

Full Length Article

N-Octylaminopropan-2-ol surfactant for crude-oil asphaltene dispersion: Integrated experimental and modeling insights

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ABSTRACT

This study provides the first-reported evidence that aliphatic structured surfactant, N-octylaminopropan-2-ol (OSI), is a novel and effective inhibitor of the aggregation of acidic, island-structured crude oil asphaltenes (A-ZO). The molecular mechanisms of OSI's effective dispersion were elucidated using a combination of advanced spectroscopic techniques and Density Functional Theory (DFT) calculations. Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FT-IR) and Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) analyses revealed strong interactions between OSI and A-ZO, including hydrogen bonding and acid-base interactions, which prevent asphaltene precipitation in crude oil. Differential Thermal Analysis (DTA) confirmed the chemisorption of 12.5 % OSI onto A-ZO. Dynamic Light Scattering (DLS) measurements showed a significant reduction in the average nanosize of A-ZO in hexane, decreasing from 583 nm to 76 nm after treatment with OSI. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) images of the A-ZO and OSI mixture revealed the filling of deep grooves and cracks on the rough surface of the asphaltene agglomerates, demonstrating the resin-like dispersion effect of OSI. DFT simulation reveals a binding energy of -28.2 kcal/mol for A-ZO and OSI complex formation. Noncovalent interaction (NCI) analysis shows that van der Waals interactions occur [$\text{sign}(\lambda_2)\rho \approx -0.015$ to $+0.005$ au] in a large region between the OSI saturated tail and the A-ZO polycyclic aromatic fragment, which explains experimentally observed well-dispersed state of the hexane + A-ZO mixture after the addition a certain amount of OSI. The detailed, data-driven analysis offers unique molecular-level insights into asphaltene stabilization, presenting OSI as a significant alternative to traditional inhibitors for the oil industry.

1. Introduction

Asphaltenes deposition is one of the drawbacks that reduce oil field productivity [1,2] by clogging wells [3] and deteriorating reservoir rock properties [4,5]. It also leads to undesirable situations such as pipeline contamination [6,7] and increases the density and viscosity of hydrocarbons during oil transportation [8,9] and refining [10,11]. In this context, studying the aggregation process that leads to asphaltene deposition and its mitigation using effective inhibitors (dispersants) is of

particular relevance for both Azerbaijani and global applications [12].

To address the above-mentioned oil production and transportation limitations, the asphaltene physical properties and structure have been extensively studied: asphaltene is insoluble in crude oil and low-molecular-weight alkanes (n-pentane, n-hexane, and n-heptane, etc.) [13,14], but soluble in light aromatic hydrocarbons (toluene, benzene, pyridine, etc.) [15,16]. Its molecular structure contains heavy metals (notably V + Ni: 0.0049–0.1795 %) and heteroatoms (N: 1–1.5 %, O: 7–14 %, S: 0.1–0.4 %) [17–19]. The asphaltene structure mainly consists

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of condensed polyaromatic rings with alkyl chains and cycloparaffins [20,21]. The complex supramolecular asphaltene structure, known as the heaviest and most polar oil component, is described by two main models: the island model and the archipelago model [22]. In the island model, alkyl chains substitute around polycyclic aromatic core, while in the archipelago model, these cores are interconnected by alkyl chains [23–27]. The weak interactions between asphaltene molecules (e.g. van der Waals, hydrogen bonding, and π - π interactions) play a crucial role in the asphaltene precipitation/deposition [28–32].

Many approaches have been proposed to prevent asphaltene deposition [33,34], but only two methodologies have been widely utilized: mechanical and the chemical treatments. Applying mechanical methods is not feasible because of the high costs and the long time required for effectiveness. Chemical treatment relies on the use of inhibitors such as polymers, surfactants, ionic liquids, organic solvents, and nanoparticles [35,36]. The application of anionic and non-anionic surfactants as inhibitors leads to the formation of new steric interactions between the solvent and asphaltene aggregates [37,38]. In particular, the dissolution of the surfactant inhibitor in the solvent results in complex salt formation because of the acidic and basic nature of the components (asphaltene and surfactant) [39–46]. The effectiveness of anionic and non-anionic inhibitors depends on their polarity and molecular structure, but their ability to disperse asphaltenes can be reduced if amphiphilic molecules cluster together instead of interacting with asphaltene aggregates [47–49]. In certain cases, asphaltene clustering can hinder interactions with the dispersant and obstruct the steric protection provided by alkane chains.

Surfactants such as cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB), sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), Triton X-100, etc., prevent asphaltene aggregation by reducing intermolecular interactions. Cationic surfactants (e.g., CTAB) disrupt asphaltene molecules through electrostatic repulsion and bind to their acidic groups. Anionic surfactants (e.g., SDS) reduce asphaltene aggregation by creating hydrophilic interactions and imparting a negative charge on the surface of asphaltene particles. Nonionic surfactants (e.g., Triton X-100) stabilize asphaltene particles in solution by forming a protective monolayer around them [50–58]. However, several factors can reduce the effectiveness of these surfactants, including their tendency to foam, interactions with other crude oil components (e.g., resins and salts), high asphaltene concentrations, and elevated thermobaric conditions [59–65]. These limitations can lead to various technological issues, such as corrosion and contamination of pipelines and equipment.

Benzoyl and salicylic acids, as inhibitors, exhibit aromatic solubility and facilitate π - π and acid-base interactions, which help to mitigate asphaltene aggregation and precipitation. However, their high toxicity, prolonged environmental stability (leading to corrosion), and tendency to form undesirable compounds with metal ions present significant limitations [66–68].

An analysis of previous studies [69–73] revealed that asphaltene inhibitors based on dodecylbenzene sulfonic acid (DBSA), ethoxylated nonylphenols, salicylic acid, and vegetable oils exhibited varying inhibition effects on the same oil sample. DBSA was found to be more effective in asphaltene structures containing basic functional groups. Depending on the properties of the asphaltene, the inhibitory effect of sulfonic acids can be positive or negative. The interaction between the high molecular weight asphaltenes and the inhibitor, through hydrogen bonding or acid-base complex formation, reduces the probability of asphaltene aggregation [62,74]. However, the precise nature and primary role of these interactions in asphaltene inhibition remain subjects of scientific debate. For instance, Subramanian et al. suggested that acid-base interactions play a secondary role, with the key mechanism, possibly involving hydrogen bonding or van der Waals forces, still needing precise identification [75]. Conversely, other studies, such as Zhang et al. indicate that acid-base reactions are indeed the most effective stabilizing mechanism, complemented by π - π interactions and hydrogen bonding [76]. This perspective is further supported by Kashefi

et al. who reported that acid-containing inhibitors are particularly effective against basic asphaltene aggregation, achieving notable average particle size reductions: octyl phenol (55 %), synthesized deep eutectic solvent (41 %), lauric acid (24 %), and dodecyl amine (18 %) [77]. The higher inhibitory activity of nonylphenol compared to phenol is attributed to the influence of its long peripheral alkane chain, which enhances the polarity of the phenol OH functional group [78–80]. Some inhibitors (e.g. resins, maltenes, etc.) do not demonstrate the same dispersing properties as phenol and ethoxylated alcohols at low doses (ppm) [81–83].

Crude oil resins are considered naturally available inhibitors that prevent asphaltene clustering by providing stability to polar molecules in a non-polar environment. A reduction in resin content has been found to promote asphaltene aggregation and flocculation. Aliphatic solvents cause resin desorption, further enhancing aggregation and flocculation. To limit asphaltene deposition, dispersants were typically selected based on the resin properties. Their effectiveness depends on their interaction with polar groups of the asphaltene molecules and their adsorption onto the surface of asphaltene aggregate [84–92].

DLS and DFT studies are pivotal for understanding asphaltene aggregation and inhibitor mechanisms [93–99]. For instance, studies on carbon nanoparticles used to counter asphaltene aggregation in unstable crude oils revealed that the average nanosize of asphaltene aggregates adsorbed onto carbon nanoparticles reduced from 1730 nm to 255 nm, and in addition to strong hydrogen bonding and π - π interactions can form between carbon nanoparticles and asphaltene molecules [100]. Kumar et al. investigated asphaltene aggregation in thymol-based deep eutectic solvents using DFT and found that thymol-diphenyl ether exhibited a higher solubility for asphaltenes [101]. Chávez-Miyauchi et al. showed that N-aryl amino-alcohols, particularly boronic acid derivatives with Lewis acid characteristics, have been shown to inhibit asphaltene aggregation by forming stable tetrameric complexes. DFT calculations and experimental studies identified that longer alkyl chains enhance dispersion and inhibition efficiency [102].

Findings from the published literature indicated that several factors—including molecular structure, polarity, solvent solubility, adsorption, dosage, hydrogen bonding, and acid-base interactions—influence the efficacy of the listed inhibitors. In this study, we evaluate the performance of the proposed basic surfactant, N-octylaminopropan-2-ol (OSI), against island-structured acidic asphaltene molecules extracted from crude oil, considering the key properties previously tested. Our research provides comprehensive insights into the molecular behavior of this new, effective inhibitor. The proposed surfactant effectively inhibits asphaltene aggregation and deposition in crude oil and represents a simply synthesizable alternative to existing inhibitors in the oil industry.

2. Materials and methods

All chemicals used in this study were of analytical grade: n-hexane (≥ 99 %, Cat. No. 296090) and toluene (≥ 99.5 %, Cat. No. 244511) from Sigma-Aldrich; octylamine (98 %, Cat. No. 00625) and propylene oxide (≥ 99 %, Cat. No. 04010) for OSI synthesis from Sigma-Aldrich; and deuterated chloroform (CDCl_3 , Cat. No. 151823) for NMR from Merck.

The intermolecular interactions between A-ZO and OSI were studied using FT-IR spectroscopy (BRUKER) in the spectral range of 400–4000 cm^{-1} with a resolution of 2 cm^{-1} , using a zinc selenide crystal at room temperature.

The possible interactions in A-ZO + OSI complex were tracked using ^1H and NOESY NMR spectra in a BRUKER-Fourier spectrometer (300 MHz) at room temperature. Tetramethylsilane was used as an internal standard, and deuterated chloroform was applied as a solvent.

OSI adsorption on the A-ZO surface were determined using a thermogravimetric analyzer (TG/DTG mode) of the NETZSCH STA449F3 Jupiter system in a temperature-programmed dynamic mode, at the temperature range of 23–1000 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ with a temperature rise rate of 10 K/min, and in an inert environment. The flow rate of the inert gas (N_2) was

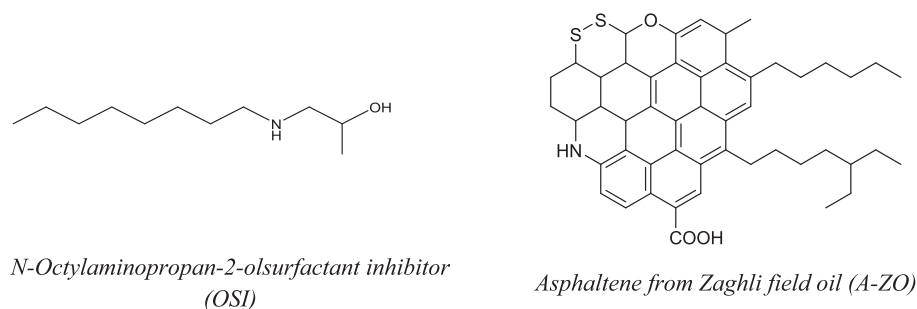


Fig. 1. Molecular structures of OSI and A-ZO.

20 ml/min, and the sample amount was ~ 10 mg. Prior to TG-DTG measurements, vacuum pumping was employed in the sample chamber to remove residual oxidative gases.

The change in asphaltene particle size in the A-ZO + OSI mixture was studied using HORIBA LB 550 DLS. Measurements were performed before and after the addition of OSI to the A-ZO-hexane and -toluene solutions/mixtures at 298 K, using a laser diode light source with a wavelength of 650 nm and a power of 5 mW. The measurement range is between 1 nm–6 μ m.

For the morphological characterization of the A-ZO, A-ZO and OSI mixture, a Hitachi S-3400 N SEM with an OXFORD Instruments atomic analyzer was used. The measurements were performed at an accelerating voltage of 1–2 kV, a working distance of 6–7 mm and a magnification range of 50–500x. A secondary electron detector and high vacuum mode were used for the measurements.

All measurements were repeated in triplicate, with mean values reported to ensure data reproducibility and reliability.

The asphaltene (A-ZO) used in the experiments was extracted from the oil of the Zagzli field in East Azerbaijan, following the ASTM D6560-12 standard [103]. The (A-ZO) structure was fully elucidated and reported in our previous work [104]. The structure of A-ZO and synthesized *N*-Octylaminopropan-2-ol inhibitor (OSI) is shown in Fig. 1.

It has been determined that the A-ZO cluster is a heterostructured (S-S, C-S, and N-H bonds) molecule containing polycyclic aromatic components, alkyl, cycloalkyl fragments, and a COOH group. According to its structural model, this asphaltene is classified as an “island” type, with approximately 50 % aromatic hydrocarbons in its composition [104].

The OSI is a yellowish, transparent, viscous liquid, synthesized based on the reaction of octylamine and propylene oxide (1:1). The synthesized product (OSI) is soluble in water, ethanol, acetone, hexane, kerosene, CCl₄, and isopropanol. The OSI amine value was calculated as 289.2 mg KOH/g [105].

The A-ZO to OSI ratio in the conducted experiments was adjusted to 1:0.1, respectively. 5 % solutions of A-ZO were prepared using two solvents: toluene and hexane. In a hexane solution, A-ZO precipitates immediately, whereas in toluene, precipitation occurs after 90 min. The incorporation of 5000 ppm of OSI into the A-ZO solutions resulted in a stable suspension in hexane. However, no precipitation was observed in the toluene solvent during a 10-hour monitoring period.

The Gaussian 16 program [106] was utilized for the optimization of surfactant, asphaltene and surfactant and asphaltene complex structures. For the optimizations, Kohn-Sham DFT with the B3LYP functional [107] and D3BJ dispersion corrections [108] was used. The 6-311G(d,p) basis set was employed for all atoms. Solvent effects were considered via

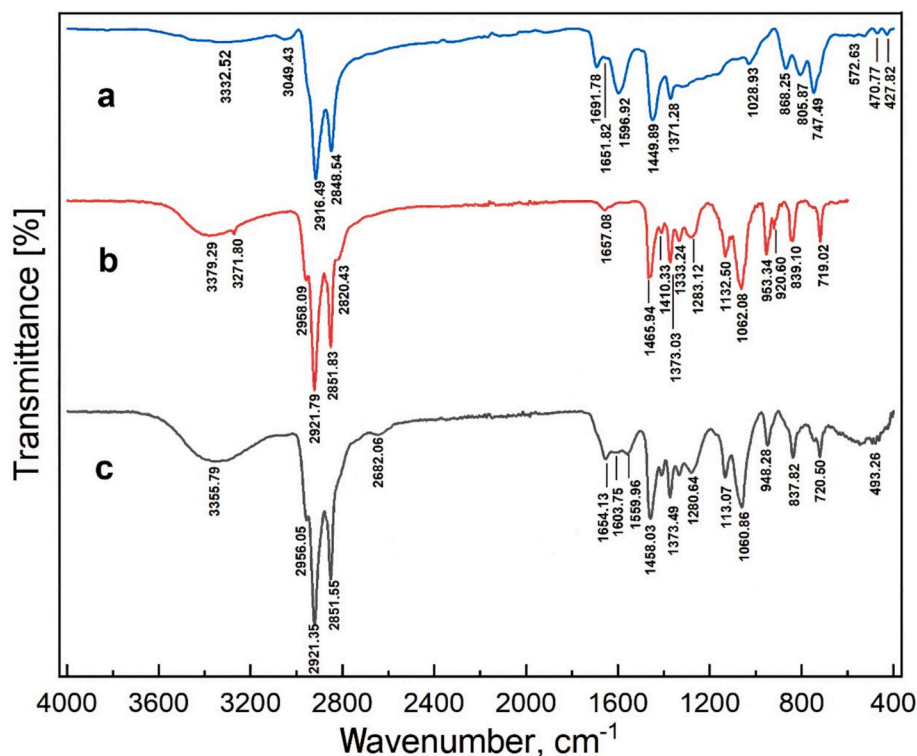
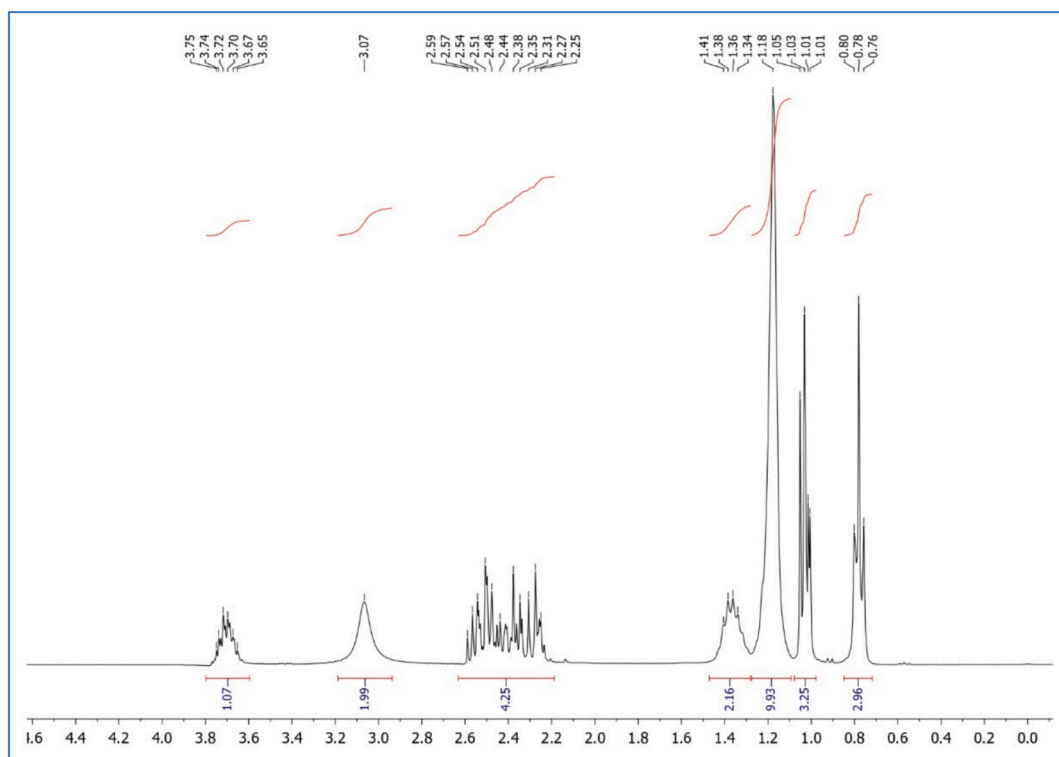
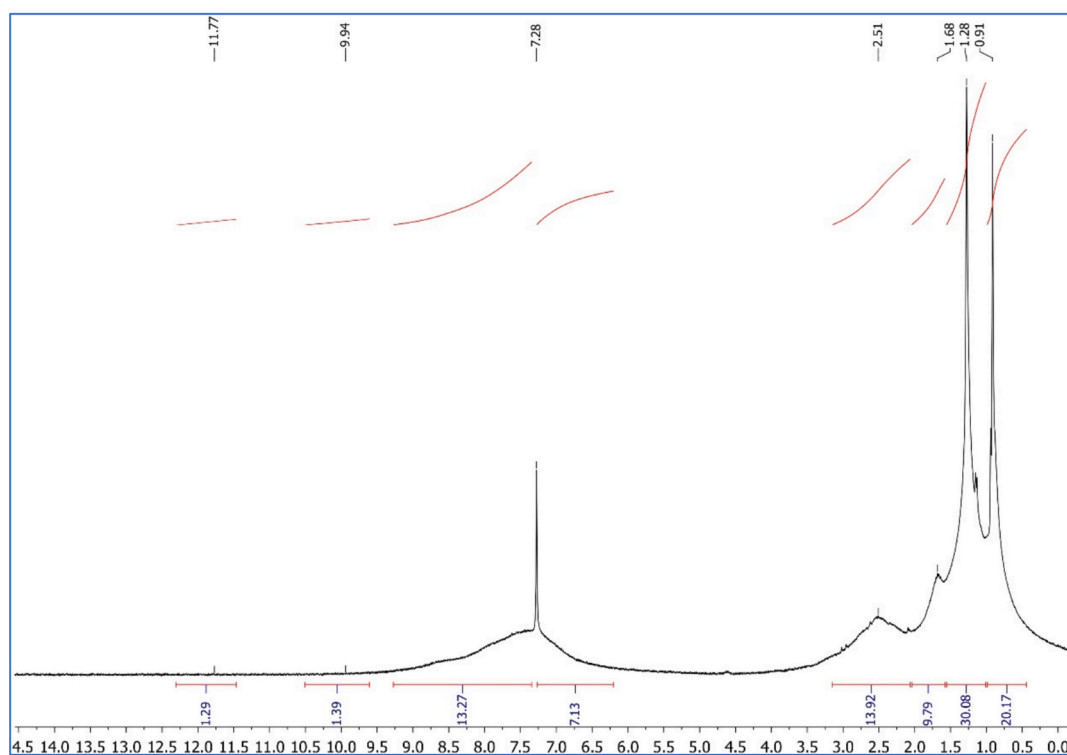


Fig. 2. FTIR spectra of A-ZO (a), OSI (b), and their mixture (c).



a)



b)

Fig. 3. ^1H NMR (a, b, c) and NOESY NMR (d) spectra of OSI (a), A-ZO (b), and their mixture (c, d).

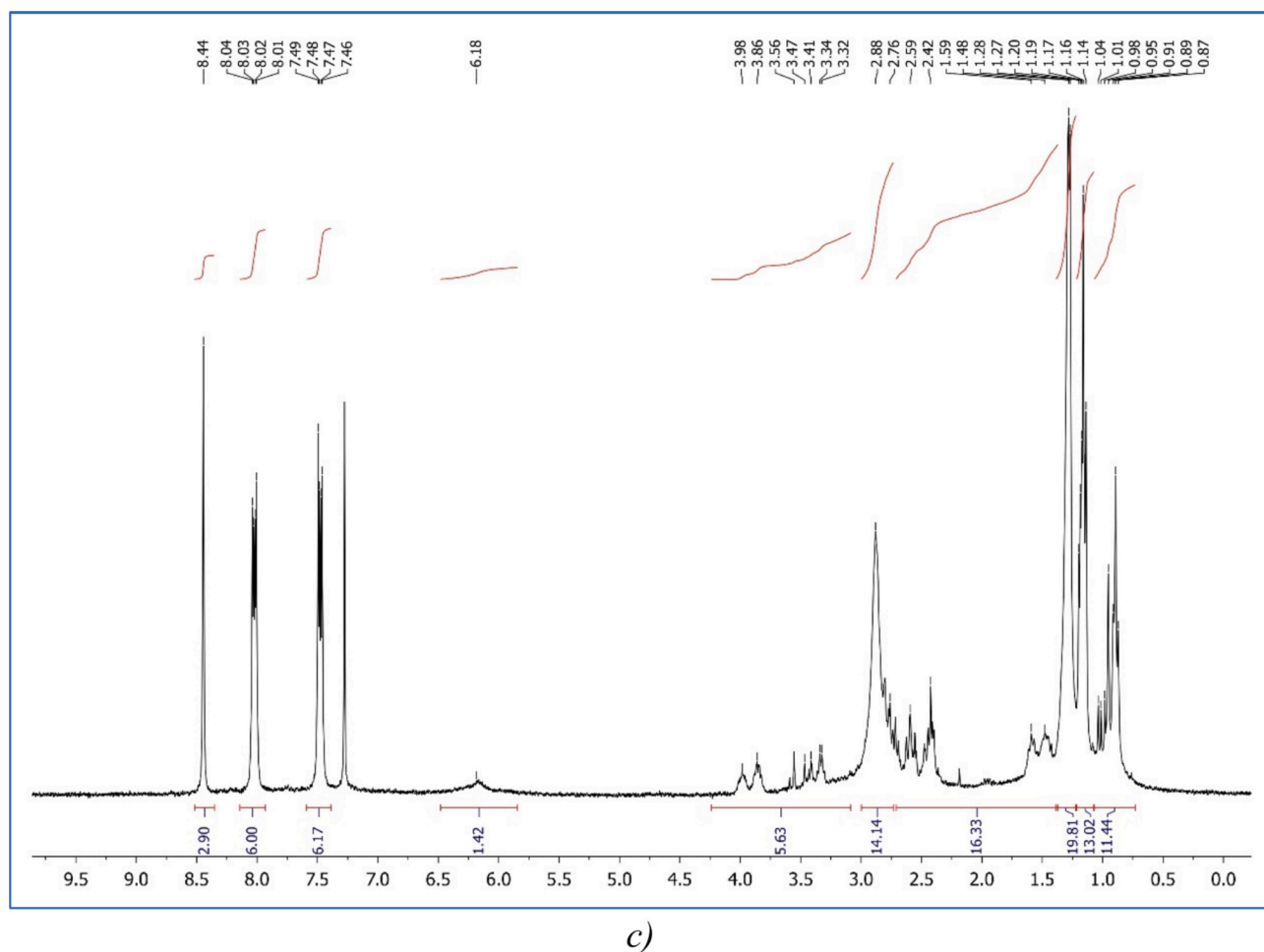


Fig. 3. (continued).

a self-consistent reaction field and default polarizable continuum model with the dielectric constant for n-hexane ($\epsilon = 1.8819$). Gibbs energies were calculated at 298.15 K to reflect the experimental room temperature conditions. Optimized geometries (in XYZ format, See SI, Table S1, S2) of A-ZO are provided in the electronic supporting information (ESI). The A-ZO + OSI complex binding energy (E_b) was calculated according to the equation: $E_b = E_{\text{OSI+A-ZO}} - (E_{\text{OSI}} + E_{\text{A-ZO}})$ where $E_{\text{OSI+A-ZO}}$ stands for the total energy of the complex, while E_{OSI} and $E_{\text{A-ZO}}$ are individual total energies of OSI and A-ZO, respectively. Binding energy of the A-ZO + OSI was corrected using basis set superposition error (BSSE) according to the counterpoise method [109]. The formchk file of the optimized A-ZO + OSI was utilized as input in Multiwfn 3.8 [110] to generate NCI analysis based on the reduced density gradient (RDG) and $\text{sign}(\lambda_2)\rho$. The data were then visualized with Gniplot 6.0 program package [111] to design a 2D plot (RDG vs. $\text{sign}(\lambda_2)\rho$). VMD 4 [112] was used to construct the 3D isosurface colored according to $\text{sign}(\lambda_2)\rho$. This integrated computational and visualization approach enabled a comprehensive assessment of the NCI interactions in the system.

3. Results and discussions

The FT-IR spectra of OSI, A-ZO and A-ZO + OSI mixture were shown in Fig. 2.

The C-H absorption bands for bending and stretching vibrations in the $-\text{CH}_3$ and $-\text{CH}_2$ groups were observed at 1371, 1373, 1410, 1449, 1465, and 2820, 2848, 2851, 2916, 2921, and 2958 cm^{-1} , respectively for the A-ZO and OSI structures (Fig. 2a and 2b). The bending vibrations of the C-H bond in aromatic hydrocarbons appear at 747, 805, and 868

cm^{-1} , the stretching vibration of the $=\text{C}-\text{H}$ bond at 3049 cm^{-1} , and the $\text{C}=\text{C}$ bond stretching vibration at 1596 cm^{-1} . The C-O and C=O bonds stretching vibrations for the related acid functionality in A-ZO were observed at 1028 and 1691 cm^{-1} , respectively [113]. The absorption bands observed at 427, 470, 526 and 572 cm^{-1} are related to S-S and C-S bonds. The absorption maximum at 1651 cm^{-1} corresponds to the bending vibration of the N-H bond, while the 3332 cm^{-1} absorption band shows overlapping stretching vibrations of the N-H and O-H bonds of the acid (Fig. 2a) [114]. The absorption maxima at 1062, 1132 and 3379 cm^{-1} correspond to the stretching vibrations of the C-O and H-O bonds of the alcohol, respectively. The bending and stretching vibrations of the N-H bonds are observed at 1675 and 3271 cm^{-1} (Fig. 2b). The disappearance of the C=O band (1691 cm^{-1}) in the A-ZO + OSI spectrum (Fig. 2c) indicates interaction between the OSI amine functionality and the A-ZO carboxyl group. Two absorption maxima at 1559 and 2682 cm^{-1} are characteristic of the COO^- and N-H^+ groups [115,116]. The absorption maxima associated with N-H and O-H bonds in the spectral range of 3100–3700 cm^{-1} appear to overlap at 3355 cm^{-1} (Fig. 2c). The nature of the contour of this absorption band indicates its acidic character [117].

FT-IR results show that OSI has polar (NH and OH) and non-polar sides. The polar side binds to asphaltene molecules, while the non-polar aliphatic crown prevents aggregation through steric repulsion, keeping asphaltenes suspended [118]. The acid group in A-ZO enhances the effectiveness of OSI, stabilizing asphaltenes in crude oil.

In the ^1H NMR (δ , ppm) spectrum of OSI shown in Fig. 3a, the signals of hydrogen atoms are recorded at 0.78 ppm for the CH_2-CH_3 (3H) group, and at 1.03 ppm for the $\text{CH}-\text{CH}_3$ (3H) group, 1.09–1.29 ppm

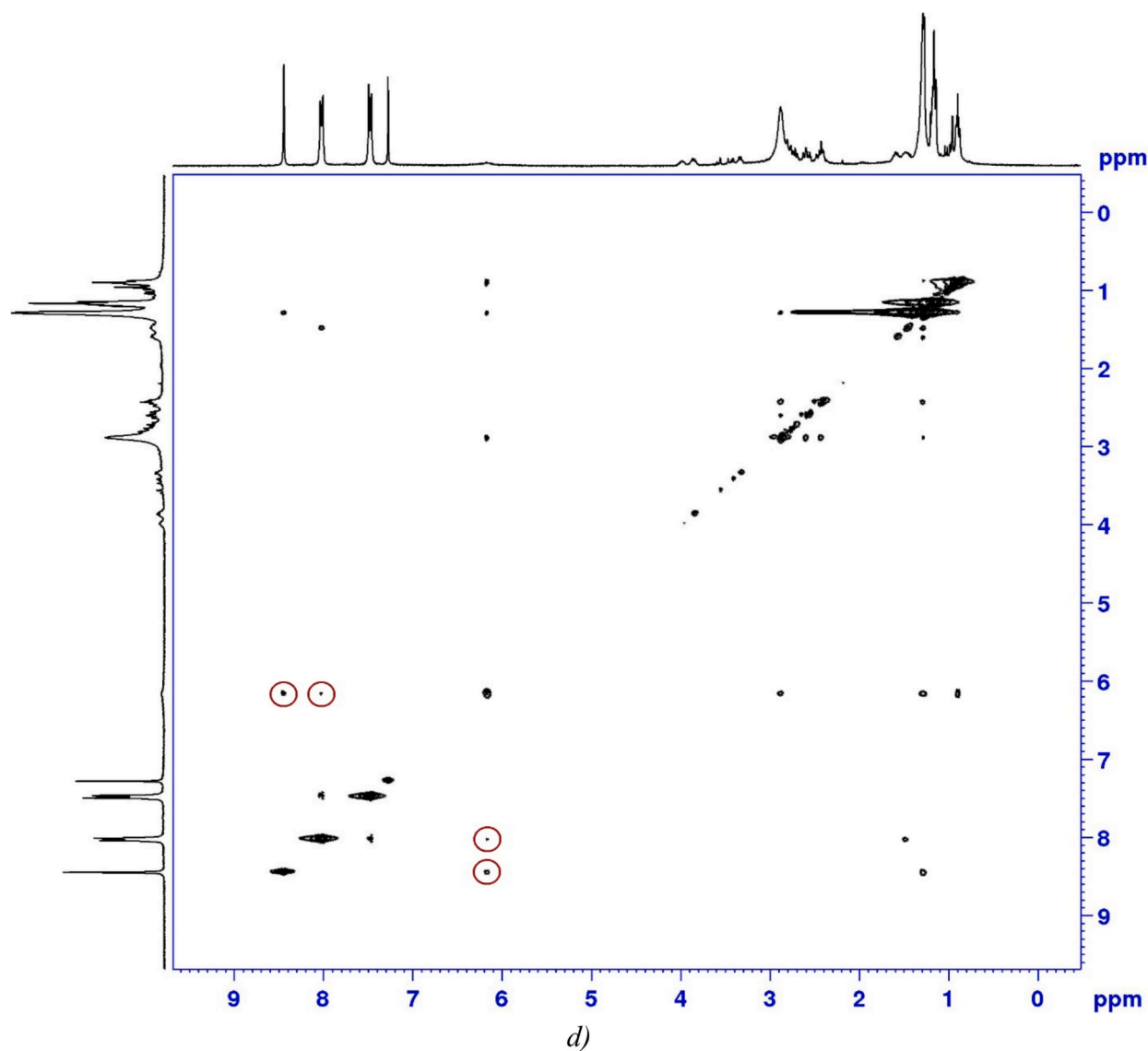


Fig. 3. (continued).

corresponds to the CH_2 (10H) group in the saturated hydrocarbon tail. 1.36 ppm for the $\text{CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-NH}$ (2H) group, 2.32–2.60 ppm for the $\text{CH}_2\text{-NH}$ (4H) group, and 3.69 ppm for the CH-OH (1H) group. In that spectrum, an overlap of OH and NH signals is observed at 3.06 ppm (2H) [94].

As shown in Fig. 3c, some signals in the ^1H NMR spectrum overlap because the A-ZO + OSI sample contains similar fragments ($-\text{CH}_2-$ and $-\text{CH}_3$). The CH_3 group is observed at 0.75–1.09 ppm, and the CH_2 group at 1.09–1.41 ppm. The $\beta\text{-CH-}$ and $-\text{CH}_2$ groups, associated with naphthenic hydrocarbons and some hydroaromatic fragments of A-ZO, appear between 1.41–1.90 ppm (Fig. 3b). The $\text{CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-NH}$ group from OSI is seen at 1.30–1.46 ppm, but its signal is not clearly distinguishable (Fig. 3c). The 2.30–2.70 ppm range corresponds to $-\text{CH}_3$ groups bonded to the aromatic ring in A-ZO and the $\text{CH}_2\text{-NH}$ groups of OSI. Hydrogen atoms from $>\text{CH-}$ and $-\text{CH}_2$ groups attached to the aromatic nucleus are detected between 2.70–3.42 ppm, linked to A-ZO. The OSI OH group shows a resonance at 2.88 ppm, while the CH-OH group appears between 3.75–4.11 ppm. The proton signals in polyaromatic ring are observed at 7.47, 8.01, and 8.44 ppm. The most notable feature in Fig. 3c is the shift of the NH group signal to 6.16 ppm, caused by hydrogen bonding between the NH group of OSI and the A-ZO molecule [104,119–126].

The NOESY spectrum of the A-ZO + OSI sample (Fig. 3d) shows that the OH group signal correlates with the NH group signal (2.88–6.16 ppm). The signals observed in the 2.30–2.70 ppm range ($\text{CH}_2\text{-NH}$) correspond to OSI. The hydrogen atoms of the polyaromatic nuclei exhibit correlations both with each other (7.47–8.01 ppm) and with the alkyl groups (8.01–1.48 ppm and 8.44–1.27 ppm). Additional correlations are observed in the CH_2 signal recorded at 1.27 ppm. This signal correlates with both the alkyl fragments (1.48 and 1.59 ppm) and the OH and NH groups, indicating interactions within the OSI and A-ZO complex. Since both A-ZO and OSI molecules contain a saturated chain (CH_2), these signals cannot be clearly separated. In the NOESY spectrum, the correlation between the NH signal (6.16 ppm) and aromatic hydrogens (8.44 ppm, strong; 8.01 ppm, weak) is noteworthy. These correlations (6.16–8.44 ppm and 6.16–8.01 ppm) suggest the formation of hydrogen bonds between the A-ZO and OSI molecules [127,128]. The TG and DTG curves (Fig. 4a) revealed that the A-ZO molecule is thermostable up to 406 °C. The three-stage pyrolysis process, occurring between 406–818 °C, ends with the formation of 12.58 % coke. Endothermic peaks are associated with degradation reactions, while exothermic peaks correspond to internal oxidation or condensation.

Analysis of the TGA curve in Fig. 4b showed that the mass loss of OSI starts at approximately 207 °C and continues until 309 °C. This

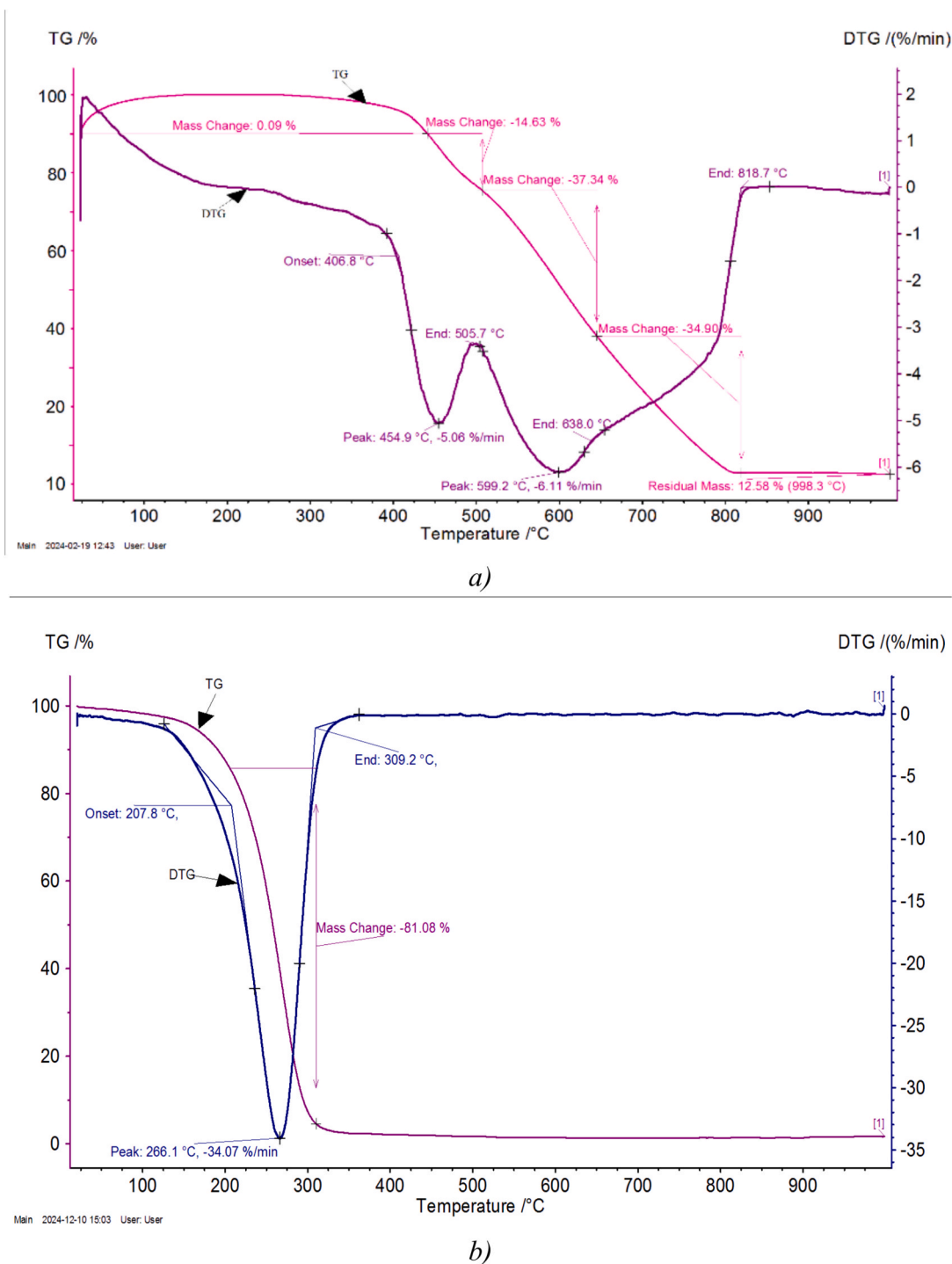


Fig. 4. TGA and DTG mass loss curves of: A-ZO (a), OSI (b), and their mixture (c).

endothermic process ends with the formation of 0.01 % coke, indicating the thermostability of OSI up to 207 °C [129].

In Fig. 4c, the endothermic peak (297 °C) recorded in the temperature range 240–400 °C for the mixture of A-ZO and OSI was associated with the decomposition reaction of OSI, resulting in a mass loss of 12.5 %. This mass loss corresponds to OSI being chemisorbed by A-ZO. On the other hand, the thermal process occurring in the temperature range of 400–998 °C ends with the coking of A-ZO (16.77 %). The difference in the decomposition temperature of the mixture of A-ZO and OSI from the initial components may be due to their chemisorption. The formation of

a new bond during the adsorption of OSI on A-ZO leads to an increase in its decomposition temperature [100,130,131].

DLS was used to study the effect of OSI on the change in aggregate sizes in A-ZO solutions in hexane and toluene. Figs. 5a and 5b show the changes in the distribution of A-ZO particles in solvents before and after the addition of OSI [104,132,133].

The 583 nm peak observed in Fig. 5a (1) corresponds to large clustered aggregates of A-ZO in hexane. Such aggregates precipitate rapidly in that solvent. However, when OSI is added to the hexane solution, the diameter of the aggregates decreases to 76 nm, and the degree of

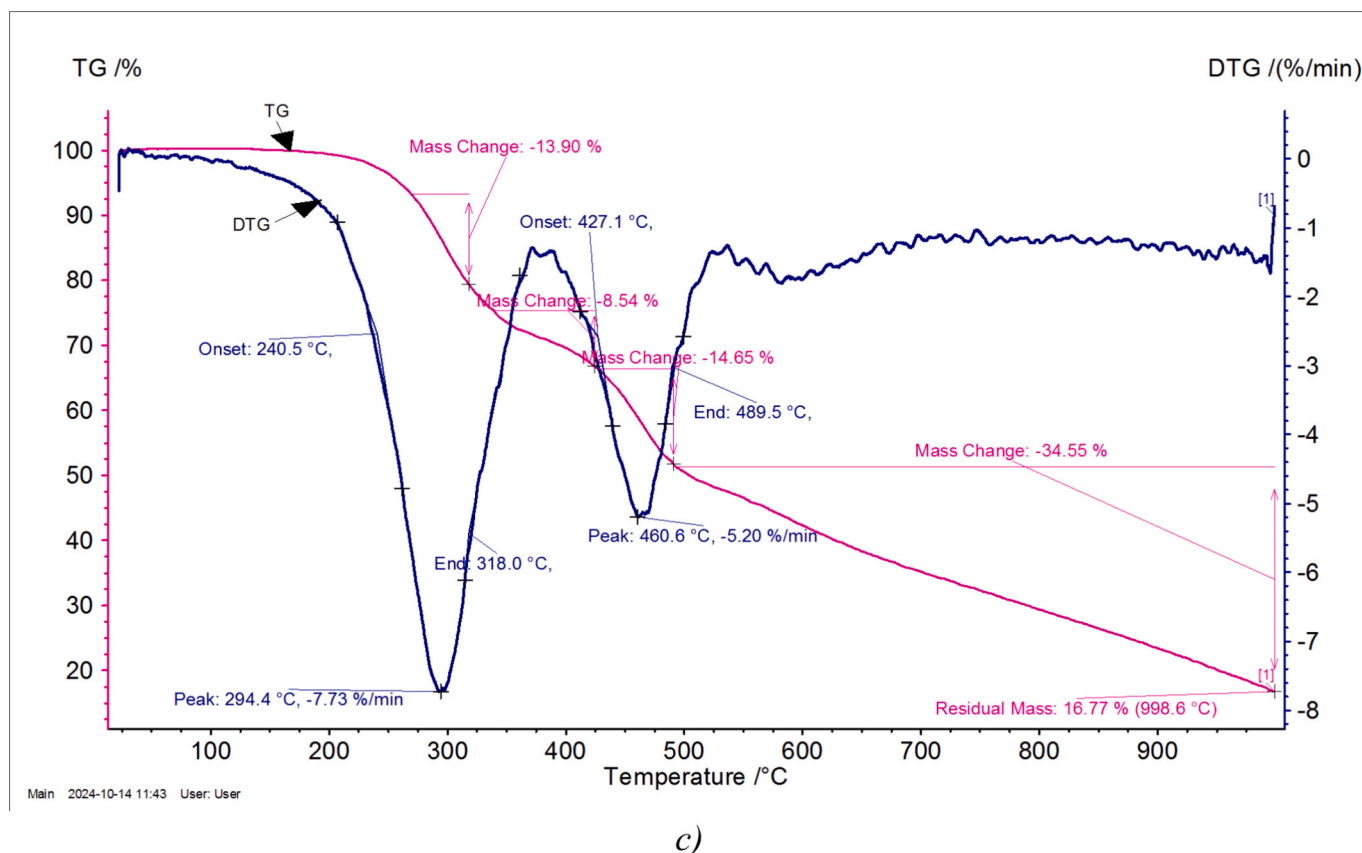


Fig. 4. (continued).

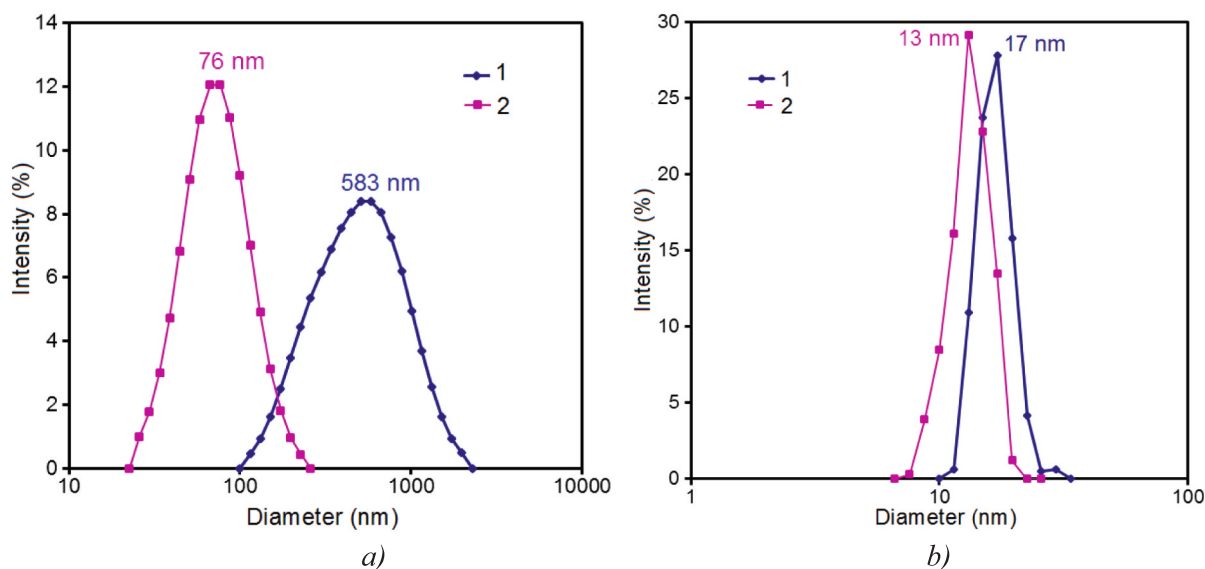


Fig. 5. DLS curves of A-ZO (1) and A-ZO + OSI mixture (2) in hexane (a) and toluene (b) solvents.

dispersion increases approximately 7 times (Fig. 5a (2)).

The diameter of A-ZO (Fig. 5b (1)) particles dissolved in toluene is 17 nm (Fig. 5b). This solution has a high monodispersity. When OSI is added to it, the monodispersity is almost unchanged, and the particle size decreases to 13 nm.

Our identification reveals that the increase in the size of aggregates in a hexane solution is due to the intermolecular interaction of aromatic nuclei in A-ZO. In this solution, the interaction of A-ZO molecules with

OSI increases the polarity of the medium and causes suspension. A π - π interaction occurs between the aromatic rings of A-ZO and the aromatic nucleus of toluene solvent in the solution, which results in monodispersity. When OSI is added to the solution, A-ZO molecules are disaggregated and do not settle for a long time (approximately 10 h).

Fig. 6 depicts the suspension process that occurs after the addition of OSI to A-ZO solution, along with the precipitation of A-ZO in hexane.

In our experiments, the approximately 90 % decrease in the average

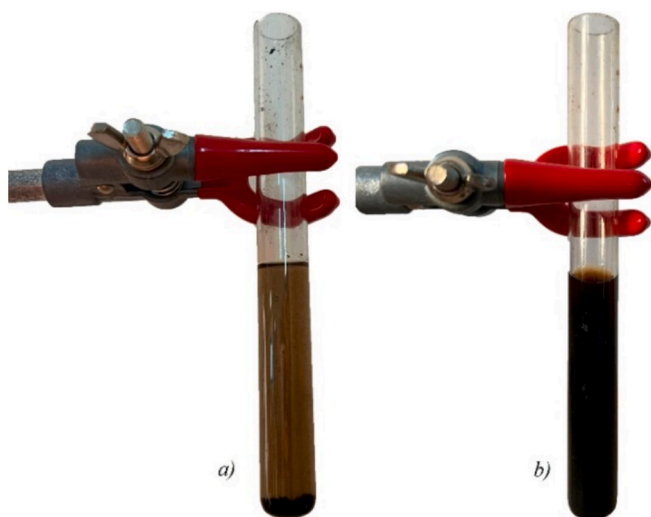


Fig. 6. Visual demonstration of A-ZO deposition in hexane solution (a) and its stabilization after OSI addition (b).

size of aggregates with the addition of OSI is explained by the increase in acid-base, electrostatic, polar, and van der Waals interactions between OSI and A-ZO molecules.

In the micrograph shown in Fig. 7a, A-ZO consists of agglomerates of various shapes and sizes (averaging 247 and 124 μm) with a flaky, brittle surface. Cracks are observed on the surface of A-ZO aggregates, resulting from the separation of the resin fraction. Fig. 7b demonstrates significant agglomerate shrinkage (to $\sim 2.68 \mu\text{m}$) in the A-ZO/OSI complex, along with smoothing of cracks and filling of voids, consistent with DLS-reported size reduction. These morphological changes confirm OSI's resin-like role in stabilizing and dispersing aggregated asphaltenes in crude oil [101,132,134,135].

The solvent phase BSSE corrected negative binding energy ($E_b = -28.2 \text{ kcal/mol}$) indicates that the OSI molecules can be effective to suppress asphaltene aggregation, which is experimentally evident. The interaction between A-ZO and OSI was investigated in solvent phase to simulate experimental condition better. The optimizations were started with basic (the A-ZO carboxyl group) and acidic (the OSI carboxyl group) functionalities in spatial proximity to ensure their interactions in the resulting structure. The availability of carboxyl group in A-ZO and amine group in the OSI structures may result in electrostatic interaction between two components because of possible proton transfer from the

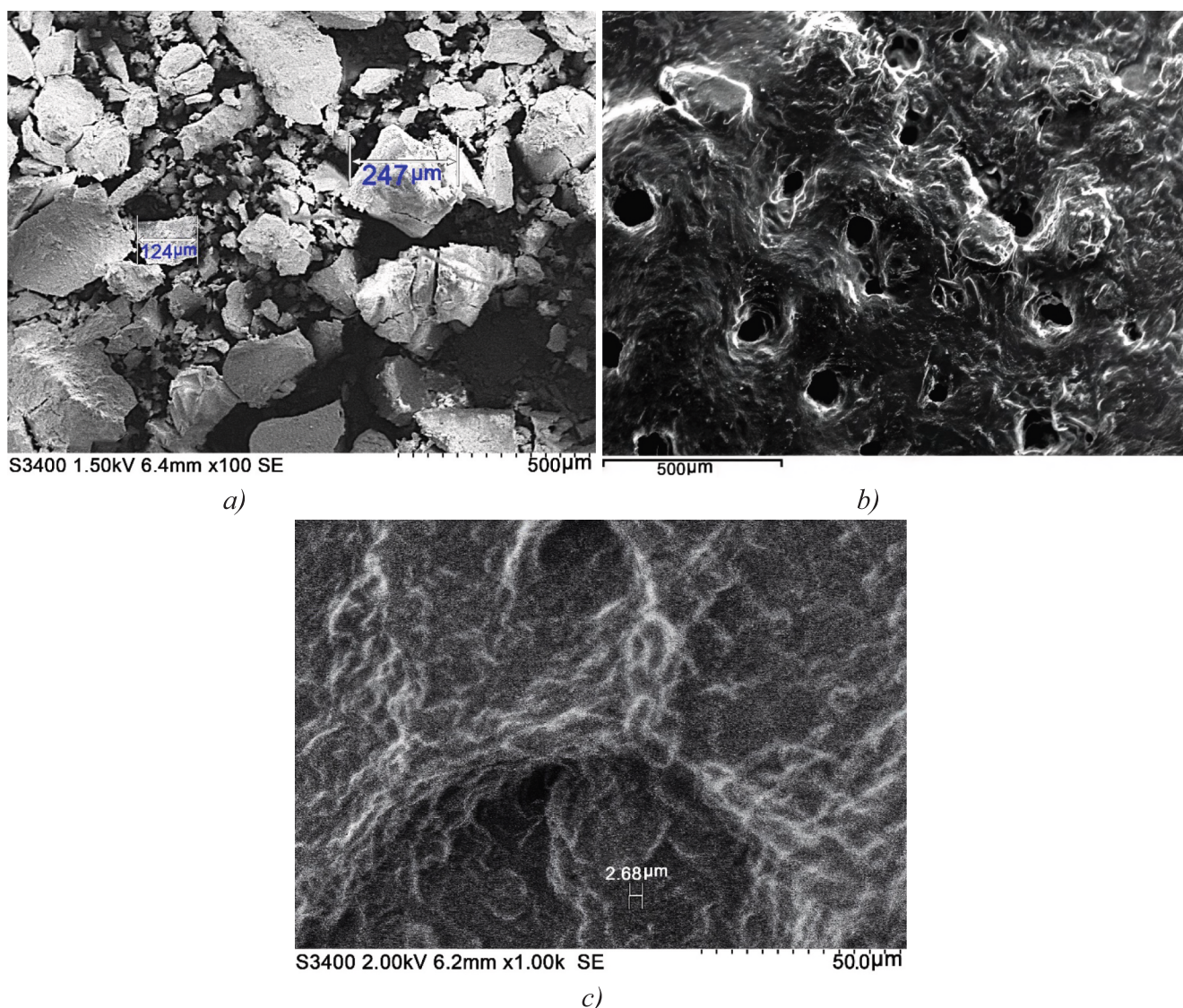


Fig. 7. SEM micrographs of A-ZO (a), and A-ZO + OSI mixture (b, c).

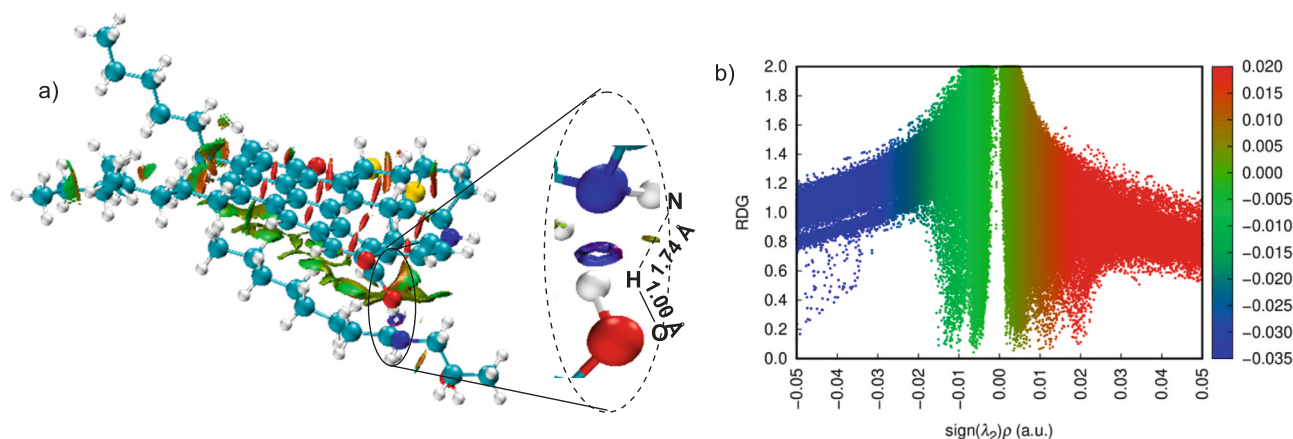


Fig. 8. A) Three-dimensional NCI isosurfaces of the A-ZO + OSI complex, showing a small blue torus (magnified) that indicates hydrogen-bonding interaction. Green regions represent more dispersive attractive interactions. b) RDG and $\text{sign}(\lambda_2)\rho$ plots for the studied system. The RDG isosurfaces were generated using a cutoff value of $\text{RDG} = 2.0$, with color coding based on $\text{sign}(\lambda_2)\rho$ in the range -0.05 to $+0.05$ au. Blue represents strong bonding interactions, green indicates dispersive attractive (vdW) interactions, and red corresponds to repulsive interactions (See SI, Fig. S1 for the visualized A-ZO and OSI structures from different perspective).

carboxylic part to the amine functionality. Analysis of optimized A-ZO + OSI complex showed that the interaction in nonpolar solvent (hexane) is not electrostatic, rather the O—H; 1.00 Å and H—N; 1.74 Å bond distances revealed that the interactions have hydrogen-bonding nature. In a primary acid-base interaction (primary amines, e.g., methylamine and ethylamine and acetic acid combinations), the N—H distance was calculated to be shorter (1.54–1.61 Å) [136]. In the A-ZO + OSI system, because of large A-ZO and OSI surfaces, non-covalent interactions (NCIs) place the molecules in a relative position that prevents proper hydrogen transfer and electrostatic interaction between amine and carboxylic functional groups in the A-ZO + OSI complex. The hydrogen-bonding character was further explored by NCI analysis. As seen in Fig. 8, there is a small blue torus-shaped isosurface located between H—N, which is an indication of hydrogen bonding. The corresponding hydrogen-bonding region in the two-dimensional NCI plot can be seen as blue dots in the region with $\text{sign}(\lambda_2)\rho$ values in the range of -0.03 to -0.05 au (Fig. 8). van der Waals interactions [indicated by $\text{sign}(\lambda_2)\rho \approx -0.015$ to $+0.005$ au] occur between the OSI saturated tail and the A-ZO polycyclic aromatic regions where the electron density is very low (green isosurfaces, Fig. 8), and the RDG is high. Larger negative region (-0.05 au to -0.02) represents attractive interactions.

4. Conclusion

The aggregation process of acidic A-ZO with island structure from crude oil was investigated using an integrative approach of FTIR, NMR, DTA, DLS, SEM and DFT methods to study the inhibitory effect of a newly synthesized surfactant, OSI. It was found that 12.5 % of OSI undergoes chemisorption on A-ZO, which is accompanied by a decrease in the average size of asphaltene aggregates by about 7 times. The polar and nonpolar parts of the OSI molecule interact with the asphaltene molecule, significantly slowing down the aggregation process and promoting the formation of a stable suspension due to steric repulsion. The presence of a carboxyl group in the A-ZO structure enhances the efficiency of the basic inhibitor. Formation of strong intermolecular interactions between the functional groups of the inhibitor and the active sites of asphaltene, including acid-base (COO^- and NH^+), hydrogen (bond energy of 28.2 kcal/mol) and van der Waals forces, is the main driving force that prevents aggregation and promotes asphaltene stabilization. Micrographs of the A-ZO and OSI complex demonstrate smoothing of the porous and flaky brittle surface of asphaltene agglomerates of various shapes and sizes, confirming strong interactions between them. This interaction elucidates OSI's resin-like functionality as a dispersing and stabilizing agent for aggregated asphaltenes in crude

oil, demonstrating its capacity to prevent asphaltene deposition while presenting viable applications as a novel, high-performance industrial inhibitor.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

U.J.Yolchuyeva: Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing – original draft, Resources, Project administration. **V.M. Abbasov:** Supervision, Funding acquisition. **O.R.Abbasov:** Writing – review & editing, Data curation. **Y.Abdullayev:** Writing – review & editing, Software. **R.A.Jafarova:** Supervision. **A.M.Mammadov:** Formal analysis, Data curation. **R.A.Rahimov:** Writing – review & editing, Data curation. **G.A.Hajiyeva:** Validation, **J Autschbach:** Writing – review & editing, Software.

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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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2025.136286>.

Data availability

The authors are unable or have chosen not to specify which data has been used.

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