

Importance of the Hydrogen Isocyanide Isomer in Modeling Hydrogen Cyanide Oxidation in Combustion

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Hydrogen isocyanide (HNC) has been proposed as an important intermediate in oxidation of hydrogen cyanide (HCN) in combustion, but details of its chemistry are still in discussion. At higher temperatures, HCN and HNC equilibrate rapidly, and being more reactive than HCN, HNC offers a fast alternative route of oxidation for cyanides. However, in previous modeling, it has been required to omit the HNC subset partly or fully in the reaction mechanisms to obtain satisfactory predictions. In the present work, we re-examine the chemistry of HNC and its role in combustion nitrogen chemistry. The HNC + O₂ reaction is studied by *ab initio* methods and is shown to have a high barrier. Consequently, the omission of this reaction in recent modeling studies is justified. With the present knowledge of the HNC chemistry, including an accurate value of the heat of formation for HNC and improved rate constants for HNC + O₂ and HNC + OH, it is possible to reconcile the modeling issues and provide a satisfactory prediction of a wide range of experimental results on HCN oxidation. In the burned gases of fuel-rich flames, HCN and the CN radical are partially equilibrated and the sequence HCN $\xrightarrow{+M}$ HNC $\xrightarrow{+OH}$ HNCO is the major consumption path for HCN. Under lean conditions, HNC is shown to be less important than indicated by the early work by Lin and co-workers, but it acts to accelerate HCN oxidation and promotes the formation of HNCO.

INTRODUCTION

In combustion processes, cyanides may be formed from devolatilization of fuels with organically bound nitrogen, from reaction of hydrocarbon radicals (CH and C) with N₂ (the initiating step in prompt NO formation), from reaction of reactive nitrogen species, such as NO or amines, with hydrocarbon radicals, or from decomposition of hydrocarbon amines.^{1–5} In sufficiently fuel-rich hydrocarbon flames, it appears that hydrogen cyanide (HCN) is the dominant nitrogenous species leaving the primary reaction zone, regardless of the source of nitrogen,^{6–8} and it is considered the predominant cyanide species in combustion. The oxidation chemistry of HCN has been studied extensively over the years. Much of this work was reviewed recently by Dagaut et al.⁹

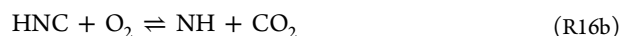
An unresolved issue in the oxidation chemistry of HCN is the role of its isomer, hydrogen isocyanide (HNC). As suggested initially by Lin et al.,¹⁰ isomerization of HCN to HNC, followed by oxidation of HNC, represents an alternative pathway for HCN oxidation. The reactivity of HNC is quite different from that of HCN, and the presence of HNC in significant quantities may affect the oxidation behavior of HCN. HNC is formed by isomerization of HCN



or by a H atom exchange reaction of HCN with H.



At high temperatures, these reactions lead to fast equilibration of HNC with HCN. Once formed, HNC has been proposed to react rapidly with OH and O₂.¹¹



Because these steps are presumably much faster than the corresponding reactions of HCN with OH and O₂, they serve to enhance the consumption rate of HCN and convert the cyanide pool to isocyanide species and amines. According to Dagaut et al.,⁹ the impact of HNC on HCN consumption is most pronounced for the conditions in shock tubes and flow reactor systems, while it is less important in laminar premixed flames. However, inclusion of a kinetic subset for HNC with the accepted thermochemistry for this species and rate constants for HNC reactions drawn from the evaluation of Dean and Bozzelli¹¹ leads to a considerable reduction in the accuracy of modeling predictions when compared to experimental data.⁹ To obtain acceptable modeling accuracy, Dagaut et al.⁹ omitted HNC + O₂ (reaction R16) from their reaction mechanism; otherwise, predicted ignition delays for HCN under shock-tube conditions were too low by an order of magnitude. Dagaut et al. concluded in their review that further work was needed to assess the kinetics of HNC reactions, in particular that of HNC + O₂. This suggestion was supported by

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Table 1. Values Reported in the Literature for the Thermodynamic Properties of HNC (Heat of Formation of HNC and the Energy Difference between HNC and HCN)

| $\Delta H_{f,298}^{\circ}(\text{HNC}) - \Delta H_{f,298}^{\circ}(\text{HCN})$ (kcal mol ⁻¹) | $\Delta H_{f,298}^{\circ}(\text{HNC})$ (kcal mol ⁻¹) | method | reference |
|---|--|-------------------------|-----------|
| 14.6 | 45.5 ^a | theory | 15 |
| 15.0 ± 2 | 45.9 ± 2 ^a | theory | 20 |
| 10.3 ± 1.1 | 41.2 ± 1.1 ^a | experimental | 22 |
| >17 | >47.9 ^a | experimental | 23 |
| 14.8 ± 2 | 45.7 ± 2 ^a | experimental | 24 |
| 14.4 ± 1 | 45.3 ± 1 ^a | theory | 32 |
| 12.9 | 43.8 ^a | theory | 10 |
| 14.7 | 45.6 | theory | 34 |
| 15.2 | 46.1 ^a | theory | 35 |
| 15.2 | 46.1 ^a | theory | 38 |
| 13.8 | 44.7 ^a | theory | 76 |
| 14.4 | 45.3 ± 1 ^a | experimental | 42 |
| 14.0 ± 1 ^b | 44.9 ± 1 | experimental | 77 |
| 18.8 ± 2.9 ^b | 49.7 ± 2.9 | experimental | 45 |
| 14.7 ± 0.14 | 45.6 ± 0.14 ^a | theory | 46 |
| 14.2 | 45.1 ^a | theory | 52 |
| 16.3 | 47.2 ^a | experimental and theory | 61 |
| 14.2 | 45.1 ^a | theory | 62 |
| 15.07 | 45.95 ± 0.09 | theory and ATcT | 67 |

^aEstimated from $\Delta H_{f,298}^{\circ}(\text{HNC}) - \Delta H_{f,298}^{\circ}(\text{HCN})$, assuming $\Delta H_{f,298}^{\circ}(\text{HCN}) = 30.9$ kcal mol⁻¹.⁶⁷ ^bEstimated from $\Delta H_{f,298}^{\circ}(\text{HNC})$, assuming $\Delta H_{f,298}^{\circ}(\text{HCN}) = 30.9$ kcal mol⁻¹.⁶⁷

Table 2. Thermodynamic Properties of Selected Species in the Reaction Mechanism^a

| species | H_{298} | S_{298} | $C_{p,300}$ | $C_{p,400}$ | $C_{p,500}$ | $C_{p,600}$ | $C_{p,800}$ | $C_{p,1000}$ | $C_{p,1500}$ |
|---------|-----------|-----------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|
| HCN | 31.02 | 48.23 | 8.59 | 9.36 | 9.97 | 10.48 | 11.31 | 12.01 | 13.20 |
| HNC | 45.95 | 49.11 | 9.64 | 10.22 | 10.61 | 10.92 | 11.55 | 12.08 | 13.09 |
| CN | 105.15 | 48.42 | 6.97 | 7.04 | 7.16 | 7.32 | 7.69 | 7.99 | 8.48 |

^aUnits are kcal mol⁻¹ for H and cal mol⁻¹ K⁻¹ for S and C_p . Temperatures are in kelvin. Data are drawn from the thermodynamic database of Goos et al.,⁷⁸ except that the heat of formation of HNC was updated according to the work of Nguyen et al.⁶⁷

Jimenez-Lopez et al.¹² in a recent flow reactor study on HCN oxidation in a CO₂/N₂ atmosphere, where they found inclusion of the HNC + O₂ reaction to lead to overprediction of the HCN consumption rate.

While the importance of HNC in combustion systems has attracted only modest interest,^{9–11,13,14} the properties of HNC have been studied extensively^{15–67} in part as a result of its small size, which allows for study at high levels of theory, and in part as a result of its potential importance in astrochemistry. The objective of the present work is to re-evaluate the HNC chemistry, with particular emphasis on HNC + O₂, which is studied by *ab initio* methods, and assess the implications for modeling HCN oxidation in combustion.

■ DETAILED KINETIC MODEL AND AB INITIO CALCULATIONS

The cyanide subset of the chemical kinetic model was based on the work of Dagaut et al.⁹ In the present study, the thermochemistry of HNC and rate constants for the reactions involved in forming or consuming HNC were re-evaluated. In addition, the hydrogen and amine chemistry subsets were updated on the basis of recent work.^{5,68–75} The full model is available as [Supporting Information](#).

The thermodynamic properties of HNC are important, because they determine the HNC/HCN ratio at high temperatures where the two isomers equilibrate rapidly. [Table 1](#) summarizes the values reported in the literature for the heat of formation of HNC and the energy difference between HNC and HCN. The early experimental determinations of the energy separation between the isomers range from 10.3²² to more than 17 kcal mol⁻¹,²³ but more recent work serves

to reduce the uncertainty. Most theoretical predictions^{15,20,32,34,35,38,42,46,52,62,67} support a value for $\Delta H_{f,298}^{\circ}(\text{HNC}) - \Delta H_{f,298}^{\circ}(\text{HCN})$ of 14.2–15.3 kcal mol⁻¹, in agreement with the experimental value of 14.8 kcal mol⁻¹ from Pau and Hehre.²⁴

The Pau and Hehre results were questioned by Wenthold⁴⁵ based on revisions in the proton affinity scale in later years. From experimental work as well as a reinterpretation of the results of Pau and Hehre, Wenthold obtained a value for the heat of formation of HNC of $\Delta H_{f,298}^{\circ}(\text{HNC}) = 49.7 \pm 2.9$ kcal mol⁻¹, corresponding to an energy difference between HNC and HCN of 18.8 ± 2.9 kcal mol⁻¹. A high value was also obtained recently by Barber et al.⁶¹ from a high-level multireference configuration interaction study. They found an energy difference between HNC and HCN of 16.3 kcal mol⁻¹, corresponding to a heat of formation for HNC of 47.2 kcal mol⁻¹.

The high values of $\Delta H_{f,298}^{\circ}(\text{HNC})$ determined by Wenthold⁴⁵ and Barber et al.⁶¹ would diminish the importance of HNC in combustion modeling. However, they are called into question in the recent study by Nguyen et al.,⁶⁷ who investigated the HCN → HNC 0 K isomerization energy by combining state-of-the-art electronic structure methods with the active thermochemical tables (ATcT) approach. They found the energy difference between HCN and HNC at 298 K to be 15.1 kcal mol⁻¹. This is substantially lower than the values of Barber et al. and Wenthold (by 1.2 and 3.7 kcal mol⁻¹, respectively). Nguyen et al. concluded that the value from Barber et al. was likely to have a much larger uncertainty than originally stated. The analysis from Nguyen et al. indicates that the heat of formation of HNC at 298 K is 45.95 ± 0.09 kcal mol⁻¹; we have adopted this value in the present work. An energy separation between HNC and HCN of 15.1 kcal mol⁻¹ is 2.2 kcal mol⁻¹ higher than that used in the early study by Lin et al.¹⁰ and adopted by Dean and Bozzelli¹¹ and recently by

Table 3. Selected Reactions in the HCN Subset^a

| | | A | β | E_a | source |
|----|---|----------------------|---------|--------|-----------------|
| 1 | HCN + M \rightleftharpoons CN + H + M ^b | 3.4×10^{35} | -5.130 | 133000 | 81 |
| | HCN + N ₂ \rightleftharpoons CN + H + N ₂ | 3.6×10^{26} | -2.600 | 124890 | |
| 2 | HCN + M \rightleftharpoons HNC + M ^c | 1.6×10^{26} | -3.230 | 51840 | 11 ^d |
| 3 | CN + H ₂ \rightleftharpoons HCN + H | 1.1×10^5 | 2.600 | 51908 | 82 |
| 4 | HCN + O \rightleftharpoons NCO + H | 1.4×10^4 | 2.640 | 4980 | 1 |
| 5 | HCN + O \rightleftharpoons NH + CO | 3.5×10^3 | 2.640 | 4980 | 1 |
| 6 | HCN + O \rightleftharpoons CN + OH | 4.2×10^{10} | 0.400 | 20665 | 11 |
| 7 | HCN + OH \rightleftharpoons CN + H ₂ O | 3.9×10^6 | 1.830 | 10300 | 83 |
| 8 | HCN + OH \rightleftharpoons HOCN + H | 5.9×10^4 | 2.430 | 12500 | 84 |
| 9 | HCN + OH \rightleftharpoons HNCO + H | 2.0×10^{-3} | 4.000 | 1000 | 84 |
| 10 | HCN + OH \rightleftharpoons NH ₂ + CO | 7.8×10^{-4} | 4.000 | 4000 | 84 |
| 11 | HCN + O ₂ \rightleftharpoons CN + HO ₂ | 3.0×10^{13} | 0.000 | 75100 | 9 est |
| 12 | HNC + H \rightleftharpoons HCN + H | 7.8×10^{13} | 0.000 | 3600 | 85 |
| 13 | HNC + O \rightleftharpoons NH + CO | 4.6×10^{12} | 0.000 | 2200 | 11 |
| 14 | HNC + OH \rightleftharpoons HNCO + H | 3.6×10^{12} | 0.000 | -479 | 86 ^e |
| 15 | HNC + OH \rightleftharpoons CN + H ₂ O | 3.0×10^2 | 3.160 | 10600 | pw |
| 16 | HNC + O ₂ \rightarrow products | | slow | | pw ^f |

^aParameters for use in the modified Arrhenius expression $k = AT^\beta \exp(-E_a/[RT])$. Units are mol, cm, s, and cal. ^bThird body efficiencies: N₂ = 0, O₂ = 1.5, and H₂O = 10. ^cThird body efficiencies: Ar = 0.7, H₂O = 7, and CO₂ = 2. ^dThe activation energy was modified according to the updated heat of formation of HNC. ^eArrhenius expression fitted from data in the reference. ^fThe HNC + O₂ reaction has a calculated barrier of 44 kcal mol⁻¹ and was not included in the modeling.

Lamoureux et al.,¹⁴ and 0.3 kcal mol⁻¹ higher than the recommendation of Dagaut et al.⁹

Table 2 lists thermodynamic properties for HNC, HCN, and cyanide (CN). The thermodynamic properties in the present work were generally adopted from the ideal gas thermochemical database by Goos et al.,⁷⁸ with properties obtained using the ATcT approach.^{79,80}

Table 3 lists key reactions of HCN and HNC from the chemical kinetic model. There are no reported experimental studies of HNC reactions, and rate constants have been obtained from theory. However, from the available theoretical studies, it is obvious that the reactivity of HNC is quite different from that of HCN. HNC can be formed by isomerization of HCN



or by reaction of HCN with H.



The isomerization step has been studied extensively by theory.^{10,11,32,34,35,38,42,49,52,53,64} Estimates of the barrier for the isomerization range from 44.7 to 48.2 kcal mol⁻¹.^{10,11,32,34,35,38,42} With a barrier of this magnitude, isomerization (reaction R2) is much faster than thermal dissociation of HCN (reaction R1) and HCN will isomerize fairly easily to HNC at medium to high temperatures. Following Dagaut et al.,⁹ we have adopted the rate constant for reaction R2 from the evaluation of Dean and Bozzelli¹¹ but modified the activation energy to reflect the larger energy separation between HCN and HNC. Also, reaction R12b has been studied theoretically;^{85,87} we have included this step in the exothermic direction, HNC + H \rightleftharpoons HCN + H (R12), with a rate constant calculated by Sumathi and Nguyen.⁸⁵

The most important consumption reaction of HNC is presumably HNC + OH.



Figure 1 shows an Arrhenius plot for the reaction. In their early evaluation, Lin et al.¹⁰ calculated an activation energy for reaction R14 of 3.7 kcal mol⁻¹. Recently, the reaction was studied at a high level of theory by Bunkan et al.⁸⁶ for the 250–350 K range. They predict the rate constant to have a slight negative temperature dependence, at least at low temperatures.

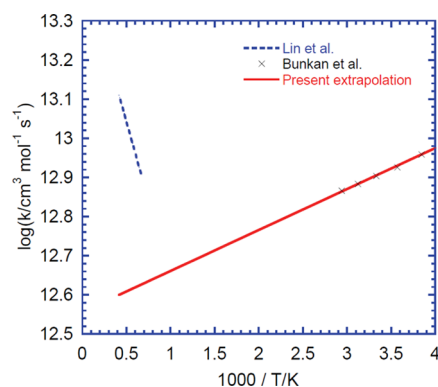


Figure 1. Arrhenius plot for the reaction HNC + OH \rightleftharpoons HNCO + H. The symbols denote high level theory data from Bunkan et al.,⁸⁶ while the dashed line denotes the rate constant calculated by Lin et al.¹⁰ The solid line is our extrapolation of the data of Bunkan et al. to relevant temperatures.

Their reaction path shows a pre-reaction complex followed by a transition state (TS), whose energy is ~ 1.1 kcal mol⁻¹ below that of the reactants. Their Rice–Ramsperger–Kassel–Marcus (RRKM) kinetic analysis should correctly allow for the lack of population of energy levels of the TS below the reactants at modest pressures. On the basis of a recomputation of the unpublished CCSD(T) frequencies of the TS, we have made a preliminary assessment of the high pressure limit via transition state theory. This calculation indicates that $k_{14,\infty}$ may reach a minimum and then increase at higher temperatures. However, more work is required to calculate accurately the effect of the temperature and pressure on this reaction. In the current work, we have extrapolated directly the results from Bunkan et al. to higher temperatures with a small negative activation energy (Figure 1) fitted to the published k_{14} values.

For the possible other product channel



Bunkan et al. deduced a barrier of more than 16 kcal mol⁻¹, which makes that channel too slow to compete under atmospheric

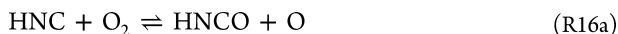
conditions. A combination of their barrier with M06-2X/6-311+G-(3df,2p) vibrational frequencies and geometry for the TS leads to a predicted rate constant of $3.0 \times 10^2 T^{3.16} \exp(-5330/T) \text{ cm}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ over 600–3000 K. Tunneling makes a major contribution; thus, there is considerable uncertainty in this expression, perhaps an order of magnitude at the lower end of the temperature range.

For the reaction of HNC with O



we adopt the rate constant proposed by Lin et al.¹⁰ from a combined experimental and theoretical study. Unfortunately, the experimental results referred to by Lin et al. were never published, and more work on this step is desirable.

Dean and Bozzelli suggested that oxygen could readily add to HNC and that subsequent isomerization or dissociation steps would lead to HNCO + O and NH + CO.¹¹



They computed low barriers for both channels and obtained rate constants of $k_{16a} = 1.5 \times 10^{12} T^{0.01} \exp(-2068/T) \text{ cm}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and $k_{16b} = 1.6 \times 10^{19} T^{-2.25} \exp(-896/T) \text{ cm}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. However, Dagaut et al.⁹ found it necessary to omit the HNC + O₂ reactions in their modeling study to obtain consistency with experimental results. More recently, Gimenez-Lopez et al.¹² and Lamoreux et al.¹⁴ also disregarded HNC + O₂ in their reaction mechanisms. This prompted us to characterize the reaction by *ab initio* methods.

We find that a triplet HNCO adduct lies ca. 42 kcal mol⁻¹ above HNC + O₂ at the CBS-QB3 level of theory, and the barrier to forming this adduct (including zero-point energy) is even higher, at about 44 kcal mol⁻¹, which is confirmed by CCSD(T)/cc-pVTZ calculations.^{88,89} The high energy barrier makes the reaction insignificant under most conditions of interest. Singlet HNCO is even less stable.

The reaction of HCN with OH is of particular interest in this work, because it competes directly with HNC + OH (reaction R14). It is a complicated process, involving multiple potential wells and multiple product channels.¹



The rate constant for the H-abstraction channel to form CN + H₂O (reaction R7) has been measured directly in both the forward and reverse directions. Figure 2 shows an Arrhenius plot for this step. Wooldridge et al.⁸³ determined k_7 from CN and OH time histories in shock-tube experiments. The results shown from Jacobs et al.⁹⁰ were obtained for the reverse reaction and have been converted using the present thermodynamic properties for the involved species. The two data sets are in very good agreement, indicating that the rate constant for this reaction is known quite accurately. The experiments of Wooldridge et al. are analyzed further below.

For the other product channels of HCN + OH (reactions R8–R10), rate constants are drawn from BAC-MP4 calculations by Miller and Melius.⁸⁴ There are no experimental data for these product channels, and more work is desirable to support the rate constants. At most conditions, the H-abstraction reaction (reaction R7) dominates, but at very low temperatures, the formation of HNCO + H (reaction R9) is competitive, while at temperatures above 2000 K, HO-CN + H (reaction R8) becomes the fastest channel.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section aims to clarify the role of HNC in oxidation of HCN at medium to high temperatures relevant for combustion. HCN is presumably the most important precursor of HNC in

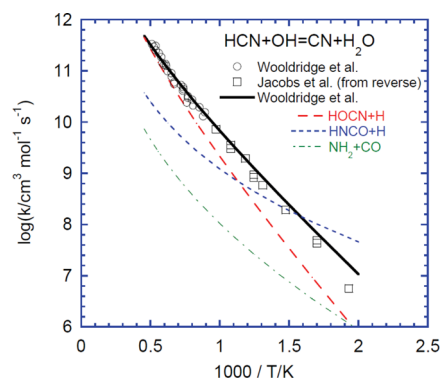
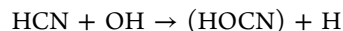


Figure 2. Arrhenius plot for the reaction $\text{HCN} + \text{OH} \rightleftharpoons \text{CN} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ (R7). The symbols denote experimental results from Wooldridge et al.⁸³ and from Jacobs et al.⁹⁰ (from measurements of CN + H₂O, reversed through the equilibrium constant), while the solid line shows the constant recommended by Wooldridge et al. Also shown (dashed lines) are rate constants for the secondary channels to HO-CN + H (reaction R8), HNCO + H (reaction R9), and NH₂ + CO (reaction R10), drawn from BAC-MP4 calculations by Miller and Melius.⁸⁴

combustion, and the expected role of HNC is to accelerate the HCN consumption, converting it to isocyanides and amines.

Haynes⁸ investigated the decay of HCN in the burnt gases of a number of fuel-rich, atmospheric pressure hydrocarbon flames. Independent of the type of nitrogen additive (ammonia or pyridine), it was converted to HCN in the reaction zone of the flame, with smaller amounts of NO. In the post-flame zone, HCN was slowly converted to NH₃. Haynes found the decay mechanism for HCN at temperatures below 2300 K to be first-order in OH, and he assumed it to be



or a kinetically equivalent process, with the (HO-CN) isomer eventually converted to NH₃.

Figure 3 compares measurements by Haynes for a rich ethylene flame doped with ammonia to modeling predictions. The temperature of the burnt gases was 2000 K. In the modeling predictions, only the post-flame zone was considered.

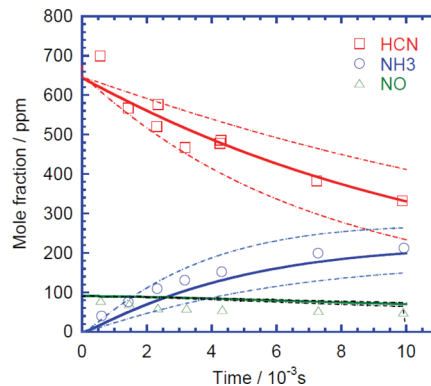
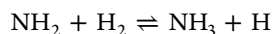
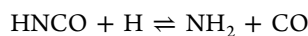


Figure 3. Comparison between experimental data⁸ and modeling predictions for HCN oxidation in the post-flame region of an atmospheric pressure, premixed, fuel-rich ethylene–air flame doped with 680 ppm of ammonia. Fuel-air equivalence ratio $\phi = 1.66$, and temperature = 2000 K. Symbols denote experimental data, while lines denote model predictions. Solid lines denote predictions with the present model, while dashed lines show the effect of varying the rate constant k_{14} for HCN + OH by a factor of 2.

It was assumed that both acetylene and oxygen were depleted in the reaction zone, resulting in an equilibrium mixture of CO, H₂, CO₂, and H₂O entering the post-flame zone. In the calculations, the equilibrium composition at 2000 K, together with the measured concentrations of HCN, NH₃, and NO, was used as the inlet composition. The modeling predictions (solid lines) are in good agreement with the measurements for HCN, NH₃, and NO. Analysis of the present calculations indicates that HCN is consumed through a two-step sequence.



This sequence is kinetically equivalent to the reaction proposed by Haynes. Under the conditions in the flame, HCN equilibrates rapidly with HNC. Atomic hydrogen and to a lesser extent OH are the dominant radicals in the flame, but they consume little HCN because the reactions $\text{HCN} + \text{H} \rightleftharpoons \text{CN} + \text{H}_2$ (R3b) and $\text{HCN} + \text{OH} \rightleftharpoons \text{CN} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ (R7) are both rapidly equilibrated. This makes the conditions favorable to study the reactions of HNC, in particular $\text{HNC} + \text{OH}$ (reaction R14), even though other product channels for $\text{HCN} + \text{OH}$, in particular reaction R8, are also active. The HNCO formed in reaction R14 feeds rapidly into the amine pool, eventually forming NH₃.



A smaller fraction of NH₂ is converted to NH and N through the sequence $\text{NH}_2 \xrightarrow{+\text{H}} \text{NH} \xrightarrow{+\text{H}} \text{N}$. The NH and N radicals may be oxidized to NO by reaction with OH or react with NO to form N₂O or N₂. This competition results overall in a small decrease in the NO concentration.

In Figure 3, dashed lines show predictions with the rate constant for $\text{HNC} + \text{OH}$ (reaction R14) varied by a factor of 2. The results show that the predicted HCN and NH₃ profiles are quite sensitive to the value of k_{14} . This is confirmed by Figure 4,

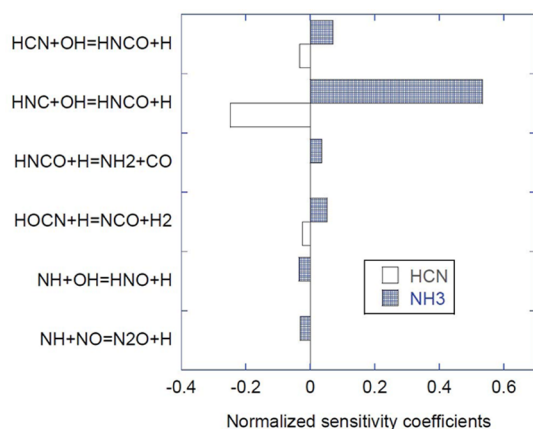


Figure 4. First-order sensitivity coefficients for HCN and NH₃ for the conditions of the flame in Figure 3.

which shows the results of a sensitivity analysis for HCN and NH₃ for the conditions of Figure 3. For HCN, the rate constant for reaction R14 has by far the largest sensitivity coefficient. Also, the predicted NH₃ concentration is sensitive mostly to this step. The good agreement obtained in modeling for both of these species supports the accuracy of k_{14} at this temperature.

The OH radical maintains a partial equilibrium in the post-flame region, and modeling predictions are not sensitive to chain-branching or terminating steps.

For high-temperature conditions in a shock tube, the isomerization of HCN to HNC is sufficiently rapid to occur at the same microsecond time scale as the observed chemistry¹¹ and predicted induction times for HCN/O₂ mixtures are quite sensitive to the HNC subset.⁹ Higashihara et al.⁹¹ studied the oxidation of HCN by O₂ in a shock tube over the temperature range of 1450–2600 K and pressures of 0.75–2.0 atm. They measured the ultraviolet (UV) signal from electronically excited OH and defined the induction time τ_{OH^*} as the time where the UV emission started to increase rapidly. OH* was assumed to be formed largely from recombination of O and H radicals. For the HCN/O₂ system, the OH* induction time from a least squares analysis could be represented as $\tau_{\text{OH}^*} = 10^{-13.42} \exp(-12200/T) [\text{HCN}]^{-0.44} [\text{O}_2]^{-0.17} [\text{Ar}]^{-0.52}$ s.

In Figure 5, data estimated from this empirical expression are compared to predictions using the chemical kinetic model.

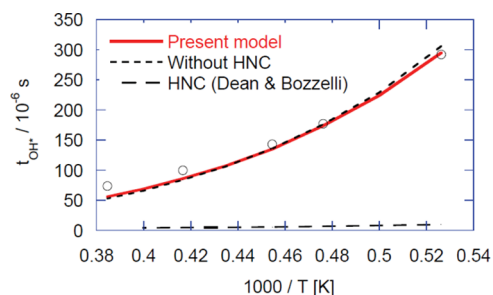


Figure 5. Comparison between measured⁹¹ and predicted induction times as a function of the temperature for oxidation of HCN (1%) by O₂ (1%) in argon in a shock tube. The experimental data are derived from the least squares analysis expression by Higashihara et al., assuming $P = 1.0$ atm. In the calculations, the induction time is taken as the time to reach 25% of the peak concentration for O. Experimental data are shown as symbols, while modeling predictions are shown as lines.

this figure as well as in the following, modeling predictions are shown for three different mechanisms: (1) full present mechanism, (2) present mechanism excluding the HNC subset, and (3) present mechanism with $\Delta H_{f,298}^\circ(\text{HNC}) - \Delta H_{f,298}^\circ(\text{HCN}) = 12.9$ kcal mol⁻¹^{10,11,14} and rate constants from Dean and Bozzelli,¹¹ including the $\text{HNC} + \text{O}_2$ reaction.

In the modeling of the data in Figure 5, the OH* induction time is defined as the time to reach 25% of the peak concentration of O. Predictions with the present model with (solid line) and without (short dashed line) the HNC subset are both in good agreement with the measured induction times. The similarity between predictions with and without HNC indicates that this species, with the present chemistry, plays only a small role under these conditions. However, if the HNC subset is replaced by that recommended by Dean and Bozzelli,¹¹ the predicted induction time is lowered by more than a factor of 10, in conflict with the experimental observations. The too low value for the energy separation between HNC and HCN contributes to the discrepancy, because it leads to overprediction of the HNC concentration. However, most of the difference is caused by the fast rate constants for $\text{HNC} + \text{O}_2$ estimated by Dean and Bozzelli.

Wooldridge et al.⁸³ measured CN and OH time histories in incident and reflected shock waves using dilute mixtures of

HCN and nitric acid (HNO_3) in argon. The thermal decomposition of HNO_3 yielded OH upon shock heating, and OH subsequently reacted predominantly with HCN. As discussed above, they used the data to deduce a rate constant for the reaction $\text{HCN} + \text{OH} \rightleftharpoons \text{CN} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ (R7). Their simultaneous measurements of CN and OH yielded values of k_7 in good agreement, putting severe limitations on the importance of the HNC isomer. Wooldridge et al. concluded that they had to omit reactions of HNC to obtain a satisfactory agreement between their observed concentration profiles and modeling results. A further constraint on $\text{HNC} + \text{OH}$ is the excellent consistency between the two data sets from Wooldridge et al. and Jacobs et al.⁹⁰ (Figure 2). Apparently, $\text{HNC} + \text{OH}$ cannot have had a significant impact on the OH concentration profile in the experiments of Wooldridge et al.

Figure 6 shows a comparison between experimental results obtained at 1492 K and modeling predictions to the present

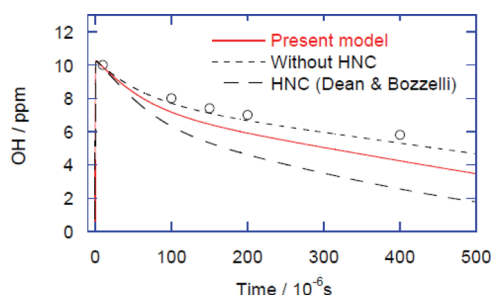


Figure 6. Comparison between measured⁸³ and predicted OH absorption traces from the reflected shock pyrolysis of 10.3 ppm of HNO_3 and 0.34% HCN in argon for $T = 1492$ K and $P = 1.01$ atm. Experimental data are shown as symbols, while modeling predictions are shown as lines.

reaction mechanism. For these conditions, Wooldridge et al. reported only the OH concentration profile; at higher temperatures, where concentrations were reported for both OH and CN, predictions are less sensitive to reactions of HNC because $\text{HCN} + \text{OH}$ becomes more competitive. As expected, the model (solid line) is seen to overestimate the OH consumption rate. The discrepancy, which is due to OH consumption by $\text{HNC} + \text{OH}$ (reaction R14), can be removed by taking out HNC from the reaction mechanism (short dashed line), as proposed by Wooldridge et al. However, we find the level of agreement to be satisfactory because it is within the 30% overall uncertainty attributed to k_7 by Wooldridge et al. as a result of uncertainties in side reactions. As expected, predictions with the Dean and Bozzelli HNC subset (long dashed line) show a larger deviation, partly as a result of the difference in thermochemistry and partly as a result of a faster rate constant for $\text{HNC} + \text{OH}$.

Figure 7 compares flow reactor results from Glarborg and Miller¹³ on lean HCN oxidation to modeling predictions. The experiments were conducted at 900–1400 K and atmospheric pressure with a dilute mixture of HCN, O_2 , and H_2O in N_2 , and the product composition at the reactor outlet was measured. The calculations show a considerable impact of the choice of HNC subset. The preferred model provides a good agreement with the measured profiles of HCN, HNCO, and NO, while omission of the HNC subset leads to delayed onset of the reaction. The Dean and Bozzelli HNC subset leads to premature ignition and a strong underprediction of HNCO.

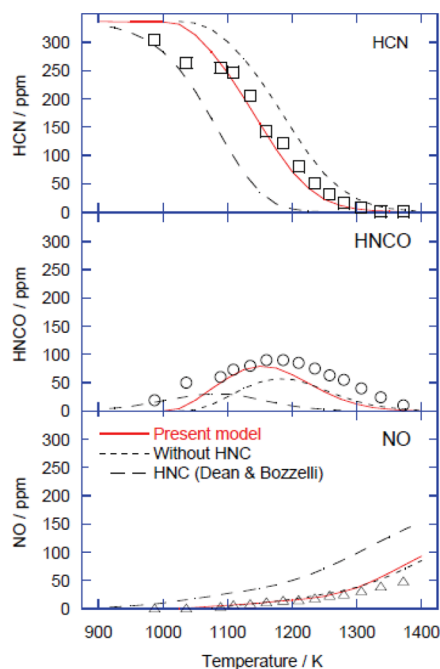


Figure 7. Comparison between experimental data¹³ and modeling predictions for HCN oxidation in a flow reactor. Symbols denote experimental data, while lines denote model predictions. Inlet concentrations: 337 ppm of HCN, 2.6% O_2 , 3.1% H_2O , and balance N_2 . The pressure is 1.05 atm, and the residence time at 1200 K (constant constant mass flow) is 112 ms.

In Figure 8, jet-stirred reactor experiments reported by Dagaut et al.⁹² for the oxidation of HCN are compared to

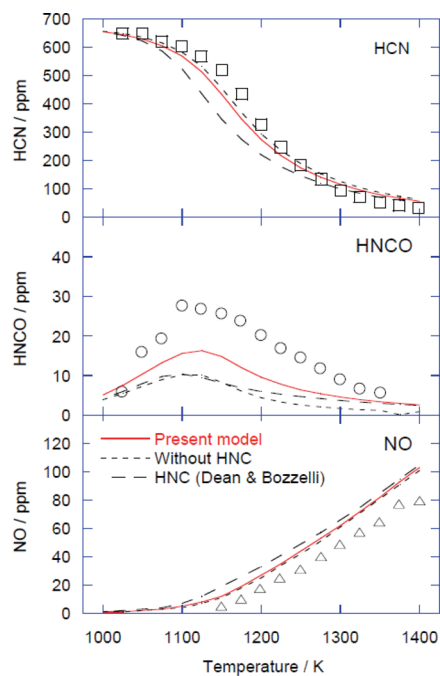


Figure 8. Comparison between experimental data⁹² and modeling predictions for HCN oxidation in a jet-stirred reactor. Symbols denote experimental data, while lines denote model predictions. Inlet concentrations: 670 ppm of HCN, 2000 ppm of O_2 , 200 ppm of H_2O , and balance N_2 . The pressure is 1.0 atm, and the residence time is 120 ms.

modeling predictions. The modeling predictions agree well with the measured profiles for HCN and NO, but HNCO is underpredicted by almost a factor of 2. Exclusion of the HNC subset has only a small impact on HCN and NO predictions but acts to increase the discrepancy for HNCO. Use of the HNC subset from Dean and Bozzelli leads to a too fast calculated consumption of HCN and also has an adverse impact on the HNCO prediction.

CONCLUSION

The chemistry of HNC and its role in combustion nitrogen chemistry have been re-examined. The HNC + O₂ reaction was studied by *ab initio* methods and shown to have a high barrier. With an updated kinetic subset for the HNC chemistry, including an accurate value of the heat of formation for HNC and improved rate constants for HNC + O₂ and HNC + OH, it was possible to reconcile modeling issues and provide a satisfactory prediction of a wide range of experimental results on HCN oxidation. In the burned gases of fuel-rich flames, where HCN and CN are partially equilibrated, the sequence $\text{HCN} \xrightarrow{+M} \text{HNC} \xrightarrow{+OH} \text{HNCO}$ is the major consumption path for HCN. Under lean conditions, HNC is shown to be less important than indicated by the early work of Lin and co-workers but acts to accelerate HCN oxidation and promote the formation of HNCO.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acs.energyfuels.6b02085.

Full model (ASCII) (TXT)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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