



# Experimental investigations and the modeling approach for CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in aqueous blended amine systems of monoethanolamine, 2-amino-2-methyl-1-propanol, and 2-(butylamino)ethanol

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## Abstract

In this work, new CO<sub>2</sub> solubility data on three types of aqueous amine blends were reported to complement existing databases. The experiments were conducted at temperatures of 313 K (absorption condition) and 363 K (desorption condition). The effect of the MEA concentration on the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in several amine blends at low CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure (8 to 50.65 kPa) were studied in this work, including 0.1, 0.3, 0.5 mol/L MEA + 2 mol/L AMP; 0.1, 0.3, 0.5 mol/L MEA + 2 mol/L BEA; and 0.1, 0.3, 0.5 mol/L MEA + 1, 2 mol/L AMP + 1, 2 mol/L BEA. Besides, an additional group of equilibrium CO<sub>2</sub> solubility data were conducted at 298 K in order to estimate the heat of CO<sub>2</sub> absorption of the blended solvents at a temperature range from 298 to 313 K. A new simplified Kent-Eisenberg model was developed for the predictions of blended solvents, and a multilayer neural network model with Levenberg–Marquardt backpropagation algorithm was developed upon five hundred reliable published experimental data. The predictions from two methods are both in good agreement with the experimental CO<sub>2</sub> solubility data.

**Keywords** CO<sub>2</sub> solubility · Amine blends · Machine learning · CO<sub>2</sub> capture · Kent-Eisenberg · Thermodynamics

## Introduction

In recent years, people are experiencing and facing substantial challenges from nature, such as extreme cold weather, new virus, wildfires, and flooding in coastal areas. These significant impacts of the ecosystem are all linked to climate

change. Several national governments and international organizations have announced their carbon neutral target in the next few decades. However, fossil fuels are still the largest energy contributors throughout the world (International Energy Agency 2020). This situation would not be changed rapidly particularly in the developing countries. Renewable energy sources are ideally cleaner energy contributors than combustible fuels for power generations, but it is not convincing that they could completely substitute the fossil fuels shortly due to the limited energy generation capacity and high costs. Hence, several countries seek their own strategies to achieve energy transition. The goal is to gradually replace the demand of coal and oil by low carbon fuels or sustainable combustible materials, such as natural gas and biomass. The utilizations of these energy sources could conceptually reduce a certain amount of direct carbon emissions rapidly, but their total carbon emissions cannot be overlooked from long-term observation. Additionally, CO<sub>2</sub> which is released from the industry such as cement plants and refineries must be accounted as a considerable emission source. There is currently no efficient alternative solution to substitute these products from the industry. Carbon capture technologies

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thus become the logical path to reduce the carbon emission for the purpose of decarbonization.

The chemical absorption process is a mature technology applied in CO<sub>2</sub> capture. Monoethanolamine (MEA) has been widely studied as the main solvent for the conventional amine-based chemical CO<sub>2</sub> absorption process. It is also known that the amine-based chemical absorption process highly relies on the amine reaction with CO<sub>2</sub> and forming to the zwitterions, which is also used to determine the absorption rate. MEA is a typical primary amine which provides a fast reaction rate with CO<sub>2</sub>, but the low absorption capacity and high desorption energy demand are its main drawbacks leading to high operating costs. In the past few years, extensive publications discovered the benefits and limitations of various single amines. Based on the single-amine solvent, blending amine solvents is a promising idea to improve the absorption and desorption performance. Therefore, the development of highly efficient solvents is gradually becoming a strategy for the further development of carbon capture technology. The selection of proper amine could be one of the major fundamental steps for the process. Recently, there are two common blending approaches based on using MEA: (i) considering MEA as a major base solvent, blending one or more carbonate formation solvent(s) or the amine(s) with larger CO<sub>2</sub> absorption capacity, such as sterically hindered amines, poly amines, and secondary amines, and (ii) considering MEA as a promoter, blending a small amount of MEA into secondary amines (i.e., diethanolamine and 2-(butylamino) ethanol) or related blend amine solvents to achieve the “coordinative effect” (Shi et al. 2021a, b). On the other hand, MEA has become a major solvent applied to commercial-scale CO<sub>2</sub> capture because of its great CO<sub>2</sub> absorption rate. Thus, the relative mature product supply chain of MEA can directly lead to its superiority of price and technology in the industry. Therefore, blending MEA with advanced solvent(s) is beneficial if the solvent is further commercialized.

2-Amino-2-methyl-1-propanol (AMP) is a typical sterically hindered amine, which is the simplest hindered form of MEA (Tong et al. 2013). The CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in aqueous AMP has been investigated extensively from sufficient published studies (Tontiwachwuthikul et al. 1991; Jane and Li 1997; Kundu et al. 2003; Li and Chang 1995). They affirmed that AMP provides large CO<sub>2</sub> absorption capacity with moderate reaction kinetics attributed to the formation of carbamate during the direct reaction between AMP and CO<sub>2</sub>. However, its reaction kinetics with CO<sub>2</sub> is weaker than using MEA; hence, the benefits of large CO<sub>2</sub> absorption capacity could not be exhibited well at low-pressure operations (Tong et al. 2013). In contrast, for 2-(butylamino) ethanol (BEA) which is a secondary amine, only a few researchers studied the CO<sub>2</sub> absorption capacity using aqueous single-BEA solvent (Hwang et al. 2017; Narku-Tetteh et al. 2017a,

b). Recently, the majority of the studies associated with BEA have been staying at the laboratory stage. In terms of laboratory applications, BEA is more expensive than MEA, but cheaper than AMP. However, the further practical commercial-scale applications should also consider various direct and indirect operating costs, such as energy costs, maintenance costs, and waste disposal. BEA is a promising secondary amine; it has higher desorption efficiency compared to MEA and other typical secondary amines including 2-(ethylamino)ethanol (EAE) and 2-(methylamino)ethanol (MAE) (Ping et al. 2020). Secondary alkanolamines tend to provide larger CO<sub>2</sub> absorption capacity than MEA due to the formation of bicarbonate and exhibit weaker carbamate stability (Hwang et al. 2017). Despite that Narku-Tetteh et al. (2017) found the excellent CO<sub>2</sub> absorption/desorption performance using several BEA-based solvent blends, including BEA + AMP (2 mol/L + 2 mol/L and 2.5 mol/L + 2.5 mol/L) and MEA + BEA + AMP (1 mol/L + 2 mol/L + 2 mol/L), they did not extensively investigate the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility with various concentration ratios at different pressures and temperatures. The lack of solubility data leads to a knowledge gap, so it is essential to investigate the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility at a wider temperature range. In fact, CO<sub>2</sub> solubility is an important property which reflects the maximum volume (or mass) of CO<sub>2</sub> which can be absorbed into the given amount of solvent. In other words, CO<sub>2</sub> solubility represents the absorption capacity. Generally, CO<sub>2</sub> has a lower tendency to be trapped in the solvent when near the equilibrium; thus, the solvent with greater CO<sub>2</sub> solubility is more beneficial. Consequently, a promising solvent candidate should absorb more CO<sub>2</sub> than the benchmark solvent MEA at the same operating conditions. CO<sub>2</sub> solubility can be considered as a key factor influencing both absorption and desorption performance. It is known that CO<sub>2</sub> solubility is highly influenced by the operating temperature. It is increased by reducing the temperature. In this solvent screening work, the low operating temperature (313 K) and the high operating temperature (363 K) represent the absorption and the desorption operating environment, respectively. In this case, a solvent with higher CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in low operating temperature and lower CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in high operating temperature should be considered as a potential candidate. Besides, Shi et al. (2021a, b) explained the coordinative effects by adding a small amount of MEA into the BEA/AMP blends to achieve an enhanced CO<sub>2</sub> absorption performance. In the meantime, there was no significant negative impact of desorption performance appeared when they added the small amount of MEA into the blends compared to the tri-solvent blends that contain a higher concentration of MEA. The coordinative effects were achieved through the proton transfer within primary amine and secondary amine for both absorption and desorption processes. They also proved that adding a small amount (0.1 to 0.5 mol/L) of MEA into BEA/AMP

(2 + 2 mol/L) could even exhibit better desorption performance than the bi-solvent BEA/AMP (2 + 2 mol/L). This phenomenon is resulted by the small amount of MEA, which could facilitate  $\text{BEAH}^+$  regeneration, increase  $\text{CO}_2$  capture performance, and reduce heat duty requirement. Based on the achievement from the previous study (Shi et al. 2021a, b; Shi et al. 2021a, b), this research is an extended study for investigating equilibrium  $\text{CO}_2$  solubility and the heat of  $\text{CO}_2$  absorption in several bi-solvent and tri-solvent blends in order to comprehensively evaluate the  $\text{CO}_2$  capture performances. The solvent blends presented in this research are MEA + AMP (0.1, 0.3, 0.5 mol/L + 2 mol/L), MEA + BEA (0.1, 0.3, 0.5 mol/L + 2 mol/L), and MEA + AMP + BEA (0.1, 0.3, 0.5 mol/L + 1, 2 mol/L + 1, 2 mol/L).

In this work, an artificial neural network (ANN) model and a Kent-Eisenberg model are presented for the prediction of the  $\text{CO}_2$  solubility. The Kent-Eisenberg (KE) model is firstly proposed by Kent and Eisenberg (1976); it is a typical non-rigorous empirical model which can be applied to predict the equilibrium data in amine systems using apparent equilibrium constants. This model is a simplified thermodynamic model, which assumes to ignore the system non-ideality. Thus, all fugacity coefficients and activity coefficients are supposed to be unity (Hwang et al. 2016; Austgen et al. 1991; Li and Shen 1993; Hu and Chakma 1990). ANN is a typical machine learning approach widely applied in industry nowadays. ANNs are multifaceted tools that imitate the human brain to process the complex data sets through linear or nonlinear processes (Sipocz et al. 2016). ANNs have been extensively used in the  $\text{CO}_2$  capture process to predict mass transfer performance and various physical and chemical properties of the solvent (Liu et al. 2019; Fu et al. 2013). For the predictions of  $\text{CO}_2$  solubility, several researchers have confirmed that an optimal ANN model could provide closer predictions to the experimental data due to its comprehensive experimental database compared to other prediction tools, such as simulation tools (e.g., Aspen Plus, ProMax) and common thermodynamic models (Liu et al. 2017a, b; Li et al. 2017, 2021). The proposed architectures of ANN models are trained and validated by using sufficient published experimental data and new experimental data from this study.

Unlike thermodynamic models, ANN is a mathematical tool to process the data. Hence, there is no comparability of the computational mechanism between two methods. As reliable prediction tools, the accuracy of their prediction results could potentially reflect their benefits and limitations. Thereby, the comparisons of experimental results and their prediction results are discussed in this research. Also, the reliability and accuracy of ANN predictions were studied by comparing with the prediction accuracy using other conventional thermodynamic models, including the SAFT expression of Huang and Radosz (SAFT-HR) and the SAFT

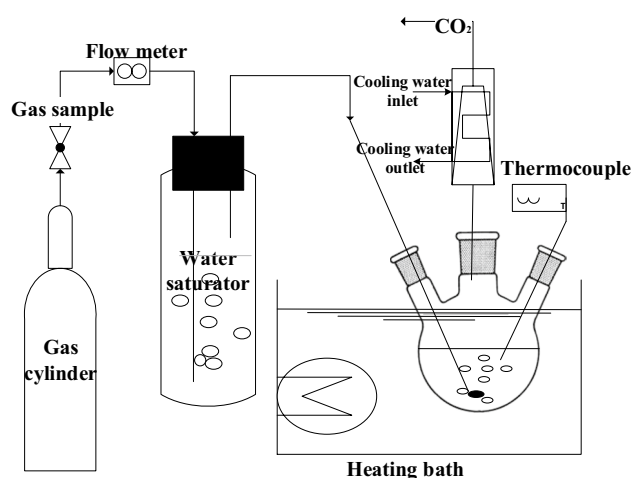


Fig. 1 Equipment setup

expression of the perturbed-chain statistical method (PC-SAFT). It should be noticed that the prediction accuracy was determined by comparing experimental results to modeling predictions; it cannot be directly estimated by comparing the prediction results from different models without experimental results.

## Methodology

### Experiments

#### Materials and chemicals

Three solvents purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, CA, were monoethanolamine (MEA) (> 0.99 purity), 2-(butylamino) ethanol (BEA) (> 0.98 purity), and 2-amino-2-methyl-1-propanol (AMP) (> 0.90 purity); deionized water and 8, 15.1, 30, and 50 vol.%  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $\text{N}_2$  balanced) gas cylinders were supplied by Praxair Inc., Canada (analytical uncertainty  $\pm 2\%$  rel); 1 N hydrochloric acid (HCl) was purchased from Fisher Chemical, USA (> 0.995 purity).

#### Equipment setup and uncertainties

A schematic drawing of the  $\text{CO}_2$  solubility apparatus is shown in Fig. 1. A three-neck round-bottom flask filled with 30 mL of solvent was placed inside the silicone oil heating bath (PolyScience PD Performance Digital 7 L Heat Bath; Cole-Parmer, Canada), which was specified to be 313 K and 363 K. The temperature of the solvent was measured using an electronic thermometer (Oakton Acorn Temp JKT series,  $\pm 0.25\%$ ). Once the desired temperature was reached, the dry feed gas (8 to 50 vol.%  $\text{CO}_2$  with  $\text{N}_2$  balanced) was introduced to the water saturator

(100 mL) before the saturated gas was introduced to the flask to react with the solvent. The IR analyzer (Nova Analytical Systems Inc., USA) was used to manually calibrate the gases to ensure that the desired CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure in the feed gas was applied, which relates to the uncertainty of the CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure. The experiments of this work were done in low-pressure regions. Hence, the experimental data were collected under atmosphere pressure. To ensure that the feed gas fully interacted with the solvent, the proper gas flow rate ( $0.3 \pm 0.02$  SLPM) was manually controlled by the needle valve and monitored by the digital gas flow meter (EW-32908–73; Cole-Parmer, USA). The experiments required at least 6 h of the duration to achieve the equilibrium loading depending on the given temperature, pressure, and type of solvent. CO<sub>2</sub> loading was measured at least twice for each trial every 2 h and the average taken. After 6 h, CO<sub>2</sub> loading was measured at a time interval of a half hour. The equilibrium was achieved when the latest two consecutive measurements of CO<sub>2</sub> loading were observed to be extremely close to each other with a 3% maximum acceptable difference introduced by several previous studies that used the same experiment method (Narku-Tetteh et al. 2017a, b; Li et al. 2021). The CO<sub>2</sub> loading measurements were done by using the Chittick apparatus to titrate the specific volume of the solvent sample with a standard 1 N hydrochloric acid (HCl) and using 0.1 wt.% of methyl-orange solution as a color indicator. Besides, a condenser was installed to the gas outlet of the flask to avoid amine vaporization losses. The cooling water (7 °C) in the condenser was circulated through the circulating chiller (Isotemp, Fisher Scientific, Canada). The condensed amine was flowed back to the flask after condensation to maintain the identical volume of the amine solvent in the reactor. No sediment appeared in the solution at the end of the experiments.

The CO<sub>2</sub> loading could be determined through the ratio of moles of absorbed CO<sub>2</sub> and moles of amine solvent. In this work, the solvent sample ( $1 \text{ mL} \pm 0.005 \text{ mL}$ ) was taken to analyze the CO<sub>2</sub> loading, sealing everything properly for the HCl titration work. The volume of CO<sub>2</sub> was captured when CO<sub>2</sub> was released from the amine sample. Mole CO<sub>2</sub> and mole amine could then be calculated through Eqs. 1 and 2, respectively.

$$n_{\text{CO}_2} = \frac{V_{\text{CO}_2} \times \rho_{\text{CO}_2}}{\text{MW}_{\text{CO}_2}} \quad (1)$$

$$n_{\text{amine}} = V_{\text{amine}} \times C_{\text{amine}} \quad (2)$$

where  $V_{\text{CO}_2}$  represents the volume of CO<sub>2</sub> captured through the titration method;  $\rho_{\text{CO}_2}$  represents the density of CO<sub>2</sub>;  $\text{MW}_{\text{CO}_2}$  represents the molecular weight of CO<sub>2</sub> (44 g/

mol);  $V_{\text{amine}}$  represents the volume of the amine sample (1 mL); and  $C_{\text{amine}}$  represents the concentration of amine in moles per liter.

The evaluation of the heat of CO<sub>2</sub> absorption was also reported in this work. To accomplish this objective, the Gibbs–Helmholtz equation (Eq. 3) (Narku-Tetteh et al. 2017a, b) was applied to estimate the heat of absorption ( $\Delta H_a$ ). From Eq. 3,  $\Delta H_a$  can be determined from the slope of the plot between  $\ln(P_{\text{CO}_2})$  and  $1/T$ . Considering temperature and CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure as two variables, the variation of CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in the identical solvent could be eventually affected. Thus, it is essential to find the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility at various temperatures (absorption condition). Several additional equilibrium CO<sub>2</sub> solubility experiments in bi-solvents at temperature (298 K) and CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure (15.3 kPa) were conducted in this work.

$$\frac{\Delta H_a}{R} = \frac{d(\ln(P_{\text{CO}_2}))}{d(\frac{1}{T})} = \frac{[\ln(P_{\text{CO}_2})]_{313\text{K}} - [\ln(P_{\text{CO}_2})]_{298\text{K}}}{[1/T]_{298\text{K}} - [1/T]_{313\text{K}}} \quad (3)$$

where  $R$  is the universal gas constant (J/mol.K).

The uncertainties of this experiment consist of several possible system errors, including temperature ( $u(T_1) = 0.8 \text{ K}$  (at 313 K);  $u(T_2) = 0.9 \text{ K}$  (at 363 K)), the volume of the solvent in the reactor ( $u(V_1) = 0.01 \text{ mL}$ ), the volume of the sample solvent for the measurement of CO<sub>2</sub> loading ( $u(V_2) = 0.005 \text{ mL}$ ), and pressure  $u(P) = 0.5 \text{ kPa}$ . The overall uncertainty for the measurement of CO<sub>2</sub> solubility can be calculated in the same way as introduced by He et al. (2021). All estimated uncertainties are listed behind the experimental results that will be discussed in the next chapter.

## Artificial neural network preparation

ANN is a great computing tool, which could provide strong data processing ability. In this work, the experiments of CO<sub>2</sub> solubility were investigated in a wide temperature range from 313 to 363 K. ANN has excellent classification capacity and data learning abilities to process various solvent blends with different amine concentration ratios at a wide range of operating conditions. The feed-forward multilayer neural network is a typical form of ANN. It is normally composed by one input layer, one or more hidden layer(s), and one output layer. Figure 2 indicates that the selected input data are able to be processed based on the collection of connected neurons, and the signal of selected information is produced and transmitted to other neurons. Consequently, it can be computed to the final output layer through a nonlinear function. Through the computation process, data are transmitted in numbers, thus normalizing data is the fundamental step before training the model as shown in Eq. 4. In the



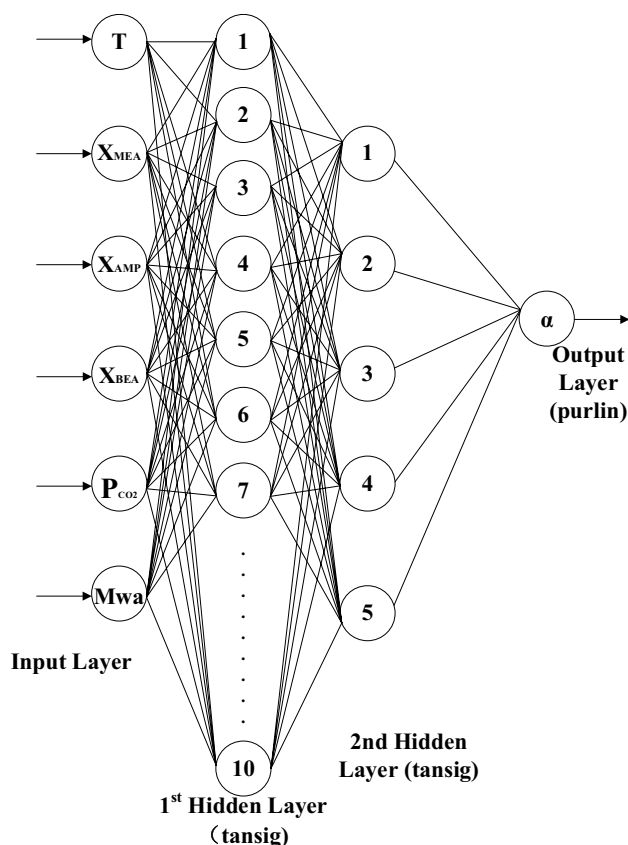


Fig. 2 Model structure

meantime, the numbers provide more appropriate strength for the connections of the neurons. For the exact purpose of extracting desired outputs, researchers are thus able to adjust the weight and bias based on a training algorithm (Kent and Eisenberg 1976). The weight of each connection between the neurons are estimated upon the importance of each neuron. In the past decade, researchers (Liu et al. 2019) found that backpropagation neural networks (BPNN) and radial basis function neural networks (RBFNN) are two promising learning algorithms to predict CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in the amine system. Liu et al. (2019) developed BPNN and RBFNN to predict the CO<sub>2</sub> in seven different single solvents. Their predictions were then compared with the predictions using six various thermodynamic models, including the Kent-Eisenberg model (Kent and Eisenberg 1976), Austgen model (Austgen et al. 1991), Li-Shen model (Li and Shen 1993), Hu-Chakma model (Hu and Chakma 1990), Liu-Helei model (Liu et al. 2019), and Liu's model (Liu et al. 2017a, b); the results demonstrated that BPNN exhibited the closest predictions to the experimental data compared to others when the solvent was completely dissolvable. BPNN could provide better predictions due to its advantage of error backpropagation (Sipocz et al. 2016). Therefore, users are allowed to re-train the network by adjusting the initial generated weights and

biases (Fu et al. 2013; Li et al. 2021; Chen et al. 2015). Levenberg–Marquardt (LM) is a training algorithm commonly applied in the feed-forward multilayer neural network, which is specifically designed to minimize the sum-of-square error functions for nonlinear systems as a combination of gradient descent and Gauss–Newton methods (Li et al. 2021). Typically, there are two nonlinear activation functions applied to transform the information from layer to layer, named as Tan-sigmoid (tansig) and Log-sigmoid (logsig). Li et al. (2021) compared these two functions in two model structures. The results indicated that there is no significant difference between two transfer functions. However, the network with the tansig transfer function predicts slightly more accurate CO<sub>2</sub> loadings than the network with the logsig transfer function when they checked the mean square error. From previous studies (Chen et al. 2015; Hamzehie et al. 2014; Murshid et al. 2020; Golzar et al. 2016), it was found that the feed-forward multilayer neural network trained with the Levenberg–Marquardt back-propagation algorithm is beneficial to predict CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in the amine system. However, the number of the hidden layers and the neurons are varied by several conditions, such as training data, input data type, outputs, weight and bias, and others. Thus, it is essential to determine the most appropriate model structure for this study.

$$Y_i = \frac{(x_i - x_{\min})}{(x_{\max} - x_{\min})} \quad (4)$$

where  $Y_i$  is the normalized training and testing data sets;  $x_i$  is the training and testing data sets; and  $x_{\min}$  and  $x_{\max}$  are the minimum and the maximum values of variable, respectively.

In this work, the feed-forward multilayer neural network model was developed based on the Levenberg–Marquardt backpropagation algorithm by using the MATLAB toolbox. Five hundred data were obtained from several reliable published experimental works. Specifically, 85% of them were randomly applied to train the model, while 15% of data were randomly selected for validation. It should be noticed that all training data and testing data were collected from the open sources (see Table 1); while the experimental results of this work were only used as sample data, the training data will not be used as testing data repeatedly. The data was transmitted in the hidden layers through the tansig nonlinear transfer function, while the output layer was set as the Purlin linear function for fitting function problems for the sigmoid output neurons (Li et al. 2021). The investigations of CO<sub>2</sub> solubility were strongly affected by several parameters, including temperatures, CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressures, amine type, and amine concentration ratios. Therefore, the input data of the model were thus composed by the above four elements. Specifically, the apparent molecular weight was considered as an input parameter because it helps the system recognize the solvent type. This work investigated several bi-solvents and

**Table 1** Data collection

References	Input						Target	
	$T$ (K)	$X_{\text{MEA}}$ (wt.%)	$X_{\text{AMP}}$ (wt.%)	$X_{\text{BEA}}$ (wt.%)	$P_{\text{CO}_2}$ (kPa)	$MW_a$ (g/mol)	$\alpha$ (mol/mol)	Data points
Tontiwachwuthikul et al. (1991)	293–353	0	18–28	0	1.59–98.93	16.23–24.54	0.126–0.96	40 <sup>b, c</sup>
Li and Chang (1995)	313–353	13–19	18–28	0	0.55–148.90	27.70–32.20	0.116–0.603	64 <sup>b</sup>
Hwang et al. (2017)	313–393	0	0	15–30	0.04–348.24	16.94–35.98	0.077–0.992	46 <sup>b, c</sup>
Narku-Tetteh et al. (2017a, b)	313–363	0–30	0–24	0–64	8–100	7.53–74.78	0.240–0.810	83 <sup>a, b, c</sup>
Aronu et al. (2011)	313	15–45	0	0	0.0016–16	15–45	0.102–0.565	46 <sup>b, c</sup>
Shen and Li (1992)	313	15–30	0	0	5–552	15–30	0.471–0.873	15 <sup>b, c</sup>
Teng and Mather. (1990)	313–343	0	18	0	0.16–791	16	0.033–1.026	20 <sup>b, c</sup>
Pahlavanzadeh et al. (2011)	293–323	0	9–37	0	17–70	8.10–33.00	0.044–0.947	57 <sup>b, c</sup>
Choi et al. (2020)	323–383	9–21	9–22	0	0.03–333.50	20.93–24.90	0.028–0.782	68 <sup>b, c</sup>
Kundu et al. (2003)	303–323	0	18–31	0	3.25–91.50	16.26–27.89	0.412–0.966	51 <sup>b, c</sup>
Singh et al. (2011)	313	3–15	0	0	0.88–39.48	1.88–9.40	0.490–0.760	10 <sup>b, c</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Modified data from the given figures and the exponential equation

<sup>b</sup>Applied in ANN modeling

<sup>c</sup>Applied in KE modeling

tri-solvents; all solvents were composed of MEA with AMP or/and BEA. To improve the learning ability of the model, the amine concentration should be divided as the weight fraction of MEA, AMP, and BEA as shown in Fig. 2, and can be defined as Eq. 5 below. The number of neurons and hidden layers was affirmed by comparing the mean square errors (MSE) and the correlation coefficient ( $R^2$ ) of their predictions as shown in Eqs. 6 and 7 (Li et al. 2021).

$$\alpha_{\text{CO}_2} = f(X_{\text{MEA}}, X_{\text{AMP}}, X_{\text{BEA}}, MW_a, P_{\text{CO}_2}, T) \quad (5)$$

$$MSE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\alpha^{\text{exp}} - \alpha^{\text{predicts}})^2 \quad (6)$$

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (\alpha^{\text{predicts}} - \alpha^{\text{exp}})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (\alpha^{\text{exp}} - \bar{\alpha}^{\text{exp}})^2} \quad (7)$$

where  $N$  represents the total number of data points;  $\alpha^{\text{exp}}$  represents the experimental result of  $\text{CO}_2$  loading;  $\alpha^{\text{predicts}}$  represents the prediction results of  $\text{CO}_2$  loading; and  $\bar{\alpha}^{\text{exp}}$  represents the mean of the experimental  $\text{CO}_2$  loading.

Table 1 lists the available data sources of  $\text{CO}_2$  solubility in MEA, AMP, and BEA and their blends. The data set covers a temperature range between 293 and 393 K, a  $\text{CO}_2$  pressure range between 0.0016 and 791 kPa, and a total amine concentration up to 6 mol/L (Tontiwachwuthikul et al. 1991; Li and Chang 1995; Hwang et al. 2017; Narku-Tetteh et al. 2017a, b; Aronu et al. 2011; Shen and Li 1992; Teng and Mather 1990; Pahlavanzadeh et al. 2011; Choi et al. 2020; Kundu et al. 2003; Singh et al. 2011). The rule of data collection of this work is that the input data must have a strong

influence on the output quality. In this research, the majority of obtained experimental data are the  $\text{CO}_2$  solubility at low pressures, because the input data should be relevant to the experimental data of this work. In general, it is difficult to identify an exact accurate amount of required data to train the model. These data mostly depend on the input and output parameters, as well as their relationships and complexity. The complexity is normally determined empirically, while the performance of the model can be evaluated by the error analysis. The screening of data is the key step of data selection before training the model; the lack of data or excess data are two undesired issues. Typically, the lack of input data could result in overfitting because the model cannot perform a well-learned behavior from insufficient given information, whereas too much irrelevant input data could increase the complexity of the model. Underfitting normally happens when the capacity of the model is too small, while excess capacity can also cause overfitting. To avoid such undesired issues, there is no conflicted input data collected in the dataset in order to reduce the complexity but maintain an excellent coverage. In addition, the proper amount of data can also improve the stability of the final output. Thus, ANN can learn the training data strongly. The system can then automatically ignore the minority errors caused by the training data, which secure the prediction ability of the model. Murshid et al. (2020) studied that insufficient neurons could potentially cause the underfitted predictions compared to the experimental results, and an optimum number of neurons should be between 1 and 20 for a hidden layer. In conjunction with other published studies (Chen et al. 2015; Hamzehie et al. 2014; Murshid et al. 2020; Golzar et al. 2016), a comparison of various model structures with different neurons (1 hidden layer to 3 hidden layers) are summarized in Table 2. It can be observed from MATLAB

**Table 2** Model structure

Hidden layer (MSE) #1_#2_#3	$R_{\text{training}}$	$R_{\text{validation}}$
10_0_0 (0.0058099)	0.89940	0.91240
15_0_0 (0.0056234)	0.92881	0.91998
20_0_0 (0.0051348)	0.92764	0.94881
8_4_0 (0.0041112)	0.93467	0.95361
8_5_0 (0.0042139)	0.95898	0.95112
9_4_0 (0.0058173)	0.96076	0.91283
9_5_0 (0.0038124)	0.96084	0.96276
10_5_0 (0.0032752)	0.96232	0.97388
10_7_0 (0.0051979)	0.93080	0.93202
15_5_0 (0.0051773)	0.91997	0.93428
15_7_0 (0.0052133)	0.95491	0.93189
20_7_0 (0.0049783)	0.92780	0.93987
20_10_0 (0.0045127)	0.93267	0.94275
10_5_2 (0.0049801)	0.91350	0.93912
10_6_3 (0.0033098)	0.92401	0.96611
10_7_1 (0.0044767)	0.90496	0.94512
15_10_5 (0.0045091)	0.95121	0.94120
20_10_5 (0.004677)	0.94328	0.94728

that two hidden layers with 10 (first layer) and 5 (second layer) neurons provided the best performance of prediction by comparing the correlation coefficient, which corresponds to the lowest MSE (0.0032752) compared to other structures. The lower the MSE, the more accurate the prediction. Therefore, the structure (see Fig. 2) was applied for the further predictions of this study based on the specific input parameters and training algorithm. The edited weights and biases were continuously updated to achieve the desired prediction. However, the structure of the model could also decide the learning ability of the model. Hence, the error was recorded once it was no longer changed significantly. The next structure was tested and compared with the others. Table 3 shows the weights of the connections between the input variable and its

corresponding neuron on the first hidden layer, while Table 4 shows the weights of the connections between the neuron on the first hidden layer to its corresponding neuron on the second hidden layer and the biases of the neuron on the second hidden layer to the output layer.

Once the model was ready, it was utilized to correlate the sample data, which were all selected from the experimental results of this research. In order to ensure that the deviation was not caused by the experiment, the experiment required to be repeated if the corresponding deviation was too large (> 10%). The deviation would be finally recorded if the repeated experimental result was consistent to the previous experimental result. This step increases the reliability of the experimental results. The equation of deviation estimation is introduced in the next section.

### Kent-Eisenberg modeling

The KE model is employed to correlate the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in several amine blends, including MEA/AMP, MEA/BEA, and MEA/AMP/BEA. The objective of this work is going to build a simplified KE model which is fitted for both bi-solvents and tri-solvents on the basis of only single-amine VLE data. To accomplish this target, the procedures can be summarized into six major steps:

(i) A nonlinear equation was initially developed to describe the chemical and physical equilibria in CO<sub>2</sub>-amine systems, and the electroneutrality balance formula was expressed to introduce all the ionic species.

(ii) The concentrations of all the ionic species were estimated by solving the nonlinear equation. The set of reaction in the CO<sub>2</sub>-amine-water system is expressed below from Eq. 8 to Eq. 12 (Shi et al. 2021a, b; Hwang et al. 2017).

Dissociation of bicarbonate ion:



Formation of bicarbonate:

**Table 3** Weights and biases for the first two layers

Number of the neuron on the 1st hidden layer	Weights						Biases
	$X_{\text{MEA}}$	$X_{\text{AMP}}$	$X_{\text{BEA}}$	$P_{\text{CO}_2}$	Mwa	$T$	
1	1.003	0.397	−0.377	−4.689	0.363	−1.693	−2.361
2	1.630	1.342	2.509	1.401	−2.734	−1.152	4.923
3	−0.732	−1.106	−2.724	−9.921	2.131	5.575	−9.877
4	0.019	−0.734	−2.346	6.731	2.467	3.379	6.714
5	1.062	1.445	3.461	−2.345	−3.030	−8.422	−2.760
6	6.975	2.263	4.573	−0.830	2.388	3.379	13.705
7	−0.673	−11.641	−1.278	−2.729	−3.850	3.688	6.061
8	3.782	−3.762	7.729	−1.242	−1.612	−5.356	0.389
9	−11.538	−2.008	1.380	13.924	−2.227	−4.030	−0.152
10	2.439	−0.929	−1.836	−0.134	5.660	3.957	6.077





**Table 5** Equilibrium constants and Henry's constants

Parameter <sup>a</sup>	$a_i$	$b_i$	$c_i$	$d_i$	Range of validity (K)	Reference
$K_1$	-12,431.7	-35.482	0	220.067	273–498	Edwards et al. (1978)
$K_2$	-12,092.1	-36.782	0	235.480	273–499	Edwards et al. (1978)
$K_3$	-13,445.9	-22.477	0	140.932	273–500	Edwards et al. (1978)
$K_{4, \text{MEA}}$	-17.3	0.058	0	-38.846	293–353	Hamborg and Versteeg (2009)
$K_{5, \text{MEA}}$	-3090.8	0	0	6.694	293–413	Kent and Eisenberg. (1976)
$K_{4, \text{AMP}}$	-16.7	0	0.621	-41.000	298–353	Hamborg and Versteeg. (2009)
$K_{5, \text{AMP}}$	2546.2	0	0	-11.555	298–314	Silkenbaumer et al. (1998)
$K_{4, \text{BEA}}$	-5997.0	0	0	-3.460	313–393	Hwang et al. (2017)
$K_{5, \text{BEA}}$	3997.0	0	0	-12.460	313–394	Hwang et al. (2017)
$H_{\text{CO}_2}$	-9624.4	-28.749	0.014	192.876	273–473	Rumpf and Maurer. (1993)

<sup>a</sup>In molarity basis

Amine balance:

$$[\text{Amine}]_t = [\text{Amine}] + [\text{AmineH}^+] + [\text{AmineCOO}^-] \quad (16)$$

 $\text{CO}_2$  balance:

$$\alpha_{\text{CO}_2} \times [\text{Amine}]_t = [\text{CO}_2] + [\text{HCO}_3^-] + [\text{CO}_3^{2-}] + [\text{AmineCOO}^-] \quad (17)$$

Electroneutrality balance (charge balance):

$$[\text{H}^+] + [\text{AmineH}^+] = [\text{HCO}_3^-] + 2[\text{CO}_3^{2-}] + [\text{OH}^-] + [\text{AmineCOO}^-] \quad (18)$$

After the derivation, a single polynomial equation is shown in Eq. 19, which is a combination of the hydrogen ion concentration and the equilibrium constants.

$$A[\text{H}^+]^5 + B[\text{H}^+]^4 + C[\text{H}^+]^3 + D[\text{H}^+]^2 + E[\text{H}^+] + F = 0 \quad (19)$$

where

$$A = K_5$$

$$B = K_4K_5 + [\text{Amine}]_tK_5$$

$$C = K_2K_4\frac{P_{\text{CO}_2}}{H_{\text{CO}_2}} - K_2K_5\frac{P_{\text{CO}_2}}{H_{\text{CO}_2}} - K_3K_5$$

$$D = -K_2K_4K_5\frac{P_{\text{CO}_2}}{H_{\text{CO}_2}} - 2K_1K_2K_5\frac{P_{\text{CO}_2}}{H_{\text{CO}_2}} - K_3K_4K_5 - K_2K_4\frac{P_{\text{CO}_2}}{H_{\text{CO}_2}}[\text{Amine}]_t$$

$$E = -K_2^2K_4\frac{P_{\text{CO}_2}^2}{H_{\text{CO}_2}^2} - 2K_1K_2K_4K_5\frac{P_{\text{CO}_2}}{H_{\text{CO}_2}} - K_2K_3K_4\frac{P_{\text{CO}_2}}{H_{\text{CO}_2}}$$

$$F = -2K_1K_2K_4\frac{P_{\text{CO}_2}^2}{H_{\text{CO}_2}}$$

The initial  $\text{CO}_2$  loadings were eventually determined by using the simplified equation (Eq. 20).

$$\alpha = \frac{\frac{P_{\text{CO}_2}}{H_{\text{CO}_2}} \left[ 1 + \frac{K_2}{[\text{H}^+]} + \frac{K_1K_2}{[\text{H}^+]^2} + \frac{K_2K_4[\text{Amine}]_t}{K_4K_5[\text{H}^+] + K_5[\text{H}^+]^2 + K_2K_4\frac{P_{\text{CO}_2}}{H_{\text{CO}_2}}} \right]}{[\text{Amine}]_t} \quad (20)$$

(iv) The developed models were validated with available experimental data from several publications.

(v)  $K_4$  and  $K_5$  were regressed to fit the experimental data with the model expression, which was previously discussed by Mondal et al. (2017). As they mentioned before, the generalized reduced gradient nonlinear optimization technique is suggested to use to improve the prediction accuracy, hence the objective function (Eq. 21) must be inserted to MATLAB in order to have the error analysis.

$$\% \text{AAD} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left| \frac{\alpha_{\text{CO}_2,i}^{\text{Ex}} - \alpha_{\text{CO}_2,i}^{\text{Cal}}}{\alpha_{\text{CO}_2,i}^{\text{Ex}}} \right| \quad (21)$$

where  $\alpha_{\text{CO}_2,i}^{\text{Ex}}$  and  $\alpha_{\text{CO}_2,i}^{\text{Cal}}$  are the experimental and predicted  $\text{CO}_2$  loadings, respectively;  $N$  represents the total number of data (Mondal et al. 2017).

It was studied by Haji-Sulaiman et al. (1998) that  $K_i$  is originally a single function which is only related to temperature. Thus, an additional factor  $F_i$  should be considered as the effects in terms of  $\text{CO}_2$  partial pressure and the amine concentration. Consequently, the modified  $K_i$  can be expressed as  $K'_i$ , as shown in Eq. 22 (Haji-Sulaiman et al. 1998):

$$K'_i = K_i F_i \quad (22)$$

A simplified form of  $F_i$  was also introduced by Haji-Sulaiman et al. (1998) as the following equations:

*Protonation of amine:*

$$F_i = g_i \ln P_{\text{CO}_2} + k_i \ln [\text{amine}] \quad (23)$$

*Formation of carbamate:*

$$F_i = g_i \ln P_{\text{CO}_2} + j_i / [\text{amine}] \quad (24)$$

The regression was completed by using the MATLAB optimization toolbox. The constrained optimization function “*fminunc*” command was applied in this present work. It should be noted that the step of regression is always established upon sufficient vapor–liquid equilibrium (VLE) data. The data set should cover the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in different concentrations of amine solvent at wide ranges of temperature and pressure. In general, substantial VLE data of the single solvents are available on different publications. However, the study of blended solvents is very insufficient, particularly for the tri-solvents. The lack of available experimental VLE data of the MEA/BEA and MEA/AMP/BEA blends are the major knowledge gap for regressing the model and validating the model.

(vi) Considering these limitations, the authors decided to build a simplified KE model on the basis of single amine. The MEA model was regressed based on 89 data from Narku-Tetteh et al. (2017a, b) and Aronu et al. (2011). The AMP model was regressed based on 113 data from Teng and Mather (1990), Pahlavanzadeh et al. (2011), and Kundu et al. (2003). The BEA model was regressed based on 47 data from Narku-Tetteh et al. (2017a, b) (for details, see Table 1). Consequently, the estimated CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in blended solvent can be calculated by mole fraction weighting of each single amine from the following Eq. 25 (Shi et al. 2021a, b).

$$\alpha_{\text{Cal,blends}} = \frac{C_{\text{MEA}} \cdot \alpha_{t,\text{MEA}}^{\text{Cal}} + C_{\text{AMP}} \cdot \alpha_{t,\text{AMP}}^{\text{Cal}} + C_{\text{BEA}} \cdot \alpha_{t,\text{BEA}}^{\text{Cal}}}{C_{\text{total}}} \quad (25)$$

where  $\alpha_{\text{Cal,blends}}$  is the estimated equilibrium loading for amine blends;  $C_{\text{MEA}}$ ,  $C_{\text{AMP}}$ , and  $C_{\text{BEA}}$  are the concentrations of MEA, AMP and BEA, respectively; and  $\alpha_{t,\text{MEA}}^{\text{Cal}}$ ,  $\alpha_{t,\text{AMP}}^{\text{Cal}}$ , and  $\alpha_{t,\text{BEA}}^{\text{Cal}}$  are the estimated loadings generated by each single-amine model when the total amine concentration was input.

## Results and discussions

### Experiment validation

The experiment was validated by measuring the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in 2.5 mol/L aqueous MEA solvent at 313 K. The percentage of average absolute deviation (%AAD) (Eq. (21)) represents the deviation between the experimental results of this work and the published data from several sources presented in Table 6. Furthermore, it is essential to find

the relationship between the CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure and CO<sub>2</sub> loading for the experimental data of this work, since the published data were completed at different pressures. Thus, the estimated CO<sub>2</sub> loading (this work) was calculated from the exponential equation as shown in Fig. 3, which could cover all CO<sub>2</sub> loadings under varied specific CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressures obtained from the published data. Table 6 confirms that the measured data were in good agreement with the published data (Shen and Li 1992; Portugal et al. 2009; Mazinani et al. 2011), particularly compared to the data reported by Shen and Li. (1992) and Mazinani et al. (2011). A relatively higher %AAD was observed when the measured data was compared to Portugal’s data (2009). It could be explained by several reasons: (i) slight difference from the MEA mass fraction; (ii) varied purity of the chemical; (iii) since an exponential equation was developed at a CO<sub>2</sub> pressure range between 8 and 50 kPa, a higher deviation thus appeared when predicting the CO<sub>2</sub> loading under 8 kPa.

For the work of KE modeling, Table 7 shows the final regressed parameters applied in this modeling section. As mentioned in “Methodology,” the predictions of CO<sub>2</sub> solubility were computed based on the predictions of three single-amine KE models. In order to validate the prediction reliability of the corresponding model, this work used several testing data to justify three single-amine models. All testing data are summarized in Table 1. The MEA model was validated by using the 22 available data reported by Shen et al. (1992) and Singh et al. (2011) as shown in Fig. 4(a). The model finally contributed 4.68% of %AAD. The AMP model was validated by 32 available data provided by Tontiwachwuthikul et al. (1991) as shown in Fig. 4(b), and AAD% was calculated as 8.43%. The BEA model was validated by 33 available data provided by Hwang et al. (2017) as shown in Fig. 4(c), and %AAD was found as 14.64%.

Table 8 indicates the comparison between the estimated CO<sub>2</sub> loading by using the proposed modeling approach and 23 experimental data (Choi et al. 2020) at specific temperature and pressure. It exhibited 20.39% of %AAD, and the most obvious deviation was observed when the CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure is below 5 kPa or greater than 250 kPa. However, the objective of the experiments of this study was completed at a CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure range between 8 and 50 kPa. If %AAD only counted the CO<sub>2</sub> loading at the pressure ranges from 5 to 250 kPa, it would decrease to 9.06%. Compared to other published studies (Kent and Eisenberg 1976; Haji-Sulaiman et al. 1998), the predictions of this work exhibited an acceptable deviation. Therefore, this approach is an applicable method to correlate the experimental results of this research.

### CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in the aqueous MEA/AMP blends

The experimental results of CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in aqueous MEA-AMP blends are summarized in Table 6. This work

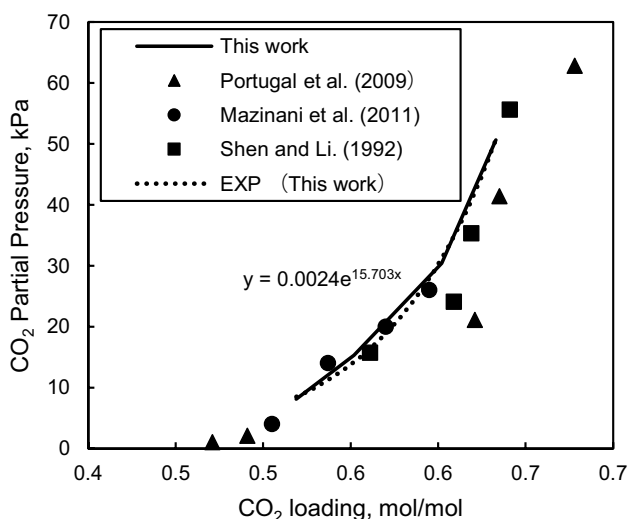
**Table 6** Experiment validation at the CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure range between 1.02 and 120.7 kPa

Experimental data			Estimated loading	Deviation	%AAD
$P_{\text{CO}_2}$ (kPa)	CO <sub>2</sub> loading (uncertainty)	Sources	$P_{\text{CO}_2} = 0.0024e^{15.703\alpha}$		
8.104	0.519 (0.0014)	This work	0.517		
15.30	0.552 (0.0009)		0.557		
30.39	0.602 (0.0005)		0.602		
50.65	0.633 (0.0004)		0.634		
1.02	0.471	Portugal et al. (2009)	0.385	18.172*	8.748
2.11	0.491		0.432	12.078	
21.1	0.621		0.578	6.871	
41.4	0.635		0.621	2.165	
62.8	0.678		0.648	4.456	
4	0.505	Mazinani et al. (2011)	0.472	6.449	2.678
14	0.537		0.552	2.832	
20	0.570		0.575	0.864	
26	0.595		0.592	0.566	
15.7	0.561	Shen and Li. (1992)	0.560	0.266	2.001
24.1	0.609		0.588	3.646	
35.3	0.619		0.611	1.276	
55.6	0.641		0.640	0.150	
89.4	0.685		0.670	2.149	
120.7	0.722		0.689	4.516	

\*Calculation example:  $(0.471 - 0.385)/0.471$ 

maintained the concentration of AMP at 2 mol/L, while the concentration of MEA was varied at 0.1, 0.3, and 0.5 mol/L, respectively. It is known that the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility normally decreased by increasing the operating temperature, while it increased by increasing the operating pressure (Tontiwachwuthikul et al. 1991).

Adding an additional small volume of MEA (from 0.1 to 0.5 mol/L) into the aqueous AMP solvent can eventually cause two distinct influences on the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility

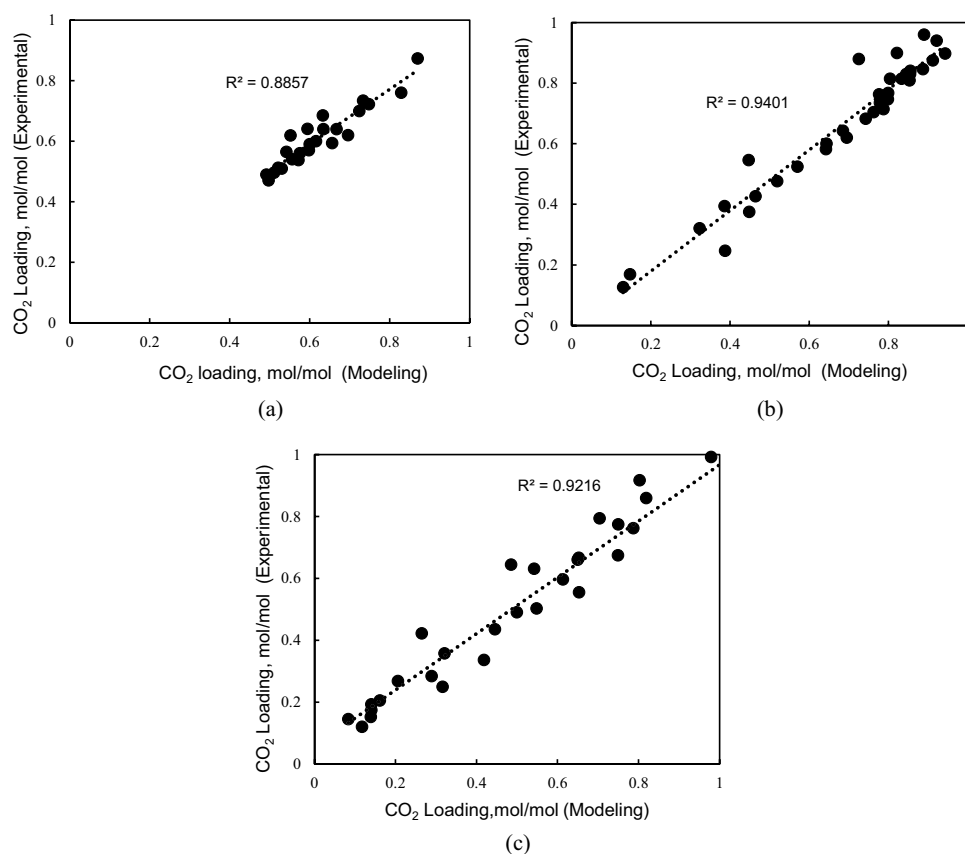
**Fig. 3** Experiment validation at the CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure range between 1.02 and 120.7 kPa

as shown in Table 9. At 313 K, increasing MEA concentration could decrease the CO<sub>2</sub> loading significantly. The temperature of 363 K, which could often be used in the desorption process, was considered as the desorption condition. Typically, CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in the aqueous MEA solvent is higher than that in the aqueous AMP solvent at high temperature. Researchers thus suggested that AMP solutions are superior to MEA solutions for the regeneration process of CO<sub>2</sub> (Tontiwachwuthikul et al. 1991). Therefore, the higher concentration of MEA in the aqueous AMP solvent could conceptually increase the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility at high temperature. At both two conditions, the phenomena when adding addition MEA into the aqueous AMP solvent are unfavorable for CO<sub>2</sub> capture. However, a comprehensive study should also cover the acceleration of the CO<sub>2</sub> absorption rate and the regeneration energy demand. Kinetics does not

**Table 7** Computed regression parameters for the single solvent KE models

	$g_i$	$k_i$	$j_i$
$F_{1,\text{MEA}}$	0.4842	0.508	0
$F_{2,\text{MEA}}$	-0.12002	0	0.8204
$F_{1,\text{AMP}}$	-0.05842	0.187	0
$F_{2,\text{AMP}}$	-0.002166	0	-0.000334
$F_{1,\text{BEA}}$	0.0902	0.856	0
$F_{2,\text{BEA}}$	0.1566	0	0.8211

**Fig. 4** Validation of three single solvent KE models. **a** MEA. **b** AMP. **c** BEA



affect the equilibrium solubility of  $\text{CO}_2$ , but it simply reflects how fast a solvent can achieve to equilibrium at specific temperature and pressure. From a previous published achievement (Shi et al. 2021a, b), the analysis of the coordinative effect of MEA + AMP solvents was comprehensively studied on both absorption and desorption. Despite that the  $\text{CO}_2$  absorption capacity of MEA is lower than that of AMP, it still provides a stronger absorption rate than AMP, which could be considered as an additional benefit for  $\text{CO}_2$  capture (Shi et al. 2021a, b). It was also mentioned by Shi et al. (2021a, b) that the coordinative effect of addition MEA (0.1–0.5 mol/L) into AMP is negligibly small due to the weak carbamate stability of AMP. By comparing with 2 mol/L AMP, adding addition MEA (0.1–0.5 mol/L) can enhance up to 8% of the absorption rate, but the enhancement did not exhibit regulated changes by increasing the volume of addition MEA (Shi et al. 2021a, b).

It is also observed that the volume of added MEA is a considerable influencing factor on the solubility of  $\text{CO}_2$ . A more significant impact was observed when the concentration of MEA was increased from 0.1 to 0.3 mol/L compared to the increase in MEA concentration from 0.3 to 0.5 mol/L. Considering the solubility of  $\text{CO}_2$  alone, MEA + AMP blends are significantly higher than MEA single solvent. Taking 15 kPa as an example, replacing 2.5 mol/L MEA by

MEA + AMP (0.5 + 2 mol/L) leads to an enhancement in the  $\text{CO}_2$  solubility by about 19%, which could be observed by comparing the data in Table 9 with the data given in Fig. 3.

### ***CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in the aqueous MEA/BEA blends***

The present work investigated the  $\text{CO}_2$  solubility in several aqueous MEA/BEA blends. Similar to the MEA concentration distributed in “ $\text{CO}_2$  solubility in the aqueous MEA/AMP blends,” the MEA concentration was varied at 0.1, 0.3, and 0.5 mol/L, then added into an identical amount of BEA (2 mol/L). A similar trend can be observed in Table 10 showing that the  $\text{CO}_2$  solubility tends to decrease as the concentration of MEA was increased at 313 K, while the  $\text{CO}_2$  solubility tends to slightly increase as the concentration of MEA was increased at 363 K. Compared to aqueous MEA/AMP blends, the effect of MEA on the  $\text{CO}_2$  solubility in aqueous MEA/BEA at 313 K and 363 K was not significant. Promisingly, it is expected that an addition of MEA can significantly enhance the absorption rate and exhibit insignificant or mild impact on a reduction of absorption capacity. Interestingly, the absorption capacity of blended MEA-BEA fits well with this criterion by combining the present work with the previous study from Shi et al. (2021a, b).

**Table 8** Prediction validation for blended solvents using the KE model

Mass fraction <sup>a</sup>		Total molar concentration (mol/L)	$P_{\text{CO}_2}$ (kPa <sup>a</sup> )	$\alpha_{\text{MEA, cal}}$	$\alpha_{\text{AMP, cal}}$	$\alpha_{\text{blends, cal}}$	$\alpha_{\text{blends, exp}}^a$
MEA (wt.%)	AMP (wt.%)						
9	22	3.5	1.053	0.1076	0.1021	0.1037	0.122
9	22	3.5	2.520	0.2812	0.1554	0.1913	0.267
9	22	3.5	5.674	0.3186	0.3499	0.3410	0.403
9	22	3.5	18.998	0.4867	0.5980	0.5662	0.544
9	22	3.5	78.58	0.5273	0.6387	0.6069	0.655
9	22	3.5	165.705	0.5519	0.7577	0.6989	0.707
9	22	3.5	249.113	0.5974	1.0058	0.8891	0.738
9	22	3.5	333.458	0.7607	1.3896	1.2010	0.782
15	15	3.6	1.462	0.1209	0.0976	0.1312	0.125
15	15	3.6	2.899	0.3087	0.1719	0.2471	0.265
15	15	3.6	5.773	0.3125	0.3423	0.3259	0.404
15	15	3.6	23.87	0.4955	0.6231	0.5530	0.553
15	15	3.6	112.879	0.5589	0.6700	0.6090	0.654
15	15	3.6	221.563	0.5877	0.8488	0.7053	0.707
15	15	3.6	330.253	0.7261	1.3633	1.0131	0.742
21	9	4.5	1.515	0.1139	0.0982	0.1260	0.144
21	9	4.5	2.469	0.2145	0.3354	0.2414	0.28
21	9	4.5	7.091	0.3211	0.4111	0.3402	0.425
21	9	4.5	35.648	0.3528	0.5077	0.3872	0.553
21	9	4.5	130.261	0.5093	0.8563	0.5864	0.643
21	9	4.5	204.046	0.5313	0.9189	0.6174	0.675
21	9	4.5	277.018	0.5581	0.9383	0.6417	0.697
21	9	4.5	332.567	0.5924	1.1573	0.7193	0.717

<sup>a</sup>Data collected from Choi et al. (2020), CO<sub>2</sub> solubility at 323 K

### CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in aqueous MEA/AMP/BEA blends

The CO<sub>2</sub> solubility data of the aqueous tri-solvent of MEA/AMP/BEA is shown in Table 11. The total concentration of AMP/BEA was maintained at 2 mol/L and 4 mol/L, respectively. For each of the solvent sample, the MEA concentration was varied at 0.1 mol/L, 0.3 mol/L, and 0.5 mol/L, while the molar ratio of AMP and BEA was 1:1. It can be observed that the increase in MEA concentration in the blended solvent could have less impact when the total AMP/BEA concentration was increased from 2 to 4 mol/L at both temperatures. This can be reasoned by the concentration of MEA which is accounted as a higher portion in 2 mol/L AMP/BEA blends. Since a fraction of MEA in 4 mol/L AMP/BEA decreased, its impact on CO<sub>2</sub> solubility then decreased. For the amine blends with identical volumes of MEA, the effect of CO<sub>2</sub> solubility strongly depended on the total amine concentration, temperature, and pressure. It was mentioned earlier that AMP is a typical sterically hindered amine, which is able to form unstable carbamate when reacting with CO<sub>2</sub>. The unstable carbamate eventually hydrolyzed into bicarbonate; thus, the solvent blends with AMP

exhibiting larger capacity allows more free amines to be available for the reaction with CO<sub>2</sub> (Coker et al. 2017). Taking MEA/BEA/AMP (0.1 ~ 0.5 + 1 + 1 mol/L) solvents as an example, the solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> is obviously higher than that in MEA/BEA (0.1 ~ 0.5 + 2 mol/L) at the same conditions as the data proposed in Table 10 and Table 11. This behavior contributed from the unstable carbamate of AMP. Similar to the observations from the two previous sections, the addition of MEA resulted in a decrease in CO<sub>2</sub> solubility, but the best recipe of the blended solvent should also consider the performance in mass transfer, absorption rate, and heat duty. According to a previous study (Shi et al. 2021a, b), MEA/BEA/AMP (0.3 + 2 + 2 mol/L) is recommended as the optimized ratio, which exhibited the strongest coordinative effect at both absorption and desorption conditions. Considering the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility data (Table 11) for MEA/BEA/AMP (0.1 ~ 0.5 + 2 + 2 mol/L) alone, a relatively regulated trend of reduction on CO<sub>2</sub> solubility could be observed by increasing the MEA concentration at 313 K, while there is no significant increase in CO<sub>2</sub> solubility when increasing the MEA concentration from 0.1 to 0.3 mol/L at 363 K, which is favorable for the desorption process.



**Table 9** CO<sub>2</sub> solubility data in aqueous MEA/AMP blends

313.15 K <sup>a</sup>			363.15 K <sup>b</sup>		
$P_{\text{CO}_2}$ (kPa)	$\alpha$ (mol/mol)	$u(\alpha)$	$P_{\text{CO}_2}$ (kPa)	$\alpha$ (mol/mol)	$u(\alpha)$
0.1 mol/L MEA + 2 mol/L AMP					
8.104	0.655	0.0022	15.296	0.297	0.0005
15.296	0.691	0.0013	30.390	0.372	0.0003
30.390	0.775	0.0007	50.650	0.411	0.0002
50.650	0.849	0.0005			
0.3 mol/L MEA + 2 mol/L AMP					
8.104	0.628	0.0019	15.296	0.295	0.0004
15.296	0.651	0.0011	30.390	0.363	0.0003
30.390	0.729	0.0007	50.650	0.401	0.0002
50.650	0.827	0.0005			
0.5 mol/L MEA + 2 mol/L AMP					
8.104	0.597	0.0019	15.296	0.304	0.0005
15.296	0.613	0.0011	30.390	0.355	0.0003
30.390	0.706	0.0007	50.650	0.391	0.0002
50.650	0.813	0.0005			

<sup>a</sup>Standard uncertainties are  $u(T_1)=0.8$  K,  $u(V_1)=0.01$  mL,  $u(V_2)=0.005$  mL,  $u(P)=0.5$  kPa at 313 K

<sup>b</sup>Standard uncertainties are  $u(T_1)=0.9$  K,  $u(V_1)=0.01$  mL,  $u(V_2)=0.005$  mL,  $u(P)=0.5$  kPa at 363 K,  $u(V_1)=0.01$  mL,  $u(V_2)=0.005$  mL,  $u(P)=0.5$  kPa at 363 K

**Table 10** CO<sub>2</sub> solubility data in aqueous MEA/BEA blends

313.15 K <sup>a</sup>			363.15 K <sup>b</sup>		
$P_{\text{CO}_2}$ (kPa)	$\alpha$ (mol/mol)	$u(\alpha)$	$P_{\text{CO}_2}$ (kPa)	$\alpha$ (mol/mol)	$u(\alpha)$
0.1 mol/L MEA + 2 mol/L BEA					
8.104	0.597	0.0018	15.296	0.251	0.0004
15.296	0.624	0.0011	30.39	0.289	0.0002
30.390	0.688	0.0008	50.65	0.319	0.0002
50.650	0.722	0.0006			
0.3 mol/L MEA + 2 mol/L BEA					
8.104	0.588	0.0017	15.296	0.255	0.0004
15.296	0.606	0.0010	30.39	0.298	0.0002
30.390	0.669	0.0006	50.65	0.325	0.0002
50.650	0.706	0.0004			
0.5 mol/L MEA + 2 mol/L BEA					
8.104	0.577	0.0017	15.296	0.251	0.0004
15.296	0.591	0.0010	30.39	0.298	0.0002
30.390	0.657	0.0006	50.65	0.328	0.0002
50.650	0.695	0.0004			

<sup>a</sup>Standard uncertainties are  $u(T_1)=0.8$  K,  $u(V_1)=0.01$  mL,  $u(V_2)=0.005$  mL,  $u(P)=0.5$  kPa at 313 K

<sup>b</sup>Standard uncertainties are  $u(T_1)=0.9$  K,  $u(V_1)=0.01$  mL,  $u(V_2)=0.005$  mL,  $u(P)=0.5$  kPa at 363 K

**Table 11** CO<sub>2</sub> solubility data in aqueous MEA/AMP/BEA blends

313.15 K <sup>a</sup>			363.15 K <sup>b</sup>		
$P_{\text{CO}_2}$ (kPa)	$\alpha$ (mol/mol)	$u(\alpha)$	$P_{\text{CO}_2}$ (kPa)	$\alpha$ (mol/mol)	$u(\alpha)$
0.1 mol/L MEA + 1 mol/L AMP + 1 mol/L BEA					
8.104	0.637	0.0019	15.296	0.288	0.0004
15.296	0.669	0.0011	30.39	0.338	0.0003
30.390	0.732	0.0006	50.65	0.378	0.0002
50.650	0.789	0.0004			
0.3 mol/L MEA + 1 mol/L AMP + 1 mol/L BEA					
8.104	0.591	0.0017	15.296	0.299	0.0005
15.296	0.632	0.0010	30.39	0.341	0.0003
30.390	0.698	0.0006	50.65	0.381	0.0002
50.650	0.771	0.0004			
0.5 mol/L MEA + 1 mol/L AMP + 1 mol/L BEA					
8.104	0.587	0.0017	15.296	0.307	0.0005
15.296	0.632	0.0010	30.39	0.346	0.0003
30.390	0.695	0.0006	50.65	0.399	0.0002
50.650	0.731	0.0004			
0.1 mol/L MEA + 2 mol/L AMP + 2 mol/L BEA					
8.104	0.501	0.0017	15.296	0.251	0.0004
15.296	0.527	0.0010	30.39	0.269	0.0002
30.390	0.566	0.0006	50.65	0.307	0.0002
50.650	0.612	0.0004			
0.3 mol/L MEA + 2 mol/L AMP + 2 mol/L BEA					
8.104	0.489	0.0015	15.296	0.252	0.0004
15.296	0.516	0.0008	30.39	0.271	0.0002
30.390	0.543	0.0004	50.65	0.314	0.0002
50.650	0.589	0.0003			
0.5 mol/L MEA + 2 mol/L AMP + 2 mol/L BEA					
8.104	0.478	0.0014	15.296	0.257	0.0004
15.296	0.509	0.0008	30.39	0.287	0.0002
30.390	0.537	0.0004	50.65	0.326	0.0002
50.650	0.579	0.0004			

<sup>a</sup>Standard uncertainties are  $u(T_1)=0.8$  K,  $u(V_1)=0.01$  mL,  $u(V_2)=0.005$  mL,  $u(P)=0.5$  kPa at 313 K

<sup>b</sup>Standard uncertainties are  $u(T_1)=0.9$  K,  $u(V_1)=0.01$  mL,  $u(V_2)=0.005$  mL,  $u(P)=0.5$  kPa at 363 K

At 363 K, a relatively high increase in CO<sub>2</sub> solubility was observed when increasing the MEA concentration from 0.3 to 0.5 mol/L. In this case, it could be confirmed that MEA/BEA/AMP (0.3 + 2 + 2 mol/L) is the optimized ratio compared to other two ratios.

By considering the coordinative effect, Shi et al. (2021a, b) found that addition of MEA (0.1 to 0.5 mol/L) into the bi-solvent blends (2 mol/L BEA + 2 mol/L AMP) could improve the absorption mass transfer performance, which consequently causes the higher initial absorption rate compared to the bi-solvent without MEA. Besides, the addition of MEA at the specified ratio (MEA/RR'NH=0.5/2) could potentially enhance the heat duty

**Table 12** Equilibrium solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> in several aqueous amine blends

Amine type	Concentration	Sources	$P_{\text{CO}_2}$ (kPa)	$T$ (K)	$d(\ln P_{\text{CO}_2})/d(1/T)$
MEA-AMP-BEA	0.1–2–2 mol/L ( $\alpha=0.6$ )	Shi et al. (2021a, b)	13.50	298	–7479.1
		This work*	44.95	313	
	0.3–2–2 mol/L ( $\alpha=0.58$ )	Shi et al. (2021a, b)	13.50	298	–7824.3
		This work*	47.51	313	
	0.5–2–2 mol/L ( $\alpha=0.57$ )	Shi et al. (2021a, b)	13.50	298	–7859.4
		This work*	47.75	313	
MEA-AMP	0.1–2 mol/L ( $\alpha=0.79^a$ )	This work	15.30	298	–5122.5 <sup>b</sup>
		This work*	34.87	313	
	0.3–2 mol/L ( $\alpha=0.76^a$ )	This work	15.30	298	–5819.1 <sup>b</sup>
		This work*	38.99	313	
	0.5–2 mol/L ( $\alpha=0.73^a$ )	This work	15.30	298	–5538.6 <sup>b</sup>
		This work*	37.28	313	
MEA-BEA	0.1–2 mol/L ( $\alpha=0.70^a$ )	This work	15.30	298	–5866.1 <sup>b</sup>
		This work*	38.81	313	
	0.3–2 mol/L ( $\alpha=0.69^a$ )	This work	15.30	298	–6069.2 <sup>b</sup>
		This work*	40.60	313	
	0.5–2 mol/L ( $\alpha=0.67^a$ )	This work	15.30	298	–6129.8 <sup>b</sup>
		This work*	41.00	313	

\*Estimated from the proposed experimental data (from Tables 9, 10, and 11) via exponential nonlinear relations

<sup>a</sup>Standard uncertainties are  $u(T_1)=0.75$  K,  $u(V_1)=0.01$  mL,  $u(V_2)=0.005$  mL,  $u(P)=0.5$  kPa at 298 K

<sup>b</sup>With accuracy  $\pm 3\%$

reduction by boosting amine regeneration and CO<sub>2</sub> production. From this study, the concentration of AMP/BEA plays a key role at 363 K. In addition, the more unstable carbamate produced from AMP could significantly lower the negative impact of the absorption capacity of MEA, which is beneficial for desorption. It is also reported by Narku-Tetteh et al. (2017a, b) that the equilibrium CO<sub>2</sub> solubility has a positive relationship with the alkyl chain length of the secondary amines. BEA is a secondary amine with a long-chain alkyl group, which increases the basicity of the solvent by converting the electrons from the nitrogen ion to the alkyl group. BEA thus exhibited excellent reactivity when being blended with AMP and MEA, particularly advantageous at 313 K. Furthermore, 4 mol/L BEA/AMP is obviously more viscous than 2 mol/L BEA/AMP so the mass transfer limitation increases as the solvent viscosity increases (Narku-Tetteh et al. 2017a, b). The further work is worthy to obtain the direct effect of the solvent viscosity on the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility. Also, the varied ratio of AMP/BEA is another considering factor for the further work.

### Heat of CO<sub>2</sub> absorption

In this work, the equilibrium CO<sub>2</sub> solubility data at 298 K were obtained from the published data sets (Shi et al.

2021a, b) and the new experimental data. To determine the term of  $\frac{d(\ln(P_{\text{CO}_2}))}{d(\frac{1}{T})}$ , it is necessary to keep the CO<sub>2</sub> loading as a constant as shown in Table 12. The estimated heat of CO<sub>2</sub> absorption in several solvent blends was eventually summarized as shown in Table 13, which displayed the effect of MEA on the heat of CO<sub>2</sub> absorption. Adding MEA can potentially increase the absorption heat of CO<sub>2</sub>. It can be attributed by the structural characteristic. Narku-Tetteh et al. (2017a, b) reported that all the side chain (hindered) amines exhibited higher heat of CO<sub>2</sub> absorption than the straight chain (unhindered) amines. A higher amount of CO<sub>2</sub> absorbed in hindered amines causes more heat released compared to their straight chain analogues. Moreover, the increase in MEA in the solvents of MEA/AMP and MEA/AMP/BEA exhibited more stable carbamate which is formed when MEA reacts with CO<sub>2</sub> and has a higher enthalpy of reaction. Considering the AMP-CO<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O system, the steric hindrance of the methyl group causes the low stability of AMP carbamate (Muchan et al. 2017), which increases the rate of bicarbonate formation through carbamate hydrolysis. According to the work of Muchan et al. (2017), the formation of bicarbonate is an endothermic reaction while the carbamate formation is an exothermic reaction, which is the main reason for more stable carbamate formation leading to a higher  $\Delta H_a$ . Therefore, it was

**Table 13** CO<sub>2</sub> absorption heat in various aqueous solvent blends at temperature range of 298–313 K

Amine type	Concentration	$\Delta H_a^a$ (kJ/mol)
MEA-AMP-BEA	0.1–2–2 mol/L ( $\alpha=0.6$ )	–62.18
	0.3–2–2 mol/L ( $\alpha=0.58$ )	–65.12
	0.5–2–2 mol/L ( $\alpha=0.57$ )	–65.19
MEA-AMP	0.1–2 mol/L ( $\alpha=0.79$ )	–42.58
	0.3–2 mol/L ( $\alpha=0.76$ )	–48.25
	0.5–2 mol/L ( $\alpha=0.73$ )	–45.97
MEA-BEA	0.1–2 mol/L ( $\alpha=0.70$ )	–48.69
	0.3–2 mol/L ( $\alpha=0.69$ )	–50.36
	0.5–2 mol/L ( $\alpha=0.67$ )	–50.96

<sup>a</sup>With accuracy  $\pm 3\%$ 

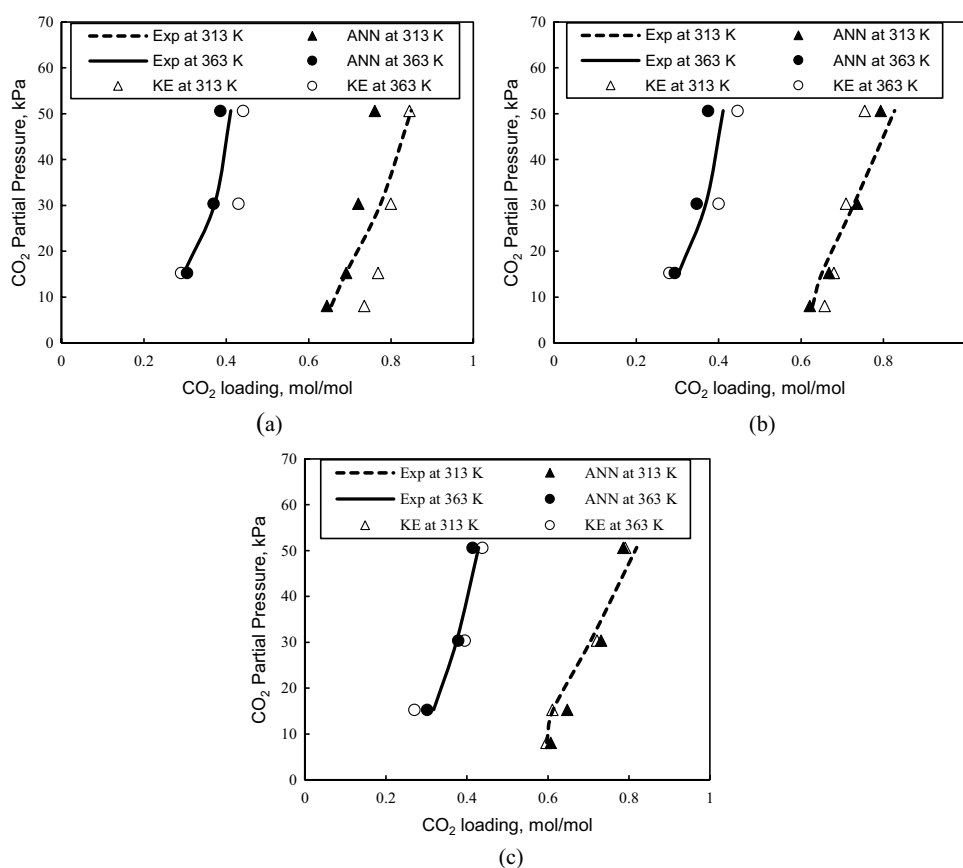
found that  $\Delta H_a$  is strongly affected by CO<sub>2</sub> loading, rate of carbamate formation, rate of bicarbonate formation, and amount of free amine in the solvent. The heat of CO<sub>2</sub> absorption is directly related to desorption heat, which is an important parameter to estimate the energy requirements of the amine desorption process. Combined with the proposed equilibrium solubility data in the previous sections, it could be summarized that the effect of MEA (0.1–0.5 mol/L) on the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility and the heat of

**Table 14** Prediction accuracy of the ANN and KE models

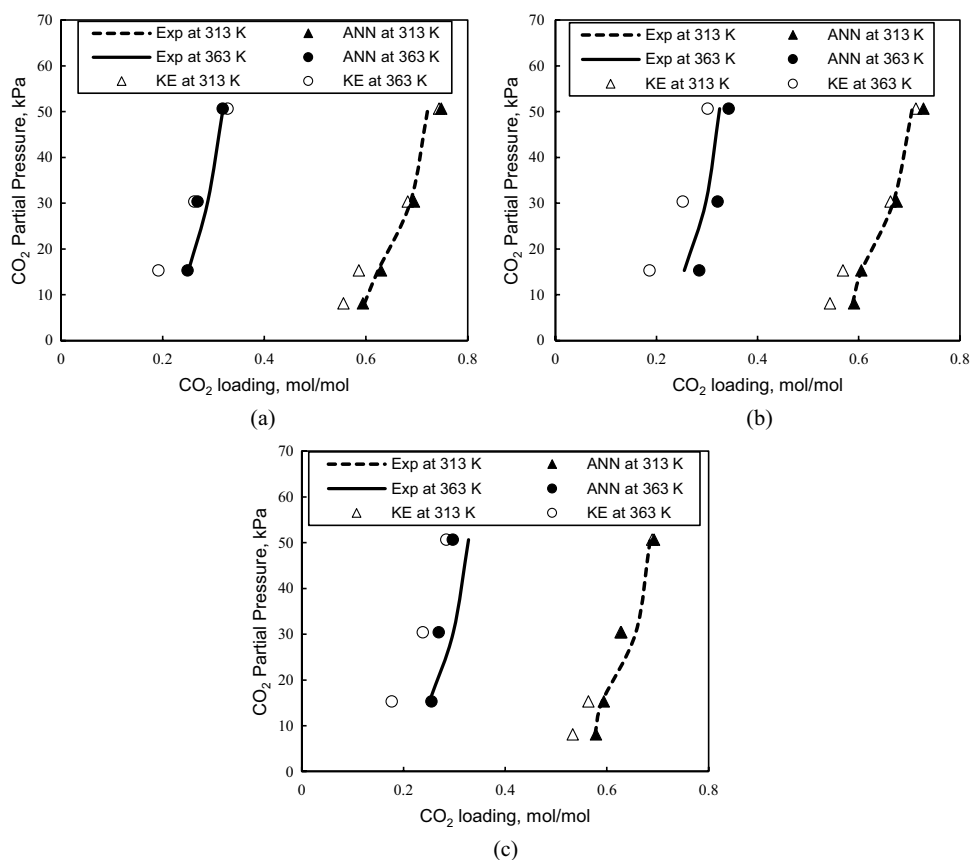
T (K)	Bi-solvent		Tri-solvent	
	KE	ANN	KE	ANN
313	4.67	3.25	3.69	5.94
363	12.24	6.49	12.54	10.45
AVG	8.43	4.87	8.11	8.19

CO<sub>2</sub> absorption in aqueous BEA exhibited the lowest impact, which is beneficial for both absorption and desorption processes.

The possible errors of absorption heat estimation can be analyzed as two perspectives. First, the calculations of the absorption heat were on the basis of CO<sub>2</sub> loading distributed at two temperatures. The uncertainties of the solubility data led to a maximum 3% of possible error. Second, the estimated absorption heat using Gibbs–Helmholtz equation could have a slight difference compared to the experimental result via the calorimeter. Liu et al. (2017a, b) investigated the absorption heat of MEA, DEA, and MDEA by using two methods. Despite that the estimated heats of CO<sub>2</sub> absorption based on the Gibbs–Helmholtz equation were in good agreement with

**Fig. 5** ANN predictions vs experimental results (MEA/AMP). **a** 0.1 mol/L MEA + 2 mol/L AMP. **b** 0.3 mol/L MEA + 2 mol/L AMP. **c** 0.5 mol/L MEA + 2 mol/L AMP

**Fig. 6** ANN predictions vs experimental results (MEA/BEA). **a** 0.1 mol/L MEA + 2 mol/L BEA. **b** 0.3 mol/L MEA + 2 mol/L BEA. **c** 0.5 mol/L MEA + 2 mol/L BEA



the experimental results, the comparisons still showed 3% to 11% of differences. Typically, it is usually difficult to specify the exact deviation of the estimated absorption heat compared to the experimental results. The deviation mostly depends on the operating conditions and the solvent. However, both methods tended to have a consistent trend of the change in terms of  $\text{CO}_2$  absorption heat.

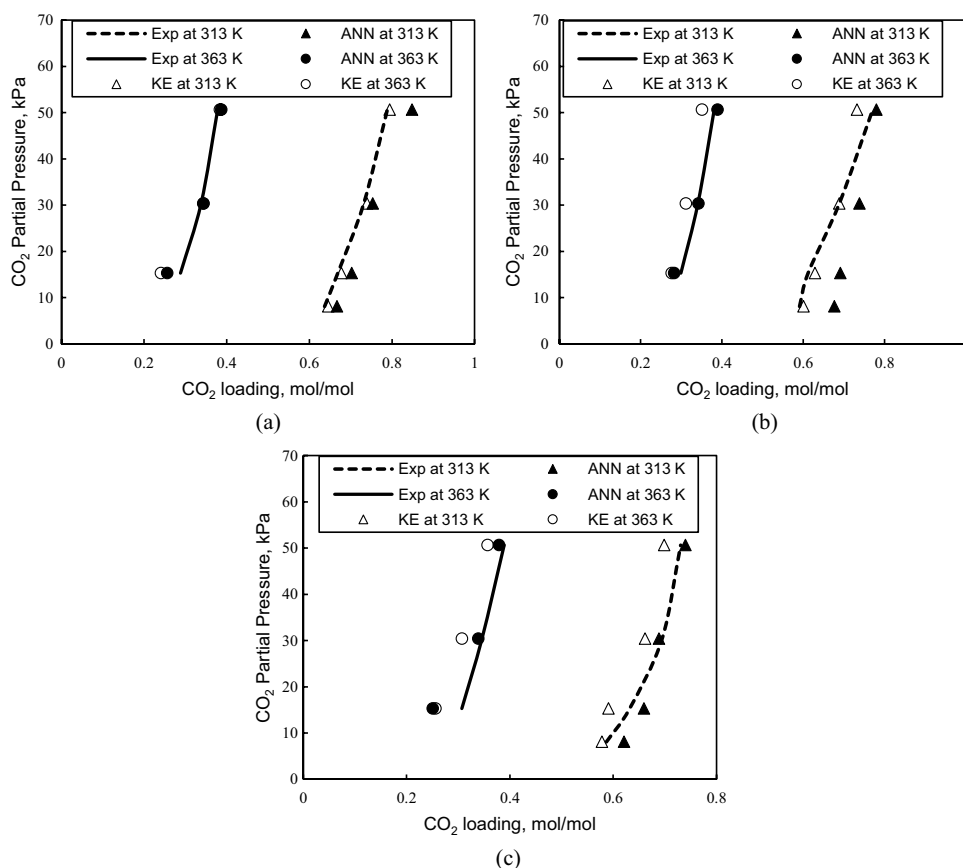
## Modeling approach

### ANN and KE model

The experimental data were then correlated with the predictions using two model approaches. Both two models can predict the solubility of  $\text{CO}_2$  with great agreement with experimental data as shown in Table 14. For the predictions of bi-solvent, the %AAD using ANN (4.87%) is significantly lower than KE modeling (8.43%), while the KE model contributes a slightly lower %AAD (8.11%) than ANN (8.19%) when predicting the solubility of  $\text{CO}_2$  in tri-solvent. The prediction accuracy of two models was both reduced at elevated temperature. Typically, the input variables that have weak predictive power

could negatively affect the accuracy of ANN prediction. The predictive power of the input variable is generally defined by the prediction objectives. To improve the prediction accuracy of ANN for tri-solvent, the most direct strategy is to re-train the model with the experimental data using tri-solvent. Unfortunately, the studies related to BEA are extremely novel, and this work is the first study for the investigations of the solubility in aqueous MEA/AMP/BEA. Therefore, it becomes one major limitation for optimizing the ANN model. However, it should be mentioned that there are two strategies that can be applied to improve the accuracy of the prediction based on a limited data set, including the weighting management and the capacity management of the nonlinear network. There are some other limitations that should be clearly addressed: (i) though the ANN model gives a reasonable solution, it does not provide a detailed reason or procedure to show why and how the results generated. For the new users without any experience on this research area, they may query the results. (ii) There is no uniform rule to determine the most appropriate network structure and appropriate amount of input data. (iii) It is difficult to see the exact reason of error, because all

**Fig. 7** ANN predictions vs experimental results (MEA/AMP/BEA 2.1 ~ 2.5 mol/L). **a** 0.1 mol/L MEA + 1 mol/L AMP + 1 mol/L BEA. **b** 0.3 mol/L MEA + 1 mol/L AMP + 1 mol/L BEA. **c** 0.5 mol/L MEA + 1 mol/L AMP + 1 mol/L BEA



training and testing data should be numerically pretreated first. Thus, all the outputs are generated and translated into numerical values. The above limitations can potentially increase the uncertainties of using ANN. So far, the most simple and effective method to reduce the negative impact is to optimize the network through error analysis.

The comparisons of each solvent are presented graphically in Figs. 5, 6, 7, and 8. The predicted CO<sub>2</sub> solubility shows good agreement with the experimental results. The relatively high deviation regions are observed in Figs. 7 and 8. This demonstrates that the ANN model has greater learning ability to predict the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in bi-solvent than that of tri-solvent because of the reduced complexity. A similar trend was also discussed by Li et al. (2021) showing that they developed two model structures for bi-solvent and tri-solvent, respectively. Their results indicated that it is an efficient strategy to improve the prediction accuracy based on the identical training algorithm due to the greater learning capacity. It is true that the intrinsic mechanisms of tri-solvent blends are normally more complicated than single solvent and bi-solvents. However, it is the major superiority of the ANN model. The model of this work was developed based on the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility data in several single solvents and amine blends. Despite that, the selection of the training data needs to be carefully screened

through detailed error analysis. Once the data sets are well-prepared, the learning ability and the computations of the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility are convenient and fast. In general, though the operating conditions of the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility are varied from different studies, ANN is able to extract the most relevant data with excellent learning flexibility through the given network and it is also a time-saving prediction tool with great efficiency based on the given database. In addition, if the further network needs to predict CO<sub>2</sub> solubility at a wider range of operating conditions, the network then would be relatively more complicated, ANNs can also be properly managed by the settings of its learning algorithm parameters and the weights of the variables. These advantages of ANN help the predictions of CO<sub>2</sub> solubility more closely to the real experimental data.

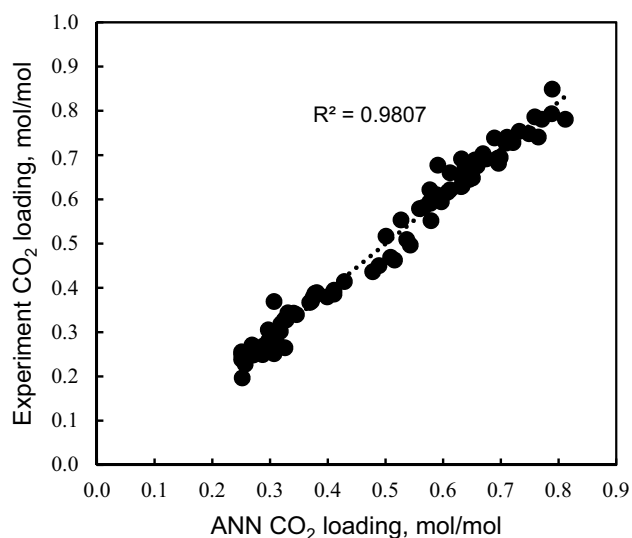
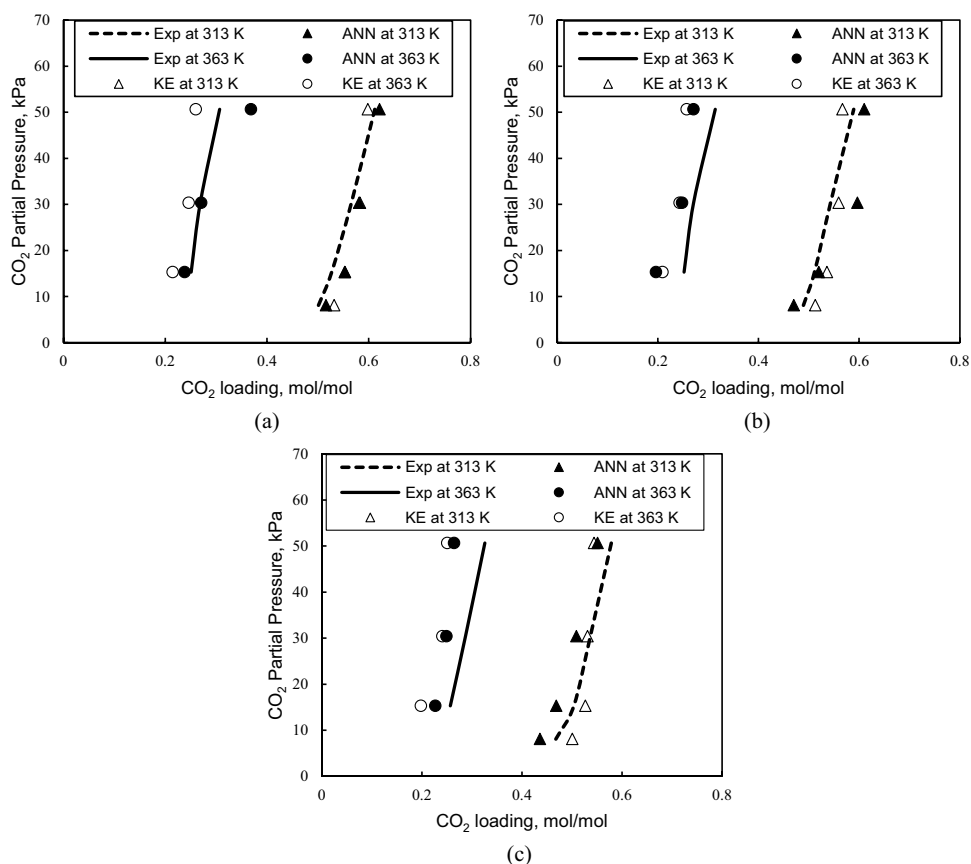
The predicted results and experimental results are displayed in Fig. 9. The correlation coefficient was found as 0.9807, which confirmed that the proposed ANN architecture provided excellent prediction ability and could be used for further predictions.

#### ANN and other thermodynamics models

Vapor–liquid equilibria (VLE) characterizations of alkanomine-CO<sub>2</sub>-water systems are widely studied



**Fig. 8** ANN predictions vs experimental results (MEA/AMP/BEA 4.1~4.5 mol/L). **a** 0.1 mol/L MEA + 2 mol/L AMP + 2 mol/L BEA. **b** 0.3 mol/L MEA + 2 mol/L AMP + 2 mol/L BEA. **c** 0.5 mol/L MEA + 2 mol/L AMP + 2 mol/L BEA



**Fig. 9** The correlation coefficient

through the SAFT. In general, SAFT can be categorized as an association theory related to the perturbation theories by determining the total energy of hydrogen bonding via statistical mechanics (Yazdi et al. 2020). The schematic representation of the SAFT theory was discussed

by Yazdi et al. (2020) that divided into four parts: first, molecules are formed by the addition of equal-sized spherical segments; second, the dispersion force drives the formed molecules that gain specific interaction sites at certain positions; third is the formation of molecule chains; and lastly, hydrogen bonding between the chains is associated with attractive interaction to form a complex structure. Compared to other empirical equations, the existence of a clear molecule drives the SAFT Equation of State (EOS) to be more beneficial for complex fluid modeling (Yazdi et al. 2020).

PC-SAFT EOS was applied to predict the VLE properties of MEA by Baygi and Pahlavanzadeh. (2015). It was expressed in terms of free Helmholtz energy (Gross and Sadowski 2001), which is a combination of contribution in three terms: (1) the hard-chain reference fluid consists of spherical segments Helmholtz energy; (2) the dispersive interactions to the Helmholtz energy; and (3) the short-range association hydrogen bonding interactions among segments in the free Helmholtz energy. SAFT-HR EOS was firstly introduced by Huang and Radosz (1990), who investigated the free Helmholtz energy from the contributions of the hard sphere, dispersion interaction, chain-forming bonds, and association terms. Over the past three decades, Najafloo and

Zarei (2018) were the first group of researchers to use the SAFT-HR EOS for the estimation of VLE properties of the MEA + CO<sub>2</sub> + water system; they eventually reported a comparison between capabilities of SAFT-HR EOS and PC-SAFT EOS in prediction of the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in aqueous MEA solvent. In their study, a set of prediction of equilibrium CO<sub>2</sub> solubility was carried out in a temperature range of 298 to 443 K and a pressure range of 0.0012 to 19,954 kPa. However, due to the limited range of the input data of the present ANN model, the comparison of predictions between ANN and SAFT EOS in this study was implemented at a temperature range from 313 to 393 K as shown in Table 15.

It is well known that the main limitation of using ANN highly relies on the training data. The ANN model would not be able to predict the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility data accurately once the given input data are inefficient. From Table 15, the %AAD of using ANN is greatly lower than the other two models while the estimation range (pressure, temperature, and concentration of amine) of sample data is fully covered in the trained dataset. However, the present ANN model cannot predict the data from Dawodu and Meisen (1994) very well because their experiments were completed at high pressures. Although Najafloo and Zarei (2018) summarized that SAFT-HR EOS is more accurate from a greater comprehensive perspective compared to PC-SAFT EOS, ANN is still more accurate than both two SAFT EOSs when predicting the solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> at low pressures. There are also some significant benefits that appeared during the study. For instance, ANN could directly predict CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in the blended amine system in a short time. However, the main limitation of the present ANN model from this work is its limited prediction range, and it could not accurately predict CO<sub>2</sub> solubility at high pressures. The further research can update the training dataset if the requirement of the model is used to predict the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility at wider range of temperature and pressure.

## Conclusions

The experiments of this work were conducted at temperatures of 313 and 363 K and CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure up to 50.66 kPa. This study aims to investigate the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in several amine blends with specific concentration, including MEA + AMP (0.1, 0.3, 0.5 mol/L + 2 mol/L), MEA + BEA (0.1, 0.3, 0.5 mol/L + 2 mol/L), and MEA + AMP + BEA (0.1, 0.3, 0.5 mol/L + 1, 2 mol/L + 1, 2 mol/L). To sum up everything that has been stated so far, MEA could potentially reduce the absorption capacity at 313 K for the solvents mentioned above, while MEA could also slightly increase the absorption capacity at high temperature conditions (363 K). It was also observed that the effect of adding additional MEA into the aqueous solvent on the CO<sub>2</sub> solubility could depend on several factors, including amine type, total amine concentration, amine concentration ratio, temperature, and CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure. Considering the heat of CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in the tested solvents, the impact of increasing MEA into the aqueous BEA solvent is less significant compared to other solvents, which is potentially more beneficial for amine desorption. The heat of CO<sub>2</sub> solubility can also be affected by several parameters, including CO<sub>2</sub> loading, amine type, and CO<sub>2</sub> solubility. For a comprehensive study, it is essential to have further relevant investigations, such as viscosity, reaction kinetics and solvent stability. For modeling, an ANN model with two hidden layers consisting of 10 and 4 neurons was developed using the LM algorithm and tan-sig nonlinear transmission function. The advantages and limitations of the ANN method were all discussed in the front section by comparing it with the typical thermodynamics model. The predictions from the ANN model were in excellent agreement with the experimental results with a low %AAD of 4.66%.

**Nomenclature**  $P_{\text{CO}_2}$ : CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure, kPa;  $T$ : Operating temperature, K or °C;  $X$ : The overall concentration of the amine in the solvent, wt.%;  $X_{\text{MEA}}$ : Weight fraction of MEA, wt.%;  $X_{\text{AMP}}$ : Weight fraction

**Table 15** Prediction accuracy of ANN and SAFT EOS

Sources	$T$ (K)	$P_{\text{CO}_2}$ (kPa)	MEA weight fraction (wt.%)	Data points	SAFT-HR <sup>a</sup>	PC-SAFT <sup>b</sup>	ANN <sup>*</sup>
Austgen et al. (1991)	313–353	0.093–228	15	8	12.35	11.97	7.97
Jane and Li. (1997)	353	3.57–121.8	15	7	27.33	30.91	9.21
Jones et al. (1951)	313–393	1.4–374	15	50	19.71	26.17	25.74
Dawodu and Meisen (1994)	373	455–3863	25	5	26.80	17.05	50.11
Park et al. (2002)	313	2.59–2189.1	10–15.3	13	37.59	50.65	27.87
Isaacs et al. (1980)	353–373	0.0066–1.75	15	16	27.45	22.66	9.58

<sup>a</sup>Gross et al. (2001)

<sup>b</sup>Yazdi et al. (2020)

<sup>\*</sup>This work

of AMP, wt.%;  $X_{\text{BEA}}$ : Weight fraction of BEA, wt.%;  $MW_a$ : Apparent molecular weight, g/mol; MEA: Monoethanolamine; AMP: 2-Amino-2-methyl-1-propanol; BEA: 2-(Butylamino)ethanol;  $\text{CO}_2$ : Carbon dioxide;  $Y_i$ : The normalized training and testing data sets;  $x_i$ : The training and testing data sets;  $x_{\min}$ : The minimum values of variable;  $x_{\max}$ : The maximum values of variable; %AAD: The absolute average deviation, %;  $R^2$ : The correlation coefficient; MSE: The mean square errors; EXP: Exponential function; A:  $\text{CO}_2$  loading,  $\text{mol}_{\text{CO}_2}/\text{mol}_{\text{amine}}$

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## Declarations

**Ethics approval** Not applicable.

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