



Original Paper

Solubility and dissolution mechanism of novel multi-ester headgroup surfactants in supercritical CO₂

Ning Xu^{a,b,c}, Yan-Ling Wang^{a,b,c,*}, Baojun Bai^d, Shi-Zhang Cui^e, Yu Zhang^{a,b,c},
Wen-Jing Shi^{a,b,c}, Zhao-Nian Zhang^{a,b,c}, Wen-Hui Ding^{a,b,c}, Pei-Xu Ma^{a,b,c}, Zan Gao^{a,b,c}

^a Key Laboratory of Unconventional Oil & Gas Development (China University of Petroleum (East China)), Ministry of Education, Qingdao, 266580, Shandong, China

^b School of Petroleum Engineering, China University of Petroleum (East China), Qingdao, 266580, Shandong, China

^c Shandong Key Laboratory of Oil and Gas Field Chemistry, Qingdao, 266580, Shandong, China

^d Geosciences and Geological and Petroleum Engineering, Missouri University of Science and Technology, Rolla, MO, 65409, United States

^e Deshi Energy Technology Group Co. Ltd, Dongying, 257000, Shandong, China

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ABSTRACT

To address the limited solubility and applicability of conventional hydrocarbon surfactants in supercritical CO₂, a series of multi-ester headgroup surfactants were designed and synthesized by leveraging the CO₂-philic properties of ester groups. The molecular structures were characterized using Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy and ¹H NMR. A custom-designed laser-based apparatus was developed to quantify surfactant solubility and systematically investigate phase behavior in CO₂. Molecular dynamics (MD) simulations were employed to elucidate structure–solubility relationships across multiple scales, including solubility parameters, interaction energies, radial distribution functions (RDFs), and free volume fractions. Results indicate that, at 323.15 K, the cloud-point pressure of a 1 wt% multi-ester headgroup surfactant in CO₂ is below 12 MPa. This value is substantially lower than the typical minimum miscibility pressure (MMP) between crude oil and CO₂ in Chinese reservoirs. The number and arrangement of ester groups synergistically affect solubility, with linear configurations outperforming cyclic ones and an optimal ester count ($n = 5$) maximizing solubility. Surfactant–CO₂ interactions are primarily governed by van der Waals and electrostatic forces, with van der Waals contributions exceeding 70%. RDF analysis reveals that carbonyl oxygen (O1) and terminal methyl carbon (C1) in the ester group are the primary CO₂ binding sites, enhancing CO₂-philicity via Lewis acid–base (LA–LB) and dispersion interactions. Linear ester side chains exhibit enhanced flexibility and conformational adaptability. The free volume fraction initially increases and then decreases with increasing ester group count, with the optimal configuration (MEG-L5) showing maximal chain extension and CO₂ contact efficiency during dissolution. Given that hydrocarbon surfactants primarily interact with CO₂ through LA–LB and dispersion forces, the design focus is on optimizing the density and arrangement of CO₂-philic segments. This modulates entropy changes to enhance favorable enthalpic interactions. This study elucidates the dissolution mechanisms of multi-ester headgroup surfactants in supercritical CO₂ (scCO₂) and identifies the molecular factors controlling their CO₂-philicity. These insights provide a theoretical basis for designing green, fluorine-free, cost-effective CO₂-philic surfactants for enhanced oil recovery.

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1. Introduction

Low-permeability reservoir development has undergone rapid global expansion. By 2023, production from these reservoirs reached 2.24×10^8 t of oil equivalent, representing 27.19% of global oil production (Dai et al., 2024). Supercritical CO₂, with its low density and

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: wangyl@upc.edu.cn (Y.-L. Wang).

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viscosity, enables effective injection into tight reservoirs. CO₂-based enhanced oil recovery (CO₂-EOR) is a highly economical technology within carbon capture, utilization, and storage (CCUS) frameworks (Zhang et al., 2020). Among CO₂-EOR methods, miscible CO₂ flooding provides the greatest potential for enhancing oil recovery. However, the minimum miscible pressure (MMP) for Chinese continental crude oils is typically elevated due to abundant heavy hydrocarbon fractions. Drawing on conventional hydrophilic–lipophilic surfactants, which significantly reduce oil–water interfacial tension at low concentrations (Alvarez and Schechter, 2017; Sukee et al., 2022a, 2022b; Standnes et al., 2002; Xie et al., 2005), Hoeffling et al. (1991) proposed the concept of CO₂-philic–oleophilic surfactants. Adding these surfactants is a critical strategy for reducing MMP and enhancing CO₂–crude oil miscibility. However, due to the weak polarity of CO₂ and low solvent strength, only a few surfactants exhibit adequate solubility in CO₂. Thus, developing surfactants with high CO₂ solubility is an urgent priority.

DeSimone et al. (1992) first synthesized 1,1-dihydroperfluorooctyl acrylate (FOA) in supercritical CO₂, showing that specific functional groups can enhance surfactant CO₂-philicity. Subsequent studies confirmed the strong CO₂ affinity of fluorinated compounds (Dardin et al., 1998; Temtem et al., 2007; Yee et al., 1992). Similarly, siloxane-based surfactants show high CO₂ solubility due to flexible chains and elevated interfacial activity (Demirtas and Dilek, 2019; Lee et al., 2017; Shi and Qiao, 2017). However, environmental and cost concerns limit the industrial application of fluorinated and siloxane surfactants. Consequently, green, cost-effective hydrocarbon-based CO₂-philic surfactants have gained significant attention. Studies have shown that oxygen-containing groups, including carbonyls (Altarsha et al., 2012), esters (Liao et al., 2020), and ethers (Liu et al., 2001, 2002a, 2002b; Lv et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2024a), primarily drive the CO₂-philicity of hydrocarbon surfactants. Kilic et al. (2007) quantified CO₂ affinity with ether, carbonyl, and ester groups using physical experiments and quantum chemical calculations. Although ether groups have higher single-point binding energy (−18.6 kJ/mol) than carbonyl or ester groups, esters offer three distinct binding modes, resulting in stronger overall interactions. This explains the higher CO₂ solubility of ester-containing polymers (e.g., PVAc) compared to ether-containing counterparts. The enhanced CO₂-philicity of ester groups stems from four key factors: (1) In addition to Lewis acid–base (LA–LB) interactions, a weak C–H...O hydrogen bond (0.5–1.0 kcal/mol) synergistically enhances CO₂–ester group interactions. LA–LB interactions between CO₂ and carbonyl groups are a key focus in designing CO₂-philic compounds (Kazarian et al., 1996). Furthermore, a weak C–H...O hydrogen bond between the ester group and CO₂, combined with LA–LB interactions, forms a primary–secondary interaction network that strengthens LA–LB interactions (Raveendran and Wallen, 2002). (2) Optimal ester group density primarily drives CO₂ solubility. Potluri et al. (2002) showed that fully acetylated monosaccharides dissolve in CO₂ at 5.17 MPa (298 K), with CO₂-philicity comparable to fluorinated materials. (3) Ester group spatial accessibility is critical for high solubility. Potluri et al. (2003) demonstrated via X-ray diffraction that outward-oriented, non-embedded acetoxy groups form dual-point CO₂ interactions, with orientation outweighing quantity as the determining factor. Ma et al. (2010) reported notable CO₂ affinity variations among sugar acetate isomers, identifying the influence order as: ester group accessibility > ester group number > molecular size. (4) Terminal group branching increases molecular free volume, thus enhancing CO₂ solubility (Bao et al., 2017). Bray et al. (2010) demonstrated that branched ester chains improve solubility by up to twentyfold, with an optimal acyl chain length of

eight. Although these structural design principles enhance CO₂ solubility, the dominant mechanism remains unclear.

Molecular simulation is a critical tool for studying supercritical CO₂ systems (Criscenti and Cygan, 2013; Zhao et al., 2011, 2015), widely applied to phase equilibria and CO₂-EOR processes (Inomata et al., 1996; Liu et al., 2015). Early simulations focused on microscopic swelling and dissolution of CO₂ with hydrocarbons, such as CO₂–decane (Liu et al., 2015) and CO₂–octane (Zhang et al., 2013), elucidating intermolecular interaction mechanisms. Recently, research has shifted to CO₂–surfactant systems. Wang et al. (2016) reported that bent tail conformations of mixed surfactants (F₇H_n) enhance CO₂-philicity, while Gong et al. (2024) found that van der Waals forces dominate CO₂–polyether interactions, lowering CO₂–oil interaction energy. Zhang et al. (2024a) demonstrated that poly(propylene oxide) groups have greater CO₂-philicity than poly(ethylene oxide) groups, while Xu et al. (2025) showed that interaction energy and molecular conformation determine the CO₂ affinity of ethylene oxide segments. Zhang et al. (2024b) demonstrated that acetylating triisobutyl citrate hydroxyl groups increased CO₂ affinity and reduced MMP by 0.43 MPa, with acetylated C₆PO₃ showing a 13.77% lower MMP than its unmodified form. As surfactant solubility in CO₂ is essential for effective CO₂-EOR applications, understanding their dissolution behavior holds significant scientific and engineering value.

The integration of molecular simulations and phase behavior experiments has emerged as the primary approach for investigating the properties of CO₂-philic surfactants. Sarbu et al. (2000) emphasized that high chain flexibility is a critical design criterion for CO₂-philic compounds, as it increases free volume and thereby enhances their CO₂ affinity. Acetylated isobutyl citrate (Zhang et al., 2024b), citrate A (Gong et al., 2025), and JU-series surfactants (Li et al., 2026) are all multi-ester-headgroup surfactants featuring flexible chain arrangements, and they exhibit favorable CO₂-philic properties. However, Potluri et al. (2003) and Ma et al. (2010) highlighted that spatial accessibility of ester groups to CO₂ constitutes a key metric for evaluating CO₂-philic performance. Cyclically arranged peracetylated monosaccharides and cyclodextrins demonstrate excellent CO₂ affinity owing to the outward-facing orientation of their ester groups, which facilitates contact with CO₂. Liao et al. (2020) and Ma et al., 2022a experimentally confirmed that cyclic arrangements of ester groups can likewise confer sufficient CO₂ affinity.

Although both linear (chain-like) and cyclic (ring-like) ester group arrangements have demonstrated CO₂-philic capability, a systematic comparison of their relative advantages and disadvantages in terms of CO₂-philic performance remains lacking. Therefore, in this work, multi-ester-headgroup surfactants featuring linear and cyclic ester arrangements were specifically designed to systematically investigate the dominant factors influencing CO₂ affinity in such compounds. In particular, the primary contributors to CO₂ affinity—such as the introduction of ester groups, their number, spatial arrangement, and related structural features—remain incompletely understood. In this study, a series of multi-ester headgroup surfactants (MEGs) were synthesized through acetylation and esterification, varying the number and arrangement of ester-containing side chains. Their chemical structures were characterized using Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) and ¹H NMR spectroscopy. A laser-based apparatus was used to precisely measure the cloud point pressures of surfactants in CO₂. Molecular simulation techniques were applied to calculate solubility parameters and analyze the dominant intermolecular forces governing dissolution. The impact of spatial conformation was clarified through analysis of free volume and

chain segment dynamics. The key factors and mechanisms controlling the solubility of multi-ester headgroup surfactants in CO₂ were identified. This study expands the molecular library of hydrocarbon-based CO₂-philic surfactants, provides a theoretical basis for designing green, fluorine-free surfactants, and offers insights for reducing MMP and enhancing CO₂-EOR oil recovery.

2. Experimental methods

2.1. Materials

Carbon dioxide (CO₂, 99.99%) was purchased from Qingdao Xinkeyuan Gas Co., Ltd. Prior to use, CO₂ was purified by passage through a stainless-steel column (30 cm long, 1 cm in inner diameter) packed with activated 5 Å molecular sieves. Xylitol monolaurate ($\geq 99.0\%$), sorbitol monolaurate ($\geq 99.0\%$), lauryl glucoside ($\geq 90\%$), sucrose dodecanoate ($\geq 98\%$), octyl glucoside ($\geq 90\%$), decyl glucoside ($\geq 90\%$), and tetradecyl glucoside ($\geq 90\%$) were purchased from Guangdong Yuanfeng Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. Acetic anhydride ($\geq 99.7\%$), perchloric acid (50%), triethylamine ($\geq 99.7\%$), hydrochloric acid (32%), anhydrous sodium sulfate ($\geq 99.7\%$), dodecanol ($\geq 99.7\%$), chloroform ($\geq 99.7\%$), and dichloromethane ($\geq 99.7\%$) were purchased from Guoyao Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. Sodium gluconate ($\geq 99.7\%$) and sodium glucoheptonate ($\geq 99.7\%$) were purchased from Shanghai McLean Biochemical Co., Ltd. *N,N'*-dicyclohexylcarbodiimide (DCC, $\geq 99\%$) and 4-dimethylaminopyridine (DMAP, $\geq 99\%$) were purchased from Shanghai Aladdin Biotechnology Co., Ltd. To eliminate the influence of moisture on the reactions, all reagents were dried prior to use. Specifically, reagents were stored over activated 5 Å molecular sieves for at least 10 h. The molecular sieves were activated by heating at 350 °C for 12 h.

2.2. Synthesis of multi-ester headgroup surfactants

Table 1 details the structures of multi-ester headgroup surfactants (MEG) designed in this study, comprising linear headgroup surfactants (MEG-L4, MEG-L5, MEG-L6) and cyclic headgroup surfactants (MEG-H3, MEG-H4, MEG-H7). Atom numbering in the structures follows the COMPASS III force field to differentiate atoms of the same type for pairwise interaction analysis.

2.2.1. Synthesis of MEG-L4, MEG-H3, MEG-H4, and MEG-H7

MEG-L4, MEG-H3, MEG-H4, and MEG-H7 were synthesized through complete acetylation of xylitol monolaurate, sorbitan monolaurate, lauryl glucoside, and sucrose laurate, respectively (Fan et al., 2005). Peracetylated octyl glucoside, decyl glucoside, and tetradecyl glucoside—featuring glucose units with fully acetylated hydroxyl groups and varying alkyl chain lengths (C₈, C₁₀, and C₁₄)—were synthesized via complete acetylation of the corresponding alkyl glucosides. The acetylation procedure for polyhydroxy surfactants is exemplified using lauryl glucoside (Fig. 1).

In a three-neck round-bottom flask, acetic anhydride (50 mL) was cooled to 5 °C in an ice bath. To the cooled acetic anhydride, 50% perchloric acid (15 mmol, 3.01 g) and lauryl glucoside (30 mmol, 10.45 g) were added sequentially. The mixture was stirred under a nitrogen atmosphere at below 10 °C for 30 min. The reaction mixture was extracted twice with chloroform (CHCl₃, 0–2 °C), and the combined organic layers were washed with ice-cold water. After washing, water and triethylamine (3 mL) were added to the chloroform layer, followed by stirring for 12 h. The organic phase was separated, washed with dilute hydrochloric acid, and dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate (Na₂SO₄). Chloroform was removed under reduced pressure to yield the acetylated product, MEG-H4.

Table 1

The structural formula of multi-ester headgroup surfactants.

Name	Chemical structural formula
MEG-L4	
MEG-L5	
MEG-L6	
MEG-H3	
MEG-H4	
MEG-H7	

2.2.2. Synthesis of MEG-L5 and MEG-L6

MEG-L5 and MEG-L6 were synthesized through a two-step procedure. In the first step, hydroxyl groups of sodium gluconate or sodium glucoheptonate were completely acetylated as described in Section 2.2.1. In the second step, the acetylated acids were esterified with alcohols to yield multi-ester headgroup surfactants.

MEG-L5 was synthesized via Steglich esterification (Neises and Steglich, 1978). *N,N'*-dicyclohexylcarbodiimide (11 mmol, 2.27 g) and 4-(dimethylamino)pyridine (2 mmol, 0.25 g) were added to a three-neck round-bottom flask. Acetylated gluconic acid (10 mmol, 4.06 g) was dissolved in dichloromethane and introduced into the flask. The mixture was stirred at room temperature for 1 h to activate the acid. Dodecanol (10 mmol, 1.86 g), dissolved in dichloromethane, was added dropwise to the flask. After addition, the reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for 18 h. The precipitated by-product dicyclohexylurea (DCU) was removed by filtration. The filtrate was washed with dilute hydrochloric acid until neutral pH, then dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate (Na₂SO₄) and filtered. The solvent was removed under reduced pressure to yield MEG-L5. The procedure for synthesizing MEG-L5 is illustrated in Fig. 2.

2.3. Characterization

The chemical composition and functional groups of multi-ester headgroup surfactants were analyzed using a Nicolet 6700 Fourier

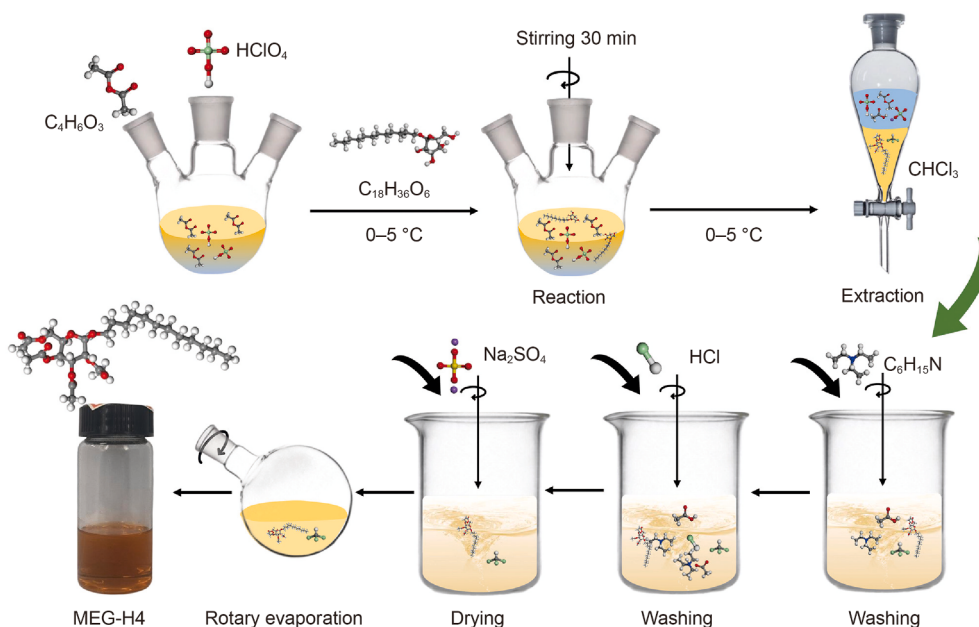


Fig. 1. The synthesis process of MEG-H4.

transform infrared spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). Attenuated total reflectance (ATR) mode was used for all measurements. ^1H NMR spectra were recorded on an Agilent 400 MHz NMR spectrometer with deuterated chloroform (CDCl_3) as the solvent.

2.4. Solubility evaluation laser-light transmittance

To precisely measure surfactant solubility in CO_2 , a custom semiconductor laser-based apparatus was designed and constructed to observe phase behavior (Fig. 3). Cloud point pressure of surfactants in supercritical CO_2 was measured by monitoring transmitted light power through a transparent visual reactor. A sharp change in transmitted light power signals the onset of surfactant separation from CO_2 , defining the corresponding pressure

as the cloud point pressure. All measurements were performed at 323.15 K with a surfactant concentration of 1 wt% relative to CO_2 mass. Using MEG-L5 as an example, the procedure is outlined as follows: (1) MEG-L5 was introduced into a sealed transparent reactor connected to the pipeline system. (2) A precisely measured amount of CO_2 was injected into an intermediate container, with its density and mass calculated from the temperature–pressure relationship (mass uncertainty: ± 0.1 g). (3) CO_2 from the intermediate container was pumped into the visual reactor using an ISCO pump, and the pressure was increased until a transparent homogeneous phase was formed. (4) The semiconductor laser was activated, and transmitted light power through the reactor was monitored with a power meter. CO_2 was withdrawn from the intermediate container using the ISCO pump at a flow rate of 1 mL/min, gradually reducing system pressure until partial surfactant

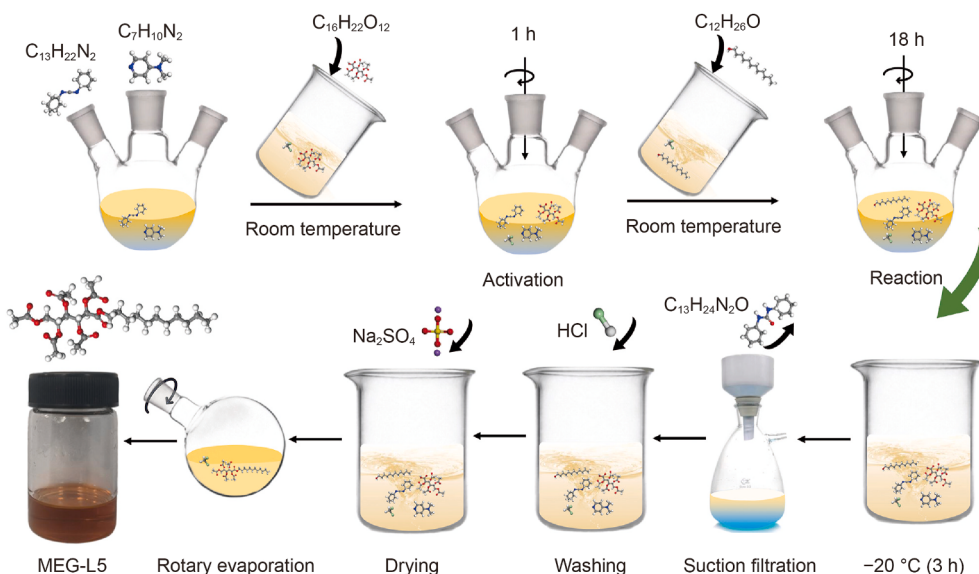


Fig. 2. The synthesis process of MEG-L5.

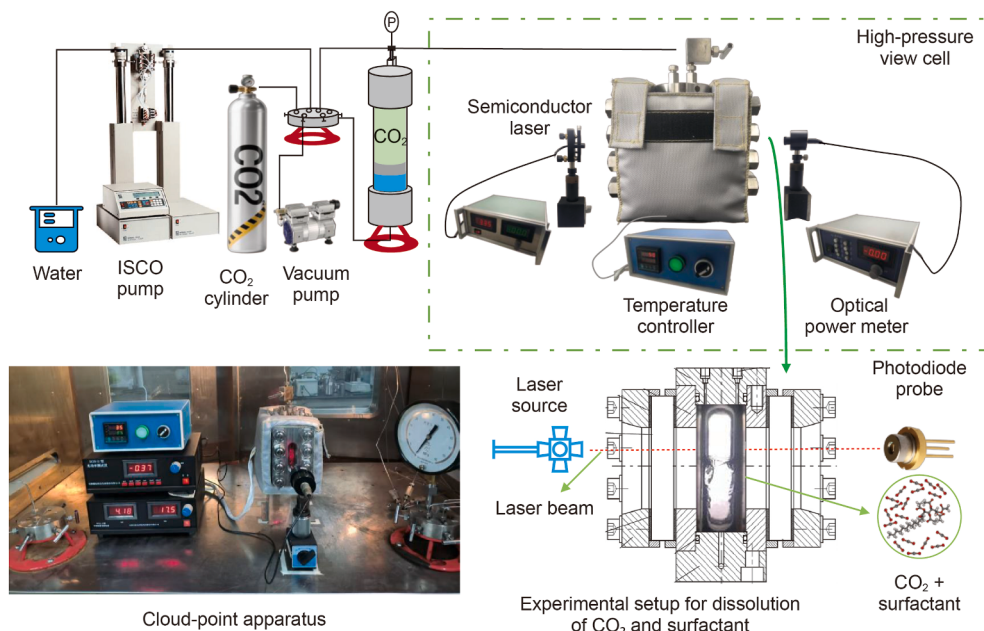


Fig. 3. Schematic diagram of the solubility evaluation apparatus.

separation occurred. Light power was recorded throughout the process. (5) A light power–pressure curve was generated, and its first derivative was calculated. The pressure at the maximum of the first derivative was designated as the cloud point pressure. Each system was measured in triplicate, and the average cloud point pressure was reported.

2.5. Details of molecular dynamics simulations

Molecular dynamics (MD) simulations were conducted using Materials Studio 2023 to elucidate the microscopic dissolution mechanisms of multi-ester headgroup surfactants in CO₂. The simulation procedure is outlined as follows: (1) Molecular modeling and force field assignment: Molecular structures were constructed, and force fields and charges were assigned using the Forcite module. The COMPASS III force field was applied to all systems, known for accurately predicting structural and thermodynamic properties of organic and inorganic compounds (Liu et al., 2015; Rigby et al., 1997; Yang et al., 2000). Charges were assigned using the default parameters of the COMPASS III force field. (2) Geometry optimization: Molecular structures were optimized to achieve stable conformations and energies. (3) Construction of simulation boxes: Simulation boxes, based on systems in Table 2, were built using the Amorphous Cell module. Each box had an initial density of 0.3 g/cm³ and dimensions of 135 Å × 135 Å × 135 Å. Three-dimensional periodic boundary conditions were implemented. For each box, ten initial configurations were generated, with the lowest-energy configuration selected for further optimization. (4) The optimized configuration was annealed in five cycles from 298 to 498 K to eliminate local barriers. The temperature was increased and decreased five times during each cycle to minimize the global energy configuration. (5) MD simulation: Annealed models underwent MD simulation in two stages. First, a 10 ns equilibration phase was performed in the NVT ensemble with a 1.0 fs time step, using the Andersen thermostat for temperature control. Subsequently, a 2 ns production phase was conducted in the NPT ensemble at 323.15 K and 20 MPa with a 1.0 fs time step. Temperature and pressure were regulated using the Nosé thermostat and Berendsen barostat, respectively.

Table 2

Systems used in molecular simulations.

System	Composition	Number of surfactant molecules	Number of CO ₂ molecules	$L_x \times L_y \times L_z$, Å
1	CO ₂	0	10,000	135 × 135 × 135
2	MEG-L4	9	0	30 × 30 × 30
3	MEG-L5	8	0	30 × 30 × 30
4	MEG-L6	7	0	30 × 30 × 30
5	MEG-H3	10	0	30 × 30 × 30
6	MEG-H4	9	0	30 × 30 × 30
7	MEG-H7	6	0	30 × 30 × 30
8	CO ₂ + MEG-L4	9	10,000	135 × 135 × 135
9	CO ₂ + MEG-L5	8	10,000	135 × 135 × 135
10	CO ₂ + MEG-L6	7	10,000	135 × 135 × 135
11	CO ₂ + MEG-H3	10	10,000	135 × 135 × 135
12	CO ₂ + MEG-H4	9	10,000	135 × 135 × 135
13	CO ₂ + MEG-H7	6	10,000	135 × 135 × 135

Long-range electrostatic interactions were computed using the Ewald summation method, and van der Waals (vdW) interactions were calculated via atom-based summation with a 12.5 Å cutoff (medium). Snapshots of the six systems studied are presented in Fig. 4. The MD simulation results show good agreement with the experimental data (Tables S1 and S2 in Supporting Information), thereby validating the reliability of the MD model employed.

The surfactant concentration and experimental phase behavior concentration are both 1 wt%.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Structural characterization of multi-ester headgroup surfactants

Multi-ester headgroup surfactants (MEG-L4, MEG-H3, MEG-H4, MEG-H7) were synthesized as shown in Fig. 1, while MEG-L5 and MEG-L6 were prepared as depicted in Fig. 2. Successful syntheses of all surfactants were confirmed using FT-IR and ¹H NMR spectroscopy.

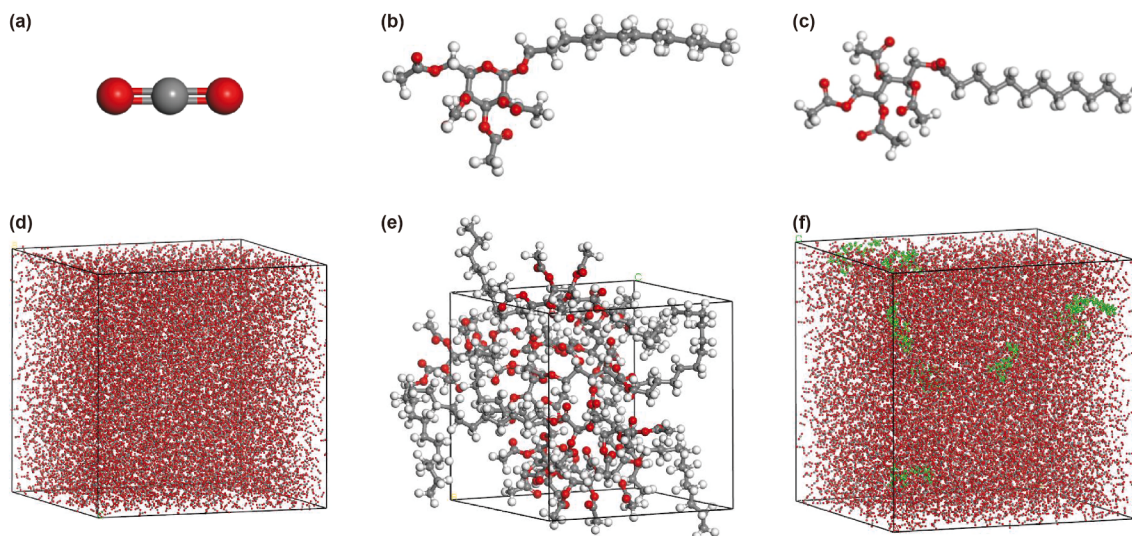


Fig. 4. Snapshots of the simulation boxes: (a) CO₂; (b) MEG-H4; (c) MEG-L4; (d) CO₂ system; (e) MEG-L4 system; (f) CO₂-PEG-L4 system.

Fig. 5(a) presents the FT-IR spectra of linear and cyclic multi-ester headgroup surfactants (MEG-L4, MEG-H3, MEG-H4, and MEG-H7). Sharp, intense peaks at 2923–2927 cm⁻¹ were attributed to the asymmetric stretching vibration of –CH₂– groups. Intense peaks at 1735–1745 cm⁻¹ were assigned to the C=O stretching vibration of ester groups. Medium-intensity peaks at 1367–1371 cm⁻¹ were attributed to the symmetric bending vibration of –CH₃– groups. Intense peaks at 1213–1218 cm⁻¹ were assigned to the C–O–C stretching vibration of esters, while medium-intensity peaks at 1034–1043 cm⁻¹ corresponded to the symmetric C–O stretching vibration of ester groups. Fig. 5(b) shows the FT-IR spectra of MEG-L5 and MEG-L6. The acetylated gluconic acid precursor displayed a medium-intensity peak at 3216–3233 cm⁻¹, attributed to the –OH stretching vibration of carboxylic acids. After esterification, this peak vanished, and a peak at 2853 cm⁻¹ emerged, assigned to the asymmetric stretching vibration of –CH₂–, confirming ester formation from carboxyl and hydroxyl groups. Sharp, intense peaks at 1741–1743 cm⁻¹ and 1173–1184 cm⁻¹ were assigned to the C=O and C–O–C stretching vibrations of ester groups, respectively. These FT-IR results confirm the successful synthesis of multi-ester headgroup surfactants. The

FT-IR spectra of multi-ester-headgroup surfactants bearing alkyl chains of varying lengths are presented in Fig. S1 in Supporting Information.

Fig. 6 shows the ¹H NMR spectra of MEG series surfactants. Fig. 6(a) displays the ¹H NMR spectrum of acetylated gluconic acid. In the high-field region, a peak at 1.94 ppm was assigned to methyl group protons a, and two intense peaks at 1.97 ppm were attributed to methyl group protons b. These three methyl groups share the same chemical environment. A peak at 2.07 ppm, assigned to methyl group c, is slightly downfield due to deshielding by the adjacent carboxylic acid. A multiplet at 4.11 ppm (integral = 2) was assigned to methylene protons d. Peaks at 4.96 and 5.19 ppm were assigned to tertiary protons e and f, while multiplets at 5.39 and 5.52 ppm were attributed to tertiary protons g and h. Proton g, deshielded by an adjacent oxygen atom, exhibits a downfield shift.

Fig. 6(b) displays the ¹H NMR spectrum of MEG-L5. In the high-field region, a multiplet at 0.87 ppm was assigned to terminal methyl protons a. A peak at 1.25 ppm was assigned to methylene protons b, and peaks at 1.47 and 1.61 ppm were attributed to methylene protons c and d. Multiplets from 2.12 to 1.90 ppm

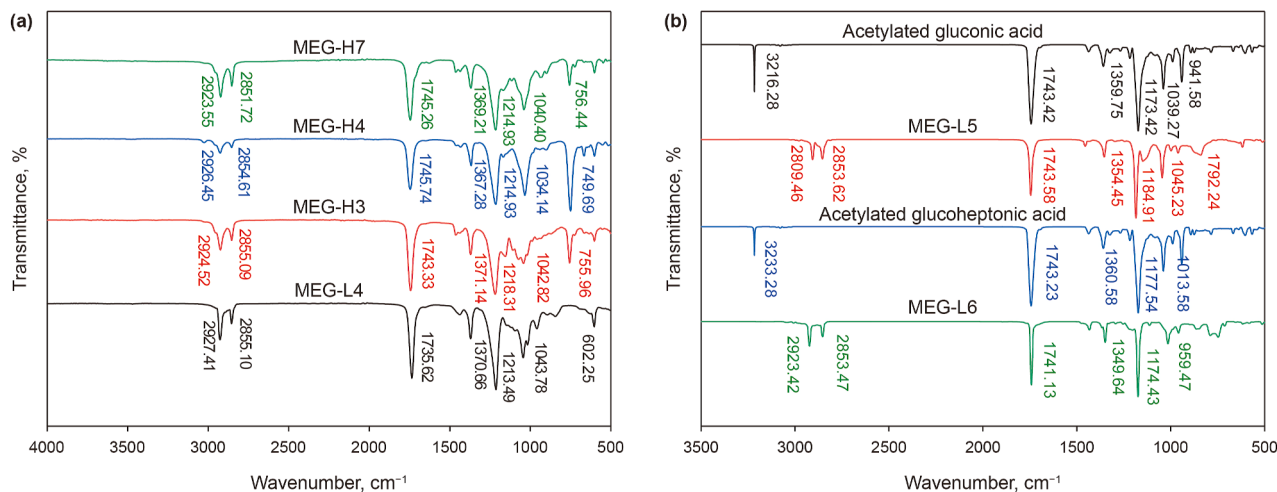


Fig. 5. FT-IR spectra of MEG surfactants.

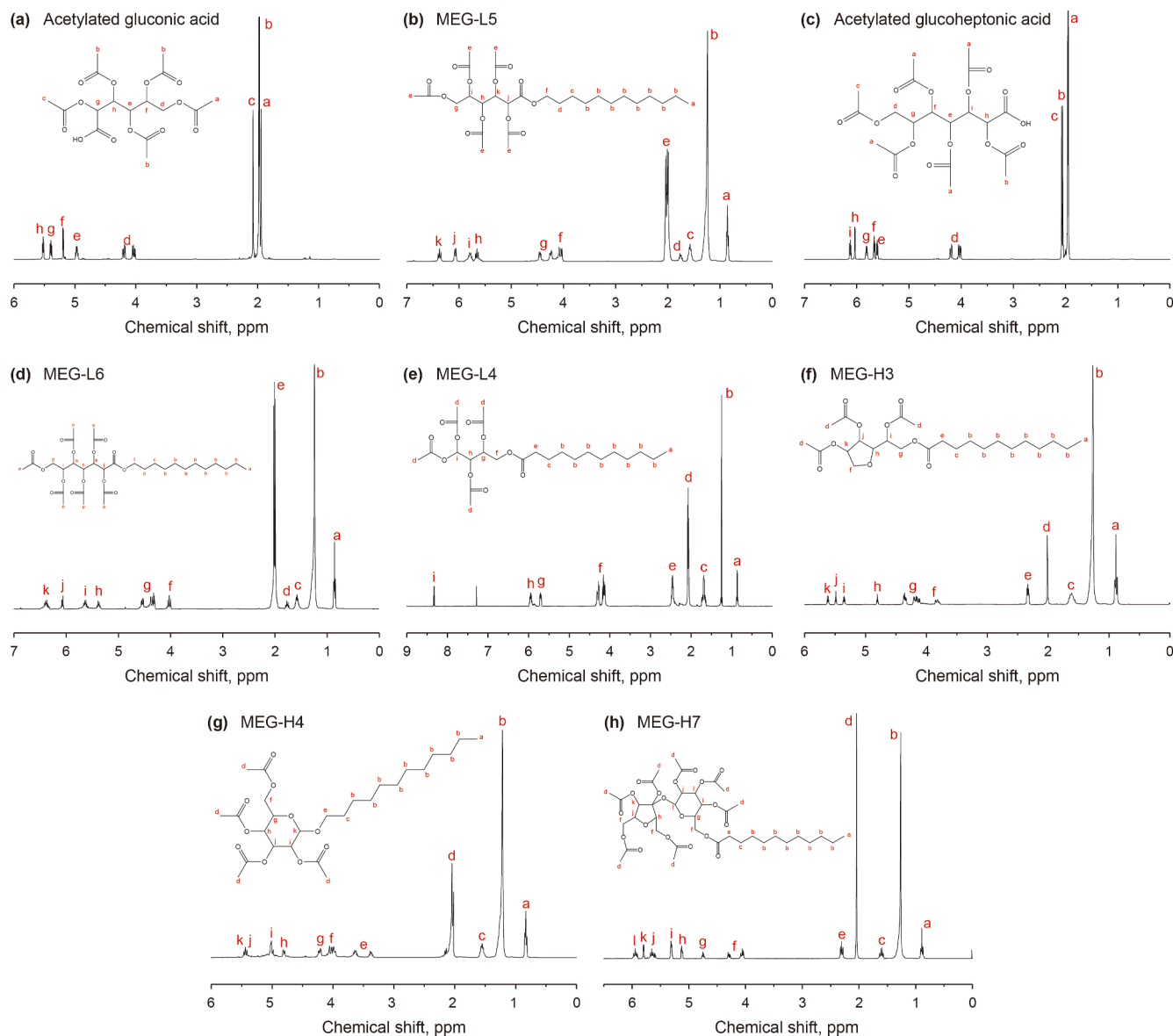


Fig. 6. ^1H NMR spectra of MEG surfactants.

(integral = 15) were assigned to five equivalent methyl group sets. Signals at 4.07 and 4.51–4.20 ppm were assigned to methylene protons f and g, deshielded by adjacent oxygen atoms. A peak at 5.66 ppm (integral = 1) was assigned to proton h, with peaks at 5.57, 6.05, and 6.39 ppm attributed to protons i, j, and k, respectively, all shifted downfield due to oxygen deshielding.

Combined FT-IR and ^1H NMR analyses confirmed the successful synthesis of MEG-L5. The ^1H NMR spectra of MEG-L4, MEG-L6, MEG-H3, MEG-H4, MEG-H7, and other multi-ester-headgroup surfactants bearing alkyl chains of varying lengths are presented in Fig. S2 in Supporting Information.

3.2. Dissolution behavior of multi-ester headgroup surfactants in CO_2

To evaluate the solubility of multi-ester headgroup surfactants in CO_2 , the phase behavior of surfactant– CO_2 binary systems was studied using a high-pressure, high-temperature visual reactor (Fig. 2).

3.2.1. Phase behavior of surfactant– CO_2 binary systems

Fig. 7 depicts the phase behavior of the MEG-L5– CO_2 system at 323.15 K. With increasing pressure, gaseous CO_2 occupied the upper reactor, while CO_2 at the bottom liquefied, forming a clear gas–liquid interface (Fig. 7(a)). At 9 MPa, CO_2 in the reactor reached a supercritical state, appearing viscous at the bottom (Fig. 7(b)). At this stage, MEG-L5 began dissolving in supercritical CO_2 (sc CO_2), reflecting enhanced CO_2 solvation capacity with increasing pressure (Lemaire et al., 2022). At 16 MPa, MEG-L5 fully dissolved in CO_2 , rendering the reactor clear and transparent (Fig. 7(c)). During depressurization, turbidity emerged at 9.5 MPa (Fig. 7(d)), signaling the onset of MEG-L5 phase separation from the homogeneous system. At 4 MPa, most MEG-L5 had separated from CO_2 , with liquid CO_2 accumulating at the reactor bottom (Fig. 7(e)). At 1 MPa, bubble formation, resembling boiling water, was observed in the reactor groove (Fig. 7(g)), due to CO_2 escaping from MEG-L5. Upon further depressurization to 0 MPa, precipitated MEG-L5 was evident in the reactor groove (Fig. 7(h)), confirming its high CO_2 solubility.

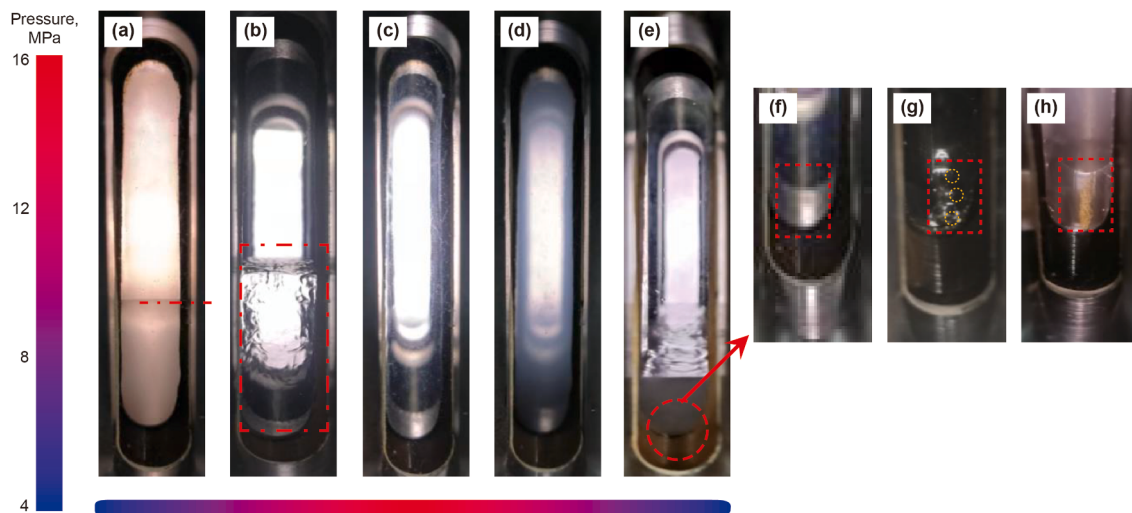


Fig. 7. Phase behavior of MEG-L5 + CO₂ system (323.15 K).

3.2.2. Effect of ester group number and arrangement on the solubility of multi-ester headgroup surfactants in CO₂

Ester groups are known to exhibit high CO₂-philicity (Liao et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2024b; Ma et al., 2022a). The number and spatial arrangement of CO₂-philic ester groups significantly influence the solubility of multi-ester headgroup surfactants in CO₂. Fig. 8(a) depicts the variation in transmitted light power with pressure for surfactant–CO₂ systems at 1 wt% concentration. Above 14 MPa, the transmitted light power stabilized, indicating a homogeneous, transparent binary system. As the pressure approached the phase transition point, the transmitted light power decreased sharply, indicating partial surfactant precipitation and the formation of a two-phase system.

Fig. 8(b) shows the first derivative of transmitted light power with respect to pressure, where the extrema correspond to the cloud point pressure of each surfactant. The cloud point pressure increases in the following order: MEG-L5 < MEG-L4 < MEG-L6 < MEG-H4 < MEG-H3 < MEG-H7. These results yield two conclusions: (1) The arrangement of CO₂-philic ester groups strongly influences CO₂ solubility, with linear arrangements outperforming cyclic ones. (2) For a given arrangement, the cloud point pressure initially decreases and then increases with the number of ester groups, suggesting an optimal ester density for maximizing CO₂

solubility. This trend is consistent with the findings of Potluri et al. (2002). Therefore, rational selection of both the number and the spatial arrangement of ester groups in the CO₂-philic headgroup is crucial for the design and optimization of hydrocarbon-based CO₂-philic surfactants.

Table 3 summarizes the cloud point pressures of representative hydrocarbon-based CO₂-philic surfactants at specified temperatures and concentrations. Among the surfactants compared, the multi-ester headgroup surfactants exhibit the lowest cloud point pressures under identical temperature and concentration conditions, indicating superior CO₂ solubility. These multi-ester headgroup surfactants dissolve completely in CO₂ at pressures below 12 MPa, a value substantially lower than the typical MMP required for CO₂ miscible flooding in most Chinese reservoirs (20–30 MPa (Lv et al., 2022)). Consequently, multi-ester headgroup surfactants show promising potential for application in CO₂-enhanced oil recovery processes.

3.2.3. Effect of temperature on the solubility of multi-ester-headgroup surfactants in CO₂

Using MEG-L5 as a representative example, the temperature dependence of solubility for multi-ester headgroup surfactants in CO₂ was evaluated via cloud point pressure measurements. As

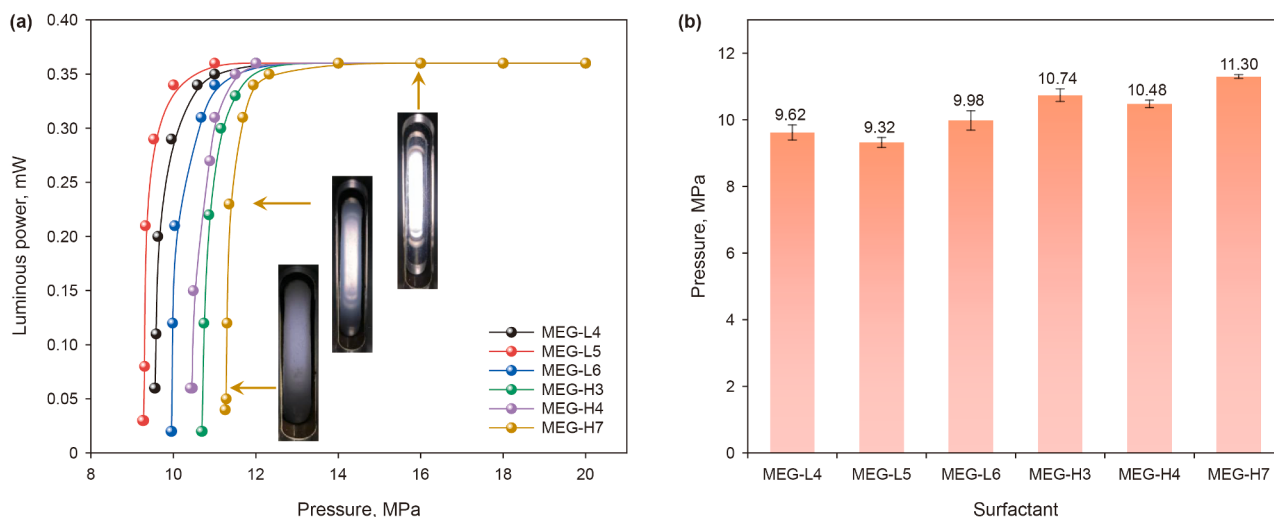


Fig. 8. Dissolution performance of MEG surfactant–CO₂ systems. (a) Variation in transmitted light power with pressure. (b) Cloud point pressures of MEG surfactant–CO₂ systems.

Table 3
Cloud point pressures of surfactants in relevant literature.

Surfactant	Concentration, wt%	Temperature, K	Cloud pressure, MPa
Polyether (AEO ₃) (Xu et al., 2025)	1	308.15	13.50
Alkyl block polyether (C ₄ PO ₃) (Lv et al., 2020)	0.4	323.15	10.12
Multiester (6JU12) (Li et al., 2026)	0.25	333	10.80
Polyoxyethylene polyoxypropylene ether (C ₄ EO ₃ PO ₃) (Zhang et al., 2024a)	1	323	14.00
MEG-L5	1	323.15	9.32

illustrated in Fig. 9, the cloud point pressure rises with increasing temperature, indicating that higher temperatures reduce surfactant solubility in CO₂. This trend stems mainly from the fact that increasing temperature substantially decreases the density of supercritical CO₂, on which its solvation power strongly depends. Higher CO₂ density strengthens dispersion forces and specific solute–solvent interactions (e.g., LA–LB interactions) between CO₂ and the surfactant. Consequently, within a fixed pressure range, the temperature-driven density reduction markedly diminishes the solvation capability of CO₂. Detailed examination indicates that the cloud point pressure increases relatively slowly with temperature in the range of 308.15–323.15 K (9.02–9.32 MPa), whereas the rate becomes markedly steeper above 323.15 K (323.15–333.15 K). This change in slope arises from the competing effects of temperature: a reduction in CO₂ density (detrimental to solubility) versus an increase in surfactant molecular thermal motion/kinetic energy (favorable to solubility). Enhanced thermal motion enables surfactant molecules to overcome intermolecular cohesive forces and facilitates greater dispersion, thereby positively contributing to solubility. In the lower temperature range (308.15–323.15 K), the favorable effect of increased surfactant thermal motion largely offsets the adverse impact of decreasing CO₂ density, resulting in a relatively gradual increase in cloud point pressure. At higher temperatures (>323.15 K), however, the detrimental effect of CO₂ density reduction dominates,

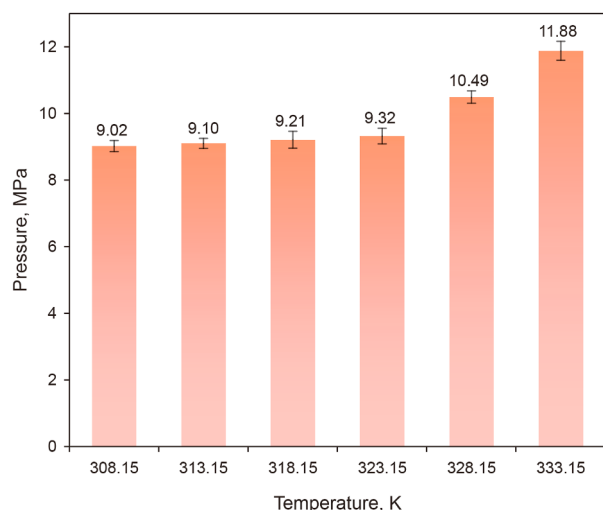


Fig. 9. Effect of temperature on cloud point pressure.

outweighing the benefit of enhanced thermal motion and producing a much steeper rise in cloud point pressure.

3.2.4. Effect of alkyl chain length on the solubility of multi-ester headgroup surfactants in CO₂

The CO₂-philic headgroup of multi-ester headgroup surfactants consists primarily of ester groups, whereas the lipophilic tail comprises linear alkyl chains of varying lengths. As CO₂-phobic moieties, these alkyl chains inevitably influence the overall CO₂ solubility of these surfactants. Therefore, the impact of alkyl chain lengths (C₈, C₁₀, C₁₂, and C₁₄) on the CO₂ solubility of the cyclic multi-ester headgroup surfactant MEG-H4 was systematically investigated, as shown in Fig. 10.

Under identical experimental conditions, the cloud point pressure of the MEG-H4–CO₂ binary system increases with increasing alkyl chain length. When the alkyl chain reaches C₁₄, the cloud point pressure reaches 10.72 MPa, demonstrating that longer alkyl chains exert a negative effect on surfactant solubility in CO₂. In the C₈–C₁₂ range, the cloud point pressure increases gradually, suggesting that the strong CO₂ affinity of the multi-ester headgroup largely compensates for the detrimental influence of increasing chain length. However, extending the chain to C₁₄ raises the cloud point pressure sharply to 11.34 MPa, revealing that the adverse effect of the alkyl tail becomes dominant and causes a pronounced discontinuity in the trend. This suggests the existence of an optimal alkyl chain length range for a given CO₂-philic headgroup structure. For multi-ester headgroup surfactants, alkyl chain lengths exceeding C₁₂ appear to compromise the balance between CO₂ solubility and molecular amphiphilicity. Thus, an appropriate alkyl chain length must provide sufficient lipophilicity while maintaining relatively low cloud point pressures in CO₂. Accordingly, judicious selection of alkyl chain length is critical for the design and optimization of hydrocarbon-based CO₂-philic surfactants.

3.3. Effect of interaction energy on the solubility of multi-ester headgroup surfactants

The dissolution of surfactants in CO₂ is a thermodynamic equilibrium process governed by enthalpy and entropy. From an enthalpic perspective, enthalpy change drives dissolution, reflecting net changes in intermolecular interaction energy.

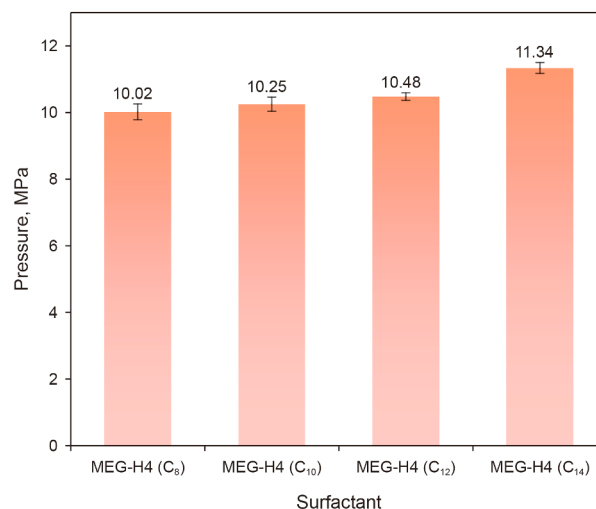


Fig. 10. Effect of alkyl chain length on cloud point pressure.

Parameters including solubility parameters, interaction energies, and intermolecular forces offer insights into the enthalpic contribution.

3.3.1. Solubility parameter

The solubility parameter is a critical metric for predicting solute solubility in a solvent, as proposed by Hildebrand and Scott (1950). The solubility parameter, defined as the square root of the cohesive energy density (Hansen, 1969), is calculated as follows:

$$\delta = \sqrt{e_{\text{coh}}} = \sqrt{\frac{E_{\text{coh}}}{V}} \quad (1)$$

where δ is the solubility parameter; e_{coh} is the cohesive energy density; E_{coh} is the cohesive energy; and V is the volume of the simulation box.

Thermodynamic studies show that spontaneous surfactant dissolution in CO₂ requires a negative Gibbs free energy change.

$$\Delta G_{\text{mix}} = \Delta H_{\text{mix}} - T\Delta S_{\text{mix}} < 0 \quad (2)$$

where ΔH_{mix} represents the enthalpy change of mixing; ΔS_{mix} represents the entropy change of mixing; and T is the absolute temperature. During dissolution, molecular arrangements tend toward disorder, resulting in $\Delta S_{\text{mix}} > 0$. Consequently, spontaneous surfactant dissolution in CO₂ is primarily driven by ΔH_{mix} . The relationship between mixing enthalpy and solubility parameters is expressed in Eq. (3):

$$\Delta H_{\text{mix}} = V_m \phi_a \phi_b (\sqrt{e_{\text{coh}1}} - \sqrt{e_{\text{coh}2}})^2 = V_{\text{mix}} \phi_a \phi_b (\delta_a - \delta_b)^2 \quad (3)$$

where V_m is the molar mixing volume; subscripts “a” and “b” represent the solvent and solute, respectively; ϕ is the volume fraction of each component. Eq. (3) indicates that the closer the solubility parameters between solvent and solute, the lower the mixing enthalpy, facilitating dissolution.

Solubility parameter differences ($\Delta\delta$) are presented in Table 4. The $\Delta\delta$ values between CO₂ and multi-ester headgroup surfactants follow the order: MEG-L5 < MEG-L4 < MEG-L6 < MEG-H4 < MEG-H3 < MEG-H7, indicating that MEG-L5, with five linearly arranged ester groups, exhibits the highest CO₂ compatibility. Under fixed ester group arrangement, increasing the number of ester groups initially reduces the difference in solubility parameters (δ) between the surfactant and CO₂, followed by an increase. This corresponds to an initial enhancement followed by a decline in CO₂ affinity, in agreement with Potluri's observation (Potluri et al., 2002) that CO₂ affinity is maximized at an optimal ester group density in the molecule. Both MEG-L4 and MEG-H4 contain four ester groups, with linear arrangement in MEG-L4 and cyclic in MEG-H4. The $\Delta\delta$ values show that linear ester arrangements exhibit greater CO₂-philicity than cyclic ones, highlighting spatial

arrangement of CO₂-philic ester groups as a key factor in CO₂ affinity. Greenhalgh et al. (1999) states that substances with $\Delta\delta < 7.0$ (J/cm³)^{-0.5} are highly miscible, while $\Delta\delta > 10$ (J/cm³)^{-0.5} indicates poor miscibility. The results demonstrate that multi-ester headgroup surfactants exhibit excellent solubility in CO₂. Phase behavior experiments reveal that these surfactants dissolve completely in CO₂ at pressures below 12 MPa and a concentration of 1 wt%. This value is substantially lower than the typical MMP in Chinese reservoirs, which generally exceeds 20 MPa. These findings indicate that multi-ester headgroup surfactants possess promising potential for application in CO₂-enhanced oil recovery. Concurrently, the good agreement between simulation and experimental results confirms the capability of MD simulations to accurately describe and predict the miscibility of these surfactants with CO₂.

3.3.2. Interaction energy of MEG–CO₂ systems

Interaction energy directly indicates the affinity of surfactants for CO₂ (Lv et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2024a). Fig. 11(a) and (b) show intermolecular interaction energies in multi-ester headgroup surfactant–CO₂ binary systems. The surfactant–surfactant interaction energies range from –82.56 to –162.39 kcal/mol, which are significantly less negative than the surfactant–CO₂ interaction energies (from –435.15 to –387.25 kcal/mol). This suggests that multi-ester headgroup surfactants exhibit weak self-interactions, aligning with Sarbu's design principle (Sarbu et al., 2000) that excessive solute–solute interaction energies impair solubility. In Fig. 11(a), the surfactant–surfactant interaction energy becomes progressively more negative (stronger attraction) with increasing ester group number from MEG-L4 to MEG-L6, reaching a maximum magnitude of –435.15 kcal/mol for MEG-L6. This trend appears inconsistent with the experimental cloud point pressure behavior of the linear multi-ester headgroup surfactants, which first decreases and then increases, with MEG-L5 exhibiting the lowest value (9.32 MPa) compared to MEG-L6 (9.98 MPa). In contrast, for the cyclic multi-ester headgroup surfactants (MEG-H3 to MEG-H7), the surfactant–surfactant interaction energy first becomes more negative and then less negative with increasing ester group number (Fig. 11(b)), peaking at –410.25 kcal/mol for MEG-H4. This non-monotonic trend aligns well with the solubility behavior as characterized by cloud point pressures.

To compare molecular interaction strengths within the same system, an energy increment ratio was defined. The energy increment ratio is calculated for a reference system as follows:

$$X = \frac{E_n - E}{E} \times 100\% \quad (4)$$

where X is the energy increment ratio, %; E_n is the interaction energy of the comparison system, kcal/mol; and E is the interaction energy of the reference system, kcal/mol. For linear multi-ester headgroup surfactants, MEG-L4 was the reference, while for cyclic multi-ester headgroup surfactants, MEG-H3 was used.

In linear ester headgroup surfactant–CO₂ binary systems (Fig. 11(a)), increasing ester group number reduces CO₂–CO₂ interaction energy by < 2% and increases surfactant–CO₂ interaction energy by < 3%. In contrast, surfactant–surfactant interaction energy increases by up to 80%. This suggests that increasing ester group number slightly disrupts CO₂ aggregation, but surfactant aggregation persists, competing with surfactant–CO₂ interactions and reducing CO₂ solubility. These results suggest that simply increasing the number of CO₂-philic groups (ester moieties) does not necessarily enhance overall CO₂ solubility, analogous to the behavior reported for amino-group-containing compounds (Zhang et al., 2021). This explains why MEG-L6 shows stronger

Table 4
Cohesive energy density and solubility parameters of different systems (323.15 K, 20 MPa).

No.	System	e_{coh} , J/m ³	δ , (J/cm ³) ^{-0.5}	$\Delta\delta$, (J/cm ³) ^{-0.5}
1	CO ₂	1.595×10^8	12.629	0
2	MEG-L4	3.390×10^8	18.411	5.782
3	MEG-L5	3.347×10^8	18.293	5.664
4	MEG-L6	3.406×10^8	18.455	5.826
5	MEG-H3	3.478×10^8	18.650	6.021
6	MEG-H4	3.444×10^8	18.558	5.929
7	MEG-H7	3.513×10^8	18.741	6.112

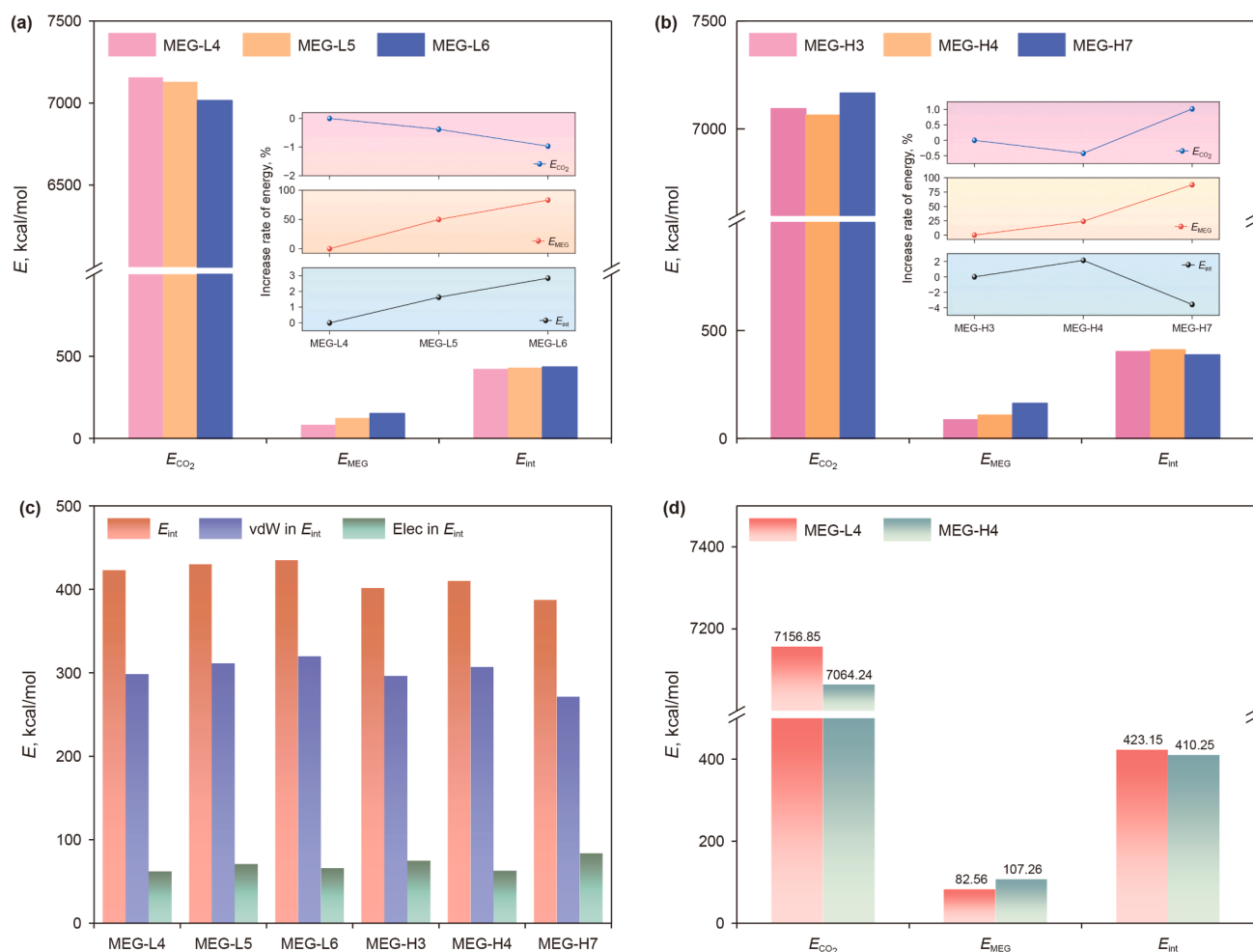


Fig. 11. Interaction energies in binary systems. (a) Interaction energies of linear ester headgroup surfactant- CO_2 systems. (b) Interaction energies of cyclic ester headgroup surfactant- CO_2 systems. (c) Components of interaction energies in binary systems. (d) Comparison of interaction energies between linear and cyclic ester headgroup surfactants. E_{CO_2} represents the interaction energy between CO_2 molecules; E_{MEG} represents the interaction energy between MEG molecules; E_{int} represents the interaction energy between CO_2 and MEG molecules.

surfactant- CO_2 interactions than MEG-L5, yet exhibits a higher cloud point pressure. The additional ester group leads to a greater increase in the magnitude of surfactant-surfactant interaction energy compared to the increase in surfactant- CO_2 interaction energy. In the cyclic surfactant- CO_2 binary system (Fig. 11(b)), the CO_2 - CO_2 intermolecular interaction energy first becomes less negative and then more negative (variation within 2%), whereas the surfactant- CO_2 interaction energy first becomes more negative and then less negative (variation of 3.59%). Meanwhile, the surfactant-surfactant interaction energy becomes dramatically more negative, increasing in magnitude by 87.68% at MEG-H7. This suggests that the cyclic arrangement of ester groups promotes surfactant self-aggregation, especially at higher ester group numbers (MEG-H7), thereby significantly impairing CO_2 solubility. Fig. 11(c) indicates that interaction energy between multi-ester headgroup surfactants and CO_2 primarily comprises van der Waals (vdW) and electrostatic forces, with vdW contributions exceeding 70%, underscoring their dominant role in CO_2 affinity. Fig. 9(d) compares linear and cyclic ester arrangements with the same ester group number, revealing stronger interaction energies for linear arrangements ($[-423.15] \text{ kcal/mol} > [-410.25] \text{ kcal/mol}$). These findings support the following conclusions: Linear CO_2 -philic ester group arrangements yield stronger surfactant- CO_2 interaction energies. An optimal ester group number maximizes

surfactant- CO_2 interactions, while excessive ester groups enhance surfactant-surfactant interactions, competing with surfactant- CO_2 interactions. Interaction energy between multi-ester headgroup surfactants and CO_2 is primarily driven by vdW and electrostatic forces, with vdW forces dominating.

3.3.3. RDFs of multi-ester headgroup surfactants- CO_2

To clarify the role of specific atoms in multi-ester headgroup surfactants' CO_2 affinity, RDFs of atom pairs were analyzed (Lv et al., 2023; Thompson et al., 2022). RDFs reveal molecular aggregation and interaction patterns within the system, offering insights into microscopic structure. Atom numbering for C, O, and H in surfactants is presented in Table 1.

RDF results (Fig. 12(a)) indicate that CO_2 carbon atoms primarily aggregate around surfactant carbon atoms at 4.29–5.16 Å, which is consistent with van der Waals interaction ranges (Small, 1953). Among these, C_1 (methyl carbon) shows the shortest distance (4.29 Å) to CO_2 carbon with the highest RDF peak, suggesting preferential accumulation around the terminal methyl group. Fig. 12(b) presents RDFs of surfactant carbon atoms with CO_2 oxygen atoms, with peaks at 3.93–4.95 Å. Shorter interaction distances indicate stronger C-O interactions than C-C interactions, as CO_2 oxygen acts as a Lewis base (LB) donating lone pair electrons, while surfactant carbon atoms serve as Lewis acids (LA), forming

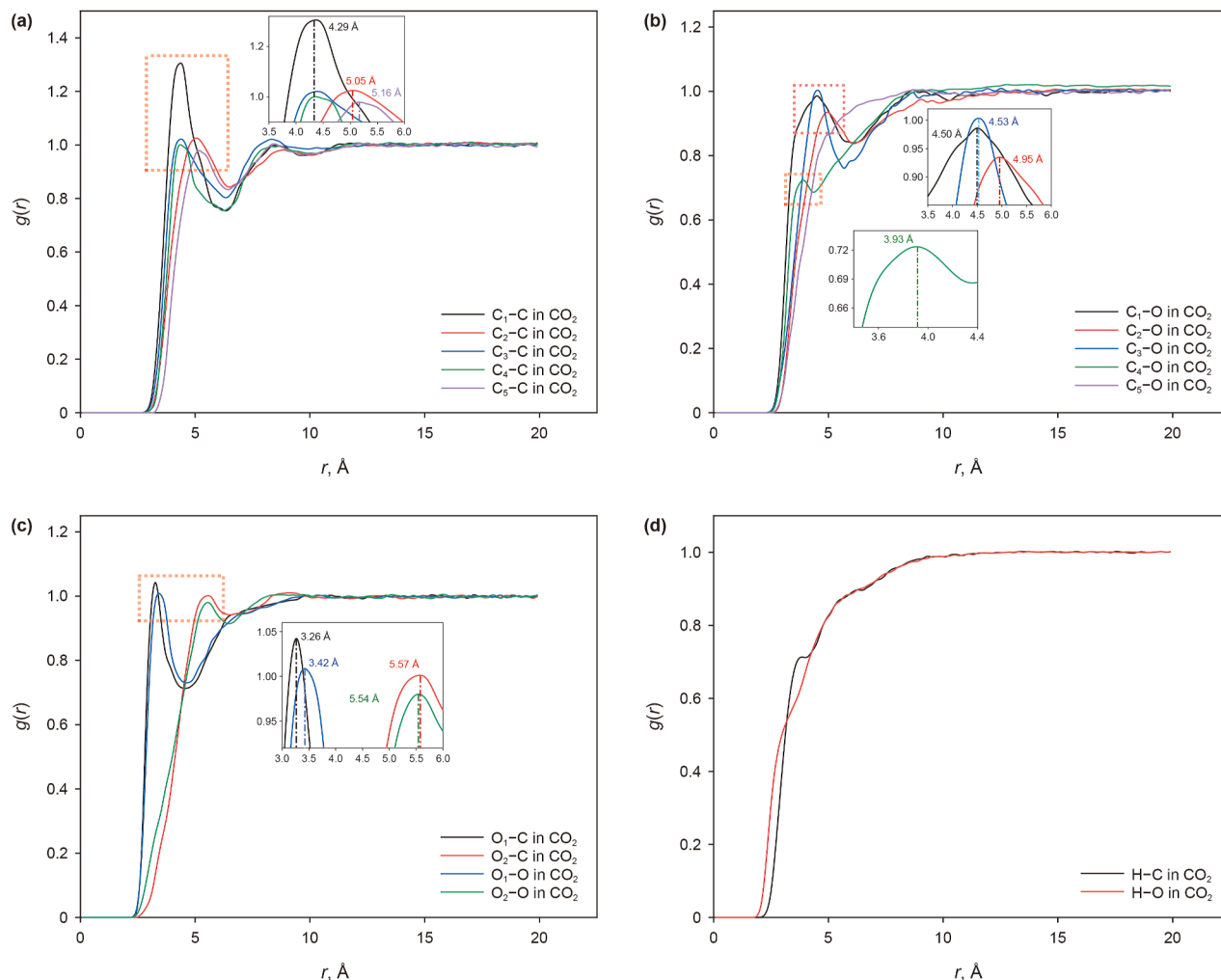


Fig. 12. RDFs between atoms in MEG-L5 and atoms in CO₂. (a) C in MEG-L5-C in CO₂; (b) C in MEG-L5-O in CO₂; (c) O in MEG-L5-CO₂; (d) H in MEG-L5-CO₂.

LA-LB interactions. The C₄ atom, bonded to the ester group, carries a partial positive charge due to the carbonyl oxygen's electron-withdrawing effect, leading to stronger C₄-O interactions (3.93 Å). However, steric hindrance reduces contact frequency, resulting in a lower RDF peak. Fig. 12(c) shows RDFs of surfactant oxygen atoms with CO₂ carbon and oxygen atoms. The carbonyl oxygen O₁ shows RDF peaks at 3.26 Å (with CO₂ carbon) and 3.42 Å (with CO₂ oxygen). In O₁-C pairs, O₁ acts as a LB donating lone pair electrons, while CO₂ carbon acts as a LA with an empty orbital, forming LA-LB interactions; O₁-O pairs are governed by dispersion forces. The carbonyl's electron-withdrawing effect weakens the ester C-O bond compared to ethers, leading to weaker O₂ (ester ether oxygen)-CO₂ C/O interactions, with RDF peaks at 5.54 and 5.57 Å. Fig. 12(d) indicates that surfactant hydrogen atoms lack significant RDF peaks with CO₂, suggesting no specific interactions.

These findings support the following conclusions: (1) LA-LB interactions and dispersion forces primarily drive surfactant-CO₂ interactions, with LA-LB interactions being stronger. (2) Terminal methyl carbons engage in strong dispersion and LA-LB interactions with CO₂, explaining enhanced CO₂ solubility with chain-end methylation (Mohamed et al., 2015). (3) O₁ (carbonyl oxygen in ester groups) interacts with CO₂ carbon and oxygen via LA-LB and dispersion forces, enhancing CO₂ affinity, while O₂ (ester ether oxygen) interacts weakly but stabilizes CO₂ binding to

the ester group (Hu et al., 2015). (4) Ester and terminal methyl groups are effective CO₂ binding sites.

3.3.4. Effect of ester group number/configuration on interactions

Fig. 13 compares the aggregation behavior of specific atoms in different surfactants with CO₂. CO₂ primarily aggregates around the C₁ atom at 4.29 Å through dispersion forces. With increasing ester group number, C₁-C dispersion interactions initially increase, then decrease. Cyclic surfactants show a similar trend (Fig. 13(a)), with MEG-L5 exhibiting the highest RDF peak. C₂ and C₃ exhibit the same trend. For C₄, the trend is consistent, but peak positions vary as follows: MEG-L4 > MEG-L5 > MEG-L6, MEG-H3 = MEG-H4 > MEG-H7. This suggests that surfactants with fewer ester groups exhibit stronger interactions. C₄, bonded to the ester's ether oxygen, faces increased steric hindrance with more CO₂-philic ester groups, reducing CO₂ contact and interaction strength. Only in linear ester surfactants does the C₅ atom show a detectable peak with CO₂ carbon atoms; no C₅-C peaks are observed in cyclic surfactants. Analysis of C₅ positions in cyclic surfactants reveals its location on the rigid ring backbone, limiting CO₂ contact and contributing minimally to CO₂ affinity. Similarly, MEG-H4 and MEG-H7 possess a C₆ atom absent in other surfactants. Statistical analysis reveals no C₆-CO₂ carbon RDF peak, due to its embedding in the rigid backbone. These findings support the following

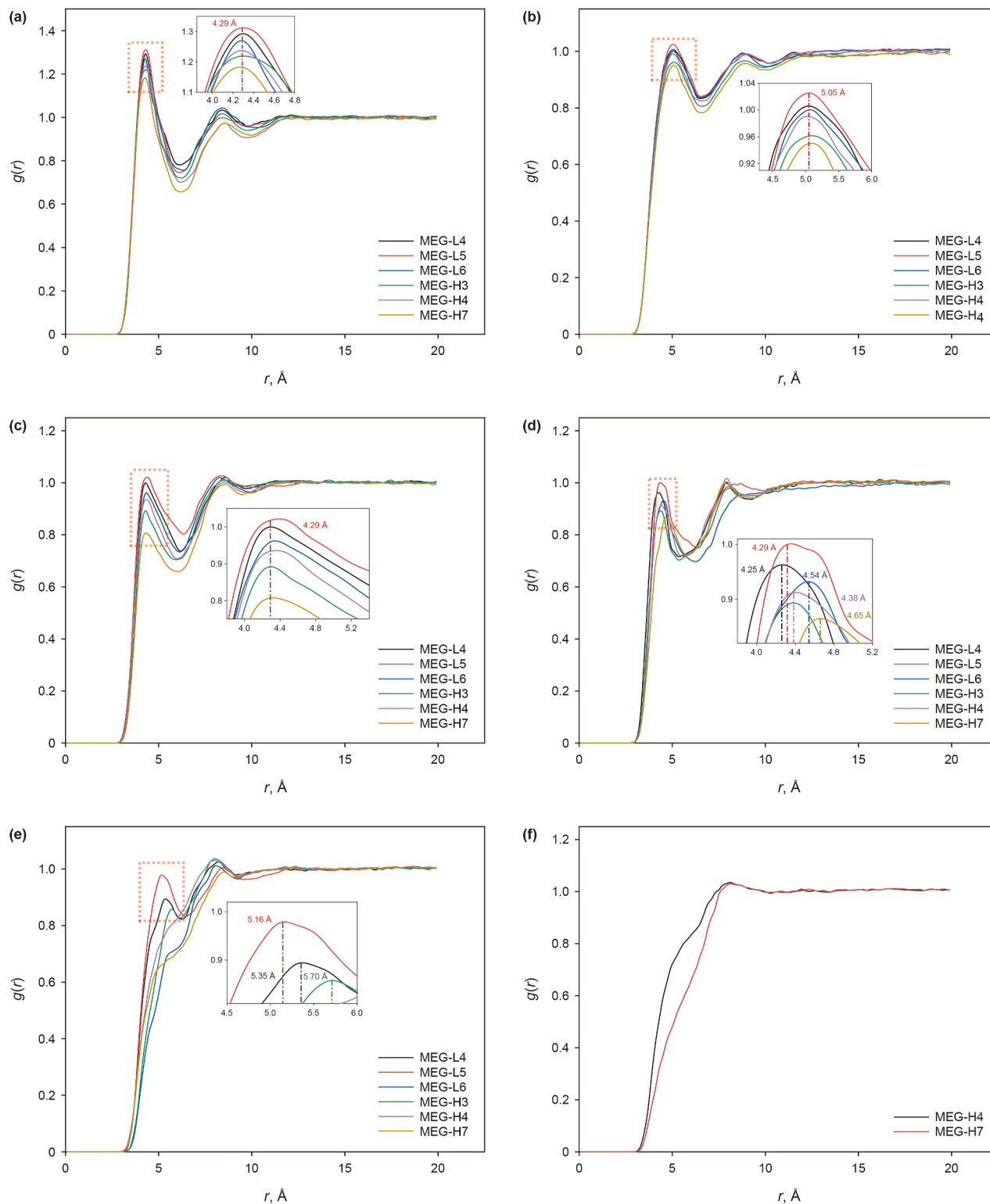


Fig. 13. RDFs between C atoms in MEG surfactants and C atoms in CO₂. (a) C₁-C in CO₂; (b) C₂-C in CO₂; (c) C₃-C in CO₂; (d) C₄-C in CO₂; (e) C₅-C in CO₂; (f) C₆-C in CO₂.

conclusions: (1) An optimal ester group number maximizes dispersion interactions between surfactant carbon and CO₂ carbon atoms. (2) Cyclic multi-ester headgroup surfactants are less effective at promoting C-CO₂ dispersion interactions than linear arrangements. (3) Steric hindrance significantly limits dispersion interactions between surfactant carbon atoms and CO₂.

Fig. 14 presents interactions between carbon atoms in multi-ester headgroup surfactants and CO₂ oxygen atoms. For C₁-C₄, the trend is as follows: MEG-L5 > MEG-L4 > MEG-L6 > MEG-H4 > MEG-H3 > MEG-H7, showing that LA-LB interactions between surfactant C₁-C₄ and CO₂ oxygen atoms initially increase, then decrease with increasing ester group number. Linear ester

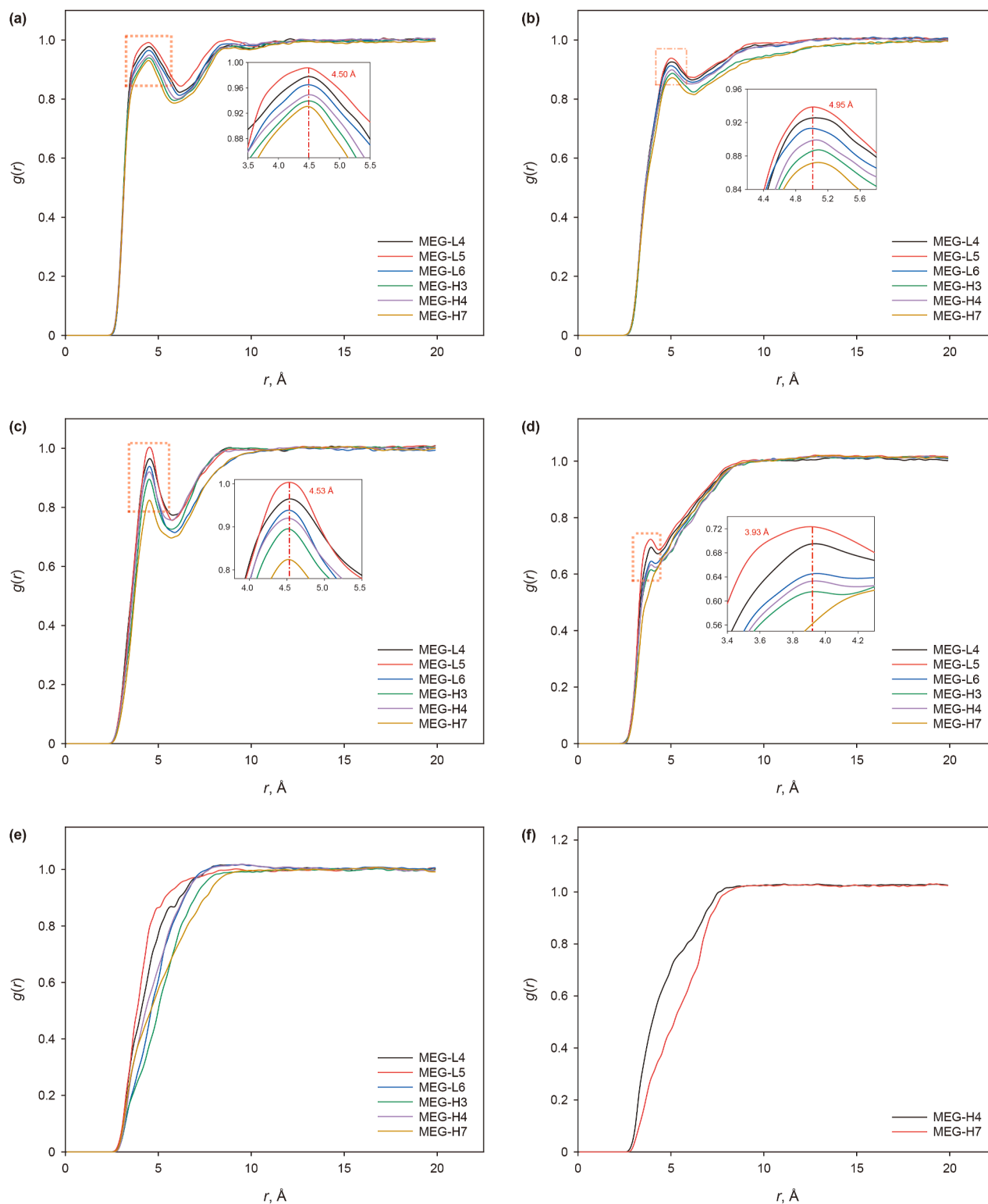


Fig. 14. RDFs between C atoms in MEG surfactants and O atoms in CO₂. (a) C₁-O in CO₂; (b) C₂-O in CO₂; (c) C₃-O in CO₂; (d) C₄-O in CO₂; (e) C₅-O in CO₂; (f) C₆-O in CO₂.

surfactants show stronger LA-LB interactions than cyclic ester surfactants. In contrast, C₅ and C₆ atoms, being sterically hindered, have limited CO₂ contact and contribute minimally to CO₂ affinity.

Fig. 15 shows RDFs of surfactant oxygen and hydrogen atoms with CO₂. CO₂ carbon and oxygen atoms aggregate around O₁

(carbonyl oxygen) at 3.26/3.42 Å and O₂ (ester ether oxygen) at 5.57/5.54 Å, following the trend MEG-L5 > MEG-L4 > MEG-L6 > MEG-H4 > MEG-H3 > MEG-H7. This shows that CO₂ aggregation around O₁/O₂ initially increases, then decreases with increasing ester group number. Cyclic multi-ester headgroup surfactants contain an additional ether oxygen O₃. CO₂ carbon and

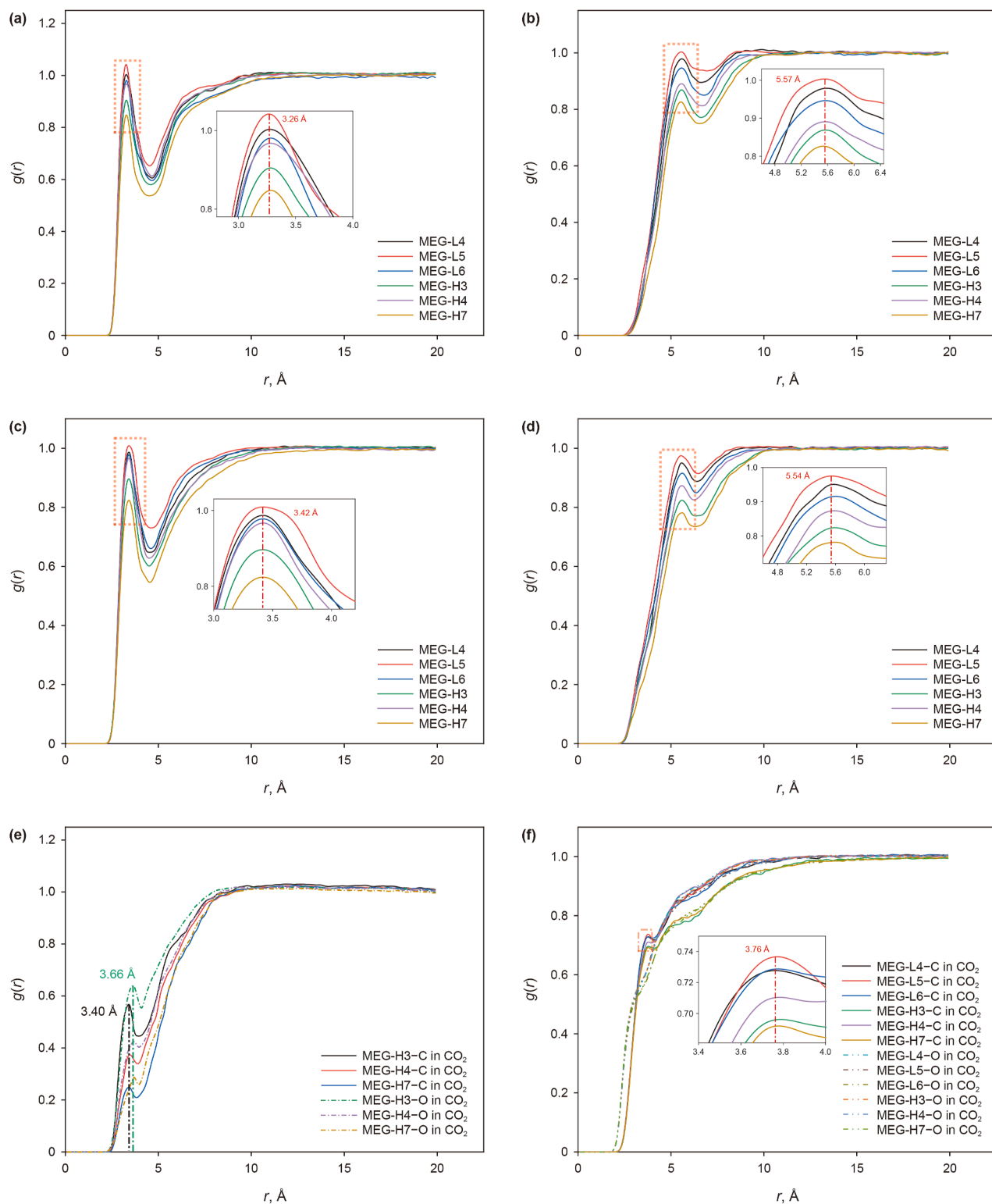


Fig. 15. RDFs between in MEG surfactants in CO₂. (a) O₁-C in CO₂; (b) O₂-C in CO₂; (c) O₁-O in CO₂; (d) O₂-O in CO₂; (e) O₃-CO₂; (f) H-CO₂.

oxygen atoms exhibit RDF peaks at 3.40 and 3.66 Å around O₃, indicating comparable LA-LB and dispersion interactions with CO₂. However, the O₃-O peak intensity exceeds that of O₃-C, suggesting that CO₂ oxygen atoms localize more readily around O₃ than CO₂ carbon atoms. For hydrogen atoms, an RDF peak at 3.76 Å

with CO₂ carbon atoms suggests weak dispersion interactions with minimal contribution.

These findings support the following conclusions: (1) Linear ester surfactants are more effective than cyclic ester surfactants at promoting atomic-level dispersion and LA-LB interactions with

CO₂. (2) An optimal ester group number maximizes LA–LB and dispersion interactions. (3) Increasing ester group number introduces steric hindrance, limiting LA–LB and dispersion interactions.

3.4. Effect of spatial conformation on the solubility of multi-ester headgroup surfactants in CO₂

From an entropic perspective, higher mixing entropy enhances surfactant solubility in CO₂. Free volume and chain flexibility of surfactants strongly influence the entropy of the mixed system.

3.4.1. Effect of free volume fraction on CO₂ solubility

As CO₂ is a weak solvent, minor structural differences in solutes can lead to significant solubility variations, highlighting the critical role of surfactant free volume in solubility. Per the free volume theory by Fox and Flory, the macroscopic volume of a liquid or solid comprises occupied molecular volume and available free volume.

$$f_{\text{free}} = \frac{V_{\text{free}}}{V_{\text{free}} + V_{\text{occupied}}} \quad (5)$$

where f_{free} is the free volume fraction, %; V_{free} is the free volume, Å³; and V_{occupied} is the intrinsic volume of the molecule, Å³.

Fig. 16 presents the variation in fractional free volume (FFV) calculated using the Connolly surface module. FFV reflects the available space for atomic motion within molecules. Higher FFV indicates greater conformational flexibility, promoting favorable conformations for effective CO₂ interactions, thus enhancing solubility. In single-component systems, linear ester headgroup surfactants exhibit significantly higher FFV than cyclic counterparts, suggesting greater flexibility and internal degrees of freedom in linear backbones. This enables linear surfactants to adopt conformations that interact effectively with CO₂. For linear multi-ester headgroup surfactants, FFV initially increases, then decreases with ester group number. At five ester groups, FFV peaks at 18.67%, indicating that CO₂-philic chain segments achieve maximum conformational mobility and form optimal CO₂-binding conformations. However, increasing ester group number further causes CO₂-philic chain entanglement, reducing free volume. In contrast, FFV of cyclic multi-ester headgroup surfactants decreases

monotonically with increasing ester group number. Ester side chains, attached to a rigid cyclic backbone, exhibit restricted rotational flexibility. Although additional ester groups theoretically offer more binding sites (e.g., ester and methyl groups), the rigid backbone predominantly limits favorable conformation formation. Consequently, many potential binding sites fail to interact effectively with CO₂, reducing solubility.

Fig. 17 depicts the variation in FFV for surfactant–CO₂ binary systems. Lower FFV indicates tighter molecular packing and stronger surfactant–CO₂ interactions. For linear ester headgroup surfactants, FFV follows a decrease-then-increase trend with increasing ester group number, with MEG-L5 exhibiting the minimum FFV (50.44%). Initially, additional ester groups offer more CO₂ binding sites, enhancing solubility. Beyond the optimal number, inter-surfactant entanglement reduces available CO₂ binding sites, increasing FFV and decreasing solubility. For cyclic ester headgroup surfactants, FFV also decreases initially, then increases, with MEG-H4 (four ester groups) exhibiting the minimum FFV (51.08%). Unlike single-component systems, the cyclic backbone's rigidity counteracts the effect of additional ester groups, limiting CO₂-philic chain flexibility. In cyclic surfactants, ester group number and backbone rigidity compete: additional ester groups increase potential CO₂ interaction sites, while rigidity reduces conformational freedom and FFV, limiting solubility.

The design principles for surfactants with high CO₂ solubility are as follows: (1) Optimization of CO₂ binding sites: A moderate number of CO₂-philic groups, such as ester groups, ensures sufficient sites for effective CO₂ interactions. (2) Maintaining backbone flexibility: Excessively rigid or bulky backbones (e.g., cyclic structures) should be avoided, as they restrict conformational adaptability and hinder CO₂ binding. (3) Advantages of linear structures: Linear multi-ester headgroup surfactants exhibit high flexibility and large free volume, promoting favorable conformations for stable CO₂ binding. (4) Limitations of cyclic structures: Cyclic multi-ester headgroup surfactants, constrained by rigid backbones, show limited improvement in CO₂ solubility with additional ester groups, as steric hindrance reduces effective CO₂ binding.

3.4.2. Effect of chain segment variation on CO₂ solubility

Molecular simulation equilibrium results were used to analyze chain segment lengths in multi-ester headgroup surfactants, including: alkyl chains, CO₂-philic chains (in cyclic surfactants, the

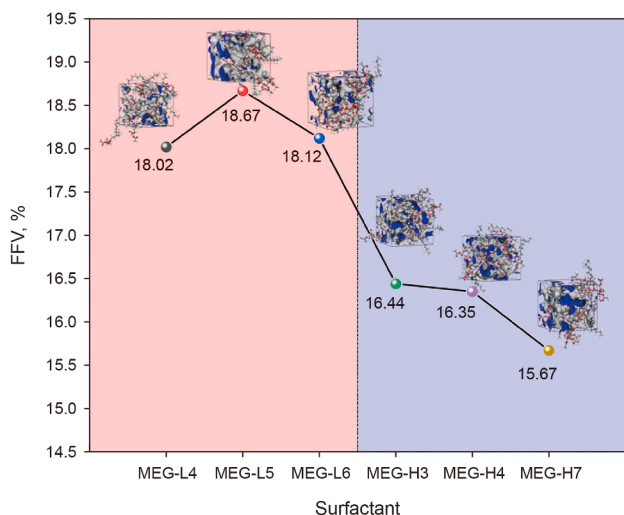


Fig. 16. FFV of multi-ester headgroup surfactants.

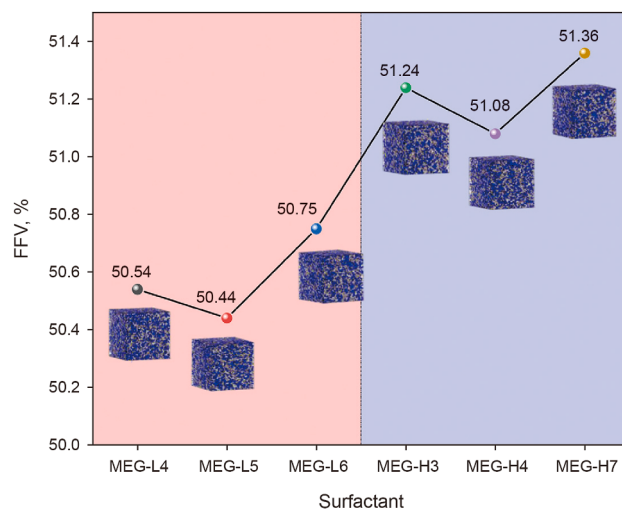


Fig. 17. FFV of MEG surfactant–CO₂ systems.

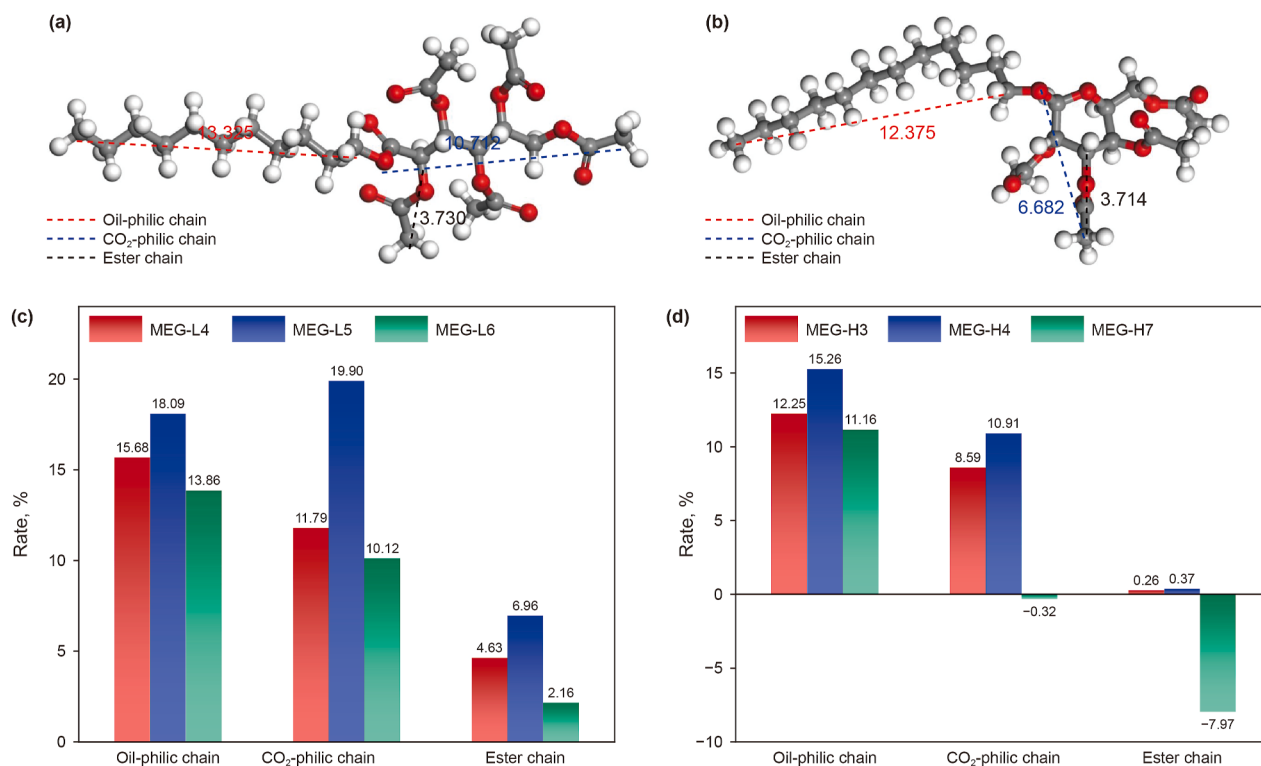


Fig. 18. Variations in the chain segments of MEG surfactants. Chain region segmentation of MEG-L4 (a) and MEG-H4 (b). Chain segment length variation rates for linear ester headgroup surfactants (c) and cyclic ester headgroup surfactants (d).

average length from distal ester chain ends to the cyclic backbone's starting point), and ester side chains (average length of all ester side chains).

$$Y = \frac{L_{sb} - L_{sa}}{L_{sb}} \times 100\% \quad (6)$$

where Y represents the percentage change in multi-ester headgroup surfactant chain segment length before and after equilibrium; L_{sb} denotes the segment length after equilibrium, Å; L_{sa} denotes the initial segment length, Å.

Fig. 18(a) and (b) depict chain region segmentation in linear and cyclic ester headgroup surfactants, respectively. At equilibrium, linear ester headgroup surfactants exhibit varying degrees of alkyl chains, with MEG-L5 exhibiting the greatest elongation (18.09%). CO₂-philic chains also extend significantly, with MEG-L5 showing the highest extension (19.9%). Ester side chains extend by over 2%, reaching 6.96% for MEG-L5. This suggests that increasing the number of ester groups enhances the density of CO₂-philic sites. The combined extension of CO₂-philic main chains and ester side chains maximizes surfactant–CO₂ contact. At six ester groups (MEG-L6), CO₂-philic chain extension decreases. Given that MEG-L6 exhibits the highest intermolecular interaction energy (Fig. 11(a)), this indicates intra- and intermolecular coiling, which reduces the number of effective CO₂ contact sites.

For cyclic ester headgroup surfactants, alkyl chains exhibit some extension. The CO₂-philic chain behavior varies: MEG-H3 and MEG-H4 extend, whereas MEG-H7 exhibits significant coiling (−0.32%). Ester side chains show minimal extension (<1%), with MEG-H7 shortening by −7.97%. These effects are attributed to the rigidity of the cyclic backbones. As the number of ester groups increases, the rotational flexibility of CO₂-philic chains decreases, sharply reducing the formation of favorable conformations and the

entropy of mixing with CO₂. Although Potluri et al. (2003) suggested that outwardly extended, non-embedded cyclic CO₂-philic chains maximize CO₂ contact, the rigid backbone limits such conformations.

The following conclusions can be drawn: Linear multi-ester headgroup surfactants, owing to their greater backbone flexibility, enable cooperative deformation of the alkyl, CO₂-philic, and ester side chains. This promotes the formation of favorable conformations, thereby enhancing CO₂ contact sites as well as induced dipole and dispersion interactions. Cyclic multi-ester headgroup surfactants, despite having extended ester side chains, exhibit limited conformational adaptability due to backbone rigidity. This reduces effective CO₂ contact and weakens intermolecular interactions.

4. Conclusions

This study combines experimental investigations and molecular dynamics simulations to elucidate the dissolution behavior and mechanisms of multi-ester headgroup surfactants in supercritical CO₂. The key findings are as follows: Acetylation and esterification reactions enabled the successful synthesis of MEG surfactants with varying numbers and arrangements of ester group. MEG surfactants fully dissolve in CO₂ below 12 MPa, with linear ester headgroup surfactants showing superior solubility compared to cyclic structures. Among them, MEG-L5, which contains five linearly arranged ester groups, demonstrates the highest CO₂ solubility, with cloud point pressure of 9.32 MPa. This study proposes a microscopic mechanism for the dissolution of multi-ester headgroup surfactants in CO₂. CO₂ solubility is governed by both enthalpic and entropic contributions. From an enthalpic perspective, MEG–CO₂ intermolecular interactions are primarily driven by

van der Waals (vdW) and electrostatic forces, with vdW forces predominating. However, an excessive number of ester groups promotes surfactant self-aggregation, which reduces solubility. At the atomic level, the carbonyl oxygen and terminal methyl carbon in ester groups serve as primary CO₂ binding sites, with Lewis acid–base (LA–LB) and dispersion interactions synergistically enhancing CO₂ affinity. From an entropic perspective, free volume and chain flexibility are critical factors governing solubility. Linear structures, characterized by greater flexibility and larger free volume, more readily adopt favorable conformations for CO₂ interactions. Additionally, free volume and chain flexibility promote favorable enthalpic interactions. Design implications: Since that hydrocarbon-based surfactants interact with CO₂ primarily through LA–LB and dispersion forces, optimizing molecular chain architecture to maximize CO₂ binding sites and interactions is essential for enhancing solubility. The core design principle involves balancing the density of CO₂-philic groups and CO₂ accessibility to binding sites with molecular flexibility. This work provides a validated structure–performance framework for developing novel hydrocarbon-based CO₂-philic surfactants.

Furthermore, the multi-ester-headgroup design principle can be readily extended to other carbohydrate-based surfactants, such as sucrose esters and glucose esters. By systematically varying the number and spatial arrangement of ester groups, a diverse library of CO₂-philic surfactants can be developed, with potential applications not only in CO₂-enhanced oil recovery (EOR) but also in supercritical CO₂ extraction, foam-assisted geological CO₂ storage, and environmentally benign cleaning processes in the chemical industry. Nevertheless, translating these surfactants from laboratory to industrial scale faces several key challenges. Although the esterification route utilizes readily available renewable feedstocks, cost-effective large-scale production will require process optimization, such as adopting continuous-flow reactors or enzymatic catalysis, to compete with conventional CO₂-philic surfactants. Additionally, pilot-scale purification and quality control protocols remain to be validated. In contrast to persistent and potentially toxic fluorinated or siloxane-based surfactants, ester-based surfactants offer inherent biodegradability and are expected to undergo relatively rapid degradation in both subsurface reservoir and surface environments. These advantages are anticipated to unlock the full potential of multi-ester-headgroup CO₂-philic surfactants in CO₂-enhanced oil recovery and broader carbon utilization technologies.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Ning Xu: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Supervision, Project administration, Methodology, Data curation. **Yan-Ling Wang:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Resources, Funding acquisition. **Baojun Bai:** Writing – review & editing, Validation, Supervision. **Shi-Zhang Cui:** Investigation, Funding acquisition. **Yu Zhang:** Methodology, Investigation. **Wen-Jing Shi:** Methodology, Investigation. **Zhao-Nian Zhang:** Methodology, Investigation. **Wen-Hui Ding:** Methodology, Investigation. **Pei-Xu Ma:** Methodology, Investigation. **Zan Gao:** Methodology, Investigation.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Supplementary data

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