-GeSe₄, and *g*-GeSe₉ respectively. For the sake of clarity, adsorption isotherms have been shifted up. Insets: zoom-in within the same μ mol_{N2}/m² scale at the low relative pressure P/P_0 range (0.0 < P/P_0 < 0.25).

 N_2 with respect to *g*-GeS₄ (-5.9% and -19.4%, respectively). This behavior can be ascribed to the interplay between the electronegativity, charge and polarizability of the chalcogels constituents elements. It remains to be investigated if the interactions of different gases (such as CO₂, CH₄, and H₂) with these porous glassy chalcogenides would follow the same trend.

282 4. Conclusions and perspectives

Realistic models of porous glassy chalcogenides were used to probe the viability of such a class of materials for 283 adsorption applications. Using atomic-scale simulation based on first-principles molecular dynamics and grand canon-284 ical Monte Carlo simulations, we gained insights into the adsorption mechanisms for N_2 molecules. Both the effects of 285 pore size and chalcogenide chemistry (composition and stoichiometry) were investigated in order to gain fundamen-286 tal understanding on the chalcogels gas adsorption properties and assess the versatility of computational modelling 287 approach proposed. Our results are found to be in good agreement with available experimental data, confirming the 288 ability of our methodology to produce realistic chalcogel models and predict their N2 gas adsorption performance. 289 Owing to their high polarizability, the isosteric heats of adsorption show that chalcogenide surfaces have a stronger 290 interaction with CO_2 than with CH_4 or H_2 . As a result, large selectivities were observed towards CO_2 pointing to such 291 materials as potential adsorbents for gas separation, such as land-gas separation or CO_2 capture/sequestration. We also 292 showed that selectivities can be accurately described using the ideal adsorbed solution theory (IAST) which predicts 293 coadsorption isotherms based on pure component adsorption isotherms. Such a reliable theory allows avoiding to 294



Figure 4: Left: N₂ adsorption isotherms at 77 K for slit-like pores with H = 3 nm made of chalcogels based on different chalcogen element: g-GeS₄, g-GeSe₄, and g-GeTe₄ respectively. For the sake of clarity, adsorption isotherms have been shifted up. Right: zoom-in within the same μ mol_{N2}/m² scale at the low relative pressure P/P_0 range (0.0 < $P/P_0 < 0.25$).

measure coadsorption isotherms thereby considerably decreasing the cost and time needed to design efficient adsorbents based on porous chalcogenides. The present work shows that glassy porous chalcogenides are a valuable class of materials for gas adsorption. While further work is needed to clarify gas adsorption for different gas probes, these results shed light on the adsorption mechanisms for porous chalcogenides. Such an approach can be used for *a priori* evaluation of their gas adosorption performances and pave the way for the design of chalcogenide-based adsorbents towards specific applications.

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