

Supplementary Information

for

Unconventional mechanical and thermal behaviours of MOF CALF-20

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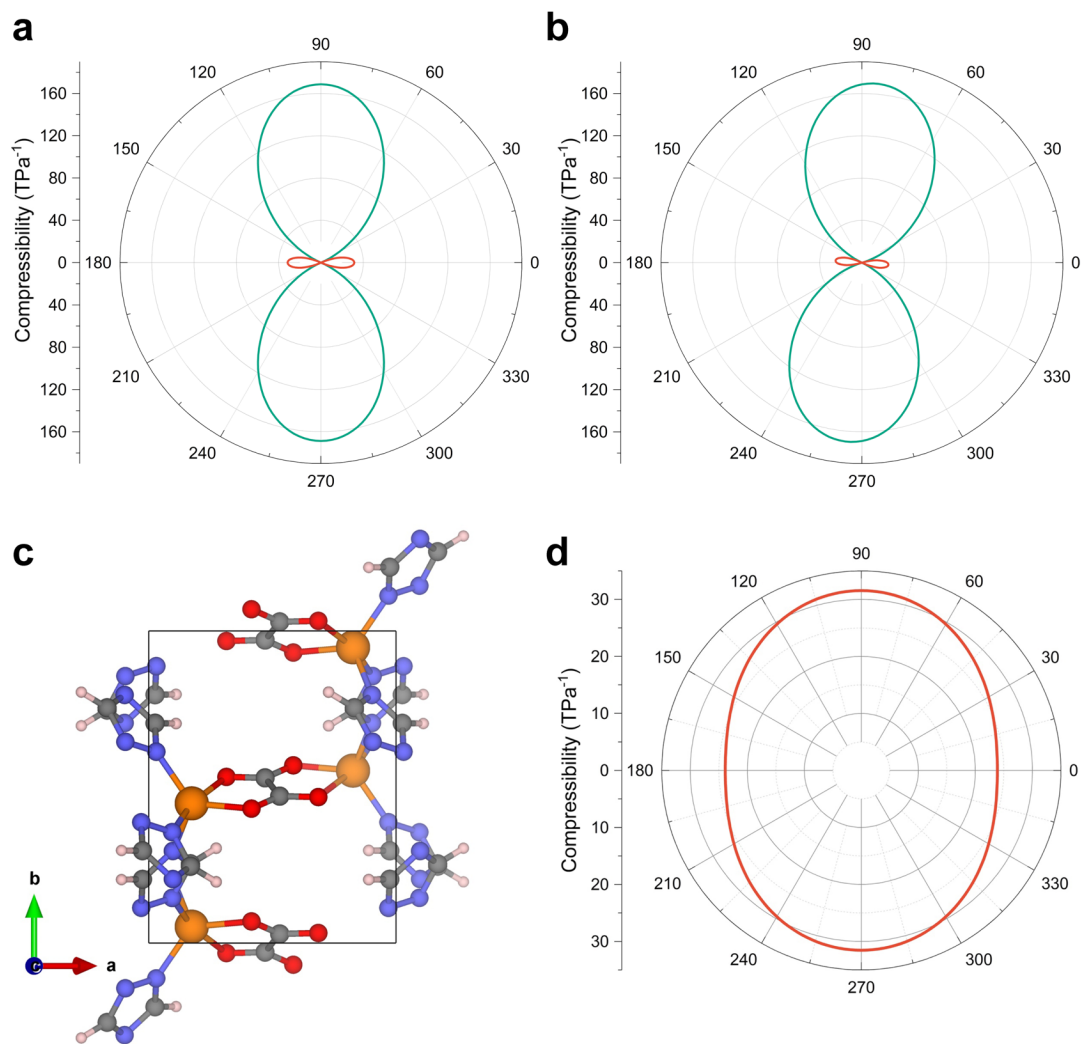
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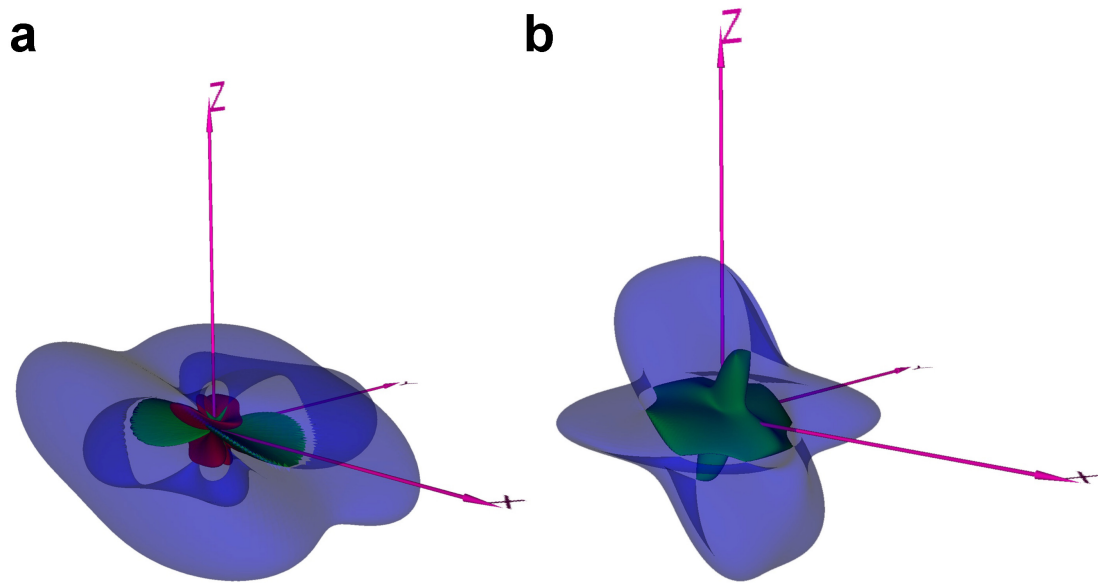
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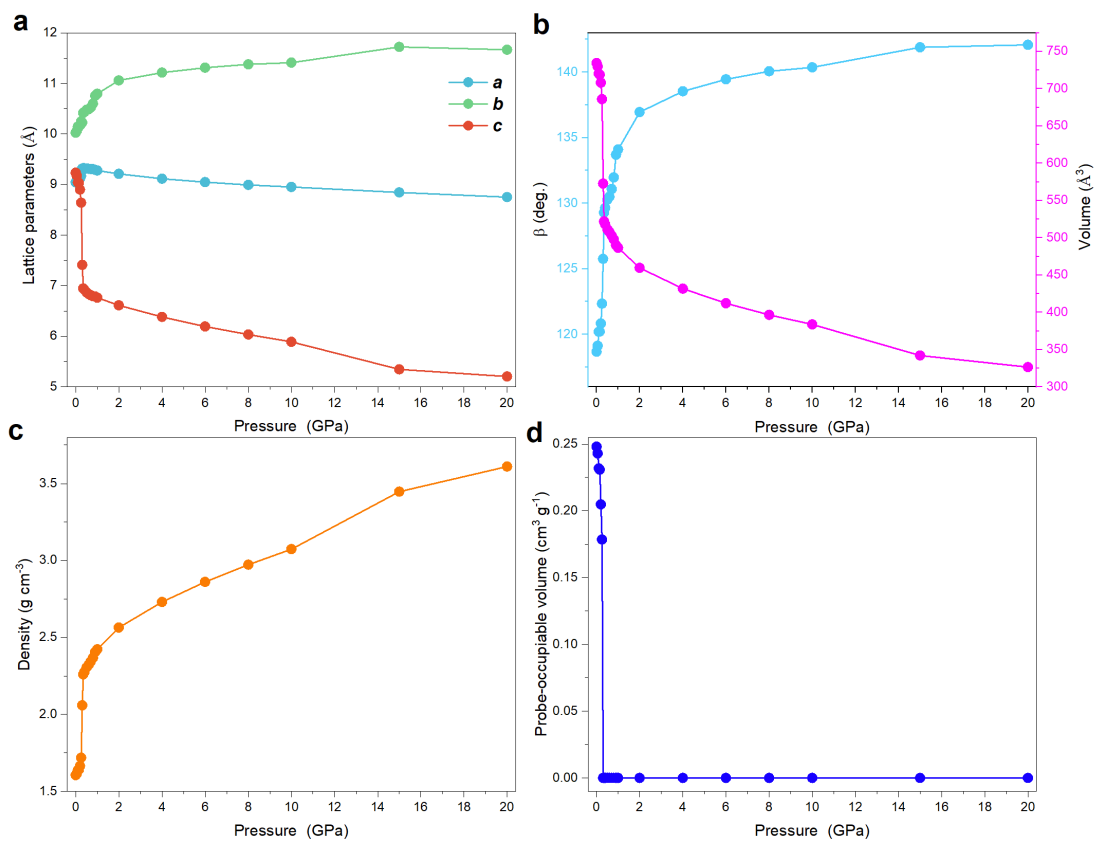
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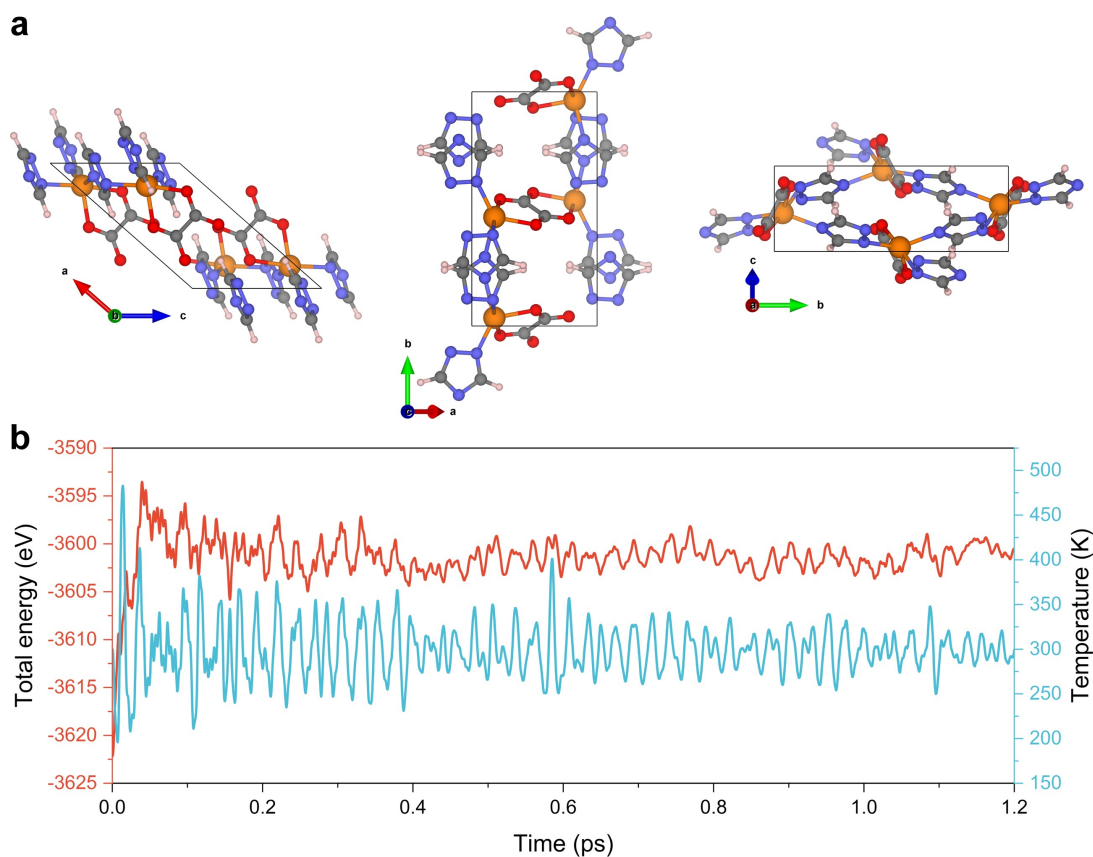
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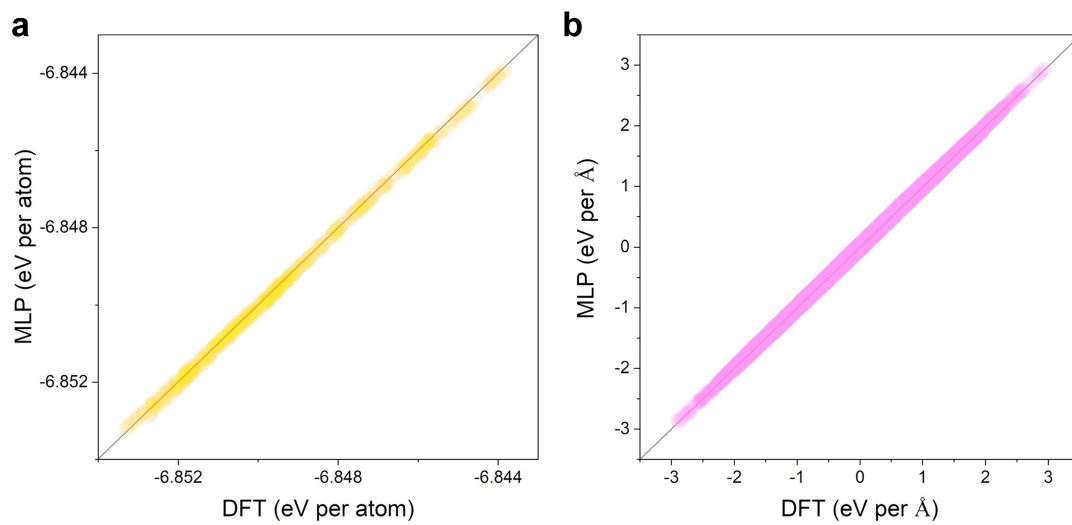
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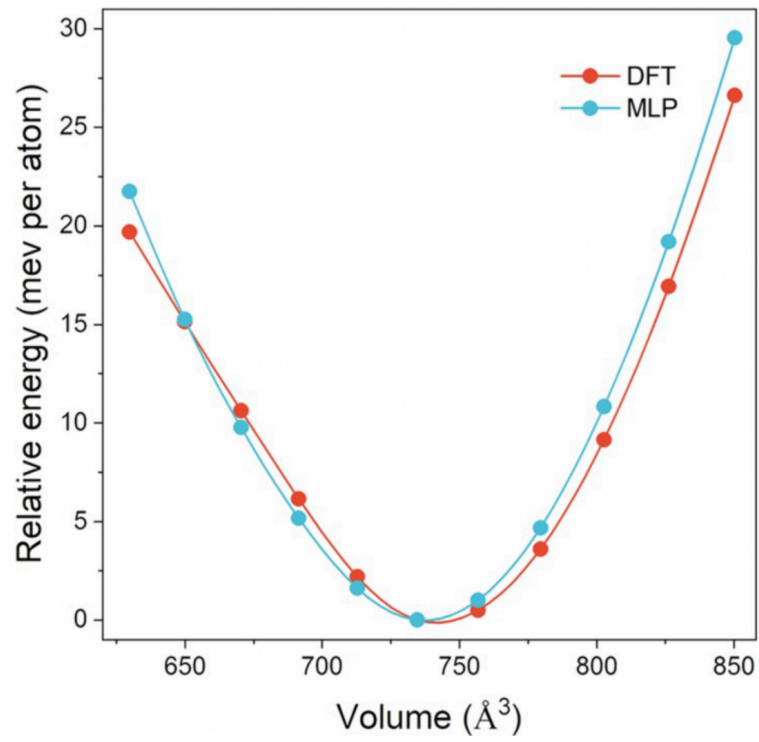
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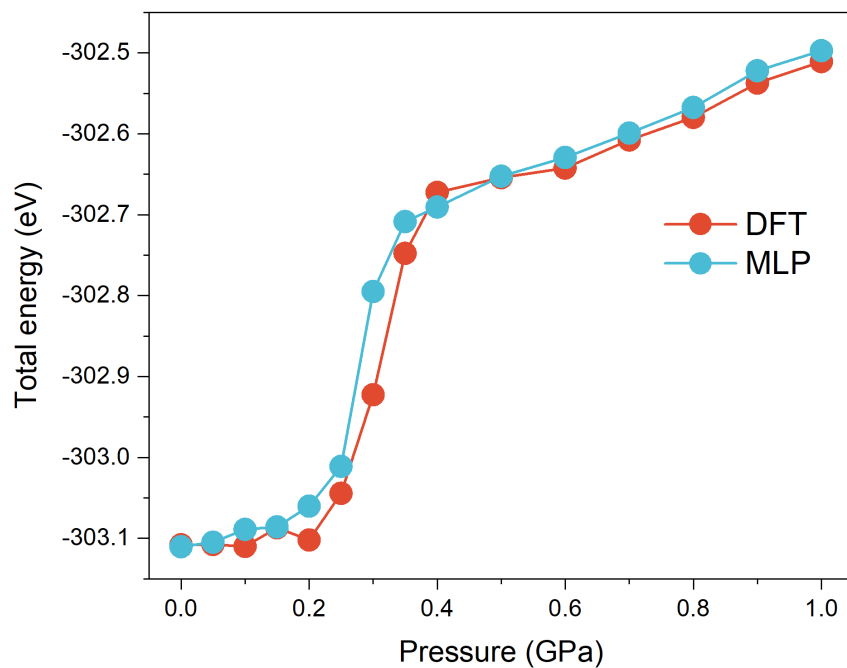
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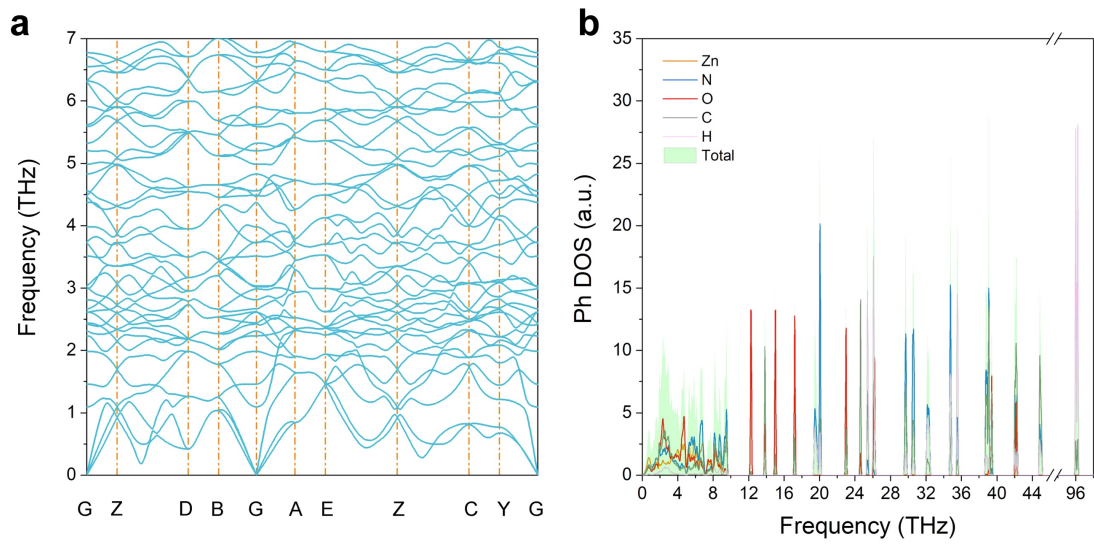
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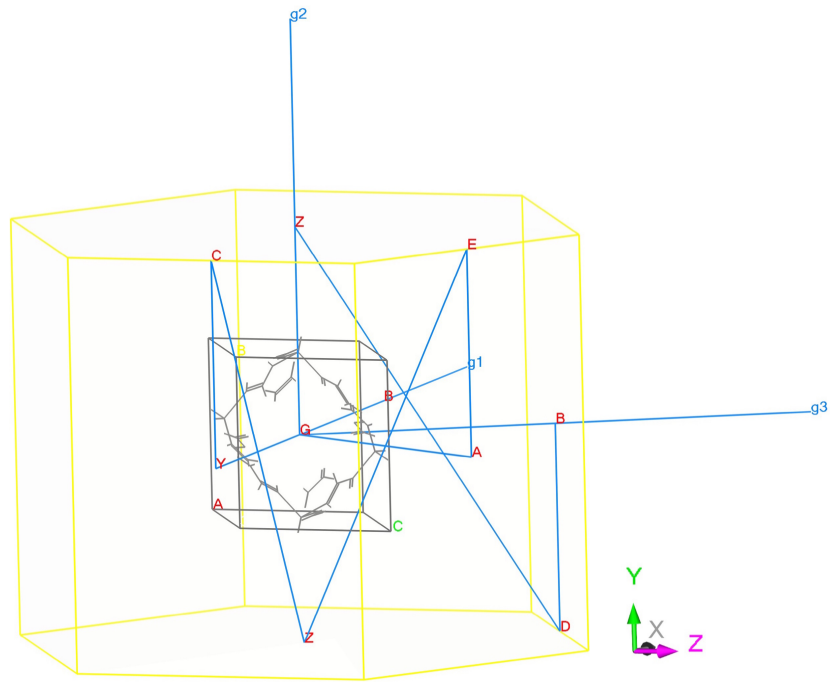
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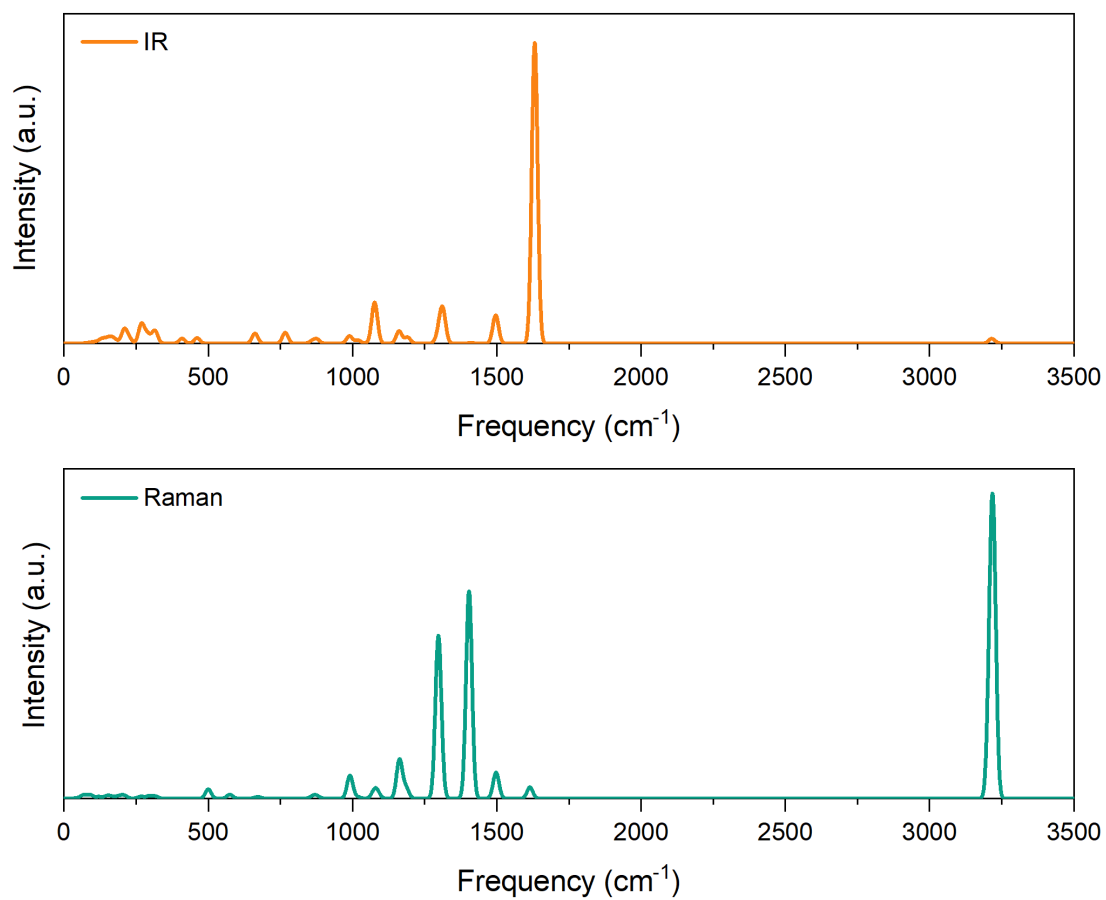
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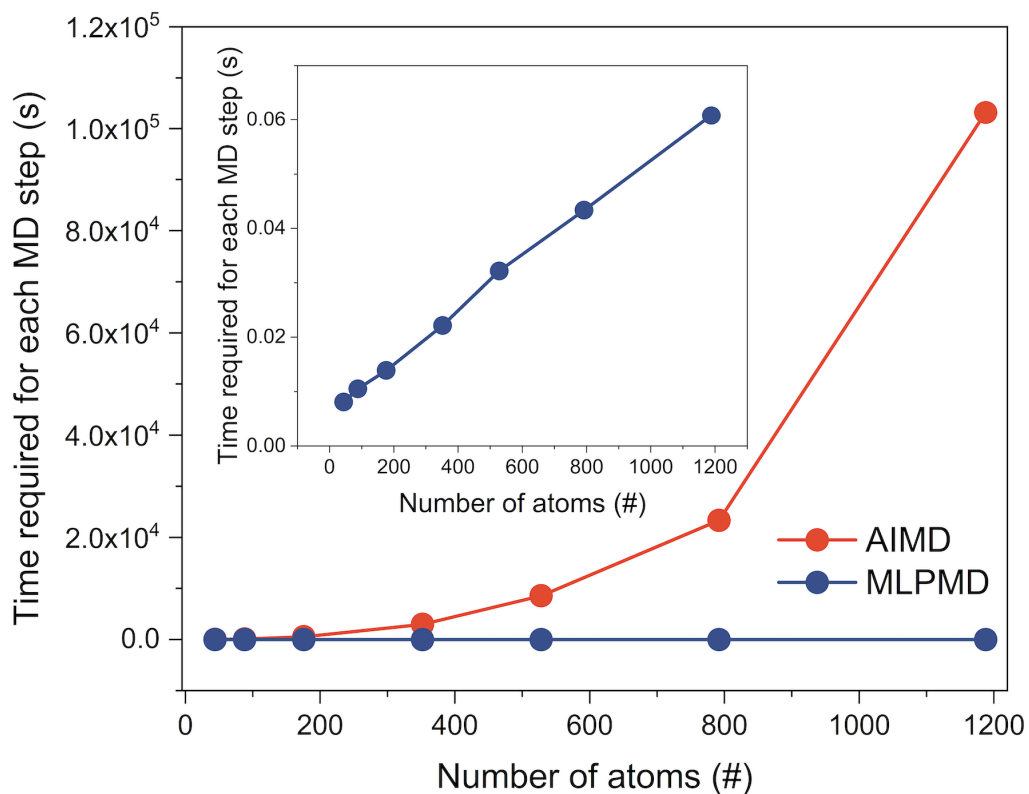
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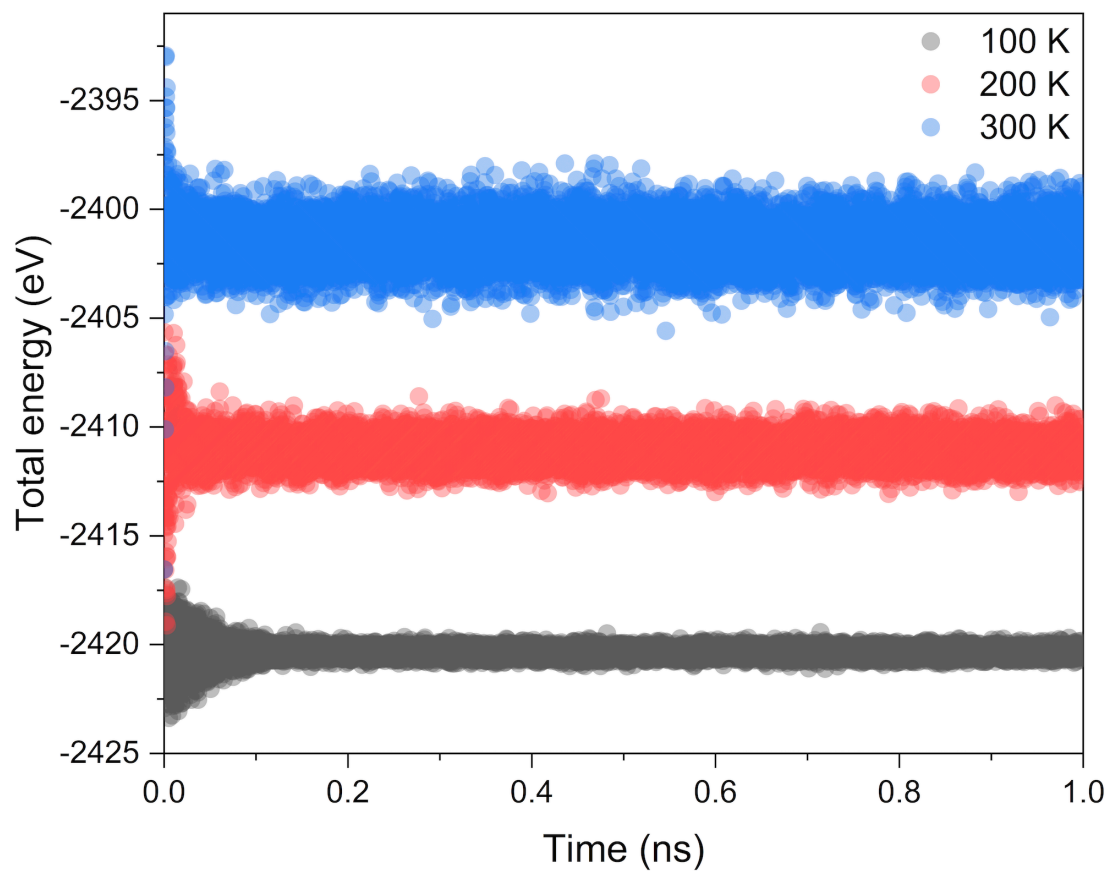
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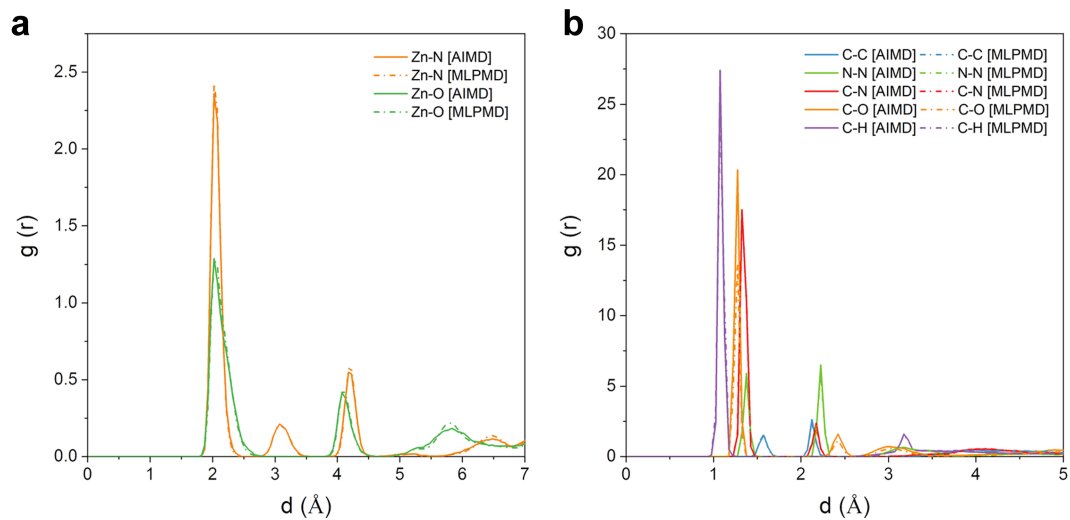
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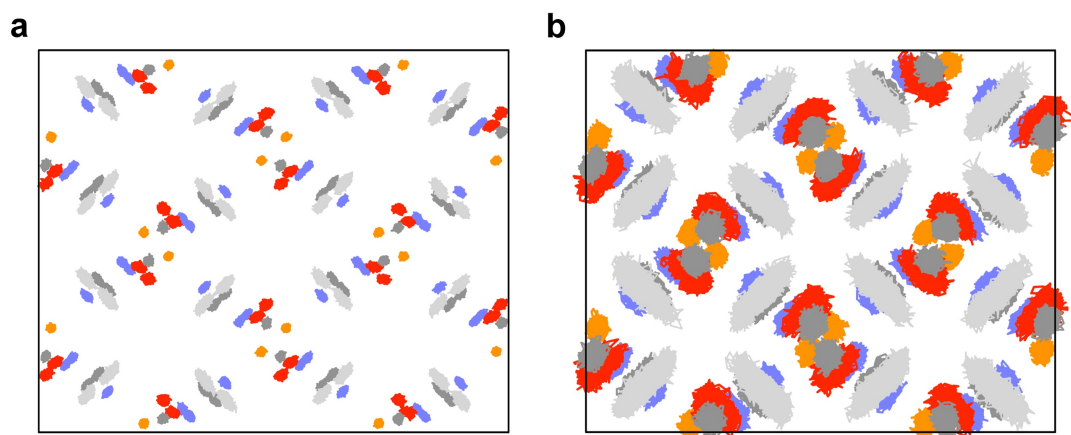
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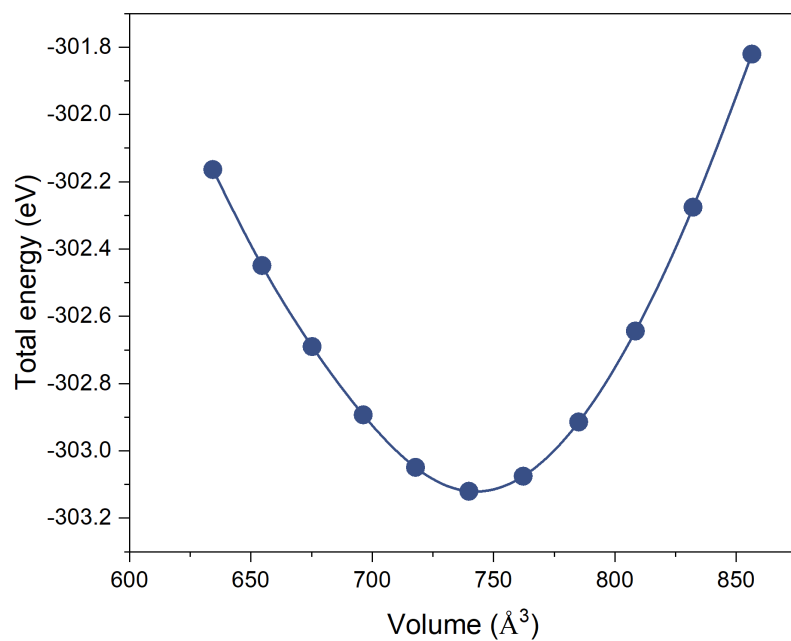
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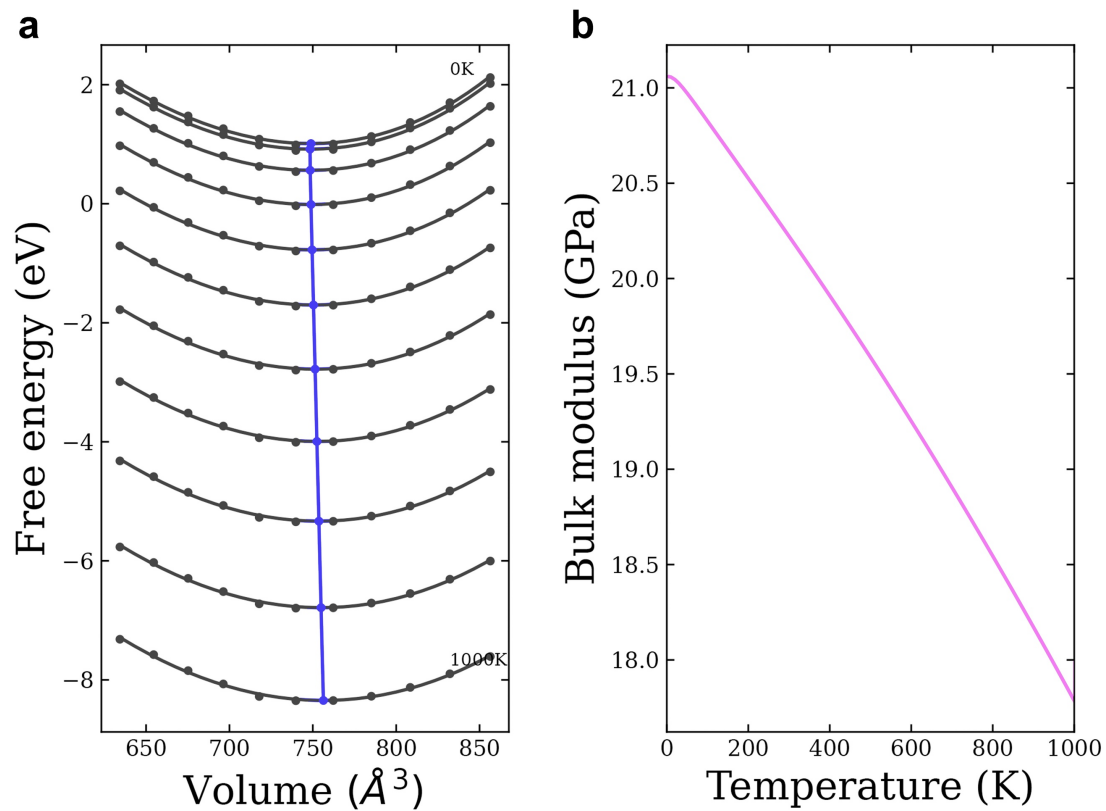
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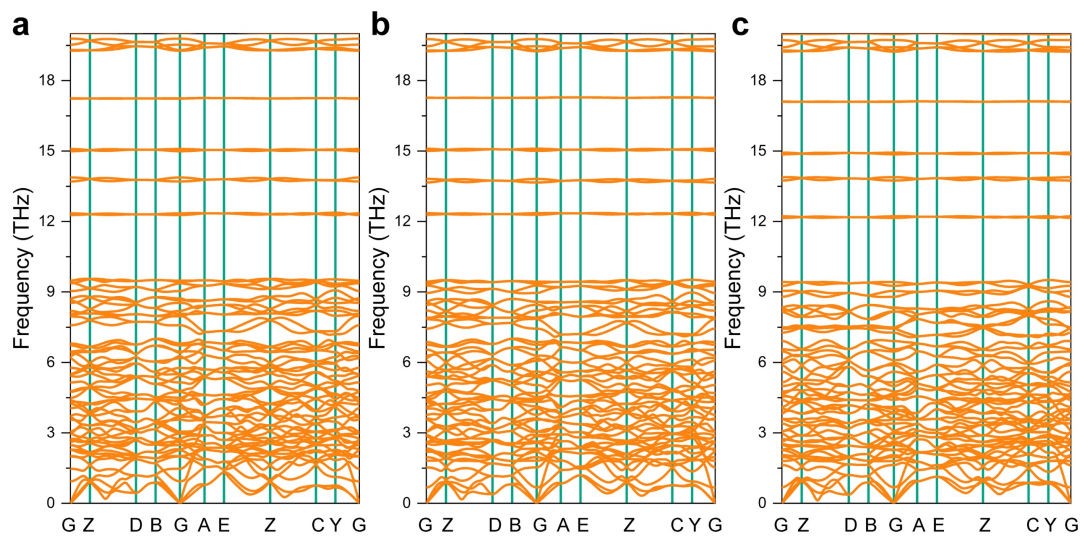
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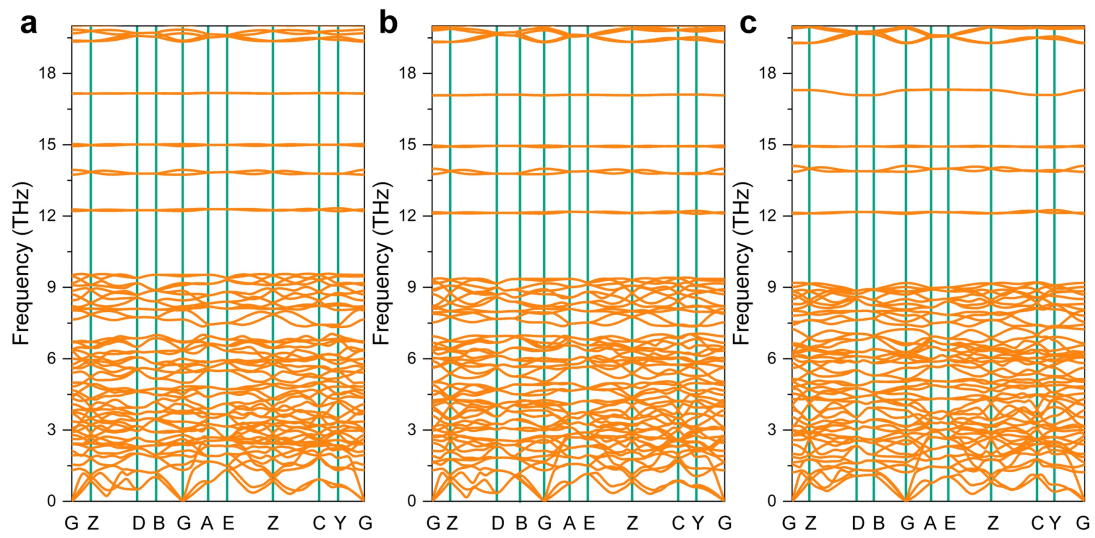
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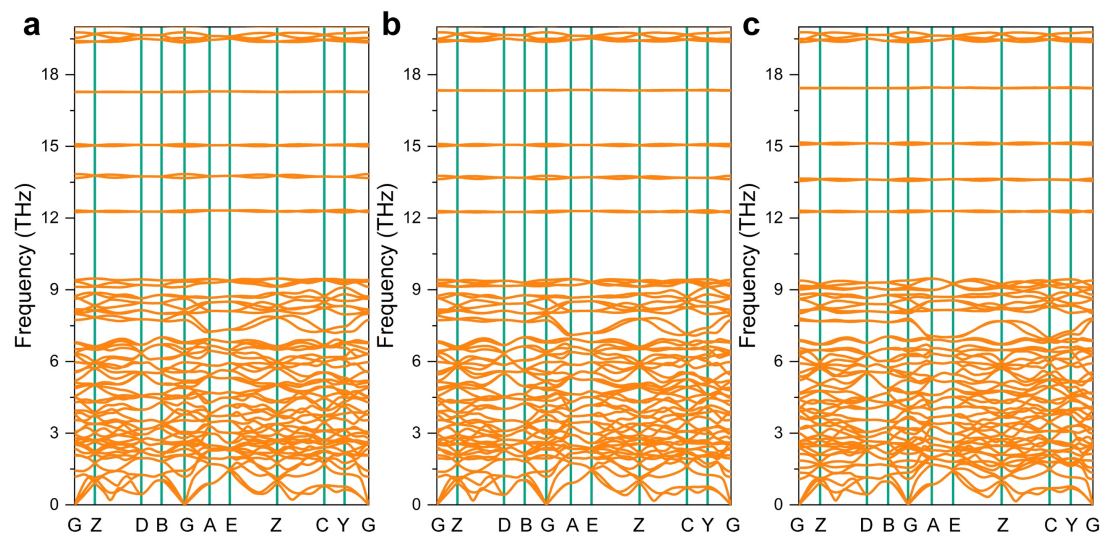
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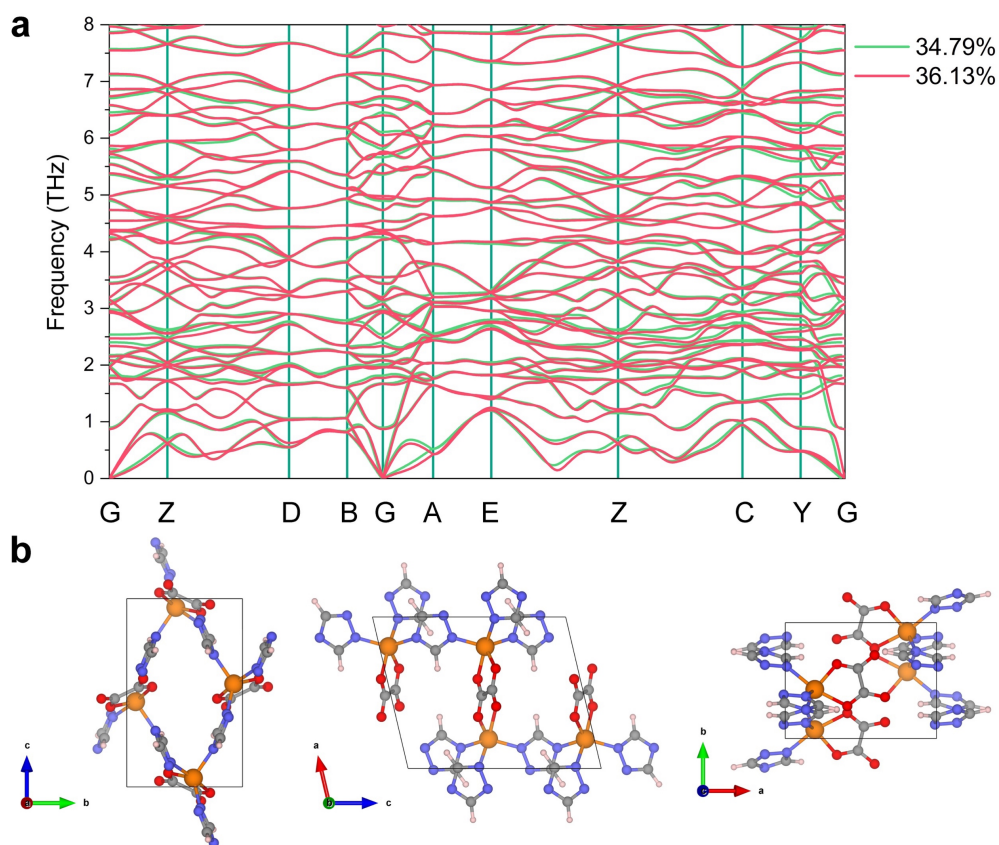
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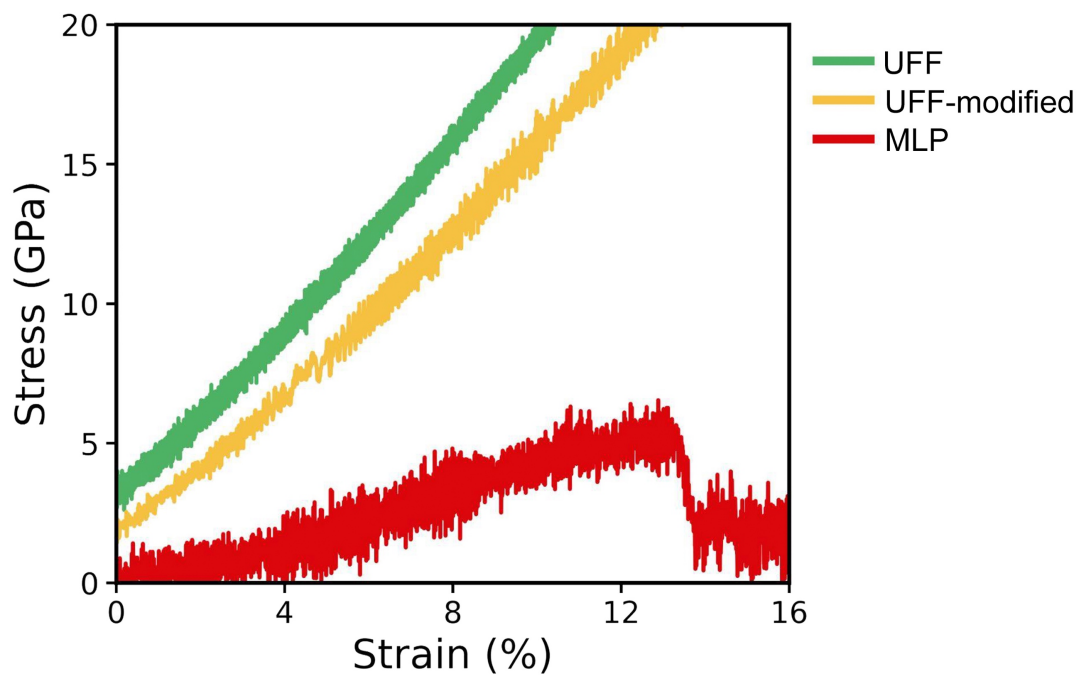
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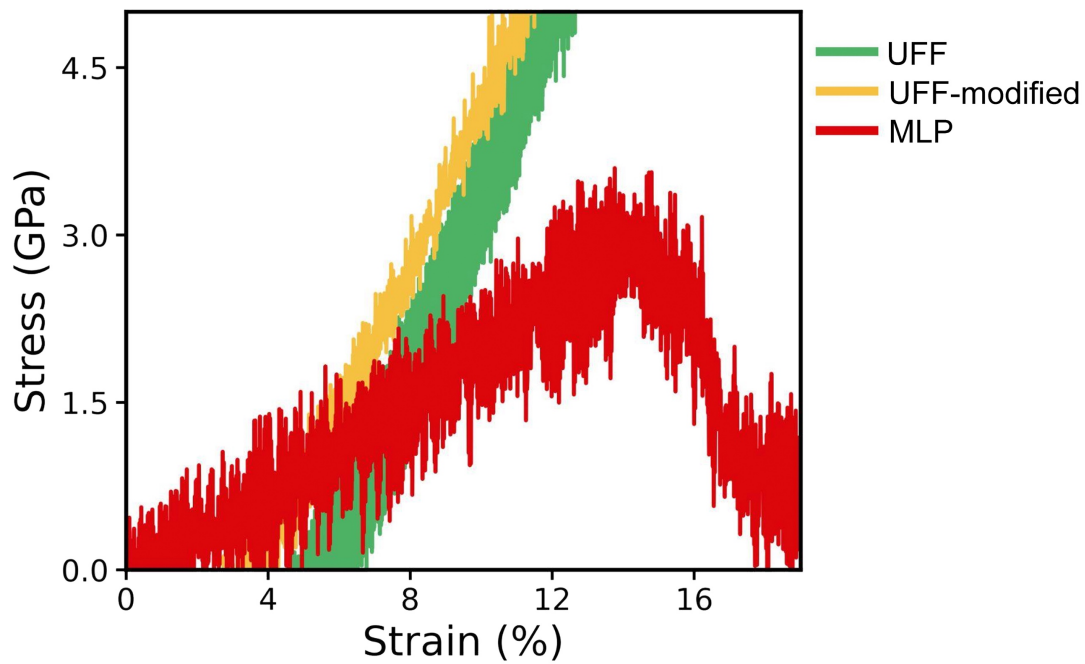
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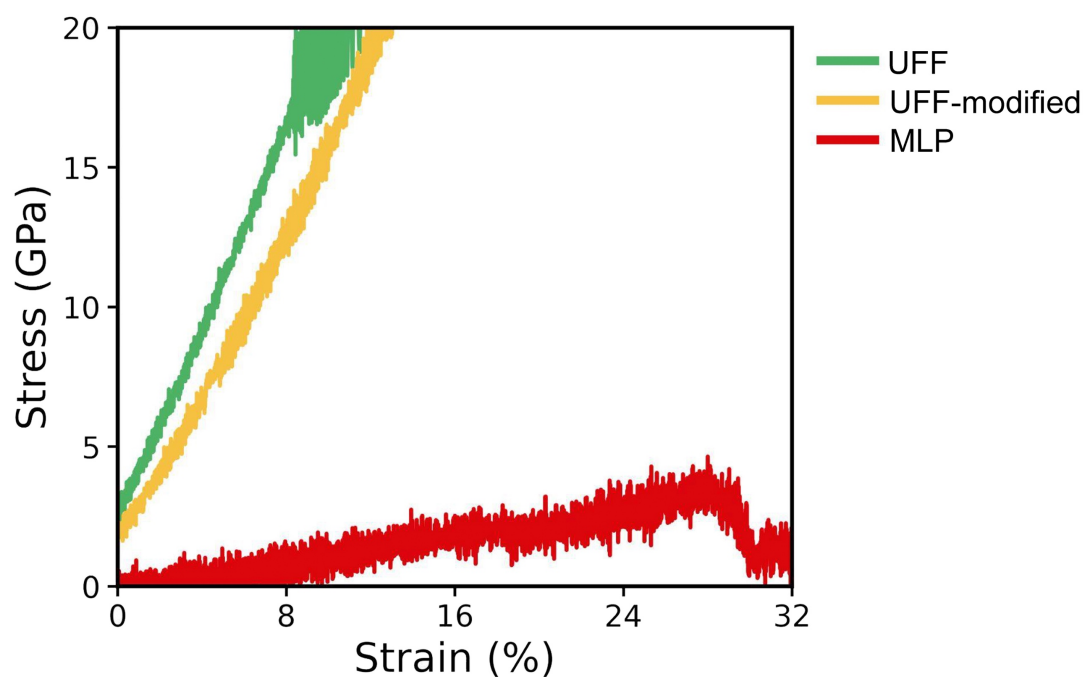
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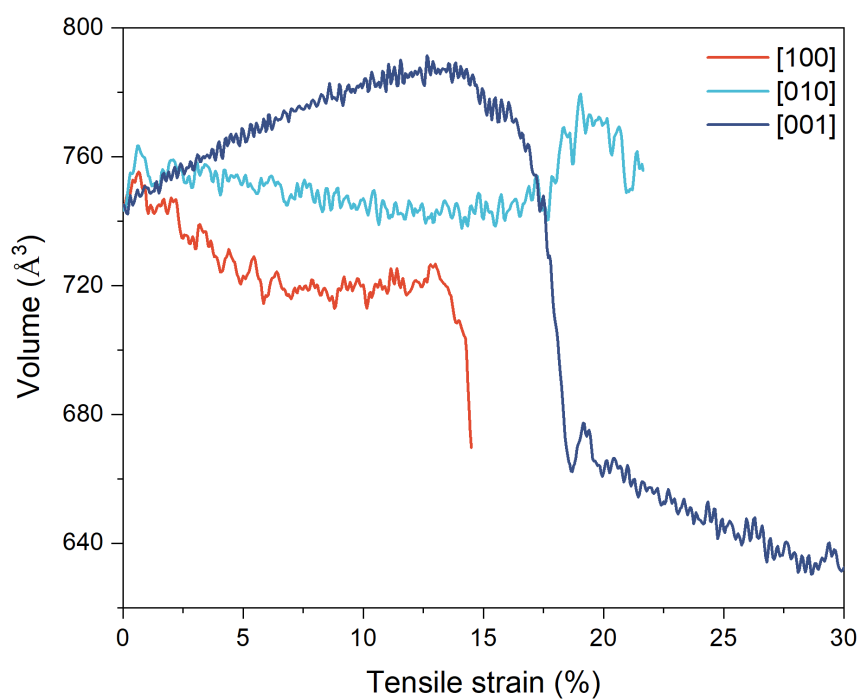
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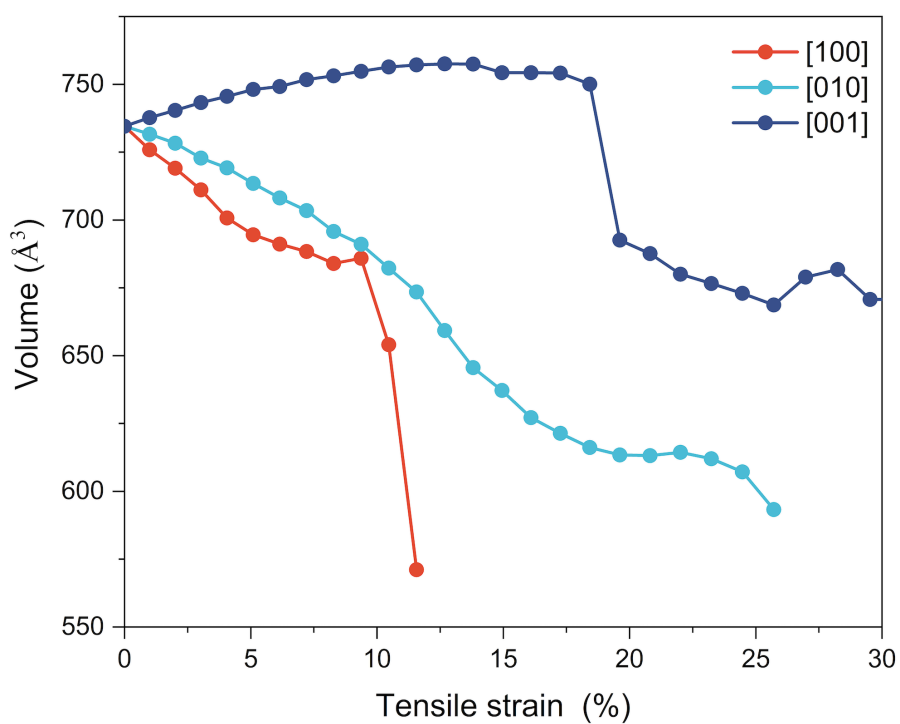
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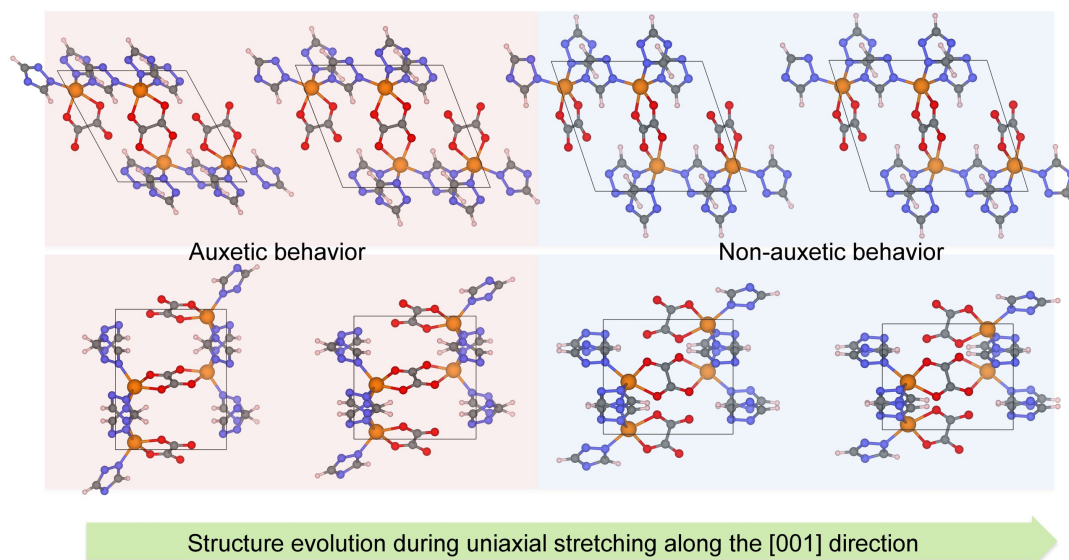
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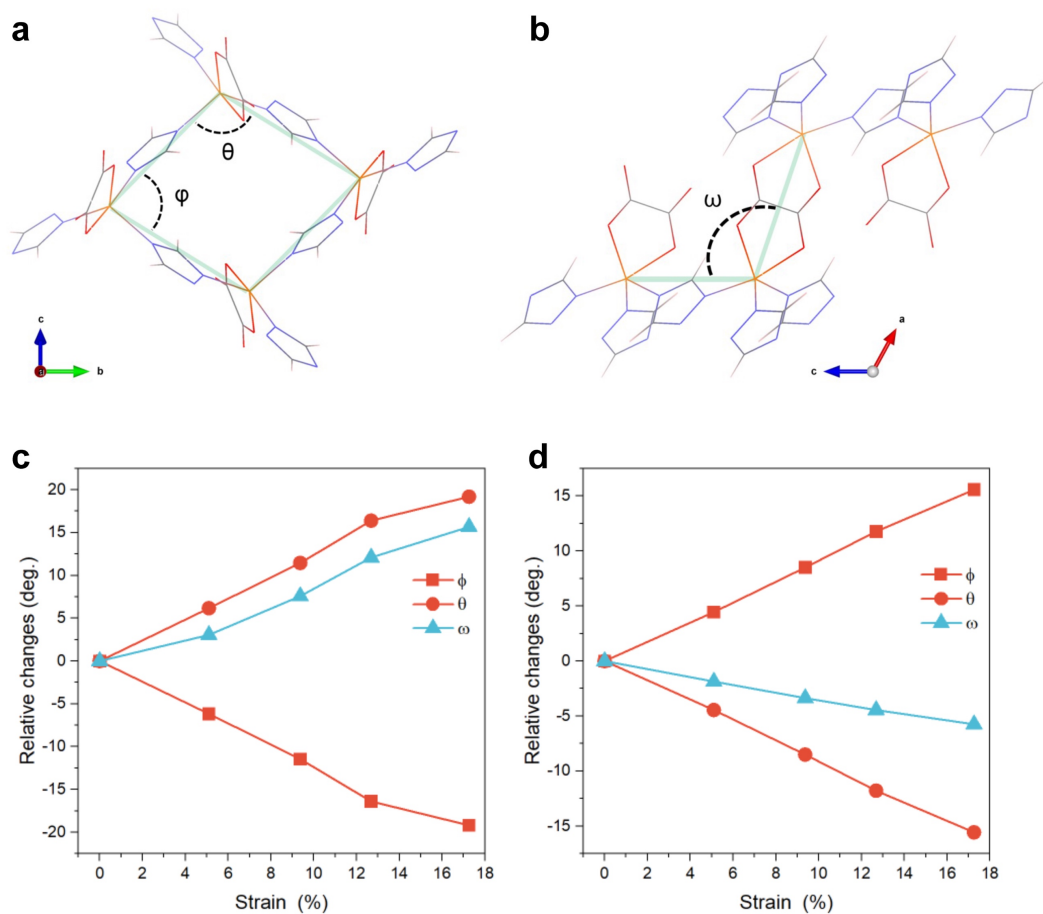
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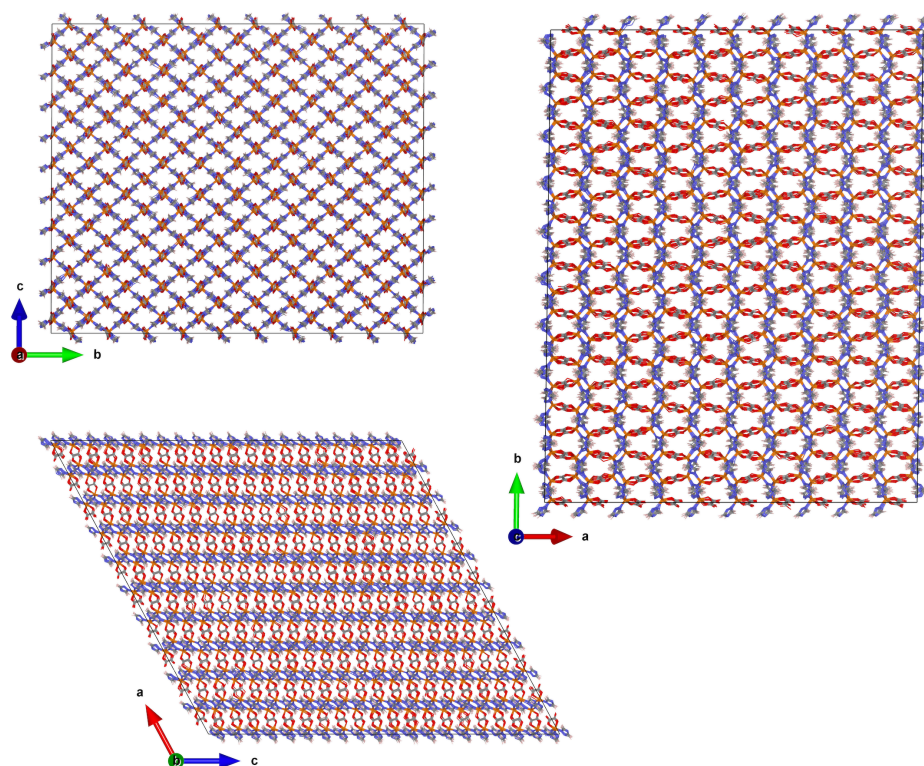
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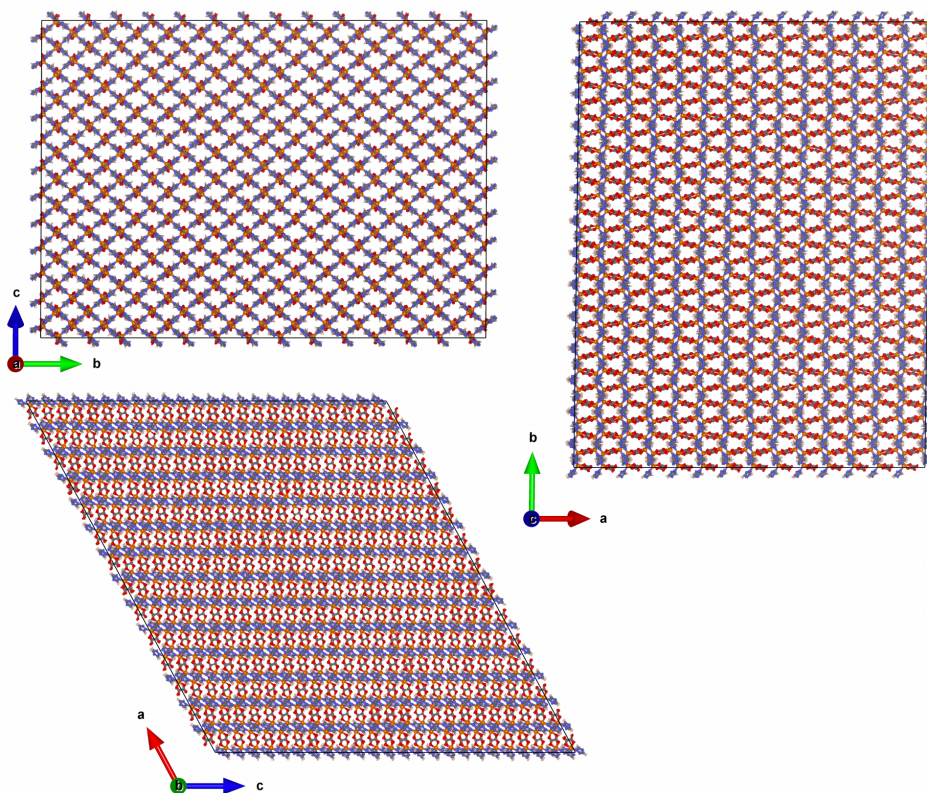
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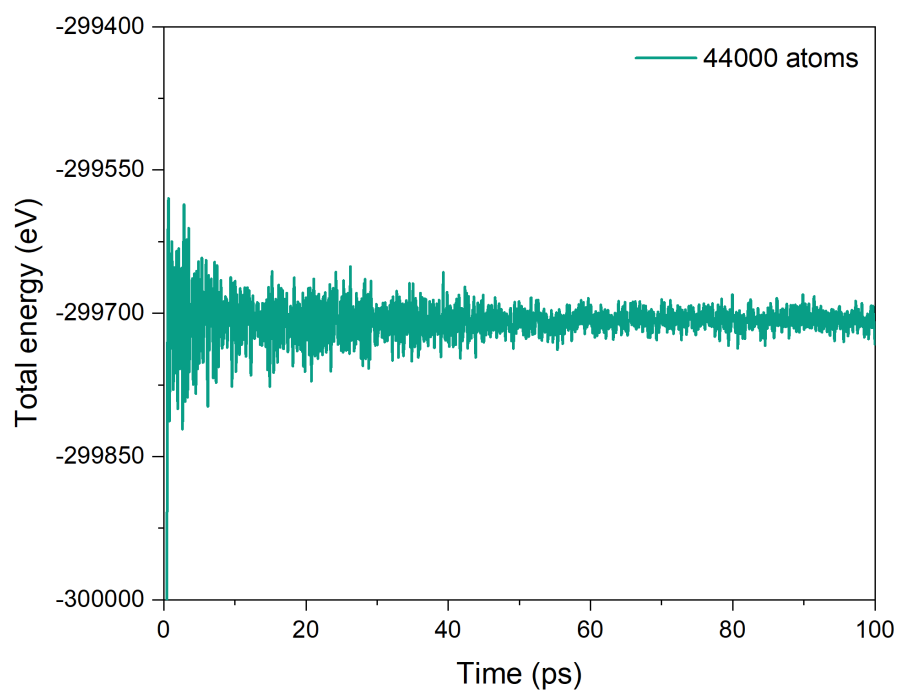
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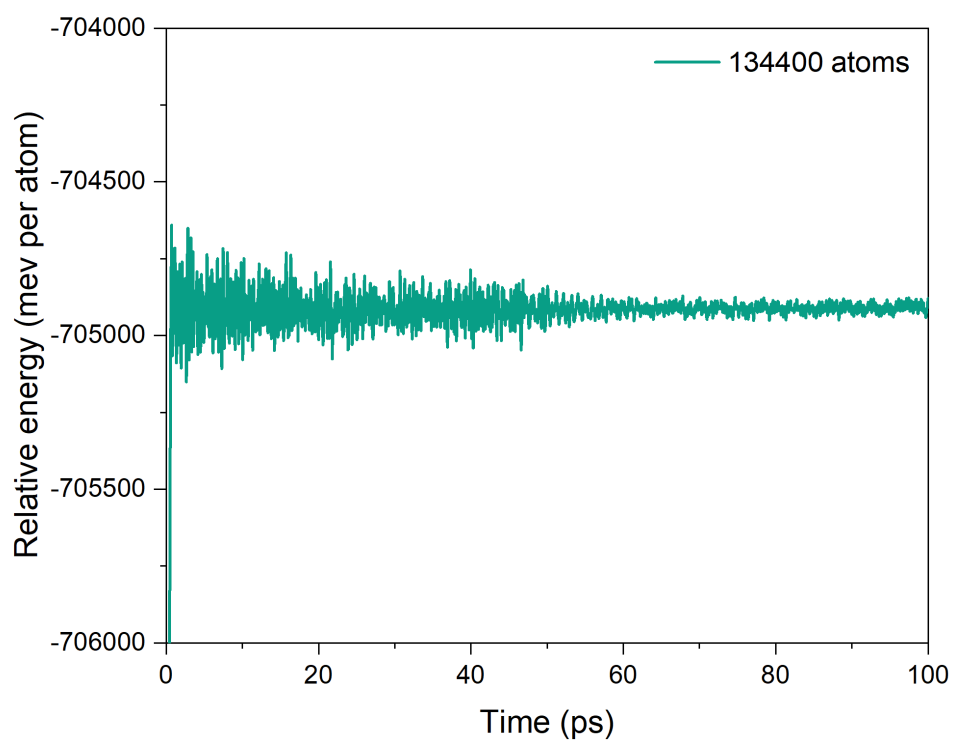
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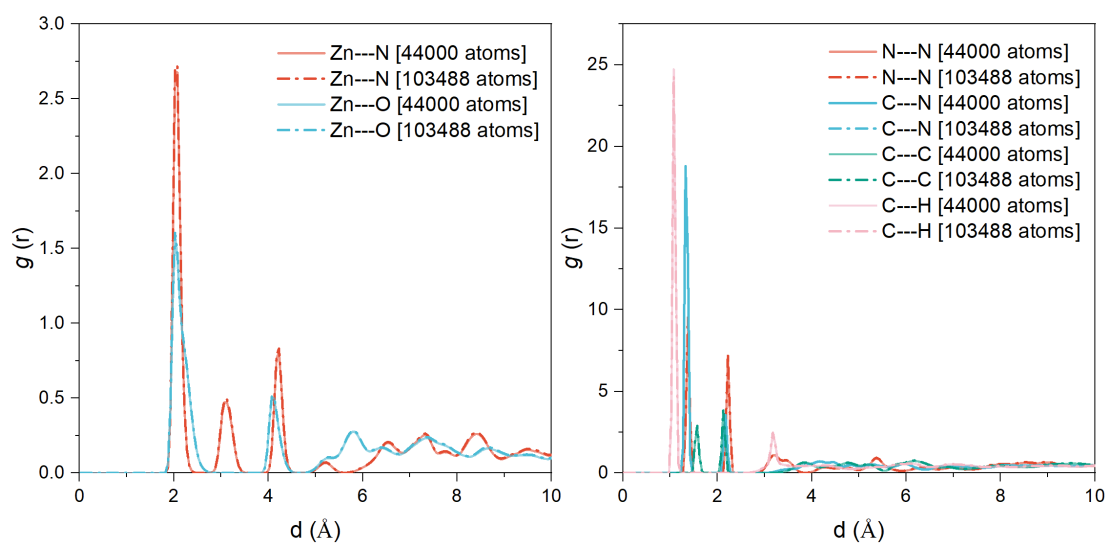
Supplementary Fig. 29 | Snapshot of the CALF-20 supercell structure (different views) with 134,400 atoms after 100 ps simulation using MLP-MD simulations at room temperature (298.15 K, *NVT* ensemble). Color code: Zn, orange; N, blue; O, red; C, grey; H, white.



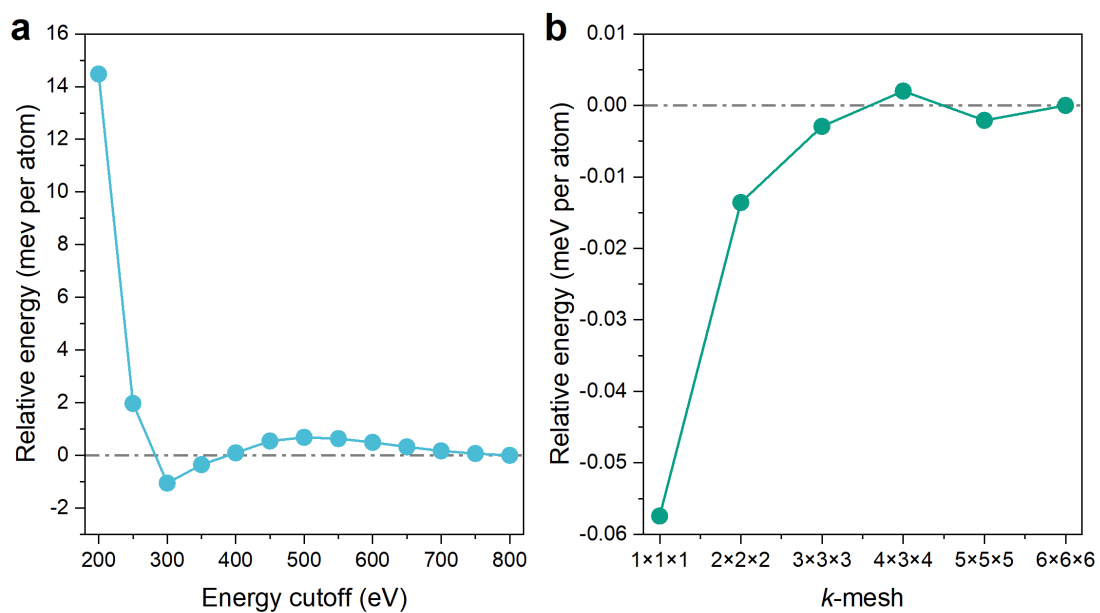
Supplementary Fig. 30 | Evolution of the total energy obtained by MLP-MD simulations for CALF-20 supercell (44,000 atoms) MLP-MD simulations in the NVT ensemble ($T=298.15$ K) and a timestep of 0.5 fs.



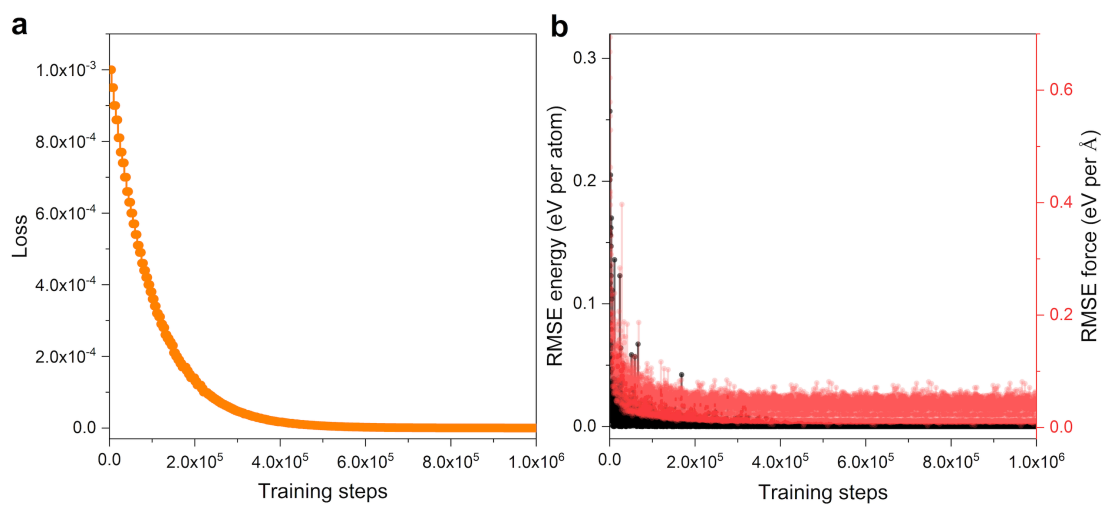
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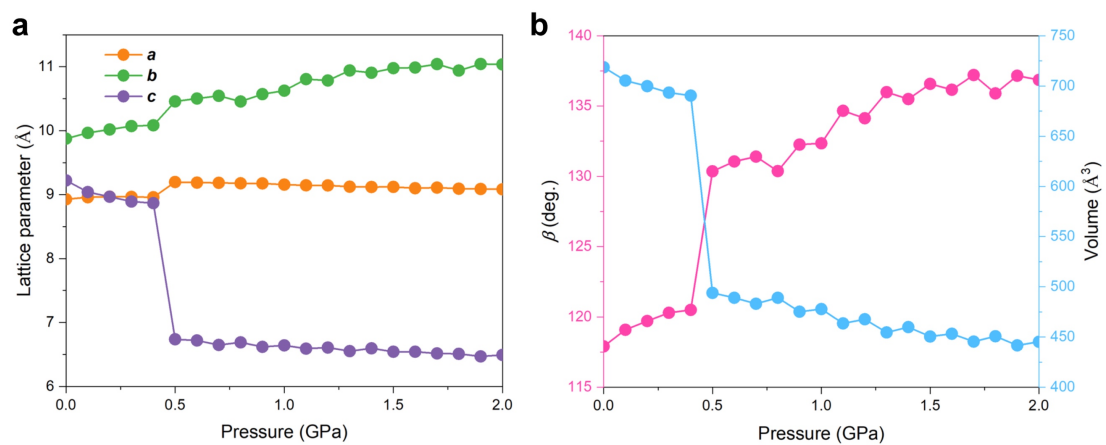
Supplementary Fig. 32 | Statistical Radial Distribution Functions (RDFs) calculated for the pairs of the different CALF-20 supercells (with 44,000 and 103,488 atoms) at room temperature by using the MLP-MD simulations.



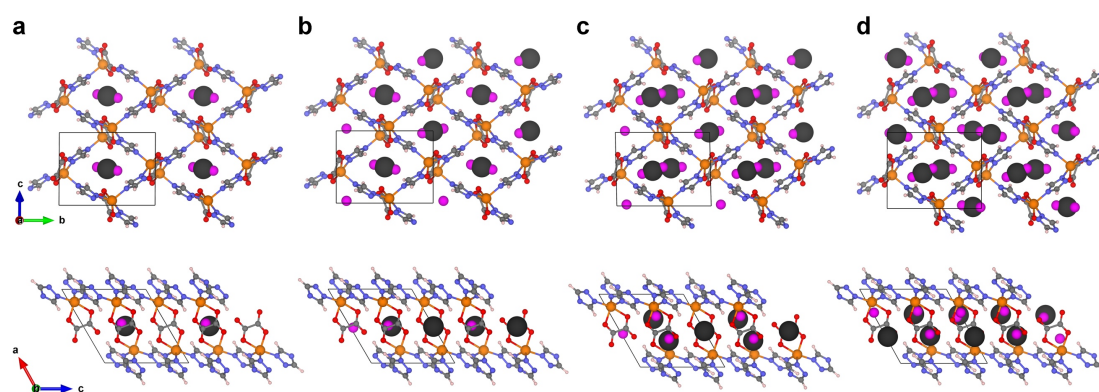
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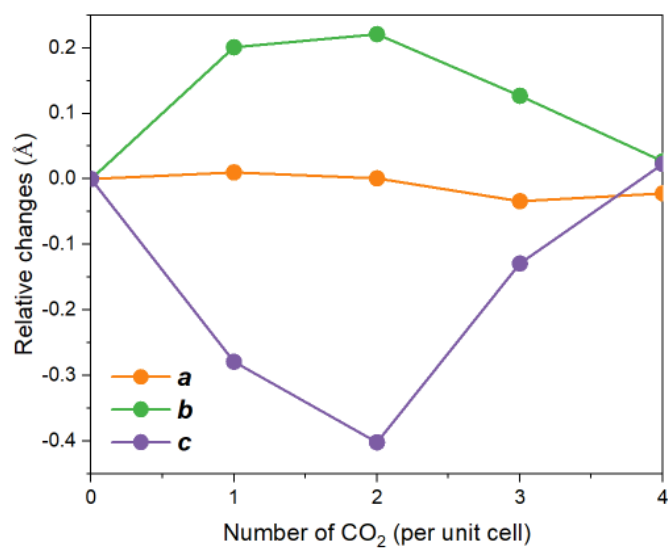
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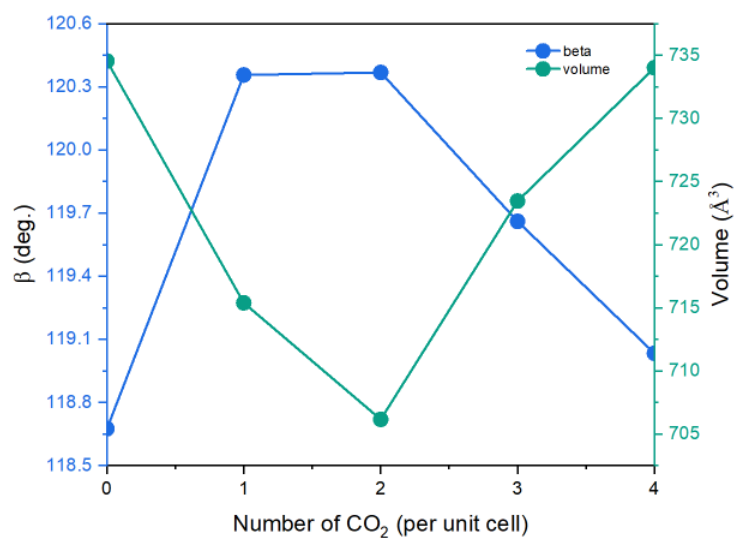
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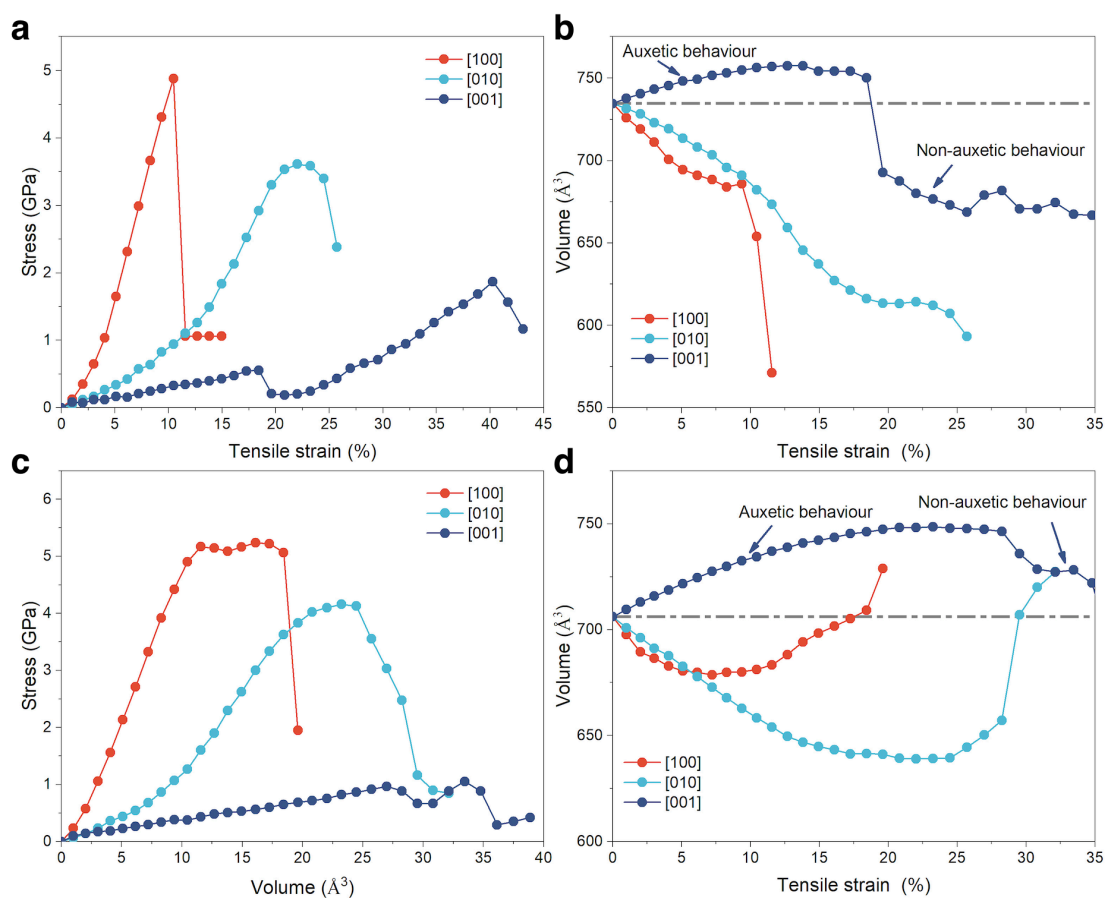
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Supplementary Fig. 37 | Relative unit-cell parameters changes with different CO₂ loading of CALF-20 structure based on PBE-D3 functional calculations.



Supplementary Fig. 38 | Unit cell parameters (β angle and unit-cell volume) changes with different CO₂ loading of CALF-20 structure based on PBE-D3 functional calculations.



Supplementary Fig. 39 | (a) Tensile strain-stress response and (b) unit-cell volume changes of the pristine CALF-20 during the application of tensile strain along the three directions from DFT calculations at 0K. (c) Tensile strain-stress response and (d) unit-cell volume changes of the CALF-20 with two CO₂ loading during the application of tensile strain along the three directions from DFT calculations at 0K.

Supplementary Table 1 | Principal compressibility and corresponding principal axes determined for CALF-20.

Pressure	Principle Axes	K_i (TPa ⁻¹)	Direction		
			<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>
0~1 GPa	X_1	501.53	0.44	-0.00	0.90
	X_2	-188.77	1.00	-0.00	-0.05
	X_3	-75.52	0.00	1.00	-0.00

Supplementary Table 2 | The isotropic aggregate properties of CALF-20 by using the Voigt approach. The measurements are given in units of GPa, except for ν , which is a dimensionless. All outcomes are at 298.15 K except for the DFT result, which is calculated at 0 K. Here UFF is the standard one and UFF-modified means modified version as reported in our previous work.² Data are averaged with the box deformation of 1-5% as it is in the elastic regime (except for the DFT result).

	UFF	UFF-modified	MLP	DFT
Bulk Modulus (GPa)	44.49 ± 0.48	45.72 ± 1.44	22.58 ± 2.32	29.13
Young Modulus (GPa)	82.63 ± 0.70	56.9 ± 0.53	12.99 ± 1.88	17.21
Poisson Ratio	0.19 ± 0.00	0.29 ± 0.00	0.40 ± 0.02	0.40
Shear Modulus 1 (GPa)	32.70 ± 0.29	22.44 ± 0.70	5.53 ± 1.94	6.14
Shear Modulus 2 (GPa)	34.76 ± 0.45	22.00 ± 0.41	4.65 ± 0.73	-

Supplementary Table 3 | Principal coefficients of thermal expansion and corresponding principal axes determined for CALF-20.

Temperature	Principle Axes	α_i (MK ⁻¹)	Direction		
			<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>
10~400 K	X_1	-60.81	-0.00	1.00	-0.00
	X_2	-4.22	-0.48	0.00	0.88
	X_3	76.57	0.80	0.00	0.61

Supplementary Table 4 | Equilibrium structural parameters of the metastable CALF-20 and β -CALF-20.^a

	<i>a</i> [Å]	<i>b</i> [Å]	<i>c</i> [Å]	α [deg.]	β [deg.]	γ [deg.]	<i>V</i> [Å ³]
Exp.	9.279	7.934	10.039	90.000	109.891	90.000	694.972
PBE-D3	9.297	8.062	9.901	90.000	109.848	90.000	698.020

^a The metastable CALF-20 structure was referred to as β -CALF-20.³

^b The experimental parameters are extracted from ref³

Supplementary Table 5 | Equilibrium structural parameters obtained by the different functionals (including ⁴⁻⁹).

	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>alpha</i>	<i>beta</i>	<i>gamma</i>	<i>V</i>	<i>Zn-O</i>	<i>Zn-N</i>
Exp.^a	8.9138	9.6935	9.4836	90	115.8950	90	737.16	2.022/2.189	2.007/2.016/2.091
PBE-D3	9.0461	10.0249	9.2321	90	118.6755	90	734.54	2.028/2.243	2.012/2.033/2.110
PBE-D3(BJ)	9.0455	9.99266	9.23850	90	118.6014	90	733.15	2.029/2.236	2.010/2.029/2.109
PBEsol-D3	8.9133	9.9097	9.1897	90	118.7029	90	711.97	2.004/2.213	2.000/1.982/2.074
revPBE-D3	9.1263	10.1900	9.1845	90	120.0357	90	739.43	2.032/2.307	2.020/2.046/2.114
SCAN-D3	8.9281	9.8768	9.2219	90	117.9045	90	718.65	2.008/2.186	1.990/2.008/2.085
SCAN-rVV10	8.9241	9.8657	9.2286	90	117.8729	90	718.26	2.009/2.183	1.990/2.006/2.084
SCAN-D3(BJ)	8.9512	9.83075	9.21231	90	117.8031	90	717.08	2.008/2.181	1.992/2.007/2.085

^a The experimental parameters are extracted from ref ¹,

Supplementary Table 6 | Data preparation for the MLP training of the CALF-20 framework.

AIMD runs	Supercell	Number of snapshots
pristine (100-800 K)	2×2×2	14536
1% isotropic compression (300-500 K)	2×2×2	4821
1% isotropic stretch (300-500 K)	2×2×2	4713
tensile strain (300K, including 3 directions)	2×2×2	10000
Total		34070

Supplementary Table 7 | Summary of the mechanical property calculations of CALF-20 using various force fields with different deformations.

	Deformation (%)	UFF	UFF-modified	MLP-MD
Bulk Modulus (GPA)	1	45.02	47.35	20.32
	2	44.36	44.62	22.47
	3	44.08	45.2	24.97
	4	44.13	45.8	20.53
	5	44.53	45.24	19.99
Young Modulus (GPA)	1	83.7372	56.82	10.93
	2	82.5096	56.2212	14.18
	3	81.9888	56.952	12.58
	4	82.0818	57.708	11.70
	5	82.8258	57.0024	15.57
Poisson Ratio	1	0.19	0.3	0.41
	2	0.19	0.29	0.39
	3	0.19	0.29	0.42
	4	0.19	0.29	0.40
	5	0.19	0.29	0.37
Shear Modulus	1	32.94	22.76	2.08
	2	32.38	21.83	6.53

(GPA)	3	32.39	21.56	6.30
	4	32.86	22.95	6.23
	5	32.95	23.11	6.52
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Shear Modulus (GPA)	1	34.86	21.55	3.88
	2	35.23	21.69	5.08
	2 3	34.06	22.4	4.44
	4	34.61	21.91	4.16
	5	35.02	22.46	5.68
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Supplementary Note 1

MLP development of the CALF-20 structure.

It is well known that DFT is computationally feasible for the mechanical properties of periodic materials, however, the limitation of DFT calculation is that it's challenging to handle the properties at finite temperatures, especially for MOF systems which usually have large length scales. Therefore, in this section, we mainly focus on the development of the machine learning potential (MLP) for CALF-20 in order to obtain a high-quality MLP for subsequent investigation at ambient pressure and temperature that comparable to experimental investigations. Supplementary Fig. 5 compare the energies and forces of the MLP with the values of the CALF-20 based on the DFT calculations. It can be seen that both energy and force are in excellent agreement. The root-mean square error of the energy and force are $0.068 \text{ meV atom}^{-1}$ and $0.023 \text{ eV \AA}^{-1}$, respectively, indicating the high accuracy of the developed MLP in describing the features of the learned system. As shown in Supplementary Fig. 6, the calculated volume-energy relationship also demonstrates that the well-trained MLP successfully describes the energy of the deformation phases of the CALF-20 compared to DFT outputs, suggesting that the development MLP can be efficiently applied to the CALF-20 with variable lattice deformation (*cf.* Supplementary Fig. 7 for the comparison of total energy calculated from DFT and MLP for CALF-20 at different pressures). More impressively, MLP describes the phonons of CALF-20 accurately, as show in Supplementary Fig. 8a and Supplementary Fig. 8b. According to our MLP-based calculations, the computation yields three acoustic and 129 optical branches, where the acoustic branches only exist in the low frequency range. The absence of any imaginary frequencies in the phonon dispersion indicates the dynamical stability of CALF-20. A distinct feature is the considerable phonon softening of the transverse acoustic branch along the wavevector (*e.g.* B–D, Y–C, see Supplementary Fig. 8a and Brillouin zone path in Supplementary Fig. 9), which generally leads to negative thermal expansion also (See discussion in the main text for more information).¹⁰ The highest vibrational mode peak at 96.2 THz ($\sim 3209 \text{ cm}^{-1}$) belongs to the stretching mode of the C-H bond,

while the metal-node vibrational mode is predominantly located in the low frequency regime (below 10 THz), as shown in Supplementary Fig. 8b and Supplementary Fig. 10. It should be emphasized here that it is very time-consuming to compute the phonon properties of CALF-20 (44 atoms in unit cell) by DFT calculations owing to the large unit cell, while our results demonstrate that the MLP method can obtain accurate lattice vibrational information, especially for a large system such as MOF, where its advantages are particularly pronounced (*cf.* Supplementary Fig. 11 and Supplementary Note 2 for details).

We further explore the capability of the trained MLP in describing the structural dynamics of the lattice at finite temperatures (300-500 K). Supplementary Fig. 12 and Supplementary Fig. 13 illustrate the total energy oscillation of the CALF-20 *versus* simulation time (up to 1 nanosecond [ns]) and the comparison of the radial distribution function (RDF) of different pairs in CALF-20 in the AIMD and MLP-MD simulations. Clearly, the structure attains energetic equilibrium after 0.1 ns, and the RDF curves from MLP-MD and AIMD are in good agreement, demonstrating the reliability of the MLP in the description of the CALF-20 structure at finite temperatures. It was also discovered that the atoms in the structure remained undiffused even at 500 K, demonstrating the high-temperature stability of the CALF-20 structure. (Supplementary Fig. 14) Therefore, the above-mentioned protocols show that the MLP technique accurately predicts the flexibility of CALF-20 at different temperatures. It maintains the precision of DFT level and ensures robust simulation outcomes from MLP-MD simulations.

Supplementary Note 2

Performance and transferability of the MLP for huge systems of CALF-20

It is well-recognized that the AIMD simulation is challenging with thousands of atoms, and scaling it to the nanosecond scale is even more unrealistic. However, the previous results already show that it is possible to obtain results with high-accuracy while significantly accelerating the simulation speed using MLP approaches.^{11–13} As shown in Supplementary Fig. 11, AIMD scales in general as $\sim O(N^3)$, with N being the number of atoms, as can be expected. However, the MLP-MD scaling is roughly as $\sim O(N^1)$, implying that the simulation time increases linearly with the size of the systems, rather than exponentially. This improvement in efficiency is significant for MOF simulations, as the unit cells of MOFs are typically large, and it would be very expensive to use conventional AIMD simulations.

As shown in Supplementary Fig. 28 and Supplementary Fig. 29, we tested two different large-scale systems (with 44,000 and 134,400 atoms, respectively), and such a system is not feasible with any AIMD simulations. We carried out MLP-MD simulations using NVT ensemble (Nosé thermostat¹⁴) for 100 ps simulation (0.5 fs time step) at room temperature. It can be seen that the structures remain stable throughout the simulation process (Supplementary Fig. 30 and Supplementary Fig. 31). The structural evolution during the simulation is represented by animations in Supplementary Movie 3 and Supplementary Movie 4. Even in the system of more than 100,000 atoms, no structure collapse was found during the simulation process, proving that our MLP is very well-trained. At the same time, the RDFs obtained by different sizes are almost the same, as shown in the Supplementary Fig. 32, which demonstrates a good transferability of the trained MLP.

Supplementary Note 3

DFT calculations

The DFT calculation was performed by using the Vienna *ab initio* simulation package (VASP, version: 5.4.4)¹⁵ with the projector augmented waves (PAW) method and the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) exchange-correlation functional.^{4,16} The electron configurations of the pseudopotential are chosen as Zn: $d^{10}p^2$, N: s^2p^3 , O: s^2p^4 , C: s^2p^2 and H: s^1 . The plane wave energy cutoff was set at 650 eV (ENCUT=650). We used a Davidson block iteration scheme (IALGO=38) for electronic energy minimization. Brillouin zone integrations were conducted in k -space (LREAL=.FALSE.) using a Γ -centered $4\times 3\times 4$ Monkhorst-Pack mesh. Accelerated convergence of the self-consistent calculations was achieved using a modified Broyden method.¹⁷ Both atom positions and unit cell parameters were fully relaxed during the structure optimization (ISIF=3), allowing symmetry breaking (ISYM = 0). The ionic relaxation steps were performed using the conjugate-gradient method (IBRION=2). The convergence criteria for energy and force in structural optimization were set to 10^{-5} eV and 10^{-3} eV/Å, respectively. The van der Waals interaction corrections were also considered by using DFT-D3 corrections.⁵

The elastic moduli were calculated using the finite difference approach as implemented in the VASP code.¹⁵ The stiffness tensor is determined by performing six finite distortions of the lattice.¹⁸ Since high accuracy is required to determine the elastic constants,¹⁹ the convergence of the strain energies with respect to the Brillouin zone integration has been carefully checked. Based on our tests, we selected the 650 eV for and the $6\times 6\times 6$ k -mesh, as shown in the Supplementary Fig. 33. In addition, we used very high convergence criteria for energy (EDIFF = 0.1E-07) and force (EDIFFG = -2E-04) to calculate the elastic moduli accurately. All calculations were performed in reciprocal space. (LREAL=.FALSE.)

Commencing from the fully relaxed CALF-20 structure, we systematically apply uniaxial tensile strain, progressively reaching up to 45% with $\sim 1\%$ increments. The definition of tensile strain is expressed as:

$$\varepsilon = \frac{a-a_0}{a_0} \quad (1)$$

wherein a and a_0 denote the lattice constants of the strained and relaxed structures, respectively. When strain is introduced in a specific direction, the lattice constant in the perpendicular direction is relaxed completely by minimizing the total energy and force, ensuring the absence of stress in that perpendicular direction. This approach is implemented through the process of recompiling the VASP package.¹⁵ All DFT computations, including structural optimization and molecular dynamics simulations, were performed by using VASP package¹⁵ using high-precision setting (PREC=.ACCURATE.). The bonding of the selected atoms in CALF-20 was further characterized by the Integrated Crystal Orbital Hamiltonian Populations (ICOHP) using the LOBSTER package.²⁰

Thermal expansion based quasi-harmonic approximation method

The thermal and mechanical properties of CALF-20 were also calculated by using the quasi-harmonic approximation (QHA) approach as carried out in Phonopy code,²¹ that incorporating the volume dependence of phonon frequencies as an integral part of the anharmonic effects.²² First, a sequence of phonon spectra was computed using varying lattice constants. This was achieved by adjusting the lattice's scaling factor, with a fixed scaling rate of 1%. The analysis encompassed both volume contraction and expansion, with 5 data points allocated to each scenario (11 data point finally including the pristine CALF-20, as shown in Supplementary Fig. 15). For each lattice constant a , the free energy can be obtained from:

$$F(a, T) = G_a + \sum_{q,j} \frac{\hbar\omega_{a,q,j}}{2} + \frac{1}{\beta} \sum_{q,j} \ln [1 - \exp(-\beta\hbar\omega_{a,q,j})] \quad (2)$$

where G_a is the ground-state free energy; \hbar is the reduced Planck constant; $\omega_{a,q,j}$ means the vibrational frequency to the corresponding vector q of j ; \hbar is the reduced Planck constant; $\beta = \frac{1}{Tk_B}$ where T means temperature and k_B is Boltzmann constant; The Birch-Murnaghan equation of state is used to fit the data (energy-volume data). Then the equilibrium lattice constants at different temperature is obtained. Finally, the thermal expansion coefficient at different temperature can be calculated from following:

$$\delta_T = \frac{\partial \ln a(T)}{\partial T} \quad (3)$$

Thermal expansion and compression of CALF-20 obtained by empirical expression

The principal coefficients of thermal expansion and compressibility from variable-temperature and variable-pressure lattice parameter data were calculated based on *PASCal* (principal axis strain calculator) code.²³ For the compression computations, the data of lattice parameters changes with the pressure calculated by DFT using PBE-D3 functional were adopted. For the thermal expansion, the MLP-MD approach was chosen because it is almost impossible to achieve the equilibrium lattice parameters at finite temperature by DFT. A $2 \times 2 \times 2$ supercell was employed during the MLP-MD simulation using *NPT* ensemble at 1 bar pressure, and the total simulation time reached 1 ns. Finally, we evaluated the lattice information of the last 500 ps to calculate the thermal expansion. The specific calculation follows the equation:

$$x_P = x_0 + \kappa |P - P_C|^\lambda \quad (4)$$

$$x_T = x_0 + \kappa T \left| \frac{T}{T - T_C} \right|^\lambda \quad (5)$$

ML dataset preparation

The accuracy and transferability of the machine-learning potential (MLPs) are highly sensitive to the availability of atomic structure databases covering the relevant regions of the configurations space. Specifically, our target is to develop a MLP that can accurately describe the flexibility of the CALF-20, a comprehensive sampling of the potential energy surface (PES) is necessary. For this reason, we primarily use the AIMD simulations to increase the diversity to the maximum extent possible in order to cover the PES of the structure. We consider the structural deformation caused by isotropic pressure and isotropic tension, as well as the structural deformation of structures in different directions under tensile strain conditions. At the same time, for each scenario, we consider the structural perturbations caused by different temperatures (100 K~800 K). Detailed information on the species and number of the training structures in our dataset can be found in Supplementary Table 6.

All AIMD simulations were performed by using the VASP package with the canonical (*NVT*) ensemble with the Nosé thermostat¹⁴ and removing symmetry

constraints during the simulations (ISYM=0). The GGA-PBE approximation was employed for the exchange correlation functional and the DFT-D3 method of Grimme was used to consider the dispersion corrections.⁵ The 650 eV energy cutoff was used and a gamma point was used to sample the Brillouin zone. All the simulations were performed in a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ supercell. It should be noted that in order to increase the structural sampling, we performed AIMD simulations of the configurations of the CALF-20 supercell structure in the different conditions as shown in Supplementary Table 6. The simulation time for each AIMD simulation was around 1-2 ps which depends on the system.

MLP training and validation

The DeepPMD-kit package²⁴ (version 2.0.1) was employed to train MLPs for predicting energies, forces, and stress tensors based on the training data associated with CALF-20 systems. In the such approach, a first network of descriptors was used to transform the local atomic environments into a series of embeddings that maintained translation, rotation and permutation invariances. A second network then utilized these embeddings to make predictions regarding the energy, forces, and virial of the system. For this purpose, the "*se_2_a*" descriptor from DeepMD, which contains both radial and angular information, was adopted. Both networks utilize the ResNet architecture.²⁵ The DeepPot-SE model was used during the training process.²⁶ The size of the fitting network was set to {240, 240, 240}. The cutoff radius was set as 7.9 Å with the smoothing parameter of 2.1 Å. The batch and step decay rate parameters were configured with values of 1,000,000 and 5,000, respectively. Initially, the learning rate was established at 0.001 and was scheduled to decrease every 5,000 steps. The total number of batches was set to 1,000,000.

During the MLP training, we tracked the RMSE (root mean squared error) value as it decreased exponentially. Supplementary Fig. 34 shows the loss function and RMSE values as they evolved during training for CALF-20. It's important to note that due to the features of the DFT data and various factors affecting network performance, achieving zero RMSE for force and energy is extremely difficult. Nevertheless, our

results indicate that the trained RMSE results can achieve a level of accuracy consistent with the DFT scale.

MLP-MD simulations

The MLP derived from the DFT was applied in the following MLP-MD simulations through integration with the DeepMD-kit interface coupled with the LAMMPS code.^{24,27} In the MLP-MD simulations, the trained model served as a pair style within the LAMMPS framework, enabling the computation of both energy and force profiles during the MD simulations. The phonon dispersion spectra were calculated under strict convergence criteria with the Phonopy code,²¹ by using LAMMPS as the calculator.²⁸

Classical MD simulations

The force-field parameters as well as the atomic partial charges for CALF-20 were taken from UFF²⁹ and DDEC06³⁰ partial charges, respectively. The flexibility of the structure was considered in whole simulation process. The Lorentz–Berthelot mixing rules³¹ were applied to compute the cross 12–6 LJ parameters. The cut-off for LJ interactions was 12 Å, and electrostatic interactions were calculated via the Ewald summation method³² with a tolerance of 10^{-6} . Temperature and pressure were regulated by Nosé-Hoover thermostat¹⁴ and barostat respectively. Coupling constant of both thermo- and barostat was 0.1 ps. Time step of the simulation was chosen to be 0.5 fs. These MD simulations were performed using the LAMMPS simulation software.²⁷

Mechanical properties from classical MD and MLP-MD at finite temperature

The mechanical properties, namely Young Modulus, Bulk Modulus, and Poisson’s ratio of the MOF, are calculated using the explicit deformation method as implemented in the LAMMPS simulation software. The underlying theory of the methodology is as follows:

The elastic stiffness tensor in the small deformation regime can be written by the generalized Hook’s law as

$$\sigma_{\alpha\beta} = C_{\alpha\beta\mu\nu}\epsilon_{\mu\nu} \quad (6)$$

where σ is the stress tensor, C is a rank four stiffness tensor, ϵ is the strain tensor and α, β, μ, ν represent the Cartesian coordinates. It can be shown that ϵ and σ are symmetric tensors and can be written as a vector with six independent components and C as a six-by-six matrix. The generalized Hooke's law is then written as:

$$\sigma_i = C_{ij}\epsilon_j \quad (7)$$

In MD simulations, the instantaneous stress tensor is computed using the virial theorem, which takes the following form:

$$\sigma_{\alpha\beta} = -\frac{1}{V} \left[\sum_{i=1}^N m_i v_{\alpha,i} v_{\beta,i} + \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j>i} \left(-\frac{\partial u(r)}{\partial r} \right)_{r=r_{ij}} \frac{r_{\alpha,ij} r_{\beta,ij}}{\|r_{ij}\|} \right] \quad (8)$$

where V is the volume of the simulation box, N is the number of particles in the simulation box, $u(r)$ is the pair potential, m_i, v_i, r_i is the mass, velocity, and position of particle i , respectively and r_{ij} is the distance between the particle i and j .

In this work, we used six different deformation types and extracted C_{ij} from the slope of the corresponding stress-strain graph. In the first three deformations, the box is elongated either in x- or y- or z-direction by a small amount ξ . During this deformation at a particular direction (for this case, x-direction), each point in the periodic cell is transformed as follows:

$$(x \ y \ z) = (x(1 + \xi) \ y \ z) \quad (9)$$

and the strain tensor is, $\epsilon = (\xi, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)$. During the last three deformations, the box is deformed into a monoclinic box by changing one of the angles at constant volume. During this deformation at a particular direction (for this case, along angle α -vector by an angle φ), each point in the periodic cell is transformed as follows:

$$(x \ y \ z) = (x \ y \ z + z \tan(\varphi\xi)) \quad (10)$$

and the strain tensor is, $\epsilon = (0, 0, 0, \tan(\varphi\xi), 0, 0)$.

For each deformation, we run 1 ns of equilibration and 1 ns of production at 300 K for each of the six directions in both positive and negative axis, totaling 24 ns of simulation. Five elementary strains in the range of 1-5% extension of the material have been conducted to calculate the Young Modulus, Bulk Modulus, Shear Modulus and Poisson's ratio. (Supplementary Table 7)

Supplementary Note 4

The reason for selecting the PBE-D3 functional

There are many different functionals to consider in DFT calculations. We have tested a few commonly used functionals and also considered different dispersion correction schemes. As can be seen in Supplementary Table 5, we found that for all the PBE-based functionals tested, with the exception of PBEsol-D3 which seriously underestimates the volume of the unit cell, the parameters of the CALF-20 structure can be predicted reasonably well compared to the experiment. We finally chose PBE-D3 functional for the DFT calculations. (Unless otherwise stated, all results are based on PBE-D3)

Supplementary Note 5

Effect of CO₂ adsorption on the structure of CALF-20

DFT geometry optimization of the MOF structure loaded with different CO₂ concentrations up to the experimental saturation reported in the initial paper¹ (1~4 CO₂ molecules per unit cell) were carried at the same level of theory than used for the exploration of the MOF structure (PBE-D3) (Supplementary Fig. 36, Supplementary Fig. 37, and Supplementary Fig. 38). We observed that when CO₂ loading increases, the lattice parameters of the CALF-20 show anisotropic evolution, arising from the anisotropic mechanical properties of the CALF-20 structure (see main text discussion). In particular, the *c*-parameter decreases the greatest when two CO₂ molecules per unit cell are loaded in the pores of CALF-20, and the unit cell volume decreases by 3.9% (*cf.* Supplementary Fig. 37 and Supplementary Fig. 38). The primary origin of this contraction is that the confined CO₂ molecules at this loading occupy the central position of the pore of the CALF-20 structure, resulting in the internal chemical pressure generating the most pronounced volume shrinkage.

We next explored the effect of CO₂ for a given loading of 2 CO₂ per unit-cell on the stress-strain behaviour of the CALF-20 structure. As shown in Supplementary Fig. 39, the introduction of CO₂ significantly improves the ductility of the CALF-20 structure, particularly along the [001] direction. The failure strain point increased from 18.4% (strain-softening point) to 26.9%, but simultaneously, we revealed that the presence of CO₂ prevents the formation of the strain-induced metastable phase evidenced for the empty case. Interestingly we reveal that the introduction of CO₂ also increases the auxetic region of the CALF-20 structure, and the structure retains its auxetic regime under a tensile strain of 23%.

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