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Time-Resolved, Quantitative Measurement of OH, HO₂ and CH₂O in Fuel Oxidation Reactions by High Resolution IR Absorption Spectroscopy

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Abstract

Combined with a Herriott-type multi-pass slow flow reactor, high-resolution differential direct absorption spectroscopy has been used to probe, *in situ* and quantitatively, hydroxyl (OH), hydroperoxy (HO₂) and formaldehyde (CH₂O) molecules in fuel oxidation reactions in the reactor, with a time resolution of about 1 micro-second. While OH and CH₂O are probed in the mid-infrared (MIR) region near 2870nm and 3574nm respectively, HO₂ can be probed in both regions: near-infrared (NIR) at 1509nm and MIR at 2870nm. Typical sensitivities are on the order of 10¹⁰ – 10¹¹ molecule cm⁻³ for OH at 2870nm, 10¹¹ molecule cm⁻³ for HO₂ at 1509nm, and 10¹¹ molecule cm⁻³ for CH₂O at 3574nm. Measurements of multiple important intermediates (OH and HO₂) and product (CH₂O) facilitate to understand and further validate chemical mechanisms of fuel oxidation chemistry.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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1. Introduction

Low-temperature hydrocarbon fuel oxidation process is complex. It happens through a reaction network involving a large number of species [1]. For example, one detailed chemical kinetics model of a C4 fuel molecule, *n*-butane, includes 176 different species and 1111 reactions [2]. On the other hand, low temperature autoignition chemistry [3] is critical to the development of next-generation internal combustion engines, e.g. HCCI engine [4] in which ignition timing is controlled solely by the autoignition chemistry of fuel molecules. The general scheme of low temperature hydrocarbon oxidation and autoignition chemistry [3] is summarized in Figure 1.

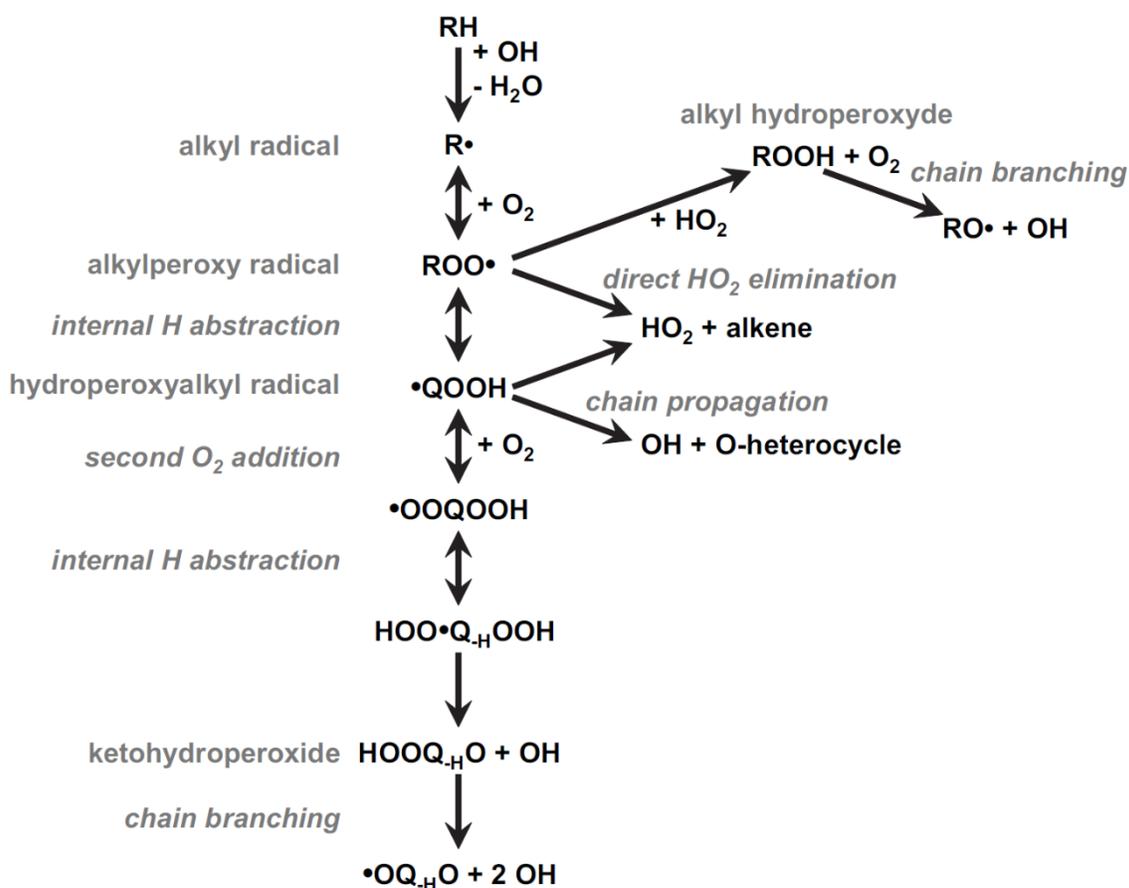


Figure 1. Schematic mechanism for low-temperature hydrocarbon oxidation and autoignition chemistry [3]

Because of the importance, scientists have spent tremendous efforts to understand the detailed chemical mechanisms of fuel autoignition both experimentally and theoretically. While detailed chemical mechanisms can be developed by powerful quantum chemistry calculations,

quantitative measurements of transient time profiles of important intermediates and products in fuel oxidation reactions are fundamental in both exploring and further validating those chemical mechanisms. In the laser chemistry lab at Combustion Research Facility at Sandia, we use laser flash photolysis [5, 6], slow flow reactor to study low-temperature ($< 800\text{K}$) and low-pressure ($< 100\text{Torr}$) fuel oxidation chemistry [7]. High-resolution IR spectroscopic tools have been used to probe the time behavior of important intermediates and products in fuel oxidation reactions *in situ*.

In hydrocarbon fuel oxidation chemistry, one of the most important molecules is hydroxyl (OH) radical because it is the major chain propagator in fuel-oxidation process [1, 3]. Previously [8], we have probed trace OH in the reactor by using the strong $X \rightarrow A$ electronic transitions near 308nm [9]. The OH absorption lines in this region are well separated, with minimal interference, and have very large absorption cross-sections (on the order of 10^{-16} cm^2) [9]. These lines are widely used in OH detection. In our lab, the OH detection limit using a continuous wave (cw) 308nm uv laser is on the order of $10^9 \text{ molecule cm}^{-3}$ or even better.

Although the sensitivity is high when probing OH at 308nm, the uv probe laser can cause unwanted side reactions, which makes it very hard to quantitatively simulate recorded data. In our experiments, either molecular chlorine (Cl_2) [10] or oxalyl chloride (OxCl) [11] is used as the initial radical precursor by photolysis of them with 355nm or 266nm laser respectively. On the other hand, both Cl_2 and OxCl absorb 308nm light with significant cross sections ($2 \times 10^{-19} \text{ cm}^2$ for Cl_2 and $7 \times 10^{-20} \text{ cm}^2$ for OxCl) [10, 11], which will generate a reaction background in the column of gas defined by the diameter of the probe uv laser beam before photolysis pulses arrive. When the studied chemistry is triggered by a photolysis pulse, the pre-existing reaction background, which includes a distribution of radicals and products, will be entangled with the studied chemistry. Although diffusion process can reduce the interference from the background reactions, this entanglement makes data simulation complicated because of the difficulty in determining the initial reaction conditions at the time spot of photolysis trigger. More importantly, several very important intermediates in fuel oxidation chemistry such as alkylperoxy (RO_2) [12], OOQOOH (hydroperoxyalkyl radical QOOH after second O_2 addition) absorb 308nm light, which will dissociate them and possibly change their chemistry. Some fuel

molecules, such as *tert*-butyl hydroperoxide (TBHP), have small absorption cross-section at 308nm (about 2×10^{-21} cm²) which can dissociate the fuel molecule [13]. One apparent solution for the above difficulties is to use a cw 308nm probe laser as weak as possible, e.g. less than 0.5mW. In this way, the side effects caused by the probe laser can be reduced down to an unimportant level. Such low power leads to a technical disadvantage, making laser alignment in a multi-pass configuration difficult.

To avoid all the above issues, we have adopted another solution: use a MIR cw laser to probe OH radical with its vibrational fundamental transitions [14]. The laser source we used is our narrow linewidth (< 50 kHz) cw-OPO laser system (LINOS OS4000). The absorption cross-section of OH in this region is around 10^{-18} cm², two orders of magnitude less than that in the uv region. The sensitivity realized in this configuration is on the order of $10^{10} - 10^{11}$ molecule cm⁻³, meeting the detection limit requirement for the studies on most combustion-relevant fuel molecules. The advantages of probing interesting intermediates in the MIR region are multifaceted. First, a MIR laser is non-intrusive when compared with a uv laser due to the lower photon energy and avoidance of electronic excitation. Second, many organic molecules have “fingerprint” absorption features in the MIR region [14], making it possible to probe multiple species in fuel oxidation reactions by a single cw-OPO laser. Third, our cw-OPO is much more user friendly than our 308nm uv laser, which is obtained from frequency doubling of a cw ring dye laser (Coherent 699).

Hydroperoxy (HO₂) radical generation is a chain-termination step in low-temperature autoignition chemistry (see Figure 1), which is a very important indicator of autoignition property of specific fuel molecules. In our laser chemistry lab, sensitive HO₂ detection based on two-tone frequency modulation (FM) spectroscopy in the NIR region [15] has been developed many years ago. The purpose of using FM spectroscopy is to remove the interference of thermal lensing noise from chemical reactions from the HO₂ absorption signal. In our recent experiments, we have found that thermal lensing noise and other common noise in data traces are greatly removed by subtracting an off absorption peak trace from an on-peak absorption time signal (see below for more details). Therefore, we have changed the detection method from two-tone FM to differential direct absorption spectroscopy, which reduces the complexity of our apparatus. The

absorption transitions we have used for HO₂ probe include: X→A electronic transitions near 1429nm [16], first overtone transitions of OH stretch (2ν₁ band) at 1509nm [17, 18], and fundamental transitions of OH stretch (ν₁ band) at 2870nm [14]. For HO₂ molecule, the strong transitions in all three regions have similar line intensity. The two NIR regions can be reached by our external cavity diode laser (ECDL, New Focus, Velocity), and the cw-OPO laser can reach the ν₁ band of HO₂. Because the ECDL is much easier to use than the cw-OPO laser, we probe HO₂ molecule at 1509nm.

Another interesting molecule is formaldehyde (CH₂O). In low-temperature autoignition chemistry, it is a signature product of some important reaction channels [19-21]. The high resolution IR spectrum of CH₂O is well known [22]. We probe CH₂O molecule at the wavelength of 3574nm.

For OH detection, the line intensity [23-25] and pressure broadening coefficients by helium or oxygen [26] of the probed transition have been measured accurately. However, this is not the case for HO₂ and CH₂O detection. Fortunately, methanol (CH₃OH) oxidation system is a perfect reference system [15] for both HO₂ and CH₂O because it has a conversion efficiency from initial radical, i.e. Cl atom, to HO₂ (or CH₂O) very close to one through reactions:



From (R2) reaction we can see the yield of HO₂ is the same as CH₂O. Therefore, in our experiments, the measured HO₂ or CH₂O signal is normalized to that of the methanol oxidation system.

2. Details of the Experimental Setup

Figure 2 is a schematic diagram of our setup. Many details about this temperature controllable, slow laminar flow reactor can be found in previous publications from this group [15, 27]. The Cl-initiated oxidation chemistry in the gas mixture of fuel/O₂/buffer helium/Cl₂ (or OxCl) is triggered by either 355nm or 266nm photolysis laser pulse which passes the center line of the reactor. The photolysis laser is first collimated and expanded by a telescope, and then shaped down to 13mm diameter by an iris before it enters the cell. The probe IR laser beam is coupled to the reactor in off-axis angle and makes a Herriott-type multi-pass configuration [28] by using two spherical mirrors in the reactor, which has a near concentric design. The total number of passes is 25. The cylindrical photolysis column, within which the chemical reactions occur, intersects with the multi-pass probe laser beam near the center of the reactor. The absorption length of probed intermediates is defined as the total length of the probe laser beam overlapping with the photolysis column. Typical absorption length is about 15m.

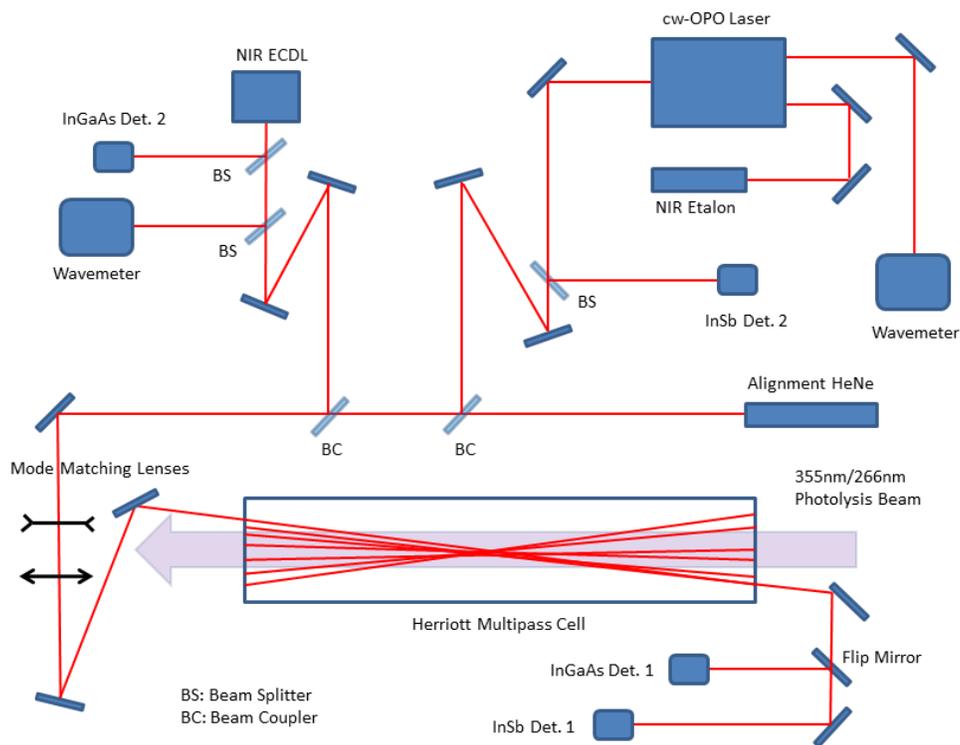


Figure 2. Schematic diagram of the experimental setup

A HeNe laser is used to alignment both IR lasers. After two different beam combiners, both NIR and MIR probe laser beams overlap with the HeNe laser beam very well in a distance of more than 5 meters, which makes the divergence between the two IR probe laser beams and the HeNe negligible even after long distance ($150\text{cm} \times 25$) travel in the multi-pass cell. Figure 3 is a picture of the setup.

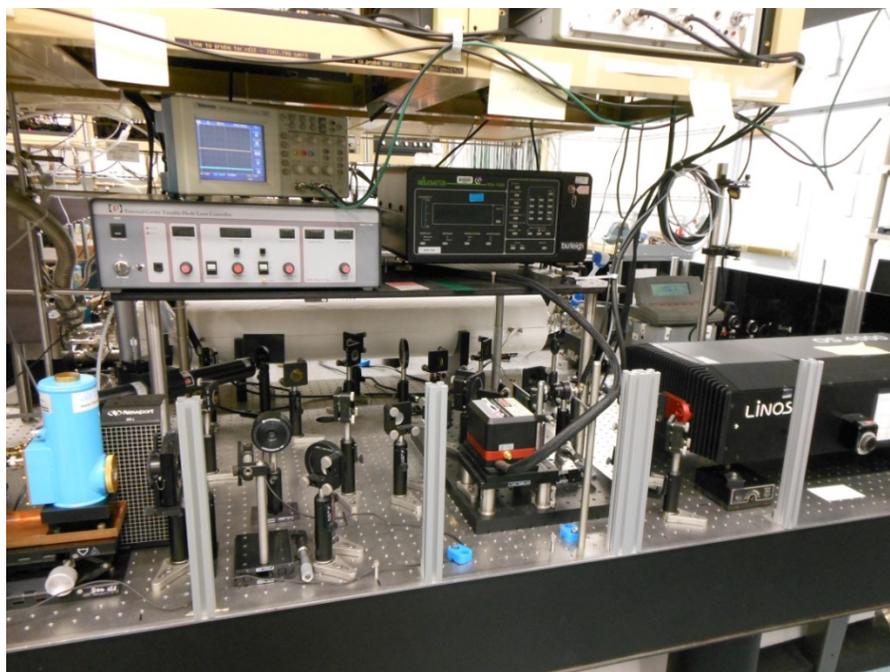


Figure 3. Picture of the setup. The white horizontal column in the back is the temperature controllable flow reactor.

Both probe lasers are coupled to the Herriott multi-pass cell [28] after mode matching. After the NIR ECDL output, two beam splitters are used to extract two new beams. One is detected by an InGaAs photodiode and the signal is used as the reference for the differential absorption measurement. A continuously adjustable neutral density attenuator is used to control this reference signal level. The other laser beam is directed to a wavemeter (Burleigh WA-1500) for simultaneous monitoring of the laser wavelength. The cw-OPO laser has two idler beam outputs. One is used as the probe laser beam and the other is coupled to another Burleigh WA-1500 wavemeter for wavelength monitoring. The signal beam (NIR) of the cw-OPO is coupled to a NIR etalon which has a free spectral range (FSR) of 1.5GHz and a resolution of about 10MHz. Figure 4 is a picture of the NIR etalon. The purpose of the etalon is to monitor if the cw-OPO

runs at single longitudinal mode. If the cw-OPO runs at multiple mode conditions, first, the laser intensity will be very noisy because of mode competition; second, the measured absorption signal will not reflect true chemistry because different laser modes probe different parts of the absorption features. Similar to the NIR ECDL, a reference beam is extracted by a beam splitter and measured by a liquid-nitrogen-cooled InSb detector. The reference signal level is controlled by another continuously adjustable attenuator.

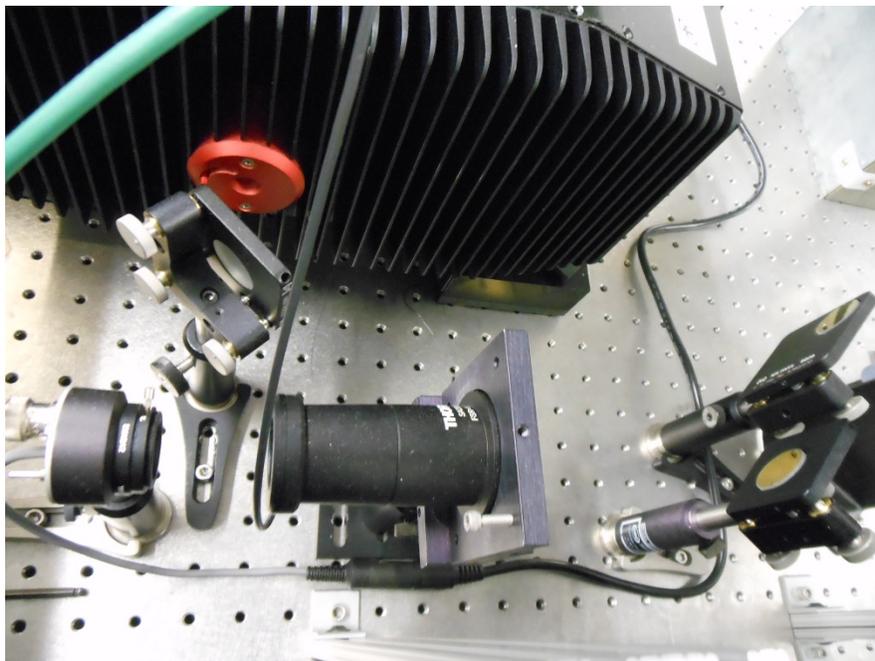


Figure 4. NIR etalon used to monitor single mode running of the cw-OPO laser

Figure 5 is a picture of the optics after the output of the Herriott cell. After the output of the Herriott cell, the two probe laser beams are detected by one InGaAs photodiode and another liquid-nitrogen-cooled InSb detector respectively. A flip mirror is used to direct the NIR probe beam to the InGaAs detector if HO_2 is measured. When OH or CH_2O are measured, the flip mirror will be put down. A continuous turning wheel attenuator is used to adjust the signal level of both detectors. In measurements, the detector signal containing absorption information, either NIR or MIR, and the corresponding reference signal are connected to the two inputs of a differential amplifier (SRS SR560) for the amplification of absorption signal.

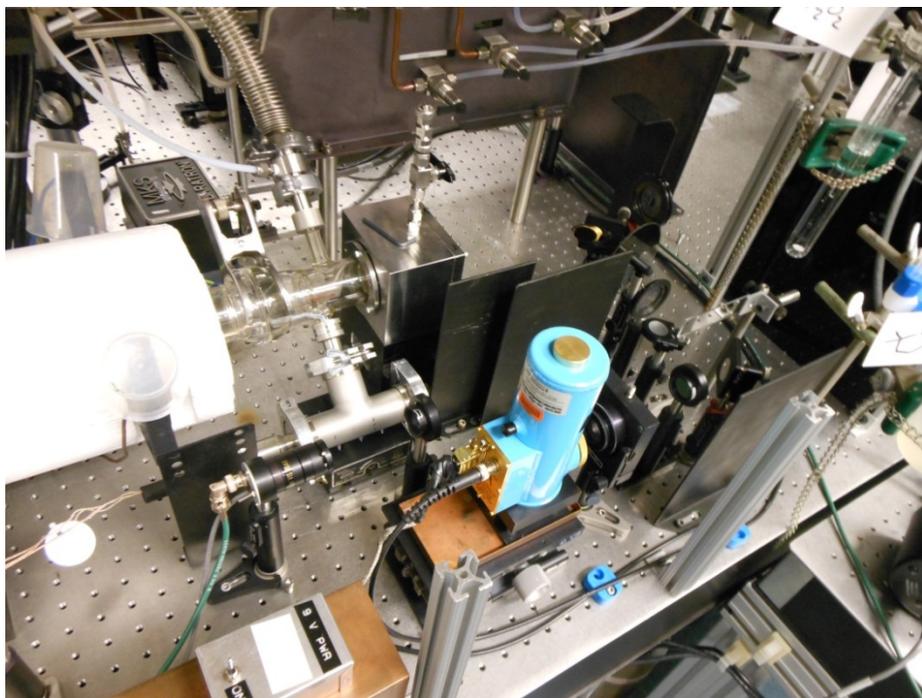


Figure 5. Detection zone after the output of the Herriott cell

3. Mass Flow Controller (MFC) Calibration

In our measurements, we want the initial concentrations of different gas components in the reactor as accurate as possible. We use calibrated mass flow controllers (MFC) to control the flow rates of different gas flows such as buffer helium, oxygen, helium for fuel bubbler, pure fuel gases, helium for methanol bubbler and helium for OxCl bubbler. We have found that the calibration of MFCs by the manufacturer only lasts certain period of time, e.g. 1 year or less, after which the gas correction factor of a MFC drifts away from calibrated values. We have also found that the drifted gas correction factor of a MFC is stable for very long time (several years) when it is fully warmed up and no adjustments such as zero point or servo loop gain have been made. As one can see from the plots below, even for a freshly calibrated MFC, its gas correction factor is substantially off from the normal value if the flow rate is set below 1/10 of its full scale range. However, our measurements often need a broad range of gas flow rates with a single MFC. For all those, we have developed a new method of MFC calibration which leads to calibrations stable for years.

We use a freshly calibrated MFC for oxygen flow as the standard. Its full scale flow rate is 1000sccm. The gas correction factor for oxygen is 0.993, very close to 1.0 (MKS Instruments). We found this gas correction factor is very stable in the range from 500sccm to 900sccm. In our calibration process, we first pumped down the cell. Then we set a flow rate in the above range with pure oxygen flow. What we measured is the pressure increase in the cell in a certain period of time, e.g. 5 min. Then we calculated the cell pressure increase in unit time and of unit flow rate. We have performed this measurement many times during several years and the results are very close to the value 0.18 Torr/min/sccm. If we assume the gas factor 0.993 is correct, then the total volume of the reactor (including the tubing volume) is $760 \times 0.993 / 0.18 = 4193 \text{ cm}^3$. We have measured this pressure increase per unit time and unit sccm for all MFCs in a very broad range of flow rates and scaled this pressure increase to the stable value 0.18 Torr/min/sccm of oxygen. This ratio is equal to the gas correction factor of specific flow conditions (specific MFC, flow rate setting and gas type) if we approximate the gas factor of oxygen to be 1.0. Figure 6 is a calibration for buffer helium flow. The MFC has a full scale flow of 5000sccm. As shown in the plot, the gas correction factor for flows below 1000sccm setting is much larger than 1.52 at large flows. We have fitted the measured gas correction factors to the equation $1.52 + 369/x - 1.08E-5$

x with x the flow rate setting. The fractional error of the fitting in the whole range is less than $\pm 5\%$, as shown in the upper right corner of Figure 6. Similar calibrations for other MFCs are summarized in Appendix A.

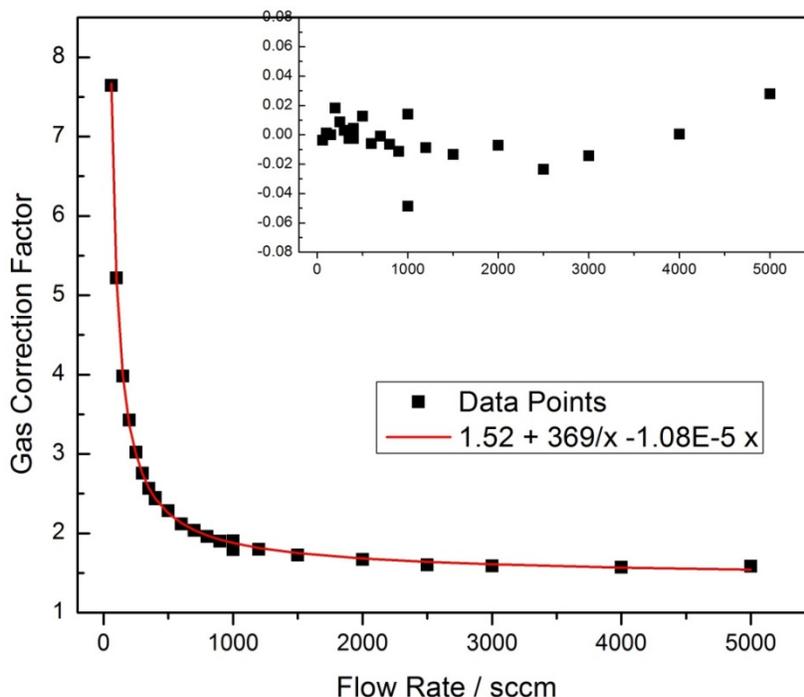


Figure 6. Gas correction factor calibration of a 5000sccm MFC for buffer helium gas flow

Table 1 summarizes the calibrations for different MFCs. We have tested how accurate this calibration method by measuring the concentration of Cl_2 in the reactor with the cw 308nm uv laser. The absorption cross section of Cl_2 at 308nm has been determined accurately [10]. The measured Cl_2 concentration agrees with the calculated one from flow conditions to accuracy of 5-10%.

The fitted polynomials are used in the Excel worksheet for the design of experimental conditions. Figure 7-1 is the worksheet part for designing the initial concentrations of different gases. With all the fitted polynomials, it is very convenient to change flow rates to reach the preferred initial concentrations. With designed flow rates, the photolysis rate is set to a value with which the reactor has enough time to be refreshed totally when next photolysis pulse

arrives. Figure 7-2 is an image of the worksheet part calculating the peak absorption cross section of OH, which will be explained in detail in next section.

Table 1. Summary of calibrations of gas correction factor for different MFCs

Gas Lines	MFC Full Scale (sccm)	Calibrated Flow Range (sccm)	Gas Correction Factor Calibration	Precision and Note
Buffer helium	5000	60 - 4999	$1.52 + 369/x - 1.08E-5 x$	+/- 3%
Fuel bubbler helium	2000	80 - 1500	$1.44 - 49.5/x + 1.19E-5 x$	+/- 4%
OxCl bubbler helium	20	4 - 19.9	$1.24 + 9.58E-2/x - 1.84E-3 x$	+/- 1%
CH ₃ OH bubbler helium	500	5 - 400	$1.44 + 0.805/x - 2.60E-4 x$	+/- 3%
5% Cl ₂ in helium	100	5 - 99	$1.40 + 5.42/x - 1.19E-3 x$	+/- 1%
Oxygen	1000	10 - 999	$1.01 + 14.9/x - 5.67E-5 x$	+/- 4% Not for zero O ₂
Propane	50	10 - 49	$0.352 - 0.321/x + 8.19E-5 x$	+/- 1%

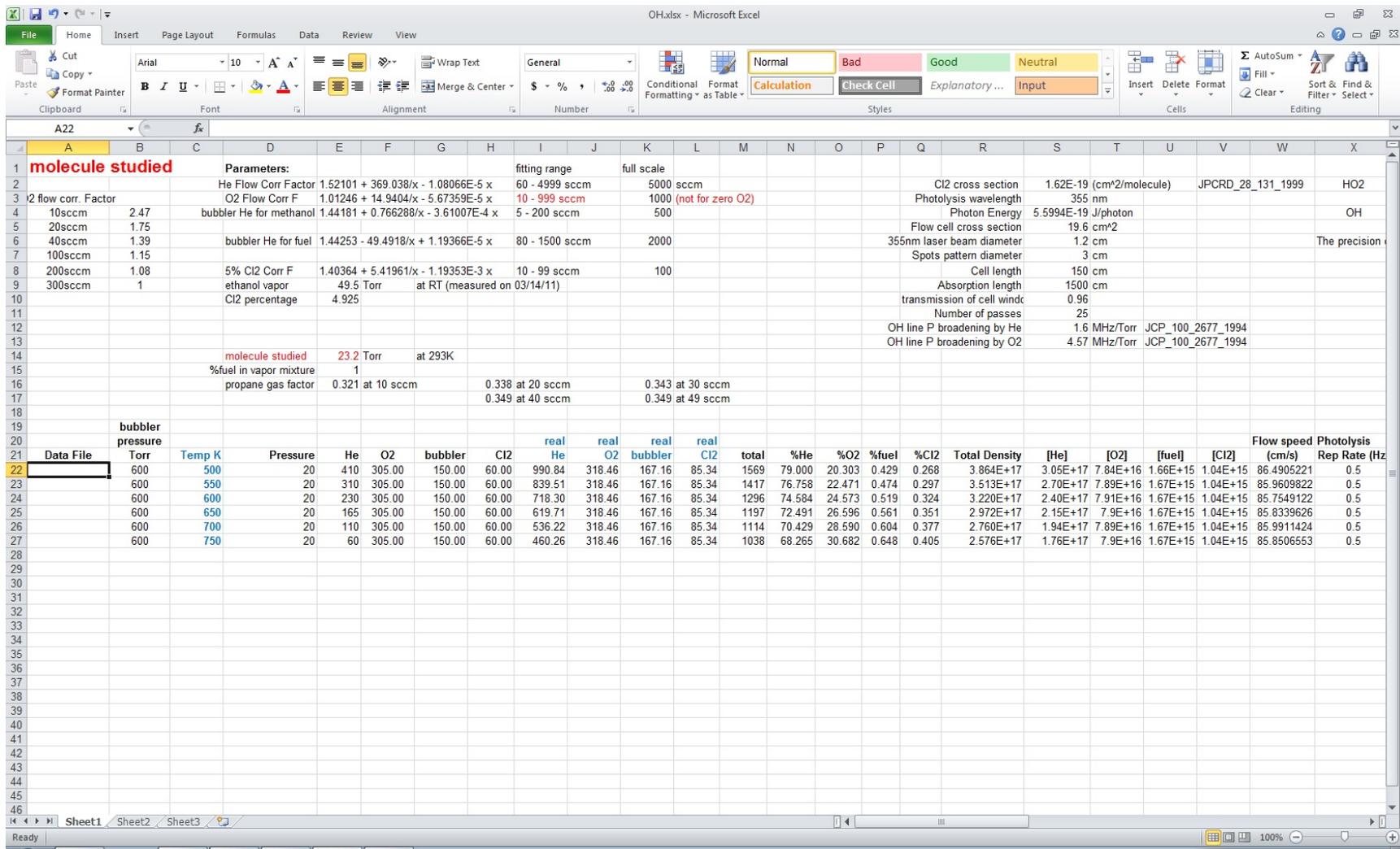


Figure 7-1. Excel worksheet for designing experimental conditions in OH measurement

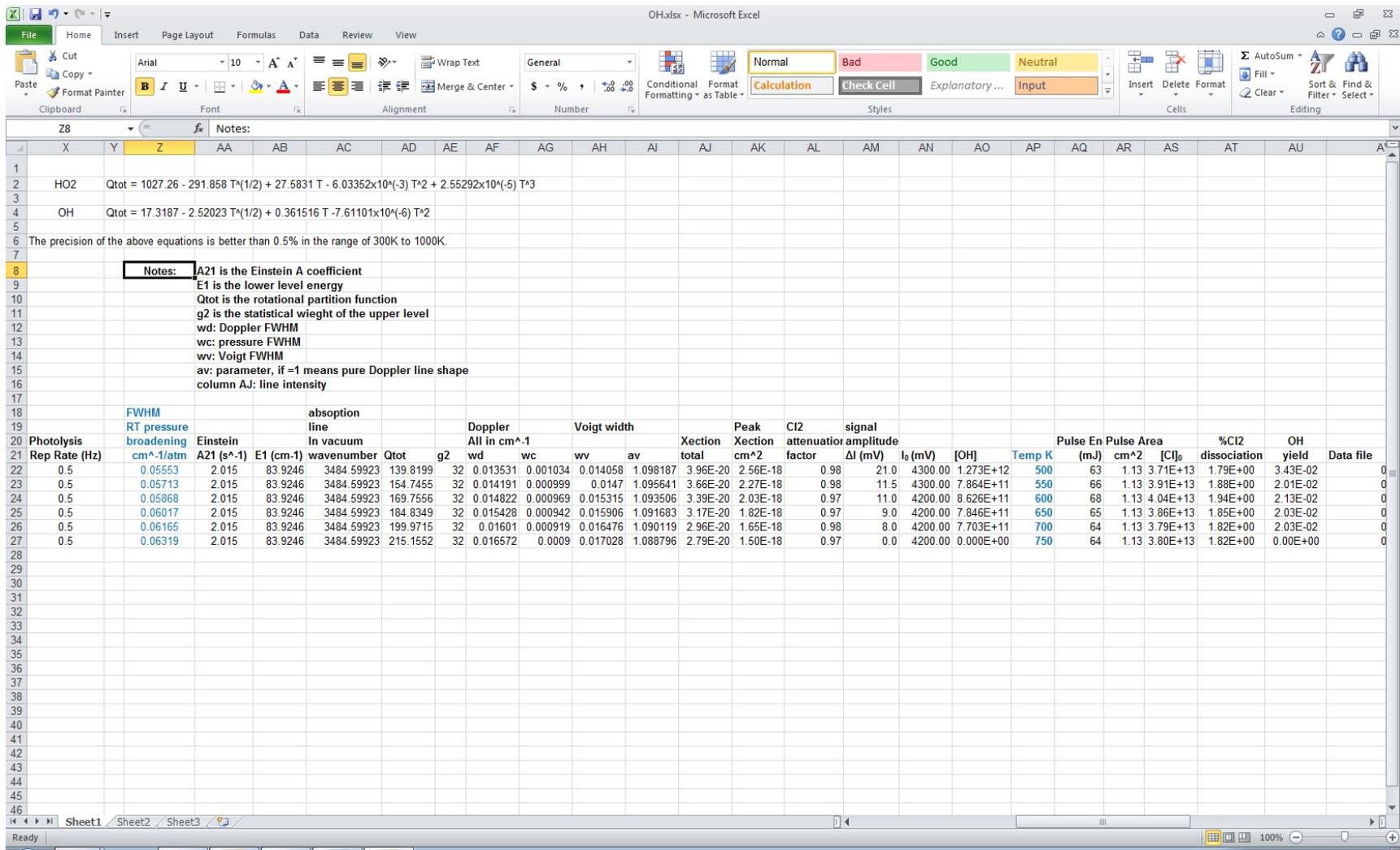


Figure 7-2. Excel worksheet for calculating the peak absorption cross section of OH

4. OH Measurement

The OH lines we selected are $P(2.5)1^+$ and $P(2.5)1^-$ pair of OH fundamental transitions at 3484.74918cm^{-1} and 3484.59923cm^{-1} respectively [14, 23]. Our WA-1500 wavemeter has a small deviation of 0.005cm^{-1} , making the measured wavenumbers of the two lines to be 3484.744cm^{-1} and 3484.595cm^{-1} . Figure 8 is a spectrum of the two lines from literature.

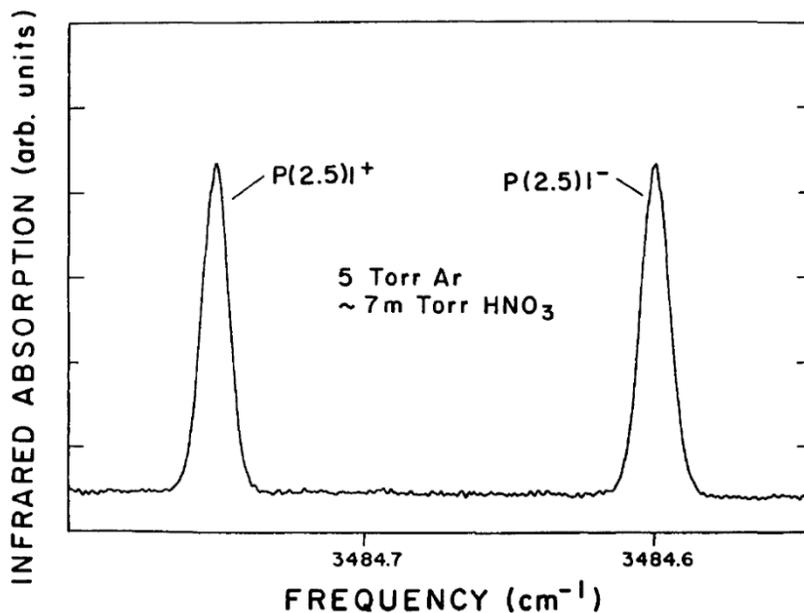


Figure 8. OH line pair $P(2.5)1^+$ and $P(2.5)1^-$ [23]

For the two OH absorption lines we selected, both the line intensities and pressure broadening coefficients by helium and oxygen at room temperature have been carefully measured by Nesbitt and his coworkers [23-26]. In order to calculate the peak absorption cross-section of OH at different temperatures (from 296K to 1000K), we have adopted their line intensities, the assignments of the two lines and the rotational partition function calculation of HITRAN database[14]. The temperature-dependence exponent under our experiments (helium buffer gas) is approximated by that of air from HITRAN, i.e. 0.66. This approximation only has minor effect on the OH peak absorption cross section because the OH lines are mainly Doppler broadened under our low pressure experimental conditions (typically less than 30Torr). We use Voigt line profile for the absorption cross section calculation. For simplicity, we used the approximation proposed by Whiting for the line profile calculation [9], which agrees with Voigt profile within

5% at worst. Figure 7-2 is the Excel worksheet used to calculate the OH absorption cross section. The rotational partition function values from HITRAN have been fitted to a function of temperature T with a precision of better than 0.5% in the range from 296K to 1000K. Definitions of the related parameters can be found in Figure 7-2.

In OH measurements, the probe cw-OPO laser wavelength is scanned near the OH lines. Besides the time trace with the laser wavelength tuned on OH peak of the absorption line, several time traces off OH peak will also be recorded at different wavelengths. Then the on-peak trace will be subtracted by one of the off-peak traces. The purpose of doing this is twofold. Very often, the OH lines are on top of a small but broad absorption or depletion background signal near 3484.6cm^{-1} , possibly caused by absorptions from new species generated in chemical reactions or from fuel molecule. By multiple off-peak measurements (off by several Voigt linewidth), we can determine the behavior of this background and remove it from the OH absorption signal. For all the oxidation systems we have studied, we did not observe very large background absorption/depletion near these two OH absorption lines.

Second, when chemical reactions are triggered by photolysis laser pulses, both the temperature and pressure in the reaction column will change because of energy release and species components change from chemical reactions, which will cause the refractive index fluctuation in the reaction zone. This fluctuation will cause the so-called thermal lensing noise in the measured signal [29]. Interestingly, we found that the above background subtraction process removes almost all the thermal lensing noise. Included in Appendix C are two programs written in Mathematica for this background subtraction data processing, one for OH and the other for HO_2 . Both programs contain detailed notes. One can see from both two examples that this process works very well for thermal lensing noise reduction. Previously, this noise was removed by using frequency modulation (FM) method. The above background subtraction idea gives another simpler way of solving this difficulty. When the total time window of measurement is set to more than 10ms, the effectiveness of this background subtraction will slightly decrease. Different oxidation systems show different level of thermal lensing noise.

Figure 9 gives one example of this background subtraction data processing. After the background subtraction step, measured OH signal (in volt) will be converted into OH concentration time

profile by using Beer's law with measured laser intensity of no OH absorption (in volt), calculated OH absorption cross-section, and the absorption length determined based on the geometry of the multi-pass alignment. Figure 10 is the OH concentration traces at different temperatures in 1-butanol oxidation measured by the above method. OxCl was used as the initial Cl atom source.

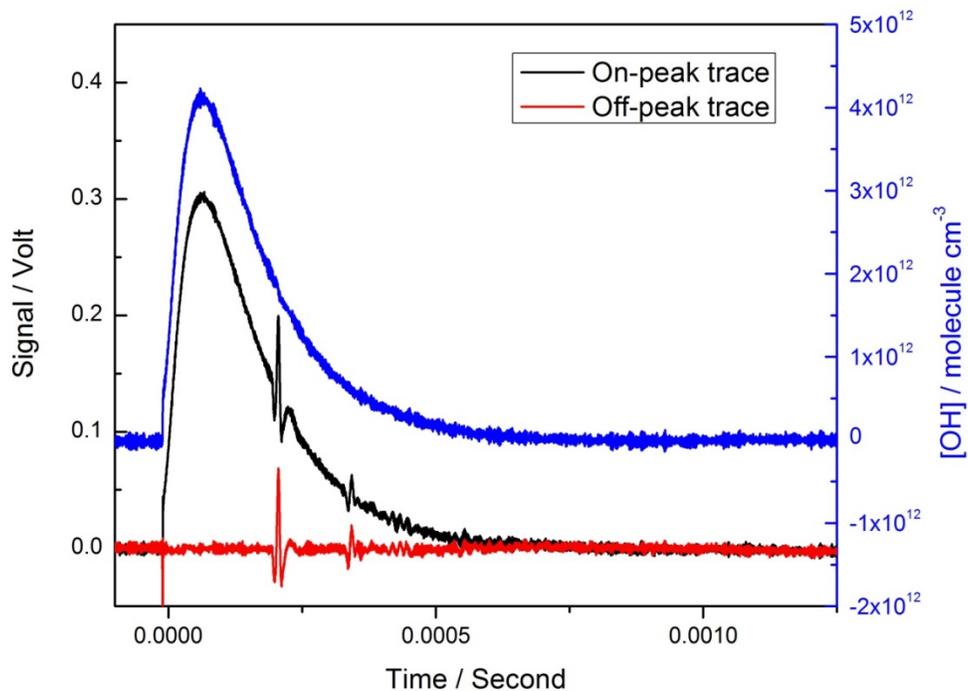


Figure 9. OH on-peak time trace subtracted by an off-peak trace. The differential trace (blue) has less noise and has been shifted upward for clarity.

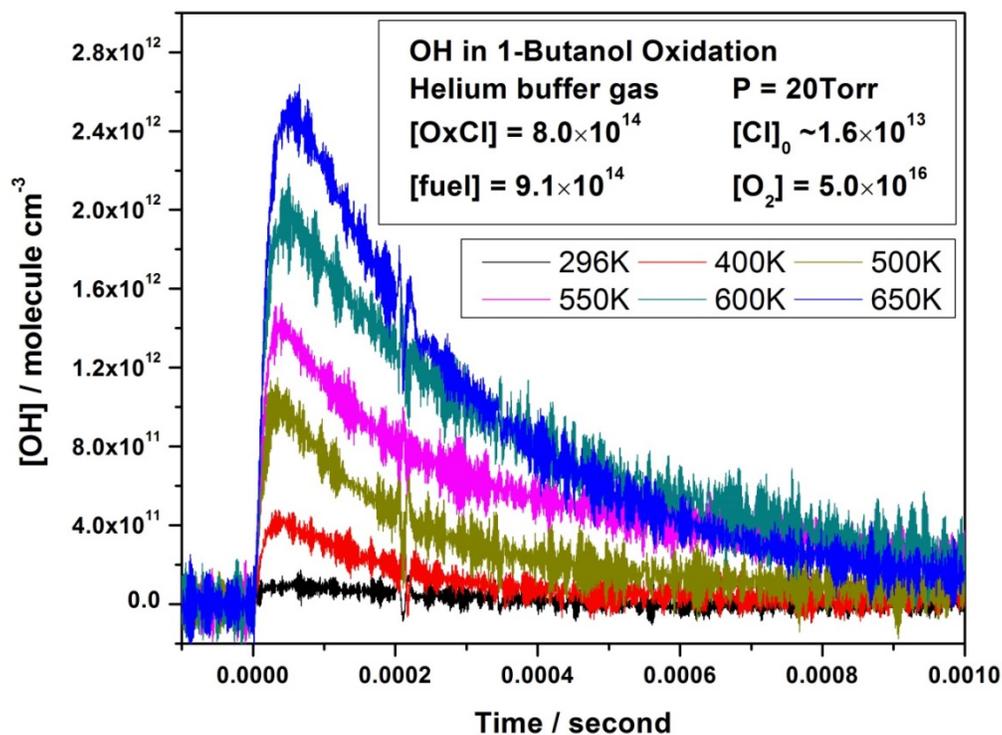


Figure 10. OH concentration time profiles at different temperatures in 1-butanol oxidation

The measured OH concentration time profiles are normalized to the initial Cl atom concentrations, giving time profiles of OH yields, especially peak OH yields. Figures 11 and 12 show the measured peak OH yields vs. O₂ concentration at different temperatures in the reacting system TBHP/O₂/Cl₂/355nm with helium buffer gas, and Figures 13 and 14 display the results of similar experiments in the reacting system helium/TBHP/O₂/OxCl/355nm. Here TBHP is used as the precursor of QOOH radicals by the reaction TBHP + Cl [30]. As one can see from the plots, the behavior of peak OH yield differs substantially between using Cl₂ and OxCl, especially when the flow cell temperature is above 480K. Figure 15 is a comparison plot of the peak OH yield vs. O₂ at 550K between two Cl precursors. With zero oxygen, the yield with Cl₂ is much lower than that with OxCl, suggesting more experiments are needed in order to clarify this puzzle.

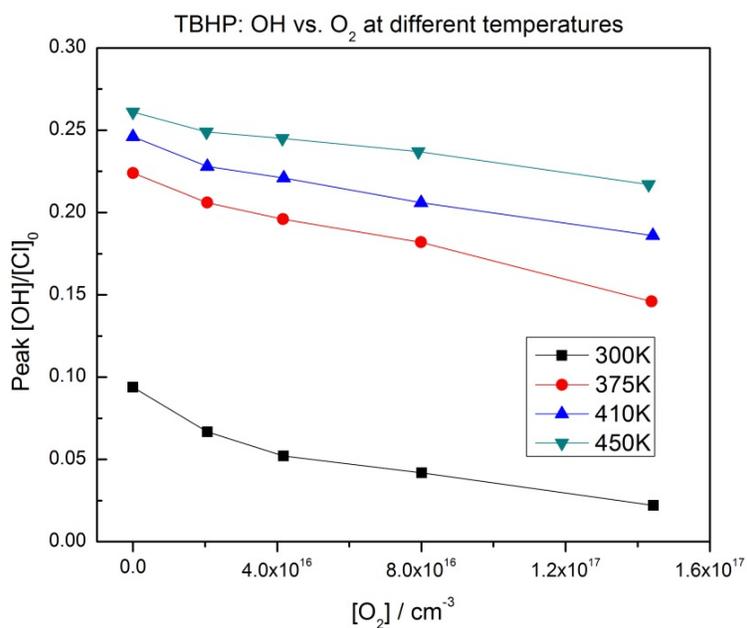


Figure 11. Peak OH yield vs. [O₂] between 300K and 450K in helium/TBHP/Cl₂/355nm system

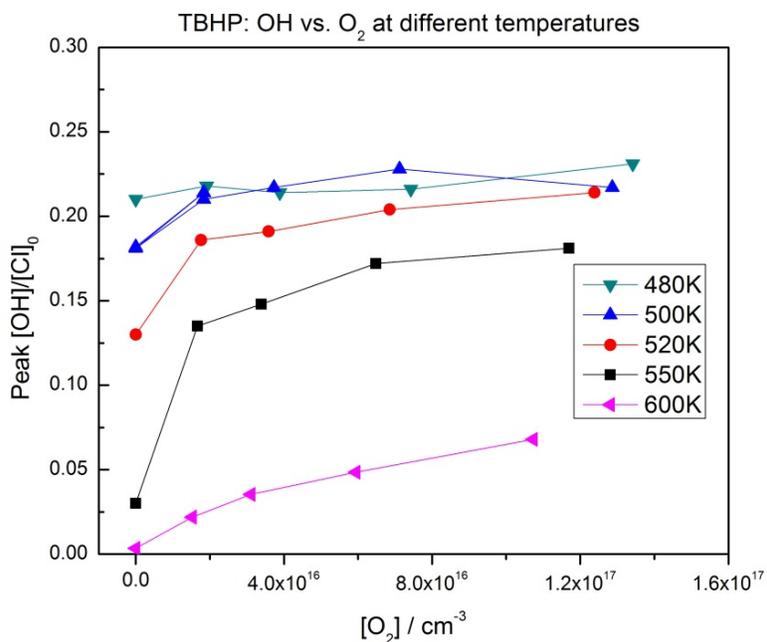


Figure 12. Peak OH yield vs. [O₂] between 480K and 600K in helium/TBHP/Cl₂/355nm system

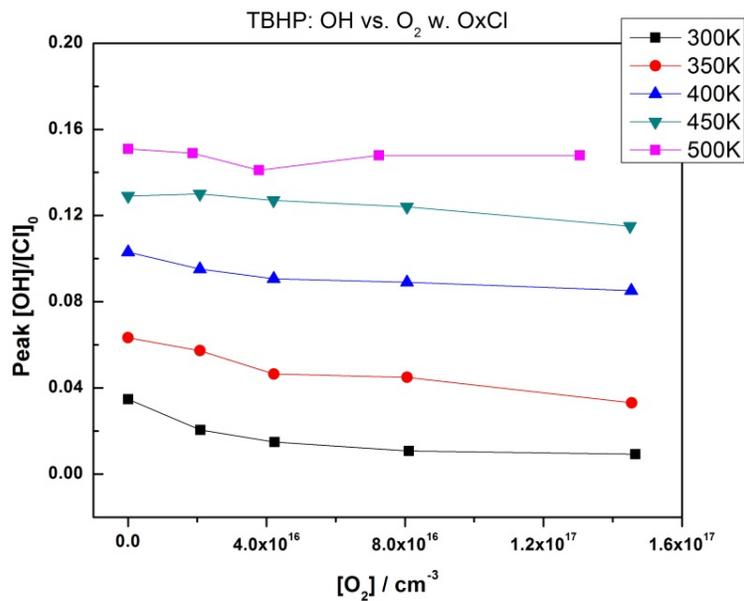


Figure 13. Peak OH yield vs. [O₂] between 300K and 500K in helium/TBHP/OxCl/355nm system

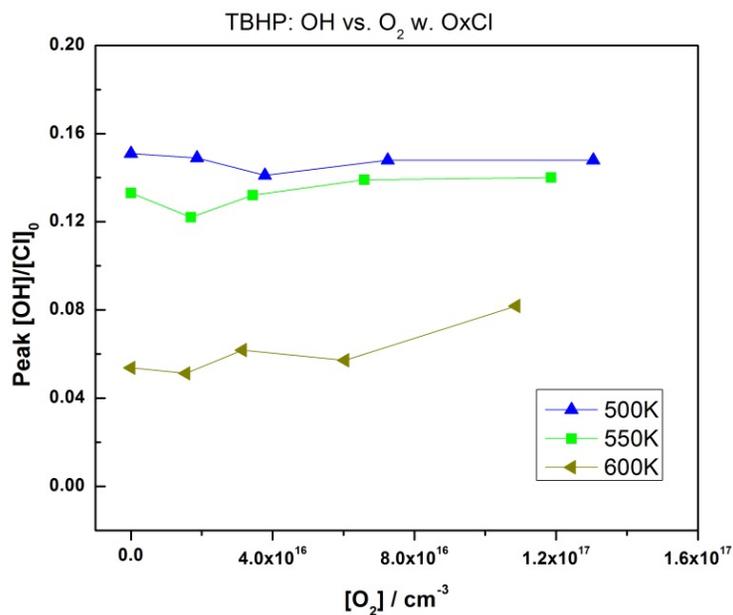


Figure 14. Peak OH yield vs. [O₂] between 500K and 600K in helium/TBHP/OxCl/355nm system

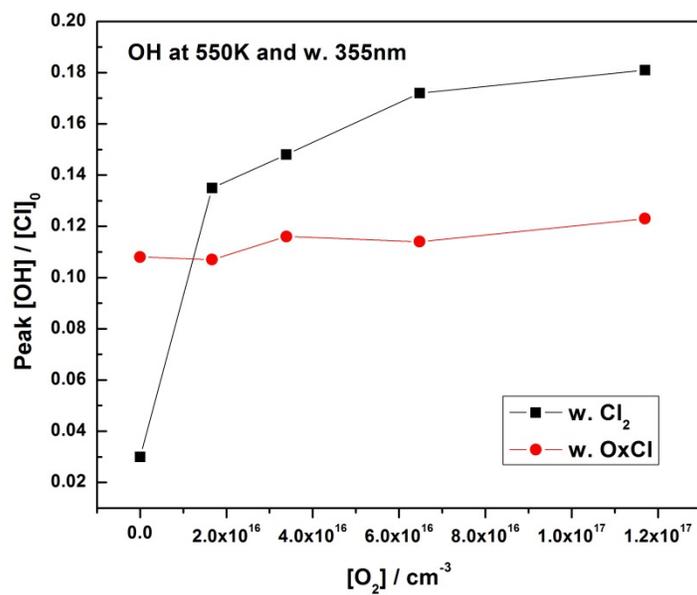


Figure 15. Peak OH yield vs. [O₂] at 550K in helium/TBHP/O₂/355nm with Cl₂ or OxCl as the Cl atom precursor

5. HO₂ Measurement

Figure 16 is a section of HO₂ 2ν₁ band [18]. The HO₂ absorption line we used is the one at 6625.784cm⁻¹. Unlike OH fundamental transitions, there is little data on the line intensities and pressure broadening coefficients of HO₂ transitions (both NIR and MIR). Fortunately, the methanol oxidation system has a near unity yield of HO₂ and CH₂O because of the reactions (R1) and (R2). Therefore, it is a perfect reference system for quantitative HO₂ or CH₂O measurement. The Excel worksheet for HO₂ measurement is in Appendix B and the data processing program is given in Appendix C. An effective absorption cross-section of HO₂ is introduced to calculate HO₂ concentrations (see Appendix B for the details).

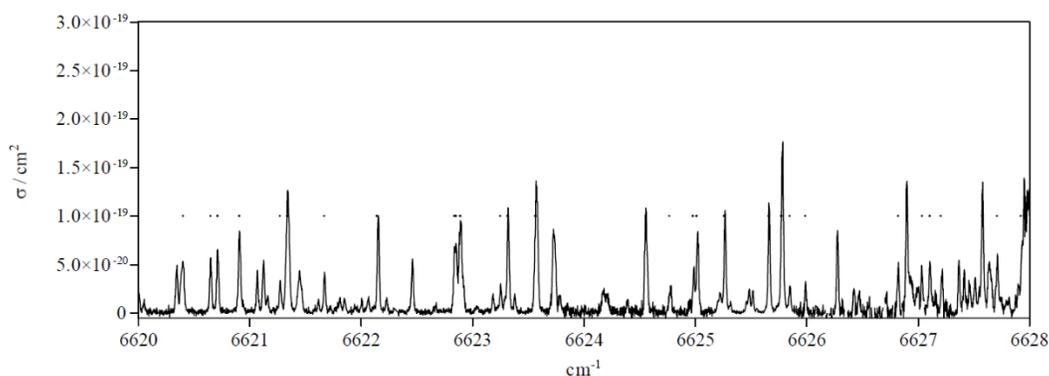


Figure 16. HO₂ lines of 2ν₁ band [18]

Figure 17 gives one example of this normalization. The red trace is of methanol system and has a peak HO₂ yield near time zero close to one. The black trace is the measured HO₂ in 1-butanol oxidation. Both measurements were run back-to-back under the same experimental conditions such as temperature, pressure, helium, oxygen and Cl precursor concentrations. After normalized to that of methanol system, the peak HO₂ yield near time zero in 1-butanol oxidation is measured to be about 40%.

Figure 18 is the HO₂ time profiles at different temperatures in 1-butanol oxidation measured by the above method.

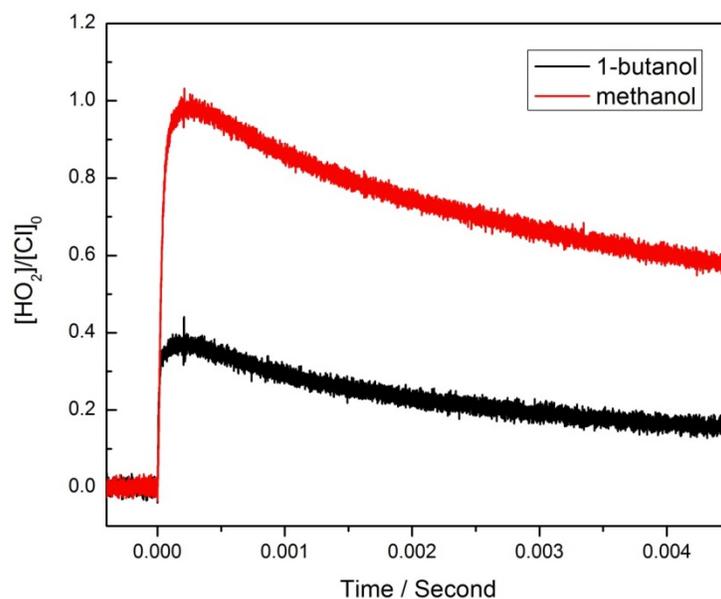


Figure 17. Measured HO₂ signal in 1-butanol oxidation is normalized to that of methanol oxidation reference system. Both traces are after background subtraction.

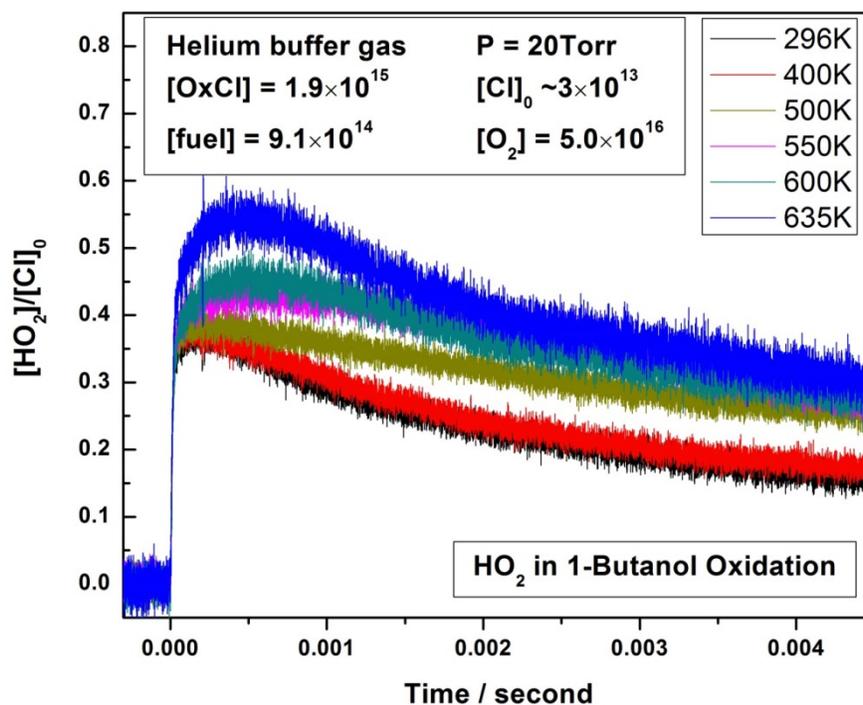


Figure 18. HO₂ yield time profiles at different temperatures in 1-butanol oxidation

6. CH₂O Measurement

Same as HO₂ measurement, the measured CH₂O signal in fuel oxidation reactions is normalized to that of methanol oxidation. CH₂O is probed near 3574nm. Methanol has weak absorption features in this region. We have carefully tried multiple wavelengths (e.g. 2814.7434cm⁻¹), and found 2797.9648cm⁻¹ [14, 22] (2797.962cm⁻¹ by the wavemeter WA-1500) is one of the optimum wavelengths (e.g. 2758.8062, 2761.4941, 2766.4150 and 2781.0347cm⁻¹) with least interference from methanol absorption. Figure 19 shows a section of the spectrum of CH stretch fundamental transitions of CH₂O, and Figure 20 is a simulated spectrum of CH₂O near 2797.9648cm⁻¹ based on HITRAN database.

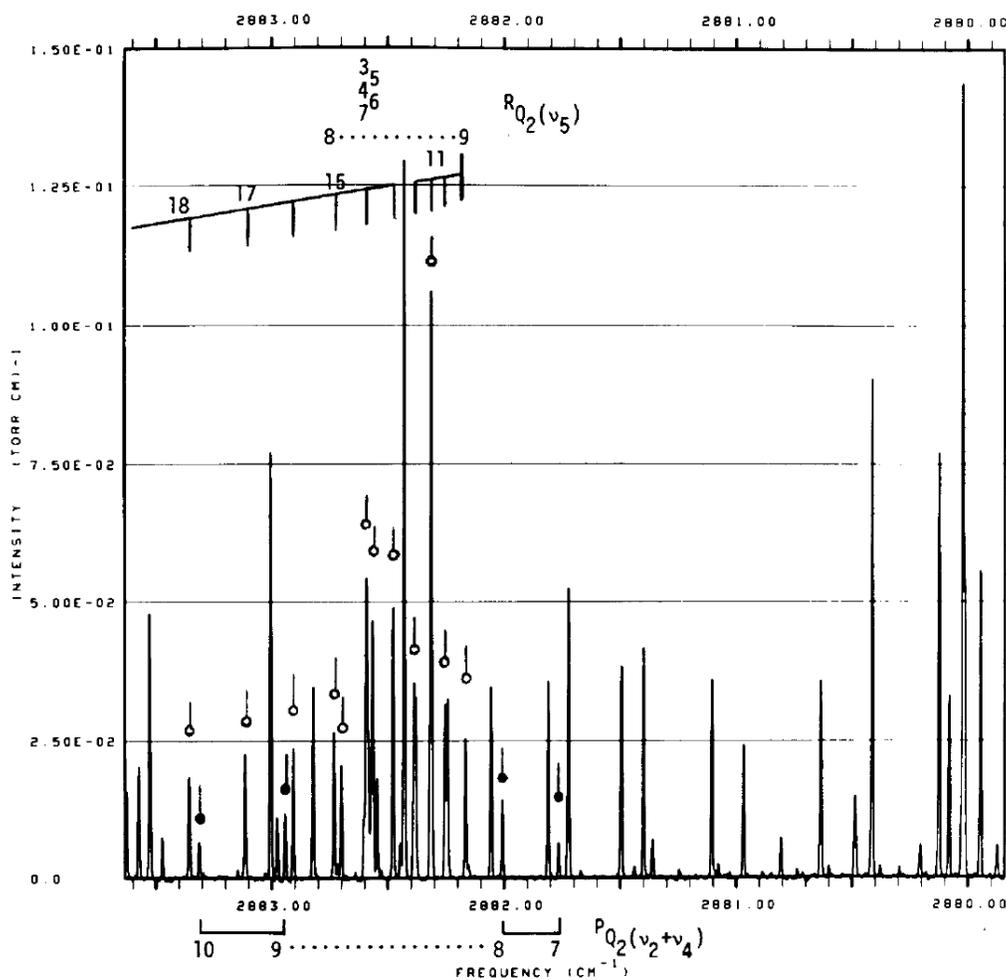


Figure 19. A section of the spectrum of CH stretch fundamental transitions of CH₂O [22]

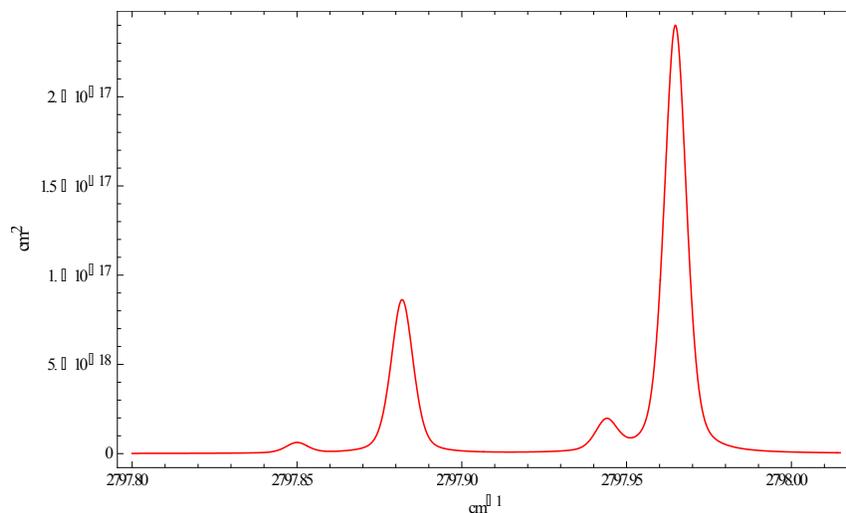


Figure 20. Simulated CH₂O spectrum near 2797.9648cm⁻¹ at 20Torr air and 296K based on HITRAN database [14]

Figures 21 and 22 show the measured CH₂O concentrations at different temperatures in 1-butanol oxidation reactions, with and without oxygen respectively. Figure 21 (if $T \geq 500\text{K}$) and Figure 22 (if $T \geq 600\text{K}$) clearly show two time scales of CH₂O generation.

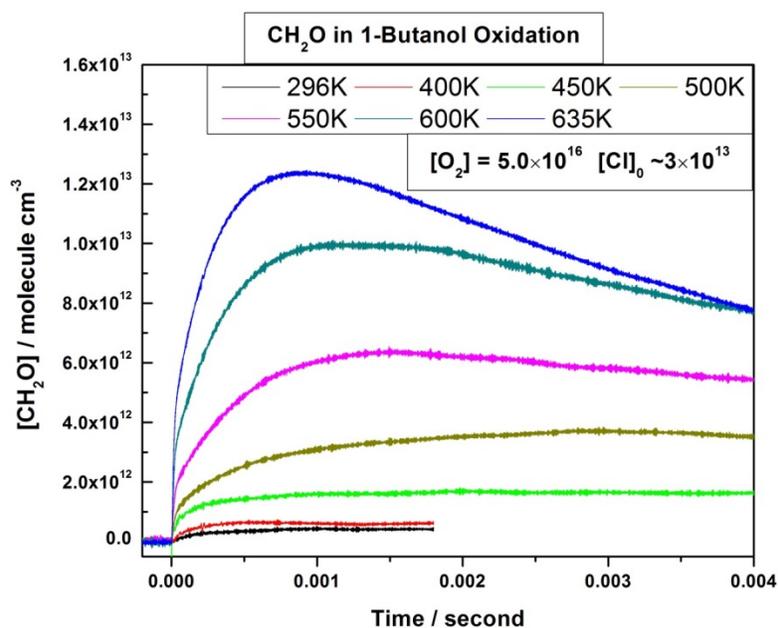


Figure 21. CH₂O generation in 1-butanol oxidation

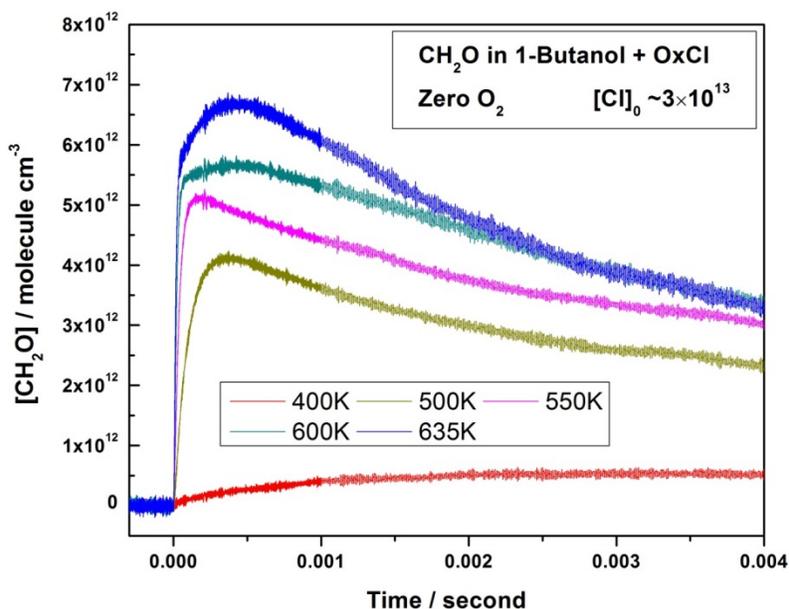


Figure 22. CH₂O generation in 1-butanol system with oxygen turned off

For 1-butanol and with the probe laser tuned to CH₂O absorption peak, we found lots of CH₂O will be generated even before photolysis laser pulses trigger the chemistry if the temperature is higher than 550K, Cl₂ is used as precursor and oxygen is turned off, as shown in Figure 23. The reason for this pre-trigger CH₂O generation is unknown to us. Adding O₂ will suppress CH₂O greatly but not completely. If OxCl is used, the probed CH₂O is much less when oxygen is turned off. Figure 23 clearly shows that OxCl is a better Cl precursor for 1-butanol oxidation study. Methanol system has the same problem as 1-butanol system if Cl₂ is the precursor (Figure 24). Interestingly, ethanol system does not show this problem (Figure 25).

We have measured CH₂O generation in the reaction CH₂I + O₂ [31, 32] by photolysis of CH₂I₂/O₂/helium mixture with either 355nm or 266nm laser. We found the yield of CH₂O is larger than 4 if 266nm laser is used and is only about 0.6 if 355nm laser is used. Both results are displayed in Figures 26 and 27 respectively. One possible explanation for this difference is 266nm laser has enough photon energy to dissociate CH₂I₂ molecule to generate CH₂ radical and I₂ molecule. [33] Figures 28 and 29 display the CH₂O generation near time zero of Figure 26 and 27. Both show two time scales of generation if oxygen concentration is higher than 1.3×10^{17}

molecule cm^{-3} . The fast generated CH_2O may correspond to the reaction channel $\text{CH}_2\text{I} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_2\text{O} + \text{IO}$, which only has a minor branching ratio with 355nm photolysis laser. [31, 32]

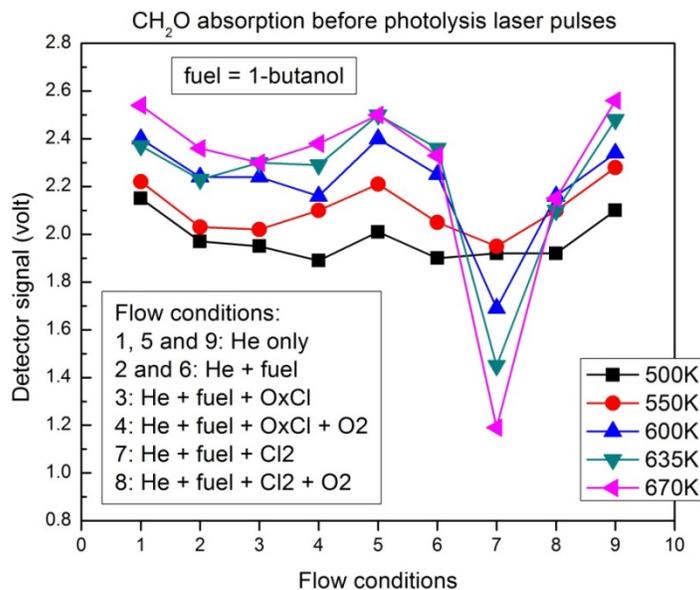


Figure 23. CH₂O generation before photolysis laser pulses under different conditions. Fuel molecule is 1-butanol.

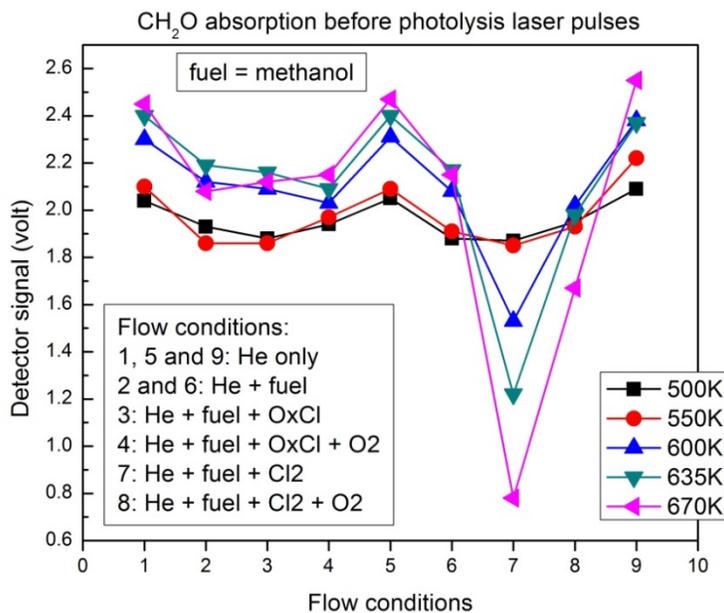


Figure 24. CH₂O generation before photolysis laser pulses under different conditions. Fuel molecule is methanol.

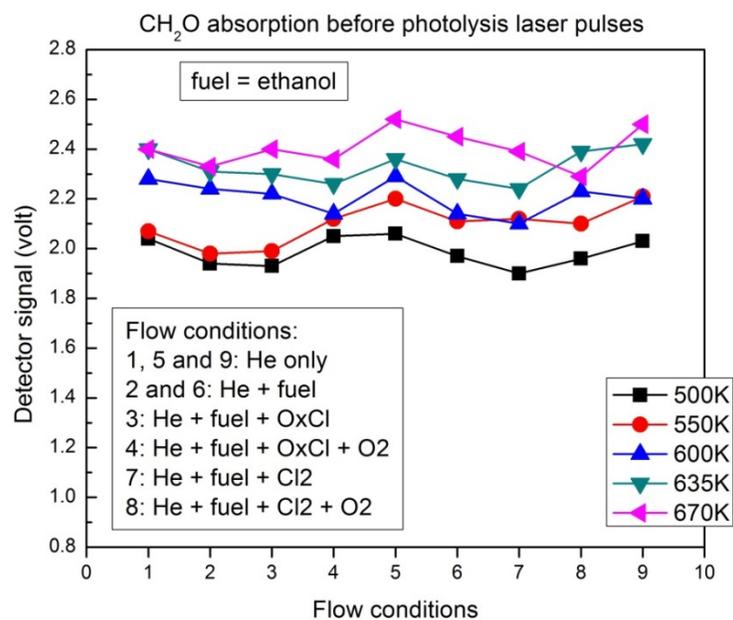


Figure 25. CH₂O generation before photolysis laser pulses under different conditions. Fuel molecule is ethanol.

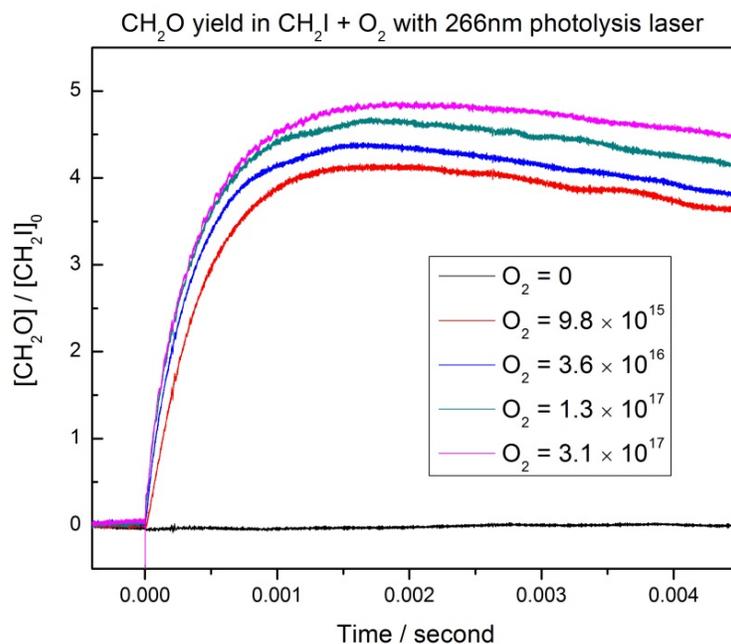


Figure 26. CH₂O yield vs. [O₂] in CH₂I + O₂ with 266nm laser. The initial CH₂I concentration is 2.8 × 10¹² molecule cm⁻³.

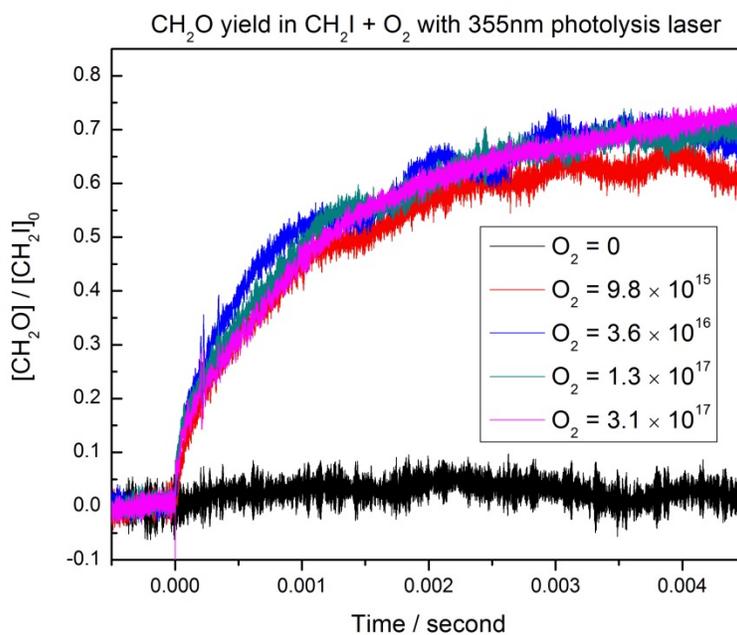


Figure 27. CH₂O yield vs. [O₂] in CH₂I + O₂ with 355nm laser. The initial CH₂I concentration is 1.6×10^{12} molecule cm⁻³.

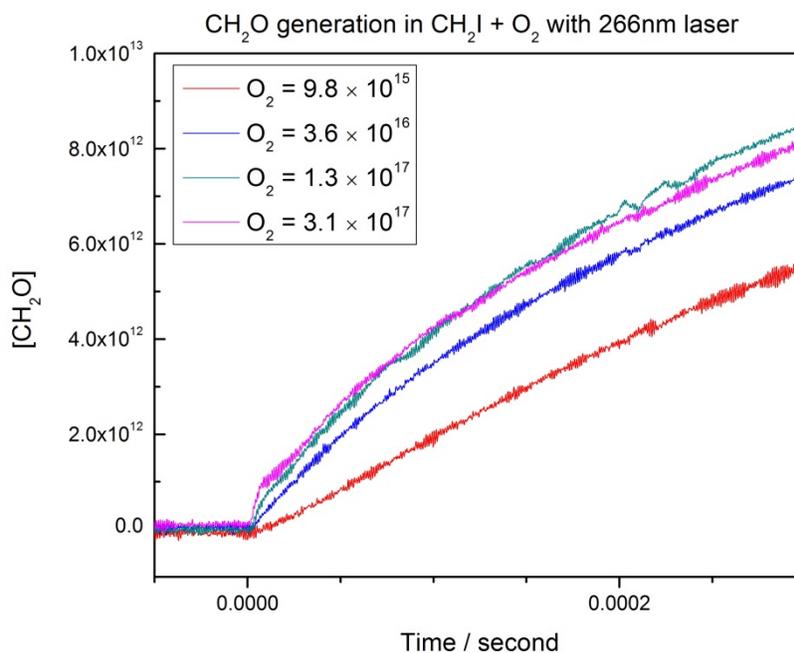


Figure 28. CH₂O generation near time zero in CH₂I + O₂ with 266nm laser. The initial CH₂I concentration is 2.8×10^{12} molecule cm⁻³. The yield of fast generation CH₂O for the highest O₂ concentration is about 36%.

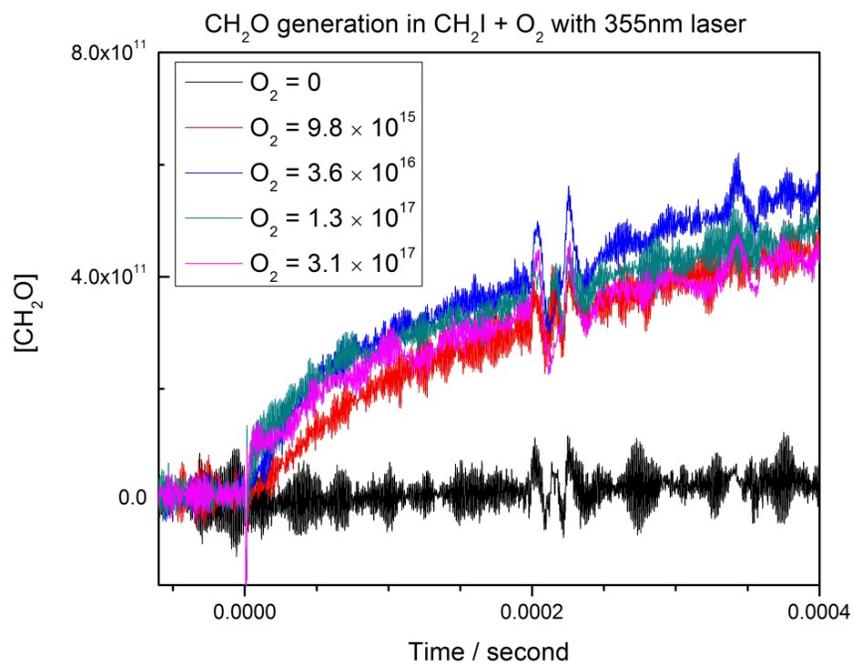
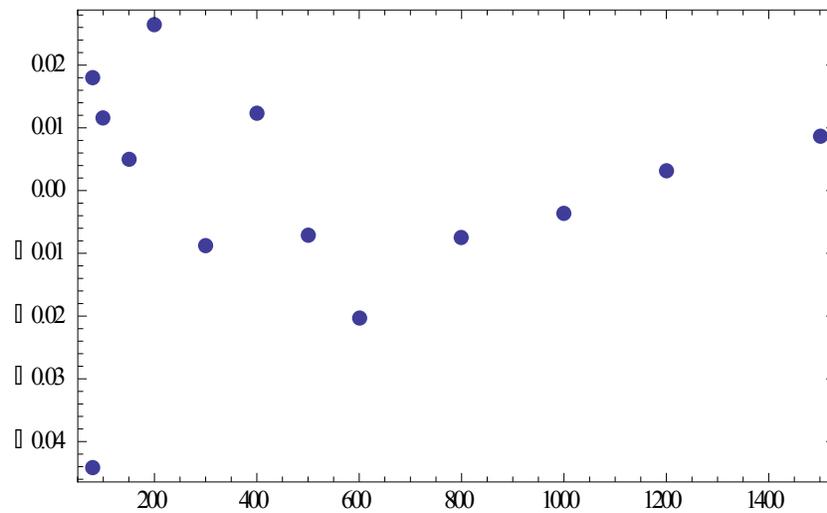
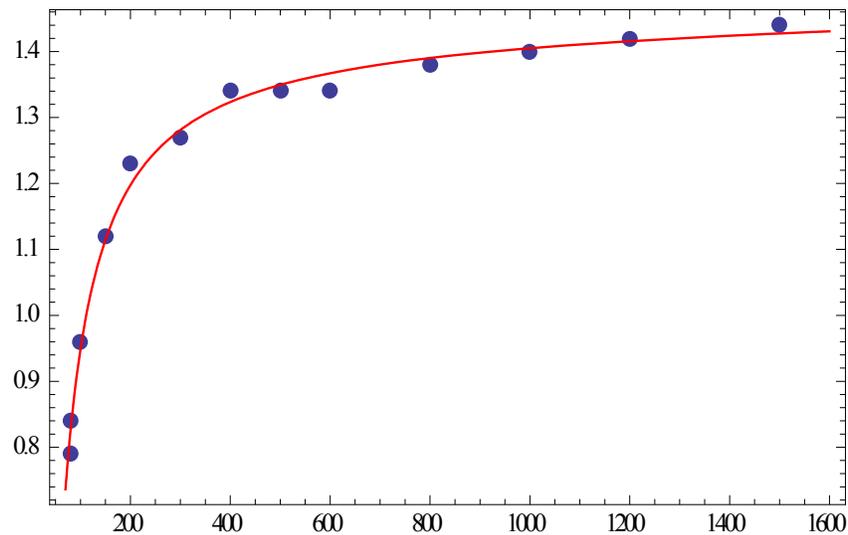


Figure 29. CH₂O generation near time zero in CH₂I + O₂ with 355nm laser. The initial CH₂I concentration is 1.6×10^{12} molecule cm⁻³. The yield of fast generation CH₂O for the highest O₂ concentration is about several percent.

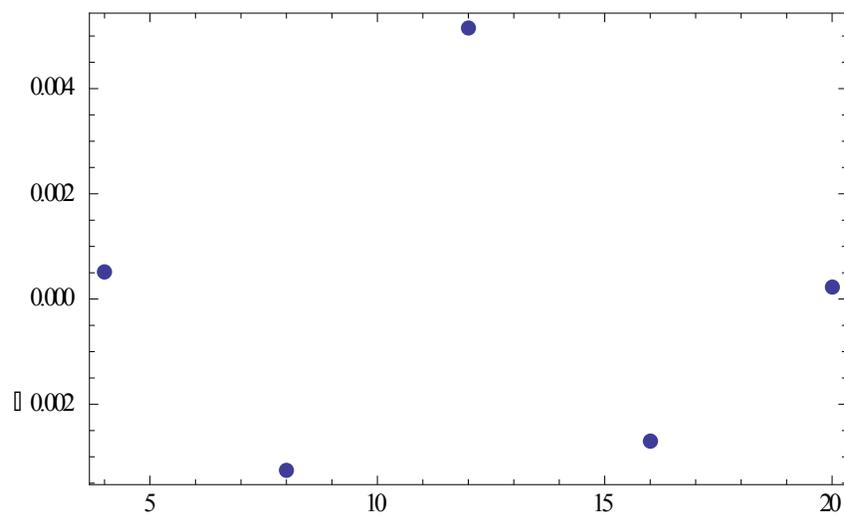
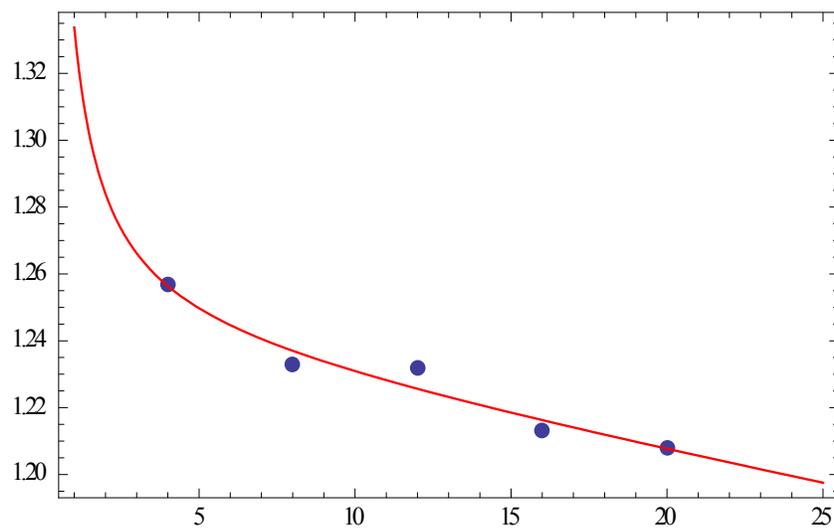
Appendix A

Gas correction factor calibrations for different MFCs. For each MFC, the first plot of each MFC is the measured gas factors and the fitted polynomial for the measured flow rate range; the second plot is the fractional error of the fitting. After the calibration, one should avoid the adjustments such as zero point or servo loop gain of the calibrated MFC.

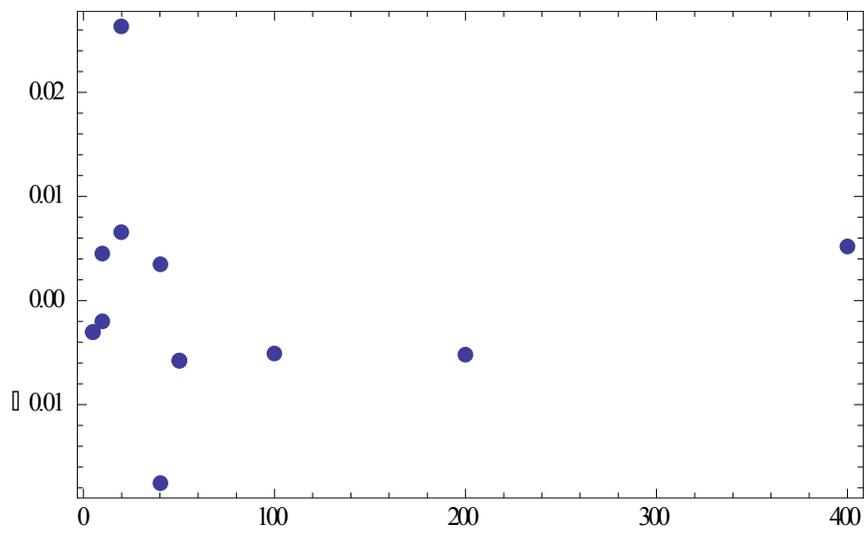
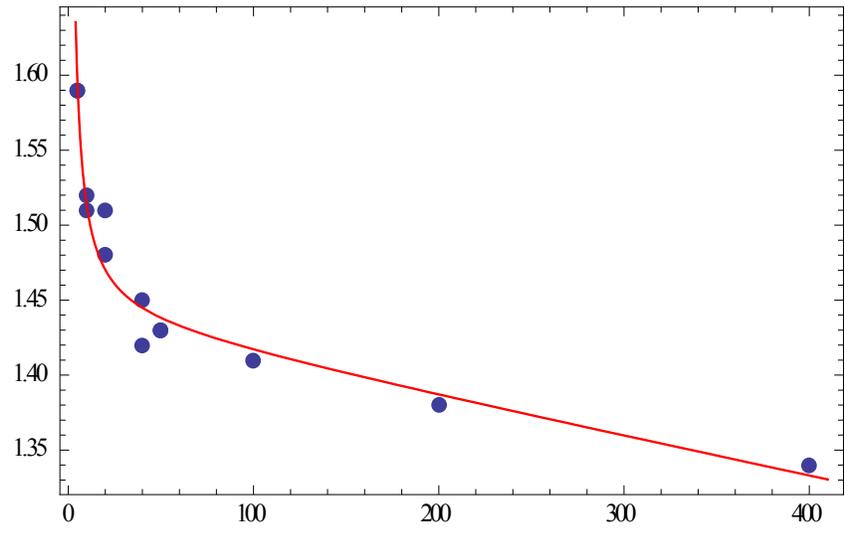
MFC for fuel bubbler helium, full scale 2000scm, $1.44 - 49.5 / x + 1.19E-5 x$



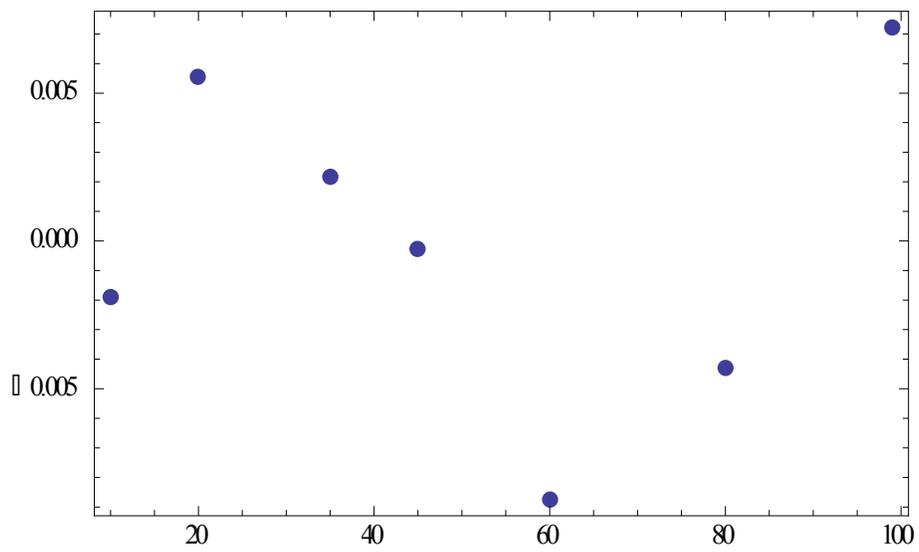
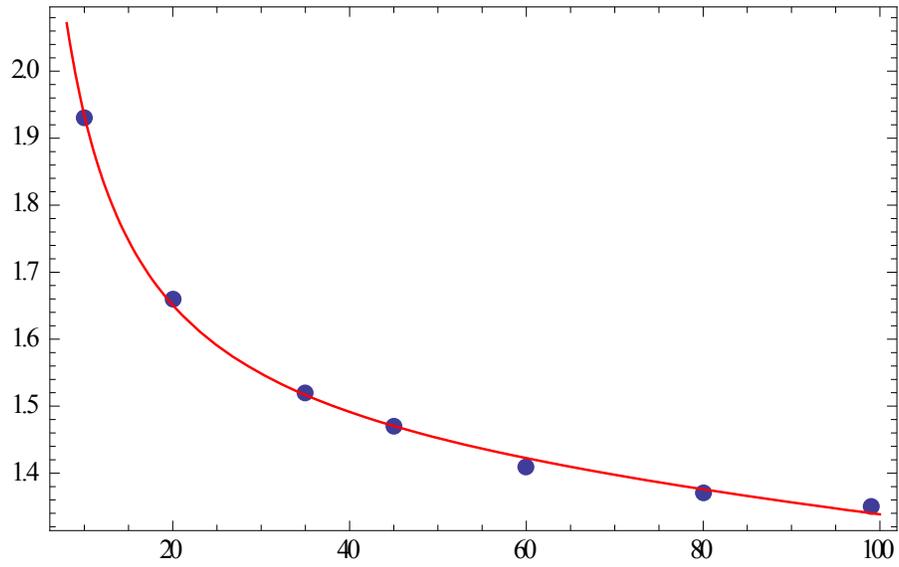
MFC for OxCl bubbler helium, full scale 20sccm, $1.24 + 9.58E-2 / x - 1.84E-3 x$



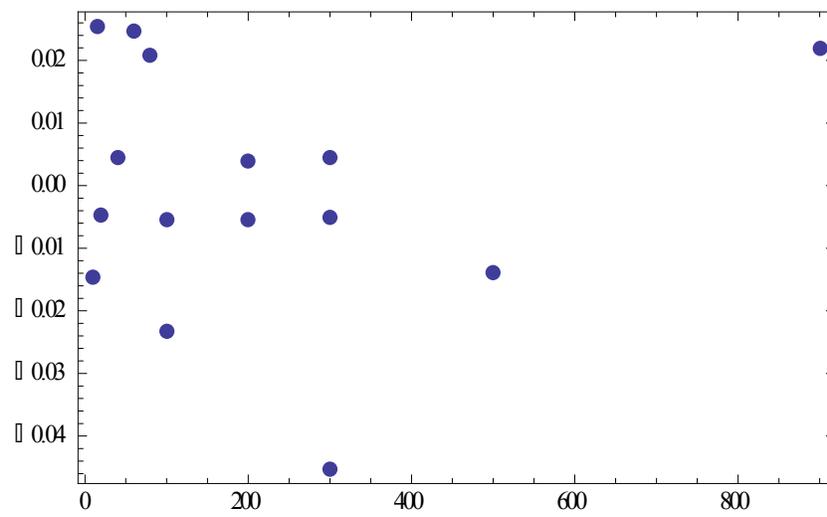
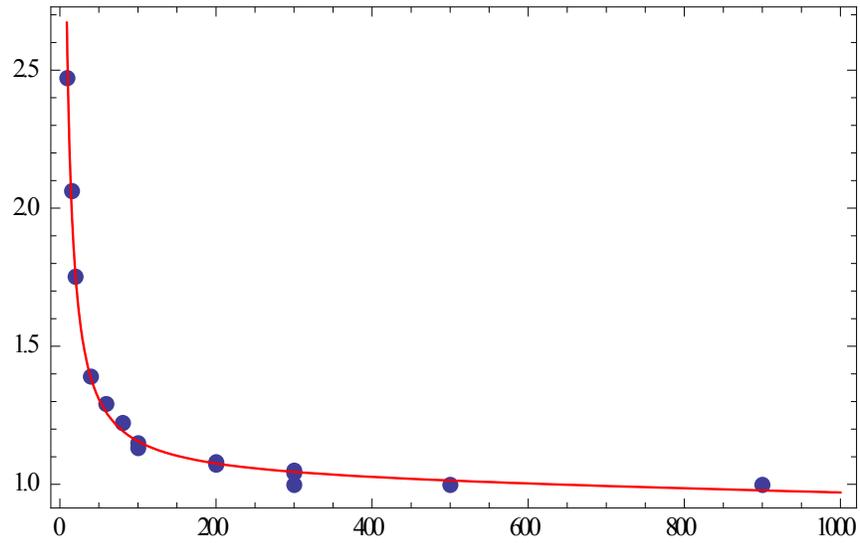
MFC for methanol bubbler helium, full scale 500sccm, $1.44 + 0.805 / x - 2.60E-4 x$



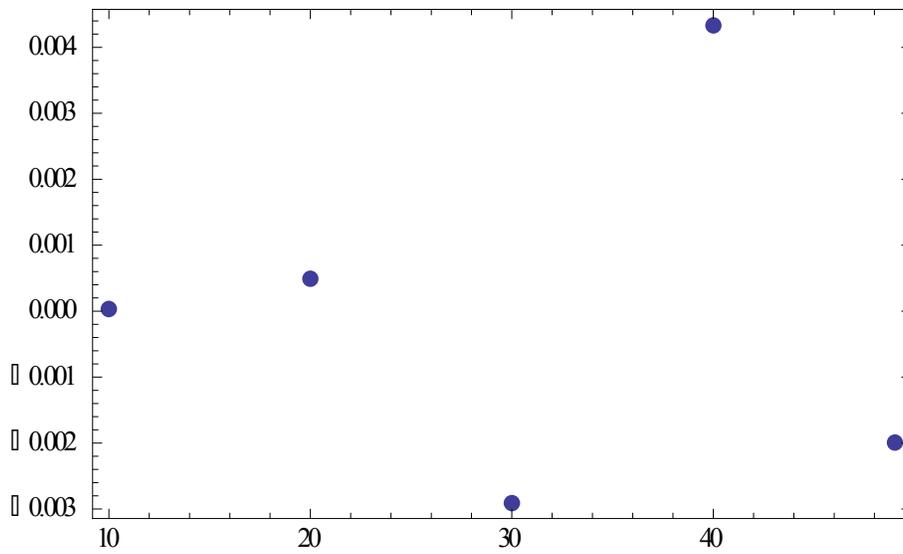
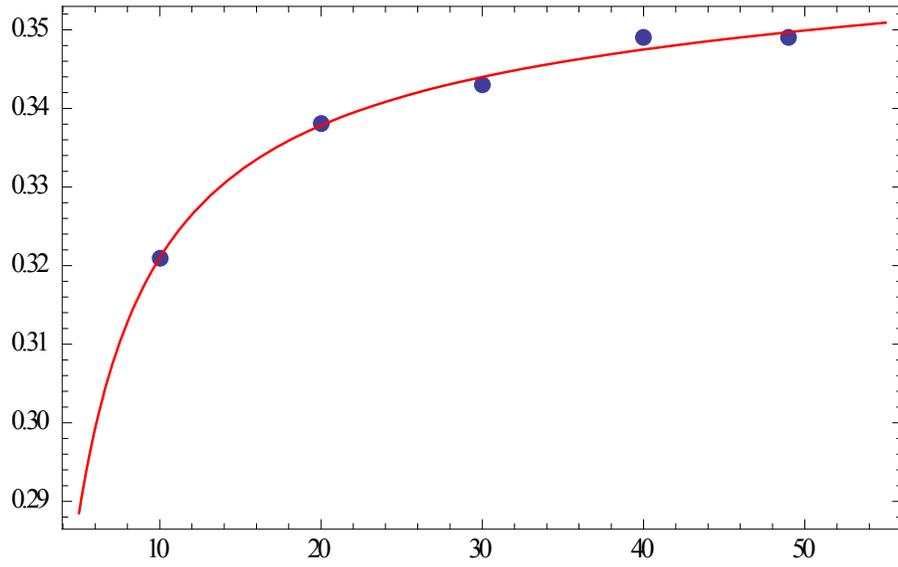
MFC for 5% Cl₂ in helium, full scale 100sccm, $1.40 + 5.42 / x - 1.19E-3 x$



MFC for pure oxygen, full scale 1000sccm, $1.01 + 14.9 / x - 5.67E-5 x$



MFC for pure propane gas, full scale 50sccm, $0.352 - 0.321/x + 8.19E-5 x$



Appendix B

The Excel worksheet for HO₂ measurement has been divided into two parts: Figure 30-1 and Figure 30-2. Figure 30-1 is similar to Figure 7-1 for OH measurement and is mainly for designing flow conditions for experiments. The difference is the methanol oxidation is used as a reference system. In the measurement, HO₂ signal is compared with that in methanol oxidation under the “same” conditions, i.e. same temperature and pressure, same concentrations of helium, oxygen and Cl precursors. The exception is the fuel concentration, which may be different from methanol concentration. But because its concentration is relatively low, its effect to HO₂ absorption line is ignored. Another exception is when measuring HO₂ signal under zero-oxygen condition. For this case, a small amount of oxygen is added to the methanol oxidation system (row 23 in Figure 30-1).

Figure 30-2 is used to calculate the absolute HO₂ concentration of the studied fuel oxidation system by comparing the measured signal with that of methanol oxidation. One trick in the worksheet is something called “effective absorption cross section” in column AM. In methanol oxidation system, the initial Cl concentration is regarded to be equal to the peak HO₂ concentration. With the known absorption length, we can calculate the above cross section from the methanol HO₂ signal. This cross section is then used to calculate the HO₂ concentration in the fuel oxidation system studied. This effective absorption cross section can be different from the true value (but unknown) under the same conditions because of possible errors in absorption length determination and non-uniform distribution of HO₂ in the photolysis column.

It is straightforward to use this worksheet for CH₂O measurement, which uses the same reference system.

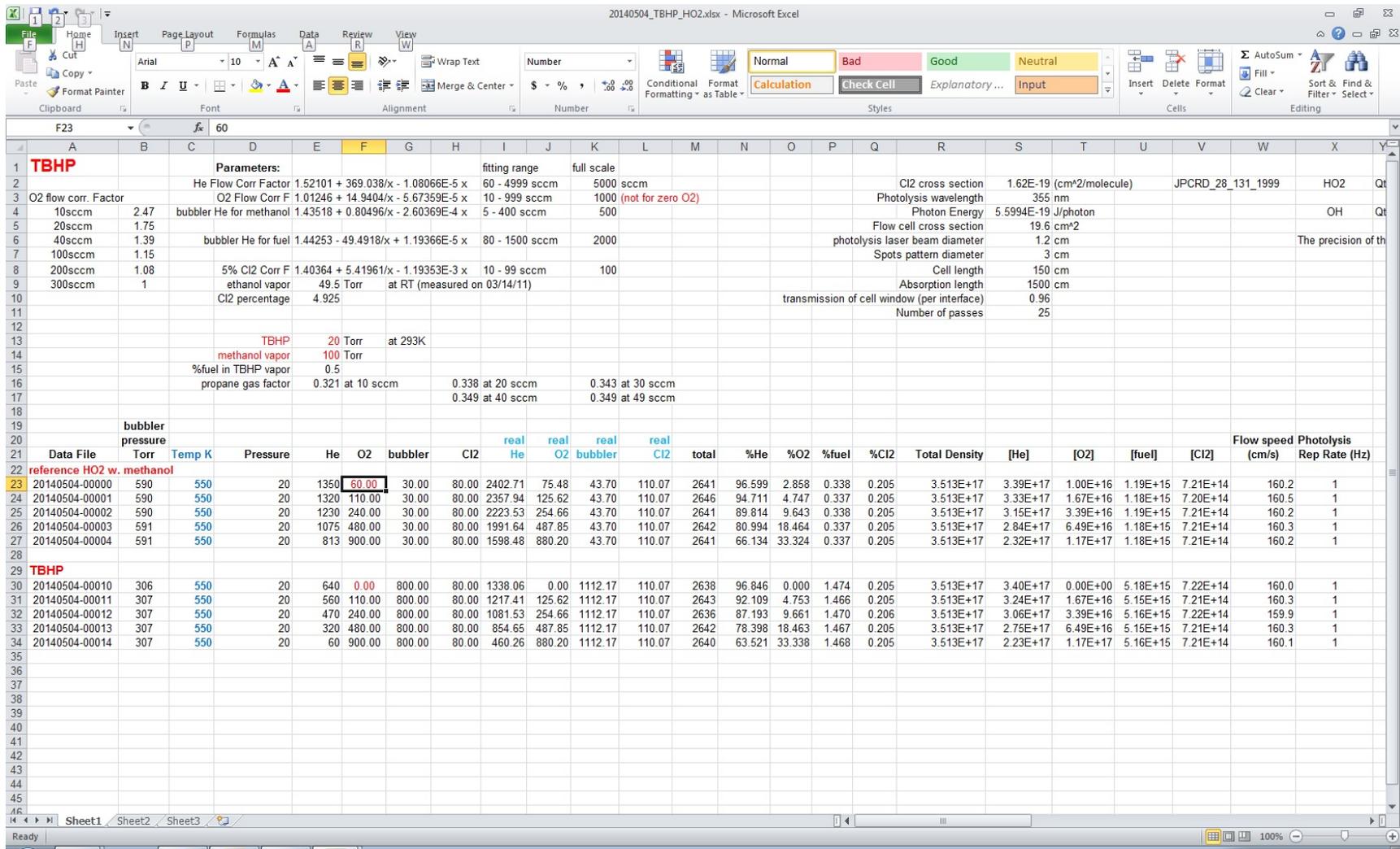


Figure 30-1. Excel worksheet for HO₂ measurement

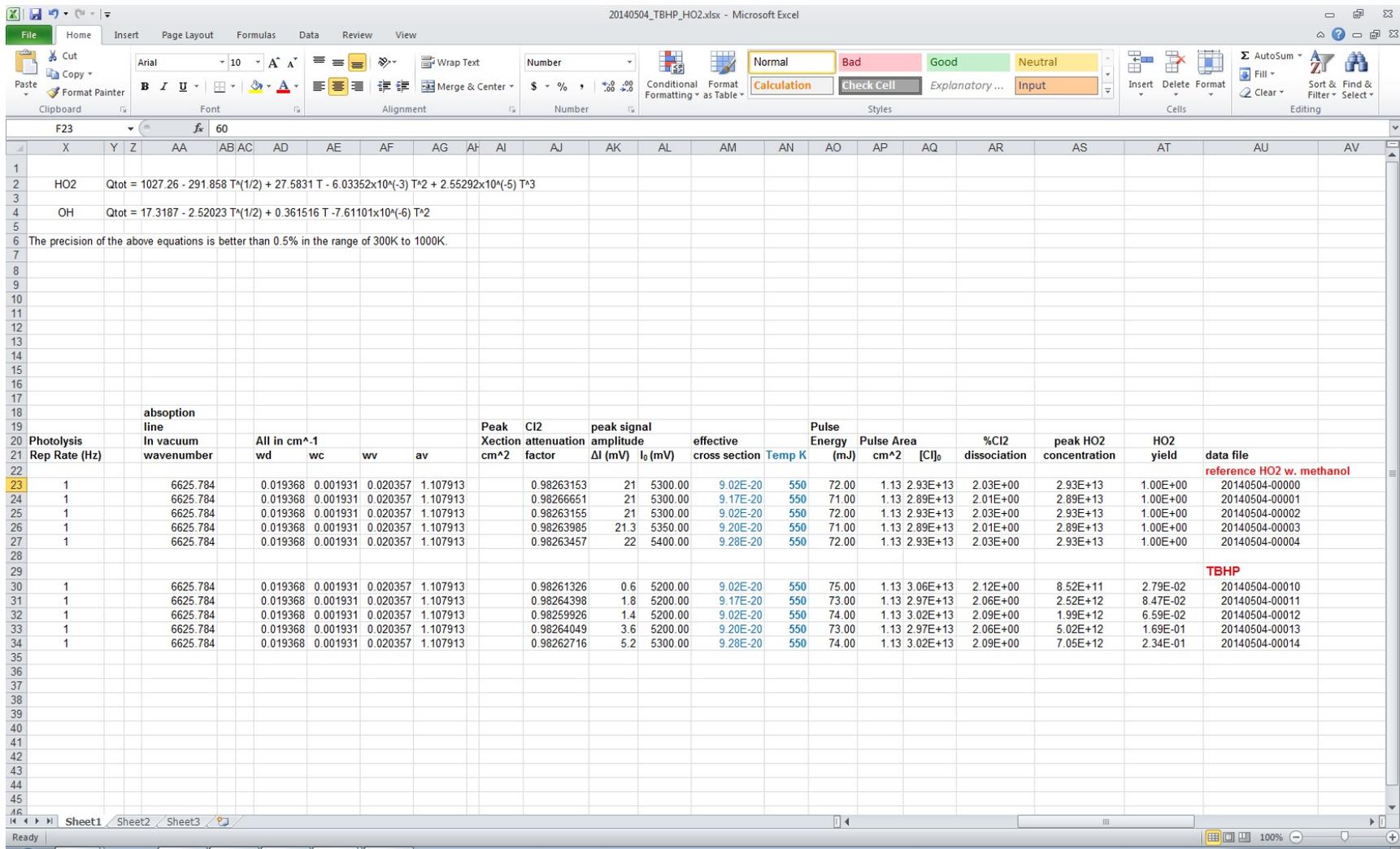


Figure 30-2. Excel worksheet for HO₂ measurement. Effective absorption cross-section is used to calculate HO₂ concentrations.

Appendix C

Data processing program in Mathematica for OH measurement with notes written in-between asterisks, e.g. (*...*)

Calculate OH concentration in Cl-initiated fuel oxidation experiments probed by cw OPO laser

```

Tp = 300; cI0 = 4.32 × 1013; (* temperature and initial Cl concentration *)

address = "D:\\CRF_Data_2\\2014-06-10\\"; (* file path *)
file = "20140610-00000"; I0 = 10.8; (* name of the on-peak data file and its I_0 *)
data0 = Import[address <> "F1" <> file <> ".csv", "CSV"];
(* import data file, which is always in CSV format. "F1"
because F1 averaging math channel saved by the oscilloscope *)
n0 = Length[data0]; (* length of data0 *)
data1 = Take[data0, {6, n0}];
(* the first 5 elements of data0 are of the settings of oscilloscope *)
n1 = Length[data1] (* length of data1 *)

50 001

address2 = address;
file2 = "20140610-00004"; I00 = 10.8; (* name of the off-peak data file and its I_0 *)
data02 = Import[address2 <> "F1" <> file2 <> ".csv", "CSV"];
n02 = Length[data02];
data2 = Take[data02, {6, n02}];
n2 = Length[data2] (* length of data2, make sure it is the same as n1 *)
t0 = data1[[1, 1]] 106; (* time of the first data point in microsecond *)
dt = 106 data1[[2, 1]] - t0; (* time step of data recording in microsecond *)

50 001

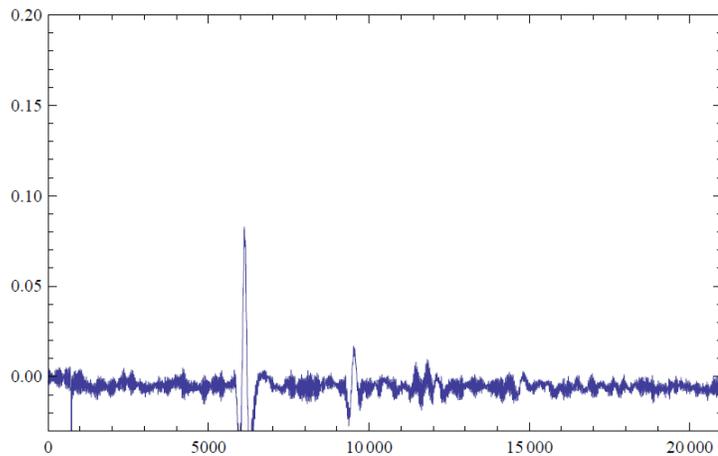
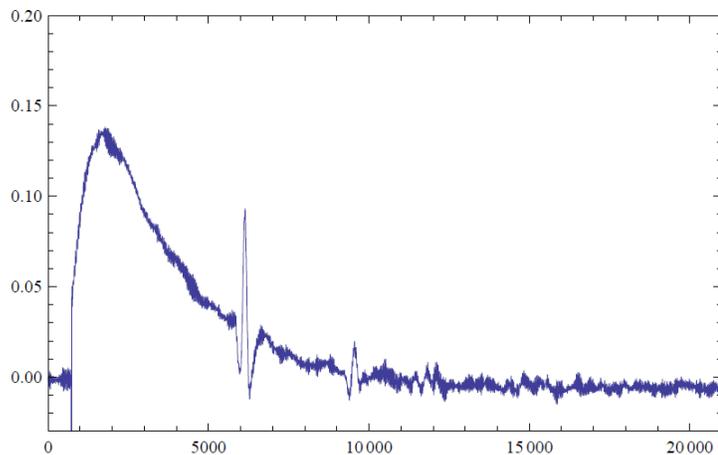
m = IntegerPart[n1 / 10] - 500;
(* the number of pre-photolysis data points used for offset adjustment *)
data3 = Table[data1[[i, 2]], {i, n1}]; (* on-peak data trace ignoring time *)

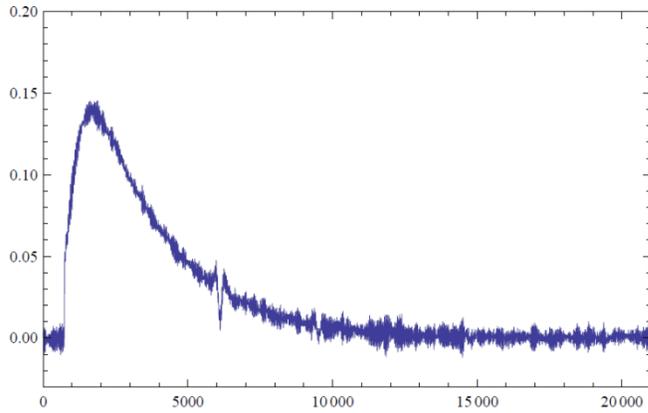
os3 =  $\left( \sum_{i=1}^m \text{data3}[[i]] \right) / m$ ; (* calculate the offset *)
data3 = (data3 - os3); (* offset adjustment,
now data3 is almost zero before photolysis *)
data4 = Table[data2[[i, 2]], {i, n1}]; (* off-peak data trace ignoring time *)

os4 =  $\left( \sum_{i=1}^m \text{data4}[[i]] \right) / m$ ; (* calculate the offset *)
data4 = (data4 - os4); (* offset adjustment,
now data4 is almost zero before photolysis *)
data5 = data3 - (I0 / I00) data4; (* on-peak trace subtracted by off-
peak trace to remove common mode noise (scaled to both I_0) *)

os5 =  $\left( \sum_{i=1}^m \text{data5}[[i]] \right) / m$ ; (* calculate the offset *)
data5 = data5 - os5; (* offset adjustment,
now data5 is almost zero before photolysis *)
```

```
ni = 4000; nf = 25000;  
(* this paragraph is to check how good the background subtraction is. The off-  
peak trace can have small depletion or absorption. Normally multiple off-  
peak traces near the OH absorption peak are measured to check if  
the small depletion or absorption is uniform near the peak. *)  
vmax = 0.2; vmin = -0.03; (* plot range of the signal *)  
fig1 = ListPlot[Take[data3, {ni, nf}], Frame → True,  
  PlotRange → {{0, nf - ni}, {vmin, vmax}}, Axes → False, Joined → True]  
  (* plot the on-peak raw data *)  
fig2 = ListPlot[Take[data4, {ni, nf}], Frame → True,  
  PlotRange → {{0, nf - ni}, {vmin, vmax}}, Axes → False, Joined → True]  
  (* plot the off-peak raw data *)  
fig3 = ListPlot[Take[data5, {ni, nf}], Frame → True,  
  PlotRange → {{0, nf - ni}, {vmin, vmax}}, Axes → False, Joined → True]  
  (* data trace after background subtraction,  
  peak voltage is used to calculate peak OH yield in the Excel worksheet *)
```





$$\sigma = 4.64 \times 10^{-18};$$

(* OH peak absorption cross section calculated by the Excel worksheet *)

abl = 1625; (* absorption length calculated by the Excel worksheet *)

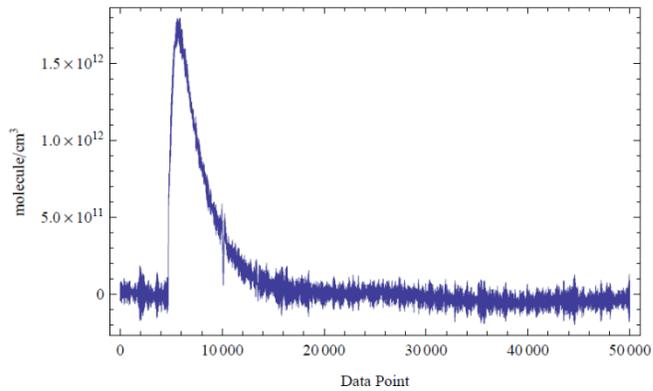
concentration = Log[I0 / (I0 - data5)] / (abl * σ);

(* calculate concentration time profile *)

ListPlot[concentration, Frame \rightarrow True, PlotRange \rightarrow All,

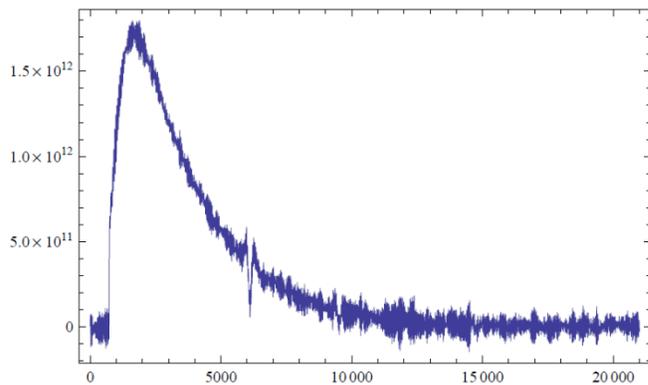
Axes \rightarrow False, Joined \rightarrow True, FrameLabel \rightarrow {"Data Point", "molecule/cm³"}]

(* plot the whole concentration profile *)



ListPlot[Take[concentration, {ni, nf}], Frame \rightarrow True,

PlotRange \rightarrow All, Axes \rightarrow False, Joined \rightarrow True] (* zoom in a little bit *)



```
result = Table[{0, 0}, {i, 1, n1 + 2}];
(* this paragraph exports the calculated OH time profile,
normalized to the initial Cl concentration *)
result[[1]] = {"time", "OH"};
result[[2]] = {"us", ToString[Tp] <> "K"};
(* time is in micro second, and temperature *)
For[i = 3, i < n1 + 3, i++, result[[i]] =
  {SetPrecision[t0 + dt * (i - 3), 5], SetPrecision[concentration[[i - 2]] / c10, 4]};
(* time is generated with t0 and dt *)
Export[address <> file <> ".txt", result, "TSV"]
(* export the results to the same directory *)
Mean[Take[concentration, 500]]
(* average of the first 500 concentration data points *)
StandardDeviation[Take[concentration, 500]]
(* standard error of the first 500 concentration data points,
used as an estimation of the detection limit of the experiments *)

D:\CRF_Data_2\2014-06-10\20140610-00000.txt

1.53098 × 1010
3.84262 × 1010
```

Data processing program in Mathematica for HO₂ measurement with notes written in-between asterisks, e.g. (*...*)

Calculate HO₂ concentration in Cl-initiated fuel oxidation experiments probed by NIR diode laser

```
Tp = 550; c10 = 2.93 × 1013; (* temperature and initial Cl concentration *)

address = "D:\\CRF_Data\\2014-05-04\\"; (* file path *)
file = "20140504-00000"; I0 = 5.3; (* name of the on-peak data file and its I_0 *)
data0 = Import[address <> "F1" <> file <> ".csv", "CSV"];
(* import data file, which is always in CSV format. "F1"
because F1 averaging math channel saved by the oscilloscope *)
n0 = Length[data0]; (* length of data0 *)
data1 = Take[data0, {6, n0}];
(* the first 5 elements of data0 are of the settings of oscilloscope *)
n1 = Length[data1] (* length of data1 *)

125 001

address2 = address;
file2 = "20140504-00009"; I00 = 5.15; (* name of the off-peak data file and its I_0 *)
data02 = Import[address2 <> "F1" <> file2 <> ".csv", "CSV"];
n02 = Length[data02];
data2 = Take[data02, {6, n02}];
n2 = Length[data2] (* length of data2, make sure it is the same as n1 *)
t0 = data1[[1, 1]] 106; (* time of the first data point in microsecond *)
dt = 106 data1[[2, 1]] - t0; (* time step of data recording in microsecond *)

125 001

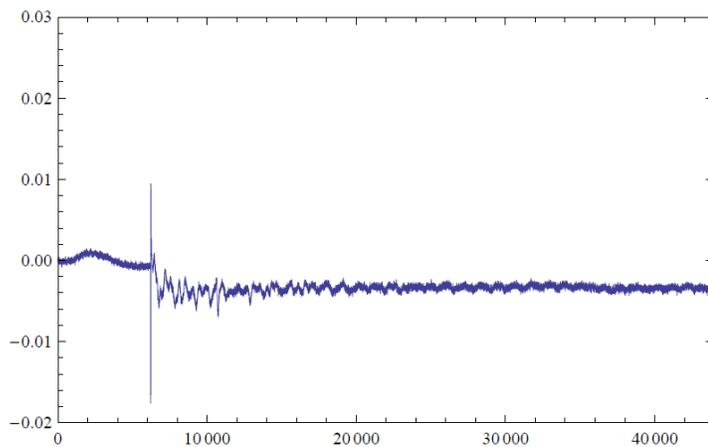
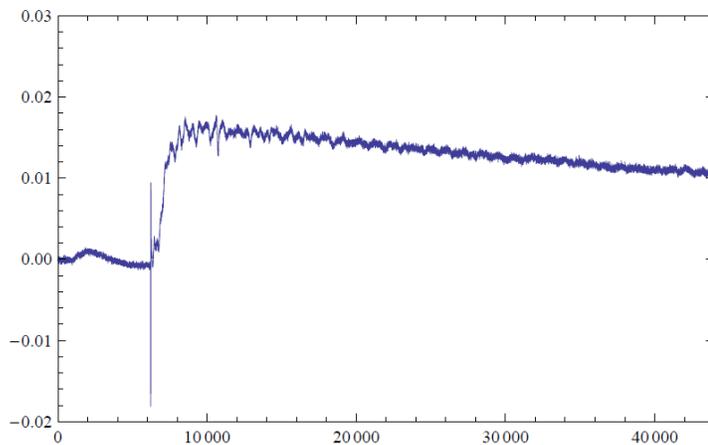
m = IntegerPart[n1 / 10] - 500;
(* the number of pre-photolysis data points used for offset adjustment *)
data3 = Table[data1[[i, 2]], {i, n1}]; (* on-peak data trace ignoring time *)

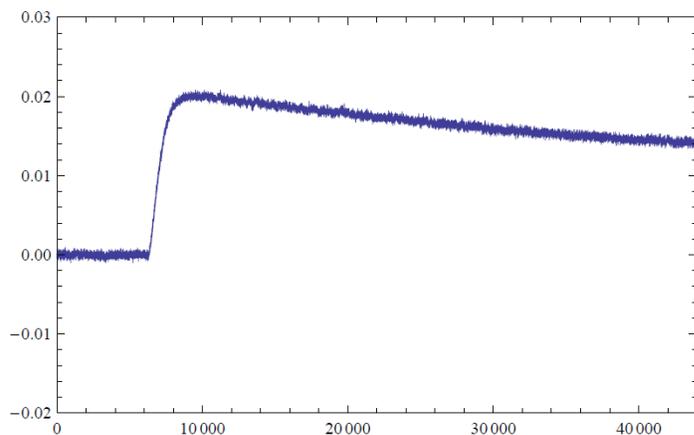
os3 =  $\left( \sum_{i=1}^m \text{data3}[[i]] \right) / m$ ; (* calculate the offset *)
data3 = (data3 - os3); (* offset adjustment,
now data3 is almost zero before photolysis *)
data4 = Table[data2[[i, 2]], {i, n1}]; (* off-peak data trace ignoring time *)

os4 =  $\left( \sum_{i=1}^m \text{data4}[[i]] \right) / m$ ; (* calculate the offset *)
data4 = (data4 - os4); (* offset adjustment,
now data4 is almost zero before photolysis *)
data5 = data3 - (I0 / I00) data4; (* on-peak trace subtracted by off-
peak trace to remove common mode noise (scaled to both I_0) *)

os5 =  $\left( \sum_{i=1}^m \text{data5}[[i]] \right) / m$ ; (* calculate the offset *)
data5 = data5 - os5; (* offset adjustment,
now data5 is almost zero before photolysis *)
```

```
ni = 6000; nf = 50000;  
(* this paragraph is to check how good the background subtraction is. The off-  
peak trace can have small depletion or absorption. Normally multiple off-  
peak traces near the HO2 absorption peak are measured to check  
if the small depletion or absorption is uniform near the peak. *)  
vmax = 0.03; vmin = -0.02; (* plot range of the signal *)  
fig1 = ListPlot[Take[data3, {ni, nf}], Frame → True,  
  PlotRange → {{0, nf - ni}, {vmin, vmax}}, Axes → False, Joined → True]  
  (* plot the on-peak raw data *)  
fig2 = ListPlot[Take[data4, {ni, nf}], Frame → True,  
  PlotRange → {{0, nf - ni}, {vmin, vmax}}, Axes → False, Joined → True]  
  (* plot the off-peak raw data *)  
fig3 = ListPlot[Take[data5, {ni, nf}], Frame → True,  
  PlotRange → {{0, nf - ni}, {vmin, vmax}}, Axes → False, Joined → True]  
  (* data trace after background subtraction,  
  peak voltage is used to calculate peak HO2 yield in the Excel worksheet *)
```

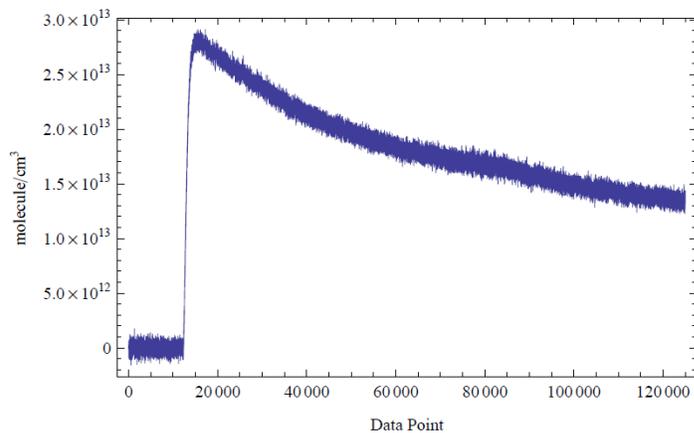




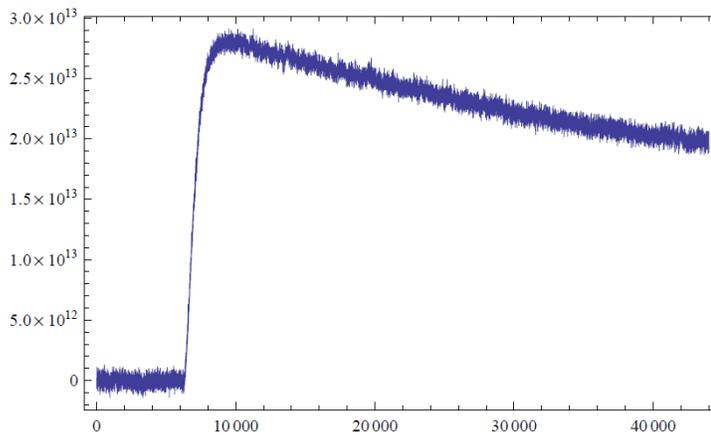
```

 $\sigma = 9.02 \times 10^{-20}$ ; (* effective HO2 peak absorption cross section
  calculated by the Excel worksheet. Measured HO2 signal is normalized
  to that of methanol system, which has a near unity HO2 yield. *)
abl = 1500; (* absorption length calculated by the Excel worksheet *)
concentration = Log[I0 / (I0 - data5)] / (abl *  $\sigma$ );
(* calculate concentration time profile *)
ListPlot[concentration, Frame  $\rightarrow$  True, PlotRange  $\rightarrow$  All,
  Axes  $\rightarrow$  False, Joined  $\rightarrow$  True, FrameLabel  $\rightarrow$  {"Data Point", "molecule/cm3"}]
(* plot the whole concentration profile *)

```



```
ListPlot[Take[concentration, {ni, nf}], Frame → True,
  PlotRange → All, Axes → False, Joined → True] (* zoom in a little bit *)
```



```
result = Table[{0, 0}, {i, 1, n1 + 2}];
(* this paragraph exports the calculated HO2 time profile,
  normalized to the initial Cl concentration *)
result[[1]] = {"time", "HO2"};
result[[2]] = {"us", ToString[Tp] <> "K"};
(* time is in micro second, and temperature *)
For[i = 3, i < n1 + 3, i++, result[[i]] =
  {SetPrecision[t0 + dt * (i - 3), 5], SetPrecision[concentration[[i - 2]] / c10, 4]};
(* time is generated with t0 and dt *)
Export[address <> file <> ".txt", result, "TSV"]
(* export the results to the same directory *)
Mean[Take[concentration, 500]]
(* average of the first 500 concentration data points *)
StandardDeviation[Take[concentration, 500]]
(* standard error of the first 500 concentration data points,
  used as an estimation of the detection limit of the experiments *)
```

C:\Haifeng\CRF_Data\2014-05-04\20140504-00000.txt

1.75627×10^{10}

3.78552×10^{11}

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