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Liquids with permanent microporosity

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Porous solids such as zeolites¹ and metal-organic frameworks^{2,3} are useful in molecular separation and in catalysis, but their solid nature can impose limitations. For example, liquid solvents, rather than porous solids, are the most mature technology for post-combustion carbon dioxide capture because liquid circulation systems are more easily retrofitted to existing plants. Solid porous adsorbents offer major benefits, such as lower energy penalties in adsorption–desorption cycles⁴, but they are difficult to implement in conventional flow processes. Hence, new materials that combine the properties of fluidity and permanent porosity could offer unique technological advantages. However, permanent porosity is not associated with conventional liquids.⁵ Here we report the first free-flowing liquids whose bulk properties are determined by their permanent microporosity. To achieve this, we designed new cage molecules^{6,7} that provide a well-defined pore space. These cages are highly soluble in solvents whose molecules are too large to enter the pores. The concentration of unoccupied cages can thus be around 500 times greater than in other molecular solutions that contain cavities⁸⁻¹⁰. As a result, there is a dramatic change in bulk properties, such as an 8-fold increase in the solubility of methane gas. Our results provide the basis to develop a new class of functional porous materials for chemical processes, and we present a one-step, multigram scale-up route for highly soluble ‘scrambled’ porous cages that is based on commercially available reagents. The unifying design principle for these materials is the avoidance of functional groups that can penetrate into the molecular cage cavities.

The structural rigidity and robustness of solids allows them to contain permanent, uniform cavities of precise size and shape. By contrast, liquids have fluid structures, and any ‘porosity’ is

limited to poorly-defined and transient intermolecular cavities¹¹, most of which are smaller than typical molecules. The Scaled Particle Theory^{12,13} predicts that the solubility of a solute in a liquid is primarily influenced by the work required to generate the cavities that accommodate the solute. Thus, if high concentrations of permanent, molecule-sized cavities could be created in a liquid, then the solvating and solute-transporting characteristics should be strongly affected^{5,14,15}. For example, solutes might become much more soluble because no work would be required to create cavities^{12,13}. This effect should be specific to solute molecules of complementary size and shape to the pores, as is common for selective adsorption in porous solids.

We have prepared ‘porous liquids’ by taking rigid organic cage molecules, each of which defines a molecular pore space, and dissolving them at high concentration in a solvent that is too large to enter the pores (Figure 1). Hence, the pores in the cages remain empty and available to solutes. In our first system, a crown ether, 15-crown-5, was chosen as the solvent because it is a liquid at room temperature and because it consists of large molecules with low surface curvature. Hence, no part of any solvent molecule can fit into the cage pores. Into this solvent were dissolved rigid organic cages. Each cage has a cavity of *ca.* 5 Å diameter at its center that is accessible through four access windows of *ca.* 4 Å in diameter. Structurally similar but much less soluble cages are known to absorb small gas molecules into their pores in the solid state^{6,7}. To achieve high solubility in the bulky 15-crown-5 solvent, each cage was functionalized on the outside with six crown ether groups. As a result, we could prepare, at room temperature, an extremely concentrated liquid phase (44 wt. %) where just 12 solvent molecules are needed to dissolve each cage molecule. More typical solutions of molecules with cavities contain many hundreds or thousands of solvent molecules for each cavity. This liquid flows at room temperature, despite the high concentration of cages. The viscosity of the liquid was 20 to >140 cP in the range 298–

323 K, depending on the cage concentration (Supplementary Figures 10 & 11). The viscosity of neat 15-crown-5 is 8.9–22.4 cP over this temperature range. Neat organic cages can also form liquid phases close to room temperature if they have long alkyl chain substituents, but in those cases the chains occupy the cage cavities, thus removing the porosity.¹⁴

Molecular dynamics (MD) simulations gave detailed insight into the structure of this ‘porous liquid’. Over 100 ns simulations, 100 % of the cages remained empty at all times, both at 350 K and 400 K. Further modelling confirmed that occupation of the cages by the 15-crown-5 solvent molecules, or by the crown ether substituents on the outside of the cages, would incur high free energy costs (full details in the Supplementary Information). In fact, the potential of mean force computed along a reaction coordinate that eventually forces the occupation of the cage by a crown solvent molecule shows no energy minimum when the solvent is inside the cage (Supplementary Figure 14). Therefore, the cages can be concluded to remain empty in the neat porous liquid over time scales that are longer than the MD simulations.

The distribution of cavity sizes, $\rho(R)$, was computed for the porous liquid, $\rho_{\text{mix}}(R)$, and for the pure 15-crown-5 solvent, $\rho_{\text{sol}}(R)$, both at the same temperature and pressure. $\rho(R)$ is the so-called insertion probability, which measures the likelihood that a hard sphere of radius R could be inserted at any arbitrary point within the liquid without overlapping with the van der Waals volume of any atom of the liquid¹¹. The snapshot in Figure 2a represents a typical configuration in the MD simulation for the 1:12 mixture at 350 K. The coloured surfaces show the empty

cavities both inside (red) and outside (yellow) the cage cores, which are accessible to spherical probes of radius 2.0–2.6 Å. This probe radius range was chosen because it reveals the cavities that are sufficiently large to accommodate methane as a solute molecule. Figure 2a shows that the cage cavities account for most of the large, molecule-sized cavities in the liquid. This can be quantified with respect to the pure 15-crown-5 solvent by calculating the relative porosity of the mixture, defined as $V_{\text{rel}}(R) = \rho_{\text{mix}}(R)/\rho_{\text{sol}}(R)$. A value of $V_{\text{rel}}(R)$ greater than one indicates that the fractional free volume accessible to a spherical probe of radius R is larger in the porous liquid than in the pure solvent. As might be expected, the cages have no effect on the concentration of small, sub-molecular cavities in the liquid, and $V_{\text{rel}}(R)$ is around 1 for $R < 0.1$ nm (Figure 2b). However, the cages dramatically increase the concentration of molecule-sized cavities with radii between 0.1–0.25 nm. This effect is particularly strong at 350 K, where $V_{\text{rel}}(R)$ approaches 1900 for $R = 0.24$ nm. $V_{\text{rel}}(R)$ is larger at 350 K than at 400 K because more large cavities form transiently in the solvent at higher temperatures due to increased thermal motion. Overall, the fractional void volume in the porous liquid due to the cages was estimated as 0.7 % of the total volume. This is small compared to typical pore volumes in porous solids but it can dramatically affect the solubility of solutes in the liquid.

Positron annihilation lifetime spectroscopy (PALS) experiments were used to investigate whether the cages in the porous liquid were empty. PALS probes the electron density distribution in materials, in particular the presence of empty pores. In insulating materials, ortho-Positronium (o-Ps) is generated, and its lifetime can be correlated to the average pore diameter in the material by a well-established model¹⁶. Thus, by comparing the o-Ps lifetimes observed in the pure (solid) cage material, the pure 15-crown-5 solvent, and the porous liquid, we investigated whether the

cages in the porous liquid were empty. Several measurements were made on each material to check for reproducibility and to enable separation of the raw data for the porous liquid into constituent components. The o-Ps lifetime of 2.05 ± 0.1 ns measured for the pure solid cage at $+30$ °C correlates to an average cavity diameter of 0.55 nm, in reasonable agreement with our MD simulations. The o-Ps lifetime of 3.00 ± 0.1 ns for the pure 15-crown-5 solvent at $+30$ °C is also in agreement with previous literature¹⁷. This latter measurement can be explained by the known phenomenon of o-Ps bubble formation¹⁷, rather than any pre-existing pores in the pure 15-crown-5 solvent. The o-Ps lifetime measured for the porous liquid at $+30$ °C was 2.34 ± 0.02 ns. If the cages are empty in the porous liquid, then the o-Ps lifetime should correspond to a combination of the lifetimes measured for the pure cage and the pure 15-crown-5 solvent. To investigate whether the o-Ps lifetime for the porous liquid could be separated into these individual contributions, both free and forced fits were applied to the raw data. Allowing both components to refine freely did not give a satisfactorily clear separation (large error bars were observed, see Supplementary Figure S23). However, a forced fit where one component was fixed at 3.00 ns, consistent with the anticipated contribution from the pure 15-crown-5 solvent, and where the other component was allowed to refine freely, did result in satisfactory separation of these two components (Supplementary Figure S24). The freely refined component had a value of 1.91 ± 0.08 ns, which corresponds well to the lifetime observed for the pure empty cage (2.05 ± 0.1 ns). The PALS measurements are thus consistent with the presence of empty cages, or molecular ‘pores’, in the porous liquid.

Both MD simulations and PALS data suggested that the porous liquid might have a dramatically increased capacity to dissolve solute molecules up to *ca.* 0.5 nm in diameter relative to the pure crown solvent, particularly at temperatures of 350 K or lower (Fig. 2b). Acidic gases, such as

carbon dioxide, are absorbed readily by conventional, non-porous solvents such as water or aqueous amines⁴. We therefore focused our initial studies on methane, the main component of natural gas. Methane, like other important gases such as hydrogen, lacks the Lewis acidity of carbon dioxide and hence cannot be absorbed using liquid amines. The methane solubility in pure 15-crown-5 at 30 °C was found to be 6.7 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$. By contrast, the solubility of methane in the porous liquid was 52 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ at 30 °C. This represents, approximately, an 8-fold increase in solubility in the porous liquid compared to the pure solvent. The methane solubility decreased at higher temperatures, both in the porous liquid and in the non-porous solvent, but the solubility was much higher in the porous liquid at all temperatures studied (Figure 3a).

Molecular simulations for solutions of methane in the porous liquid suggested that most methane molecules would reside in the cage cavities, rather than in transient intermolecular cavities (Figure 3b and Supplementary Information for details). For example, at 350 K and a gas pressure of 1 atm, 70 % of the methane molecules in the liquid were located inside the cages; that is, less than 2.5 Å from a cage centre. These simulations support the methane solubility measurements by predicting that methane should be significantly more soluble in the porous liquid. The enhanced solubility cannot be ascribed to a simple solvating effect of the aromatic cage walls because methane solubility in pure aromatic solvents, such as benzene, is lower than for the porous liquid (26.8 $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ at 25 °C)^{18,19}. The methane absorption capacity is remarkably high for a liquid, albeit much lower than many porous solids, such as zeolitic imidazolate frameworks²⁰.

This porous liquid differs fundamentally from porous macromolecular liquids containing hollow colloidal silica spheres,²¹ where the voids in the liquid are much larger than the molecule scale.

Solutions of other types of organic cages with smaller internal pores, known as carcerands and cryptophanes, also have pores that are most likely unsolvated because even relatively small solvent molecules are excluded⁸⁻¹⁰. The existence of permanent cavities was not, however, supported by simulations or by PALS measurements, nor was enhanced bulk solubility of gases noted in those studies. This is probably because the solutions were very dilute; for example, based on a 2 mM host solution of a cryptophane in CDCl₃, as described in ref. 10, the molar ratio of cage to solvent molecules was 1:6000, compared with the 1:12 solution that we study here. The cryptophane cavity volume in that study¹⁰ was reported to be 81 Å³. If the cryptophane is assumed not to have collapsed, then this represents just 0.01 % of the total volume, which is 70 times lower than in our study. The much higher density of cavities in our system demonstrates a previously unexplored way to control the bulk solubility of gases and other solutes in liquids.

While these porous liquids might not compete with porous solids for gas storage, we envisage other applications, such as gas separations, which utilize the high concentration of prefabricated cavities in the liquid. A practical scale up issue is the six-step cage synthesis (Supplementary Information), which has modest overall yield (3.1–6.5 %). Also, the viscosity of the crown ether porous liquid is rather high (20 to >140 cP). We therefore developed an alternative, more scalable route, where a mixture of diamines is used to make a ‘scrambled’ cage.²² The resulting mixture of scrambled cage molecules has much higher solubility than similar cages prepared from a single diamine (see table, Fig. 4a) because of increased structural disorder.²³

Multi-gram quantities of the scrambled cage are easily prepared from commercially available starting materials via this one-step synthesis (Fig. 4a; 77 % yield). As for the crown-cage, scrambled cages can form concentrated solutions (10 wt. %) in a size-excluded solvent, hexachloropropene (PCP). These solutions were at least ten times less viscous (11.7 cP at 295 K, 0.112 mmol/g cage in PCP) than solutions of the crown-cage porous liquid at comparable cage concentrations, probably because of the lack of bulky crown-ether substituents. Like the crown-cage porous liquid, the scrambled porous liquids showed much higher methane gas solubilities than the non-porous PCP solvent (51 $\mu\text{mol/g}$ versus 6.7 $\mu\text{mol/g}$ at 293 K) (Figure 3a). Other gases such as nitrogen, carbon dioxide and xenon also showed enhanced solubilities, and the trend in gas solubility follows the calculated Henry's coefficients²⁴ and isosteric heats of sorption for these gases in *solid* porous cages of this size and geometry (Supplementary Figure 35), again suggesting that gas solubility is dominated by the unoccupied cage cavities. A shift in the ¹H NMR signal for methane was observed from -0.24 ppm in neat hexachloropropene to -2.80 ppm in the porous liquid (Supplementary Figure 30). This strong shielding effect ($\Delta\delta = -2.56$ ppm) supports the presence of methane in the cage cavities on the NMR timescale.^{25,26}

As for the crown-cage porous liquids, the increased gas solubility stems from the absence of functional groups that can penetrate the cage cavities, in this case because the peripheral methyl groups on the scrambled cages are too small to do this. By contrast, other organic molecules of the correct size can compete with gases for the cage cavities. For example, addition of chloroform rapidly displaces xenon from a xenon-saturated scrambled porous liquid, whereas addition of a larger, size-excluded guest, 1-*t*-butyl-3,5-dimethylbenzene, does not (Fig. 4b; Supplementary Video 1). This allows dramatic solubility switching to occur with the addition of

a remarkably small amount of a cosolvent trigger. For example, 10.05 mL STP of xenon is released from 5.9 g of the porous liquid by addition of just 0.046 mL (0.78 vol. %) of CHCl₃. This remarkably sharp switching behavior can be ascribed to a molecular displacement mechanism, rather than to a change in the bulk solvent properties.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Preparation of the porous liquid. **a**, Synthesis of the crown-ether cage; for the synthesis of the crown-ether diamine, see the Supplementary Information. **b**, The empty and highly soluble cage molecule, left, defines the pore space; the 15-crown-5 solvent, middle, provides fluidity but is too large to enter the cage cavities. The concentrated solution (the porous liquid) flows at room temperature, right. Key: C = grey; O = red, N = blue, H = white. Space-filling spheres are used to highlight the core of the cage. Ball and stick rendering is used to represent the crown-ether substituents on the cage and the 15-crown-5 solvent. All H-atoms except those attached to aromatic rings of the cage compound have been omitted for clarity

Figure 2. Molecular simulations for the porous liquid show unoccupied molecular-sized pores. **a**, Representative configuration of the porous liquid at 350 K. To highlight the cage cores, all crown ether solvent molecules and crown ether substituents on the cages have been omitted. Red and yellow surfaces indicate empty pores located inside or outside the cages, respectively. **b**, Calculated relative porosity, $V_{rel}(R)$, of the porous liquid at 350 K and 400 K. The inset is an expansion of the 400 K result. At 350 K, the porous liquid has around 1900 times as many methane-sized cavities (probe radius ~ 0.24 nm) than does the pure solvent.

Figure 3. Dissolution of a gas (methane) in the porous liquid. **a** Methane solubility for the porous liquid (in green) and the non-porous 15-crown-5 solvent (in blue). The gas is around 8 times more soluble per mass of the porous liquid at 1 atm pressure than per mass of the pure solvent. This corresponds to a 13-fold increase in solubility per mole of porous liquid. The error bars represent the overall uncertainty of the experimental data calculated by error propagation of

the measured quantities. **b** Molecular simulation of methane solubility in the porous liquid. Snapshot generated during a Grand Canonical Monte Carlo simulation showing a sample configuration of the 1:12 mixture at 350 K under a methane pressure of 1 atm. Methane molecules are shown in red whenever they lie inside a cage core; that is, less than 2.5 Å from the geometric center of the cage. Methane molecules are shown in yellow when outside of a cage core. Solvent molecules and crown-ether substituents on the cage molecules have been omitted for clarity.

Figure 4. One-pot synthesis of ‘scrambled’ porous liquids with enhanced gas solubility.

a, Mixtures of scrambled cage molecules were prepared in a scalable, one-pot synthesis. These desymmetrized cages are up to 100 times more soluble than cages prepared from single diamines, such as CC3-*R*⁶ or CC13.²³ PCP is hexachloropropene, a bulky solvent which, like 15-crown-5, is size-excluded from the scrambled cage cavities. **b**, The scrambled porous liquids show enhanced solubilities for methane and also for other gases such as N₂, CO₂, and xenon (Supplementary Figures 32–35). Again, the scrambled cages contain no functional groups that can penetrate into the cage cavities. To illustrate this principle, addition of a small, interpenetrating guest, CHCl₃, liberates xenon gas rapidly from a xenon-saturated porous liquid solution (top photograph; see also Supplementary Video 1). By contrast, addition of a large, size-excluded guest, 1-*t*-butyl-3,5-dimethylbenzene, results in no gas evolution (bottom photograph).

METHODS

Synthesis of the porous crown ether cage. The cage was prepared in six steps. The details for the 5-step synthesis of the crown-ether diamine, (15*S*,16*S*)-1,4,7,10,13-pentaoxacycloheptadecane-15,16-diamine, are given in the Supplementary Information. Reaction of this diamine (6 equiv.) with 1,3,5-triformylbenzene (4 equiv.) in chloroform at 60 °C gave the desired imine cage in a one-pot [4+6] cycloimination reaction (Figure 1a).^{6,7} Mpt decomposes

>180 °C; **IR** ($\nu_{\text{max}}/\text{cm}^{-1}$) 2858, 1649, 1598, 1445, 1352, 1298, 1250, 1111, 978, 943, 882; ^1H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl_3) δ_{H} 8.12 (12H, s), 7.92 (12H, s), 4.03 (12 H, d, $J = 7.0$ Hz), 3.75–3.58 (120 H, m); ^{13}C NMR (126 MHz, CDCl_3) δ_{C} 161.06, 136.56, 130.20, 73.25, 72.68, 71.70, 71.09, 70.87, 70.60; HRMS (ES+) calc. for $\text{C}_{108}\text{H}_{156}\text{N}_{12}\text{Na}_2\text{O}_{30}$ $[\text{M}+2\text{Na}]^{2+}$ 1073.5422, found 1073.5496; CHN Analysis calc. for $\text{C}_{108}\text{H}_{156}\text{N}_{12}\text{O}_{30}$: C, 61.70; H, 7.48; N, 7.99; found: C, 59.57; H, 7.34; N, 7.74.

Synthesis of scrambled porous cages. The scrambled cage mixture was synthesized in one step via the reaction of 1,3,5-triformylbenzene (4 equiv.), 1,2-diamino-2-methylpropane²³ (3 equiv.), and (*R,R*)-1,2-diaminocyclohexane⁶ (3 equiv.) in dichloromethane at room temperature (yield = 77 %). Full details are given in the Supplementary Information

Preparation the porous liquids. The crown-cage (0.100 g, 0.0475 mmol, 1 equiv.) was dissolved in 15-crown-5 (113 μL , 0.5707 mmol, 12 equiv.) by sonicating the mixture for 2 h, resulting in a viscous, pale yellow liquid. For the scrambled cages, the solid material was first degassed and then dissolved in rigorously purified hexachloropropene (PCP) to form a pale yellow 20 % w/v solution.

Molecular dynamics (MD) simulations. Atomistic models for the crown-cage were constructed using the OPLS all atom force-field²⁷. We computed the free energy cost for introducing a single 15-crown-5 molecule into a cage cavity using the Umbrella Sampling (US) method²⁸ combined with the Weighted Histogram Analysis Method (WHAM)²⁹. The US simulations were performed with the GROMACS-4.5.3 code³⁰, in the canonical ensemble (NVT) at 400 K, using a time-step of 0.001 ps. Bulk MD simulations were run on a sample comprising 40 cages and 480 solvent molecules enclosed in a cubic and periodic simulation box in the isobaric-isothermal ensemble (NPT), using a time-step of 1 fs, a Nose-Hoover thermostat^{31,32}, and a Parrinello-Rahman

barostat³³, with time constants of 0.1 ps and 1 ps, respectively. Lennard-Jones interactions were cut off at 1.4 nm, while Coulomb forces were computed using the smooth particle mesh Ewald technique³⁴. Full computational details are given in the Supplementary Information.

Positron annihilation lifetime spectroscopy (PALS). Measurements were performed as function of temperature in a standard experimental set up, as described previously³⁵.

Gas solubility measurements. An isochoric technique³⁶ was used to measure methane gas solubility in the pure 15-crown-5 solvent and in the porous liquid. For the scrambled cages, gas solubilities were either measured by ¹H NMR (*e.g.*, for methane) or, for larger bulk samples of the porous liquid, by displacing the gas by addition of an excess of a second, small guest (*e.g.*, chloroform, Fig. 5b) and measuring the amount of gas (*e.g.*, xenon) evolved.

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Author Contributions N.G. and R.L.G. synthesized the porous crown cage. M.D.P. and G.M. carried out the molecular simulations. K.R. and T.K. performed the PALS measurements. M.C.G. and L.P. measured the methane gas solubilities for the crown cage porous liquid. R.L.G. and A.I.C. conceived the synthesis of the scrambled porous imine cages. R.L.G. synthesized and characterized the scrambled cage porous liquid and measured its gas solubilities. S.L.J. led the project overall and conceived the non-interpenetrating crown-ether cage design together with N.G. S.L.J. and A.I.C. led the writing of the manuscript with contributions from all coauthors.

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