

Contents lists available at SciVerse ScienceDirect

## Combustion and Flame

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/combustflame



# A shock tube study of the rate constants of HO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>3</sub> reactions

Zekai Hong<sup>1</sup>, David Frank Davidson\*, King-Yiu Lam, Ronald Kenneth Hanson

Department of Mechanical Engineering, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305, USA

#### ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 2 March 2012 Received in revised form 20 April 2012 Accepted 24 April 2012 Available online 18 May 2012

Keywords: Shock tube Laser absorption CH<sub>3</sub> + HO<sub>2</sub> Rate constant determination

#### ABSTRACT

 $HO_2$  and  $CH_3$  are major intermediate species presented during the oxidation of natural gas at intermediate temperatures and high pressures. Previous theoretical calculations have identified several product channels for  $HO_2$  and  $CH_3$  reactions, with  $CH_3 + HO_2 \rightarrow CH_3O + OH$  and  $CH_3 + HO_2 \rightarrow CH_4 + O_2$  being the dominant reaction pathways. Both reaction pathways play an important role in the kinetics of  $CH_4$  oxidation as  $CH_3 + HO_2 \rightarrow CH_3O + OH$  is a chain-branching reaction whereas  $CH_3 + HO_2 \rightarrow CH_4 + O_2$  a chain termination reaction.

 $H_2O_2/CH_4/Ar$  mixtures were shock-heated to a temperature between 1054 and 1249 K near 3.5 atm to initiate the reaction. OH radicals yielded from  $H_2O_2$  thermal decomposition react with  $H_2O_2$  and  $CH_4$  respectively to produce  $HO_2$  and  $CH_3$  in the reacting system. Using laser absorption spectroscopy, time-histories of  $H_2O_2$ , OH and  $HO_2$  were measured behind reflected shock waves. The rate constant of reaction  $CH_3 + HO_2 \rightarrow CH_3O + OH$  was determined to be  $6.8 \times 10^{12}$  cm<sup>3</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> with an uncertainty factor of 1.4. The rate constant of the competing  $CH_3 + HO_2 \rightarrow CH_4 + O_2$  reaction was determined to be  $4.4 \times 10^{12}$  cm<sup>3</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, with an uncertainty factor of 2.1. In addition, the rate constants of two other major reactions of the reacting system,  $H_2O_2$  (+M)  $\rightarrow$  2OH (+M) and OH +  $CH_4 \rightarrow CH_3O$  + OH, were found to have excellent agreement with values recommended in literature.

© 2012 The Combustion Institute. Published by Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

### 1. Introduction

Hydroperoxyl radicals ( $HO_2$ ) and their reactions become increasingly important in methane oxidation at elevated pressures [1]. At intermediate temperatures ( $1000-1500 \, \text{K}$ ) and high pressures (>40 atm), the dominant species in the radical pool during methane oxidization are the relatively unreactive  $CH_3$  and  $HO_2$ . A major  $CH_3$  oxidization pathway at these conditions [3] is via the reaction

$$CH_3 + HO_2 \rightarrow CH_3O + OH$$
 (Rxn.1)

Rxn. 1 is a major chain branching reaction, as highly reactive OH radicals are generated from the much less reactive  $CH_3$  and  $HO_2$  radicals. In addition, the resulting methoxy radicals ( $CH_3O$ ) are very unstable and easily decompose to form H atoms and  $CH_2O$ . Therefore, Rxn. 1 is critical to characterizing natural gas combustion at intermediate temperatures and high pressures.

Besides Rxn. 1, other product channels are possible from the reaction of CH<sub>3</sub> and HO<sub>2</sub>, and potential energy surfaces (PES) for these pathways have been proposed in previous theoretical studies

[2,4]. Among all the product channels, the hydrogen abstraction reaction (on a triplet surface)

$$CH_3 + HO_2 \rightarrow CH_4 + O_2 \tag{Rxn.2}$$

is also of particular importance to the modeling of high-pressure  $CH_4$  oxidation. As opposed to Rxn. 1 being a chain branching reaction, Rxn. 2 is a chain termination reaction. The branching ratio of the two product channels,  $CH_3O + OH$  and  $CH_4 + O_2$ , is important in modeling ignition in high-pressure combustion systems [2]. Furthermore, the reverse reaction of Rxn. 2  $(CH_4 + O_2 \rightarrow CH_3 + HO_2)$  is regarded as a significant initiation reaction for  $CH_4$  ignition [5]. Rxn. 2 is also possible on a singlet surface, but that reaction rate is expected to be negligible compared to that on the triplet surface [2,4].

Despite the significance for both  $k_1$  and  $k_2$ , very little experimental data are available. Baulch et al. [6] assigned a  $k_1$  uncertainty of an order of magnitude based on an early indirect experimental study [7]. Scire et al. [8,9] studied CO oxidation with CH<sub>4</sub> perturbations in a flow reactor to get estimations for both  $k_1$  and  $k_2$ , but "some uncertainty remains due to the indirect nature of these determinations" [2]. To our knowledge, only Rxn. 2 has received an experimental investigation, and that was by Srinivasan et al. [5], where OH time-histories were measured at the onset of CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation to evaluate the rate constant of the reaction in its reverse direction ( $k_{-2}$ ). An uncertainty of  $\pm$  50% was assigned to  $k_{-2}$  [5].

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author.

E-mail address: dfd@stanford.edu (D.F. Davidson).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Present address: Combustion Research Engineer at General Electric Company, Global Research Center, Niskayuna, NY 12309, USA.

The first attempt to predict  $k_1$  using first-principles was performed by Zhu and Lin [4]. However, another recent theoretical study by Jasper et al. [2] found that Zhu and Lin's  $k_1$  values are four times larger than theirs. To make the situation more complicated,  $k_1$  values adopted in modern kinetic mechanisms [10–14] vary by as much as a factor of 5. The first theoretical prediction of  $k_2$  was also performed in the same study of Zhu and Lin [4].

Recent advances in shock tube/laser absorption techniques now make it possible to consider new methods to measure  $HO_2$  reaction rates. These advances include the development of a sensitive  $H_2O$  diagnostic, and application of a simpler method to generated  $H_2O_2$ , both of which were used to study  $H_2O_2$  thermal decomposition at intermediate combustion temperatures [15–17]. These advances have yielded a substantially improved understanding of  $H_2O_2$  and  $HO_2$  reactions. Additionally,  $H_2O_2$  has been proposed as an  $HO_2$  precursor for investigating reactions between  $HO_2$  and combustion hydrocarbon species [15]. The goal of this work is to apply these advances to the study of the reaction of  $CH_3$  and  $HO_2$ .

#### 2. Experiment design and setup

#### 2.1. Test reagents and preparations

It has been demonstrated that a sizeable  $HO_2$  radical pool can be formed during the thermal decomposition of  $H_2O_2$  [15,16]. The majority of  $HO_2$  is yielded through a two-step process:

$$H_2O_2(+M) \rightarrow 2OH(+M)$$
 (Rxn.3)

$$OH + H_2O_2 \rightarrow H_2O + HO_2 \tag{Rxn.4}$$

With  $HO_2$  radicals present at substantial concentrations during the decomposition of  $H_2O_2$ , reactions between  $HO_2$  and  $CH_3$  can be established with the introduction of a  $CH_3$  radical pool.

Although a few CH $_3$  precursors have been identified and successfully applied previously [24], to blend very reactive H $_2$ O $_2$  vapor with chemically unstable CH $_3$  precursors could be problematic. However, CH $_4$ , being a very stable gaseous hydrocarbon, at standard conditions may be added to the H $_2$ O $_2$  reacting system as a source of CH $_3$  radicals. Following Rxn. 3, OH radicals can be generated at large quantities, which subsequently undergo H-abstraction reaction with CH $_4$  to form CH $_3$  radicals:

$$OH + CH_4 \rightarrow H_2O + CH_3 \tag{Rxn.5}$$

Following Rxns. 3–5, both CH $_3$  and HO $_2$  radicals can be produced at sizeable concentrations as H $_2$ O $_2$  starts to decompose in the presence of CH $_4$ . Thus, CH $_4$  and H $_2$ O $_2$  blends were chosen as reagents in this work to investigate the rate constants of CH $_3$  + HO $_2$  reactions (Rxns. 1 and 2). It should be noted that the fate of the majority of CH $_3$  radicals from Rxn. 5 is to recombine to form stable C $_2$ H $_6$ .

Test mixtures were prepared by passing a stream of 1% CH<sub>4</sub>/99% Ar (by mole) blend through a vessel that steadily generates H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> vapor; details of the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> generator can be found in Ref. [15]. The CH<sub>4</sub>/Ar blend doped with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> vapor was subsequently directed to the test section of a shock tube facility, as will be discussed in the next subsection. H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>2</sub> may also appear in test mixtures, as a portion of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> has already decomposed by the time an experiment can be initiated. Since the addition of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>O/O<sub>2</sub> does not change the mole ratio between CH<sub>4</sub> and Ar in test mixtures, the compositions of test mixture can be fully characterized once the concentrations of doped H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>O/O<sub>2</sub> are measured.

#### 2.2. Shock tube facility

Experiments were carried out in a Stanford University shock tube facility behind reflected shock waves. The shock tube has a 3.7 m driver section and a 10 m driven section, both of which have an inner diameter of 15.2 cm. Using standard normal shock relations, temperatures and pressures behind reflected shock waves can be calculated using incident shock speeds measured with a series of piezoelectric pressure transducers over the last 1.5 m of the shock tube. More specifics of the shock tube facility have been reported elsewhere [16].

## 2.3. Design for diagnostics

A sensitive  $H_2O$  diagnostic has proven to be essential to the improved understanding of the  $H_2O_2$  pyrolysis system [15–17], particularly for the determination of initial  $H_2O_2$  loadings and the rate constant of Rxn. 3. However, the one-for-one conversion between  $H_2O_2$  and  $H_2O$  that holds for pure  $H_2O_2$  decomposition cannot be directly adopted in the current study, because an additional major channel for  $H_2O$  production becomes available with the presence of  $CH_4$  through Rxn. 5. Nevertheless, the overall  $H_2O$  production can be reliably linked to the initial  $H_2O_2$  loading knowing the rate constants for Rxns. 4 and 5 ( $k_4$  and  $k_5$ ). The  $H_2O$  diagnostic also provides key information on the rate constant of Rxn. 3 ( $k_3$ ).

In addition to the H<sub>2</sub>O diagnostic, the OH diagnostic was also included, because OH time-histories may be used to infer the rate constant of our primary target reaction (Rxn. 1). The chemical equation of Rxn. 1 suggests that OH radicals are a direct product of the reaction. In addition, the other product of Rxn. 1, CH<sub>3</sub>O, undergoes rapid decomposition to release H atoms, which in turn react with O2 to generate OH radicals. One seeming obstacle is that reactions other than the target Rxn. 1 also influence OH time-histories, for example, Rxn. 3 as a major source of OH and Rxns. 4 and 5 major OH sinks. However, the fact that both reactants of Rxn. 1 are transient intermediate species dictates that the effects of Rxn. 1 are most pronounced only when both HO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>3</sub> concentrations are near their peak values. Therefore, the strong temporal localization of Rxn. 1 makes it feasible to determine the rate constant  $(k_1)$ by analyzing OH time-histories despite interfering reactions. As will become evident when the  $k_1$  uncertainty is accessed in Section 3.3, uncertainties from the interfering reactions (Rxns. 3-5) do not combine cumulatively due to the constraints of the experimental data. Experimental uncertainty in  $k_1$  can be further reduced by knowing the rate constants of the major interfering reactions (Rxns. 3–5) which are or can be accurately determined.

The other target of the current study,  $\operatorname{CH}_3 + \operatorname{HO}_2 \to \operatorname{CH}_4 + \operatorname{O}_2$  (Rxn. 2), does not directly alter OH concentrations, and thus it is difficult to infer  $k_2$  from OH time-histories measurements. However, both Rxns. 1 and 2 consume  $\operatorname{HO}_2$  radicals. It is therefore feasible to infer the combined rate constant of all product channels of the  $\operatorname{CH}_3 + \operatorname{HO}_2$  reactions from  $\operatorname{HO}_2$  time-histories. Because product channels other than Rxns. 1 and 2 are negligible [2,4], information on the summations of  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  may be obtained by analyzing  $\operatorname{HO}_2$  time-histories. Given  $k_1$  values determined from OH time-histories, determination of  $k_2$  is then also possible.

It should be noted that although it might be also possible to infer  $k_2$  using a CH<sub>3</sub> diagnostic, the HO<sub>2</sub> diagnostic was chosen from a spectroscopy perspective. The CH<sub>3</sub> absorption band in the UV near 200–225 nm [17–20] is entirely overlapped by the much broader HO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> spectra [21–23]. At the same time, the interference from CH<sub>3</sub> absorption is negligible at the wavelength selected for the HO<sub>2</sub> diagnostic (227 nm [16]).

From the discussion above, time-histories of three species ( $H_2O$ , OH, and  $HO_2$ ) need to be simultaneously measured to uniquely determine the composition of test mixtures, and the rate constants

of two target reactions ( $k_1$  and  $k_2$ ). In parallel to this work, the same combination of laser diagnostics has been successfully used to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the  $H_2O_2$  thermal decomposition system [16]. A detailed description of the diagnostic setup for measuring the time-histories of all three species can be found in the same study [16] and is not elaborated here.

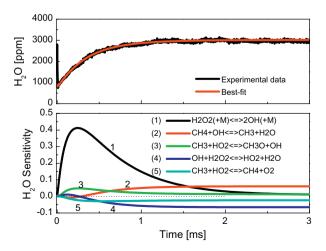
#### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Initial composition of test mixtures

Shown in Fig. 1 is a sample  $H_2O$  time-history (upper panel) and the corresponding  $H_2O$  sensitivity analysis (bottom panel); the test was performed at 1103 K, 3.56 atm. Before any kinetic data can be obtained, the composition of test mixtures needs to be determined. During the decomposition of neat  $H_2O_2$  [15], all the hydrogen content in the resulting  $H_2O$  is from the sole reactant  $H_2O_2$ , dominantly through Rxn. 4 (OH +  $H_2O_2 \rightarrow HO_2 + H_2O$ ). In the presence of CH<sub>4</sub>, a considerable amount of additional  $H_2O$  is formed through Rxn. 5 (OH + CH<sub>4</sub>  $\rightarrow$  CH<sub>3</sub> +  $H_2O$ ) following  $H_2O_2$  decomposition. From a hydrogen balance perspective, Rxn. 5 is a channel that supplies the  $H_2O_2$  decomposition system with extra hydrogen content from CH<sub>4</sub>. As Rxns. 4 and 5 compete for OH radicals, a larger  $k_5$  has the similar effect as a smaller  $k_4$  in promoting final  $H_2O$  yields, which is confirmed by the  $H_2O$  sensitivity when the plateau in  $H_2O$  concentration is approached (between 1.5 and 3 ms in Fig. 1).

Although the one-for-one conversion between  $H_2O_2$  and  $H_2O$  [15] does not hold with the addition of  $CH_4$ , it is still feasible to infer the initial  $H_2O_2$  loading from the final  $H_2O$  yield as the uncertainty in  $k_4$  and  $k_5$  can be minimized. Specifically,  $k_4$  has been measured within an uncertainty of  $\pm 13\%$  in the temperature range of the current study [15], whereas  $k_5$  can be determined with an accuracy of  $\pm 15\%$  from the OH time-history of the same experiment, as will be discussed later in this section. Furthermore, the fact that the  $H_2O$  plateau level is not a strong function of  $k_4$  and  $k_5$  ensures that the determination of the initial  $H_2O_2$  loading is relatively immune to small uncertainties in  $k_4$  and  $k_5$ . At the same time, the target reactions ( $k_1$  and  $k_2$ ) have negligible sensitivities to the final  $H_2O$  yield. Therefore, the final  $H_2O$  yield is predominantly controlled by the initial  $H_2O_2$  loading.

For the example  $H_2O$  profile shown in Fig. 1, the initial and final  $H_2O$  concentrations were measured to be 820 and 3010 ppm, respectively. An initial  $H_2O_2$  loading of 1240 ppm was determined



**Fig. 1.** (upper): example  $H_2O$  time-history; (lower): the corresponding  $H_2O$  sensitivity plot. Test mixture consists of 820 ppm  $H_2O$ , 1240 ppm  $H_2O_2$ , 410 ppm  $O_2$ , 9975 ppm  $CH_4$ , and balance Ar. The experiment was conducted at 1103 K and 3.56 atm.  $k_3$  was determined to be  $4.2 \times 10^7$  cm<sup>3</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>.

to account for the total  $H_2O$  yield of 2190 ppm.  $O_2$  concentration in the initial test mixture was estimated to be 410 ppm, half of the initial  $H_2O$  value, because both  $O_2$  and  $H_2O$  were the products of spontaneous  $H_2O_2$  decomposition prior the reflected shock wave experiment. The  $H_2O_2/H_2O/O_2$  doping only accounts for a very small portion of the test mixture; the remaining majority consists of the 1:99  $CH_4$ –Ar blend (by mole). Therefore, the composition of the test mixture was determined to be 820 ppm  $H_2O/1240$  pp

Both the best-fit  $H_2O$  profile and  $H_2O$  sensitivity plot were generated using an updated version of USC-Mech II [13], a recent detailed chemical kinetic mechanism for  $H_2/CO/C1$ –C4 compounds, and the Senkin [25] kinetics code. The definition of the sensitivity coefficient is given in Ref. [26]. The updates to USC-Mech II include the latest data for the rate constants for the  $C_2H_6$  decomposition [24], the reactions  $H + O_2 \rightarrow OH + O$  [26],  $OH + HO_2 \rightarrow H_2O + O_2$  [17],  $OH + OH_2 \rightarrow OH_2O + OH_2O \rightarrow OH_2O$ 

#### 3.2. Determination of $k_3$ and $k_5$

As can be seen from the  $H_2O$  sensitivity analysis (Fig. 1) and the corresponding one for OH (Fig. 2), Rxns. 3–5 play major roles in the decomposition of  $H_2O_2$  decomposition in  $CH_4$ –Ar bath gases and need to be determined with high accuracies. Among the three key rate constants,  $k_4$  is known within an experimental error of  $\pm 13\%$  [15] at the temperatures of the current study and was not further investigated. In contrast to  $k_4$ , the uncertainty in  $k_3$  was estimated to be  $\pm 23\%$  [16], with the uncertainty in temperature being the major source of error. It has been demonstrated that the temperature uncertainty in  $k_3$  can be insulated from the rest of the reacting system by evaluating  $k_3$  for each individual test from the corresponding  $H_2O$  time-history [15]. In addition,  $k_5$  is only known with a factor-of-two uncertainty [6]. It is therefore a prerequisite to accurately determine  $k_3$  and  $k_5$  for each test to reduce uncertainties in  $k_1$  and  $k_2$ .

As illustrated in the  $H_2O$  sensitivity plot in Fig. 1, the  $H_2O$  profile is predominantly controlled by the  $H_2O_2$  decomposition reaction; and thus  $k_3$  can be evaluated by matching  $H_2O$  time-histories. For the example case shown in Fig. 1, the measured  $H_2O$  profile

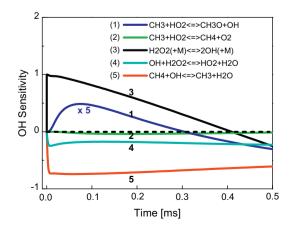


Fig. 2. OH sensitivity plot at the conditions of Fig. 1. Note that the sensitivity coefficient of reaction  $CH_3 + HO_2 \rightarrow CH_3O + OH$  has been multiplied by 5.

can be best-fitted with a  $k_3$  value of  $4.2 \times 10^7 \, \mathrm{cm^3 \, mol^{-1} \, s^{-1}}$ . It should be noted that all the sensitivity analyses and best-fit plots reported in this article were calculated using final assessed rate constants for Rxns. 1–5. A ± 10% uncertainty in  $k_3$  is associated with the procedure of fitting the H<sub>2</sub>O profile, which is evaluated to be the largest source of error for  $k_3$ . In addition, uncertainties in  $k_1$ ,  $k_2$ ,  $k_4$ , and  $k_5$  can propagate to  $k_3$ ; the combined uncertainty in  $k_3$  (excluding temperature uncertainty) was estimated to be ±14%.

While  $k_3$  is mainly determined from  $H_2O$  time-histories,  $k_5$  can be inferred from OH time-histories. Immediately following the initial jump in OH concentration, a quasi-steady state in OH concentration is reached, where the concentrations of secondary species, such as  $HO_2$ ,  $CH_3$  and  $C_2H_6$ , are negligibly small. Therefore, the initial OH concentration is predominantly controlled by the equilibrium between one OH production channel (Rxn. 3) and two OH consumption channels (Rxns. 4 and 5), which can be represented by the following expression:

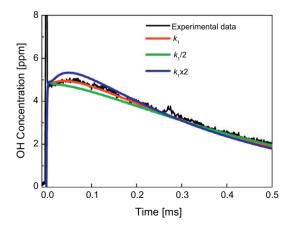
$$K_3[H_2O_2] = k_4[OH][H_2O_2] + k_5[OH][CH_4]$$

where  $H_2O_2$  and  $CH_4$  concentrations were essentially unchanged from their initial concentrations when the OH quasi-steady state was first established.

In the example case, the height of the initial OH jump was measured to be  $4.7 \pm 0.1$  ppm, as shown in Fig. 3. Using the expression presented in the previous paragraph and the initial mixture's composition inferred from the H<sub>2</sub>O diagnostic,  $k_5$  was determined to be  $1.7 \times 10^{12}$  cm<sup>3</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. An analysis of uncertainty propagation suggests that for the example case  $k_5$  has an uncertainty of  $\pm 19\%$ , with  $k_3$  uncertainty as the major source of error. Although the nominal level of  $k_5$  uncertainty is notable, it should be pointed out that in order to match the concentration of the initial OH jump,  $k_3$  and  $k_5$  are to be used in pairs, as it is the case with all subsequent analyses. For a given  $k_3$ , the uncertainty in  $k_5$  is negligible (approximately  $\pm 5\%$ ).

## 3.3. Evaluation of $k_1$

A careful examination of the sample OH time-history (Fig. 3) reveals that OH concentration rises gradually after the initial jump. Recall that OH decay during the decomposition of neat  $H_2O_2$  was monotonic [15] after the initial jumps, because  $H_2O_2$  as the sole OH source is being consumed and no other channels can replenish OH. However, with the presence of  $CH_4$ , OH can be regenerated through Rxn. 1, both directly and indirectly (see discussion in



**Fig. 3.** A best-fit to the experimental OH time-history yields a  $k_1$  value  $5 \times 10^{12} \, \mathrm{cm^3 \, mol^{-1} \, s^{-1}}$ . For comparison, calculated OH profiles using non-optimal  $k_1$  values are presented in the plot. Conditions are those of Figs. 1 and 2.

Section 2.3). Note that  $CH_3$  and  $HO_2$  are formed by consuming equal amounts of OH. With the new OH formation channel established by Rxn. 1 and subsequent steps, accumulating  $CH_3$  and  $HO_2$  act as buffers for OH. This added reaction pathway also explains the gradual rise in OH after the initial jump. The goal of this subsection is to quantitatively determine  $k_1$  from OH time-histories.

However, the OH sensitivity analysis for the sample case (Fig. 2) suggests that Rxn. 1 does not have a dominant role in controlling OH concentrations. The dilemma can be dismissed because the effects of Rxn. 1 are practically limited to a narrow time window when both reactants (CH<sub>3</sub> and HO<sub>2</sub>) are near their peak concentrations, as evidenced by Fig. 2. As pointed out in Section 2.3, the strong temporal localization of the effect of Rxn. 1 can be attributed to the compounding effects of rapid rises and decays in CH<sub>3</sub> and HO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. In addition, the uncertainties in  $k_3$ ,  $k_4$  and  $k_5$  have been minimized (Section 3.2) to further improve the accuracy in  $k_1$  determinations.

A best-fit to the sample OH time-history yields  $k_1 = 5 \times$  $10^{12}\,\text{cm}^3\,\text{mol}^{-1}\,\text{s}^{-1}$ , as illustrated in Fig. 3. Comparing to the best-fit curve, an increase in  $k_1$  can significantly boost OH concentration within a narrow time window as anticipated. A factor of 1.3 uncertainty in  $k_1$  is estimated to be associated with the fitting process. At the first glance, the OH sensitivity analysis in Fig. 2 may suggest that strong interfering reactions, such as Rxns. 3-5, could introduce significant uncertainty in  $k_1$ . However, detailed examination reveals that the influences of interfering reactions are indeed significantly alleviated by the strong temporal localization of Rxn. 1 effects. When a 14% change in  $k_3$  and the corresponding adjustment in  $k_5$  are made simultaneously,  $k_1$  needs to be varied by approximately 30% to re-match the experimental OH profile.  $k_3$  and  $k_5$  need to be adjusted concurrently to satisfy the constrain of initial OH concentrations, as has been demonstrated in the previous subsection. The 30% uncertainty inherited from the uncertainty in the  $k_3-k_5$  pair also includes the counterpart that may stem from  $k_4$  uncertainty, because Rxns. 3 and 4 have very similar OH sensitivities and are subject to same the constraint of initial OH concentrations. Therefore, a combined factor-of-1.4 uncertainty was estimated to be associated with  $k_1$  values measured in this work.

## 3.4. Assessment of k2

In contrast to Rxn. 1, which is able to significantly influence OH time-histories, Rxn. 2 does not do this (see Fig. 2) and therefore cannot be inferred from the OH time-history measurement. As discussed in Section 2.3, our choice was to investigate Rxn. 2 by studying time-histories of one of its reactants,  $HO_2$ . However, only the summation of  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  can be inferred from the  $HO_2$  diagnostic because Rxns. 1 and 2 are nearly indistinguishable from the reactant side.

Figure 4 is an  $HO_2$  sensitivity analysis for the sample case, where the  $HO_2$  sensitivities to Rxns. 1 and 2 were combined. A strong negative sensitivity to " $CH_3 + HO_2 \rightarrow$  products" confirms the expectation that an increase in the summation of  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  can significantly reduce  $HO_2$  concentrations in the reacting system. The best-fit to the 227 nm laser absorbance time-history was obtained by setting  $k_2 = 3 \times 10^{12}$  cm³ mol $^{-1}$  s $^{-1}$ , as demonstrated in Fig. 5. For comparison,  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  values were simultaneously adjusted by a factor of two and the resulting laser absorbance profiles were also plotted in the same figure.

Note that two major factors contribute to the evolution of 227 nm laser absorbance: the consumption of  $H_2O_2$  and the growth and decline of  $HO_2$ . The portion of laser absorbance induced by  $H_2O_2$  can be well-characterized because the evolution of  $H_2O_2$  concentration is predominately controlled by Rxn. 3 (with a small uncertainty of  $\pm 14\%$ ) and is insensitive to the choices of  $k_1$  and  $k_2$ 

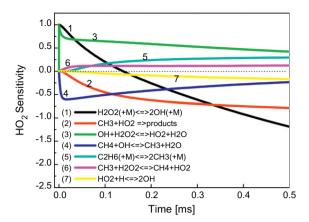
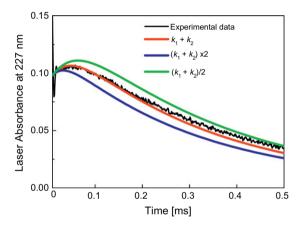


Fig. 4.  $HO_2$  sensitivity plot of the conditions of Figs. 1–3.



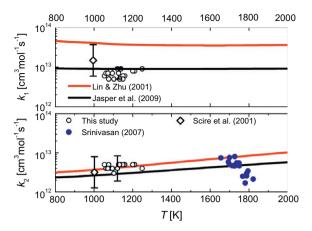
**Fig. 5.** A 227 nm laser absorbance time-history recorded within the same test where  $H_2O$  and OH time-histories presented in Figs. 1 and 3 were obtained. The laser absorbance time-history can be best fitted by setting  $k_2 = 3 \times 10^{12} \, \mathrm{cm}^3 \, \mathrm{mol}^{-1} \, \mathrm{s}^{-1}$ . Comparison with calculated total laser absorbance profiles with simultaneously doubled or halved  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  values are shown in the plot.

values. In addition, at temperatures near 1100 K, the  $\rm H_2O_2$  absorption cross-section at 227 nm is approximately one-tenth of that of  $\rm HO_2$  (1.4 × 10<sup>5</sup> cm²/mol vs. 13.1 × 10<sup>5</sup> cm²/mol) [16]. Therefore, changes in  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  values affect predictions of total laser absorbance at 227 nm through changes in calculated  $\rm HO_2$  time-histories, allowing the determination of ( $k_1$  +  $k_2$ ) from the measurements of laser absorbance at 227 nm.

The fitting procedure introduces a factor of approximately 1.6 uncertainty in  $k_2$ , which also includes the uncertainties that stem from the uncertainties in the absorption cross-sections of  $H_2O_2$  and  $HO_2$ . Interference reactions are responsible for additional uncertainty in  $k_2$ . The most direct competition with Rxn. 2 is Rxn. 1, which introduces a factor of 1.7 uncertainty in  $k_2$ . Three other major interfering reactions are  $C_2H_6$  (+M)  $\rightarrow$  2CH $_3$  (+M),  $CH_3 + H_2O_2 \rightarrow CH_4 + HO_2$ , and  $HO_2 + H \rightarrow 2OH$ . Using the uncertainty limits assigned to these reactions by the Baulch et al. review [6],  $k_2$  uncertainty due to interfering reactions (excluding Rxn. 1) is estimated to be  $\pm 35\%$ . Therefore, we may assume that  $k_2$  can be determined to within a factor of 2.1 uncertainty.

#### 3.5. Comparisons with previous studies

Experimentally determined  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  values from this work are summarized in Fig. 6 and Table 1. Between 1054 and 1249 K, no strong temperature dependence was observed for  $k_1$  or  $k_2$ . The mean values are  $6.8 \times 10^{12}$  cm<sup>3</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and  $4.4 \times 10^{12}$  cm<sup>3</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>



**Fig. 6.** (Upper): good agreement between the  $k_1$  determinations of this work and the theoretical predictions by Jasper et al. [2] was found. (Lower):  $k_2$  evaluations of this work agree very well with the Jasper et al. [2] and Lin and Zhu [4] predictions and the early experimental results reported by Srinivasan et al. [5].

for  $k_1$  and  $k_2$ , respectively. Shown in the same plot are the results of two theoretical studies, with the  $k_1$  prediction from Lin and Zhu [4] approximately 4.3 times that of Jasper et al. [2]. The large discrepancy between these two theoretical studies is echoed by similarly large discrepancies among  $k_1$  expressions used by combustion mechanisms. For example, GRI-Mech 3.0 [10] uses  $k_1 = 3.8 \times 10^{13}$  cm<sup>3</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, whereas recent combustion mechanisms has set  $k_1 = 0.9 \times 10^{13}$  cm<sup>3</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> (at 1000 K) [14] or  $1.8 \times 10^{13}$  cm<sup>3</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> [11].

It was previously recommended in the experimental studies by Scire et al. [8,9] to use lower  $k_1$  values, where the authors perturbed the combustion of lean moist CO with CH<sub>4</sub>. Although the agreement between the Scire et al. studies and the theoretical calculation by Jasper et al. is good, some uncertainty remains due to the indirect nature of the Scire et al. studies. As evidenced in Fig. 6, the measured  $k_1$  values of this work are in excellent agreement with those of Jasper et al. With the small experimental uncertainty (a factor of 1.4), this work confirms that  $k_1$  was over-estimated in the earlier studies [4,10].

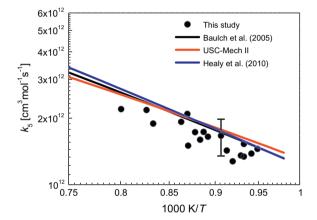
Compared to  $k_1$ ,  $k_2$  is much less controversial. The calculated values from both theoretical studies agree well with each other, as demonstrated in Fig. 6. In addition, the results of this work are in excellent agreement with those of two previous experimental studies [5,8]. The good agreement implies that a higher value should be assigned to  $k_2$  than estimates in early combustion mechanisms; GRI-Mech 3.0 sets  $k_2$  =  $1.0 \times 10^{12}$  cm<sup>3</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> for instance.

Both theoretical studies [2,4] suggest very weak temperature dependency of  $k_1$  and  $k_2$ . However, given the experimental uncertainties, the temperature range covered in this study (1054–1249 K) is not sufficiently wide to provide accurate information on temperature dependency of  $k_1$  and  $k_2$ . The lower temperature limit was set by the detection limits of trace species, as OH and HO<sub>2</sub> concentrations became too low for current diagnostics. In addition, test times available for reflected shock wave experiments also set the low temperature limit. On the other hand, the time constants of target reactions become too short if temperature is too high. Experimental determination of  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  at other temperatures are needed to fully resolve these temperature dependencies.

A key parameter that is a direct derivative of  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  determinations is the branching ratio between Rxns. 1 and 2, which could be important in modeling high-pressure ignitions. Earlier combustion mechanisms use very large branching ratios; for example, the branching ratio adopted by GRI-Mech 3.0 is 38:1. Zhu and Lin [4]

**Table 1**List of test conditions and results.

T <sub>5</sub> (K)	P <sub>5</sub> (atm)	$X_{H_2O_2}$ (ppm)	X <sub>CH<sub>4</sub></sub> (ppm)	$k_1  (\text{cm}^3  \text{mol}^{-1}  \text{s}^{-1})$	$k_2  (\text{cm}^3  \text{mol}^{-1}  \text{s}^{-1})$	$k_3  (\text{cm}^3  \text{mol}^{-1}  \text{s}^{-1})$	$k_5  (\text{cm}^3  \text{mol}^{-1}  \text{s}^{-1})$
1139	3.679	1200	9943	$9\times10^{12}$	$5\times10^{12}$	$7.65\times10^7$	$1.73 \times 10^{12}$
1103	3.556	1240	9975	$5 \times 10^{12}$	$3 \times 10^{12}$	$4.23 \times 10^{7}$	$1.67 \times 10^{12}$
1121	3.494	1400	9961	$9 \times 10^{12}$	$5 \times 10^{12}$	$5.71 \times 10^{7}$	$1.65 \times 10^{12}$
1159	3.517	1540	9961	$6 \times 10^{12}$	$5 \times 10^{12}$	$1.05 \times 10^{8}$	$1.93 \times 10^{12}$
1072	3.584	1432	9958	$6 \times 10^{12}$	$4 \times 10^{12}$	$2.46 \times 10^{7}$	$1.53 \times 10^{12}$
1054	3.622	655	9982	$6 \times 10^{12}$	$5 \times 10^{12}$	$1.96 \times 10^{7}$	$1.45 \times 10^{12}$
1062	3.629	1260	9969	$7 \times 10^{12}$	$4 \times 10^{12}$	$2.05 \times 10^{7}$	$1.38 \times 10^{12}$
1127	3.449	1440	9975	$7 \times 10^{12}$	$5 \times 10^{12}$	$5.47 \times 10^{7}$	$1.74 \times 10^{12}$
1150	3.356	1420	9961	$6 \times 10^{12}$	$5 \times 10^{12}$	$8.43 \times 10^{7}$	$2.09 \times 10^{12}$
1249	3.259	1560	9973	$9 \times 10^{12}$	$4 \times 10^{12}$	$3.80 \times 10^{8}$	$2.20 \times 10^{12}$
1210	3.256	1887	9966	$8 \times 10^{12}$	$5 \times 10^{12}$	$2.22 \times 10^{8}$	$2.18 \times 10^{12}$
1200	3.379	1878	9966	$8 \times 10^{12}$	$5 \times 10^{12}$	$1.88 \times 10^{8}$	$1.89 \times 10^{12}$
1149	3.464	1490	9970	$5 \times 10^{12}$	$5 \times 10^{12}$	$8.96 \times 10^{7}$	$1.50 \times 10^{12}$
1132	3.543	1820	9924	$5 \times 10^{12}$	$5 \times 10^{12}$	$6.83 \times 10^{7}$	$1.60 \times 10^{12}$
1087	3.631	1290	9972	$8 \times 10^{12}$	$4 \times 10^{12}$	$2.66 \times 10^{7}$	$1.28 \times 10^{12}$
1095	3.628	1590	9959	$7\times10^{12}$	$4\times10^{12}$	$3.82\times10^7$	$1.43 \times 10^{12}$
1076	3.687	1661	9974	$5 \times 10^{12}$	$5 \times 10^{12}$	$2.90\times10^7$	$1.36 \times 10^{12}$
1072	3.772	1580	9972	$7\times10^{12}$	$4\times10^{12}$	$2.46\times10^7$	$1.34\times10^{12}$



**Fig. 7.** The rate constants of reaction OH + CH<sub>4</sub>  $\rightarrow$  H<sub>2</sub>O + CH<sub>3</sub> ( $k_5$ ) determined in this work compare favorably with previous recommendations [6,13,14].

predicted a branching ratio of 10:1 at 1000 K. A significantly reduced branching ratio (3:1) was recommended by Jasper et al. [2], which was subsequently adopted in a recent combustion mechanism [14]. With a branching ratio of 1.5:1, the current study supports the recent trend of using smaller branching ratios between Rxns. 1 and 2 in combustion mechanisms.

Although the primary targets of this work are  $k_1$  and  $k_2$ , it is worth noting that  $k_3$  and  $k_5$  determinations compare favorably with previous recommendations. For example, the  $k_5$  expression recommended by Baulch et al. [6] and the one adopted in USC-Mech II [13] (the base mechanism of this work) are both within the experimental uncertainty of the experimentally determined values, as evidenced by Fig. 7. In addition, the agreement between  $k_3$  determinations of this study and those recently reported in literature [15–17] is excellent, with discrepancies well within the assigned experimental uncertainties. Given the similarity in experimental techniques used in this work and in previous studies, the determination of  $k_3$  is not discussed further in this article.

#### 4. Conclusions

 $CH_3$  and  $HO_2$  reactions were studied behind reflected shock waves between 1054 and 1249 K and near 3.5 atm using  $H_2O_2/CH_4/Ar$  blends as test mixtures. Reactions were initiated as  $H_2O_2$  decomposed into OH radicals, which in turn reacted with  $H_2O_2$ 

and CH<sub>4</sub> to produce a pool of HO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>3</sub> radicals. Using laser absorption spectroscopy, species time-histories of H<sub>2</sub>O, OH and HO<sub>2</sub> were simultaneously measured behind reflected shock waves. Predictions of CH<sub>4</sub> ignition delays under high-pressure, intermediate-temperature conditions are very sensitive to the choice of the rate constant of reaction CH<sub>3</sub> + HO<sub>2</sub>  $\rightarrow$  CH<sub>3</sub>O + OH ( $k_1$ ) in a combustion mechanism, because the reaction is a major chain-branching reaction. This paper reports the first experimental investigation of  $k_1$ , which was found to be  $6.8 \times 10^{12}$  cm<sup>3</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> with an estimated uncertainty factor of 1.4. The experimentally determined  $k_1$  value of this work is in excellent agreement with the theoretical predictions reported by Jasper et al. [2] and is much smaller than the values used in some earlier combustion mechanisms, e.g., in GRI-Mech 3.0 [10].

The other major product channel for CH<sub>3</sub> and HO<sub>2</sub> reactions, CH<sub>3</sub> + HO<sub>2</sub>  $\rightarrow$  CH<sub>4</sub> + O<sub>2</sub> (Rxn. 2), is a chain-termination reaction. The rate constant ( $k_2$ ) was experimental evaluated to be 4.4  $\times$  10<sup>12</sup> cm<sup>3</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, with an estimated uncertainty factor 2.1. The agreement with a previous experimental  $k_{-2}$  determination reported by Srinivasan et al. [5] and theoretical calculations [2,4] is remarkable, suggesting  $k_2$  may be underestimated in earlier combustion mechanisms (e.g., GRI-Mech 3.0 uses  $k_2$  = 1.0  $\times$  10<sup>12</sup> cm<sup>3</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>). In addition, the rate constants of another major reaction of the reacting system, OH + CH<sub>4</sub>  $\rightarrow$  CH<sub>3</sub>O + OH,  $k_5$ , were found to be in excellent agreement with currently recommended values [6,13,14].

#### Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the National Science Foundation under Award No. 0649936, and the Department of Energy (National Nuclear Security Administration) under Award No. NA28614.

## References

- [1] E.L. Petersen, D.F. Davidson, R.K. Hanson, Combust. Flame 117 (1999) 272–290.
- [2] A.W. Jasper, S.J. Klippenstein, L.B. Harding, Proc. Combust. Inst. 32 (2009) 279–286.
- [3] E.L. Petersen, M. Röhrig, D.F. Davidson, R.K. Hanson, C.T. Bowman, Proc. Combust. Inst. 26 (1996) 799–806.
- [4] R. Zhu, M.C. Lin, J. Phys. Chem. A 105 (2001) 6243-6248.
- [5] N.K. Srinivasan, J.V. Michael, L.B. Harding, S.J. Klippenstein, Combust. Flame 149 (2007) 104–111.
- [6] D.L. Baulch, C.T. Bowman, C.J. Cobos, et al., J. Phys. Chem. Ref. Data 34 (2005) 757–1397.
- [7] M.B. Colket III, D.W. Naegeli, I. Glassman, Proc. Combust. Inst. 16 (1977) 1023–1039.
- [8] J.J. Scire Jr., R.A. Yetter, F.L. Dryer, Int. J. Chem. Kinet. 33 (2001) 75-100.

- [9] J.J. Scire Jr., F.L. Dryer, R.A. Yetter, Int. J. Chem. Kinet. 33 (2001) 784–802.
- [10] G.P. Smith, D.M. Golden, M. Frenklach, et al., GRI-Mech, version 3.0, 2000. <a href="http://www.me.berkeley.edu/gri-mech/">http://www.me.berkeley.edu/gri-mech/</a>>.
- [11] A.A. Konnov, Detailed Reaction Mechanism for Small Hydrocarbons Combustion, release 0.5, 2007. <a href="http://homepages.vub.ac.be/~akonnov/">http://homepages.vub.ac.be/~akonnov/</a>.
  [12] K.J. Hughes, T. Turanyi, M.J. Pilling, Leeds Methane Oxidation Mechanism,
- K.J. Hughes, T. Turanyi, M.J. Pilling, Leeds Methane Oxidation Mechanism, version 1.5, 2001. <a href="http://garfield.chem.elte.hu/Combustion/Combustion.html">http://garfield.chem.elte.hu/Combustion/Combustion.html</a>.
  H. Wang, X. You, A.V. Joshi, S.G. Davis, A. Laskin, F. Egolfopoulos, C.K. Law, USC
- [13] H. Wang, X. You, A.V. Joshi, S.G. Davis, A. Laskin, F. Egolfopoulos, C.K. Law, USC Mech Version II. High-Temperature Combustion Reaction Model of H<sub>2</sub>/CO/ C1-C4 Compounds, 2007. <a href="https://ignis.usc.edu/USC\_Mech\_II.htm">https://ignis.usc.edu/USC\_Mech\_II.htm</a>.
- [14] D. Healy, N.S. Donato, C.J. Aul, E.L. Petersen, C.M. Zinner, G. Bourque, H.J. Curran, Combust. Flame 157 (2010) 1526–1539.
- [15] Z. Hong, A. Farooq, E.A. Barbour, D.F. Davidson, R.K. Hanson, J. Phys. Chem. A 113 (2009) 12919–12925.
- [16] Z. Hong, R.D. Cook, D.F. Davidson, R.K. Hanson, J. Phys. Chem. A 113 (2010) 5718–5727.
- [17] Z. Hong, K.-Y. Lam, R. Sur, S. Wang, D.F. Davidson, R.K. Hanson, Accepted for oral presentation at the 34th International Symposium on Combustion.

- [18] M.A. Oehlschlaeger, D.F. Davidson, R.K. Hanson, J. Quant. Spectrosc. Radiat. Transfer 92 (2005) 393–402.
- [19] P. Zalicki, Y. Ma, R.N. Zare, E.H. Wahl, J.R. Dadamio, T.G. Owano, C.H. Kruger, Chem. Phys. Lett. 234 (1995) 269–274.
- [20] K. Glänzer, M. Quack, J. Troe, Proc. Combust. Inst. 16 (1976) 948–960.
- [21] J. Troe, Ber. Bunsen. Phys. Chem. 73 (1969) 946-952.
- [22] H. Kijewski, J. Troe, Helv. Chim. Acta 55 (1972) 205-213.
- [23] H. Hippler, J. Troe, J. Willner, J. Chem. Phys. 93 (1990) 1755–1760.
- [24] M.A. Oehlschlaeger, D.F. Davidson, R.K. Hanson, Proc. Combust. Inst. 30 (2005) 1119–1127.
- [25] A. E. Lutz, R.J. Kee, J.A. Miller, Senkin: A FORTRAN Program for Predicting Homogeneous Gas Phase Chemical Kinetics with Sensitivity Analysis, Report No. SAND87-8248, Sandia National Laboratory, 1988.
- [26] Z. Hong, D.F. Davidson, E.A. Barbour, R.K. Hanson, Proc. Combust. Inst. 33 (2011) 309–316.