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Structural Modification and CO₂-Adsorption Application on Unit Cell and Supercell Zirconium Chloride: Electronic, Dynamic and Hydrated Adsorption System

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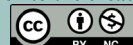
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Abstract. Structural modification of catalyzed materials for CO₂ adsorption involves altering their physical and chemical properties to enhance their capacity and efficiency in capturing carbon dioxide. ZrCl₃ crystal was considered to investigate its properties and modified aspects in the presence of CO₂ on the surface of the unit cell structure and the generated supercell. Frontier molecular orbitals (FMOs) of the designed systems were evaluated for the best describing the electronic variation in the presence and absence of CO₂ molecules. The presence of CO₂ molecule led to adsorption modification slightly changing the band gap with variation in orbital contribution on the surface of the catalyst. Molecular electrostatic potential (MEP) of the optimized structures was generated to give an insight into the most electrophilic and nucleophilic centers present before, and after CO₂ adsorption. The band gap calculated for the overall solid-state crystal at the same level of optimization was 2.35 eV expecting the semiconducting behavior. Molecular dynamic simulation over 10000 ps (10 ns) was considered and the results concluded a more stable CO₂-unit cell adsorption system with high capacity

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of adsorbate on the surface. A hydrated system adsorption locator was performed, where the adsorbate distribute itself freely inside the hydration layer. This indicates higher interaction with H₂O molecules with significant adsorption energy ranges from -2.00 eV to -1.93 eV.

Resumen. La modificación estructural de materiales catalíticos para la adsorción de CO₂ consiste en alterar sus propiedades físicas y químicas con el fin de mejorar su capacidad y eficiencia para capturar dióxido de carbono. En este trabajo se estudió el cristal de ZrCl₃ para investigar sus propiedades y las modificaciones inducidas por la presencia de CO₂ sobre la superficie de la estructura de la celda unitaria y de la supercelda generada. Se evaluaron los orbitales moleculares de frontera (FMO) de los sistemas diseñados con el propósito de describir las variaciones electrónicas en presencia y ausencia de moléculas de CO₂. La presencia de CO₂ produjo modificaciones en la adsorción que ocasionaron ligeros cambios en la brecha de energía (band gap), acompañados de variaciones en la contribución de los orbitales sobre la superficie del catalizador. Asimismo, se calculó el potencial electrostático molecular (MEP) de las estructuras optimizadas para identificar los centros más electrófilos y nucleófilos antes y después de la adsorción de CO₂. La brecha de energía calculada para el cristal en estado sólido, al mismo nivel de optimización, fue de 2.35 eV, lo que sugiere un comportamiento semiconductor. Se realizaron simulaciones de dinámica molecular durante 10000 ps (10 ns), cuyos resultados mostraron que el sistema de adsorción CO₂-celda unitaria es el más estable y presenta una elevada capacidad para retener el adsorbato sobre la superficie. Además, se llevó a cabo un estudio de localización de la adsorción en un sistema hidratado, en el que el adsorbato se distribuye libremente dentro de la capa de hidratación. Este comportamiento indica una mayor interacción con las moléculas de H₂O, con energías de adsorción comprendidas entre -2.00 eV y -1.93 eV.

Introduction

Various types of catalysts have unique properties and applications, making them essential in fields ranging from petrochemicals to pharmaceuticals and environmental science [1-3]. These materials offer significant research potential and have broad applications in solving diverse challenges. For example, perovskite materials have recently gained prominence in solar cell technology [4]. They exhibit excellent light-harvesting abilities, remarkable quantum efficiency, high charge carrier mobility, and tunable emission wavelengths. They also exhibit outstanding photoelectric conversion efficiency [5-7]. Conventional techniques for creating novel materials typically involve a lot of labor and resources along with a lot of trial and error. As science and technology have advanced, it has been found that computer simulations may be used to perform material computations [8-11]. First-principles techniques are widely employed in material calculation because they produce accurate and efficient computation results and have a solid theoretical foundation [12,13]. Numerous studies have revealed a strong agreement between the material properties computed from first-principal calculations and those derived from experimental synthesis, highlighting the usefulness of this approach for material experimentation. Strongly correlated gas adsorption materials with the different types of catalysts have generated a lot of interest in recent years for both experimental and theoretical studies [14-17]. Zr-catalyst materials can demonstrate novel characteristics in terms of electronics and magnetism, including superconductivity, enormous magnetoresistance, and semiconducting behavior [18]. As a result, they have a wide range of possible technological uses, such as optical resonators, magnetic storage devices, and storage device filters [19,20]. Zirconium-based double perovskites have garnered a lot of interest because of their possible uses in optical and electrical devices [21-23]. By forecasting how modifications to composition or structure will impact performance, computational methods can aid in the design of novel materials with desired qualities [24,25]. First-principles methods based on DFT provide a reliable framework for investigating adsorption energetics, charge transfer, and electronic structure modifications induced by adsorbate-substrate interactions. Numerous studies have demonstrated close agreement between DFT predictions and experimental observations for gas adsorption on metal halides, oxides, and low-dimensional materials, highlighting the suitability of these approaches for probing adsorption mechanisms prior to experimental realization. In particular, DFT enables the decomposition of adsorption behavior into contributions from geometry

optimization, electronic redistribution, and orbital interactions, which is essential for physically meaningful interpretation.

Zirconium-based materials are of interest due to their chemical stability, strong affinity toward small molecules, and tunable coordination environments. While zirconium oxides and metal–organic frameworks have been extensively studied for gas capture, zirconium halides—such as ZrCl_3 , remain comparatively less explored, despite their distinctive electronic structures and potential for surface reactivity. The layered or cluster-like nature of ZrCl_3 provides diverse adsorption sites whose interaction with CO_2 may vary significantly depending on dimensionality, coordination environment, and surface exposure.

Through the design, discovery, and optimization of innovative materials for a range of applications, from energy storage to structural components, computational research is transforming the field of materials science [26–28]. An alternative approach involves sampling a suitable physical distribution, specifically that of the canonical ensemble, through techniques such as the Metropolis algorithm or configurational bias method [29]. This process is implemented using the Sorption module, which analyzes the dynamic behavior of microscopic molecules within a matrix, along with the Amorphous Cell tool that generates periodic simulation cells. Finally, some more modules optimize a function by using simulated annealing and related methods. These modules estimate crystal structure from molecular structure. Polymorph Predictor, Powder Solve, and Adsorption Locator are among them.

In this work, we present a systematic first-principles investigation of CO_2 adsorption on ZrCl_3 -based systems with increasing structural complexity. Isolated ZrCl_3 clusters, extended crystal planes, and multilayer supercell models are examined to clarify how structural dimensionality influences adsorption strength, electronic structure, and charge redistribution. Adsorption energies, optimized geometries, density of states, and related electronic descriptors are analyzed to establish physically consistent trends in CO_2 binding behavior. Particular attention is given to distinguishing physisorption from chemisorption characteristics based on energetic, geometric, and electronic criteria. The primary objective of this study is to provide a coherent and physically grounded description of CO_2 adsorption on ZrCl_3 materials using DFT-based methods. By correlating adsorption energetics with electronic structure modifications across different ZrCl_3 configurations, this work aims to clarify the underlying adsorption mechanism and assess the suitability of ZrCl_3 -based systems for CO_2 capture applications. The insights gained from this analysis may serve as a reference for future theoretical and experimental investigations of metal halide-based adsorption materials.

Computational methodology

All calculations were carried out using the Materials Studio software package [30]. The bulk ZrCl_3 crystal structure was first fully optimized within DFT using the Cambridge Sequential Total Energy Package (CASTEP) code [31–33]. The exchange–correlation contribution to the total energy was computed with the Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) generalized gradient density functional approximation (GGA) [34,35]. The interaction between valence electrons and ionic cores was described using on-the-fly generated (OTFG) ultrasoft pseudopotentials [36–38], and the electronic wavefunctions were expanded in a plane-wave basis set with a cutoff energy of 489 eV, which was verified to ensure total-energy convergence. Brillouin-zone integrations were performed using a Monkhorst–Pack k-point grid of $2 \times 2 \times 2$ for bulk geometry optimization and total-energy calculations. Geometry optimizations were considered converged when the total energy change was less than 2×10^{-5} eV/atom, the maximum force on each atom was below $0.05 \text{ eV } \text{\AA}^{-1}$, the maximum stress was below 0.05 GPa, and the maximum atomic displacement was about $2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ \AA}$.

To investigate surface–adsorbate interactions, a slab model was constructed by cleaving the optimized bulk structure along the (0 0 1) crystallographic plane, which corresponds to a low-index and energetically stable surface. The slab consisted of multiple atomic layers (2x2) with a vacuum thickness of 10 Å. During slab relaxation, the bottom layers were fixed at their bulk positions, while the upper layers were allowed to relax, simulating a semi-infinite surface. A supercell expansion was employed to minimize lateral interactions between adsorbed CO_2 molecules. The (0 0 1) surface was selected due to its structural stability and representative exposure of surface Zr sites, which are expected to dominate CO_2 adsorption behavior. Band structure and density of states (DOS) calculations were performed using the optimized slab geometry with the

same k -point sampling to ensure consistency across electronic analyses. Because conventional GGA functionals do not adequately describe long-range dispersion forces, the Tkatchenko–Scheffler (TS) DFT+D correction [39] was included to account for van der Waals interactions, which are particularly important for weakly bound CO₂ adsorption. This correction allows for a more realistic description of adsorption energies and equilibrium geometries. A clear distinction is maintained between first-principles DFT calculations and classical molecular dynamics (MD) simulations. The DFT calculations were employed to analyze electronic structure, adsorption energies, and charge redistribution, while classical simulations were used to investigate the thermal stability and dynamic behavior of adsorbed CO₂ molecules. Classical molecular dynamics simulations were carried out using the Forcite module [40] with the COMPASS force field, which is well-suited for describing inorganic–organic interfacial interactions. MD simulations were performed in the canonical (NVT) ensemble at constant temperature, controlled using a thermostat, over a simulation time of 10 ns (10000 ps). This timescale was selected to ensure sufficient sampling of adsorption configurations and surface diffusion behavior. Finally, the Adsorption Locator module was employed to predict energetically favorable adsorption sites and orientations of CO₂ on the ZrCl₃ surface.

The adsorption energies reported for the hydrated systems correspond to total adsorption energies defined with respect to fully relaxed reference states of the isolated components. Specifically, the adsorption energy was calculated as [41]

$$E_{\text{ads}} = E_{\text{ZrCl}_3 + \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}} - (E_{\text{ZrCl}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O}} + E_{\text{CO}_2}) \quad (1)$$

where $E_{\text{ZrCl}_3 + \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}}$ is the energy of the whole studied system, $E_{\text{ZrCl}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O}}$ is the energy of the hydrated ZrCl₃ layer, and E_{CO_2} is the energy of an isolated CO₂ molecule in vacuum. This definition ensures that the reported adsorption energies quantify the incremental stabilization arising from CO₂ uptake under hydrated conditions, rather than conflating hydration and adsorption effects.

To ensure accurate evaluation of adsorption energies, the potential influence of basis set superposition error (BSSE) was considered. In cluster-based calculations, BSSE arises from the artificial stabilization of the adsorbate due to the overlap of basis functions from the surface and the CO₂ molecule. To correct for this effect, counterpoise calculations were performed for representative adsorption configurations, following the Boys and Bernardi scheme [42].

$$E_{\text{ads}}^{\text{BSSE}} = E_{\text{ZrCl}_3 + \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}} - (E_{\text{ZrCl}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O}} + E_{\text{CO}_2}) - \delta^{\text{BSSE}} \quad (2)$$

The adsorption energy corrected for basis set superposition error (BSSE), referred to as was calculated by including the δ^{BSSE} term. This correction employed the counterpoise (CP) method to reduce the artificial overestimation of interaction energy introduced by BSSE [43].

The most stable configurations obtained from Adsorption Locator were subsequently refined and validated through DFT geometry optimization and electronic-structure analysis, ensuring consistency between classical predictions and first-principles results.

Results and discussion

Carbon dioxide adsorption and electronic analysis of zirconium chloride system

Determining the type of surface interaction that occurs between an adsorbent and an adsorbate is required to understand the adsorption mechanism [44,45]. The geometrical shapes of the designed ZrCl₃ unit cell and supercell are displayed in Fig.1. The CASTEP primitive lattice with k -points for the first Brillouin zone of high symmetry was selected for optimum electronic analysis. The unit cell exported two Zr atoms with six Cl atoms to balance the charge of the cell. The supercell structure acts as a suitable surface for the adsorption process, where its Zr-Cl bonds are equal in length (2.56Å).

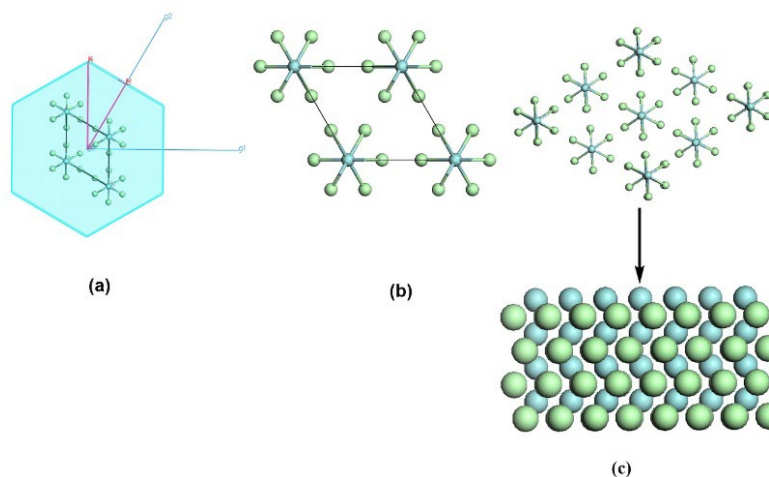


Fig. 1. (a) Reciprocal lattice structure of ZrCl_3 crystal in boundary conditions utilizing CASTEP, (b) ZrCl_3 -optimized structure in unit cell and supercell generation, (c) atomic structure of 2×2 ZrCl_3 - supercell (2×2) (atomic ball and stick in the upper panel and CPK style in the bottom of the panel).

The most accurate description for the combined molecular orbitals, and electronic distribution was found using FMO analysis of the optimized structural system [46]. Using energy level values, Fig. 2 shows the highest occupied (HOMO) and lowest unoccupied (LUMO) molecular orbitals that referred, in solid state, to valence band maximum and conduction band minimum, respectively. It was thought that the ZrCl_3 unit cell would have a chemically reactive structure before and after adsorption, since it has a little higher band gap (ΔE) with values of 2.28 eV for the pristine system and 2.34 eV after adsorption. This adsorption modification slightly raises ΔE with variation in orbital contribution on the surface of the catalyst. As shown in Fig. 2B, the CO_2 - ZrCl_3 unit cell exhibited some rearrangement in the orbital contribution to face the CO_2 molecule. This predicts variation in electron transition for ZrCl_3 in an excited state. In the ZrCl_3 supercell, the pristine system gives an insight into its higher reactivity compared with the unit cell system due to the extra additive energy levels with increasing system size. Its valence band energy was counted by -4.54 eV compared with the ZrCl_3 unit cell (-6.31 eV), this notifies the active supercell surface with ΔE equal to 1.46 eV compared with the unit cell. Supercell with several CO_2 molecules adsorption system estimated its ΔE value with 1.40 eV, slightly less than of the pristine system. The orbital contribution on Zr and Cl atoms is attempted to be closer to the CO_2 molecules on the surface, predicting electronic excitation and interaction on the modified surface, especially oxygen contents occur in CO_2 molecules that may make some variation in ZrCl_3 electronic system.

The electronic density of the adsorbed system differs from that of the individual structures, as seen by the molecular electrostatic potential map, or MEP [47]. The red-colored patches in Fig. 3's MEP map for the color code "electron-rich sites" are largely found in the non-absorbed supercell system. While there are some balanced charge densities on the unit cell Zr-system before CO_2 adsorption. The yellow areas refer to some sites rich in electrons in which the electrostatic potential is low. However, CO_2 adsorption makes some changes to the surface based on its position. The system exported blue surface areas (electron deficiency sites). The study discovered that electron removal by CO_2 molecules and subsequent interaction resulted in some electron-poor areas on the Zr surface. The electron density variation is more obvious in the supercell system before and after adsorption, confirming the presence of CO_2 molecules as an electron acceptor, leading to a more positively charged ZrCl_3 surface. However, the absence of highly localized charge accumulation between CO_2 and surface atoms, together with the preservation of the molecular integrity of CO_2 , suggests that the interaction is dominated by strong physisorption rather than true chemisorption. The adsorption is therefore driven primarily by electrostatic interactions and charge polarization effects, leading to a more positively charged ZrCl_3 surface without the formation of direct chemical bonds.

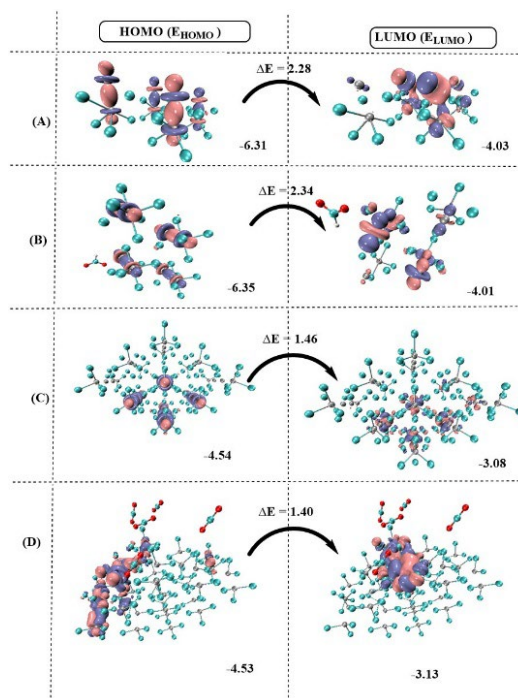


Fig. 2. Frontier molecular orbitals-transition state with the associated band energy computed for the optimized systems (A) ZrCl_3 unit cell, (B) CO_2 adsorption ZrCl_3 unit cell, (C) ZrCl_3 supercell, and (D) CO_2 -multilayer ZrCl_3 supercell, with the PBE density functional approximation, (All energy values are computed with eV).

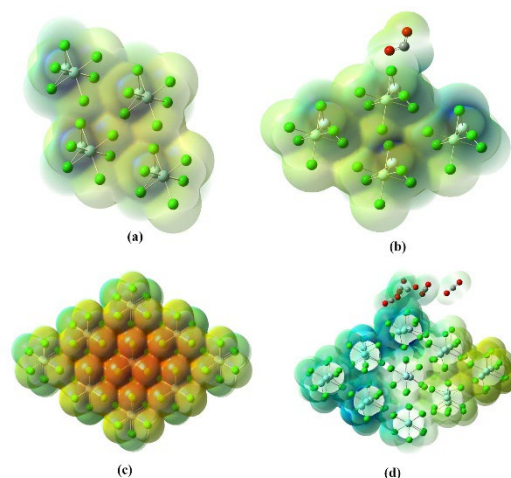


Fig. 3. Electrostatic potential map with color scale code (from more negative value to more positive value Orange→Yellow→Green→Blue) for (a) single ZrCl_3 cell, (b) CO_2 adsorption ZrCl_3 unit cell, (c) multilayer ZrCl_3 supercell, and (d) CO_2 -multilayer ZrCl_3 supercell, with the PBE density functional approximation.

Electronic band structure and density of states spectra of zirconium chloride crystal

As is well known, computationally generated electronic band structure (EBS) and density of states (DOS) spectra provide a vivid image of energetic states [48]. Fig. 4 displays the two types of studied spectra

for ZrCl_3 crystal structure. The successive electronic levels present with calculated Fermi level at 0 K, represent several states contributed in the occupied and virtual areas with the specific k -points generated in a highly symmetric sample. Since DOS specifies the amount of energy states present at a given energy, it is a crucial metric in the field of solid-state physics for describing the mobility states of electrons [49]. Because Zr and Cl atoms with 1:3 ratio represent electron deficiency and electron-rich sites, respectively, it was expected that the electron excitation from the p orbital of Cl to the d orbital of Zr would be the majority in the partial DOS (PDOS) contribution. The findings confirm the presence of a highly contributed d orbital in the virtual and occupied levels (green lines). While more contribution of p orbital (red line) is exported from both Zr and Cl atoms. The band gap calculated for the overall solid-state crystal at the same level of optimization was 2.350 eV, that consistent with semiconducting systems.

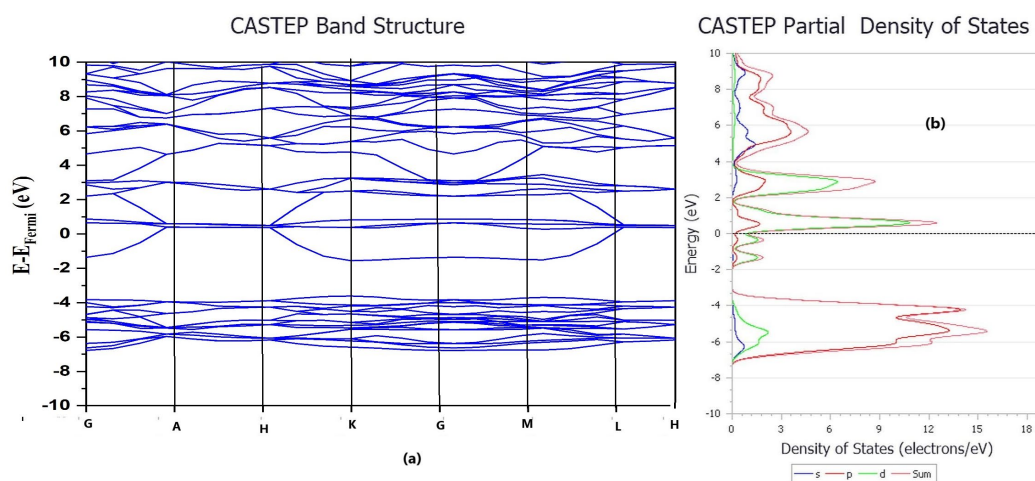


Fig. 4. EBS and DOS spectra of ZrCl_3 crystal structure with group space P63/MCM.

Effect of adsorption on molecular dynamics simulation

Molecular Dynamics (MD) simulation represents an efficient computational technique to study the time-dependent motions of atoms and molecules. Deep insights into the mechanical, electrical, and structural properties of several modified systems based on atomic mobility properties during a simulation period [50]. The dynamic simulation's temperature control examined how the separated and adsorbed systems behaved similarly as depicted in Figures 5-8. The studied systems involve a significant variation in flocculated temperature based on the system characteristic towards CO_2 adsorption molecules. CO_2 -capacity on the surface of the ZrCl_3 system controls the dynamic movement and effect on stabilization through the time of simulation. As seen from Figures 5 and 6, the presence of 1-2 CO_2 molecules increases the average value of temperature from 350 K to 650 K. However, the pristine ZrCl_3 system (Fig. 7) is dynamically affected at temperatures up to 450 K at a simulation time of 1500 ps with significant flocculation of atomic movement during the simulation time. At the end of the simulation (10000 ps), the two CO_2 -loaded systems flocculate slightly with some stability towards 300 K as an average value. The simulation stability of the CO_2 adsorption systems gives a good indication of the favorable binding affinity on the surface of the crystal compared with the separate ZrCl_3 supercell as in Fig. 7. Fig. 8 presents a significant atomic dynamic movement during the simulation time; this predicts the high mobility of CO_2 molecules on the surface of ZrCl_3 supercell during simulation. The adsorbate arrangement on the surface before simulation specifically closed to Zr atoms with one oxygen atom as depicted in Fig. 8(a). While at the end of simulation time (Fig. 8(b)), CO_2 molecules penetrated the surface to be in the bulk of the system with high flocculation at a maximum temperature of 380 K. The results concluded a more stable CO_2 -unit cell adsorption system with a high capacity of adsorbate on the surface.

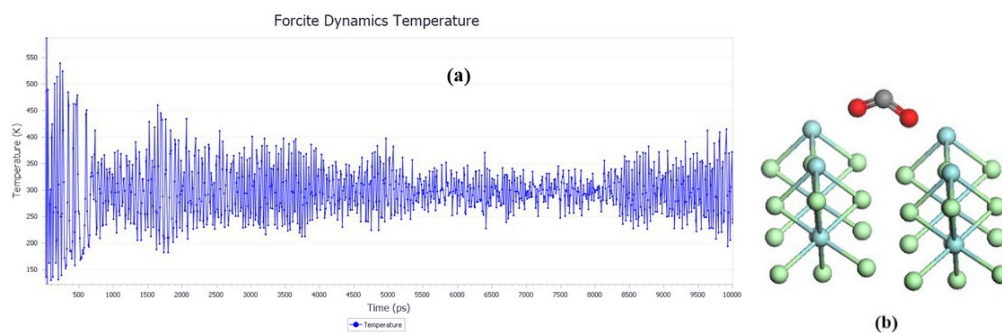


Fig. 5. Molecular dynamic simulation of temperature with time (a), of ZrCl₃ unit cell with one molecule of CO₂ (b).

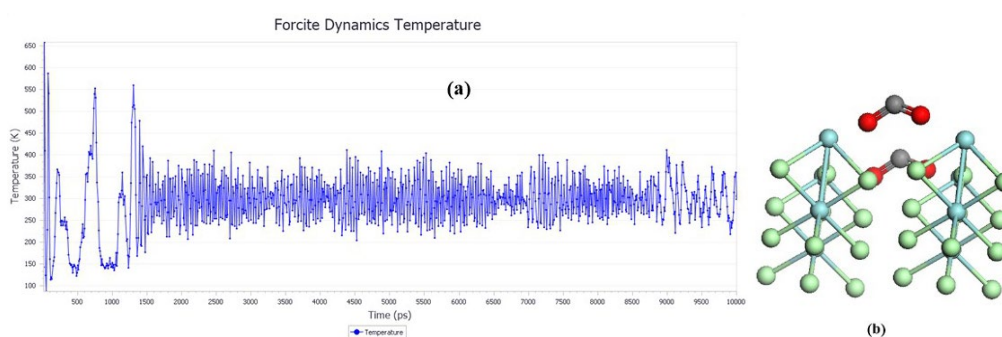


Fig. 6. Molecular dynamic simulation of temperature with time (a), ZrCl₃ unit cell with two molecules of CO₂ (b).

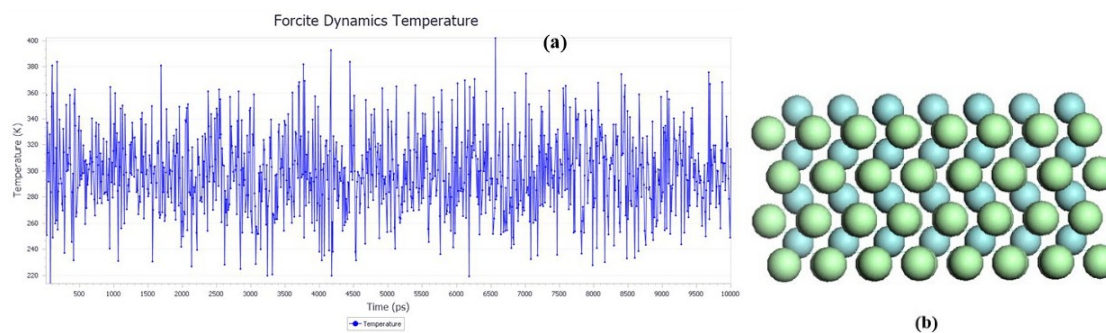


Fig. 7. Molecular dynamic simulation of temperature with time (a) of ZrCl₃ supercell (b).

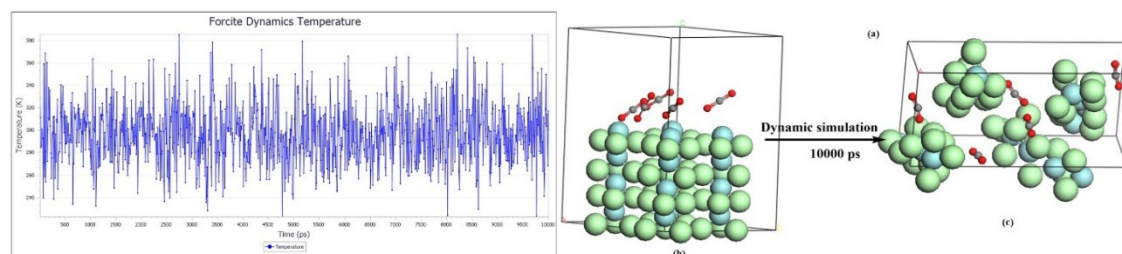


Fig. 8. Molecular dynamic simulation and temperature effect on ZrCl₃ supercell with 3 molecules of CO₂ (a), the supercell system before simulation (b), and the supercell system after simulation (c).

In molecular dynamics simulations, potential energy (E_{pot}) and kinetic energy (E_{kin}) serve as the primary energetic descriptors for assessing the stability and thermal state of a system; potential energy accounts for the internal forces between atoms, including bond stretching, van der Waals interactions, and electrostatic forces. While kinetic energy is directly proportional to the system's temperature and represents the motion of the particles. The provided study illustrates the thermodynamic stability of different ZrCl_3 configurations through MD simulations over a 10000 ps trajectory, where the achievement of steady-state fluctuations in these energies confirms system equilibration. In Fig. 9, representing a unit cell with one CO_2 molecule, the potential energy stabilizes with minimal kinetic energy noise, indicating a highly stable, low-resistance interaction. Fig. 10 shows that increasing the loading to two CO_2 molecules introduces significant initial kinetic oscillations and a longer equilibration period of roughly 1500 ps, suggesting a more complex structural reorganization phase as the molecules compete for optimal binding sites. Finally, Fig. 11 transitions to a larger supercell containing three CO_2 molecules, resulting in a significantly higher potential energy baseline; this system exhibits broader kinetic fluctuations, which is characteristic of the increased degrees of freedom and the longer time-scales required for larger periodic structures to reach a global minimum. Collectively, these plots serve as a validation of the simulation parameters, proving that the CO_2 molecules have been successfully integrated into the ZrCl_3 framework without causing structural collapse.

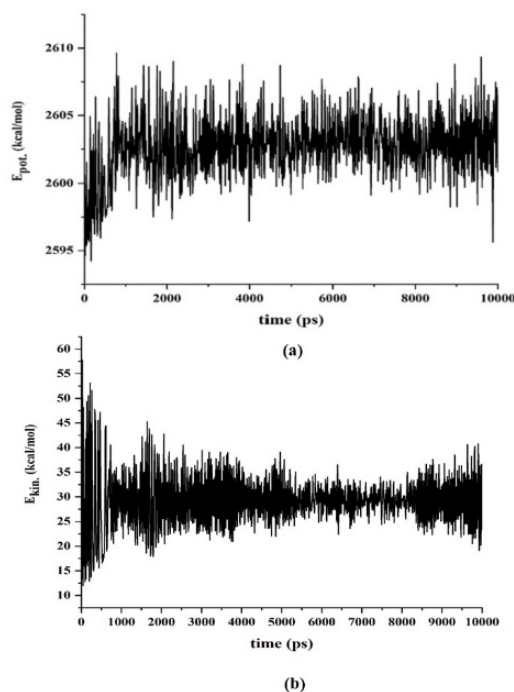


Fig. 9. (a) potential energy variable, (b) kinetic energy variable, of ZrCl_3 unit cell with one molecule of CO_2 .

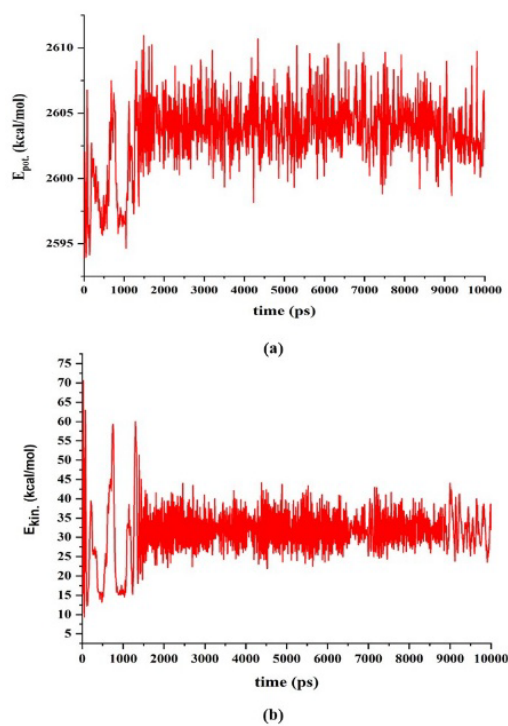


Fig. 10. (a) potential energy variable, (b) kinetic energy variable, of unit cell with two molecules of CO_2 .

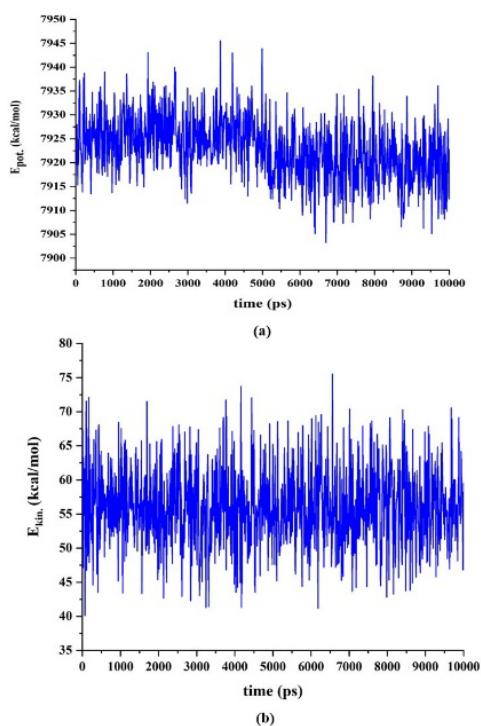


Fig. 11. (a) potential energy variable, (b) kinetic energy variable, of ZrCl_3 supercell with 3 molecules of CO_2 .

Hydrated simulation systems using adsorption annealing

Reducing greenhouse gas emissions from major sources and ambient air can be achieved using one of the most promising approaches: carbon capture [51]. CO₂ adsorption is one of the most used ways because it requires little energy. Water vapor may be found in almost all CO₂-rich industrial gas streams in the atmosphere, making it critical to understand how it influences CO₂ adsorption. Water has a wide range of functions due to the wide variety of adsorbents; it can be a strong inhibitor of CO₂ adsorption or a great stimulator. Water may also have the reverse effect or speed up the rate of CO₂ collection. In this part, the adsorption of CO₂ aggregations on the surface of ZrCl₃ system in the presence of water molecules can predict the interaction ability of CO₂ to the hydrated Zr-based system. Fig. 12 demonstrates the ZrCl₃ unit cell system loading 3 molecules of CO₂ and 20 molecules of H₂O. The six studied models estimated an effective adsorption energy value of -2.03 eV, -2.01 eV, -2.00 eV, -1.97 eV, and -1.96 eV, from model 1 to model 6, respectively. CO₂ molecules in these models mostly interacted with water molecules through H-bond formation with specific bond lengths based on the conformational structure of the system. Other close interactions are present between O of CO₂ and Zr and between H₂O and Cl, leading to a hydrated CO₂-ZrCl₃ stable system. Fig. 13 displays the adsorption models on the ZrCl₃ supercell and similar results of stability were discovered with differences in the adsorption energy values of the models owing to the higher loading system. The adsorption energy of the supercell models ranges from -2.00 eV to -1.93 eV. Fig. 14 shows the CO₂-adsorption locator fields (green dots) for both unicell and supercell systems that loaded during simulation. It is concluded the presence of CO₂ molecules closer to the surface of ZrCl₃ in the unit cell system more than in the supercell system. This observation predicts as the material surface becomes higher in size; the adsorbate distributes itself freely inside the hydration layer to be the more interacted H₂O molecules. While the unit cell and supercell models of ZrCl₃ share the same crystallographic framework, their relevance to CO₂ adsorption differs due to surface exposure, coordination environment, and electrostatic polarization effects. The selected surface orientation exposes Zr centers coordinated by chloride ligands, creating anisotropic charge distributions that act as preferential adsorption sites for the quadrupolar CO₂ molecule. These exposed Zr-Cl motifs generate localized electrostatic fields that govern the initial orientation and anchoring of CO₂, as corroborated by MEP and adsorption locator analyses.

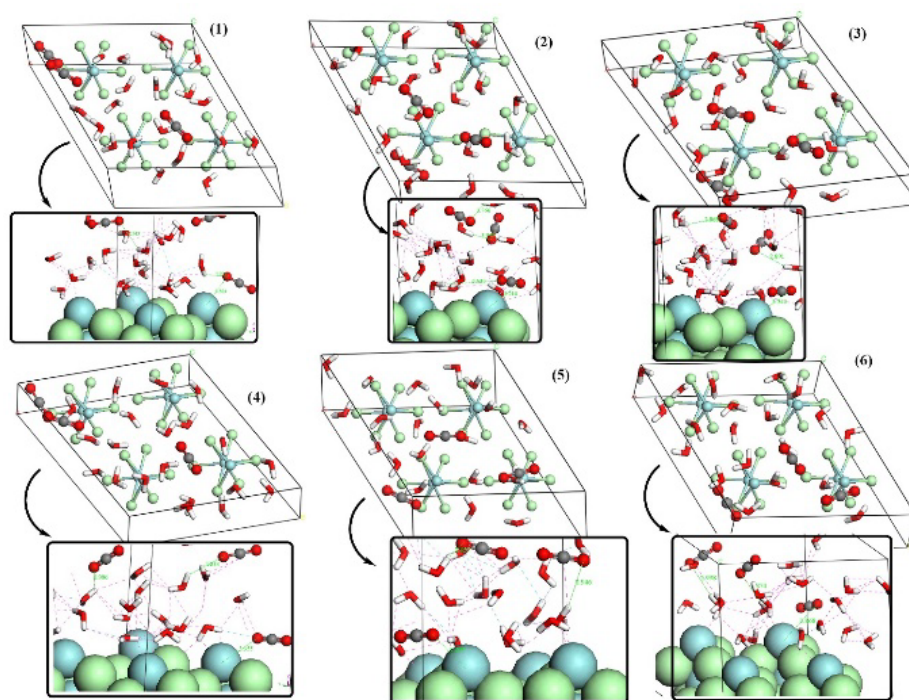


Fig. 12. CO₂-Hydrated ZrCl₃ unit cell adsorption annealing with several locator models.

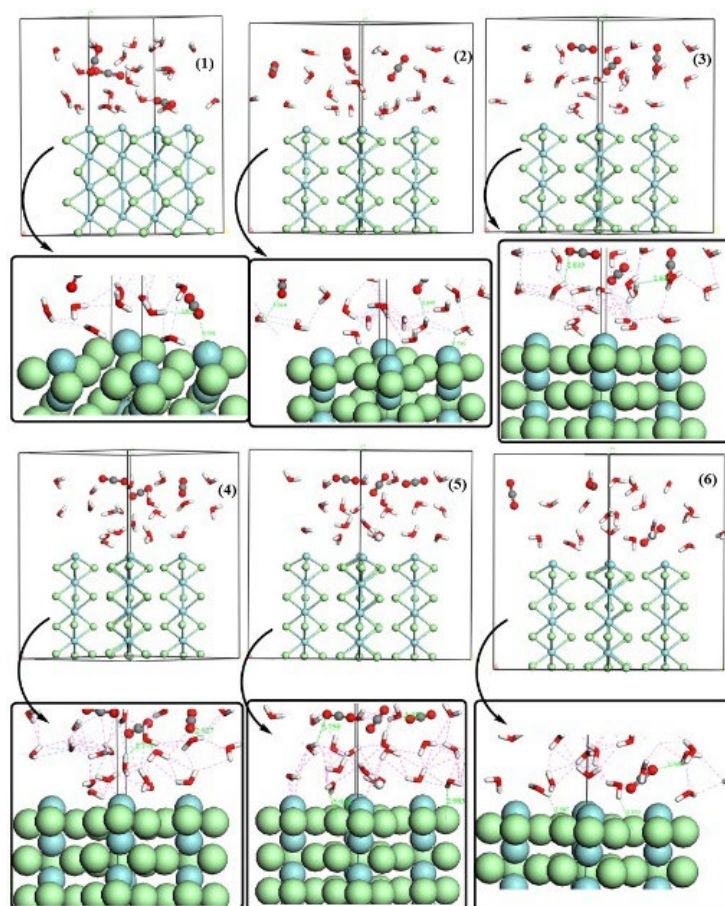


Fig. 13. CO₂-Hydrated ZrCl₃ supercell adsorption annealing with several locator models.

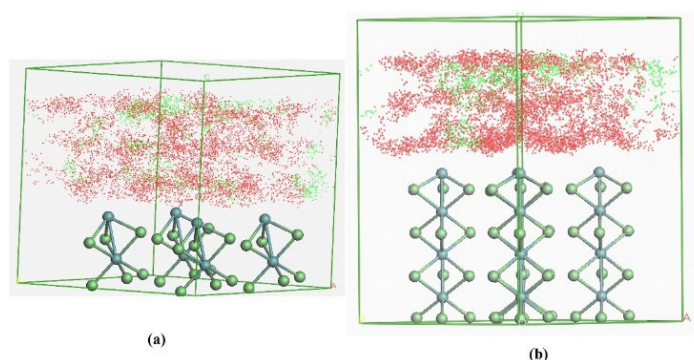


Fig. 14. Field locators of hydrated adsorption systems, (a) CO₂-hydrated ZrCl₃ unit cell, and (b) CO₂-hydrated ZrCl₃ supercell with red dots for water molecules and green dots of CO₂ molecules.

To support the findings of this work, previous research related to other system candidates was conducted. The zeolite of Si/Al ratio is low can possess a higher CO₂ adsorption capacity (2.8 mmol g⁻¹), with

a much higher enthalpy of adsorption [52]. The adsorption capacity of CO₂ (MIL-53) (agZIF-62) CGC was found to be around 2.5 mmol/g, indicating its efficacy in preserving the properties of doped MOF crystals [53,54]. It was discovered that the addition of ZrO₂ could greatly improve the methanol selectivity of the InCo catalyst. Furthermore, increased oxygen vacancy and strong interaction between the In-Co-Zr catalysts contribute to improved CO₂ adsorption strength and capacity [55]. The structural, and electrical origins of molecule adsorption are investigated using experimental and DFT computations [56]. Experimental and computational results indicate that CO₂ adsorption on amorphous ZrO₂ (am-ZrO₂) surfaces is less uniform and generally weaker compared to crystalline zirconia. Since the electronic charge distribution and band structure of crystalline and amorphous ZrO₂ are largely similar, the reduced adsorption strength on am-ZrO₂ is attributed to the presence of fewer but stronger Zr–O surface bonds. These results offer detailed molecular-level understanding of CO₂ and general molecular adsorption behavior on ZrO₂-based catalytic materials.

This study summarized the mechanistic perspective, CO₂ adsorption on hydrated ZrCl₃ which proceeds through a cooperative, water-mediated electrostatic stabilization mechanism rather than direct chemisorption. The initial adsorption step is governed by the strong polarization of the ZrCl₃ surface, which induces electrostatic attraction between the partially positive carbon atom of CO₂ and electron-rich surface regions, while water molecules act as structural and electronic mediators. The formation of an extended hydrogen-bonding network between CO₂ and H₂O stabilizes the adsorbate within the hydration layer, simultaneously facilitating secondary interactions between CO₂ oxygen atoms and Zr centers, as well as between water hydrogen atoms and surface Cl sites. This synergistic interaction network lowers the overall adsorption energy to approximately –2.0 eV, indicating a thermodynamically favorable yet structurally non-destructive adsorption process. As the system size increases from unit cell to supercell, the enhanced configurational freedom allows CO₂ molecules to redistribute within the hydration layer, reducing direct surface confinement while preserving adsorption stability. This behavior confirms that CO₂ capture on ZrCl₃ is driven by a balance between surface electrostatic fields, hydrogen-bond-assisted stabilization, and lattice flexibility, providing a realistic representation of adsorption under humid, industrially relevant conditions.

Comparative assessment of CO₂ adsorption mechanisms in related materials

A direct quantitative comparison between ZrCl₃ and established CO₂ adsorbents such as zeolites, metal–organic frameworks (MOFs), and ZrO₂-based materials must be approached cautiously due to fundamental differences in structure, surface chemistry, and adsorption mechanisms. Zeolites with low Si/Al ratios typically exhibit high CO₂ uptake driven by strong electrostatic interactions between CO₂ quadrupoles and framework cations, resulting in high adsorption enthalpies but often accompanied by pronounced sensitivity to water vapor, which can competitively block active sites [57]. In contrast, many MOFs, including MIL-53 and ZIF-based composites, rely on well-defined pore architectures and coordinatively unsaturated metal sites to achieve high adsorption capacities (~2.5 mmol g^{–1}), yet their performance may degrade under humid conditions due to framework flexibility or water-induced pore occupation [58,59].

ZrO₂-based materials provide a more structurally relevant comparison to ZrCl₃ due to the presence of zirconium-centered adsorption sites. In crystalline ZrO₂, CO₂ adsorption is enhanced by surface oxygen vacancies and strong Zr–O interactions, which promote chemisorptive binding and higher adsorption strength [60]. However, experimental and DFT studies have shown that amorphous ZrO₂ exhibits weaker and less uniform CO₂ adsorption despite similar electronic band structures, primarily due to the reduced availability and accessibility of reactive Zr sites [61]. Compared to these systems, ZrCl₃ displays a distinct adsorption mechanism characterized by moderate adsorption energies (~–2.0 eV), surface polarization, and water-mediated stabilization rather than vacancy-driven chemisorption. This places ZrCl₃ in an intermediate regime between strong chemisorption (e.g., defective ZrO₂) and weak physisorption (e.g., purely porous frameworks), offering a favorable balance between adsorption strength, reversibility, and hydration tolerance.

Overall, while ZrCl₃ does not directly compete with high-capacity porous adsorbents in terms of gravimetric uptake, its adsorption behavior under hydrated conditions highlights a complementary capture strategy based on electronic adaptability and surface-mediated stabilization. This comparison underscores the relevance of ZrCl₃ as a structurally resilient, humidity-tolerant CO₂ adsorbent rather than a direct substitute for conventional zeolites or MOFs.

Conclusions

This study elucidates the dual structural and electronic response of ZrCl_3 to CO_2 adsorption, highlighting the importance of model dimensionality in capturing realistic surface phenomena. Our findings transition from a localized molecular perspective to a periodic crystalline framework, revealing that CO_2 sequestration is governed by a significant electronic reconfiguration. The observed reduction in the energy gap to 1.40 eV upon adsorption suggests that CO_2 introduces mid-gap states, effectively narrowing the forbidden zone and potentially enhancing the material's photo-responsiveness or surface conductivity. The observed differences in adsorption energy, CO_2 distribution, and electronic structure between unit cell and supercell models demonstrate that increasing surface dimensionality enhances the physical realism of the adsorption process. Specifically, the supercell better represents extended surface polarization and adsorbate mobility within the hydration layer, while preserving the local Zr-centered binding motif identified in the unit cell. Thus, the combined use of unit cell and supercell models enables a hierarchical interpretation of CO_2 adsorption, linking local coordination chemistry to collective surface behavior. The electronic structure analysis confirms that bulk ZrCl_3 is a wide-bandgap semiconductor ($E_g \approx 2.35$ eV), indicating limited intrinsic electrical conductivity under ambient conditions. Consequently, the adsorption behavior observed in this study is governed by surface electrostatics and local electronic redistribution rather than charge transport or metallic conduction. The electrostatic potential analysis demonstrates that the supercell model provides a more realistic representation of the extended surface environment, capturing long-range Coulombic effects and enhanced surface potential heterogeneity that are not accessible within a primitive unit cell description. These features play a decisive role in stabilizing CO_2 near Zr-centered adsorption sites. Molecular dynamics simulations further reveal that adsorption stability arises from structural flexibility rather than rigid lattice confinement. While the unit cell exhibits constrained geometrical relaxation, the supercell allows subtle lattice adjustments that accommodate CO_2 without disrupting the crystal framework, highlighting the importance of configurational freedom in realistic surface-adsorbate interactions. Importantly, the inclusion of an explicit hydration layer shows that CO_2 adsorption remains energetically favorable even under aqueous conditions, where stabilization is achieved through a cooperative interplay of water-mediated hydrogen bonding and electrostatic attraction to surface Zr centers.

Overall, this study demonstrates that ZrCl_3 can act as a structurally resilient CO_2 capture material, with adsorption driven by surface electrostatics and lattice adaptability rather than electronic conductivity. These insights underscore the necessity of combining supercell models, band-structure-based electronic analysis, and dynamical simulations to achieve a physically consistent description of adsorption processes on semiconducting surfaces.

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