

Inferring the Energetics of CO₂–Aniline Adduct Formation from Vibrational Spectroscopy

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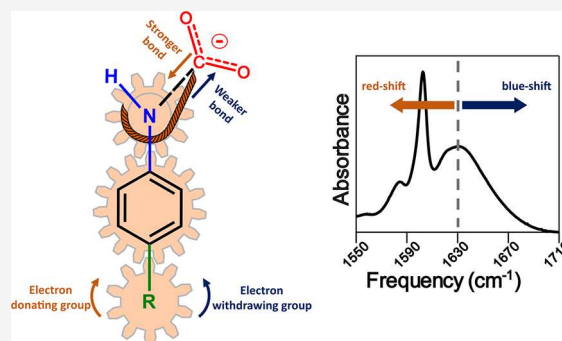
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ABSTRACT: Control of atmospheric CO₂ is an important contemporary scientific and engineering challenge. Toward this goal, the reaction of CO₂ with amines to form carbamate bonds is an established method for CO₂ capture. However, controllable reversal of this reaction remains difficult and requires tuning the energetics of the carbamate bond. Through IR spectroscopy, we show that a characteristic frequency observed upon carbamate formation varies as a function of the substituent's Hammett parameter for a family of *para*-substituted anilines. We present computational evidence that the vibrational frequency of the adducted CO₂ serves as a predictor of the energy of formation of the carbamate. Electron donating groups typically enhance the driving force of carbamate formation by transferring more charge to the adducted CO₂ and thus increasing the occupancy of the antibonding orbital in the carbon–oxygen bonds. Increased occupancy of the antibonding orbital within adducted CO₂ indicates a weaker bond, leading to a red-shift in the characteristic carbamate frequency. Our work serves the large field of CO₂ capture research where spectroscopic observables, such as IR frequencies, are more easily obtainable and can stand in as a descriptor of driving forces.



INTRODUCTION

Contemporary climate models project that we must not only eliminate current emissions but also perform direct-air capture to lower atmospheric CO₂ concentrations.¹ The past decade has seen an increase in scientific and engineering focus on improved and new methods for CO₂ capture.^{2–5} Such approaches can be broadly categorized as irreversible and reversible methods. In the former, CO₂ irreversibly reacts with an absorber, for example with calcium ions, to form insoluble carbonaceous materials.^{6–10} Examples of reversible CO₂ capture include temperature, pressure, and pH swings where thermodynamic parameters of the system are modulated to control the CO₂ equilibria.^{6,7,11,12} Such approaches are often energy-intensive, expensive, environmentally hazardous, and not modular.

Organic Lewis bases, such as amines, offer chemical tunability and versatility for CO₂ capture. In these systems, the lone pair of the amine forms a Lewis adduct with the carbon of CO₂ to make a carbamate bond. Reaction of CO₂ with alkylamines like monoethanolamine are the prototype of this class and have been extensively studied.^{6,13–16} To achieve better reversibility, sp² nitrogen centers have been proposed as a viable approach.¹⁷ Despite the rich literature on organic amines, understanding their reaction mechanisms with CO₂ remains a challenge.^{18,19} For an ideal reversible CO₂ capture system, the strength of interaction between CO₂ and the

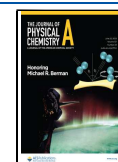
capturing agent must simultaneously be strong enough to drive efficient absorption and weak enough to induce easy desorption.^{11,20} Therefore, engineering the molecular details of CO₂ binding is critical.

In this work, we use aniline as a modular platform to systematically explore the energetics of CO₂ absorption (Figure 1).¹⁸ We show that by adding various substituents to the aniline core, the carbamate reaction energy can be tuned. The substituents' electron donating/withdrawing ability is quantitatively represented by their Hammett parameters, σ_p .^{21–23} Other studies have shown the aniline–CO₂ equilibrium depends on σ_p ¹⁸ and that the Hammett parameter correlates well with the pK_a of aniline derivatives.²⁴ Moreover, as some of us have previously shown,²² this has some similarities to the polarization that an electrode induces on an adsorbed molecule. Therefore, trends seen in bulk measurements of functionalized anilines may be translated to an electrode surface for a reversible carbon capture system.

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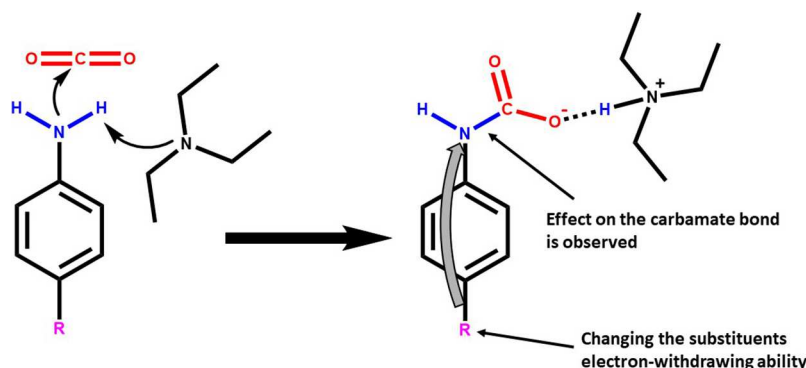


Figure 1. Reaction of *para*-substituted aniline with CO₂ in the presence of triethylamine.

Through a combination of computational and experimental work, we identify that the vibrational frequency of the adducted CO₂ serves as a convenient observable for the bond strength of the formed carbamates. The ability to use vibrational frequency to predict reaction energy is valuable due to the difficulties of performing calorimetry or precise measurement of equilibrium constants in many practical applications.

Tassaing and co-workers have previously studied the interaction of a series of substituted anilines with supercritical CO₂ using vibrational spectroscopy.²⁵ They observed that the partial charge of nitrogen varied as a function of the substituent's Hammett parameter. However, they did not report the formation of carbamate bonds, likely due to the absence of a base in their system. Here, we study the aniline–CO₂ adducts in ambient temperature in the presence of an additional base and report the formation of a carbamate bond.

We also computationally explore the relationship between measurable carbamate frequencies and the Hammett parameter of the attached substituents to understand the underlying factors that control changes in frequency and reaction energy, along similar lines to recent studies by us and others.^{26–30} Further, we create linear free energy relationships (LFERs) to guide the selection of *para*-substituents for aniline. Such linear relationships^{31,32} connecting reaction rates or selectivity and the Hammett parameter of substituents have been developed to understand reactions relevant to CO₂ capture.^{33,34} More recently, Zhang et al. have studied the suitability of alkoxides, phenoxides, and amines and developed an inverse design procedure for direct air capture of CO₂.²⁷

In this work, we present experimental evidence of the formation of an adduct between a *para*-substituted aniline anion and CO₂ and report a peak in the FTIR spectrum associated with the asymmetric CO₂ carbamate stretch. The frequency of this stretch depends on the substituent's electron-donating/withdrawing ability as this governs the extent of charge transfer from the aniline anion to bound CO₂ in the carbamate, with electron-donating groups (EDGs) yielding lower or red-shifted frequencies relative to unsubstituted aniline. Energies of carbamate formation also depend on substituent electron-donating/withdrawing ability and are found to be strongly correlated to computationally determined IR frequencies. These similarities in frequency and reaction energy trends with respect to σ_p can serve as valuable means to track reaction energetics via easily observable spectroscopic features.

METHODS

Experimental Carbamate Formation and Characterization. All chemicals were purchased from MilliporeSigma and used as received. As some aniline derivatives were solid at room temperature, two different methods were used to create aniline–triethylamine (TEA) solutions. For solid anilines, a 5 mL saturated aniline–TEA solution was prepared, filtered using a syringe filter, and diluted with 1 mL of excess TEA. Liquid anilines were dissolved in a 1:2 mole ratio of TEA without further preparation. To induce carbamate formation, a pure CO₂ gas feed was bubbled into 10 mL vials containing the aniline–TEA solution.

For deuteration experiments, a 1:10 mole ratio solution of aniline in deuterated methanol (CH₃OD) was prepared. These solutions were left undisturbed for 2 days, and the methanol was removed using a RotaVap. After deuteration, aniline–TEA solutions were prepared as described above. Several of the carbamate complexes were viscous solutions.

All vibrational spectra were obtained using a Nicolet iS50 FT-IR under purge. The carbamate complexes were placed between two CaF₂ windows. The amount of carbamate sample was adjusted to ensure reasonable absorption spectra in the carbamate frequency region. The spectra were measured in a single-beam transmission configuration using a DTGS detector, with 400–4000 cm^{−1} range and 0.1 cm^{−1} resolution.

The FTIR spectra were transformed into absorbance, and a linear baseline was subtracted. The region between 1550 and 1710 cm^{−1} were fitted to a series of Lorentzians using Matlab's default curve fitting module and trust-region reflective algorithm. Additional details on the fits are provided in [Supporting Information \(SI\) Section S2](#). Although we tried to dissolve the carbamates in various solvents, rapid degradation of the product back into aniline and TEA was observed. The full list of solvents tried is available in [SI Section S3](#).

Computational Characterization of Carbamate Bond Formation. All calculations were performed using the *ab initio* quantum chemical software ver. Q-Chem 5.4.2.³⁵ We modeled 23 *para*-substituted anilines to explore possible correlations between the Hammett parameter, reactions energies, and the carbamate vibrational frequency. Optimized geometries for the carbamate product (final state, FS) were identified using density functional theory (DFT) calculations at the ω B97X-D/def2-TZVP level of theory.^{36,37} The conductor-like polarizable continuum model (C-PCM) for implicit solvation^{38–40} was used for all electronic structure calculations with dichloromethane (dielectric constant = 8.93) as the representative solvent. Dichloromethane was selected due to its dielectric

constant being similar to that of ionic liquids, which approximates the carbamate[−]–TEAH⁺ product.⁴¹ The carbamate frequency (ν_3) was identified for all products and adjusted by a scaling factor of 0.955 consistent with NIST scaling recommendations⁴² (SI Section S4).

The initial state (IS) geometries, composed of weakly interacting complexes of deprotonated, substituted anilines and neutral CO₂, were calculated using constrained density functional theory (CDFT)^{43–45} with unshifted Becke partitioning.⁴⁶ CDFT constrains the charge distribution such that the substituted aniline has one excess electron. Vibrational analysis was used to confirm that the geometries were minima. We approximated the free energy of formation of carbamate (difference between FS and IS) as the zero-point-corrected electronic energy difference between the two geometries (SI Section S5). This is because vibrational analysis yielded 1–3 small imaginary modes (≤ 100 cm^{−1}) for some of these structures, which are difficult to eliminate. Estimating free energy contributions from such modes can be challenging. These initial and final states were determined without the inclusion of TEA which would likely participate in hydrogen bonding with the bound CO₂. Including TEA in the model leads to shifts the ν_3 for some substituents (SI Section S4), but the overall trend with respect to the Hammett parameter is preserved. To further quantify the role of the amine, it will be necessary to scan the configurational space of hydrogen-bonding geometries and generate an ensemble description of reaction energies and corresponding vibrational frequencies, which is beyond the scope of this paper.

Using the computed formation energies and the characteristic carbamate frequencies (ν_3), we developed a simple LFER that allows one to predict the carbamate formation energy for a substituted aniline, ΔE_p , based on its calculated frequency, $\nu_{3,i}$:

$$\frac{\Delta E_i - \Delta E_H}{RT} \approx m \times \frac{\nu_{3,i} - \nu_{3,H}}{\nu_{3,\text{MAX}} - \nu_{3,\text{MIN}}} \quad (1)$$

Here, ΔE_H refers to the unsubstituted aniline, R is the gas constant, and T is the temperature. The right-hand side of eq 1 consists of frequencies of the unsubstituted aniline ($\nu_{3,H}$) as well as maximum and minimum values of vibrational frequencies identified in our analysis of 23 substituted anilines and a unitless slope of linear fit, m . Note that our choice of normalization and the resulting slope depends on the range of frequencies within the data set. Referencing all reaction energies to ΔE_H helps prevent any changes in the trends stemming from our selection of the initial state for these systems.

The carbamate bond length between the nitrogen and carbon for every FS is also reported because bond lengths are often correlated to bond strength⁴⁷ (SI Section S4), although, as illustrated by Kraka and co-workers, caution is recommended in relating bond dissociation energy and bond length.^{48,49} Similarly, we report the bond angle of bound CO₂ as a physical reflection of the extent of interaction between bound CO₂ and the substituted anilines (SI Section S4). Mulliken charges for carbon and nitrogen are reported for the FS and IS to explore the extent of charge transfer across the carbamate bond (SI Section S6). To better understand the dependence of bond strength on substituent and the subsequent shift in IR frequencies, we also performed natural bond orbital (NBO) analysis.^{50–52} NBO analysis provides a measure of the occupancy of the bonding and antibonding

orbitals between bound atoms. The occupancy of these orbitals was then shown to be related to the calculated frequencies as well as the calculated bond lengths (SI Section S6).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Experimental Observation of Carbamate Formation.

After bubbling CO₂ through the aniline–triethylamine (TEA) solution, we formed viscous products for most of the samples. This change in viscosity with CO₂ is the first indication of successful formation of carbamates as it suggests the formation of an ionic liquid between the carbamate and the protonated TEA. More details about the form of the products within the series are available in Table S3.

FTIR spectra of the other aniline derivatives under investigation are shown in SI Section S2. An example spectrum in the expected carbamate stretch frequency,^{15,53} comparing the starting aniline solution to the product is shown in Figure 2, along with the identity of the most important spectral features for both species.

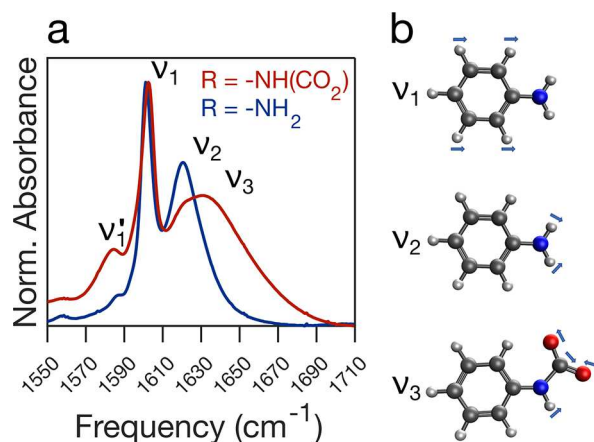


Figure 2. (a) FTIR spectra of aniline in triethylamine before (blue) and after (red) carbamate formation. (b) Identity of vibrational modes ν_1 (ν_1'), ν_2 , and ν_3 as supported by computations.

Aniline (Figure 2, blue) displays a narrow peak (ν_1) at 1600 cm^{−1}, which is due to the characteristic carbon–carbon bond stretching of the aromatic ring.^{14,16,19} There is an additional peak (ν_1') that is also assigned to an aromatic C=C stretch. In addition, there is a peak centered around 1630 cm^{−1} (ν_2) which we attribute to an amine bending mode based on computational results and their presence in other amine solutions (SI Section S2).^{14,16,19}

Upon reaction with CO₂ (Figure 2, red), a new broader peak at 1640 cm^{−1} (ν_3) is formed. Our calculations for aniline–carbamate in this spectral region show a mode that primarily corresponds to the carbamate asymmetric stretch, suggesting the assignment of ν_3 to the carbamate bond. However, because of its overlap with ν_2 of aniline, the assignment of ν_3 to carbamate was less certain. To confirm the assignment, we performed the same experiments after deuterating the aniline amino group.

FTIR spectra taken after deuteration of the aniline–TEA solution are shown in Figure 3. As shown, deuteration largely removed the amino stretch from the initial solution (Figure 3a, blue). As the phenyl hydrogens were expected to be unaffected upon deuteration, ν_1 and ν_1' were unaffected. In contrast, ν_2 disappeared, leaving this area uncongested. Upon introduction

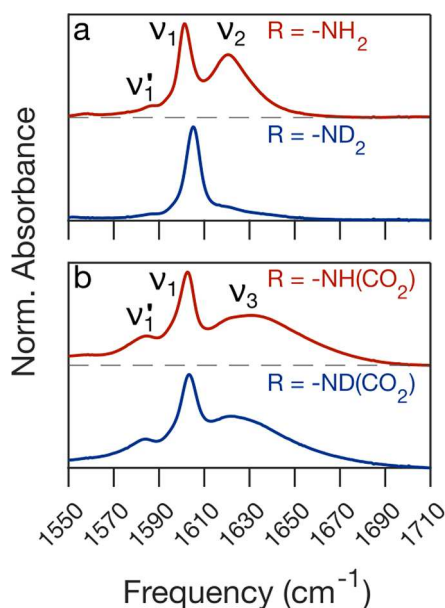


Figure 3. Example FTIR spectra showing the success of deuteration in isolating the carbamate stretching region from the amine stretching modes. (a) Comparison of nondeuterated aniline in triethylamine (TEA) to a deuterated sample. Upon deuteration, peaks associated with the NH_2 bending mode shift to lower energies, leaving the $1550\text{--}1700\text{ cm}^{-1}$ region uncongested. (b) Appearance on ν_3 in both deuterated and undeuterated sample, therefore confirming its assignment to the carbamate stretch.

of CO_2 to the deuterated sample, a new peak (ν_3) emerged. As this peak is located in the same region for both deuterated and nondeuterated samples, this confirms its assignment to the carbamate stretch. (Figure 3b). In summary, deuteration selectively removes the amino stretch from the carbamate spectral range. Therefore, we used deuterated aniline for all subsequent experiments.

The formation of a broad peak around 2400 cm^{-1} was observed (Figure S2). Previous work done by Malohtra et al. assigns a similar feature to a strongly hydrogen-bonded N–H stretching mode in intramolecular hydrogen-bonding CO_2 capturing agents.⁵⁴ They also report a pronounced change in viscosity due to the Coulombic interactions between zwitterions upon carbamate formation.⁵⁴ In our case the hydrogen bonding is intermolecular, and it suggests the carbamate adduct is stabilized by a triethylammonium cation, which was not included in our DFT calculations. However, we expect that this stabilizing interaction is similar across our series and would not change the overall trend we observe.

To isolate the carbamate stretch, it was necessary to fit the spectra to at least three Lorentzians. An example fit for aniline carbamate is shown in Figure 4. All other fits and the fits parameters are shown in SI Section S2.

Dependence of Carbamate Frequency on Substituents. The carbamate central frequency (ν_3) as retrieved from the fits is plotted versus the Hammett parameter, σ_p , of the aniline substituent in Figure 5 (green circles). As the figure shows, the carbamate frequency blue-shifts with increasing Hammett parameter. Calculated ν_3 values also exhibit a similar trend with σ_p (black diamonds, Figure 5). The calculated ν_3 frequencies are on average 52 cm^{-1} higher than experimental frequencies before the scaling adjustment (as explained in the Methods section) and are on average 24 cm^{-1} lower after

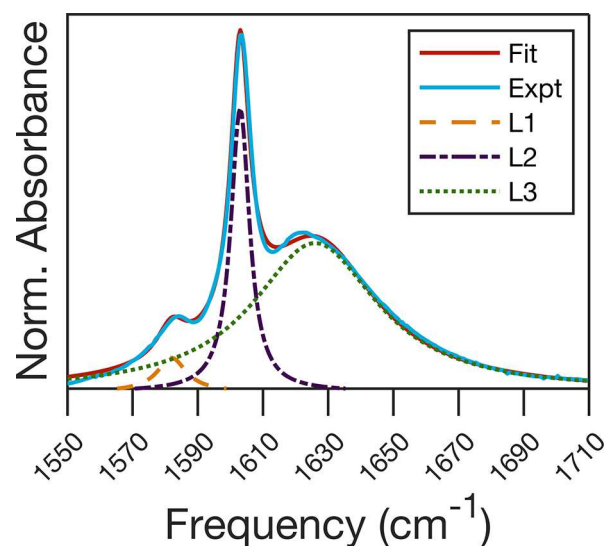


Figure 4. Representative spectrum of substituted aniline ($R = -\text{H}$) adducted with CO_2 . The spectrum was fitted to three Lorentzian components as described in the text.

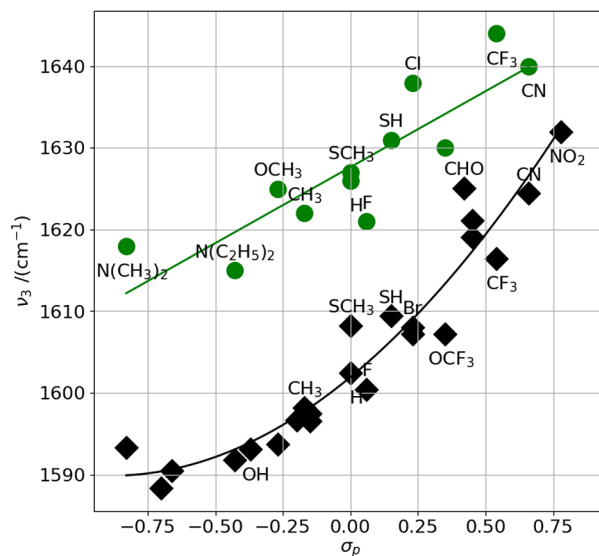


Figure 5. Comparison of trends in carbamate stretching frequency (ν_3) with varying Hammett parameter (σ_p) for *para*-substituted anilines. Both the experimental (green circles) and computational (black diamonds) frequencies show a blue-shift with increasing σ_p . The two data sets are fitted to linear ($R^2 = 0.74$) and quadratic ($R^2 = 0.93$) functions, respectively, based on the corrected Akaike information criterion (AICc) as explained in the text.

scaling (SI Section S4).⁵⁵ Note that the purpose of the computations is to identify the trend in frequency variation rather than the exact values.

The computed frequencies exhibited a relatively flat response as the substituents become more electron-donating; i.e., σ_p becomes more negative. This flattened response suggested fitting the computed frequencies to a quadratic form. To further justify this choice, the corrected Akaike information criterion (AICc) was employed to quantitatively describe the correlation between the calculated ν_3 and σ_p . AICc is a method for model selection based on a trade-off between the number of model parameters and goodness of the fit. We employed AICc to determine the polynomial orders that most

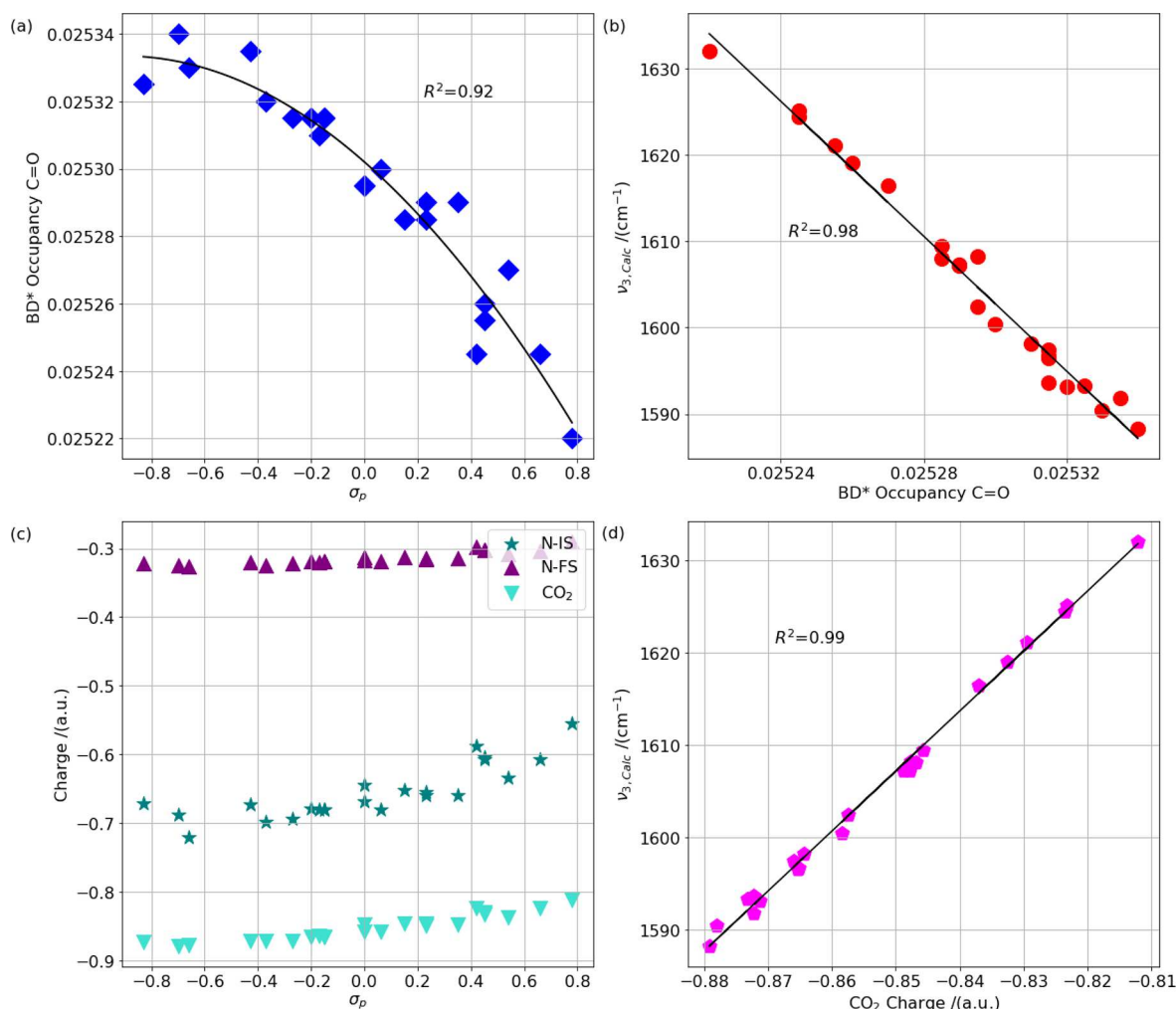


Figure 6. Results of NBO and Mulliken charge analysis. (a) Antibonding orbital occupancy (BD*) of the bond between carbon and oxygen (C=O) versus σ_p shows a quadratic relation as determined using AICc. (b) Calculated carbamate frequency (ν_3) versus C=O antibonding orbital occupancy show a linear correlation. (c) Mulliken charge of the nitrogen in the anionic aniline (IS, stars), of the nitrogen in the carbamate (FS, upward triangles), and of the CO₂ fragment in the carbamate (downward triangles) versus σ_p . (d) Calculated carbamate ν_3 frequency versus charge of the CO₂ fragment in carbamate showing a linear relation.

accurately described the calculated frequencies (SI Section S4). The method suggested a quadratic fit ($R^2 = 0.93$). The experimental data also suggest a similar flattening at negative σ_p , as seen in Figure 5. However, we did not have access to enough commercially available molecules to take more data points in that region. When the AICc method was applied to this data, a linear fit was suggested ($R^2 = 0.74$). While calculated ν_3 for the most electron-donating substituent (N(CH₃)₂) is slightly higher than its immediate predecessor (NHCH₃), more calculations with substituents of even higher electron-donating character, or possibly negatively charged substituents, are necessary before determining whether frequencies flatten or reach a minimum around $\sigma_p \approx -0.75$.

Computational Characterization of Carbamate Bond Strength. As the carbamate bond is formed, CO₂ accepts charge from the anionic aniline and adopts a bent structure. We determined the average Mulliken charge of bound CO₂ to be -0.853 (Figure 6d and SI Section S6). Upon partial charge transfer, the asymmetric vibration of free CO₂ in solution (2336 cm⁻¹) red-shifts by a large value ($\nu_3 = 1602$ cm⁻¹ for unsubstituted aniline–carbamate). This red-shift of the CO₂ asymmetric stretch has been ascribed to both electron

donation into the antibonding orbital of the CO₂ fragment and to lessening of the mechanical coupling between the local mode C–O vibrations due to bending.⁵⁶

The connection between the red-shift of CO₂'s asymmetric stretch and the occupancy of the antibonding orbital on CO₂ suggests that tuning the electron-donating capability of the substituent on aniline should impact the antibonding occupancy. To explore this effect, we quantified the occupancy of the antibonding orbitals using the natural bond orbital (NBO) analysis. The occupancy of the antibonding orbital between the C and the O of the CO₂ fragment decreases with increasing σ_p (Figure 6a). This decreased occupancy of the antibonding orbital on CO₂ results in a stronger bond and therefore accounts for the blue-shift in ν_3 with increasing σ_p of the substituent. This occupancy correlates well with the computed frequency, as shown in Figure 6b. Note that both the antibonding occupancy of the carbon–oxygen bond in the CO₂ fragment and the frequency of its vibration (ν_3) vary quadratically with σ_p . Therefore, the occupancy and the frequency show a linear relation ($R^2 = 0.98$). These characteristics are also reflected in the Mulliken charges reported in Figure 6c,d. The nitrogen charge upon adduct

formation becomes less negative, implying partial electron transfer to CO₂ (Figure 6c). Note that charge in the initial state, IS (aniline anion), is more sensitive to the substituent's σ_p compared to the final state, FS (aniline–carbamate). Thus, the extent of charge transfer decreases with increasing σ_p . A corresponding trend is observed for the CO₂ fragment. Given these relationships, the CO₂ partial charge linearly correlates with the frequency for ν_3 (Figure 6d, $R^2 = 0.99$).

Both C–N bond length and bound CO₂ bond angle are linearly correlated to ν_3 ($R^2 = 0.99$ for both, SI Section S4) and are geometrical manifestations of the partial charge transfer from the substituted anilines to bound CO₂. We have also performed NBO analysis for the C–N bond in carbamate (SI Section S6) and have observed behavior that is consistent with the picture presented above.

Predicting the Driving Force for Carbamate Formation. One important outcome of our work is that the computed ν_3 is linearly correlated to the computed zero-point-corrected reaction energy of carbamate bond formation for substituted anilines. As outlined in eq 1, we constructed a dimensionless linear free energy relation (LFER) using the 23 carbamates examined computationally. Figure 7 shows the relation between the scaled energies and the scaled frequencies, resulting in a slope of $m = 27.6$.

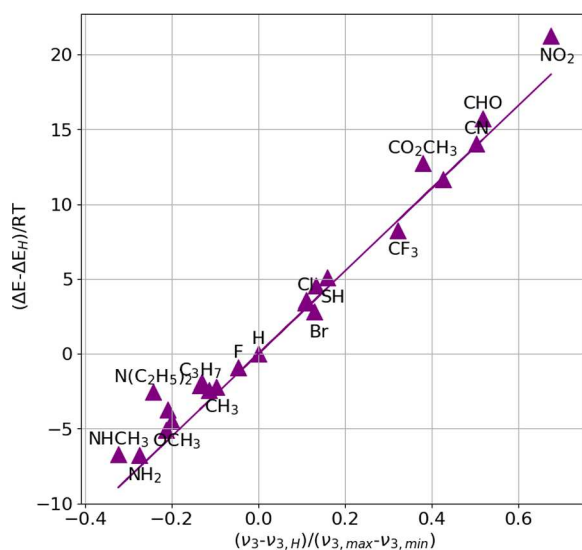


Figure 7. Relation between carbamate formation energies and calculated carbamate frequencies. Both quantities are scaled relative to unsubstituted aniline, as described in the text.

The figure shows that electron-donating groups (EDGs) lead to more spontaneous carbamate formation. EDGs destabilize the aniline anion's highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO), providing an increased driving force for carbamate formation as shown in SI Section S5.

Because the experimental frequencies correlate reasonably with the computed frequencies (Figure S3, $R^2 = 0.77$), the above approach has the potential to estimate the relative reaction energies based on observation of the experimental carbamate frequencies (Figure S6). Note that for computations an implicit solvation model was used. To obtain better correlation between the experimental and computational frequencies, it will be necessary to include explicit solvents, account for the interaction of the protonated base with the

adduct, and include possible interaction between adducts. Future efforts may focus on these issues.

Our computations show that carbamate reaction energy is strongly correlated to the ν_3 frequency of the asymmetric carbamate stretch. This correlation could prove invaluable because it has the potential to connect a convenient spectroscopic observable, i.e., the carbamate ν_3 frequency, to the often difficult to measure reaction energy. Even though successful techniques have been developed for gas phase calorimetry measurements on surfaces, condensed phase experiments remain challenging.^{57,58} Such an easily observable spectroscopic measure could help identify trends in reaction energetics even when direct calorimetry is difficult. It is also likely that similar connections between reaction energies and the analogous asymmetric CO₂ stretch can extend to other chemical capture systems.

Previous work by some of us observed that a polarizing electrode exerts a similar effect to that of a polarizing functional group.²² Therefore, it is plausible that the reaction energy for CO₂ adsorption to an electrode-bound aniline will also display a similar dependence on the potential. In that case, the frequency–energy map in Figure 7 will serve as an important handle to understand the electroadsorption energy and will ease experimental difficulties in determining energetics, particularly for surfaces. Furthermore, this idea can be extended such that the polarizing effect of the electrode could be used for reversible CO₂ capture.

We noted that these reactions produce a viscous material, which likely impacts the system's CO₂ absorption kinetics and holding capacity. The influence of this phase change and the physical properties of the carbamate and the associated protonated base need to be studied in further detail. Such phase changes may make experimental measurement of the equilibrium constants and consequently the reaction energy difficult. Verification of the reaction energies by calorimetry or by observation of the temperature-dependent equilibrium constant would provide further experimental tests of the relations established in this study. In fact, exploring the full phase diagram of the stability of the complex as a function of temperature, partial pressure of CO₂, and loading of the base, similar to the work done on alkylamines, might prove fruitful.^{18,25}

We observed that the adducts were extremely sensitive to solvents. Therefore, the solvent properties, such as the dielectric constant, may also affect the stability of the anionic carbamate and the corresponding cationic protonated base. Although there has been numerous computational and experimental works on the reaction mechanisms behind CO₂ capture using amine systems,^{16,18,19,53,59–68} advanced spectroscopic approaches, such as 2DIR and time-resolved measurements, could help reveal plausible reaction mechanisms. The mechanistic details of carbamate formation are still ambiguous as the reaction potentially requires or is stabilized by the interaction of solvent, one or more base molecules, aniline, and CO₂. It is plausible that deprotonation and carbamate bond formation may occur in a single concerted step. Solvent environment could be very important in CO₂ capture systems and change the strength and the selectivity of the CO₂ capture.⁶⁹ It might be beneficial to further investigate the effects of the solvent on the capture mechanisms.

CONCLUSIONS

We reported that the vibrational frequency of the asymmetric stretch of an aniline–carbamate is correlated to the Hammett parameter of the attached *para*-substituents. The carbamate bond forms by donation of electron density from the aniline to the CO₂ antibonding orbitals, which results in a red-shift of the asymmetric stretch. The substituent's electron-donating capability controls the extent of this charge transfer. Therefore, both the frequency of the carbamate and the energy of the reaction are affected by the substituent. The resulting reaction energy is linearly correlated to the computed frequency.

We caution against directly applying our LFER or comparing our reaction energies to the more ubiquitous alkylamines used for CO₂ capture. This is because aniline is more polarizable than alkylamines due to the electron-rich phenyl group. As such, we can more easily modify the partial charge transfer from nitrogen to CO₂ through substitutions to aniline compared to alkylamines. This means the slope of our LFER is unlikely to directly apply to nonconjugated amines like monoethanolamine. For the reaction energies, we ignore specific interactions between the primary carbamate and neighboring molecules. Although we expect these interactions to be similar across our experimental data set, solvent effects will determine the precise energetic drive for carbamate formation and should be considered when comparing different amine–CO₂ systems.^{20,68,70} We also did not study the effect of crowding on the amine nitrogen or hydrogen bonding between the amine and surrounding hydrogen-bond donors, which are both important factors.^{16,54,67,68} Despite this caveat, our computed reaction energies, which vary between approximately −160 and −80 kJ/mol, are within a factor of 2 of the general range found for aqueous alkylamine CO₂ capture systems.²⁰ A precise calorimetric study on the derived aniline–CO₂ adduct is necessary before we can definitively say whether our aniline systems are in the same energy range of other carbamate systems. However, their comparatively worse stability to a low CO₂ environment suggests aniline has a smaller free energy driving force toward carbamate formation compared to other amine systems. Their seemingly weaker CO₂ bond and their tunability combined suggest anilines are a promising platform for deriving next-generation reversible amine CO₂ capture systems.

The correlation between the asymmetric CO₂ stretching frequency and its formation energy is driven largely by changes within the CO₂ fragment. Thus, we expect analogous trends in other amine–CO₂ capture systems. The value of our study is in the fact that measuring a vibrational spectrum is often easier and more accessible than calorimetry, especially in complex environments. This work also naturally extends to electrodes decorated with aniline for reversible non-Faradaic electrochemical CO₂ capture. Additionally, this work may prove useful for understanding photoinduced CO₂ reduction using organic molecular initiators, such as oligo-*para*-phenylenes studied by us previously.⁷¹

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.jpca.3c01406>.

Deuterated aniline FTIR spectra before and after carbamate formation, summary tables and visualization of fits to deuterated aniline–carbamate spectra,

descriptions of experimentally formed products, complete data for all discussed computational results with additional figures for ease of data visualization, and the XYZ coordinates of predicted geometries for the initial state (IS) and final state (FS) (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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