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Numerical investigation of water impurity effects on CO₂ Plasma conversion yield

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Résumé

L'émission de dioxyde de carbone représente un défi environnemental important, principalement en raison de son impact sur le climat par le biais de l'effet de serre. Il est donc essentiel de mettre au point des procédés à haut rendement énergétique pour la conversion de CO_2 afin de produire des combustibles à partir de sources d'énergie renouvelables. La production de CO à partir de CO_2 peut être réalisée avec une grande efficacité grâce à l'utilisation de réacteurs à plasma micro-ondes. La présence d'impuretés dans le gaz de traitement a un impact significatif sur l'efficacité du processus de conversion.

Ce rapport présente les résultats préliminaires du développement d'un modèle complet de dissociation thermique du CO_2 avec les impuretés de l'eau. Un modèle de dissociation cinétique pour CO_2 a été développé qui s'aligne étroitement sur l'équilibre chimique calculé thermodynamiquement. Le modèle a été amélioré pour être utilisé dans une gamme de températures plus large grâce à l'extension aux réactions du carbone atomique. La précision de plusieurs modèles pour la dissociation de H_2O a été évaluée par rapport à l'équilibre chimique. Cependant, aucun modèle approprié n'a pu être identifié pour être intégré au modèle de dissociation de CO_2 .

Les résultats représentent une étape importante dans le développement d'un modèle complet permettant d'étudier l'impact des impuretés de l'eau sur l'efficacité de la conversion de CO_2 en CO.

Mots-clés :

Conversion du CO_2 par plasma, dissociation du CO_2 , étude numérique, effets des impuretés de l'eau, dissociation du H_2O .

Abstract

Carbon dioxide emissions represent a significant environmental challenge, largely due to their impact on the climate via the greenhouse effect. It is therefore essential to develop highly energy-efficient processes for the conversion of CO_2 to produce combustible fuels from renewable energy sources. CO is an intermediate product in the conversion to combustible fuels. Production of CO from CO_2 can be achieved with great efficiency through the utilization of microwave plasma reactors. The presence of impurities in the process gas, however, has a significant impact on the efficiency of the conversion process.

This work presents preliminary results in the development of a comprehensive thermal CO_2 dissociation model with water impurities. A kinetic dissociation model for CO_2 was developed which closely aligns with the thermodynamically calculated chemical equilibrium. The model was further improved for use in a broader temperature range through extension with atomic carbon reactions. Validation of the enhanced model is possible with thermodynamic calculations for pressures ranging from 1 Pa to 1 MPa, at temperatures between 1000 K and 7000 K. In addition, verification of the CO_2 dissociation models is possible with published experiments. The accuracy of multiple models for H_2O dissociation was benchmarked against chemical equilibrium. However, no suitable model could be identified for integration with the CO_2 dissociation model.

The results of this work indicate that more work is necessary on water dissociation models. CO_2 dissociation models were verified, which represents an important step in the development of a comprehensive model for investigating the impact of water impurities on the conversion efficiency of CO_2 to CO.

Keywords:

Plasma-based CO_2 conversion, CO_2 dissociation, numerical investigation, water impurity effects, H_2O dissociation

Contents

1. Introduction	1
2. Fundamentals	3
2.1. Plasma	3
2.1.1. Microwave plasma	5
2.1.2. Quenching	6
2.2. Thermodynamic calculations	7
2.2.1. Chemical Equilibrium	7
2.2.2. CEARUN	8
2.3. Kinetic model	9
2.3.1. Density	11
2.3.2. Pressure	12
2.4. Code validation	13
2.5. Benchmarking of different models	14
3. CO₂ dissociation	15
3.1. NASA CEA	15
3.2. Code validation	16
3.3. Benchmarking	19
3.4. Addition of carbon atom kinetics	22
3.4.1. Validation with shock tube experiment	24
3.4.2. Model validation with thermodynamic results	24
3.5. Quenching	26
4. H₂O dissociation	31
4.1. NASA CEA	31
4.2. Kinetic model	32
4.2.1. Srinivasan model	32
4.2.2. Lédé model	34
4.2.3. Avtaeva model	35
4.2.4. Medodovic model	36
4.2.5. Liu model	38
5. Summary and Outlook	41

Sommaire récapitulatif en français: Étude numérique des effets des impuretés de l'eau sur le rendement de conversion du CO₂ par plasma	45
List of Figures	69
List of Tables	73
Bibliography	75
A. CEARUN files for CO₂	81
A.1. 1000 - 3000 K	81
A.2. 3100 - 5100 K	87
A.3. 5200 - 6100 K	94
B. CO₂ Dissociation Models	99
B.1. den Harder Model	99
B.2. Koelman Model	100
B.3. Combined den Harder/Beuthe Model	101
C. CEARUN files for H₂O	103
C.1. 1000 - 3000 K	103
C.2. 3100 - 5100 K	108
C.3. 5200 - 6100 K	113
D. H₂O Dissociation Models	119
D.1. Srinivasan Model	119
D.2. Lede Model	120
D.3. Avtaeva Model	121
D.4. Mededovic Model	122
D.5. Liu Model	124

1. Introduction

Rapid economical growth and industrialization increases the human demand for energy. Currently the main energy source is fossil fuels. This consumption of fossil fuels has led to a massive increase in CO₂ emissions [1–3]. Emissions of carbon dioxide are currently one of the main environmental challenges due to their direct impact on climate via the greenhouse effect. Reduction of carbon emissions is of crucial importance in the effort to combat climate change [4].

CO₂ emissions into the atmosphere could be decreased by conversion of CO₂ into fuels and other high-value chemical products, therefore establishing a ‘carbon cycle’ which consists of carbon capture, production and consumption. Furthermore, this process should also address issues that are a consequence of the decline in the availability of fossil resources [5]. In recent years, plasma based chemistry has attracted a lot of attention because of the opportunity to use renewable energy sources for the direct conversion of stable molecules such as CO₂ into CO and O₂ without the need for a catalyst [6].

Microwave plasma conversion of CO₂ is one of the most energy-efficient processes currently available. For the production of CO₂ neutral fuels, microwave plasma reactors are powered by renewable electrical energies such as hydroelectric power, wind or solar energy. To achieve energy-efficient and CO₂ neutral fuel production, a high CO₂ to CO conversion yield is required. To achieve high efficiency, the gas is rapidly cooled by quenching. A crucial factor in this process is the proportion of CO lost during cooling. This factor indicates how much CO is unintentionally converted back into other species, reducing the overall efficiency.

Captured CO₂ can be fed into a microwave plasma reactor, where it is then converted by pyrolysis into CO, O and O₂. At temperatures above 5000 K, further pyrolysis of CO into C and O is possible. The heated gas mixture is then rapidly cooled down by quenching to sustain the chemical composition to the greatest possible extent. The CO produced is captured and can be further used for basic chemicals or fuel synthesis. Together with hydrogen, CO forms syngas, which is already a combustible fuel and can be further liquified into gasoline. CO₂ neutral fuel production is only possible if all the electrical energy which is required in production and storage originates from renewable energy sources.

Promising CO₂ conversion results have been obtained using low pressure, high temperature plasma sources which are best suited for industrial applications. However, the impact of impurities in the gas feed can be detrimental to the plasma process. This work aims to investigate the impact of an ever-present impurity in CO₂ sources, i.e. water vapour, on the CO₂ conversion yield. Water molecules as an additive are still highly debated regarding their potential benefits or actual negative effects on CO₂ conversion by plasma. Recently, Kiefer et al. [7] provided an extensive dataset indicating a strongly decreasing CO₂ conversion rate with the introduction of ambient air in the reactor compared to dry air. The group claims one possible explanation is the presence of moisture in the air introduced into the reactor. In contrast, Ong et al. [8] propose that water may be beneficial to the CO₂ dissociation process, given that it has a higher thermodynamic potential, which facilitates a more efficient dissociation pathway [8].

Preliminary work for the further theoretical investigation of this statement is done in this work through the development of CO₂ and H₂O 0D-kinetic dissociation models, which are each benchmarked regarding their accuracy against the chemical equilibrium calculated with NASA's CEA solver. These two parts are necessary for the theoretical investigation of the claims from Kiefer et al. [7], where the models should be combined for a comprehensive CO₂–H₂O 0D-kinetic dissociation model. Further reactions must be considered for the components of CO₂ and H₂O.

2. Fundamentals

The aim of this work is to numerically investigate the influence of water vapour on the CO₂ conversion yield in a plasma reactor. In this chapter, the basics of plasma are explained, as well as the different approaches to calculating the equilibrium composition.

2.1. Plasma

Plasma is also known as the ‘fourth state of matter’ alongside solids, liquids and gases [8, 9]. Over 99 % of the visible universe consists of plasma [10]. In solid bodies particles are arranged and packed closely, their mobility is restricted. In liquids, they can move but only with limited freedom. In gases, the molecules and atoms can move freely [9]. In a plasma, electrons are freed from the atoms or molecules, forming charged ions. Molecules become more energetic with rising temperatures and matter is transformed in a sequence from solid, to liquid, to gas and finally gradually to a plasma [10]. As the transition occurs gradually with increasing temperature, it is not a phase transition (see table 2.1) in the thermodynamical sense, even though it is usually labeled as a phase transition [11].

Table 2.1. Possible phase transitions. To transition to the plasma state of matter, the species must be gaseous. There is no possible way for a direct phase transition from a solid or liquid directly into a plasma as its a continuous process from the gas phase [11]. The transition to plasma is not considered a phase transition in the thermodynamical sense, but usually labeled as such.

From \ To	Solid	Liquid	Gas	Plasma
Solid		Melting	Sublimation	
Liquid	Freezing		Vaporization	
Gas	Deposition	Condensation		Ionization
Plasma			Recombination	

Plasma is defined as an highly energized (ionized) gas with an overall neutral electrical charge. The macroscopically quasi-neutral substance consists of molecules, free electrons, ions and radicals as displayed in figure 2.1 [11]. A plasma is formed from a neutral gas when the gas is subject to sufficiently high energy. This energy is specific for each gas and is necessary for ionization of the gas molecule. The electrons are then removed from the neutral gas molecule and a charged gas molecule is formed. This charged gas becomes highly conductive, so that electric and magnetic fields can influence its behaviour and

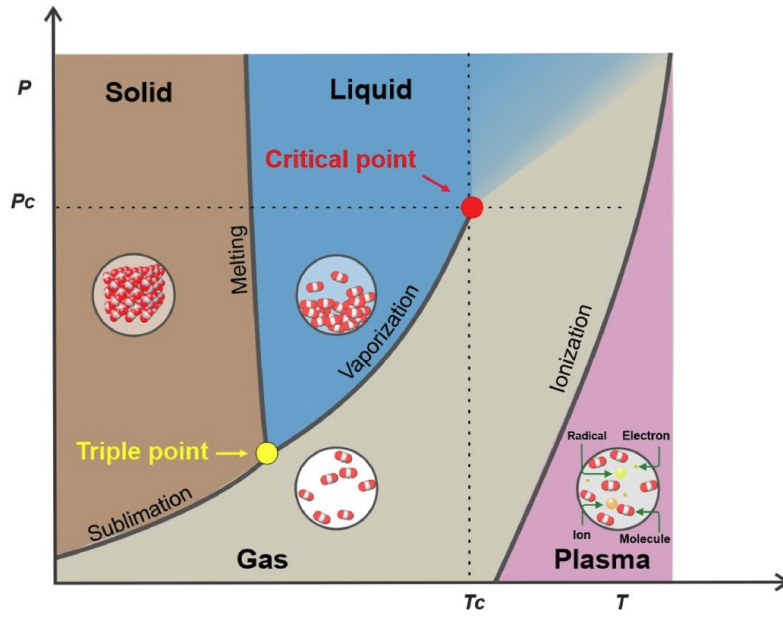


Figure 2.1. The phase diagram shows the states of matter in dependence of temperature (x axis) and pressure (y axis). On the intersections between the different phases, the name of the respective phase transition is given. The critical point is at a substance specific critical temperature and critical pressure, where all three phases coexist. Above this point it is not possible to distinguish between a liquid and a gas. The arrangement of the molecules is displayed in each state as a schematic. From this diagram it is clear that plasma only occurs at high temperatures, even at low pressures. (Cf. [8, Figure 2]).

change the shape of a plasma. It follows a collective behaviour due to Debye shielding, where the charged particles influence other close particles within their shielding length (Debye length) by Coulomb interactions.

The main difference from a gas is that the atoms and molecules are ionized in the plasma and that the particles interact with electromagnetic (EM) fields, whilst particles in a gas are neutral and individually interact with EM fields. Key characteristics of plasma are:

- Macroscopic quasi-neutrality
- Debye shielding
- Ionization

At the edge of a plasma, a boundary layer is formed. The plasma sheath is formed due to the higher mobility of electrons compared to ions, leading to charge separation and the creation of an electric field which repels electrons and attracts ions, resulting in a thin ion-rich sheath near the adjacent material. This charge separation creates a potential difference across the sheath, with the plasma side being at a higher potential than the surface of the adjacent material. There are various types of plasma reactors. The

most common ones are dielectric-barrier-discharge (DBD) reactors, where the plasma is generated between two electrodes with a dielectric material in-between. For this plasma breakdown, high electric fields are required. For CO_2 dissociation, microwave plasma reactors are most commonly used. Therefore these will be explained in more detail in the following section.

2.1.1. Microwave plasma

Microwave plasma refers to a plasma which is generated and sustained by the utilization of microwave electromagnetic radiation, typically with a frequency of 915 MHz or 2.45 GHz [12–15]. For CO_2 dissociation, microwave plasma torches are most common due to their higher energy efficiency and their high CO_2 conversion values [7]. The schematic setup of such a plasma reactor is displayed in figure 2.2.

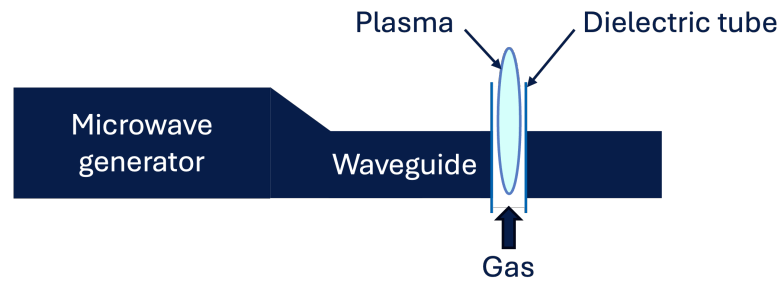


Figure 2.2. A schematic overview of a typical microwave plasma torch setup. The microwaves are generated and then coupled into the waveguide, which guides the microwaves to the dielectric tube where the gas absorbs the microwaves and the energy is high enough to ionize the gas. To sustain the plasma, a gas is continuously fed into the dielectric tube. The waveguide is designed in such a way that a maximum of the EM wave is at the intersection of the dielectric tube and the waveguide.

The key components of a microwave plasma system are:

- Microwave Source: Production of high-frequency electromagnetic waves.
- Waveguide: Guides the microwaves from the source to the discharge chamber.
- Plasma discharge chamber: The dielectric tube in which the gas is ionized and a plasma is formed.

The microwaves are generated at the source and then guided into a stub tuner which is used for impedance matching and to minimize the microwave power reflected from the plasma [7]. From here, the waves are guided through the waveguide to the dielectric tube which is placed in the center of the resonator, located at the maximum of the EM wave. Microwave plasmas can be used for thin film deposition [16], etching [17] or for environmental applications such as CO_2 dissociation [18].

In this thesis, the microwave plasma generator is assumed to be a variable heat source with adjustable temperatures.

In figure 2.2 a schematic of a commonly used microwave plasma torch is presented. The gas is continuously fed into the dielectric tube, where it is ionized by the high energy of the EM waves, resulting in the formation of a plasma. Convective mass transport is of great importance in the context of a microwave plasma torch, as it is essential for the gas mixing and therefore defining the time that the gas is exposed to the plasma. As the ionized gas expands and is forced through the dielectric tube as a plasma jet, this convective flow is also crucial for the transport of the ionized gas out of the plasma region, where it then cools and recombines. The gas flow rate has no influence on the residence time of the gas in the plasma [6]. To prevent recombination of CO to CO₂ during the cooling of a plasma, quenching is introduced in the following section.

Insufficient gas flow rates can result in plasma extinction, due to a lack of sufficient gas particles for ionization, leading to a evaporation of the reaction chamber. However, in a well-designed plasma torch, the plasma can be sustained for extended periods without considerable issues. To achieve this, the gas is injected so that a vortex flow is created.

2.1.2. Quenching

In the field of plasma physics, quenching refers to the rapid cooling of ionized gases, which suppresses the conversion of CO back to CO₂ (known as the 'recombination process'). This process allows for the sustained maintenance of the gas composition from plasma temperatures (several thousand Kelvin) [7]. Quenching is a non-equilibrium effect as the temperature is constantly and rapidly changed before the steady state is reached. Fast quenching is important as the recombination and thermal dissociation is no longer important at room temperatures (300 K) and the reaction products are 'frozen' [19]. It also plays another important role as it withdraws excess energy from the formed products [20]. As the quenching is not instantaneous and the reactants and products remain in the gas phase afterwards, there are still back reactions on the way from the high plasma temperatures, back to room temperature [13]. Quenching is used in almost all CO₂ dissociation reactions as it always leads to higher conversion rates [19]. Kinetic models have shown that cooling rates are best at 10⁶ or 10⁷ K s⁻¹ [22], other models recommend even higher cooling rates for high CO₂ conversion rates [13]. A schematic overview of quenching methods with typical rates of 10⁶ K s⁻¹ is shown in figure 2.3. To reach quenching rates of up to 10⁶ K s⁻¹, the gas mixing method can be used, where a cold gas is rapidly fed into the outflow of the reaction chamber [23]. An additional enhancement to the cooling performance can be achieved by allowing the cold gas to swirl around the ionized gas, which is done by default in high power plasma reactors.

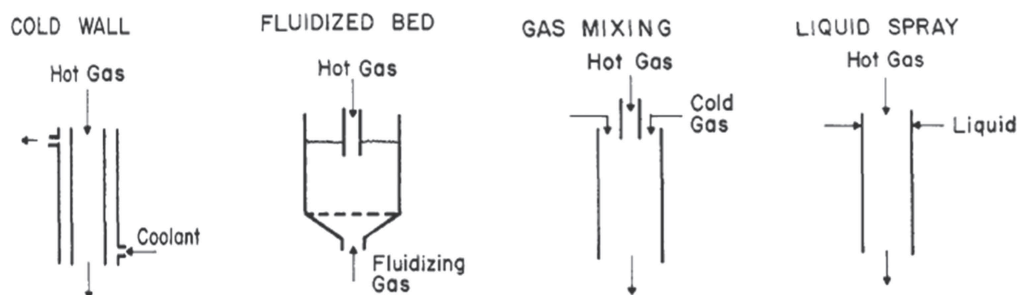


Figure 2.3. Overview of quenching methods. The ionized gas from the plasma is always described as hot gas in the figure. In these processes, the cooling fluid is typically the process gas, which prevents further contamination of the reaction. The only exception is the cold wall method, where any fluid can be used as it should not come in contact with the ionized gas. With these methods, quenching rates of up to 10^6 K s^{-1} are commonly realized. (Cf. [21, Figure 4])

2.2. Thermodynamic calculations

Thermodynamic calculations are performed with the NASA Chemical Equilibrium and Application (NASA CEA) solver, which is a program to calculate the chemical equilibrium compositions and properties of complex mixtures by minimization of the Gibbs free energy. It represents the latest in a number of programs developed by NASA at the Glenn Research Center since the 1950s [24]. The applications include assigned thermodynamic states, theoretical rocket performance or shock-tube parameter calculations. It is widely used in the aerodynamics and thermodynamics communities. A huge advantage of this approach is that no set of reactions has to be specified a priori [25]. The main disadvantage is the inability to investigate the time-resolved evolution of a system in order to understand how it reaches chemical equilibrium.

2.2.1. Chemical Equilibrium

In chemical equilibrium, the concentration of reactants and products remains constant over time, assuming the system is closed and is at a constant temperature and pressure. The main principle of the CEA Solver to reach chemical equilibrium is the minimization of the Gibbs free energy (G) for specified temperature and pressure with the given reactants [13]. Other ways to calculate chemical equilibrium are the minimization of the Helmholtz energy or the maximization of entropy. The Gibbs free energy, the Helmholtz energy, and the entropy are state functions that maintain different variables at constant values. For the purposes of this thesis, the most suitable approach is the minimization of the Gibbs free energy, as temperature and pressure are its natural variables [25]. The Gibbs free energy is a thermodynamic potential that measures the maximum reversible work which a system can provide with constant temperature and pressure. The Gibbs free energy is

defined as

$$G = H - T \cdot S, \quad (2.1)$$

where H is the enthalpy, T is the temperature and S is the entropy of the system. The enthalpy is defined as,

$$H = U + p \cdot V, \quad (2.2)$$

with the internal energy U , pressure p and volume V of the system. The Gibbs energy G with intensive variables is,

$$G = \sum n_i \mu_i, \quad (2.3)$$

with the sum of the number of particles n_i and the chemical potential μ_i . This expression is only applicable in cases where temperature and pressure remain constant.

With T , p and the number of particles of a species n_i as control parameters, the change in the free Gibbs energy can be expressed as

$$dG = Vdp - SdT + \sum_i \mu_i dn_i \quad (2.4)$$

The minimization of the Gibbs free energy can be specified as

$$dG = \sum_i \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial n_i} \right)_{T,p,n_j \neq n_i} = 0 \quad (2.5)$$

where i is the number of species and n_i is the number of particles of a species i . The advancement of a chemical reaction ξ in time is described as

$$\frac{d\xi}{dt} = \frac{d(n_i(t) - n_i(t=0))}{\nu_i dt} \quad (2.6)$$

with the stoichiometric number ν_i of the species i [26, 27]. The equilibrium of a chemical reaction is therefore:

$$dG = \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial \xi} \right)_{T,p,d\xi} = 0 \quad (2.7)$$

The minimization of Gibbs free energy is solved in CEA using the iterative Newton-Raphson method [25].

2.2.2. CEARUN

In the displayed work, the web-based implementation CEARUN of the CEA solver is used to calculate the chemical equilibrium of the models used [28]. This version is easier accessible compared to the FORTRAN implementation of the CEA solver.

First the type of problem has to be selected from the various applications of the solver. The list of problem types is shown in table 2.2. Each problem type has its own input mask which generates the input file for the CEA solver. In this work, the ‘Assigned

Table 2.2. Problem types in the CEARUN program which can be selected to use the web-based implementation of the NASA CEA solver. Only one problem type can be selected per program run [29]. The selection of any problem type leads to an input mask, specific to the selected problem.

Type Code	Description
rocket	Rocket
hp	Assigned Enthalpy & Pressure
tp	Assigned Temperature & Pressure
det	Chapman-Jouguet Detonation
shock	Shock Tube
tv	Assigned Temperature & Density
uv	Combustion at Assigned Density
sp	Assigned Entropy & Pressure
sv	Assigned Entropy & Density

Temperature and Pressure Problem’ is used. For this, an input of up to 24 different temperatures and up to 24 different pressures is possible. For more temperature steps or pressures, another run of CEARUN is necessary. The reactants of the reactions have to be selected, as well as the ratio of fuels and oxidizers. All mixtures in these calculations are assumed to be pure.

It is furthermore possible to include transport properties. The output can be displayed in mass-fractions or mole-fractions. The output of the program is given in a text file, where the equilibrium composition of the reaction is displayed at any given input pressure and temperature.

2.3. Kinetic model

To understand the temporal development of CO_2 or H_2O dissociation, a 0D-time dependent kinetic model is developed in Python. This model provides a simplified approach for examining chemical reactions and plasma processes in systems where spatial variations are negligible, focusing purely on temporal evolution. This leads to a homogeneous system without gradients. This model was chosen over more complex 1D, 2D or 3D Models due to its simplicity as thermodynamic state functions are independent of space and time. The temporal calculation is important for the simulation of quenching where the temperature is changed in time. The plasma is assumed to be an ideal thermalized bath with an external set temperature, other control parameters in the model are the initial densities or pressures.

The kinetic model is calculated for a defined timespan, with the objective of reaching a steady state at the end of the timespan. A steady state is defined as a point in time where the concentration of the species in the given system is no longer changing. This is of crucial importance for the benchmarking against the chemical equilibrium from the thermodynamic calculations. In contrast, for the simulation of the quenching, the reac-

tion does not have to be in the steady state, as quenching is a non-equilibrium effect.

Table 2.3. Exemplary list of reactions. With the species A, B, C, D and E

Index j	Reaction
1	$A + B \rightarrow C + D + E$
2	$C + D + E \rightarrow A + B$

Each reaction yields a specific rate coefficients, which form the temperature dependent rate coefficients $k_j(T)$. They are calculated using an Arrhenius equation, with dependence of a pre-exponential factor A_j and the activation energy of the reaction E_a .

$$k_j(T) = A_j \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{E_{a,j}}{k_B T}\right), \quad (2.8)$$

where k_B is the Boltzmann constant and T is the temperature. The reaction rates are then calculated with the temperature dependent rate coefficients as input parameter. An example set of reactions is given in table 2.3. For the bimolecular (two-body) reaction 1 the reaction rate of species C over time is

$$\frac{dn_{C,1}}{dt} = k_1(T) \cdot n_A \cdot n_B \quad (2.9)$$

with $k_1(T)$ the temperature dependent rate coefficient of reaction 1, n_A the density of the species A and n_B the density of the species B. In the considered bimolecular reaction rate for species C, the reactants A and B are destructed and the products C, D and E are produced. All production terms have to be considered with a positive sign in the total reaction rate, whilst destruction rates are considered with a negative sign. The reaction rate of the trimolecular (three-body) reaction 2 for species C over time is therefore

$$\frac{dn_{C,2}}{dt} = -k_2(T) \cdot n_C \cdot n_D \cdot n_E \quad (2.10)$$

with $k_2(T)$ the temperature dependent rate coefficient of reaction 1, n_C the density of the species C, n_D the density of the species D and n_E the density of the species E. To respect the conservation of mass, forward and backward reactions are given in table 2.3, so that, the reactions 1 and 2 are in equilibrium. The total reaction rates for each species are calculated as a sum of all the production and destruction terms [13]. Therefore, the total reaction rate for species C over time is

$$\frac{dn_C}{dt} = k_1(T) \cdot n_A \cdot n_B - k_2(T) \cdot n_C \cdot n_D \cdot n_E \quad (2.11)$$

The temporal behaviour is then calculated by numerically integrating the system of dif-

ferential equations over a given time. After this timespan, the system should be at a steady state, which should be equal to the chemical equilibrium.

The chemical reaction constants were implemented as a list. For every species in the reaction there is a separate ordinary differential equation (ODE). With this method, a system of coupled ODEs is created. After solving the system of ODEs, the evolution of the chemical composition can be plotted over time.

For comparison between the CEA solver (see section 2.2) and the 0D kinetic model, the model is solved for a given set of temperatures. Every temperature step needs its own calculation. The final concentrations are then taken after a sufficiently long time and saved in a list, a similar plot to the CEA results can be created from the final concentrations. Coupling the two different approaches of calculating the equilibrium and using the CEA as a verification for the equilibrium composition, a comprehensive analysis of both transient and steady-state behaviours in plasma systems can be performed.

However, these calculations differ from a real setup, as the time can be specified as an indefinite period. Whilst in an actual plasma torch the gas is only at these high temperatures for a few milliseconds before it cools down, this time span is called residence time. It is defined by the convective mass flow.

To simulate the cooling behaviour, quenching is introduced in section 2.1.2. This step is necessary to calculate the chemical composition after cooling. The composition at high temperatures can be sustained by the introduction of high quenching rates, and therefore halting the recombination processes.

2.3.1. Density

In the density based calculation, the volume of the system is constant at all temperatures. The initial density must be calculated in every single temperature step, as the total number density increases. The initial pressure has to be converted into an initial density. For this, the starting point is the ideal gas law,

$$p = nk_B T, \quad (2.12)$$

with the pressure p , the volume V , the number of particles of the gas N , the Boltzmann constant k_B and the gas temperature T . To calculate the number of particles per volume (number density), the ideal gas law from equation 2.12 has to be divided by volume, Boltzmann constant and temperature, as follows

$$\frac{p}{k_B T} = \frac{N}{V} \quad (2.13)$$

From equation 2.13 it is clear that for a constant number of particles the volume only can change if pressure or temperature change, as k_B is a constant.

The number of particles divided by the volume can then be expressed by n_i for each species i .

$$n_i = \frac{N_i}{V} \quad (2.14)$$

The number density for a species i has two adjustable parameters: first is the partial pressure of every species p_i and the second is the gas temperature.

$$n_i = \frac{p_i}{k_B \cdot T} \quad (2.15)$$

The pressure of the system is the sum of all the partial pressures of the different species.

$$p = \sum_i p_i \quad (2.16)$$

With this, the total number density for all species can be calculated as,

$$n = \frac{p}{k_B \cdot T} \quad (2.17)$$

With every calculation where the temperature changes also the number density changes, as the initial pressure is fixed. During the calculation of the kinetic model, the temperature, pressure and number of particles are considered constant, therefore the only parameter which can influence the number density is the volume. In a realistic setup the pressure and temperature are constant, therefore the volume must change. This is realized with the pressure based calculations.

2.3.2. Pressure

To keep a constant pressure in the plasma system at high temperatures, the volume must change during the calculations, therefore pressure based calculation are introduced. The fictional pressure of the system before relaxation is calculated in each time step as the sum of all species in the reaction

$$p_{system} = \sum p_i(t) \quad (2.18)$$

with the pressure $p_i(t)$ dependent on each species i . In the ODEs the densities are converted into partial pressures.

Hence, equation 2.9 for the pressure based model without correction terms is $\frac{dp_{C,1}}{dt}$ the evolution of the pressure of species C over time for the bimolecular reaction 1 from table 2.3

$$\frac{dp_{C,1}}{dt} = k_1(T) \cdot \frac{p_A}{p_{system}} \cdot \frac{p_B}{p_{system}} \quad (2.19)$$

with the partial pressures of the species p_A and p_B and the pressure in the system at each discrete time step p_{system} . With all necessary correction terms applied to equation 2.19

the full term is for reaction rate of the two-body reaction 1 from table 2.3 is

$$\frac{dp_{C,1}}{dt} = k_1(T) \cdot \frac{p_A}{p_{system}} \cdot \frac{p_B}{p_{system}} \cdot corr_2 \cdot p_{corr} \quad (2.20)$$

with a unit correction term $corr_2$ for bimolecular reactions and the pressure correction term p_{corr} . The unit correction term is necessary as the literature values for rate constants are commonly in density based units. As the units change for two-body and three-body reactions, the pressure term has to change too. This correction term was introduced by den Harder et al. [13]. It is a unit correction factor for the density based pre-exponential factor in the temperature dependent rate coefficient. For two-body reactions the correction term is

$$corr_2 = \frac{p_{init}^2}{k_B \cdot T} \quad (2.21)$$

with the pressure of a real system p_{init} , the Boltzmann constant k_B and the Temperature T . p_{init} is the pressure at which the reactions are calculated. For the 3-body reactions, the correction term is

$$corr_3 = \frac{p_{init}^3}{(k_B \cdot T)^2} \quad (2.22)$$

As the volume of the system is kept constant, the pressure rises during the splitting of a molecule into its parts. Due to the non-equilibrium nature of this system, the rise in pressure has to be compensated for in the calculations

$$p_{corr} = \frac{p_{init}}{p_{system}} \quad (2.23)$$

with the correction term p_{corr} , the initial pressure in the system p_{init} and the pressure at each time step p_{system} .

The full term for reaction rate 1 with correction terms applied is

$$\frac{dp_{C,1}}{dt} = k_1(T) \cdot \frac{p_A}{p_{system}} \cdot \frac{p_B}{p_{system}} \cdot \frac{p_{init}^2}{k_B \cdot T} \cdot \frac{p_{init}}{p_{system}} \quad (2.24)$$

The pressure based rate of the trimolecular reaction 2 from table 2.3 would be

$$\frac{dp_{C,2}}{dt} = -k_2(T) \cdot \frac{p_C}{p_{system}} \cdot \frac{p_D}{p_{system}} \cdot \frac{p_E}{p_{system}} \cdot \frac{p_{init}^3}{(k_B \cdot T)^2} \cdot \frac{p_{init}}{p_{system}} \quad (2.25)$$

For a better legibility and comprehensibility, the correction terms are included in the rate constants $k_j(T)$ in the Python implementation of the model.

2.4. Code validation

The code of the newly implemented 0D-kinetic python model for the thermal dissociation of CO₂ was validated by comparing its output to the output of the python implementation

by den Harder et al. [13]. Furthermore an initial Mathematica implementation of the CO_2 model based on table B.1 done by Prof. Carbone (INRS) is used for the validation of the model. These comparisons with the absolute deviations are presented in section 3.2. Validation of the CO_2 and the H_2O models is further possible with the results from shock tube experiments. In a shock tube experiments the reaction rates are experimentally determined. The benchmarked CO_2 model is then further validated with shock tube results from Brabbs et al. [30] which is carried out at pressures of 11 bar to 20 bar.

2.5. Benchmarking of different models

In order to select an appropriate model for the CO_2 and H_2O dissociation combination, it is necessary to choose a comprehensive model from the available literature. Multiple different models are implemented and their output is afterwards benchmarked against the results from NASA's CEA solver. All models from literature are implemented in Python and their output is then benchmarked against the CEARUN output. A small deviation of the output to the CEARUN results is expected.

This deviation can be explained by the different physics employed in the calculation of the chemical composition. NASA's CEA solver employs a minimization of the Gibbs free energy to calculate chemical equilibrium, which is an effective and precise method for determining a system's chemical equilibrium state. In any case, thermodynamics do not allow any investigation of reaction development over time. The kinetic models calculate the chemical composition over time until the steady state is reached, allowing for investigation of the chemical composition at any discrete time step. To conduct quenching simulations, the kinetic calculations are necessary, as similar results cannot be obtained with the CEA solver.

The benchmarking is done with respect to the most correct chemical composition at every temperature step. The following section presents the results of the recently implemented CO_2 dissociation model, employing the aforementioned methods.

3. CO₂ dissociation

In this chapter, the results of the CO₂ calculations will be presented and discussed. The results of the NASA CEA solver will be compared to the output from the developed models. A few different models are taken into account to find the best fitting result for the thermodynamic calculations. Furthermore, issues with the initial implementation of the model will be discussed in section 3.2.

3.1. NASA CEA

The CEARUN program is used with the assigned temperature and pressure program. To cover the entire temperature range from 1000 K to 6100 K in steps of 100 K, multiple runs of CEARUN are performed. The pressure is kept at a constant 100 mbar. The temperature range is chosen to cover all models selected for comparison [13,31,32]. The full input and output files are given in Appendix A. CO₂ is used as fuel and as oxidizer. It must be selected from the periodic table as it is not a standard mixture. No other fuels or oxidizers are chosen, therefore the initial gas mixture is 100 % CO₂. The output of the calculations is then given in mole-fractions. The plot of the output is presented in figure 3.1. CO₂ dissociation starts at 1500 K and CO₂ is fully dissociated at 4000 K. Starting at 5000 K, CO is dissociated into C and O.

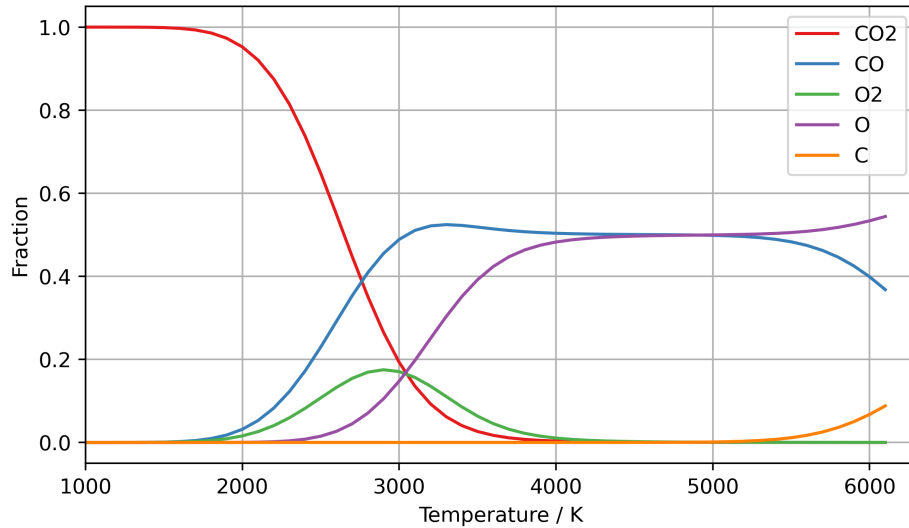


Figure 3.1. Output from CEARUN for a temperature range from 1000 K to 6100 K. The pressure is fixed at 100 mbar.

3.2. Code validation

In this section, the output of the Python model is verified with the result from the implementation of den Harder et al. [13] and a Mathematica model by Prof. Carbone (INRS). Rate constants for the python model were calculated with the values from den Harder et al. [13, Table 1]. A comparison of these results is presented in figure 3.2. The newly implementation is density based and is calculated in a temperature range from 1000 K to 6100 K, the mixtures initial composition is 100 % CO₂ with a calculated density at a pressure of 100 mbar. A time span of 2.5 s is considered for the code validation with the Mathematica model. The full reaction set is given in table B.1.

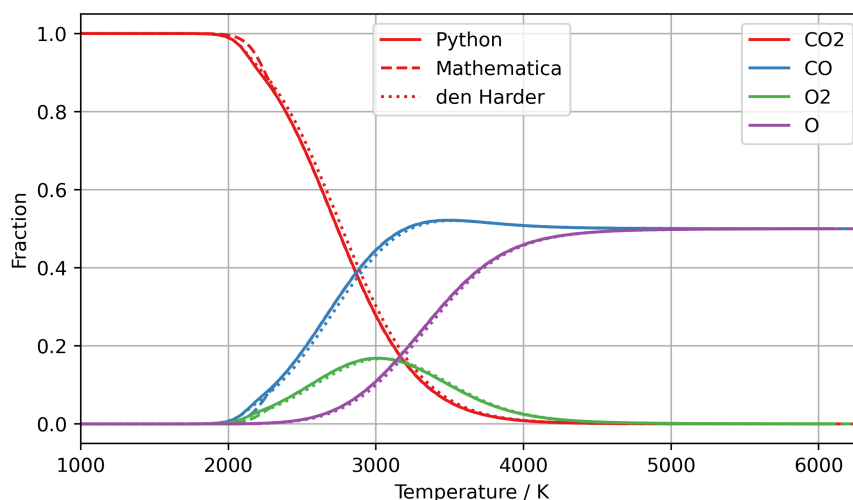


Figure 3.2. Comparison of the newly implemented Python model with den Harder’s implementation and the Mathematica model. The Mathematica implementation clearly deviates in the range from 2000 K to 2300 K. The deviation of the other models is noticeable in the range of 2300 K to 4000 K.

In figure 3.2, a deviation is seen for all the plots. The clear deviation in the range from 2000 K to 2300 K is the Mathematica model, which deviates from the other implementations. This is due to the usage of a different solving algorithm, as the model is later congruent with the python implementation.

However, this does not explain the small but noticeable deviation from den Harder’s original model to the new implementation. To understand this deviation, the paper from which den Harder’s implementation is based on has to be considered. This is a paper from Butylkin et al. [32]. After converting the activation energy necessary to calculate the rate constants from kcal/mole from Butylkin et al. [32] to eV, a deviation for the reactions 9, 10 and 11 is found. The exact numbers are given in table 3.1.

This deviation could only be found after tracing the calculations in the original Python implementation of den Harder et al. [13], where the numbers published and used in the code deviate. After correcting the values of the activation energy, the implementation

Table 3.1. Comparison of the values published in den Harder’s paper and in Butylkin’s paper. The implementation of den Harder directly used the converted values from the original paper.

Index	den Harder in eV [13]	Butylkin in eV [32]	Butylkin in kcal/mole [32]
9	0.13	0.188 33	4.340
10	0.13	0.188 33	4.340
11	0.13	−0.160 55	−3.700

showed the same results as den Harder’, with only a minor deviation, due to numerical inaccuracies. This inaccuracies are probably from the usage of two different solvers in Python. While den Harder’s model uses the odeint function, which is the Python implementation of lsoda from FORTRAN’s library odepack, the new Python implementation uses the solve_ivp function, which is a faster and more modern implementation, with more options regarding the accuracy and usage of different solving methods [33]. In figure 3.3, the corrected implementation is shown with the original implementation. In order to reach the steady state, the time span is extended to 10 000 s.

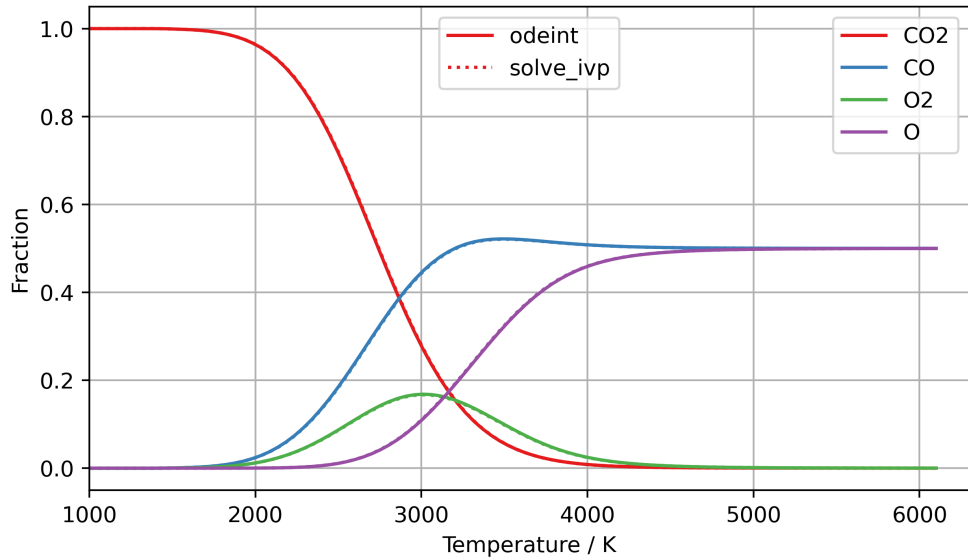
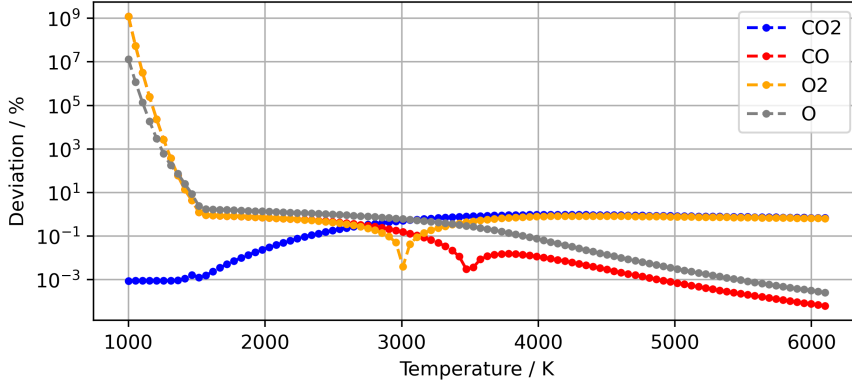


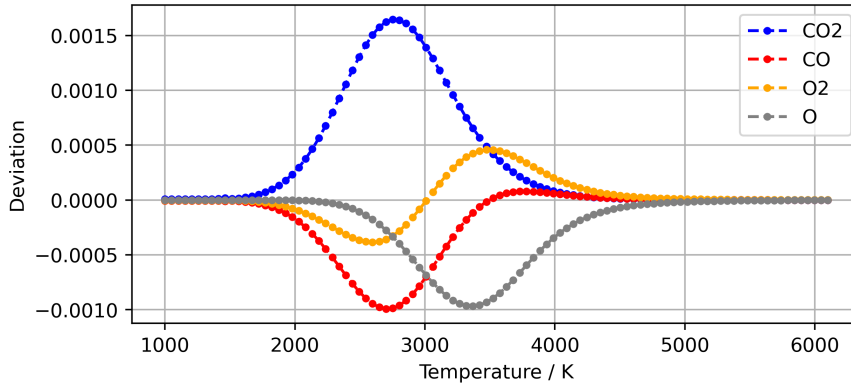
Figure 3.3. Comparison of the Python implementation with odeint from den Harder and the new Python implementation with solve_ivp. It is not possible to see a difference on this scale.

As it is impossible to see a deviation from figure 3.3, the relative deviation of both implementations is presented in Figure 3.4a. A huge deviation up to $1 \times 10^9 \%$ is seen at 1000 K for the oxygen. The deviation descends until it reaches below 1 % at 1500 K. At this temperature no dissociation of CO_2 can be observed in figure 3.3. This is also a probable reason for the deviation. At 1000 K the amount of O_2 is at 1×10^{-6} for

den Harder's implementation. At the same temperature, the amount of O₂ in the new implementation is at 1×10^{-13} . For O, the same behaviour can be observed. This high deviation of the concentrations can only be explained with the usage of different solving algorithms. The relative deviation of CO₂, where there is a high concentration in the beginning, is in the range of 1×10^{-3} %.



(a) Relative deviation of Python implementations



(b) Absolute deviation of Python implementations

Figure 3.4. Relative and absolute deviation for den Harder's model with odeint and the new Python implementation with solve_ivp. The given deviation is always the between den Harder's original implementation and the new Python implementation.

The absolute deviation is given in Figure 3.4b, where it is obvious that the very high relative deviation for temperatures below 1500 K is negligibly low. CO₂ has the highest absolute deviation at 2750 K with 1.6×10^{-3} which translates to a relative deviation of 0.3 %. This is in the range of numerical inaccuracies for the two implementations. The new implementation which uses Python's solve_ivp function is therefore validated within solver accuracy. The following section will present the benchmarking of various

models with the results of the CEARUN solver, with a focus on the accuracy in chemical equilibrium.

3.3. Benchmarking

After the validation of the Python implementation, the model was benchmarked regarding the accuracy with the result of the CEA solver. The previously validated implementation, based on the model from den Harder et al. [13], which uses Python's `solve_ivp` function is from here on labeled as den Harder model. Further considered models are similarly designated. All models are considered in a temperature range from 1000 K to 6100 K, the initial CO_2 density is calculated for a mixture of 100 % CO_2 at 100 mbar, with a considered time span of 10000 s.

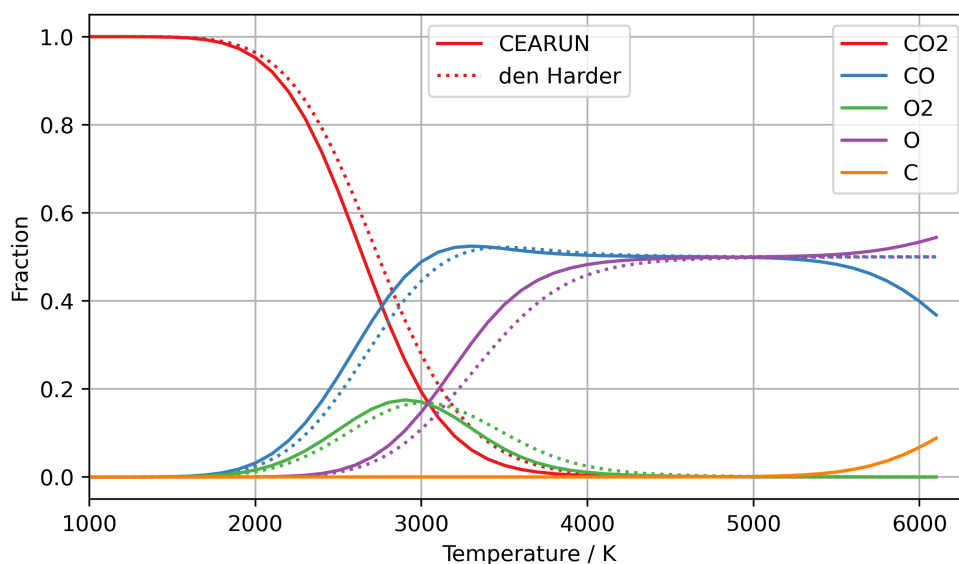


Figure 3.5. Comparison of the CEARUN result and den Harder's model. There is a deviation in the range from 2000 K to 4500 K. Above 5000 K there is again a deviation which is a result of thermal CO dissociation into C and O which is not covered by this model.

There is an obvious deviation from the CEARUN result in figure 3.5. Especially in the temperature range above 5000 K, where the further thermal dissociation of CO is present in the result from CEARUN. This dissociation is not shown in the kinetic model, as carbon is not present in den Harder's model. To get a better result, carbon can be added to the model or another more comprehensive model including carbon can be used. Another comprehensive model is found in the literature from Koelman et al. [31]. The advantage of Koelman's model is that it also features carbon. A implementation of Koelman's model is presented in figure 3.6, together with the result of the CEA solver and the result from den Harder's model. The full set of reactions for Koelman's model is given in table B.2. From figure 3.6, it is clear that the model from Koelman et al. [31] is further away from

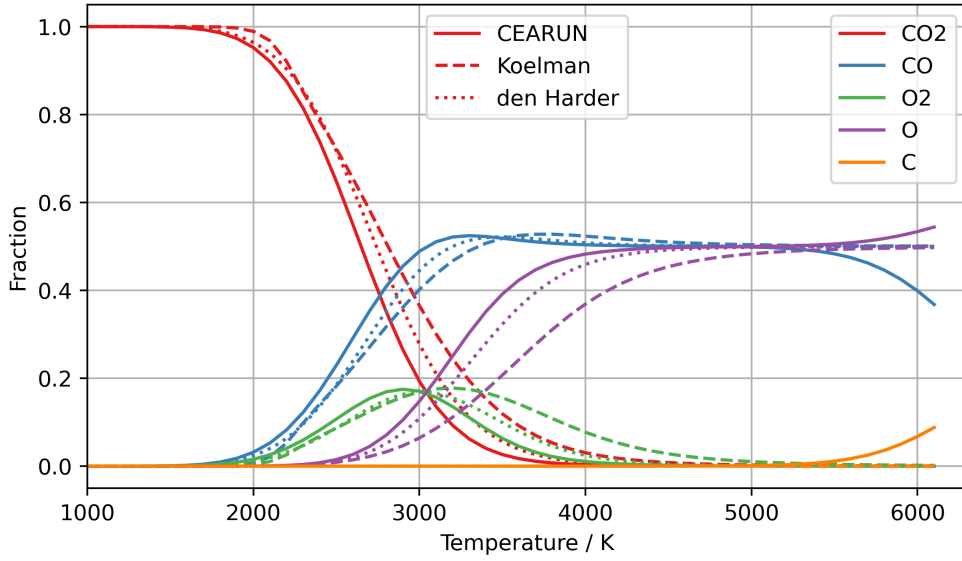


Figure 3.6. Comparison of the CEARUN result, with the den Harder model and the Koelman model. The den Harder model fits far better to the result from CEARUN than the Koelman model.

chemical equilibrium than the model from den Harder et al. [13]. The Koelman model should be more comprehensive than the den Harder model as it adds C, O₃ and C₂O. Following further analysis, it was identified that the results are not better as no production term for C is present in Koelman's model. This means that the further thermal CO dissociation cannot be considered with this model. The O₃ and C₂O also does not show in the results to any meaningful degree. As they are under 20 ppm (parts per million) for every temperature in the CEARUN results, they are therefore not further considered. For all subsequent calculations, the model developed by den Harder et al. [13] is considered, as its final concentrations are more closely aligned with the chemical equilibrium data from CEARUN and no improvement could be found with the model from Koelman et al. [31]. The model from den Harder et al. [13] is improved in the following section 3.4 to also feature carbon.

Beforehand, this model is converted to pressure based calculations. This should bring the model closer to the CEARUN results. The pressure based calculations should be more accurate as the volume of the system changes with density based calculations. With the pressure based calculations, the volume is kept constant, so the pressure can rise within the system. This is especially important when atomic C is added to the den Harder's Model in section 3.4.

The pressure based model is presented in figure 3.7, together with the results of the CEA solver and the previously implemented density based model. A significant improvement

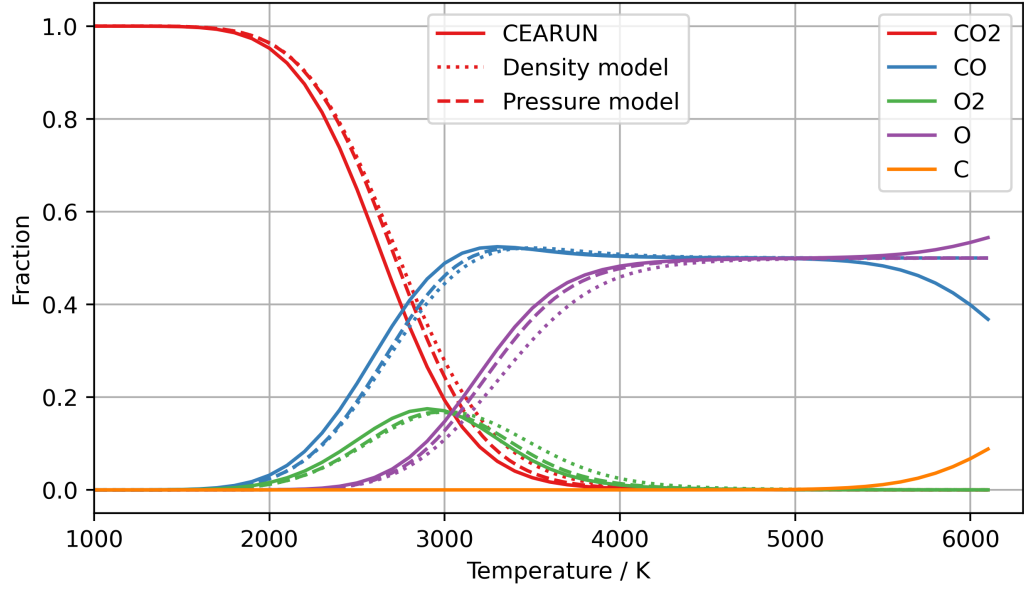


Figure 3.7. In this plot, the result from the CEARUN program is compared to the result from the density based and the pressure based den Harder model.

of the model is noticed by the change to a pressure based model. The absolute deviation of each model against the CEA result is presented in figure 3.8. The change improves the accuracy of the results by notable margin. The greatest improvement is visible in the range from 2000 K to 4000 K with CO and O. These results reinforce confidence in the model to a significant extent. Also, the deviation for O₂ is significantly improved in the range from 3000 K to 4000 K.

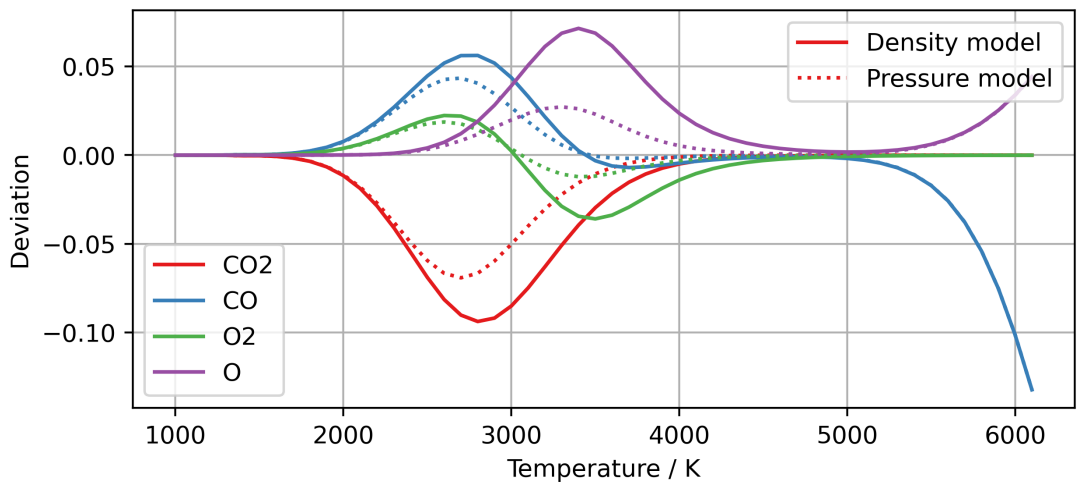


Figure 3.8. The absolute deviation of the density and pressure model against the CEA result is presented.

The greatest absolute deviation from the CEARUN results are at temperatures above 5000 K, this is expected. At these temperatures, the thermal dissociation of CO into C and O becomes a more significant process. This result cannot be reproduced with the current implementation of the kinetic model, as C is not part of it. The following section addresses this issue.

3.4. Addition of carbon atom kinetics

Until now the model does not consider carbon, which is an important species for temperatures above 5000 K. This was not addressed in den Harder's Model before, as temperatures above 5000 K were not considered [13,32]. The calculations in this section are carried out in a temperature range from 1000 K to 6100 K with an initial pressure of 100 mbar. The initial mixture contains 100 % CO₂. The considered time span is 10 000 s.

To consider carbon in the model, a suitable implementation of the thermal CO dissociation must be found. In the publication of Butylkin et al. [32] a carbon production term was found for temperatures below 5000 K. This term is based on a shock tube experiment for CO diluted in argon, published by Fairbairn [34]. This term is implemented but yields no change in the reaction. A more promising set of reactions is found published

Table 3.2. Reactions from Beuthe et al. [35] involving C. These reactions are implemented into the pressure based model. With argon as M (see text for more details). The unit of the reaction rate constants is $\frac{\text{cm}^3}{\text{s}}$ for two-body reactions and in $\frac{\text{cm}^6}{\text{s}}$ for three-body reactions. T_g is the temperature of the gas

Index	Reaction	Reaction rate constants
C1	$\text{CO} + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{C} + \text{O} + \text{M}$	$1.46 \times 10^6 \cdot T_g^{-3.52} \exp(-128700/T_g)$
C2	$\text{CO}_2 + \text{C} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{CO}$	1.0×10^{-15}
C3	$\text{C} + \text{O} + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{M}$	$9.1 \times 10^{-22} \cdot T_g^{-3.08} \exp(2114/T_g)$

from Beuthe et al. [35]. The relevant neutral reactions are given in table 3.2. This model consists of production and destruction terms of the carbon atom. Argon was used as a bath gas in this model. As an implementation of argon would add unnecessary complexity to the model it is circumvented by replacing it with CO₂ as a first step. This is only possible as CO₂ has a similar molecular mass (44 u) compared with argon (40 u). The results from these calculations are displayed in figure 3.9 and yielded an improvement over the den Harder model without atomic carbon. Pyrolysis of CO started in this implementation at too high temperatures, therefore more rate constants for the production terms were investigated.

In the kinetic reaction database of the US American National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) 3 more reaction rate constants are found [36]. These rate constants are originally published by Mick et al. [37], Hanson [38] and Appleton et al. [39]. Mick's reaction rate constant leads to lower C production and the pyrolysis started at even

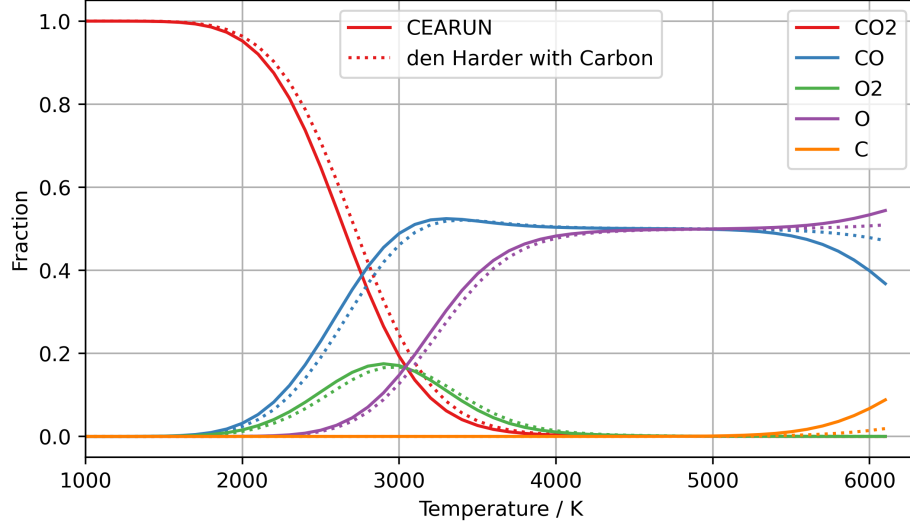


Figure 3.9. The CEARUN result is presented with the pressure based den Harder model with carbon from Beuthe’s Model added to it. CO_2 is used as bath gas instead of argon. The the deviation from the CEA result for temperatures above 5000 K is smaller. The additional consideration of carbon enhances the model.

higher temperatures. Hanson’s model presents production of atomic carbon already at temperatures of 4500 K and overestimates the carbon concentration at 6000 K. With Appleton’s model CO is dissociated at too high temperatures. The best fitting result yields Beuthe’s implementation.

To improve the model, the mass of Ar which was previously replaced by CO_2 is considered. The reactions involving C are corrected for the mass. As the CO_2 concentration approaches zero at higher temperatures, the sum of all mass corrected species in the reaction is used as a replacement for argon. So as a result the whole gas is used as process gas instead. After the extension of the model by carbon, the present species are CO_2 , CO, O, O_2 and C. To correct for the mass of the missing argon the following term was multiplied by the reaction rate constants

$$Corr_{Mass} = \frac{\sum \frac{m_i}{m_{Ar}} \cdot p_i}{p_{system}} \quad (3.1)$$

where m_i is the atomic mass of the species i and p_i is the pressure of species i, the atomic mass of argon is m_{Ar} . This correction term is used for the reactions C1 and C3 from table 3.2 as both feature argon in the Beuthe’s original model. The improved model is presented together with the CEARUN result in figure 3.10. The chemical equilibrium is improved, especially for temperatures above 5000 K, where the difference between the solving methods is below 0.01 mole fractions. This now comprehensive model for

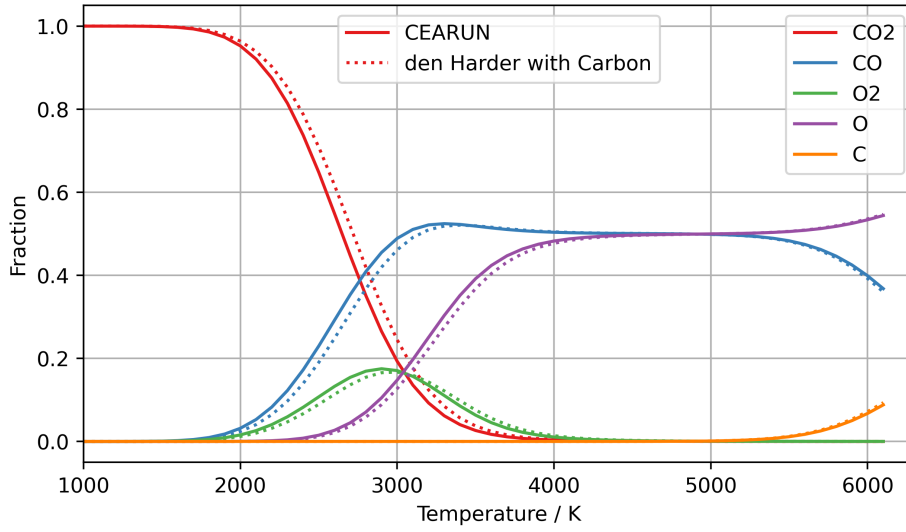


Figure 3.10. The CEARUN result is presented with the improved pressure based den Harder model with carbon from Beuthe’s Model added to it. In the range above 5000 K, the deviation from the CEA result is minimal. The additional mass correction noticeably enhances the model.

temperatures between 1000 K and 6100 K is used in the following section for quenching simulations. The performance of the model at lower temperatures cannot be improved by the addition of carbon, as carbon production does not take place at these lower temperatures. The combined model is given in table B.4.

3.4.1. Validation with shock tube experiment

The implemented pressure based Python model based on den Harder’s model with added atomic carbon reactions from Beuthe et al. [35] is verified in this section with results from shock tube experiments published by Brabbs et al. [30]. The model is validated at a temperature of 2665 K, the shock tube used a pressure of 20.68 atm (20.95 bar). The CO₂ partial pressure was 7.02 %. The publication yields a CO concentration of 7.6 kPa after 600 μ s. The Python implementation is displayed in figure 3.11 and yields a CO concentration of 7.5 kPa after 600 μ s. This deviation is within the range of acceptable reading accuracy. The implemented model is therefore validated.

3.4.2. Model validation with thermodynamic results

The enhanced model with carbon is further validated with thermodynamic results from the CEA Solver. The model is valid from pressures of 1 Pa up to up to 1 MPa in a temperature range from 1000 K to 7000 K. Validation with CEARUN at 1 Pa is displayed in figure 3.12 and the validation at 1 MPa in figure 3.13.

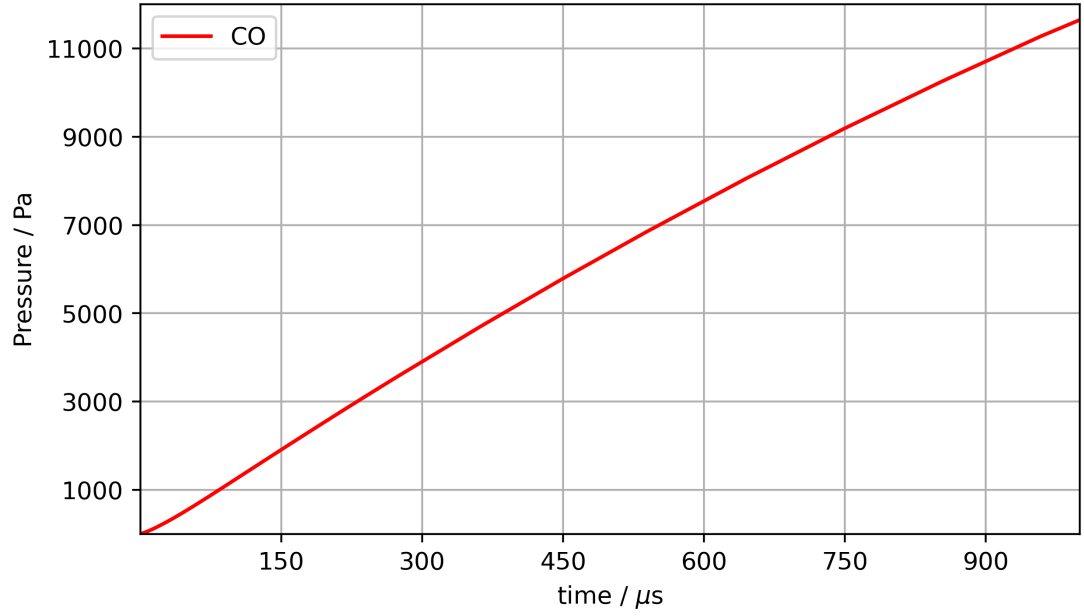


Figure 3.11. The development of CO at 2665 K is shown. The initial CO₂ concentration is 7.02 % of 20.95 bar.

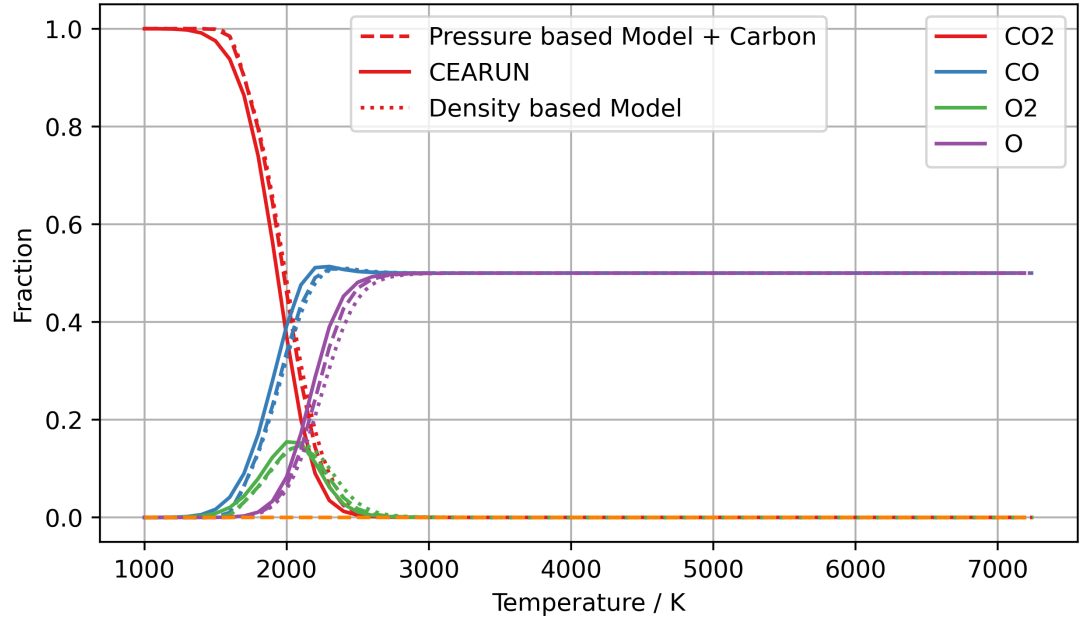


Figure 3.12. Validation of the pressure based model extended with carbon at a pressure of 1 Pa. CEARUN result and density based model are given as references.

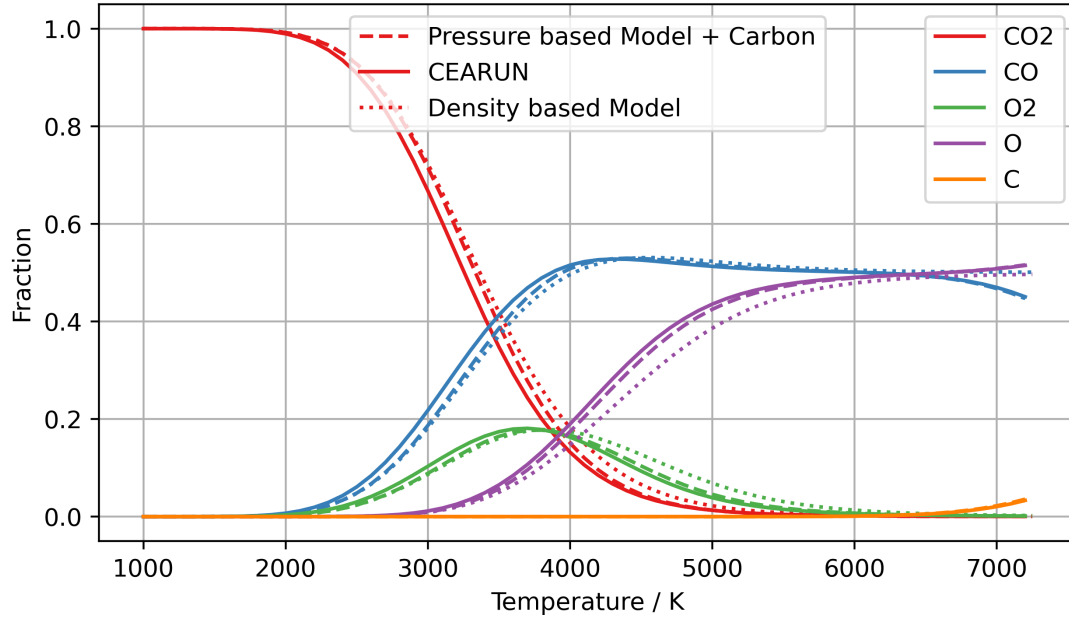


Figure 3.13. Validation of the pressure based model extended with carbon at a pressure of 1 MPa. CEARUN result and density based model are given as references.

3.5. Quenching

In this section, the now enhanced pressure based den Harder model is used to simulate the process of a microwave plasma reactor. The timescale can also be interpreted as a progression scale in the plasma system. In the first few milliseconds, the gas is still at room temperatures and no dissociation of CO₂ can occur. Then the gas is instantaneously heated up to a given temperature where CO₂ dissociation takes place. The gas is kept at this high temperature for a few hundred milliseconds. From this high temperature regime, the now ionized gas enters the cooling area, where the gas is then cooled by quenching. In this process, usually a cold gas swirls around the hot plasma gas to quickly dissipate the heat of the plasma.

In industry and in laboratories, quenching rates of up to 1×10^7 K/s are commonly used. At these quenching rates, the gas can be cooled to room temperature (300 K) from the plasma temperature of 5000 K in less than 0.5 ms. For lower cooling rates, this process can take up to half a second.

In figure 3.14 a simulated quenching experiment is displayed. The gas is heated to 3000 K after 100 ms at room temperature. After 600 ms, the quenching starts until the gas is at room temperature. The recombination of CO₂ is clearly visible in this plot, where the fraction of CO₂ in the gas rises up to 80 % from below 40 % when the reaction reaches equilibrium. It is also very clear that CO, O₂ and O react back to form CO₂. The reverse reactions during quenching lead to the destruction of CO. At room temperature,

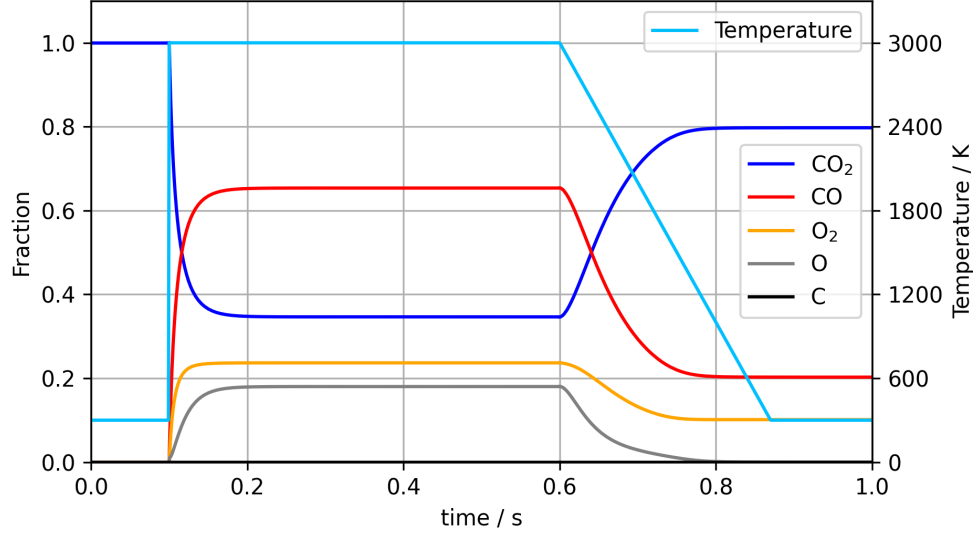


Figure 3.14. The temporal development of the mixture composition is presented. The gas is at room temperature for 100 ms, afterwards it is instantaneously heated to 3000 K where it stays for 500 ms. During this time the CO_2 is dissociated and the other species are produced. After this constant heating period, the gas is quenched and rapidly cooled. In the plot, the cooling rate is 1×10^4 K/s, hence the room temperature is reached after 270 ms. This cooling rate is chosen to better visualize the quenching.

these reactions are suppressed and further reactions are almost halted as the rates are reduced by up to 80 orders of magnitude. This explains the need for fast quenching rates. The model focusses on species which are relevant at high temperatures, therefore species which play a role at low temperatures, such as ozone, are not included [13]. The CO loss is calculated as the percentile loss of the difference between the CO fraction at equilibrium and after quenching.

$$CO_{LOSS} = \frac{\Delta CO}{CO_{Eq}} \quad (3.2)$$

It is highly dependent on the plasma temperature as this determines the composition of the mixture being quenched. The CO loss fraction is presented in figure 3.15.

Most interesting is the evolution of CO losses at a plasma temperature of 6000 K, where the CO loss fraction turns negative at a cooling rate of 4×10^5 K/s due to the CO pyrolysis where CO is dissociated into C and O. The concentration of CO decreases. At the moment prior to cooling, the concentration of CO is lower than after quenching, as the reaction between C and O to form CO occurs during the cooling process.

At cooling rates below 1×10^1 K/s almost all produced CO is lost. For cooling rates between 1×10^1 K/s and 1×10^5 K/s the CO losses are highly dependent on the initial

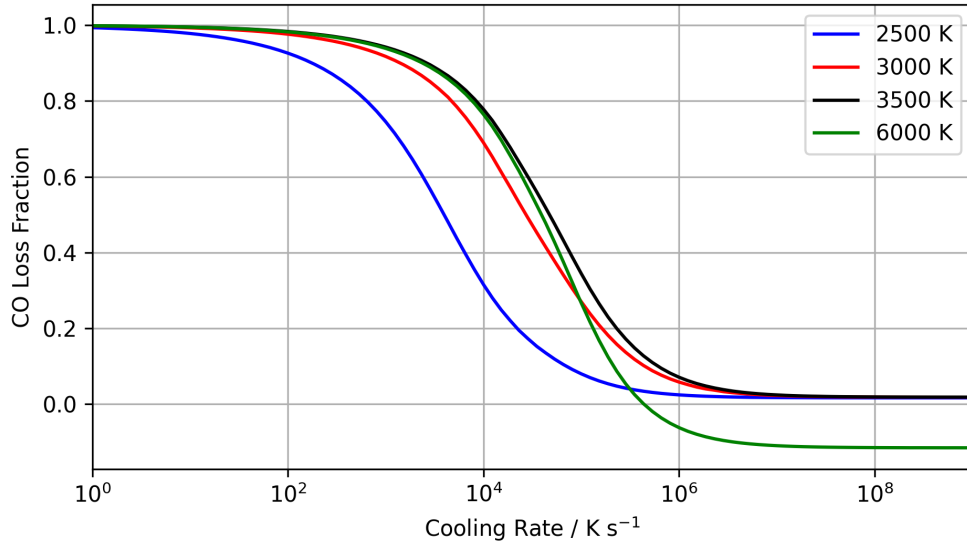


Figure 3.15. The evolution of the CO loss fraction is presented in dependence of the cooling rate. The lowest losses are reached for lower temperatures or at cooling rates above 1×10^7 K/s. A commonly used temperature for quenching is 3000 K as the energy efficiency for the conversion from CO₂ into CO is excellent at this temperature. The temperatures in the legend are the temperatures in the plasma region.

temperature. Towards higher cooling rates, the CO losses saturate at a CO loss fraction of 2 % for all initial temperatures except 6000 K. The point of minimum CO loss is reached earlier for a lower starting temperature, as the room temperature is reached more rapidly. From looking at the temperatures except 6000 K, one conclusion may be that the temperature used may be just a small factor at higher cooling rates. To understand this better in the following the absolute production of CO is taken into account. In figure 3.16 a double logarithmic plot of the production of CO is presented with the cooling rates. The initial CO₂ pressure for all of these temperatures is 10 000 Pa (0.1 mbar). Cooling rates below 1×10^3 K/s do not result in distinguishable differences in CO production, despite the notable reduction in relative CO losses at lower temperatures. Already at cooling rates of 1×10^4 K/s, the production of CO is noticeably higher for higher temperatures. The production of CO also saturates, like the CO losses. The most significant deviation in CO production is in the saturation region. The highest production efficiency is reached at high temperatures and high cooling rates. In this plot the difference between 3500 K and 6000 K is barely noticeable. Due to mass conservation no higher CO production is possible even with negative relative losses. At a cooling rate of 1×10^9 the absolute difference in produced CO is 656 Pa. This is a negligible increase in CO. For reference, the difference between the produced CO at a plasma temperature of 2500 K and the produced CO at 3500 K is 7090 Pa. It can be concluded that the effort

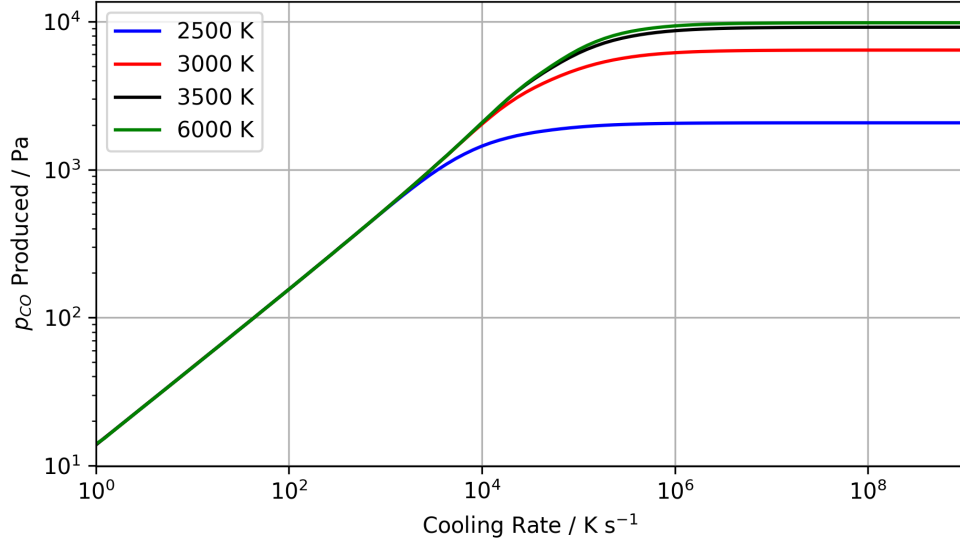


Figure 3.16. Double logarithmic plot of the evolution of the absolute CO production in dependance from the cooling rate. The temperatures in the legend are the temperatures in the plasma region.

to reach temperatures of 6000 K is not a valuable use of resources, given the relatively minor increase in CO production that would result.

Towards lower cooling rates the conversion efficiency rapidly decrease. Therefore it is necessary to produce CO at intermediate plasma temperatures in the range of 3500 K to get the best conversion efficiency for the used resources. Much higher plasma temperatures are also not desirable as the minor increase in CO production cannot outweigh the massively increased resource usage.

In conclusion, the most effective CO production is achieved at 3500 K, with quenching rates at or above 1×10^6 K/s. At lower temperatures, too little CO is produced and at higher temperatures the increase of resource usage does not justify the minor increase in CO production. At lower cooling rates, the recombination of CO is too high and therefore the production and energy efficiency decrease rapidly.

4. H₂O dissociation

In this chapter, all results from the water (H₂O) dissociation calculations are discussed. The NASA CEA solver is employed to calculate the composition at chemical equilibrium. The output from implemented models are then compared to the output from CEARUN. Several models are compared to find the most suitable result. Issues with models will be discussed throughout the chapter.

4.1. NASA CEA

The CEARUN solver is used with the assigned temperature and pressure module. For water, the same temperature range from 1000 K to 6300 K in steps of 100 K is chosen. To cover the entire range, multiple runs of the program are performed. The pressure is kept at a constant value of 1 bar. This temperature range covers and even exceeds all the selected models [40–44]. The full input and output files are given in Appendix C. A mixture of 100 % gaseous H₂O is used as fuel and oxidizer. As this is not a standard mixture, it is selected from the periodic table. No other species are initially present. The output is given in mole-fractions. The output is presented in figure 4.1. The CEARUN result is always displayed as solid line.

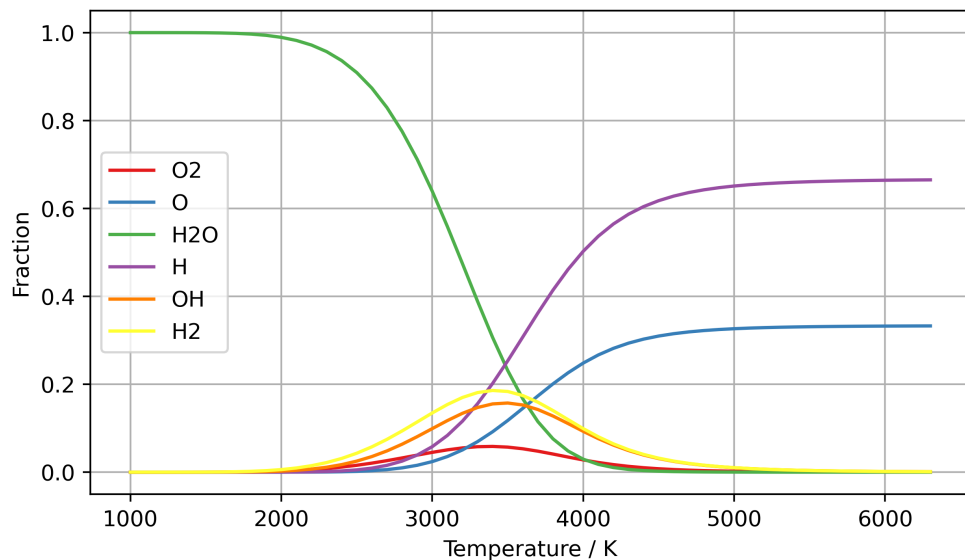


Figure 4.1. Output from CEARUN for a temperature range from 1000 K to 6300 K. The pressure is fixed at 1 bar.

4.2. Kinetic model

The kinetic models are benchmarked with respect to the accuracy against the results from the CEARUN presented in figure 4.1.

4.2.1. Srinivasan model

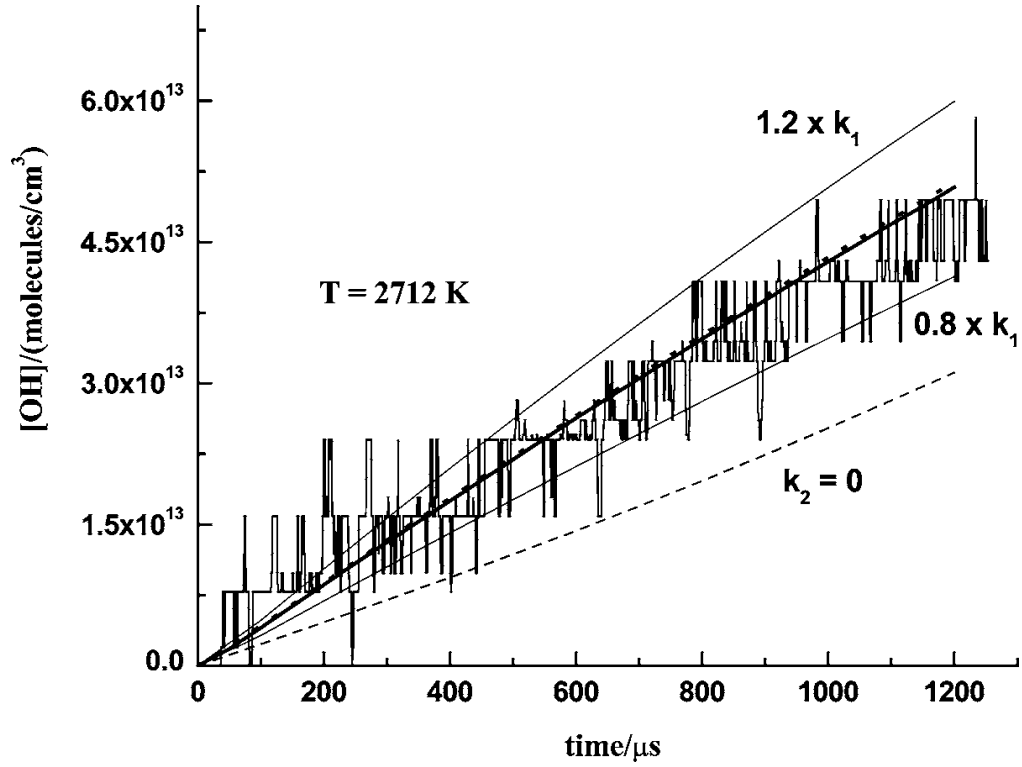
The first model is a shock tube experiment, from Srinivasan et. al. [40]. Beforehand, this model is validated with the published temporal OH absorption plot. In the publication, the model is fitted to the measured values. The values are recorded at a temperature of 2712 K, a pressure of 5.95 Torr (790 Pa), with a initial H_2O concentration of 4.253×10^{15} molecules cm^{-3} , the overall density of molecules in the shock tube region is 1.431×10^{-18} molecules cm^{-3} [40, Figure 2]. The full model is presented in table D.1. A side-by-side comparison is presented in figure 4.2; in 4.2a the OH absorption is presented as published by Srinivasan et al. [40].

The gradient of the OH profile is the same in figures 4.2a and 4.2b. It is not possible to compare the exact numbers as they were not published by Srinivasan et al. [40]. The implementation is successfully validated with this comparison.

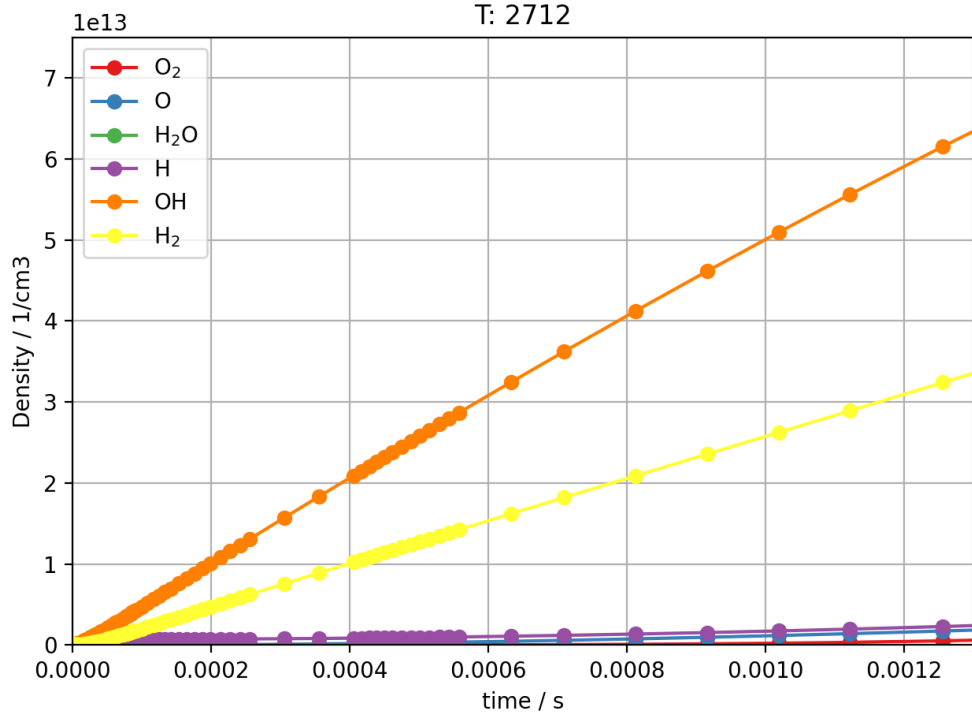
The Srinivasan model is benchmarked against the CEARUN result. To reach the steady state, the Srinivasan model is calculated for 10 000 s, for the comparison with CEARUN the initial H_2O density is calculated at a pressure of 1 bar. The comparison is presented in figure 4.3.

There is a very clear deviation between the kinetic steady state calculations and the chemical equilibrium. The dissociation of H_2O occurs at temperatures that are considerably lower than in the CEA result. From this result, it is clear that the values published by Srinivasan et. al. [40] are not measured at the steady state of the reaction. Therefore the fitted parameters lead to wrong results in simulations with higher simulation times. A result closer to chemical equilibrium is desirable. In order to obtain a useful result the calculation time is changed to 1.3 ms. Which is the end time of the OH measurement in figure 4.2a. This should lead to H_2O dissociation temperatures closer to the results from CEARUN. The results of these calculations are presented in figure 4.4.

The calculations still lead to H_2O dissociation at excessively low temperatures. The calculation times would have to be even shorter to get close to the chemical equilibrium. For temperatures above 5000 K the steady state of the model and the chemical equilibrium seem to come closer. Therefore the model would be good for high temperatures, but is unsuitable for temperatures between 1000 and 5000 K. Srinivasan's model is not converted to pressure based calculations, as it is not sufficiently close to chemical equilibrium to justify for such a conversion. Furthermore, quenching simulations are not conducted, as the calculations lead to an incorrect composition in the interesting range around 3000 K.



(a) Figure 2 from Srinivasan et al. [40] publication, the thick solid line is the model fitted to the OH profile



(b) Result from the implemented model, the orange OH line has the same gradient as the published plot.

Figure 4.2. Comparison of the OH profile from Srinivasan et al. [40] and the implemented model based on their publication. Both figures yield the same gradient for the OH profile.

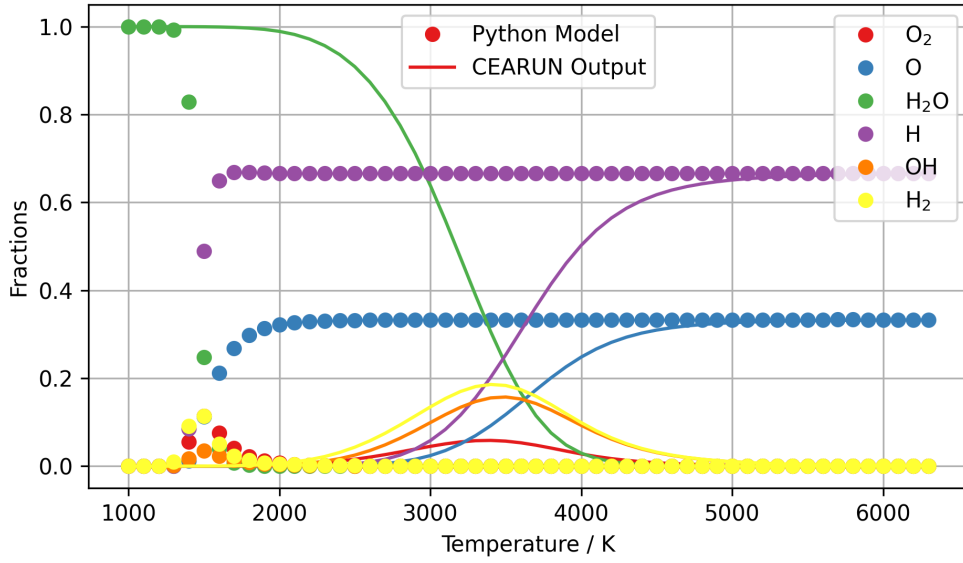


Figure 4.3. Comparison of the Python implementation from Srinivasan et al. [40] with the CEARUN result. The initial H_2O density is calculated at 1 bar. The datapoints for this plot are taken after 10 000 s.

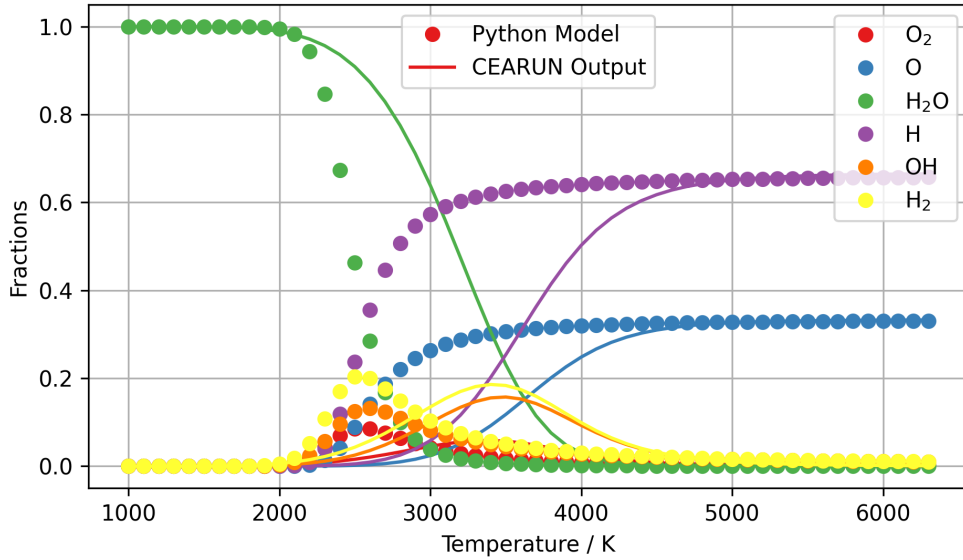


Figure 4.4. Comparison of the Python implementation from Srinivasan et al. [40] with the CEARUN result. The calculation time is 1.3 ms, the pressure is kept at 1 bar.

4.2.2. L  d   model

Another model is published by L  d   et al. [41]. With this model, it is not possible to calculate the steady state as it has massive convergence issues due to numerical inaccu-

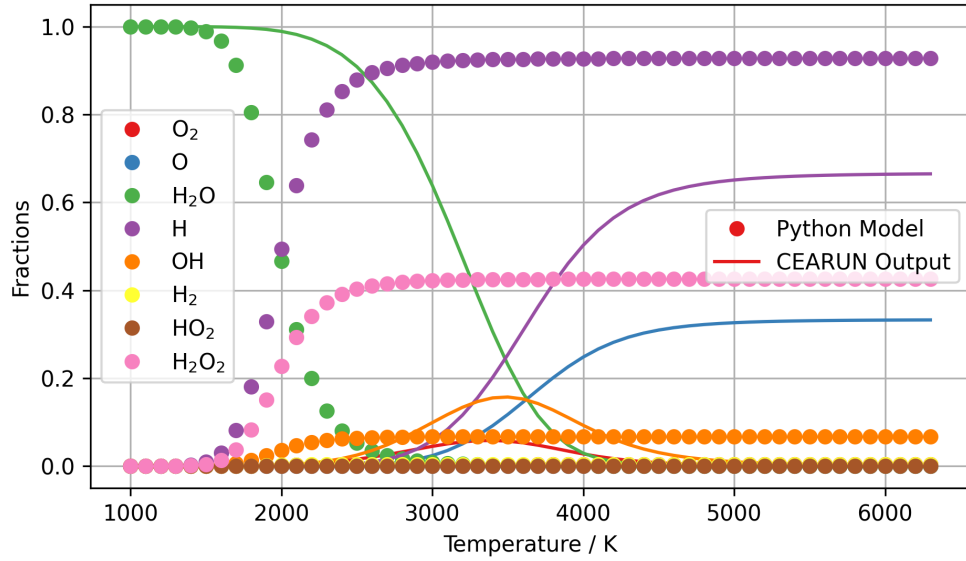


Figure 4.5. Comparison of the Python implementation from Avtaeva et al. [42] with the CEARUN result. The calculation time is 10 000 s; the pressure is kept at 1 bar.

racies. The model should be fairly simple as it is the detailed balance of 4 reactions. In the publication only very short times are considered for the steady state calculations. Therefore a similar result as with Srinivasan’s model would be expected.

4.2.3. Avtaeva model

The next model is published by Avtaeva et al. [42]. This model is more complex as it includes 19 reactions. It also includes HO_2 and H_2O_2 which are not included in the previously implemented models. The full set of reactions is given in table D.4. One probable issue can be identified upfront as most of the reactions have no temperature dependence and therefore do not change in the temperature range from 1000 K to 6300 K. This is very unlikely as the species behave very differently over the temperature range.

The results from Avtaeva’s model are presented in figure 4.5. In this model the same behaviour can be found as with Srinivasan’s model; the H_2O dissociates at too low temperatures. The longest timescale found in the publication is 1×10^{-4} s, therefore it can be concluded that the model was not investigated at steady state. Another limitation of this model is that it does not approach the chemical equilibrium composition as closely as Srinivasan et al. [40] at higher temperatures. In fact, the model is off by orders of magnitude from the chemical equilibrium. This can be especially seen for the H_2O_2 concentration, a species which is not present in the CEA result. H_2O_2 is absent in the

CEA result as its concentration of it is below 5×10^{-6} mole fractions at all temperatures. Therefore, it should have never appeared as such a prominent species.

Another issue with the model is that some of the reactions are not possible in the way they are described in the model. This is especially the case for reactions 7 and 19. The

Table 4.1. Reactions of Avtaeva model. According to the NIST kinetic reactions database, these reactions should be 3-body reactions [36].

No.	Reaction
7	$OH + OH \rightarrow H_2O_2$
19	$H + O_2 \rightarrow HO_2$

reactions are given in table 4.1. These reactions should be 3-body reactions according to the kinetic reaction database from NIST [36]. The reactions can be found as 3-body reactions, mostly with N_2 as third reaction partner.

Most rate coefficients from this model are given at 300 K, also most of the reaction rates are not valid at higher temperatures according to the NIST database [36]. Therefore this model is also not suitable for the desired use case.

4.2.4. Medodovic model

Medodovic et al. [43] published two separate models, one for lower temperatures (300 K - 2000 K) and one for high temperatures (2000 K - 5000 K). At first only the model for high temperatures is considered. During the implementation the first issues occurred as some of the reactions are only valid for temperatures up to 2500 K or 3000 K, which is too low for the desired use case of the model of 2000 K to 5000 K. Furthermore, some reactions do not depend on the current temperature. The high-temperature model is presented in figure 4.6. In this model, the same issues are present as with other models: H_2O is dissociated at too low temperatures. A disadvantage of this model compared to Srinivasan's model is that the steady-state composition never gets close to the chemical equilibrium from CEARUN. Another noticeable difference of this high temperature range model and the CEARUN result is that the fraction of H_2O rises again at around 4000 K. In the CEARUN result, the H_2O is almost fully dissociated at these temperatures and does not rise again.

As the low temperature model is only valid for a small portion of the desired temperature range from 1000 K up to 6000 K, both models are combined to arrive at a more comprehensive model. In this process, 4 reactions are found which are present in the low and high temperature model. For these reactions, the rate constants with the broader temperature range are selected. The second reaction of the low temperature model is $O + OH \rightarrow H_2O$. This reaction is not possible as two oxygen atoms and one hydrogen atom cannot form two hydrogen atoms and one oxygen atom. The reaction is therefore

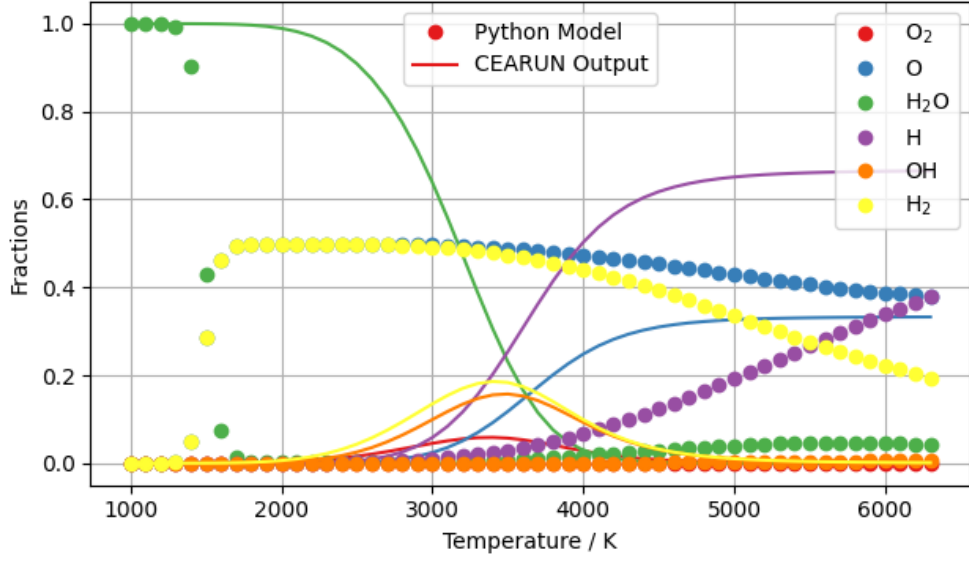


Figure 4.6. Comparison of the high temperature model from Medodovic et al. [43] with the CEARUN result. The calculation time is 10 000 s, the pressure is kept at 1 bar.

corrected to $\text{O} + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{HO}_2$. The combined model with the high and low temperature range reactions is given in table D.6 and presented in figure 4.7. In this model the opposite of what previously happened occurs as H_2O is dissociated at too high temperatures. This behaviour usually only occurs for very short calculation times. The steady state is

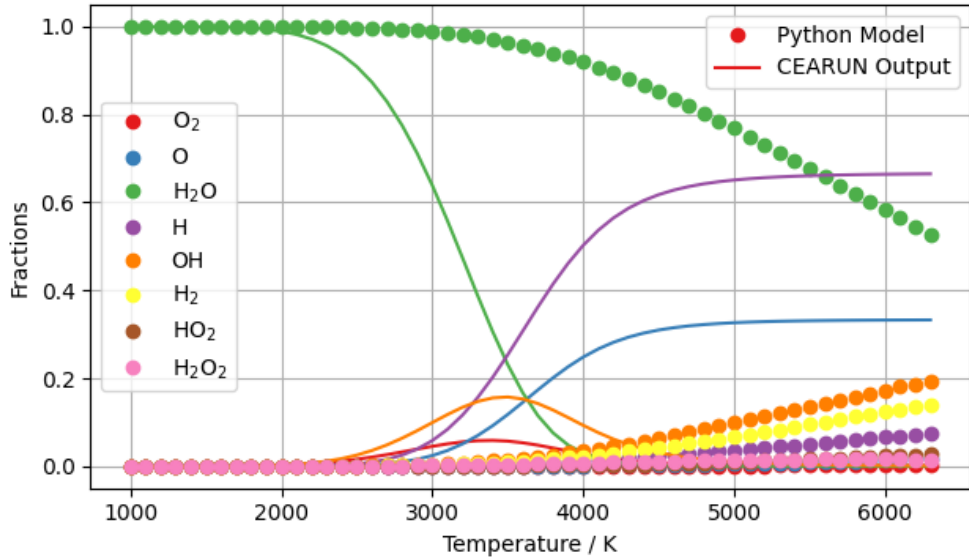


Figure 4.7. Comparison of the combined Medodovic model with the CEARUN result. The calculation time is 10 000 s, the pressure is kept at 1 bar.

reached, so increasing the calculation time will not improve the outcome of the model. The temporal evolution of the concentration is presented in figure 4.8. From this semi-logarithmic plot at 5000 K, it is evident that the steady state is reached in less than 1 μ s. To improve the model, other rate constants with broader temperature ranges must be tested.

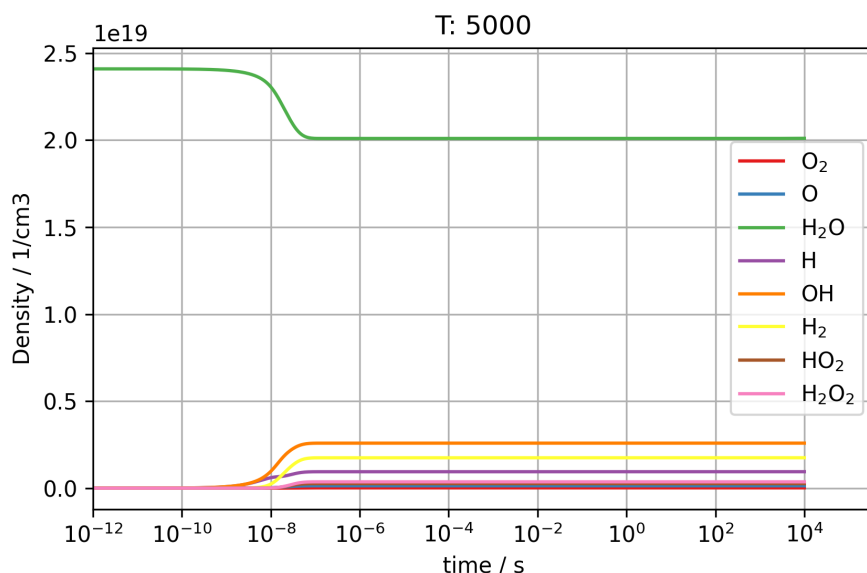


Figure 4.8. Result of the temporal calculations of the combined model at 5000 K. From this plot it is very obvious that the steady state was reached in under 1 μ s.

4.2.5. Liu model

This model was originally published by Liu et al. [44]. It comprises 45 neutral reactions, making it the most complex model considered in this work. The species which are present in this model are O_2 , O , H_2O , H , OH , H_2 , HO_2 and H_2O_2 . The full set of reactions is given in table D.7. The output of the model is presented in figure 4.9.

This model yields a similar result to the combined model of Medodovic et al. [43]. The H_2O is dissociated at temperatures which are too high. A extension of the calculated timespan, would not improve the result as the steady state was reached in a shorter time period. The model is investigated closer at a temperature of 5000 K to gain insight into the temporal evolution of the mixture. This semi-logarithmic plot is presented in figure 4.10. The steady state is reached at this temperature in under 20 μ s. This model can only be improved by replacing some of the rate coefficients, with coefficients which yield lower temperatures. Although this model does not reach the chemical equilibrium at steady state, it is still more suitable for quenching simulations than the model from Srinivasan et al. [40]. For a quenching simulation, the mixture is cooled after a given time. For this kind of experiment, the steady state should be reached very quick as

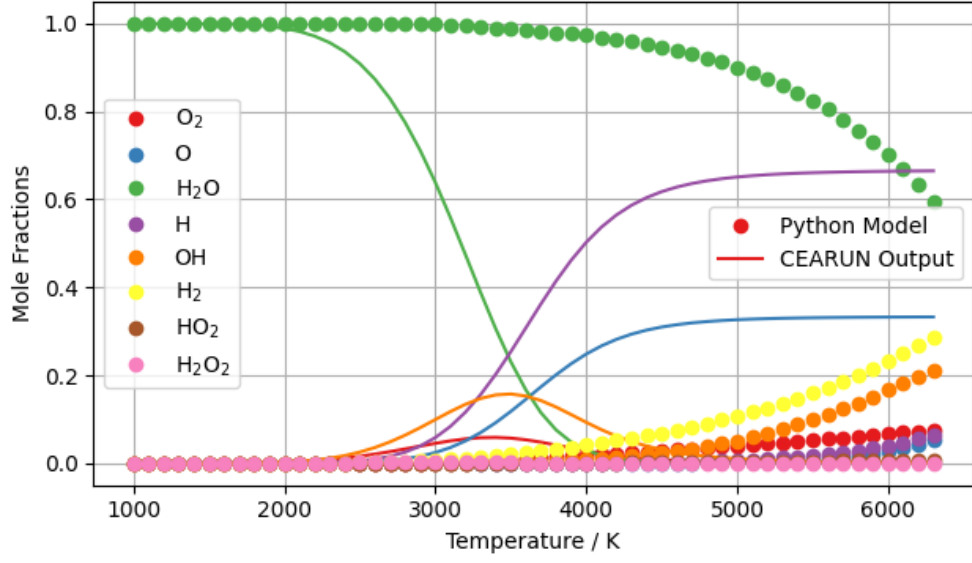


Figure 4.9. Comparison of Liu's model with the CEARUN result. The calculation time is 10 000 s, the pressure is kept at 1 bar.

during cooling only back reactions should occur. This is not the case with all models except Liu et al. [44] and the combined Medodovic model.

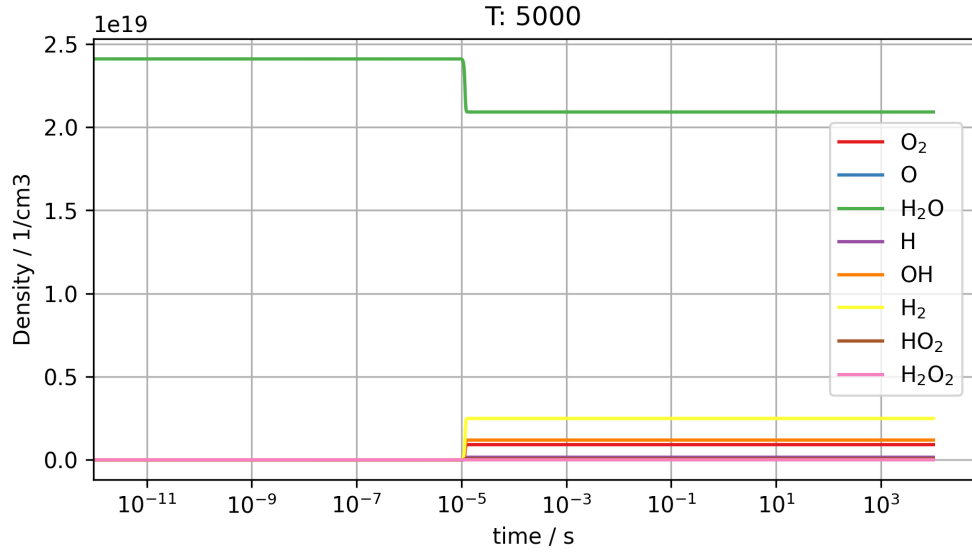


Figure 4.10. Result of the temporal evolution of Liu's model at 5000 K. From this it is clear that the steady state was reached in under 20 μ s.

5. Summary and Outlook

The goal of the work was to find suitable CO_2 and H_2O dissociation models for a combination to investigate the effect of water impurities on the yield of CO_2 to CO conversion. Models for CO_2 and H_2O dissociation are presented and benchmarked regarding their accuracy in steady state with the chemical equilibrium. The chemical equilibrium is calculated using the web based implementation of NASA's CEA solver.

For the CO_2 dissociation, a suitable model was successfully found. The successfully validated model is the pressure based CO_2 dissociation model published by den Harder. This model could also be validated with independently performed shock tube experiments from literature. It is extended by atomic carbon reactions in the scope of this work. Another considered model for CO_2 dissociation, published by Koelman, already includes atomic carbon reactions. Koelman's model is not considered further as den Harder's model yields a lower deviation from the CEA results.

The deviation is then further reduced by a conversion from density based calculations to pressure based calculations. With this step, the reaction volume of the model does not change during the calculations, so the pressure in the system can rise, which is the more realistic simulation approach. The deviation is further successfully reduced by the introduction of atomic carbon reactions. The atomic carbon reactions were taken from a published Ar-CO_2 -dissociation model by Beuthe. Further rate constants were taken into account for these reactions from NIST's kinetic database. The best fitting results are the ones published by Beuthe. With this extension of the model by including atomic carbon kinetics, there is no visible deviation from the CEA model in the temperature range from 5000 K to 6100 K. Validation of this enhanced model with the CEA Model was conducted in a pressure range from 1 Pa up to 1 MPa at temperatures of 1000 K to 7000 K.

This extended den Harder model is also used for simulated quenching experiments, where the gas is at plasma temperatures for several milliseconds before it is cooled down to room temperature. These experiments are important as there are recombination processes during the cooling of the process gas. From this experiment, the amount of CO produced can be determined. The quenching experiments are simulated at 2500, 3000, 3500 and 6000 K. The highest CO production is archived with 6000 K and cooling rates higher than 1×10^6 K/s. The relative CO loss fraction saturates for cooling rates above 1×10^7 K/s, for all temperatures at 2 %, except for 6000 K where the relative loss fraction

turns negative at a cooling rate of 4×10^5 K/s. This phenomena is only possible due to thermal pyrolysis of CO into C and O. Therefore, the concentration of CO is greater following the cooling process than it was during the steady state at plasma temperatures.

The combined pressure based den Harder/Beuthe model should be used for the combination with a H₂O dissociation model. It should then be extended for the direct reactions of H₂O with OH, H C, CO and CO₂.

Here a suitable H₂O dissociation model still is to be found, as all of the compared models are far off the chemical equilibrium when considered in steady state. The model by Srinivasan is a fairly simple model which is verified by the published shock tube experiment. It has a very good fit at steady state for temperatures above 5000 K. For temperatures in the range from 1000 K to 5000 K, the steady state composition is very distant from chemical equilibrium. H₂O is dissociated at far too low temperatures. An improvement can be found if the model is considered after only a few milliseconds, although H₂O is still dissociated at too low temperatures. Quenching experiments are not possible with this model due to the excessively low dissociation temperature of H₂O, which would lead to a distortion of the results. Another simple model was found by Lédé, but the calculations always lead to convergence issues, resulting in the model not yielding any meaningful results.

A slightly more complex set of reactions is introduced with the model of Avtaeva. It also includes HO₂ and H₂O₂, which were not considered previously. Most of the rate constants in this model are given at a fixed temperature of 300 K and have no temperature dependent parameter. This leads, much like Srinivasans model, to H₂O dissociation at temperatures which are too low. Therefore, this model is also unsuitable for the desired use case.

Medodovic et al. provided two models, one model for lower temperatures of 300 K to 2000 K and one model for high temperatures between 2000 K and 5000 K. The high temperature model dissociates H₂O at too low temperatures in its steady state. In this model, H₂O is produced again at temperatures above 4000 K, which is not the case with the CEA result. To improve the high temperature model and expand it towards lower temperatures, the two available models are combined. With this combined model, the H₂O is dissociated at temperatures higher than the CEA predicts. The steady state is reached at 5000 K in under 1 μ s so an extension of the calculation times will not improve the accuracy.

The last investigated model is published by Liu. This model is the most complex considered model. H₂O is dissociated at too high temperatures in this model. The steady state at 5000 K is reached in less than 20 μ s, therefore an extension of the calculation times would not improve the outcome.

The combination of both models is not possible within the scope of this work. Further work must be performed with H_2O dissociation models. A model which closer fits the chemical equilibrium at its steady state must be found. Then it is possible to combine the models for CO_2 dissociation and for H_2O dissociation, to investigate the water impurity influence on CO_2 conversion yield.

Sommaire récapitulatif en français : Étude numérique des effets des impuretés de l'eau sur le rendement de conversion du CO₂ par plasma

Introduction

La croissance économique et l'industrialisation rapides augmentent la demande d'énergie de l'humanité. Actuellement, la principale source d'énergie est constituée par les combustibles fossiles. Cette consommation de combustibles fossiles a entraîné une augmentation massive des émissions de CO₂ [1–3]. Les émissions de dioxyde de carbone constituent actuellement l'un des principaux défis environnementaux en raison de leur impact direct sur le climat par le biais de l'effet de serre. La réduction des émissions de carbone est d'une importance cruciale dans la lutte contre le changement climatique [4].

Les émissions de CO₂ dans l'atmosphère pourraient être réduites par la conversion de CO₂ en carburants et autres produits chimiques de grande valeur, établissant ainsi un «cycle du carbone »qui consiste en la capture, la production et la consommation de carbone. En outre, ce processus devrait également permettre de résoudre les problèmes liés à la diminution de la disponibilité des ressources fossiles [5]. Ces dernières années, la chimie du plasma a suscité beaucoup d'intérêt en raison de la possibilité d'utiliser des sources d'énergie renouvelables pour la conversion directe de molécules stables telles que CO₂ en CO et O₂ sans avoir recours à un catalyseur [6].

La production de carburants neutres en CO₂ est une étape importante vers la décarbonisation de notre atmosphère. Pour y parvenir, il est nécessaire de disposer d'un processus de conversion énergétiquement efficace pour le CO₂. La conversion de CO₂ par plasma micro-ondes est l'un des processus les plus efficaces sur le plan énergétique actuellement disponibles. Pour la production de combustibles neutres à base de CO₂, les réacteurs à plasma micro-ondes sont alimentés par des énergies électriques renouvelables telles que l'énergie hydroélectrique, l'énergie éolienne ou l'énergie solaire. Pour obtenir une production de combustibles neutres efficaces sur le plan énergétique et efficaces sur le plan du CO₂, il faut un rendement élevé de conversion du CO₂ en CO. Ce rendement élevé

est obtenu au moyen de la trempe, la fraction de perte de CO représentant une mesure importante dans ce contexte, car elle indique les pertes relatives de CO dues à la recombinaison. Le CO₂ capturé peut être introduit dans un réacteur à plasma micro-ondes, où il est ensuite converti par pyrolyse en CO, O et O₂. À des températures supérieures à 5000 K, une pyrolyse supplémentaire de CO en C et O est possible. Le mélange gazeux chauffé est ensuite rapidement refroidi par trempe afin de maintenir la composition chimique dans toute la mesure du possible. Le CO produit est capturé et peut être utilisé pour la synthèse de produits chimiques ou de carburants. Avec l'hydrogène, le CO forme le gaz de synthèse, qui est déjà un combustible et peut être liquéfié en essence. La production de carburant neutre en CO₂ n'est possible que si toute l'énergie électrique nécessaire à la production et au stockage provient de sources d'énergie renouvelables.

Des résultats prometteurs en matière de conversion du CO₂ ont été obtenus en utilisant des sources de plasma à basse pression et à haute température, qui sont les mieux adaptées aux applications industrielles. Cependant, l'impact des impuretés dans l'alimentation en gaz peut être préjudiciable au processus de plasma. Ce travail vise à étudier l'impact d'une impureté toujours présente dans les sources de CO₂, à savoir la vapeur d'eau, sur le rendement de conversion du CO₂. Les molécules d'eau en tant qu'additif sont encore très discutées en ce qui concerne leurs avantages potentiels ou leurs effets négatifs réels sur la conversion du CO₂ par le plasma. Récemment, Kiefer et al. [7] ont fourni un vaste ensemble de données indiquant une forte diminution du taux de conversion du CO₂ avec l'introduction de l'air ambiant dans le réacteur par rapport à l'air sec. Le groupe affirme que l'une des explications possibles est la présence d'humidité dans l'air introduit dans le réacteur.

Les travaux préliminaires en vue d'une étude théorique plus approfondie sur cette question sont effectués dans le présent travail par le biais du développement de modèles cinétiques 0D de la dissociation thermique du CO₂ et de H₂O, dont la précision est comparée à celle de l'équilibre chimique calculé à l'aide du solveur CEA de la NASA. Ces deux parties sont nécessaires pour l'étude théorique des affirmations de Kiefer et al. [7], où les modèles devraient être combinés pour un modèle complet de dissociation thermique CO₂–H₂O. D'autres réactions doivent être envisagées pour les composants de CO₂ et H₂O.

Fondamentaux

Le but de ce travail est d'étudier numériquement l'influence de la vapeur d'eau sur le rendement de conversion du CO₂ dans un réacteur à plasma. Les bases du plasma sont expliquées ainsi que les différentes approches pour calculer la composition d'une réaction.

Les réacteurs à plasma micro-ondes sont couramment utilisés pour la dissociation thermique du CO_2 en ses composants. Pour éviter la recombinaison des composants pendant le refroidissement lent à partir des températures élevées du plasma, la trempe est utilisée pour atteindre des taux de refroidissement élevés et maintenir ainsi la composition du plasma.

Le CO_2 , en tant que gaz de traitement, contient toujours des impuretés, les principales étant les composants de l'air tels que l'azote, l'oxygène et l'argon. L'influence de ces éléments sur la conversion du CO_2 a déjà été étudiée par Kiefer et al. [7]. Il a été constaté que la vapeur d'eau peut avoir une forte influence sur le rendement de conversion du plasma dans la décomposition du CO_2 [7].

Plasma

Le plasma est également connu comme le « quatrième état de la matière », à côté des solides, des liquides et des gaz [8,9]. Plus de 99 % de l'univers visible est constitué de plasma [10]. Dans les corps solides, les particules sont disposées et emballées étroitement, leur mobilité est restreinte. Dans les liquides, elles peuvent se déplacer, mais avec une liberté limitée. Dans les gaz, les molécules et les atomes peuvent se déplacer librement [9]. Dans un plasma, les électrons sont libérés des atomes ou des molécules et forment des ions. Les molécules deviennent plus énergétiques avec l'augmentation de la température et la matière se transforme successivement en solide, en liquide, en gaz et enfin progressivement en plasma [10]. Comme la transition se produit progressivement avec l'augmentation de la température, il ne s'agit pas d'une transition de phase (voir table 2.1) au sens thermodynamique, même si elle est généralement étiquetée comme une transition de phase [11].

Le plasma est défini comme un gaz hautement énergisé (ionisé) dont la charge électrique est globalement neutre. La substance macroscopiquement neutre se compose de molécules, d'électrons libres, d'ions et de radicaux, comme le montre figure 5.1 [11]. Un plasma se forme à partir d'un gaz neutre lorsque celui-ci est soumis à une énergie suffisamment élevée. Cette énergie est spécifique à chaque gaz et est nécessaire pour que les électrons orbitaux se détachent de la molécule de gaz. Les électrons sont alors retirés de la molécule de gaz neutre et une molécule de gaz chargée est formée. Ce gaz chargé devient hautement conducteur, de sorte que les champs électriques et magnétiques peuvent influencer son comportement et modifier la forme d'un plasma. Il suit un comportement collectif dû au blindage de Debye, où les particules chargées influencent d'autres particules proches dans leur longueur de blindage (longueur de Debye) par des interactions de Coulomb.

La principale différence avec un gaz est que les atomes et les molécules sont ionisés dans le plasma et que les particules interagissent avec les champs électromagnétiques (EM), alors que les particules dans un gaz sont neutres et interagissent individuellement avec les champs EM. Les principales caractéristiques du plasma sont les suivantes

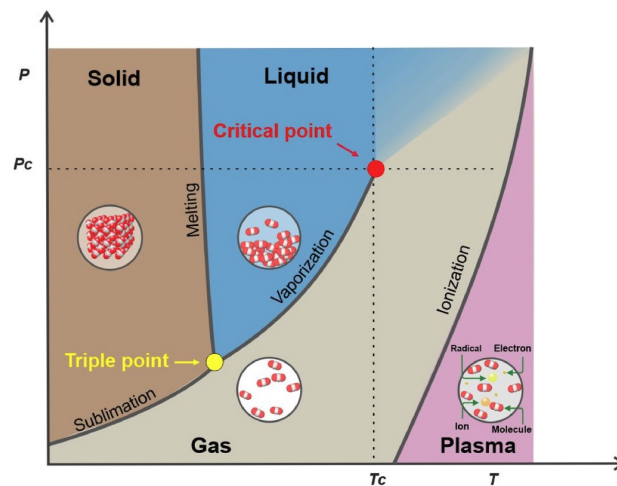


FIGURE 5.1. Le diagramme de phase montre les états de la matière en fonction de la température (axe x) et de la pression (axe y). Aux intersections entre les différentes phases, le nom de la transition de phase correspondante est indiqué. Le point critique se situe à une température critique et à une pression critique spécifiques à la substance. Au-dessus de ce point, il n'est pas possible de faire la distinction entre un liquide et un gaz. La disposition des molécules est représentée schématiquement dans chaque état. Ce diagramme montre clairement que le plasma ne se produit qu'à des températures élevées, même à des pressions faibles. (Cf. [8, Figure 2]).

- La quasi-neutralité macroscopique
- Le blindage de Debye
- Ionisation

Au bord d'un plasma, une couche limite se forme. La gaine de plasma se forme en raison de la différence de potentiel électrique entre le plasma et le matériau adjacent. Il existe différents types de réacteurs à plasma. Les plus courants sont les réacteurs à décharge à barrière diélectrique (DBD), dans lesquels le plasma est généré entre deux électrodes séparées par un matériau diélectrique. Pour cette décomposition du plasma, des champs électriques élevés sont nécessaires. Pour la dissociation du CO_2 , les réacteurs à plasma micro-ondes sont les plus couramment utilisés.

Plasma micro-ondes

Le plasma micro-ondes se réfère à un plasma qui est généré et maintenu par l'utilisation d'un rayonnement électromagnétique micro-ondes, généralement à une fréquence de 915 MHz ou 2,45 GHz [12–15]. Pour la dissociation du CO_2 , les torches à plasma micro-ondes sont les plus courantes en raison de leur efficacité énergétique supérieure et de leurs valeurs élevées de conversion du CO_2 [7]. La configuration schématisée d'un tel réacteur à plasma est présentée dans la figure 5.2.

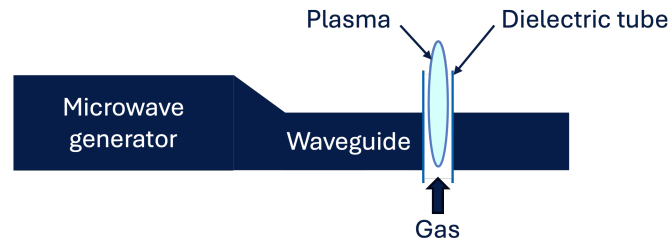


FIGURE 5.2. Une vue d'ensemble schématique d'une installation typique de torche à plasma micro-ondes. Les micro-ondes sont générées puis couplées au guide d'ondes, qui guide les micro-ondes vers le tube diélectrique où le gaz absorbe les micro-ondes et où l'énergie est suffisamment élevée pour ioniser le gaz. Pour entretenir le plasma, le tube diélectrique est continuellement alimenté en gaz. Le guide d'ondes est conçu de manière à ce que le maximum de l'onde électromagnétique se trouve à l'intersection du tube diélectrique et du guide d'ondes.

Les principaux composants d'un système plasma micro-ondes sont les suivants :

- Source de micro-ondes : Production d'ondes électromagnétiques à haute fréquence.
- Guide d'ondes : Guide les micro-ondes de la source vers la chambre de décharge.
- Chambre de décharge du plasma : Tube diélectrique dans lequel le gaz est ionisé et un plasma se forme.

Les micro-ondes sont générées à la source, puis guidées vers un syntoniseur à stub qui est utilisé pour l'adaptation d'impédance et pour minimiser la puissance des micro-ondes réfléchi par le plasma [7]. De là, les ondes sont guidées à travers le guide d'ondes vers le tube diélectrique qui est placé dans le résonateur, situé au niveau des maxima de l'onde EM. Les plasmas micro-ondes peuvent être utilisés pour le dépôt de couches minces [16], la gravure [17] ou pour des applications environnementales telles que la dissociation du CO_2 [18]. Dans cette thèse, le générateur de plasma micro-ondes est supposé être une source de chaleur variable avec des températures réglables.

Dans la figure 5.2, un schéma d'une torche à plasma à micro-ondes couramment utilisée est présenté. Le gaz est introduit en continu dans le tube diélectrique, où il est ionisé par l'énergie élevée des ondes électromagnétiques, ce qui entraîne la formation d'un plasma. Le transport de masse convectif est très important dans le contexte d'une torche à plasma micro-ondes, car il est essentiel pour le mélange des gaz et définit donc le temps pendant lequel le gaz est exposé au plasma. Lorsque le gaz ionisé se dilate et est forcé à travers le tube diélectrique sous la forme d'un jet de plasma, ce flux convectif est également crucial pour le transport du gaz ionisé hors de la région du plasma, où il se refroidit et se recombine. Le débit de gaz n'a aucune influence sur le temps de séjour du gaz dans le plasma [6]. Pour empêcher la recombinaison pendant le refroidissement d'un plasma, la

trempe est présentée dans la section 2.1.2.

Des débits de gaz insuffisants peuvent entraîner l'extinction du plasma, faute de particules suffisantes pour l'ionisation, ce qui conduit à une réduction de la densité du plasma. Toutefois, dans une torche à plasma bien conçue, le plasma peut être maintenu pendant de longues périodes sans problème majeur.

Quenching

En physique des plasmas, la trempe fait référence au refroidissement rapide du gaz ionisé, conduisant à la suppression des processus de recombinaison et donc au maintien de la composition du gaz à des températures de plasma (plusieurs milliers de kelvins) [7]. La trempe est un effet de non-équilibre car la température est constamment et rapidement modifiée avant que l'état d'équilibre ne soit atteint. La trempe rapide est importante car la recombinaison et la dissociation thermique ne sont plus importantes à température ambiante (300 K) et les produits de la réaction sont « gelés » [19]. Elle joue également un autre rôle important en retirant l'énergie excédentaire des nouvelles espèces qui ont été formées [20]. Comme la trempe n'est pas instantanée et que les réactifs et les produits restent ensuite en phase gazeuse, il y a toujours des réactions en retour sur le chemin des hautes températures du plasma vers la température ambiante [13]. La trempe est utilisée dans presque toutes les réactions de dissociation du CO_2 car elle conduit toujours à des taux de conversion plus élevés [19]. Les modèles cinétiques ont montré que les taux de refroidissement sont meilleurs à 10^6 ou 10^7 K s^{-1} [22], d'autres modèles recommandent des taux de refroidissement encore plus élevés pour des taux de conversion CO_2 élevés [13]. Un aperçu schématique des méthodes de trempe avec des taux typiques de 10^6 K s^{-1} est présenté dans la figure 5.3. Pour atteindre des taux de trempe allant jusqu'à 10^6 K s^{-1} , il est possible d'utiliser la méthode de mélange de gaz, dans laquelle un gaz froid est rapidement introduit dans le flux de sortie de la chambre de réaction [23]. Il est possible d'améliorer encore les performances de refroidissement en permettant au gaz froid de tourbillonner autour du gaz ionisé.

Calculs thermodynamiques

Les calculs thermodynamiques sont effectués à l'aide du solveur NASA Chemical Equilibrium and Application (NASA CEA), qui est un programme permettant de calculer les compositions et les propriétés d'équilibre chimique de mélanges complexes par minimisation de l'énergie libre de Gibbs. L'un des grands avantages de cette approche est qu'il n'est pas nécessaire de spécifier a priori un ensemble de réactions [25]. L'inconvénient est que le solveur suppose toujours qu'un système atteint l'équilibre chimique, ce qui n'est pas toujours le cas, en particulier lorsque les conditions changent. En outre, il n'est pas possible d'étudier l'évolution temporelle d'un système afin de comprendre comment il atteint l'équilibre chimique.

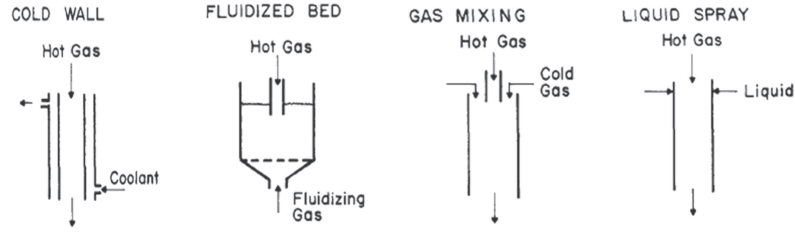


FIGURE 5.3. Aperçu des méthodes de trempe. Le gaz ionisé provenant du plasma est toujours décrit comme un gaz chaud dans la figure. Dans ces procédés, le fluide de refroidissement est généralement le gaz de traitement, ce qui permet d'éviter toute contamination supplémentaire de la réaction. La seule exception est la méthode de la paroi froide, où n'importe quel fluide peut être utilisé, à condition qu'il n'entre pas en contact avec le gaz ionisé. Avec ces méthodes, des taux d'extinction allant jusqu'à 10^6 K s^{-1} sont couramment réalisés. (Cf. [21, Figure 4])

Equilibre chimique

Dans l'équilibre chimique, la concentration des réactifs et des produits reste constante dans le temps, en supposant que le système est fermé et se trouve à une température et une pression constantes. Le principe de base du CEA Solver pour atteindre l'équilibre chimique est la minimisation de l'énergie libre de Gibbs (G) pour une température et une pression spécifiées avec les réactifs donnés [13]. La minimisation de l'énergie de Helmholtz ou la maximisation de l'entropie sont d'autres façons de calculer l'équilibre chimique. L'énergie libre de Gibbs, l'énergie de Helmholtz et l'entropie sont des fonctions d'état qui maintiennent différentes variables à des valeurs constantes. Dans le cadre de cette thèse, l'approche la plus appropriée est la minimisation de l'énergie libre de Gibbs, car la température et la pression sont ses variables naturelles [25]. L'énergie libre de Gibbs est un potentiel thermodynamique qui mesure le travail réversible maximal qu'un système peut fournir à température et pression constantes. L'énergie libre de Gibbs est définie comme suit

$$G = H - T \cdot S, \quad (5.1)$$

où H est l'enthalpie, T la température et S l'entropie du système. L'enthalpie est définie comme suit

$$H = U + p \cdot V, \quad (5.2)$$

avec l'énergie interne U , la pression p et le volume V du système. L'énergie de Gibbs g avec des variables intensives est,

$$g = \sum n_i \mu_i, \quad (5.3)$$

la somme du nombre de particules n_i et du potentiel chimique μ_i .

Avec T , p et le nombre de particules d'une espèce n_i comme paramètres de contrôle, la

variation de l'énergie libre de Gibbs peut être exprimée comme suit

$$dG = Vdp - SdT + \sum_i \mu_i dn_i \quad (5.4)$$

où μ_i est le potentiel chimique de l'espèce i . La minimisation de l'énergie libre de Gibbs peut être spécifiée comme suit

$$dG = \sum_i \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial n_i} \right)_{T,p,n_j \neq n_i} = 0 \quad (5.5)$$

où i est le nombre d'espèces et n_i le nombre de particules d'une espèce i . L'avancement d'une réaction chimique dans le temps est décrit comme suit

$$\frac{d\xi}{dt} = \frac{d(n_i(t) - n_i(t=0))}{\nu_i dt} \quad (5.6)$$

avec le nombre stoechiométrique ν_i de l'espèce i [26, 27] L'équilibre d'une réaction chimique est donc :

$$dG = \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial \xi} \right)_{T,p,d\xi} = 0 \quad (5.7)$$

La minimisation de l'énergie libre de Gibbs est résolue dans le CEA à l'aide de la méthode itérative de Newton-Raphson [25].

Dans le travail présenté, l'implémentation web CEARUN du solveur CEA est utilisée pour calculer l'équilibre chimique des modèles utilisés [28].

On utilise le «Assigned Temperature and Pressure Problem » (problème de température et de pression assignées). Il est possible de saisir jusqu'à 24 températures et 24 pressions différentes. Pour plus d'étapes de température ou de pressions, une autre exécution de CEARUN est nécessaire. Les résultats peuvent être affichés en fractions de masse ou en fractions molaires. La sortie du programme est donnée dans un fichier texte, où la composition d'équilibre de la réaction est affichée pour toute pression et température d'entrée donnée.

Modèle cinétique

Pour comprendre l'évolution temporelle de la dissociation de CO_2 ou de H_2O , un modèle cinétique 0D dépendant du temps est développé en Python. Ce modèle fournit une approche simplifiée pour examiner les réactions chimiques et les processus de plasma dans les systèmes où les variations spatiales sont négligeables, en se concentrant uniquement sur l'évolution temporelle. Cela conduit à un système homogène sans gradients. Ce modèle a été préféré à des modèles 1D, 2D ou 3D plus complexes en raison de sa simplicité, les fonctions d'état thermodynamiques étant indépendantes de l'espace et du temps. Le

calcul temporel est important pour la simulation de la trempe où la température est modifiée dans le temps. Le plasma est supposé être un bain thermalisé idéal avec une température de consigne externe, les autres paramètres de contrôle dans le modèle sont les densités ou les pressions initiales. Le modèle cinétique est calculé pour un laps de temps défini, l'objectif étant d'atteindre un état stable à la fin de ce laps de temps. Un état stable est défini comme un point dans le temps où la concentration des espèces dans le système donné ne change plus. Ce point est d'une importance cruciale pour l'étalonnage par rapport à l'équilibre chimique issu des calculs thermodynamiques. En revanche, pour la simulation de la trempe, il n'est pas nécessaire que la réaction soit en état d'équilibre, car la trempe est un effet de non-équilibre. La trempe est un effet de non-équilibre. Chaque réaction produit une vitesse de réaction propre pour chaque espèce, qui est calculée avec des coefficients de vitesse dépendants de la température $k_j(T)$. Ils sont calculés en fonction d'un facteur pré-exponentiel A et de l'énergie d'activation de la réaction E_a .

$$k_j(T) = A \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{E_a}{k_B T}\right), \quad (5.8)$$

où k_B est la constante de Boltzmann et T la température. Les vitesses de réaction sont ensuite calculées avec les coefficients de vitesse dépendant de la température comme paramètre d'entrée. Un exemple de réactions est donné dans table 2.3. Pour la réaction bimoléculaire 1, la vitesse de réaction de l'espèce C en fonction du temps est la suivante

$$\frac{dn_{C,1}}{dt} = k_1(T) \cdot n_A \cdot n_B \quad (5.9)$$

avec $k_1(T)$ le coefficient de vitesse de la réaction 1 dépendant de la température, n_A la densité de l'espèce A et n_B la densité de l'espèce B. Dans le taux de réaction bimoléculaire considéré pour l'espèce C, les réactifs A et B sont détruits et les produits C, D et E sont produits. Tous les termes de production doivent être considérés avec un signe positif dans le taux de réaction total, tandis que les taux de destruction sont considérés avec un signe négatif. La vitesse de la réaction trimoléculaire 2 pour l'espèce C au cours du temps est donc la suivante

$$\frac{dn_{C,2}}{dt} = -k_2(T) \cdot n_C \cdot n_D \cdot n_E \quad (5.10)$$

avec $k_2(T)$ le coefficient de vitesse de la réaction 2 dépendant de la température, n_C la densité de l'espèce C, n_D la densité de l'espèce D et n_E la densité de l'espèce E. Pour respecter la conservation de la masse, les réactions en avant et en arrière sont données dans table 2.3, de sorte que les réactions 1 et 2 sont à l'équilibre. Les taux de réaction totaux pour chaque espèce sont calculés comme une somme de tous les termes de production et de destruction [13]. Par conséquent, la vitesse de réaction totale de l'espèce C au cours

du temps est la suivante

$$\frac{dn_C}{dt} = k_1(T) \cdot n_A \cdot n_B - k_2(T) \cdot n_C \cdot n_D \cdot n_E \quad (5.11)$$

Le comportement temporel est alors calculé en intégrant numériquement le système d'équations différentielles sur un temps donné. Après ce laps de temps, le système devrait atteindre un état d'équilibre, qui devrait être égal à l'équilibre chimique.

Pour comparer le solveur CEA et le modèle cinétique 0D, le modèle est résolu pour un ensemble donné de températures. Chaque étape de température nécessite son propre calcul. En couplant les deux approches différentes du calcul de l'équilibre et de l'utilisation de le CEA comme vérification de la composition de l'équilibre, une analyse complète des comportements transitoires et en régime permanent dans les systèmes plasmatiques peut être réalisée.

Cependant, la différence entre ces calculs et une installation réelle est que le temps peut être spécifié comme une période de temps indéfinie. Alors que dans une torche à plasma réelle, le gaz n'est à ces températures élevées que pendant quelques millisecondes avant de se refroidir, ce laps de temps est appelé temps de résidence et varie entre les différentes espèces. C'est pourquoi il est généralement indiqué sous la forme d'une distribution du temps de résidence. En outre, le temps de résidence dépend du flux de masse convectif. Pour simuler le comportement de refroidissement, la trempe est introduite. Cette étape est nécessaire pour calculer la composition chimique après le refroidissement. La composition à haute température peut être maintenue par l'introduction de taux de trempe élevés, ce qui permet d'arrêter les processus de recombinaison.

Densité

Dans le calcul basé sur la densité, le volume du système change avec la température. Par conséquent, la densité initiale doit être calculée à chaque étape de température. La pression initiale doit être convertie en densité initiale. Pour cela, le point de départ est la loi des gaz idéaux,

$$pV = Nk_B T, \quad (5.12)$$

avec la pression p , le volume V , le nombre de particules du gaz N , la constante de Boltzmann k_B et la température du gaz T . Pour calculer le nombre de particules par volume (densité), la loi des gaz idéaux de l'équation 5.12 doit être divisée par le volume, la constante de Boltzmann et la température, comme suit

$$\frac{p}{k_B T} = \frac{N}{V} \quad (5.13)$$

D'après equation 5.13, il est clair que pour un nombre constant de particules, le volume ne peut changer que si la pression ou la température changent, car k_B est une constante. Avec chaque calcul, la température change également. Le nombre de particules divisé par le volume peut alors être exprimé par n_i pour chaque espèce i .

$$n_i = \frac{N_i}{V} \quad (5.14)$$

La densité de nombre pour une espèce i a deux paramètres ajustables : le premier est la pression partielle de chaque espèce p_i et le second est la température du gaz. En outre, elle dépend également de la constante de Boltzmann.

$$n_i = \frac{p_i}{k_B \cdot T} \quad (5.15)$$

La pression du système est la somme de toutes les pressions partielles des différentes espèces.

$$p = \sum_i p_i \quad (5.16)$$

Ainsi, la densité totale de toutes les espèces peut être calculée comme suit,

$$n = \frac{p}{k_B \cdot T} \quad (5.17)$$

Dans chaque calcul où la température change, la densité numérique change également, car la pression initiale est fixe. Lors du calcul du modèle cinétique, la température, la pression et le nombre de particules sont considérés comme constants, de sorte que le seul paramètre pouvant influencer la densité numérique est le volume. Dans une configuration réaliste, la pression et la température sont constantes, le volume doit donc changer. C'est ce que réalisent les calculs basés sur la pression.

Pression

Pour maintenir une pression constante dans le système plasma à haute température, le volume doit changer pendant les calculs, c'est pourquoi des calculs basés sur la pression sont introduits. Dans les EDO, les densités sont converties en pressions partielles. Par conséquent, l'équation 5.9 pour le modèle basé sur la pression sans termes de correction est $\frac{dp_{C,1}}{dt}$ l'évolution de la pression de l'espèce C au cours du temps pour la réaction bimoléculaire 1 du tableau 2.3

$$\frac{dp_{C,1}}{dt} = k_1(T) \cdot \frac{p_A}{p_{system}} \cdot \frac{p_B}{p_{system}} \quad (5.18)$$

avec les pressions partielles des espèces p_A et p_B et la pression dans le système à chaque pas de temps discret p_{system} . Avec tous les termes de correction nécessaires appliqués à

equation 5.18, le terme complet est pour le taux de réaction de la réaction à deux corps 1 du tableau 2.3 est :

$$\frac{dp_{C,1}}{dt} = k_1(T) \cdot \frac{p_A}{p_{system}} \cdot \frac{p_B}{p_{system}} \cdot corr_2 \cdot p_{corr} \quad (5.19)$$

avec un terme de correction unitaire $corr_2$ pour les réactions bimoléculaires et le terme de correction de pression p_{corr} . Le terme de correction d'unité est nécessaire car les valeurs de la littérature pour les constantes de vitesse sont généralement exprimées en unités basées sur la densité. Comme les unités changent pour les réactions à deux et trois corps, le terme de pression doit également changer. Ce terme de correction a été introduit par den Harder et al. [13]. Il s'agit d'un facteur de correction unitaire pour le facteur pré-exponentiel basé sur la densité dans le coefficient de vitesse dépendant de la température. Pour les réactions à deux corps, le terme de correction est

$$corr_2 = \frac{p_{init}^2}{k_B \cdot T} \quad (5.20)$$

avec la pression initiale du système p_{init} , la constante de Boltzmann k_B et la température T . Pour les réactions à 3 corps, le terme de correction est le suivant

$$corr_3 = \frac{p_{init}^3}{(k_B \cdot T)^2} \quad (5.21)$$

Le volume du système étant maintenu constant, la pression augmente lors de la division d'une molécule en plusieurs parties. Cette augmentation de pression doit être compensée dans les calculs :

$$p_{corr} = \frac{p_{init}}{p_{system}} \quad (5.22)$$

avec le terme de correction p_{corr} , la pression initiale dans le système p_{init} et la pression à chaque pas de temps p_{system} . La pression du système fermé est calculée à chaque pas de temps comme la somme de toutes les espèces dans la réaction.

$$p_{system} = \sum p_i(t) \quad (5.23)$$

avec la pression $p_i(t)$ dépendant de chaque espèce i . Le terme complet pour le taux de réaction 1 avec la pression $p_i(t)$ dépend de chaque espèce i . Le terme complet pour le taux de réaction 1 avec les termes de correction appliqués est le suivant

$$\frac{dp_{C,1}}{dt} = k_1(T) \cdot \frac{p_A}{p_{system}} \cdot \frac{p_B}{p_{system}} \cdot \frac{p_{init}^2}{k_B \cdot T} \cdot \frac{p_{init}}{p_{system}} \quad (5.24)$$

La vitesse basée sur la pression de la réaction trimoléculaire 2 du tableau 2.3 serait la suivante

$$\frac{dp_{C,2}}{dt} = -k_2(T) \cdot \frac{p_C}{p_{system}} \cdot \frac{p_D}{p_{system}} \cdot \frac{p_E}{p_{system}} \cdot \frac{p_{init}^3}{(k_B \cdot T)^2} \cdot \frac{p_{init}}{p_{system}} \quad (5.25)$$

Pour une meilleure lisibilité et compréhension, les termes de correction sont inclus dans les constantes de taux $k_j(T)$ dans l'implémentation Python du modèle.

Validation du code

Le code du modèle Python cinétique 0D nouvellement mis en œuvre pour la dissociation thermique de CO_2 a été validé en comparant sa sortie à la sortie de l'implémentation Python par den Harder et al. [13]. En outre, une première implémentation Mathematica du modèle CO_2 basée sur table B.1 réalisée par le professeur Carbone (INRS) est utilisée pour la validation du modèle.

La validation des modèles CO_2 et H_2O est également possible grâce aux résultats des expériences de tube à choc. Dans ces expériences, les taux de réaction sont déterminés expérimentalement. Le modèle CO_2 est ensuite validé par les résultats des tubes à chocs de Brabbs et al. [30], réalisés à des pressions de 11 à 20 bars.

Benchmarking des différents modèles

Afin de sélectionner un modèle approprié pour la combinaison de dissociation CO_2 et H_2O , il est nécessaire de choisir un modèle complet dans la littérature disponible. Plusieurs modèles différents sont mis en œuvre et leurs résultats sont ensuite comparés aux résultats du solveur CEA de la NASA. Tous les modèles de la littérature sont implémentés en Python et leurs résultats sont ensuite comparés à ceux de CEARUN. On s'attend à un léger écart entre les résultats obtenus et ceux du CEARUN.

Cet écart peut s'expliquer par les différentes méthodologies employées pour le calcul de la composition chimique. Le solveur CEA de la NASA utilise une minimisation de l'énergie libre de Gibbs pour calculer l'équilibre chimique, ce qui est une méthode efficace et précise pour déterminer l'état d'équilibre chimique d'un système. En tout état de cause, le solveur CEA ne permet pas d'étudier l'évolution des réactions dans le temps. Les modèles cinétiques calculent la composition chimique au fil du temps jusqu'à ce que l'état d'équilibre soit atteint, ce qui permet d'étudier la composition chimique à n'importe quel pas de temps discret. Pour effectuer des simulations de trempe, les calculs cinétiques sont nécessaires, car des résultats similaires ne peuvent être obtenus avec le solveur CEA.

L'analyse comparative est effectuée par rapport à la composition chimique la plus correcte à chaque étape de la température.

Dissociation du CO₂

Les résultats des calculs de CO₂ seront présentés et discutés. Les résultats du solveur CEA de la NASA seront comparés aux résultats des modèles mis en œuvre. Quelques modèles différents sont pris en compte afin de trouver le meilleur résultat pour les calculs thermodynamiques.

NASA CEA

CEARUN est utilisé avec le programme de température et de pression assigné pour simuler la dissociation du CO₂ dans une plage de température allant de 1000 K à 6100 K par pas de 100 K. La pression est fixée à 100 mbar. Cette plage de température est choisie pour couvrir tous les modèles comparés [13,31,32]. Le mélange gazeux initial est de 100 % de CO₂. Le résultat est présenté dans la figure 5.4

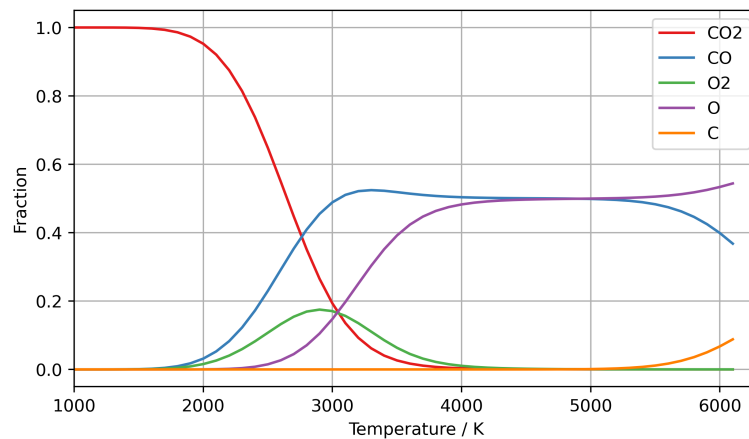


FIGURE 5.4. Résultat du CEARUN pour une plage de température allant de 1000 K à 6100 K. La pression est fixée à 100 mbar.

Validation du code

Le modèle Python est vérifié avec l'implémentation de den Harder et al [13] et un modèle Mathematica du Prof. Carbone(INRS). Les constantes de vitesse sont calculées à partir de la publication de den Harder et al. [13]. La comparaison est présentée dans la figure 3.2. Les températures considérées sont de 1000 K à 6100 K, avec une composition initiale de 100 % de CO₂ à une pression de 100 mbar. Dans ce calcul, la durée est de 2,5 s. On constate un écart entre le modèle nouvellement mis en œuvre par den Harder et le résultat de la mise en œuvre originale. L'écart a été constaté en examinant le code original et en comparant les constantes de vitesse à la publication. Les constantes de vitesse dans le code original sont calculées à partir des valeurs publiées par Butylkin et al. [32]. Après avoir corrigé les constantes de vitesse dans le modèle nouvellement mis en œuvre, aucun

écart visible n'a été constaté. Les constantes de vitesse en question sont présentées dans table 5.1 Pour tous les calculs ultérieurs, l'intervalle de temps est étendu à 10000 s, afin

TABLE 5.1. Comparaison des valeurs publiées dans l'article de den Harder et dans l'article de Butylkin. La mise en œuvre de den Harder utilise directement les valeurs converties de l'article original.

Réaction	den Harder en eV [13]	Butylkin en eV [32]	Butylkin en kcal/mole [32]
9	0.13	0.188 33	4.340
10	0.13	0.188 33	4.340
11	0.13	-0.160 55	-3.700

que l'état d'équilibre puisse également être atteint pour des températures inférieures à 2000 K. La déviation absolue de la mise en œuvre originale de den Harder et du modèle nouvellement mis en œuvre a été comparée. L'écart absolu le plus élevé est un écart de 0,0016 fraction molaire, ce qui se traduit par un écart relatif inférieur à 1 %. Un écart de cet ordre est attendu car les deux implémentations utilisent des solveurs différents pour les équations différentielles ordinaires.

Benchmarking

Le modèle validé est comparé, en termes de précision, au résultat du solveur CEA. Le modèle validé précédemment est désormais appelé modèle den Harder. Tous les modèles sont considérés dans une plage de température allant de 1000 à 6100 K, le mélange initial est constitué de 100 % de CO₂, sa densité est calculée à 100 mbar. La durée considérée est de 10000 s. Une déviation distincte du modèle de den Harder par rapport au résultat du CEARUN est constatée dans toute la gamme de températures. L'écart le plus important concerne les températures supérieures à 5 000 K, où le CO se dissocie davantage en C et en O. Ce phénomène n'est pas couvert par le modèle de den Harder. Un autre modèle a été trouvé par Koelman et al. [31]. Ce modèle présente des réactions de carbone atomique et devrait donc mieux correspondre aux résultats de CEARUN. La comparaison entre le modèle de den Harder, les résultats du CEARUN et le modèle de Koelman est présentée dans la figure 5.5. Le modèle de Koelman ne présente aucune amélioration par rapport au modèle de den Harder, quelle que soit la température. Cela s'explique en partie par l'absence de termes de production de carbone atomique dans le modèle de Koelman. Comme le modèle de den Harder correspond globalement bien aux résultats de CEARUN, il est encore amélioré par l'ajout de réactions au carbone atomique. Avant d'être étendu, le modèle est converti en calculs basés sur la densité. Cela rapproche encore le modèle des résultats de CEARUN pour toutes les températures inférieures à 5000 K. Ces résultats renforcent considérablement la confiance dans le modèle.

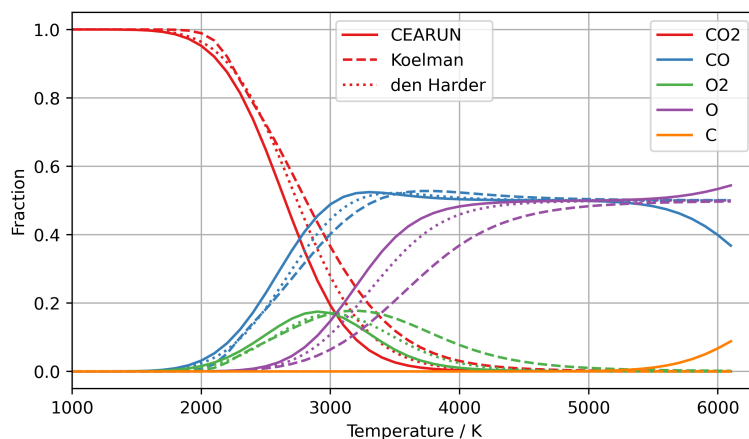


FIGURE 5.5. Comparaison du résultat du CEARUN avec le modèle de den Harder et le modèle de Koelman. Le modèle den Harder s'adapte beaucoup mieux au résultat du CEARUN que le modèle Koelman.

Ajout de la cinétique des atomes de carbone

La mise en œuvre actuelle du modèle de den Harder ne prend pas en compte la cinétique du carbone atomique, qui est importante pour les températures supérieures à 5000 K. Ici, la pyrolyse du CO le divise en ses composants. Une mise en œuvre appropriée de la dissociation thermique du CO est nécessaire. Un ensemble prometteur de réactions a été publié par Beuthe et al. [35]. Cet ensemble comporte le même terme de production de carbone que celui trouvé dans Butylkin et al. [32], basé sur des expériences de tube à choc pour le CO dilué dans l'argon publiées par Fairbairn [34]. L'ensemble des réactions avec les taux de réaction de Beuthe est donné dans table 3.2. Pour éviter d'introduire de l'argon dans le modèle, car cela ajouterait une complexité inutile, l'argon a été remplacé par le CO₂ dont la masse molaire est similaire. La mise en œuvre de ces réactions a permis d'améliorer le modèle de Den Harders sans la cinétique du carbone atomique. Pour améliorer encore le modèle, différentes vitesses de réaction provenant de la base de données cinétiques du NIST ont été étudiées. Aucun des coefficients de vitesse n'a permis d'améliorer le modèle par rapport à l'ensemble des réactions de Beuthe. Le modèle a été amélioré en remplaçant le CO₂ qui a remplacé l'Ar, par une somme corrigée de la masse de toutes les espèces présentes dans la réaction. Avec cette méthode, l'ensemble du gaz est utilisé comme gaz de bain dans la réaction. Cette correction a permis d'obtenir un résultat nettement meilleur. Aucune déviation n'est visible à des températures supérieures à 5000 K dans la comparaison avec le résultat du CEARUN. Le modèle amélioré est présenté avec le résultat du CEARUN dans la figure 5.6.

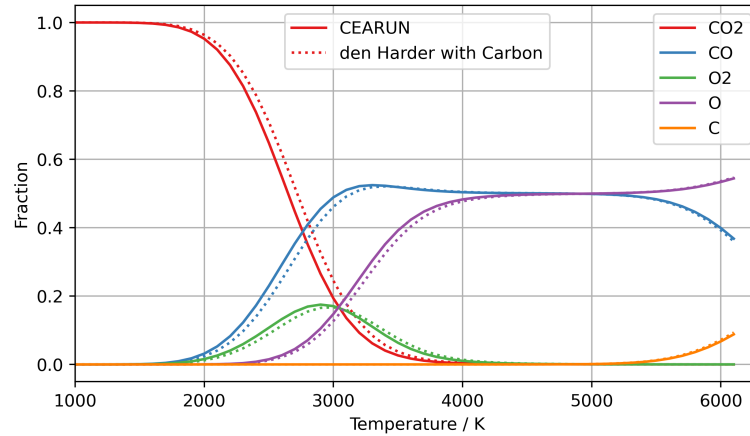


FIGURE 5.6. Le résultat de CEARUN est présenté avec le modèle de den Harder basé sur la pression, auquel est ajouté le carbone du modèle de Beuthe. Dans la plage supérieure à 5000 K, l'écart par rapport au résultat du CEA est minime. La prise en compte supplémentaire du carbone améliore sensiblement le modèle.

Quenching

Le modèle de Den Harder basé sur la pression améliorée est utilisé pour simuler le processus d'un réacteur à plasma micro-ondes. Le gaz est introduit dans le réacteur à température ambiante, où il est instantanément chauffé à des températures de plasma de plusieurs milliers de kelvins. Le gaz désormais ionisé reste dans ce régime pendant quelques milli-secondes où le CO_2 est dissocié. Le plasma est ensuite rapidement refroidi par trempe. Dans un réacteur réel, le flux de gaz peut réguler la durée pendant laquelle le gaz reste à la température du plasma.

Des taux de trempe allant jusqu'à 1×10^7 K/s sont couramment utilisés dans les laboratoires et l'industrie. À ces taux de trempe, le cas peut être refroidi à la température ambiante (300 K) à partir de 5000 K en moins de 0,5 ms. Pour des taux de trempe inférieurs, cela peut prendre jusqu'à une demi-seconde. Les pertes de CO sont calculées en tant que perte percentile de la différence entre la fraction CO à l'équilibre et après la trempe.

Les pertes dépendent fortement des températures du plasma pour les taux de trempe les plus faibles. À des taux de trempe plus élevés, les pertes de CO sont saturées à 2 %. L'exception à ce point de saturation est une température de plasma de 6000 K. Ici, le CO est encore dissocié en C et O, avant que le plasma ne soit refroidi. Pendant le refroidissement, le C et l'O se recombinent et forment du CO, ce qui permet d'atteindre une perte de CO négative.

Pour mieux comprendre l'influence des différentes températures du plasma, la production absolue de CO est étudiée. D'immenses différences dans la production de CO sont trou-

vées pour des températures de plasma de 2500 et 3500 K ($\Delta\text{CO} = 7090$ Pa), alors que la fraction de perte de CO est la même. D'autre part, aucune amélioration importante de la production de CO n'a été constatée entre les températures de plasma de 3500 K et 6000 K ($\Delta\text{CO} = 656$ Pa), où la fraction de perte de CO devient négative entre les deux.

Dissociation du H_2O

Les résultats des calculs sur H_2O sont présentés et discutés. Plusieurs modèles de dissociation cinétique sont mis en œuvre et comparés aux résultats du solveur CEA de la NASA. La température varie de 1000 K à 6300 K par pas de 100 K, les calculs sont présentés pour une pression de 1 bar. La plage de température est choisie pour couvrir tous les modèles considérés et pour s'adapter aux calculs de CO_2 [40–44].

NASA CEA

CEARUN est utilisé pour calculer l'équilibre chimique de la dissociation thermique de H_2O . Plusieurs exécutions de CEARUN sont nécessaires pour couvrir toute la gamme de températures. Le mélange initial est constitué de 100 % de H_2O . Le résultat est présenté en fractions molaires dans la figure 5.7.

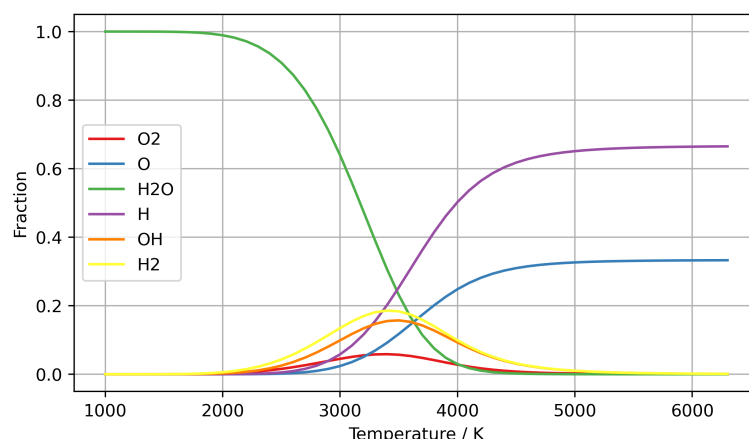


FIGURE 5.7. Résultat du CEARUN pour une plage de température allant de 1000 K à 6300 K. La pression est fixée à 1 bar.

Modèle cinétique

Les modèles cinétiques sont comparés, en termes de précision, aux résultats du CEARUN présentés dans la figure 5.7

Le premier modèle est publié par Srinivasan et al. [40]. Ce modèle est validé par les résultats du tube à choc qui sont publiés avec le modèle cinétique. Le gradient du profil OH est le même dans la publication et dans l'implémentation Python du modèle de Srinivasan et le modèle est donc validé avec succès. Pour atteindre l'état d'équilibre, le modèle est

calculé pendant 10000 s. Le modèle est présenté dans la figure 4.1. Un écart très net entre les calculs cinétiques de l'état d'équilibre et le résultat du CEARUN apparaît. Le H_2O est dissocié à des températures trop basses. Une amélioration est constatée lorsque l'on modifie le temps de calcul, qui correspond au temps utilisé dans l'expérience. Le résultat est plus proche de l'équilibre chimique, mais la dissociation s'opère à des températures trop basses. De plus, le modèle n'est alors pas considéré comme étant en état d'équilibre. Pour les températures supérieures à 5000 K, le modèle donne une bonne adéquation avec le modèle CEARUN. Il conviendrait donc pour des températures plus élevées, mais n'est pas adapté à la gamme de températures considérée. Les simulations de trempe ne sont pas effectuées car le modèle donnerait des résultats erronés en raison des températures de dissociation trop basses.

Un modèle plus complexe a été publié par Avtaeva et al. [42]. Ce modèle inclut HO_2 et H_2O_2 qui n'avaient pas été pris en compte auparavant. Un problème possible est identifié d'emblée : la plupart des réactions ne dépendent pas de la température et ne changent donc pas dans la plage de température allant de 1000 K à 6300 K, ce qui est très improbable.

Le modèle d'Avtaeva dissocie H_2O à des températures trop basses, comme c'est également le cas avec le modèle de Srinivasan. Contrairement au modèle de Srinivasan, ce modèle ne donne pas un résultat proche de celui du CEARUN, quelle que soit la température considérée. Par conséquent, ce modèle n'est pas adapté au cas d'utilisation souhaité.

Medodovic et al. [43] ont publié deux modèles, un modèle pour les températures de 300 K à 2000 K et un modèle pour les températures plus élevées de 2000 K à 5000 K. Le modèle pour les températures élevées est examiné en premier. Il produit une dissociation de H_2O à des températures excessivement basses. Un problème a été constaté car certaines réactions ne sont pas valables pour l'ensemble de la plage de températures. La composition à l'état stable ne se rapproche jamais des résultats de CEARUN, ce qui constitue un inconvénient majeur. Le modèle est présenté dans la figure 4.6. Les modèles à basse et à haute température ont été combinés pour obtenir un modèle plus complet. Ce modèle combiné dissocie H_2O à des températures trop élevées, un comportement qui ne se produit généralement qu'à des temps de calcul trop courts avant que le modèle n'atteigne son état d'équilibre. Un intervalle de temps de 10000 s est utilisé avec ce modèle. À 5000 K, l'état d'équilibre est atteint en moins de 1 μs , donc une extension de la durée n'améliorerait pas les résultats. Le modèle est présenté dans la figure 5.8. Le dernier modèle considéré est publié par Liu et al. [44]. Il s'agit du modèle considéré le plus complexe, qui comprend 45 réactions. Ce modèle dissocie également H_2O à des températures très élevées. Le modèle est étudié à 5000 K, afin d'acquérir des connaissances sur le comportement temporel. Le tracé semi-logarithmique est présenté dans la figure 5.9. L'état d'équilibre est atteint en moins de 20 μs . Ce modèle ne peut être amélioré qu'en remplaçant les constantes

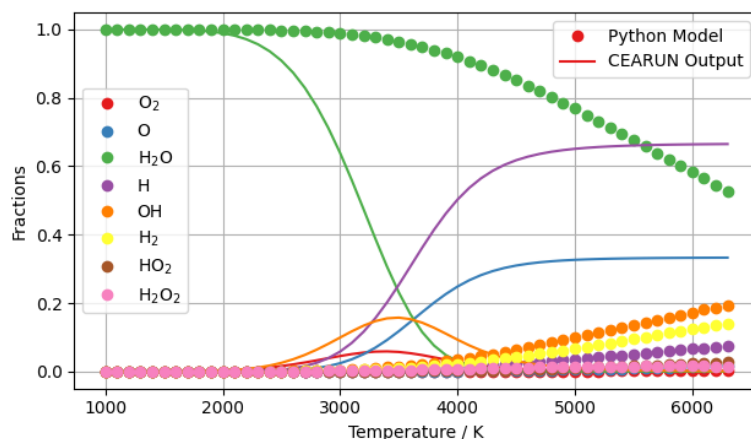


FIGURE 5.8. Comparaison du modèle combiné de Medodovic avec le résultat du CEARUN. Le temps de calcul est de 10 000 s, la pression est maintenue à 1 bar.

de vitesse. Les seuls modèles qui conviennent de loin aux simulations de trempe sont le modèle de Liu et le modèle combiné de Medodovic, car tous les autres modèles dissocient H_2O à des températures trop basses. Il est important d'avoir un modèle qui atteint l'état d'équilibre très rapidement pour la simulation de la trempe.

Aucun modèle approprié n'a été trouvé pour être combiné avec le modèle de dissociation de CO_2 de den Harder/Beuthe.

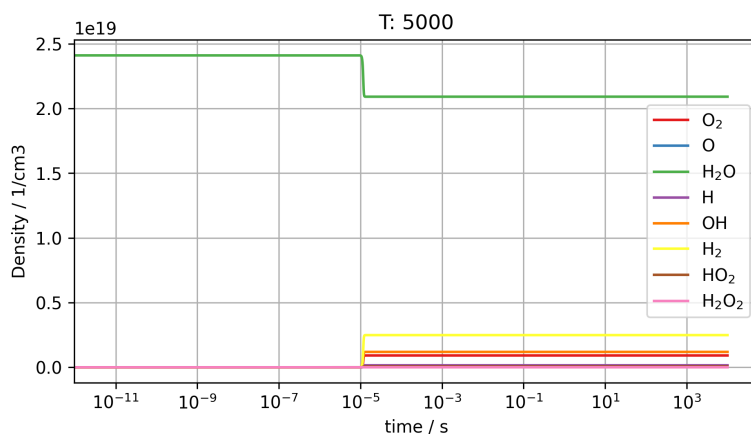


FIGURE 5.9. Résultat de l'évolution temporelle du modèle de Liu à 5000 K. Il en ressort que l'état d'équilibre a été atteint en moins de 20 μs .

Résumé et perspectives

L'objectif de ce travail était de trouver des modèles de dissociation de CO_2 et de H_2O appropriés pour une combinaison permettant d'étudier l'effet des impuretés de l'eau sur le rendement de la conversion de CO_2 en CO . Les modèles de dissociation de CO_2 et de

H₂O sont présentés et comparés quant à leur précision en régime permanent avec l'équilibre chimique. L'équilibre chimique est calculé à l'aide de l'implémentation en ligne du solveur CEA de la NASA.

Pour la dissociation CO₂, un modèle approprié a été trouvé avec succès. Le modèle validé avec succès est le modèle de dissociation CO₂ basé sur la pression publié par den Harder. Ce modèle a également pu être validé par des expériences de tubes à chocs réalisées indépendamment dans la littérature. Il est étendu aux réactions du carbone atomique dans le cadre de ce travail. Un autre modèle envisagé pour la dissociation de CO₂, publié par Koelman, inclut déjà les réactions du carbone atomique. Le modèle de Koelman n'est pas examiné plus avant, car le modèle de den Harder s'écarte moins des résultats du CEA. L'écart est ensuite réduit par une conversion des calculs basés sur la densité en calculs basés sur la pression. Avec cette étape, le volume de réaction du modèle ne change pas pendant les calculs, de sorte que la pression dans le système peut augmenter, ce qui est l'approche de simulation la plus réaliste. L'écart est encore réduit avec succès par l'introduction de réactions au carbone atomique. Les réactions du carbone atomique ont été tirées d'un modèle de dissociation Ar-CO₂ publié par Beuthe. D'autres constantes de vitesse ont été prises en compte pour ces réactions à partir de la base de données cinétiques du NIST. Les résultats les mieux adaptés sont ceux publiés par Beuthe. Avec cette extension du modèle en incluant la cinétique du carbone atomique, il n'y a pas de déviation visible par rapport au modèle CEA dans la gamme de température de 5000 K à 6100 K.

Ce modèle den Harder étendu est également utilisé pour simuler des expériences de trempe, où le gaz est à la température du plasma pendant plusieurs millisecondes avant d'être refroidi à la température ambiante. Ces expériences sont importantes car il y a recombinaison pendant le refroidissement du gaz de traitement. Cette expérience permet de déterminer la quantité de CO produite. Les expériences de trempe sont simulées à 2500, 3000, 3500 et 6000 K. La production de CO la plus élevée est archivée avec 6000 K et des taux de refroidissement supérieurs à 1×10^6 K/s. La fraction de perte relative de CO est saturée pour les vitesses de refroidissement supérieures à 1×10^7 K/s, pour toutes les températures à 2 %, sauf pour 6000 K où la fraction de perte relative devient négative à un taux de refroidissement de 4×10^5 K/s. Ce phénomène n'est possible qu'en raison de la pyrolyse thermique de CO en C et O. Par conséquent, la concentration de CO est plus élevée après le processus de refroidissement qu'elle ne l'était pendant l'état d'équilibre aux températures du plasma.

Ce modèle combiné den Harder/Beuthe basé sur la pression devrait être utilisé pour la combinaison avec un modèle de dissociation H₂O. Ce modèle devrait ensuite être étendu

aux réactions directes de H_2O avec C, CO et CO_2 .

Il reste à trouver un modèle de dissociation de H_2O approprié, car tous les modèles comparés sont très éloignés de l'équilibre chimique lorsqu'ils sont considérés en régime permanent. Le modèle de Srinivasan est un modèle assez simple qui est vérifié par l'expérience publiée du tube de choc. Il présente une très bonne adéquation à l'état d'équilibre pour les températures supérieures à 5000 K. Pour les températures comprises entre 1000 K et 5000 K, la composition à l'état stable est très éloignée de l'équilibre chimique. H_2O est dissocié à des températures beaucoup trop basses. Une amélioration peut être trouvée si le modèle est considéré après seulement quelques millisecondes, bien que H_2O soit toujours dissocié à des températures trop basses. Les expériences de trempe ne sont pas possibles avec ce modèle en raison de la température de dissociation excessivement basse de H_2O , ce qui fausserait les résultats. Un autre modèle simple a été trouvé par Lede, mais les calculs conduisent toujours à des problèmes de convergence, ce qui fait que le modèle ne donne pas de résultats significatifs.

Le modèle d'Avtaeva introduit un ensemble de réactions légèrement plus complexe. Il inclut également HO_2 et H_2O_2 , qui n'avaient pas été pris en compte auparavant. La plupart des constantes de vitesse de ce modèle sont données à une température fixe de 300 K et n'ont pas de paramètre dépendant de la température. Cela conduit, comme dans le modèle de Srinivasans, à une dissociation de H_2O à des températures trop basses. Par conséquent, ce modèle n'est pas non plus adapté au cas d'utilisation souhaité. Une autre publication de Medodovic fournit deux modèles, un modèle pour les basses températures de 300 K à 2000 K et un modèle pour les hautes températures entre 2000 K et 5000 K. Le modèle pour les températures élevées dissocie H_2O à des températures trop basses dans son état stable. Dans ce modèle, H_2O est à nouveau produit à des températures supérieures à 4000 K, ce qui n'est pas le cas dans les résultats du CEA. Pour améliorer le modèle à haute température et l'étendre à des températures plus basses, les deux modèles disponibles sont combinés. Avec ce modèle combiné, le H_2O est dissocié à des températures plus élevées que celles prévues par le CEA. L'état d'équilibre est atteint à 5000 K en moins de 1 μs , de sorte qu'une extension des temps de calcul n'améliorera pas la précision.

Le dernier modèle étudié a été publié par Liu. Ce modèle est le plus complexe des modèles étudiés. H_2O est dissocié à des températures trop élevées dans ce modèle. L'état d'équilibre à 5000 K est atteint en moins de 20 μs , donc une extension des temps de calcul n'améliorerait pas le résultat.

La combinaison des deux modèles n'est pas possible dans le cadre de ce travail. D'autres travaux doivent être réalisés avec les modèles de dissociation de H_2O . Il faut trouver un modèle qui corresponde mieux à l'équilibre chimique à l'état stable. Il sera alors possible

de combiner les modèles de dissociation de CO_2 et de dissociation de H_2O , afin d'étudier l'influence des impuretés de l'eau sur le rendement de conversion de CO_2 .

List of Figures

2.1.	The phase diagram shows the states of matter in dependence of temperature (x axis) and pressure (y axis). On the intersections between the different phases, the name of the respective phase transition is given. The critical point is at a substance specific critical temperature and critical pressure, where all three phases coexist. Above this point it is not possible to distinguish between a liquid and a gas. The arrangement of the molecules is displayed in each state as a schematic. From this diagram it is clear that plasma only occurs at high temperatures, even at low pressures. (Cf. [8, Figure 2]).	4
2.2.	A schematic overview of a typical microwave plasma torch setup. The microwaves are generated and then coupled into the waveguide, which guides the microwaves to the dielectric tube where the gas absorbs the microwaves and the energy is high enough to ionize the gas. To sustain the plasma, a gas is continuously fed into the dielectric tube. The waveguide is designed in such a way that a maximum of the EM wave is at the intersection of the dielectric tube and the waveguide.	5
2.3.	Overview of quenching methods. The ionized gas from the plasma is always described as hot gas in the figure. In these processes, the cooling fluid is typically the process gas, which prevents further contamination of the reaction. The only exception is the cold wall method, where any fluid can be used as it should not come in contact with the ionized gas. With these methods, quenching rates of up to 10^6 K s^{-1} are commonly realized. (Cf. [21, Figure 4])	7
3.1.	Output from CEARUN for a temperature range from 1000 K to 6100 K. The pressure is fixed at 100 mbar.	15
3.2.	Comparison of the newly implemented Python model with den Harder's implementation and the Mathematica model. The Mathematica implementation clearly deviates in the range from 2000 K to 2300 K. The deviation of the other models is noticeable in the range of 2300 K to 4000 K. .	16

3.3. Comparison of the Python implementation with odeint from den Harder and the new Python implementation with solve_ivp. It is not possible to see a difference on this scale.	17
3.4. Relative and absolute deviation for den Harder's model with odeint and the new Python implementation with solve_ivp. The given deviation is always the between den Harder's original implementation and the new Python implementation.	18
3.5. Comparison of the CEARUN result and den Harder's model. There is a deviation in the range from 2000 K to 4500 K. Above 5000 K there is again a deviation which is a result of thermal CO dissociation into C and O which is not covered by this model.	19
3.6. Comparison of the CEARUN result, with the den Harder model and the Koelman model. The den Harder model fits far better to the result from CEARUN than the Koelman model.	20
3.7. In this plot, the result from the CEARUN program is compared to the result from the density based and the pressure based den Harder model. .	21
3.8. The absolute deviation of the density and pressure model against the CEA result is presented.	21
3.9. The CEARUN result is presented with the pressure based den Harder model with carbon from Beuthe's Model added to it. CO ₂ is used as bath gas instead of argon. The the deviation from the CEA result for temperatures above 5000 K is smaller. The additional consideration of carbon enhances the model.	23
3.10. The CEARUN result is presented with the improved pressure based den Harder model with carbon from Beuthe's Model added to it. In the range above 5000 K, the deviation from the CEA result is minimal. The additional mass correction noticeably enhances the model.	24
3.11. The development of CO at 2665 K is shown. The initial CO ₂ concentration is 7.02 % of 20.95 bar.	25
3.12. Validation of the pressure based model extended with carbon at a pressure of 1 Pa. CEARUN result and density based model are given as references.	25
3.13. Validation of the pressure based model extended with carbon at a pressure of 1 MPa. CEARUN result and density based model are given as references.	26

3.14.	The temporal development of the mixture composition is presented. The gas is at room temperature for 100 ms, afterwards it is instantaneously heated to 3000 K where it stays for 500 ms. During this time the CO ₂ is dissociated and the other species are produced. After this constant heating period, the gas is quenched and rapidly cooled. In the plot, the cooling rate is 1×10^4 K/s, hence the room temperature is reached after 270 ms. This cooling rate is chosen to better visualize the quenching.	27
3.15.	The evolution of the CO loss fraction is presented in dependence of the cooling rate. The lowest losses are reached for lower temperatures or at cooling rates above 1×10^7 K/s. A commonly used temperature for quenching is 3000 K as the energy efficiency for the conversion from CO ₂ into CO is excellent at this temperature. The temperatures in the legend are the temperatures in the plasma region.	28
3.16.	Double logarithmic plot of the evolution of the absolute CO production in dependance from the cooling rate. The temperatures in the legend are the temperatures in the plasma region.	29
4.1.	Output from CEARUN for a temperature range from 1000 K to 6300 K. The pressure is fixed at 1 bar.	31
4.2.	Comparison of the OH profile from Srinivasan et al. [40] and the implemented model based on their publication. Both figures yield the same gradient for the OH profile.	33
4.3.	Comparison of the Python implementation from Srinivasan et al. [40] with the CEARUN result. The initial H ₂ O density is calculated at 1 bar. The datapoints for this plot are taken after 10 000 s.	34
4.4.	Comparison of the Python implementation from Srinivasan et al. [40] with the CEARUN result. The calculation time is 1.3 ms, the pressure is kept at 1 bar.	34
4.5.	Comparison of the Python implementation from Avtaeva et al. [42] with the CEARUN result. The calculation time is 10 000 s; the pressure is kept at 1 bar.	35
4.6.	Comparison of the high temperature model from Medodovic et al. [43] with the CEARUN result. The calculation time is 10 000 s, the pressure is kept at 1 bar.	37
4.7.	Comparison of the combined Medodovic model with the CEARUN result. The calculation time is 10 000 s, the pressure is kept at 1 bar.	37
4.8.	Result of the temporal calculations of the combined model at 5000 K. From this plot it is very obvious that the steady state was reached in under 1 μ s.	38
4.9.	Comparison of Liu's model with the CEARUN result. The calculation time is 10 000 s, the pressure is kept at 1 bar.	39

4.10. Result of the temporal evolution of Liu's model at 5000 K. From this it is clear that the steady state was reached in under 20 μ s.	39
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List of Tables

2.1. Phase transations	3
2.2. CEARUN problem types	9
2.3. Exemplary list of reactions	10
3.1. Comparison of the values published in den Harder's paper and in Butylkin's paper. The implementation of den Harder directly used the converted values from the original paper.	17
3.2. Reactions from Beuthe et al. [35] involving C. These reactions are implemented into the pressure based model. With argon as M (see text for more details). The unit of the reaction rate constants is $\frac{\text{cm}^3}{\text{s}}$ for two-body reactions and in $\frac{\text{cm}^6}{\text{s}}$ for three-body reactions. T_g is the temperature of the gas	22
4.1. Reactions of Avtaeva model. According to the NIST kinetic reactions database, these reactions should be 3-body reactions [36].	36
B.1. Reactions of den Harder	99
B.2. Reactions of Koelman	100
B.3. Reactions from Beuthe et al. [35] involving C	101
B.4. Reactions of den Harder/Beuthe	102
D.1. Reactions of Srinivasan	119
D.2. Reactions of Lede	120
D.3. Reactions of Lede with Rate constants	120
D.4. Reactions of Avtaeva	121
D.5. Reactions of Mededovic, high temperature model	122
D.6. Reactions of Mededovic, combined model	123
D.7. Reactions of Liu	125

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A. CEARUN files for CO₂

In the following the output files from CEARUN are shown. An issue with the current implementation of CEARUN leads to the fact that only 21 input temperatures can be used. This bug is reported to NASA already.

A.1. 1000 - 3000 K

```
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
```

```
*****
NASA-GLENN CHEMICAL EQUILIBRIUM PROGRAM CEA2, FEBRUARY 5, 2004
BY BONNIE MCBRIDE AND SANFORD GORDON
REFS: NASA RP-1311, PART I, 1994 AND NASA RP-1311, PART II, 1996
*****

### CEA analysis performed on Sun 15-Sep-2024 11:50:06

# Problem Type: "Assigned Temperature and Pressure"

prob case=_____8923 tp

# Pressure (1 value):
p,bar= 0.1
# Temperature (21 values):
t,k= 1000, 1100, 1200, 1300, 1400, 1500, 1600, 1700, 1800, 1900, 2000,
    2100, 220
    0, 2300, 2400, 2500, 2600, 2700, 2800, 2900, 3000

# You selected the following fuels and oxidizers:
reac
fuel CO2          wt%=100.0000
oxid CO2          wt%=100.0000

# You selected these options for output:
```

APPENDIX A. CEARUN FILES FOR CO₂

```
30 # long version of output
31 # Proportions of any products will be expressed as Mole Fractions.
32 # Heat will be expressed as siunits
33 output siunits
34
35 # Input prepared by this script:/var/www/sites/cearun.grc.nasa.gov/cgi-
    bin/CEARU
36 N/prepareInputFile.cgi
37
38 ### IMPORTANT: The following line is the end of your CEA input file!
39 end
40
41 OPTIONS: TP=T HP=F SP=F TV=F UV=F SV=F DETN=F SHOCK=F REFL=F
    INCD=F
42 RKT=F FROZ=F EQL=F IONS=F SIUNIT=T DEBUGF=F SHKDBG=F DETDBG=F
    TRNSPT=F
43
44 T,K = 1000.0000 1100.0000 1200.0000 1300.0000 1400.0000 1500.0000
    1600.0000
45
46 T,K = 1700.0000 1800.0000 1900.0000 2000.0000 2100.0000 2200.0000
    2300.0000
47
48 T,K = 2400.0000 2500.0000 2600.0000 2700.0000 2800.0000 2900.0000
    3000.0000
49
50 TRACE= 0.00E+00 S/R= 0.000000E+00 H/R= 0.000000E+00 U/R= 0.000000E+00
51
52 P,BAR = 0.100000
53
54 REACTANT WT.FRAC (ENERGY/R),K TEMP,K DENSITY
55 EXPLODED FORMULA
56 F: CO2 1.000000 0.000000E+00 0.00 0.0000
57 C 1.00000 0 2.00000
58 O: CO2 1.000000 0.000000E+00 0.00 0.0000
59 C 1.00000 0 2.00000
60
61 SPECIES BEING CONSIDERED IN THIS SYSTEM
62 (CONDENSED PHASE MAY HAVE NAME LISTED SEVERAL TIMES)
63 LAST thermo.inp UPDATE: 9/09/04
64
65 g 7/97 *C tpi91 *C0 g 9/99 *C02
66 tpi91 *C2 g 8/00 C20 tpi91 *C3
67 g 7/88 C302 g tpi91 *C4 g 8/00 *C5
68 g 5/97 *O tpi91 *O2 g 8/01 O3
69 n 4/83 C(gr) n 4/83 C(gr) n 4/83 C(gr)
70
71 O/F = 1.000000
```

A.1. 1000 - 3000 K

```

72
73           EFFECTIVE FUEL      EFFECTIVE OXIDANT      MIXTURE
74 ENTHALPY           h(2)/R      h(1)/R      h0/R
75 (KG-MOL)(K)/KG      0.00000000E+00      0.00000000E+00      0.00000000E
+00
76
77 KG-FORM.WT./KG      bi(2)      bi(1)      b0i
78 *C      0.22722367E-01      0.22722367E-01      0.22722367E
-01
79 *O      0.45444734E-01      0.45444734E-01      0.45444734E
-01
80
81 POINT ITN      T      C      O
82
83
84
85
86           THERMODYNAMIC EQUILIBRIUM PROPERTIES AT ASSIGNED
87
88           TEMPERATURE AND PRESSURE
89
90 CASE = -----
91
92           REACTANT      WT FRACTION      ENERGY      TEMP
93           (SEE NOTE)      KJ/KG-MOL      K
94 FUEL      CO2      1.0000000      0.000
0.000
95 OXIDANT      CO2      1.0000000      0.000
0.000
96
97 O/F=      1.00000 %FUEL= 50.000000 R,EQ.RATIO= 1.000000 PHI,EQ.RATIO=
0.000000
98
99 THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES
100
101 P, BAR      0.10000 0.10000 0.10000 0.10000 0.10000 0.10000
0.10000 0.10000
102 T, K      1000.00 1100.00 1200.00 1300.00 1400.00 1500.00
1600.00 1700.00
103 RHO, KG/CU M      5.2931-2 4.8119-2 4.4109-2 4.0715-2 3.7803-2 3.5274-2
3.3049-2 3.1065-2
104 H, KJ/KG      -8182.56 -8057.85 -7930.72 -7801.40 -7669.59 -7534.32
-7393.40 -7242.94
105 U, KJ/KG      -8371.48 -8265.67 -8157.44 -8047.01 -7934.12 -7817.82
-7695.98 -7564.84
106 G, KJ/KG      -14736.6 -15398.1 -16070.9 -16754.5 -17448.2 -18151.3
-18863.7 -19585.1

```

APPENDIX A. CEARUN FILES FOR CO₂

```

107 S, KJ/(KG)(K)      6.5541   6.6729   6.7835   6.8870   6.9847   7.0780
      7.1689   7.2601
108
109 M, (1/n)           44.009   44.010   44.009   44.008   44.004   43.992
      43.966   43.910
110 (dLV/dLP)t         -1.00000 -1.00000 -1.00000 -1.00001 -1.00004 -1.00013
      -1.00033 -1.00076
111 (dLV/dLT)p         1.0000   1.0000   1.0002   1.0007   1.0022   1.0059
      1.0140   1.0299
112 Cp, KJ/(KG)(K)    1.2341   1.2594   1.2822   1.3047   1.3329   1.3761
      1.4487   1.5707
113 GAMMAs            1.1808   1.1765   1.1729   1.1696   1.1659   1.1612
      1.1546   1.1456
114 SON VEL,M/SEC      472.3    494.5    515.7    536.0    555.4    573.8
      591.1    607.3
115
116 MOLE FRACTIONS
117
118 *CO                0.00000   0.00000   0.00002   0.00008   0.00027   0.00078
      0.00199   0.00453
119 *CO2              1.00000   1.00000   0.99997   0.99988   0.99960   0.99883
      0.99701   0.99320
120 *O                0.00000   0.00000   0.00000   0.00000   0.00000   0.00000
      0.00000   0.00001
121 *O2              0.00000   0.00000   0.00001   0.00004   0.00013   0.00039
      0.00099   0.00226
122
123 * THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES FITTED TO 20000.K
124
125 PRODUCTS WHICH WERE CONSIDERED BUT WHOSE MOLE FRACTIONS
126 WERE LESS THAN 5.000000E-06 FOR ALL ASSIGNED CONDITIONS
127
128 *C                *C2                C2O                *C3                C3O2
129 *C4                *C5                O3                C(gr)
130
131 NOTE. WEIGHT FRACTION OF FUEL IN TOTAL FUELS AND OF OXIDANT IN TOTAL
      OXIDANTS
132
133
134
135
136
137
138 POINT ITN        T                C                O
139
140
141
142

```

```

143          THERMODYNAMIC EQUILIBRIUM PROPERTIES AT ASSIGNED
144
145          TEMPERATURE AND PRESSURE
146
147  CASE = -----
148
149          REACTANT                      WT FRACTION      ENERGY      TEMP
150          (SEE NOTE)                   KJ/KG-MOL      K
151  FUEL      CO2                        1.0000000      0.000
152          0.000
153
154  OXIDANT    CO2                        1.0000000      0.000
155          0.000
156
157  O/F=      1.00000  %FUEL= 50.000000  R,EQ.RATIO= 1.000000  PHI,EQ.RATIO=
158          0.000000
159
160  THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES
161
162  P, BAR      0.10000  0.10000  0.10000  0.10000  0.10000  0.10000
163          0.10000  0.10000
164  T, K      1800.00  1900.00  2000.00  2100.00  2200.00  2300.00
165          2400.00  2500.00
166  RHO, KG/CU M  2.9268-2  2.7608-2  2.6042-2  2.4532-2  2.3044-2  2.1559-2
167          2.0068-2  1.8580-2
168  H, KJ/KG      -7076.77  -6886.01  -6658.81  -6380.63  -6034.89  -5604.53
169          -5074.27  -4433.55
170  U, KJ/KG      -7418.44  -7248.22  -7042.80  -6788.27  -6468.84  -6068.37
171          -5572.57  -4971.76
172  G, KJ/KG      -20315.8  -21056.4  -21807.9  -22571.9  -23350.8  -24147.1
173          -24964.3  -25805.8
174  S, KJ/(KG)(K)  7.3550  7.4581  7.5745  7.7101  7.8708  8.0620
175          8.2875  8.5489
176
177  M, (1/n)      43.803  43.614  43.306  42.833  42.152  41.228
178          40.046  38.621
179  (dLV/dLP)t      -1.00156  -1.00298  -1.00530  -1.00882  -1.01381  -1.02042
180          -1.02855  -1.03781
181  (dLV/dLT)p      1.0583  1.1051  1.1769  1.2795  1.4167  1.5874
182          1.7842  1.9925
183  Cp, KJ/(KG)(K)  1.7674  2.0677  2.5006  3.0910  3.8527  4.7805
184          5.8427  6.9770
185  GAMMAS      1.1347  1.1231  1.1124  1.1037  1.0976  1.0939
186          1.0924  1.0925
187  SON VEL,M/SEC  622.7  637.8  653.6  670.8  690.2  712.3
188          737.8  766.8
189
190  MOLE FRACTIONS
191
192

```

APPENDIX A. CEARUN FILES FOR CO₂

175 *C0 0.00937 0.01786 0.03170 0.05275 0.08269 0.12259
0.17227 0.22987
176 *C02 0.98593 0.97316 0.95231 0.92053 0.87510 0.81420
0.73767 0.64769
177 *O 0.00003 0.00009 0.00027 0.00071 0.00172 0.00382
0.00786 0.01501
178 *O2 0.00467 0.00889 0.01572 0.02602 0.04049 0.05938
0.08220 0.10743

179

180 * THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES FITTED TO 20000.K

181

182 PRODUCTS WHICH WERE CONSIDERED BUT WHOSE MOLE FRACTIONS
183 WERE LESS THAN 5.000000E-06 FOR ALL ASSIGNED CONDITIONS

184

185 *C *C2 C20 *C3 C302
186 *C4 *C5 O3 C(gr)

187

188 NOTE. WEIGHT FRACTION OF FUEL IN TOTAL FUELS AND OF OXIDANT IN TOTAL
OXIDANTS

189

190

191

192

193

194

195 POINT ITN T C O

196

197

198

199

200 THERMODYNAMIC EQUILIBRIUM PROPERTIES AT ASSIGNED

201

202 TEMPERATURE AND PRESSURE

203

204 CASE = -----

205

	REACTANT	WT FRACTION (SEE NOTE)	ENERGY KJ/KG-MOL	TEMP K
206				
207				
208	FUEL C02	1.0000000	0.000	
	0.000			
209	OXIDANT C02	1.0000000	0.000	
	0.000			

210

211 O/F= 1.00000 %FUEL= 50.000000 R,EQ.RATIO= 1.000000 PHI,EQ.RATIO=
0.000000

212

213 THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES

214

A.2. 3100 - 5100 K

215	P, BAR	0.10000	0.10000	0.10000	0.10000	0.10000
216	T, K	2600.00	2700.00	2800.00	2900.00	3000.00
217	RHO, KG/CU M	1.7115-2	1.5703-2	1.4371-2	1.3142-2	1.2027-2
218	H, KJ/KG	-3679.36	-2817.88	-1863.72	-836.93	240.04
219	U, KJ/KG	-4263.63	-3454.70	-2559.56	-1597.86	-591.41
220	G, KJ/KG	-26675.2	-27575.7	-28509.9	-29479.5	-30485.4
221	S, KJ/(KG)(K)	8.8446	9.1696	9.5165	9.8767	10.2418
222						
223	M, (1/n)	36.999	35.252	33.457	31.688	30.000
224	(dLV/dLP)t	-1.04751	-1.05684	-1.06513	-1.07194	-1.07699
225	(dLV/dLT)p	2.1931	2.3667	2.5003	2.5891	2.6330
226	Cp, KJ/(KG)(K)	8.0964	9.1083	9.9408	10.5575	10.9413
227	GAMMA _s	1.0941	1.0967	1.1003	1.1046	1.1094
228	SON VEL, M/SEC	799.5	835.7	875.0	916.8	960.4
229						
230	MOLE FRACTIONS					
231						
232	*CO	0.29179	0.35319	0.40896	0.45497	0.48889
233	*CO2	0.54893	0.44781	0.35126	0.26505	0.19278
234	*O	0.02678	0.04481	0.07059	0.10498	0.14778
235	*O2	0.13251	0.15419	0.16919	0.17500	0.17056
236						
237	* THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES FITTED TO 20000.K					
238						
239	PRODUCTS WHICH WERE CONSIDERED BUT WHOSE MOLE FRACTIONS					
240	WERE LESS THAN 5.000000E-06 FOR ALL ASSIGNED CONDITIONS					
241						
242	*C	*C2	C2O	*C3	C3O2	
243	*C4	*C5	O3	C(gr)		
244						
245	NOTE. WEIGHT FRACTION OF FUEL IN TOTAL FUELS AND OF OXIDANT IN TOTAL					
	OXIDANTS					

A.2. 3100 - 5100 K

1

2

3 NASA-GLENN CHEMICAL EQUILIBRIUM PROGRAM CEA2, FEBRUARY 5, 2004

4 BY BONNIE MCBRIDE AND SANFORD GORDON

5 REFS: NASA RP-1311, PART I, 1994 AND NASA RP-1311, PART II, 1996

6

7

8

9

```

10
11
12 ### CEA analysis performed on Sun 15-Sep-2024 11:52:19
13
14 # Problem Type: "Assigned Temperature and Pressure"
15
16 prob case=_____8923 tp
17
18 # Pressure (1 value):
19 p,bar= 0.1
20 # Temperature (21 values):
21 t,k= 3100, 3200, 3300, 3400, 3500, 3600, 3700, 3800, 3900, 4000, 4100,
    4200, 430
22 0, 4400, 4500, 4600, 4700, 4800, 4900, 5000, 5100
23
24 # You selected the following fuels and oxidizers:
25 reac
26 fuel CO2          wt%=100.0000
27 oxid CO2          wt%=100.0000
28
29 # You selected these options for output:
30 # long version of output
31 # Proportions of any products will be expressed as Mole Fractions.
32 # Heat will be expressed as siunits
33 output siunits
34
35 # Input prepared by this script:/var/www/sites/cearun.grc.nasa.gov/cgi-
    bin/CEARU
36 N/prepareInputFile.cgi
37
38 ### IMPORTANT: The following line is the end of your CEA input file!
39 end
40
41 OPTIONS: TP=T HP=F SP=F TV=F UV=F SV=F DETN=F SHOCK=F REFL=F
    INCD=F
42 RKT=F FROZ=F EQL=F IONS=F SIUNIT=T DEBUGF=F SHKDBG=F DETDBG=F
    TRNSPT=F
43
44 T,K = 3100.0000 3200.0000 3300.0000 3400.0000 3500.0000 3600.0000
    3700.0000
45
46 T,K = 3800.0000 3900.0000 4000.0000 4100.0000 4200.0000 4300.0000
    4400.0000
47
48 T,K = 4500.0000 4600.0000 4700.0000 4800.0000 4900.0000 5000.0000
    5100.0000
49
50 TRACE= 0.00E+00 S/R= 0.000000E+00 H/R= 0.000000E+00 U/R= 0.000000E+00

```


A.2. 3100 - 5100 K

```

51
52 P,BAR =      0.100000
53
54   REACTANT      WT.FRAC   (ENERGY/R),K   TEMP,K   DENSITY
55   EXPLODED FORMULA
56 F: CO2          1.000000   0.000000E+00     0.00   0.0000
57   C   1.00000   0   2.00000
58 O: CO2          1.000000   0.000000E+00     0.00   0.0000
59   C   1.00000   0   2.00000
60
61   SPECIES BEING CONSIDERED IN THIS SYSTEM
62 (CONDENSED PHASE MAY HAVE NAME LISTED SEVERAL TIMES)
63   LAST thermo.inp UPDATE:    9/09/04
64
65   g 7/97  *C          tpis79  *CO          g 9/99  *CO2
66   tpis91  *C2         g 8/00  C2O         tpis79  *C3
67   g 7/88  C3O2        g tpis  *C4         g 8/00  *C5
68   g 5/97  *O          tpis89  *O2         g 8/01  O3
69   n 4/83  C(gr)       n 4/83  C(gr)       n 4/83  C(gr)
70
71 O/F =    1.000000
72
73           EFFECTIVE FUEL      EFFECTIVE OXIDANT      MIXTURE
74 ENTHALPY          h(2)/R      h(1)/R      h0/R
75 (KG-MOL)(K)/KG    0.00000000E+00  0.00000000E+00  0.00000000E
76   +00
77 KG-FORM.WT./KG    bi(2)        bi(1)        b0i
78 *C                0.22722367E-01  0.22722367E-01  0.22722367E
79   -01
78 *O                0.45444734E-01  0.45444734E-01  0.45444734E
79   -01
80
81 POINT ITN      T          C          O
82
83
84
85
86   THERMODYNAMIC EQUILIBRIUM PROPERTIES AT ASSIGNED
87
88   TEMPERATURE AND PRESSURE
89
90 CASE =  -----
91
92           REACTANT          WT FRACTION      ENERGY      TEMP
93           (SEE NOTE)      KJ/KG-MOL      K
94 FUEL      CO2          1.0000000      0.000
95   0.000

```

APPENDIX A. CEARUN FILES FOR CO₂

```

95  OXIDANT      C02                      1.0000000      0.000
      0.000
96
97  O/F=        1.00000  %FUEL= 50.000000  R,EQ.RATIO= 1.000000  PHI,EQ.RATIO=
      0.000000
98
99  THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES
100
101  P, BAR      0.10000  0.10000  0.10000  0.10000  0.10000  0.10000
      0.10000  0.10000
102  T, K        3100.00  3200.00  3300.00  3400.00  3500.00  3600.00
      3700.00  3800.00
103  RHO, KG/CU M  1.1032-2  1.0156-2  9.4016-3  8.7649-3  8.2388-3  7.8093-3
      7.4585-3  7.1680-3
104  H, KJ/KG      1342.39  2439.41  3491.55  4454.02  5288.82  5977.80
      6526.47  6956.91
105  U, KJ/KG      435.89  1454.81  2427.90  3313.11  4075.05  4697.28
      5185.72  5561.82
106  G, KJ/KG      -31527.7 -32605.6 -33717.2 -34859.5 -36028.2 -37218.8
      -38426.6 -39647.5
107  S, KJ/(KG)(K)  10.6033  10.9516  11.2754  11.5628  11.8049  11.9991
      12.1495  12.2643
108
109  M, (1/n)      28.434   27.022   25.796   24.778   23.975   23.375
      22.945   22.647
110  (dLV/dLP)t    -1.07984 -1.07970 -1.07577 -1.06789 -1.05709 -1.04526
      -1.03423 -1.02505
111  (dLV/dLT)p     2.6288   2.5674   2.4394   2.2484   2.0180   1.7838
      1.5762   1.4104
112  Cp, KJ/(KG)(K)  11.0551  10.8189  10.1470   9.0365   7.6286   6.1616
      4.8506   3.8059
113  GAMMAs      1.1148   1.1208   1.1277   1.1362   1.1468   1.1607
      1.1784   1.2003
114  SON VEL,M/SEC  1005.3   1050.5   1095.2   1138.5   1179.8   1219.1
      1256.9   1294.0
115
116  MOLE FRACTIONS
117
118  *C0           0.51049  0.52140  0.52438  0.52252  0.51849  0.51410
      0.51028  0.50732
119  *C02          0.13559  0.09261  0.06176  0.04049  0.02629  0.01703
      0.01109  0.00728
120  *O            0.19734  0.25057  0.30332  0.35146  0.39195  0.42362
      0.44698  0.46348
121  *O2           0.15657  0.13542  0.11053  0.08553  0.06327  0.04524
      0.03165  0.02192
122
123  * THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES FITTED TO 20000.K

```

124
125 PRODUCTS WHICH WERE CONSIDERED BUT WHOSE MOLE FRACTIONS
126 WERE LESS THAN 5.000000E-06 FOR ALL ASSIGNED CONDITIONS
127
128 *C *C2 C2O *C3 C3O2
129 *C4 *C5 O3 C(gr)
130
131 NOTE. WEIGHT FRACTION OF FUEL IN TOTAL FUELS AND OF OXIDANT IN TOTAL
132 OXIDANTS
133
134
135
136
137
138 POINT ITN T C O
139
140
141
142
143 THERMODYNAMIC EQUILIBRIUM PROPERTIES AT ASSIGNED
144
145 TEMPERATURE AND PRESSURE
146
147 CASE = -----
148
149 REACTANT WT FRACTION ENERGY TEMP
150 (SEE NOTE) KJ/KG-MOL K
151 FUEL CO2 1.0000000 0.000
152 0.000
153 OXIDANT CO2 1.0000000 0.000
154 0.000
155
156 O/F= 1.00000 %FUEL= 50.000000 R,EQ.RATIO= 1.000000 PHI,EQ.RATIO=
157 0.000000
158
159 THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES
160
161 P, BAR 0.10000 0.10000 0.10000 0.10000 0.10000 0.10000
162 0.10000 0.10000
163 T, K 3900.00 4000.00 4100.00 4200.00 4300.00 4400.00
164 4500.00 4600.00
165 RHO, KG/CU M 6.9218-3 6.7077-3 6.5171-3 6.3440-3 6.1845-3 6.0359-3
166 5.8961-3 5.7638-3
167 H, KJ/KG 7296.88 7571.92 7802.17 8002.21 8182.11 8348.76
168 8506.92 8660.04
169 U, KJ/KG 5852.16 6081.09 6267.74 6425.93 6565.18 6692.00
170 6810.87 6925.07

APPENDIX A. CEARUN FILES FOR CO₂

```

163 G, KJ/KG          -40878.6 -42117.5 -43362.6 -44613.0 -45867.9 -47126.8
    -48389.4 -49655.5
164 S, KJ/(KG)(K)     12.3527  12.4223  12.4792  12.5274  12.5698  12.6081
    12.6436  12.6773
165
166 M, (1/n)           22.445   22.308   22.216   22.154   22.111   22.081
    22.060   22.045
167 (dLV/dLP)t        -1.01799 -1.01282 -1.00914 -1.00655 -1.00474 -1.00348
    -1.00260 -1.00200
168 (dLV/dLT)p         1.2871   1.1995   1.1388   1.0972   1.0688   1.0496
    1.0367   1.0286
169 Cp, KJ/(KG)(K)     3.0365   2.4978   2.1313   1.8860   1.7234   1.6174
    1.5513   1.5157
170 GAMMAs           1.2257   1.2529   1.2797   1.3038   1.3236   1.3387
    1.3487   1.3537
171 SON VEL,M/SEC      1330.7   1366.7   1401.3   1433.6   1463.0   1489.2
    1512.4   1532.5
172
173 MOLE FRACTIONS
174
175 *C                   0.00000   0.00000   0.00000   0.00001   0.00001   0.00003
    0.00005   0.00010
176 *CO                  0.50515   0.50362   0.50256   0.50182   0.50130   0.50092
    0.50062   0.50037
177 *CO2                 0.00485   0.00328   0.00225   0.00157   0.00111   0.00080
    0.00058   0.00043
178 *O                   0.47485   0.48258   0.48782   0.49139   0.49384   0.49554
    0.49674   0.49761
179 *O2                  0.01515   0.01052   0.00737   0.00522   0.00374   0.00272
    0.00200   0.00149
180
181 * THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES FITTED TO 20000.K
182
183 PRODUCTS WHICH WERE CONSIDERED BUT WHOSE MOLE FRACTIONS
184 WERE LESS THAN 5.000000E-06 FOR ALL ASSIGNED CONDITIONS
185
186 *C2                   C2O                *C3                   C3O2                  *C4
187 *C5                   O3                 C(gr)
188
189 NOTE. WEIGHT FRACTION OF FUEL IN TOTAL FUELS AND OF OXIDANT IN TOTAL
    OXIDANTS
190
191
192
193
194
195
196 POINT ITN           T                C                O

```

```

197
198
199
200
201      THERMODYNAMIC EQUILIBRIUM PROPERTIES AT ASSIGNED
202
203      TEMPERATURE AND PRESSURE
204
205      CASE = -----
206
207      REACTANT                      WT FRACTION      ENERGY      TEMP
208                                (SEE NOTE)      KJ/KG-MOL      K
209      FUEL      CO2                      1.0000000      0.000
210      0.000
211
212      OXIDANT    CO2                      1.0000000      0.000
213      0.000
214
215      O/F=      1.00000  %FUEL= 50.000000  R,EQ.RATIO= 1.000000  PHI,EQ.RATIO=
216      0.000000
217
218      THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES
219
220      P, BAR      0.10000  0.10000  0.10000  0.10000  0.10000
221      T, K      4700.00  4800.00  4900.00  5000.00  5100.00
222      RHO, KG/CU M  5.6380-3  5.5178-3  5.4024-3  5.2910-3  5.1828-3
223      H, KJ/KG      8810.94  8962.30  9117.19  9279.61  9455.08
224      U, KJ/KG      7037.25  7149.97  7266.15  7389.61  7525.64
225      G, KJ/KG      -50924.9 -52197.4 -53473.2 -54752.2 -56034.5
226      S, KJ/(KG)(K)  12.7097  12.7416  12.7735  12.8064  12.8411
227
228      M, (1/n)      22.032  22.021  22.010  21.996  21.977
229      (dLV/dLP)t    -1.00162 -1.00143 -1.00144 -1.00169 -1.00226
230      (dLV/dLT)p     1.0243  1.0237  1.0271  1.0359  1.0520
231      Cp, KJ/(KG)(K)  1.5067  1.5256  1.5788  1.6786  1.8440
232      GAMMAs      1.3535  1.3475  1.3351  1.3157  1.2900
233      SON VEL,M/SEC  1549.4  1562.7  1572.0  1576.9  1577.6
234
235      MOLE FRACTIONS
236
237      *C      0.00019  0.00035  0.00061  0.00105  0.00176
238      *CO      0.50011  0.49978  0.49932  0.49861  0.49750
239      *CO2     0.00032  0.00024  0.00019  0.00014  0.00011
240      *O      0.49826  0.49877  0.49923  0.49969  0.50022
241      *O2     0.00112  0.00085  0.00066  0.00051  0.00040
242
243      * THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES FITTED TO 20000.K
244
245      PRODUCTS WHICH WERE CONSIDERED BUT WHOSE MOLE FRACTIONS

```

242 WERE LESS THAN 5.000000E-06 FOR ALL ASSIGNED CONDITIONS
 243
 244 *C2 C20 *C3 C302 *C4
 245 *C5 03 C(gr)
 246
 247 NOTE. WEIGHT FRACTION OF FUEL IN TOTAL FUELS AND OF OXIDANT IN TOTAL
 OXIDANTS

A.3. 5200 - 6100 K

```

1 *****
2
3 NASA-GLENN CHEMICAL EQUILIBRIUM PROGRAM CEA2, FEBRUARY 5, 2004
4 BY BONNIE MCBRIDE AND SANFORD GORDON
5 REFS: NASA RP-1311, PART I, 1994 AND NASA RP-1311, PART II, 1996
6
7 *****
8
9
10
11
12 ### CEA analysis performed on Sun 15-Sep-2024 11:53:02
13
14 # Problem Type: "Assigned Temperature and Pressure"
15
16 prob case=_____8923 tp
17
18 # Pressure (1 value):
19 p,bar= 0.1
20 # Temperature (10 values):
21 t,k= 5200, 5300, 5400, 5500, 5600, 5700, 5800, 5900, 6000, 6100
22
23 # You selected the following fuels and oxidizers:
24 reac
25 fuel CO2 wt%=100.0000
26 oxid CO2 wt%=100.0000
27
28 # You selected these options for output:
29 # long version of output
30 # Proportions of any products will be expressed as Mole Fractions.
31 # Heat will be expressed as siunits
32 output siunits
33
34 # Input prepared by this script:/var/www/sites/cearun.grc.nasa.gov/cgi-
    bin/CEARU
  
```

A.3. 5200 - 6100 K

```

35 N/prepareInputFile.cgi
36
37 ### IMPORTANT: The following line is the end of your CEA input file!
38 end
39
40 OPTIONS: TP=T HP=F SP=F TV=F UV=F SV=F DETN=F SHOCK=F REFL=F
         INCD=F
41 RKT=F FROZ=F EQL=F IONS=F SIUNIT=T DEBUGF=F SHKDBG=F DETDBG=F
         TRNSPT=F
42
43 T,K = 5200.0000 5300.0000 5400.0000 5500.0000 5600.0000 5700.0000
         5800.0000
44
45 T,K = 5900.0000 6000.0000 6100.0000
46
47 TRACE= 0.00E+00 S/R= 0.000000E+00 H/R= 0.000000E+00 U/R= 0.000000E+00
48
49 P,BAR = 0.100000
50
51 REACTANT WT.FRAC (ENERGY/R),K TEMP,K DENSITY
52 EXPLODED FORMULA
53 F: CO2 1.000000 0.000000E+00 0.00 0.0000
54 C 1.00000 0 2.00000
55 O: CO2 1.000000 0.000000E+00 0.00 0.0000
56 C 1.00000 0 2.00000
57
58 SPECIES BEING CONSIDERED IN THIS SYSTEM
59 (CONDENSED PHASE MAY HAVE NAME LISTED SEVERAL TIMES)
60 LAST thermo.inp UPDATE: 9/09/04
61
62 g 7/97 *C tpis79 *CO g 9/99 *CO2
63 tpis91 *C2 g 8/00 C2O tpis79 *C3
64 g 7/88 C3O2 g tpis *C4 g 8/00 *C5
65 g 5/97 *O tpis89 *O2 g 8/01 O3
66 n 4/83 C(gr) n 4/83 C(gr) n 4/83 C(gr)
67
68 O/F = 1.000000
69
70 EFFECTIVE FUEL EFFECTIVE OXIDANT MIXTURE
71 ENTHALPY h(2)/R h(1)/R h0/R
72 (KG-MOL)(K)/KG 0.00000000E+00 0.00000000E+00 0.00000000E
+00
73
74 KG-FORM.WT./KG bi(2) bi(1) b0i
75 *C 0.22722367E-01 0.22722367E-01 0.22722367E
-01
76 *O 0.45444734E-01 0.45444734E-01 0.45444734E
-01

```

APPENDIX A. CEARUN FILES FOR CO₂

```

77
78 POINT ITN      T          C          0
79
80
81
82
83      THERMODYNAMIC EQUILIBRIUM PROPERTIES AT ASSIGNED
84
85      TEMPERATURE AND PRESSURE
86
87 CASE =  -----
88
89      REACTANT          WT FRACTION          ENERGY          TEMP
90                      (SEE NOTE)        KJ/KG-MOL          K
91 FUEL      CO2          1.0000000        0.000
92      0.000
93
94 OXIDANT   CO2          1.0000000        0.000
95      0.000
96
97 O/F=      1.00000  %FUEL= 50.000000  R,EQ.RATIO= 1.000000  PHI,EQ.RATIO=
98      0.000000
99
100 THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES
101
102 P, BAR      0.10000  0.10000  0.10000  0.10000  0.10000  0.10000
103      0.10000  0.10000
104 T, K      5200.00  5300.00  5400.00  5500.00  5600.00  5700.00
105      5800.00  5900.00
106 RHO, KG/CU M  5.0768-3  4.9718-3  4.8662-3  4.7583-3  4.6459-3  4.5269-3
107      4.3992-3  4.2615-3
108 H, KJ/KG      9651.50  9879.99  10155.9  10499.8  10937.7  11501.1
109      12224.4  13141.1
110 U, KJ/KG      7681.78  7868.65  8100.92  8398.17  8785.30  9292.10
111      9951.26  10794.5
112 G, KJ/KG      -57320.5 -58610.5 -59905.3 -61205.8 -62513.3 -63829.7
113      -65157.4 -66499.1
114 S, KJ/(KG)(K)  12.8792  12.9227  12.9743  13.0374  13.1163  13.2159
115      13.3417  13.4983
116
117 M, (1/n)      21.950  21.909  21.849  21.760  21.632  21.454
118      21.215  20.905
119 (dLV/dLP)t      -1.00327 -1.00492 -1.00745 -1.01118 -1.01642 -1.02347
120      -1.03243 -1.04313
121 (dLV/dLT)p      1.0785  1.1196  1.1810  1.2690  1.3901  1.5493
122      1.7474  1.9786
123 Cp, KJ/(KG)(K)  2.1028  2.4923  3.0600  3.8609  4.9510  6.3749
124      8.1475  10.2326
125 GAMMA s      1.2598  1.2284  1.1990  1.1740  1.1542  1.1395

```

A.3. 5200 - 6100 K

```

111      1.1292   1.1224
SON VEL ,M/SEC      1575.3   1571.9   1569.7   1570.7   1576.2   1586.6
      1602.2   1622.9
112
113 MOLE FRACTIONS
114
115 *C           0.00290   0.00467   0.00736   0.01135   0.01711   0.02516
      0.03600   0.05006
116 *CO          0.49577   0.49309   0.48903   0.48303   0.47437   0.46229
      0.44600   0.42490
117 *CO2         0.00009   0.00007   0.00006   0.00005   0.00004   0.00003
      0.00002   0.00002
118 *C2          0.00000   0.00000   0.00000   0.00000   0.00000   0.00001
      0.00001   0.00002
119 *O           0.50093   0.50192   0.50334   0.50540   0.50833   0.51240
      0.51786   0.52492
120 *O2          0.00032   0.00025   0.00021   0.00017   0.00014   0.00012
      0.00010   0.00008
121
122 * THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES FITTED TO 20000.K
123
124 PRODUCTS WHICH WERE CONSIDERED BUT WHOSE MOLE FRACTIONS
125 WERE LESS THAN 5.000000E-06 FOR ALL ASSIGNED CONDITIONS
126
127 C2O           *C3           C3O2           *C4           *C5
128 O3           C(gr)
129
130 NOTE. WEIGHT FRACTION OF FUEL IN TOTAL FUELS AND OF OXIDANT IN TOTAL
      OXIDANTS
131
132
133
134
135
136
137 POINT ITN      T           C           O
138
139
140
141
142 THERMODYNAMIC EQUILIBRIUM PROPERTIES AT ASSIGNED
143
144 TEMPERATURE AND PRESSURE
145
146 CASE = -----
147
148 REACTANT              WT FRACTION      ENERGY      TEMP
149                      (SEE NOTE)      KJ/KG-MOL      K

```

APPENDIX A. CEARUN FILES FOR CO₂

```

150 FUEL          C02                      1.0000000    0.000
      0.000
151 OXIDANT       C02                      1.0000000    0.000
      0.000
152
153 O/F=          1.00000  %FUEL= 50.000000  R,EQ.RATIO= 1.000000  PHI,EQ.RATIO=
      0.000000
154
155 THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES
156
157 P, BAR          0.10000  0.10000
158 T, K            6000.00  6100.00
159 RHO, KG/CU M    4.1136-3  3.9566-3
160 H, KJ/KG        14278.0  15648.3
161 U, KJ/KG        11847.0  13120.9
162 G, KJ/KG        -67858.2 -69238.1
163 S, KJ/(KG)(K)   13.6894  13.9158
164
165 M, (1/n)         20.521   20.067
166 (dLV/dLP)t       -1.05502 -1.06714
167 (dLV/dLT)p        2.2288   2.4761
168 Cp, KJ/(KG)(K)   12.5286  14.8662
169 GAMMAs          1.1181   1.1157
170 SON VEL,M/SEC     1648.7   1679.3
171
172 MOLE FRACTIONS
173
174 *C                0.06747   0.08808
175 *CO               0.39875   0.36781
176 *CO2              0.00002   0.00001
177 *C2               0.00003   0.00004
178 *O                 0.53366   0.54399
179 *O2               0.00007   0.00006
180
181 * THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES FITTED TO 20000.K
182
183 PRODUCTS WHICH WERE CONSIDERED BUT WHOSE MOLE FRACTIONS
184 WERE LESS THAN 5.000000E-06 FOR ALL ASSIGNED CONDITIONS
185
186 C20                *C3                C3O2                *C4                *C5
187 O3                 C(gr)
188
189 NOTE. WEIGHT FRACTION OF FUEL IN TOTAL FUELS AND OF OXIDANT IN TOTAL
      OXIDANTS

```

B. CO₂ Dissociation Models

B.1. den Harder Model

Neutral reactions, published in den Harder et al. [13], original model from Butylkin et al. [32]. Reactions 9, 10, 11 deviate from den Harder et al. [13] as explained in section 3.2. A table with the published values for reactions 9, 10 and 11 is given in table 3.1.

Table B.1. Reactions of CO₂, CO, O₂ and O. With the pre-exponential factor and activation energies from [13,32]. The pre-exponential factors are given in $\frac{\text{m}^3}{\text{s}}$ for two-body reactions and in $\frac{\text{m}^6}{\text{s}}$ for three-body reactions.

Index	Reaction	k_0	$E_a(\text{eV})$
1	$\text{CO}_2 + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{O} + \text{CO}_2$	4.38×10^{-13}	5.58
2	$\text{CO}_2 + \text{CO} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{O} + \text{CO}$	4.38×10^{-13}	5.58
3	$\text{CO}_2 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{O} + \text{O}_2$	3.72×10^{-16}	5.19
4	$\text{CO}_2 + \text{O} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{O}_2$	7.77×10^{-18}	1.57
5	$\text{O}_2 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{O} + \text{O} + \text{O}_2$	8.14×10^{-15}	5.14
6	$\text{O}_2 + \text{O} \rightarrow \text{O} + \text{O} + \text{O}$	1.99×10^{-14}	4.99
7	$\text{O}_2 + \text{CO} \rightarrow \text{O} + \text{O} + \text{CO}$	2.41×10^{-15}	5.12
8	$\text{O}_2 + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{O} + \text{O} + \text{CO}_2$	2.57×10^{-15}	5.14
9	$\text{CO} + \text{O} + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{CO}_2$	6.54×10^{-45}	0.19
10	$\text{CO} + \text{O} + \text{CO} \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{CO}$	6.54×10^{-45}	0.19
11	$\text{CO} + \text{O} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{O}_2$	6.51×10^{-48}	-0.16
12	$\text{CO} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{O}$	1.23×10^{-18}	1.32
13	$\text{O} + \text{O} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + \text{O}_2$	6.81×10^{-46}	0.00
14	$\text{O} + \text{O} + \text{O} \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + \text{O}$	2.19×10^{-45}	-0.20
15	$\text{O} + \text{O} + \text{CO} \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + \text{CO}$	2.76×10^{-46}	0.00
16	$\text{O} + \text{O} + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + \text{CO}_2$	2.76×10^{-46}	0.00

B.2. Koelman Model

Neutral reactions, published in Koelman et al. [31]. The reaction 4 was split into 3 reactions in the python implementation, in the following table the reactions are given as implemented.

Table B.2. Neutral neutral reactions with rate coefficients. The unit of the rate coefficients is $\frac{\text{m}^3}{\text{s}}$ for two-body reactions and in $\frac{\text{m}^6}{\text{s}}$ for three-body reactions.

No.	Reaction	Rate Coefficient
N1	$\text{CO}_2 + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{O} + \text{M}$	$1.81 \times 10^{-16} \exp(-49000/T_g)$
N2	$\text{CO}_2 + \text{O} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{O}_2$	$2.8 \times 10^{-17} \exp(-26500/T_g)$
N3	$\text{CO}_2 + \text{C} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{CO}$	$\leq 1.0 \times 10^{-21}$
N4 _{CO₂}	$\text{O} + \text{CO} + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{CO}_2$	$8.2 \times 10^{-46} \exp(-1510/T_g) \cdot 2$
N4 _{O₂}	$\text{O} + \text{CO} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{O}_2$	$8.2 \times 10^{-46} \exp(-1510/T_g) \cdot 1$
N4 _{CO}	$\text{O} + \text{CO} + \text{CO} \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{CO}$	$8.2 \times 10^{-46} \exp(-1510/T_g) \cdot 1$
N5	$\text{O}_2 + \text{CO} \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{O}$	$4.2 \times 10^{-18} \exp(-24000/T_g)$
N6	$\text{O}_3 + \text{CO} \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{O}_2$	$\leq 4.0 \times 10^{-31}$
N7	$\text{C} + \text{CO} + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{O} + \text{M}$	6.31×10^{-44}
N8	$\text{O}_2 + \text{C} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{O}$	3.0×10^{-17}
N9	$\text{O} + \text{C} + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{M}$	$2.14 \times 10^{-41} (T_g/300)^{-3.08} \exp(-2114/T_g)$
N10	$\text{O} + \text{C}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{CO}$	9.51×10^{-17}
N11	$\text{O}_2 + \text{C}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{CO}$	3.3×10^{-19}
N12	$\text{O} + \text{O}_3 \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + \text{O}_2$	$8.0 \times 10^{-18} \exp(-2056/T_g)$
N13	$\text{O}_3 + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + \text{O} + \text{M}$	$4.12 \times 10^{-16} \exp(-11430/T_g)$
N14	$\text{O} + \text{O}_2 + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{O}_3 + \text{M}$	$5.51 \times 10^{-46} (T_g/298)^{-2.6}$
N15	$\text{O} + \text{O} + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + \text{M}$	$5.2 \times 10^{-47} \exp(900/T_g)$

B.3. Combined den Harder/Beuthe Model

table B.4 contains the combined model from den Harder et al. [13] with the carbon reactions from Beuthe et al. [35] which are also given in table B.3.

Table B.3. Reactions from Beuthe et al. [35] involving C. These reactions are implemented into the pressure based model. With argon as M (see section 3.4 for more details). The unit of the reaction rate constants is $\frac{\text{cm}^3}{\text{s}}$ for two-body reactions and in $\frac{\text{cm}^6}{\text{s}}$ for three-body reactions. T_g is the gas temperature.

Index	Reaction	Reaction rate constants
C1	$\text{CO} + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{C} + \text{O} + \text{M}$	$1.46 \times 10^6 \cdot T_g^{-3.52} \exp(-128700/T_g)$
C2	$\text{CO}_2 + \text{C} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{CO}$	1.0×10^{-15}
C3	$\text{C} + \text{O} + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{M}$	$9.1 \times 10^{-22} \cdot T_g^{-3.08} \exp(2114/T_g)$

The reaction rate constants were split into the pre-exponential factor and the activation energy. The activation energy was calculated from the temperature in the exponent as

$$E = k_B \cdot T \quad (\text{B.1})$$

Calculations were performed with the full accuracy of the energy. The pre-exponential factor was converted from cm^3/s to m^3/s , and respectively from cm^6/s to m^6/s .

Table B.4. Combined den Harder/Beuthe model. The pre-exponential factors are given in $\frac{\text{m}^3}{\text{s}}$ for two-body reactions and in $\frac{\text{m}^6}{\text{s}}$ for three-body reactions. With the gas temperature T_g .

Index	Reaction	k_0	$E_a(\text{eV})$
1	$\text{CO}_2 + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{O} + \text{CO}_2$	4.38×10^{-13}	5.58
2	$\text{CO}_2 + \text{CO} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{O} + \text{CO}$	4.38×10^{-13}	5.58
3	$\text{CO}_2 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{O} + \text{O}_2$	3.72×10^{-16}	5.19
4	$\text{CO}_2 + \text{O} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{O}_2$	7.77×10^{-18}	1.57
5	$\text{O}_2 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{O} + \text{O} + \text{O}_2$	8.14×10^{-15}	5.14
6	$\text{O}_2 + \text{O} \rightarrow \text{O} + \text{O} + \text{O}$	1.99×10^{-14}	4.99
7	$\text{O}_2 + \text{CO} \rightarrow \text{O} + \text{O} + \text{CO}$	2.41×10^{-15}	5.12
8	$\text{O}_2 + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{O} + \text{O} + \text{CO}_2$	2.57×10^{-15}	5.14
9	$\text{CO} + \text{O} + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{CO}_2$	6.54×10^{-45}	0.19
10	$\text{CO} + \text{O} + \text{CO} \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{CO}$	6.54×10^{-45}	0.19
11	$\text{CO} + \text{O} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{O}_2$	6.51×10^{-48}	-0.16
12	$\text{CO} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{O}$	1.23×10^{-18}	1.32
13	$\text{O} + \text{O} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + \text{O}_2$	6.81×10^{-46}	0.00
14	$\text{O} + \text{O} + \text{O} \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + \text{O}$	2.19×10^{-45}	-0.20
15	$\text{O} + \text{O} + \text{CO} \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + \text{CO}$	2.76×10^{-46}	0.00
16	$\text{O} + \text{O} + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + \text{CO}_2$	2.76×10^{-46}	0.00
C1	$\text{CO} + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{C} + \text{O} + \text{M}$	$1.46 \cdot T_g^{-3.52}$	-11.09
C2	$\text{CO}_2 + \text{C} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{CO}$	1.0×10^{-21}	n/a
C3	$\text{C} + \text{O} + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{M}$	$9.1 \times 10^{-28} \cdot T_g^{-3.08}$	0.18

C. CEARUN files for H₂O

In the following the output files from CEARUN are shown. An issue with the current implementation of CEARUN leads to the fact that only 21 input temperatures can be used. This bug is reported to NASA already.

C.1. 1000 - 3000 K

```
1 *****
2
3       NASA-GLENN CHEMICAL EQUILIBRIUM PROGRAM CEA2, FEBRUARY 5, 2004
4       BY   BONNIE MCBRIDE AND SANFORD GORDON
5       REFS: NASA RP-1311, PART I, 1994 AND NASA RP-1311, PART II, 1996
6
7 *****
8
9
10
11
12 ### CEA analysis performed on Thu 19-Sep-2024 14:59:56
13
14 # Problem Type: "Assigned Temperature and Pressure"
15
16 prob case=_____3194 tp
17
18 # Pressure (1 value):
19 p,bar= 1
20 # Temperature (21 values):
21 t,k= 1000, 1100, 1200, 1300, 1400, 1500, 1600, 1700, 1800, 1900, 2000,
22     2100, 220
23     0, 2300, 2400, 2500, 2600, 2700, 2800, 2900, 3000
24
25 # You selected the following fuels and oxidizers:
26 reac
27 fuel H2O          wt%=100.0000
28 oxid H2O          wt%=100.0000
29
30 # You selected these options for output:
31 # short version of output
32 output short
```

APPENDIX C. CEARUN FILES FOR H₂O

```

32 # Proportions of any products will be expressed as Mole Fractions.
33 # Heat will be expressed as siunits
34 output siunits
35
36 # Input prepared by this script:/var/www/sites/cearun.grc.nasa.gov/cgi-
    bin/CEARU
37 N/prepareInputFile.cgi
38
39 ### IMPORTANT: The following line is the end of your CEA input file!
40 end
41
42
43
44
45             THERMODYNAMIC EQUILIBRIUM PROPERTIES AT ASSIGNED
46
47             TEMPERATURE AND PRESSURE
48
49 CASE = -----
50
51             REACTANT                WT FRACTION          ENERGY          TEMP
52                                     (SEE NOTE)          KJ/KG-MOL          K
53 FUEL      H2O                1.0000000          0.000
54           0.000
55 OXIDANT    H2O                1.0000000          0.000
56           0.000
57
58 O/F=      1.00000  %FUEL= 50.000000  R,EQ.RATIO= 1.000000  PHI,EQ.RATIO=
59           0.000000
60
61 THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES
62
63 P, BAR      1.0000    1.0000    1.0000    1.0000    1.0000    1.0000
64           1.0000    1.0000
65 T, K      1000.00    1100.00    1200.00    1300.00    1400.00    1500.00
66           1600.00    1700.00
67 RHO, KG/CU M  2.1667-1  1.9698-1  1.8056-1  1.6667-1  1.5476-1  1.4443-1
68           1.3539-1  1.2738-1
69 H, KJ/KG      -11980.0 -11747.2 -11507.3 -11260.2 -11006.0 -10744.4
70           -10474.5 -10194.8
71 U, KJ/KG      -12441.5 -12254.9 -12061.1 -11860.2 -11652.2 -11436.7
72           -11213.1 -10979.8
73 G, KJ/KG      -24898.8 -26201.9 -27526.5 -28871.4 -30235.6 -31618.3
74           -33018.6 -34436.1
75 S, KJ/(KG)(K)  12.9189  13.1407  13.3494  13.5471  13.7355  13.9159
76           14.0901  14.2596
77

```

C.1. 1000 - 3000 K

68	M, (1/n)	18.015	18.015	18.015	18.015	18.015	18.013
	18.011	18.005					
69	(dLV/dLP)t	-1.00000	-1.00000	-1.00000	-1.00000	-1.00001	-1.00004
	-1.00009	-1.00019					
70	(dLV/dLT)p	1.0000	1.0000	1.0001	1.0002	1.0006	1.0015
	1.0034	1.0069					
71	Cp, KJ/(KG)(K)	2.2921	2.3634	2.4351	2.5061	2.5783	2.6557
	2.7446	2.8544					
72	GAMMAS	1.2521	1.2427	1.2339	1.2258	1.2183	1.2111
	1.2037	1.1959					
73	SON VEL,M/SEC	760.2	794.3	826.7	857.6	887.3	915.7
	942.9	968.9					

74

75 MOLE FRACTIONS

76

77	*H2	0.00000	0.00000	0.00001	0.00003	0.00008	0.00020
	0.00046	0.00098					
78	H2O	1.00000	1.00000	0.99999	0.99996	0.99988	0.99967
	0.99922	0.99832					
79	*OH	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00001	0.00004
	0.00012	0.00028					
80	*O2	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00001	0.00003	0.00009
	0.00020	0.00042					

81

82 * THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES FITTED TO 20000.K

83

84 NOTE. WEIGHT FRACTION OF FUEL IN TOTAL FUELS AND OF OXIDANT IN TOTAL OXIDANTS

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94 THERMODYNAMIC EQUILIBRIUM PROPERTIES AT ASSIGNED

95

96 TEMPERATURE AND PRESSURE

97

98 CASE = -----

99

100	REACTANT	WT FRACTION	ENERGY	TEMP
101		(SEE NOTE)	KJ/KG-MOL	K
102	FUEL H2O	1.0000000	0.000	
	0.000			

APPENDIX C. CEARUN FILES FOR H₂O

```

103  OXIDANT      H2O                      1.0000000      0.000
      0.000
104
105  O/F=        1.00000  %FUEL= 50.000000  R,EQ.RATIO= 1.000000  PHI,EQ.RATIO=
      0.000000
106
107  THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES
108
109  P, BAR              1.0000    1.0000    1.0000    1.0000    1.0000    1.0000
      1.0000    1.0000
110  T, K                1800.00   1900.00   2000.00   2100.00   2200.00   2300.00
      2400.00   2500.00
111  RHO, KG/CU M       1.2024-1  1.1380-1  1.0794-1  1.0255-1  9.7529-2  9.2790-2
      8.8251-2  8.3837-2
112  H, KJ/KG           -9902.51  -9593.68  -9262.51  -8901.16  -8499.31  -8043.71
      -7517.63  -6900.27
113  U, KJ/KG           -10734.2  -10472.4  -10188.9  -9876.29  -9524.64  -9121.41
      -8650.77  -8093.07
114  G, KJ/KG           -35870.5  -37321.4  -38789.3  -40274.3  -41777.5  -43300.1
      -44844.0  -46411.6
115  S, KJ/(KG)(K)      14.4266   14.5936   14.7634   14.9396   15.1265   15.3289
      15.5527   15.8045
116
117  M, (1/n)            17.995    17.978    17.950    17.906    17.840    17.745
      17.610    17.427
118  (dLV/dLP)t         -1.00038  -1.00070  -1.00124  -1.00210  -1.00341  -1.00536
      -1.00818  -1.01217
119  (dLV/dLT)p          1.0131    1.0232    1.0391    1.0630    1.0977    1.1467
      1.2141    1.3047
120  Cp, KJ/(KG)(K)      2.9973    3.1887    3.4476    3.7965    4.2625    4.8773
      5.6788    6.7109
121  GAMMAs            1.1874    1.1781    1.1680    1.1575    1.1472    1.1376
      1.1291    1.1221
122  SON VEL,M/SEC       993.8     1017.4    1040.2    1062.4    1084.6    1107.2
      1131.1    1156.9
123
124  MOLE FRACTIONS
125
126  *H                  0.00002    0.00005    0.00012    0.00030    0.00068    0.00143
      0.00282    0.00523
127  H2                0.00000    0.00000    0.00000    0.00000    0.00000    0.00000
      0.00000    0.00001
128  *H2              0.00190    0.00344    0.00587    0.00951    0.01471    0.02184
      0.03122    0.04312
129  H2O              0.99666    0.99383    0.98924    0.98216    0.97170    0.95680
      0.93631    0.90900
130  *O                  0.00000    0.00001    0.00003    0.00008    0.00020    0.00045
      0.00093    0.00181

```

```

131 *OH          0.00062  0.00126  0.00237  0.00420  0.00704  0.01124
      0.01716  0.02516
132 *O2          0.00080  0.00141  0.00236  0.00374  0.00566  0.00824
      0.01156  0.01567
133
134 * THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES FITTED TO 20000.K
135
136 NOTE. WEIGHT FRACTION OF FUEL IN TOTAL FUELS AND OF OXIDANT IN TOTAL
      OXIDANTS
137
138
139
140
141
142
143
144
145
146          THERMODYNAMIC EQUILIBRIUM PROPERTIES AT ASSIGNED
147
148          TEMPERATURE AND PRESSURE
149
150 CASE = -----
151
152          REACTANT          WT FRACTION          ENERGY          TEMP
153          (SEE NOTE)        KJ/KG-MOL          K
154 FUEL      H2O              1.0000000          0.000
      0.000
155 OXIDANT   H2O              1.0000000          0.000
      0.000
156
157 O/F=      1.00000  %FUEL= 50.000000  R, EQ. RATIO= 1.000000  PHI, EQ. RATIO=
      0.000000
158
159 THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES
160
161 P, BAR      1.0000  1.0000  1.0000  1.0000  1.0000
162 T, K        2600.00  2700.00  2800.00  2900.00  3000.00
163 RHO, KG/CU M  7.9478-2  7.5114-2  7.0692-2  6.6179-2  6.1560-2
164 H, KJ/KG     -6166.09 -5284.13 -4217.42 -2922.63 -1350.22
165 U, KJ/KG     -7424.29 -6615.44 -5632.01 -4433.69 -2974.65
166 G, KJ/KG     -48006.1 -49631.6 -51293.0 -52996.3 -54748.9
167 S, KJ/(KG)(K) 16.0923 16.4250 16.8127 17.2668 17.7996
168
169 M, (1/n)      17.181  16.862  16.458  15.957  15.355
170 (dLV/dLP)t    -1.01768 -1.02510 -1.03486 -1.04734 -1.06283
171 (dLV/dLT)p     1.4237  1.5765  1.7678  2.0008  2.2757
172 Cp, KJ/(KG)(K) 8.0243  9.6765 11.7299 14.2487 17.2907

```

```
173 GAMMAS          1.1168    1.1130    1.1108    1.1099    1.1103
174 SON VEL,M/SEC    1185.4    1217.3    1253.5    1295.1    1343.0
175
176 MOLE FRACTIONS
177
178 *H                0.00923    0.01555    0.02509    0.03890    0.05805
179 H02              0.00001    0.00001    0.00002    0.00003    0.00003
180 *H2              0.05764    0.07466    0.09375    0.11416    0.13471
181 H2O              0.87369    0.82939    0.77543    0.71175    0.63906
182 *O                0.00334    0.00584    0.00976    0.01563    0.02402
183 *OH              0.03551    0.04835    0.06358    0.08075    0.09907
184 *O2              0.02057    0.02619    0.03236    0.03878    0.04506
185
186 * THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES FITTED TO 20000.K
187
188 NOTE. WEIGHT FRACTION OF FUEL IN TOTAL FUELS AND OF OXIDANT IN TOTAL
      OXIDANTS
189
```

C.2. 3100 - 5100 K

```
1
*****
2
3      NASA-GLENN CHEMICAL EQUILIBRIUM PROGRAM CEA2, FEBRUARY 5, 2004
4      BY   BONNIE MCBRIDE AND SANFORD GORDON
5      REFS: NASA RP-1311, PART I, 1994 AND NASA RP-1311, PART II, 1996
6
7
*****
8
9
10
11
12 ### CEA analysis performed on Thu 19-Sep-2024 15:02:28
13
14 # Problem Type: "Assigned Temperature and Pressure"
15
16 prob case=_____3194 tp
17
18 # Pressure (1 value):
19 p,bar= 1
20 # Temperature (21 values):
21 t,k= 3100, 3200, 3300, 3400, 3500, 3600, 3700, 3800, 3900, 4000, 4100,
      4200, 430
22 0, 4400, 4500, 4600, 4700, 4800, 4900, 5000, 5100
```

```

23
24 # You selected the following fuels and oxidizers:
25 reac
26 fuel H2O          wt%=100.0000
27 oxid H2O          wt%=100.0000
28
29 # You selected these options for output:
30 # short version of output
31 output short
32 # Proportions of any products will be expressed as Mole Fractions.
33 # Heat will be expressed as siunits
34 output siunits
35
36 # Input prepared by this script:/var/www/sites/cearun.grc.nasa.gov/cgi-
    bin/CEARU
37 N/prepareInputFile.cgi
38
39 ### IMPORTANT:  The following line is the end of your CEA input file!
40 end
41
42
43
44
45          THERMODYNAMIC EQUILIBRIUM PROPERTIES AT ASSIGNED
46
47          TEMPERATURE AND PRESSURE
48
49 CASE =  -----
50
51          REACTANT                WT FRACTION          ENERGY          TEMP
52                                (SEE NOTE)        KJ/KG-MOL          K
53 FUEL      H2O                    1.0000000          0.000
54           0.000
55
56 OXIDANT    H2O                    1.0000000          0.000
57           0.000
58
59 O/F=      1.00000  %FUEL= 50.000000  R,Eq.RATIO= 1.000000  PHI,Eq.RATIO=
60           0.000000
61
62 THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES
63
64 P, BAR      1.0000    1.0000    1.0000    1.0000    1.0000    1.0000
65           1.0000    1.0000
66
67 T, K        3100.00  3200.00  3300.00  3400.00  3500.00  3600.00
68           3700.00  3800.00
69
70 RHO, KG/CU M  5.6848-2 5.2088-2 4.7355-2 4.2749-2 3.8387-2 3.4383-2
71           3.0824-2 2.7760-2
72
73 H, KJ/KG      554.18  2846.25  5575.84  8774.96  12440.6  16516.0

```

APPENDIX C. CEARUN FILES FOR H₂O

```

        20878.6  25346.8
64  U, KJ/KG      -1204.88   926.43  3464.11  6435.73  9835.61  13607.6
        17634.3  21744.4
65  G, KJ/KG      -56559.3 -58437.1 -60393.2 -62439.1 -64585.9 -66843.5
        -69218.6 -71713.5
66  S, KJ/(KG)(K)  18.4237  19.1511  19.9906  20.9453  22.0076  23.1554
        24.3506  25.5422
67
68  M, (1/n)      14.653   13.859   12.993   12.085   11.171   10.291
        9.482    8.771
69  (dLV/dLP)t    -1.08136 -1.10254 -1.12538 -1.14815 -1.16833 -1.18308
        -1.18987 -1.18747
70  (dLV/dLT)p    2.5879   2.9254   3.2671   3.5817   3.8300   3.9724
        3.9803   3.8485
71  Cp, KJ/(KG)(K) 20.8913  25.0351  29.6130  34.3679  38.8530  42.4493
        44.4940  44.5130
72  GAMMAs       1.1118   1.1143   1.1177   1.1219   1.1270   1.1328
        1.1394   1.1467
73  SON VEL,M/SEC  1398.5   1462.6   1536.3   1620.0   1713.4   1815.1
        1922.6   2032.5
74
75  MOLE FRACTIONS
76
77  *H            0.08352  0.11601  0.15568  0.20194  0.25337  0.30772
        0.36228  0.41428
78  H02          0.00004  0.00005  0.00005  0.00006  0.00005  0.00005
        0.00004  0.00004
79  *H2          0.15388  0.16992  0.18107  0.18588  0.18356  0.17425
        0.15913  0.14011
80  H2O          0.55903  0.47438  0.38874  0.30629  0.23116  0.16671
        0.11484  0.07573
81  *O           0.03551  0.05057  0.06944  0.09197  0.11759  0.14525
        0.17354  0.20094
82  *OH          0.11730  0.13389  0.14710  0.15529  0.15731  0.15283
        0.14246  0.12771
83  *O2          0.05071  0.05517  0.05792  0.05857  0.05695  0.05319
        0.04772  0.04120
84
85  * THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES FITTED TO 20000.K
86
87  NOTE. WEIGHT FRACTION OF FUEL IN TOTAL FUELS AND OF OXIDANT IN TOTAL
        OXIDANTS
88
89
90
91
92
93

```

```

94
95
96
97          THERMODYNAMIC EQUILIBRIUM PROPERTIES AT ASSIGNED
98
99          TEMPERATURE AND PRESSURE
100
101  CASE = -----
102
103          REACTANT                      WT FRACTION          ENERGY          TEMP
104          (SEE NOTE)                   KJ/KG-MOL           K
105  FUEL      H2O                        1.0000000          0.000
106          0.000
107  OXIDANT    H2O                        1.0000000          0.000
108          0.000
109
110  O/F=      1.00000  %FUEL= 50.000000  R,EQ.RATIO= 1.000000  PHI,EQ.RATIO=
111          0.000000
112
113  THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES
114
115  P, BAR      1.0000  1.0000  1.0000  1.0000  1.0000  1.0000
116          1.0000  1.0000
117  T, K        3900.00  4000.00  4100.00  4200.00  4300.00  4400.00
118          4500.00  4600.00
119  RHO, KG/CU M  2.5195-2  2.3092-2  2.1391-2  2.0020-2  1.8911-2  1.8003-2
120          1.7250-2  1.6614-2
121  H, KJ/KG     29711.0  33778.8  37414.6  40555.1  43201.4  45397.5
122          47208.2  48702.5
123  U, KJ/KG     25741.9  29448.4  32739.8  35560.1  37913.4  39843.0
124          41411.1  42683.4
125  G, KJ/KG     -74325.1 -77045.2 -79861.9 -82761.3 -85729.6 -88754.1
126          -91824.1 -94930.7
127  S, KJ/(KG)(K) 26.6759  27.7060  28.6040  29.3610  29.9840  30.4890
128          30.8961  31.2246
129
130  M, (1/n)     8.170  7.680  7.292  6.991  6.761  6.586
131          6.454  6.354
132  (dLV/dLP)t  -1.17647 -1.15909 -1.13827 -1.11678 -1.09657 -1.07873
133          -1.06363 -1.05120
134  (dLV/dLT)p   3.5991  3.2742  2.9212  2.5792  2.2725  2.0120
135          1.7986  1.6280
136  Cp, KJ/(KG)(K) 42.4435  38.6846  33.9272  28.8885  24.1147  19.9180
137          16.4122  13.5822
138  GAMMAs      1.1549  1.1640  1.1744  1.1863  1.2002  1.2163
139          1.2350  1.2565
140  SON VEL,M/SEC 2141.0  2245.2  2343.1  2434.3  2519.2  2599.2
141          2675.7  2750.1

```

APPENDIX C. CEARUN FILES FOR H₂O

```

126
127 MOLE FRACTIONS
128
129 *H          0.46147  0.50246  0.53676  0.56464  0.58681  0.60418
      0.61768  0.62812
130 H2O        0.00003  0.00002  0.00001  0.00001  0.00001  0.00000
      0.00000  0.00000
131 *H2        0.11943  0.09909  0.08052  0.06446  0.05113  0.04036
      0.03182  0.02513
132 H2O        0.04804  0.02953  0.01774  0.01051  0.00618  0.00364
      0.00215  0.00129
133 *O         0.22613  0.24818  0.26668  0.28167  0.29351  0.30268
      0.30970  0.31504
134 *OH        0.11054  0.09289  0.07626  0.06156  0.04915  0.03900
      0.03088  0.02447
135 *O2        0.03436  0.02783  0.02203  0.01716  0.01322  0.01013
      0.00776  0.00595
136
137 * THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES FITTED TO 20000.K
138
139 NOTE. WEIGHT FRACTION OF FUEL IN TOTAL FUELS AND OF OXIDANT IN TOTAL
      OXIDANTS
140
141
142
143
144
145
146
147
148
149 THERMODYNAMIC EQUILIBRIUM PROPERTIES AT ASSIGNED
150
151 TEMPERATURE AND PRESSURE
152
153 CASE = -----
154
155 REACTANT          WT FRACTION          ENERGY          TEMP
156 (SEE NOTE)        KJ/KG-MOL          K
157 FUEL      H2O      1.0000000          0.000
      0.000
158 OXIDANT   H2O      1.0000000          0.000
      0.000
159
160 O/F=      1.00000  %FUEL= 50.000000  R,EQ.RATIO= 1.000000  PHI,EQ.RATIO=
      0.000000
161
162 THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES

```


C.3. 5200 - 6100 K

163					
164	P, BAR	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
165	T, K	4700.00	4800.00	4900.00	5000.00
166	RHO, KG/CU M	1.6066-2	1.5587-2	1.5160-2	1.4774-2
167	H, KJ/KG	49944.5	50988.8	51879.8	52652.8
168	U, KJ/KG	43720.2	44573.0	45283.4	45884.3
169	G, KJ/KG	-98067.0	-101227.5	-104408.1	-107605.7
170	S, KJ/(KG)(K)	31.4918	31.7117	31.8955	32.0517
171					
172	M, (1/n)	6.278	6.221	6.176	6.142
173	(dLV/dLP)t	-1.04116	-1.03312	-1.02673	-1.02167
174	(dLV/dLT)p	1.4937	1.3888	1.3073	1.2440
175	Cp, KJ/(KG)(K)	11.3488	9.6105	8.2685	7.2361
176	GAMMAS	1.2807	1.3074	1.3361	1.3658
177	SON VEL,M/SEC	2823.4	2896.2	2968.7	3040.5
178					
179	MOLE FRACTIONS				
180					
181	*H	0.63618	0.64241	0.64725	0.65102
182	*H2	0.01991	0.01585	0.01269	0.01022
183	H2O	0.00078	0.00048	0.00030	0.00019
184	*O	0.31910	0.32219	0.32455	0.32635
185	*OH	0.01945	0.01552	0.01245	0.01005
186	*O2	0.00459	0.00355	0.00277	0.00217
187					
188	* THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES FITTED TO 20000.K				
189					
190	NOTE. WEIGHT FRACTION OF FUEL IN TOTAL FUELS AND OF OXIDANT IN TOTAL OXIDANTS				

C.3. 5200 - 6100 K

```
1 *****
2
3 NASA-GLENN CHEMICAL EQUILIBRIUM PROGRAM CEA2, FEBRUARY 5, 2004
4 BY BONNIE MCBRIDE AND SANFORD GORDON
5 REFS: NASA RP-1311, PART I, 1994 AND NASA RP-1311, PART II, 1996
6
7 *****
8
9
10
11
12 ### CEA analysis performed on Thu 19-Sep-2024 15:03:06
13
```

```

14 # Problem Type: "Assigned Temperature and Pressure"
15
16 prob case=_____3194 tp
17
18 # Pressure (1 value):
19 p,bar= 1
20 # Temperature (12 values):
21 t,k= 5200, 5300, 5400, 5500, 5600, 5700, 5800, 5900, 6000, 6100, 6200,
    6300
22
23 # You selected the following fuels and oxidizers:
24 reac
25 fuel H2O          wt%=100.0000
26 oxid H2O          wt%=100.0000
27
28 # You selected these options for output:
29 # short version of output
30 output short
31 # Proportions of any products will be expressed as Mole Fractions.
32 # Heat will be expressed as siunits
33 output siunits
34
35 # Input prepared by this script:/var/www/sites/cearun.grc.nasa.gov/cgi-
    bin/CEARU
36 N/prepareInputFile.cgi
37
38 ### IMPORTANT:  The following line is the end of your CEA input file!
39 end
40
41
42
43
44          THERMODYNAMIC EQUILIBRIUM PROPERTIES AT ASSIGNED
45
46          TEMPERATURE AND PRESSURE
47
48 CASE =  _____
49
50          REACTANT          WT FRACTION          ENERGY          TEMP
51          (SEE NOTE)        KJ/KG-MOL          K
52 FUEL          H2O          1.0000000          0.000
    0.000
53 OXIDANT        H2O          1.0000000          0.000
    0.000
54
55 O/F=          1.00000  %FUEL= 50.000000  R,EQ.RATIO= 1.000000  PHI,EQ.RATIO=
    0.000000
56

```

C.3. 5200 - 6100 K

57	THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES						
58							
59	P, BAR	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
	1.0000	1.0000					
60	T, K	5200.00	5300.00	5400.00	5500.00	5600.00	5700.00
	5800.00	5900.00					
61	RHO, KG/CU M	1.4097-2	1.3794-2	1.3510-2	1.3241-2	1.2987-2	1.2745-2
	1.2514-2	1.2293-2					
62	H, KJ/KG	53947.4	54505.9	55022.8	55507.4	55966.7	56406.2
	56830.2	57241.8					
63	U, KJ/KG	46853.6	47256.3	47620.7	47955.3	48266.8	48560.1
	48839.1	49106.9					
64	G, KJ/KG	-114042.5	-117278.5	-120524.6	-123780.0	-127044.0	-130316.0
							-133595.5
							-136882.2
65	S, KJ/(KG)(K)	32.3057	32.4122	32.5088	32.5977	32.6805	32.7583
	32.8320	32.9024					
66							
67	M, (1/n)	6.095	6.079	6.066	6.055	6.047	6.040
	6.035	6.030					
68	(dLV/dLP)t	-1.01444	-1.01189	-1.00984	-1.00819	-1.00686	-1.00577
	-1.00489	-1.00416					
69	(dLV/dLT)p	1.1564	1.1263	1.1026	1.0839	1.0689	1.0570
	1.0474	1.0397					
70	Cp, KJ/(KG)(K)	5.8314	5.3596	4.9939	4.7092	4.4864	4.3113
	4.1729	4.0629					
71	GAMMAS	1.4253	1.4532	1.4790	1.5023	1.5228	1.5407
	1.5560	1.5690					
72	SON VEL, M/SEC	3179.7	3245.8	3308.7	3368.3	3424.3	3476.9
	3526.2	3572.6					
73							
74	MOLE FRACTIONS						
75							
76	*H	0.65630	0.65814	0.65961	0.66080	0.66175	0.66252
	0.66316	0.66368					
77	*H2	0.00676	0.00555	0.00458	0.00381	0.00319	0.00268
	0.00227	0.00193					
78	H2O	0.00008	0.00005	0.00003	0.00002	0.00002	0.00001
	0.00001	0.00001					
79	*O	0.32883	0.32968	0.33034	0.33087	0.33129	0.33163
	0.33191	0.33213					
80	*OH	0.00667	0.00548	0.00454	0.00378	0.00316	0.00266
	0.00225	0.00192					
81	*O2	0.00137	0.00110	0.00089	0.00072	0.00059	0.00049
	0.00041	0.00034					
82							
83	* THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES FITTED TO 20000.K						
84							

APPENDIX C. CEARUN FILES FOR H₂O

85 NOTE. WEIGHT FRACTION OF FUEL IN TOTAL FUELS AND OF OXIDANT IN TOTAL
OXIDANTS

86
87
88
89
90
91
92
93
94

THERMODYNAMIC EQUILIBRIUM PROPERTIES AT ASSIGNED

TEMPERATURE AND PRESSURE

96
97
98

99 CASE = -----

100

	REACTANT	WT FRACTION (SEE NOTE)	ENERGY KJ/KG-MOL	TEMP K
101				
102				
103	FUEL H2O	1.0000000	0.000	
	0.000			
104	OXIDANT H2O	1.0000000	0.000	
	0.000			

105

106 O/F= 1.00000 %FUEL= 50.000000 R,EQ.RATIO= 1.000000 PHI,EQ.RATIO=
0.000000

107

THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES

108
109

110	P, BAR	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
111	T, K	6000.00	6100.00	6200.00	6300.00
112	RHO, KG/CU M	1.2081-2	1.1876-2	1.1680-2	1.1490-2
113	H, KJ/KG	57643.5	58037.3	58424.8	58807.1
114	U, KJ/KG	49365.7	49617.3	49863.1	50104.2
115	G, KJ/KG	-140175.9	-143476.1	-146782.8	-150095.7
116	S, KJ/(KG)(K)	32.9699	33.0350	33.0980	33.1592
117					
118	M, (1/n)	6.027	6.024	6.021	6.019
119	(dLV/dLP)t	-1.00355	-1.00305	-1.00263	-1.00228
120	(dLV/dLT)p	1.0333	1.0282	1.0239	1.0204
121	Cp, KJ/(KG)(K)	3.9752	3.9039	3.8468	3.8008
122	GAMMA _s	1.5799	1.5891	1.5968	1.6030
123	SON VEL,M/SEC	3616.3	3657.9	3697.4	3735.0

124

MOLE FRACTIONS

125
126

127	*H	0.66411	0.66446	0.66476	0.66501
128	*H2	0.00165	0.00142	0.00122	0.00106

C.3. 5200 - 6100 K

129	*O	0.33231	0.33246	0.33259	0.33269
130	*OH	0.00164	0.00141	0.00122	0.00106
131	*O2	0.00029	0.00024	0.00020	0.00017

132

133 * THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES FITTED TO 20000.K

134

135 NOTE. WEIGHT FRACTION OF FUEL IN TOTAL FUELS AND OF OXIDANT IN TOTAL
OXIDANTS

D. H₂O Dissociation Models

D.1. Srinivasan Model

Neutral reactions, published in Srinivasan et al. [40]. The considered species are H₂O, H, H₂, O, O₂ and OH.

Table D.1. Reactions of the Srinivasan Model. The species are H₂O, H, H₂, O, O₂ and OH.

Index	Reaction	Rate constant in $\frac{\text{cm}^3}{\text{s}}$
1 _{Kr}	$\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{Kr} \rightarrow \text{H} + \text{OH} + \text{Kr}$	$k_{1,\text{Kr}} = (2.43 \pm 0.57) \times 10^{-10} \exp(-47117 \pm 633/T)$
1 _{Ar}	$\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{Ar} \rightarrow \text{H} + \text{OH} + \text{Ar}$	$k_{1,\text{Ar}} = 1.007 \times 10^4 T^{-3.312} \exp(-60782/T)$
1 _{H₂O}	$\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{H} + \text{OH} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$k_{1,\text{H}_2\text{O}} = 1.671 \times 10^2 T^{-2.440} \exp(-60475/T)$
2	$\text{H} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{H}_2$	$k_2 = 1.56 \times 10^{-15} T^{1.52} \exp(-9083/T)$
3	$\text{OH} + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$k_3 = 7.19 \times 10^{-21} T^{2.7} \exp(917/T)$
4	$\text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{OH}$	$k_4 = 7.48 \times 10^{-20} T^{2.7} \exp(-7323/T)$
5	$\text{H} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{O}$	$k_5 = 1.62 \times 10^{-10} \exp(-7474/T)$
6	$\text{OH} + \text{O} \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + \text{H}$	$k_6 = 5.42 \times 10^{-13} T^{0.375} \exp(950/T)$
7	$\text{O} + \text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{H}$	$k_7 = 8.44 \times 10^{-20} T^{2.67} \exp(-3167/T)$
8	$\text{OH} + \text{H} \rightarrow \text{H}_2 + \text{O}$	$k_8 = 3.78 \times 10^{-20} T^{2.67} \exp(-2393/T)$
9	$\text{OH} + \text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{H}$	$k_9 = 3.56 \times 10^{-16} T^{1.52} \exp(-1736/T)$

D.2. Lede Model

Neutral reactions, published in Lede et al. [41]. The considered species are H_2O , H , H_2 , O , O_2 and OH .

Table D.2. Reactions of Lede et al. [41] with H_2O , H , H_2 , O , O_2 and OH .

Index	Reaction
1	$H_2O + H_2O \rightleftharpoons H + OH + H_2O$
2	$H_2O + H \rightleftharpoons H_2 + OH$
3	$OH + H \rightleftharpoons H_2 + O$
4	$OH + O \rightleftharpoons O_2 + H$

The reactions with the kinetic rate constants and divided into 8 reactions is presented in table D.3.

Table D.3. Reactions of Lede. With rate constants in $\frac{m^3}{s}$ for two-body reactions and in $\frac{m^6}{s}$ for three-body reactions.

Index	Reaction	Rate constant
1	$H_2O + H_2O \rightarrow H + OH + H_2O$	$k_1 = 2.2 \times 10^{10} \exp(-52900/T)$
-1	$H + OH + H_2O \rightarrow H_2O + H_2O$	$k_{-1} = 1.4 \times 10^{11} T^{-2}$
2	$H_2O + H \rightarrow H_2 + OH$	$k_2 = 9 \times 10^7 \exp(-10250/T)$
-2	$H_2 + OH \rightarrow H_2O + H$	$k_{-2} = 2.2 \times 10^7 \exp(-2590/T)$
3	$OH + H \rightarrow H_2 + O$	$k_3 = 8.3 \times 10^3 T \exp(-3500/T)$
-3	$H_2 + O \rightarrow OH + H$	$k_{-3} = 1.8 \times 10^4 T \exp(-4480/T)$
4	$OH + O \rightarrow O_2 + H$	$k_4 = 2 \times 10^7$
-4	$O_2 + H \rightarrow OH + O$	$k_{-4} = 2.2 \times 10^8 \exp(-8420/T)$

D.3. Avtaeva Model

Neutral reactions, published in Avtaeva et al. [42]. The rate constants are mostly calculated at 300 K. The considered species are O₂, O, H₂O, H, OH, H₂, HO₂ and H₂O₂

Table D.4. Reactions of Avtaeva. With rate constants in $\frac{\text{m}^3}{\text{s}}$ for two-body reactions and in $\frac{\text{m}^6}{\text{s}}$ for three-body reactions.

No.	Reaction	Rate constant
1	$2\text{OH} \rightarrow \text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	1.8×10^{-18}
2	$\text{OH} + \text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{H}$	$7.7 \times 10^{-18} \exp(-2100 \times 8.6 \times 10^{-5}/T)$
3	$\text{OH} + \text{O} \rightarrow \text{H} + \text{O}_2$	$2.3 \times 10^{-17} \exp(-110 \times 8.6 \times 10^{-5}/T)$
4	$\text{OH} + \text{O} \rightarrow \text{HO}_2$	2.1×10^{-16}
5	$\text{OH} + \text{H} \rightarrow \text{O} + \text{H}_2$	1.03×10^{-22}
6	$\text{OH} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	1.7×10^{-18}
7	$\text{OH} + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2$	1.51×10^{-17}
8	$\text{H} + \text{HO}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{OH}$	8×10^{-17}
9	$\text{H} + \text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{O}$	2×10^{-18}
10	$\text{OH} + \text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{O}_2$	$4.8 \times 10^{-17} \exp(-250 \times 8.6 \times 10^{-5}/T)$
11	$\text{O} + \text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{O}_2$	$3 \times 10^{-17} \exp(-200 \times 8.6 \times 10^{-5}/T)$
12	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{H} \rightarrow \text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2$	3.08×10^{-18}
13	$2\text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{O}_2$	3.01×10^{-18}
14	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{O} \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{OH}$	1.8×10^{-21}
15	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{H} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{OH}$	5.09×10^{-20}
16	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{H} \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{H}_2$	1.22×10^{-22}
17	$\text{O} + \text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{H}$	9.1×10^{-24}
18	$\text{H} + \text{O}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	6.4×10^{-43}
19	$\text{H} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{HO}_2$	1.8×10^{-18}

D.4. Mededovic Model

Neutral reactions, published in Mededovic et al. [43]. The model of Medodovic consists of two reaction sets. One Set for temperatures from 2000 K up to 5000K and another set for lower temperatures from 300 K up to 2000 K. The high temperature set is presented in table D.5. The considered species are O_2 , O , H_2O , H , OH and H_2

The low temperature set was combined with the high temperature set to fit a wider temperature range, this set of reactions is presented in table D.6. Additionally here HO_2 and H_2O_2 are considered. The combined set of reactions features 32 reactions.

Table D.5. Reactions of Reactions of Mededovic, high temperature model. With rate constants in $\frac{cm^3}{s}$ for two-body reactions and in $\frac{cm^6}{s}$ for three-body reactions.

No.	Reactions	Rate constant
T2.1	$H_2O + H_2O \rightarrow H + OH + H_2O$	$5.8 \times 10^{-9} \exp(-440 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
T2.2	$OH + H_2O \rightarrow H + O + H_2O$	$4.09 \times 10^{-9} \exp(-416 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
T2.3	$O + H + H_2O \rightarrow OH + H_2O$	2×10^{-32}
T2.4	$H + H + H_2O \rightarrow H_2 + H_2O$	1.68×10^{-32}
T2.5	$H_2 + H_2O \rightarrow H + H + H_2O$	$1.5 \times 10^{-9} \exp(-402 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
T2.6	$O + O + H_2O \rightarrow O_2 + H_2O$	$9.26 \times 10^{-34} (T/298)^{-1}$
T2.7	$O_2 + H_2O \rightarrow O + O + H_2O$	$1.99 \times 10^{-10} \exp(-9.5 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
T2.8	$OH + O \rightarrow O_2 + H$	$4.55 \times 10^{-12} (T/298)^{0.40} \exp(49.64 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
T2.9	$OH + OH \rightarrow H_2O + O$	$1.02 \times 10^{-12} (T/298)^{1.40} \exp(1.66 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
T2.10	$H + O_2 \rightarrow O + OH$	$2.56 \times 10^{-11} (T/298)^{0.55} \exp(49.64 \text{ kJ} / RT)$

Table D.6. Reactions of Reactions of Mededovic, combined model. With rate constants in $\frac{\text{cm}^3}{\text{s}}$ for two-body reactions and in $\frac{\text{cm}^6}{\text{s}}$ for three-body reactions.

No.	Reaction	Rate expression
1	$\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{H} + \text{OH} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$5.8 \times 10^{-9} \exp(-440 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
2	$\text{OH} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{H} + \text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$4.09 \times 10^{-9} \exp(-416 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
3	$\text{O} + \text{H} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	2×10^{-32}
4	$\text{H} + \text{H} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{H}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	1.68×10^{-32}
5	$\text{H}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{H} + \text{H} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$1.5 \times 10^{-9} \exp(-402 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
6	$\text{O} + \text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$9.26 \times 10^{-34} (T/298)^{-1}$
7	$\text{O}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{O} + \text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$1.99 \times 10^{-10} \exp(-9.5 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
8	$\text{OH} + \text{O} \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + \text{H}$	$4.55 \times 10^{-12} (T/298)^{0.40} \exp(49.64 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
9	$\text{OH} + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{O}$	$1.02 \times 10^{-12} (T/298)^{1.40} \exp(1.66 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
10	$\text{H} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{O} + \text{OH}$	$2.56 \times 10^{-11} (T/298)^{0.55} \exp(49.64 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
11	$\text{O} + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{HO}_2$	$2.69 \times 10^{-10} \exp(-0.62 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
12	$\text{H} + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{O} + \text{H}_2$	$6.86 \times 10^{-14} (T/298)^{2.80} \exp(-16.21 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
13	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$2.91 \times 10^{-12} \exp(-1.33 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
14	$\text{O}_2 + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{O}$	$3.7 \times 10^{-11} \exp(-220 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
15	$\text{OH} + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2$	$1.51 \times 10^{-11} (T/298)^{-0.37}$
16	$\text{OH} + \text{OH} \rightarrow 2 \text{O} + 2 \text{H}$	$4.09 \times 10^{-9} \exp(-416 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
17	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{O} \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{OH}$	$1.42 \times 10^{-12} (T/298)^2 \exp(-16.631 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
18	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{H} \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$4.01 \times 10^{-11} \exp(-16.63 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
19	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{H} \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{H}_2$	$8 \times 10^{-11} \exp(-33.26 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
20	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2 \text{HO}_2$	$9 \times 10^{-11} \exp(-166 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
21	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{O}_2$	$4.81 \times 10^{-11} \exp(2.08 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
22	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{O} \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{O}_2$	$2.91 \times 10^{-11} \exp(-1.66 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
23	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{H} \rightarrow 2 \text{OH}$	$2.81 \times 10^{-10} \exp(-3.66 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
24	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{H} \rightarrow \text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2$	$1.1 \times 10^{-10} \exp(-8.90 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
25	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{O}_2$	3.01×10^{-12}
26	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{H}$	$5 \times 10^{-11} \exp(-109 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
27	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + \text{H} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$2.41 \times 10^{-8} (T/298)^{-1.18} \exp(-2031 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
28	$\text{O}_2 + \text{H} \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{O}$	$2.94 \times 10^{-10} \exp(-69.68 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
29	$\text{O}_2 + \text{H} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$1.94 \times 10^{-32} (T/298)^{-1}$
30	$\text{OH} + \text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{H}$	$2.97 \times 10^{-12} (T/298)^{1.21} \exp(-19.71 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
31	$\text{O} + \text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{H}$	$3.44 \times 10^{-13} (T/298)^{2.67} \exp(-26.27 \text{ kJ} / RT)$
32	$\text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{OH}$	$6.68 \times 10^{-13} (T/298)^{2.60} \exp(-63.52 \text{ kJ} / RT)$

D.5. Liu Model

Neutral reactions, published in Liu et al. [44]. This is the most complex considered model with 46 species. The considered species are O₂, O, H₂O, H, OH, H₂, HO₂ and H₂O₂. The reaction set is presented in table D.7.

Table D.7. Reactions of Liu model. With rate constants in $\frac{\text{cm}^3}{\text{s}}$ for two-body reactions and in $\frac{\text{cm}^6}{\text{s}}$ for three-body reactions.

No.	Reaction	Rate expression
1	$\text{H} + \text{H} \rightarrow \text{H}_2$	$6.04 \times 10^{-33} \cdot (T/298)^{-1}$
2	$\text{H} + \text{O} \rightarrow \text{OH}$	$4.36 \times 10^{-32} \cdot (T/298)^{-1}$
3	$\text{H} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{O}$	$1.62 \times 10^{-10} \cdot \exp(-7470/T)$
4	$\text{H} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{HO}_2$	$5.4 \times 10^{-32} \cdot (T/298)^{-1.8}$
5	$\text{H} + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2 + \text{O}$	$8 \times 10^{-21} \cdot T^{2.8} \cdot \exp(-1950/T)$
6	$\text{H} + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$6.87 \times 10^{-31} \cdot (T/298)^{-2}$
7	$\text{H} + \text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{O}$	$9.18 \times 10^{-11} \cdot \exp(-971.9/T)$
8	$\text{H} + \text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + \text{H}_2$	$1.1 \times 10^{-12} \cdot T^{0.56} \cdot \exp(-346/T)$
9	$\text{H} + \text{HO}_2 \rightarrow 2 \text{OH}$	$2.35 \times 10^{-10} \cdot \exp(-373.7/T)$
10	$\text{H} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}_2 + \text{HO}_2$	$8.0 \times 10^{-11} \cdot \exp(-4000/T)$
11	$\text{H} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{OH}$	$4.0 \times 10^{-11} \cdot \exp(-2000/T)$
12	$\text{H} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{H}_2 + \text{OH}$	$7.4 \times 10^{-16} \cdot T^{1.6} \cdot \exp(-9720/T)$
13	$3 \text{H} \rightarrow \text{H} + \text{H}_2$	$6 \times 10^{-31} \cdot (T/300)^{-1}$
14	$2 \text{H} + \text{H}_2 \rightarrow 2 \text{H}_2$	$8.1 \times 10^{-33} \cdot (T/300)^{-0.6}$
15	$2 \text{H} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{H}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$1.32 \times 10^{-31} \cdot (T/300)^{-1.25}$
16	$\text{H} + \text{O} + \text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{H}_2$	$9.19 \times 10^{-33} \cdot (T/300)^{-1}$
17	$\text{H} + \text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$2.76 \times 10^{-32} \cdot (T/300)^{-1}$
18	$\text{H} + \text{O}_2 + \text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{H}_2$	$5.72 \times 10^{-32} \cdot (T/300)^{-0.86}$
19	$\text{H} + \text{O}_2 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{O}_2$	$4.86 \times 10^{-32} \cdot (T/300)^{-1.24}$
20	$\text{H} + \text{O}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$4.08 \times 10^{-31} \cdot (T/300)^{-0.76}$
21	$\text{H} + \text{OH} + \text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{H}_2$	$4.92 \times 10^{-31} \cdot (T/300)^{-2}$
22	$\text{H} + \text{OH} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{O}_2$	$6.74 \times 10^{-31} \cdot (T/300)^{-2}$
23	$\text{H} + \text{OH} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow 2 \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$2.46 \times 10^{-30} \cdot (T/300)^{-2}$
24	$2 \text{O} \rightarrow \text{O}_2$	$9.26 \times 10^{-34} \cdot (T/298)^{-1}$
25	$\text{O} + \text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{H}$	$3 \times 10^{-14} \cdot T \cdot \exp(-4480/T)$
26	$\text{O} + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{H} + \text{O}_2$	$6 \times 10^{-11} \cdot T^{-0.186} \cdot \exp(-154/T)$
27	$\text{O} + \text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{O}_2$	$2.9 \times 10^{-11} \cdot \exp(200/T)$
28	$\text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{HO}_2$	$3 \times 10^{-18} \cdot T^{2.92} \cdot \exp(-1294/T)$
29	$\text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow 2 \text{OH}$	$2.5 \times 10^{-14} \cdot T^{1.14} \cdot \exp(-8624/T)$
30	$3 \text{O} \rightarrow \text{O} + \text{O}_2$	$9.21 \times 10^{-34} \cdot (T/300)^{-0.63}$
31	$2 \text{O} + \text{H}_2$	$2.65 \times 10^{-33} \cdot (T/300)^{-1}$
32	$2 \text{O} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2 \text{O}_2$	$2.56 \times 10^{-34} \cdot (T/300)^{-0.63}$
33	$2 \text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$1.7 \times 10^{-32} \cdot (T/300)^{-1}$
34	$\text{H}_2 + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{H} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$5.3 \times 10^{-16} \cdot T^{1.47} \cdot \exp(-1761/T)$
35	$\text{H}_2 + \text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{H}$	$5 \times 10^{-11} \cdot \exp(-13110/T)$
36	$\text{H}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{H} + \text{H}_2$	$5.8 \times 10^{-9} \cdot \exp(-52900/T)$
37	$\text{O}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2 \text{HO}_2$	$9 \times 10^{-11} \cdot \exp(-19965/T)$
38	$\text{O}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{OH}$	$7.72 \times 10^{-12} \cdot \exp(-37284/T)$
39	$2 \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{O}$	$2.5 \times 10^{-15} \cdot T^{1.14} \cdot \exp(-50/T)$
40	$2 \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2$	$1.5 \times 10^{-11} \cdot (T/300)^{-0.37}$
41	$\text{OH} + \text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$4.38 \times 10^{-11} \cdot \exp(110.9/T)$
42	$\text{OH} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{HO}_2$	$4.53 \times 10^{-12} \cdot \exp(-288.9/T)$
43	$2 \text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{O}_2$	$8.05 \times 10^{-11} \cdot (T/300)^{-1}$
44	$\text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{H} + \text{O}_2$	$2 \times 10^{-5} \cdot T^{-1.18} \cdot \exp(-24415/T)$
45	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{OH}$	$4.65 \times 10^{-11} \cdot \exp(-16477/T)$
46	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2 \text{OH}$	$2 \times 10^9 \cdot T^{-4.86} \cdot \exp(-26821/T)$