Effects of Water Vapor on the Kinetics of the Methylperoxy Radical Self-reaction and Reaction with Hydroperoxy

Alecia Mower
Brigham Young University - Provo

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EFFECTS OF WATER VAPOR ON THE KINETICS OF THE CH$_3$O$_2$ SELF-REACTION AND
REACTION WITH HO$_2$

by

Alecia Mower English

A thesis submitted to the faculty of
Brigham Young University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Science

Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry
Brigham Young University
December 2007
This thesis has been read by each member of the following graduate committee and by majority vote has been found to be satisfactory.

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As chair of the candidate’s graduate committee, I have read the thesis of Alecia Mower English in its final form and have found that (1) its format, citations, and bibliographical style are consistent and acceptable and fulfill university and department style requirements; (2) its illustrative materials including figures, tables, and charts are in place; and (3) the final manuscript is satisfactory to the graduate committee and is ready for submission to the university library.

Date     Jaron C. Hansen
Chair, Graduate Committee

Accepted for the Department

Date     David V. Dearden
Graduate Coordinator

Accepted for the College

Date     Thomas W. Sederberg
Associate Dean, College of Physical and Mathematical Sciences
ABSTRACT

EFFECTS OF WATER VAPOR ON THE KINETICS OF THE CH₃O₂ SELF-REACTION AND REACTION WITH HO₂

Alecia Mower English

Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry

Master of Science

The gas phase reactions of CH₃O₂ + CH₃O₂, HO₂ + HO₂, and CH₃O₂ + HO₂ in the presence of water vapor have been studied at temperatures between 263 and 303 K using laser flash photolysis coupled with UV time-resolved absorption detection at 220 nm and 260 nm. Water vapor concentration was quantified using tunable diode laser spectroscopy operating in the mid-IR. The HO₂ self-reaction rate constant is significantly enhanced by water vapor, consistent with what others have reported, whereas CH₃O₂ self-reaction and the cross-reaction (CH₃O₂ + HO₂) rate constants are nearly unaffected. The enhancement in the HO₂ self-reaction rate coefficient occurs because of the formation of a strongly bound (6.9 kcal mol⁻¹) HO₂-H₂O complex during the reaction mechanism where the H₂O acts as an energy chaperone. The nominal impact of water vapor on the CH₃O₂ self-reaction rate coefficient is consistent with recent high level ab initio calculations that predict a weakly bound CH₃O₂-H₂O complex (3.2
kcal mol\(^{-1}\)). The smaller binding energy of the CH\(_3\)O\(_2\)-H\(_2\)O complex excludes its formation and consequent participation in the methyl peroxy self-reaction mechanism.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Acknowledgments. Acknowledgements. I thank my grandparents, Marvin and Ruth Elaine Mower for their encouragement and support to be a graduate student. Thanks to my husband, Justin, for being the kindest person to me and for listening to Marvin when he admonished him to see that I finished school. My siblings and parents are kind enough to listen to the highs and lows of my studies. And thanks go to little Ruth Elaine for hanging out with me in the lab everyday in utero.

Joe Szente (Ford Motor Company) has been my mentor and friend with unending knowledge and patience. My BYU advisor, Jaron Hansen, has provided me with many opportunities and made my degree possible. I thank both of them for their faith in me. I thank Matti Maricq (Ford Motor Company) for his astute ideas and kind words. Thanks to Ford Motor Company for allowing me a place to do this research.

Lastly, thanks go to H₂O for always finding new ways to be interesting.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Tables ................................................................................................................................ xv

List of Figures................................................................................................................................ xvi

Chapter 1: Introduction................................................................................................................... 1

1.1 Peroxy Radicals .................................................................................................................. 1
  1.1.1 Role of Peroxy Radicals................................................................................................. 1
  1.1.2 Hydroperoxy Radical ................................................................................................... 2
  1.1.3 Methylperoxy Radical .................................................................................................. 4
1.2 Experimental Techniques ...................................................................................................... 7

Chapter 2: Experimental ................................................................................................................. 9

2.1 Peroxy Kinetics Measurements ............................................................................................. 9
2.2 Water Concentration Measurements ................................................................................... 16
  2.2.1 Bubbler .......................................................................................................................... 16
  2.2.2 IR detection of water vapor .......................................................................................... 16
  2.2.3 Determination of the cross section of water ................................................................. 18

Chapter 3: Results......................................................................................................................... 22

3.1 HO₂ + HO₂ .......................................................................................................................... 22
3.2 CH₃O₂ + CH₃O₂ ................................................................................................................... 25
3.3 CH₃O₂ + HO₂ ....................................................................................................................... 30
3.4 Enhancement comparison for the three peroxy reactions of interest .................................. 35
3.5 Error Analysis ..................................................................................................................... 37
  3.5.1 Experimental Measurements ......................................................................................... 37
  3.5.2 Kinetics Model .............................................................................................................. 38

Chapter 4: Conclusion................................................................................................................... 39

References..................................................................................................................................... 43
LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 Reactions used to predict peroxy radical reaction rate constants in the kinetic model ... 12
Table 2 Absolute rate constants for HO₂ self-reaction with and without water......................... 25
Table 3 Absolute rate constants for CH₃O₂ self-reaction with and without water.................... 30
Table 4 Absolute rate constants for CH₃O₂ + HO₂ reaction with and without water ............... 35
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 Cross sectional comparison of HO2 and CH3O2............................................................... 7
Figure 2 Schematic of UV system for kinetic measurements.......................................................... 15
Figure 3 Schematic of IR system.................................................................................................. 18
Figure 4 Pressure dependent cross-section of water vapor at 1524 cm−1 ...................................... 20
Figure 5 Water Absorbance of 1524 cm−1 light. .......................................................................... 21
Figure 6 HO2 self-reaction decays ............................................................................................... 22
Figure 7 Enhancement (k_wet/k_dry) for HO2 self-reaction rates....................................................... 24
Figure 8 CH3O2 self-reaction decays. ........................................................................................... 26
Figure 9 Enhancement (k_wet/k_dry) for CH3O2 self-reaction rates................................................... 29
Figure 10 CH3O2 + HO2 reaction decays...................................................................................... 31
Figure 11 Enhancement (k_wet/k_dry) for CH3O2 + HO2 reaction .................................................... 34
Figure 12 Comparison of reaction rate enhancement for the three reactions of interest at high
concentrations of water vapor....................................................................................................... 36
Figure 13 Comparison of reaction rate enhancement for the three reactions of interest at medium
concentrations of water vapor....................................................................................................... 36
Figure 14 Comparison of reaction rate enhancement for the three reactions of interest at low
concentrations of water vapor....................................................................................................... 37
Figure 15 Potential Energy Surface of CH3O2 + HO2 as calculated by Clark et al. .................... 41
Figure 16 Potential Energy Surface of CH3O2 + HO2–H2O as calculated by Clark et al. ............ 41
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Peroxy Radicals

1.1.1 Role of Peroxy Radicals

Peroxy radicals (RO₂, HO₂) play an important role as intermediates in the atmospheric oxidation and combustion of hydrocarbons. In polluted environments, alkylperoxy radicals (RO₂) and hydroperoxy (HO₂) react mostly with nitric oxide (NO). Once peroxy radicals react with NO, a chain reaction yields tropospheric ozone (O₃), which causes respiratory problems for humans and animals.

Hydrocarbons undergo a hydrogen-atom abstraction, mostly by OH in the troposphere. The resulting alkyl radical (R) reacts almost exclusively with O₂ due to the rapid reaction rates and the abundance of O₂. The formation mechanism can be generalized by the following:

\[ \text{RH} + (\text{OH, NO}_3, \text{ or Cl}) \rightarrow \text{R} + (\text{H}_2\text{O, HNO}_3 \text{ or HCl}) \]  \hspace{1cm} (1)

\[ \text{R} + \text{O}_2 + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{RO}_2 + \text{M} \]  \hspace{1cm} (2)

where \( \text{M} \) is any third body. In remote, clean areas of the troposphere, peroxy radicals terminate by reacting with HO₂ (reaction 3) and therefore no O₃ is formed.¹

\[ \text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{ROOH} + \text{O}_2 \]  \hspace{1cm} (3)

One of the major sources of tropospheric HO₂ is formaldehyde photolysis. Carbon monoxide is a by-product in the mechanism, and the oxidation of CO by OH will yield yet another HO₂.

\[ \text{HCHO} + \text{hv} \rightarrow \text{H} + \text{HCO} \]  \hspace{1cm} (4)

\[ \text{H} + \text{O}_2 + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{M} \]  \hspace{1cm} (5)

\[ \text{HCO} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{CO} \]  \hspace{1cm} (6)

\[ \text{OH} + \text{CO} \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{H} \]  \hspace{1cm} (7)
$H + O_2 + M \rightarrow HO_2 + M \quad (8)$

In urban areas, reaction 3 competes with reaction 9 and its subsequent chain reaction shown below:

\begin{align*}
RO_2 + NO & \rightarrow RHO + NO_2 \quad (9) \\
RHO + O_2 & \rightarrow RO + HO_2 \quad (10) \\
HO_2 + NO & \rightarrow HO + NO_2 \quad (11) \\
NO_2 + \nu & \rightarrow O + NO \quad (12) \\
O + O_2 + M & \rightarrow O_3 + M \quad (13)
\end{align*}

A single RO$_2$ can be responsible for the production of two O$_3$ molecules when reaction 9 is dominant over reaction 3. With an [HO$_2$] of $1 \times 10^8$ molecules cm$^{-3}$, reaction 9 becomes competitive with reaction 3 when there is only half that amount of NO.$^1$

1.1.2 Hydroperoxy Radical

HO$_2$ is the simplest peroxy radical and the one found in the largest concentrations in the atmosphere (peak concentrations between $10^8$–$10^9$ molecules cm$^{-3}$). It is an important atmospheric component (see reactions 11–13). In the presence of water vapor, previously ignored in many studies, a significant enhancement of the self-reaction rate occurs.$^{2-4}$

\begin{align*}
HO_2 + HO_2 & \rightarrow HOOH + O_2 \quad (14) \\
& k_{14} = (2.2\pm0.3) \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ at } 295 \text{ K} \quad \text{Reference 5} \\
HO_2 + HO_2 \cdot H_2O & \rightarrow HOOH + O_2 + H_2O \quad (15) \\
& k_{15} = 3.3 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ at } 295 \text{ K} \quad \text{Reference 6}
\end{align*}
The reaction mechanism includes a formation of an HO$_2$-H$_2$O complex which acts as an energy chaperone that removes excess energy from the activated complex on the potential energy surface so products can more easily be formed.

Modeling studies that involve this reaction rate include chemical cloud models, studies of marine environments, and three-dimensional global simulations. Satellites and air-borne balloons can be used to track HOOH, whose main source is the HO$_2$ self-reaction (see reactions 14 and 15). The photolysis of HOOH is a source of more HO$_x$ radicals that deplete ozone levels in the stratosphere. With a known [HOOH], photolysis rate, and an accurate $k_{14}$ and $k_{15}$, the concentration of HO$_2$ can be determined from modeling. For accurate modeling, we need to know the effect of water vapor on $k_{15}$. If only $k_{14}$ is used in atmospheric modeling studies, predictions underestimate hydrogen peroxide (HOOH) formation and overestimate HO$_2$, O$_3$, and other organic peroxide concentrations according to Stockwell.$^6$ He reports that these models show discrepancies from empirical data because they have ignored the water dependence of either one or both of the bimolecular and the pressure dependent terms in the overall rate constant. The water vapor enhancement is observed to increase with decreasing temperatures, which could be due to the lowered kinetic energy in the HO$_2$-H$_2$O complex. Stockwell calculated the HO$_2$ self-reaction rate coefficient as a function of altitude, assuming a water vapor-saturated standard atmosphere. His work showed that omission of the water dependence on the overall rate coefficient would result in a 75 % relative error when modeling HOOH formation rates under atmospheric conditions typical of the lower troposphere. Stockwell concluded that the water vapor concentration term in the HO$_2$ self-reaction rate coefficient could not be ignored when modeling tropospheric chemistry.
Recently, the existence of the HO$_2$-H$_2$O complex has been confirmed by Suma et al.\textsuperscript{8}, who measured the microwave spectrum of the complex in a supersonic jet by means of a Fourier transform microwave spectrometer. The binding energy of the complex (6.9 kcal mol$^{-1}$) was predicted by Aloisio and Francisco\textsuperscript{9} using \textit{ab initio} molecular methods. Kanno et al.\textsuperscript{4}, using frequency modulated diode laser spectroscopy, have successfully measured the equilibrium constant of the HO$_2$-H$_2$O complex at 298K. These measurements, combined with measured water vapor concentration, suggest that 20–30 % of the HO$_2$ radicals may exist as the complex under typical atmospheric conditions.

\textbf{1.1.3 Methylperoxy Radical}

Because water is ubiquitous in the atmosphere with concentrations\textsuperscript{6} $\sim$10$^{17}$ molecules cm$^{-3}$, we speculated that water could be complexing with other RO$_2$ radicals in much the same way it complexes with HO$_2$ radical. The efforts of this study have been focused on the role of organic RO$_2$-H$_2$O complexes, in particular CH$_3$O$_2$.

Methyl peroxy is formed during the photooxidation of methane (CH$_4$) shown in reactions 1 and 2. CH$_4$ is a naturally occurring component of the troposphere\textsuperscript{1} ($\sim$1.7 ppm or 4.18 $\times$ 10$^{13}$ molecules cm$^{-3}$). The main sources are anaerobic bacterial fermentation in wetlands and enteric fermentation mostly from cattle. Humans may be indirectly responsible for the increase in tropospheric CH$_4$ over the past three decades (increasing 1–2 % annually).\textsuperscript{1} As the human population increases, so does the need for food; to produce more rice and beef requires more rice fields and livestock, which are both sources of CH$_4$.

One of the threats that CH$_4$ poses to humans is not in remote areas, but in polluted areas specifically with significant levels of NO concentrations. Instead of reaction 3, the following occurs for CH$_3$O$_2$: \begin{equation} 4 \end{equation}
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{CH}_3\text{O}_2 + \text{NO} & \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{O} + \text{NO}_2 \quad (16) \\
\text{CH}_3\text{O} + \text{O}_2 & \rightarrow \text{HCHO} + \text{HO}_2 \quad (17) \\
\text{HO}_2 + \text{NO} & \rightarrow \text{HO} + \text{NO}_2 \quad (18) \\
\text{NO}_2 + \text{hv} & \rightarrow \text{O} + \text{NO} \quad (19) \\
\text{O} + \text{O}_2 + \text{M} & \rightarrow \text{O}_3 + \text{M} \quad (20)
\end{align*}
\]

The amount of O\textsubscript{3} increases with CH\textsubscript{3}O\textsubscript{2} with increasing sources of CH\textsubscript{4}.

The self-reaction of CH\textsubscript{3}O\textsubscript{2} is currently considered too slow to be a significant loss process under atmospheric chemistry, except in pristine environments where there is minimal NO concentrations.

\[
\text{CH}_3\text{O}_2 + \text{CH}_3\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{Products} \quad (21)
\]

\[k_{21} = 1 \times 10^{-13} \exp(365/T) \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} \quad \text{Reference 10}\]

\[
\text{CH}_3\text{O}_2 + \text{CH}_3\text{O}_2\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{Products} \quad (22)
\]

If a rate enhancement were observed in the presence of water vapor, then the new rate constant could have a significant effect on modeling behavior.

In a recent high level \textit{ab initio} study, Clark et al.\textsuperscript{11} reported on the optimized geometries, binding energies, and equilibrium constants for a series of organic peroxy radical-water complexes. Their work showed that for species with strong binding energies (~5-7 kcal mol\textsuperscript{-1}) a significant fraction (10 - 25 \%) of the RO\textsubscript{2} radicals can exist as an RO\textsubscript{2}-H\textsubscript{2}O complex. They reported that the binding energy of the complexes is largest when the R-group in the peroxy radical includes a carbonyl (C=O) or alcohol (-OH) moiety. We have investigated the influence of water vapor on the kinetics of both the CH\textsubscript{3}O\textsubscript{2} self-reaction and the CH\textsubscript{3}O\textsubscript{2} + HO\textsubscript{2} reaction. As a consequence of the weak binding energy between the methyl peroxy radical and water (3.2 kcal mol\textsuperscript{-1}), the equilibrium constant for formation of a CH\textsubscript{3}O\textsubscript{2}-H\textsubscript{2}O complex is very small (1.54
× 10^{-21} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1}, \text{ at 298 K}). As a result, a methyl peroxy-water complex is not expected to form and consequently will not participate during the reaction mechanism of the CH$_3$O$_2$ self-reaction. The possible enhancement in the CH$_3$O$_2$ + HO$_2$ reaction kinetics was hypothesized because of the formation of an HO$_2$-H$_2$O complex during the reaction mechanism.

$$\text{CH}_3\text{O}_2 + \text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{OOH} + \text{O}_2 \quad (23)$$

$$k_{23} = 3.8 \times 10^{-13} e^{(800/T)} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} \quad \text{Reference 12}$$

$$\text{CH}_3\text{O}_2 + \text{HO}_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{OOH} + \text{O}_2 \quad (24)$$

A rate enhancement would increase the competition between reactions 24 and 16.
1.2 Experimental Techniques

Laser flash photolysis/UV time-resolved spectroscopy was used to generate and detect the peroxy radicals. Molecules were photolyzed by a 351 nm excimer laser flash of ~300 mJ pulsing at 2 Hz. The radicals formed following photolysis initiate more reactions that lead to the molecules of interest. To be detectable by the system, the molecules must absorb UV light. Peroxy radicals characteristically absorb between 200 and 300 nm. The absorbances of HO$_2$ and CH$_3$O$_2$ have been previously characterized, but they do overlap (see Figure 1). So, multiple species can absorb around the wavelengths of the molecule of interest. We overcome this by only measuring HO$_2$ in excess at 220 nm and by measuring CH$_3$O$_2$ at 260 nm where HO$_2$ minimally absorbs.

![UV reference spectra: HO$_2$ & CH$_3$O$_2$](image)

Figure 1 Cross sectional comparison of HO$_2$ and CH$_3$O$_2$ measured previously.$^5,^{24}$
Because water has many absorbance lines in the infrared, locating and resolving a line is done by use of a tunable diode laser (TDL). This study uses a cryogenically cooled (77 K) Pb-salt TDL that is tuned to an absorption line at 1524 cm$^{-1}$ corresponding to the H-O-H bend in H$_2$O.
CHAPTER 2: EXPERIMENTAL

To investigate the water vapor dependence on the rate of reaction involving RO$_2$ radicals, the kinetics of the self-reactions of HO$_2$ and CH$_3$O$_2$ as well as the cross-reaction of HO$_2$ + CH$_3$O$_2$ were measured over 263-303 K at ~200 Torr. Flash photolysis/UV spectroscopy is used to evaluate the kinetics and radical concentrations while tunable diode laser (TDL) spectroscopy is used to quantify the water vapor concentration. While it is expected that the rate enhancement is temperature dependent, the range of temperatures is limited due to the decrease in water vapor pressure at temperatures below 273 K and the expected drop in the rate enhancement at temperatures above 295 K.

All of the experiments are performed in a quartz cylindrical reaction cell (52.8 cm in length, 3.6 cm in diameter) which is wrapped in an insulated jacket connected to a recirculating cooler. K-type thermocouples are placed at the ends of the cell to monitor the temperature of the system. BaF$_2$ windows are used at both ends of the cell because they transmit both UV and IR light over the range of interest. Dichroic mirrors are coated to reflect 351 nm light with a bandpass of 10 nm around the center wavelength, direct the excimer laser beam and allow counter-propagation of the Xe lamp beam (Oriel 60010).

2.1 Peroxy Kinetics Measurements

CH$_3$O$_2$ and HO$_2$ are formed in the reaction cell using a gas mixture containing 4-6 Torr of 5 % Cl$_2$/N$_2$, 0.2-1 Torr of CH$_3$OH (99.93 % ACS HPLC grade) carried by N$_2$ or 75–100 Torr of CH$_4$, 20 Torr of O$_2$ and enough N$_2$ to reach a total pressure of 175 to 250 Torr. Tylan mass flow controllers adjust the gas flows (of Cl$_2$, CH$_4$, O$_2$, N$_2$) to achieve the appropriate partial pressures. The flow rates are verified by measuring the rate of pressure change measured by MKS pressure gauges when a selected gas flows into a fixed volume flask. CH$_3$OH is introduced with a syringe
pump (kd Scientific model 100) at a rate of 2.0-2.4 mL/hr using N₂ as the carrier gas. The CH₃OH is injected into a heated line (~373 K) of N₂ where it evaporates and mixes before being introduced into the reaction cell. The vapor concentration of CH₃OH is calculated from the molar concentration using the syringe delivery rate and the flow of the carrier gas in standard liters per minute along with the temperature of the cell, the density of methanol and other system factors. [CH₃OH] is adjusted by changing the syringe delivery rate and/or the carrier gas flow rate. For the CH₃O₂+HO₂ reaction, both methane and methanol are flowed and the ratio of [CH₄]/[CH₃OH] determines the relative concentrations of CH₃O₂ and HO₂. This ratio was between 90 and 120.

The chemistry is initiated with an excimer laser (Lamda Physik model Compex 205) using a XeF mixture which produces 351 nm light and is operated at 2 Hz and 280-320 mJ pulse⁻¹. The laser photolyzes a small fraction (1 - 3 %) of the Cl₂ to produce Cl radicals. The initial concentration of Cl is in the range of (3-7) × 10¹⁴ molecules/cm³. It is measured by substituting ethane as the reactant to generate ethyl peroxy radicals. For the conditions used in these experiments, 98% of the Cl radicals are converted to ethyl peroxy radicals via the following mechanism:

\[
\text{Cl}_2 + \text{hv}(351 \text{ nm}) \rightarrow 2\text{Cl}^· \tag{25}
\]

\[
\text{Cl}^· + \text{C}_2\text{H}_6 \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_5 + \text{HCl} \tag{26}
\]

\[
\text{C}_2\text{H}_5 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{O}_2 \tag{27}
\]

Similarly, the chlorine atoms abstract H atoms from either CH₄ or CH₃OH, depending on the reaction to be studied, to ultimately produce CH₃O₂ or HO₂ radicals, respectively. The mechanism for HO₂ formation is:

\[
\text{Cl}^· + \text{CH}_3\text{OH} \rightarrow \text{CH}_2\text{OH} + \text{HCl} \tag{28}
\]
\[ \text{CH}_2\text{OH} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{CH}_2\text{O} \quad (29) \]
\[ \text{HO}_2 + \text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{HOOH} + \text{O}_2 \quad (14) \]
\[ \text{HO}_2 + \text{HO}_2\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{HOOH} + \text{O}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \quad (15) \]

The same Cl radical chemistry initiates the production of CH₃O₂ via
\[ \text{Cl}^\cdot + \text{CH}_4 \rightarrow \text{CH}_3 + \text{HCl} \quad (29) \]
\[ \text{CH}_3 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{O}_2 \quad (30) \]
\[ \text{CH}_3\text{O}_2 + \text{CH}_3\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{Products} \quad (21) \]
\[ \text{CH}_3\text{O}_2 + \text{CH}_3\text{O}_2\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{Products} \quad (22) \]

The cross-reaction is also measured in the presence and absence of water vapor using the same initiation processes shown above followed by:
\[ \text{CH}_3\text{O}_2 + \text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{OOH} + \text{O}_2 \quad (23) \]
\[ \text{CH}_3\text{O}_2 + \text{HO}_2\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{OOH} + \text{O}_2 \quad (24) \]

The reactions included in Table 1 include those already provided as well as secondary reactions involving reactants and/or intermediate products. The reactions listed in Table 1 sufficiently describe the chemistry in the cell for the following reasons: (1) the gas mixture is continuously replenished every 2 seconds, the products are removed from the reaction cell and the reactant concentrations are restored between photolysis events, (2) Due to its small cross-section, < 3% of the Cl₂ is photolyzed, and therefore the mixing of the cell eliminates secondary reactions, (3) The excimer beam is only photolyzing a small area (1 cm²) of the 3.6 cm diameter cell so each pulse of the laser is essentially photolyzing a fresh reaction cell, (4) The RO₂ chemistry is over in less than 5 ms, so the firing of the laser every 500 ms does not cause distortions in the chemistry of interest.
Table 1 Reactions used to predict peroxy radical reaction rate constants in the kinetic model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th># in text</th>
<th>Reaction</th>
<th>k (cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹)</th>
<th>reference</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>28</td>
<td>CH₃OH + Cl → CH₂OH + HCl</td>
<td>5.50 × 10⁻¹¹</td>
<td>14</td>
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<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>O₂ + CH₃OH → HO₂ + CH₂O</td>
<td>9.60 × 10⁻¹²</td>
<td>14</td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>HO₂ + HO₂ → HOOH</td>
<td>2.81 × 10⁻¹³ e⁵⁵⁴/T</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>CH₄ + Cl → CH₃ + HCl</td>
<td>6.6 × 10⁻¹² e⁻¹²₄⁰/T</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>CH₃ + O₂ → CH₃O₂</td>
<td>1.79 × 10⁻¹² (T/298)¹·⁷⁰</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>CH₃O₂ + CH₃O₂ → 2CH₃O + O₂</td>
<td>1 × 10⁻¹³ e⁹⁶⁵/T</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>HO₂ + CH₃O₂ → CH₂O₃OH + O₂</td>
<td>3.8 × 10⁻¹³ e⁸⁰⁰/T</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>CH₃ + Cl₂ → CH₃Cl + Cl</td>
<td>4.78 × 10⁻¹² e⁻¹²₄⁰/T</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>CH₃ + Cl → CH₂ + HCl</td>
<td>2.56 × 10⁻¹⁰</td>
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<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>CH₃ + CH₃ → Products</td>
<td>6.00 × 10⁻¹¹</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37a</td>
<td>Cl + CH₃O₂ → CH₃O + ClO</td>
<td>7.3 × 10⁻¹¹</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37b</td>
<td>→ CH₂OO + HCl</td>
<td>7.6 × 10⁻¹¹</td>
<td>15</td>
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<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>ClO + CH₃ → Products</td>
<td>1.3 × 10⁻¹⁰</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>ClO + HO₂ → HO₂ + HOCl</td>
<td>6.2 × 10⁻¹²</td>
<td>21</td>
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<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>ClO + CH₃O₂ → CH₃O + ClOO</td>
<td>4.9 × 10⁻¹² e⁻³³₀⁰/T</td>
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<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>ClO + ClO → Products</td>
<td>1 × 10⁻¹⁴</td>
<td>14</td>
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<td>42</td>
<td>CH₃O + O₂ → CH₂O + HO₂</td>
<td>7.2 × 10⁻¹⁴ e¹⁰₈₀⁰/T</td>
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<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>CH₃O + CH₂O → CH₂O + CH₃OH</td>
<td>3.85 × 10⁻¹¹</td>
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<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>CH₃O₂ + CH₃O → Products</td>
<td>2.62 × 10⁻¹²</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

It is important to note that the reaction between water vapor and chlorine is an insignificant (<< 1 %) loss process for either chlorine atoms or water vapor owing to the extremely small rate constant for this reaction \( k_{300K} = 2.03 \times 10^{-23} \) cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹.¹³ Fluorine
would have served as a more efficient initiator, however the F radical reacts very quickly with water and would result in secondary reactions.
Figure 2 shows the main components and layout of the experimental apparatus. Time-resolved detection of HO$_2$ and CH$_3$O$_2$ radicals is made by directing the output from an Xe arc lamp (Oriel 60010) through the reaction cell. The laser photolysis beam path is aligned to pass coaxially with the UV probe path by the use of dielectric mirrors which reflect the 351 nm photolysis beam while passing all other UV wavelengths (with the exclusion of a ± 15 nm band centered around 351 nm). UV light absorption is detected by a monochromator (Instruments SA, Inc. model HR 320, grating 147 line/mm) and photomultiplier tube (EMI 9558QB). The signal is amplified and sent to a digital oscilloscope. The concentration of CH$_3$O$_2$ radicals is measured by monitoring the signal at 260 nm, and HO$_2$ is monitored at 220 nm. These wavelengths are used to distinguish between the two radicals based on their cross-sections shown previously in Figure 1. HO$_2$ absorbs very weakly at 260 nm and so does not interfere significantly with CH$_3$O$_2$ detection. Their cross sections are nearly equal at 220 nm which is why we only monitor HO$_2$ self-reaction as 220 nm.
Figure 2 Schematic of UV system for kinetic measurements
The measurement of the absorbance below 220 nm was considered unsuitable because the quality of the signal fell off sharply due to the response of the PMT and the Xe lamp output. Typically, 400 individual decays from the PMT are co-added and averaged to produce a decay with sufficient S/N. The oscilloscope (Tektronix Model 460A, sampling rate 2 µs/pt and 12 bit resolution) is triggered by a photodetector activated by the laser flash. Transient behavior is recorded for 0.5 ms before photolysis and 4.5 ms after photolysis using a data acquisition rate of 2 µs. This provides appropriate time resolution to monitor the transient behavior of the peroxy radical reactions over a sufficient duration for the chemistry to proceed.

2.2 Water Concentration Measurements

2.2.1 Bubbler

Water vapor is introduced into the reaction cell by N₂ carrier gas passing through a bubbler immersed in a constant temperature bath. The amount of water is controlled by both the temperature of the water and the flow rate of the carrier gas. Three concentrations of water are produced by adjusting the temperature of the water or by adjusting the flow rate of carrier gas.

2.2.2 IR detection of water vapor

TDL IR spectroscopy is used to quantify the water in the cell. Figure 3 shows a schematic of the IR system illustrating the use of separate lock-in amplifiers and detectors for the reaction cell and the reference cell. The water absorbs IR light that is scanned over a narrow frequency band centered at the 1524 cm⁻¹ line such that the entire peak of the selected rovibration transition can be observed. The IR beam is produced by a Pb-salt TDL (Laser Components, Serial #9124263) that is tuned by a current and temperature controller (model L5830) and mounted in an LN₂ dewar (model L5736). The beam passes through a monochromator that determines its IR frequency, ± 1 cm⁻¹. It passes through a beam splitter where a portion of the beam is directed
through a reference cell containing a sample of water vapor (≈ 2 Torr, 10 cm length). The remainder of the beam is directed to the reaction cell. After the signal propagates through the reaction cell, a second monochromator (Instruments SA, Inc. model HR 640, 75 line/mm, 10 µm blaze grating) filters the beam which is then directed to an LN$_2$ cooled HgCdTe detector. The AC coupled detector responds to changes in light intensity and requires additional signal modifications to obtain absolute light intensity measurements. A mechanical chopper, operating at 400 Hz, is placed in the beam path. The resulting AC signal from the IR detector is converted to a low noise, highly stable DC output by a lock-in amplifier (Stanford Research Systems model SR850) that receives a reference signal from the chopper. A function generator (Wavetek model 29) externally ramps the output of the diode laser with a frequency of 0.1 Hz with 500 mV$_{\text{peak to peak}}$. This results in the IR frequency of the diode laser scanning across the water line of interest, covering a range of 0.2 cm$^{-1}$. The beam from the reference cell is focused onto a second HgCdTe detector and its signal is sent to a second lock-in amplifier (Spectra-Physics Model SP5020) which converts the AC signal to a DC output. The output signals for both detectors are recorded synchronously by a digital oscilloscope (Tektronix TDS 460A).
2.2.3 Determination of the cross section of water

A syringe pump delivery system was used to introduce a known amount of water into the reaction cell over total pressures ranging from 50 to 700 Torr. Similar to quantifying methanol, the vapor concentration of water is calculated from the molar concentration using the syringe delivery rate, and the density and molecular weight of water. The flow rate of the carrier gas in standard liters per minute and the temperature and pressure of the mixture in the cell are needed to determine the [H₂O] for the range of conditions covered in this study. [H₂O] is adjusted by changing the syringe delivery rate and/or the carrier gas flow rate. The absorbance is calculated using the signal intensities from the IR scans of a dry cell (I₀) to a wet cell (I) and by using of Beer's Law. The cross section of water can then be then calculated.
\[ \ln \left( \frac{I_0}{I} \right) = A \]  

(31) \[ \sigma = \frac{A}{\ell c} \]  

(32)

where \( A \) is absorption, \( \sigma \) is the cross-section of the absorbing species, \( \ell \) is the path length, and \( c \) is the concentration of the absorber. The signal intensities (\( I \) and \( I_0 \)) were scanned across the absorbance line and the peak cross-section was calculated to be \( 2.0 \pm 0.2 \times 10^{-20} \text{ cm}^2 \) at 200 Torr. The pressure dependent cross-section using the syringe pump system is shown in Figure 4.

Figure 5 shows two measured spectra of water by the bubbler system at 273 and 295 K and indicates that there is no temperature dependence of the cross-section for the range of temperatures examined in this study. Since more water could be introduced with a bubbler (1 - 13 \( \times 10^{16} \) cm\(^{-3} \)), the bubbler was used to generate water vapor instead of the syringe pump for the peroxy radical kinetics experiments. However, the water vapor concentration in the reaction flow cell produced by the bubbler was quantified using the same measurement technique with the IR absorbance measurement at 1524 cm\(^{-1} \) and applying the measured cross section.
Figure 4 Pressure dependent cross-section of water vapor at 1524 cm$^{-1}$. $[\text{H}_2\text{O}]$ is controlled by a syringe pump. Error bars show 10% error in the measured values. Line shown is a linear regression fit.
Figure 5 Water Absorbance of 1524 cm$^{-1}$ light. Water vapor introduced by bubbler at 200 Torr and 273 K (yellow) or 295 K (blue).
CHAPTER 3: RESULTS

3.1 \( HO_2 + HO_2 \)

The instrument and data collection technique was verified by measuring the \( HO_2 \) self-reaction as a function of water vapor and temperature. This reaction is an ideal candidate for calibration because the water vapor and temperature dependence have been previously reported.\(^2\)\(^-\)\(^4\) Figure 6 shows typical \( HO_2 \) radical concentration/time decays in the presence and absence of water.

![Figure 6 HO\(_2\) self-reaction decays. Conditions: 175 Torr, 295 K, 5.3 Torr H\(_2\)O, Dashed lines show 10\% uncertainty in the rate constant (uncertainty combined from calculated rate constants and from instrumental error).](image)
The time/voltage traces collected by the PMT are converted to time/absorbance traces using equation 31, where \( I_0 \) is the averaged pre-trigger signal of each trace. Following this correction, equation 32 is used to calculate \([\text{HO}_2]\) over the time range of interest. This time/concentration information is fit to a computational model that simultaneously solves a series of differential equations that describe the chemistry (Micromath Scientist version 2.01). For the \( \text{HO}_2 \) self-reaction the significant reactions are:

\[
\text{Cl}^- + \text{CH}_3\text{OH} \rightarrow \text{CH}_2\text{OH} + \text{HCl} \quad (28)
\]

\[
\text{CH}_2\text{OH} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{CH}_2\text{O} \quad (29)
\]

\[
\text{HO}_2 + \text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{HOOH} + \text{O}_2 \quad (14)
\]

\[
\text{HO}_2 + \text{HO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{HOOH} + \text{O}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \quad (15)
\]

With the corresponding partial pressures of the reactants and the total pressure and temperature of the reaction cell, the model solves for the rate constant of the \( \text{HO}_2 \) self-reaction. At 295 K and no water, the rate constant was \((3.3 \pm 0.6) \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}\), whereas at 295 K and \(2.9 \times 10^{17}\) molecules \(\text{H}_2\text{O}\) cm\(^{-3}\), it was \((5.2 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}\). Maricq and Szente\(^{15}\) reported the dry self-reaction rate as \((2.2 \pm 0.8) \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}\) at 295 K. This gives a rate enhancement of 1.6\( \pm \)0.1. At 285 K, the largest enhancement factor was observed, which is 1.8\( \pm \)0.1. These results compare favorably with Kircher and Sander who found an enhancement factor of \(~1.8\) at 285 K, 100 Torr, and a similar amount of water vapor.\(^2\) A total of 28 experiments were carried out at temperatures between 263 K and 303 K. The maximum enhancement factor of 1.8\( \pm \)0.1 is seen at 283 K and \(2.7 \times 10^{17}\) molecules \(\text{H}_2\text{O}\) cm\(^{-3}\). The enhancement was observed to be in the range of 0.9-1.8. Figure 7 shows the observed rate enhancement as a function of water vapor concentration for the various temperatures of the
reaction cell. Table 2 lists absolute rate constants determined in this study over the temperature and water vapor ranges.

Figure 7 Enhancement ($k_{	ext{wet}}/k_{	ext{dry}}$) for HO$_2$ self-reaction rates performed at ~200 Torr and the specified temperature. Error was calculated from the uncertainties in the rate constants.
Table 2 Absolute rate constants for HO₂ self-reaction with and without water over the temperature and water vapor ranges. Total pressure was around 200 Torr. Overall uncertainty in the rate constants is 10% from the kinetics model and instrumental sources.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TEMP (K)</th>
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<th>LOW WATER</th>
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<td>$k_{wet} \times 10^{-12}$ (cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>263</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2 CH₃O₂ + CH₃O₂

If the kinetics of the CH₃O₂ self-reaction showed water vapor dependence, it would likely be due to the formation of a CH₃O₂-H₂O complex during the reaction process, similar to the HO₂ self-reaction. Information about the probability of the formation of a CH₃O₂-H₂O complex including its binding energy, minimum energy structure and equilibrium constant was reported in the study by Clark, et al.¹¹ Due to the relatively weak binding energy of the CH₃O₂-H₂O complex (3.2 kcal mol⁻¹) and subsequent small equilibrium constant (1.54 × 10⁻²¹ cm³ molecule⁻¹), it is unlikely that a sufficient concentration of the complex exists under atmospheric conditions. Using this $K_{eq}$ and the water concentrations used in this study, the atmospheric abundance of the theoretical CH₃O₂-H₂O complex compared to the un-complexed CH₃O₂ complex can be calculated. Equation 33 gives the ratio.

$$K_{eq}[H_2O] = \frac{[RO_2 - H_2O]}{[RO_2]}$$

Using the three concentrations of H₂O at 295 K used in this study, the predicted fraction of the CH₃O₂-H₂O complex relative to the un-complexed is 0.02 - 0.05 %. The Kanno⁴ equilibrium constant ($K_{eq} = (5.2\pm3.2) \times 10^{-19}$ cm³ molecule⁻¹ at 293 K) predicts 7.8-15% HO₂-H₂O complexed under the conditions of our study.
Experimental determination for the lack of a water dependence on the CH$_3$O$_2$ self-reaction rate coefficient confirmed the theoretical work of Clark et al. The CH$_3$O$_2$ self-reaction rate coefficient in the presence of water vapor was measured using the same instrument/technique described previously. Figure 8 shows the time decays of CH$_3$O$_2$ in the absence and presence of water vapor at 295K.

The chemistry of CH$_3$O$_2$ is much more involved than HO$_2$. Below are the reactions used to model the decay of CH$_3$O$_2$:
Primary Reactions

\[
\text{Cl} \cdot + \text{CH}_4 \rightarrow \text{CH}_3 + \text{HCl} \quad (29)
\]

\[
\text{CH}_3 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{O}_2 \quad (30)
\]

\[
\text{CH}_3\text{O}_2 + \text{CH}_3\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{Products} \quad (21)
\]

\[
\text{CH}_3\text{O}_2 + \text{CH}_3\text{O}_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{Products} \quad (22)
\]

Competing Reactions

\[
\text{Cl}_2 + \text{CH}_3 \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{Cl} + \text{Cl} \quad (34)
\]

\[
\text{Cl} \cdot + \text{CH}_3 \rightarrow \text{CH}_2 + \text{HCl} \quad (35)
\]

\[
\text{CH}_3 + \text{CH}_3 \rightarrow \text{Products} \quad (36)
\]

\[
\text{Cl} \cdot + \text{CH}_3\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{O} + \text{ClO} \quad (37a)
\]

\[
\rightarrow \text{CH}_2\text{OO} + \text{HCl} \quad (37b)
\]

\[
\text{ClO} + \text{CH}_3 \rightarrow \text{Products} \quad (38)
\]

\[
\text{ClO} + \text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{HOCl} \quad (39)
\]

\[
\text{ClO} + \text{CH}_3\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{O} + \text{ClOO} \quad (40)
\]

\[
\text{ClO} + \text{ClO} \rightarrow \text{Products} \quad (41)
\]

Secondary Reactions

\[
\text{CH}_3\text{O} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_2\text{O} + \text{HO}_2 \quad (42)
\]

\[
\text{CH}_3\text{O} + \text{CH}_3\text{O} \rightarrow \text{CH}_2\text{O} + \text{CH}_3\text{OH} \quad (43)
\]

\[
\text{HO}_2 + \text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{HOOH} \quad (14)
\]

\[
\text{HO}_2 + \text{CH}_3\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{OOH} + \text{O}_2 \quad (23)
\]

\[
\text{CH}_3\text{O}_2 + \text{CH}_3\text{O} \rightarrow \text{Products} \quad (44)
\]
Species in reactions 34–36 remove CH₃, but have little affect on the kinetics due to the abundance of O₂ in the reaction cell. Unlike the rapid formation of HO₂, CH₃O₂ forms slowly leaving enough Cl atoms to react with the peroxo radical and form ClO (reaction 37a). Approximately 3–4 % of Cl radicals are converted to ClO based on the rate of formation of CH₃O₂. Once formed, ClO has little effect on the decay of CH₃O₂ due to very slow reactions with other species (reactions 38–41). Consequently, the ClO has a long lifetime in the cell. With a cross-section (~5 × 10⁻¹₈ cm²) nearly twice that of CH₃O₂ at 260nm, the ClO absorbance superimposes on the CH₃O₂ absorbance measured by the PMT. Because ClO absorbs across the entire region of the methyl peroxy spectrum, the detection wavelength cannot be shifted to avoid its contribution to the absorbance. Because of this interference, it is necessary to correct the measured absorbance for the ClO presence. The effect of the correction is less than 10 % on the absorbance used in the model. Oxidation of the methoxy radical (CH₃O) produces HO₂ which influences the kinetics of the CH₃O₂ peroxy radical (reaction 23).

At 295 K, k₂₁ was (5.7±0.2) × 10⁻¹₃ cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ and at [H₂O] = 2.9 × 10¹⁷ molecules cm⁻³ k₂₂ was (5.3±0.2) × 10⁻¹₃ cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹. Even with the maximum amount of water vapor, the observed decay appears to not be perturbed, as predicted by the Kₑq calculated by Clark, et al. Atkinson et al. reported the self-reaction rate as 1.1 × 10⁻¹³ e^(365±201)/T which is (1.9 – 7.5) × 10⁻¹₃ cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ at 295 K. A total of 21 experiments were carried out at temperatures between 263 K and 303 K. The maximum enhancement factor of 1.2±0.1 is seen at 263 K and 6.7 × 10¹⁶ molecules cm⁻³, however, the enhancement typically was observed to be in the range of 0.9-1.2. Figure 9 shows the observed rate enhancement as a function of water vapor
concentration for the various temperatures of the reaction cell. Table 3 lists absolute rate constants determined in this study over the temperature and water vapor ranges.

![Figure 9: CH₃O₂ Self-Reaction Rate Enhancement Factor vs. Water Vapor Concentration](image)

**Figure 9** Enhancement ($k_{wet}/k_{dry}$) for CH₃O₂ self-reaction rates performed at ~200 Torr and the specified temperature. Error was calculated from the uncertainties in the rate constants.
Table 3 Absolute rate constants for CH$_3$O$_2$ self–reaction with and without water over the temperature and water vapor ranges. Total pressure was around 200 Torr. Overall uncertainty in the rate constants is 10% from the kinetics model and instrumental sources.

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3.3 CH$_3$O$_2$ + HO$_2$

Measurement of the CH$_3$O$_2$ + HO$_2$ reaction rate coefficient as a function of water vapor and temperature does not show any enhancement over the conditions probed. Figure 10 shows the decay of CH$_3$O$_2$ under conditions in which there is almost equal concentrations of HO$_2$ and CH$_3$O$_2$ in the reaction cell. The reaction has been run in the absence and presence of water vapor. For comparison purposes, the [HO$_2$] was kept constant for these two runs. At 295 K, $k_{23}$ was (4.6- 9.5) $\times 10^{-12}$ cm$^3$ molecule$^{-1}$ s$^{-1}$ and $k_{24}$ was (4.7 - 9.6) $\times 10^{-12}$ cm$^3$ molecule$^{-1}$ s$^{-1}$ each with 5% uncertainty. Atkinson reported the self-reaction rate as $3.8 \times 10^{-13} \frac{e^{(800\pm400)/T}}{T}$ cm$^3$ s$^{-1}$ which at 295 K falls between 1.5 - 22 $\times 10^{-12}$ cm$^3$ molecule$^{-1}$ s$^{-1}$.
Figure 10 CH$_3$O$_2$ + HO$_2$ reaction decays. Conditions: 250 Torr, 295 K, 8 Torr H$_2$O, Dashed lines show 10% uncertainty in the rate constant (uncertainty combined from calculated rate constants and from instrumental error). About 7-15% of HO$_2$ is complexed with water.

With a significant [HO$_2$] in the cell, the chemistry becomes more competitive and complex. Below are the reactions used to model the decay of CH$_3$O$_2$ when HO$_2$ is present:

Primary Reactions

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Cl}^\cdot + \text{CH}_3\text{OH} & \rightarrow \text{CH}_2\text{OH} + \text{HCl} \\
\text{CH}_2\text{OH} + \text{O}_2 & \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{CH}_2\text{O} \\
\text{HO}_2 + \text{HO}_2 & \rightarrow \text{HOOH} + \text{O}_2 \\
\text{HO}_2 + \text{HO}_2\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O} & \rightarrow \text{HOOH} + \text{O}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}
\end{align*}
\]
Cl· + CH₄ → CH₃ + HCl  \hspace{1cm} (29)

CH₃ + O₂ → CH₃O₂ \hspace{1cm} (30)

CH₃O₂ + CH₃O₂ → Products \hspace{1cm} (21)

HO₂ + CH₃O₂ → CH₃OOH + O₂ \hspace{1cm} (23)

Competing Reactions

Cl₂ + CH₃ → CH₃Cl + Cl  \hspace{1cm} (34)

Cl· + CH₃ → CH₂ + HCl \hspace{1cm} (35)

CH₃ + CH₃ → Products \hspace{1cm} (36)

Cl· + CH₃O₂ → CH₃O + ClO \hspace{1cm} (37a)

→ CH₂OO + HCl \hspace{1cm} (37b)

ClO + CH₃ → Products \hspace{1cm} (38)

ClO + HO₂ → HO₂ + HOCl \hspace{1cm} (39)

ClO + CH₃O₂ → CH₃O + ClOO \hspace{1cm} (40)

ClO + ClO → Products \hspace{1cm} (41)

Secondary Reactions

CH₃O + O₂ → CH₂O + HO₂ \hspace{1cm} (42)

CH₃O + CH₃O → CH₂O + CH₃OH \hspace{1cm} (43)

CH₃O₂ + CH₃O → Products \hspace{1cm} (44)

Because of the CH₃OH presence in the cross-reaction, the [Cl] diminishes more quickly than it does in the CH₃O₂ self-reaction. Therefore, ClO cannot form in significant amounts due to
lack of available Cl radical, and it is unnecessary to correct the measured absorbance for the ClO presence taken at 260 nm.

A total of 26 experiments were carried out at temperatures between 263 and 303 K. The maximum enhancement factor of 1.2±0.1 is seen at 283 K and $2.7 \times 10^{17}$ molecules H$_2$O cm$^{-3}$, however, the enhancement typically was observed to be in the range of 0.9-1.2. The enhancement factor is always calculated from reactions run consecutively and under the same conditions varying only the water presence or absence. Figure 11 shows the observed enhancement as a function of water vapor concentration for the various temperatures of the reaction cell. Table 4 lists absolute rate constants determined in this study over the temperature and water vapor ranges.
Figure 11 Enhancement ($k_{wet}/k_{dry}$) for CH$_3$O$_2$ + HO$_2$ reaction rates performed at ~200 Torr and the specified temperature. Error was calculated from the uncertainties in the rate constants.
Table 4 Absolute rate constants for CH$_3$O$_2$ + HO$_2$ reaction with and without water over the temperature and water vapor ranges. Total pressure was around 200 Torr. Overall uncertainty in the rate constants is 10% from the kinetics model and instrumental sources.

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<tr>
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<td>$k_{wet} \times 10^{-12}$ (cm$^3$ molecule$^{-1}$s$^{-1}$)</td>
<td>$k_{dry} \times 10^{-12}$ (cm$^3$ molecule$^{-1}$s$^{-1}$)</td>
<td>$k_{wet} \times 10^{-12}$ (cm$^3$ molecule$^{-1}$s$^{-1}$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>303</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>295</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>283</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>273</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>263</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4 Enhancement comparison for the three peroxy reactions of interest

Figures 12–14 show the rate enhancements of all three reactions at the various conditions of water vapor and temperature. The enhancement is consistently higher for the HO$_2$ self-reaction than the other reactions. None of the reactions showed enhancements at 263 K probably due the low concentration of water as a consequence of the saturation vapor pressure of water at that temperature.
Rate constant enhancement due to water complex

High Water Setting

![Graph showing rate constant enhancement with temperature for different reactions.]

Figure 12 Comparison of reaction rate enhancement for the three reactions of interest at high concentration of water vapor. Reaction cell temperature is varied while the bubbler temperature and flow are constant. Bubbler at 25 C with ~3 SLPM N₂ flowing through.

Medium Water Setting

![Graph showing rate constant enhancement with temperature for different reactions.]

Figure 13 Comparison of reaction rate enhancement for the three reactions of interest at medium concentration of water vapor. Reaction cell temperature is varied while the bubbler temperature and flow are constant. Bubbler at 19 C with ~3 SLPM N₂ flowing through.
3.5 Error Analysis

3.5.1 Experimental Measurements

Sources of uncertainty include the total pressure of the reaction cell from averaging the readings at the ends of the cell (±2%) and from the MKS pressure gauges which have an accuracy better than ±1%; K-type thermocouples measured the temperature at the ends of the cell and showed a gradient of 2%; uncertainty in the partial pressures of the gases is due to the measured flow rates (±2%) and the pressure gauges. Typically, 400 averages of the transient trace from the PMT was done to improve the S/N, but this also eliminates issues related to laser energy variation (<5%) which contributes to uncertainty in the [Cl]₀; Chopper accuracy of ±1mV (0.25%). This results in a 5% error in the rate constants from instrumental error.
Uncertainty in the measured cross section of water was 10% due to the accuracy of the syringe pump and the pressure gauges. When using the bubbler, the bath temperature could be controlled within 1 K. This results in a water vapor concentration uncertainty of ±10%.

3.5.2 Kinetics Model

The kinetics model uses a Jacobian Matrix to calculate the uncertainty in the calculated rate constants. Uncertainty is the 95% confidence level or two standard deviations from the value that was fitted from the individual absorbance decays collected. Referenced rate constant values were used in the model without any adjustments. The small uncertainties in the precursor gases did not affect the predictions of the model. A 5% uncertainty is attributed to the fit process of the rate constants giving an overall uncertainty of 10%. The uncertainty of the enhancement factor \( \frac{k_{\text{wet}}}{k_{\text{dry}}} \) shown is from the sum of the fractional uncertainties in the calculated rate constants.
CHAPTER 4: CONCLUSION

Clark et al. also calculated the potential energy surface (PES) of the CH$_3$O$_2$ + HO$_2$ and CH$_3$O$_2$ + HO$_2$·H$_2$O on the triplet surface. To explain the rate enhancement seen for the HO$_2$-H$_2$O complex and the lack of rate enhancement for the other reactions, we examine the transition states from reactants to products. These radical-radical reactions occur when they are in close proximity so that they can form a closed shell species from their unpaired electrons. The transition state requires a collision from a third body to absorb the excess energy to prevent the activated complex from vibrating back to reactants. Once that excess energy is acquired by the third body (such as N$_2$), the activated complex reaches a minimum energy. Products will be more easily formed because of the reduction in transition state energy.

As mentioned previously, when water is part of the activated complex, it forms a complex with an HO$_2$ molecule. The enhancement of the self-reaction of HO$_2$ may be due to two factors. First, the water may be acting as an energy chaperone much like a third body except there is no delay for collisional frequency which must occur within the finite time before the transition state returns to reactants. In the case of the HO$_2$-H$_2$O complex, the "third body" is bound to the activated complex by 6.9 kcal mol$^{-1}$. Second, the most efficient third body will mode match the activated complex which means it will have similar bonds that will more efficiently transfer energy. The OH stretch of HO$_2$ and H$_2$O couples easily because the frequencies (~3000 cm$^{-1}$) are similar.

Under the conditions probed, the CH$_3$O$_2$ self-reaction rate constant does not appear to be perturbed in the presence of water vapor. This is expected because of the inability of CH$_3$O$_2$ to form a complex with water as a consequence of the small binding energy. A larger binding energy indicates a larger K$_{eq}$ which results in more RO$_2$-H$_2$O forming. Fewer CH$_3$O$_2$-H$_2$O
complexes form than HO$_2$-H$_2$O because of the smaller binding energy of CH$_3$O$_2$-H$_2$O (3.2 kcal mol$^{-1}$).\textsuperscript{11} Not only are a smaller number of complexes formed, but there is inefficient coupling (mode matching) because of the dissimilar bonds and frequencies of those bonds in CH$_3$O$_2$ (C-H, C-O, O-O) and H$_2$O (O-H stretch, H-O-H bend). For the self-reaction of CH$_3$O$_2$ and the cross-reaction of CH$_3$O$_2$ + HO$_2$, we therefore would not expect rate enhancement from the water complex with CH$_3$O$_2$.

Kinetic studies on the cross-reaction between HO$_2$ and CH$_3$O$_2$ radicals indicate that the reaction rate constant is not enhanced by water vapor under the conditions probed. In this work, the cross-reaction has 7-15 % of the HO$_2$ complexed with water. We should be able to see an enhancement since the water is strongly bound to the HO$_2$ and because the water can mode match with HO$_2$. However, inefficient coupling occurs because of the steric hindrance from the methyl group. The water is distanced from the HO$_2$ such that it cannot efficiently transfer energy from the O-H stretch occurring as the activated complex is forming. Figures 15 and 16 show the calculated PES by Clark et al. of the cross-reaction with and without the HO$_2$-H$_2$O complex.
Figure 15 Potential energy surface of CH$_3$O$_2$ + HO$_2$ as calculated by Clark et al.

Figure 16 Potential energy surface of CH$_3$O$_2$ + HO$_2$–H$_2$O as calculated by Clark et al.
Studying other carbonyl and alcohol moieties of peroxy radicals, which Clark et al. has shown to have stronger binding energies, may show rate enhancements due to the formation of a water complex along with efficient coupling.

While the presence of water needs to be accounted for in HO$_2$ atmospheric chemistry, the effect on CH$_3$O$_2$ is small at best. Modeling provides information on many types of pollution and its sources (i.e., O$_3$ production, acid rain). Understanding the changes water causes in rate constants for other RO$_2$ chemistry will lead to more accurate modeling and a better understanding of the complexity of the atmosphere.
REFERENCES


