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¹ Dynamic Adsorption of CO₂ by CHA Zeolites –

2 Size Matters

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10

11 ABSTRACT The performance of K-CHA nanozeolite composed of discrete nanoparticles 12 prepared by an organic template-free direct synthesis is compared to that of conventional 13 micron-sized K-CHA with an order of magnitude difference in particle size and identical chemical composition (Si/Al ratio and cations) for the separation of dilute CO₂ from N₂. 14 Breakthrough curve analysis of the zeolites meshed to identical sizes demonstrates the 15 16 superior performance of nanozeolites for gas separation due to the significantly faster diffusion of CO₂ molecules through the bed composed of meshed nanozeolite particles 17 18 evidenced by the enhanced mass transfer, more rapid establishment of equilibrium, and faster 19 desorption of CO₂. Modelling of the CO₂ breakthrough curves indicates enhanced mass 20 transfer properties of the CHA nanozeolite due to the higher linear driving force parameter 21 values. Variation of the modelling parameters and back-calculation of the diffusion 22 coefficients indicates that axial diffusion contributes significantly to the mass transfer behaviour yet also reveals significantly lower micropore diffusion resistance for the nano-23 24 sized K-CHA. These results demonstrate for rapid kinetically controlled sorption-based

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- 25 separations, that by reducing the size of the discrete crystallites of the meshed adsorbent
- 26 particle by an order of magnitude, significant improvements in the utilization of the bed can
- 27 be achieved due to the shortening of the mass-transfer zone, improving the separation
- 28 performance.
- 29 Keywords: zeolites, crystal size, CO₂ adsorption, separation, breakthrough analysis

30 Nomenclature

Cin	concentration at column inlet, mol·m ⁻³
Cout	concentration at column outlet, mol·m ⁻³
$C_{g,i}$	component concentration in the gas phase, mol·kg ⁻¹
C_{pg}	specific heat capacity of gas at constant pressure. $J \cdot kg^{-1} \cdot K^{-1}$
c_{ps}	specific heat capacity of adsorbent at constant pressure, $J \cdot kg^{-1} \cdot K^{-1}$ specific heat capacity of wall at constant pressure, $J \cdot kg^{-1} \cdot K^{-1}$ axial mass dispersion coefficient, $m^2 \cdot s^{-1}$
c_{pw}	specific heat capacity of wall at constant pressure, J·kg ⁻¹ ·K ⁻¹
D_{ax}	axial mass dispersion coefficient, $m^2 \cdot s^{-1}$
	micropore diffusivity, $m^2 \cdot s^{-1}$
D_p	macropore diffusivity, m ² ·s ⁻¹
d_i	internal diameter of column, m
K	dimensionless Henry's Law equilibrium constant
$\begin{array}{c c} D_{c} \\ \hline D_{p} \\ \hline d_{i} \\ \hline K \\ \hline K_{i} \\ \hline K_{i,0} \\ \hline k_{f} \\ \hline k_{i} \end{array}$	affinity constant
K _{i,0}	affinity constant at reference temperature
k _f	film mass transfer coefficient, s ⁻¹
<i>k</i> _i	overall mass transfer coefficient, s ⁻¹
<i>k</i> _{in}	heat transfer coefficient between the bed and wall, $W \cdot m^{-2} \cdot K^{-1}$
kout	heat transfer coefficient between the wall and bath, $W \cdot m^{-2} \cdot K^{-1}$
<i>k</i> _{LDF}	effective mass transfer coefficient, s ⁻¹
nadsorbed	amount of molecules adsorbed, mol
q_{eq}	adsorbed concentration in equilibrium with $c_{g,i}$, mol·kg ⁻¹
\overline{q}_{ι}	component average concentration on the adsorbed phase, mol·kg ⁻¹
$q_{max,i}$	maximal loading, mol·kg ⁻¹
$q_{max0,i}$	maximal loading at reference temperature T_0 , mol·kg ⁻¹
R	ideal gas constant, J·mol ⁻¹ ·K ⁻¹
r_c	average crystal radius, m
r_p T	average particle radius, m
	bulk phase temperature, K
T_0	reference temperature for isotherm fitting
T_w	wall temperature, K
T _{env}	environmental temperature (reference temperature), K
t	Toth heterogeneity parameter
t_0	heterogeneity parameter at reference temperature T_0
и	interstitial velocity, $\mathbf{m} \cdot \mathbf{s}^{-1}$
V _{He}	volume of He, m ⁻³

V_{in}	volume at column inlet, m ⁻³			
Vout	volume at column outlet, m ⁻³			
WS	wall thickness, m			
Yadsorptive,i	adsorptive volume fraction			
ΔH_{ads}	isosteric enthalpy of adsorption, J·mol ⁻¹			
ΔH_i	isosteric enthalpy of adsorption for component <i>i</i> , $J \cdot mol^{-1}$			
α	parameter for the temperature dependency of the Toth exponent			
3	bed porosity			
ε _p	particle porosity			
λ	axial heat dispersion coefficient, $J \cdot s^{-1} \cdot m^{-1} \cdot K^{-1}$			
ρ _p	average particle density, kg·m ⁻³			
ρ_b	average fixed bed density, kg·m ⁻³			
ρ _g	fluid density, kg·m ⁻³			
$\rho_{\rm w}$	wall density, kg·m ⁻³			
χί	coefficient for the temperature dependency of the maximum			
	capacity			

31

32 Introduction

33 The bulk separation and purification of gases are essential industrial processes in which zeolites play key roles in a range of applications including gas drying, S removal, O₂ and N₂ 34 35 production, landfill gas separation (CO₂/CH₄), and H₂ production from methane reforming 36 and refinery off-gas.[1] In the last decade enormous efforts have been dedicated to 37 developing materials for carbon capture and storage (CCS) because of the rising atmospheric 38 concentration of CO₂ and its contribution to anthropogenic global climate change.[2-22] 39 However, due to the presence of H₂O in industrial streams, such as flue gas, the energy and 40 cost efficient separation of CO₂ is considerably challenging. The high cationic content of 41 industrial molecular sieves, such as 4A, 5A and 13X, and their strong interaction with H₂O 42 demands appropriate regeneration to maintain their longevity. Employment of activated 43 alumina upstream of the molecular sieve can be also increase their lifetime considerably, but 44 at additional capital cost.[23] While solvent-based absorption processes are currently the 45 most widely applied for post-combustion CO₂ capture, these can be associated with large 46 energy requirements for regeneration, degradation issues with temperature and the presence

47 of oxygen and toxicity.[24-26] With these points in mind, alternatives to the use of amines 48 solvents such as green solvents, membranes and adsorption-based separations are 49 investigated, with the latter of interest to the current study. Pressure swing adsorption (PSA) 50 and temperature swing adsorption (TSA) are the processes often used for gas separation. 51 Whilst PSA processes can be quite rapid (steps can occur in seconds), currently mature TSA 52 process cycles can be quite long (hours). Whilst TSA may be quite adapted to anthropogenic 53 CO₂ capture, shorter process sequences are required. A rapid TSA process is currently being 54 developed, [27] where the whole capture, regeneration and conditioning steps can take a 55 minute. In such cases however, kinetics of the gas/solid interactions are as important as the 56 thermodynamics and to control the gas diffusion at the particle level can prove critical to 57 separation properties.

58 The development of zeolite materials possessing high CO₂ separation performance has been a 59 focal point because of the established roles zeolites play in petrochemistry and air separation 60 processes thereby providing a rapidly deployable solution at an industrial scale. [23, 28] 61 However, conventional zeolites are composed of micrometre sized particles which means a 62 CO₂ molecule must diffuse a distance through the pores of a particle tens of thousands of 63 times longer than its size. This problem can be partly addressed by improving molecular 64 access to the zeolite micropores through introducing mesoporosity, or by reducing the 65 particle size.[29, 30] However, while creating mesoporosity can significantly improve the 66 diffusion and catalytic properties of zeolites, it typically involves either post-synthesis 67 treatments or the use of expensive organic templates and structure directing agents, 68 increasing the time, cost and waste of the material production.[31]

By preparing zeolites with nanoscale dimensions the distance guest molecules must diffuse through the particle can be reduced by an order of magnitude. To benefit from this we have developed pure inorganic one-pot syntheses of industrially important nanozeolites composed 72 of discrete nanoparticles.[32-38] While the yield of particular nanozeolite syntheses warrants 73 further optimisation, the elimination of expensive organic structure-directing agents (OSDAs) 74 and calcination treatments offers a reduction in energy consumption and emissions while also 75 avoiding undesirable changes to the zeolite structure and properties caused by H₂O vapour 76 during calcination. Here we report on the comparison of K-CHA zeolites for the separation of 77 CO_2 from a dilute stream at various temperatures, investigating the difference in performance 78 by varying only the size of the discrete zeolite particles forming the meshed particles by an 79 order of magnitude; the size of the meshed particles for both samples is identical. We provide 80 direct experimental evidence and validation of the enhanced diffusion properties of adsorbent 81 particles composed of discrete nano-sized zeolites applicable to industrially relevant 82 separations. The concentration of CO_2 employed (5 vol%) is comparable to that of the 83 exhaust of a natural gas combined-cycle plant.[39] The choice of examining high aluminium 84 (Si/Al < 3) K-CHA zeolite derives from their attractive properties for CO₂ separation applications, *i.e.*, high CO₂ capacity, and selectivity towards CO₂ over N₂ (4 mmol/g, 27 with 85 86 Si/Al = 2.4 and 2.1 mmol/g, 80 with Si/Al = 1.2).[6, 40, 41]

87 Experimental

88 Materials

All reagents were used as received unless otherwise specified. Potassium hydroxide (90 wt%), LUDOX AS-40, sodium aluminate (NaAlO₂, 40–45% Na₂O, 50–56% Al₂O₃) and sodium hydroxide pellets (98 wt%) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. An aqueous solution of caesium hydroxide (CsOH, 50 wt% Cs) was prepared by dissolving caesium hydroxide (Alfa Aesar 20% H₂O, 98%) in ultrapure (Type 1) water. Zeolite Y (H-form, CBV400), was purchased from Zeolyst. Ultrapure water was prepared by a Milli-Q Direct 8 system and used for all syntheses. Quartz fine granular washed and calcined (900 °C, 0.2–0.8 96 mm, Merck) was used for blank breakthrough curve measurements. Helium (helium 4.5, \geq 97 99.995%), carbon dioxide (dioxyde de carbone 4.5, \geq 99.995%) and nitrogen (azote 5.0, \geq 98 99.999%) were purchased from Linde.

99 Synthesis

100 Micron-sized K-CHA was prepared according to the procedure employed by Shang *et al.*[40] 101 Zeolite Y powder (CBV400, 25 g) was added to de-ionised water (198 mL) and 9.5 M KOH 102 solution (27 mL) in a sealed 250 mL polypropylene bottle. The mixture was shaken for 30 s 103 and then placed in an oven preheated at 95 °C for 15 days. The sample was then cooled to 104 room temperature and washed with de-ionised water by centrifugation at 20,000 rpm until the supernatant had a pH value between 7 and 8. The washed sample was then oven-dried at 60 105 106 °C overnight. The yield of the micron-sized K-CHA based on the initial mass of CBV400 107 was 37%.

108 Nano-sized K-CHA was prepared according to a procedure described previously.[42] 10.8 g 109 of NaAlO₂ was mixed with 84.0 g of water with rapid stirring. Afterwards, 34.3 g of NaOH, 110 16.5 g of KOH, and 8.8 g of CsOH (50 wt% Cs in water) were added and stirred for 2 h to 111 obtain a clear solution. 200 g of LUDOX AS-40 was added dropwise under vigorous stirring 112 to make a final composition of 0.284 Cs₂O: 2.27 K₂O: 8.56 Na₂O: 22.9 SiO₂: 1.00 Al₂O₃: 198 113 H₂O. The alkali colloidal gel was then aged under vigorous stirring at room temperature for 17 days followed by hydrothermal treatment in a static oven at 90 °C for 7 h. The CHA 114 115 nanocrystals were recovered by centrifugation and washed with hot water (90 °C) until a neutral pH (7-8) of the decanted solution was achieved. The recovered CHA nanocrystals 116 117 were dried in an oven at 60 °C overnight. The final as-prepared CHA nanocrystals were ion exchanged with a 1 M KCl solution with a liquid/solid ratio (ml/g) of 40 for 2 hours. 118 119 Afterwards, the CHA nanocrystals were recovered by centrifugation and washed with

120 deionised water three times. This procedure was repeated three times, and the recovered 121 nano-sized K-CHA was dried in an oven at 60 °C overnight. The yield of the nano-sized K-

122 CHA based on the initial combined mass of SiO_2 and Al_2O_3 was 21%.

123 Characterisation

124 Powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) patterns were collected with a PANalytical X'Pert Pro 125 diffractometer using Cu-K α_1 radiation ($\lambda = 1.5406$ Å, 45 kV, 40 mA). The patterns were collected between 5 and 60° 20 with a step size of $\sim 0.0167^{\circ}$ and time per step of 1000 s. 126 Elemental analysis was performed by inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-127 128 MS) using a 7900 ICP-MS from Agilent Technologies. Samples (50 mg) were digested at 129 110 °C for 1 h with hydrofluoric acid and agua regia (6:1 vol. ratio) followed by 130 neutralisation with boric acid (2 g) and de-ionised water (10 mL) and stirred overnight. The 131 samples were then diluted up to 100 mL; a 10 mL aliquot was filtered before analysis. 132 Thermogravimetric analysis (TG/DTG) was performed using a Setsys Evolution 133 (SETARAM). Analysis under air was performed by heating from 30 to 800 °C (heating rate 134 of 10 °C min⁻¹) and held at 800 °C for 10 minutes. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) of 135 samples was performed using a Tescan Mira I LMH operating at 30 kV, samples were coated 136 in metal before analysis. Particle size analysis was performed using ImageJ. Energy-137 dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) analysis of samples was performed using two Bruker 138 XFLASH 6/30 detectors; the composition was determined from the average of several 139 different measured points. Low temperature N2 adsorption/desorption isotherms were 140 measured at -196 °C using a Micromeritics 3Flex Surface Characterization unit. Samples were degassed at 350 °C (heating rate of 1 °C min⁻¹) under vacuum for 8 h prior to analysis. 141 142 High temperature (20, 40 and 60 °C) N₂ and CO₂ adsorption isotherms were measured on a 143 Micromeritics ASAP 2020 instrument, samples were degassed at 350 °C (heating rate of 1 °C 144 min⁻¹) under vacuum for 8 h. CO₂ and N₂ isosteric enthalpies of adsorption (ΔH_{ads}) were

145 calculated directly from the experimental data points of the isotherms recorded at 20, 40 and 146 60 °C using the Clausius Clapeyron equation in the VersaWin software. Mercury porosimetry was performed using a Micromeritics AutoPore V. In situ FTIR spectroscopic analysis was 147 performed using a self-supported pellet (~20 mg, 16 mm diameter) of zeolite sample; the 148 149 transmission spectra were recorded with a ThermoScientific Nicolet iS50 FTIR spectrometer equipped with an MCT detector, at a spectral resolution of 4 cm^{-1} . An IR-cell equipped with 150 151 a heating device was used to activate the samples at 350 °C prior to the measurements. The cell was connected to a high vacuum line of 10^{-6} Torr. The sample was activated by heating 152 with a ramp rate of 3 °C min⁻¹ followed by heating at 350 °C for 4 h under high vacuum. All 153 154 spectra were recorded at room temperature and normalised to the area and mass of the pellet; 155 determination of the physisorption and chemisorption isotherms was performed as described 156 previously.[43]

157 Breakthrough Curve Analysis

158 Breakthrough curve experiments were performed using a 3P Instruments mixSorb SHP eco 159 and Cirrus-3 Quadrupole Mass Spectrometer. Powder samples of zeolite adsorbent were 160 initially pelletised by loading the powder between two core dice in a 20 mm die sleeve, with a 161 base plate and plunger, and increasing the applied pressure to ~1.5 tonnes. The pellets were 162 gently crushed with an agate pestle and meshed from 60 to 35 (250-500 µm) before being 163 loaded into the column, weighed, and covered with a thin layer of glass wool. After each 164 instance of loading the meshed sample into the column, the column was tapped 100 times to 165 remove inter-particle voids. The inner diameter of the column was 6 mm and the height of the 166 adsorbent bed was 6 cm. The ratio of the column inner diameter to the meshed particle 167 diameter was 12–24. The samples were pre-treated under He flow (20 mL/min) with heating 168 from room temperature to 300 °C at 10 °C/min (measured by an internal temperature probe) 169 and held at 300 °C for 6 h using a heating mantle. TG analysis of the zeolite samples was

performed to determine the weight-loss of water during the pre-treatment step. The final
amounts of nano-sized and micron-sized K-CHA loaded in the column after activation were
0.601 and 0.676 g respectively. After pre-treatment the samples were kept under a flow of
He (20 mL) at room temperature before commencing the breakthrough curve experiments.

174 Breakthrough curve experiments were conducted using a ternary mixture of CO₂, N₂ 175 (analytical components) and He (carrier gas) at 1 bar with a flowrate of 2, 10 and 28 mL/min 176 respectively (total 40 mL/min), representing 5, 25 and 70 vol% of the feed composition for 177 the adsorption step. Prior to the breakthrough curve experiments the mass spectrometer was 178 calibrated by passing the ternary feed mixture through a bypass line to the mass spectrometer. 179 Before contacting the ternary feed mixture with the adsorbent column the sample was 180 maintained under He flow. The adsorption feed mixture was flowed through the adsorbent 181 column after the temperature and spectrometer signals were stable, as determined using a 182 bypass line. After a specified amount of time whereby the bed had reached equilibrium, 183 desorption was conducted immediately by switching the feed to 100% He (40 mL/min). Both 184 the adsorption and desorption steps for each experiment were conducted at the same 185 temperature; experiments were conducted at 20, 40 and 60 °C by immersing the column in a 186 water bath isothermally maintained by a chiller. The time for each step of the analysis was 60 min at 20 °C and 30 min at 40 and 60 °C to allow sufficient time for the bed to reach 187 equilibrium after breakthrough. The pressure drop across the column loaded with sample was 188 189 determined by a pressure sensor located immediately before the column and the pressure 190 controller located immediately after the column. For all experiments conducted the pressure 191 drop was < 0.07 bar or 6% of the column pressure.

All breakthrough curve data was processed using the mixSorb Manager software. The differential loading of the adsorbates (CO_2 and N_2) was calculated from the integrated areas exemplified in Figures S1 and S2.

195
$$n_{\text{adsorbed}} = \int V_{\text{in}}(t)c_{\text{in}}(t)dt - \int V_{\text{out}}(t)c_{\text{out}}(t)dt \qquad (1)$$

196 The advanced computed flowrate changes was employed to account for changes in the flow197 rate using the He carrier gas as an internal standard.

198
$$V_{\text{out}}(t) = \frac{V_{\text{He}}(t)}{1 - \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{\text{adsorptive},i}(t)}$$
(2)

199 Blank experiments under identical feed composition, temperature, flowrate and pressure 200 conditions were performed using granular quartz to determine the loading of molecules in the 201 free space between the adsorbent particles and were directly subtracted from the loading 202 values of the zeolite samples (Fig. S3). He is considered as a non-adsorbing gas. The dead-203 time of the system was estimated at ≈ 2 s based on the time of the activation of the mass-flow 204 controllers and the recording of the flow composition by the mass spectrometer through the 205 by-pass line. The void fraction or bed porosity was calculated using the dry mass of the 206 meshed K-CHA zeolite, the bulk particle density, and the internal column volume.

207 Breakthrough Curve Modelling

All isotherm and CO_2 breakthrough curve modelling was performed using the 3P-Sim software package. The experimental CO_2 adsorption isotherms were fitted with a temperature dependent model. Sips, Dual-Site Langmuir and Toth models were employed; Toth afforded the best goodness of fit of the data and was employed for the CO_2 breakthrough curve modelling. The parameters obtained from the modelling of the CO_2 adsorption isotherms with the Toth equation (3) which were used in the CO_2 breakthrough curve modelling are presented in Table S4.

215
$$q_{eq} = q_{max,i} \cdot \frac{K_i \cdot c_{g,i}}{(1 + (K_i \cdot c_{g,i})^t)^{\frac{1}{t}}}$$
(3)

The temperature dependency of the isotherm parameters including the affinity constant, K_i , maximum loading, q_{max} , and heterogeneity parameter, t, are accounted for with the following equations:

219
$$K_i = K_0 \cdot exp\left(\frac{\Delta H_{ads}}{R}\left(\frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{T_0}\right)\right)$$
(4)

220
$$q_{max,i} = q_{max,0} \cdot exp\left(\chi_i\left(1 - \frac{T}{T_0}\right)\right)$$
(5)

221
$$t = t_0 + \alpha \left(1 - \frac{T}{T_0}\right)$$
(6)

Global parameters for the CO₂ breakthrough curve modelling are presented in Table 1. Breakthrough curves were calculated with the following assumptions commonly employed in the literature:[44, 45]

- 1. Ideal gas behaviour of the adsorptive through the column.
- 2262. No mass, heat or velocity gradients in the radial direction; instantaneous thermal227equilibrium between the adsorbent and gas.
- 228 3. Dispersed plug flow model.
- 4. Negligible effects due to external mass transfer (film mass transfer and macropore diffusion).
- 5. Description of the mass transfer through the particle by the linear driving force (LDF)
 model.[46-48]
- 233 6. Heat capacity of the carrier gas dominates.
- 234 7. Heat capacity of the adsorbed phase neglected.
- 235 8. Constant internal (bed-wall) and external (wall-bath) heat transfer, and axial heat236 dispersion.
- 9. Constant and uniform adsorbent/bed porosity.

10. No pressure drop, constant pressure.

The model consists of dispersive plug flow with non-isothermal behaviour and variable gas velocity described by a mass and energy balance for the fixed bed and an energy balance for the column wall. The mass balance is expressed as:

242
$$\frac{\partial C_{g,i}}{\partial t} = D_{ax} \frac{\partial^2 C_{g,i}}{\partial z^2} - u \frac{\partial C_{g,i}}{\partial z} - c_{g,i} \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} - \frac{(1-\varepsilon)}{\varepsilon} \rho_p \frac{\partial \bar{q}_i}{\partial t}$$
(7)

With respect to the assumptions employed for the calculations, the two energy balance equations are expressed as:

245
$$\Delta H_i \rho_b (1-\varepsilon) \frac{\partial \bar{q}_i}{\partial t} - \left(c_{ps} \cdot \rho_b (1-\varepsilon) + c_{pg} \cdot \varepsilon \cdot \rho_g \right) \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} - u\varepsilon \rho_g c_{pg} \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} - T\varepsilon \rho_g c_{pg} \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} +$$

246
$$\lambda \varepsilon \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2} - k_{in} \frac{4}{d_i} (T - T_w) = 0$$
(8)

247
$$k_{in} \cdot d_i (T - T_w) - (d_i \cdot WS + WS^2) c_{pw} \cdot \rho_w \frac{\partial T_w}{\partial t} - k_{out} (d_i + 2 \cdot WS) (T_w - T_{env}) = 0 \quad (9)$$

The heat transfer parameters, k_{in} (bed-wall) and k_{out} (wall-bath), and the axial heat dispersion (λ) were estimated according to the according to the shape of the breakthrough curve. The axial dispersion coefficient was calculated using the correlation according to Kast in the 3P-Sim software package [47]:

252
$$D_{ax} = u \cdot \frac{3 \cdot 10^{-3}}{2} \text{ for } 2r_p < 3 \text{ mm}$$
 (10)

Neglecting the external mass transfer resistance and using the LDF approach, the masstransfer is expressed as[49]:

255
$$\frac{\partial \bar{q}_i}{\partial t} = k_{LDF}(q_{eq} - \bar{q}_i) \tag{11}$$

The LDF parameter was assumed to be constant for a given operation and fitted to each breakthrough curve. Calculations were performed using the Crank-Nicolson solver (trapezoid

- scheme). The bed porosity was calculated from the dry mass of zeolite and the bulk particle
- 259 density.
- 260
- 261
- Table 1. Column, adsorbent and carrier gas parameters used for modelling the CO₂
 breakthrough curves of the nano- and micron-sized K-CHA.

Parameter	Value		Source	
Column				
Bed height (cm)	6		Measured	
Column inner diameter (cm)	0.6		Manufacturer	
Gas flow $(mL \cdot min^{-1})$	40		Measured	
Column temperature (°C)	20, 40, 60		Measured	
Pressure (bar)	1.1		Measured	
	nano	micron		
Axial dispersion coefficient	8.98×10 ⁻⁵	6.97×10 ⁻⁵	W. Kast estimation	
$(m^2 \cdot s^{-1})$	9.46×10 ⁻⁵	7.40×10 ⁻⁵	W. Kast estimation	
	9.89×10 ⁻⁵	7.92×10 ⁻⁵		
Wall thickness (mm)	3		Manufacturer	
Wall density $(g \cdot cm^{-3})$	7.9		Assumed, stainless steel	
Heat transfer bed-wall	50		Estimated	
(internal), $[W/(m^2 \cdot K)]$				
Heat transfer wall-bath	500		Estimated	
(external), $[W/(m^2 \cdot K)]$				
Heat capacity wall $[J/(K \cdot g)]$	0.477		Assumed, stainless steel	
Axial heat dispersion	5		Estimated	
[J/(K·min·cm)]				
Adsorbent				
Mass (g)	0.601 (nano), 0.676 (micron)		Measured	
Particle diameter (mm)	0.25		Assumed	
Bed porosity	0.39 (nano), 0.49 (micron)		Measured	
Particle porosity	0.54 (nano), 0.49 (micron)		Measured	
Heat capacity $[J/(K \cdot g)]$	1.27		Reference[50]	
Carrier Gas				
Molecular weight (g·mol ⁻¹)	4.0		NIST	
Heat capacity $[J/(K \cdot g)]$	5.19		NIST	

264

265 Calculation of the MTZ was performed using equation (12):

266

267
$$1 - \left(\frac{\text{time to breakthrough}\left(\frac{c}{c_0} > 1 \times 10^{-4}\right), \min}{\text{time of bed saturation}\left(\frac{c}{c_0} = 0.95\right), \min}\right) \times \text{bed length, cm}$$
(12)

268

269 Calculation of the CO_2/N_2 selectivity for the competitive dynamic adsorption experiments 270 was performed using equation (13):

271
$$CO_2/N_2$$
 Selectivity $= \left(\frac{q_{CO_2}}{n_{CO_2}}\right) / \left(\frac{q_{N_2}}{n_{N_2}}\right)$ (13)

Where q is the differential loading of the adsorbate and n is the molar amount of adsorbate in the feed.

274

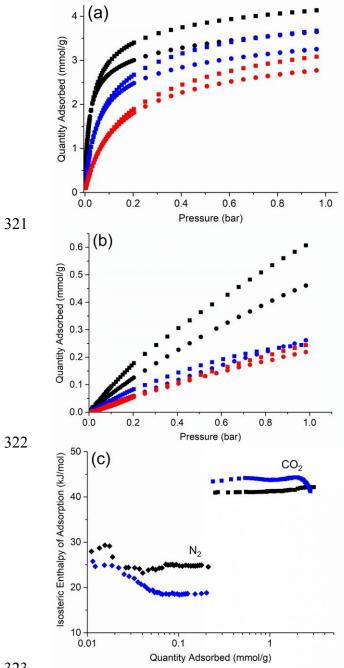
275 Results and Discussion

276 Synthesis and Characterisation of K-CHA

277 A conventional well-studied micron-sized K-CHA was prepared according to the patent 278 literature of Bourgogne et al. [40, 51, 52] The nano-sized K-CHA was prepared following an 279 up-scaled procedure derived from our previous work by Ghojavand et al. using an identical 280 precursor composition, ageing time, and hydrothermal treatment. [42, 43] The synthesis of 281 nano-sized chabazite has been methodically optimised to obtain discrete zeolite nano-282 crystallites of sizes below 100 nm with a specific Si/Al ratio. Both samples are highly 283 crystalline (Fig. S4) with near-identical chemical compositions (Table S1); the XRD patterns 284 of both samples are consistent with those previously reported for hydrated K-CHA.[53] The 285 broad Bragg reflections of the nano-sized K-CHA are indicative of the presence of nano-286 sized crystalline domains.[42] The size of the crystalline domains was determined by 287 Scherrer analysis as 80 nm for the nano-sized K-CHA and 200 nm for the micron-sized K-288 CHA. Thermogravimetric analysis of the nano- and micron-sized K-CHA samples reveals 289 they possess a similar content of water of 17 and 19 wt% respectively (Fig. S5). Scanning 290 electron microscopy (SEM) results confirms the order of magnitude difference in the particle 291 size between the samples. Analysis of the nano-sized K-CHA shows the sample is composed 292 of discrete nano-crystallites with primary particle sizes ranging predominantly between 50-293 80 nm (Figs S6a).[42] In comparison, the morphology of the micron-sized K-CHA is that of irregular flake-like particles approximately 100–300 nm thick and 400–1000 nm at maximum
width; the particles are composed of intergrown crystallite aggregates approximately 40–80
nm in size (Figs S6b).[52]

The difference in the textural properties of both samples is also evidenced by N₂ sorption 297 analysis performed at -196 °C; both samples exhibit low micropore adsorption due to 298 299 trapdoor behaviour which restricts access of N2 to the micropores, however, the nano-sized 300 K-CHA possesses significant inter-particle mesoporosity at high relative pressure due to its 301 nanoparticle morphology (Fig. S7).[40] Both samples were subjected to single component 302 CO₂ and N₂ sorption analysis at 20, 40 and 60 °C up to 1 bar (Figs 1 (a) and (b), Tables S2 303 and S3). The CO₂ and N₂ adsorption capacity decreases with increasing temperature (Fig. 1); 304 for both samples, the adsorbed amount of N₂ is low and increases linearly with increasing 305 pressure while CO₂ exhibits a Type I isotherm due to strong adsorbent-adsorbate interactions. 306 The slightly lower CO₂ adsorption capacity of the nano-sized K-CHA is due to the presence 307 of a phillipsite impurity. The isosteric enthalpy of adsorption (ΔH_{ads}) as a function of loading 308 were determined from the raw single-component isotherms (Fig. 1(c)). Both samples exhibit 309 near-homogeneous adsorption sites for CO_2 ; the ΔH_{ads} of the nano-sized K-CHA decreases 310 above a coverage of 2 mmol/g due to the saturation of the dual-cation adsorption sites and 311 limited inter-molecular interactions.[35, 43, 54, 55] Both samples also exhibit similar trends 312 for the $N_2 \Delta H_{ads}$ with a minor decrease as the loading increases, however, the decrease is 313 more significant for the nano-sized K-CHA. The lower $N_2 \Delta H_{ads}$ of the nano-sized K-CHA is 314 ascribed to the higher external surface of the particles providing lower energy adsorption 315 sites. Temperature-dependent modelling of the CO₂ adsorption isotherms was performed using the Sips, Dual-Site Langmuir and Toth equations. The Toth model afforded the best 316 317 goodness of fit of the data (Fig. S8) and the parameters obtained were used for the modelling 318 of the CO₂ breakthrough curves (Table S4). Satisfactory temperature-dependent models of

- 319 the N₂ adsorption isotherms could not be obtained ($R^2 < 0.990$) and so the IAST selectivity
- 320 was not determined.



323

Figure 1. (a) CO_2 and (b) N_2 adsorption isotherms recorded at 20 (black), 40 (blue) and 60 °C (red) on nano-sized (circles) and micron-sized (squares) K-CHA. (c) CO_2 (squares) and N_2 (diamonds) isosteric enthalpies of adsorption for nano-sized (blue) and micron-sized (black) K-CHA.

328

329 Dynamic Adsorption of CO₂/N₂ on K-CHA and Breakthrough Curve Modelling

Breakthrough curve analysis of the K-CHA samples was conducted using a ternary mixture 330 331 of He/N₂/CO₂ (70/25/5 vol%) at 1 bar and 20, 40 and 60 °C (Fig. 2); plots of the entire 332 adsorption step show the breakthrough of N₂ on the K-CHA samples is instantaneous and 333 exhibits a roll-up feature due to the displacement of N₂ by CO₂ from within the bed (Fig. S9). 334 Due to the difference of the mass between the adsorbent, column and water bath the 335 temperature profile of the column did not change significantly during the breakthrough 336 experiment (Figure S10, Table S5). A minor temperature excursion of 0.30 and 0.25 °C was 337 observed for the micron- and nano-sized K-CHA for the breakthrough curve analyses at 20 338 °C; smaller deviations were observed at 40 °C, and no discernible temperature excursion was observed at 60 °C. The CO₂ breakthrough profiles of the K-CHA samples clearly exhibit 339 340 significantly steeper curves for the nano-sized K-CHA across the measured temperatures 341 compared to the micron-sized sample (Fig. 2a), indicative of more uniform diffusion of CO₂ 342 through the bed and a reduction in the length of the MTZ, *i.e.* enhanced overall kinetics. 343 While both K-CHA samples were prepared with the same mesh, the discrete nano-crystallites 344 of the nano-sized K-CHA facilitate significantly more rapid intraparticle diffusion. This is 345 also visualised by the plots of $d(C/C_0)/dt$ illustrating the higher rate of change of the slope of 346 the breakthrough curve for the nano-sized K-CHA compared to the micron-sized K-CHA 347 (Figs 2c and d). A slight decrease in the slope of the breakthrough curve for nano-sized K-CHA occurs when the temperature increases from 20 to 40 °C, while the micron-sized K-348 349 CHA exhibits a slight increase in the breakthrough curve slope above 40 °C. The time 350 necessary to achieve the desorption under pure He flow (Fig 2b) of CO_2 (C/C₀ < 0.05) 351 dramatically decreased with increasing temperature for both samples; at 60 °C the nano- and micron-sized K-CHA required 11 and 14 minutes respectively. The difference in the 352 desorption behaviour between the samples is not as dramatic as the initial breakthrough 353

354 because of the endothermic nature of the desorption step. Increasing the bed temperature 355 from 20 to 60 °C resulted in a linear decrease of the differential loading of CO₂ at saturation for both K-CHA samples (Table 2). The differential loadings of CO₂ calculated from the 356 357 competitive breakthrough curves compare well with the isotherm values. In comparison, the integration of the N₂ loading from the breakthrough curves affords values five times higher 358 359 compared to the equilibrium isotherms. Alternatively, integration under the N₂ desorption curves was performed to calculate the N2 loading, affording realistic values comparable to 360 361 earlier work by Du et al. [56] Overall, both samples exhibit similar selectivity towards CO₂ over N₂; the nano-sized K-CHA exhibits slightly higher CO₂ loading under dynamic 362 adsorption conditions. 363

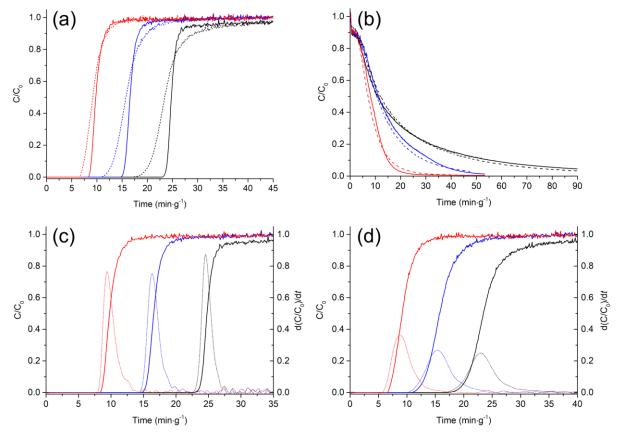


Figure 2. CO_2 breakthrough and desorption curves, and first derivatives of CO_2 breakthrough curves at 20 °C (black), 40 °C (blue) and 60 °C (red) obtained from competitive dynamic adsorption experiments, He/N₂/CO₂, 70/25/5. (a) CO₂ breakthrough curves and (b) CO₂ desorption curves of the nano-sized (solid) and micron-sized (dashed) K-CHA zeolites. CO₂ breakthrough curves (solid) and first derivative (dashed) of the (c) nano-sized and (d) micronsized K-CHA zeolites.

364

Table 2. Differential loading of CO_2 calculated from breakthrough curves at saturation, N_2 differential loading calculated from desorption curves, and CO_2/N_2 selectivity calculated from equation 13. Data from breakthrough curve analysis (He/N₂/CO₂, 70/25/5) at 20, 40 and 60 °C.

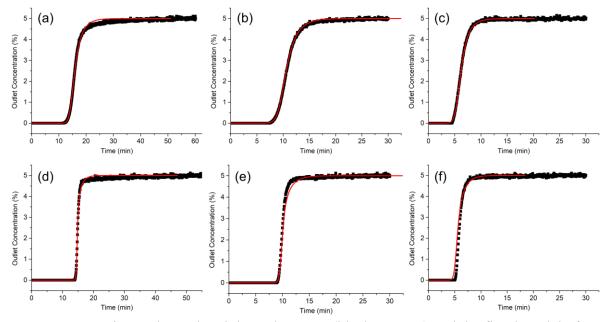
	Nano-sized K-CHA			Micron-sized K-CHA		
Temperature (°C)	Differential loading, q (mmol/g)		CO ₂ /N ₂ selectivity	Differential loading, q (mmol/g)		CO ₂ /N ₂ selectivity
	CO ₂	N_2	selectivity	CO ₂	N_2	selectivity
20	2.33	0.085	137	2.22	0.092	121
40	1.49	0.041	182	1.43	0.070	102
60	0.87	0.007	618	0.82	0.006	685

375

Comparison of the CO₂ breakthrough curves of the nano- and micron-sized K-CHA at 60 °C, 376 377 akin to flue gas conditions, further highlights the difference in the performance of the solid 378 adsorbents with different particle sizes (Fig. S11). By defining the MTZ between the first point of breakthrough, $C/C_0 > 1 \times 10^{-4}$ (*i.e.* the end of pure production of the weakly adsorbing 379 380 component), and saturation of the bed, $C/C_0 = 0.95$, it is clear that the micron-sized K-CHA 381 not only exhibits a shallower breakthrough curve but also takes a longer time to reach 382 equilibrium. Due to the similar CO₂ uptakes of 0.87 mmol/g for both K-CHA samples at 0.05 bar (*i.e.* the partial pressure of CO_2 in the feed) at 60 °C, the longer time to reach equilibrium 383 384 for the micron-sized K-CHA is ascribed to the larger particle size and thus longer diffusion 385 path length. Expressed as a percentage of the total bed length, the length of the MTZ is 386 significantly shorter (35% vs 52%) for the nano- compared to the micron-sized K-CHA (Table S6). 387

In addition, simple modelling of the CO_2 breakthrough curves was performed to extract the effective mass transfer coefficient, or linear driving force parameter (k_{LDF}), to describe the mass transfer kinetics of CO_2 through the adsorbent bed (Fig. 3).[44] Thus a global characteristic of the diffusion can be compared between the two samples. Employing the parameters derived from the Toth models of the CO_2 adsorption isotherms at different temperatures, the fitted model of the CO_2 breakthrough on the nano-sized K-CHA was found

394 to have 1–2 orders of magnitude higher k_{LDF} compared to that of the micron-sized K-CHA (Table 3), consistent with the sharper experimental breakthrough curves. The calculated CO₂ 395 equilibrium loadings from the breakthrough curve modelling agree well with the 396 397 experimental values, within 10% error. The k_{LDF} for CO₂ of the micron-sized K-CHA are of a 398 similar magnitude to those of other commercial zeolite adsorbents such as NaX, CaA and 399 4A.[44, 57, 58] Modelling of the CO₂ breakthrough curves for the micron-sized K-CHA using the maximal loading term extracted from the isotherm modelling resulted in slight 400 401 offsets between the experimental and modelled curves. This is may be due to the CO_2 402 equilibrium adsorption curves of the micron-sized K-CHA having not completely levelled off 403 leading to an overestimation of the q_{max.i}.[59] To fit the model to the experimental data the 404 maximal loading terms were reduced by 10%, 7% and 4% for the curves at 20 °C, 40 °C and 60 °C respectively. The adjustments to the maximal loading did not affect the k_{LDF} values of 405 406 the fitted curves (Fig. S12).[60]



408 **Figure 3.** Experimental CO₂ breakthrough curves (black squares) and the fitted model of CO₂ 409 breakthrough curves (red lines) using the parameters from Tables 1 and S4 for the micron-410 sized K-CHA at (a) 20 °C, (b) 40 °C and (c) 60 °C, and for the nano-sized K-CHA at (d) 20 411 °C, (e) 40 °C and (f) 60 °C.

407

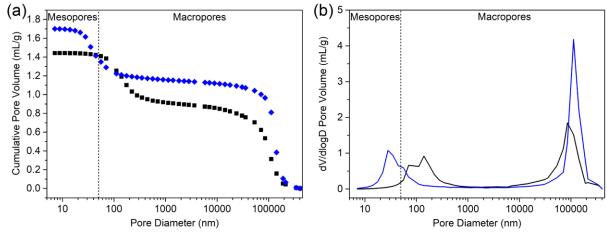
412 **Table 3.** Calculated linear driving force parameters and CO₂ equilibrium loadings obtained

413 from the modelling of the CO₂ breakthrough curves for the nano- and micron-sized K-CHA

414 at 20, 40 and 60 °C.

Temperature	k _{LDF}	r (s ⁻¹)	CO ₂ equilibr (mm	[.] ium loading ol/g)
(°C)	Nano-sized K- CHA	Micron-sized K-CHA	Nano-sized K- CHA	Micron-sized K-CHA
20	2.37	0.0221	2.35	2.26
40	2.93	0.0442	1.61	1.51
60	3.27	0.125	0.92	0.90

To better understand the effect of particle size on the performance and diffusion properties of 415 the K-CHA samples, mercury porosimetry analysis of the meshed K-CHA samples was 416 performed, and diffusion resistances were considered using established correlations in the 417 418 literature.[46, 61] Plots of the pore diameter against the cumulative pore volume (Fig. 4a) and 419 pore size distribution (Fig. 4b) of the meshed K-CHA samples reveal two intrusion events 420 corresponding to the initial filling of the macropores (interparticle porosity) and the filling of 421 the remaining macropores and mesopores. Both samples exhibit similar intrusion of the 422 interparticle porosity, however, the distribution of the macropores is different. The majority (80%) of the macropore volume of the meshed nano-sized K-CHA occurs for pores $\geq 6 \,\mu m$ 423 while for the meshed micron-sized K-CHA this corresponds to 61% (Table S7). This may be 424 ascribed to the more uniform morphology of the nano-sized K-CHA compared to the flake-425 426 like morphology of the micron-sized K-CHA. The filling of the mesopores (7–50 nm) shows 427 that the meshed nano-sized K-CHA exhibits ≈ 14 times higher mesopore volume compared to 428 the meshed micron-sized K-CHA. This is a clear result of the meshed particle being 429 composed of smaller discrete nanocrystals. For the nano-sized K-CHA the mesopores account for approximately 17% of the total pore volume determined by Hg porosimetry, 430 while for the micron-sized K-CHA this value is 1.3%. 431



432 Pore Diameter (nm)
433 Figure 4. Plot of the pore diameter (nm) vs the (a) cumulative pore volume, and (b) pore size distribution for the meshed nano-sized (blue) and micron-sized (black) K-CHA zeolite.
435

436 Considering that each of the eight-membered ring pore apertures of K-CHA are occupied by extra-framework K⁺ cations and are comparable in size to CO₂, like for 4A zeolite, it may be 437 438 expected that the diffusion behaviour of K-CHA to be micropore controlled.[62] However, considering that the meshed particle sizes are 0.25–0.5 mm, axial dispersion may be expected 439 440 to contribute significantly to the mass transfer behaviour.[63] Recent breakthrough curve analysis of N₂/O₂ on lithium exchanged low silica X (LiLSX) zeolite demonstrated that axial 441 442 dispersion effects must be considered for small particles and at low Reynolds number which 443 is the case in this work.[64] The contributions from the different diffusion resistances to the overall mass transfer coefficient k_i were calculated using equation (14), which is a 444 445 generalisation of the Glueckauf approximation[46]:

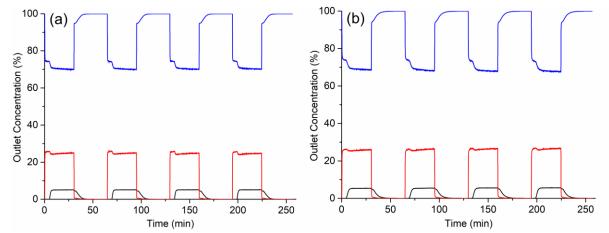
446
$$\frac{1}{k_i} = \frac{Kr_p}{3k_f} + \frac{Kr_p^2}{15\varepsilon_p D_p} + \frac{r_c^2}{15D_c}$$
(14)

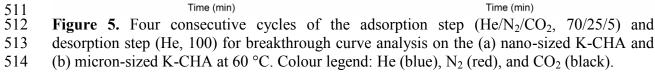
where the first, second and third terms on the right-hand side of equation 14 represent the film mass transfer, macropore, and micropore resistances, and *K* is the equilibrium Henry's law constant. Calculation of the values for the axial dispersion, film and macropore contributions were performed using established correlations and experimental data.[46, 61] 451 However, due to the unavailability of experimental intracrystalline diffusivity values for CO₂ 452 in high-aluminium cation-containing chabazite zeolites, the micropore contribution was 453 estimated by subtracting the film and macropore contributions from the effective mass 454 transfer coefficients extracted from the breakthrough curve modelling. The calculated 455 intracrystalline diffusivity values of CO₂ for the K-CHA zeolites are 3–4 orders of magnitude 456 greater than for 4A.[65] Details describing the calculation of each contribution are provided 457 in the supporting information; the values and percentages of k_i are presented in Tables S12– 458 14. The calculations reveal that between the film, macropore and micropore resistances, the 459 micropore contribution is the most significant, being several orders of magnitude greater and 460 accounting for >99.5% of the mass transfer coefficient for the micron-sized K-CHA across all 461 measured temperatures. For the nano-sized K-CHA the micropore resistance is much less 462 significant than for the micron-sized K-CHA, but still accounts for 83, 87 and 92% of the 463 mass transfer coefficient at 20, 40 and 60 °C respectively. Both samples exhibit similar 464 absolute values of film and macropore resistance; their relative contribution is more 465 significant for the nano-sized K-CHA. Both K-CHA samples exhibit similar absolute values 466 for the contribution of axial dispersion, which are similar or greater in value to the 467 contribution of the micropore resistance. For the micron-sized K-CHA, the ratio of the axial 468 dispersion to micropore resistance increases from 0.8 at 20 °C to 1.1 at 40 °C and 2.1 at 60 469 °C due to the greater decrease in the micropore resistance. For the nano-sized K-CHA, the 470 ratio of the axial dispersion to the micropore resistance is significantly higher (54–91). This 471 indicates that the mass transfer behaviour of the meshed nano-sized K-CHA is primarily 472 affected by axial dispersion; the ratio of the axial dispersion to the micropore resistance 473 decreases with increasing temperature.

For comparison, the contributions from the lumped resistances and axial dispersion were also explored by varying either the k_{LDF} parameter or axial dispersion values for the modelling of 476 the breakthrough curves.[58] Consistent with the trend of the calculated values presented in 477 Table S12 the shape of the modelled CO₂ breakthrough curves for the nano-sized K-CHA are 478 susceptible to variations in the axial dispersion, while varying the k_{LDF} parameter results in little change (Fig S13). In comparison, the micron-sized K-CHA is much more susceptible to 479 changes of the k_{LDF} parameter, and similarly susceptible to changes of the axial dispersion 480 481 (Fig. S14). While increased axial dispersion increases spreading of the MTZ, the 482 experimental results presented here indicate that for adsorbent particles of identical size and 483 composition, reducing the size of the discrete crystals within the meshed particle may reduce 484 the size of the MTZ. Analysis of the results indicate this is primarily attributed to the 485 reduction of the micropore resistance, which may be a consequence of the shorter 486 intracrystalline diffusion pathway of CO₂ within the nano-sized K-CHA. While the 487 introduction of mesoporosity has shown to improve the CO₂ adsorption kinetics for LTA 488 zeolite, in the present case where the nano-sized K-CHA exhibits an order of magnitude 489 greater mesopore volume than the micron-sized K-CHA, the contribution from the macropore 490 diffusion resistance is negligible.[66]

491 Multiple cycles of CO₂ breakthrough, and desorption under pure He at 60 °C also 492 demonstrates the improved performance of the nano-sized K-CHA (Fig. 5) which exhibits a 493 29% higher CO₂ differential loading for the first cycle (Table 4). The CO₂ loading was 494 calculated up to the first point of breakthrough. Upon subsequent cycles of CO₂ adsorption, 495 and desorption under pure He, the CO₂ capacities of both samples decreases due to the 496 formation of chemisorbed carbonate species and the incomplete removal of adsorbed CO₂ by 497 He during the desorption step.[43] This is supported by integration of the CO₂ desorption 498 curves for the nano and micron-sized K-CHA at 60 °C which afforded 0.76 and 0.73 mmol/g, 499 or 87 and 88% of the differential loadings at saturation (Table 2). Over the next three cycles, 500 on average, the nano-sized K-CHA exhibits better performance up to the end of pure

production of the weakly adsorbing component, losing only 14% of its initial CO₂ capacity 501 502 while the micron-sized K-CHA loses approximately 29% (Table 4). This may be due to 503 compositional inhomogeneity of the micron-sized K-CHA particles due to their preparation 504 by interzeolite conversion and the different solubilities of Si and Al species, as well as the 505 possibility of internal structural rearrangements due to the long hydrothermal treatment time 506 (15 days).[67] This rationale is supported by comparing the relative amounts of CO₂ chemisorbed species. In situ FTIR spectroscopic analysis of the micron-sized K-CHA in the 507 508 presence of CO₂ (17.9 kPa) revealed ~3 times greater the amount of CO₂ chemisorbed 509 species compared to nano-sized K-CHA, i.e. 5% vs 1.7% of the total physisorbed and 510 chemisorbed CO₂ (Fig. S15).[43]





515 **Table 4.** Differential loading of CO₂ calculated from CO₂ breakthrough curves at $C/C_0 > 1 \times 10^{-4}$ on nano- and micron-sized K-CHA subjected to multiple cycles of breakthrough (He/N₂/CO₂, 70/25/5) and desorption (He, 100) at 60 °C.

Cuelo	CO ₂ differential loading, q (mmol/g)		
Cycle	Nano-sized K- CHA	Micron-sized K-CHA	
1	0.66	0.51	
2	0.56	0.35	
3	0.56	0.36	
4	0.57	0.36	

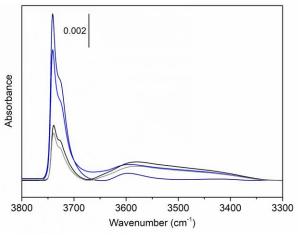
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519 In situ FTIR Analysis of the Silanol Environments

520 To consider the role defects may play in the separation performance of the K-CHA samples, 521 in situ FTIR spectroscopic analysis was also employed to examine the distributions of silanol 522 environments on both K-CHA samples (Fig. 6). Analysis before and after breakthrough curve experiments reveals two peaks at 3740 cm⁻¹ and 3727 cm⁻¹ attributed to isolated silanol sites 523 corresponding to the external surfaces of the different K-CHA samples.[68] These peaks are 524 525 significantly more intense for the nano-sized K-CHA due to its larger external surface area. 526 Both micron and nano-sized K-CHA samples show a broad complex band in the range of 3333 and 3668 cm⁻¹. These peaks can be attributed to the internal silanol sites exhibiting 527 528 strong hydrogen bonding between them.[68] The micron-sized K-CHA exhibits a greater 529 initial population (black trace) of strong internal hydrogen bonding sites which may reflect 530 internal framework T-atom vacancies or missing T–O–T bonds due to the intergrown nature 531 of the crystallites. After multiple pre-treatment and breakthrough cycles this band decreases slightly (grey trace). Conversely, the nano-sized K-CHA exhibits fewer sites initially (navy 532 533 trace) and an increased population of these sites after multiple pre-treatment and 534 breakthrough cycles (blue trace). This suggests that despite an increase in the population of 535 strong hydrogen-bonding silanol sites on the nano-sized K-CHA the diffusion performance is 536 dominated by the effect of the particle size difference. Deconvolution and exact peak 537 assignment in this region is not possible using exclusively FTIR spectroscopy and requires additional characterization techniques (i.e. ¹H MAS NMR) beyond the scope of this work. 538 539 Table 5 presents the concentration of the silanol sites obtained by integration of the silanol region for both the nano- and micron-sized K-CHA samples before and after the 540 541 breakthrough measurements. For both the nano- and micron-sized K-CHA samples a 542 reduction of $\sim 27\%$ of the silanol sites are observed after the breakthrough measurements

543 (Table 5). This can be partly attributed to the residual chemisorbed species chemically

544 bonded to the silanol sites and in agreement with our previous work.[43]



545 Wavenumber (cm⁻¹)
546 Figure 6. In situ FTIR spectra at 25 °C highlighting the silanol region of the nano-sized
547 (navy, blue) and micron-sized (black, grey) K-CHA samples zeolite (before, after
548 breakthrough curve analysis). Samples were pre-treated at 300 °C under high vacuum (10⁻⁶
549 kPa) prior to measurement.

550

551

552 **Table 5.** The concentration of silanol sites of micron and nano-sized K-CHA samples before 553 (fresh) and after (used) breakthrough measurements obtained using *in situ* FTIR 554 spectroscopy.

Sample		Silanol site concentration (cm ⁻¹ ·g ⁻¹)
Nano-sized K-	Fresh	403
CHA	Used	288
Micron-sized	Fresh	306
K-CHA	Used	224

⁵⁵⁵

556 Conclusions

As we move towards the need to control process rate, by improving the diffusion properties of zeolites through the organic-template free direct synthesis of discrete zeolite nanoparticles, instead of employing post-synthetic treatments, significant enhancements in the separation performance can be achieved. By comparing meshed micron-sized and nano-sized K-CHA with identical Si/Al ratios and cation compositions for CO_2 separation from N_2 , the diffusion of CO_2 through the bed of meshed nano-sized K-CHA is more rapid and uniform. 563 Breakthrough curve analysis shows steeper breakthrough curves and more rapid achievement of equilibrium for the meshed nano-sized K-CHA due to the smaller discrete particle size. 564 565 While textural analysis by Hg porosimetry reveals improved mesoporosity for the nano-sized 566 K-CHA, back-calculation of the diffusion coefficients reveals significantly lower micropore 567 diffusion resistance as responsible for the improved mass transfer behaviour. This translates 568 to a greater k_{LDF} of the modelled and fitted CO₂ breakthrough curves and a reduction in the 569 size of the MTZ by 17% despite the significant contribution from axial dispersion to the mass 570 transfer behaviour. Furthermore, we also observe that the nano-sized K-CHA has approximately three times less CO₂ chemisorbed species than micron-sized K-CHA. When 571 572 scouting for improved adsorbents, most academic researchers often concentrate on capacity 573 and selectivity and pay less attention to the kinetics of the process. The combination of these 574 three features will determine the productivity, often referred to in catalysis as STY (space 575 time yield, units: moles of a desired product.time⁻¹·reactor volume⁻¹). STY is a key parameter 576 to design the size of a unit, *i.e.*, this investment cost (CAPEX). While these results support the potential of nanozeolites in realising greater performance improvements, further 577 578 investigation of the diffusion behaviour of nanozeolites in larger columns and their 579 comparison to micron-sized counterparts will yield greater insights due to the variety of pore 580 sizes, framework topologies, elemental compositions and shaping factors of zeolites which 581 influence the diffusion properties.

582 Declaration of Competing Interests

583 The authors declare no competing financial or professional interests.

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- 590

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