



Ethylene and ethane transport properties of hydrogen-stable Ag^+ -based facilitated transport membranes

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ABSTRACT

A chemically specific coordination complex between solvated Ag^+ ions in polymer membranes and double-bonded olefin molecules, such as ethylene or propylene, results in a facilitated transport mechanism and increased olefin-paraffin selectivity. However, previous studies on Ag^+ -containing facilitated transport membranes report poor stability of the Ag^+ carrier, especially in the presence of reducing gases, such as H_2 , H_2S , and acetylene commonly present in industrial process streams. Solid polymer electrolytes consisting of crosslinked poly(ethylene glycol) diacrylate and up to 70 wt% silver bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide (AgTf_2N) salt are synthesized through a facile and scalable UV-crosslinking process. Following over 10 weeks of pure H_2 permeation at 4 bar and 35°C , the membrane retains 90% of its initial pure-gas ethylene-ethane selectivity. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy shows no change in the oxidation state of the dissolved Ag^+ ions. At the highest AgTf_2N concentration (70 wt%), pure-gas ethylene-ethane selectivity and permeability are 21 and 4.0 Barrer, respectively, yielding performance surpassing the polymeric gas separation membrane upper bound. High ethylene-ethane permeability selectivity results largely from increased solubility selectivity in the Ag^+ -containing membranes. Dual-mode ethylene sorption is observed and modeled using a chemical equilibrium model. Diffusion coefficients are calculated according to the solution-diffusion model.

1. Introduction

Olefinic compounds are vital chemical building blocks for plastics, engineered fluids, surfactants, and plasticizers [1]. Ethylene and propylene are the largest volume organic commodity chemicals, with global production in excess of 141 million tonnes and 70 million tonnes, respectively [2]. These essential molecules are commercially produced via either steam or catalytic cracking of naphtha, ethane, or propane [3]. Steam cracking is an equilibrium process, and commercial catalytic cracking achieves approximately 30% olefin yield per pass [4–6], so purification is required to achieve polymerization grade olefin (97–99% olefin). Other emerging processes, such as oxidative coupling of methane (OCM) and methanol to olefins (MTO), in addition to the more mature Fischer-Tropsch process, also require olefin-paraffin separation [7,8]. Electrocatalytic reduction of CO_2 to ethylene does not require olefin-paraffin separation but is not currently practiced industrially due to low energy efficiency and competition with inexpensive natural gas feedstocks [9]. Because of the similar volatilities of corresponding olefin and paraffin gas pairs, the commercial separation process, cryogenic

distillation, is energy and capital intensive [10,11]. Olefin splitters with hundreds of stages operate at temperatures down to -160°C and elevated pressures up to 30 bar, comprising one third of the total energy use in naphtha steam cracking [5,12]. Overall, ethylene and propylene purification account for 0.3% of global energy use [13]. These separations are essential and ubiquitous in the global chemical industry, and improvements in energy efficiency or process intensification [14] are highly desirable.

Gas separation membranes could offer energy efficiency improvements in comparison to cryogenic distillation because membranes do not require a phase change to affect separation and can be operated at ambient temperature. One immediate application of olefin-paraffin separation membranes could be recovery of the 15% of ethylene that leaves a poly(ethylene) facility as waste gas [15]. Membrane systems could also be used in conjunction with distillation as an additional pathway to improving efficiency and debottlenecking processes [16,17]. Finally, membrane-based olefin-paraffin separation could be an enabling technology for mobile, decentralized natural gas processing plants [18,19]. It has been estimated that membranes with a mixed-gas

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ethylene-ethane selectivity ranging from 10 to 30 could be viable for hybrid distillation processes, increasing existing capacity (debottlenecking) and potentially reducing energy intensity in the case of higher selectivity membranes [20]. However, traditional gas separation materials exhibit poor performance for olefin-paraffin separations.

Steady-state gas permeation in dense polymeric membranes occurs via solution-diffusion transport as described by Eq. (1), where the gas permeability, P_A , is the thickness- and pressure-normalized molar flux of gas A, and S_A and D_A are the solubility and diffusivity of penetrant A in the polymer matrix, respectively [21].

$$P_A = D_A S_A \quad (1)$$

Gases first dissolve in the polymer matrix at the high-pressure face of the polymer before diffusing across the membrane through transient free volume elements created through polymer thermal motion. Gas solubility is generally correlated with gas condensability, and diffusivity is inversely correlated with the size of the penetrant. The ideal selectivity between two gas species is defined as the ratio of their permeabilities, as shown in Eq. (2) [22].

$$\alpha_{AB} = \frac{P_A}{P_B} \quad (2)$$

Corresponding olefin-paraffin pairs, such as ethylene and ethane, have similar volatility (as measured by gas critical temperature or normal boiling point) and kinetic diameter, as shown in Table 1. Thus, traditional size-sieving gas separation polymers, such as polyimides, typically exhibit pure-gas selectivity values less than 5 for ethylene-ethane or 20 for propylene-propane separations [23,24]. Further, Robeson identified a fundamental tradeoff between gas permeability and selectivity across a broad range of polymeric membrane materials, so membranes exhibiting sufficient olefin-paraffin selectivity are hampered by low olefin permeability [25,26].

Facilitated transport mechanisms have been explored to improve the separation properties of polymeric membranes in several applications, such as incorporation of amine moieties to increase CO₂ transport and metal ion porphyrin complexes to increase O₂ transport [30]. Silver cations (Ag⁺)—as well as other transition metal ions of similar electronic structure—coordinate reversibly with olefin compounds, but not paraffins, to form transition metal-olefin complexes, typically described by the Dewar-Chatt-Duncanson model, i.e., π backbonding [31]. Research has primarily focused on Ag⁺ due to favorable electronegativity for π -complexation and low lattice energy of Ag (I) salts when compared with other transition metal salts [32]. To form an olefin facilitated transport membrane, Ag⁺ is dispersed in a solvating medium, serving as a selective olefin carrier species. Olefin transport is affected by the solvent properties of the medium and the strength of interaction between Ag⁺ and its corresponding anion. Various embodiments of this idea include ion exchange of Ag⁺ in charged membranes [33,34], recirculated and regenerated liquid Ag⁺ solutions in gas-liquid contactors [35], membranes containing ionic liquids (IL) with dissolved Ag (I) salts [36–42], and dry solid polymer electrolytes with dissolved Ag (I) salts [43–51]. Ag (I) salts are highly soluble in polymers containing ether oxygen moieties due to complexation between the ether oxygen heteroatoms and the Ag⁺ cation, which is often ascribed to differences in their Lewis acidity according to Pearson's hard-soft acid base model [52,

53]. Thus, polymer electrolytes formed from polyethers, such as poly(ethylene oxide) (PEO), are a convenient platform for evaluating the performance of different Ag (I) salts for olefin facilitated transport [54]. In a solid polymer electrolyte facilitated transport membrane, Ag⁺ ions coordinated to the polymer backbone act as fixed-site carrier species for olefin transport [55], with olefin molecules reversibly binding to Ag⁺ and transferring between sites throughout the membrane as shown in Fig. 1(a) [56–58]. Cohesive energy density is a measure of the energy necessary for free volume elements to open in a polymer matrix according to Meares' model of activated diffusion [59]. Solvated ions increase the cohesive energy density of the polymer matrix, reducing the diffusivity of all gases as depicted in Fig. 1(b) [43,59,60]. These two mechanisms together increase the selectivity of the membrane for olefins over paraffins.

Ag⁺ facilitated transport membranes show high olefin-paraffin selectivity [45,61]. However, the high reactivity of silver ions makes them vulnerable to poisoning by reducing gas species, such as hydrogen (H₂), hydrogen sulfide (H₂S), and acetylene [62,63]. Merkel et al. investigated a polymer electrolyte consisting of silver tetrafluoroborate (AgBF₄) solvated in a segmented polyether-block-polyamide copolymer (PEBAX 2533). The mixed-gas ethylene-ethane selectivity of an 80 wt% AgBF₄ membrane dropped from approximately 40 to unity after seven days of pure hydrogen permeation at 2 bar [64]. Industrially, H₂ concentrations of 1–4 wt% are typically found in the olefin-rich stream following dehydrogenation [65]. Though H₂S is removed prior to cracking via a Residue Desulfurization Unit (RDS), unrefined natural gas contains up to 1–2 vol% H₂S. Likewise, acetylene is hydrogenated back to ethylene, but still constitutes approximately 1% of the dehydrogenation product stream [66]. Thus, the propensity for reduction of Ag⁺ to Ag⁰ by reducing gases, often referred to as “carrier instability” in the literature, is one of the primary obstacles to the commercialization of facilitated transport membranes for olefin-paraffin separation [67].

To improve the stability of Ag⁺ facilitated transport membranes, researchers have co-dissolved additional ionic species such as Al(NO₃)₃ and ionic liquids or added stabilizing agents such as peroxides and acids [68–70]. However, few studies have measured long-term stability to reducing gases. It was recently discovered that the pure-gas propylene-propane selectivity was stable with hydrogen exposure for supported ionic liquid membranes (SILMs) containing immobilized 1-hexyl-2,3-dimethylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethanesulfonyl)imide ([hmmim]⁺ [Tf₂N][−]) or 1-hexyl-3-methylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethanesulfonyl)imide ([hmim]⁺ [Tf₂N][−]) ionic liquids with additional dissolved silver bis(trifluoromethanesulfonyl)imide (AgTf₂N) salt [38,39,71]. Our study extends this discovery to polymer electrolyte facilitated membranes by investigating the hydrogen stability and facilitated transport performance of polymeric membranes formed by direct dissolution of AgTf₂N into a crosslinked poly(ethylene glycol) diacrylate (XLPEGDA) matrix.

2. Methods

2.1. Materials

AgTf₂N was synthesized via an ion exchange reaction between Ag₂O (Strem Chemicals, 99%) and bistriflimic acid (HTf₂N), which was in turn obtained by reaction between lithium bistriflimide (LiTf₂N, Sigma-Aldrich, 99.95%) and sulfuric acid (Aldon Corp., 18 M). LiTf₂N was dissolved in concentrated sulfuric acid to form a 30 wt% solution, stirred at 90°C for 3 h, and then vacuum distilled at 90°C. The product (103.2 g) was dissolved in deionized water (100 mL), and Ag₂O (85.7 g) was subsequently added (1:1 M ratio between HTf₂N and Ag₂O) before heating the mixture to 60°C and stirring for 2 h. Water was removed via a rotary evaporator, and the product was dried at 50°C under high vacuum. AgTf₂N was obtained as a white solid (141.2 g, 99%) and found to be free of LiTf₂N impurities using an Agilent 710-ES Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical Emission Spectrometer (ICP-OES) according to

Table 1
Thermophysical properties of selected corresponding olefin-paraffin pairs [27–29].

Gas	Critical Temperature [K]	Normal Boiling Point [K]	Kinetic Diameter [Å]
Ethylene	282.4	169.3	4.16
Ethane	305.4	184.6	4.44
Propylene	364.9	225.5	4.68
Propane	369.8	231.1	5.06

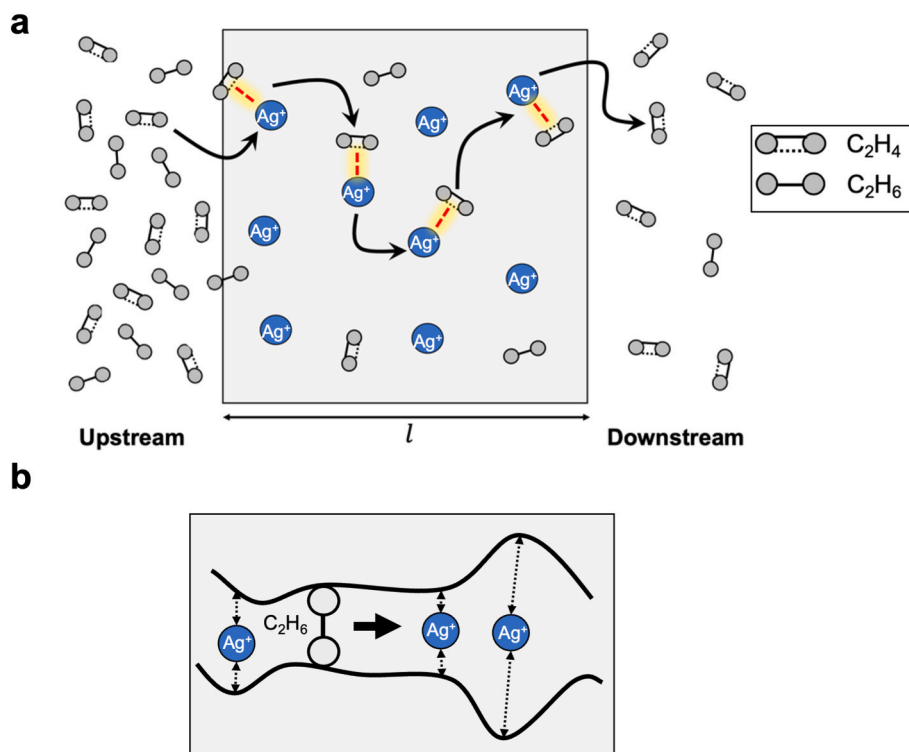


Fig. 1. Schematic illustrating: (a) Facilitated transport of ethylene between Ag^+ fixed-site carriers. (b) Interactions between Ag^+ and ether oxygen moieties serve as soft physical crosslinks, reducing gas diffusivity.

Table 2

Description of $AgTf_2N$ XLPEGDA membranes synthesized for gas permeation studies. $AgTf_2N$ concentrations correspond to final compositions of dry membranes, and EO signifies ether oxygen repeat units in the polymer.

Membrane	$AgTf_2N$ concentration [wt%]	$AgTf_2N$ concentration [mol Ag^+ :mol EO]	Mass ratio of acetonitrile relative to PEGDA ₇₀₀ [g:g]
XLPEGDA100	0	–	0:100
19.5 wt% $AgTf_2N$ XLPEGDA100	19.5	1:29.8	0:100
33 wt% $AgTf_2N$ XLPEGDA100	33	1:14.6	0:100
50 wt% $AgTf_2N$ XLPEGDA80	50	1:7.2	20:80
60 wt% $AgTf_2N$ XLPEGDA80	60	1:4.8	20:80
70 wt% $AgTf_2N$ XLPEGDA66	70	1:3.6	33:66

Standard Method 3120 [72] (Table S1). Acetonitrile (99.8%), 1-hydroxycyclohexyl phenyl ketone (HCPK) (99%), and poly(ethylene glycol diacrylate) of molecular weight 700 (PEGDA₇₀₀) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used without further purification. The purity of HCPK was confirmed to be >99.9% via gas chromatography followed by mass spectrometry (GC-MS). The purity of PEGDA700 was confirmed to be greater than 99% via quantitative analysis of the nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectra in deuterated chloroform ($CDCl_3$) recorded on a 400 MHz Agilent NMR spectrometer. GC-MS and NMR spectra are presented in Figs. S1 and S2. Ultra-high purity (99.9%) ethylene and hydrogen were purchased from Airgas, and ultra-high purity ethane was purchased from Matheson. All gases were used without further purification.

2.2. Membrane synthesis

Dense crosslinked PEGDA (XLPEGDA) membranes were synthesized via a well-known UV-crosslinking procedure [73]. Prior to crosslinking, a solution containing $AgTf_2N$, PEGDA₇₀₀, and HCPK initiator was stirred for at least 1 h. For higher concentration membranes (>33 wt% $AgTf_2N$), acetonitrile was added to the pre-polymerization solution to increase

salt solubility. Details for each membrane sample are provided in Table 2. The pre-polymerization solution was sandwiched between two UV-transparent quartz plates, and crosslinking was performed in a Fischer Scientific FB UVXL-1000 crosslinking oven with 90 s of exposure to 312 nm UV light at an intensity of 3 mW cm^{-2} . Calibrated stainless steel spacers were used to control the thickness of the resulting film and ensure uniformity. Upon exposure to UV light, a free radical polymerization is initiated with reaction of the acrylate groups on either end of the difunctionalized PEGDA₇₀₀ monomer to form a three-dimensional crosslinked network [74,75]. Solvent extraction to remove any non-polymerized monomer (sol) was not performed due to the potential of also removing dissolved $AgTf_2N$. The concentration of sol following crosslinking in pure XLPEGDA films has been found to be minimal [73]. Following polymerization, the membranes were peeled from the casting plates and dried under vacuum ($\sim 1 \text{ Pa}$) overnight at ambient temperature, with precautions taken to limit exposure to light. Heat could not be used during the membrane drying step because the membranes showed discoloration, i.e., reduction of Ag^+ , within a few hours. There was no discoloration to indicate reduction of Ag^+ due to UV exposure during crosslinking, and discoloration did not become evident until over 4 min of UV exposure as seen in Fig. S3.

2.3. Gas permeation

Films of uniform thickness were fixed to brass support disks with a filter paper backing using epoxy resin. Film thickness was measured using digital calipers (Mitutoyo, $\pm 1 \mu\text{m}$ resolution) and ranged from 40 to 200 μm . Membranes with a thickness of 200 μm were easier to handle and developed defects less frequently than thinner samples but could also exhibit gas flux below the measurement threshold of the gas permeation apparatus at higher AgTf_2N loadings. Membranes were loaded into a high-pressure Millipore filter holder, serving as the permeation cell as part of a constant-volume, variable-pressure permeation system, shown in Fig. S4 [76]. Samples were degassed overnight at 35 °C to remove any sorbed gas from the sample. The pure-gas permeabilities of H_2 , ethylene, and ethane at 35 °C were measured at several transmembrane pressure points ranging between 2 and 8 bar. The rise in downstream pressure due to gas flux was measured with an MKS Baratron pressure transducer with a 1.33 kPa range, and the upstream pressure was measured with a Honeywell STJE pressure transducer with a 7 MPa range. Gas permeability is reported in units of Barrer, where 1 Barrer = $10^{-10} \text{ cm}^3(\text{STP}) \text{ cm cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ cmHg}^{-1}$. Pure-gas ethylene and ethane permeability were measured for several samples of 50 wt% AgTf_2N XLPEGDA80, and the uncertainty was estimated as two standard deviations of the mean (i.e., 95% confidence interval), as shown in Fig. S5. The relative uncertainty in permeability values for the other AgTf_2N concentrations is estimated based on that of the 50 wt% AgTf_2N sample.

2.4. Gas sorption

A gravimetric method was used to determine ethylene and ethane solubility in the polymer electrolyte membranes. A magnetic suspension balance manufactured by Rubotherm GmbH was used to monitor the weight change at a fixed temperature and pressure. Approximately 0.5 g of sample was added to the sample bucket and degassed to roughly 1 Pa. After any volatile impurities were evaporated, and the measured weight was constant for at least 2 h, the chamber was pressurized in incremental steps with either ethylene or ethane to a maximum pressure of 1400 kPa. Vapor-liquid equilibrium between the challenge gas and the polymer electrolyte membrane sample was considered to have been achieved once the measured weight remained constant for at least 2 h. All values were corrected for buoyancy effects according to methods reported elsewhere [77,78]. The experimental error was estimated as the average relative difference in ethylene sorption at several applied pressures between two different samples of 50 wt% AgTf_2N XLPEGDA80, which was found to be 7.1%.

2.5. Density measurements

Density of the samples was measured at ambient temperature via expansion of low-pressure helium into a calibrated chamber containing the polymer sample using a Micromeritics Accupync II 1345 gas pycnometer. Measurement uncertainty is taken to be the manufacturer's estimate of $\pm 0.002 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ for the instrument configuration used. Sorption of helium into the polymer sample is considered to be negligible.

2.6. Thermal analysis

The glass transition temperature (T_g) of the solid polymer electrolytes was measured via differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) using a DSC2500 manufactured by TA instruments. Samples ranging from 5 to 10 mg were measured in triplicate with three heating and two cooling steps performed for each membrane sample. Uncertainty was estimated as the 95% confidence interval calculated from the variance of the three samples. Samples were cooled to -80°C and held isothermally for 5 min before ramping to 30°C at a rate of $10^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$, with the reverse procedure performed for cooling steps. The T_g was measured using the half

height midpoint of the step change in heat flow ascribed to the glass transition phenomena during the third heating step, as shown in Fig. S6. The accuracy of the technique was verified by comparing the T_g of the neat polymer sample (XLPEGDA100) with a value from the scientific literature [79]. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was performed using a TGA/DSC 3⁺ manufactured by Mettler Toledo. Samples were heated from room temperature to decomposition at a rate of $10^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$ with $50.0 \text{ mL min}^{-1} \text{ N}_2$ flow.

2.7. Wide-angle X-ray scattering (WAXS)

WAXS spectra were collected for XLPEGDA polymer electrolytes ranging from 0 to 70 wt% AgTf_2N over diffraction angles (2θ) ranging from 5° to 50° at a rate of 2° min^{-1} with a Rigaku Miniflex 600 X-ray diffractometer. The X-ray source was monochromated with a wavelength of 0.154 nm. Samples with thickness of approximately 50 μm were adhered uniformly onto a clean glass slide and spectra were collected in ambient conditions. WAXS spectra have had the background spectrum, collected on a blank glass slide, subtracted.

2.8. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS)

XPS analyses were performed using a Kratos Axis Ultra DLD XPS, equipped with an Al $K\alpha$ monochromatic X-ray source with a power set at 120 W. The photoelectrons were collected with an emission angle (EA) of 90° and from a sample area of $300 \mu\text{m} \times 700 \mu\text{m}$. For high-resolution spectra, the measurements were performed in constant-analyzer-energy (CAE) mode with a pass energy of 20 eV and a step size of 0.1 eV (full-width-at-half-maximum of the peak for Ag $3d_{5/2}$ is 0.77 eV). Survey spectra were collected using a pass energy of 160 eV and a step size of 1 eV. The residual pressure in the analytical chamber was $\sim 1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ Pa}$. The instrument was calibrated according to ISO 15472:2001 with an accuracy of $\pm 0.1 \text{ eV}$. The high-resolution spectra were processed using CasaXPS (v2.3.16, Casa Software Ltd, UK). All peaks were calibrated with respect to the adventitious hydrocarbon C 1s at 284.8 eV since a charge neutralizer was used to compensate for charge build-up. The charge neutralizer was set at 1.6 amps. Peak fitting was performed after background subtraction, which was carried out using an iterated Shirley-Sherwood algorithm [80].

2.9. Membrane stability to H_2

To evaluate the stability of the AgTf_2N polymer electrolyte membranes in the presence of H_2 , the pure-gas ethylene-ethane selectivity was measured following consecutive 24-hr. periods of pure H_2 permeation. Thus, pure-gas permeation experiments of ethylene, ethane, and H_2 were performed and subsequently repeated in that order. The permeability of ethylene and ethane were measured according to the method described above at a pressure of 2 bar. Two different conditions of hydrogen exposure were tested, one experiment at 2 bar and a second, more strongly reducing condition, at 4 bar. Images were taken before and after hydrogen exposure to qualitatively assess the presence of Ag^0 nanoparticles, which have been reported to form when Ag^+ is reduced to Ag^0 [81]. XPS measurements were conducted on samples following completion of the H_2 stability test and control samples from the same membrane not exposed to H_2 . The binding energy peak of the Ag $3d_{5/2}$ spectra was evaluated to assess whether the average oxidation state of Ag^+ had changed. To verify the capability of the XPS technique to evaluate reduction of Ag^+ to Ag^0 , membrane samples containing Ag^+ were exposed to UV light using the same conditions from the membrane synthesis procedure in order to generate Ag^0 nanoparticles. XPS was performed on a control sample not exposed to UV light, a sample exposed for 15 min, and a sample exposed for 30 min to assess progressive changes in the oxidation state of Ag^+ with additional UV light exposure.

2.10. Olefin conditioning

To evaluate the stability of membrane performance over long-term olefin permeation, a continuous pure-gas ethylene permeation experiment was performed at 3.5 bar and 35°C for 500 h in a constant-volume gas permeator as previously described. The ethylene permeability was evaluated every 12 h, with a few short interruptions in data collection due to software malfunctions. The upstream ethylene pressure was not reduced or evacuated during the experiment.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Characterization of AgTf₂N electrolyte films

The obtained polymer electrolyte films were transparent, mechanically robust, and flexible, and the apparent tackiness, which is correlated with the propensity for self-association, increased with AgTf₂N concentration. Images are provided in Fig. S7. As shown in Figs. S8(a–f), thermogravimetric analysis showed a maximum of 2% mass loss prior to decomposition in the case of the 70 wt% AgTf₂N XLPEGDA66 membrane, no mass loss in the case of the 50 wt% AgTf₂N XLPEGDA80 membrane, and up to 1% mass loss in the case of the neat polymer and 19.5 wt% and 33 wt% AgTf₂N XLPEGDA100 membranes—which contained no additional pre-polymerization solvent. The observed mass loss does not appear to correlate with the use of additional pre-polymerization solvent, so the small quantities of volatile impurities observed are attributed to a small amount of sorbed water that could not be removed by vacuum at room temperature. This finding is corroborated by a minute peak between 3000 and 3500 cm⁻¹ in the FT-IR spectra of a 50 wt% AgTf₂N XLPEGDA80 membrane shown in Fig. S9, which corresponds to water [82].

Wide-angle X-ray scattering (WAXS) of the polymer electrolytes

showed broad peaks corresponding to an amorphous structure in contrast with the sharp, high intensity peaks of semi-crystalline linear PEO, shown in Fig. 2(a) and (b). A notable change in the diffraction pattern is evident with increasing AgTf₂N concentration – the intensity of the broad 2θ = 20° XLPEGDA peak decreases as a peak at 2θ = 13.5° develops, corresponding to a larger d-spacing between regions of higher electron density. For the highest concentration, 70 wt% AgTf₂N, both structures seem to exist simultaneously. The structural origin of the 2θ = 13.5° peak is unknown, but a similar result has been observed in XLPEGDA electrolytes containing LiTf₂N, with a peak appearing at small diffraction angles and moderate LiTf₂N concentration [83], but not at low concentration [84].

The local-scale rigidity of a polymer matrix can be characterized by the glass transition temperature, with rubbery polymers exhibiting more frequent long-range chain motion than materials below their glass transition temperature (T_g). As shown in Fig. 2(c), the T_g of the AgTf₂N SPEs was measured for several AgTf₂N salt concentrations, and they were rubbery at room temperature. T_g increased by 30°C relative to that of the neat polymer following incorporation of 50 wt% AgTf₂N, indicating reduced chain mobility and a more rigid polymer matrix, consistent with increasing cohesive energy density. Increasing the concentration of solvated Ag⁺ in the membrane leads to a greater fraction of ether oxygen moieties coordinated to Ag⁺ ions, which act as non-permanent physical crosslinks [85]. A maximum glass transition temperature was observed at about 50 wt% AgTf₂N, above which the T_g decreased. This effect has also been observed in LiTf₂N-containing SPE membranes with both an XLPEGDA matrix as well as linear PEO [86,87]. Once the salt concentration is above the saturation limit of the PEO chains, the matrix becomes more like a solution of saturated polymer chains in molten salt, and additional salt content has a limited effect on the T_g. The WAXS spectra of the 70 wt% AgTf₂N membranes showed an additional shoulder around 2θ = 10° that was not observed in the 50 wt

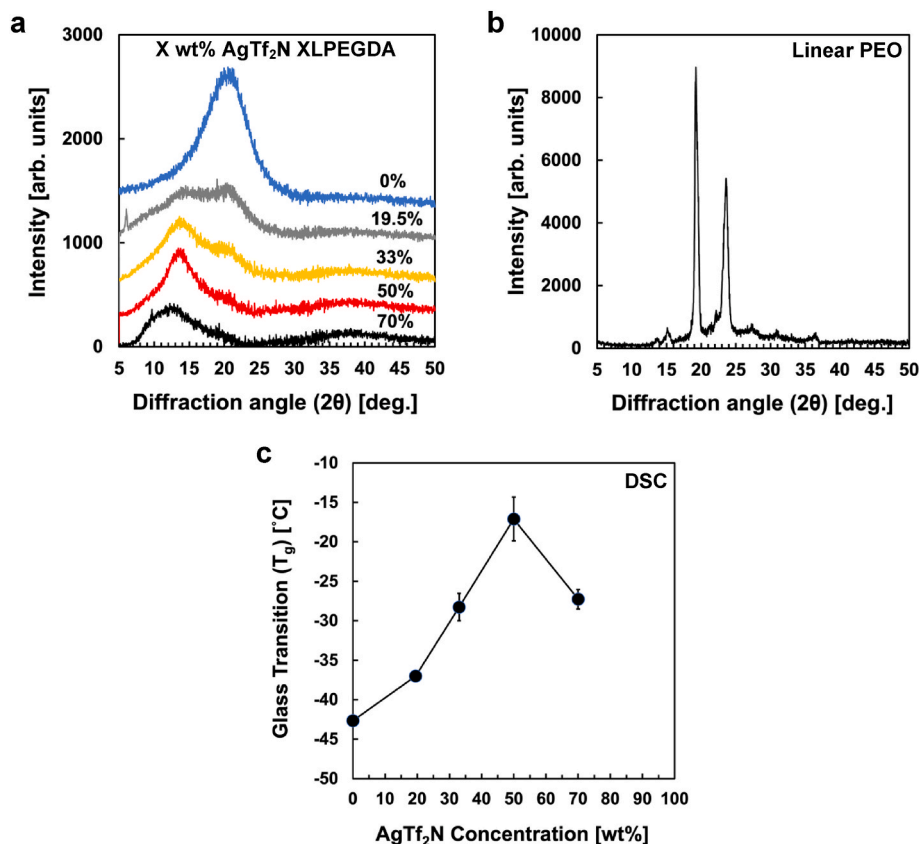


Fig. 2. Stacked WAXS spectra of (a) AgTf₂N-containing XLPEGDA electrolytes and (b) linear PEO with a molecular weight of 8,000,000 g mol⁻¹. (c) Glass transition temperature of XLPEGDA80 films as a function of AgTf₂N concentration. Error bars are smaller than the markers for several data points.

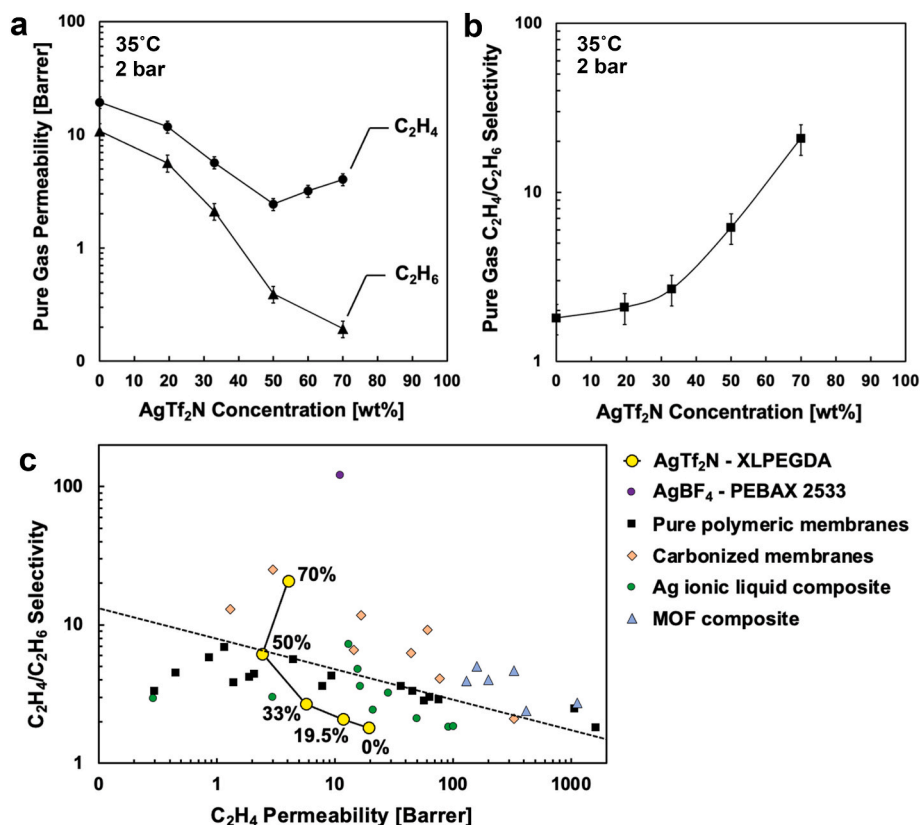


Fig. 3. Ethylene and ethane permeability (a) and selectivity (b) as a function of $AgTf_2N$ concentration in dense films of XLPEGDA80. Solid lines are provided to guide the eye. (c) Robeson plot of the pure-gas ethylene-ethane gas separation upper bound comparing the performance of $AgTf_2N$ XLPEGDA membranes with materials from the literature. Transport properties for $AgTf_2N$ SPEs were measured at 2 bar and 35°C, and the $AgTf_2N$ concentration is given in wt%. Common glassy polymeric gas separation materials are presented, along with mixed-matrix membranes containing metal organic frameworks (MOFs), carbonized membranes, $AgBF_4$ -PEBAX 2533 SPE facilitated transport membranes, and Ag^+ -containing ionic liquid membranes [26,45,88–94].

% $AgTf_2N$ sample, seen in Fig. 2(a), and the characteristic diffraction peaks for $AgTf_2N$ salt occurs at approximately $2\theta = 8^\circ$ (Fig. S10).

3.2. Effect of $AgTf_2N$ concentration on gas transport

3.2.1. Permeability and selectivity

The pure-gas permeabilities of ethylene and ethane in $AgTf_2N$ -XLPEGDA polymer electrolyte membranes were measured over a range of $AgTf_2N$ concentrations (Fig. 3(a)). Ethane permeability monotonically decreases with additional dissolved Ag^+ , while ethylene permeability initially decreases before rising following a minimum value at 50 wt% $AgTf_2N$. Likewise, the ideal ethylene-ethane selectivity increases with $AgTf_2N$ concentration (Fig. 3(b)). The decrease in gas permeability of ethane and, initially, ethylene with $AgTf_2N$ concentration can be explained by increasing cohesive energy density, corresponding to a more rigid polymer matrix and consistent with increasing T_g (cf. Fig. 2(c)). However, at higher $AgTf_2N$ concentration, more Ag^+ sites are present to complex ethylene, and the ethylene-ethane solubility selectivity increases substantially, to be discussed in further detail. Thus, the ethylene-ethane selectivity of the membrane increases dramatically at higher $AgTf_2N$ concentrations, as seen in Fig. 3(b). Interestingly, replotting the ethylene-ethane selectivity as a function of the ratio between ether oxygen repeat units and Ag^+ yields a similar relationship to $AgBF_4$ -PEBAX 2533 polymer electrolytes, shown in Fig. S11. The maximum pure-gas selectivity measured in the sample of highest concentration was 21 ± 5 , with an ethylene permeability of 4.0 ± 0.5 Barrer. As shown in Fig. 3(c), this separation performance places these membrane materials above the polymeric membrane upper bound for ethylene-ethane separations.

3.2.2. Solubility

Pure-gas measurements of the ethylene and ethane solubility were undertaken. As shown in Fig. 4(a), ethylene uptake increased substantially in comparison to the neat polymer upon addition of 50 wt%

$AgTf_2N$ to the crosslinked polymer matrix. Dual-mode sorption behavior was observed for ethylene in the $AgTf_2N$ -containing membrane, as evidenced by the initially nonlinear relationship between the equilibrium concentration of sorbed ethylene and the applied pressure, followed by a linear trend at high pressures. The dual-mode model is comprised of two parts: preferential binding to a finite number of sites in the polymer and physical sorption described by Henry's law [95]. At low pressures, ethylene preferentially complexes with Ag^+ sites. However, these sites are saturated at higher pressures, and the isotherm becomes more linear at higher pressure, reflecting increasing contributions from Henry's law sorption. The experimental sorption and solubility of ethylene is systematically higher than the dual-mode model. This can potentially be explained by an assumption in the model that the Henry's law constant of ethylene decreases by the same factor upon the addition of 50 wt% $AgTf_2N$ as that of ethane does, a phenomenon known as "salting out". However, the specific complex between ethylene and Ag^+ may counteract the salting out effect, leading to underestimation by the model. More details on the derivation of the dual-mode model and calculation of the relevant parameters are set forth in the supporting information. Ethylene sorption in the neat polymer was linear over the pressure range considered. As shown in Fig. 4(b), neither material showed dual-mode sorption for ethane. However, ethane solubility decreased with the addition of 50 wt% $AgTf_2N$, indicating a salting-out effect where gas solubility in an electrolyte solution decreases with additional salt content [96,97]. The solubility of ethylene decreases from a maximum at infinite dilution towards a constant value at higher pressures, as seen in Fig. 4(c). This trend is consistent with expectations from a dual-mode description of the data.

Incorporation of 50 wt% $AgTf_2N$ into the XLPEGDA matrix yields a large increase in ethylene-ethane solubility selectivity (Table 3), consistent with a higher concentration of chemically specific Ag^+ binding sites. $AgBF_4$ -containing electrolytes exhibit higher solubility selectivity than $AgTf_2N$ -containing electrolytes due to lower lattice energy of the $AgBF_4$ salt, i.e., stronger ethylene- Ag^+ coordination enabled

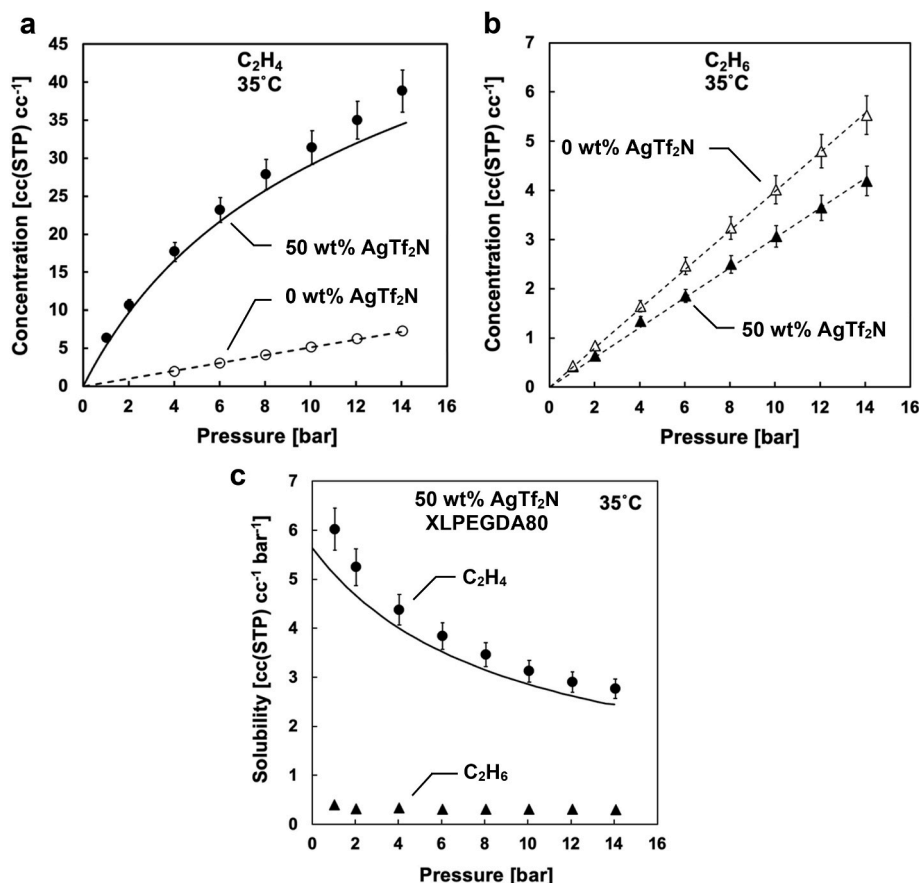


Fig. 4. Pure-gas sorption isotherms of (a) ethylene and (b) ethane in both XLPEGDA100 (i.e., 0 wt% AgTf₂N) and 50 wt% AgTf₂N XLPEGDA80. (c) Equilibrium ethylene and ethane solubility in a 50 wt% AgTf₂N XLPEGDA80 membrane as a function of gas pressure. A dual-mode sorption model (solid curves in Fig. 4(a) and (c)) is presented for ethylene sorption and solubility in the Ag-containing membrane. The rest of the data are fitted by linear regressions through the origin.

Table 3

Comparison of ethylene and ethane solubility in AgTf₂N-containing XLPEGDA membranes with liquids, polymers, and other polymer electrolytes [24,43,99–101].

Matrix	Type	Temperature [°C]	Pressure [bar]	$S_{C_2H_4}$ [cm ³ (STP) cm ⁻³ bar ⁻¹]	$S_{C_2H_6}$ [cm ³ (STP) cm ⁻³ bar ⁻¹]	$\frac{S_{C_2H_4}}{S_{C_2H_6}}$
Neat XLPEGDA100	Rubbery	35	2	0.50 ± 0.01	0.41 ± 0.01	1.2 ± 0.1
50 wt% AgTf ₂ N – XLPEGDA80	Rubbery	35	2	5.21 ± 0.01	1.31 ± 0.01	17 ± 1
50 wt% AgBF ₄ – PEBAX 2533	Rubbery	25	1	73	0.13	560
Poly(2,6-dimethyl phenylene oxide) (PPO)	Glassy	20	0.4	33	52	0.6
Polyimide (6FDA-6FpDA)	Glassy	35	4.2	9.8	8.1	1.2
Water	Liquid	35	8.2, 7.5	0.081	0.034	2.4
Dodecane	Liquid	25, 40	5, 3.5	2.2	3.0	0.7

by weaker ionic interactions [48,98]. However, these materials exhibit irreversible ethylene sorption and poor H₂ stability. The ethylene-ethane solubility selectivity of the Ag-containing SPE membranes is much

higher than that of pure polymeric membrane materials, such as PPO and 6FDA-6FpDA, which exhibit good ethylene-ethane separation performance. Ethylene solubility is greater in 50 wt% AgTf₂N XLPEGDA80

Table 4

Summary of ethylene and ethane diffusion coefficients, diffusion selectivity, and permeability selectivity in neat and AgTf₂N-containing XLPEGDA membranes. All values were measured or calculated at 2 bar and at 35°C. Diffusivity and diffusivity ratios calculated from independent gas permeability and sorption measurements according to the solution-diffusion model (“Sorption”) agree with values obtained via the time lag analysis method (“Time lag”), shown in Fig. S13 and discussed in the supporting information.

Membrane	Sorption		Sorption		Time lag		$\frac{D_{C_2H_4}}{D_{C_2H_6}}$
	$\frac{P_{C_2H_4}}{P_{C_2H_6}}$	$D_{C_2H_4} \times 10^9$ [cm ² s ⁻¹]	$D_{C_2H_6} \times 10^9$ [cm ² s ⁻¹]	$\frac{D_{C_2H_4}}{D_{C_2H_6}}$	$D_{C_2H_4} \times 10^9$ [cm ² s ⁻¹]	$D_{C_2H_6} \times 10^9$ [cm ² s ⁻¹]	
Neat XLPEGDA100	1.8 ± 0.2	300 ± 40	200 ± 30	1.5 ± 0.3	270 ± 50	180 ± 30	1.5 ± 0.4
50 wt% AgTf ₂ N XLPEGDA80	6.3 ± 0.2	3.4 ± 0.6	9 ± 1	0.4 ± 0.1	2.4 ± 0.3	9 ± 1	0.27 ± 0.05

than liquids, such as water and dodecane, but lower than glassy polymers, such as PPO and 6FDA-6FpDA, which have non-equilibrium free volume elements.

3.2.3. Diffusivity

As shown in Table 4, diffusion coefficients for ethylene and ethane in both the neat polymer and 50 wt% AgTf₂N XLPEGDA80 were calculated using independently measured pure-gas permeabilities and solubilities according to the solution-diffusion model. Ethylene and ethane diffusivities were lower in the sample containing AgTf₂N, consistent with a higher cohesive energy density in the salt-containing polymer and qualitatively consistent with Meares' activated diffusion model [59]. One notable trend is the reversal of the diffusivity selectivity with the addition of 50 wt% AgTf₂N. In the neat polymer, ethylene has a higher diffusivity than ethane because ethylene is smaller than ethane (cf. Table 1). However, the diffusion coefficient for ethane is 2.5 times larger than that of ethylene in 50 wt% AgTf₂N XLPEGDA80. The selective coordination complex with Ag⁺ may slow down ethylene diffusion. Reversal of ethylene-ethane diffusivity selectivity with increasing Ag⁺ concentration has been demonstrated previously in Ag⁺-containing polymerized ionic liquid membranes [90]. In addition, a similar phenomenon was recently reported for facilitated transport membranes containing crown ether moieties for lithium extraction applications. The diffusivity of sodium ions was slowed by complexation with the crown ether, resulting in enhanced selectivity for lithium ions which were not complexed with the crown ethers [102,103].

Eq. (2) can be re-arranged to evaluate the relative contributions of diffusivity and solubility selectivity to the overall permeability selectivity, as seen in Eq. (3).

$$\alpha_{AB} = \frac{P_A}{P_B} = \frac{D_A S_A}{D_B S_B} \quad (3)$$

Thus, based on the diffusivity and solubility selectivity for ethylene-ethane separation, shown in Tables 3 and 4, the increased permeability selectivity observed in the 50 wt% AgTf₂N XLPEGDA80 polymer electrolyte versus the neat polymer primarily results from increased solubility selectivity.

3.3. Ethylene plasticization

Though ethylene solubility in 50% AgTf₂N XLPEGDA80 decreased with pressure (c.f. Fig. 4(c)), pure-gas ethylene permeability increased substantially with transmembrane pressure, nearly doubling after the applied pressure increased from 2 to 8 bar as shown in Fig. 5(a). Thus, as seen in Fig. 5(b), the diffusivity of ethylene also increased with transmembrane pressure, indicating plasticization of the polymer matrix by ethylene. Increasing concentration of absorbed ethylene makes the

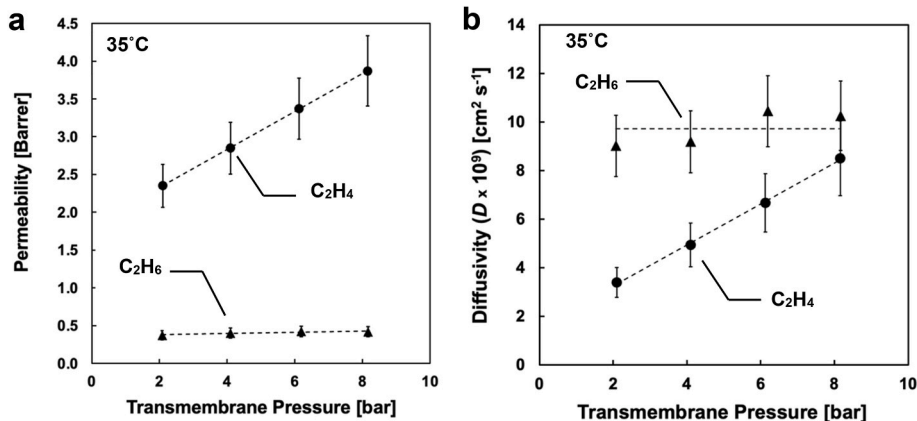


Fig. 5. (a) Pure-gas permeability of ethylene and ethane at 35°C as a function of transmembrane pressure for a 50 wt% AgTf₂N XLPEGDA80 membrane sample. (b) Diffusivity calculated from the permeability values in (a) and the solubilities reported in Fig. 5(c) according to the solution-diffusion model.

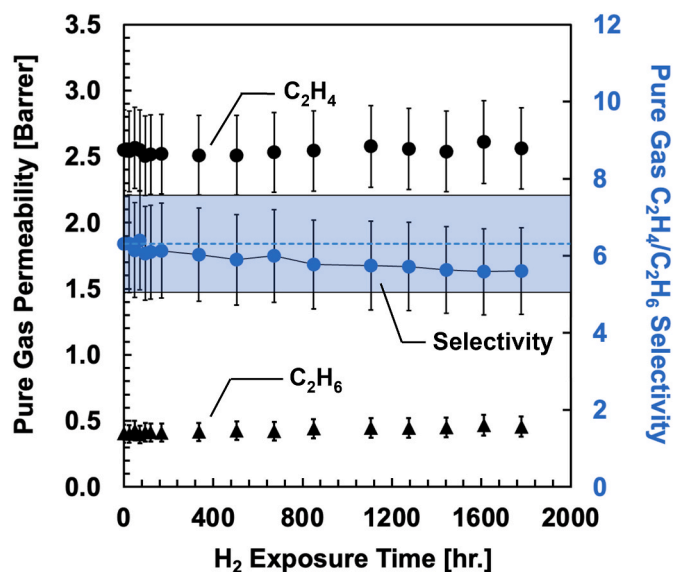


Fig. 6. Study of Ag⁺ carrier stability in 50 wt% AgTf₂N XLPEGDA80 membrane via long-term permeation of pure hydrogen at 4 bar and 35°C. The blue dotted line and blue band indicate the initial pure-gas C₂H₄/C₂H₆ selectivity and associated error prior to H₂ exposure. Ethylene and ethane permeability were measured at 2 bar and 35°C. The time lag of permeation was also measured during this experiment and data are presented in Fig. S14(a). (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

polymer matrix more rubbery, leading to higher gas permeability. Ethane permeability and diffusivity in the AgTf₂N polymer electrolyte remained relatively unchanged with transmembrane pressure, which could likewise be attributed to its low solubility in the polymer matrix.

3.4. Membrane stability

3.4.1. Effect of hydrogen exposure on ethylene-ethane selectivity

As shown in Fig. 6, membranes containing 50 wt% AgTf₂N show remarkable resistance to chemical degradation by hydrogen, which has been reported to reduce Ag⁺ ions to inactive Ag⁰ [62,67]. After 1779 h (over 10 weeks) of exposure to pure-gas H₂ permeation at 4 bar, which is the strongest reducing condition we are aware of in the open literature for Ag⁺-containing polymeric membranes, the ethylene-ethane selectivity hardly decreased below the uncertainty of the initial value measured prior to H₂ exposure.

For comparison, as shown in Fig. 7, hydrogen stability of the

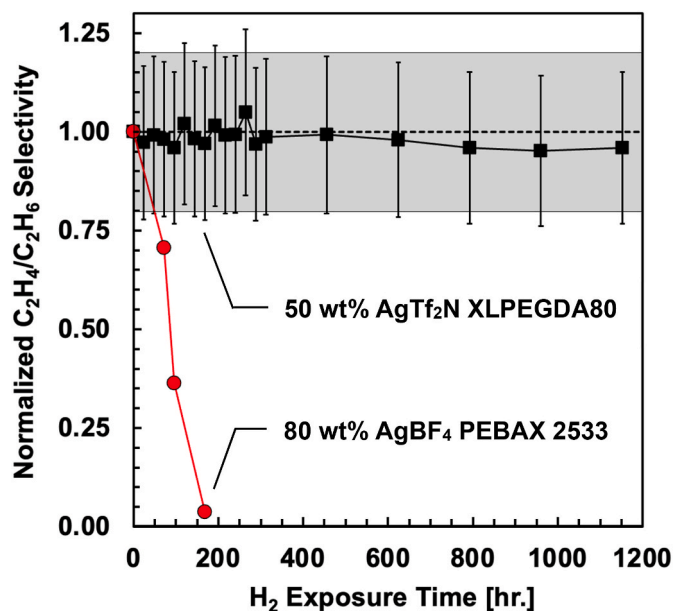


Fig. 7. Comparison of long-term ethylene-ethane selectivity stability to H_2 at 2 bar and $35^\circ C$ between the $AgTf_2N$ -containing membranes in this work (black squares, $\alpha_0 = 6$, pure-gas) and $AgBF_4$ -containing membranes from the literature (red circles, $\alpha_0 = 40$, mixed-gas), adapted from Merkel et al. [64]. The selectivity data was normalized relative to the initial selectivity value prior to hydrogen exposure. Ethylene and ethane permeability measurements were performed at $35^\circ C$ and a transmembrane pressure of 2 bar. Permeability and selectivity data for this test are presented in Fig. S15. The dotted line and grey band indicate the initial normalized C_2H_4/C_2H_6 selectivity and the associated error for the 50 wt % $AgTf_2N$ XLPEGDA80 membrane prior to H_2 exposure, respectively. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

membrane was also measured with pure-gas H_2 permeation at 2 bar, similar to the methodology of the Merkel et al. study on H_2 stability of a PEBAX 2533 membrane containing dissolved $AgBF_4$ [64]. The $AgTf_2N$ -containing membranes exhibit fundamentally different behavior from that of the $AgBF_4$ -containing membranes. A preparation of 80 wt% $AgBF_4$ in PEBAX 2533 loses essentially all selectivity within four days of H_2 exposure at 2 bar and $35^\circ C$, while the 50 wt% $AgTf_2N$ XLPEGDA80 sample retained 96% of its original selectivity after seven weeks.

3.4.2. Oxidation state of Ag^+

Upon removal of the membrane sample from the cell after H_2 permeation at 2 bar, a color change from clear to light reddish-brown was noted, as seen in Fig. 8(a). To determine whether this color change resulted from the formation of Ag^0 nanoparticles, XPS measurements were conducted to evaluate the oxidation state of Ag in the membrane. If some of the Ag^+ ions had reduced to Ag^0 , then the average oxidation state should decrease. First, a control experiment was conducted to verify that XPS is sensitive to Ag^0 in the polymer electrolyte matrix. Samples of a 50 wt% $AgTf_2N$ XLPEGDA80 membrane were exposed to UV light, a strong reducing agent [104], for up to 30 min (substantially longer than the 90 s exposure used during membrane synthesis). As seen in Fig. 8(b), a significant change in color and increase in opacity was observed over time. XPS spectra of the Ag $3d_{5/2}$ orbital, shown in Fig. 8(c), confirm that the average binding energy decreased after UV exposure, moving closer to the binding energy of silver metal foil (Ag^0) and consistent with decreasing average oxidation state of silver [105].

Therefore, XPS can detect the formation of Ag^0 nanoparticles in the $AgTf_2N$ polymer electrolyte matrix. Returning to the question of Ag^+ reduction by H_2 , when comparing the XPS spectra of the sample exposed to H_2 at the conclusion of the 2 bar H_2 stability test with a control sample which had been stored in a vacuum desiccator for the duration of the experiment, the binding energy remained unchanged, indicating that the average oxidation state of Ag had not been measurably changed by H_2 exposure, and thus, the majority of Ag^+ ions necessary for olefin facilitated transport had not been reduced. More investigation is needed

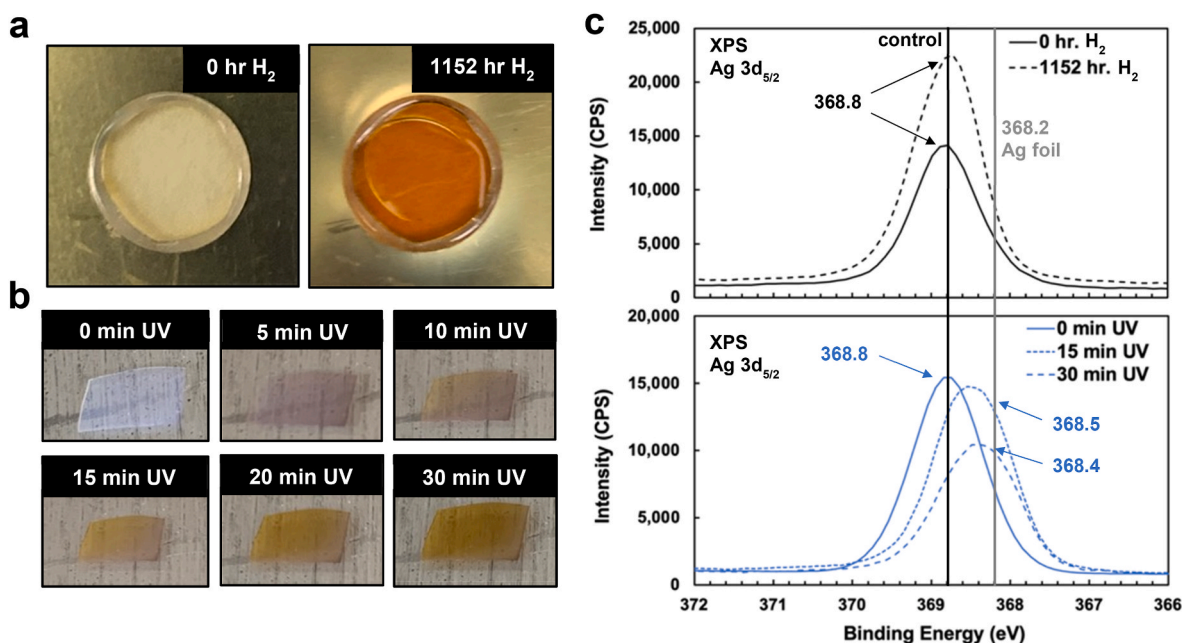


Fig. 8. (a) Color change of 50 wt% $AgTf_2N$ XLPEGDA80 membranes following 1152 h H_2 exposure (black data series in (c)) and using the same membrane sample as experiment described in Figs. 6 and 7). (b) Change in color of a 50 wt% $AgTf_2N$ XLPEGDA80 membrane following exposure to UV light. (c) XPS analysis (raw data) of the oxidation state of silver in samples shown in (a) and (b). Full XPS spectra with peak fitting are presented in Fig. S16. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

to understand the mechanism of the color change in AgTf₂N XLPEGDA membranes following pure-gas ethylene, ethane, and hydrogen exposure. However, it does not appear to be a result of large-scale reduction of Ag⁺ to Ag⁰.

The observed H₂ stability may be a result of ionic aggregates of Tf₂N[−] and Ag⁺, leading to solvation shell structures which sterically hinder the formation of Ag⁰ nanoparticles. Strong evidence supporting this hypothesis has been presented for AgTf₂N-containing ionic liquids which also exhibit H₂ stability. Studies on electrodeposition of silver metal from Ag⁺-containing ionic liquids have found that Ag⁺ can be resistant to reduction when dissolved in ionic liquids. For example, cyclic voltammetry experiments on 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide ([emim][Tf₂N]) solutions containing dissolved AgTf₂N show a larger electrochemical overpotential for reduction from Ag⁺ to Ag⁰ versus oxidation [106–108]. The overpotential is a cumulative effect of various resistances, including kinetic, and measures the amount of energy needed to initiate an electrochemical reaction beyond the ideal case. So, a larger overpotential for reduction as compared to oxidation could indicate an additional electrochemical energy barrier not present during oxidation, i.e., a steric effect inhibiting nanoparticle nucleation. Tf₂N[−] is a relatively large, weakly-coordinating anion, and forthcoming studies indicate that ionic aggregates of Ag⁺ and Tf₂N[−] in the ionic liquid solution leads to this steric effect, thereby promoting H₂ stability [39]. Based on the distance between Ag⁺ ions, this steric effect may well be present in the AgTf₂N XLPEGDA membranes. A crude geometric estimation of the interparticle distance, assuming that Ag⁺ ions are evenly distributed throughout the membrane, is given by Eq. (4), where *r* is the interparticle distance and *C* is the molar concentration of Ag⁺ [109].

$$r = (C)^{-\frac{1}{3}} \quad (4)$$

The interparticle distance between Ag⁺ for a XLPEGDA80 membrane containing 50 wt% AgTf₂N is 9.3 Å, as shown in Table 5. The ionic radius of Ag⁺ is about 1.2 Å, and the width of Tf₂N[−] anions (in the orientation where the amide group is coordinated to Ag⁺) has been separately calculated to be 5.1 Å or 6.6 Å [110–112]. Thus, the distance between Ag⁺ cations is similar in size to coordinated Tf₂N[−] anions which may be present as a solvation shell structure where multiple Tf₂N[−] coordinate to a single metal cation [113], potentially causing steric inhibition of Ag⁰ nanoparticle nucleation.

3.4.3. Effect of long-term H₂ permeation on solubility and diffusivity

The permeation time lag was evaluated for each measurement of the ethylene and ethane permeability during the 4 bar H₂ stability test, as shown in Fig. S14. Utilizing Eq. (1) and Eq. (S9), the diffusivity and solubility of ethylene and ethane can be calculated for each point. As shown in Fig. 9(a) and Fig. 9(b), the diffusivity of ethylene increased slightly, while the solubility decreased—potentially caused by reduction of a small fraction of Ag⁺ sites during H₂ permeation.

In summary, for both hydrogen stability experiments (i.e., 2 bar and 4 bar H₂ exposure), the ethylene-ethane permeability selectivity did not decrease within experimental uncertainty, even after 1152 h of H₂ exposure in the 2 bar experiment and 1779 h of H₂ exposure in the 4 bar experiment. Reduction of a small quantity of Ag⁺ may have occurred, though a change in oxidation state of Ag⁺ could not be detected by XPS for the 2 bar H₂ experiment (cf. Fig. 8(c)). For the 4 bar experiment, the slight increase in diffusivity and decrease in solubility for ethylene is

consistent with reduction of a small quantity of Ag⁺ to Ag⁰. However, the observed effect is small, and the membranes maintain over 90% of the ethylene-ethane selectivity following long-term hydrogen exposure, a result not previously observed in polymeric facilitated transport membranes and substantially better than previously studied AgBF₄-PEBAX 2533 membranes.

3.5. Effect of long-term ethylene permeation on ethylene permeability

Multiple studies have found Ag⁺ facilitated transport membranes to be unstable over long-term use, even without exposure to reducing gases [67]. Beyond the well-documented instability of Ag⁺ facilitated transport membranes to H₂, olefin sorption in some Ag⁺ facilitated transport membranes is not reversible. In a study of the AgBF₄-PEBAX 2533 polymer electrolytes discussed previously in the context of hydrogen stability, ethylene permeance decreased by an order of magnitude over the first few hours of ethylene permeation. Furthermore, successive equilibrium ethylene sorption isotherms showed incomplete desorption and decreased capacity [114]. As shown in Fig. 10(a), the AgTf₂N-containing XLPEGDA electrolytes showed only a 10% decrease in pure-gas ethylene permeability over 1392 h of ethylene permeation. In addition, the rate of decrease slowed significantly over the course of the experiment, implying that further ethylene permeation would have limited effect on ethylene permeability. Ethylene binding to Ag⁺ sites in the AgTf₂N-XLPEGDA electrolytes was reversible, with sorption and desorption points falling on the same line indistinguishably, as seen in Fig. 10(b). In comparison to other studies of Ag⁺ facilitated transport membranes, the AgTf₂N XLPEGDA electrolytes show remarkable longevity and reversibility of ethylene binding.

4. Conclusions

A facile method of preparing stable polymeric Ag⁺ facilitated transport membranes has been demonstrated. The pure-gas ethylene-ethane selectivity is much less sensitive to long-term H₂ exposure than other such membranes reported in literature, and no significant olefin conditioning was observed. Long-term H₂ stability studies were conducted at two different pressures of H₂, with the longest experiment lasting over ten weeks without a substantial decrease in ethylene-ethane selectivity. Further experiments are needed to confirm the mechanism of H₂ stability in the AgTf₂N polymer electrolytes, but it is hypothesized to be the same steric protecting mechanism seen in Ag⁺-containing ionic liquids. Further, overall performance of these membranes surpasses the ethylene-ethane upper bound, indicating favorable performance relative to previously explored polymeric gas separation membrane materials. High ethylene-ethane permeability selectivity in the AgTf₂N-containing membranes was found to result primarily from a large increase in solubility selectivity due to Ag⁺ ions serving as preferential binding sites for olefins, also consistent with observed dual-mode sorption of ethylene. Facilitated transport of ethylene was found to shift ethylene-ethane diffusivity selectivity to less than one in the AgTf₂N-containing membrane—though ethylene is smaller than ethane. High olefin solubility in the AgTf₂N-containing membranes plasticizes the matrix and leads to increasing ethylene diffusivity and pure-gas ethylene-ethane selectivity with pressure. The results reported herein may begin to address a long-standing roadblock to reduction to practice in the field of Ag⁺ facilitated transport membranes. Further studies are planned to characterize membrane properties key for industrial application, such as development of thin-film composite membranes with high permeance, membrane stability to H₂S and acetylene, membrane stability under mixed-gas conditions, the effect of plasticization by ethylene on mixed-gas transport properties, and the effect of temperature on Ag⁺ stability and olefin-paraffin selectivity.

Table 5

Calculation of the distance between Ag⁺ cations in a 50 wt% AgTf₂N XLPEGDA80 membrane based upon Eq. (4) and density measurements.

AgTf ₂ N Concentration [wt. %]	Experimental Density [g cm ^{−3}]	r _{Ag⁺} [Å]
0	1.159 ± 0.002	–
50	1.619 ± 0.002	9.3

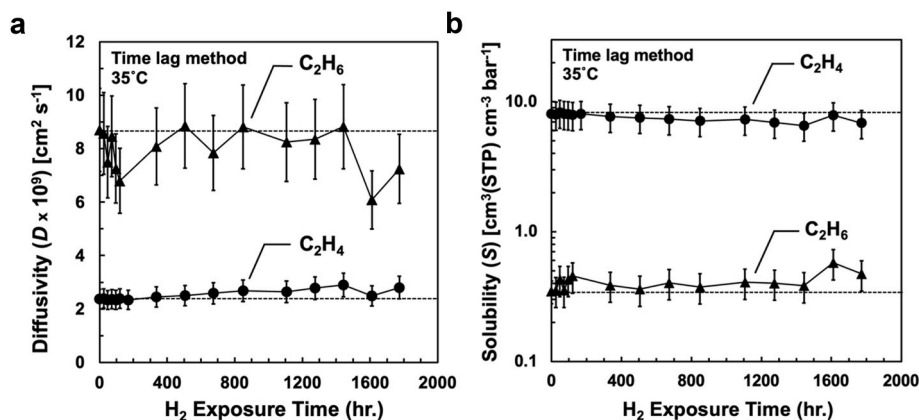


Fig. 9. (a) Diffusivity and (b) solubility of ethylene and ethane in a 50 wt% AgTf_2N XLPEGDA80 membrane over the duration of permeation of 4 bar H_2 as calculated from time lag analysis. Error bars are calculated from propagating the uncertainty in the membrane thickness and the uncertainty of the time lag data shown in Fig. S14(a).

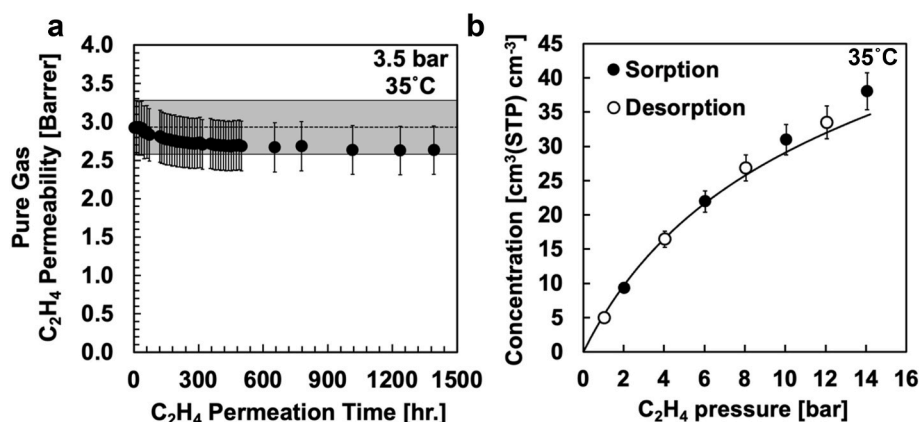


Fig. 10. (a) Pure-gas ethylene permeability as a function of pure-gas ethylene permeation time in a 50 wt% AgTf_2N XLPEGDA80 membrane. The dotted line and grey band indicate the initial pure-gas $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4/\text{C}_2\text{H}_6$ selectivity and associated error prior to H_2 exposure. (b) Ethylene sorption isotherm with equilibrium measured at alternating pressure points for absorption and desorption. Error bars were calculated according to the same analysis as that in Fig. 4, and uptake was fitted with the previously discussed dual-mode sorption model (cf. Eq. (S6)).

Credit author statement

Matthew N. Davenport: Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Validation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Resources, Data Curation, Writing – Original Draft, Writing – Review & Editing, Visualization, Project administration. **Caitlin L. Bentley:** Methodology, Validation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Data Curation, Writing – Review & Editing. **Joan F. Brennecke:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Resources, Writing – Review & Editing, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition. **Benny D. Freeman:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Resources, Writing – Review & Editing, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: M. N. Davenport, J. F. Brennecke, and B. D. Freeman are listed as inventors on a provisional patent application pending to The University of Texas System which covers the materials described in this article.

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Appendix A. Supplementary information

Supplementary information for this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.memsci.2022.120300>.

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