



Kinetics of carbon dioxide absorption in aqueous blend of 1-(2-aminoethyl) piperazine using a stirred cell reactor

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Abstract

Carbon capture utilization and storage (CCUS), the technology for decarbonizing carbon dioxide (CO₂) from greenhouse gas emitters such as steel, cement, oil, gas, petrochemicals, chemicals, and fertilizers, has a critical role to play in the world to achieve industrial net zero targets by 2050. CO₂ can be separated from industrial exhaust gases/flue gases using amine-based solvents utilizing the post-combustion CO₂ Capture process. One most crucial solvent characterization for this application is the kinetics of CO₂ absorption. This work identifies aqueous 1-(2-aminoethyl) piperazine (AEPZ) as a potential candidate for CO₂ capture solvent. The kinetics of absorption of CO₂ in aqueous AEPZ is studied using stirred cell reactor. The experiments are performed at temperatures ranging from 303 to 333 K with weight fractions of AEPZ in an aqueous solution ranging from 0.1 to 0.4. One of the critical parameters of the kinetic study is Henry's constant which is determined experimentally using another stirred cell reactor at a similar temperature and pressure range. The experimental data shows that the overall rate constant is $K_{ov} = 2.52987 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol/m}^2\text{s-kPa}$ for 0.1 wt fr. of AEPZ at 313 K with an initial CO₂ partial pressure of 10 kPa. The temperature dependency relation of the second-order reaction rate constant, k_2 , is found to be $6.126 \times 10^{11} \exp(-5102/T)$ using the Arrhenius equation. The activation energy of 0.3 wt fr. AEPZ is found to be 42.42 kJ/mol. In addition, the density and viscosity of the aqueous solvent are determined at a wide range of temperatures. The diffusivity of CO₂ and physical solubility used in the model development has also been determined. The kinetic parameters obtained from this study are helpful in the process design of CO₂ capture in a regenerative process with a blended solvent with AEPZ.

Keywords CO₂ capture; 1-(2-Aminoethyl) piperazine · Kinetic modeling; Stirred cell reactor · Absorption

Introduction

The rise in anthropogenic CO₂ emissions into the atmosphere has been a significant environmental concern. There has been an increase of 41% in CO₂ concentration in the atmosphere (NOAA 2021), which is a substantial cause of global warming. The most recent decade is the warmest in 6500 years (IPCC 2021), caused by anthropogenic CO₂ emission. The power industry had the highest global CO₂ emissions (44.37%) in 2020, followed by the industries (22.4%) and the transportation sector (20.6%) (Tiseo

2022). Capturing CO₂ from industries and power plants has become critical to reducing anthropogenic CO₂ emissions. Post-combustion capture of CO₂ (PCC) using amine solvent is the most popular technology for CO₂ removal (Aboudheir et al. 2003). However, capturing CO₂ using post-combustion technology is generally difficult due to the low partial pressure of CO₂ in the flue gas stream. As a result, the necessary driving force is limited, and more energy is required to compress CO₂ for capture purposes (Dash and Wadibhasme 2017). The competitive amine solvent should have fast reaction kinetics with CO₂, good absorption capacity, and a low degradation rate (Dey et al. 2018). Traditional amines such as monoethanolamine (MEA), diethanolamine (DEA), diisopropanolamine (DIPA), methyldiethanolamine (MDEA), diglycolamine (DGA), etc., have all been utilized in recent years to absorb acid gases like CO₂ and H₂S from the industries (Kierzkowska-Pawlak et al. 2014). MEA is considered a benchmarked solvent for CO₂ removal, and 30 wt% aqueous MEA has been used in industries for many years (Ying and

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Eimer 2013). Although MEA is highly reactive and low in cost, it has issues such as high regeneration cost, low equilibrium solubility, hazardous degradation products, corrosion to the equipment, and solvent losses. Other solvents used in industry, such as tertiary amines like MDEA, have a reasonable absorption rate and higher absorption capacity than MEA or DEA but have lower kinetics (Kierzkowska-Pawlak et al. 2014). Because of the issues with traditional alkanolamine solvents, researchers are focusing on better alternatives. These alternative solvents should have high reactivity, high equilibrium capacity, favorable physicochemical properties, low oxidative and thermal degradation, high corrosion resistance, low regeneration energy requirement, low environmental impact, and low cost. This combination of properties can not be achieved using a single amine; hence, desirable amines may be combined to develop a suitable one. Nowadays, sterically hindered amines, blended amines, non-amine absorbents, and cyclic amines for the chemical absorption of CO₂ are attractive research areas and gaining momentum.

Cyclic amines have gained lots of interest in the chemical absorption of CO₂. Piperazine (PZ), a cyclic di-amine, is the most popular amine and is widely used as an activator along with sterically hindered amine 2-amine-2-methyl-1-propanol (AMP) and MDEA (Dash et al. 2011; Dash et al. 2012; Dash et al. 2014, Dash and Bandyopadhyay 2016). Although PZ and its blend require moderate energy for regeneration, it does not degrade quickly, but it has issues like precipitation and is less soluble in water at low temperatures. Dey et al. (2018) studied CO₂ solubility in a blended solvent of MDEA and AEPZ. The author reported that the blended solvent showed better CO₂ loading capacity than MDEA. Hence, AEPZ can be easily used as a rate promoter in MDEA or other solvents. Dey et al. (2019) reported the solubility of CO₂ in AEPZ + H₂O, including the density and viscosity of aqueous AEPZ solutions at different concentrations and temperatures. Fang et al. (2020) analyzed the viscosities and diffusivities of 0.1 to 1. mass fraction aqueous solutions of AEPZ at temperatures ranging from 303 to 323 K. Although some literature on AEPZ is available in the solubility, density, and viscosity studies, the literature on the kinetic analysis of CO₂ in aqueous AEPZ for CO₂ capture application is minimal.

Paul et al. (2009a) studied the kinetics of the solvent blends of AEPZ + MDEA using a wetted wall column experimental setup. They found that the CO₂ reaction rate with AEPZ increased, with its concentration in the mixture confirming its role as an activator in a mixed solvent. Paul et al. (2009b) conducted the kinetic study of AEPZ using a wetted-wall column and considered AEPZ concentrations ranging from 0.083 to 1.266 kmol/m³. Their study revealed that the second-order reaction rate constant was higher than that of PZ. Investigating the kinetics in alternative experiments is essential to confirm the findings and to better design

the absorber and desorber units in a PCC process. As CO₂ absorption in amine solution is a mix of mass transfer and chemical reaction, it is tough to get precise kinetics data (Lu et al. 2019). The stability of temperature, pressure, and the gas–liquid contact area is essential for obtaining accurate kinetics data.

The kinetic study can be conducted in different types of reactors. So far, the kinetics study of CO₂ absorption in AEPZ has been performed in a wetted wall column (Paul et al. 2009b) but not verified using other reactors. The stirred cell reactor is one such reactor to examine the kinetics as it is simple to build and operate and requires less supporting equipment (Ying and Eimer 2013). The reactor used in our study is a cylindrical reactor with a stirrer, and baffles are present in the reactor to avoid the formation of the vortex. The main advantage of stirred cell reactor is that only the pressure drop of the gas is required to measure, but many modeling equations are needed to determine the rate constant. CO₂ absorption in amine solvent is usually based on surface renewal theory when stirred cell reactor is used, but in some cases, CO₂ absorption experiments were carried out using film theory. Film theory applies when the establishment time for the concentration gradient is very short in relation to the transfer time. The reaction is confined in a very thin film because the CO₂ absorption reaction in amine solvent is very fast, and the establishment time for the gradient to develop is very short (Coulson et al. 1999). In this case, the film and surface renewal theories produce similar results (Danckwerts et al. 1963).

Kinetics studies usually lead to mechanistic conclusions about the mechanism of CO₂ capture by amines. Exhaustive discussion on mechanistic findings about the mechanism of CO₂ capture by amines can be found in the literature (Vaidya and Kenig 2007; Aboudheir et al. 2003; Ying and Eimer 2013; Lu et al. 2019; Kierzkowska-Pawlak et al. 2014). From the literature, it is found that the conclusions of the amine–CO₂ reaction mechanism are almost the same as reported by many authors. Hence, an exhaustive discussion has not been included in this article (Vaidya and Kenig 2007).

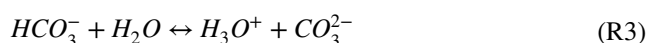
In view of the above discussions, this work focuses on the kinetic study of CO₂ absorption in an aqueous AEPZ solution using a stirred cell reactor. The important physicochemical properties such as density, viscosity, diffusivity, and Henry's constant have been determined in this work. The diffusivity is calculated from the viscosity and N₂O analogy following the method described by Li et al. (2014). These properties are required for analyzing absorption kinetics studies. The kinetic studies and Henry's constant determination have been carried out at the AEPZ concentrations of 0.1 w to 0.4 w at 313 K. The temperature considered for the experiments is 303 to 333 K for 0.3 w AEPZ. The kinetic parameters and the absorption rate of CO₂ in AEPZ have been calculated from the experimental data. The Arrhenius

equation from the second-order reaction rate coefficient has also been developed and reported. These data will help establish kinetic rate equations for the blended solvents ongoing with our research group. Understanding of reaction mechanism is necessary for obtaining the Arrhenius constant (k_2), and observed (k_{obs}), for CO_2 reaction with aqueous AEPZ. The reaction mechanism of AEPZ is complex because of the presence of three amine groups by which many intermediates are formed. Few authors reported the reactions when CO_2 reacts with aqueous AEPZ to the possible formation of mono-, di-, and tri-amine carbamates but considered only mono-carbamate (Dey et al. 2019; Paul et al. 2009b; Choi et al. 2016). The tertiary amine has a too-small protonation constant that its effect on the chemical reaction can easily be neglected if the Brønsted relation is considered (Paul et al. 2009b). Considering both the primary and the secondary amines form carbamates, the kinetic and equilibrium reactions in which CO_2 reacts with aqueous AEPZ are given by reactions R1 to R7.

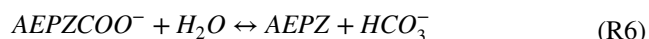
Physical solubility: The CO_2 molecule in the gas phase is to diffuse in the liquid phase following Henry's law of gas solubility as per reaction (R1)



Water disassociation, CO_2 hydration, and bicarbonate ion disassociation: In the aqueous liquid phase, water dissociation occurs according to reaction (R2). Once the CO_2 dissolves in the aqueous liquid phase, it then reacts with water to form carbonates and bicarbonates as per the reactions (R3) and R4



AEPZ protonation carbamate hydrolysis: In the aqueous medium with the presence of CO_2 , AEPZ undergoes protonation and AEPZ carbamate formation, shown in reactions R6 and R7, respectively.



The contribution of equilibrium reaction to the overall rate is negligible, as described by Paul et al. (2009b), and ignored in the prevailing rate. The main species that participates in the overall kinetics is the AEPZ carbamates. The carbamates are formed for both primary and secondary amines as both the amine groups can react to form carbamates. It is tough to find out the contribution of each group

to the overall carbamate formation. The overall reaction rate of aqueous AEPZ with CO_2 can be represented by reaction R7 clubbing all the isomers of AEPZ carbamates into a single carbamate, as proposed by Paul et al. 2009b.



where b is any base and AEPZCOO^- is the carbamate of AEPZ. For the kinetic analysis, it is assumed that the CO_2 -AEPZ reaction has pseudo-first-order kinetics, i.e., first-order with respect to AEPZ and CO_2 . This assumption's underlying conditions and validity are explained later in the "Results and discussion" section, estimation of k_2 . Hence, the rate of reaction of CO_2 with AEPZ is given by Eq. 1 (Paul et al. 2009b).

$$r_{\text{CO}_2-\text{AEPZ}} = k_2[\text{CO}_2][\text{AEPZ}] = k_{obs}[\text{CO}_2] \quad (1)$$

where k_2 is the rate constant of the second-order reaction, and k_{obs} are the pseudo-first-order reaction rate constant. The value of k_2 and k_{obs} has been obtained by systematic experiment and data interpretation which is explained in the material and method section.

Materials and methods

AEPZ (99%) is purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (USA), and CO_2 (99% purity) and N_2O cylinders are procured from Linde (India). 0.1 w, 0.2 w, 0.3 w, and 0.4 w aqueous AEPZ solutions are prepared using AEPZ (99%) and distilled water (Millipore, USA). The solvents are prepared by weight and measured on a precision measuring scale (ME204, Mettler Toledo) of accuracy ± 0.001 .

Measurement of density and modeling

The densities of various AEPZ solvents are measured using an oscillating-tube density meter (Anton Parr, DMA 4500). This density meter has a Peltier temperature controller to measure the density at different temperatures. The instrument is calibrated with air and distilled water following standard procedure. Methanol is injected into the density meter to clean the oscillation tube, and then the air bubbles are removed with the help of the built-in air bubble removal system. The density measurement temperature range and solvent name are set. The solvent is then injected into the density meter's oscillating tube, and its density is measured throughout a defined temperature range.

The density of various concentrations of aqueous AEPZ is modeled using the Redlich–Kister equation. The Redlich–Kister equation is written in terms of excess volume (V^E). The

excess volume can be related to the related to density, as given by Eq. (2) (Li et al. 2014).

$$V^E = \frac{x_A M_A + x_w M_w}{\rho_m} \left(x_A \frac{M_A}{\rho_A} + x_w \frac{M_w}{\rho_w} \right) \quad (2)$$

Here, M_A and M_w are the molecular weights of AEPZ and water, respectively. ρ_m is the density of the mixture; ρ_A and ρ_w are the densities of pure AEPZ and water, respectively.

The Redlich–Kister equation is given by Eq. 3. (Dey et al. 2019)

$$V^E = x_A x_w \sum_{i=0}^N A_i (x_A - x_w)^i \quad (3)$$

where x_A is the mole fraction of AEPZ and x_w is the mole fraction of water. A_i is the pair parameter. It is given by Eq. 4.

$$A_i = a + b(T) + c(T)^2 \quad (4)$$

Measurement of viscosity

The kinematic viscosity is measured using a Canon-Fenske viscometer immersed in a constant temperature viscosity bath. Supplied by Alliance Technologies (India) with standards of ASTM D 455. The kinematic viscosity bath consists of an illumination facility for better visibility, a stirrer for better uniformity of temperature throughout the chamber, and a temperature controller with an accuracy of ± 0.1 K. The viscometer tube is rinsed properly with acetone, dried before each experiment, and placed in the thermostated viscosity bath. The temperature of this bath is controlled using a Multispan temperature controller (UTC 421P). The viscometer is used to determine the viscosity of water to standardize it. The viscometer is filled with 8–10 mL of water and then immersed in the viscosity bath. The temperature of the bath is set to the desired level. When the bath reaches the desired temperature, suction is applied to the viscometer until the water reaches the upper marking of the lower bulb. The water would then flow from the lower bulb's upper marking to the lower bulb's lower marking. A stopwatch with an accuracy of 0.1 s is used to record the time of flow (t_w). The experiment is repeated at the desired temperature range of 298–348 K. The viscosity of water is calculated using Eq. 5

$$\vartheta = \text{viscometer constant} \times t_w \quad (5)$$

where ϑ is the solvent's kinematic viscosity in centistokes (cSt) and t_w is the flow time for the reference water.

Dynamic viscosity (μ) is calculated using Eq. 6.

$$\mu_w = \vartheta \times \rho_w \quad (6)$$

where μ_w is the dynamic viscosity of water in centipoise (cP) and ρ_w is the Density of water.

The Viscosity of the solution is obtained using the correlation given in Eq. 7.

$$\mu_s = \frac{\rho_s \times t_s \times \mu_w}{\rho_w \times t_w} \quad (7)$$

where μ_s is the dynamic viscosity of the solution in centipoise (cP), ρ_s is the density of the solution, and t_s is the flow time of the solution. The experimental viscosity values are correlated using a modified Redlich–Kister equation regarding deviation in kinematic viscosity using Eq. 8 as described by Dey et al. (2019).

$$\delta\vartheta = x_A x_w \sum_{i=0}^N A_i (x_A - x_w)^i \quad (8)$$

In Eq. 8, ϑ represents the kinematic viscosity and A_i is a pair parameter. Equation 9 expresses a correlation of the pair parameter in terms of temperature. The deviation in kinematic viscosity is represented by Eq. 10.

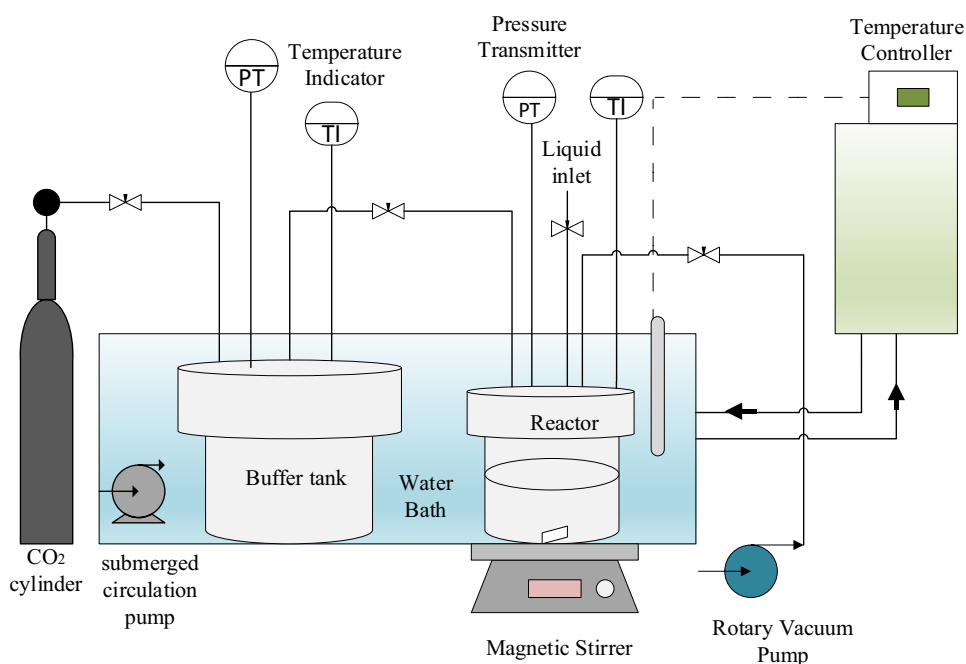
$$A_i = a + \frac{b}{T + c} \quad (9)$$

$$\delta\vartheta = \vartheta_m - (\vartheta_A x_A + \vartheta_w x_w) \quad (10)$$

where ϑ_m is the kinematic viscosity of the mixture, ϑ_1 and ϑ_2 are the kinematic viscosities of pure AEPZ and water, respectively.

Henry's constant measurement

For the measurement of Henry's constant of CO_2 in the solvent, the N_2O analogy method has been adapted as described by Versteeg and van Swaaij (1988). As CO_2 reacts with the solvent, Henry's constant of CO_2 in amine cannot be determined directly. These parameters are determined by using the N_2O analogy, as N_2O does not react with the amine solvent. The apparatus used to measure Henry's constant is similar to that used for kinetics measurement in this work as described in Fig. 1. The only difference is N_2O gas is used instead of CO_2 , which is used in kinetic experiments. The reactor is well connected to the buffer vessel, which stores N_2O , and well equipped with valves to regulate N_2O flow. Before the solubility measurement, the system was placed in the water bath, and the temperature was controlled by the temperature controller (make: Julabo). A vacuum was first applied to the buffer vessel to remove any dissolved gases or air in it. Then, N_2O was filled into the tank. The vacuum was also applied in the reactor vessel to

Fig. 1 Schematic diagram of stirred cell experimental setup

remove air and other gases. Two hundred milliliters of aqueous AEPZ solvent was introduced into the reactor, and the dissolved gases were removed by applying a short vacuum. The vapor pressure of the solvent was noted at a constant temperature which was the initial pressure in the reactor. The connecting valve was opened, and N_2O was allowed to flow to the reactor till the experimental pressure was achieved. The system was left for 3–4 h for equilibrium, and the equilibrium pressure was noted. This experiment was repeated for different pressures, to obtain Henry's constant.

The partial pressure of N_2O is the difference between the initial total pressure and the solvent vapor pressure, and by applying Dalton's law, we get Eq. 11

$$P_{N_2O} = P_{total} - P_{start} \quad (11)$$

Henry's constant is calculated using Henry's law and is given in Eq. 12.

$$H_{N_2O} = \frac{P_{N_2O}}{C_{N_2O}} \quad (12)$$

Here, P_{N_2O} is the partial pressure of N_2O in the gas phase, and C_{N_2O} is the concentration of N_2O in the liquid phase. In this work, C_{N_2O} is calculated by the mass balance of N_2O in the liquid and gas phases by following the standard method proposed by Park and Sandall (2001). Henry's constant of N_2O and CO_2 in water is determined by using Eqs. 13 and 14, respectively, as proposed by Ying and Eimer (2013).

$$H_{N_2O-H_2O} = 8.55 \times 10^6 \times \exp\left(\frac{-2284}{T}\right) \quad (13)$$

$$H_{CO_2-H_2O} = 2.82 \times 10^6 \times \exp\left(\frac{-2044}{T}\right) \quad (14)$$

Henry's constant of CO_2 in AEPZ can be calculated using the N_2O analogy (Versteeg and van Swaaij (1988)). It is given by Eq. 15.

$$H_{CO_2-AEP} = H_{N_2O-AEP} \times \left(\frac{H_{CO_2-H_2O}}{H_{N_2O-H_2O}}\right) \quad (15)$$

Determination of diffusivity

The diffusivity of CO_2 in AEPZ cannot be directly determined as CO_2 reacts with AEPZ. It can be determined from the modified Stokes–Einstein correlation in terms of the viscosity of AEPZ and water and the diffusivity of CO_2 in water. The diffusivity of CO_2 in H_2O can be estimated using Eq. 16 as proposed by Versteeg and van Swaaij (1988).

$$D_{CO_2-H_2O} = 2.35 \times 10^{-6} \times \exp\left(\frac{-2119}{T}\right) \quad (16)$$

The diffusivities of CO_2 in aqueous AEPZ are calculated using a modified Stokes–Einstein correlation. It is given by Eq. 17.

$$D_{CO_2-AEP} \times \mu_{AEP}^{0.8} = D_{CO_2-H_2O} \times \mu_{H_2O}^{0.8} \quad (17)$$

Kinetics measurements

Apparatus and experimental procedure

The experiments for the kinetics of CO₂ absorption in AEPZ solvent are done in stirred cell batch reactors. The experimental setup and the connectivity to various components of the structure are shown in Fig. 1. The reactor and the buffer vessel are made of stainless steel. They are immersed in a water bath to ensure uniform temperature distribution. The water bath is connected to the circulation temperature controller (Pt 100, Julabo, FRG.) with an accuracy of ± 0.1 K, which controls the temperature of the water bath. The reactor has gas and liquid inlet tubes with needle valves (Swagelok) to regulate the flow of the gas and the liquid. A pressure transmitter (0–100 psia, Rosemount 2051 T, Emerson Process Management, USA) of accuracy $\pm 0.065\%$ is mounted on the reactor. It measures the CO₂ pressure in the reactor during the absorption reaction. The reactor is connected to a buffer vessel (volume 1254 ml) which stores CO₂ gas. CO₂ is transferred from the buffer vessel to the reactor whenever required during the experiments. The connecting tube has a needle valve (Swagelok) to regulate and stop the flow of CO₂ from the buffer cell to the reactor cell. The whole reactor system is kept on the magnetic stirrer (5 mlh, Remi Instruments Ltd., India), which stirs at 180–190 rpm. The vacuum pump (Oiled Rotary Vacuum Pump, Parag Engineering, India) provides the vacuum to remove dissolved gases in the reactor.

At the start of the experiment, the circulator temperature controller was set at the desired reaction temperature. The buffer vessel and the reactor cell were allowed to reach the equilibrium temperature. A vacuum was applied to both cells to remove the air inside the cells. The buffer vessel was filled with pure CO₂ with a pressure of up to 6000 kPa. A 50 ml amine solution sample was injected into the cell through the inlet. Dissolved gases in the liquid were removed by applying a short vacuum to the reactor cell. The pressure inside the cell was then measured by the pressure transducer, the solvent vapor pressure, p_v . The initial buffer pressure was noted with a pressure transmitter attached to it. The valves connecting the buffer vessel and the reactor were opened to transfer CO₂ from the buffer vessel to the reactor. The valves were closed after the reactor was filled with CO₂, which is the total pressure P_{total} . The total pressure started decreasing as soon as CO₂ was getting absorbed in the solution. The decrease in pressure was noted down for 2–3 min.

The CO₂ partial pressure (P_{CO_2}) is obtained from the difference between the total pressure and the solvent vapor pressure assuming the applicability of Dalton's law.

$$P_{\text{CO}_2} = P_{\text{total}} - P_v \quad (18)$$

The moles of CO₂ in the gas phase are calculated by Eq. 19, assuming that the ideal gas law is applicable.

$$n_{\text{CO}_2} = \frac{PV}{RT} \quad (19)$$

where R is the gas constant, V is the molar volume of the gas, and T is the temperature of the gas.

The absorption flux is calculated by using Eq. 20 during the time interval t in seconds.

$$\text{Flux} = \frac{n_1 - n_2}{\text{Interfacial Area} \times t} \quad (20)$$

Here, n_1 and n_2 are the initial and final moles of CO₂, respectively, in the reactor between the time interval t .

Estimation of kinetics

The kinetics experiments on CO₂ absorption are conducted in the stirred cell reactor. The kinetics measurement of 10 wt% AEPZ, 20 wt% AEPZ, 30 wt% AEPZ, and 40wt% AEPZ at 40 °C and kinetics measurements of 30 wt% AEPZ at 30 °C, 50 °C, and 60 °C were conducted in stirred cell reactor 1. The dimensions of the stirred cell reactor are shown in Table 1. The stirrer is kept at 180 rpm for enough surface renewal to take place.

Absorption flux of the CO₂ (J_{CO_2}) in the aqueous AEPZ solvent is given by (flux = coefficient \times driving force) and presented in Eq. 21.

$$J_{\text{CO}_2} = K_{ov} p_{\text{CO}_2} \quad (21)$$

where K_{ov} is the overall mass transfer coefficient in mol/m²·s·kPa and p_{CO_2} is the partial pressure of CO₂ in kPa. Flux is plotted against the partial pressure of CO₂. K_{ov} is the slope obtained from the plot. The flux calculation is presented in Table S7. The plot between the partial pressure of CO₂ and flux is presented in Fig. S1.

Estimation of k_L

The liquid phase mass transfer coefficient (k_L) is determined experimentally. k_L depends on the immersion of the stirrer into the liquid in stirred cell reactor. It can be estimated by using Eq. 22 as suggested by Bhosale & Mahajani (2013).

$$\ln \left[\frac{P_t - P_{\text{final}}}{P_{\text{initial}} - P_{\text{final}}} \right] = - \frac{mV_L + V_G}{V_L V_G} k_L A t \quad (22)$$

where P_t is the pressure at a particular time, P_{initial} is the initial pressure, P_{final} is the pressure at the end of the experiment, m is the dimensionless solubility, V_L is the volume of the liquid, V_G is the volume of gas, A is the interfacial area,

and t is the contact time. The dimensionless solubility is represented by Eq. 23.

$$m = \left(\frac{P_{\text{initial}} - P_{\text{final}}}{P_{\text{final}} - P_{\text{vap}}} \right) \frac{V_G}{V_L} \quad (23)$$

The stirred cell reactor dimensions are presented in Table 8. To find the value of k_L , $\ln \left[\frac{P_i - P_{\text{final}}}{P_{\text{initial}} - P_{\text{final}}} \right]$ is plotted against t . The plot is given in Fig. S2. The obtained value of k_L is 1.36×10^5 m/s.; calculated from the slope of the graphs and the correlations described.

Estimation of k_2

The observed kinetic constant of CO_2 in aq. AEPZ can be given as (Monteiro et al. 2015).

$$k_{\text{obs}} = \frac{H_{\text{CO}_2\text{AEP}}^2}{D_{\text{CO}_2}} \left(\frac{1}{K_{\text{ov}}} - \frac{1}{k_G} \right)^{-2} \quad (24)$$

where k_G represents the gas-phase mass transfer coefficient. In this experiment, k_G has been neglected because the experiment has been conducted under vacuum conditions, and pure CO_2 has been used. The gas-phase resistance under this condition is negligible. Incorporating this assumption in Eq. 24, we get Eq. 25 for the observed kinetics.

$$k_{\text{obs}} = H_{\text{CO}_2\text{AEP}}^2 \frac{K_{\text{ov}}^2}{D_{\text{CO}_2}} \quad (25)$$

The overall rate of reaction of CO_2 in aq. AEPZ is given by

$$-r_{\text{CO}_2} = k_{\text{obs}} [\text{CO}_2] \quad (26)$$

where $-r_{\text{CO}_2}$ is reaction rate of CO_2 , $\text{m}^3/\text{mol}\cdot\text{s}$ and $[\text{CO}_2]$ is the concentration of CO_2 in the liquid phase.

The reaction between CO_2 and amine is normally of second order and can be presented by Eq. 27.

$$-r_{\text{CO}_2} = k_2 [\text{CO}_2] [\text{AEPZ}] \quad (27)$$

Here, k_2 is the second-order reaction rate constant, $\text{L}/\text{mol}\cdot\text{s}$ and $[\text{AEPZ}]$ is the AEPZ concentration, mol/L .

Rearranging the Eqs. 25 and 26, we get Eq. 28.

$$k_{\text{obs}} = k_2 [\text{AEPZ}] \quad (28)$$

For the fast pseudo-first-order reaction regime, the conditions of absorption of CO_2 in AEPZ are given by Eq. 19 (Ying and Eimer 2013):

$$3 < Ha^E E_i \quad (29)$$

Ha represents the Hatta number, and E_i represents the instantaneous enhancement factor. Pseudo-first order assumption for the fast reaction is feasible only if the kinetic experiments are conducted at very low pressure. The Hatta number of the gas–liquid reaction is calculated using Eq. 30, as suggested by Ying and Eimer (2013).

$$Ha = \frac{\sqrt{\left(\frac{2}{m+1} \right) k_{m,n} C_A^{m-1} C_l^n D_A}}{k_L} \quad (30)$$

Here, $k_{m,n}$ is reaction constant of $(m,n)^{\text{th}}$ order, C_A is the concentration of gas, C_l is the concentration of liquid, and k_L is the mass transfer coefficient in the liquid phase. Ha , for the reaction of CO_2 with AEPZ is

$$Ha = \frac{\sqrt{k_2 [\text{AEPZ}] D_{\text{CO}_2}}}{k_L} \quad (31)$$

The instantaneous enhancement factor for CO_2 reaction with aq. AEPZ is given by

$$E_i = 1 + \frac{[\text{AEPZ}]}{z \times [\text{CO}_2]} \frac{D_{\text{AEP}}}{D_{\text{CO}_2}} \quad (32)$$

where z is the stoichiometric coefficient of AEPZ solvent. Equation 32 is only applicable to film theory. If the condition given in Eq. 29 is met, then we have

$$E = Ha \quad (33)$$

E represents the enhancement factor. The specific rate of absorption of CO_2 in AEPZ is calculated using Eq. 33, as suggested by Paul et al. (2009a, b).

$$N_{\text{CO}_2} = \frac{H_{\text{CO}_2}}{p_{\text{CO}_2}} \sqrt{k_2 [\text{AEPZ}] D_{\text{CO}_2}} \quad (34)$$

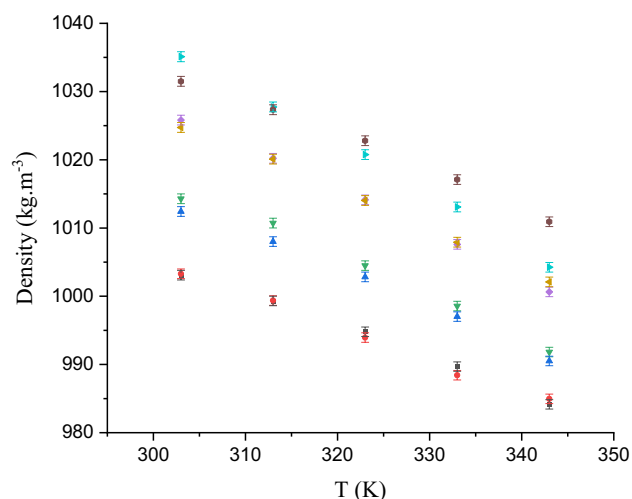
Results and discussion

Density determination

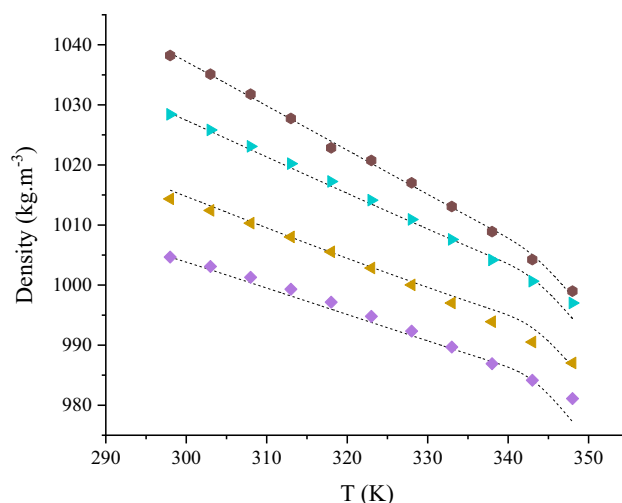
The experimental data for the measurement of density is given in Table 2. The experimental error calculated using error propagation theory (Dey et al. 2018) is reported in the result table. The experimental density data are compared to the literature data (Dey et al. 2019). The comparison is presented in Fig. 2. It is found from Fig. 2 that there is a marginal difference between the results. The linear regression was carried out to fit the experimental data into Eqs. 3 and 4 using Origin software (Verson-2021). The obtained parameters and the formula for calculating % AAD are given in the supplementary material in Table S1. The

Table 1 Stirred cell reactor dimensions

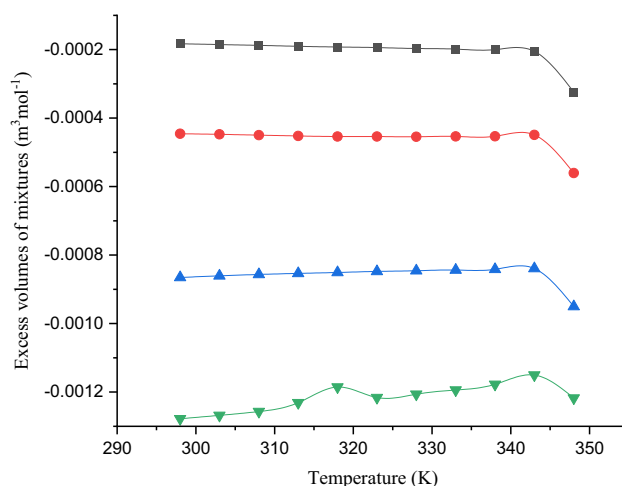
| Parameter | Symbol | Value | Unit |
|---------------------|----------------|------------------------|----------------|
| Volume of reactor | V | 0.521×10^{-3} | m ³ |
| Liquid phase volume | V _L | 0.05×10^{-3} | m ³ |
| Stirrer revolutions | rps | 3 | rps |

**Fig. 2** Density of aqueous AEPZ at various temperature and composition (mass fraction): ●, (0.1 w AEPZ Dey et al., 2019); ▲, (0.2 w AEPZ, this work); ▼, (0.2 w AEPZ, Dey et al., 2019); ◆, (0.3 w AEPZ, this work); ◀, (0.3 w AEPZ, Dey et al., 2019); ▶, (0.4 w AEPZ, this work); ●, (0.4 w AEPZ, Dey et al., 2019)

densities predicted by the model do not vary much from the experimental densities, which means that they are in good agreement with each other. The comparison between the model-predicted and experimental data is presented in Fig. 3. The data for the model-predicted densities are given in Table S2. The % AAD for the density of aqueous AEPZ solutions is found to be 0.0796. This result shows that the densities calculated using the equations and the experimental densities are in good agreement with each other. The Redlich–Kister equation can accurately predict the density of the binary solutions. The excess molar volumes of aqueous AEPZ solutions are shown in Fig. 4. From Fig. 4, it can be observed that the excess volumes of AEPZ + H₂O are negative. The excess volumes become more negative as concentration increases. It can be because of the strengthening of dipole–dipole interactions with an increase in the concentration of AEPZ in H₂O. The hydrogen bonding increased as the concentration of AEPZ in water increased. Because of the strong dipole–dipole interaction, volume contraction occurs, resulting in negative values for excess volumes. The negative values of V^E indicate a good structural packing effect, as Das et al. (2017) described. The data

**Fig. 3** Comparison of model predicted density of aqueous AEPZ with experimental results at various temperature and composition (mass fraction): ◆, 0.1w AEPZ; ▲, 0.2w AEPZ; ▶, 0.3w AEPZ; ●, 0.4w AEPZ; dashed lines -- model predicted Density

for excess volume properties of aqueous AEPZ is presented

**Fig. 4** Model predicted Excess Volume of Mixtures (AEPZ + H₂O): ■, (0.1w AEPZ); ●, (0.2w AEPZ); ▲, (0.3w AEPZ); ▼, (0.4w AEPZ)

in Table S3 of the supplementary material.

Viscosity determination

The viscosities of the aqueous AEPZ solutions were measured using a Cannon–Fenske viscometer. The experimental data for the viscosity measurement is presented in Table 3. The observed values are compared to those given by Fang et al. (2020) in Fig. 5.

Table 2 Densities of aqueous AEPZ

| Density, kg m ⁻³ | | | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------|---------|---------|---------|
| T/K | wt fraction AEPZ | | | |
| | 0.1 w | 0.2 w | 0.3 w | 0.4 w |
| 298 | 1004.66 | 1014.35 | 1028.41 | 1038.23 |
| 303 | 1003.09 | 1012.42 | 1025.82 | 1035.11 |
| 308 | 1001.29 | 1010.30 | 1023.08 | 1031.78 |
| 313 | 999.31 | 1008.01 | 1020.22 | 1027.74 |
| 318 | 997.15 | 1005.54 | 1017.24 | 1022.84 |
| 323 | 994.8 | 1002.83 | 1014.13 | 1020.75 |
| 328 | 992.33 | 1000.02 | 1010.92 | 1017.01 |
| 333 | 989.69 | 997.01 | 1007.60 | 1013.08 |
| 338 | 986.91 | 993.90 | 1004.18 | 1008.90 |
| 343 | 984.15 | 990.51 | 1000.63 | 1004.24 |
| 348 | 981.10 | 987.02 | 997.02 | 998.99 |

The standard uncertainties (u) associated with the measured quantity are $u(T)=0.1$ K, $u(y)=0.001$, $u(\rho)=0.796$ kg m⁻³, solvent = water

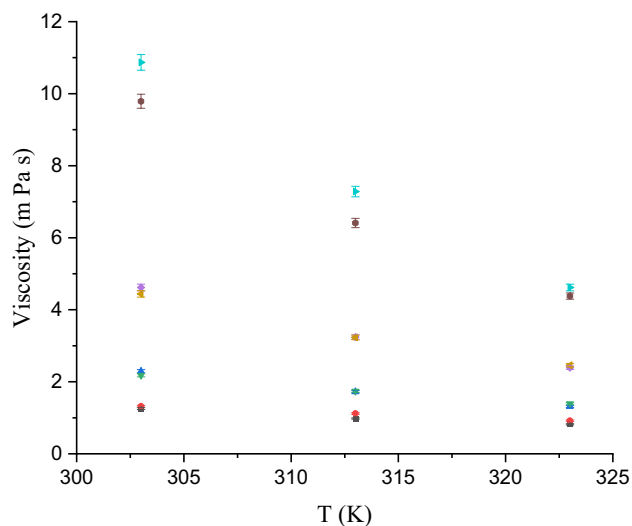


Fig. 5 Viscosity of aqueous AEPZ at various temperature and composition (mass fraction): ■, (0.1w AEPZ, this work); ●, (0.1w AEPZ, Fang et al., 2020); ▲, (0.2w AEPZ, this work); ▼, (0.2w AEPZ, Fang et al., 2020); ◆, (0.3w AEPZ, this work); ◆, (0.3w AEPZ, Fang et al., 2020); ►, (0.4w AEPZ, this work); ►, (0.4w AEPZ, Fang et al., 2020)

The parameters are determined by conducting linear regression of the experimental data using Origin software (Verson-2021) and presented in Table S4 in the supplementary material. Figure 6 shows the comparison between the model-predicted data and the experimental data. From Fig. 6, it can be observed that the Redlich–Kister equation is reasonably accurate for predicting the solvent's viscosity. The obtained % AAD between the predicted and the experimental data is 2.02. The model-predicted viscosity

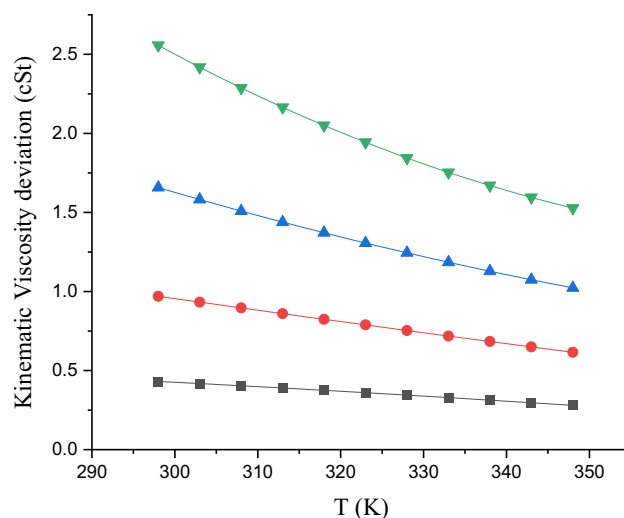


Fig. 6 Kinematic viscosity deviation of aqueous AEPZ at various temperature and composition (mass fraction): ■, (0.1w AEPZ); ●, (0.2w AEPZ); ▲, (0.3w AEPZ); ▼, (0.4w AEPZ)

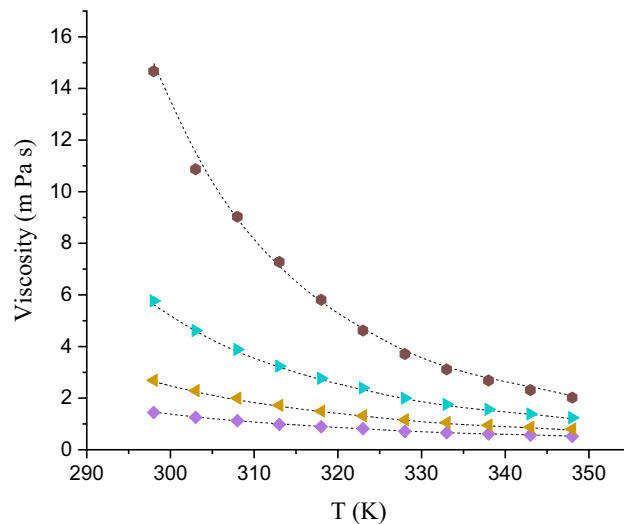


Fig. 7 Comparison of model predicted density of aqueous AEPZ with experimental results at various temperature and composition (mass fraction): ◆, (0.1w AEPZ); ◀, (0.2w AEPZ); ▶, (0.3w AEPZ); ●, (0.4w AEPZ); Dashed lines -- model predicted Viscosity

data is given in Table S5. The viscosity deviation data is presented in Fig. 7. The viscosity deviation is positive for all the concentrations of AEPZ. It means that the interactions between AEPZ and water are strong at all concentrations (Vogel and Weiss 1982). The deviations increased with increasing concentrations which indicated that the dipole interactions became stronger with increasing concentrations. The deviations decreased with increasing temperatures indicating that the dipole interactions weakened with increasing temperatures. The data for viscosity deviation is given in Table S6.

From the viscosity data, it is possible to estimate the enthalpy (ΔH), entropy (ΔS), and Gibbs free energy (ΔG) of AEPZ + H₂O using the thermodynamic relation, as suggested by (Águila-Hernández et al. 2008; Das et al. 2017). This relation is represented in Eq. 35.

$$\mu = \left(\frac{hN_A}{V_M} \right) \exp\left(\frac{-\Delta S}{R}\right) \exp\left(\frac{\Delta H}{RT}\right) \quad (35)$$

Here, h is Planck's constant, N_A is Avogadro's number, V_M is molar volume, and R is the gas constant. Equation 35 can be rearranged to obtain Eq. 36 (Das et al. 2017)

$$R \ln\left(\frac{\mu V_M}{hN_A}\right) = \frac{\Delta H}{T} - \Delta S \quad (36)$$

Equation 36 is the linear form of Eq. 35. $R \ln\left(\frac{\mu V_M}{hN_A}\right)$ is plotted against $\frac{1}{T}$ to find enthalpy and entropy. ΔH is the slope, while ΔS is the intercept of the plot. From these values, ΔG can be estimated. It is given by Eq. 37.

$$\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S \quad (37)$$

Table 4 represents the enthalpy and entropy of aqueous AEPZ at different concentrations. The table shows that as the concentration of AEPZ increased, the enthalpy also increased, but the entropy decreased. All the values of enthalpy are positive, indicating that the interactions within the molecules are strong. Table 5 represents the Gibbs free energy of aqueous AEPZ at different temperatures and concentrations. At lower concentrations of AEPZ, the values of Gibbs free energy are negative. This implies that entropy contributes more to the change in Gibbs free energy at lower concentrations. While for 0.4 w AEPZ, the values of Gibbs free energy are positive. At

Table 4 Enthalpy and entropy of aqueous AEPZ

| Weight fraction of AEPZs | ΔH (J/mol) | ΔS (J/mol) |
|--------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| 0.1 | 17,067.03465 | 96.06221 |
| 0.2 | 20,608.72912 | 91.93642 |
| 0.3 | 25,890.82244 | 82.34042 |
| 0.4 | 33,817.546 | 65.05341 |

this concentration, enthalpy has more contribution than entropy. For 0.3 w AEPZ, the values of Gibbs free energy at lower temperatures are positive, while those of Gibbs free energy are negative at higher temperatures. The contribution of entropy increases with an increase in temperature. These data are important for the molecular modeling of CO₂-AEPZ + H₂O interaction.

Henry's constant and diffusivity

Table 6 shows the diffusivity of CO₂ in AEPZ + H₂O at various concentrations. It is observed from Table 6 that the diffusivity decreased with increasing concentrations of AEPZ in H₂O. It implies that higher the viscosity, the lower the diffusivity. Lower diffusivity may lower the absorption of CO₂ in the viscous solvents (Fang et al. 2020). Again, diffusivity increased with increasing the temperatures.

Table 7 represents Henry's constants of N₂O and CO₂ at different concentrations of aqueous AEPZ at 313 K. It can be observed from Table 7 that Henry's constant increased with an increase in concentrations. Table 8 represents Henry's constant of 0.3 w AEPZ at different temperatures. The physicochemical properties like density, viscosity, diffusivity,

Table 3 Viscosities of aqueous AEPZ

| Viscosity, mPa s | | | | |
|------------------|------------------|---------|---------|----------|
| T/K | wt fraction AEPZ | | | |
| | 0.1 w | 0.2 w | 0.3 w | 0.4 w |
| 298 | 1.44478 | 2.68951 | 5.76939 | 14.66618 |
| 303 | 1.2547 | 2.29007 | 4.61772 | 10.86967 |
| 308 | 1.12495 | 1.99773 | 3.88507 | 9.03407 |
| 313 | 0.98051 | 1.7214 | 3.23997 | 7.28213 |
| 318 | 0.88877 | 1.49877 | 2.76574 | 5.81478 |
| 323 | 0.81962 | 1.31446 | 2.39269 | 4.61785 |
| 328 | 0.71352 | 1.16097 | 1.99895 | 3.70969 |
| 333 | 0.65974 | 1.05293 | 1.75843 | 3.11107 |
| 338 | 0.61353 | 0.95287 | 1.56443 | 2.68263 |
| 343 | 0.56759 | 0.87543 | 1.38652 | 2.31671 |
| 348 | 0.52174 | 0.79842 | 1.23963 | 2.02026 |

The standard uncertainties (u) associated with the measured quantity are $u(T) = 0.1$ K, $u(y) = 0.001$, $u(\mu) = 0.202$ mPa s, solvent = water

Table 5 Gibbs free energy of aqueous AEPZ

| Gibbs free energy (J/mol) | | | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------|------------|----------|-----------|
| T, K | wt fraction of AEPZ | | | |
| | 0.1 w | 0.2 w | 0.3 w | 0.4 w |
| 298 | −11,573.91 | −6802.11 | 1341.02 | 14,421.87 |
| 303 | −12,054.22 | −7261.80 | 929.32 | 14,096.60 |
| 308 | −12,534.53 | −7721.48 | 517.62 | 13,771.34 |
| 313 | −13,014.84 | −8181.16 | 105.92 | 13,446.07 |
| 318 | −13,495.16 | −8640.84 | −305.78 | 13,120.80 |
| 323 | −13,975.47 | −9100.52 | −717.48 | 12,795.54 |
| 328 | −14,455.78 | −9560.21 | −1129.19 | 12,470.27 |
| 333 | −14,936.09 | −10,019.89 | −1540.89 | 12,145.00 |
| 338 | −15,416.40 | −10,479.57 | −1952.59 | 11,819.74 |
| 343 | −15,896.71 | −10,939.25 | −2364.29 | 11,494.47 |
| 348 | −16,377.02 | −11,398.94 | −2775.99 | 11,169.20 |

Table 6 Diffusivities of aqueous AEPZ

| T (K) | wt fraction AEPZ | | | |
|-------|------------------|---------|----------|----------|
| | 0.1 w | 0.2 w | 0.3 w | 0.4 w |
| 298 | 1.39205 | 0.84676 | 0.438415 | 0.217994 |
| 303 | 1.57429 | 0.97283 | 0.525249 | 0.279862 |
| 308 | 1.78447 | 1.12716 | 0.629486 | 0.33706 |
| 313 | 2.04555 | 1.30397 | 0.752333 | 0.411307 |
| 318 | 2.2865 | 1.50527 | 0.885171 | 0.508833 |
| 323 | 2.52024 | 1.72716 | 1.03555 | 0.63209 |
| 328 | 2.8807 | 1.95149 | 1.22649 | 0.770467 |
| 333 | 3.21947 | 2.21494 | 1.42565 | 0.931009 |
| 338 | 3.51538 | 2.47181 | 1.62509 | 1.07992 |
| 343 | 3.93048 | 2.77904 | 1.87518 | 1.27578 |
| 348 | 4.37334 | 3.11165 | 2.49375 | 1.48064 |

Table 7 Henry's constant of N₂O and CO₂ in aqueous AEPZ at 313 K

| (wt. fraction of AEPZ) | Henry's constant of N ₂ O in AEPZ + H ₂ O (kPa-l/mol) | Henry's constant of CO ₂ in AEPZ + H ₂ O (kPa-l/mol) |
|------------------------|---|--|
| 0.1 | 6395.84 | 4585.648367 |
| 0.2 | 6880.509 | 4926.328298 |
| 0.3 | 7336.042 | 5259.74837 |
| 0.4 | 7756.482 | 5561.192746 |

Table 8 Henry's constant of N₂O and CO₂ in aqueous AEPZ for 0.3 w AEPZ

| Temperature (K) | Henry's constant of N ₂ O in AEPZ + H ₂ O (kPa-l/mol) | Henry's constant of CO ₂ in AEPZ + H ₂ O (kPa-l/mol) |
|-----------------|---|--|
| 303.15 | 5887.172 | 4297.214996 |
| 313.15 | 7336.042 | 5259.74837 |
| 323.15 | 9056.412 | 6385.037722 |
| 333.15 | 11,263.904 | 7941.384727 |

Table 9 Kinetic parameter for aq. AEPZ solutions at 313 K

| Conc (wt fraction) | K _{ov} (mol/m ² s-kPa) | k _{obs} (/s) | k ₂ (L/mol-s) | N _{CO2} × 10 ² (mol/m ² s) | k _L × 10 ⁵ (m/s) | Ha = E | E _i |
|--------------------|--|-----------------------|--------------------------|---|--|---------|----------------|
| 0.1 | 0.000252 | 682.327 | 887.175 | 0.192 | 1.36 | 85.136 | 140.410 |
| 0.2 | 0.00168 | 54,903.218 | 37,712.86 | 1.28 | 7.32 | 117 | 313.808 |
| 0.3 | 0.00186 | 127,239.66 | 53,712.55 | 1.634 | 8.59 | 121.632 | 426.544 |
| 0.4 | 0.00208 | 325,309.3 | 102,234.2 | 1.69 | 10.5 | 110 | 656.288 |

and Henry's constant are essential for analyzing absorption kinetics and are used in this work. The absorption kinetics of CO₂ in amine solvents depends on these properties. Density and viscosity help determine the liquid-film thickness, while diffusivity and Henry's constant are used in calculating the rate of absorption of CO₂ into amine solvent (Paul et al. 2009a, b) (Table 8).

Determination of k_L and k₂

Table 9 shows the experimental kinetic data for the AEPZ + H₂O system at 313 K including the values of k_L and k₂. Table 10 shows the experimental kinetic data for the AEPZ + H₂O system with AEPZ concentration of 0.3 w. Tables 9 and 10 show that the reaction rate constant has increased with the increase in temperature and concentration. The rate of absorption has also increased. The values of Ha are greater than 3 and lesser than E_i in all the cases, proving the pseudo-first-order system's validity. The condition given in Eq. 29 is fulfilled. Temperature dependency of the second-order rate constant mass transfer coefficient has been determined using the Arrhenius equation. The regression of temperature vs. k₂ data is conducted to determine the Arrhenius constant and activation energy. Arrhenius equation is represented in Eq. 38.

$$k_2 = k_0 \exp\left(\frac{-E_A}{RT}\right) \quad (38)$$

where k₀ is Arrhenius constant, E_A is the activation energy, and R is the gas constant. After regression of data using Origin software (V-2021) for 30 wt% AEPZ, the following Arrhenius equation is obtained and presented in Eq. 39.

$$k_2 = 6.126 \times 10^{11} \exp\left(\frac{-5101.98}{T}\right) \quad (39)$$

The activation energy for the reaction is 42.42 kJ/mol. The activation energy is very high, which indicates that the reaction between aqueous AEPZ and CO₂ is fast. Figure 8 shows the Arrhenius plot for 0.3 w AEPZ at different temperatures. The results obtained in this work are compared with those reported by Paul et al. (2009b) and presented in Fig. 9. It is evident from Fig. 9 that at a low temperature of around 303 K, the values are in good agreement with those reported by Paul et al. (2009b), but at the higher temperature of 353 K, the values are lower than that obtained by them. This minor

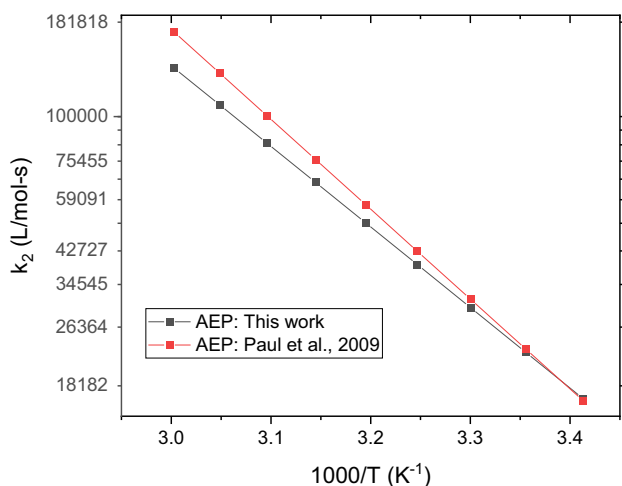
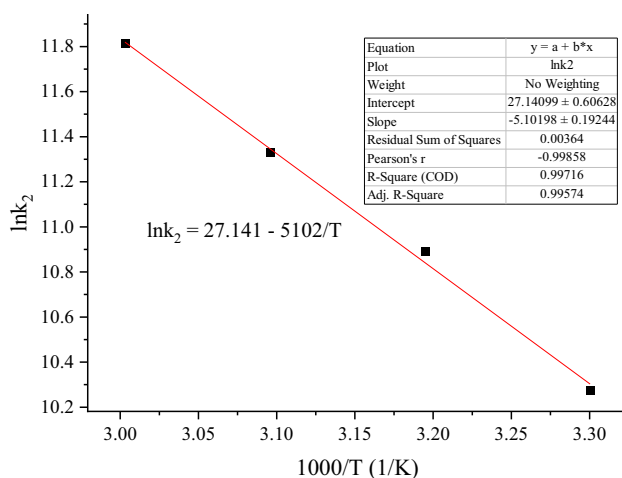
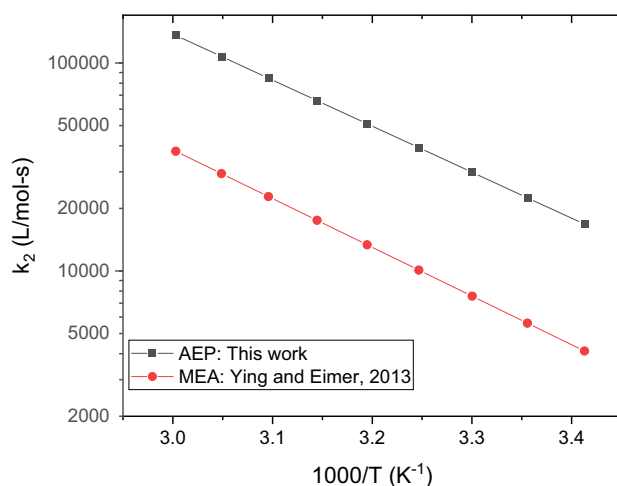
Table 10 Kinetic parameters for 0.3 w AEPZ solutions

| Temp (K) | K_{ov} (mol/m ² s-kPa) | k_{obs} (/s) | k_2 (L/mol-s) | $N_{CO_2} \times 10^2$ (mol/m ² s) | $k_L \times 10^5$ (m/s) | Ha = E | E_i |
|----------|-------------------------------------|----------------|-----------------|--|-------------------------|--------|--------|
| 303.15 | 0.00141 | 69,086.56 | 29,004.39 | 1.178 | 2.63 | 230 | 368.46 |
| 313.15 | 0.00186 | 127,239.66 | 53,712.55 | 1.282 | 8.59 | 121.63 | 426.54 |
| 323.15 | 0.00222 | 195,930.04 | 83,204.58 | 2.879 | 11.3 | 125 | 348.80 |
| 333.15 | 0.00263 | 315,841.9 | 134,996.60 | 2.957 | 35.5 | 28.6 | 496.66 |

discrepancy may be due to unpredictable physical properties like solubility and diffusivity; uncertainty in the determination of exact gas–liquid contact area; possible turbulence at the interface, as highlighted by Aboudheir et al. (2003). The experimental results show that AEPZ has excellent potential to be used as a promoter. It can be blended with conventional amines. It has a high CO₂ absorption rate. The values of k_2 for aqueous AEPZ solutions obtained in this work are compared with the results of aqueous MEA reported by Ying

and Eimer (2013) at similar concentrations. The comparison is presented in Fig. 10. It is evident from Fig. 10 that AEPZ has a higher rate than MEA and hence is suitable for rate promoter in a solvent blend for CO₂ capture. However, more studies need to be done on oxidative degradation, foaming potential, and environmental impacts for making AEPZ suitable for replacing conventional solvents.

One of the environmental impacts comes if the flue gas contains NO_x. Nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) can react with aqueous AEPZ in the absorber of the amine scrubbing system and may form n-nitrosoAEPZ, like other amines reported by Fine et al. (2013) and Du et al. (2013). Although nitrosamines are ubiquitous in our environment, many nitroso compounds are carcinogenic in animals and humans. Hence their emission into the atmosphere is a concern. Fortunately, the trace amount of n-nitrosoAEPZ produced in the absorber can decompose thermally at the regenerator of the scrubbing system as it operates at a higher temperature of about 120 °C, releasing the absorbed NO₂, hence maintaining the balance. These all happen if the amine scrubber treats flue gas without NO_x removal. Du et al. (2013) reported that a 5 m PZ/2 m AEPZ blended solvent has a milder nitrosamine formation than piperazine-based solvents. Hence, the addition of AEPZ has decreased nitrosamine formation. This indicates that AEPZ is less prone to forming environmentally hazardous nitrosamine. Again,

**Fig. 9** Comparison of the k_2 with literature-reported data**Fig. 8** Arrhenius plot for 0.3 w AEPZ at different temperatures: ■, lnk₂; —, Linear fit₂**Fig. 10** Comparison of the 2nd-order rate constant, k_2 of AEPZ with MEA

AEPZ has the advantage of higher solubility, lower solvent loss to the environment, and lower nitrosamine formation rate, making this solvent a softer environmental concern.

Conclusion

This work uses a stirred cell reactor to investigate the essential physicochemical properties and CO₂ absorption kinetics of aqueous AEPZ solutions. The studies on density, viscosity, and diffusivity of various weight fractions of aqueous AEPZ are presented at temperatures ranging from 298.15 to 348.15 K at atmospheric pressure. The models based on Redlich–Kister equations are developed from the experimental data, and it is found that the model-predicted data and the experimental data are very close to each other. Henry's constant of N₂O in aqueous AEPZ and kinetic studies of CO₂ in aqueous AEPZ are performed using stirred cell reactor. Both kinetics of CO₂ absorption and solubility of N₂O studies in AEPZ are performed at the concentration ranges of 0.1 to 0.4 weight fraction of AEPZ + H₂O, and at a temperature of 313 K. The same studies are performed for 0.3 weight fraction AEPZ at temperatures ranging from 303 to 333 K. Using the experimental results, kinetic parameters are calculated. It is found that the experimental results agree with the assumption of pseudo-first-order kinetics. The second-order rate coefficients of 0.3 w AEPZ at different temperatures are modeled using the Arrhenius equation, with obtained results of the activation energy of 42.42 kJ/mol and the Arrhenius constant of 6.126×10^{11} for 0.3 w AEPZ. The values of aqueous AEPZ have been found to be higher than the values of aqueous MEA, as AEPZ has better absorption kinetics than MEA. Besides, AEPZ has less nitrosamine emission and a lower environmental impact than other solvents. All these properties favor the solvent to be used in the CO₂ capture process and can make the process cost-effective.

Abbreviations

AEPZ: 1-(2-Aminoethyl)piperazine;
DEA: Diethanolamine; DGA: Diglycolamine;
DIPA: Diisopropanolamine;
MDEA: Methyldiethanolamine;
MEA: Monoethanolamine; PZ: Piperazine

Notation

A: Interfacial area (m²); A_i: Pair parameters;
[AEPZ]: Concentration of AEPZ (mol/L); *a*,
b, *c*: Parameters; C_A: Concentration of gas;
C_l: Concentration of liquid; C_{N₂O}: Concentration of N₂O
(mol/L); CO₂: Carbon dioxide; D_{CO₂-AEPZ}: Diffusivity
of CO₂ in AEPZ (m²/s); D_{CO₂-H₂O}: Diffusivity of
CO₂ in H₂O (m²/s); D_{N₂O-AEPZ}: Diffusivity of N₂O in

AEPZ (m²/s); D_{N₂O-H₂O}: Diffusivity of N₂O in H₂O
(m²/s); *E*: Enhancement factor; E_A: Activation energy;
E_i: Instantaneous enhancement factor; H₂O: Water;
H_{CO₂-AEPZ}: Henry's constant of CO₂ in AEPZ (kmol/
m³-kPa); H_{CO₂-H₂O}: Henry's constant of CO₂ in H₂O
(kmol/m³-kPa); H_{N₂O-AEPZ}: Henry's constant of N₂O
in AEPZ (kmol/m³-kPa); H_{N₂O-H₂O}: Henry's constant
of N₂O in H₂O (kmol/m³-kPa); *Ha*: Hatta number;
Δ*H*: Enthalpy; *h*: Planck's constant; Δ*G*: Gibbs free
energy; J_{CO₂}: Absorption flux of CO₂ (mol/m² s);
*k*₀: Arrhenius constant; *k*₂: Second-order reaction rate
constant (L/mol-s) or (m³/kmol-s); *k*_G: Gas-phase
mass transfer coefficient; *k*_L: Liquid-phase mass
transfer coefficient (m/s); *k_m*, *n*: Reaction constant
of (m, *n*)th order; *K_{ov}*: Overall reaction rate constant
(mol/m² s-kPa); *k_{obs}*: Observed kinetic constant (s⁻¹);
kPa: Kilopascal; *M_A*: Molecular weight of AEPZ.;
M_w: Molecular weight of water; *m*: Dimensionless
solubility; *mPas*: Millipascal-seconds; *N_A*: Avogadro's
number; *n*: Number of moles; *n_i*: Number of moles at
initial reading; *n₂*: Number of moles at next reading;
n_{CO₂}: Moles of CO₂; *N_{CO₂}*: Specific rate of absorption of
AEPZ (mol/m² s); N₂O: Nitrous oxide; *P*: Pressure of the
gas (kPa); *P_{initial}*: Initial pressure (kPa); *P_{final}*: Pressure
at the end of the experiment (kPa); *P_i*: Pressure at
a particular time (kPa); *P_{total}*: Total pressure (kPa);
P_v: Vapor pressure (kPa); *P_{CO₂}*: Partial pressure of CO₂
(kPa); *P_{N₂O}*: Partial pressure of N₂O (kPa); *ppm*: Parts
per million; *r*: Rate of reaction; *R*: Gas constant (kPa
m³/mol K); Δ*S*: Entropy; *t*: Time (s); *t_w*: Flow time
for the water (s); *t_s*: Flow time for the solution (s);
T: Temperature (K); *V*: Molar volume of the gas (m³);
V_M: Molar volume (liquid) (m³); *V_G*: Volume of the gas
(m³); *V_L*: Volume of the liquid (m³); *w*: Mass fraction;
x_A: Mole fraction of AEPZ.; *x_w*: Mole fraction of water;
z: Stoichiometric coefficient; ρ_A: Density of AEPZ (kg/
m³); ρ_m: Density of mixtures (kg/m³); ρ_s: Density of
the solution (kg/m³); ρ_w: Density of water (kg/m³);
θ_A: Kinematic viscosity of AEPZ (cSt); θ_w: Kinematic
viscosity of water (cSt); θ_m: Kinematic viscosity of
mixture (cSt); μ: Dynamic viscosity (cP); μ_s: Dynamic
viscosity of the solution (cP); μ_w: Dynamic viscosity of
water (cP)

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Data availability All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this published article (and its supplementary information files).

Declarations

Ethical approval and consent to participate Not applicable.

Consent for publication Not applicable.

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