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1	Furthering the understanding of product formation
2	in monoethanolamine degradation: A mechanistic
3	DFT study.
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8	E-mail: <u>c.m.parks@sheffield.ac.uk</u> ,
9	Abstract
10	
11	A thorough understanding of the product formation originating during degradation of
12	monoethanolamine is crucial to future commercialization of carbon capture plants. Here we

1 report on a series of density functional theory (DFT) calculations outlining chemical pathways 13 for the formation of oxidative degradation products. Fragmentation of monoethanolamine 14 (MEA) radicals is surmountable given standard experimental conditions and can lead to the 15 formation of ethanal, ethanoic acid, ammonia, methylamine, water, formaldehyde, formic acid 16 and imines. Alternatively, the MEA radicals can form hydroperoxides after reaction with 17 oxygen which can subsequently go on to form glycine, glycolic acid and N-(2-18 hydroxyethyl)glycine (HEGly). Experimentally surmountable routes to the formation of 19 oxazoline, N-(2-hydroxethyl)ethylenediamine (HEEDA), N,N'-bis(2-20 21 hydroxyethyl)ethylenediamine (BHEEDA), epoxides, (2-Methylamino)ethanol (MAE), N-(2hydroxyethyl)imidazole (HEI) and diethanolamine (DEA) are also presented. 22

23 Keywords

24 DFT; 2-ethanolamine; Mechanistic Pathways; Oxidative and thermal degradation

25 **1. Introduction**

26

The build-up of carbon dioxide (CO₂) in the lower atmosphere is a principal contributor to 27 global warming.¹ The earth's temperature has risen appreciably since the mid-1900s. The 28 demand for electricity worldwide is growing each year and this demand is met in the main by 29 fossil fuel fired power stations. These plants produce significant quantities of CO₂. In 2015, 30 for example, 60 % of the United States' electricity was produced by such plants which 31 contributed 40 % of their annual CO₂ production.² As a consequence of this, there is currently 32 a drive to develop post combustion carbon capture and storage technologies (PCCC) to mitigate 33 the effects of CO₂ build up in the atmosphere. If successful, it is claimed that CO₂ output could 34 be reduced by as much as 90 %.³ The captured CO₂ could then be recycled into other avenues 35 such as enhanced oil recovery or chemical feedstock production. 36

37

A number of different technologies have been investigated for capturing CO₂ post combustion, all with varying levels of success. For example, absorption of the gas has been attempted using metal organic frameworks.⁴⁻⁷ To date however, one of the most successful and commercially advanced technologies employs the use of amine based solvents. It has been successfully adopted in The Boundray Dam Integrated Carbon Capture and Storage Project in Canada.⁸ The plant has the ability to capture over 1 million tonnes of CO₂ each year and is currently the largest commercial scale facility of its kind.

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The accepted industrial standard amine for carbon capture is monoethanolamine (MEA).⁹ 46 However, further amines such as 2-amino-2-methyl-1-propanol (AMP), diethanolamine (DEA) 47 ,^{10, 11} ethylenediamine (EDA),¹²⁻¹⁴ methyldiethanolamine (MDEA)¹⁵ all have similar CO₂ 48 absorption rates to MEA and have been studied.¹⁶ Regardless of the choice of amine, there are 49 a number of requisite features to be commercially viable. It should have good solubility and 50 must react rapidly and reversibly with CO₂. Current systems are hindered by the cost of solvent 51 regeneration which has been reported to be as high as 10 % of the total costs involved in the 52 process and degradation of the amine.¹⁷ 53

Degradation of the amine can occur thermally or oxidatively. Thermal degradation has been 55 extensively studied over a long period of time by many research groups.^{9, 18} It occurs mainly 56 in the stripper at temperatures between 100 and 120 °C and generally increases with increased 57 The principle products of MEA degradation have been identified as 2-CO₂ loading. 58 oxazolidinone (OZD), N-(2-hydroxethyl)ethylenediamine (HEEDA), N-(2-aminoethyl)-N'-59 (2-hydroxyethyl)imidazolidin-2-one) (AHEIA), 1-(2-hydroxyethyl)imidazolidone (HEIA), 60 and N-(2-hydroxyethyl)imidazole (HEI) as shown in Figure 1. Mechanisms to rationalize their 61 formation have been reported by kim and Sartori¹⁹ and later built upon by Davis et al.²⁰ It is 62 generally accepted that the process begins with cyclisation of the carbamate species to form 63 OZD. This species can then undergo a ring opening reaction with a second molecule of MEA 64 to form HEEDA. HEIA or AHEIA can subsequently be formed from HEEDA. 65





67

Figure 1: Major thermal and selected oxidative degeneration products of MEA

68

Oxidative degeneration is less well understood compared to thermal degradation. However it 69 has received more attention over the last two decades as oxidative degradation products are by 70 far the most observed species under real plant conditions.²¹⁻²³ The process occurs mainly in 71 the absorber in the presence of oxygen. It is considered to be radical driven, with an electron 72 loss from the amine nitrogen or hydrogen loss from the carbon atom α or β to the nitrogen 73 initiating the degradation.^{21, 24-27} Which of these mechanisms dominates is dependent on the 74 75 pH of the system, the nature of the oxidant, the concentration and nature of the amine species. ^{21, 24-27} The degradation products are normally split into two classes: primary and secondary. 76 Primary species are formed directly from the amine. They include, but are not limited to, 77

ammonia, methylamine, aldehydes and carboxylic acids. Secondary degradation products are 78 formed from primary products and include, for example, N-(2-hydroxyethyl)acetamide (HEA), 79 2-hydroxy-N-(2-hydroxyethyl)acetamide (HHEA), N,N'-bis(2-hydroxyethyl)oxalamide 80 (BHEOX), N-(2-hdroxyethyl)glycine (HEGly) and 1-(2-hydroxyethyl)piperazine-2-one 81 82 (HEPO) (Figure 1). The number of observed products in laboratory degradation experiments is vast. Five different research teams have reported as many as 60 different species.²⁸⁻³² The 83 formation of many of these species is still unclear. Evidently, an understanding of the 84 mechanistic steps leading to the formation of all of these species would, whilst challenging, be 85 of considerable use in optimizing the performance of amine-based systems. With the vast 86 number of observed products from degradation, molecular modelling can be of significant use 87 in analyzing the formation of these species. 88

89

Despite this, the number of computational studies directly focused on the degradation steps in 90 91 these systems remains limited. Vevelsted et al modelled the formation of multiple degradation products from MEA using static quantum mechanical (QM) calculations and reported most to 92 93 form favorably.³³ Saeed and coworkers looked into the mechanism of formation of imidazolidinone from MEA.³⁴ More recently Yoon et al reported first principle studies on both 94 the thermal degradation of MEA and EDA.^{35,36} Xie et al investigated the different mechanisms 95 of both AMP and MEA reacting with CO₂.³⁷ To date, there have been few detailed modelling 96 studies conducted into wider product formation with most studies focusing on a small subset 97 of reactions. 98

99

In the current paper, we use DFT to investigate the formation of many degradation species.
Mechanisms are postulated and subsequently modelled to rationalise the formation of
formaldehyde, formic acid, methylamine, MAE, glycine, glycolic acid, HEI, DEA, DMA,
HEGly, ethanoic acid and ethanal.

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107 2. Computational details

All calculations were performed on Gaussian 09, revision D.01.³⁸ The B3LYP functional³⁹⁻⁴¹ 108 and cc-PVTZ⁴² basis set were used throughout this study with the ultrafine setting for the 109 integrals. This setup was chosen to be consistent with previously published work within the 110 group and to allow for comparisons with that work.⁴³ Benchmarking studies also show that 111 this setup can provide reasonable results within an acceptable time frame.^{44, 45} Solvent effects 112 were accounted for using the default Polarizable Continuum Model (PCM) as implemented in 113 Gaussian 09.46 The solvent parameters for water were used in each case.47 Selected 114 calculations were carried out using the SMD solvent method and can be found in the supporting 115 information. Calculations are reported at 298.15 K. Empirical dispersion corrections through 116 the GD3 keyword were applied to all calculations.⁴⁸ Optimized structures were confirmed as 117 stationary points by the absence of imaginary frequencies. Transition states were confirmed 118 both by the presence of one large negative frequency corresponding to the expected saddle 119 point and with intrinsic reaction coordinate scans (IRCs). Transition states were optimized 120 using the QST3 method as implemented in Gaussian.⁴⁹ Free energies were improved using the 121 Grimme quasiharmonic entropy correction using the GoodVibes script. ⁵⁰ A further set of 122 calculations for all reactions modelled here using the m06 functional⁵¹ and def2TVP basis set 123 is provided in the supporting information 124

125

126 **3.** Results and Discussion

127 3.1 Formation of MEA radicals and subsequent fragmentation

128

Our first consideration was to the formation of the amine radical from MEA. There are four proton sites on MEA where abstraction could occur: at the nitrogen (-NH), either carbon (-CH₂) or the oxygen (-OH). For each potential site, the proton abstraction was modelled with each of three different radicals: Ethyl•, HO• and O₂. The activation energies for all these reactions are given in **Table 1**. The lowest observed activation energies involved reactions of MEA with a hydroxyl radical (HO•) followed by an ethyl radical and finally oxygen. However, all are surmountable given standard experimental conditions.

Table 1: Activation energies for the formation of four different radicals from MEA after 137 reaction with three different radicals. 138

MEA radical formed	Label	Activation energy for radical		
		reaction / kcal mol ⁻¹		
	-	Ethyl	ОН	O ₂
HONH	MEA-Radical-1	10.7	2.3	31.7
HO NH ₂	MEA-Radical-2	11.0	3.1	32.0
HO NH ₂	MEA-Radical-3	9.6	2.2	26.5
• 0 NH2	MEA-Radical-4	8.4	4.4	32.2

Regardless of the origin of the MEA radical species, there are a number of ways each one can 140 break down to form primary degradation products. Here, we consider each in turn. Scheme 141 1 shows a plausible mechanism for fragmentation from the nitrogen-localized radical species 142 (MEA-Radical-1). This mechanism was first presented by Patryaev et al. and could lead to 143 the formation of formaldehyde and methylamine.⁵² 144



145

Formaldehyde

Methylamine

Scheme 1: Suggested formation of formaldehyde and methylamine from a MEA-Radical-1. 146 (Bonds broken during the reaction shown in red) 147

148

- In this fragmentation, the MEA radical undergoes an intramolecular rearrangement where the 149 OH bond is broken as is the carbon-carbon bond (shown in red in Scheme 1). This coincides 150
- with the formation of an N-H bond. The DFT-calculated energy profile is shown in Figure 2. 151



153Figure 2: DFT-calculated ΔH energy profile for the proposed formation of formaldehyde and154methylamine from a MEA-Radical-1.

The activation energy for this reaction is only 17.0 kcal mol⁻¹, which is easily surmountable given the experimental conditions. The initial fragmentation leads to the formation of a methylamine radical species, which can form methylamine given a further hydrogen radical source. This radical recombination step is clearly very favorable.

160



162 fragment to form acetaldehyde and ammonia as shown in Scheme 2 (MEA-Radical-2).

163



Scheme 2: Suggested formation of acetaldehyde and ammonia from a MEA-Radical-2.
(Bonds broken during the reaction shown in red)



Figure 3: DFT-calculated Δ H energy profile for the proposed formation of ammonia and ethanal from **MEA-Radical-2**.

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Here, the OH bond is broken, alongside the breaking and forming of N-H bonds. The energy profile in **Figure 3** is similar to that in **Figure 2**. The activation energy for this reaction is very low (+6.7 kcal mol⁻¹) and radical recombination is very favorable. The ethanal formed from fragmentation of this radical can be further oxidized in the presence of oxygen to form ethanoic acid. Organic acids have implications elsewhere where they can react with MEA to form amide species.



Scheme 3: Suggested formation of an imine and water from a MEA-Radical-3. (Bonds
broken during the reaction shown in red)



183Figure 4: DFT-calculated ΔH energy profile for the proposed formation of an imine and184water from MEA-Radical-3.

185 The third fragmentation reaction involves breakdown from a radical localized on the C α to the 186 nitrogen (**MEA-Radical-3**). Breaking of NH and OH bonds concurrently with formation of a 187 further OH bond leads to water and an imine species. **Figure 4** shows this reaction has the 188 highest activation energy of all the fragmentations thus far but is still surmountable under the 189 typical experimental conditions.

The final fragmentation reaction involves the formation of an imine and methanol from **MEA-Radical-4**, as shown in **Scheme 4**. Here, concurrent breaking of an N-H and the C-C bonds and formation of a new OH bond yields the target species. As shown in **Figure 5**, this reaction is predicted to have a low activation energy of 12.5 kcal mol⁻¹ and again radical recombination can help to drive the reaction forward.



Scheme 4: Suggested formation of methanol and an imine from a MEA-Radical-4. (Bonds
 broken during the reaction shown in red)

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196



200

Figure 5: DFT-calculated ΔH energy profile for the proposed formation of an imine and methanol from a MEA-Radical-4.

Overall, data presented in Figures 2-5 shows that fragmentation of the MEA radicals can lead
to the formation of water, ammonia, formaldehyde, methylamine, methanol and various imines
dependent on the location of the initial MEA radical.

207 3.2 Glycine and HEGly formation

208

- 209 If the concentration of oxygen in the system is sufficiently high, rapid radical recombination
- 210 can occur to form a peroxide species. Bedell proposed that the peroxide species can then break
- down to form glycine as shown in **Scheme 5**.^{53, 54}



213

Scheme5: Suggested formation of glycine from MEA

We recently reported on the formation of the peroxide species, which had an activation energy of 28.7 kcal mol^{-1.43} Upon its formation, two different degradation paths are possible: one which eliminates HOOH and a further deprotonation reaction which can lead to the formation of glycine. **Figure 6** shows that formation of glycine, through elimination of water is surmountable. The activation energy for HOOH elimination is 28.5 kcal mol⁻¹ compared to 29.5 kcal mol⁻¹ for glycine formation. Whilst there is a marginal preference for elimination of HOOH, it is likely that both species can be observed.





Figure 6: DFT-calculated ΔH energy profile for the formation of glycine from a peroxide
 species.

The glycine generated here can undergo further reactions to form glycolic acid. If the hydroxyl group (-OH) were to oxidize to form an aldehyde, this would generate a precursor to the formation of HEGly. The process is summarized in **Scheme 6**.

229



231

Scheme 6: Proposed route to the formation of HEGly from glycine

232

Figure 7 shows the formation of HEGly form MEA. Initially, the nitrogen atom on MEA acts as a nucleophile and binds to the carbonyl carbon atom of the acid reactant. The activation energy for the first hydrogen transfer reaction is 26.3 kcal mol⁻¹ and can likely be further reduced by transfer to and from an explicit water molecule as we have shown elsewhere.⁴³ A
second hydrogen transfer reaction eliminates water and forms an imine species. This imine
species can pick up a proton from any source, most likely MEAH⁺. This reaction eliminates
CO₂. Finally, the anionic product can pick up a proton to from HEGly. HEGly is a precursor
to HEHEAA, which in turn can cyclise to form HEPO. Scheme 7 summarises this process.

241



Scheme 7: Potential route to the formation of HEPO from HEGly





Figure 7: DFT-calculated Δ H energy profiles for the formation of an imine (left) and HEGLY from the imine (right)

247 **3.3** HEI formation

248

HEI is a major degradation product observed in pilot plants. A mechanism to explain its formation was proposed by Vevelstad,⁵⁵ which itself was an adaptation from a patent by Katsuura and Washio.⁵⁶ **Scheme 8** shows how two imine species react to form an intermediate species, which can subsequently form HEI after several proton transfers.



253

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Scheme 8: Suggested formation of HEI from two imine species.

For this route to be viable, the origin of the reactants must also be rationalized. MAE can potentially be formed *via* the reaction of MEA and formaldehyde. As formaldehyde can be formed from the fragmentation reactions of MEA radicals, as postulated in **Section 3.2**, the constituent parts are all present to form MAE. The second imine, can be formed from oxidation of an amino alcohol, which itself is formed during the fragmentation of MEA radicals. Both processes are summarized in **Scheme 9**.



The DFT-calculated energy profile for the formation of MAE is shown in **Figure 8**. The reaction is initiated by nucleophilic attack of MEA on the formaldehyde. Two successive

proton transfers yield MAE and water. The first activation energy is 22.4 kcal mol⁻¹, and the
second is 15.1 kcal mol⁻¹, which are surmountable under the experimental conditions.



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Figure 8: DFT-calculated ΔH energy profile for the proposed formation of MAE from MEA
 and formaldehyde.

The formation of HEI is presented in **Figure 9**. The two imines in close proximity are 3.8 kcal mol⁻¹ more stable than when infinitely separated. The activation energy is 20.6 kcal mol⁻¹. After cyclisation, the intermediate species undergoes successive proton transfers, most likely assisted by water or further molecules of MEA, which help to facilitate movement of the





Figure 9: DFT-calculated ∆H energy profile for the formation of HEI from two imine
 species.

Whilst no calculations were undertaken here, it is noted that this route to HEI formation could be modified to form substituted variants of HEI as shown in **Scheme 10.** For example, Vevelstad proposed the formation of N-(2-hdyroxyethyl)-2-methylimidazole (HEMI) where a proton on the five membered ring is replaced with a methyl substituent.⁵⁵ If the appropriate imine was suitably substituted, then this would lead to the formation of HEMI. (The substituent change is highlighted in red in **Scheme 10**)





Scheme 10: Suggested formation of HEMI from two imine species.

290 **3.4 Epoxide formation**

291

The degradation of MEA into ammonia and an epoxide has been suggested by Lepaumier.²⁷ The reaction is shown in **Scheme 11**. Prior protonation of the nitrogen on MEA acts to create a more labile leaving group and thus can drive the reaction. Given that the formation of acids is possible originating from the fragmentation of MEA radicals, this is possible under the experimental conditions. A further route to the formation of epoxides would be from a zwitterionic form of MEA, (H₃N⁺CH₂CH₂O⁻). The anionic oxygen can attack the carbon alpha to the nitrogen, which eliminates ammonia.



Scheme 11: Potential route to the formation of epoxides and ammonia from MEA.

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299

Figure 10 shows that the energy profiles for both pathways. The activation energy for the 302 reaction of protonated MEA is appreciably high (44.3 kcal mol⁻¹). Moreover, the reaction is 303 highly endothermic. Given that the product is a highly strained three-membered ring, this 304 observation is expected. This route is not responsible for the formation of epoxides. The 305 reaction from the zwitterion has a much lower activation energy of 11.9 kcal mol⁻¹ and the 306 overall reaction is exothermic. This suggests that there is a potential route to the formation of 307 308 epoxides in the experimental media. However, a consideration must be given to the origin of the zwitterion, which is 31.8 kcal mol⁻¹ higher in energy than MEA. As this is a charged 309 species, the product can likely be stabilized significantly by interaction with water molecules 310 and thus this route is potentially viable overall. 311



Figure 10: DFT-calculated ∆H energy profile showing two potential routes to the formation
of epoxides from MEA (left) and from a zwitterion (right).

Whilst a thorough investigation into all the amine species which could react in this manner is
beyond the scope of this work, we present the reaction with MEA as an illustration. Scheme
12 shows the formation of DEA from MEA and a protonated epoxide.



Scheme 12: Potential route to the formation of DEA from MEA and an epoxide.



Figure 11: DFT-calculated ΔH energy profile for the formation of DEA from MEA and
 epoxide.

325

Figure 11 shows the energy profile for the proposed formation of DEA from MEA and an epoxide. Initially, the nitrogen atom of MEA acts as a nucleophile and reacts with one of the carbon centers on the epoxide. This effects a ring opening and forms a zwitterion which can rapidly rearrange to form DEA. The activation energy for the reaction is 20.1 kcal mol⁻¹ and the reaction is highly exothermic overall.

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332

334 **3.5 HEEDA and BHEEDA**

335

We recently reported on the formation of HEEDA *via* the ring opening reaction of OZD and MEA.⁴³ This reaction was calculated to have an activation energy of 27.3 kcal mol⁻¹. Here, we present an alternative pathway to the formation of HEEDA *via* an oxazoline intermediate. Both routes are shown in **Scheme 13.** In the second route, MEA undergoes an acid-catalysed esterification reaction with formic acid to initially form an ester. The ester can potentially cyclise to form an oxazoline, which can subsequently undergo a ring opening reaction with MEA to form HEEDA.



345 Scheme 13: Two routes to explain the formation of HEEDA. Above: From OZD and MEA.
346 Below: From MEA and formic acid.



Figure 12: DFT-calculated Δ H energy profile for the formation of an ester from MEA and formic acid.

The energy profile for the initial formation of the ester is shown in Figure 12. The ester is 351 352 formed from a nucleophilic attack of the MEA oxygen on the carbonyl carbon of formic acid. Hydrogen transfer from the MEA hydroxyl (-OH) group to an OH group on the carbonyl allows 353 354 for the elimination of water and formation of the target product. This reaction will be competitive with the formation of an amide, again from the same reactants. We reported on the 355 formation of the amide species previously, HEF, from these reactants which had an activation 356 energy of 40.1 kcal mol^{-1.43} The activation energy reported here for ester formation is lower 357 and would therefore be favoured. 358





We next turned our attention to the formation of oxazoline from the ester. Figure 13 shows 363 the energy profile for this reaction. The reaction is initiated by nucleophilic attack of the ester 364 nitrogen on the carbonyl carbon. Two successive proton transfers from the nitrogen to the 365 pendant oxygen allows for the elimination of water and the formation of oxazoline. The second 366 proton transfer reaction has a high activation energy of 46.3 kcal mol⁻¹ (Transition State 2), 367 although this barrier can be significantly lowered by hydrogen transfer to and from explicitly 368 included water molecules (Transition State 3). In this case, the activation energy is 17.7 kcal 369 mol^{-1} . 370

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Figure 14: DFT-calculated ΔH energy profile for the formation of HEEDA from oxazoline
 and MEA

375

Figure 14 shows the successive reaction where the oxazoline can be converted into HEEDA. 376 As we have shown elsewhere, the nitrogen atom of the MEA acts as a nucleophile and attacks 377 the carbon atom on oxazoline immediately connected to the oxygen. This causes the ring to 378 open and forms a zwitterion intermediate. Rapid hydrogen transfer from the now cationic 379 nitrogen centre to the anionic oxygen yields HEEDA. The activation energy is surmountable, 380 at 25.5 kcal mol⁻¹. Whilst HEEDA formed in this way requires a significantly higher number 381 of molecules and conversions when compared to the first reaction presented in Scheme 13, it 382 acts to show that there are many potential routes to product formation in a complicated reaction 383 media. 384



Figure 15: DFT-calculated ∆H energy profile for the formation of BHEEDA from HEEDA
and epoxide.

Our final consideration was to the formation of BHEEDA from the reaction of HEEDA and an
epoxide. The energy profile shown in Figure 15 illustrates that the reaction has a relatively
low barrier, 21.4 kcal mol⁻¹, and could easily form in pilot plants given the presence of HEEDA
and epoxides.

400 4 Conclusions

401

In the current work, we have reported on DFT calculations investigating the chemical pathways leading to the formation of degradation products of MEA. Activation energies were calculated and scrutinized with respect to the experimental conditions to deduce which pathways were most likely to lead to product formation.

406

MEA radicals were found to form from MEA in reactions with O₂, alkyl radicals and OH. Any
of the generated radicals can fragment leading to the formation of formaldehyde, methylamine,
water, ethanal, imines and ammonia. Under standard experimental conditions ethanal and
formaldehyde can oxidize to ethanoic acid and formic acid respectively.

411

412 Rapid radical recombination with oxygen can lead to a species which can degrade to form 413 glycine. Glycine can then react to initially form glycolic acid before further reactions to form 414 HEGly. A viable mechanistic pathway has been modelled to explain the formation of both HEI 415 and a substituted variant, HEMI. This involves the cyclisation of two imine species.

416

An alternative route to the formation of HEEDA has been presented. Initially, MEA reacts
with formic acid to form an ester. The ester species can cyclise to form oxazoline.
Nucleophilic attack of MEA on oxazoline can form HEEDA.

420

The mechanistic routes modelled here give good insight into the product formation observed during MEA degradation. If sufficient modelling studies such as those presented here are completed, then a full chemical kinetic model could be constructed. Such a model would offer possibilities to modify the chosen amine and then predict product formation from degradation. The work undertaken here would benefit from further validation through experiments.

426

 429 430 Cartesian coordinates for DFT-optimized structures. 431 432 Author information 433 434 ORCID 435 Christopher Parks: 0000-0001-8016-474X 436 437 Conflicts of interest 438 439 The authors declare no competing financial interest. 440 441 The work described in this paper was funded by the ACT ALIGN CCUS I 442 This project has received funding from RVO (NL), FZJ/PtJ (DE), Gassnova 443 (RO), BEIS (UK) and is co-funded by the European Commission under 444 programme ACT, Grant Agreement No 691712" 445 446 Abbreviations: 447 AHEIA - N-(2-aminoethyl)-N'-(2-hydroxyethyl)imidazolidin-2-one) 448 BHEEDA - N,N'-bis(2-hydroxyethyl) 450 DEA - Diethanolamine 451 HEEDA - N-(2-hydroxyethyl)-formamide 453 HEA - N-(2-hydroxyethyl)-glycine 	428	Supporting Information
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453 HEA - N-(2-hydroxyethyl)-acetamide454 HEGly - N-(2-hydroxyethyl)glycine	452	HEF - N-(2-hydroxyethyl)-formamide
454 HEGly - N-(2-hydroxyethyl)glycine	453	HEA - N-(2-hydroxyethyl)-acetamide
	454	HEGly - N-(2-hydroxyethyl)glycine

- 455 HEI N-(2-hydroxyethyl)imidazole
- 456 HHEA 2-hydroxy-N-(2-hydroxyethyl)acetamide (HHEA)
- 457 HEIA 1-(2-hydroxyethyl)imidazolidone
- 458 MAE (2-Methylamino)ethanol
- 459 MEA Monoethanolamine
- 460 OZD Oxazolidinone
- 461
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