

# Application of In Situ ATR-FTIR Spectroscopy for Determination of Wax Appearance Temperature at High-Pressure CO<sub>2</sub> Conditions

A. S. Shalygin<sup>a,b,\*</sup>, E. V. Morozov<sup>b,c</sup>, and O. N. Martyanov<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup> *Boreskov Institute of Catalysis, Siberian Branch of Russian Academy of Sciences (BIC SB RAS), Novosibirsk, 630090 Russia*

<sup>b</sup> *Institute of Chemistry and Chemical Technology, Siberian Branch of Russian Academy of Sciences (ICCT SB RAS), Krasnoyarsk Scientific Center SB RAS, Krasnoyarsk, 660036 Russia*

<sup>c</sup> *L.V. Kirensky Institute of Physics, Siberian Branch of Russian Academy of Sciences, Krasnoyarsk Scientific Center SB RAS, Krasnoyarsk, 660036 Russia*

\*e-mail: shas@catalysis.ru

Received September 21, 2022; revised November 14, 2022; accepted December 8, 2022

**Abstract**—Attenuated total reflection Fourier-transform infrared (ATR-FTIR) spectroscopy was for the first time employed to investigate in situ paraffin crystallization under CO<sub>2</sub> high-pressure and to evaluate a critical parameter—wax appearance temperature (WAT). To determine the WAT under pressure, conventional calculation methods based on changes in the band of rocking vibrations of CH<sub>2</sub> group were used. Using model 10 wt % paraffin solutions in *n*-dodecane, temperature effects were investigated under CO<sub>2</sub> pressures of 10, 20, 30, and 40 atm. It was experimentally confirmed that an increase in the CO<sub>2</sub> pressure reduces the WAT. Furthermore, the plot of peak intensity of the spectral band attributed to dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> as a function of temperature showed a maximum that can serve as an additional WAT indicator. This enhances the measurement accuracy and the reliability of WAT evaluation.

**Keywords:** ATR, FTIR spectroscopy, paraffins, wax appearance temperature (WAT), CO<sub>2</sub> pressure

**DOI:** 10.1134/S0965544122100176

Despite the rapid advances in alternative energy sources, the worldwide consumption of liquid fossil fuels continues to increase [1]. Therefore, it has become increasingly relevant to develop methods for more complete recovery of crude oils.

In terms of reservoir pressure types and oil recovery techniques, oil production methods can be divided into primary, secondary, and tertiary. Primary oil recovery is based on natural drive mechanisms. Secondary recovery—a technique that uses steam and gas injection—is employed when primary production no longer provides the desired performance. However, both primary and secondary techniques are known to recover no more than about 30–50% of crude oil from reservoirs [2, 3]. This has motivated the development and application of tertiary methods, also known as enhanced oil recovery (EOR), capable of increasing oil recovery up to 70% or even

higher [4, 5]. EOR methods can basically be divided into three main approaches: gas injection; in situ heating of crude oil (to lower its viscosity); and chemical injection of mineralized water, gas mixtures, alkali liquors, etc. Current research mostly focuses on gas injection as the most promising approach [6].

Various gases, such as flue gases, nitrogen, natural gas, and CO<sub>2</sub>, are generally used for gas drive, of which CO<sub>2</sub> appears the most promising [7]. Carbon dioxide has a good track record due to its high reservoir sweep efficiency; in addition, CO<sub>2</sub> disposal contributes to the reduction of greenhouse gas emissions [8]. However, the use of carbon dioxide for enhanced oil recovery (CO<sub>2</sub>-EOR) faces the challenge of uncontrolled deposits, thus potentially decreasing the permeability of the rock (due to blockage of voids) and/or affecting the wetting of the rock's surface [9]. Thus, using CO<sub>2</sub> can sometimes

impair the oil recovery efficiency as a whole, as well as hamper further use of the wells and entire oil reservoirs.

The deposits resulting from oil production mostly consist of asphaltenes and high-molecular-weight paraffins. However, unlike abundant research into CO<sub>2</sub> effects on resin-asphaltene deposition [10–12], the effects of CO<sub>2</sub> on the behavior of oil-dissolved paraffins have been underexplored. While there are available reports on binary and ternary phase equilibria of *n*-alkanes and phase diagrams for pure components [13–16] in the presence of CO<sub>2</sub>, there are nearly no research data on the phase behavior of complex paraffin mixtures and the CO<sub>2</sub> effects on paraffin precipitation.

The lack of data can be explained by the limited applicability of existing characterization methods for paraffin systems, such as visual observation, differential scanning calorimetry (DSC), viscometry, cross-polarization microscopy, etc. Most of them can operate only at atmospheric pressure, so that they require substantial modification to fit higher pressures. For example, high-pressure DSC (HPDSC) was used to characterize CO<sub>2</sub> pressure effects on the wax appearance temperature (WAT) of some crude oils [17]. Studies of *n*-alkanes–CO<sub>2</sub> systems [13–16] carried out using visual control methods were supplemented by subsequent thermodynamic modeling. In particular, phase equilibria were studied under CO<sub>2</sub> pressure for C<sub>10</sub>/C<sub>20</sub>, C<sub>10</sub>/C<sub>24</sub>, and C<sub>10</sub>/C<sub>20</sub>/C<sub>24</sub> *n*-alkane mixtures [15], and for C<sub>12</sub>/C<sub>16</sub>/C<sub>22</sub>/C<sub>23</sub>/C<sub>24</sub> *n*-alkane mixtures [16].

FTIR spectroscopy has been extensively used to investigate *n*-alkanes and phase transitions in their mixtures [18–20]. Nonetheless, there are no reports on the employment of this method to study the phase behavior of paraffins under CO<sub>2</sub> pressure. On the other hand, a modification of this method—namely, attenuated total reflection FTIR (ATR-FTIR) spectroscopy—has enabled researchers to obtain good results when examining systems in situ, i.e. over the course of direct real-time observation of relevant variations or transformations, including under high gas pressure conditions [21–24]. The relatively easy sample preparation procedure and simple installation of pressure equipment based on ATR diamond prisms offer a number of important advantages: operability with a small optical path length (1–10 μm), avoiding the need to seal the windows; recording spectra of dense gases and strongly-absorbing objects without exceeding the spectrometer's intensity limits; and adequate operating safety ensured by the small volume

of the high-pressure cell [25]. ATR-FTIR spectroscopy has been extensively used in research on the behavior of polymers under CO<sub>2</sub> pressure, including supercritical conditions [26, 27], and is readily applicable for in situ studies of CO<sub>2</sub>-induced asphaltene precipitation [22].

The above advantages make this method beneficial for the investigation of the phase behavior of paraffins in the presence of CO<sub>2</sub>.

The purpose of this study was to demonstrate an ability to measure the WAT under CO<sub>2</sub> high-pressure by in situ ATR-FTIR spectroscopy.

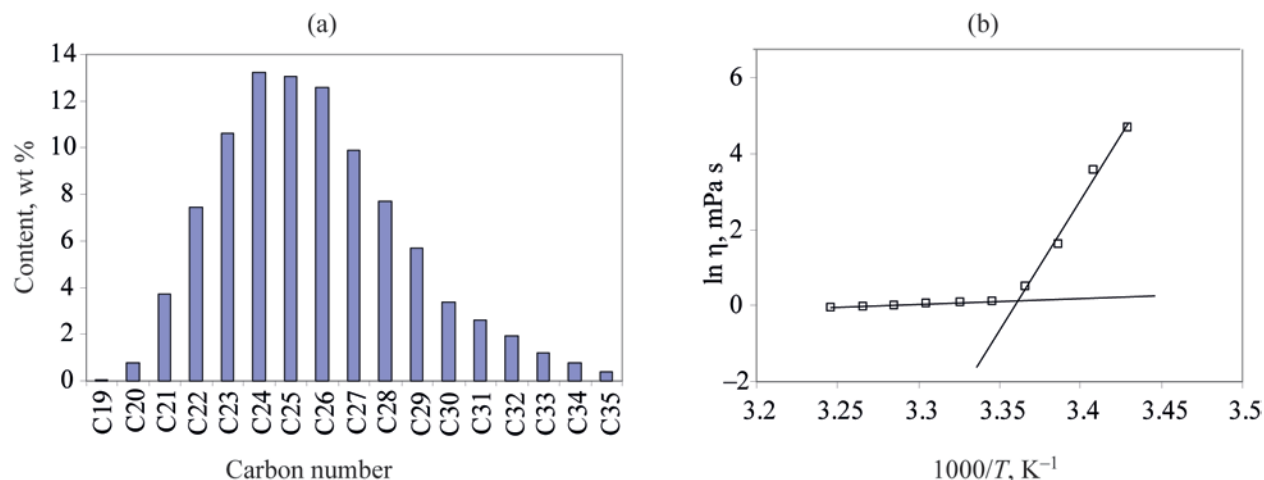
## EXPERIMENTAL

A number of samples that contained paraffins (10 wt %, mp 53–57°C, Sigma Aldrich, USA) dissolved in *n*-dodecane (90 wt %, AR grade, NevaReaktiv, Russia) were prepared. Carbon dioxide was purchased from Pure Gases, Novosibirsk, Russia. The molecular composition of the paraffins is shown in Fig. 1.

Initially, the WAT of the paraffins dissolved in *n*-dodecane was independently measured by viscometry on an SV-10A vibration viscometer (A&D, Japan) equipped with a cell in which the temperature was adjusted by a *MOIM* external thermostat (Termex, Russia).

At high temperatures, when paraffins are completely dissolved, their viscosity–temperature relationship is known to fit a linear Arrhenius plot (ln η vs. 1/*T*) [28]. Under cooling, however, as paraffin solids appear in the solution, the slope of the linear plot markedly changes (Fig. 1b). This change enabled us to find with high accuracy that the WAT for the system under study was 24.5°C.

Next, the WAT was measured by ATR-FTIR spectroscopy using a Vertex 70V FTIR spectrometer (Bruker, Germany) with a cooled MCT detector. The detector was equipped with a high-temperature Golden Gate ATR accessory (Specac, UK) with a diamond prism and a USB controller capable of temperature control with an accuracy of ±0.1°C. ATR-FTIR spectra were recorded in situ at a resolution of 2 cm<sup>-1</sup>, with the number of scans varying from 64 to 128. To record spectra under high gas pressure, we used a steel cell pressed around the measuring surface of the ATR diamond prism and fitted with a teflon gasket. The cell was held in place using a clamp attached into the Golden Gate accessory (Fig. 2). The gas pressure was controlled by an ISCO



**Fig. 1.** (a) Molecular composition of paraffin samples (mp 52–57°C); and (b) viscosity Arrhenius plot ( $\ln \eta$  vs. inverse temperature) for 10 wt % paraffin solution, with WAT indicated by the intersection of lines.

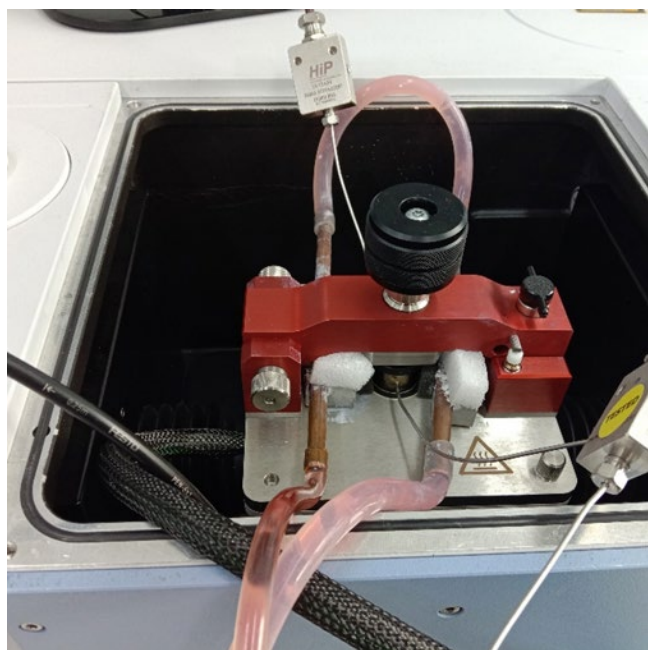
D260 syringe pump (Teledyne, USA) with an accuracy of 0.5% of the full scale of the pressure gauge. The accessory was cooled by cooling a steel plate into which the ATR diamond prism was embedded. Aluminum heat exchangers connected to a FT-316-40 thermostat (LOIP, Russia) through copper tubes were fixed on the steel

plate surface. For better cooling, all connections were lubricated with thermal paste.

A cooled *n*-dodecane paraffin solution sample was placed in a high-pressure steel cell which was pressed to the measuring surface of the ATR diamond prism. The system was then heated until the paraffin solution turned completely homogeneous, upon which the gas was delivered to reach 10 to 40 atm as required. The system was held for about 30–50 min until the gas was completely dissolved according to the ATR-FTIR spectra. After this, the system was cooled, under temperature control, in 1–4°C increments. At each temperature, the solution was held for 20–40 minutes to reach an equilibrium state.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Before the characterization of the paraffin solution under  $CO_2$  pressure, relevant ATR-FTIR spectra were recorded at atmospheric pressure and various temperatures. The ATR-FTIR spectra of the paraffin solution at 33 to 12°C are shown in Fig. 3. The spectra of normal paraffins have a series of C–H stretching bands (3000–2800  $cm^{-1}$ ). The bands at 2957 and 2872  $cm^{-1}$  are typical of asymmetric and symmetric C–H stretching vibrations in  $CH_3$  groups, and bands at 2921 and 2823  $cm^{-1}$  are attributable to identical vibrations in  $CH_2$  groups (Fig. 3b). A series of bands typical of  $CH_3$  and  $CH_2$  bending vibrations appear in the region of 1520–1350  $cm^{-1}$ :  $CH_2$  symmetric bending vibrations



**Fig. 2.** Golden Gate ATR accessory in the FTIR spectrometer's sample compartment with heat exchangers installed and a high-pressure cell pressed against the ATR prism surface.

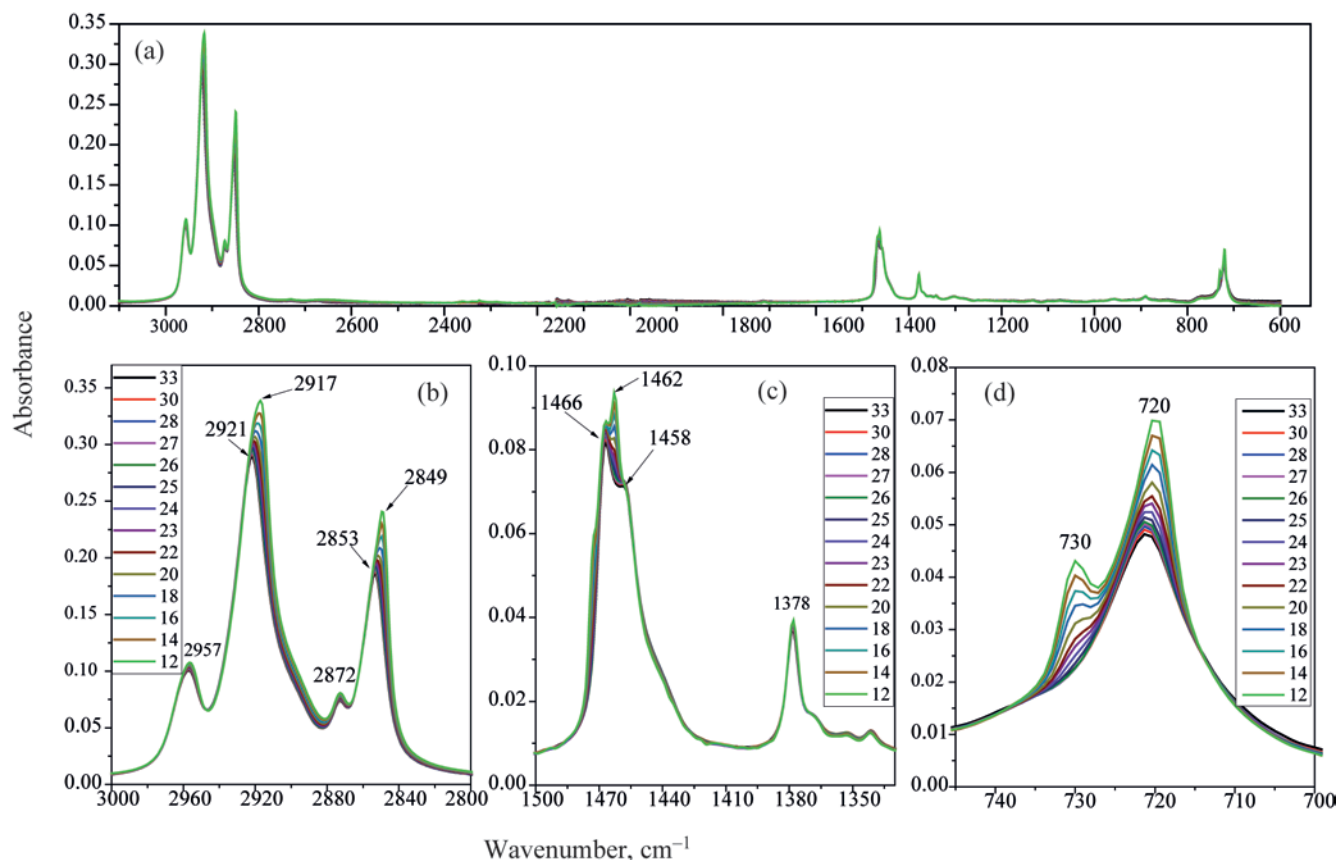


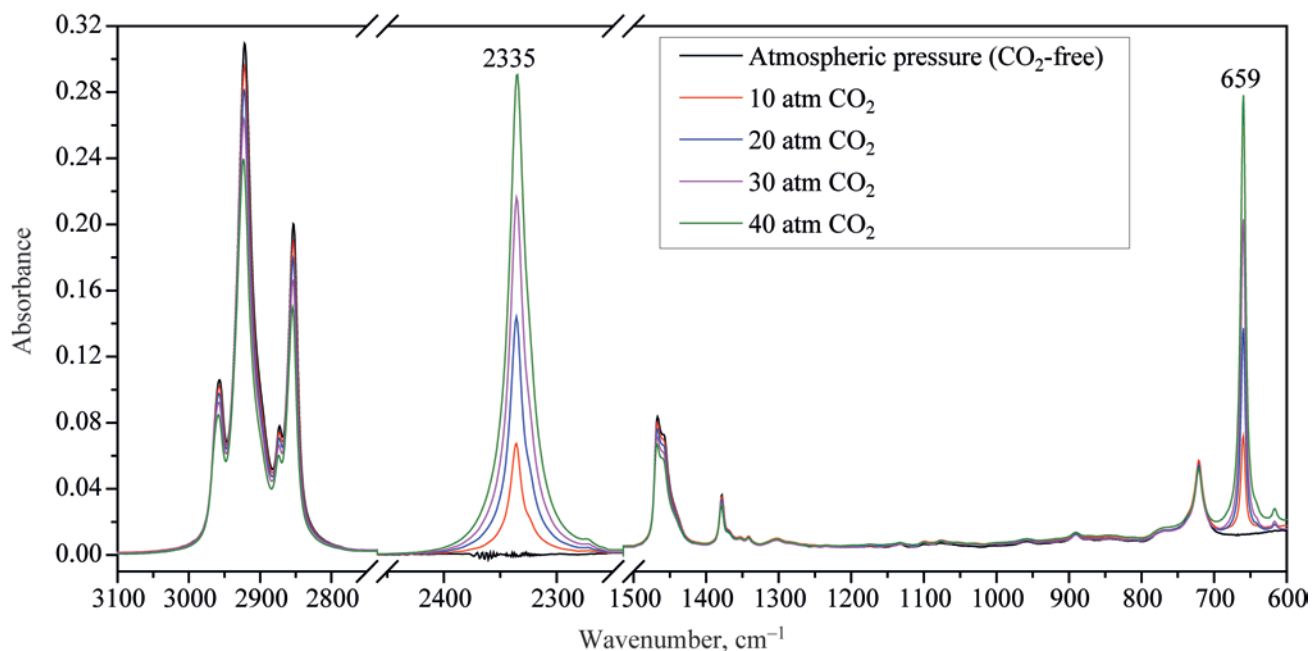
Fig. 3. ATR-FTIR spectra of 10 wt % paraffin solution in *n*-dodecane at different temperatures.

( $1467\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) and  $\text{CH}_3$  asymmetric and symmetric bending vibrations ( $1458$  and  $1378\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , respectively) (Fig. 3c). Furthermore, the spectra indicate absorption in the region of  $750\text{--}700\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , attributed to  $\text{CH}_2$  rocking modes (Fig. 3d).

The cooling of the paraffin solution affected both the locations and intensity of  $\text{CH}_2$  bands. For example, the asymmetric and symmetric stretching bands of  $\text{CH}_2$  groups shifted from  $2921$  and  $2853\text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $2917$  to  $2849\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , respectively, with their intensities increasing (Fig. 3b). The  $\text{CH}_2$  bending band changed, and a new band appeared at  $1462\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , their intensity increasing with cooling (Fig. 3c). The most significant changes were observed for  $\text{CH}_2$  rocking modes: a new band appeared at  $730\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (Fig. 3d). All these IR spectral changes, typical of paraffin transition from a liquid to solid state, have been described and explained in detail in prior studies [29, 30]. This makes it possible to use any specific IR spectral variations for accurate identification of phase

transition temperatures for paraffins and paraffin-containing systems: petroleum paraffins [31], bitumens [32], and asphalt binders [33].

After obtaining the reference data (without  $\text{CO}_2$ ), the spectral changes of the paraffin solution were characterized in the  $\text{CO}_2$  atmosphere at specific pressures and temperatures. Figure 4 provides the ATR-FTIR spectra of the paraffin solution at  $34^\circ\text{C}$  and atmospheric pressure (without  $\text{CO}_2$ ), compared to the spectra under  $\text{CO}_2$  pressures of 10, 20, 30, and 40 atm. In the  $\text{CO}_2$  atmosphere, two additional bands corresponding to dissolved  $\text{CO}_2$  appeared, specifically at  $2335\text{ cm}^{-1}$  ( $\nu_3$ , C=O asymmetric stretching vibrations) and  $659\text{ cm}^{-1}$  ( $\nu_2$ , O=C=O bending vibrations). The decrease in the absorbance of the paraffin solution bands indicates that  $\text{CO}_2$  was absorbed by the solution. The wavenumbers of the  $\nu_3$  and  $\nu_2$  bands coincide with the data on  $\text{CO}_2$  absorption by polyethylene [34] and are very close to the values for  $\text{CO}_2$  absorption by polybutadiene ( $2334$



**Fig. 4.** ATR-FTIR spectra of paraffin solution in *n*-dodecane at 34°C for atmospheric pressure (CO<sub>2</sub>-free) and CO<sub>2</sub> pressures of 10–40 atm. The CO<sub>2</sub> antisymmetric stretching ( $\nu_3$ , at ca. 2335 cm<sup>-1</sup>), bending ( $\nu_2$ , at 659 cm<sup>-1</sup>) bands are observed.

and 657 cm<sup>-1</sup>) [35]. In addition, no split of the  $\nu_2$  band was observed, unlike the cases of absorption by polymers or functionalized materials (e.g., with carbonyl groups) [34, 35]. This confirms that CO<sub>2</sub> molecules did not interact with paraffin or *n*-dodecane molecules.

Figure 5 presents the ATR-FTIR spectra of the paraffin solution at 30 atm CO<sub>2</sub> and different temperatures. The regions of C–H stretching vibrations, C=O stretching vibrations, CH<sub>3</sub> and CH<sub>2</sub> bending vibrations, and CH<sub>2</sub> rocking vibrations are shown separately (Figs. 5a, 5b, 5c, and 5d, respectively). In a manner similar to the CO<sub>2</sub>-free paraffin solution case (at atmospheric pressure), cooling the paraffin solution in the CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere at 30 atm affected both the position and intensity of the bands attributed to CH<sub>2</sub> groups. In particular, we see a shift of the absorption bands for C–H stretching vibrations (Fig. 5a) and the appearance of new bands in the regions of bending vibrations (1462 cm<sup>-1</sup> in Fig. 5c) and rocking vibrations (730 cm<sup>-1</sup> in Fig. 5d). However, an important difference between these spectra and those at atmospheric pressure should be emphasized: under CO<sub>2</sub> pressure, the spectral changes manifested themselves at lower temperatures. Furthermore, the cooling increased

the intensity of the C=O stretching band, the maximum being reached at 23°C.

The WAT was derived from the change in the CH<sub>2</sub> rocking vibration band (720 cm<sup>-1</sup>). For this purpose, the integral intensity of this peak was plotted as a function of temperature in the range of 735–715 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The WAT was determined as the temperature at which the slope of integral intensity vs. temperature changed [36]. Based on the linear dependence of integral intensity on the amount of solid hydrocarbons [37], the authors of [36] proposed a quantitative method for evaluating the amount of precipitated paraffins for crude oils and showed a good correlation with the centrifugation method. A US patent [38] describes a method for calculating a reduced spectral area as a ratio of the integrated spectral area of the 735–715 cm<sup>-1</sup> band (S2) to the integrated spectral area of the 1402–1324 cm<sup>-1</sup> band (S1). This method ensures that possible uncontrolled errors of FTIR spectra (caused by fluctuations in sample locations, temperatures, or other spectrometer instabilities) are properly eliminated. The thing is that the 1402–1324 cm<sup>-1</sup> bands attributable to CH<sub>3</sub> bending vibrations are insensitive to the temperature of the sample.

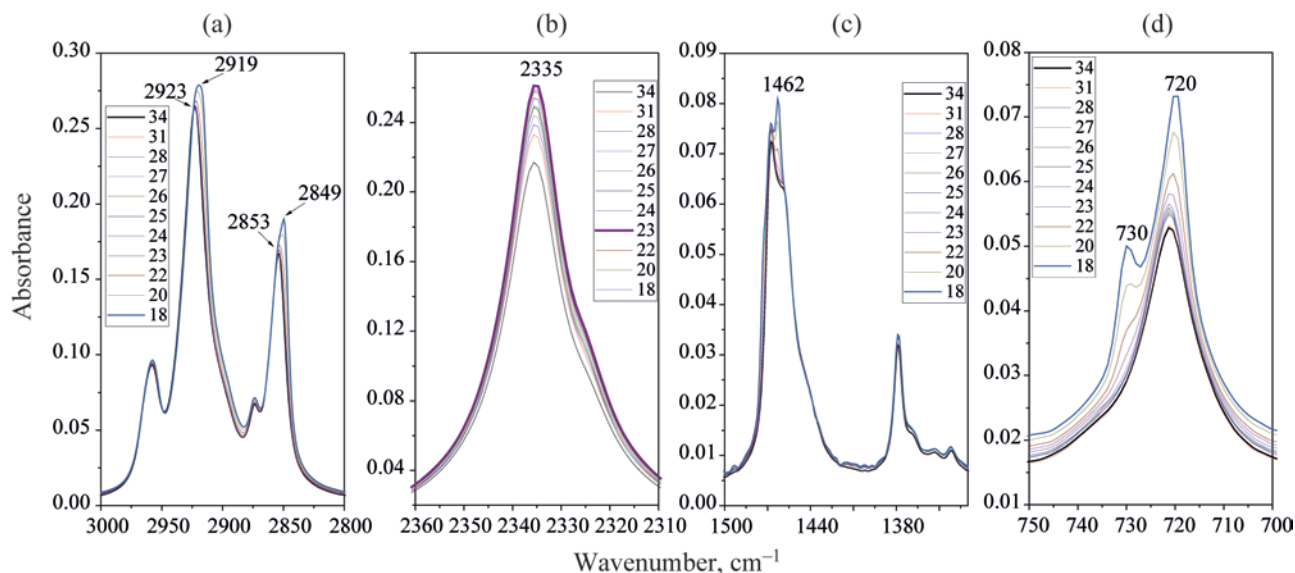


Fig. 5. ATR-FTIR spectra of 10 wt % paraffin solution in *n*-dodecane under 30 atm CO<sub>2</sub> at different temperatures.

Figure 6 shows the S2/S1 ratio as a function of temperature for the paraffin solution at atmospheric pressure (without CO<sub>2</sub>) and CO<sub>2</sub> pressures of 10, 20, 30, and 40 atm. In all cases we see two regions where the experimental data points can be approximated by a straight line. The intersection point of the two lines is the wax appearance temperature. At atmospheric pressure and 10 atm CO<sub>2</sub>, the WAT equaled 25.6°C, slightly higher than the value identified by viscometry (24.5°C). This difference can be explained by the fact that solids formed in the system need to account for about 1% to ensure that variations in the solution viscosity are safely recorded, whereas FTIR spectroscopy and DSC have higher sensitivity to the formation of primary paraffin crystals, thus giving higher WAT values [28].

At 20, 30, and 40 atm CO<sub>2</sub>, the WAT was 24.4, 23.6, and 22.3°C, respectively. Therefore, the WAT decrease with an increase in the CO<sub>2</sub> pressure. These data are in good agreement with a published report on a WAT decrease in response to an increase in carbon dioxide pressure in crude oils [17]. Our data are also consistent with available thermodynamic modeling data for binary and ternary systems that contain paraffins and *n*-alkanes in the presence of CO<sub>2</sub> [15, 16]. Thus, in situ high-pressure ATR-FTIR spectroscopy is a reliable method for evaluating the wax appearance temperature.

Special mention should be made of the intensity trends with CO<sub>2</sub> dissolved in the system. Figure 7 provides

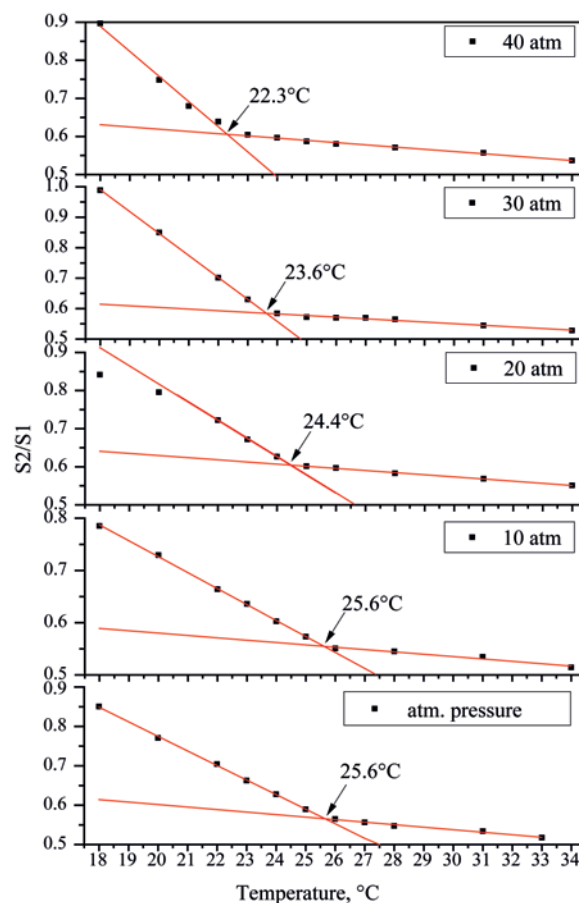


Fig. 6. Dependence of the S2/S1 ratio on temperature for paraffin solution at atmospheric pressure and 10, 20, 30, 40 atm CO<sub>2</sub>.

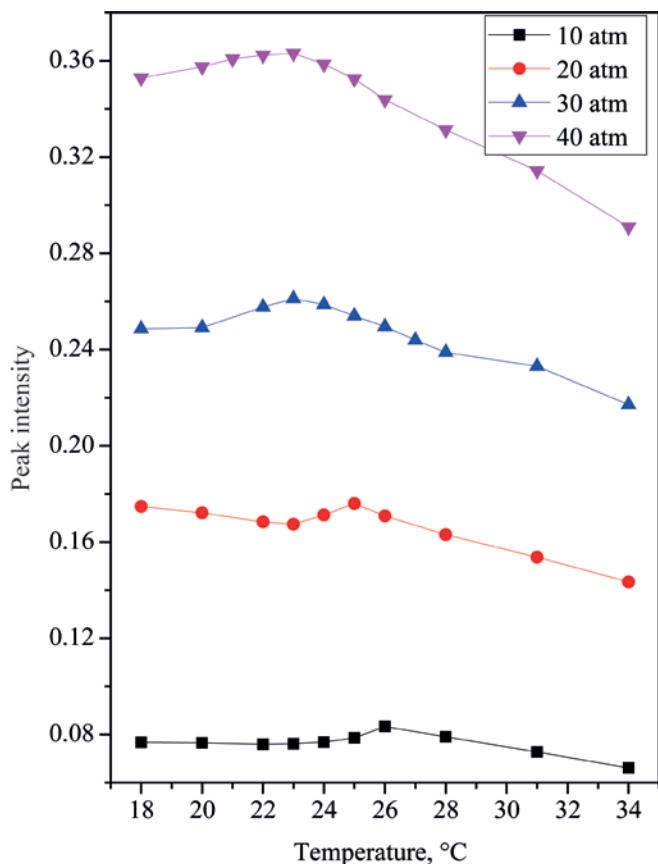


Fig. 7. Dependence of the peak intensity of the band stretching vibrations of CO<sub>2</sub> on temperature at 10, 20, 30, and 40 atm CO<sub>2</sub>.

a plot of peak intensity of the CO<sub>2</sub> stretching band as a function of temperature at different CO<sub>2</sub> pressures (10, 20, 30, and 40 atm). The cooling led to an increase in the band intensity, evidently due to the rise in CO<sub>2</sub> solubility. The maximum observed on all the curves near the WAT are likely associated with the ATR-FTIR spectra recording procedure. In the ATR mode, the IR radiation is known to penetrate the sample to a certain depth (referred to as effective thickness), and this depth depends on various parameters such as the refractive indices (RI) of the ATR prism and the tested sample, the IR beam incidence angle with respect to the prism–sample contact plane, and the incident wavelength. All these parameters are included in the effective thickness equation [39]. For example, for *n*-dodecane (RI 1.4216; the beam angle for the given ATR accessory is 45°), the effective thickness is 1.36 and 4.35 μm for wavenumbers of 2335 and 730 cm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Available reports lack any

evidence of CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in solid paraffins at the pressures used in our study. Thus, the CO<sub>2</sub> band intensity decrease can be explained by the generation of paraffin microcrystals and, hence, by a decrease in the relative CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the effective thickness. Accordingly, the maximum on the CO<sub>2</sub> peak intensity curves can also be used as a WAT indicator.

## CONCLUSIONS

In the present study, in situ ATR-FTIR spectroscopy was for the first time employed for direct experimental measurement of wax appearance temperature under CO<sub>2</sub> high-pressure. This method proved to be effective.

The proposed method confirmed a WAT decrease as the CO<sub>2</sub> pressure was elevated. This finding is in good agreement with published thermodynamic modeling data on the phase behavior of *n*-alkane mixtures. Furthermore, the intensity of CO<sub>2</sub> absorption bands was found to decrease under cooling below the WAT. It is known from the literature that paraffin microcrystals formed below WAT are not contain of dissolved CO<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, the pattern observed is likely associated with the fact that the paraffin microcrystals formed within the effective IR penetration depth reduce the apparent CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, as indicated by the decreasing intensity of CO<sub>2</sub> absorption bands in the ATR-FTIR spectra. The study results demonstrate the applicability and reliability of the proposed approach for practical improvement of the performance of EOR methods.

## AUTHOR INFORMATION

A.S. Shalygin, ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7414-4256>

E.V. Morozov, ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1561-3937>

O.N. Martyanov, ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9999-8680>

## FUNDING

This study was funded by the Russian Science Foundation (project no. 21-13-00171, <http://rscf.ru/project/21-13-00171/>).

## CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest requiring disclosure in this article.

## REFERENCES

- Karacan, R., Mukhtarov, S., Barış, İ., İşleyen, A., and Yardımcı, M.E., *Energies*, 2021, vol. 14, p. 2947. <https://doi.org/10.3390/en14102947>
- Nabipour, M., Escrochi, M., Ayatollahi, S., Boukadi, F., Wadhahi, M., Maamari, R., and Bemani, A., *J. Pet. Sci. Eng.*, 2007, vol. 55, pp. 74–82. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.petrol.2006.04.013>
- Esene, C., Rezaei, N., Aborig, A., and Zendejboudi, S.C., *Fuel*, 2019, vol. 237, pp. 1086–1107. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2018.08.106>
- Lake, L.W., Johns, R., Rossen, B., and Pope, G., *Soc. Petrol. Eng.*, 2014, p. 496. <https://doi.org/10.2118/9781613993286>
- Alvarado, V. and Manrique, E., *Energies*, 2010, vol. 3, pp. 1529–1575. <https://doi.org/10.3390/en3091529>
- Speight, J.G., *Enhanced Recovery Methods for Heavy Oil and Tar Sands*, Gulf Publishing Company, Houston, Texas, 2013. <https://doi.org/10.1016/C2013-0-15525-0>
- Massarweh, O. and Abushaikh, A.S., *Petroleum*, 2022, vol. 8, pp. 291–317. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.petlm.2021.05.002>
- Núñez-López, V. and Moskal, E., *Front. Clim.*, 2019, vol. 1. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fclim.2019.00005>
- Tan, Y., Li, Q., Xu, L., Ghaffar, A., Zhou, X., and Li, P., *Fuel*, 2022, vol. 328, p. 125256. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2022.125256>
- Cruz, A.A., Amaral, M., Santos, D., Palma, A., Franceschi, E., Borges, G.R., Coutinho, J.A.P., Palácio, J., and Dariva, C., *J. Supercrit. Fluids*, 2019, vol. 143, pp. 24–31. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.supflu.2018.08.005>
- Dashti, H., Zanganeh, P., Kord, S., Ayatollahi, S., and Amiri, A., *Fuel*, 2020, vol. 262, p. 116615. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2019.116615>
- Wang, P., Zhao, F., Hou, J., Lu, G., Zhang, M., and Wang, Z., *Energies*, 2018, vol. 11, p. 2483. <https://doi.org/10.3390/en11092483>
- Rodriguez-Reartes, S.B., Cismondi, M., Franceschi, E., Corazza, M.L., Oliveira, J.V., and Zabaloy, M.S., *J. Supercrit. Fluids*, 2009, vol. 50, pp. 193–202. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.supflu.2009.06.017>
- da Silva, V.M., do Carmo, R.P., Fleming, F.P., Daridon, J.-L., Pauly, J., and Tavares, F.W., *Fluid Phase Equilib.*, 2018, vol. 463, pp. 114–120. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fluid.2018.01.029>
- Jaramillo, W.A.G., da Silva, V.M., do Carmo, R.P., Braga, A.J.O., Ndiaye, P.M., and Tavares, F.W., *Fluid Phase Equilib.*, 2020, vol. 526, p. 112802. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fluid.2020.112802>
- Eniolorunda, O.V., Chapoy, A., and Burgass, R., *Energy Fuels*, 2021, vol. 35, pp. 3731–3741. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.energyfuels.0c02977>
- Hosseini-pour, A., Japper-Jaafar, A.B., and Yusup, S., *Proc. Eng.*, 2016, vol. 148, pp. 1022–1029. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.proeng.2016.06.580>
- Sasaki, K., Inayoshi, N., and Tashiro, K., *J. Phys. Chem. C*, 2009, vol. 113, pp. 3287–3291. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jp809864m>
- Gur'eva, S.A., Marikhin, V.A., Myasnikova, L.P., Volchek, B.Z., and Medvedeva, D.A., *J. Phys. Conf. Ser.*, 2019, vol. 1400, p. 055040. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1742-6596/1400/5/055040>
- Ryu, M., Romano, M., Batsale, J.C., Pradere, C., and Morikawa, J., *Quant. Infrared Thermogr. J.*, 2017, vol. 14, pp. 154–163. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17686733.2016.1234672>
- Ewing, A.V., Gabrienko, A.A., Semikolenov, S.V., Dubkov, K.A., and Kazarian, S.G., *J. Phys. Chem. C*, 2015, vol. 119, pp. 431–440. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jp510208e>
- Gabrienko, A.A., Martyanov, O.N., and Kazarian, S.G., *Energy Fuels*, 2016, vol. 30, pp. 4750–4757. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.energyfuels.6b00718>
- Shalygin, A.S., Nesterov, N.S., Prikhod'ko, S.A., Adonin, N.Y., Martyanov, O.N., and Kazarian, S.G., *J. Mol. Liq.*, 2020, vol. 315, p. 113694. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molliq.2020.113694>
- Kovalev, E.P., Shalygin, A.S., Shubin, A.A., Kozhevnikov, I.V., Prikhod'ko, S.A., Adonin, N.Y., Kazarian, S.G., and Martyanov, O.N., *J. Mol. Liq.*, 2022, vol. 348, p. 118082. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molliq.2021.118082>
- Kazarian, S.G., *Appl. Spectrosc. Rev.*, 1997, vol. 32, pp. 301–348. <https://doi.org/10.1080/05704929708003318>
- Ewing, A.V. and Kazarian, S.G., *J. Supercrit. Fluids*, 2018, vol. 134, pp. 88–95. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.supflu.2017.12.011>
- Champeau, M., Thomassin, J.-M., Jérôme, C., and Tassaing, T., *J. Supercrit. Fluids*, 2014, vol. 90,



- pp. 44–52.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.supflu.2014.03.006>
28. Coutinho, J.A.P. and Daridon, J.-L., *Pet. Sci. Technol.*, 2005, vol. 23, pp. 1113–1128.  
<https://doi.org/10.1081/LFT-200035541>
29. Zerbi, G., Magni, R., Gussoni, M., Moritz, K.H., Bigotto, A., and Dirlikov, S., *J. Chem. Phys.*, 1981, vol. 75, pp. 3175–3194.  
<https://doi.org/10.1063/1.442490>
30. Makarenko, S., Puchkovska, G., Kotelnikova, E., and Filatov, S., *J. Mol. Struct.*, 2004, vol. 704, pp. 25–30.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molstruc.2004.01.046>
31. Gupta, A.K., Brouwer, L., and Severin, D., *Pet. Sci. Technol.*, 1998, vol. 16, pp. 59–69.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/10916469808949772>
32. Nivitha, M.R., Prasad, E., and Krishnan, J.M., *Mater. Struct.*, 2019, vol. 52, p. 7.  
<https://doi.org/10.1617/s11527-018-1308-7>
33. Ding, H. and Hesp, S.A.M., *Fuel*, 2020, vol. 277, p. 118220.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2020.118220>
34. Kazarian, S.G., Vincent, M.F., Bright, F.V., Liotta, C.L., and Eckert, C.A., *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 1996, vol. 118, pp. 1729–1736.  
<https://doi.org/10.1021/ja950416q>
35. Gabrienko, A.A., Ewing, A.V., Chibiryaev, A.M., Agafontsev, A.M., Dubkov, K.A., and Kazarian, S.G., *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, 2016, vol. 18, pp. 6465–6475.  
<https://doi.org/10.1039/c5cp06431g>
36. Roehner, R.M. and Hanson, F.V., *Energy Fuels*, 2001, vol. 15, pp. 756–763.  
<https://doi.org/10.1021/ef010016q>
37. Snyder, R.G., Maroncelli, M., Strauss, H.L., and Hallmark, V.M., *J. Phys. Chem.*, 1986, vol. 90, pp. 5623–5630.  
<https://doi.org/10.1021/j100280a030>
38. Oh, K., , Patent USA 8326548 B2, 2011.
39. Harrick, N.J., *Internal Reflection Spectroscopy*, New York: Wiley, 1967.