Supporting Information for

Promotion Mechanism for the Growth of CO2 Hydrate with Urea from Molecular Dynamics Simulations

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1. Method

All molecules dynamics simulations (MD) were carried out using open source software GROMACS 4.5.5 [1]. The Lennard-Jones potential [2] and Coulomb interaction were calculated with a cutoff of 9.5 Å. The Particle-Mesh Ewald (PME) [3] and dispersion corrections [4] were applied for calculating the long-range Coulomb and van der Waals contributions to energy and pressure. The Nose−Hoover thermostat [5] was used for temperature control with $\tau_t = 1$ ps and the Parrinello–Rahman barostat [6] was used for pressure control with $\tau_P = 10$ ps. The TIP4P-ICE potential [7] was used for water, EPM2 model $[8]$ for $CO₂$, and OPLS-AA model $[9, 10]$ for urea. For interactions between water and urea, and interactions between water and $CO₂$ a scaling factor was added, i.e., $\varepsilon_{ij} = \chi(\varepsilon_{ii}\varepsilon_{jj})^{1/2}$ with χ being set to 1.1. Further details about force field setting are provided in the [Table](#page-1-0) S 1 to [Table](#page-4-0) S 6.

The force field parameters of TIP4P-ICE model for water [7], EPM2 model for CO₂ [8], and OPLS-AA model for urea [9, 10] are summarized in [Table](#page-1-0) S 1. The geometric combination rule $(\epsilon_{ij} = (\epsilon_{ii}\epsilon_{jj})^{1/2}$ and $\sigma_{ij} = (\sigma_{ii}\sigma_{jj})^{1/2}$) is used for the Lennard -Jones parameters between unlike atoms. However, we found the melting point of $CO₂$ hydrate, the $CO₂$ solubility in water, and the urea solubility in water from simulation are lower than experiment data. Therefore, a scaling factor was added for water – urea and water – CO_2 , i.e., $\varepsilon_{ij} = \chi(\varepsilon_{ii}\varepsilon_{jj})^{1/2}$ [11] [12], to enhance these intermolecular interactions. The optimal values were found to be $\chi_{\text{CO2-water}} = 1.1$ and $\chi_{\text{urea-water}} = 1.1$, as illustrated in the next section.

Molecule	Atom	ϵ (kJ/mol)	σ (nm)	q(e)
water	O	0.881949	0.316685	0.0000
	H	Ω	θ	0.5897
	MW	θ	θ	-1.1794
CO ₂	C	0.233865	0.2757	0.6512
	\overline{O}	0.669335	0.3033	-0.3256
urea	C	0.43932	0.375	0.142
	O	0.87864	0.296	-0.390
	N	0.71128	0.325	-0.542
	Н	0	θ	0.333

Table S 1. Force field parameters.

2. Scaling factor between water and $CO_2(\chi_{CO2\text{-water}})$

To determine the suitable scaling factor for the interaction between water and CO2, melting point of $CO₂$ hydrate, and $CO₂$ solubility in water were measured with $\chi_{CO2\text{-water}}$ $= 1.0$ and 1.1. The initial structure used for melting point at 45 bar is the same as Figure 1 of the main text. The results are shown in [Table](#page-1-1) S 2. The initial structure for $CO₂$ solubility is shown in [Figure](#page-1-2) S 1. The system contains two slabs: a liquid phase of 1500 water molecules and a gas phase of 750 CO_2 molecules. The simulations were conducted at 50 bar and 298 K for 250 ns. The solubility was determined from the average number of CO₂ molecules in the water phase in the final 200 ns. The results are shown in [Table](#page-1-3) S 3.

Figure S 1. The initial structure for $CO₂$ solubility simulation.

Table S 2. The CO₂ hydrate melting point at 45 bar using different values of $\chi_{CO2\text{-water}}$

χ CO2-water	1.V	.	Exp $[13]$
melting point (K)	275	205 دە 2	283

Table S 3. The CO₂ solubility in water at 50 bar and 298 K using different values of

3. Scaling factor between water and urea (χurea-water**)**

The scaling factor for the interaction between water and urea was determined based on urea solubility in water, heat of dissolution of urea, and thermodynamic inhibition of CO_2 hydrate with the presence of urea with $\chi_{\text{urea-water}} = 1.0, 1.1,$ and 1.2. The scaling factor for water-CO₂ interactions, $\chi_{CO2\text{-water}}$, is set to 1.1 in this section. The simulations were conducted at 1 bar and 298 K.

There are two ways to measure urea solubility in water. One is to start from an undersaturated solution (dissolution approach), and the other is from a supersaturated solution (growing approach). For the dissolution approach (initial system shown in [Figure](#page-3-0) S 2), the system contains two slabs: a solid phase of $5 \times 5 \times 20$ urea crystal unit cells (1000 urea molecules) and a liquid phase of 2000 water molecules with 100 urea molecules ($X_{\text{urea}} = 0.0476$). (Note the experimental equilibrium urea concentration is $X_{\text{urea}} = 0.263$ [15]) The dissolution of urea from the crystalline phase needs to overcome an energy barrier of creating a defect on the crystal surface layer. Once the defect forms, the surface layer dissolves quickly. The defect creation rate can be very slow when the urea concentration approaches to its solubility. Therefore, the growing approach was also used to determine the upper bound of solubility. The initial structure ([Figure](#page-3-1) S 3) contains two slabs: a solid phase of $5 \times 5 \times 5$ urea crystal unit cells (250 urea molecules), and a liquid phase of 2000 water molecules and 850 urea molecules ($X_{\text{urea}} = 0.298$). The urea crystal only grows about one uncompleted layer in the z-direction on both sides of the urea crystal because the rate-limiting step for crystallization is the removal of surface defects. It takes more time to remove of surface defects than to create surface defects. These phenomena were also reported and discussed in-depth in Piana's work [16]. The dissolution and growing approaches thus gave us the upper and lower bounds of urea solubility in water. The results are shown in [Table](#page-3-2) S 4.

All the urea crystal used in the simulation was created with the urea crystal parameter from Swaminathan et al [17]. The 001 surface is set to the z direction for dissolution and growing simulations since it is the fastest surface for growing in experiment [18].

The heat of dissolution of urea is determined from the difference in energy of three systems. One is a $5 \times 5 \times 5$ urea crystal (250 urea molecules). Second is a pure water system of 1100 water molecules. The third is a homogenous urea solution of 100 urea molecules and 900 water molecules ($X_{area} = 0.1$). Simulations were conducted at 1 bar and 298 K (NPT) for 10 ns. The results are shown in [Table](#page-3-3) S 5.

The thermodynamic inhibition effect of $CO₂$ hydrate by urea is determined using a three-phase model ([Figure](#page-3-4) S 4) consisting four slabs of materials. The $2 \times 2 \times 2$ unit cell

of fully occupied structure I $CO₂$ clathrate hydrate (consisting of 368 water molecules and 64 CO_2) is sandwiched by two slabs of liquid water (consisting of 736 water molecules, and 82 urea molecules ($X_{\text{urea}} = 0.1$)). The two liquid water slabs are separated by a gas phase of 256 CO_2 molecules. The results are summarized in [Table](#page-4-0) S [6](#page-4-0).

Figure S 2. The initial structure used for urea solubility simulation from dissolution approach.

Figure S 3. The initial structure for urea solubility simulation from growing approach.

Figure S 4. The initial structure for simulating melting temperature and growth rate of $CO₂$ hydrate with the urea in the aqueous phase.

Table S 4. The solubility of urea in water at 1 bar and 298 K using different values of

χurea-water

Tues ca maios					
χ urea-water				Exp[15]	
solubility from dissolving (mol frac.) \vert 0.142		0.252	> 0 297	0.263	
solubility from growing (mol frac.)	0.146	0.295			

Table S 5. The heat of dissolution of urea in water at 1 bar and 298 K using different values of χurea-water

∖∸−uica		
Lurea-water		Exp [20]
melting temperature depression (K)		

Table S 6. The change (decrease) in $CO₂$ hydrate melting temperature in urea solution $(X_{\text{meas}} = 0.1)$ at 45 bar. The melting temperature without urea is given in Table S 2.

4. Hydrate Structural Characteristics Determination

The four-body order parameter (F4) order parameter was used to determine the structural characteristic of water molecules [21]. The F4 order parameter is defined as $F4 = \cos(3\theta)$ (S1)

where θ is the H-O O-H dihedral angle of oxygen and outer-most hydrogens of the water dimer within 3.5Å (see [Figure](#page-5-0) S 5 (a)). To reduce noise and enhance the contrast between liquid water and hydrate water, the following averaging was performed. First, the atomic coordinate was block averaged for 4 ps with 1 ps interval (i.e., using 4 frames). A raw F4 value of each water molecule was determined using the block averaged coordinates. The F4 value to be used in the subsequent analysis was averaged from 10 consecutive raw F4 values, i.e., averaged over 40 ps. The F4 value thus determined was 0 for liquid water molecules and 0.85 for water in the perfect hydrate lattice. We consider hydrate-like water to have an F4 value greater than 0.5.

The hydrate - liquid (solid–liquid) interfacial water molecules are identified as follows. A water molecule is considered to be at the interface if (1) its F4 value is between 0.3 to 0.7, and (2) at least two of its neighboring water molecules (within a spherical radius of 3.5 Å) have F4 greater than 0.5, and (3) at least two of its neighboring water molecules have F4 less than 0.5. (The interfacial water molecules are highlighted as red spheres in [Figure](#page-7-0) S 6 (a)). The hydrate - liquid water interface is defined from the average of those identified interfacial water molecules (as indicated by the green dashed line in [Figure](#page-7-0) S 6).

The mutually coordinated guest (MCG) order parameter [22] was used to identify $CO₂$ molecules being encapsulated in the hydrate cages. Any two $CO₂$ molecules within a separation distance of 9 Å are a candidate guest pair (illustrated in [Figure](#page-5-0) S $5(b)$). If there are at least 5 water molecules present within 6 Å to both of the pair guest molecules and lying within an intersection of the 90^o cones projected bidirectionally between the two guest molecules (yellow region in [Figure](#page-5-0) S 5 (b)), then add to the "count" (N_c) to each of the candidate guest molecules. The N_c value of a CO_2 molecule is the sum of contributions from all the candidate pairs involving this $CO₂$ molecule. Similar to the F4 calculation, averaging of atomic coordinates (using 4 frames separated by 1 ps) and 10 N_c values from consecutive times are averaged for the final N_c value of each CO_2 molecule. Comparing the N_c distribution ([Figure](#page-7-0) S 6 (c)) and F4 distribution

([Figure](#page-7-0) S 6 (b)), the CO_2 molecule is considered to be encapsulated in the hydrate if N_c \geq 5. For a perfect sI hydrate the N_c value of a gas molecule is around 12.

Figure S 5. (a) Illustration of the dihedral torsion θ and water separation R in F4 calculation where $R < 3.5$ Å. (b) Illustration of the angle θ and water separation R in MCG calculation where $\theta = 45^{\circ}$ and R < 9 Å.

Figure S 6. The solid–liquid interface (green dashed line) illustrated by the interfacial water molecules (the red spheres) (a), the distribution of F4 value of water molecules (b), and the distribution of N_c value of CO_2 molecules (c).

5. Melting point of CO² hydrates

The melting temperature under a pressure of 45 bar is determined using a series of NPT simulations at different temperatures: 278 K to 290 K for the system without urea, and 282 K to 286 K for the system with urea present. The time evolution of the system potential energy is shown in [Figure](#page-8-0) S 7. The potential energy increases with time if the temperature is above its melting point (indicating melting of hydrate), while the potential energy decreases with time when the temperature is below the melting point (indicating growing of hydrate). When the potential energy fluctuates around the same value, the temperature is regarded as the melting point. Based on the results, the melting point of $CO₂$ hydrate is determined to be 285 K at 45 bar and the melting temperature drops to 283 K when urea is present (with a mole fraction of $X_{\text{urea}} = 0.03$). The thermodynamic inhibiting effect of urea is reproduced in our simulation, while the absolute melting temperatures are about 2 K higher than experiment data [13, 20].

Figure S 7. The time evolution of potential energy from the three-phase $CO₂$ hydrate model at 45 bar and different temperatures without urea (a) and with urea present in the liquid phase $(X_{\text{unea}} = 0.03)$ (b).

Table S 7. Comparison of the melting temperature of $CO₂$ hydrate at 45 bar from MD simulations and experiment

liquid phase	Tm from this study (K)	\perp Tm from experiment (K)
pure water	285 ± 1	283 [13]
$n_{\rm ea} = 0.03$ ∡⊾urea	$283\pm$	$281a$ [20]

^aEstimate from experimental value of pressures from 16 bar to 33 bar.

6. Hydrate growth simulations

For the hydrate growth simulations, the time evolution of the amount of hydrate – like water is shown in [Figure](#page-12-0) S 8 to Figure S 11. The plots of $CO₂$ solubility with time for the corresponding systems are shown from [Figure](#page-13-0) S 12 to [Figure](#page-14-0) S 14. The number of hydrate-like water remains nearly constant for the initial 30 ns. During this time period, the $CO₂$ molecules are dissolving to the liquid phase to approach equilibrium solubility. The $CO₂$ dissolution process became steady after 30 ns. As the growth reaches a steady state, the increase of hydrate-like water becomes steady. Near the end of simulation (after 200 ns) the amount of hydrate–like water molecules increases rapidly because the liquid and gas phases became very thin and the dissolution of gas occurred rapidly. Note that for the urea containing system, urea concentration increases during the growth process, resulting in lowered melting temperature of hydrate (urea is a thermodynamic inhibitor). Therefore, the sub-cooling temperature continuous to drop as the growth process proceeds, resulting in the reduced growth rate after about 180 ns. The rapid rise of CO_2 concentration after 200 ns is due to mixing of gas phase and liquid phase or the whole system became hydrate caused the unusual solubility in the end of the simulation.

Figure S 8. The time evolution of the amount of hydrate–like water from the CO2 hydrate growth simulations at 282 K (without urea).

Figure S 9. The time evolution of the amount of hydrate–like water from the CO2 hydrate growth simulations at 280 K (without urea).

Figure S 10. The time evolution of the amount of hydrate–like water from the CO2 hydrate growth simulations at 280 K (with urea).

Figure S 11. Time evolution of total number of hydrate–like water in the hydrate

Figure S 12. The time evolution of CO₂ solubility from CO2 hydrate growth simulation (without urea) at 282 K (an average of 3 runs).

Figure S 13. The time evolution of CO₂ solubility from CO2 hydrate growth simulation (without urea) at 280 K (an average of 3 runs).

Figure S 14. The time evolution of CO₂ solubility from CO2 hydrate growth simulation (with urea) at 280 K (an average of 3 runs).

7. Concentration distribution and hydrate growth from each independent simulation

In the main text, we reported lowered peak intensity of the $CO₂$ concentration in the hydrate phase with the presence of urea (Figure 2). The same data from each individual simulation are shown in [Figure](#page-15-0) S 15 to [Figure](#page-22-0) S 32. In each simulation, the data were analyzed for each of the two solid-liquid interfaces (referred to as first and second solid-liquid interfaces in the figure captions). Note that a constant growth rate should give a flat CO_2 concentration despite of the layered CO_2 arrangement in hydrate phase. The fact that we do observe peaks and troughs in the hydrate phases $(x<0)$, indicates that the hydrate layers grow in a stepwise manner. The reduced peak and trough intensity when urea is added indicates a faster and more continuous growth of the hydrate.

Figure S 15. The CO₂ concentration distribution (a) and time evolution of hydrate–like water (b) near the first solid–liquid interface of run 1 (282 K, without urea).

Figure S 16. The CO₂ concentration distribution (a) and time evolution of hydrate–like water (b) near the second solid–liquid interface of run 1 (282 K, without urea).

Figure S 17. The CO_2 concentration distribution (a) and time evolution of hydrate–like water (b) near the first solid–liquid interface of run 2 (282 K, without urea).

Figure S 18. The CO₂ concentration distribution (a) and time evolution of hydrate–like water (b) near the second solid–liquid interface of run 2 (282 K, without urea).

Figure S 19. The CO₂ concentration distribution (a) and time evolution of hydrate–like

water (b) near the first solid–liquid interface of run 3 (282 K, without urea).

Figure S 20. The CO₂ concentration distribution (a) and time evolution of hydrate–like water (b) near the second solid–liquid interface of run 3 (282 K, without urea).

Figure S 21. The CO₂ concentration distribution (a) and time evolution of hydrate–like water (b) near the first solid–liquid interface of run 1 (280 K, without urea).

Figure S 22. The CO₂ concentration distribution (a) and time evolution of hydrate–like water (b) near the second solid–liquid interface of run 1 (280 K, without urea).

Figure S 23. The CO₂ concentration distribution (a) and time evolution of hydrate–like water (b) near the first solid–liquid interface of run 2 (280 K, without urea).

Figure S 24. The CO₂ concentration distribution (a) and time evolution of hydrate–like water (b) near the second solid–liquid interface of run 2 (280 K, without urea).

Figure S 25. The CO₂ concentration distribution (a) and time evolution of hydrate–like water (b) near the first solid–liquid interface of run 3 (280 K, without urea).

Figure S 26. The CO₂ concentration distribution (a) and time evolution of hydrate–like water (b) near the second solid–liquid interface of run 3 (280 K, without urea).

Figure S 27. The CO₂ concentration distribution (a) and time evolution of hydrate–like water (b) near the first solid–liquid interface of run 1 (280 K, with urea).

Figure S 28. The CO₂ concentration distribution (a) and time evolution of hydrate–like water (b) near the second solid–liquid interface of run 1 (280 K, with urea).

Figure S 29. The CO₂ concentration distribution (a) and time evolution of hydrate–like water (b) near the first solid–liquid interface of run 2 (280 K, with urea).

Figure S 30. The CO₂ concentration distribution (a) and time evolution of hydrate–like

water (b) near the second solid–liquid interface of run 2 (280 K, with urea).

Figure S 31. The CO₂ concentration distribution (a) and time evolution of hydrate–like water (b) near the first solid–liquid interface of run 3 (280 K, with urea).

Figure S 32. The CO₂ concentration distribution (a) and time evolution of hydrate–like water (b) near the second solid–liquid interface of run 3 (280 K, with urea).

Figure S 33. Schematic diagram of the reaction–diffusion model.

8. Equilibrium data

For comparison, we also performed simulations around three-phase coexisting conditions. The results of $CO₂$ distribution near the solid-liquid interface are shown in [Figure](#page-25-0) S 34 and [Table](#page-25-1) S 8. The growth of hydrates without urea has a lower surface CO_2 concentration (1.95 CO_2/nm^3 for 282 K growth and 1.89 CO_2/nm^3 for 280 K growth vs. 2.06 CO_2/nm^3 for equilibrium) and a deeper concentration minimum (smaller C_{min}/C_{bulk} , 0.90 for 282 K growth and 0.86 for 280 K growth vs. 0.94 equilibrium). This again indicates that the growth rate is limited by the deficiency of $CO₂$ near the surface and slow mass transport of $CO₂$ from bulk to the interface.

Figure S 34. The CO₂ concentration distribution (number density) near the solid-liquid interface of equilibrium systems (a). (b) is a zoom-in of figure (a) in the liquid phase to better show the concentration gradient. Each line is an average of 4 data (2 interfaces from 2 independent simulations).

9. Catalytic effect of urea on the hydrate formation

The distribution of F4 near the solid-liquid interface from hydrate growth simulations is shown in [Figure](#page-28-0) S 35. For comparison, the distribution from equilibrium systems is shown in [Figure](#page-30-0) S 36. The results show that the addition of urea can slightly increase the F4 value in the bulk phase and in the surface growing region $(0 \text{ Å}$ to 5 Å in front of the hydrate surface). The higher F4 value means that the water arrangement is more like that of hydrate.

The distribution of urea near the solid-liquid interface from hydrate growth simulations is shown in [Figure](#page-31-0) S 37. The distribution from equilibrium simulations is shown in [Figure](#page-33-0) S 38. The results show that urea molecules prefer to stay near the gasliquid interface and do not have a particular affinity to the solid-liquid interface.

To understand how the presence of urea at the hydrate-water interface promotes the growth of $CO₂$ hydrates, we check if there is a preferred orientation of urea molecules at the interface based on the inclusion angle θ of the O=C vector and the surface normal (see **[Figure](#page-34-0) S 39**) as Equation S2

$$
\theta = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{\theta \stackrel{\rightarrow}{=} c \cdot \vec{n}_z}{|\theta \stackrel{\rightarrow}{=} c||\vec{n}_z|}\right)
$$
(S2)

The average angle distribution (from 6 surfaces of 3 independent simulations) of urea molecules along the solid-liquid interface from the growth simulations is shown in [Figure](#page-35-0) S 40. In the bulk (10 Å $\lt x \lt 20$ Å) the average θ of about 1.57 ($\pi/2$) indicates no preferred orientation of urea in water. There is a clear reduction of the angle for surface urea molecules ($0 \text{ Å} < x < 5 \text{ Å}$), indicating that the oxygen atom of urea prefers to align slightly towards the solid phase. The data in the solid phase $(x < 0 \text{ Å})$ is subjected to high statistical uncertainty because urea is rarely trapped in the solid phase.

The average θ distribution from equilibrium simulations is shown in [Figure](#page-36-0) S 41. The results show O=C tends to point toward the hydrate surface when urea molecules are near the solid-liquid interface. O=C also tends to point toward the gas - liquid interface when urea molecules are near the gas-liquid interface.

The hydrate growth process will be hindered if the additives bind to the hydrate surface longer than the characteristic time of hydrate growth. This was also discussed in Yagasaki's work [23]. The residence time distribution of urea molecules within 5 Å in front of the hydrate surface is given in [Figure](#page-37-0) S 42. The plot includes data from 6 solid–liquid interfaces of 3 sets of simulation. The residence time is the time duration of a urea molecule staying within 5 Å in front of the hydrate surface. The residence time is seldom longer than 5 ns, and the maximum residence time is less than 30 ns. The residence time of urea molecules around the hydrate surface (within 5 Å) is shorter than the characteristic time of hydrate growth (about 40 ns, i.e., it takes about 40 ns to grow 5 Å thick of hydrate). Thus, urea molecules do not block the hydrate growth. The maximum residence time of urea molecules and growth rate of each solid-liquid interface is given in [Table](#page-41-0) S 9. After examining several urea molecules that stayed on the surface for a long time, we found that urea can be trapped in an incomplete cage $(5^{12}6^2)$. However, the urea molecule eventually leaves in order to form a complete cage. An example is shown as [Figure](#page-38-0) S 43.

Figure S 35. The F4 distribution near the solid-liquid interface from hydrate growth simulations (a). (b) Zoom in of the interface. Each line is an average of 6 data (2 interfaces from 3 independent simulations).

Figure S 36. The F4 distribution near the solid-liquid interface from hydrate equilibrium simulations (a). (b) Zoom in of the interface. Each line is an average of 4 data (2 interfaces from 2 independent simulations)

Figure S 37. Urea concentration distribution near the solid-liquid interface from hydrate growth simulations. The line is an average of 6 data (2 interfaces from 3

Figure S 38. Urea concentration distribution near the solid-liquid interface from hydrate equilibrium simulations (a). The line represent average of 4 data (2 interfaces from 2 independent simulations). (b) The urea concentration distribution near first solid-liquid interface of 283 K equilibrium simulation (run 1) during 300 ns to 400 ns.

Figure S 39. Schematic diagram for determination of O=C direction near the solidliquid interface.

Figure S 40. The average angle θ between O=C of urea molecules and the surface normal near the solid–liquid interface from the hydrate growth simulations.

Figure S 41. The average angle θ between O=C of urea molecules and the surface normal near the solid–liquid interface from equilibrium simulations. The line is an average of 4 data (2 interfaces from 2 independent simulations)

Figure S 42. The residence time of urea molecules near the surface (within 5 Å) of CO₂ hydrate. The time resolution on the x-axis is 300 ps.

Figure S 43. Urea fits in an incomplete cage. (An example of the longest urea residence case of second interface of growth simulation (run 3).)

(a)

(c)

Figure S 44. The formation of pentagon rings with help of surface urea molecule. (a) Urea at hydrate surface (It's a 106826 ps snapshot from the hydrate growth simulation, run 1). (b) - (d) The snapshots of the evolution. The green shadow beads are water molecules on two 5-membered rings.

(a)

Figure S 45. Stabilization of the partial cage by urea. (a) Urea at hydrate surface (It's a 102340 ps snapshot from the hydrate growth simulation, run 1). (b) The snapshot of the urea-partial cage complex.

10. The CO² solubility in aqueous urea solution

The $CO₂$ solubility in aqueous urea solution is simulated using the initial structure shown in [Figure](#page-42-0) S 46. The system contains two slabs. A gas phase of 750 CO_2 molecules, and a liquid phase of 1500 water molecules and 112 urea molecules (X_{urea}) $= 0.07$). The simulations were conducted at 45 bar for 250 ns from 273 K to 298 K. The average amount of $CO₂$ molecules in the water phase in the last 200 ns equilibrium state is determined to be the solubility. The results are shown in [Table](#page-42-1) S 10. The solubility in our simulation is about 30% - 40% higher than experimental data. The addition of urea would occupy the space and decrease number density of $CO₂$. However, it does not have an obvious influence on the ratio of $CO₂$ to water.

Figure S 46. The initial structure for CO₂ solubility in urea solution measurement.

Temperature (K)	Mole fraction	Number density	Exp $[24]$
	$(CO_2/(CO_2 + water))$	$(1/nm^3)$	
298	0.0296	0.957	0.0209
293	0.0313	1.013	
288	0.0334	1.081	0.0267
283	0.0368	1.187	
283 ($X_{\text{urea}} = 0.07$)	$0.0365 \left(\text{CO}_2 / (\text{CO}_2 + \text{water}) \right)$	1.031	
	$0.0354 (CO2/(CO2+water+urea))$		
278	0.0402	1.297	
273	0.0431	1.387	

Table S 10. The $CO₂$ solubility in water at 45 bar.

11. The Self-diffusivity of water molecules

The water self-diffusivity at different temperatures and solution concentrations is summarized in [Table](#page-43-0) S 12. The addition of urea increases water self-diffusivity at low temperatures (e.g., 280 K), but decrease water self-diffusivity at high temperatures (e.g., 333 K). While there is no experimental data conducted at 280 K, the results at 333 K is consistent with experimental observation.

system	water	diffusivity		$CO2$ diffusivity	(nm^2/ns)
	(nm^2/ns)			(standard error)	
Pure water	0.626				
1500 water + 63 urea	0.688				
$(X_{\text{urea}} = 0.04)$					
1500 water + 60 $CO2$ 0.458			0.449(0.005)		
$(X_{CO2} = 0.038)$					
1500 water + 63 urea $\vert 0.515 \vert$			0.482		
$+60 \text{ CO}_2$					

Table S 11. Self-Diffusivity of water-CO₂-urea solution at 45 bar and 280 K.

Temp (K)	X_{urea}	diffusivity (nm^2/ps)	literature
280	0	0.000613	
	0.1	0.000675	
298	0	0.001135	0.0023 (exp) [25]
	0.1	0.001132	
333	0	0.002610	0.0047 (exp) [25], 0.0046 (simu) [26]
	0.1	0.002468	0.0018 (simu, $X_{\text{urea}} = 0.126$) [26]
	0.2	0.002108	

Table S 12. Water self-diffusivity at 1 bar and different temperature and different urea concentrations

12. Reference

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