

Development of a Digital System for the Uncertainty Quantification and Minimization of Chemical Kinetic Models

Hongxin Wang

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Vorsitz:

Prof. Dr. Dongsheng Wen

Prüfer*innen der Dissertation:

1. Prof. Dr.-Ing. Oskar J. Haidn
2. Prof. Alexander Konnov, Ph.D.
3. Assistant Prof. Yuval Dagan, Ph.D.

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“All models are wrong, but some are useful.”

George E. P. Box

Abstract

This thesis work was performed to develop a digital system for the uncertainty quantification and minimization of chemical kinetic models. In the part of uncertainty quantification, the uncertainties of the reaction rate constants, modeling results, and experimental data were estimated. The reaction rate constants recommended by the literature were analyzed and the Arrhenius equation parameters with uncertainty factors were determined for the reactions of H₂ and hydrocarbon molecules with carbon atoms less than 3. Monte Carlo simulations were conducted with reaction rate constants sampled within the modeling uncertainties and the 2 σ bounds of the results were defined as the modeling uncertainties of the parameter set. The uncertainty sources of the collected measured ignition delay times, laminar flame speeds, and concentration profiles were analyzed and the experimental uncertainties were evaluated. In the part of uncertainty minimization, the discrepancy measure was defined and reduced by three methods. The first one is the traditional method relying on the human experience and intuition applied to the update of the ethylene oxidation model, but it may increase the risk of human error. In the second work of the optimization of a hydrogen oxidation model, the methodology of response surface was applied and the uncertainties were reduced based on the probability density function based on the Monte Carlo simulation. The third method was developed based on the particle swarm optimization algorithm and applied to the optimization of a joint hydrogen and syngas oxidation model. With the work presented in this dissertation, the human intervention in the optimization of chemical kinetic models has been reduced and a system with reliable preparation of digital data and automated optimization with quantified uncertainties has been developed.

Zusammenfassung

Diese Arbeit wurde mit dem Ziel durchgeführt, ein digitales System für die Quantifizierung und Minimierung der Unsicherheit chemischer kinetischer Modelle zu entwickeln. Im Teil der Quantifizierung der Unsicherheit wurden die Unsicherheiten der Reaktionsgeschwindigkeitskonstanten, der Modellierungsergebnisse und der experimentellen Daten geschätzt. Die in der Literatur empfohlenen Reaktionsgeschwindigkeitskonstanten wurden analysiert und die Parameter der Arrhenius-Gleichung mit Unsicherheitsfaktoren wurden für die Reaktionen von H₂ und Kohlenwasserstoffmolekülen mit weniger als 3 Kohlenstoffatomen bestimmt. Monte-Carlo-Simulationen wurden mit Reaktionsgeschwindigkeitskonstanten durchgeführt, die innerhalb der Modellierungsunsicherheiten lagen, und die 2 σ -Grenzen der Ergebnisse wurden als Modellierungsunsicherheiten des Parametersatzes definiert. Die Unsicherheitsquellen der erfassten gemessenen Zünd-verzögerungszeiten, laminaren Flammengeschwindigkeiten und Konzentrationsprofile wurden analysiert und die experimentellen Unsicherheiten wurden bewertet. Im Teil der Unsicherheitsminimierung wurde das Diskrepanzmaß definiert und durch drei Methoden reduziert. Die erste ist die traditionelle Methode, die sich auf die menschliche Erfahrung und Intuition bei der Aktualisierung des Ethylenoxidationsmodells stützt, aber sie kann das Risiko menschlicher Fehler erhöhen. In der zweiten Arbeit zur Optimierung eines Wasserstoffoxidationsmodells wurde die Methodik der Reaktionsoberfläche angewandt und die Unsicherheiten wurden anhand der Wahrscheinlichkeitsdichtefunktion auf der Grundlage der Monte-Carlo-Simulation reduziert. Die dritte Methode wurde auf der Grundlage des Algorithmus der Partikel-schwarmoptimierung entwickelt und auf die Optimierung eines gemeinsamen Wasserstoff- und Synthesegas-Oxidationsmodells angewandt. Mit den in dieser Dissertation vorgestellten Arbeiten konnte der menschliche Eingriff in die Optimierung chemischer kinetischer Modelle reduziert und ein System mit zuverlässiger Aufbereitung digitaler Daten und automatisierter Optimierung mit quantifizierten Unsicherheiten entwickelt werden.

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List of papers

The thesis is based on the work presented in the following papers:

Paper-I. **Hongxin Wang**, Nadezda Slavinskaya, Aziza Kanz, Moldir Auyelkhankzyzy, Yiting Gao, Oskar Haidn, A comprehensive kinetic modeling study of ethylene combustion with data uncertainty analysis, Fuel 299 (2021) 120833. DOI: 10.1016/j.fuel.2021.120833.

Paper-II. **Hongxin Wang**, Nadezda Slavinskaya, Oskar Haidn, A comprehensive kinetic modeling study of hydrogen combustion with uncertainty quantification, Fuel 319 (2022) 123705. DOI: 10.1016/j.fuel.2022.123705.

Paper-III. **Hongxin Wang**, Chenyi Sun, Oskar Haidn, Askarova Aliya, Chiara Manfletti, Nadezda Slavinskaya, A joint hydrogen and syngas chemical kinetic model optimized with particle swarm optimization, Fuel 332 (2023) 125945. DOI: 10.1016/j.fuel.2022.125945.

Related work

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List of Abbreviation

Abbreviation	Definition	Unit
T	Temperature	K
p	Pressure	atm, bar
φ	Equivalence ratio	dimensionless
		order 1: s^{-1}
k	Reaction rate constant	order 2: $cm^3 \cdot mole^{-1} \cdot s^{-1}$ order 3: $cm^6 \cdot mole^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$
η_M	Relative collision efficiency for M	dimensionless
E_a	Activation energy	K
f	Uncertainty factor of the RRC	dimensionless
σ	Standard deviation	*
y^{exp}	Experimental data	*
y^{mod}	Modeling data	*
y^{pre}	Response surface prediction data	*
x, X	Normalized RRC parameter	dimensionless
α_i, β_{ij}	1st-/2nd- order polynomial coefficient	dimensionless
u	Uncertainty of the experimental data	*
Ψ	Model discrepancy measure	dimensionless
C	Uncertainty contribution	*
C_r	Relative uncertainty contribution	dimensionless
r	Pearson correlation coefficients	Dimensionless
IDT	Ignition delay time	s
LFS	Laminar flame speed	cm/s
RRC	Reaction rate constant	
ST	Shock tube	
RCM	Rapid compression machine	
PFR	Plug flow reactor	
PSR	Perfectly stirred reactor	
PDF	Probability density function	
PSO	Particle swarm optimization	

*Depend on the type of the measurement

1. Introduction

The history of humanity making use of combustion is more than one million years. Thanks to the development of the steam engine in the First Industrial Revolution and the widespread use of electricity and oil in the Second Industrial Revolution, in which combustion played a crucial role, mankind's productivity increased to an unprecedented level [1, 2]. Combustion has become a fundamental technology for heating, transportation, electricity generation, manufacturing, etc. Since the Third Industrial Revolution, also known as the digital revolution, computer simulations have rapidly grown to become a significant component in science and engineering, and the simulation of chemical reactions has become an essential aspect of combustion research [3].

The first chemical kinetic systems to be modeled were developed for the decomposition of hydrazine, nitric oxide, and ozone [4]. Over the past seven decades, as the computational power has increased, more detailed chemical kinetic models with large number of elementary reactions have been proposed. With the increasing number of species and steps required to describe a particular oxidation process, the design of a reaction mechanism relying heavily on intuition and rules of thumb should be replaced by the computer-aided design approach [5]. In the upcoming Fourth Industrial Revolution, or Industry 4.0 [6], the integration of artificial intelligence into traditional industry will lead to increased automation and self-monitoring, and the use of digital systems that can analyze and diagnose issues without human intervention [7, 8].

Chemical kinetic models are used to describe the transformation of reactants into products at the molecular level. A complete chemical kinetic model consists of elementary reactions that show changes in the concentration of a reactant or a product over time, thermal properties of each species, such as enthalpy, entropy, and heat capacities, and the transport process characterizing the molecular transport of species, momentum, and energy.

One of the most important concepts of kinetics is the reaction rate of chemical reaction, which shows the change of concentration of a reactant or a product over time. With advancements in technologies such as mass spectrometry [9], laser absorption technology [10], and transition-state theory [11, 12], various experimental [13-17] and theoretical methods [18-20] have been developed to determine reaction rate constants (RRCs). However, the RRCs

obtained conditionally “directly” or calculated via quantum chemistry calculations often exhibit high uncertainties [21, 22], thereby posing a major challenge in developing reliable chemical kinetic models.

One practical approach to estimate RRCs is the reverse chemical kinetic problem, where the reaction rates are determined from simulations of macro experimental kinetic data, such as ignition delay times, laminar flame speeds, and concentration profiles. The Bound-to-Bound Data Collaboration (B2BDC) [23] is a useful method that employs robust control to identify the actual bounds of parameter uncertainties and ensure consistency between model parameters and experimental data. By deploying semidefinite programming algorithms [24], the initial bounds on unknowns are combined with the initial bounds of experimental data, which shows the model predictions out of the experimental errors. The initially calculated deterministic uncertainty bounds, called feasible parameter sets, are further used for prediction in new settings. The output variables produced in different numerical experiments for discrete points (random samplings) in feasible parameter space are fitted with a second-order polynomial function into a response surface (solution mapping methodology [25]), which is further used in subsequent uncertainty analyses to optimize the model and produce a final feasible set of model parameters [26] and to determine the validity range of the model. The model optimization is carried out after data consistency analyses: the potential outliers from a training set are identified with a quantitative measure of an agreement between the model and raw experimental data.

In this thesis, a digital system combining the methodologies of response surface [28] and artificial intelligence algorithm for the uncertainty quantification and minimization of chemical kinetic models has been developed. The chemical kinetic model and simulation model of macro experimental kinetic data measured in shock tubes, rapid compression machines, premixed laminar flames, perfectly stirred reactors, and plug flow reactors will be briefly introduced in Chapter 2. In Chapter 3, the uncertainty quantifications of the experimental data, reaction rate constants, and the chemical kinetic model will be presented, which with the initial uncertainty bounds can be determined. In Chapter 4, the discrepancy measure, which shows the prediction ability of the chemical kinetic model, will be defined. The response surface methodology is developed on the Monte Carlo simulation for revealing the input-output characteristics of the chemical kinetic modeling. The uncertainty reduction based on the probability density function and particle swarm optimization will be described. Lastly, Chapter 5 gives an outline of the uncertainty quantification and minimization and summarizes the thesis.

Through the work described in this thesis, 3 major aims will be achieved:

- (1) To develop the database and method for the uncertainty quantification and data consistency analysis of the reaction rate constants (RRCs), experimental data, and modeling results of hydrogen and small hydrocarbon oxidation.
- (2) To develop a digital system combining the methodologies of response surface [27] and artificial intelligence algorithm for the uncertainty quantification and minimization of chemical kinetic models.
- (3) Test the established method by figuring out the feasible parameter sets of a detailed chemical kinetic model with good prediction ability for the currently available experimental data of H₂ and syngas oxidation.

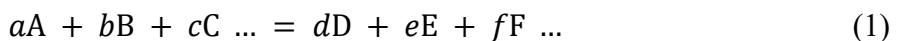
Through these aims, a digital system for the automatic optimization of chemical kinetic models will be developed. In Paper-I, a revision and upgrade of the ethylene (C₂H₄) oxidation kinetic sub-model were carried out as the next step in the optimization of the C_{<3} chemistry. Uncertainty quantification was conducted for the RRCs of small hydrocarbon reactions and a database was developed based on the literature. Data consistency and uncertainties were figured out for the experimental data of C₂H₄ oxidation. In Paper-II, a 19-reactions H₂ oxidation chemical kinetic sub-model has been optimized with uncertainty quantification. The system input-output response behavior was studied with the help of Monte Carlo simulation and the method of response surface. The probability density functions of RRCs were calculated for 4 key channels to reduce their large uncertainty intervals. In Paper-III, a syngas oxidation model has been optimized with re-optimization of the H₂ model by particle swarm optimization (PSO) algorithm. The feasible parameter set was determined based on a statistical analysis of the optimums obtained by PSO.

2. Chemical kinetic model and simulation

Numerical simulation of reactive kinetic systems requires accurate knowledge about model parameter values to be predictive. Besides experimental measurements of reaction rates and quantum chemical/statistical calculations, the reverse chemical kinetic problem when the reaction rates are determined from simulations of experimental macro kinetic data, ignition delay times (IDTs), laminar flame speeds (LFSs), and concentration profiles, are applied to determine RRCs. Different experimental methods have been designed to create near-ideal reaction environments to avoid the influence of redundant factors on the system's input-output behavior. However, the non-ideal phenomena make it difficult to achieve ideal conditions such as local constant pressure or local constant temperature in reactive systems. Idealized models with non-ideal factors taken into account are the basis for the accurate prediction of the measured parameters and the study of the reactive system input-output characteristics. In this chapter, the reaction rate constants of the studied kinetic models will be defined. Short descriptions of the idealized models for the simulation of shock tubes (STs), rapid compression machines (RCMs), premixed laminar flames, perfectly stirred reactors (PSRs), and plug flow reactors (PFRs) will be presented.

2.1 Reaction rate constant

The chemical kinetic is composed of the elementary reaction which can be described by the equation:



where A, B, C ... are the reactants and D, E, F ... are the products. The reaction rate can be expressed by the concentration change of reactant A:

$$\frac{d[A]}{dt} = -k \cdot [A]^a [B]^b [C]^c \dots \quad (2)$$

where $a, b, c \dots$ are the reaction orders concerning the species A, B, C ... and k is the RRC for the elementary reaction in Eq. (1). In this thesis, the unit of RRC is dependent on the overall reaction order, which is the sum of exponents $a, b, c \dots$ in Eq. (2). The units of the RRC for first-, second-, and third- order reactions are s^{-1} , $\text{cm}^3\text{mole}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$, and $\text{cm}^6\text{mole}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ respectively.

Most RRCs depend strongly in a nonlinear way on the temperature, which can be described by the Arrhenius equation:

$$k(T) = AT^n \exp\left(-\frac{E_a}{T}\right), \text{ (cm}^3, \text{ s, mole, K)} \quad (3)$$

where T is the absolute temperature in Kelvin, A is the pre-exponential factor, n is a constant representing the temperature dependence, and E_a is the activation energy for the reaction in the unit of Kelvin.

The pressure dependence of RRCs is described by the F -center treatment of Troe [28]. The third body M is added to the Arrhenius expression for the RRC in the fall-off range, then k_∞ and k_0 are determined for the high- and low- pressure limitation:



Here M can be any molecule, and the relative collision efficiency, η_M , is defined for different bath gases M:

$$\eta_M = \frac{k_{0,M}}{k_{0,Ar}} \quad (6)$$

which describes that the bath gas M promotes the reaction as a ratio of low-pressure limit RRC $k_{0,Ar}$, in which Ar is the reference bath gas. In the developed models, η_M is given for the commonly used diluent gases such as Ar, N₂, and He and the main reactants and products such as H₂, CO, H₂O, and CO₂.

Four parameters a , T^{***} , T^* , and T^{**} are used to determine the F_{cent} value:

$$F_{\text{cent}} = a \cdot \exp\left(\frac{T}{T^*}\right) + \exp\left(\frac{T}{T^{**}}\right) + (1 + a) \cdot \exp\left(\frac{T}{T^{***}}\right) \quad (7)$$

which is used to calculate the value F :

$$\log F = \log F_{\text{cent}} \left[1 + \left(\frac{\log P_r + c}{n - d \cdot (\log P_r + c)} \right)^2 \right]^{-1} \quad (8)$$

where

$$c = -0.4 - 0.67 \log F_{\text{cent}} \quad (9)$$

$$n = 0.75 - 1.27 \log F_{\text{cent}} \quad (10)$$

$$P_r = \frac{k_0[M]}{k_\infty} \quad (11)$$

With F and P_r , the RRC for reactions (4) and (5) at a certain pressure and temperature can be described as:

$$k = k_\infty \left(\frac{P_r}{1 + P_r} \right) F \quad (12)$$

In this thesis, all the simulations were conducted with Ansys Chemkin Pro [29]. Three

chemical kinetic models with thermal data and transport data in the format for Ansys Chemkin Pro have been presented in the supplementary:

Paper-I: a model with 63 species 534 reactions for C₂H₄ with polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon and soot formation;

Paper-II: a model with 11 species and 19 reactions for H₂ oxidation;

Paper-III: a model with 16 species and 41 reactions for H₂ and syngas oxidation.

2.2 Shock tube

A shock tube is a tube with closed ends split by the diaphragm into two sections: the high-pressure driver section filled with super-compressed carrier inert gas and the low-pressure driven section filled with the test gas mixture. During the experiment, the gas in the driver section is pressurized until the diaphragm bursts so that the incident shock wave quickly forms and propagates through the driven section. After reaching the end of the driven section, the incident shock wave is reflected from the wall and propagates back towards the driver section, stagnating and further compressing and heating the test gas to the pre-ignition temperature (T_5) and pressure (p_5).

The ideal model assumes that in a reflected shock wave experiment, the incident shock is planar and moves at a constant speed. The likewise planar reflected shock compresses the driven gas instantaneously. A homogeneous uniform zone of test gas can be produced behind the shock wave, which can be treated as a 0-dimensional (perfectly homogeneous) adiabatic, isochoric, or isobaric uniform reactor with constant internal energy or enthalpy, without any hydrodynamic processes, so that the IDT would be controlled only by chemistry.

In this thesis, the closed homogeneous model with constrained volume is applied to calculate IDTs measured in shock tubes. The energy equation is solved with initial temperature, T_5 , and pressure, p_5 . The IDT could be recorded as occurring either at the time of maximum rate of change or of the peak value of some species such as OH* and CH* [30, 31], or maximum gradient of temperature or pressure [32, 33], or could be based on an extrapolation of the maximum slope to the zero-signal level [30, 34]. In the work of Petersen et al. [30], the IDTs defined by the measured peak of OH* mole fraction ($\tau_{[OH]peak}$) and the maximum rate of the OH* curve to the zero line (τ_{zero}) were recorded. Fig. 1a shows the different definitions of the IDTs of the H₂/O₂/Ar mixture at $T_5 = 1181$ K, in which the OH* mole fraction is replaced by the OH mole fraction. As shown by the comparison of the modeling results and experimental data [30] with 20% uncertainty in Fig. 1b, the optimized H₂ oxidation model predicts both

definitions of IDTs very well.

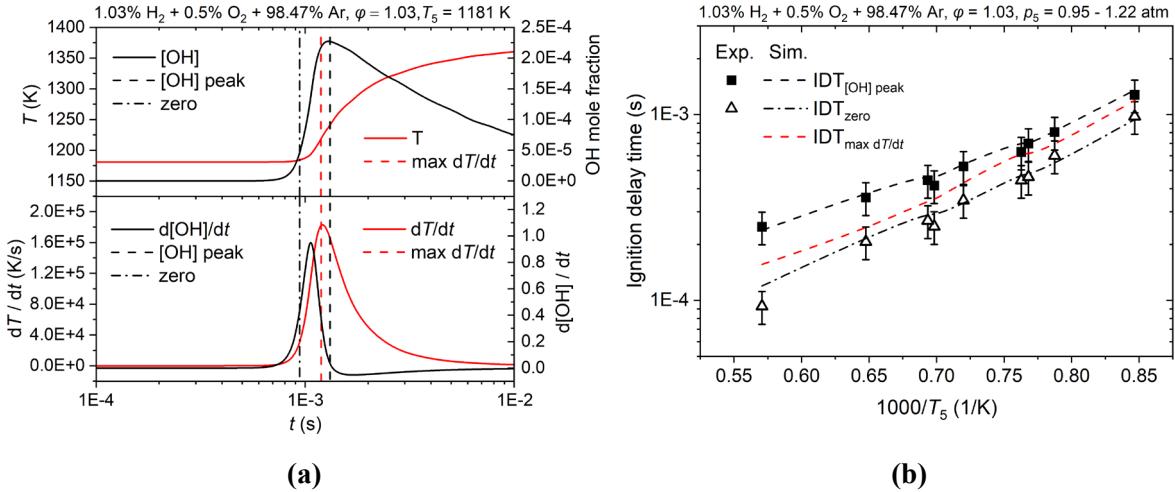


Fig. 1. (a) Temperature, OH mole fraction (up), and their gradients (low) of the IDT simulation at $T_5 = 1181 \text{ K}$; (b) Comparison of the IDTs determined by different definitions (Exp. by Petersen et al. [30] with 20% uncertainties, Sim. by H_2 oxidation model in Paper-II).

2.3 Rapid compression machine

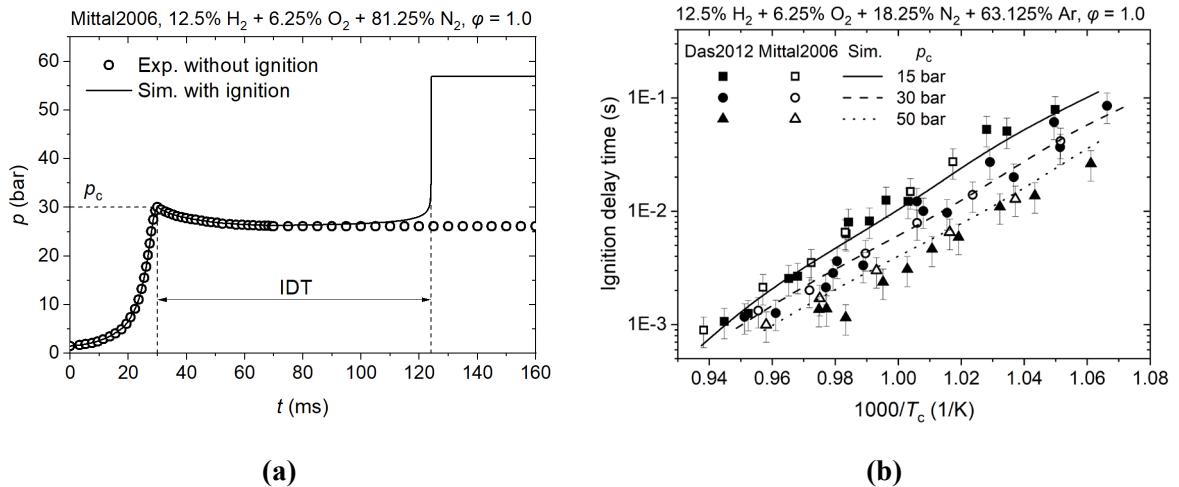


Fig. 2. (a) Pressure profiles measured in the RCM experiment [35] and simulated with the volume profile; (b) Comparison of the measured [35, 36] and simulated IDTs in the RCMs.

The rapid compression machine (RCM) is used to simulate a single compression stroke of an internal combustion engine [37]. It can be used as an alternative to the shock tube for measuring the low to intermediate-temperature IDTs. In the experiment of RCM, the fuel-oxidizer mixture in the chamber is rapidly compressed by a piston assembly in a process close to adiabatic compression. The rapid compression results in elevated temperature (T_c) and high-pressure (p_c) conditions in the reaction chamber, as shown in Fig. 2a, which can be used to

investigate the autoignition characteristics.

The closed homogeneous model with constrained volume is applied to calculate IDTs measured in RCMs. The volume profile is used for each mixture to reproduce the real compression process. A comparison of the measured and simulated pressure is presented in Fig. 2a. The possible pre-ignition reaction and pressure decrease after the rapid compression caused by heat transfer are well predicted, and the modeling IDTs show good agreement with the measured data, as shown in Fig. 2b.

2.4 Premixed laminar flame

Premixed combustion consists of the chemical reactions within a flow of a premixture of reacting species. The laminar flame speed (LFS) and concentration profile measured in the premixed laminar flame are the most important characteristics for combustion investigation. The flame speed is defined as the velocity of the unburned gases through the combustion wave in the direction normal to the wave surface. The method of Bunsen flame, spherical flame [38, 39], counterflow flame [40], and flat flame [41] have been developed for the measurement of LFSs in the past decades.

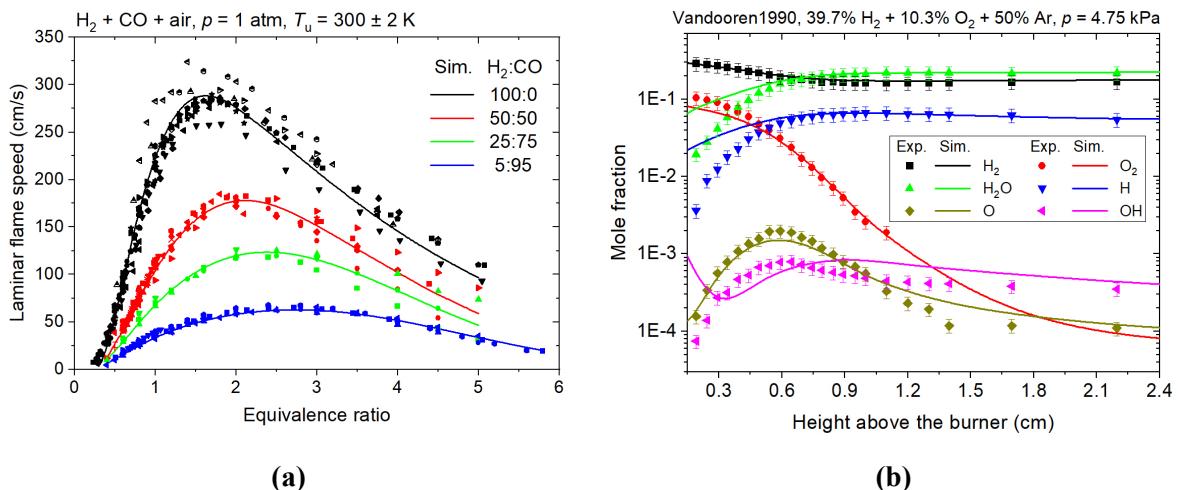


Fig. 3. Comparison of the experimental data (symbols) and modeling results (lines) of premixed laminar flame: (a) laminar flame speeds of H₂ and syngas mixtures at 1 atm; (b) concentration profiles in H₂/O₂/Ar premixed laminar flame (Vandooren et al. [42]).

The ideal model of the premixed laminar flame is assumed to be a one-dimensional flow with uniform inlet conditions. The model solves the set of governing differential equations that describe the flame dynamics using implicit finite difference methods, as well as, a combination of time-dependent and steady-state methods [29]. Some results for laminar flame speeds and

concentration profiles of premixed laminar flames are presented in Fig. 3.

2.5 Perfectly stirred reactor

The jet stirred reactor [43] is a classical apparatus for studying the chemical kinetics of combustion reactions. The perfectly stirred reactor (PSR) is a jet stirred reactor in which perfect mixing (homogeneity) is achieved inside the control volume and the process in this volume is controlled by chemical reaction rates but not mixing processes. In the PSR, reactants are jetted into the mixing chamber through several nozzles and maintained at elevated temperatures for reaction. The constant temperature zone in the chamber is established by the heating system [44, 45]. The temperature in the PSR is monitored by thermocouples and the heater is controlled to achieve a constant temperature condition in the reaction zone. At the end of residence time, samples of the reacting mixtures are taken and analyzed by instruments [46, 47].

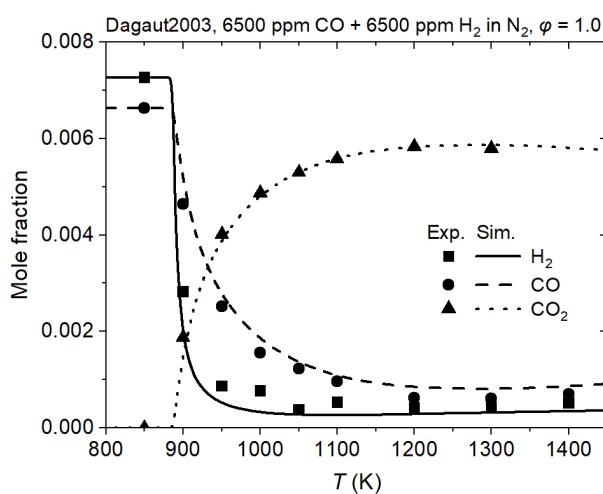


Fig. 4. Concentration profiles measured in the PFR (Dagaut et al. [48]) and simulated with the developed syngas oxidation model.

compared with the measured data. A comparison of the measured and simulated concentration profiles in the PSR [48] is presented in Fig. 4.

2.6 Plug flow reactor

The PFR has mostly tube flow configuration to study continuous processes at a steady state. The reactions take place in a tubular reactor with electric resistance heating tapes [49].

The 0-dimensional ideal stirred reactor model assumes that the reactor is sufficiently mixed to be described well by spatially averaged or bulk properties. An assumption that the mixing time scale is much smaller than either the residence time scale or the chemical time scale is made for a PSR model. The closed homogeneous model with constrained pressure and temperature is applied to the simulation of PSR. The concentration profiles of the mixtures at the end of reaction time (residence time) are

The reactor temperature is monitored by thermocouples and the heating tape is controlled to achieve a nearly constant temperature condition in the reaction zone with a steep temperature increase at the inlet and a steep temperature drop at the reactor outlet. The product gas sample is extracted at the end of the reaction zone and analyzed for composition.

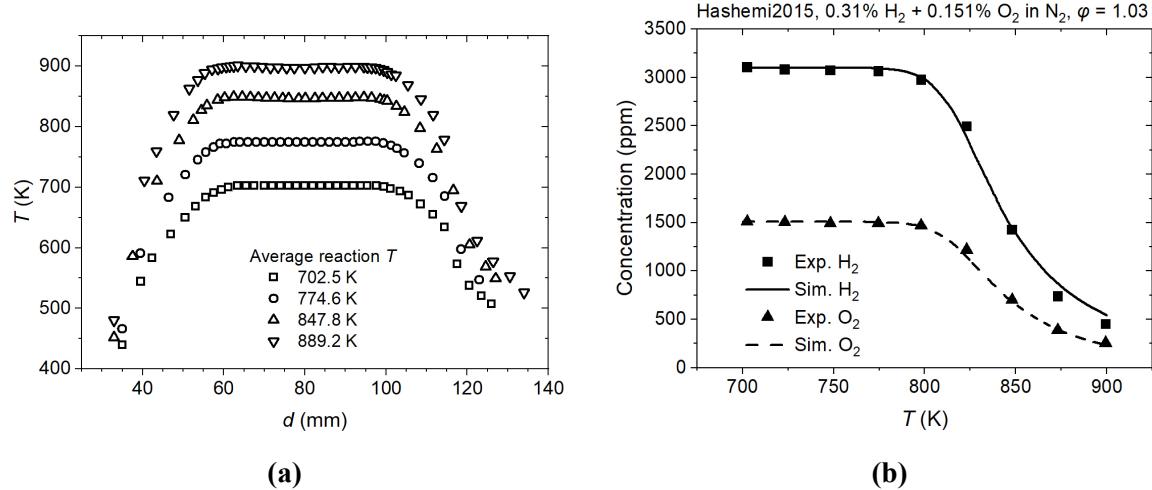


Fig. 5. Comparison of the concentration profiles measured in the PFR [50] and the modeling results obtained with the optimized H_2 oxidation model in Paper-II.

The 1-dimensional model included transport phenomena is applied to the simulation of the PFR experiments with temperature profiles [50-52]. As shown in Fig. 5b, the concentration profiles simulated with the temperature profiles, in Fig. 5a, show good agreement with the measured data [50]. For the PFR experiments with residence time, the idealized 0-D model assumes that there is no mixing in the flow direction but perfect mixing in the transverse direction(s).

3. Uncertainty quantification

To study the input-output characteristics of reactive kinetic systems, uncertainty quantification should be conducted for both input (RRCs and experimental setup) and output (measured and simulated IDTs, LFSs, and concentration profiles) parameters. In this chapter, statistical analysis is applied to the RRCs recommended by the literature of direct experimental measurements, theoretical calculation, and review works. RRCs with uncertainty factors have been obtained for reactions of H₂ and C_{<3} molecules. The modeling uncertainties and uncertainty contributions of the simulated output data are defined as corresponding to the uncertainties of the input RRCs. The experimental methods are analyzed and the uncertainty sources of the measured data are identified. The uncertainties of the collected experimental data for model optimization are carefully evaluated, which has been described in the previous work [26, 53].

3.1 Uncertainty quantification of the reaction rate constant

Arrhenius equation parameters for RRCs and their specific temperature ranges recommended by literature of experimental measurements, theoretical calculations, and the review works of Baulch et al. [21, 54-56] were collected for the uncertainty evaluation described below.

The standard deviations of the Arrhenius expression parameters, A , n , and E_a in Eq. (3), are calculated in the determining the margin, $\Delta(T)$, of the rate-coefficient error. The uncertainty factor, $f(T)$, is used to determine the uncertainty level for $k(T)$:

$$f(T) = \log_{10} \left(\frac{k_0(T)}{k_{\text{low}}(T)} \right) = \log_{10} \left(\frac{k_{\text{up}}(T)}{k_0(T)} \right) \quad (13)$$

where $k_0(T)$ is the nominal RRC, and $k_{\text{low}}(T)$ and $k_{\text{up}}(T)$ are the lower and upper bounds respectively.

The statistical treatment of the rate coefficients is complicated due to the limited amount of available data, but if several datasets are present the simple analysis of uncertainty k based on the least-squares regression can be done. Parameter errors, $s(x_\alpha)$, describe the confidence level of the rate coefficient parameters and can be further used for the calculation of:

$$k_{\text{low}}(T) = 10^{\log_{10}(A)-s(\log_{10}(A))} T^{(n-s(n))} \exp\left(-\frac{E_a+s(E_a)}{T}\right) \quad (14)$$

$$k_{\text{up}}(T) = 10^{\log_{10}(A)+s(\log_{10}(A))} T^{(n+s(n))} \exp\left(-\frac{E_a-s(E_a)}{T}\right) \quad (15)$$

where $s(\log_{10}(A))$, $s(n)$, and $s(E_a)$ can be found from the covariance matrix of the applied statistical method of nonlinear regression [57, 58].

Implementation of the nonlinear least-squares method was realized numerically using FUMILI [59], which linearizes a model $f(\vec{y}, \vec{x})$ and approximates the data of m observations with a model of n unknown parameters ($m > n$). This algorithm [59, 60] has been successfully used for the estimation of intermolecular potential parameters and their uncertainties from experimental data of different types [58, 61].

The evaluation of parameters can be obtained through minimization of the objective function $\phi(\vec{y}, \vec{x})$ (following the model linearization by a first-order Taylor series expansion of the parameters)

$$\phi(\vec{y}, \vec{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^m \omega_j \left[Y_j^{\text{exp}} - \left(f_0(\vec{y}, \vec{x}^*) + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\partial f_j(\vec{y}, \vec{x})}{\partial x_k} \Delta x_k \right) \right]^2 \quad (16)$$

where \vec{y} is the vector of “coordinates”, i.e., temperature, pressure, etc.; \vec{x} is the vector of Arrhenius parameters A , n , and E_a ; ω_j is the weight of an observation; Y_j^{exp} is the experimental data. The different sets of rate coefficients following experiments, quantum-chemical calculations or reaction models can be assumed as statistical samplings, i.e., Y_j^{exp} .

The vector of the parameter corrections Δx_k is obtained from n differential equations (related to each parameter) following from minimization of the objective function:

$$\begin{cases} \sum_{j=1}^m \omega_j \left(Y_j^{\text{exp}} - f_0(\vec{y}, \vec{x}^*) \right) \frac{\partial f_j(\vec{y}, \vec{x})}{\partial x_1} = \sum_{j=1}^m \omega_j \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\partial f_j}{\partial x_k} \frac{\partial f_j}{\partial x_1} \Delta x_k \\ \dots \\ \sum_{j=1}^m \omega_j \left(Y_j^{\text{exp}} - f_0(\vec{y}, \vec{x}^*) \right) \frac{\partial f_j(\vec{y}, \vec{x})}{\partial x_n} = \sum_{j=1}^m \omega_j \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\partial f_j}{\partial x_k} \frac{\partial f_j}{\partial x_n} \Delta x_k \end{cases} \quad (17)$$

Let us denote:

$$\gamma_{\alpha\beta} = \sum_{j=1}^m \omega_j \frac{\partial f_j}{\partial x_\alpha} \frac{\partial f_j}{\partial x_\beta}, \quad \alpha, \beta = 1, \dots, n \quad (18)$$

$$\eta_\alpha = \sum_{j=1}^m \omega_j \left(Y_j^{\text{exp}} - f_0(\vec{y}, \vec{x}^*) \right) \frac{\partial f_j(\vec{y}, \vec{x})}{\partial x_\alpha} \quad (19)$$

then the vector Δx_k can be written as:

$$\Delta x_k = \sum_{i=1}^n (\gamma^{-1})_{ki} \eta_i \quad (20)$$

The error matrix (or the covariance matrix), $\Lambda = \gamma^{-1}$, provides information about parameter errors, $s(x_\alpha)$, and deviations of calculated functions (mean values of coefficients k_0), $\Delta f(\vec{y}, \vec{x})$:

$$s(x_\alpha) = \sqrt{\frac{\phi}{m-n} D(x_\alpha)} \quad (21)$$

$$\Delta f = t_s \sqrt{\frac{\phi}{m-n} \sum_{\alpha=1}^n \sum_{\beta=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_\alpha} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_\beta} cov(x_\alpha, x_\beta)} \quad (22)$$

Here, ϕ is the final sum of the reduced squares of the deviations, $cov(x_\alpha, x_\beta)$ are the covariance elements of matrix Λ , $D(x_\alpha) = \Lambda(x_{\alpha\alpha})$, $\sqrt{\frac{\phi}{m-n}}$ provides an estimate for the reduced standard deviation of the observations and t_s is the coefficient of proportionality for $\Delta f/s(f)$ with a certain confidence probability.

The overall correlation coefficients provide further useful information, characterizing the connection (dependence) of one parameter with all others, and can be calculated from the matrix Λ as

$$Q_\alpha = \sqrt{1 - 1/R_\alpha} \quad (23)$$

where $R_\alpha = \Lambda(x_{aa}) \cdot \Lambda(x_{aa})^{-1}$.

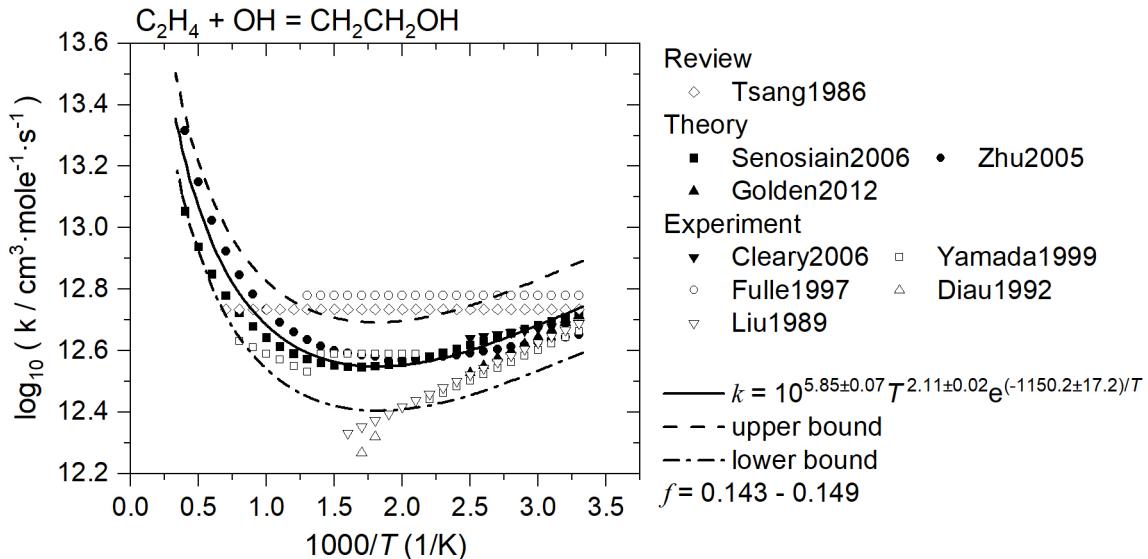


Fig. 6. Recommended RRCs for reaction C₂H₄ + OH = CH₂CH₂OH with evaluated uncertainty intervals (detailed Arrhenius equation parameters and reference information are presented in Supplementary-2 of Paper-I)

The uncertainty analysis of RRCs described above has been applied to the study of H₂, C₁, and C₂ reactions. An example of the collected RRCs recommended in the literature and the calculated uncertainty intervals are presented in Fig. 6. The detailed results are presented in Supplementary-2 of Paper-I, Supplementary-1 of Paper-II, and Supplementary-1 of Paper-III.

3.2 Uncertainty quantification of the chemical kinetic model

To evaluate the uncertainty of chemical kinetic models, the Arrhenius expression parameters are sampled within the determined uncertainty intervals (Eq. (14) and (15)) using the Latin Hypercube sampling method [62]. Monte Carlo simulation is carried out with the model based on the randomly sampled RRCs and a large number of modeling results can be obtained. The two-standard deviation (2σ) of the results, which covers $> 90\%$ of the distribution probability, is defined as the modeling uncertainty [63, 64]. Fig. 7a shows an example of uncertainty bounds (shadow) for the modeling IDTs from [31] and [65], which are determined by the Monte Carlo simulations, as shown in Fig. 7b.

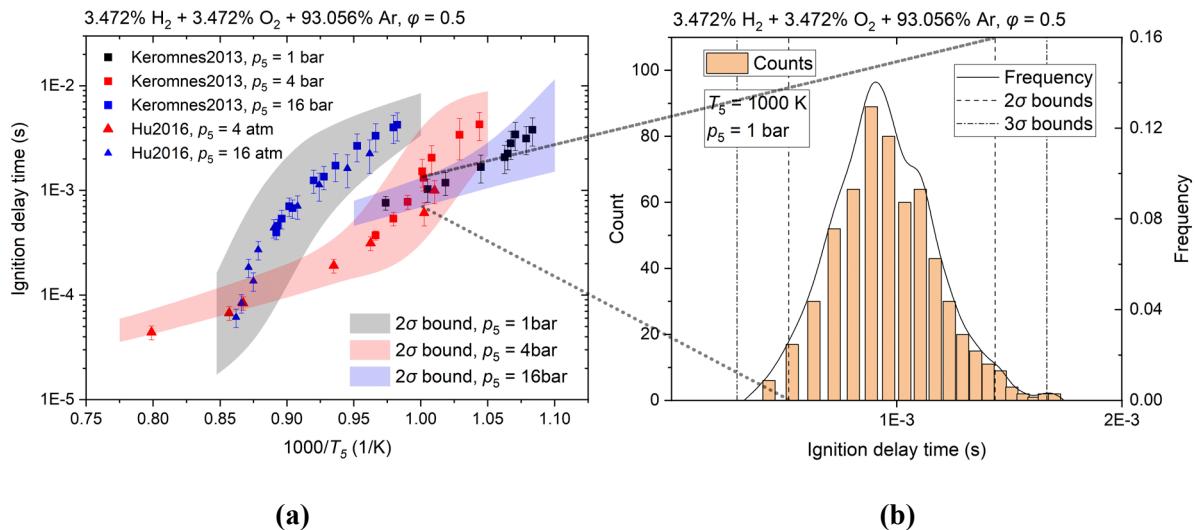


Fig. 7. (a) IDTs of $\text{H}_2/\text{O}_2/\text{Ar}$ mixture measured by Kéromnès et al. [31] and Hu et al. [65] and the modeling uncertainties determined by 2σ (shadows); **(b)** Histogram and probability density distribution of IDT ($T_5 = 1000\text{K}$) simulated with Monte Carlo method.

To figure out the source of the modeling uncertainty, the uncertainty contributed by the parameter x_i is defined as

$$C(x_i) = [y_{\max}^{\text{mod}}(x_i) - y_{\min}^{\text{mod}}(x_i)] \Big|_{x_j=\bar{x}_j, j \neq i} \quad (24)$$

where $y^{\text{mod}}(x_i)$ is the modeling target and \bar{x}_j is the average value of x_j . The relative uncertainty contribution of parameter x_i among the total N number of model parameters is defined as:

$$C_r(x_i) = \frac{C(x_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^N C(x_i)} \quad (25)$$

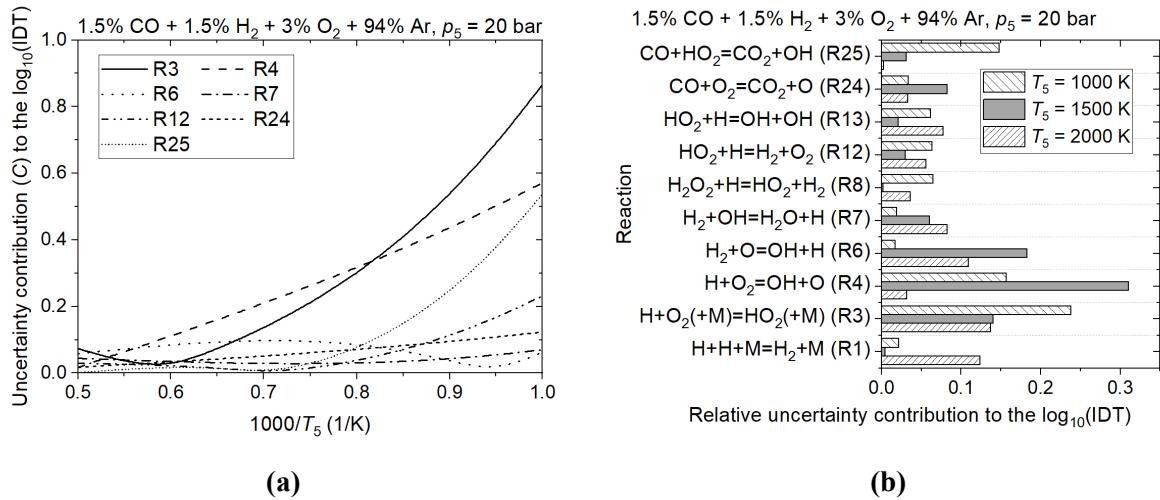


Fig. 8. (a) Uncertainty contributions (C) and (b) relative uncertainty contributions (C_r) of different channels to the modeling IDTs of CO/H₂/O₂/Ar mixture at $p_5 = 20 \text{ bar}$.

The uncertainty contribution, C , and the relative uncertainty contributions, C_r , to the simulated IDTs of CO/H₂/O₂/Ar mixture from Paper-III are presented in Fig. 8. The uncertainties contributed by reactions



show an obvious negative correlation with T_5 , as shown in Fig. 8a. The channels related to O₂ and HO₂ gain dominance of the IDT uncertainties at low-temperature. The relative uncertainty contributions of the channels to the IDTs are presented in Fig. 8b, in which reactions (R3) and (R4) show the highest importance, followed by reactions (R1), (R6), (R8), (R24), and (R25). In Paper-II and Paper-III, the uncertainty contributions to the simulated results have been analyzed and the reactions with $C_r > 0.1$ are identified as the key reactions for optimization.

3.3 Uncertainty quantification of the experimental data

High-quality experimental data is critical for the optimization of chemical kinetic models. However, most researchers who work on experiments do not offer detailed uncertainty analysis for their experimental data. The uncertainty of the data set used for model validation should be carefully evaluated. In this thesis, the uncertainty sources of measured IDTs, concentration profiles, and laminar flame speeds were analyzed following the estimation given in [26, 53]. The uncertainties sourced from the experimental setup, operating conditions, measurement facilities, equipment, and nonideality during the test are analyzed and quantified.

3.3.1 Ignition delay times measured in shock tubes

In practical shock tubes, the unavoidable non-idealities exist in the shocked gases and the reaction rate coefficients obtained as a solution to the reverse kinetic problem during IDT simulations cannot be considered as a result of chemical processes only. An integrated impact of facility-dependent nonidealities, which influence the character of kinetic times, should be evaluated and accounted for in the experimental uncertainty. The evaluation of uncertainty sources and intervals for IDTs measured by shock tube experiments are listed in Table 1, which is described in detail in the work of [26]. With the developed evaluation method, an average uncertainty of 20% was obtained for the measured IDTs used in this thesis.

Table 1. Evaluation of uncertainty intervals for IDTs measured by shock tube experiments.

Source	Parameter	Uncertainty
Driven-section length (m)	> 8	+ 0%
	< 8	+ 5%
Driven-section internal diameter (cm)	> 10	+ 0%
	< 10	+ 5%
Temperature interval	$T_5 < 1000$ K	+ 5%
	$T_5 > 1600$ K	+ 5%
Pressure	$p_5 > 15$ atm	+ 5%
	$p_5 > 30$ atm	+ 5%
Dilution	< 90%	+ 5%
	0 - 50	+ 5%
IDT (μ s)	50 - 500	+ 0%
	500 - 1000	+ 5%
	1000 - 1500	+ 10%

3.3.2 Laminar flame speeds

The source of the inaccuracy of laminar flame speed (LFS) data can be from the equipment, experimental procedures, and data processing. It is necessary to figure out different sources of uncertainty and establish a universal method to evaluate objectively uncertainties of measured data. In the related work [53], the four most commonly used methods including heat-flux method, Bunsen flame method, spherical flame method, and counterflow method were analyzed. The uncertainty sources shared by the different experimental methods are presented in Table 2, and the detailed analyses of the four studied methods can be found in [53].

Table 2. Evaluation of uncertainties for measured laminar flame speeds (Λ^* : measuring error self-calibrated or specified by the manufacturer).

Source	Uncertainty
Specific material properties of the burner	+ 0.2%
Length of the heating tube	$L > 2 \text{ m}$: + 0.2%
Mass flow controller	Λ^*
Pressure sensor	Λ^*
Thermocouple	Λ^*
Composition of the air	+ 0.2%
Specific properties of the fuel	liquid: + 0.5%, gaseous: + 0.2%
Stoichiometry	$\varphi < 0.8$: + 0.5%, $\varphi > 1.4$: + 0.5%
Pressure	up to 1.5%, $p > 4\text{atm}$ + 0.5%
Temperature	up to 2%
Radiation	+ 0.1%
Data interpretation	linear: + 0.5%

3.3.3 Concentration profiles measured in PFRs and PSRs

Table 3. Uncertainty sources for experiments of PSR and PFR (Λ^* : measuring error self-calibrated or specified by the manufacturer).

Source	Uncertainty
Gas purity, mixture concentration	Up to $\pm 5.5\% *$
Specific properties of the reactants	liquid +0.5%; gaseous + 0.2%
Mass flow controller	Up to 10% *
Composition of the air	+ 0.2%
Stoichiometry	$\varphi < 0.8$ + 0.5%; $\varphi > 1.4$ + 0.5%
Reactor material	Λ^*
Thermocouple	$\pm 2 \text{ K}$ to $\pm 5 \text{ K} *$
Radiation	+ 2%
Heat release	+ 2%
Temperature control	+ 2%
Residence time	average residence time: + 2%
Pressure sensor	Λ^*
Sampling	+ 2%
Concentration measurements, analyzer	up to 20% *
Reproducibility	Λ^*

PFRs and PSRs are used in chemical kinetics research by analyzing the products of oxidation and pyrolysis. As the chemically reacting flow involve transport phenomena in addition to kinetics and thermodynamics, rigorous reactor models are by necessity multidimensional, therefore the non-idealities in temperature, pressure, special concentration,

and heat release are existing in experiments of PFRs and PSRs. The uncertainties caused by the facilities and the non-ideal phenomena in the measurements performed in PSRs and PFRs are analyzed based on the studies of PFR [49, 51, 66-76] and PSR [43-45, 77-87]. The uncertainties resulting from reactant gases, temperature and pressure control systems, and measurement facilities are listed in Table 3.

4. Uncertainty minimization

In this project, three ways have been explored for the uncertainty minimization of chemical kinetic models. In Paper-I, the discrepancy measure between the experimental data and the modeling data was defined as the optimization target, and the traditional method based on human experience and intuition was applied to reduce the discrepancy measure. To reduce the human intervention in the optimization of chemical kinetic models, the probability density functions (PDFs) based on the Monte Carlo (MC) simulation were applied to reduce the discrepancy measure in Paper-II, however, only 4 reactions with the highest sensitivities are recognized for uncertainty reduction. In Paper-III, an uncertainty reduction method based on the particle swarm optimization (PSO) algorithm was developed. In this chapter, the discrepancy measure will be defined, and the methodologies of response surface, uncertainty reduction based on PDFs, and PSO algorithm will be described. A brief overview of the results of uncertainty minimization will be presented.

4.1 Discrepancy measure

To evaluate the predictive ability of the model, the model discrepancy measure, Ψ , is defined as:

$$\Psi = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \frac{1}{N_i} \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} \Psi_{ij}^{\text{mod}} \quad (26)$$

in which M is the number of the experimental data sets and N_i is the point number of the i^{th} data set. The Ψ_{ij}^{mod} for the j^{th} target in the i^{th} data set is defined as follows:

$$\Psi_{ij}^{\text{mod}} = \left(\frac{y_{ij}^{\text{mod}} - y_{ij}^{\text{exp}}}{u(y_{ij}^{\text{exp}})} \right)^2 \quad (27)$$

where y_{ij}^{exp} is the experimentally measured data and y_{ij}^{mod} is the modeling result. The experimental uncertainty, $u(y_{ij}^{\text{exp}})$, is adopted from references or evaluated based on the uncertainty analysis of experiments, which is described in Chapter 3.1.

4.2 Response surface methodology

The response surface methodology allows evaluation of the effects of multiple factors and their interactions on one or more response variables [88, 89]. It is widely used to learn system input-output response behavior. To determine the mapping of the multidimensional system of the model input-output responses, Monte Carlo simulations were conducted for the development of the response surface [27, 90]. The second-order polynomial regression was applied to express the predicted properties as a function of the model parameters. However, the magnitudes of the Arrhenius expression parameters show a huge difference, which may reduce the accuracy of the predictions, so that the Arrhenius expression parameters are normalized to space [0,1] as follow:

$$x_i = \frac{f_{l,i} + \log_{10}(A_i) - \log_{10}(A_{0,i})}{f_{l,i} + f_{u,i}}, \quad \log_{10}(A_i) \in [\log_{10}(A_{0,i}) - f_{l,i}, \log_{10}(A_{0,i}) + f_{u,i}] \quad (28)$$

in which $\varepsilon_{0,i}$ is the fitted average value and $s(\varepsilon_i)$ is the standard deviation for the i^{th} parameter, which can be calculated following Chapter 3.1. In this way, the Arrhenius expression parameters, $\varepsilon(\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, \dots, \varepsilon_n)$, sampled within the determined uncertainty intervals can be mapped to the normalized RRC parameters $X(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$. In contrast, the Arrhenius expression parameters can be determined by x_i as follow:

$$\log_{10}(A_i) = \log_{10}(A_{0,i}) - f_{l,i} + x_i(f_{l,i} + f_{u,i}), \quad x_i \in [0, 1] \quad (29)$$

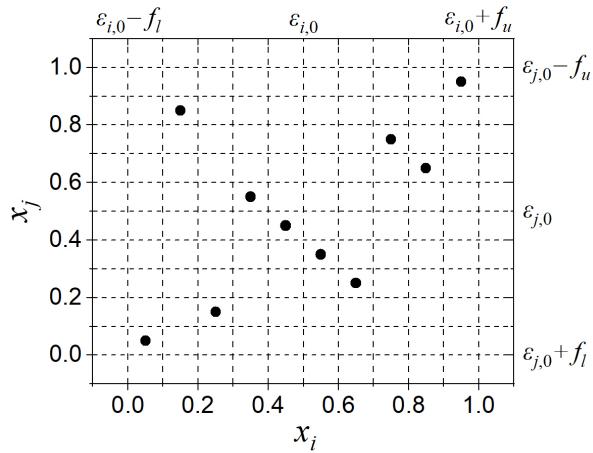


Fig. 9. Random numbers sampled with the Latin hypercube method and the determined Arrhenius expression parameters.

To cover as many parameter combinations as possible and reduce the amount of computation required for the polynomial regression, the normalized RRC parameters X were sampled within space [0,1] using the Latin Hypercube sampling method [48], and for each sample, a model with randomly determined Arrhenius expression parameters can be developed,

as shown in Fig. 9. With these developed chemical kinetic models, Monte Carlo simulation is conducted in Chemkin Pro [29] to obtain the direct simulation results, $y^{\text{mod}}(\mathbf{X})$, based on which the second-order polynomial regression was carried out to express the response function, $y^{\text{pre}}(\mathbf{X})$, throughout the total of N number of model parameters:

$$y^{\text{mod}}(\mathbf{X}) \approx y^{\text{pre}}(\mathbf{X}) = y_0 + \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i x_i + \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N \beta_{ij} x_i x_j \quad (30)$$

in which the first- and second-order polynomial coefficients (α and β) were determined using the least square method realized in an in-house python numerical code [91]. By replacing y^{mod} in Eq. (27) with y^{pre} , the Ψ_{ij}^{mod} for the j^{th} target in the i^{th} data set can be estimated by

$$\Psi_{ij}^{\text{mod}} = \left(\frac{y_{ij}^{\text{mod}} - y_{ij}^{\text{exp}}}{u(y_{ij}^{\text{exp}})} \right)^2 \approx \left(\frac{y_{ij}^{\text{pre}} - y_{ij}^{\text{exp}}}{u(y_{ij}^{\text{exp}})} \right)^2 \quad (31)$$

Substituting Eq. (29) and Eq. (30) into Eq. (31), the predictive ability of a model depended on \mathbf{X} can be evaluated by $\Psi(\mathbf{X})$.

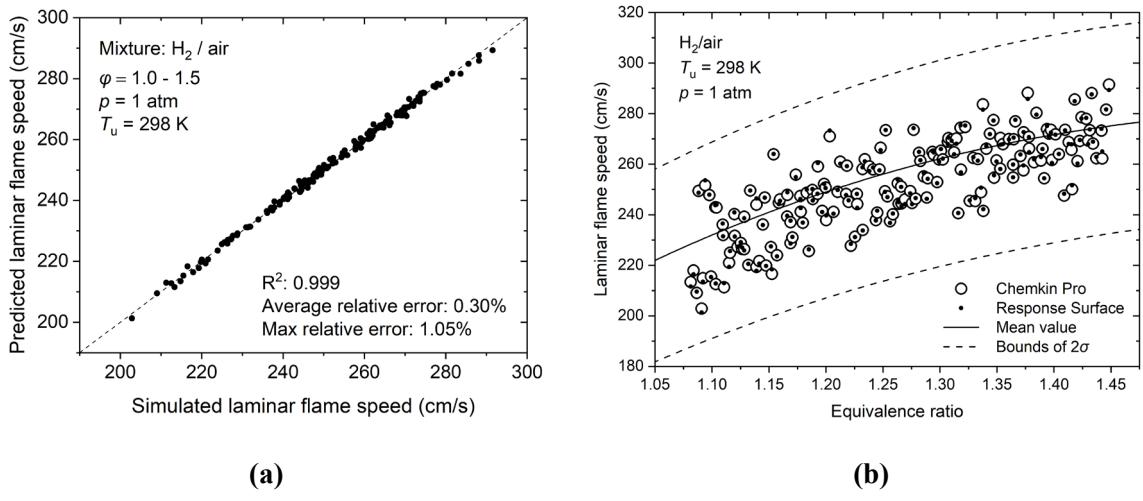


Fig. 10. Results predicted by the response surface versus directly simulated with Chemkin Pro [29] for the laminar flame speeds of H₂/air mixtures.

To evaluate the predictive ability of the response surface, the coefficient of determination [92], R^2 , was used. If \bar{y}^{pre} is the mean value of n number of predicted targets:

$$\bar{y}^{\text{pre}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^{\text{pre}} \quad (32)$$

The residual sum of squares is

$$SS_{\text{res}} = \sum_i^n (y_i^{\text{pre}} - y_i^{\text{mod}})^2 = \sum_i^n e_i^2 \quad (33)$$

in which e_i is the residual. The total sum of squares is

$$SS_{\text{tot}} = \sum_i^n (y_i^{\text{pre}} - \bar{y}^{\text{pre}})^2 \quad (34)$$

Then the coefficient of determination is defined as

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{SS_{\text{res}}}{SS_{\text{tot}}} \quad (35)$$

which is the proportion of the variation in the predicted values that is predictable from the modeling results.

Fig. 10 demonstrates the comparison of results predicted by the constructed response surface (y-axis) and the results directly simulated with Chemkin Pro [29] (x-axis). The relative error defined as:

$$\left| \frac{y_i^{\text{pre}} - y_i^{\text{exp}}}{y_i^{\text{exp}}} \right| \times 100\% \quad (36)$$

is also presented. In Paper-II and Paper-III, R^2 higher than 0.98 was obtained for the polynomial regression of IDTs measured by shock tubes and 0.99 for the other experimental data. The developed response surface can well predict the input-output properties of the chemical simulation.

4.3 RRC uncertainty reduction based on the PDF

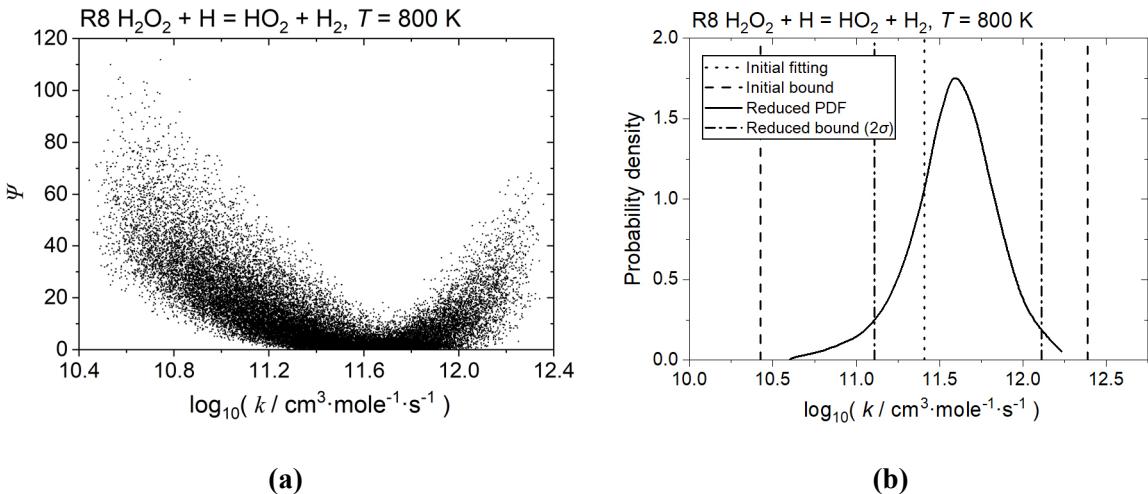


Fig. 11. (a) The distribution of Ψ obtained from Monte Carlo simulation; (b) PDF of the RRC calculated based on Ψ .

Monte Carlo simulation is conducted to determine the probability density functions (PDFs) of the studied RRCs. In Paper-II, the Arrhenius expression parameters of the studied reactions were sampled within the uncertainty intervals. With the developed response function, the distribution of Ψ can be obtained, as shown in Fig. 11a. For the RRC of reaction (R8) H₂O₂ + H = HO₂ + H₂, the lowest discrepancies are concentrated around $\log_{10}(k_{R8}) = 11.7$. The initially

defined uniform uncertainty distributions of the studied RRCs are replaced by the PDFs calculated as follows:

$$P(a \leq k \leq b) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^m W_j}{\sum_{i=1}^n W_i} \quad (a \leq k_j \leq b) \quad (37)$$

where $P(a \leq k \leq b)$ is the probability that the RRC, k , is located between a and b ; n is the total number of the samples and m is the number of parameters sets in which $a \leq k_j \leq b$. The weight, W , is defined as the reciprocal of the discrepancy measure:

$$W = \frac{1}{\psi} \quad (38)$$

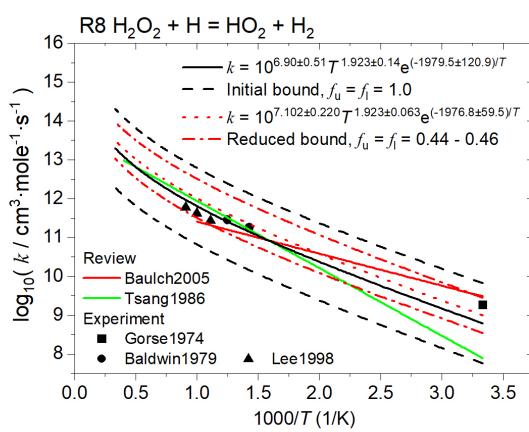


Fig. 12. Comparison of the initial and reduced uncertainty bounds for the RRC of reaction (R8) $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{H} = \text{HO}_2 + \text{H}_2$.

important reactions were recognized and the uncertainty intervals of these RRCs were reduced using the method described above.

As shown by the calculated PDF presented in Fig. 11b, the highest probability of the RRC locates around the value where ψ is lower. The 2 times standard deviation (2σ) bounds, which cover $>95\%$ of the probability, are determined as the reduced uncertainty bounds. The initially determined and reduced uncertainty intervals for the RRC of reaction (R8) are presented in Fig. 12. The uncertainty factor was reduced from 1.0 to 0.44-0.46. In Paper-II, 4 most

4.4 RRC uncertainty reduction based on PSO

Particle swarm optimization (PSO) is an evolutionary computation technique developed by Kennedy and Eberhart [93]. The PSO algorithm was developed through simplified social model simulation such as bird flocking and fishing schooling [94]. The PSO algorithm has been proved to be a good tool for multidimensional and nonlinear search [95-97].

In Paper-III, In the PSO algorithm, particles with position X present the surrogates of the chemical kinetic model, $M(X)$ based on X , Eq. (28); the discrepancy measure $\Psi(X)$, Eq. (26) is defined as the fitness function. The set of particles is initialized as $p = \{p_i, i \in [1:N_p]\}$, where N_p is the size of the population (all possible surrogates). The particles can move in a 20-

dimensional (number of RRC parameters under consideration) search space. The current position of the particle p_i in the different iterations ($t = 0, 1, 2 \dots t_{\max}$) is defined with a vector of its coordinates $\mathbf{X}_{pi,t} (x_{pi,1}^t, x_{pi,2}^t, \dots, x_{pi,D}^t)$ and a vector of its velocity $\mathbf{V}_{pi,t} (v_{pi,1}^t, v_{pi,2}^t, \dots, v_{pi,D}^t)$. The position of each particle will be tracked, which is associated with the lowest $\Psi(\mathbf{X})$ achieved up till for the particle with the personal best, \mathbf{X}^{per} . The global best, \mathbf{X}^{glo} , keeps track of the lowest $\Psi(\mathbf{X})$ obtained so far by all particles within the population. In canonical PSO on the t^{th} iteration, the particle p_i updates its velocity and position of the j^{th} -dimension in the $(t+1)^{\text{th}}$ iteration by tracking the personal best position (\mathbf{X}^{per}) and global best position (\mathbf{X}^{glo}) as follows [93]:

$$v_{pi,j}^{t+1} = w v_{pi,j}^t + c_1 r_{pi,1} (x_{pi,j}^{\text{per}} - x_{pi,j}^t) + c_2 r_{pi,2} (x_j^{\text{glo}} - x_{pi,j}^t) \quad (39)$$

$$x_{pi,j}^{t+1} = x_{pi,j}^t + v_{pi,j}^{t+1} \quad (40)$$

where $x_{pi,j}^{\text{per}}$ and x_j^{glo} are the j^{th} components of the personal best location and the global best location respectively; w is the inertia weight determining the "inertial" properties of particles. It reflects the impact of the particle's current velocity on the next iteration. $r_{pi,1}$ and $r_{pi,2}$ are the random numbers that are uniformly distributed between $[0, 1]$ on each iteration. c_1 and c_2 are the acceleration coefficients: c_1 controls the tendency of the particle towards its personal best location, and c_2 adjusts the trend of the particle approaching the global best location. With Eq. (39) and Eq. (40), the particles can update their velocities in each iteration and converge towards the optimal position, as shown in Fig. 13a. To describe the neighbor relationship and interaction between particles, a global topology, Fig. 13b, is used [98, 99].

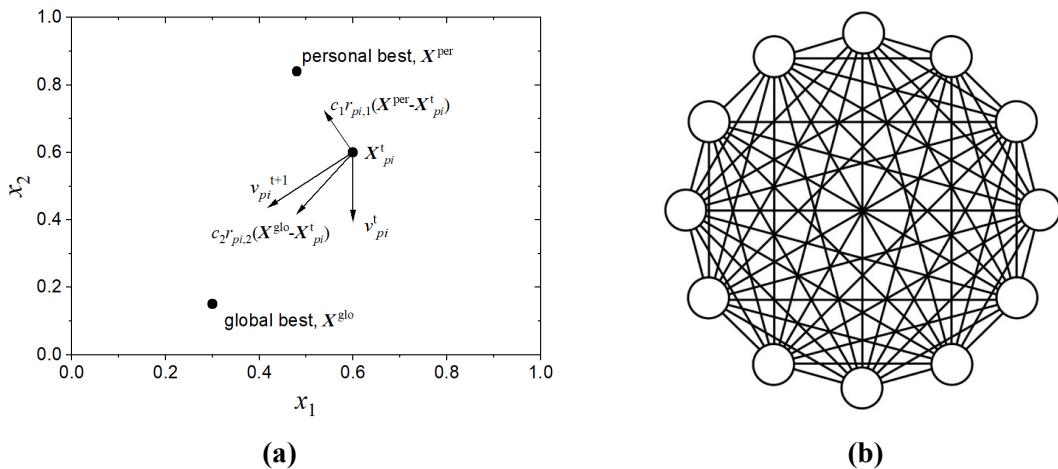


Fig. 13. (a) Update of the particle velocity in the $(t+1)^{\text{th}}$ iteration; (b) global topology of the PSO, circles are particles, in our case surrogates $M(\mathbf{X})$.

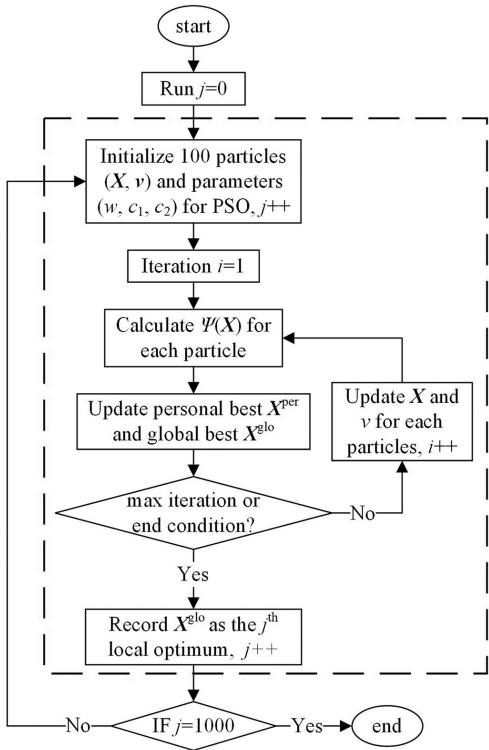


Fig. 14. Flow chart of the particle swarm optimization algorithm.

positions of the parameters were initialized randomly within the search space and concentrated towards the location of the optimal solution as the iteration processes. The algorithm stops searching as the Ψ stabilizes after the 15th iteration, as shown by the history of the predicted Ψ in Fig. 15b. The RRCs of the optimized model are determined by substituting the position (X^{glo}) of the particle with the lowest Ψ into Eq. (29).

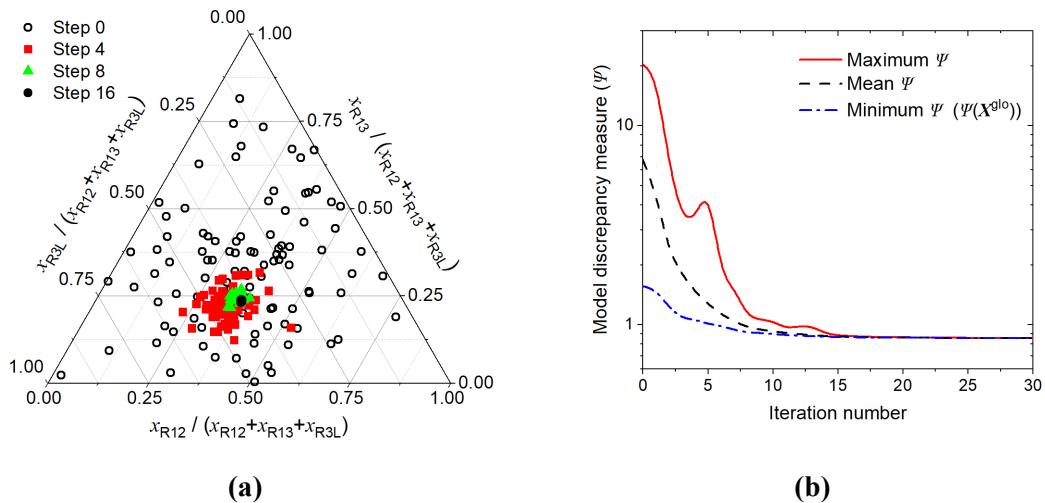


Fig. 15. (a) The distributions of the particle swarm at different iteration steps; (b) The history of model discrepancy measure (Ψ).

As shown by the flow chart of the PSO in Fig. 14 (in the dashed rectangle), in each iteration step, the position and velocity of each particle will be changed by moving towards the personal best and global best. As the computation progresses, particles aggregate or converge around the global best by exploring and exploiting known personal bests in the search space. With the finally obtained global best, X^{glo} , the Arrhenius expression parameters of the optimized model can be determined by Eq. (29).

The PSO algorithm was applied to search an Arrhenius parameter set with the best predictive ability for the experimental targets in Paper-III. As shown by the 100 particles in the ternary graph of Fig. 15a, the

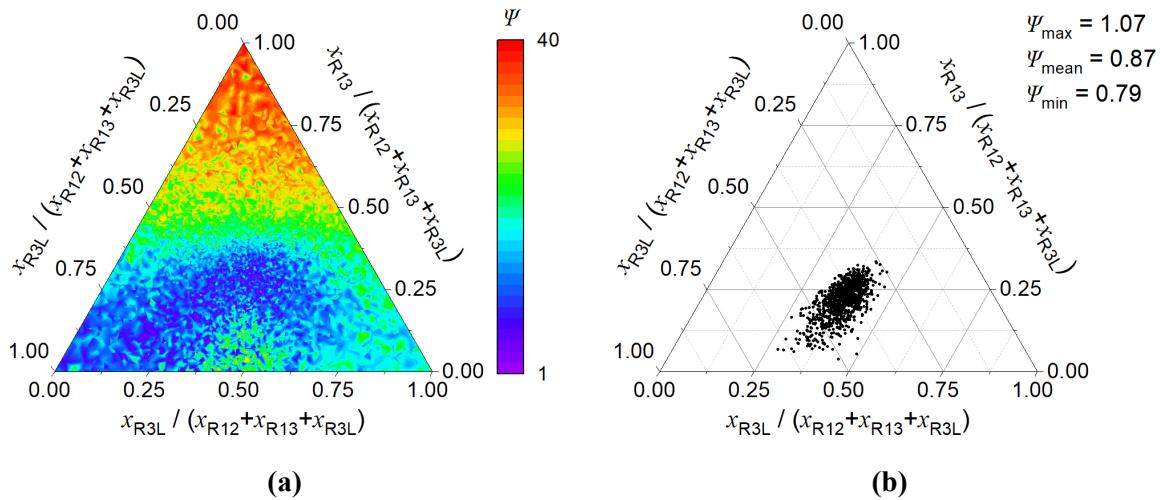


Fig. 16. (a) Distribution of the discrepancy measure (Ψ) in the space of RRCs of reaction (R3L), (R12), and (R13); (b) distribution of the recorded 1000 local optimums.

The inherent randomness of PSO is realized with the initialization of input parameters for PSO which are randomly defined on each new run: random searching parameters $r_{pi,1}$ and $r_{pi,2}$, the acceleration coefficients c_1 and c_2 , and randomly defined Arrhenius preexponents. Fig. 16a demonstrates the space of solutions, Ψ , for randomly modified rate coefficients of three reactions. The preferable parameters of the RRCs are located within the dark zone where the discrepancy measure has minimal values. Due to the randomness in the initialization of the particles in each repetition of the PSO run, and the particle velocity update in each PSO iteration (the j^{th} iteration in Fig. 14), the statistic representative array of the local optimums can be calculated, which are further used for the definition of the confidence region for the model parameters. It is performed through the main step of the framework shown in Fig. 14:

- (1) Initialized the parameters and particles for the j^{th} run of PSO;
- (2) Calculate $\Psi(\mathbf{X})$ for each particle and update the personal best \mathbf{X}^{per} and global best \mathbf{X}^{glo} for the i^{th} iteration of PSO;
- (3) Update the position (\mathbf{X}) and velocity (\mathbf{v}) for each particle and return to step (2) until i reaches the max iteration number or the $\Psi(\mathbf{X}^{\text{glo}})$ stabilizes after 10 iterations;
- (4) Record the \mathbf{X}^{glo} as the j^{th} local optimum and go to step (1) until $j = 1000$.

The PSO algorithm is repeated to select 1000 local optimums, which are scattered in an area where a lower Ψ has a high probability to be obtained, Fig. 16b. The standard deviations are calculated for each parameter based on the 1000 local optimums and the 2σ bounds are determined as the reduced uncertainty bounds for the studied parameters.

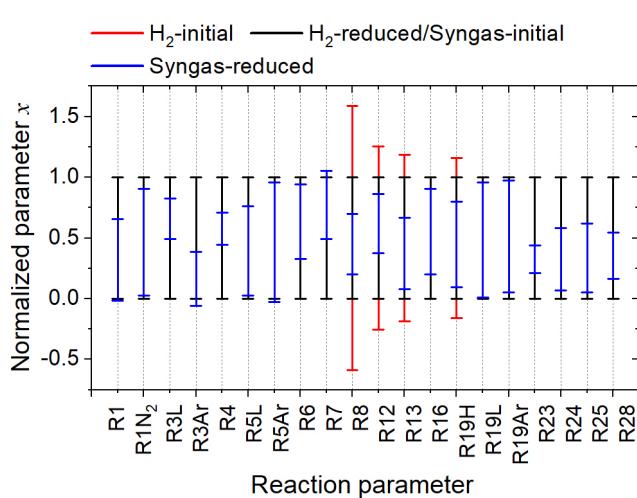


Fig. 17. The reduced uncertainties of the normalized RRC parameters X .

reduction based on the PDF, the application of PSO algorithm reduced the reliance on human experience and intuition and increased the automation and self-monitoring of the chemical kinetic model optimization works.

4.5 Reduction of the modeling uncertainty

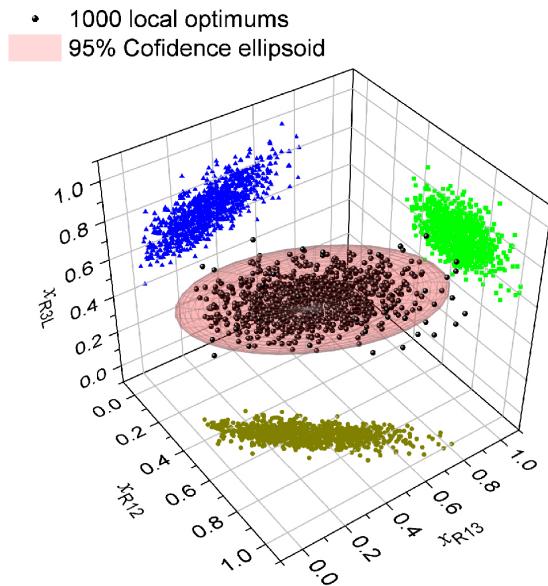


Fig. 18. The 95% confidence ellipsoid of the 1000 local optima for x_{R3L} , x_{R12} , and x_{R13} .

local optima in coordinates of the three reactions. The projections of the particles on the

The reduced uncertainties of H₂ reactions obtained in Paper-II were used as the initial uncertainty bounds in Paper-III, as shown by the red uncertainty bars in Fig. 17, which were normalized to $X \in [0, 1]$. With the help of PSO algorithm, the possible reductions of the studied uncertainties were recognized automatically. All the modified RRCs were re-evaluated, as shown by the blue uncertainty bars in Fig. 17. Compared to the uncertainty

The high-level correlation between RRCs and experimental parameters is organically accounted for in the PSO through the calculation of the particles' positions and velocities in the searching space, which is especially effective for optimization of the multichannel reactions. Let us take again reactions (R3L), (R12), and (R13):

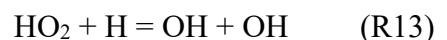
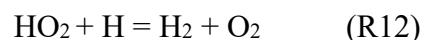


Fig. 18 presents the 95% confidence ellipsoids obtained for the calculated 1000

RRC axes are pointed with colored symbols. The projected symbols of the pair reactions (R12)-(R13) show an obvious correlation compared with that of pairs (R3L)-(R12) and (R3L)-(R13). The Pearson correlation coefficients (r) [100] are calculated for the RRCs based on the 1000 local optima. x_{R12} and x_{R13} demonstrate a significant positive correlation, $r = 0.91$ (Fig. 19a), and define the branching ratio for these two branches of $\text{HO}_2 + \text{H} \rightarrow \text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2$. The reaction (R3L) is weakly correlated with (R12), $r = 0.25$, points fill the full confidence region so that the RRC uncertainty bounds are approximately not affected with correlation, Fig. 19b.

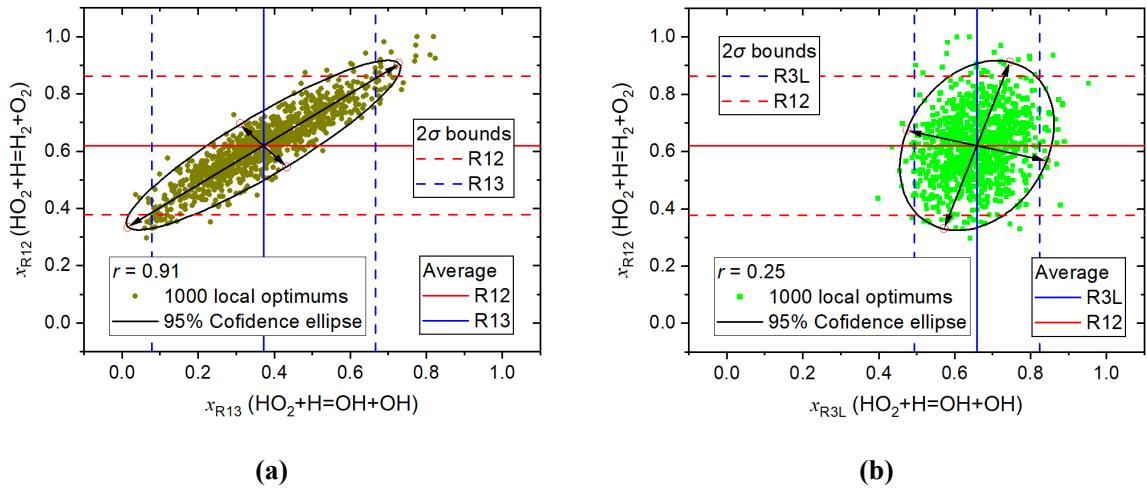


Fig. 19. Distribution of the 1000 local optima: (a) reactions (R13)-(R12), $r = 0.91$; (b) reactions (R3L)-(R12), $r = 0.25$.

In Paper-III, the high correlation coefficient reaction pairs ($|r| > 0.5$) are recognized. For these high- $|r|$ pairs, the confidence ellipses for the 1000 local optima are calculated:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_i - \bar{x}_i \\ x_j - \bar{x}_j \end{bmatrix}^T \mathbf{cov}(x_i, x_j)^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} x_i - \bar{x}_i \\ x_j - \bar{x}_j \end{bmatrix} < S \quad (41)$$

where S defines the scale of the ellipse (95% confidence corresponds to $S = 5.991$) and $\mathbf{cov}(x_i, x_j)^{-1}$ is the inverse of the covariance matrix of x_i and x_j based on the 1000 local optima:

$$\mathbf{cov}(x_i, x_j)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{cov}(x_i, x_i) & \mathbf{cov}(x_i, x_j) \\ \mathbf{cov}(x_j, x_i) & \mathbf{cov}(x_j, x_j) \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \quad (42)$$

The intersection of the 2σ bounds and the 95% confidence ellipse determines the final feasible parameter set. The sampling of x_i and x_j follows the rule of:

$$\begin{cases} \bar{x}_i - 2\sigma_i < x_i < \bar{x}_i + 2\sigma_i \\ \bar{x}_j - 2\sigma_j < x_j < \bar{x}_j + 2\sigma_j \\ \begin{bmatrix} x_i - \bar{x}_i \\ x_j - \bar{x}_j \end{bmatrix}^T \mathbf{cov}(x_i, x_j)^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} x_i - \bar{x}_i \\ x_j - \bar{x}_j \end{bmatrix} < 5.991 \end{cases} \quad (43)$$

where σ_i and σ_j are the standard deviations based on the respective statistical analysis on parameter x_i and x_j , and the third line defines the 95% confidence ellipse shown in Fig. 19a.

By reducing the uncertainty intervals of RRCs, feasible parameter ranges are obtained. With the model parameters located within the feasible ranges, there are high probabilities to develop a model with good prediction ability. The modeling uncertainty defined in Section 3.3 is used to evaluate the prediction ability of the as-compiled model with the reduced uncertainty intervals.

In the work of Paper-II for the H₂ oxidation model, the RRCs of 10 reactions were modified and the RRC uncertainty intervals of 4 reactions were reduced due to their high initial uncertainties and key roles in the simulation of the available experimental data. The modeling uncertainties with the RRCs located within the reduced RRC uncertainty intervals are calculated and compared with the initial estimated values. As presented in Fig. 20a, compared with the initial modeling uncertainties of the concentration profiles in the PFR [50], the uncertainties based on the feasible parameter ranges are reduced by about 50%. As shown by the simulated IDTs in the RCMs [35, 36], the results of Monte Carlo simulation with RRCs sampled within the reduced uncertainty intervals show a clear tendency to converge to the experimental data.

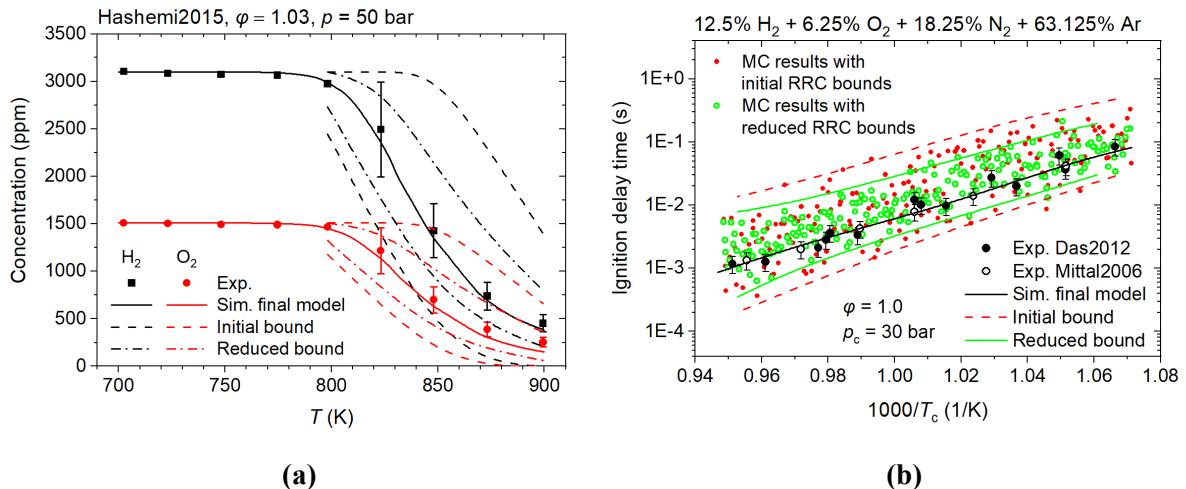


Fig. 20. Initial and reduced modeling uncertainties of (a) concentration profiles measured in the PFR [50]; (b) ignition delay times measured in the RCMs [35, 36].

In the work of Paper-III for the H₂ and syngas oxidation model, the reduced RRC uncertainties of the H₂ reactions were inherited from Paper-II as the initial uncertainties, which guaranteed the model a good prediction ability for the H₂ oxidation data. With the more comprehensive study for syngas oxidation and the re-optimization of the H₂ sub-mechanism, the modeling uncertainties were further reduced. The RRCs were sampled within the initial and reduced uncertainty intervals respectively for the Monte Carlo simulation, and the comparison

of the modeling results is presented in Fig. 21. The uncertainty reduction improves the model accuracy and reduces its uncertainties for predicting the IDTs.

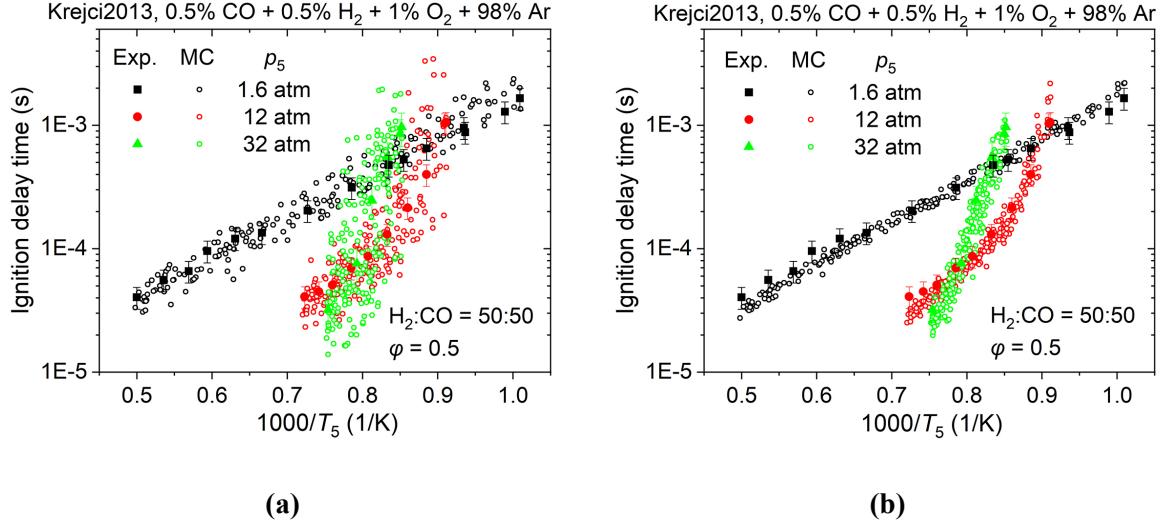


Fig. 21. IDTs measured by Krejci et al. [101] and simulated with the Monte Carlo method: (a) with the initial uncertainty bounds; (b) with the reduced uncertainty bounds (small symbols).

5. Concluding remarks

5.1 Summary

The aims and achievements of this thesis were:

- (1) To develop the database and method for the uncertainty quantification and data consistency analysis of the reaction rate constants (RRCs), experimental data for validation, and modeling results of hydrogen and small hydrocarbon oxidation. Thousands of references have been reviewed to collect the recommended RRCs and their validated temperature and pressure ranges. Uncertainty analysis has been conducted for the H₂, C₁ and C₂ reactions and uncertainty intervals have been determined for the Arrhenius expression parameters. Detailed results for the RRC uncertainties are presented in Supplementary-2 in Paper-I, Supplementary-1 in Paper-II, and Supplementary-1 in Paper-III. Uncertainty quantification methods have been developed and applied to the measured ignition delay times, laminar flame speeds, and concentration profiles. Hundreds of data sets from the experiments of shock tubes, rapid compression machines, premixed laminar flames, and flow reactors have been collected and validated.
- (2) To combine the methodologies of response surface [27], Bound-to-Bound Data Collaboration [23, 102], and artificial intelligence algorithm for the uncertainty quantification and minimization of chemical kinetic models. A digital system that enables uncertainty analysis of RRCs, uncertainty quantification of combustion experimental data, Monte Carlo simulation, development of response surface, probability analysis, and particle swarm optimization has been successfully developed for the optimization of chemical kinetic models.
- (3) To figure out the feasible parameter sets for RRCs of hydrogen and small hydrocarbons oxidation, and develop detailed chemical kinetic models for hydrogen and small hydrocarbons with good prediction ability for the currently available experimental data. The uncertainty intervals of RRCs were reduced for the H₂ and syngas oxidation model in Paper-II and paper-III. Feasible parameter sets were determined and the modeling uncertainties were reduced for the available experimental data. Three chemical kinetic models have been developed and optimized for the oxidation of H₂, syngas, and C₂H₄. The

obtained models show good prediction abilities for the ignition delay times, laminar flame speed, and concentration profiles. The detailed comparisons of the experimental data and the simulated data are presented in Supplementary-3 and 4 in Paper-I, Supplementary-3 in Paper-II, and Supplementary-2 in Paper-III.

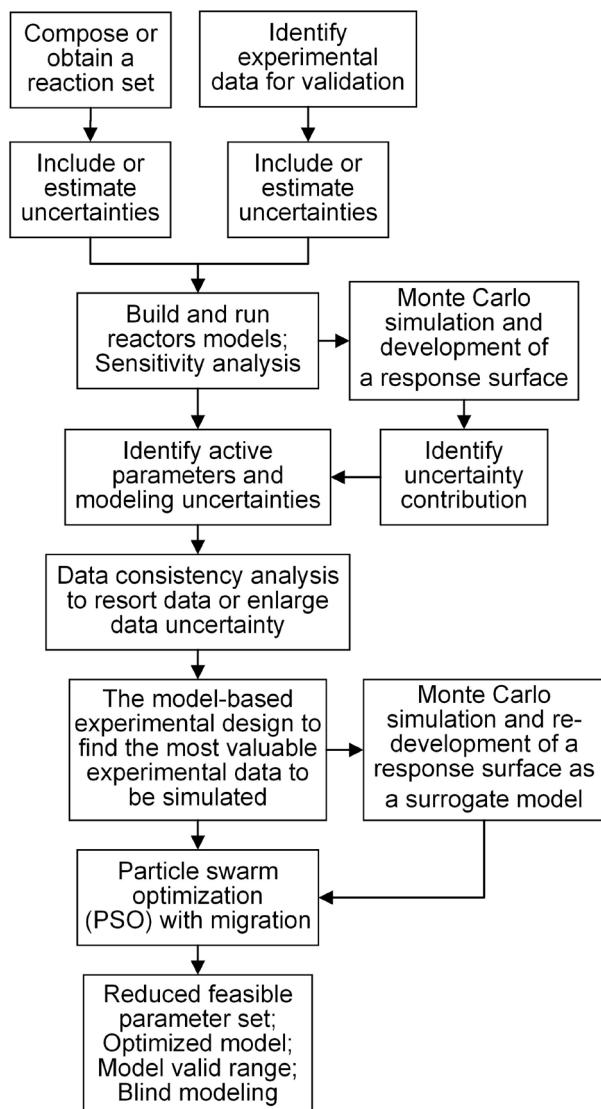


Fig. 22. Framework of the uncertainty quantification and minimization in this thesis.

optimization targets. The particle swarm optimization algorithm is applied to search the minimum discrepancy measure and the feasible parameter sets are determined. The modeling uncertainties of the model based on the parameters sampled within the feasible sets show a significant reduction, and the model with the lowest discrepancy measure is selected as the final optimized model.

The process diagram of this thesis is presented in Fig. 22. The work starts with a literature review for the collection of the existing theoretical and experimental data. The validated temperature and pressure ranges and the uncertainties are carefully included or estimated. Based on the initial data sets, reaction models are established and the Monte Carlo simulation is conducted for the development of the response surface. With the help of the response surface, uncertainty contributions are calculated for the studied reactions of the as-compiled model. The active parameters are identified for uncertainty reduction and model optimization. Data consistency analysis is carried out to ensure the reliability of the optimization targets, and the unreliable data are excluded from the optimization or given higher uncertainties. The response surface is developed to reveal the input-output property between the active model parameters and the modeling results for the

5.2 Outlook

By applying the methodology in this thesis, a digital system has been developed for the uncertainty quantification and minimization of chemical kinetic models. Based on the optimized sub-models and feasible parameter sets for H₂ and syngas oxidation, the studies on the oxidation of C₁, C₂, and C₃ hydrocarbons will be conducted, after which the model of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon and soot formation will be optimized.

The application of uncertainty analysis and particle swarm optimization helped to diminish the weight of human experience and intuition in the research of chemical kinetic models. More artificial intelligence tools such as genetic algorithms and neural networks are expected to improve optimization efficiency and prediction accuracy.

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Summary of paper

Paper-I: A comprehensive kinetic modeling study of ethylene combustion with data uncertainty analysis

A revision and upgrade of the ethylene (C_2H_4) oxidation kinetic sub-mechanism were carried out as the next step in the optimization of the $C_{<3}$ chemistry, which is a base for the upcoming PAH sub-model improvement. The main emphasis of the work was focused on the assessment of uncertainties of the thermo-kinetical and experimental data used to achieve reasonable model parameter corrections. The principal targets of mechanism extension and update are: inspection of the reaction rate coefficients with accounting for recently published pressure-dependent reactions and analysis of reaction paths related to the C_2H_4 low-temperature oxidation and the formation of aromatic precursors. The experimental data (auto-ignition, premixed laminar flame speeds, and concentration profiles) with evaluated uncertainty and consistency were used for model optimization. The uncertainty bounds of the key reaction rate coefficients were evaluated from the statistical treatment of the published data, which provided constraints on the reaction rate parameters. The rate parameters of 57 reactions of C_2H_4 and key intermediates were optimized. The revised reaction mechanism demonstrates a good agreement with the majority of the existing experimental data. Results of the sensitivity and rate of production analyses were performed for several kinetic mechanisms from the literature and compared to visualize the variations and ambiguity in the importance of reaction paths and highlight the problems in mechanism optimization and integration.

Paper-II: A comprehensive kinetic modeling study of hydrogen combustion with uncertainty quantification

A 19-reactions H_2 oxidation chemical kinetic model has been optimized with uncertainty quantification. The uncertainties of the reaction rate constant (RRC) parameters have been first estimated based on the recommended direct measurements and review works. This deterministic approach was further combined with the probabilistic treatment of RRC to decrease the uncertainty intervals and to extend the temperature validity range for RRCs with the highest uncertainty level, for which two quantities, discrepancy measures and uncertainty contributions, were introduced in the developed framework. Monte Carlo simulations with randomly sampled RRCs and polynomial regression were performed to develop the response

surface with high coefficients of determination to be utilized in the model optimization procedure. 10 key channels were selected for further optimization, and the probability density functions were calculated based on discrepancy measures for 4 channels to reduce their large uncertainty intervals. The training set was collected from carefully validated measured data following experiments of shock tubes, rapid compression machines, jet stirred reactors, plug flow reactors, and premixed laminar flames. Inconsistent experimental targets were fixed and excluded from considerations. The optimized chemical kinetic model demonstrates good predicting ability for the H₂ combustion experimental data from both the training set and the conditions outside the tested range (blind modeling).

Paper-III: A joint hydrogen and syngas chemical kinetic model optimized with particle swarm optimization.

A joint H₂ and syngas oxidation chemical kinetic model has been successfully developed and optimized by applying the heuristic algorithm, namely canonic particle swarm optimization (PSO). In comparison with deterministic and probabilistic optimization algorithms, the method of PSO is more effective and robust in coping with uncertainties and incomplete information. The review work and uncertainty analysis have been conducted for the reaction rate constants and 15 key reactions were recognized for optimization. Kinetic experimental data selected for model fitness were measured in shock tubes, jet stirred reactors, plug flow reactors, flow reactors, and premixed laminar flames, and cover wide ranges of temperature, pressure, equivalence ratio, and H₂/CO ratios. The final dataset has been produced with data uncertainty quantification and data consistency analysis. The set of optimums was obtained with the developed PSO framework by repeating optimization steps. The optimum with the lowest discrepancy measure was selected as the global and the corresponding surrogate model was recognized as the final optimized model. The initially evaluated uncertainties of the studied reaction rate constants were significantly constrained. The reaction rate constants for the H₂ oxidation sub-model were re-optimized and their uncertainties were further reduced.

Paper I

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Full Length Article

A comprehensive kinetic modeling study of ethylene combustion with data uncertainty analysis



Hongxin Wang^a, Nadezda Slavinskaya^{b,c,*}, Aziza Kanz^d, Moldir Auyelkhankyzzy^{c,e}, Yiting Gao^a, Oskar Haidn^a

^a Department of Aerospace and Geodesy, Technical University of Munich, 85748 Garching, Germany

^b GRS Association for Plant and Reactor Safety, 85748 Garching, Germany

^c Al-Farabi Kazakh National University, 050040 Almaty, Kazakhstan

^d DLR German Aerospace Center, Institute of Combustion Technology, 70569 Stuttgart, Germany

^e Institute of Combustion Problems, 050012 Almaty, Kazakhstan

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ABSTRACT

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A revision and upgrade of the ethylene (C_2H_4) oxidation kinetic sub-mechanism were carried as a next step in the optimization of the $C_{<3}$ chemistry, which is a base for the upcoming PAH sub-model improvement. The main emphasis of the work was focused on the assessment of uncertainties of the thermo-kinetical and experimental data to involve that principally in the methodology of reaction model uncertainty. The principal targets of mechanism extension and update are: inspection of the reaction rate coefficients with accounting recently published pressure-dependent reactions and analysis of reaction paths related to the C_2H_4 low-temperature oxidation and the formation of aromatic precursors. The experimental data (auto-ignition, premixed laminar flame speeds, and concentration profiles) with evaluated uncertainty and consistency were used for model optimization. The uncertainty bounds of the key reaction rate coefficients were evaluated from the statistical treatment of the published data, which provided constraints in the reaction rate parameters. The rate parameters of 57 reactions of C_2H_4 and key intermediates were optimized. The revised reaction mechanism demonstrates a good agreement with the majority of the existing experimental data. Results of the sensitivity and rate of production analyses performed for several kinetic mechanisms from the literature were compared to visualize the variations and ambiguity in the importance of reaction paths and highlight the uncertainty problems in mechanism optimization and integration.

1. Introduction

Ethylene (C_2H_4) is an important fuel and a key intermediate in the combustion of hydrocarbons. Its oxidation and pyrolysis reactions are also important for the formation of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH) and soot precursors. The C_2H_4 chemistry has been explored in sufficient breadth and depth over the past decades [1–10] to assume that the completeness of current chemistry is achieved and most important qualitative improvements of models could be done by further optimizations of poorly understood reaction rate coefficients (RRC).

Despite great efforts and constantly emerging new data, most elementary reaction rate parameters are not known with sufficient accuracy [11–14]. Uncertainties of the available data remain unknown in most cases. The reaction mechanism updating becomes a permanent

process, which initiates the question: what is the final version and how it can be defined? The easiest answer is making sure that all the conceivable reactions are included and all RRCs in the model are obtained from the “first principals” with acceptable accuracy. However, it is not yet possible now. We do not have a hallmark to be sure a model includes all conceivable reactions. The RRCs from “first principals” are restricted, in the case of experiments, by ranges of measurement conditions and parameter fitting, and in the case of quanta-chemical calculations, by applied theoretical evaluations and numerical methods.

Most of the RRCs, especially for $C_{\geq 2}$ fuels, are derived from semi-empirical methods and model calibrating against combustion data performed by different workgroups. Some of these RRCs are successfully used in different reaction mechanisms, which will be regarded as statistical samplings, so these RRCs can be classified as “quasi first

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: Nadezda.Slavinskaya@grs.de (N. Slavinskaya).

principal" empirical data of high quality. Unfortunately, significantly more data obtained in this way were evaluated for conditions of the individual study interest or from fitting the model parameters to better match some experimental data within their respective range of applications. Today the expanding growth of publications with experimental, quanta-chemical data and reaction mechanisms do this process more efficient, but simultaneously more complicate: it involves much more data; it needs an analyses both of data physical sense, and also the data quality. Despite that, the technology development needs simulation tools with evaluated validity range. As the hydrocarbon models have hierarchical structure, the risk of error propagation is high. In our work we present our technology to develop reaction model with well understood model valid range. The development of numerical tools for reaction model fitting can further sharpen this problem: direct matching the experimental data of the different quality levels can lead to unwarranted modifications of the RRCs, which can be further traced in different models published in the literature [15].

In the following analysis of model parameters, we tried to recognize these problems.

The work presented in this study inherits the gradual upgrade of the German Aerospace Center (DLR) reaction database [16]. The updated C₂H₄ mechanism can be applied to the computational fluid dynamics simulation of combustion in engines fueled on C₂H₄ or small hydrocarbons [17–20], and also belongs to the upgrade of the kerosene combustion model with PAH formation [9,10,16,21–23]. Now the C₁-C₃ oxidation chemistry is under optimization without changes in the PAH formation sub-mechanism, which will be updated after the final inspection of the C₁-C₃ oxidation chemistry. The reaction paths for the PAH formation are strongly coupled with both C_{<3} chemistry and the products of the larger hydrocarbons, part of which are the PAH precursors. The including PAH reactions in the C₁-C₃ oxidation chemistry allow avoiding the model tailoring and the artificial breaking of the atom flows, and serve as a bridge between small and large molecules oxidation. The well-parameterized detailed chemistry of PAH precursors is expected to reduce the re-optimization efforts in upcoming updates of the C_{≥4} combustion chemistry models. Another reason for following this strategy is the extremely high data scattering for kinetics of polycyclic aromatic molecules. Despite high-level theoretical calculations, the progress here can be achieved through the model calibration against measured concentration profiles, which follow mostly from the small-molecule combustion study. The well-optimized small chemistry can increase the chance to obtain stable and physically reasonable parameters of RRCs for PAH reactions in the future.

The paper is organized as follows: The second section discusses the model update strategy, the statistical method, and the uncertainty intervals for the initial steps of C₂H₄ oxidation. The third section presents the improvements in model optimization. The fourth section reports the validation results, i.e. simulations of experimental data for ignition delay times, laminar flame speeds and concentration profiles, and discussion. The work is supported by the supplement materials 1, 2, 3, 4, and the updated chemical kinetic model.

Additionally, the obtained model was compared with the models for small hydrocarbons published within the last two decades, including mechanisms of Aramco 3.0 [12], USC 2.0 [11], UCSD [13], Lopez et al. [6], Konnov [14], Dias et al. [7], NTUA [2], and GRI 3.0 [24]. The performed comparison of different mechanisms highlights the uncertainty problem in chemical kinetics. An overview of these modeling studies is presented in Supplementary-1.

2. Method

2.1. Mechanism update strategy

Detailed reaction mechanisms of hydrocarbon combustion chemistry have the hierarchical structure and logical passes from H₂ to larger chemical species with offshoots for pollution formation (NO_x, sulfuric

acid, PAH, soot, etc.). It remains unclear [25] whether RRCs derived by optimization of small hydrocarbon mechanisms need to be re-optimized by modeling the oxidation of larger fuel molecules. In the current work, it is assumed that the re-optimization of some empirical RRCs by the optimization and extension in the next hierarchy sub-model is inevitable. Such re-optimization was performed through calibration of all "smaller" sub-models and was adopted only if the facility of sub-models were not disturbed. Parameters of RRCs obtained from the first principal were re-optimized exclusively if the new data of higher quality were published or found. This strategy is kept to reduce re-optimization efforts and to narrow the uncertainty intervals of the "anchoring reactions" which support the structure of the reaction database under development.

In this study, the C₂H₄ sub-mechanism optimization continues the development of the basic small chemistry reaction model [15,22,26,27]. The optimization is based on the first principals considering the most recent investigations and discoveries in the field of kinetic chemistry with estimated uncertainties and the comprehensive model validation against representative high-fidelity experiments for a wide application domain. Considering that the studied model is a part of the reaction mechanism for kerosene combustion with PAH formation, the model is constructed to keep reasonable size, and therefore unimportant channels and channels with high level of uncertainties were ignored.

The model inspection and optimization were based on the following axes: (1) final issue of the reaction mechanism for acetylene combustion [16]; (2) the literature review and analysis of the components and reactions involved in the ethylene oxidation; (3) the uncertainty analysis of RRCs; (4) analysis of uncertainties and consistency of the experimental data used for model validation and optimization; (5) the model calibration and optimization on experimental data for ignition delay times, laminar flame speeds and species concentration profiles.

All the calculations were performed with the Ansys Chemkin Pro [28] software. The models of closed homogeneous reactor, premixed laminar flame speed calculation, and premixed stabilized flame were applied to the modeling of ignition delay times, laminar flame speeds, and concentration profiles in premixed laminar flames respectively. The detailed parameters for shock tubes and premixed laminar flame burner can be found in the Section 4 and in Supplementary-3, Supplementary-4.

2.2. Uncertainty analysis of the reaction rate parameters

To fix the size of the feasible parameter region and to understand the uncertainty intervals for RRCs, we performed the statistical analysis [15,29–31] of the literature data for important reactions. The detailed theory has been presented in our former work [16], therefore only a brief review of the analysis parameters is shown here.

The standard deviations of the Arrhenius expression parameters A, n, and E_a:

$$k(T) = AT^n \exp\left(-\frac{E_a}{T}\right), \text{ (cm}^3, \text{ s, mole, K)} \quad (1)$$

calculated in the applied method of nonlinear regression [15,29–31], determine the margin, Δk(T), of the rate-coefficient error. The uncertainty factor f(T) [32,33] is used to determine the uncertainty level for k(T):

$$f(T) = \log_{10}\left(\frac{k_{\text{up}}(T)}{k_0(T)}\right) = \log_{10}\left(\frac{k_0(T)}{k_{\text{low}}(T)}\right) \quad (2)$$

where k₀ is the nominal RRC and k_{low} and k_{up} are the lower and upper bounds respectively. Errors of the Arrhenius expression parameters [16], s(x_a), describing the confidence level of RRC parameters, were used for calculation of:

$$k_{\text{low}}(T) = (A - s(A))T^{(n-s(n))} \exp\left(-\frac{E_a + s(E_a)}{T}\right) \quad (3)$$

$$k_{\text{up}}(T) = (A + s(A)) T^{(n+s(n))} \exp\left(-\frac{E_a - s(E_a)}{T}\right) \quad (4)$$

and finally, for the evaluation of the uncertainty factors, Eq. (2).

For the investigated uncertainty intervals, experimental measurements and theoretical calculations of RRCs were collected from the NIST Chemical Kinetics Database [34] and recently published references. Baulch et al. [32,35–39] conducted a series of reviews on RRCs, but the recommendations in their early works [35–39] show relatively high uncertainties due to the limitation of available data so that only the newest work [32] was applied in the uncertainty analysis.

The uncertainty ranges evaluated by the review work of Baulch et al. [32] are implemented in the applied statistical tool. As an example of performed statistical analysis, the obtained uncertainty factor for the reaction $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{OH} = \text{C}_2\text{H}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ is shown in Table 1 and Fig. 1. As mentioned above, the RRCs recommended in the early review works of Tsang et al. [39] and Warnatz [38] show high uncertainties so that RRCs from these works are depicted only for comparisons and were not applied in the statistical analysis. Other uncertainty factors and uncertainty bounds for the analyzed channels are presented in Table S2-1 and Fig. S2-1 in Supplementary-2.

3. Model improvements

3.1. Inspection and update of reaction rate constants

The original mechanism [16] based on our previous work [9,10,22,46,47] is referred as model-1, and the obtained newly optimized model for C_2H_4 is referred as model-2. Our initial mechanism for the PAH formation [47] was developed on the base of methane oxidation model of Hughes et al. [46] which was constructed at that time with a tough requirement of first principal application. Over time this base principal turned into a disadvantage. For example, a number of RRCs adopted in [9,10,16,22,47] from [46] were originated from experiments relevant to the limited temperature intervals; third body reactions have a large uncertainty for low-pressure limit and collider definitions, etc. The out coming chemistry traced from the model [42] in the model releases [9,10,16,22,47] initiated the mechanism revision and improvement.

Critical analysis of matches between simulations with model-1 and experiments on ignition delay times and laminar flame speeds has been performed and highlighted the problems to be solved: model-1 overpredicted ignition delay times and laminar flame speeds of C_2H_4 . By scanning results of sensitivity analysis (Fig. S2-2 in Supplementary-2)

accounted for the representative set of experimental data, reactions with the highest potential to provide the model improvement were determined [16] and all known sources of the RRCs were analyzed. The reactions to be inspected were related mostly to the low-temperature reactions of C_2H_4 oxidation and reactions of the key intermediates such as ethylenyl (C_2H_3), ethyl radical (C_2H_5), ketene (CH_2CO), and acetaldehyde (CH_2CHO). Special attention was paid to the pressure-dependent RRCs and the reactions important for the formation of PAH precursors.

The reactions could be modified on data for ignition delay times, laminar flame speeds and concentration profiles are shown in Table 2.

3.2. Modification of reaction rate constants

The further rate constant adjustments of the C_2H_4 chemistry rate parameters were carried out on the base of simulations of experimental data with model-2 applying sensitivity and rate of production analyses. Fig. 2 illustrates the scattering in normalized sensitivity coefficients calculated for the reactions of model-2 by simulations of ignition delay times and laminar flame speeds. Top 15 reactions related to C_2 species are shown. According to the sensitivity coefficients, channels related to O_2 and HO_2 , such as reactions of $\text{C}_2\text{H}_3 + \text{O}_2$, $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{HO}_2$, and $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5 + \text{O}_2$, are the most important channels for the low-temperature ($T_5 \leq 1000$ K) oxidation of C_2H_4 . For the higher temperature ($T_5 = 1800$ K), reactions related to O and H and the decomposition of C_2H_4 become more important, as shown in Fig. 2.

The optimization approach and protocol were essentially identical to the one used in [16,27]. The k values to be modified were tested iteratively until the best optimization was obtained. The known kinetic data was applied in the model improvement: experimental C_2H_4 ignition delay times from publications

[1,3,5,48–52] measured for $T_5 = 1000$ –2238 K, $p_5 = 1$ –60 atm and equivalence ratios of 0.5 to 3.0; laminar flame speeds of C_2H_4 /air mixtures measured by heat flux method, counter flow flames and spherical flames [53–59]; concentration profiles obtained in premixed flat flames [2,7,60–62], as shown in Table 3. The modifications of the RRCs are controlled within the calculated uncertainty bounds. The data published within the last twenty years or recommendations from recently developed or updated mechanisms are preferred, but for some reactions, only a small amount of data or references could be found. The detailed description of revised reactions and modification work is reported in Supplementary-2. The collections of RRCs and the final list of updated values are shown in Tables S2-1 and S2-2 in Supplementary-2.

4. Results and discussion

4.1. Ignition delay times

The detailed experimental data and modeling results of ignition delay times are presented in Supplementary-3. Large scattering of experimental data generates difficulties for the proper optimization of the mechanism. Brown et al. [48], Kalitan et al. [50], and Saxena et al. [5] conducted shock tube experiments with the same mixture (1% C_2H_4 + 3% O_2 + 96% Ar) at similar pressure ($p_5 = 1$ –3 atm). A comparison of these experimental data [5,48,50] with the modeling results simulated with model-2 is presented in Fig. 3a. It can be seen that model-2 can predict the ignition delay times from Kalitan et al. [3] and Saxena et al. [4] quite well but cannot reproduce the data measured by Brown et al. [48]. Similar results obtained by the simulation with Aramco 3.0 [12], USC 2.0 [11], and UCSD [13] mechanisms are presented in Supplementary-3, and the compared mechanisms tend to be consistent with the results measured by Kalitan et al. [3] and Saxena et al. [4].

The same problem occurs in the ignition delay times of the C_2H_4 /air mixtures measured by Penyazkov et al. [7] and Kopp et al. [6], as shown in Fig. 3b. Penyazkov et al. [7] and Kopp et al. [6] measured ignition delay times for the same mixture at different pressures with shock tubes,

Table 1
Uncertainty factors calculated from the literature sources for the reaction $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{OH} = \text{C}_2\text{H}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$, $k(T) = AT^n \exp(-E_a/T)$.

Reaction	Reference	T range, K	$k, \text{cm}^3, \text{s, mole, K}$		
			A	n	E_a
$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{OH} = \text{C}_2\text{H}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ $f = 0.301 - 0.318$	Ali2011 [40]	200–400	6.20E	0.00	1400.0
	Senosiain2006	250–2500	+ 11	4.20	-433.0
	[41]	650–1500	1.31E -	0.00	2990.0
	Baulch2005 [32]	200–5000	01	2.01	585.0
	Liu2002 [42]	1003–1253	2.05E	0.00	2990.0
	Westbrook1989 [43]	650–901	+ 13	0.00	2990.0
	Tully1988 [44]	748–1170	2.10E	0.00	2100.0
	Liu1987 [45]	300–2500	+ 06	2.75	2100.0
	Tsang1986 [39]	500–2000	2.00E	0.00	1500.0
	Warnatz1984 [38]		+ 13 1.45E + 13 1.57E + 04 3.00E + 13		

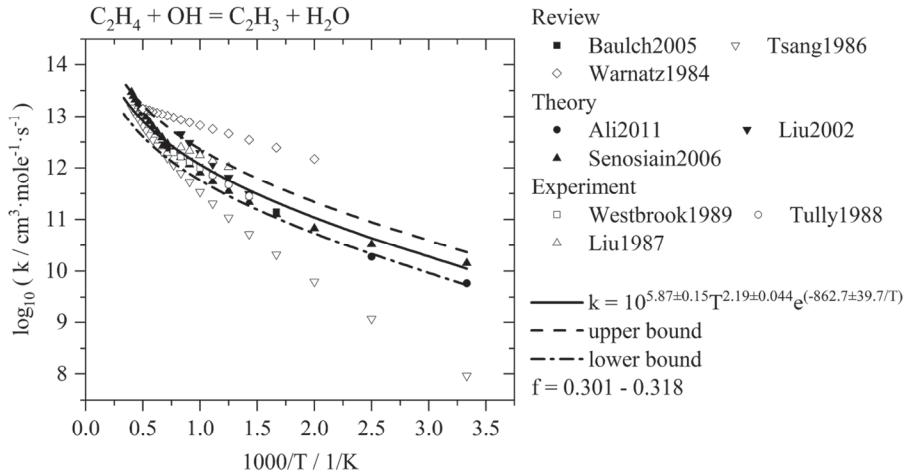


Fig. 1. Determination of k_{low} (lower bound) and k_{up} (upper bound) and the uncertainty factor for the reaction $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{OH} = \text{C}_2\text{H}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ from the statistical analysis of the literature data (solid symbols for the data published after the year 2000, and open symbols for the data published before the year 2000).

Table 2

Reactions optimized on the measured data for ignition delay time, laminar flame speed and concentration profile.

No.	Reaction	Ignition delay time		Laminar flame speed	Concentration profile
		low-T	high-T		
R2a	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{O} = \text{CH}_3 + \text{HCO}$		✓		✓
R2b	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{O} = \text{CH}_2\text{CHO} + \text{H}$	✓		✓	✓
R2c	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{O} = \text{CH}_2\text{O} + \text{CH}_2$		✓		✓
R2d	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{O} = \text{CH}_2\text{CO} + \text{H}_2$	✓			✓
R3a	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{OH} = \text{C}_2\text{H}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	✓	✓	✓	✓
R3d	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{OH} = \text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{OH} + \text{H}$				✓
R4a	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{H} = \text{C}_2\text{H}_3 + \text{H}_2$	✓			✓
R4b	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{H} = \text{C}_2\text{H}_5$				✓
R5a	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 = \text{C}_2\text{H}_3 + \text{H}$	✓	✓		✓
R5b	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 = \text{H}_2\text{CC} + \text{H}_2$	✓	✓		
R6	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{HO}_2 = \text{CH}_2\text{OCH}_2 + \text{OH}$	✓			
R7a	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_5 + \text{O}_2 = \text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{HO}_2$	✓			✓
R8a	$\text{CH}_3 + \text{CH}_3 = \text{C}_2\text{H}_5 + \text{H}$		✓		
R8b	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_5 + \text{H} = \text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{H}_2$		✓		
R10, R11	CH_2CO		✓		✓
R12	CH_3CO				✓
R13, R14	CH_2CHO				✓
R15- 20	H_2CC	✓	✓		✓
R21- 26	CH_2OCH_2	✓			

but the data measured by Penyazkov et al. [7] shows a trend of over-prediction at temperatures lower than 1250 K ($1000/T > 0.8$). Fig. 3 illustrates a problem arising at the model calibrating in a case of inconsistent experimental data. As the data are measured under the

same conditions, the dominants reactions are the same for both measured sets. Conclusions following from these data simulations are contradictory and rate constant optimization in such cases can lead to the parameters lying beyond physical and theoretical reasonable ranges. To meet a decision about data quality, in similar controversial cases we simulated data with various models to analyze the scattering in simulations.

To follow the optimization progress, the global average error of modeling ignition delay times against the measured data is defined as follows [64]:

$$E = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{N_i} \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} e_{ij} \quad (6)$$

where N is the number of data sets, N_i is the number of data points in the i th data set. The error of modeling results based on the uncertainty e_{ij} which is defined as:

$$e_{ij} = \ln \left(\frac{(t_{ij}^{\text{sim}} - t_{ij}^{\text{exp}})^2}{u_{ij}} \right) \quad (7)$$

where t_{ij}^{exp} is the experimental value of the ignition delay time, t_{ij}^{sim} is the simulated result and u_{ij} is the experimental uncertainty.

Most authors who measured ignition delay times evaluated the uncertainties for specific experiment settings or an average uncertainty for the measured ignition delay times [1,5,50]. In this study, the uncertainties, u_{ij} , were evaluated based on the similar strategy shown in our previous work [27,65]. The distribution of evaluated uncertainties of the collected 461 ignition delay time targets [1,3,5,49,50,52] versus T_5 , p_5 , and equivalence ratio are illustrated in Fig. 4a. The points are colored in green for $10\% \leq u_{ij} \leq 15\%$, blue for $20\% \leq u_{ij} \leq 25\%$, and red for $u_{ij} \geq 30\%$. The biggest uncertainties are evaluated for the data obtained mostly for fuel-rich mixtures at lower temperatures ($T_5 < 1200$ K) and high temperatures ($T_5 > 1600$ K), where more experimental targets are needed for uncertainty analysis and data quality analysis. Fig. 4b shows the distribution of modeling errors (e_{ij} , Eq. (7)) for the ignition delay time targets. The points are colored in green for $e_{ij} < 0.001$, blue for $0.001 \leq e_{ij} \leq 0.005$, and red for $e_{ij} > 0.005$. The biggest discrepancies have been achieved for data measured at $T_5 < 1100$ K and $\varphi > 2.5$ for all studied pressures.

Fig. 5 demonstrates progress in the e_{ij} (Eq. (7)) calculated for modeling ignition delay times with model-1 and model-2. Considering the contradiction of the experimental data, the ignition delay times measured by Brown et al. [48] are excluded from the data set used for mechanism optimization. The comparison of the errors of the two models shows a significant improvement in predicting the ignition delay

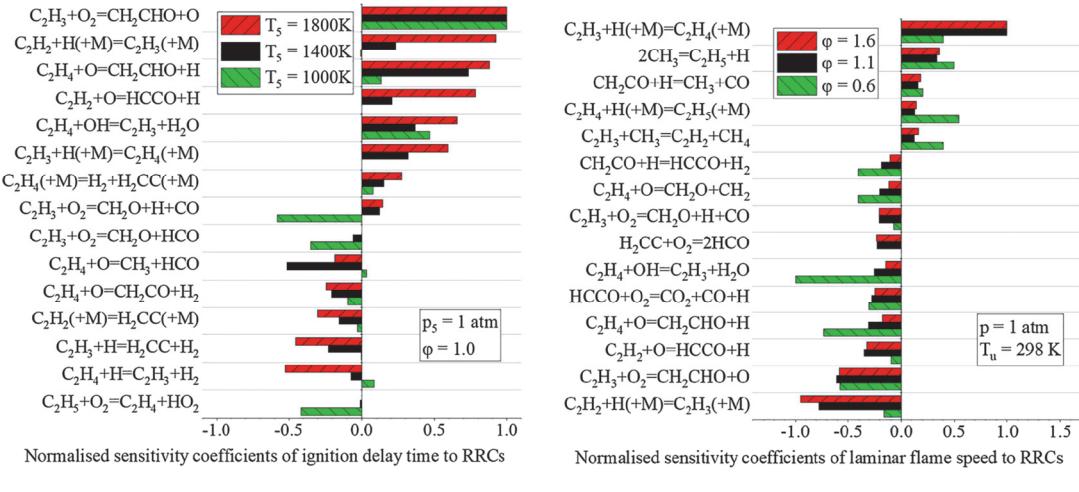


Fig. 2. Comparison of normalized sensitivity coefficients calculated with model-2 for: (a) ignition delay times of C₂H₄/O₂/Ar mixtures with φ = 1.0, p₅ = 1 atm and T₅ = 1000, 1400, 1800 K; (b) laminar flame speeds of C₂H₄/air mixtures with T_u = 298 K, p = 1 atm and φ = 0.6, 1.1, 1.6.

Table 3

Overview of the ignition delay times (ST for shock tube), laminar flame speeds (HF for heat flux method, CF for counterflow flame, SF for spherical flame) and concentration profiles (PFF for premixed flat flame) used for validation.

Ignition delay time	T ₅ / K	p ₅ / atm	Mixture and method
Brown et al. 1999 [48]	1074–2238	1–5	C ₂ H ₄ /O ₂ /Ar, φ = 1.0, STC ₂ H ₄ /O ₂ /N ₂ , φ = 1.0, ST
Colket et al. 2001 [49]	1125–1380	5–8	C ₂ H ₄ /O ₂ /Ar, φ = 0.5–1.0, ST
Kalitan et al. 2005 [50]	1115–1754	1–3	C ₂ H ₄ /O ₂ /Ar, φ = 0.5, 1.0, ST
Penyazkov et al. 2009 [51]	1120–1520	6–15	C ₂ H ₄ /air, φ = 0.5–2.0, ST
Saxena et al. 2011 [5]	1000–1634	2–18	C ₂ H ₄ /O ₂ /Ar, φ = 1.0, 3.0, ST
Kopp et al. 2014 [3]	1106–1310	1–25	C ₂ H ₄ /air, φ = 0.3–1.0, ST
Deng et al. 2017 [52]	1090–1600	1.2–10	C ₂ H ₄ /O ₂ /Ar, φ = 1.0, ST
Shao et al. 2018 [1]	1095–1317	15, 60	C ₂ H ₄ /O ₂ /Ar, φ = 1.0, 2.0, ST
Laminar flame speed	T _u / K	p / atm	Mixture and method
Egolfopoulos et al. 1991 [63]	298	1	C ₂ H ₄ /air, CF
Hassan et al. 1998 [53]	298	0.5–4	C ₂ H ₄ /air, SF
Hirasawa et al. 2002 [54]	298	1	C ₂ H ₄ /air, CF
Jomaas et al. 2005 [55]	298	1	C ₂ H ₄ /air, CF
Kumar et al. 2008 [56]	298	1	C ₂ H ₄ /air, CF
Park et al. 2013 [57]	298	1	C ₂ H ₄ /air, CF
Ravi et al. 2015 [58]	298	1	C ₂ H ₄ /air, SF
Treek et al. 2020 [59]	298	1	C ₂ H ₄ /air, HF
Concentration profile	T _u / K	p	Mixture and method
Xu et al. 1997 [60]	298	98.7 kPa	C ₂ H ₄ /air, PFF
Delfau et al. 2007 [61]	298	1 atm	C ₂ H ₄ /O ₂ /N ₂ , PFF
Dias et al. 2011 [7]	298	0.05 bar	33%C ₂ H ₄ + 40%O ₂ + 27%Ar, PFF
Korobeinichev et al. 2011 [62]	298	0.04 bar	28%C ₂ H ₄ + 42%O ₂ + 30%Ar, PFF
Malliotakis et al. 2018 [2]	298	0.05 bar	30%C ₂ H ₄ + 40%O ₂ + 30%Ar, PFF

times. The e_{ij} errors for other compared mechanisms [2,6,7,11–14,24] are shown in Fig. S3-1 in Supplementary-3.

Although lots of ignition delay time data are measured today, it is not enough to cover all the operating conditions of practical interests. Kinetic models are generally validated over a particular set of experimental data but are frequently used for the reaction conditions which are far from validation parameters, and this can lead to high uncertainties in the model predictions. The deficit of the experimental data

or their high uncertainties do not allow justifying a feasible range of RRCs, model tailoring or final valid parameter range of a kinetic model. In our previous study [16] we introduced the criterion for applicability of an experimental target, E_{ap} (a relation between experimental error and parameter constrain), and showed, that far not all experimental data we have are useful for the RRCs' improvement, also if they have low errors, because these data are not sensitive to the studied RRCs. The measurement planning needs methods for evaluating the problem-oriented operating conditions of experiments. The combination of rigorous methods for uncertainty and consistency analyses of the big amount of data and methods for model optimization is the way to handle kinetic data today. That can be realized only with advanced computing systems like PrIMe [27,66], which is now in standby modus.

4.2. Laminar flame speeds

The experimental data versus modeling results performed with the studied model and the compared models are presented in Fig. 6. The spread of points measured by different groups in Fig. 6a shows that uncertainties for laminar flame speeds can be >10% at the peak (φ = 1.1) [65]. As shown in Fig. 6, model-1 predicted higher laminar flame speeds than the experimental targets, which was revised by the upgrade work in model-2. The mechanism improvement was achieved by revision RRCs of reactions (R2), (R3), (R4b), and (R5a) (see Table 2 and Supplementary-2). The simulation of laminar flame speeds at various pressures also shows a good agreement with the data measured by Hassan et al. [53]. The compared models, Aramco 3.0 [12], UCSD [13], and USC 2.0 [11], also show acceptable results for the collected data.

4.3. Concentration profiles

Reactions related to C₂H₅, CH₂CO, CH₃CO, and CH₂CHO (reaction R7-14) were triggers of progress in concentration simulations (see Table 2 and Supplementary-2), as they are the key intermediates of C₂H₄ oxidation. Generally, the developed model demonstrates satisfactory agreement with the simulated data. Detailed results are shown in Supplementary-4.

Fig. 7 reports simulations of concentration profiles measured in laminar premixed ethylene flames by Xu et al. [60] and Delfau et al. [61]. The last experimental data were recorded in very short flame, above 0.4 cm from the burner. Data of Xu et al. [60] are in excellent accordance with simulations, while data of Delfau et al. [61] are

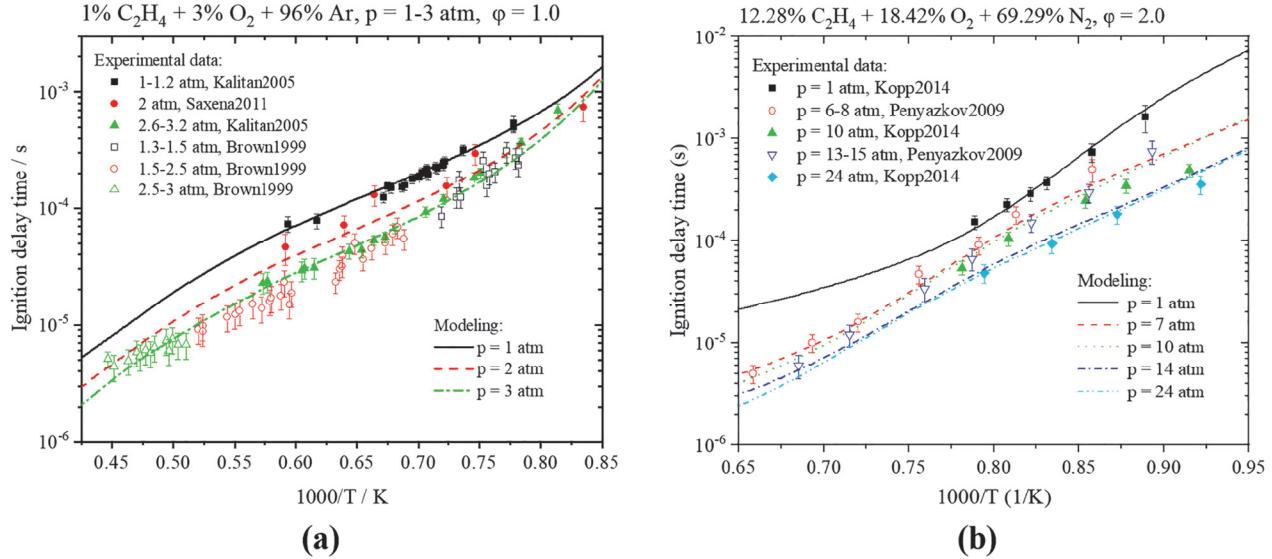


Fig. 3. The experimental ignition delay times measured by the different groups (Brown1999 [48], Kalitan2005 [50], Saxena2011 [5], Penyazkov2009 [51], Kopp2014 [3]) versus simulations performed with model-2.

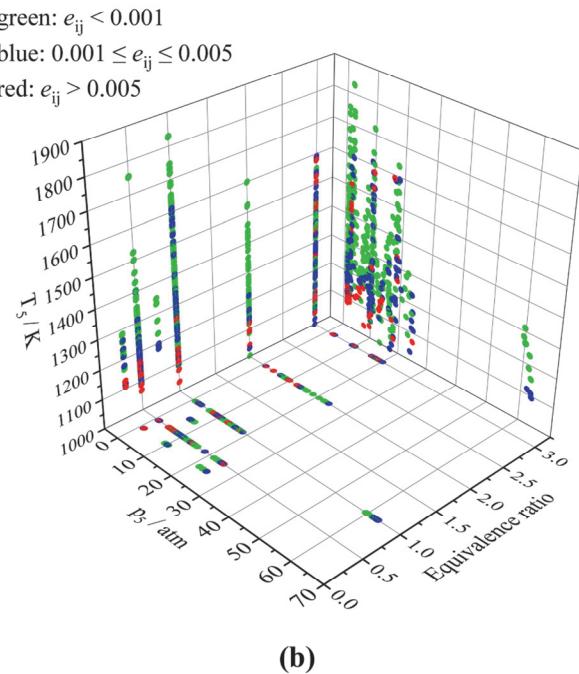
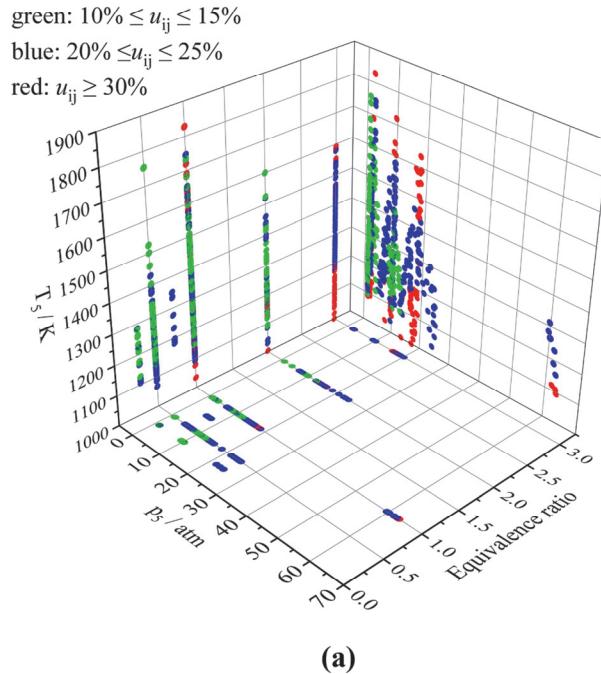


Fig. 4. (a) Uncertainties of the used experimental ignition delay times vs T_5 , p_5 and equivalence ratio: green points for $10\% \leq u_{ij} \leq 15\%$, blue points for $20\% \leq u_{ij} \leq 25\%$ and red points for $u_{ij} \geq 30\%$; (b) Errors for modeling ignition delay times with model-2: green points for $e_{ij} < 0.001$, blue points for $0.001 \leq e_{ij} \leq 0.005$ and red points for $e_{ij} > 0.005$. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

described with some discrepancies, but in accordance with trends and values of simulation results with other models, as shown in Fig. 7b.

Compared to the ignition delay time and laminar flame speed data, the concentration profiles demonstrate a higher uncertainty/inconsistency level. Some of the measurements conducted under the similar conditions by different workgroups demonstrate huge discrepancies between reported concentration profiles.

Fig. 8 presents the concentration profiles of H_2 in the fuel rich premixed flat flames measured by Dias et al. [7], Korobeinichev et al. [62] and Malliotakis et al. [2] and the modeling results simulated with the

model-2. The three experiments were carried out to investigate the PAH and soot formation in the rich C_2H_4 premixed flames at similar pressure with similar mixing ratio,

Table 3. Although the specific settings of the experimental devices are different, all the facilities are designed to obtain ideal one-dimensional premixed flames in flat flame burner. The experimentally determined temperature profiles have been imposed to calculations so that the heat losses to the burner are explicitly taken into account [2]. Nonetheless, as it can be seen in Fig. 8, the difference in results reaches factor of 3. By comparing the data measured by Dias et al. [7] and

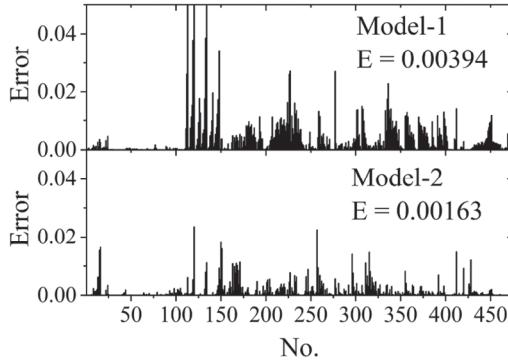


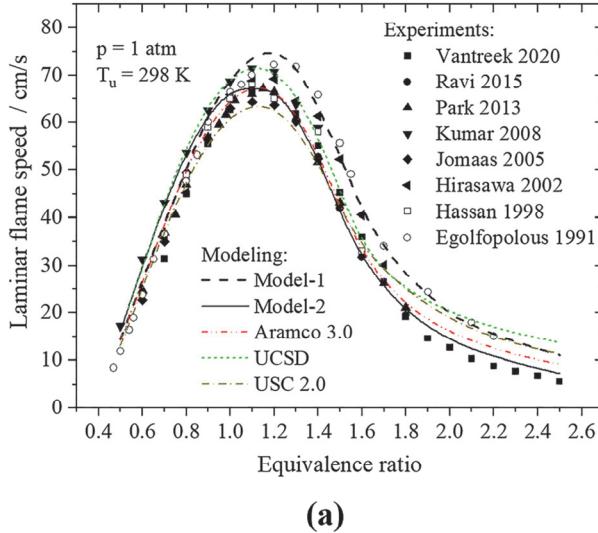
Fig. 5. Modeling errors (e_{ij} , Eq. (7)) for ignition delay times obtained with model-1 and model-2.

Malliotakis et al. [2], it can be concluded that difference of 3% in the initial C_2H_4 concentration can lead to a 20% increase in the H_2 mole fraction. To point out which data could be used for the model optimization we performed simulations with the models Aramco 3.0 [12], UCSD [13], Dias et al. [7] and Malliotakis et al. [2] (NTUA 2015) as well. Results of model comparison are shown in Supplementary-4 and will be described in the next section.

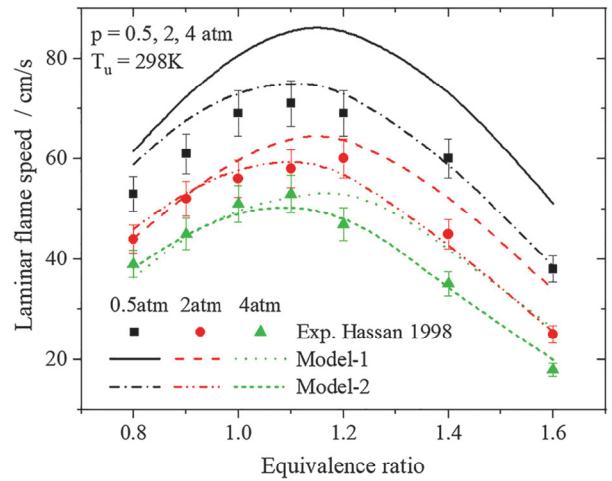
Based on these simulations, the RRCs were not fixed for concentration profiles intentionally. The experimentally measured mole fractions are only used for preventing major deviations during the modification work.

4.4. Discussion

Fig. 9 summarizes the studied channels for the oxidation of C_2H_4 [2,6,7,11–14,24] adopted for the model-2 structure. The channels marked with red color were not included in the model due to their weak impact on the validation data. If these reactions were added in the

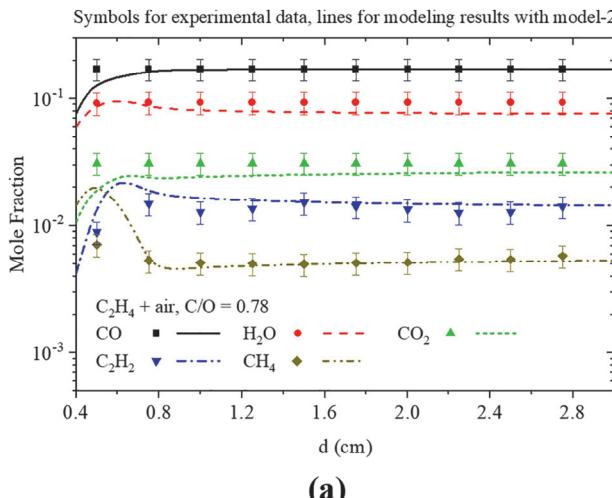


(a)

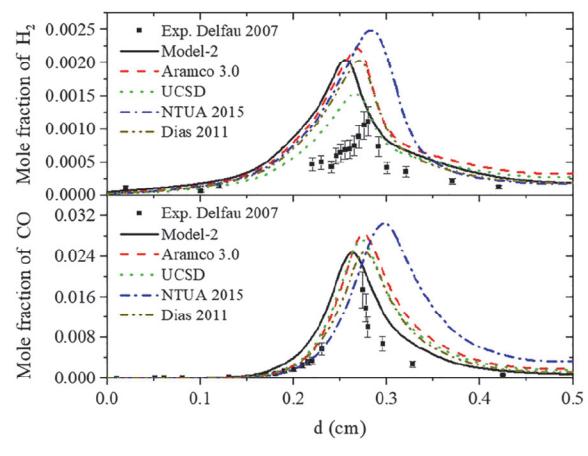


(b)

Fig. 6. Experimental laminar flame speed data (Hassan et al. [53], Hirasawa et al. [54], Jomaas et al. [55], Ibarreta et al. [8], Kumar et al. [56], Park et al. [57], Ravi et al. [58]) versus modeling results performed with model-1, model-2, Aramco 3.0 [12], UCSD [13], USC 2.0 [11] mechanisms.



(a)



(b)

Fig. 7. The concentration profiles measured in premixed laminar flame of C_2H_4 /air versus modeling results: (a) Xu et al. [60] vs model-2 (b) Delfau et al. [61] vs model-2, Aramco 3.0 mechanism [12], UCSD mechanism [13], USC 2.0 mechanism [11].

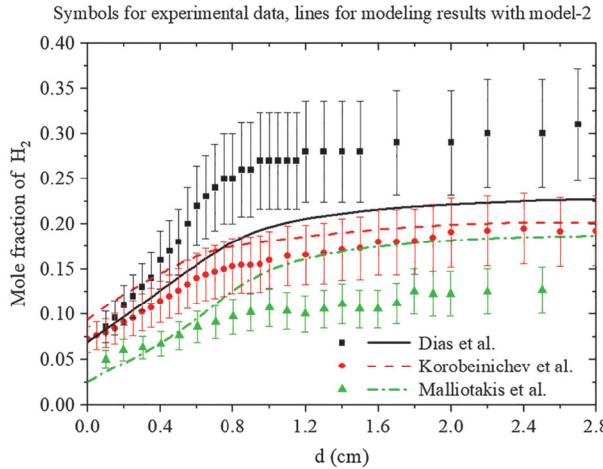


Fig. 8. Comparison of H₂ concentration profiles measured by Dias et al. [7], Korobeinichev et al. [62] and Malliotakis et al. [2] (presented with 20% uncertainties) at similar conditions and modeling results simulated with model-2.

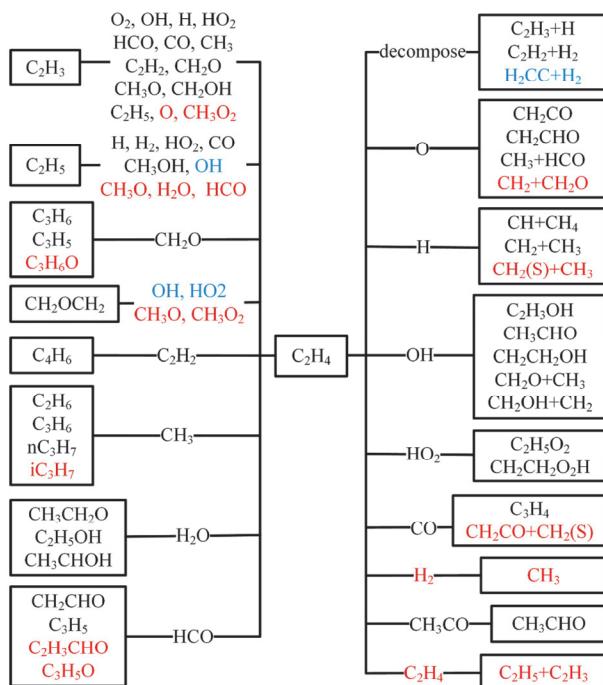


Fig. 9. Channels for the initial steps of C₂H₄ oxidation and pyrolysis (coloured in black are the channels which model-1 contains, coloured in red are the channels which model-1 and model-2 lack, coloured in blue are the reactions which have been added to model-2). (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

model, the new RRCs could not be validated by the existing experimental data, so that it is unnecessary to introduce these channels with uncontrollable uncertainties. New channels for C₂H₅, H₂CC and CH₂OCH₂ (blue) were added according to the sensitivity analysis and their important roles in the formation of PAH.

Performed improvements of the model-1 resulted in the redistribution of atomic flows simulated with model-2. The percentages for different channels are calculated based on the top 20 rates of productions. Statistical results of rates of production for C₂H₄ oxidation at

1000 K (numbers out of the brackets) and 1800 K (numbers inside the brackets) are shown in Fig. 10. New channels added in model-2 are highlighted with color blue. The main changes are related to the reactions of CH₂OCH₂, H₂CC, C₂H₄ and C₂H₅. Channels of CH₂OCH₂, which are important for the low-temperature reactions, are added as new paths. Reactions of C₂H₄ + O and C₂H₅ + O are revised and found to play an important role in the high-temperature condition. The RRCs of C₂H₄ + O channels are replaced by the newest recommendations of Morin et al. [67,68]. The channels from C₂H₄ to PAH precursors (C₂H₂, H₂CC, C₂H₃) are rebuilt following the work of Laskin et al. [69] and Wang et al. [70]. The detailed update work and discussion on the RRCs are shown in Supplementary-2.

The final list of new reactions and sources of their RRCs is given in Table S2-2 in Supplementary-2. The final obtained capabilities in comparison to model-1 are integrated in Table 4. Significant improvement is made to the C₂H₄ oxidation model by the upgrade work and the prediction ability for C₂H₂ oxidation [16,71–74] is retained as well.

The reaction flow diagram from C₂H₄ to benzene (A₁) of model-2, presented in Fig. 11, fixes the actual logic of aromatic molecule formation and main directions of the following work: reactions of C₂H₆, C₂H₅ and C₂H₅OH will be further investigated followed by sub-mechanisms of C₃H₄, C₃H₆, and C₃H₈.

4.5. Comparison of mechanisms

In the following paragraph, we would like to briefly present a comparison of reaction models once again to focus on the problem of the structure of a chemical reaction model and its valid parameter range. As the different criteria for defining the valid model parameter range are based on the sensitivity coefficients [75], we highlight the problem using the results of sensitivity analysis of ignition delay times to RRCs performed for four models: model-2 (115 species, 971 reactions), Aramco 3.0 [12] (581 species, 3037 reactions), USC 2.0 [11] (111 species, 784 reactions) and UCSD [13] (58 species 207 reactions) at T₅ = 1000 K and 1800 K, Fig. 12. Detailed comparison of measured ignition delay times and modeling results with model-1, model-2, Aramco 3.0 [12] and UCSD [13] are shown in Supplementary-3.

For the condition of T₅ = 1000 K, the most obvious discrepancies among these models occur in the channels of C₂H₃ + O₂ = CH₂O + H + CO, C₂H₃ + O₂ = CH₂O + HCO, and C₂H₃ + O₂ = C₂H₂ + HO₂. The model-2 and Aramco 3.0, which have the RRCs for reactions of C₂H₃ + O₂ adopted from Goldsmith et al. [76], show the similar sensitivities to these channels compared to the other two models, which have RRCs from [77,78]. For all the models, channel C₂H₃ + O₂ = CH₂CHO + O demonstrates the highest importance at lower temperature, Fig. 12a.

For higher temperatures, the distribution between sensitivity coefficients obtained for analyzed models is much higher and for the reaction C₂H₄ + H = C₂H₃ + H₂ they are even opposite: in the model UCSD [13], this reaction has a negative effect on the ignition delay times, Fig. 12b. The UCSD model lacks the component H₂CC, which is the important product of C₂H₄ decomposition at high temperature, as shown in Fig. 12b. The highest sensitivity of the ignition delay time to reaction C₂H₃ + H = C₂H₂ + H₂ demonstrated by the model of Aramco 3.0 [12] can be explained with the modification performed in this mechanism: the RRC of this channel has been increased to a much higher value than the recommendations [36,38]. Reaction C₂H₄ + O = C₂H₃ + OH of the USC 2.0 model shows the importance for both low- and high-temperature conditions, but this channel tends to be an overall reaction and was not studied in the newest works [68,79–81].

Apparent disagreements in the sensitivity coefficients follow from various distributions of atom fluxes in the models, which in turn are defined with individual combinations between the reaction channels and correlations between the rate parameters. Differences in the model structures can be unnoticeable at the simulation of macro processes: analyzed reaction mechanisms are different in choices of elementary reactions and their rate parameters, but the ignition delay times are

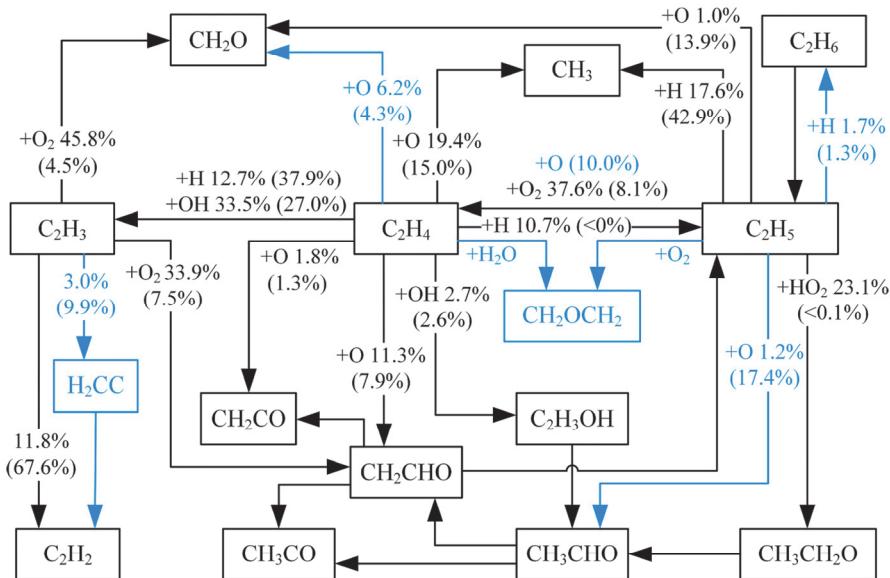


Fig. 10. Reaction flow diagrams of C₂H₄ oxidation at $\varphi = 1$, $p = 1$ atm, $T = 1000$ K (percentages out of the brackets) and $T = 1800$ K (percentages inside of the brackets) with model-2 (blue colour for the new reactions added in model-2). (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Table 4
Validation information and average errors for ignition delay times and laminar flame speeds for C₂H₄ and C₂H₂ with model-1 and model-2.

Mechanism	Average error E for C ₂ H ₄ ignition delay times	Average error E for C ₂ H ₂ ignition delay times	Average error E for C ₂ H ₄ laminar flame speeds
Model-2	0.00163	0.00092	4.35
Model-1	0.00394	0.00098	7.32

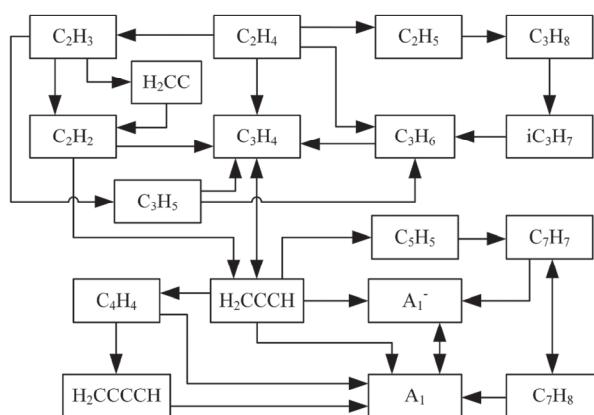


Fig. 11. Reaction flow diagram of C₂H₄ to benzene (A₁) in the simulation of premixed laminar flame of Korobinechov et al. [62] with model-2.

reproduced well with all analyzed models in most cases (detailed comparisons of measured ignition delay times and modeling results are shown in Supplementary-3).

Average errors (Eq. (6)) for C₂H₄ ignition delay times simulated with model-1, model-2, and mechanisms [6,11–14,16,24,78] are listed in Table 5. As expected, the updated new mechanism with its specific adaptation for C₂H₄ yields generally better results in comparison with the analyzed models. The highest errors among the compared mechanisms were obtained for models of Dias et al. [7] and NTUA [2]

following from the process of model construction. These two reaction mechanisms were developed based on measurements performed by authors of [2,7] in premixed laminar flame. The application scope of these models [2,7] might be restricted without comprehensive research. The high error value shown by GRI 3.0 [24] logically follows from the limitation of available experimental data during the creation of the model.

It can be concluded from Fig. 12, the figured dominance channels for modeled processes are mostly related to the individual model structure and not to the nature of the process. In any case we do not have criteria to recognize that, and simple enumerating the chemical species and elementary reactions with used RRCs are not enough for that. The special objective methods should be developed for evaluating the model structure quality and tools for model comparison. It is worth mentioning that simple adaptations of RRCs from different mechanisms may jeopardize the prediction capabilities of mechanism.

Modeling concentration profiles especially clearly demonstrates the effect of model structure on the results. Unfortunately, the lack of such data and some inconsistency of the available data do not allow us to draw final conclusions and use these data for final model optimization.

The calculations of the concentration profiles of H₂ and H₂O with five models (model-2 and Aramco 3.0 [12], UCSD [13], Dias 2011 [7] and NTUA [2]) are compared with the measured data obtained in [7], [62] and [2], as shown in Fig. 13. As it was previously described, these data obtained under similar conditions,

Table 3, are not consistent, Fig. 8. Data of Korobinechov et al. [62] are predicted within their experimental errors by all models, excepting models of Dias et al. [7] and NTUA [2] developed for the restricted calibration conditions and having the highest error for most of the concentration profiles. No one model describes hydrogen profile measured by Malliotakis et al. [2]; all models have a trend to under-predict results of Dias et al. [7] and to over-predict results of Malliotakis et al. [2] for H₂. The opposite results are obtained for H₂O simulations: all studied models over-predict the experimental data from Dias et al. [7] and under-predict the data of Malliotakis et al. [2]. The Aramco 3.0 [12] mechanism shows the lowest values for hydrogen concentration and the highest values for water concentration measured in [7], [62] and [2] data, as shown in Fig. 13.

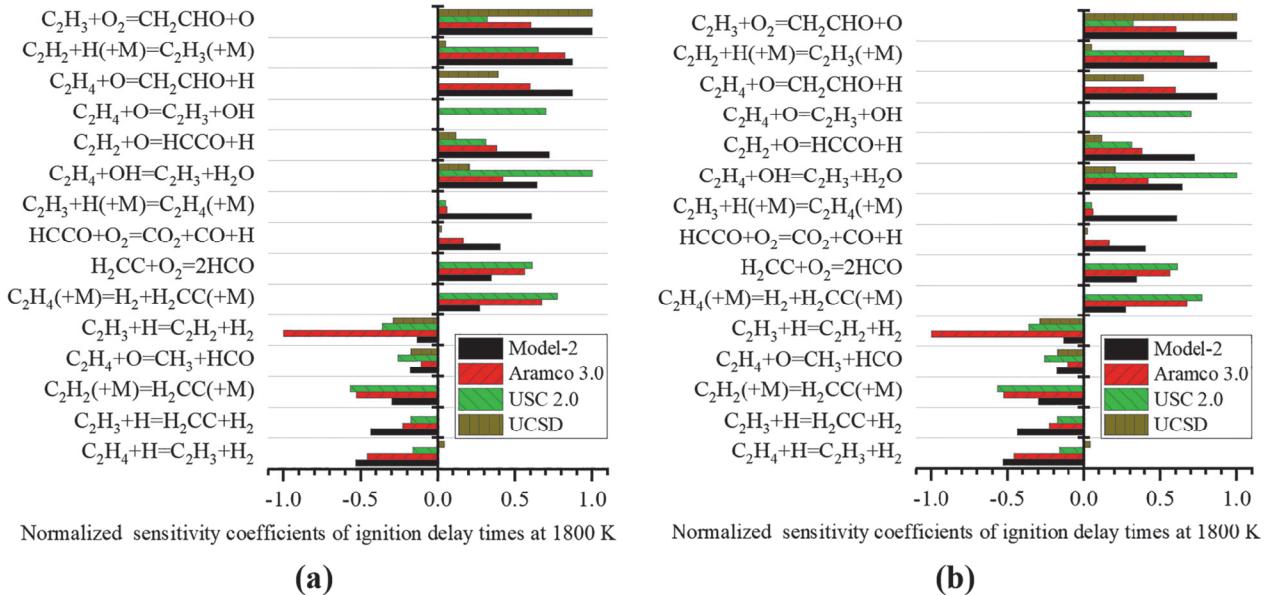


Fig. 12. Comparison of normalized sensitivity coefficients of ignition delay times simulated with model-2 (this study), Aramco 3.0 [12], USC 2.0 [11] and UCSD [13] to the RRCs for $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4/\text{O}_2/\text{Ar}$ mixture with $\varphi = 1.0$, $p_5 = 1$ atm and (a) $T_5 = 1000$ K; (b) $T_5 = 1800$ K.

Table 5

Validation information and average errors for C_2H_4 ignition delay times simulated by different mechanisms.

Mechanism	Year	Recent validation for C_2H_4	Average error for C_2H_4	Average error for C_2H_2
Model-2 (this study)	2021	this study	0.00163	0.00092
Aramco 3.0 [12]	2018	Kopp et al. 2014 [82]	0.00183	0.00085
UCSD [13]	2016	UCSD 2015 [13]	0.00380	0.00089
Lopez et al. [6]	2009	Lopez et al. 2009 [6]	0.00386	0.00397
Model-1 [16]	2019	None	0.00394	0.00098
USC 2.0 [11]	2009	None	0.00497	0.00236
Konnov [14]	2009	None	0.00508	0.00305
GRI 3.0 [24]	1999	None	0.01856	0.01019
Dias et al. [7]	2011	Dias et al. 2011 [7]	0.01890	0.00550
NTUA 2015 [2]	2015	Malliotakis et al [2]	0.03635	0.00453

5. Conclusion

The upgrade and extension of the detailed C_2H_4 combustion mechanism have been successfully performed based on the simulations of the experimental data for auto-ignition [1,3,5,48–52], premixed laminar flame speeds [53–59,63], and concentration profiles measured in premixed flat flame [2,7,60–62]. Hundreds of heterogenic experimental targets measured over a wide spectrum of experimental conditions by different research groups have been analyzed for model optimization.

It is shown, there is an on-going and growing need to provide validation of chemical kinetics models.

Sensitivity and rate of production analyses have been conducted to identify the key reactions and intermediates. The selected modifications of RRCs were performed within the uncertainty intervals estimated with statistical methods. The following features have been studied:

- (1) Initial reaction paths of the C_2H_4 oxidation and pyrolysis, including channels related to the newly added H_2CC , CH_2OCH_2 , and CH_2OCH (reaction R15–26);

- (2) Pressure-dependent reaction rate coefficients for reactions of $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{OH}$, $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5 + \text{O}_2$, CH_2CO , CH_3CO , and CH_2CHO (reaction R3, R7, and R11–14);
- (3) Reactions of $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{HO}_2$, CH_2OCH_2 , and CH_2OCH (reaction R6, R7a, and R21–26) for the low-temperature chemistry;
- (4) Reactions related to the key intermediates for the aromatic precursor formation (C_2H_2 , H_2CC , C_2H_3 , and C_2H_5).

Comparison with the other chemical kinetic models [2,6,7,11–14,24] shows that the updated model demonstrates a good ability to predict auto-ignition delay times and laminar flame speeds, and satisfactory results for reproduction of concentration profiles. The model is well prepared for the next step of optimization: upgrade of C_2H_6 and $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ sub-mechanisms and further improvement of the PAH formations reaction paths [2,7,62].

Problems of the inconsistency of the experimental data have been shown and discussed. The reported conflicting results of the used experimental data, measured by the different groups make it difficult to draw the final univocal conclusions about the studied kinetic model optimization.

More effort should be put into the development of the methods and numerical tools for the model quality analysis, data uncertainty, uncertainty propagation analyses and evaluation of the model valid parameter range. The simple comparison of simulations with measured data cannot be considered as a final assessment of model quality and model ability to reproduce the real natural micro-processes. Without such objective assessments, the different reaction mechanisms can be regarded as statistical samplings for gathering information about process and to make some assumptions about the entire system's behaviour.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Hongxin Wang: Investigation, Writing - original draft. **Nadezda Slavinskaya:** Investigation, Methodology, Supervision. **Aziza Kanz:** Validation, Writing - review & editing. **Moldir Auyelkhanzy:** Validation, Funding acquisition, Writing - review & editing. **Yiting Gao:** Investigation. **Oskar Haidn:** Methodology, Supervision.

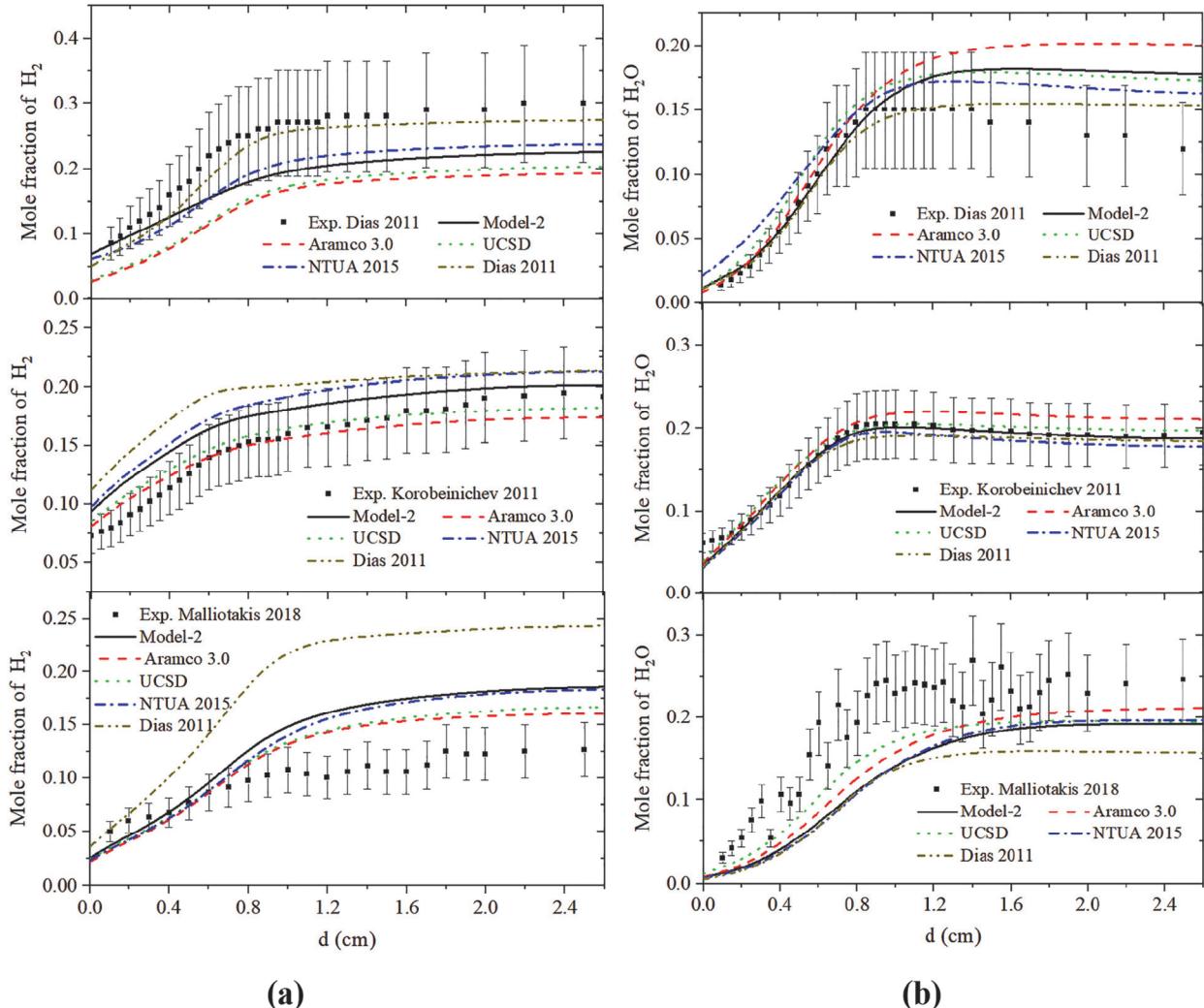


Fig. 13. Comparison of the concentration profiles measured by Dias et al. [7], Korobeinichev et al. [62] and Malliotakis et al. [2] and simulation results obtained with model-2, Aramco 3.0 [12], UCSD [13], Dias 2011 [7] and NTUA 2015 (Malliotakis et al.) [2]: (a) mole fractions of H_2 ; (b) mole fractions of H_2O .

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2021.120833>.

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Supplementary Material - 1

A Comprehensive Kinetic Modelling Study of Ethylene Combustion with Data Uncertainty Analysis

Hongxin Wang^a, Nadezda Slavinskaya^{b, c}, Aziza Kanz^d, Moldir Auyelkhankzy^{c, e}, Yiting Gao^a, Oskar Haidn^a

a. Department of Aerospace and Geodesy, Technical University of Munich, 85748 Garching, Germany

b. GRS Association for Plant and Reactor Safety, 85748 Garching, Germany

c. Al-Farabi Kazakh National University, 050040 Almaty, Kazakhstan

d. DLR German Aerospace Center, Institute of Combustion Technology, 70569 Stuttgart, Germany

e. Institute of Combustion Problems, 050012 Almaty, Kazakhstan

An overview of ethylene oxidation models published in the last two decades and their experimental validations.

Table S1-1. Overview of recent studies on major C₂ kinetic mechanisms and their experimental validations on the oxidation of C₂H₄.

Model	Ignition delay time	Concentration profile	Laminar flame speed
J. Lopez et al. [1]		plug flow reactor [1] $p = 60$ bar $T = 600\text{--}900$ K C ₂ H ₄ /O ₂ /N ₂ $\varphi = 0.2, 0.98, 19.8$	
USC 2.0 [2] UCSD [3]	shock tube [4, 5] $p_5 = 1.1\text{--}60$ atm, $T_5 = 950\text{--}1800$ K C ₂ H ₄ /O ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 0.3\text{--}2.0$ rapid compression machine [6] $p = 15, 30, 50$ bar $T = 850\text{--}1050$ K C ₂ H ₄ /O ₂ /N ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 1.0$		[6-13] $p = 0.5\text{--}5$ atm $T_0 = 298, 360, 400, 470$ K mixture: C ₂ H ₄ /Air
Aramco [14]	shock tube [4, 5, 15-17] $p_5 = 1.1\text{--}60$ atm, $T_5 = 950\text{--}1800$ K C ₂ H ₄ /O ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 0.3\text{--}2.0$ C ₂ H ₄ /air, $\varphi = 0.5\text{--}2.0$	plug flow reactor [1] $p = 60$ bar $T = 600\text{--}900$ K C ₂ H ₄ /O ₂ /N ₂ , $\varphi = 0.981$	[6-13, 18] $p = 1, 2, 5$ atm $T_0 = 298$ K C ₂ H ₄ /Air
A. Konnov [19] N. Marinov et al. [20]	shock tube [16, 21] $p_5 = 1, 2, 3$ bar, $T_5 = 1100\text{--}1740$ K C ₂ H ₄ /O ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 1.0, 2.0$		[6, 8-13] $p = 0.5, 1, 2, 5$ atm, $T_0 = 298, 360, 400, 470$ K C ₂ H ₄ /Air
Dias [22, 23]		premixed flat flame [22, 23] $p = 0.05$ bar $\varphi = 2.5,$ 33%C ₂ H ₄ +40%O ₂ +27%Ar	
Korobeinichev [24]		premixed flat flame [24] $p = 0.04$ bar $\varphi = 2.0$ 28%C ₂ H ₄ +42%O ₂ +30%Ar	
This study	shock tube [4, 5, 15-17, 25, 26] $p_5 = 1\text{--}60$ atm, $T_5 = 1000\text{--}2238$ K C ₂ H ₄ /O ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 0.5\text{--}3.0$ C ₂ H ₄ /O ₂ /N ₂ , $\varphi = 1.0$ C ₂ H ₄ /air, $\varphi = 0.3\text{--}2.0$	premixed flat flame [23, 24, 27-29] C ₂ H ₄ /O ₂ /Ar, C ₂ H ₄ /O ₂ /N ₂	[6, 7, 9, 11, 12, 18, 30] $p = 0.5, 1, 2, 5$ atm, $T_0 = 298, 360, 400, 470$ K C ₂ H ₄ /Air

Modeling studies focusing on C₂H₄ oxidation in the past ten years are collected and accomplished with experimental data used for models' validation, as shown in Table S1-1.

Lopez et al. [1] updated a mechanism for ethylene oxidation using data measured in a high-pressure plug flow reactor based on the earlier studied combustion models of CO/H₂, CH₄, and CH₄/C₂H₆ proposed by Rasmussen and Glarborg et al. [31, 32]. In this work [1], the importance of the hydroxyethyl and 2-hydroperoxyethyl radicals, formed from the addition of OH and HO₂ to C₂H₄, and vinyl peroxide, formed from C₂H₃+O₂, was studied in details.

Wang et al. [2] developed a mechanism of 111 species and 784 reactions for H₂/CO/C₁-C₄ kinetic modeling based on their former studies on H₂/CO [33], C₃ fuel [34], 1,3-butadiene [35], ethylene and acetylene [36] combustion. This USC 2.0 mechanism has been validated for a wide variety of C₂H₄ combustion scenarios [10-12, 17, 37-40], but some of these experimental data were published a long time ago so that they will not be considered as validation data in this study. The combustion research group of University California, San Diego (UCSD) proposed a reaction model [3] with sub-mechanisms for the chemistry of JP10, heptane, and dimethyl ether, and updates were made to several sensitive reactions involving formaldehyde, methane, ethane, ethylene, acetylene, and methanol in 2005 [3]. Kumar et al. [6] applied these two models [2, 3] to simulate their laminar flame speeds measured in a counterflow configuration burner and ignition delay times measured in a rapid compression machine. Analysis of reaction flow and sensitivity for ignition delay times at low-temperature and high-pressure conditions and laminar flame speeds at high-temperature conditions were conducted to compare the two mechanisms. The analysis reveals that the main difference between the two mechanisms is the channels related to CH₂O and CH₂CHO which are important intermediates for the oxidation of C₂H₄, and the UCSD mechanism showed better agreements with both laminar flame speeds and ignition delay times than the USC 2.0.

Kopp et al. [14] updated the C₂H₄ sub-mechanism of AramcoMech, which was developed by Metcalfe et al. [41] for C₁-C₄ chemistry. In this work [14], the chemical kinetic model was improved to better agree with the ignition delay time data measured in shock tube experiments for undiluted C₂H₄-air mixtures [5], although the model still tends to over-predict ignition delay times at low pressures for the fuel-lean cases. Kopp et al. [14] also compared the optimized model with mechanisms of USC 2.0 and UCSD, and the comparison shows that their study can be used to make further improvements in the mechanisms from other groups.

Marinov et al. [20] in Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory (LLNL) conducted an experimental work of atmospheric pressure premixed n-Butane flat flame and developed a detailed chemical kinetic model for C₁-C₄ with PAH formation. Konnov [19] developed a detailed reaction mechanism for small hydrocarbons combustion including reactions of

nitrogen focusing on reactions of NO, CN, NCN and HNCN. In the study of Xu and Konnov [13], mechanisms of Konnov [19], USC 2.0 [2], UCSD [3] and LLNL [20] were validated for C₂H₄ oxidation with experimental data of ignition delays [13, 16, 21, 28, 29] and laminar flame speeds [6, 8-13]. Differences in reaction rate constants and routes of C₂H₄ and vinyl chemistry were analyzed and discussed. The results show that H-O and C₁ chemistry reactions significantly influence the laminar flame speeds in lean C₂H₄/air flames, while C₂ chemistry reactions become of increasing importance in fuel-rich flames.

Dias et al. [22, 23] used a Spalding–Botha type burner to investigate the effect of the addition of methylal (C₃H₈O₂) and ethylal (C₅H₁₂O₂), and a kinetic model was elaborated to simulate the investigated flames. Malliotakis et al. [29] studied the addition of C₂ oxygenated species in rich C₂H₄ premixed flames with the flat flame burner at the University of Louvain (UCL), and detailed kinetic mechanisms of NTUA [42, 43] and UCL [44-46] were utilized for analysis.

Korobeinichev et al. [24] conducted an experimental study to understand the influence of ethanol on the process of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH) and soot formation in C₂H₄ flames. A detailed mechanism composed of the mechanisms of Marinov et al. [47] and Appel et al. [48] was applied to analyze the benzene formation in C₂H₄ flames.

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Supplementary Material - 2

A Comprehensive Kinetic Modelling Study of Ethylene Combustion with Data Uncertainty Analysis

Hongxin Wang^a, Nadezda Slavinskaya^{b, c}, Aziza Kanz^d, Moldir Auyelkhankzy^{c, e}, Yiting Gao^a, Oskar Haidn^a

a. Department of Aerospace and Geodesy, Technical University of Munich, 85748 Garching, Germany

b. GRS Association for Plant and Reactor Safety, 85748 Garching, Germany

c. Al-Farabi Kazakh National University, 050040 Almaty, Kazakhstan

d. DLR German Aerospace Center, Institute of Combustion Technology, 70569 Stuttgart, Germany

e. Institute of Combustion Problems, 050012 Almaty, Kazakhstan

Model analysis and reaction review

Table S2-1. Parameters for Arrhenius equation and uncertainty factors, $kT = ATnexp - Ea/T$,	
$kT = A1Tn1exp - Ea1T + A2Tn2exp - Ea2T$ for duplications (dup).....	2
Table S2-2. Update of RRCs for major initial reactions of C ₂ H ₄ oxidation and key intermediates.
	4

Figure S2-1. Determination of uncertainty bounds and factors for rate coefficients from statistical analysis of literature data (solid scatters for the data published after year 2000, empty scatters for the data published before year 2000).....	
	8

A discussion on the update of RRCs

Table S2-1. Parameters for Arrhenius equation and uncertainty factors, $k(T) = AT^n \exp(-E_a/T)$,
$$k(T) = A_1 T^{n_1} \exp\left(-\frac{E_{a1}}{T}\right) + A_2 T^{n_2} \exp\left(-\frac{E_{a2}}{T}\right) \text{ for duplications (dup).}$$

Reaction		Reference	$\Delta T, K$	k, cm ³ , s, mole, K		
				A	n	E_a, K
R1a	$C_2H_4+O_2=C_2H_3+H_2O$	Hua2005 [1]	300-2500	4.17E+03	2.99	28070.0
		Tsang1986 [2]	300-2500	4.20E+13	0.00	29000.0
R2	$C_2H_4+O=products$ $f= 0.135 - 0.142$	Li2017 [3]	300-2500	7.58E+07	1.65	277.0
		Morin2017 [4, 5]	230-902	5.20E+07	1.70	206.0
		Nguyen2005 [6]	200-2000	1.02E+08	1.66	331.0
		Baulch2005 [7]	220-2000	1.35E+07	1.88	92.0
		Baulch1992 [8]	300-2000	2.46E+06	2.08	0.0
		Klemm1990 [9]	1000-2300	5.80E+13	0.00	2770.0
		Mahmud1987 [10]	300-850	1.60E+08	1.44	267.0
		Klemm1987 dup1 [11]	244-1052	6.14E+12	0.00	753.0
		Klemm1987 dup2 [11]	244-1052	1.66E+14	0.00	4220.0
		Umemoto1985 [12]	240-450	8.39E+12	0.00	712.0
		Perry1984 [13]	258-861	1.28E+11	0.63	689.0
		Fonderie1984 [14]	300-850	1.10E+13	0.00	1010.0
		Browarzik1984 [15]	197-372	5.06E+12	0.00	758.0
		Nicovich1982 [16]	298-500	7.350E+12	0.00	870.0
		Singleton1976 [17]	298-400	6.980E+12	0.00	845.0
		Davis1972 [18]	232- 500	3.270E+12	0.00	569.0
		Fenimore1963 [19]	1400-1860	3.160E+13	0.00	0.0
		Elias1963 [20]	223- 613	8.430E+12	0.00	805.0
R3a	$C_2H_4+OH=C_2H_3+H_2O$ $f= 0.301 - 0.318$	Ali2011 [21]	200-400	6.20E+11	0.00	1400.0
		Senosiain2006 [22]	250-2500	1.31E-01	4.20	-433.0
		Liu2002 [23]	200-5000	2.10E+06	2.01	585.0
		Baulch1992 [8]	650-1500	2.05E+13	0.00	2990.0
		Westbrook1989 [24]	1003-1253	2.00E+13	0.00	2990.0
		Tully1988 [25]	650-901	2.02E+13	0.00	2990.0
		Liu1987 [26]	748-1170	1.45E+13	0.00	2100.0
		Tsang1986 [2]	300-2500	1.57E+04	2.75	2100.0
		Warnatz1984 [27]	500- 2000	3.00E+13	0.00	1500.0
R3b	$C_2H_4+OH=CH_2CH_2OH$ $f= 0.143 - 0.149$	Golden2012 [28]	200-400	7.35E+12	-0.31	-431.0
		Clearay2006 [29]	200-400	3.02E+12	0.00	-148.0
		Senosiain2006 dup1 [22]	250-2500	6.02E+37	-8.88	2602.0
		Senosiain2006 dup2 [22]	250-2500	4.46E+07	1.55	-787.0
		Zhu2005 [30]	200-500	1.81E+10	0.72	-425.0
		Zhu2005 [30]	600-3000	2.26E+05	2.28	-1241.0
		Yamada1999 [31]	290-450	1.00E+12	0.00	-463.0
		Yamada1999 [31]	450-700	3.89E+12	0.00	0.0
		Yamada1999 [31]	700-1200	6.19E+12	0.00	463.0
		Fulle1997 [32]	300- 800	6.03E+12	0.00	0.0
		Diau1992 [33]	544-590	2.41E+11	0.00	-1200.0

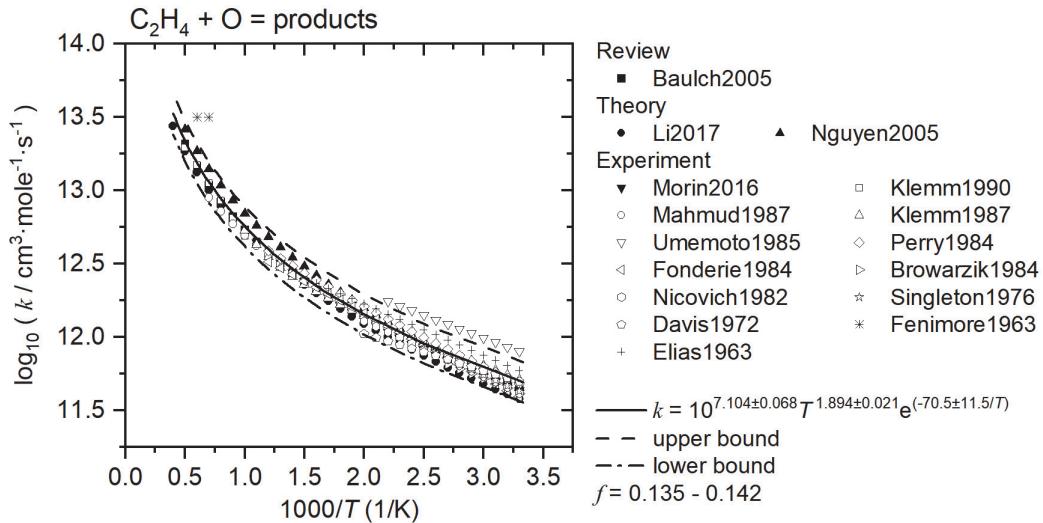
Reaction		Reference	ΔT , K	k, cm ³ , s, mole, K		
				A	A	A
R3c	C ₂ H ₄ +OH=CH ₂ O+CH ₃	Senosiain2006 [22]	250-2500	1.78E+05	1.68	1036.9
R3d	C ₂ H ₄ +OH=C ₂ H ₃ OH+H	Senosiain2006 [22]	250-2500	3.20E+05	2.19	2644.9
R3e	C ₂ H ₄ +OH=CH ₃ CHO+H	Senosiain2006 [22]	250-2500	2.38E-02	3.91	867.0
R4a	C ₂ H ₄ +H=C ₂ H ₃ +H ₂ $f= 0.847 - 0.898$	Huynh2007 [34]	300-3000	1.26E+05	2.75	5862.0
		Baulch2005 [7]	400-2000	2.35E+02	3.62	5670.0
		Knyazev1996 [35]	200-3000	5.06E+07	1.93	6520.0
		Baulch1992 [8]	700-2000	5.42E+14	0.00	7500.0
		Manion1988 [36]	872-1080	1.00E+14	0.00	7550.0
		Tsang1986 [2]	300-2500	1.32E+06	2.53	6160.3
		Warnatz1984 [27]	700-2000	1.50E+14	0.00	5140.4
		Just1977 [37]	1070-2000	5.00E+15	0.00	11500.4
		Ding2011 [38]	200-3000	4.80E+08	1.50	1317.0
R4b	C ₂ H ₄ +H(+M)=C ₂ H ₅ (+M) (high-pressure limit) $f= 0.22$	Curran2006 [39]	298-2000	1.70E+10	1.07	729.7
		Michael2005 [40]	200-2000	2.53E+08	1.75	604.9
		Miller2004 [41]	300-2000	1.40E+09	1.46	681.9
		Baulch1994 [42]	300-800	3.97E+09	1.28	650.0
		Feng1993 [43]	200-1100	1.08E+12	0.45	917.0
		Lightfoot1987 [44]	193-604	2.64E+13	0.00	1087.0
		Tsang1986 [2]	300-2500	8.42E+08	1.49	499.0
		Warnatz1984 [27]	700-2000	1.00E+13	0.00	757.7
		Sugawara1981 [45]	206-461	2.83E+13	0.00	1096.0
		Baulch2005 [7]	300-800	4.71E+18	0.00	380.0
	C ₂ H ₄ +H(+M)=C ₂ H ₅ (+M) (low-pressure limit)	Miller2004 [41]	300-2000	2.00E+39	-6.64	2903.1
		Baulch1994 [42]	300-800	2.79E+18	0.00	380.0
		Lightfoot1987 [44]	193-607	5.04E+18	0.00	569.0
		Harding2008[46]	200-2000	3.88E+13	0.20	0.0
R5a ⁻	C ₂ H ₃ +H=C ₂ H ₄	Duran1988 [47]	700-1300	5.36E+14	0.00	494.0
		Baulch1992 [8]	600-900	2.23E+12	0.00	8650.0
R6	C ₂ H ₄ +HO ₂ =CH ₂ OCH ₂ +OH	Baldwin1986[48]	673-773	2.82E+12	0.00	8610.0
		Baldwin1984[49]	673-773	3.80E+12	0.00	8980.0
		Klippenstein2017 [50]	300-2500	2.47E+09	0.51	582.2
R7a	C ₂ H ₅ +O ₂ =C ₂ H ₄ +HO ₂ $f= 0.231 - 0.241$	Carstensen2005 [51]	300-850	2.43E+17	-1.90	2229.3
		DeSain2003 [52]	300-700	1.84E+07	1.13	-362.6
		Miller2001 [53]	300-2000	1.40E+07	1.09	-993.9
		Baulch1992 [8]	600-1200	1.02E+11	0.00	-1100.0
		Bozzelli1990 [54]	250-1200	2.56E+19	-2.77	995.0
		Tsang1986 [2]	300-2500	8.43E+11	0.00	1950.0
		Warnatz1984 [27]	700-2000	2.00E+12	0.00	2510.0
		Baldwin1980 [55]	673-813	5.51E+11	0.00	1950.0
		Baker1971 [56]	713-896	2.17E+11	0.00	694.0
		Cooke1971 [57]	1400-1800	3.16E+12	0.00	2520.0

Reaction		Reference	$\Delta T, K$	k, cm ³ , s, mole, K		
				A		
R7a	$C_2H_5+O_2=C_2H_4+HO_2$ $f= 0.231 - 0.241$	Klippenstein2017 [50]	300-2500	2.47E+09	0.51	582.2
		Carstensen2005 [51]	300-850	2.43E+17	-1.90	2229.3
		DeSain2003 [52]	300-700	1.84E+07	1.13	-362.6
		Miller2001 [53]	300-2000	1.40E+07	1.09	-993.9
		Baulch1992 [8]	600-1200	1.02E+11	0.00	-1100.0
		Bozzelli1990 [54]	250-1200	2.56E+19	-2.77	995.0
		Tsang1986 [2]	300-2500	8.43E+11	0.00	1950.0
		Warnatz1984 [27]	700-2000	2.00E+12	0.00	2510.0
		Baldwin1980 [55]	673-813	5.51E+11	0.00	1950.0
		Baker1971 [56]	713-896	2.17E+11	0.00	694.0
		Cooke1971 [57]	1400-1800	3.16E+12	0.00	2520.0
R7b	$C_2H_5+O_2=C_2H_5O_2$ $f= 0.491 - 0.511$	Klippenstein2017 [50]	300-2500	3.98E+42	-9.86	4088.4
		Fernandes2015 [58]	300-500	8.61E+14	-1.00	0.0
		Carstensen2005 [51]	300-850	9.42E+36	-8.01	3068.6
		DeSain2003 [52]	300-700	9.36E+59	-15.3	7120.0
		Sheng2002 [59]	300-1000	2.94E+13	-0.44	0.0
		Miller2001 [53]	298-2000	2.02E+10	0.98	-32.0
		Bozzelli1990 [60]	250-1200	2.00E+42	-10.3	3060.0
		Wagner1990 [61]	300-2000	2.21E+10	0.77	-287.0

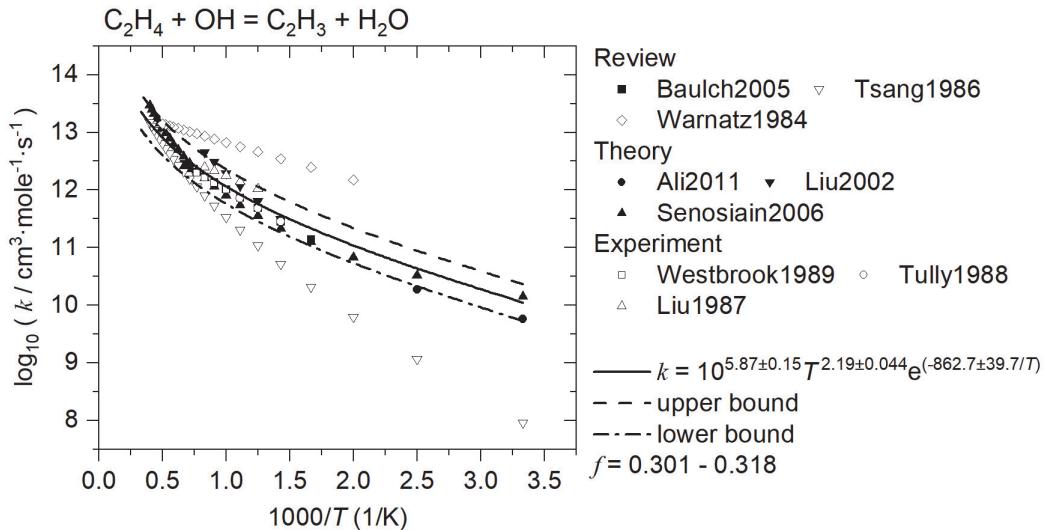
Table S2-2. Update of RRCs for major initial reactions of C_2H_4 oxidation and key intermediates.

No.	Reaction	Reference		
		Model-1	Model-2	
R1a	$C_2H_4+O_2=C_2H_3+H_2O$	Tsang1986 [2]	Hua2005 [1]	
R1b	$C_2H_4+O_2=CH_2CHO+OH$	Glarborg1998 [62]	-	
R2a	$C_2H_4+O=CH_3+HCO$	Baulch2005 [7]	Morin2017 [4, 5]	
R2b	$C_2H_4+O=CH_2CHO+H$	Baulch2005 [7]		
R2c	$C_2H_4+O=CH_2O+CH_2$	-		
R2d	$C_2H_4+O=CH_2CO+H_2$	Baulch2005 [7]		
R3a	$C_2H_4+OH=C_2H_3+H_2O$	Vasu2010 [63]	Senosian2006 [22]	
R3b	$C_2H_4+OH=CH_2O+CH_3$	Baulch2005 [7]		
R3c	$C_2H_4+OH=C_2H_3OH+H$			
R3d	$C_2H_4+OH=CH_3CHO+H$			
R3e	$C_2H_4+OH=CH_2CH_2OH$	Senosian2006 [22]		
R4a	$C_2H_4+H=C_2H_3+H_2$	Hughes2001 [64]	Huynh2007 [34]	
R4b	$C_2H_4+H=C_2H_5$	Baulch1994 [7]	Miller2004 [41]	
R5a	$C_2H_4=C_2H_3+H$	Hughes2001 [64]	Baulch2005 [7]	
R5b	$C_2H_4=H_2CC+H_2$	Hughes2001 [64]	Laskin2000 [65]	
R6	$C_2H_4+HO_2=CH_2OCH_2+OH$	-	Baulch2005 [7]	

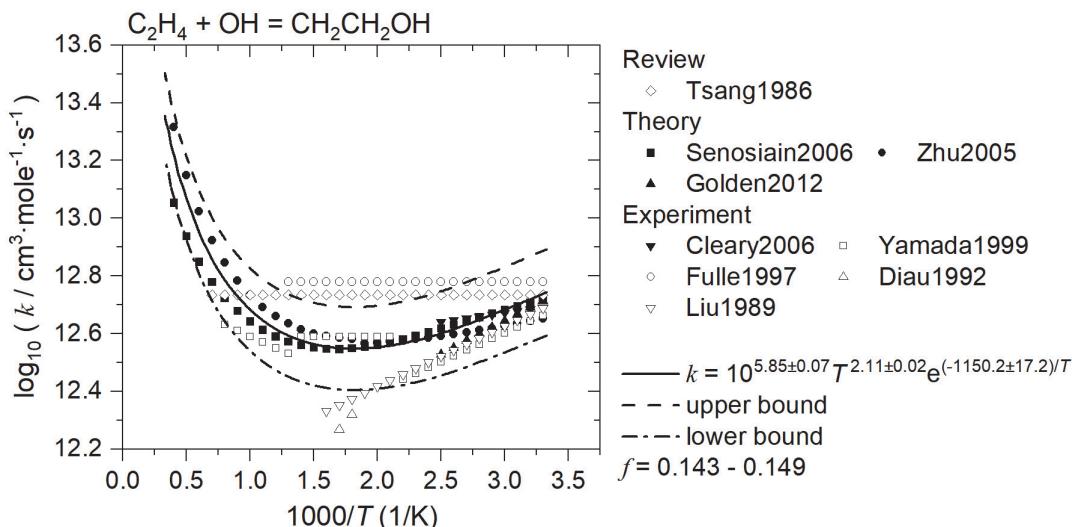
No.	Reaction	Reference	
		Original model	New model
R7a	$C_2H_5+O_2=C_2H_4+HO_2$	Marinov1996 [66]	Klippenstein2017 [50]
R7b	$C_2H_5+O_2=C_2H_5O_2$	Miller2001 [53]	
R7c	$C_2H_5+O_2=CH_2OCH_2+OH$	-	
R8a	$CH_3+CH_3=C_2H_5+H$	Hughes2001 [64]	Baulch2005 [7]
R8b	$C_2H_5+H=C_2H_4+H_2$	-	
R8c	$C_2H_5+H=C_2H_6$	-	Wang2003 [67]
R9a	$C_2H_5+O=CH_2O+CH_3$	-	Slagle1988 [68]
R9b	$C_2H_5+O=CH_3CHO+H$	-	
R9c	$C_2H_5+O=C_2H_4+OH$	-	
R10	$CH_2CO+O=HCCO+OH$	-	Xiong2014 [69]
R11a	$CH_2CO+H=HCCO+H_2$	-	Zhou2008 [70]
R11b	$CH_2CO+H=CH_3+CO$	Frank1986 [71]	Senosiain2006 [72]
R11c	$CH_2CO+H=CH_2CHO$	Senosiain2006 [72]	
R11d	$CH_2CO+H=CH_3CO$	Senosiain2006 [72]	
R12	$CH_3CO=CH_3+CO$	Konnov2009 [73]	
R13a	$CH_2CHO=CH_3+CO$	Rasmussen2004 [74]	
R13b	$CH_2CHO=CH_3CO$	Lindstedt2000 [75]	Lee2003 [76]
R14a	$CH_2CHO+H=CH_3+HCO$	Glarborg1998 [62]	Labbe2015 [77]
R14b	$CH_2CHO+H=CH_3CO+H$		
R15	$H_2CC+OH=CH_2CO+H$	-	Laskin2000 [65] Wang2001 [78]
R16	$H_2CC+O_2=HCO+HCO$		
R17	$H_2CC+H=C_2H_2+H$		
R18	$H_2CC+C_2H_2=C_4H_4$		
R19	$C_2H_2=H_2CC$		
R20	$C_2H_3+H=H_2CC+H_2$		
R21a	$CH_2OCH_2=CH_3CHO$	-	Joshi2005 [79]
R21b	$CH_2OCH_2=CH_3+HCO$	-	
R21c	$CH_2OCH_2=CH_4+CO$	-	
R21d	$CH_2OCH_2=CH_3CO+H$	-	
R21e	$CH_2OCH_2=CH_2CHO+H$	-	
R21f	$CH_2OCH_2=CH_2CO+H_2$	-	
R21g	$CH_2OCH_2=C_2H_2+H_2O$	-	
R22	$CH_2OCH=CH_3+CO$	-	
R22	$CH_2OCH=CH_2CO+H$	-	
R22	$CH_2OCH=CH_2CHO$	-	
R23a	$CH_2OCH_2+H=CH_3CHO+H$	-	Lifshitz1983 [80]
R23b	$CH_2OCH_2+H=CH_2OCH+H_2$	-	
R23c	$CH_2OCH_2+H=C_2H_4+OH$	-	
R24	$CH_2OCH_2+O=CH_2OCH+OH$	-	Bogan1978 [81]
R25	$CH_2OCH_2+OH=CH_2OCH+H_2O$	-	Baldwin1984 [49]
R26	$CH_2OCH_2+CH_3=CH_2OCH+CH_4$	-	



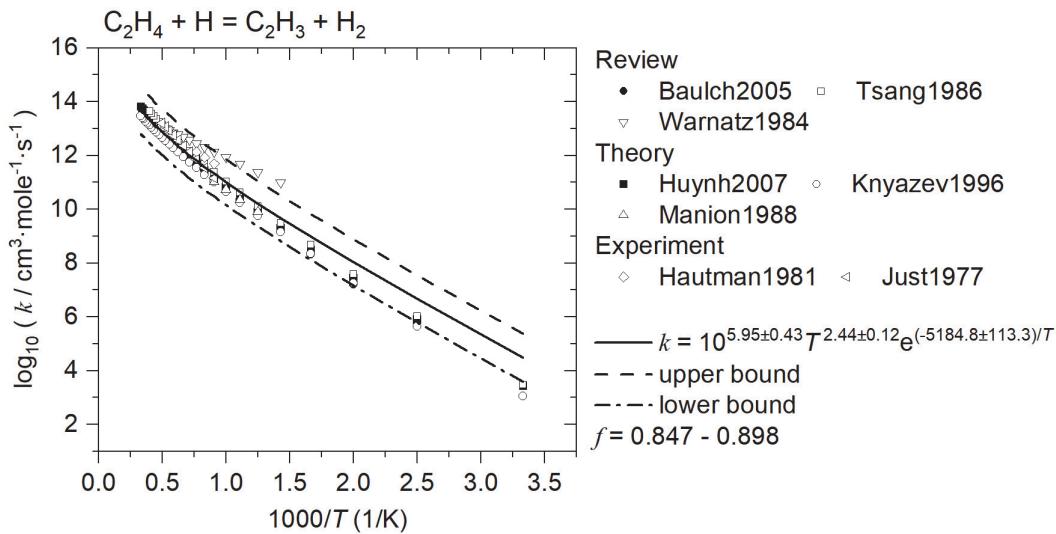
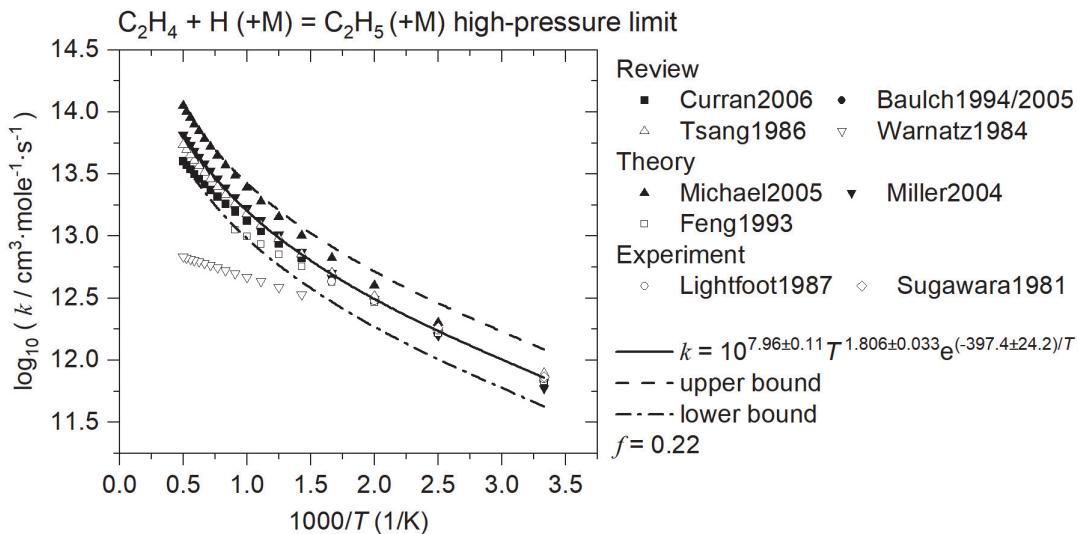
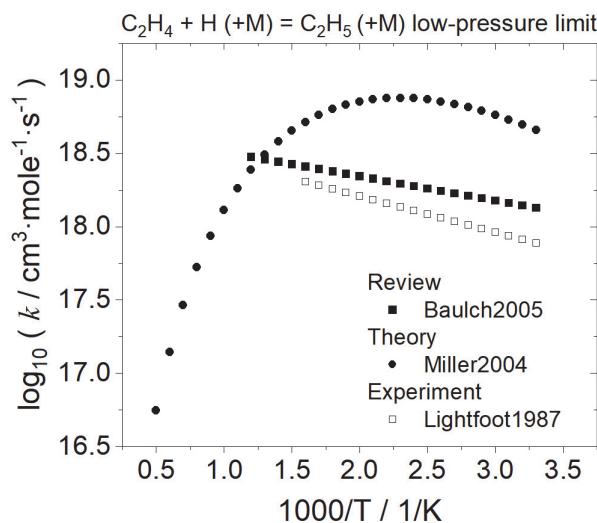
R2 $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{O} = \text{products}$



R3a $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{OH} = \text{C}_2\text{H}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$



R3b $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{OH} = \text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$ (high-pressure limit)

**R4a** $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{H} = \text{C}_2\text{H}_3 + \text{H}_2$ **R4b** $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{H} (+\text{M}) = \text{C}_2\text{H}_5 (+\text{M})$ (high-pressure limit)**R4b** $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{H} (+\text{M}) = \text{C}_2\text{H}_5 (+\text{M})$ (low-pressure limit)

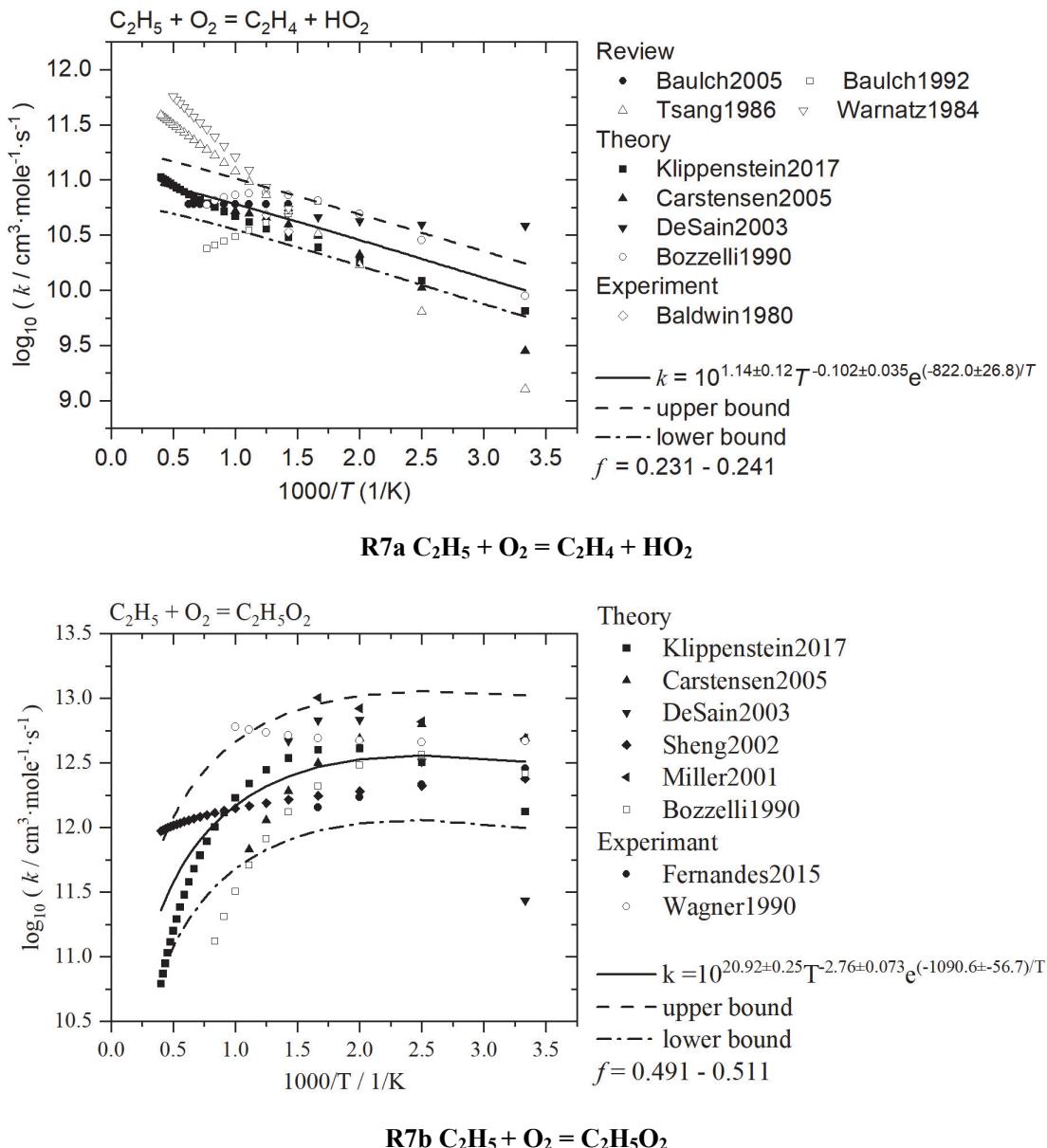


Figure S2-1. Determination of uncertainty bounds and factors for rate coefficients from statistical analysis of literature data.

A discussion on the update of RRCs is presented as follows:

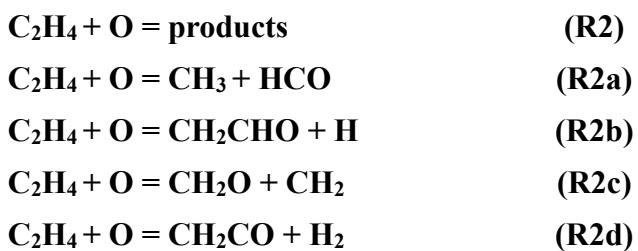


For this RRC, Tsang et al. [2] gave a recommendation with a high level of uncertainty. The ab initio calculation conducted by Hua et al. [1] showed similar results, which was further adopted in model-2.

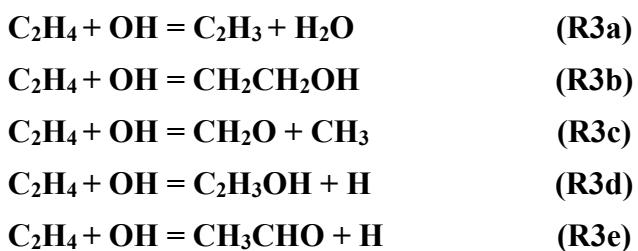


The RRC of reaction (R1b) was adopted from the kinetic model developed by Glarborg et al. [62] and the work of Benson et al. [82], in which reaction (R1b) was studied as an overall reaction containing reactions of C_2H_3 , $\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OO}$ and CH_2CHOH . Considering the existing

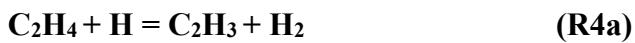
detailed channels for these species, reaction (R1b) has been deleted in model-2.



Reaction (R2) has been experimentally studied over a wide range of temperature [4, 6, 9-11, 83]. Reactions (R2a-d) are the most important channels for the reaction of $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{O}$ and the branching ratios are studied both experimentally and theoretically. Baulch et al. [7] recommended the RRC well fitted on previous works on reaction (R2). The theoretical results obtained by Nguyen et al. [6] agreed well with the experimental results at temperatures in the range of 287-607K. The calculation of Li et al. [3] showed similar results as Nguyen et al. [6] at low temperatures, but also a sharp decrease of the branching fractions of the channels (R2a) and (R2d) at temperatures above 750K, where no experimental branching information is available. However, later experiments conducted by Morin et al. [4, 5] showed that the branching ratios are nearly non-temperature dependent at temperatures up to 900K. In model-2, the RRCs and branching ratios measured by Morin et al. [4, 5] have been adopted.



Limited to the available data, Tsang et al. [2] obtained a calculated RRC with high uncertainty for the reaction (R3a). Baulch et al. [8] gave a fitted RRC for the reaction R3a in their early work, but the same RRC was recommended for the sum of reactions (R3c-e) in their later work [7]. Hidaka et al. [83], Zhu et al. [30], Cleary et al. [29] and Senosiain et al. [22] conducted quantum chemistry calculations for the reaction system of $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{OH}$. The theoretical results showed a good agreement with previous experimental data [26, 32, 33, 84] and self-consistency. The channel (R3b) becomes dominant at low temperatures and shows a strong pressure dependence. In model-2, the calculations over the temperature range of 250-2500K in the work of Senosiain et al. [22] have been adopted for the reactions (R3a-e).



Reaction (R4a) is one of the key reactions for C_2H_4 oxidation at high temperatures and most of the experimental works [7, 27] focused on the temperature range of 900-2000K. Huynh et al. [34] studied the hydrogen abstraction reaction class of the $\text{H} + \text{alkene}$ using the reaction class transition state theory and the results showed good agreement with the previous experimental

data and review works. In model-2, the RRC recommended by Huynh et al. [34] has been adopted for the reaction (R4a).



Except the RRC recommended by the early work of Warnatz [27], which showed an underestimation of results at high temperatures due to the lack of available data, the rest of the collections were applied to the statistical analysis of the RRC for the reaction (R4b) at the high-pressure limit. The reference sources for the reaction (R4b) at the low-pressure range are limited. Miller et al. [41] investigated the kinetics of the H+C₂H₂ and H+C₂H₄ reactions and applied the variational transition-state theory to compute rate coefficients. The results of Miller et al. [41] showed that the RRC recommended by Baulch et al. [7, 42] for the temperature range of 300-800K could be overestimated at high temperatures. In model-2, the RRCs and fall-off data calculated by Miller et al. [41] have been adopted.



The previous studies [37, 85-87] on the decomposition of C₂H₄ mainly focused on the very high-temperature range (T>1500K). To avoid possible large uncertainties at low temperatures, the RRC for reaction (R5a) has been replaced by the RRC recommended by Baulch et al. [7].



Laskin et al. [65] and Wang [78] studied the reactions related to H₂CC in detail, and their recommendations for reaction (R5b) and channels related to H₂CC are adopted in model-2.



CH₂OCH₂ is a key intermediate of C₂H₄ oxidation at low temperatures, but this channel was missing in model-1. The RRC for the reaction R6 fitted by Baulch et al. [7] and the theoretical results obtained by Joshi et al. [79] for reactions related to CH₂OCH₂ have been adopted in model-2.

Reactions of C₂H₅ (R7-9)

The RRCs for reactions of C₂H₅+O₂, which are important for the low-temperature C₂H₄ oxidation, have been updated with the recent theoretical studies conducted by Klippenstein et al. [50, 88]. RRCs for the channels of C₂H₅+H recommended by Baulch et al. [7] and Harding et al. [46] are adopted in model-2. Harding et al. [89] also conducted a theoretical investigation on the reactions of C₂H₅+O, but the results appear to underestimate the previous experimental data [90, 91] so that the RRCs recommended by Slagle et al. have been adopted in model-2. C₂H₅ is also the main product of the initial steps of C₂H₆ oxidation, and these channels related to C₂H₅ will be studied in detail in our later work on C₂H₆.

Reactions related to CH₂CO, CH₃CO and CH₂CHO (R10-14)

Compared to the reactions of C₂H₄ and C₂H₅, the available data for the reactions related to CH₂CO, CH₃CO, and CH₂CHO are limited. The theoretical results calculated by Senosian et al.

[72] and the RRCs recommended by the recent works of Xiong et al. [69], Labbe et al. [77], and Wang [92] have been adopted in model-2.

Reactions of H₂CC and CH₂OCH₂ (R15-26)

New species of vinylidene (H₂CC) and ethylene oxide (CH₂OCH₂) and their related reactions were added to the model due to their important roles in the formation of PAH and low-temperature C₂H₄ oxidation, following the work of Laskin et al. [65] and Joshi et al. [79].

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Supplementary Material - 3

A Comprehensive Kinetic Modelling Study of Ethylene Combustion with Data Uncertainty Analysis

Hongxin Wang^a, Nadezda Slavinskaya^{b, c}, Aziza Kanz^d, Moldir Auyelkhankzyzy^{c, e}, Yiting Gao^a, Oskar Haidn^a

a. Department of Aerospace and Geodesy, Technical University of Munich, 85748 Garching, Germany

b. GRS Association for Plant and Reactor Safety, 85748 Garching, Germany

c. Al-Farabi Kazakh National University, 050040 Almaty, Kazakhstan

d. DLR German Aerospace Center, Institute of Combustion Technology, 70569 Stuttgart, Germany

e. Institute of Combustion Problems, 050012 Almaty, Kazakhstan

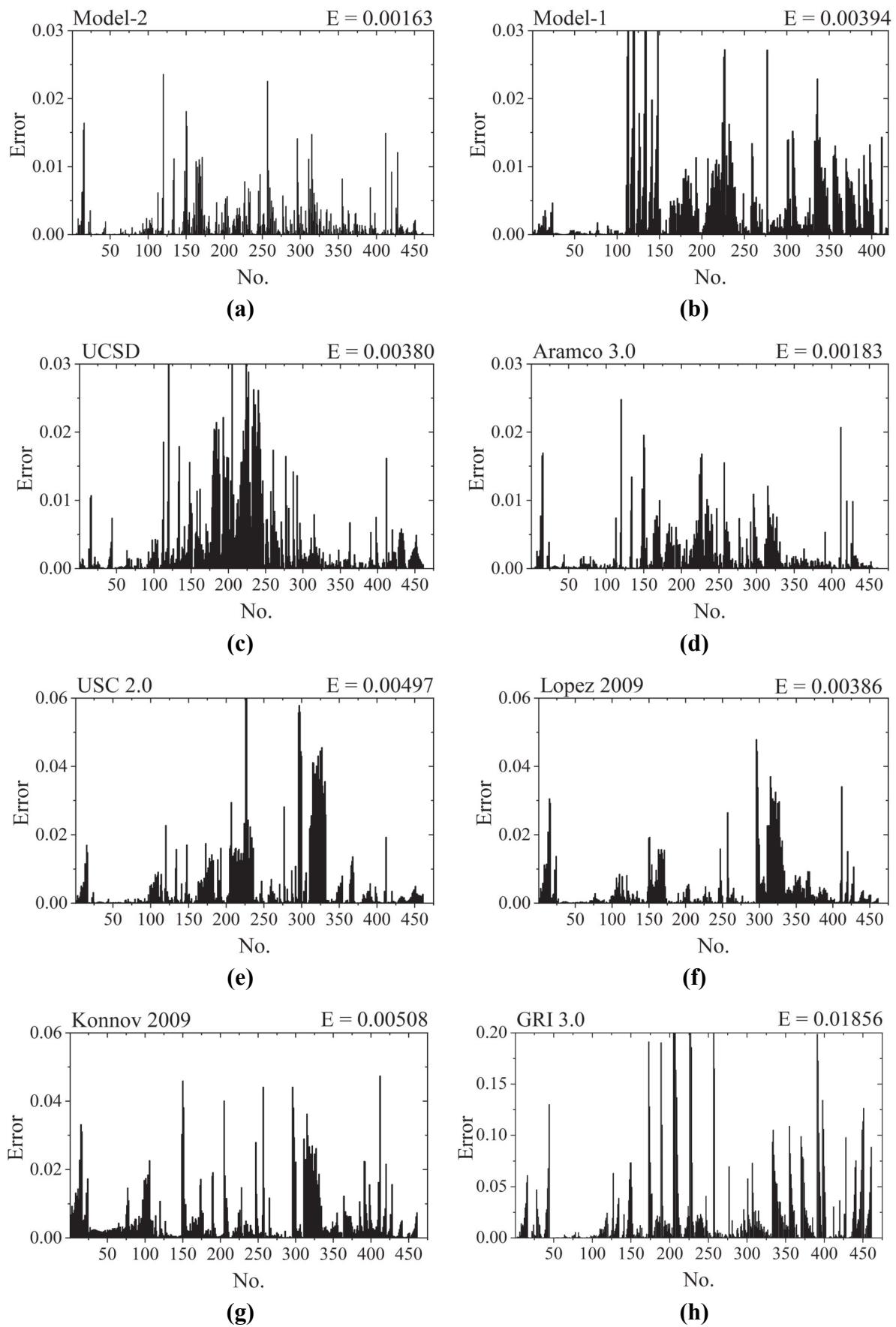
Experimental data and modeling results for ignition delay times

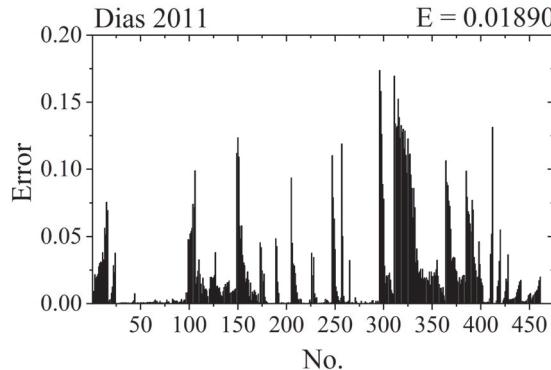
Table S3-1. References of the validated ignition delay times of ethylene oxidation..... 2

Figure S3-1. Errors (e_{ij} , equation 7) for modelling ignition delay times with model-1, model-2 (this study), Aramco 3.0 mechanism [9], UCSD mechanism [10], Lopez's model [11], USC 2.0 mechanism [12], Konnov's model [13], GRI 3.0 mechanism [14], Dias's model [15], NTUA 2015 mechanisim [16]. 4

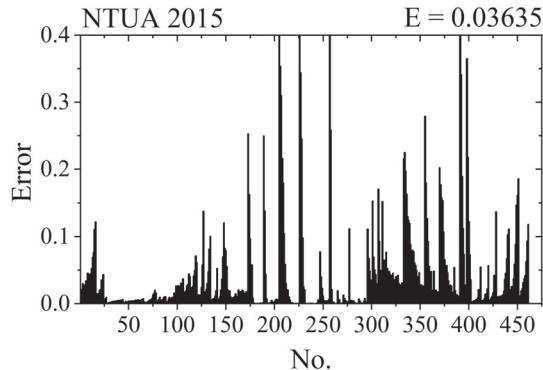
Table S3-1. References of the validated ignition delay times of ethylene oxidation.

No.	Author	Journal/Congress	Title
[1]	M.B. Colket L. J. Spadaccini	<i>Journal of Propulsion and Power</i> 17 (2001) 315-323.	Scramjet fuels autoignition study
[2]	D. M. Kalitan. J. M. Hall E. L. Petersen	<i>Journal of Propulsion and Power</i> 21 (2005) 1045-1056.	Ignition and Oxidation of Ethylene-Oxygen-Diluent Mixtures with and Without Silane
[3]	O.G. Penyazkov K.L. Sevrouk V. Tangirala N. Joshi	<i>Proceedings of the Combustion Institute</i> 32 (2009) 2421-2428.	High-pressure ethylene oxidation behind reflected shock waves
[4]	S. Saxena, M.S.P. Kahandawala, S. S. Sidhu	<i>Combustion and Flame</i> 158 (2011) 1019-1031.	A shock tube study of ignition delay in the combustion of ethylene
[5]	M. M. Kopp E. L. Petersen W. K. Metcalfe S. M. Burke H. J. Curran	<i>Journal of Propulsion and Power</i> 30 (2014) 790-798.	Oxidation of ethylene-air mixtures at elevated pressures, part 2 chemical kinetics
[6]	F. Deng Y. Pan W. Sun F. Yang Y. Zhang Z. Huang	<i>Energy & Fuels</i> 31 (2017) 14116-14128	Comparative study of the effects of nitrous oxide and oxygen on ethylene ignition
[7]	J. Shao, D. F. Davidson, R. K. Hanson	<i>Fuel</i> 225 (2018) 370-380.	A shock tube study of ignition delay times in diluted methane, ethylene, propene and their blends at elevated pressures
[8]	C. J. Brown G. O. Thomas	<i>Combustion and Flame</i> 117 (1999) 861-870.	Experimental studies of shock-induced ignition and transition to detonation in ethylene and propane mixtures





(i)



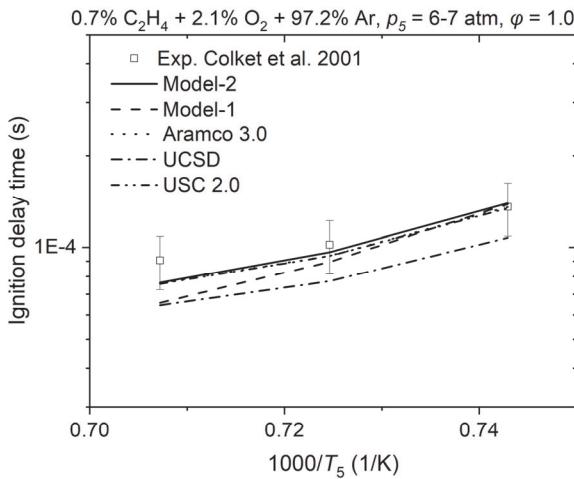
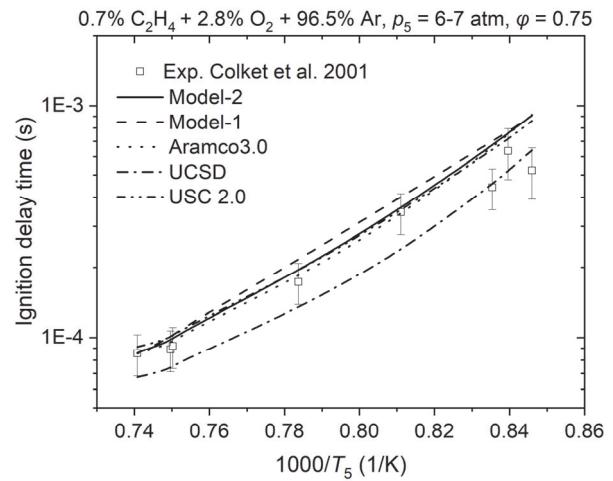
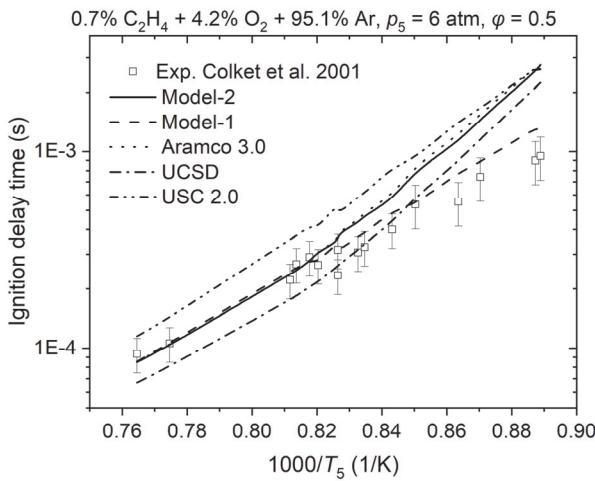
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Figure S3-1. Errors (e_{ij} , equation 7) for modelling ignition delay times with mechanism of model-1, model-2 (this study), Aramco 3.0 [9], UCSD [10], Lopez [11], USC 2.0 [12], Konnov [13], GRI 3.0 [14], Dias [15], NTUA 2015 [16].

Journal: *Journal of Propulsion and Power* 17 (2001) 315-323

Article: Scramjet fuels autoignition study

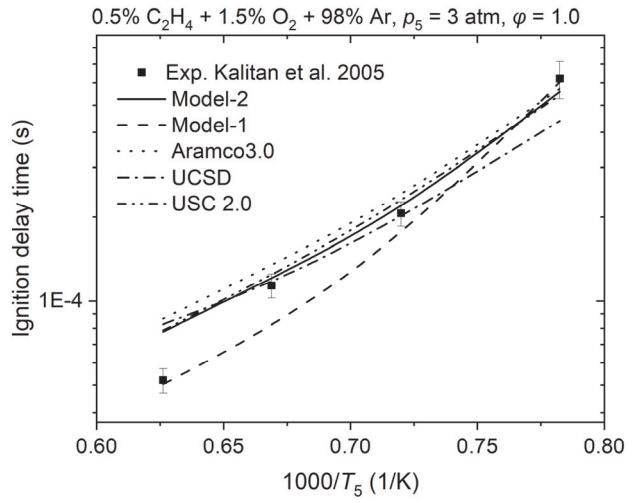
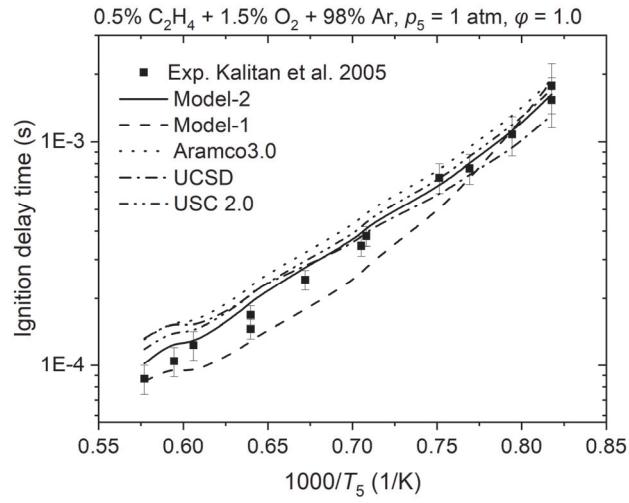
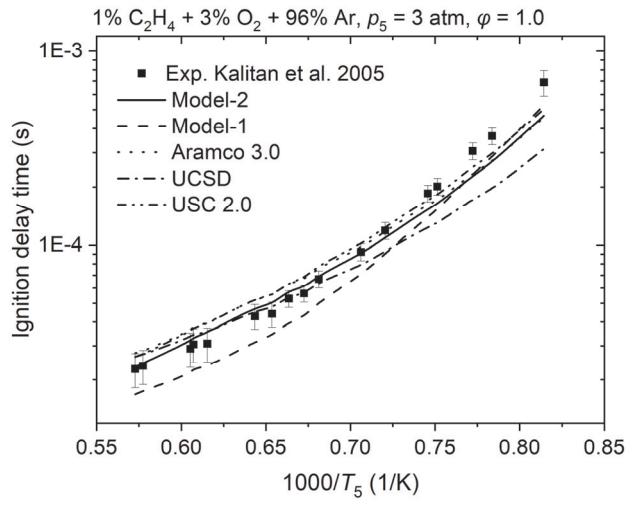
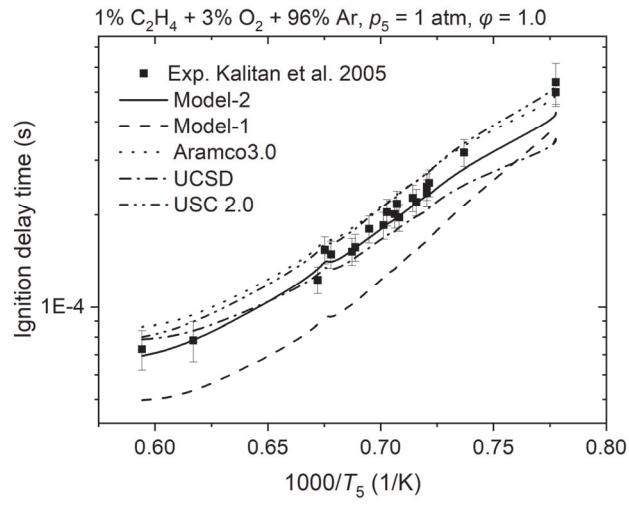
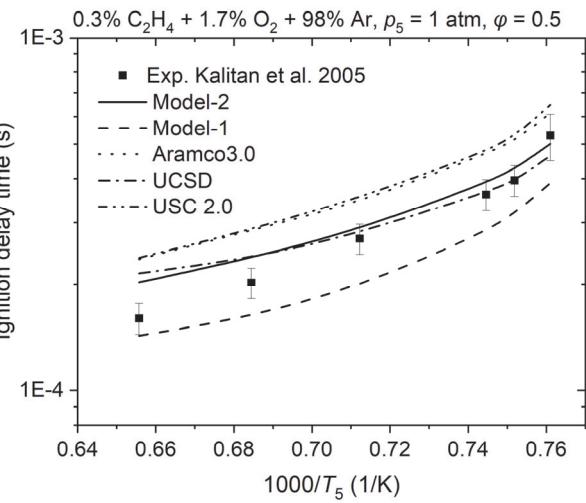
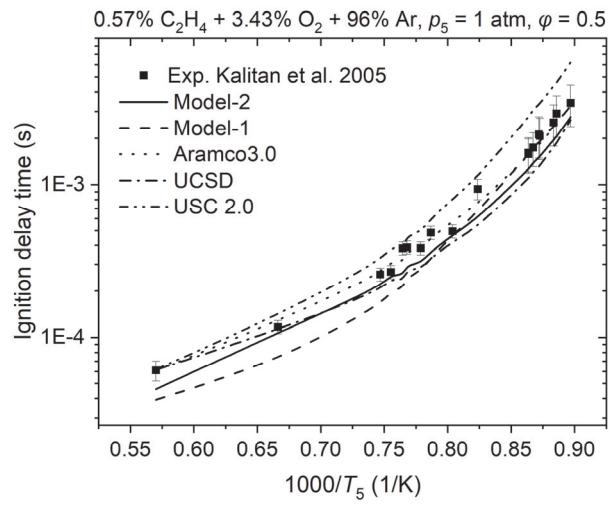
Author: M.B. Colket. L. J. Spadaccini



Journal: *Journal of Propulsion and Power* 21 (2005) 1045-1056.

Article: Ignition and oxidation of ethylene-oxygen-diluent mixtures with and without silane

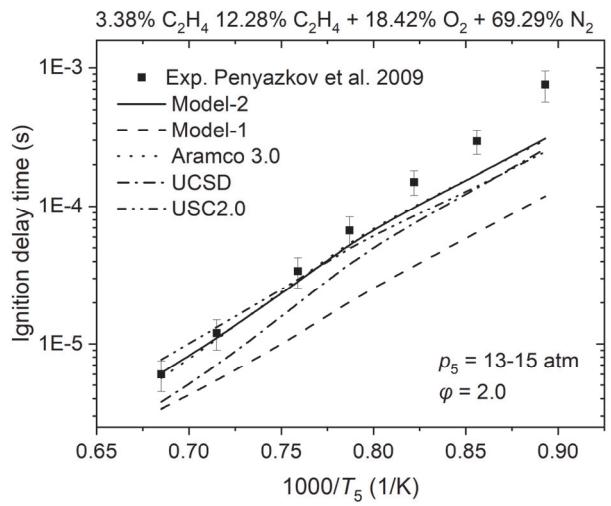
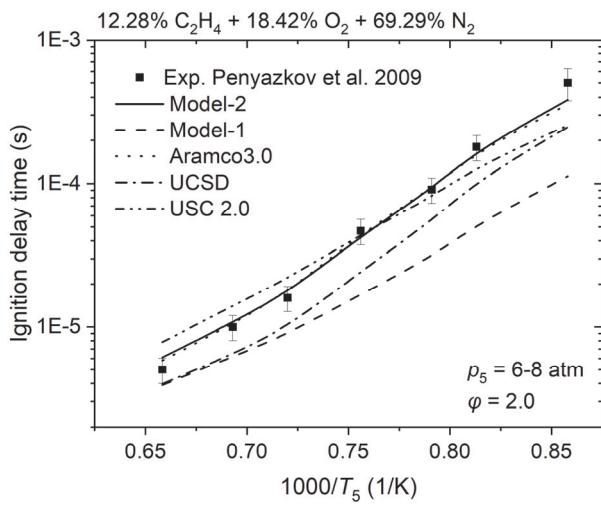
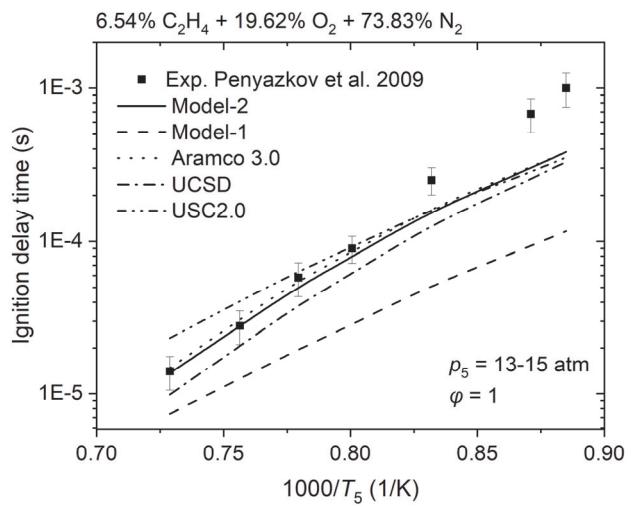
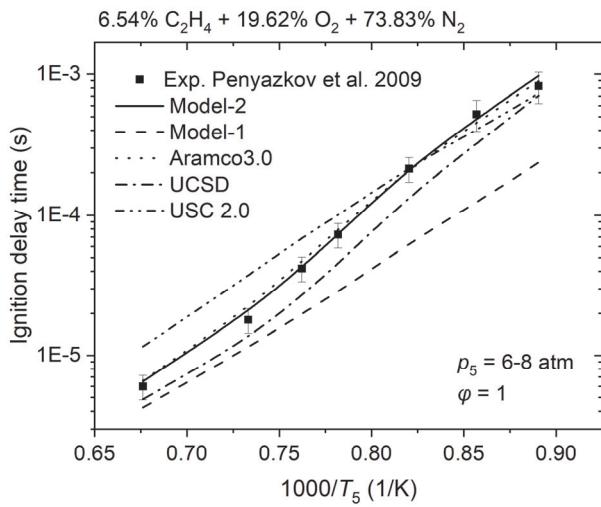
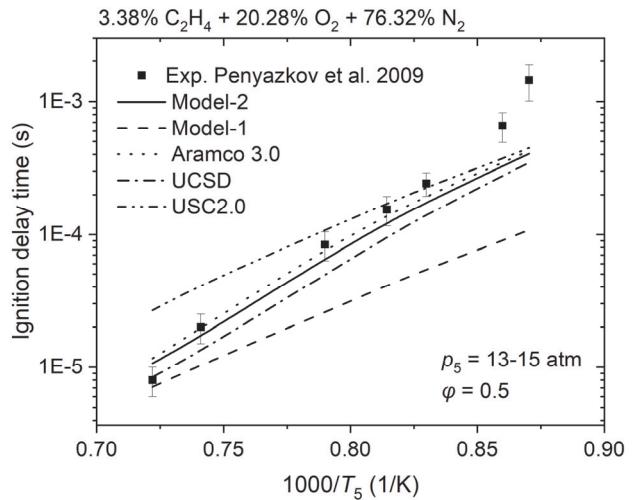
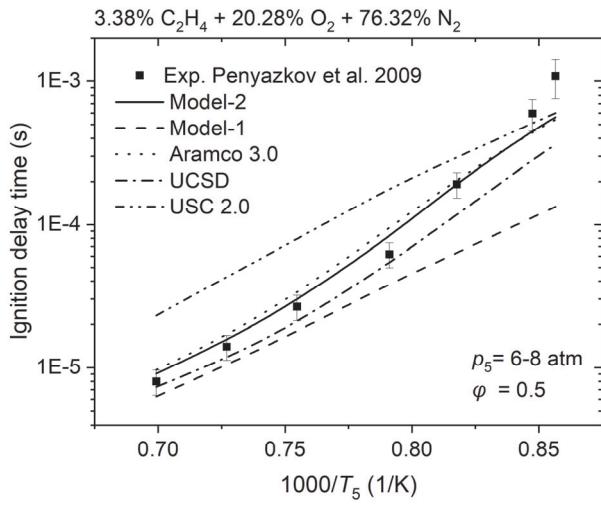
Author: D. M. Kalitan, J.M. Hall, E.L. Petersen



Journal: Proceedings of the Combustion Institute 32 (2009) 2421–2428

Article: High-pressure ethylene oxidation behind reflected shock waves

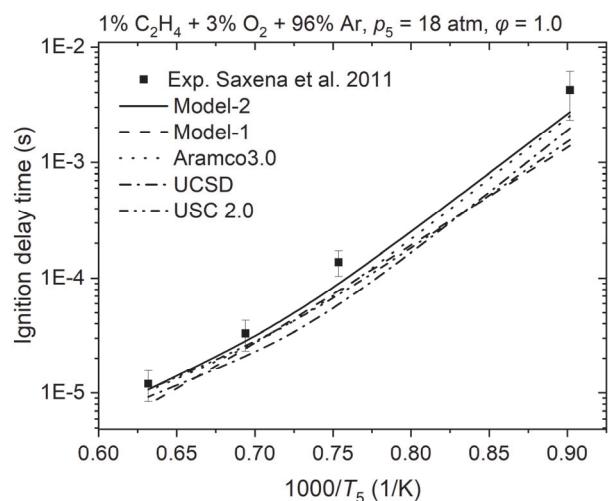
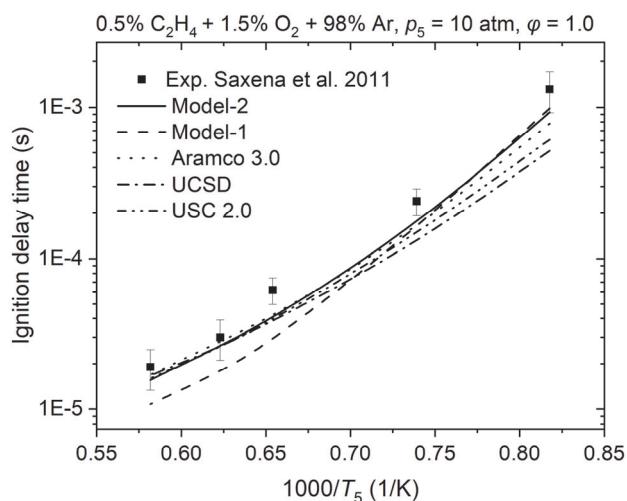
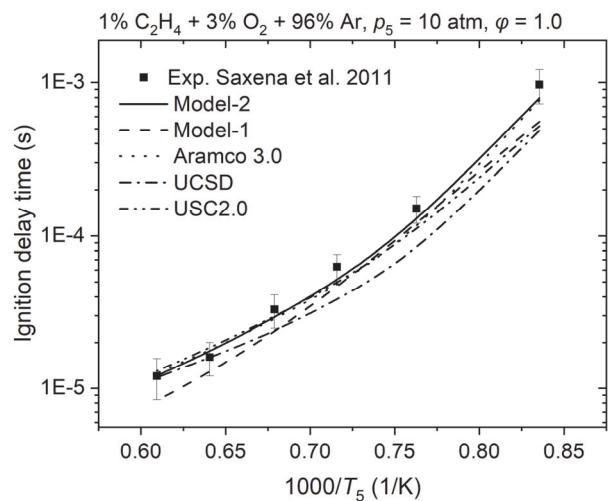
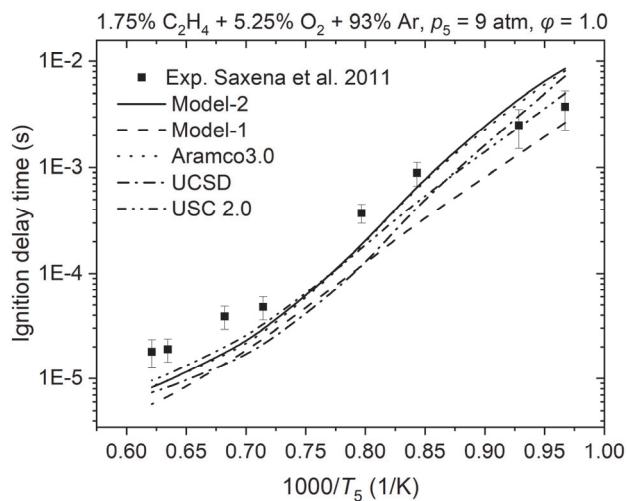
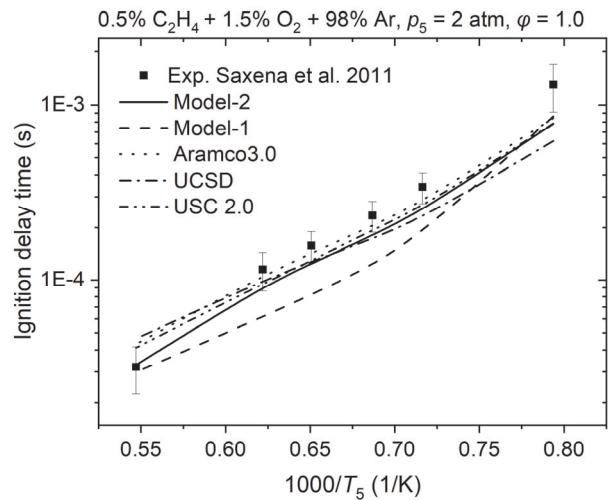
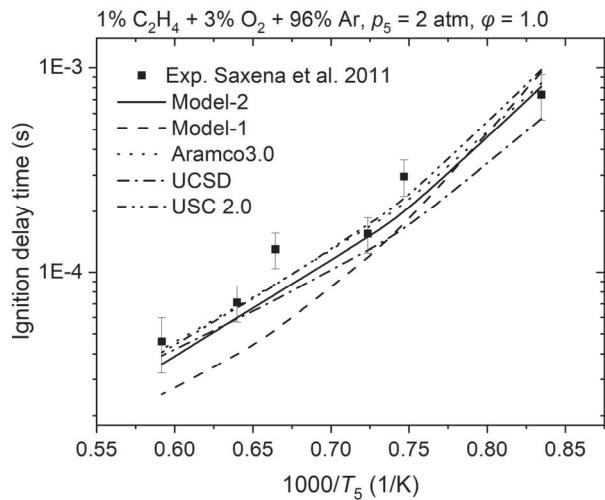
Author: O.G. Penyazkov, K.L. Sevrouk, V. Tangirala, N. Joshi



Journal: Combustion and Flame 158 (2011) 1019–1031

Article: A shock tube study of ignition delay in the combustion of ethylene

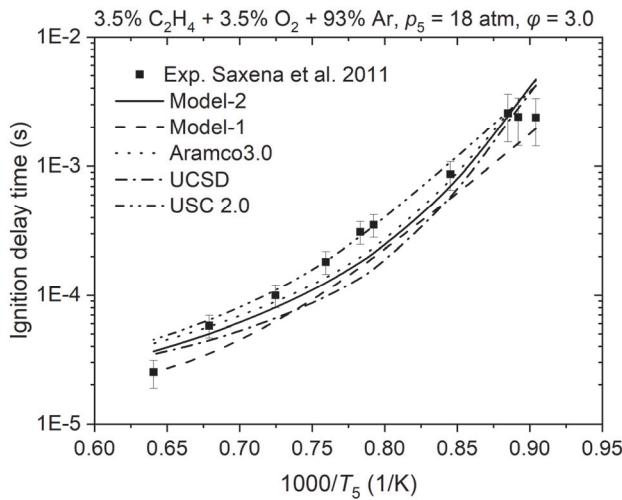
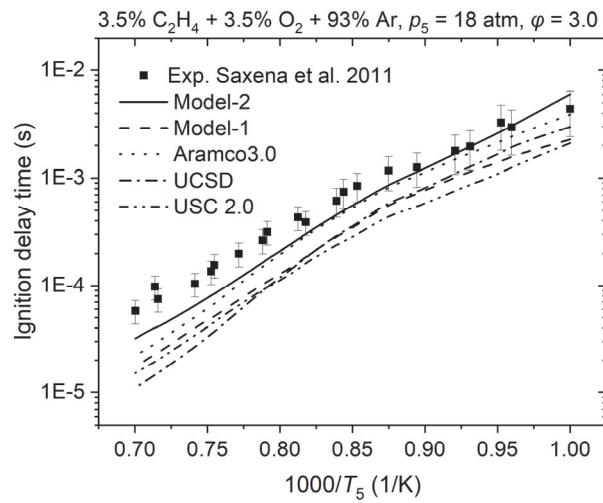
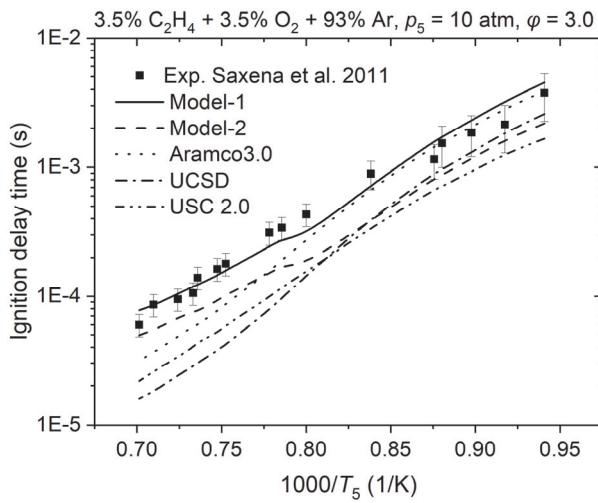
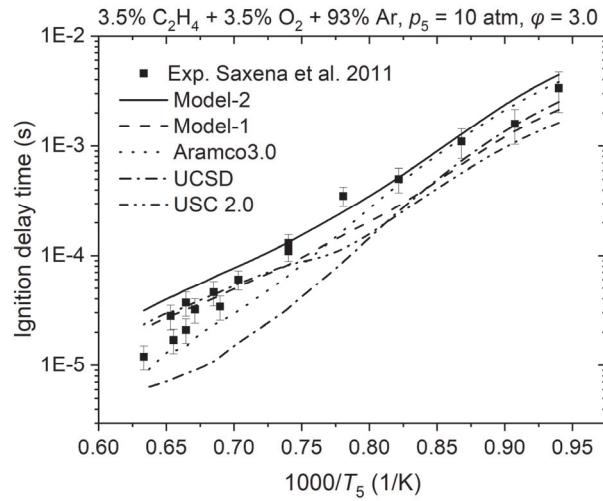
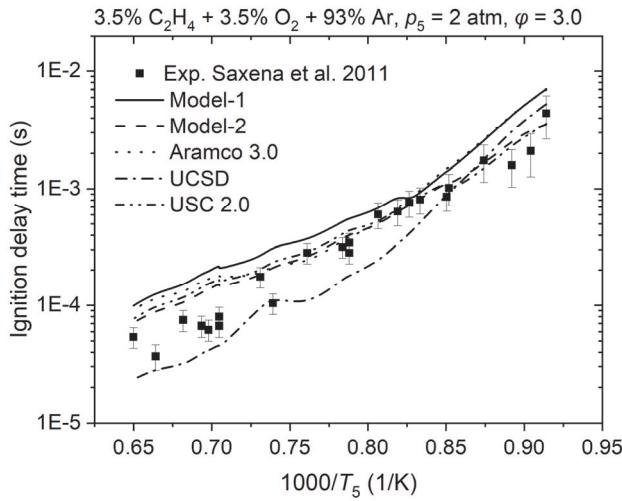
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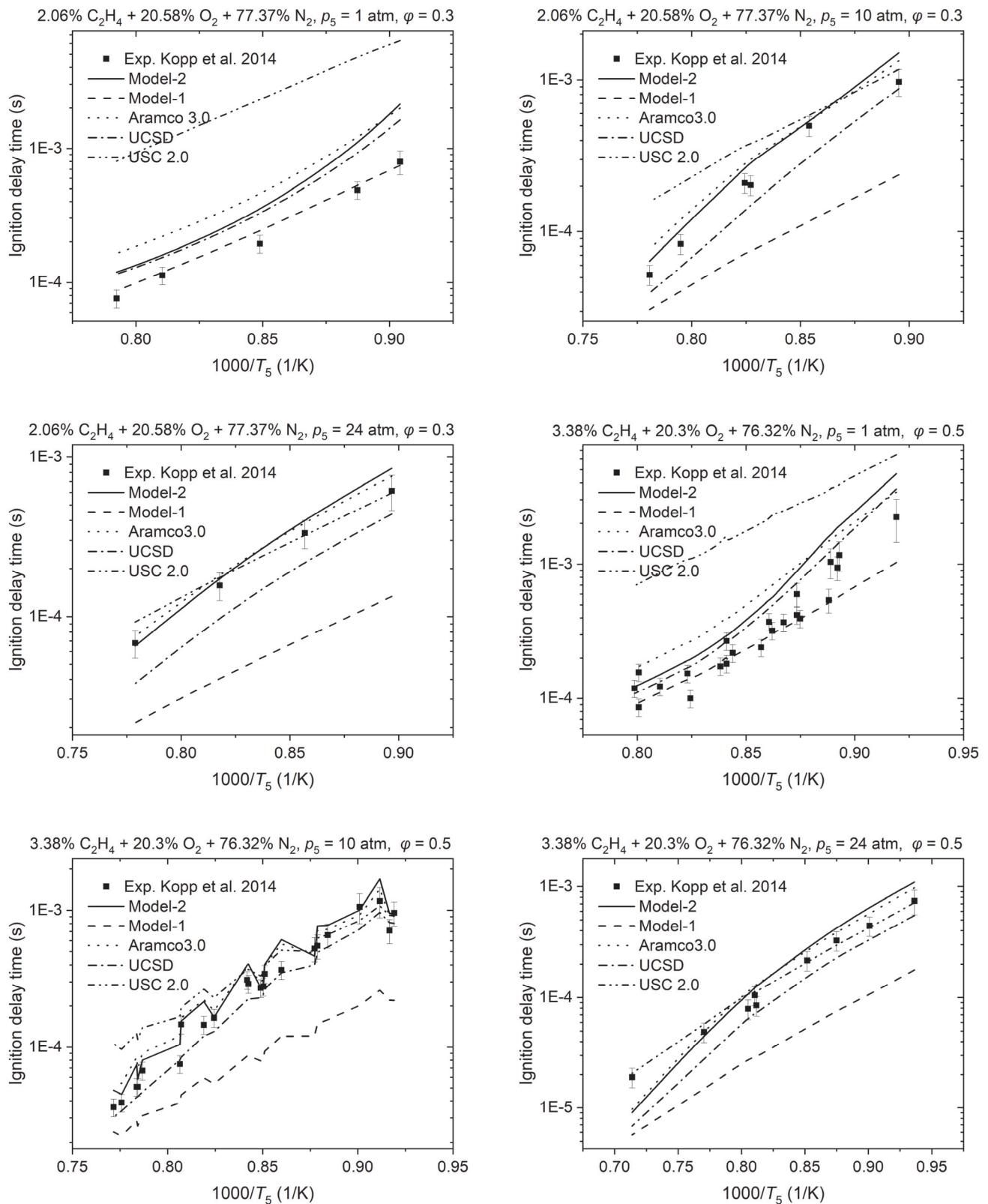
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Journal: *Journal of Propulsion and Power* 30 (2014) 790-798.

Article: Oxidation of Ethylene—Air Mixtures at Elevated Pressures

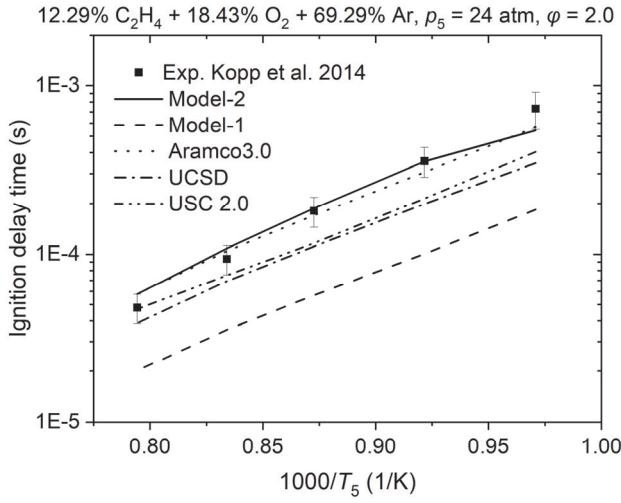
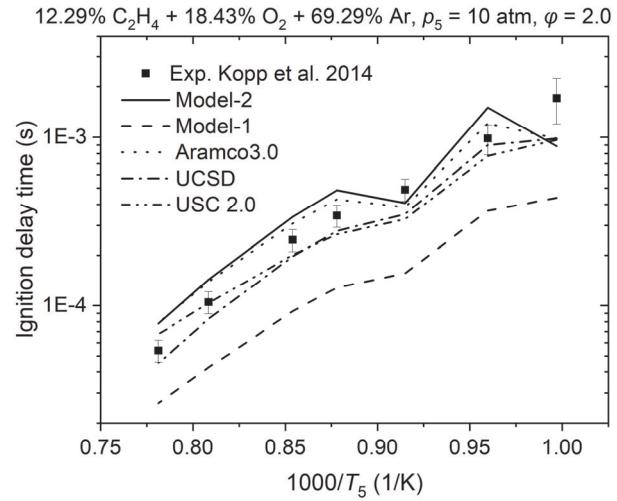
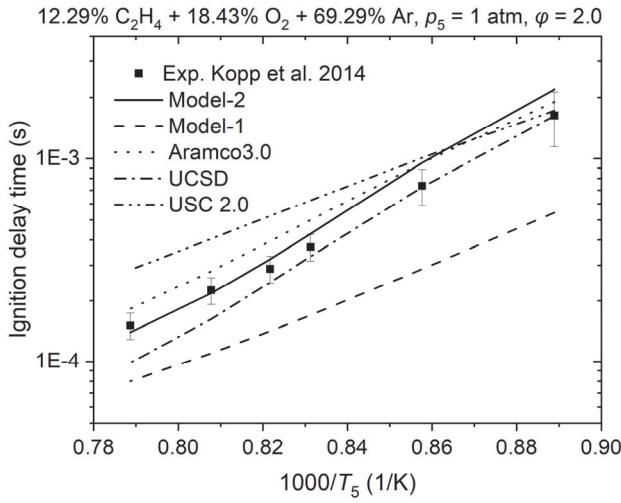
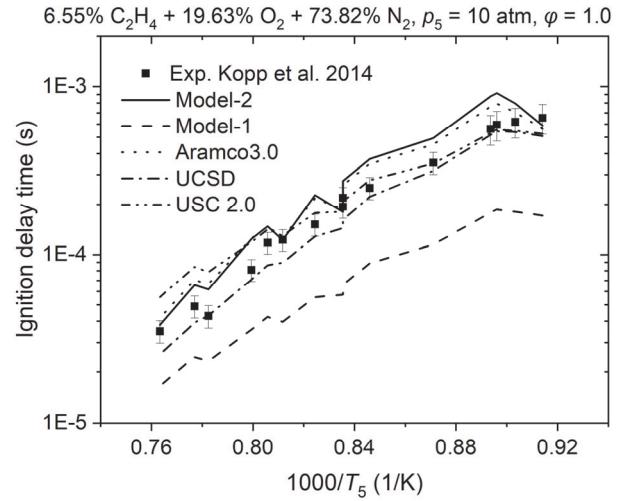
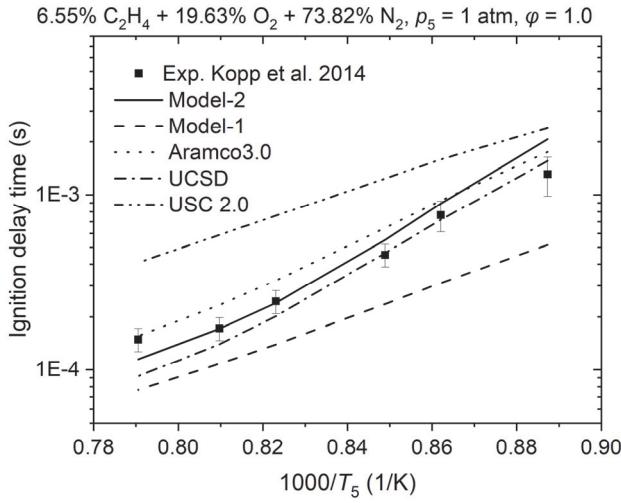
Author: M. M. Kopp, E. L. Petersen, W. K. Metcalfe, S. M. Burke, H. J. Curran



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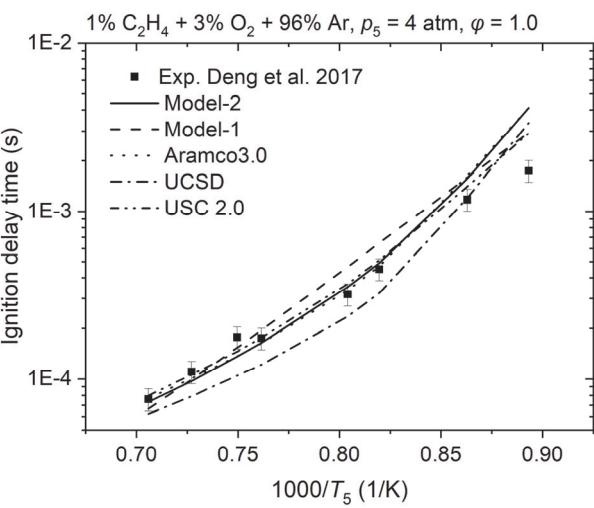
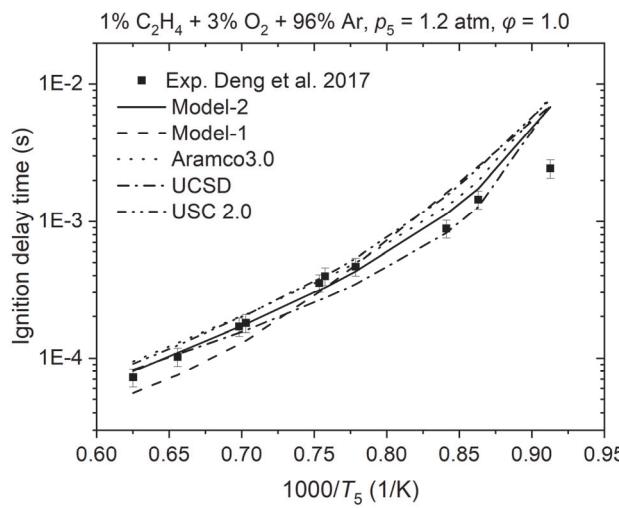
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Journal: *Energy & Fuels* 31 (2017) 14116-14128.

Article: Comparative study of the effects of nitrous oxide and oxygen on ethylene ignition

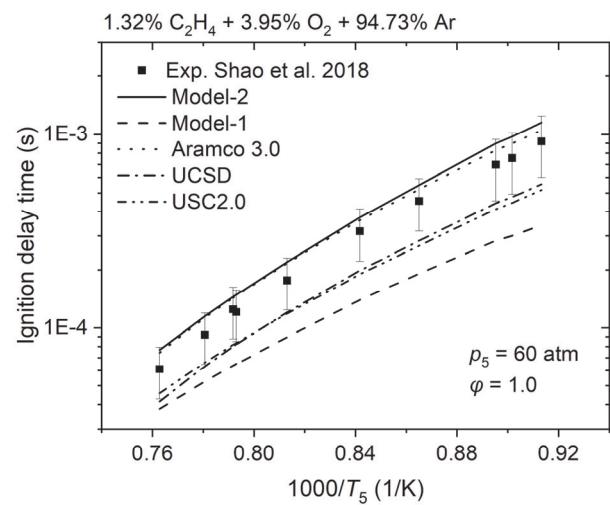
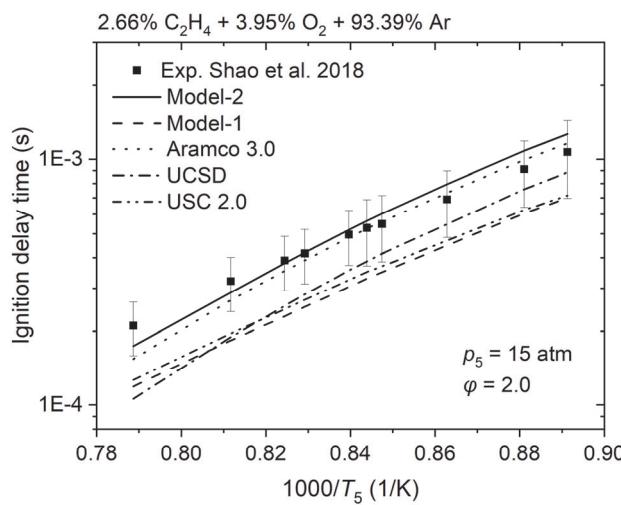
Author: F. Deng, Y. Pan, W. Sun, F. Yang, Y. Zhang, Z. Huang



Journal: *Fuel* 225 (2018) 370-380.

Article: A shock tube study of ignition delay times in diluted methane, ethylene, propene and their blends at elevated pressures

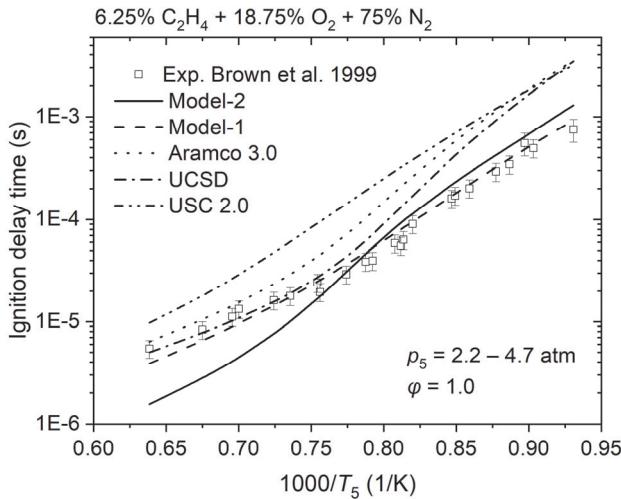
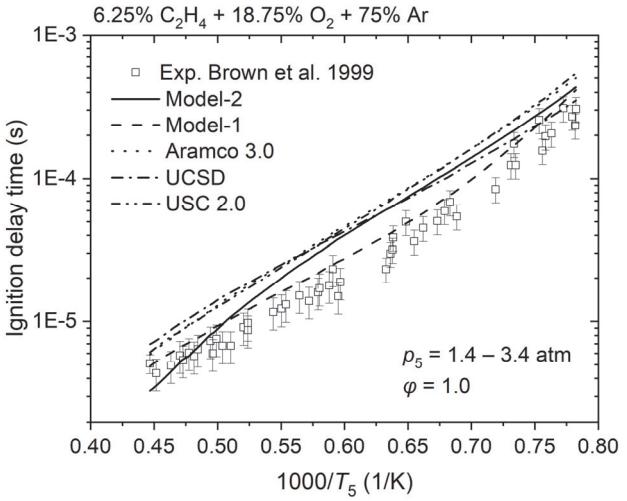
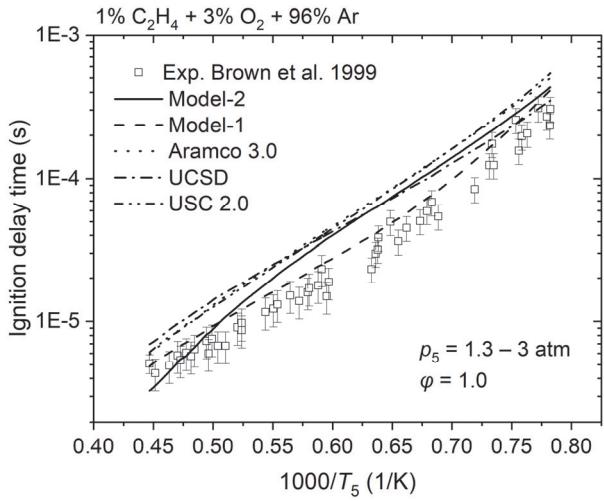
Author: J. Shao, D. F. Davidson, R. K. Hanson



Journal: *Combustion and Flame* 117 (1999) 861-870.

Article: Experimental studies of shock-induced ignition and transition to detonation in ethylene and propane mixtures

Author: C. J. Brown and G. O. Thomas



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Supplementary Material - 4

A Comprehensive Kinetic Modelling Study of Ethylene Combustion with Data Uncertainty Analysis

Hongxin Wang^a, Nadezda Slavinskaya^{b, c}, Aziza Kanz^d, Moldir Auyelkhankzy^{c, e}, Yiting Gao^a, Oskar Haidn^a

a. *Department of Aerospace and Geodesy, Technical University of Munich, 85748 Garching, Germany*

b. *GRS Association for Plant and Reactor Safety, 85748 Garching, Germany*

c. *Al-Farabi Kazakh National University, 050040 Almaty, Kazakhstan*

d. *DLR German Aerospace Center, Institute of Combustion Technology, 70569 Stuttgart, Germany*

e. *Institute of Combustion Problems, 050012 Almaty, Kazakhstan*

Figure S4-1. Comparison of concentration profiles in a premixed laminar flame of C₂H₄/air measured by Xu et al. [1] (scatters), 14%C₂H₄ + 18%O₂ + 68%N₂, p = 98.7 kPa, with simulations using model-2 (this study), Aramco 3.0 [2], UCSD [3], NTUA2015 [4], Dias2011 [5]. 2

Figure S4-2. Comparison of concentration profiles in a premixed laminar flame measured by Delfau et al. [6] (scatters), 3.28%C₂H₄ + 19.79%O₂ + 76.93%Ar, φ = 0.5, p = 1 atm, with simulations using model-2 (this study), Aramco 3.0 [2], UCSD [3], NTUA2015 [4], Dias2011 [5]. 3

Figure S4-3. Comparison of concentration profiles in a premixed laminar flame measured by Dias et al. [5] (scatters), 33%C₂H₄ + 40%O₂ + 27%Ar, φ = 2.5, p = 0.05 bar, with simulations using model-2 (this study), Aramco 3.0 [2], UCSD [3], NTUA2015 [4], Dias2011 [5]. 4

Figure S4-4. Comparison of concentration profiles measured in a premixed laminar flame of C₂H₄/O₂/Ar by Korobeinichev et al. [7] (scatters), 28%C₂H₄ + 42%O₂ + 30%Ar, φ = 2.0, p = 0.04 bar, with simulations using model-2 (this study), Aramco 3.0 [2], UCSD [3], NTUA2015 [4], Dias2011 [5]. 5

Figure S4-5. Comparison of concentration profiles measured in a premixed laminar flame of C₂H₄/O₂/Ar by Malliotakis et al. [4] (scatters), 30%C₂H₄ + 40%O₂ + 30%Ar, φ = 2.25, p = 0.04 bar, with simulations using model-2 (this study), Aramco 3.0 [2], UCSD [3], NTUA2015 [4], Dias2011 [5]. 6

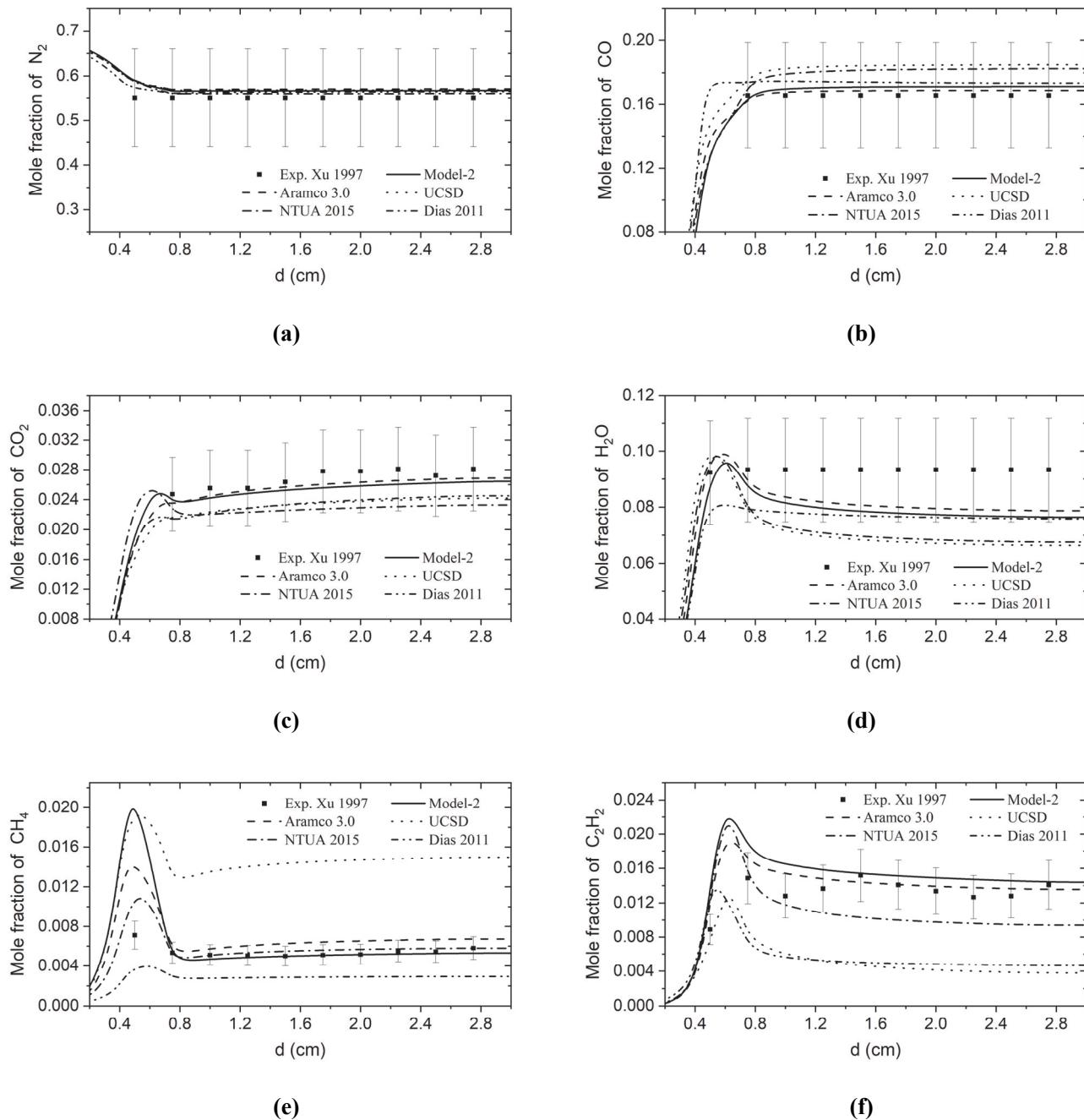


Figure S4-1. Comparison of concentration profiles in a premixed laminar flame of $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4/\text{air}$ measured by Xu et al. [1] (scatters), $14\%\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + 18\%\text{O}_2 + 68\%\text{N}_2$, $p = 98.7 \text{ kPa}$, with simulations using model-2 (this study), Aramco 3.0 [2], UCSD [3], NTUA2015 [4], Dias2011 [5].

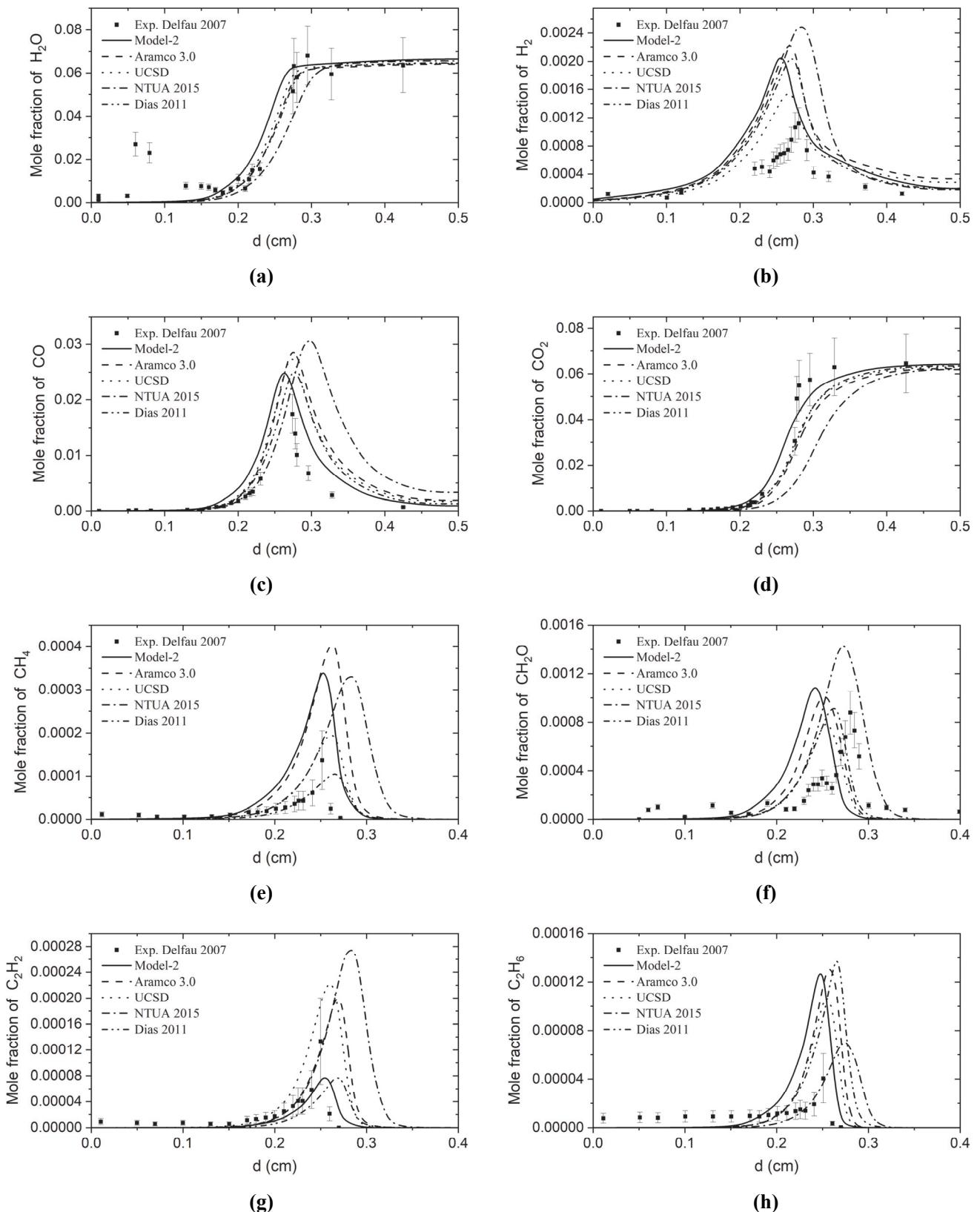


Figure S4-2. Comparison of concentration profiles in a premixed laminar flame measured by Delfau et al. [6] (scatters), $3.28\% \text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + 19.79\%\text{O}_2 + 76.93\%\text{Ar}$, $\varphi = 0.5$, $p = 1$ atm, with simulations using model-2 (this study), Aramco 3.0 [2], UCSD [3], NTUA2015 [4], Dias2011 [5].

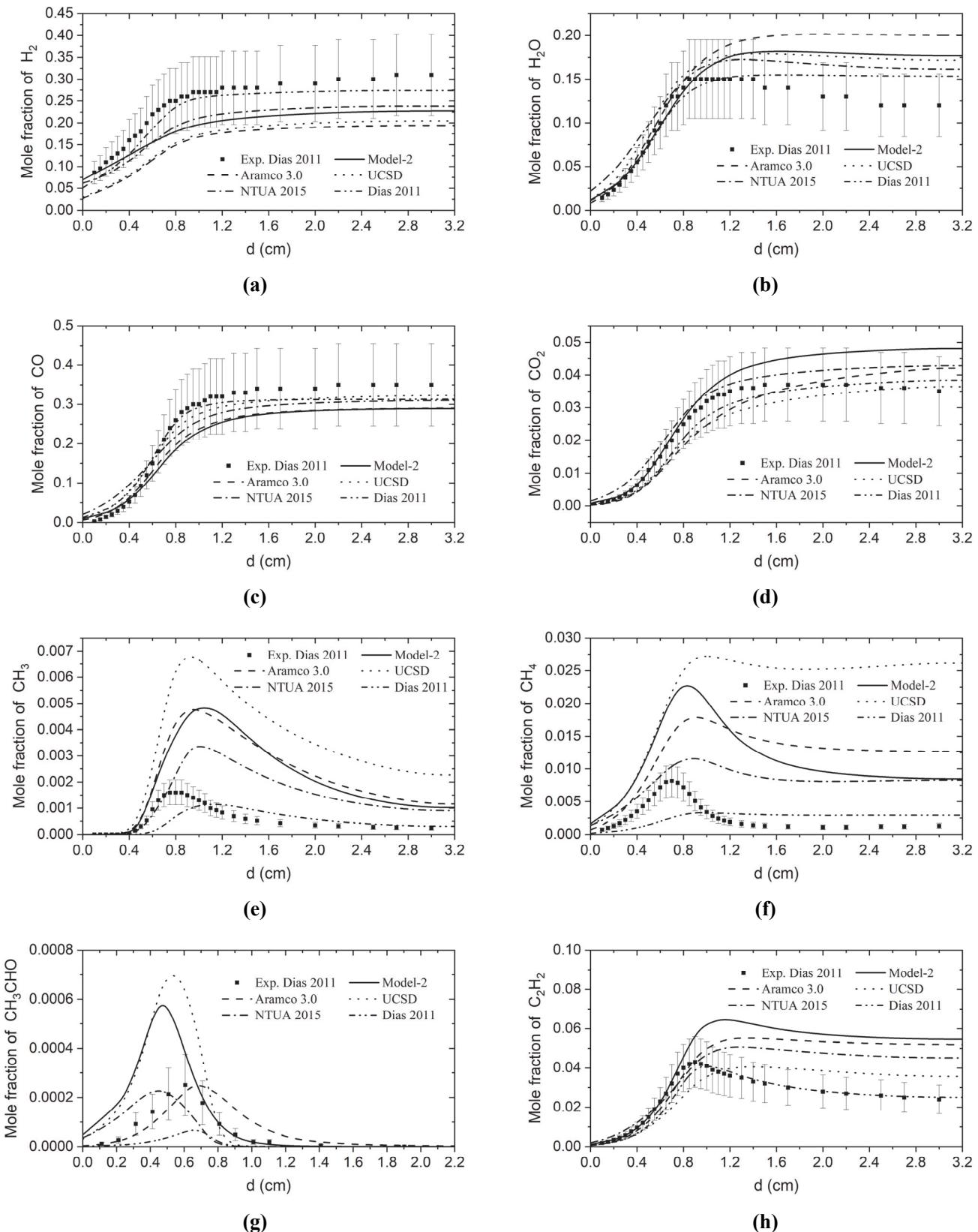


Figure S4-3. Comparison of concentration profiles in a premixed laminar flame measured by Dias et al. [5] (scatters), $33\% \text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + 40\%\text{O}_2 + 27\%\text{Ar}$, $\varphi = 2.5$, $p = 0.05$ bar, with simulations using model-2 (this study), Aramco 3.0 [2], UCSD [3], NTUA2015 [4], Dias2011 [5].

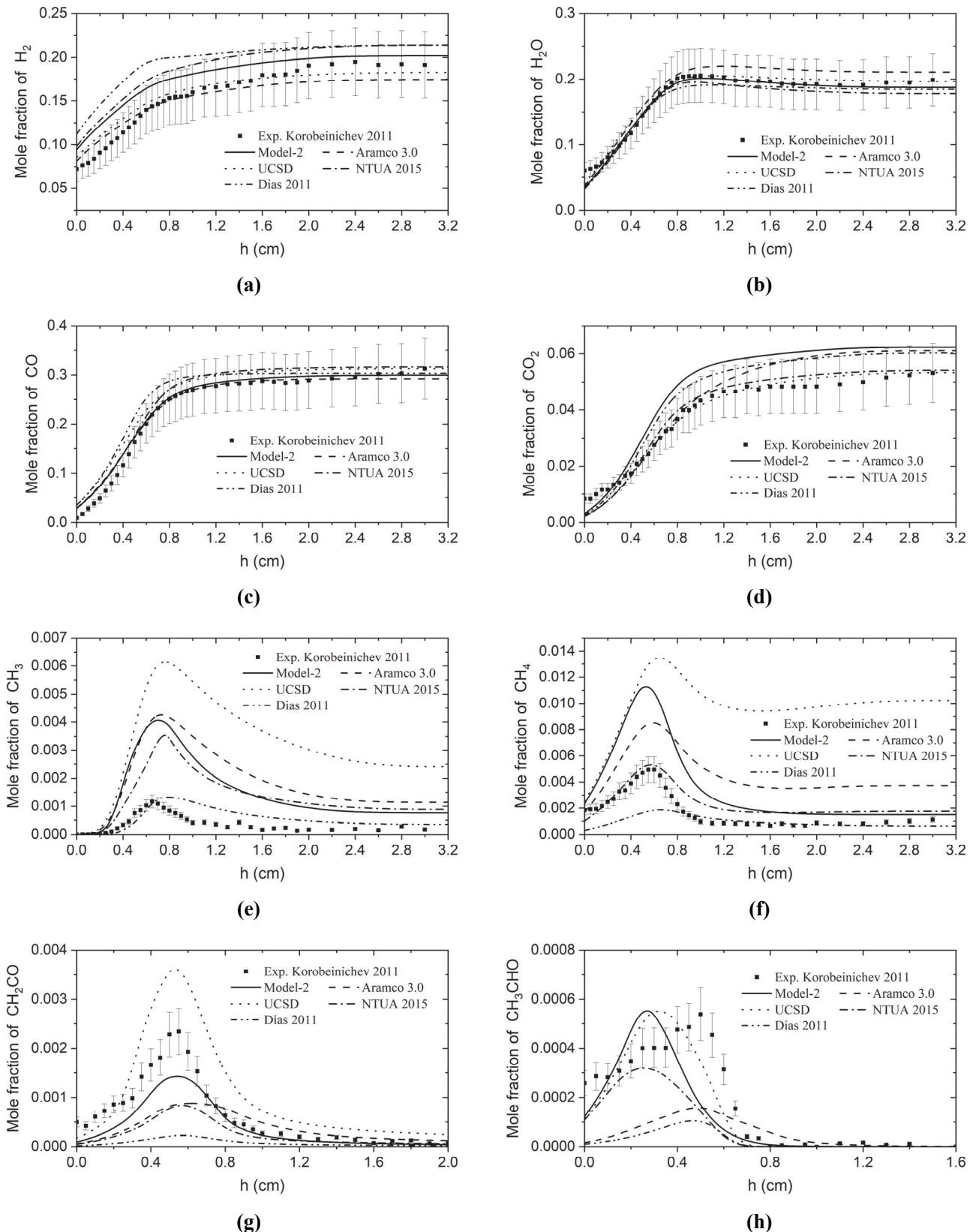


Figure S4-4. Comparison of concentration profiles measured in a premixed laminar flame of $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4/\text{O}_2/\text{Ar}$ by Korobeinichev et al. [7] (scatters), $28\%\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + 42\%\text{O}_2 + 30\%\text{Ar}$, $\phi = 2.0$, $p = 0.04$ bar, with simulations using model-2 (this study), Aramco 3.0 [2], UCSD [3], NTUA2015 [4], Dias2011 [5].

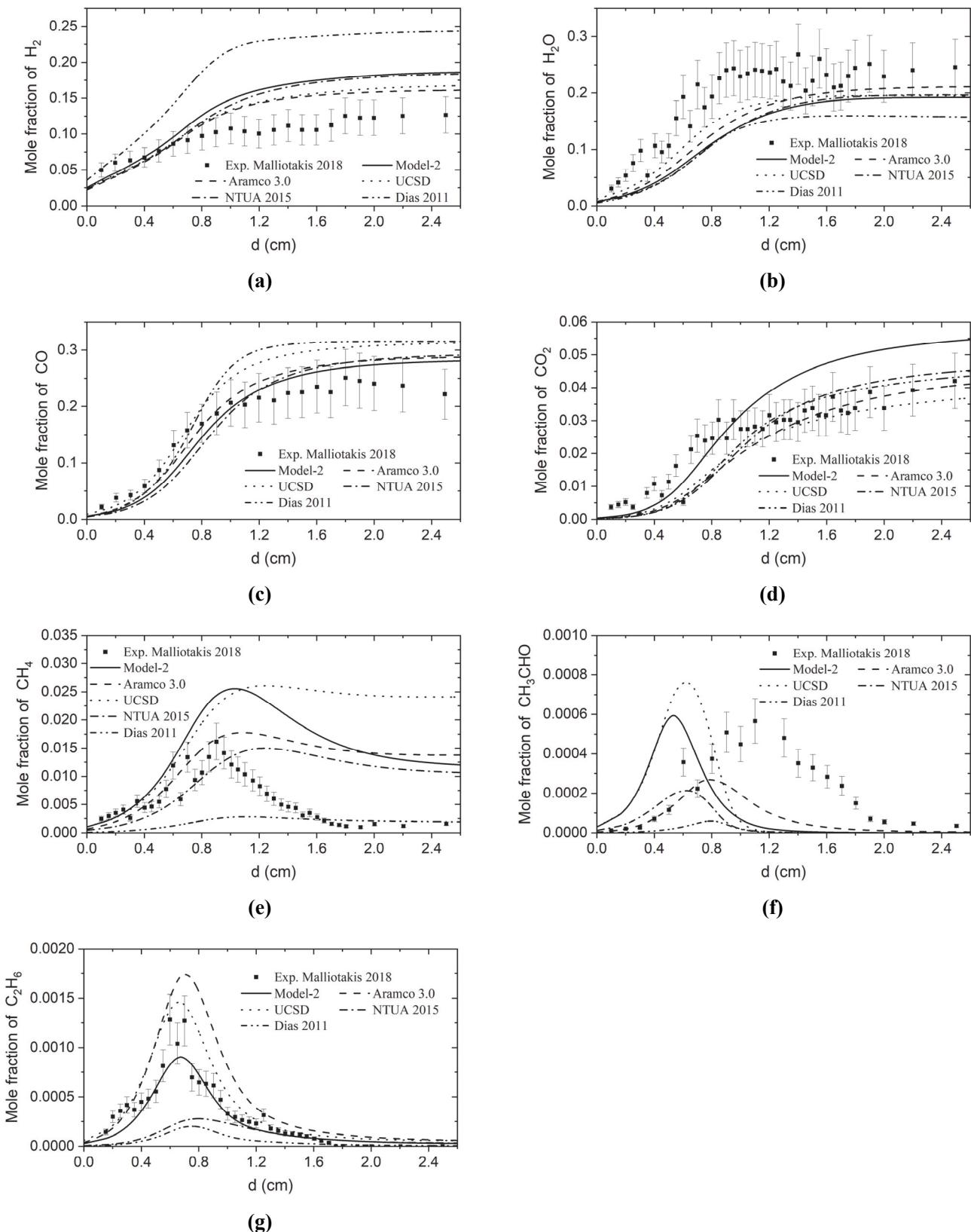


Figure S4-5. Comparison of concentration profiles measured in a premixed laminar flame of $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4/\text{O}_2/\text{Ar}$ by Malliotakis et al. [4] (scatters), $30\%\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + 40\%\text{O}_2 + 30\%\text{Ar}$, $\phi = 2.25$, $p = 0.04$ bar, with simulations using model-2 (this study), Aramco 3.0 [2], UCSD [3], NTUA2015 [4], Dias2011 [5].

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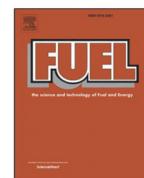
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Paper II



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Full Length Article

A comprehensive kinetic modeling study of hydrogen combustion with uncertainty quantification

Hongxin Wang^a, Nadezda Slavinskaya^{b,c,*}, Oskar Haidn^a^a Department of Aerospace and Geodesy, Technical University of Munich, 85748 Garching, Germany^b GRS Association for Plant and Reactor Safety, 85748 Garching, Germany^c Al-Farabi Kazakh National University, 050040 Almaty, Kazakhstan

ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

Keywords:

Hydrogen
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A 19-reactions H₂ oxidation chemical kinetic model has been optimized with uncertainty quantification. The uncertainties of the reaction rate constant (RRC) parameters have been first estimated based on the recommended direct measurements and review works. This deterministic approach was further combined with the probabilistic treatment of RRC to decrease the uncertainty intervals and to extend the temperature validity range for RRCs with the highest uncertainty level, for which two quantities, discrepancy measures and uncertainty contributions, were introduced in the developed framework. Monte Carlo simulations with randomly sampled RRCs and polynomial regression were performed to develop the response surface with high coefficients of determination to be utilized in the model optimization procedure. 10 key channels were selected for further optimization, and the probability density functions were calculated on the basis of discrepancy measures for 4 channels to reduce their large uncertainty intervals. The training set was collected from carefully validated measured data following experiments of shock tubes, rapid compression machines, jet stirred reactors, plug flow reactors, and premixed laminar flames. Inconsistent experimental targets were fixed and excluded from considerations. The optimized chemical kinetic model demonstrates good predicting ability for the H₂ combustion experimental data from both the training set and the conditions outside the tested range (blind modeling).

List of Abbreviation

Abbreviation	Definition	Unit
T	Temperature	K
p	Pressure	atm, bar
φ	Equivalence ratio	Dimensionless
RRC	Reaction rate constant	
k	Reaction rate constant	order 1: s ⁻¹ order 2: cm ³ ·mole ⁻¹ ·s ⁻¹ order 3: cm ⁶ ·mole ⁻² ·s ⁻¹
E_a	Activation energy	K
f	Uncertainty factor of the RRC	Dimensionless
γ^{exp}	Experimental data	*
u	Uncertainty of the experimental data	*
e^L, e^U	The lower and upper bounds for experimental data	*
γ^{mod}	Modeling data	*
σ	Standard deviation of modeling data	*

(continued on next column)

List of Abbreviation (continued)

Abbreviation	Definition	Unit
ξ^L, ξ^U	The lower and upper bounds for simulation outputs	*
Ψ	Model discrepancy measure	Dimensionless
Y^{pre}	Response surface prediction data	*
X	Normalized RRC parameter	Dimensionless
α_i, β_{ij}	1st-/2nd- order polynomial coefficient	Dimensionless
c	Uncertainty contribution	*
c_r	Relative uncertainty contribution	Dimensionless
P	Probability	Dimensionless
W	Reverse discrepancy measure	Dimensionless
IDT	Ignition delay time	s
LFS	Laminar flame speed	cm/s
MC	Monte Carlo	
ST	Shock tube	
RCM	Rapid compression machine	
PLF	Premixed laminar flame	
PFR	Plug flow reactor	
JSR	Jet stirred reactor	

(continued on next page)

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: Nadezda.Slavinskaya@grs.de (N. Slavinskaya).

List of Abbreviation (continued)

Abbreviation	Definition	Unit
B2BDC	Bound-to-bound data Collaboration	
PDF	Probability density function	

*Depend on the type of the measurement.

1. Introduction

Due to the increasing demand for electric and renewable energy, the German Federal government presented a long-term political timetable for climate protection and the transformation of the energy supply, which calls for emissions of greenhouse gases in Germany to be reduced by 80% to 95% from the 1990 level by the year 2050 [1]. The national energy strategies of different countries give hydrogen the central role in the successful conversion of the energy systems to renewable, environmentally friendly, low-carbon energy technologies. Hydrogen is a perfect and ecological [2] energy carrier that is efficient and practically inexhaustible in nature. It is used as a feedstock in refineries and the chemical industry and as a possible substitute for coke in steel production. In the view of energy density, it shows the promising application in fuel cell vehicles [3] and is the most powerful propellant for rocket and air-breathing engines [4,5]. “Hydrogen World”, i.e., production, storage, transport, and use of gray, blue, and green H₂ in various technical processes and industrial technologies strongly confronts with “problems” of hydrogen: extremely high diffusivity and flammability (hydrogen requires less than 7% of the energy to ignite natural gas), tendency to explode, very low temperatures for storage and transport. These characteristics make safe H₂ handling a challenge.

To control the safety of hydrogen technologies, numerical tools are needed which can reproduce/predict the possible accident scenario based on the simulation of different processes such as hydrogen leakage, ignition, flame propagation, explosion. As the high flammability of H₂ is caused by its oxidation chemistry, such tools should use the detailed chemical kinetic model for hydrogen combustion. Due to the high uncertainty of the related thermochemical data [6] and high requirements for assessing the likelihood of accidents, the reaction model should be developed with the actual estimated valid range. The main uncertainty source in chemical kinetic models, even for the key channels of hydrogen oxidation [7], is the reaction rate constants (RRCs), which can be measured only conditionally “directly” (actually, never directly), calculated with quanta-chemical methods, or evaluated by fitting the experimental data obtained for the macro chemical processes such as ignition delay times, laminar flame speeds, and concentration profiles.

During the past few decades, different approaches [8-10], have been developed to quantify the uncertainty of the kinetic model (*forward problem*) [8] and to define/reduce the uncertainty of the kinetic-model parameters (*inverse problem*) [11,12]. The underlying frameworks can be categorized as probabilistic and deterministic, depending on how the uncertainty of model parameters is treated. The probabilistic approaches address the uncertainty of parameters and models with probability density functions [13]. In contrast, the deterministic approach prescribes fixed uncertainty bounds for the involved parameters.

The most developed methodology, based on the deterministic approach, is the Bound-to-Bound Data Collaboration (B2BDC) [14]. It is employed using robust control of the actual limits for parameter uncertainties and consistency of the model parameters and related experiments. By deploying semidefinite programming algorithms [13], the initial bounds on unknowns are combined with the initial bounds of experimental data to outsource the parameter values, which give model predictions out of experimental errors. So initially calculated deterministic uncertainty bounds, called feasible parameter sets, are further used for prediction in new settings. The output variables produced in different numerical experiments for discrete points (random samplings) in feasible parameter space are fitted with a second-order polynomial

function into a response surface (solution mapping methodology [11]), which is further used in subsequent uncertainty analysis to optimize the model and produce a final feasible set of model parameters [15] and to determine the model valid range. The model optimization is carried out after data consistency analysis: the potential outliers from a training set are identified with a quantitative measure of an agreement between the model and raw experimental data.

The probabilistic uncertainty quantification is aimed to evaluate the probability density function (PDF) of model parameters from the statistics of model outputs, i.e., quality of simulations of experimental data. Najm and co-workers [16-20] have implemented an approach, based on a spectral description of uncertain parameters and field quantities using polynomial chaos expansions for a stochastic representation of uncertainty. In the developed approach, an uncertain model parameter is described not as a deterministic quantity but as a random variable with a distribution described by a PDF. Sheen et al. [21-23] combined the deterministic and stochastic spectral expansion of parameters, solution mapping approach, and polynomial chaos expansions to develop the single unified theoretical and computational toolkit, termed the Method of Uncertainty Minimization using Polynomial Chaos Expansions, to quantify the model uncertainty and constrain the parameter uncertainties. The method was successfully applied to the detailed H₂/CO/C₁-C₄ kinetic model and ethylene combustion data by Sheen et al. [22] and at minimization of the uncertainty of an *n*-pentane combustion model by Cai and Pitsch [24]. Nagy and Turanyi estimated priori uncertainties of RRCs based on “direct” measurements and theoretical calculations of the Arrhenius parameters [25]. A method similar to Sheen et al. [22] was applied to the optimization procedure [26], but the systematic deviation between the simulated and experimental values was taken into account. The initial Gaussian distribution probability density function (PDF) within the determined uncertainties are narrowed in an iterative manner [26], and much lower uncertainties were obtained for the RRCs within the validated temperature range.

Despite the big effort in the uncertainty quantification methods, there are open questions related to the sampling design, solution surface approximation, data consistency, re-optimization problem on the new data, data correlations. The high correlations of the RRCs can lead to the restriction of the applicability of the results obtained with probabilistic methods: the evaluated constraints of model parameters are strongly linked with the studied model and used a training set of experimental data.

Due to the limited experimental conditions, the earlier hydrogen oxidation models [27,28] and the models optimized for specific experiments [29,30] have a limited range of their applications. Most of the studies for detailed chemical kinetic models were carried out with hands and intuition without uncertainty analysis [31]. Konnov [32] gave a review of recommended RRCs and their uncertainties in the modeling study of H₂ oxidation. The developed detailed H₂ oxidation model [32] was further updated in the work of Alekseev et al. [33] and the study devoted to the excited species in hydrogen combustion [34]. Conaire et al. [35] developed an H₂ oxidation model fitted for a variety of experimental data, and the model was updated in the modeling study of the H₂ and syngas oxidation by Keromnes [36]. The RRCs were optimized at fitting the ignition delay time targets measured in shock tubes and the rapid compression machines [36,37]. Based on the H₂ combustion model of Keromnes [36], Varga et al. [38] minimized the modeling uncertainty for ignition delay times and laminar flame speeds using the method [26] mentioned above. Varga et al. [38] used the response surfaces [11] approach for the ‘first stage’ optimization, but ignition delay times were directly calculated in the ‘second stage’ optimization. Li et al. [39] modified the H₂ oxidation model of Mueller et al. [28] with newly recommended RRCs, and Burke et al. [40] updated the model of Li et al. [39] with special attention to high-pressure flames. Zhang et al. [41] also conducted a modeling study of H₂ oxidation for high-pressure conditions, in which the uncertainties of RRCs were analyzed, but only a few ignition delay times measured in a rapid

compression machine [42] were utilized for the model validation at high-pressure.

In this paper, the statistical treatments of the reaction models described in [43,44] were further developed and applied to the optimization of the H₂ oxidation (19 reactions, 11 components) sub-model from our previous studies [15,45,46] to produce an actual H₂ combustion reaction model with evaluated uncertainty range and reduced feasible set of parameters (RRCs). The combined deterministic and probabilistic approach using the next methods, principles, and tools were applied: statistical procedure from our previous work [45] to evaluate uncertainty boundaries of RRCs used in the model as-complied; experimental uncertainties of experimental data follow from data sources or our evaluations [15,47]; the Latin Hypercube method [48] for the random parameter samplings; Monte Carlo (MC) [44] calculations and evaluation of the model uncertainty; polynomial regression [43] for construction of the multitar get high-dimensional input-output response function; the global sensitivity analysis [49,50], the relative uncertainty contribution of parameters for the determination of key reaction channels, construction of PDFs and model optimization. Experimental data for the model calibration and optimization are collected from the recently published measurements carried out in the shock tube (ST), rapid compression machine (RCM), premixed laminar flame (PLF), plug flow reactor (PFR), and jet stirred reactor (JSR).

2. Methodology

2.1. Uncertainty analysis of reaction rate constants

The statistical analysis has been performed for the recommended in literature RRCs to evaluate the uncertainty boundaries of the RRCs used in the model as-complied. In this study, Arrhenius equation parameters for RRCs recommended by experimental measurements, theoretical calculations, and the review works of Baulch et al. [7,51–53] were collected with specific temperature ranges. Recommendations from models, which were fitted on the macro experimental combustion data, were not used in the uncertainty analysis. Collection of detailed information for the used RRC parameters and references for the analyzed reactions and graphics for obtained uncertainty intervals are presented in Supplementary-1.

The statistical method of nonlinear regression established in the authors' previous works [45,46] was applied to calculate the standard deviations s(A), s(n), s(E_a) of the Arrhenius expression parameters A, n, and E_a.

$$k(T) = AT^n \exp\left(-\frac{E_a}{T}\right), \text{ (cm}^3, \text{ s, mole, K)} \quad (1)$$

s(A), s(n), s(E_a) can be found from the covariation matrix of applied statistical approach [45,46,54–56]. After that the lower, k_{low}, and upper, k_{up}, boundaries of RRC can be calculated:

$$k_{\text{low}}(T) = 10^{\log_{10}(A)-s(A)} T^{(n-s(n))} \exp\left(-\frac{E_a + s(E_a)}{T}\right) \quad (2)$$

$$k_{\text{up}}(T) = 10^{\log_{10}(A)+s(A)} T^{(n+s(n))} \exp\left(-\frac{E_a - s(E_a)}{T}\right) \quad (3)$$

Then the integrated uncertainty factor for the RRC, f(T), is defined as follows:

$$f(T) = \log_{10}\left(\frac{k_{\text{up}}(T)}{k_0(T)}\right) = \log_{10}\left(\frac{k_0(T)}{k_{\text{low}}(T)}\right) \quad (4)$$

where k₀ is the nominal RRC.

The main problem at the RRCs uncertainty evaluation arises from the deficit and incompleteness of the data. An illustration of the problem can be done with data analysis performed for recommendations available only for limited temperature range: the uncertainty bounds evaluated only on low-temperature or high-temperature data can result in an

underestimation of the RRC uncertainty for the given temperature range, Fig. 1, or can lead to erroneous trends in uncertainty bounds for the temperature range where the data are missing.

Due to the different levels of attention and technical limitations, the number of available RRCs data for each reaction is various and some reactions are only studied around standard state temperature (298 K). Deficit of data can result in higher uncertainty intervals, Table 1, even for such key reactions for the low temperature H₂ oxidation as (R8) and (R13). For well-investigated reactions more sources are available and relatively lower uncertainties can be obtained, reactions (R6) and (R7), Table 1. One of the aims of the proposed optimization framework is to reduce the uncertainty intervals for reactions with data deficit. The uncertainties of the third factors and relevant center broadening factors for the pressure-dependent reactions are not considered in the current work due to the available experimental studies on dilution gas and pressure.

2.2. Combustion experimental targets

To optimize the H₂ model, the fundamental combustion heterogenic experimental targets were carefully selected over a wide spectrum of experimental conditions, Table 2. The published experimental results of ignition delay times (IDTs) [36,42,57–64], laminar flame speeds (LFSs) [65–83], and flow reactor species profiles [29,30,84,85] were used as the training set for the model. Each target is assigned with uncertainty, u(Y_{ij}^{exp}), following from data source or carefully evaluated based on the earlier published studies [15,47], and finally presented with error bars in the figures. The uncertainty in measuring experiment targets is further used to constrain the uncertainty of the model predictions and the feasible parameter set reducing. The experimental data with poor quality were recognized by the consistency analysis, which will be shown in the following chapter, and were removed from the training set. All the simulations in this work were conducted with Ansys Chemkin Pro [50]. "Mixture-averaged transport option" was used for LFS 196 simulations.

2.3. Uncertainty of the as-complied reaction model and discrimination of inconsistent training targets

The uncertainty of the as-complied chemical kinetic model is assessed by direct MC simulations of targets from the training set. The Arrhenius expression parameters ($\log_{10}(A)$, n, and E_a in Eq. (1)) of the 19 reactions were sampled using the Latin Hypercube sampling method

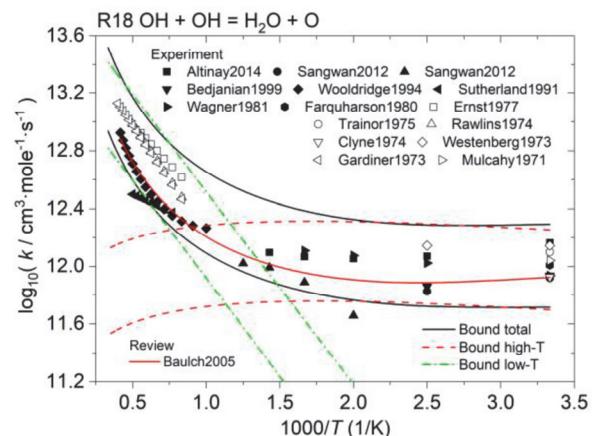


Fig. 1. Recommended RRCs for reaction OH + OH = H₂O + O with evaluated bounds based on both, high-temperature and low-temperature recommendations (the detailed reference information is presented in Supplementary-1).

Table 1

The calculated uncertainty intervals for the 19 reactions in the as-compiled reaction model for the H₂ oxidation (H for high-pressure limit, L for low-pressure limit).

No.	Reaction	Number of used RRC sources	Initial uncertainty intervals f_u/f_i
R1	2H + M = H ₂ + M	12	0.36–0.38
R2	H + O + M = OH + M	1	0.50
R3H	H + O ₂ (+M) = HO ₂ (+M) high-p	5	0.09
R3L	H + O ₂ (+M) = HO ₂ (+M) low-p	9	0.16–0.17
R4	H + O ₂ = OH + O	21	0.19–0.20
R5H	H + OH(+M) = H ₂ O(+M) high-p	1	0.50
R5L	H + OH(+M) = H ₂ O(+M) low-p	6	0.50
R6	H ₂ + O = OH + H	17	0.27–0.29
R7	H ₂ + OH = H ₂ O + H	23	0.20–0.21
R8	H ₂ O ₂ + H = HO ₂ + H ₂	3	1.00
R9	H ₂ O ₂ + H = H ₂ O + OH	3	1.00
R10	H ₂ O ₂ + O = HO ₂ + OH	3	0.30
R11	H ₂ O ₂ + OH = H ₂ O + HO ₂	11	0.13
R12	H + HO ₂ = H ₂ + O ₂	5	0.56–0.59
R13	H + HO ₂ = 2OH	3	0.42–0.44
R14	2HO ₂ = H ₂ O ₂ + O ₂	21	0.29–0.30
R15	HO ₂ + O = O ₂ + OH	7	0.15
R16	HO ₂ + OH = H ₂ O + O ₂	19	0.26–0.27
R17	2O + M = O ₂ + M	6	0.18–0.23
R18	2OH = H ₂ O + O	15	0.28–0.29
R19H	H ₂ O ₂ (+M) = 2OH(+M) high-p	4	1.0
R19L	H ₂ O ₂ (+M) = 2OH(+M) low-p	5	0.20–0.22

Table 2

Used H₂ oxidation experiments and their test conditions.

IDT measured in the ST	T ₅ /K	p ₅ /bar	Mixture
DLR [36,57]	889 – 2110	1.0 – 19.7	H ₂ /O ₂ /N ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 0.1 – 4.0$
TAMU [36]	965 – 1736	1.67 – 34.24	H ₂ /O ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 0.3 – 1.0$
XJTU [58–60]	905 – 1463	1.22 – 20.0	H ₂ /O ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 0.5 – 2.0$
UCF [61,62]	1009 – 1752	0.96 – 1.38	H ₂ /O ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 0.4 – 1.47$
Stanford [63]	858 – 1131	3.04 – 4.42	H ₂ /O ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 0.4 – 1.0$
IDT measured in the RCM	T _e /K	p _e /bar	Mixture
CWRU [42,64]	907 – 1065	10 – 70	H ₂ /O ₂ /H ₂ O/N ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 1.0$
NUIG [36]	926 – 1013	8, 16, 32	H ₂ /O ₂ /N ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 0.5$
Laminar flame speed	T _u /K	p/atm	Mixture
Bunsen flame [65–68]	298	1	H ₂ /air, $\varphi = 0.5 – 3.0$
Counterflow flame [69–73]	298	1	H ₂ /air, $\varphi = 0.26 – 1.5$
Spherical flame [74–83]	298 – 443	0.3 – 20.0	H ₂ /air, $\varphi = 0.23 – 5.08$ H ₂ /O ₂ /N ₂ /He/Ar, $\varphi = 0.45 – 4.5$
Concentration profile	T/K	p	Mixture
PLF [84]	–	1 atm	H ₂ /O ₂ /N ₂ , $\varphi = 2.05$
PLF [85]	–	4.75 kPa	H ₂ /O ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 1.93$
JSR [29]	800 – 1150	1, 10 atm	H ₂ /O ₂ /N ₂ , $\varphi = 0.2 – 2.33$
PFR [30]	700 – 900	50 bar	H ₂ /O ₂ /N ₂ , $\varphi = 0.0009 – 12.07$

[48]. Uniform distributions were defined for the rate parameters within the evaluated uncertainty intervals, Table 1. Fig. 2a shows an example of a histogram of the predicted IDT for H₂/O₂/Ar mixture at T₅ = 1000 K and p₅ = 1 bar obtained with 600 MC simulations with randomly sampled RRC parameters. The two-standard deviation (2 σ), which covers > 90% of the distribution probability, is defined as the modeling uncertainty [21,86]. So calculated uncertainty bounds for the simulations of the IDT from [36] and [59] with the as-compiled model are shown in Fig. 2b.

To minimize the uncertainty propagation problem, data points which were not reconciled with both other targets and studied reaction model within the reported/calculated measurement errors and evaluated model uncertainties were recognized as inconsistent. For that, the lower and upper bounds for simulation outputs, ξ_{ij}^L and ξ_{ij}^U , and experimental targets, ξ_{ij}^L and ξ_{ij}^U , of the j_{th} target in the i_{th} data set are defined as.

$$\xi_{ij}^L = \bar{Y}_{ij}^{\text{mod}} - 2\sigma_{ij} \quad \text{and} \quad \xi_{ij}^U = \bar{Y}_{ij}^{\text{mod}} + 2\sigma_{ij} \quad (5)$$

$$\xi_{ij}^L = Y_{ij}^{\text{exp}} - u(Y_{ij}^{\text{exp}}) \quad \text{and} \quad \xi_{ij}^U = Y_{ij}^{\text{exp}} + u(Y_{ij}^{\text{exp}}) \quad (6)$$

where $\bar{Y}_{ij}^{\text{mod}}$ is the average value of MC simulation results, σ_{ij} is the standard deviation of MC simulation results, Y_{ij}^{exp} is the experimentally measured data, and $u(Y_{ij}^{\text{exp}})$ is the uncertainty of the experimental target. Then the condition for target discrimination is described as:

$$\xi_{ij}^U < \xi_{ij}^L \text{ or } \xi_{ij}^L > \xi_{ij}^U \quad (7)$$

In this way, the measured data with potential high uncertainties have been fixed and removed from the training set collected in Table 2. One example is shown in Fig. 3: data measured by Qin et al [65], Liu et al. [68], and Gunther et al. [73] are more likely to be over-measured and inconsistent with other points and simulations within their uncertainty boundaries. On this way measured data following from studies [58,62,65,68,73] (Table 2) were finally excluded from the model optimization procedure due to their potential high uncertainties.

It should be noted that measured and simulated uncertainties of the LFS for very lean and 234 very reach mixtures are higher than uncertainty of data around stoichiometric mixtures. For these 235 conditions, when a heat release effect does not further hardly suppressed diffusion and number of 236H radicals is low, the special experimental setups and more accurate models for the 237 multicomponent diffusion are necessary.

2.4. Reaction model optimization

2.4.1. Definition of the model discrepancy measure

To evaluate the predictive ability of the model, the model discrepancy measure, $\bar{\Psi}$, is defined as:

$$\bar{\Psi} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \frac{1}{N_i} \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} \Psi_{ij}^{\text{mod}} \quad (8)$$

in which M is the number of the experimental data sets and N_i is the point number of the i_{th} data set. The Ψ_{ij}^{mod} for the j_{th} target in the i_{th} data set is defined as following:

$$\Psi_{ij}^{\text{mod}} = \left(\frac{Y_{ij}^{\text{mod}} - Y_{ij}^{\text{exp}}}{u(Y_{ij}^{\text{exp}})} \right)^2 \quad (9)$$

where Y_{ij}^{exp} is the experimentally measured data and Y_{ij}^{mod} is the modeling result. The experimental uncertainty, $u(Y_{ij}^{\text{exp}})$, is adopted form the reference or evaluated based on the uncertainty analysis of experiments [15,47].

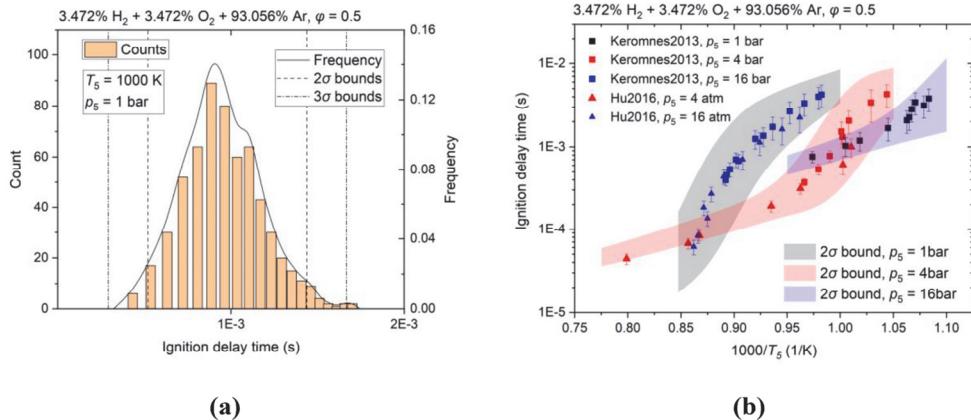


Fig. 2. (a) Histogram and probability density distribution of IDT ($T_5 = 1000 \text{ K}$, Keromnes et al. [36]) simulated with MC method. (b) IDTs of $\text{H}_2/\text{O}_2/\text{Ar}$ mixture measured by Keromnes et al. [36] and Hu et al. [59] and the modeling uncertainties determined by 2σ (shadows).

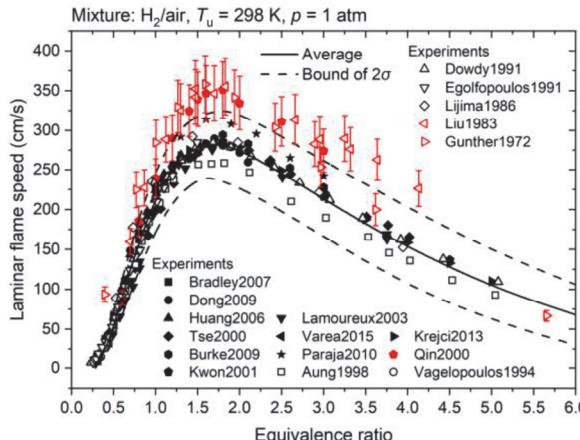


Fig. 3. LFSs of H_2/air mixtures and evaluated modeling uncertainty of the as-compiled reaction model (10% uncertainty for the experimental data).

2.4.2. Response surface

To optimize the reaction kinetic model, the global sensitivity analysis is explored to describe the multivariate contributions of high dimensional input variables, acting not independently and not necessarily linearly, in the model outputs. To learn system input-output response behavior, an interpolation of the heterogenous system outputs throughout the input variable space (mapping) with response surface is widely used [8,87]. The model outputs $y(x)$ are replaced with response surface approach expressed as a finite function expansion in terms of the input variables. In this study, the second-order polynomial regression [43] was used to construct the response surface for simulated outputs of IDTs, LFSs, and concentration profiles.

The Arrhenius expression parameters X ($\log_{10}(A)$, n , and E_a in Eq. (1)) were normalized within the uncertainty intervals (Table 1) to the space of $[0,1]$. The outputs $Y^{mod}(X)$ directly simulated with Chemkin Pro [50] are presented as the second-order polynomial to express the response function $Y^{pre}(X)$ throughout the total of N number of model parameters:

$$Y^{mod}(X) \approx Y^{pre}(X) = Y_0 + \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i X_i + \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N \beta_{ij} X_i X_j \quad (10)$$

where Y_0 is the intercept; α and β are the first- and second-order polynomial coefficients of the second-order polynomial. They have

been determined using least square method realized in in-home python numerical code [88].

With the help of the response surface, the simulated results, Y^{mod} obtained by solving the Navier-Stokes equations with Chemkin Pro can be replaced by the Y^{pre} determined by second-order polynomial regression. The quality of the model with a specific Arrhenius expression parameter set can be evaluated quickly without solving the chemical and physical equations, which can produce a large amount of data and makes the application of statistical method possible. By replacing Y^{mod} in Eq. (9) with Y^{pre} in Eq. (10), the discrepancy between experimental data and simulations can be presented in objective function as.

$$\Psi_{ij}^{mod} \approx \Psi_{ij}^{pre} = \left(\frac{Y_{ij}^{pre} - Y_{ij}^{exp}}{u(Y_{ij}^{exp})} \right)^2 \quad (11)$$

To evaluate the predictive ability of the response surface, the coefficient of determination [89], R^2 , and the relative error, which is defined as:

$$\left| \frac{Y_{ij}^{pre} - Y_{ij}^{exp}}{Y_{ij}^{exp}} \right| \times 100\% \quad (12)$$

are calculated. An average relative error of 1% between the data predicted by response surface and experimental data has been obtained, and R^2 higher than 0.98 was obtained for the polynomial regression of IDTs measured by STs and 0.99 for the other experiments. Fig. 4 demonstrates the comparison of results predicted by the constructed response surface and the results directly simulated with Chemkin Pro [50]. As shown by the examples, the LFSs and IDTs predicted by the response surface agree well with the directly simulated results. More results for the comparison of the simulated and predicted results are shown in Fig. S2-1 in Supplementary-2.

2.4.3. Uncertainty contribution of the RRCs

Uncertainty analysis based on the sensitivity analysis [90-92] quantify the uncertainty in the model output given by the defined uncertainties in the model input. In this study, the relative uncertainty contribution of parameter X_i among the total N number of model parameters is defined as:

$$c_r(X_i) = \frac{c(X_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^N c(X_i)} \quad (13)$$

where,

$$c(X_i) = [Y_{\max}^{pre}(X_i) - Y_{\min}^{pre}(X_i)] \Big|_{X_j=\bar{X}_j, j \neq i} \quad (14)$$

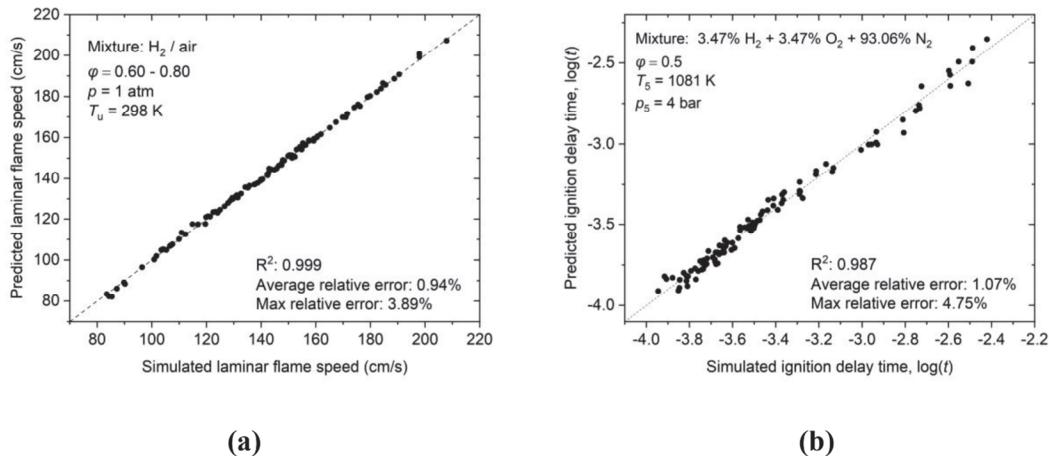


Fig. 4. Results predicted by the response surface versus directly simulated with Chemkin Pro [50] for (a) LFSs of H_2 /air mixtures and (b) IDTs of H_2 / O_2 / N_2 mixture.

and \bar{X}_j is the average value of X_j .

Compared to the sensitivity analysis, the relative uncertainty contributions can reveal the influence of the RRCs uncertainties on simulation results and identifying thereby reactions which have the highest potential to be improved. To identify these reactions all the 19 reactions were analyzed for uncertainty contributions over the studied experimental conditions for IDTs, LFSs, and concentration profiles. Reactions with $c_r > 10\%$ were taken as optimization targets. More details are explained in Fig. S2-2 in Supplementary-2. Here Fig. 5a and Fig. 5b demonstrate an example of the comparison of normalized sensitivity coefficients [50] and the relative uncertainty contributions (Eq. (13)) for IDTs. Only the top 10 channels and 3 different cases for IDTs are shown in Fig. 5. Both spectrums reveal the dominance of reaction (R3) and (R4), and importance of reactions (R8), (R13), and (R19) at high pressures. Although reaction (R4) shows higher sensitivity than reaction (R8) at 16 bar in Fig. 5a, reaction (R8) contributes a higher uncertainty to the modeling of IDT (Fig. 5b) due to its larger uncertainty factor (Table 1). Also, simulations of RCM and PFR are strongly influenced by reaction (R8) and (R19), Fig. 6.

2.4.4. Reduction of feasible parameter set and modeling uncertainties

With the criteria described in the previous paragraph, 10 most contributing in uncertainty channels have been defined as objects for the model optimization, Fig. S2-2 in Supplementary-2. The 33 parameters of

the selected 10 channels were randomly sampled within the uncertainty intervals and MC simulations were conducted for the PFR [30] and RCM [64]. Reaction (R8) and (R19) were specially analyzed for these two kinds of reactors due to their dominance in the uncertainty contributions, Fig. 6.

The discrepancy measure, $\bar{\Psi}$, obtained from the random sampling of the RRC of reaction $H_2O_2 + H = HO_2 + H_2$ (R8) is shown in Fig. 7a. The lowest discrepancies were concentrated around $\log_{10}(k_{R8}) = 11.7$ (Fig. 7a), and the uncertainty intervals for the RRC of reaction (R8) are expected to be reduced. The combined influence of the two reaction uncertainties, (R8) and (R19H), on the discrepancy between experimental data [30,42,64] and simulations is presented in Fig. 7b. Although reaction (R19H) (y-axis direction) does not have the same dominant position as reaction (R8) (x-axis direction), its correlation with (R8) affects the discrepancy measure distribution indicating that an optimized model should be developed as result of integrated effect of key RRCs under consideration.

From the distribution of discrepancy between experimental data and model predictions the PDFs for the studied RRCs have been calculated to replace the initially defined uniform uncertainty distribution. The probability density function of the RRC is calculated as follow:

$$P(a \leq k \leq b) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^m W_j}{\sum_{i=1}^n W_i} \quad (15)$$

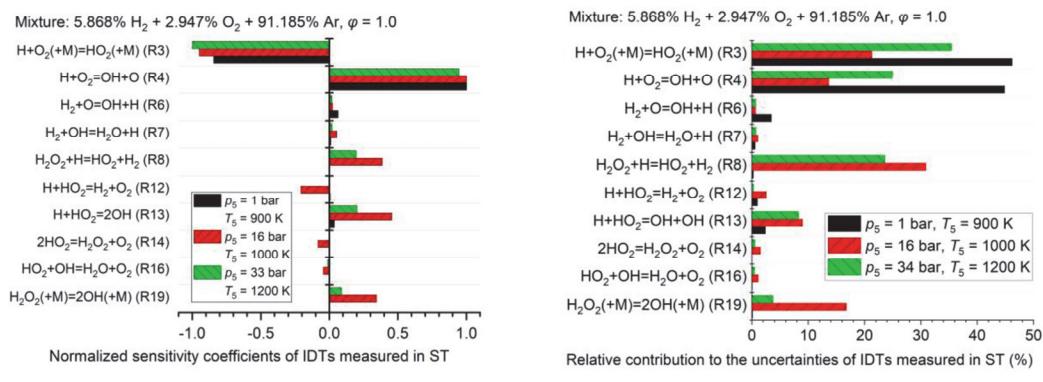


Fig. 5. (a) Normalized sensitivity coefficients of IDTs for H_2 / O_2 / Ar mixtures; (b) Comparison of the relative uncertainty contributions of different channels to the modeling IDTs in the ST.

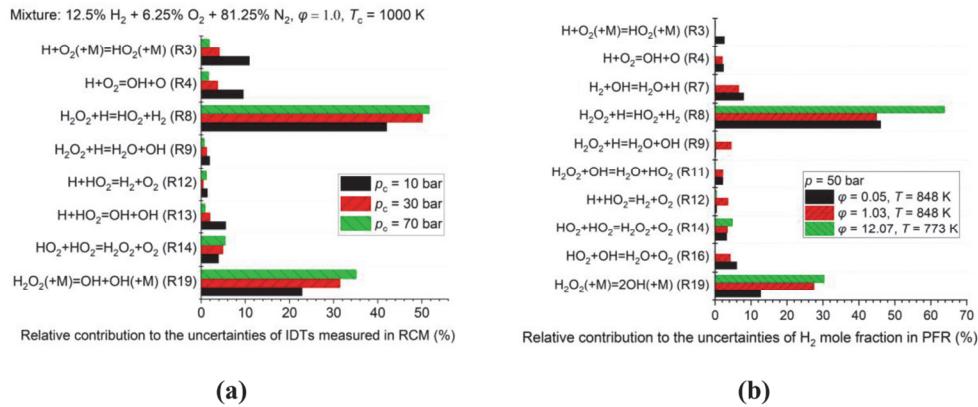


Fig. 6. Comparison of the relative uncertainty contributions of different channels to the (a) IDTs measured in the RCM (b) H₂ mole fractions measured in the PFR [30].

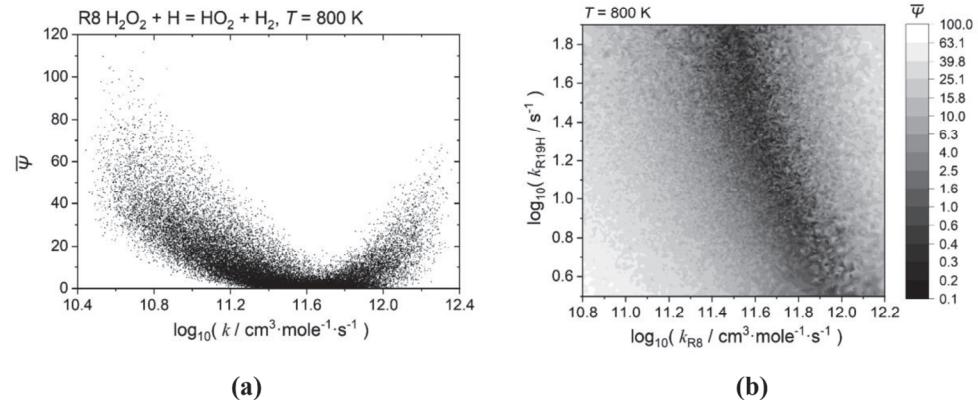


Fig. 7. (a) The distribution of discrepancy measure obtained from random sampling of the RRC of reaction H₂O₂ + H = HO₂ + H₂ (R8); (b) the combined influence of uncertainties of reactions H₂O₂ + H = HO₂ + H₂ (R8) and H₂O₂ = OH + OH (R19H) on the simulation of IDTs measured in the RCM [42,64] and mole fractions measured in the PFR [30].

where $P(a \leq k \leq b)$ is the probability that the RRC, k , is located between a and b ; n is the total number of the samples and m is the number of parameters sets in which $a \leq k_j \leq b$. The weight, W , is defined as the reciprocal of the discrepancy measure:

$$W = \frac{1}{\bar{\Psi}} \quad (16)$$

The so calculated smoothed PDF and the reduced 2σ bounds are shown in Fig. 8a for (R8) H₂O₂ + H = HO₂ + H₂ as example. The final

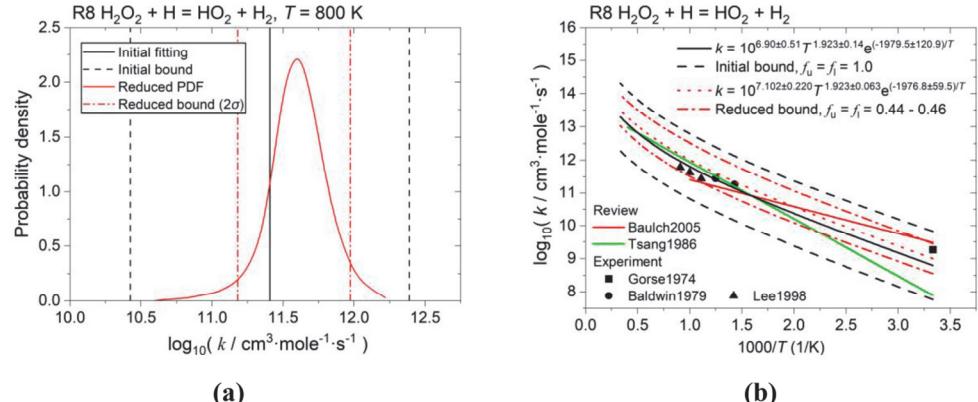


Fig. 8. (a) The probability density function of the RRC calculated based on the discrepancy measure; (b) Comparison of the initial uncertainty bounds and the reduced bounds for the RRC of reaction (R8) H₂O₂ + H = HO₂ + H₂ [7,27,53,93,94].

uncertainty interval for reaction (R8) was reduced on this way from 1 to 0.44–0.46, Fig. 8b. Applying this procedure the input temperature intervals of recommended RRCs have been extended to the effective validated temperature range, which follows from the experimental test conditions (800 to 1000 K for the PFR [30] and RCM [42,64]). To keep the validity of expressions for the uncertainty of the RRC, Eq. (2) and (3), the RRC uncertainty bounds outside of the test temperature range, where validation data are lacked, are shifted following the bounds inside the validated temperature range. The reduced uncertainties are expected to be further studied and re-optimized in the future when experimental data covering wider temperature and pressure ranges appear.

The distributions of the discrepancy measures obtained from random samplings of the RRCs of reactions (R8), (R12), (R13), and (R19H) are shown in Fig. S2-3 in Supplementary-2. The probability density functions and the reduced uncertainties for these RRCs are shown in Figs. S2-4 and S2-5 in Supplementary-2.

3. Results and discussion

The process diagram of the current study is presented in Fig. 9. The deterministic and probabilistic approaches are combined for the RRC uncertainty treatment to extend the RRC input temperature validity range. With the method shown in the previous sections, uncertainties of the RRCs were estimated and the high uncertainty intervals of reaction (R8), (R12), (R13), and (R19H) were reduced with the method presented in this study. The modeling uncertainty of RCM, PFR, and JSR have been obviously reduced, which will be shown in Figs. 11, 13, and 15.

Within the reduced bounds, the Arrhenius parameters of the selected 10 key reactions were randomly sampled and one of the models with lowest $\bar{\Psi}$ were selected as the final optimized model. It should be emphasized that this study aims at reducing the uncertainties of the studied RRCs. The final model was specially fitted for the published experimental results, Table 2, filtered with uncertainty analysis. The determined RRCs of the final model will be further optimized with newly published experimental researches and optimization work of combustion models of hydrocarbons.

In this section, the results simulated with the reduced RRC uncer-

Green circle: $p \leq 5$ bar
Blue square: $8 \text{ bar} \leq p \leq 20$ bar
Red triangle: $p \geq 30$ bar

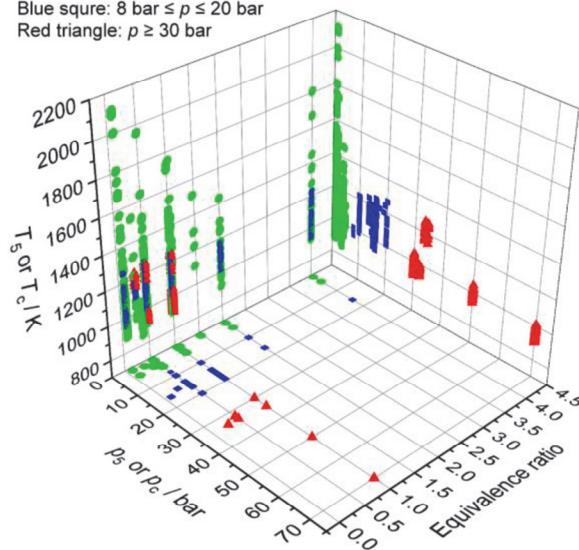


Fig. 10. Available data of IDTs measured in STs and RCMs.

tainty bounds and the final model will be presented. The $\bar{\Psi}$ for IDTs measured in STs [36,57,59,60,62,63] and RCMs [36,42,64], LFSs [66,67,69–72,74–83], and concentration profiles measured in a JSR [29] and a PFR [30] were calculated. The results of [58,62,65,68,73,84,85] were not applied to the optimization due to their potential high uncertainties or limited amount of data, but the modeling results will also be shown. Limited by the length of the article, most results are presented in Supplementary-3. The H₂ oxidation chemical kinetic model, thermal data, and transport data for the reproduction of the simulations were uploaded as Supplementary-4.

3.1. Ignition delay times

The temperature, pressure, and equivalence ratio distributions of the

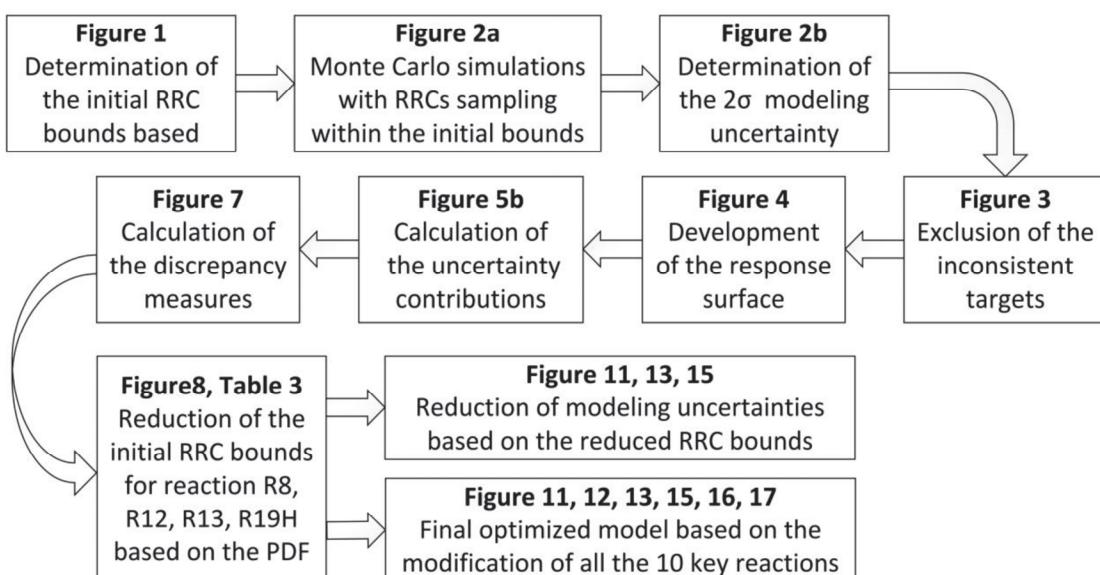


Fig. 9. Framework of the uncertainty reduction and model optimization of the current study.

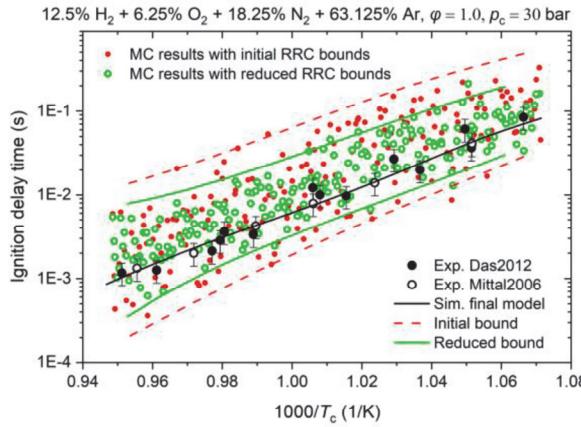


Fig. 11. Comparison of the IDTs measured in RCMs [42,64] and the modeling results obtained with the as-compiled model and with the optimized model.

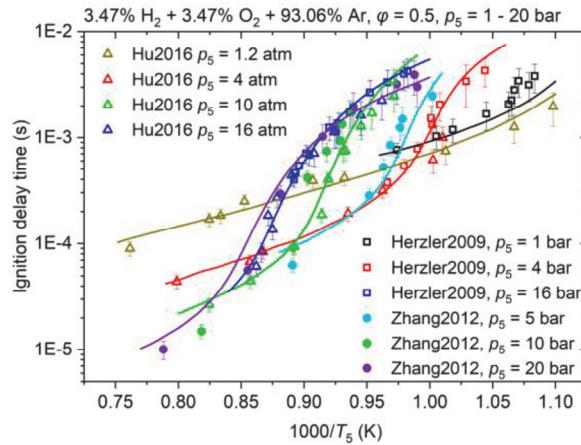


Fig. 12. Comparison of the simulated with the optimized model and measured IDTs in STs (lines: modeling results, symbols: Kéromnès et al. [36,57], Herzler et al. [36,57], Hu et al. [59,60], Zhang et al. [58]).

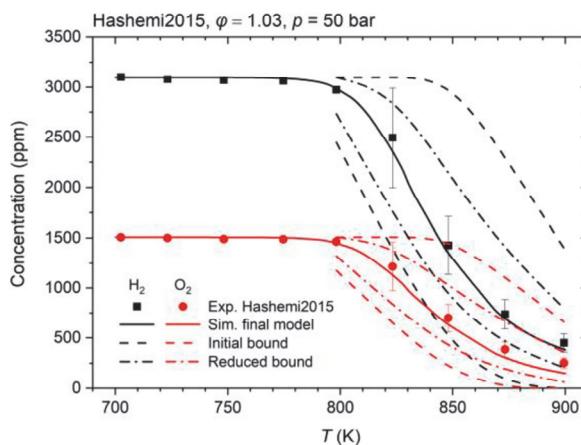


Fig. 13. Comparison of the concentration profiles measured in the PFR [30] and the modeling results obtained with the as-compiled model and with the optimized model.

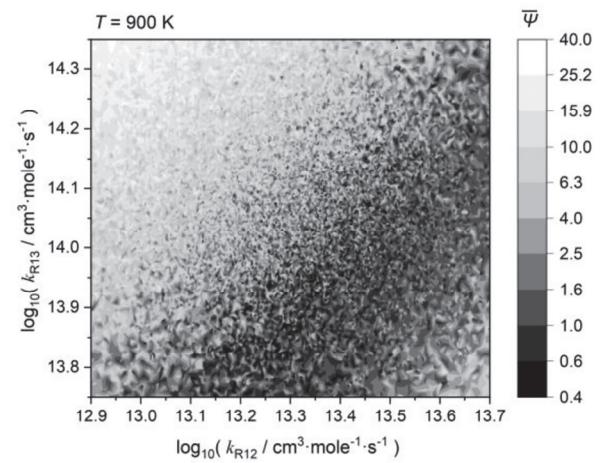


Fig. 14. The distribution of $\bar{\Psi}$ [29] due to the combined influence of reactions HO₂ + H = H₂ + O₂ (R12) and HO₂ + H = OH + OH (R13).

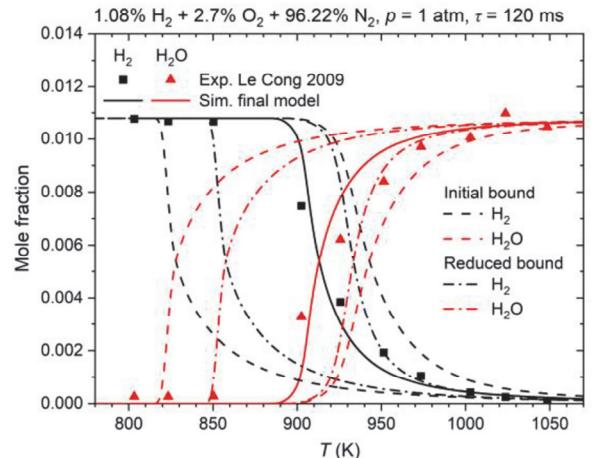


Fig. 15. Comparison of the concentration profiles measured in the JSR [29] and the modeling results obtained with the as-compiled model and with the optimized model.

available measured IDTs (Table 2) are presented in Fig. 10. Most of the experimental studies focus on the relatively low-pressure conditions (green symbols). The higher-pressure data (blue and red symbols) concentrated from 1000 K to 1200 K, and only few tests were conducted at pressure higher than 30 bar (red symbols). The lack of data at high pressure and temperature become an obstacle to the calibration of the model in this range.

Traditionally, sensitivity and uncertainty analysis (Fig. 5) shown that the reactions of H and O₂ (R3, R4) have the highest impact on the ignition of H₂/O₂ mixtures, especially at low pressures. These two reactions have received lots of attentions and narrow uncertainty intervals were obtained initially with the recommended RRCs.



As the pressure rises, the role of H₂O₂ becomes more important and

reaction (R8) and (R19) show higher uncertainty contributions, as shown in Fig. 5b and Fig. 6a. As described in the previous section, due to the lack of reliable recommended direct data for the RRCs of reaction (R8) and (R19), the initially estimated large uncertainties of these two channels were reduced in this study.

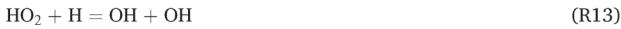
Mittal et al. [64] measured the IDTs of H₂/O₂/N₂/Ar mixture and with a RCM, and Das et al. [42] built a similar facility and extend the test conditions. A comparison of the initial and reduced modeling bounds for a test case shared by Mittal et al. [64] and Das et al. [42] is presented in Fig. 11. From the initial MC simulation (red closed symbols) to the reduced one (green open symbols), obvious improvement has been achieved in the predictive ability for the IDTs. More results for the simulation of IDTs measured in RCMs are presented in Fig. S3-1 in Supplementary-3.

The authors of [36,57] and Xi'an Jiaotong University (XJTU) [58-60] measured the IDTs of H₂/O₂/Ar mixtures in STs with similar conditions. Increases of 2%/ms to 6%/ms were set to the pressure of the homogeneous model to reproduce the real reaction processes in STs. The measurements covered a wide temperature and pressure ranges, and one comparison of the modeling results and the experimental data is presented in Fig. 12. It should be noted that the IDTs measured by Zhang et al. [58] were not used for the uncertainty minimization. More results for the simulation of IDTs measured in STs are presented in Figs. S3-2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 in Supplementary-3.

3.2. Plug flow reactor

H₂ oxidation under highly diluted conditions was studied with a PFR and the concentration profiles of H₂ and O₂ were measured with a gas chromatograph by Hashemi et al. [30]. Reaction (R8) and (R19) were specially fitted for the simulation of concentration profiles of H₂ and O₂ in the PFR. A comparison of the simulated and measured concentration profiles of H₂/O₂/N₂ mixture with an equivalence ratio of 1.03 is presented in Fig. 13. The 2σ bounds of the predicted concentration profiles in the PFR [30] based on the initial (dash lines) and reduced (dash-dot lines) RRC bounds are compared in Fig. 13, and the newly calculated standard deviation σ is 50% or less of the initial value. More results for the fuel-lean and fuel-rich conditions are presented in Fig. S3-7 in Supplementary-3.

3.3. Jet stirred reactor



The oxidation of H₂ over the temperature range of 800–1300 K was studied in a jet-stirred reactor by Le Cong and Dagaut [29]. 10% water was added to the mixture for the investigation of H₂ oxidation model. Uncertainty analysis shows that the reactions of HO₂ + H (R12, R13) play decisive roles in the modeling of JSR (Fig. S2-2e in Supplementary-2). However, only very few directly measured data were found for the RRCs of these two reactions. The distribution of discrepancy measure, $\bar{\Psi}$, following from the combined impact of the RRCs for (R12) and (R13) is presented in Fig. 14. The initially estimated large uncertainties of the RRCs were reduced based on the modeling of the jet-stirred reactor. The probability density functions for the RRCs of these two reactions were determined based on $\bar{\Psi}$, which are shown in Fig. S2-4c and S2-4d in Supplementary-2.

By reducing the RRCs uncertainty bounds for reaction (R12) and (R13), the modeling bounds of the predicted unstable process in JSR were narrowed, as shown in Fig. 15, and the final optimized model can well predict the concentration profiles. More results for the simulation of JSR [29] can be found in Fig. S3-8 in Supplementary-3.

3.4. Laminar flame speed

The Bunsen flame, counterflow flame, and spherical flame are commonly used experimental technologies for the measurement of LFSs. Most of the tests were conducted with H₂/air mixtures with unburn temperatures of 298 K at atmospheric pressure. Bradley et al. [72] and Hu et al. [80] measured the LFSs of H₂/air mixtures at variable temperature and pressure with the spherical flame method. Kwon et al. [77] investigated the effect of different dilution gases on the LFSs. Tse et al. [76] measured the laminar mass burning rate of H₂/O₂/He mixtures in the spherical flame at variable pressures up to 20 atm. In this study, only the LFSs of H₂/air mixtures measured at atmospheric pressure and $T_u = 298$ K were selected as optimization targets and blind simulation was conducted for the other data.

Most of the studied reactions show importance to the simulated LFSs, as shown in Fig. S2-2c in Supplementary-2. The uncertainty intervals of the RRCs were not specially reduced for the modeling of LFSs. As shown by the comparison of the simulated and measured LFSs of H₂/air mixtures in Fig. 16, the low $\bar{\Psi}$ was obtained with the final optimized model (the inconsistent targets are not shown). The results for the LFS simulations at variable temperature, pressure, and dilution gases are presented in Figs. S3-9, 10, and 11 in Supplementary-3. All the predictions show good agreement with the experimental data.

3.5. Premixed laminar flame structure

Vandooren et al. [85] investigated the flame structure of the rich H₂/O₂/Ar flame at low pressure and measured the mole fractions of H₂, O₂, H₂O, H, O, and OH with the mass spectrometric analysis. In the earlier work of Dixon-lewis et al. [84], the structure of the rich H₂/O₂/N₂ flame was studied at atmospheric pressure, but only the concentration profiles of three stable components of the flame, H₂, O₂, and H₂O, were measured. Considering the limited number of tests, the concentration profiles measured in PLF were not specially fitted, and blind simulations were conducted for the two experiments with good predictions of the concentration profiles, Fig. 17.

4. Conclusion

The optimization of a 19-reactions H₂ oxidation chemical kinetic model has been successfully performed with the developed strategy for reduction of the rate constant uncertainties for reactions having the high uncertainty contributions to the modeling results. Experimental data with strongly evaluated errors from shock tubes, rapid compression machines, jet stirred reactors, plug flow reactors, and premixed laminar

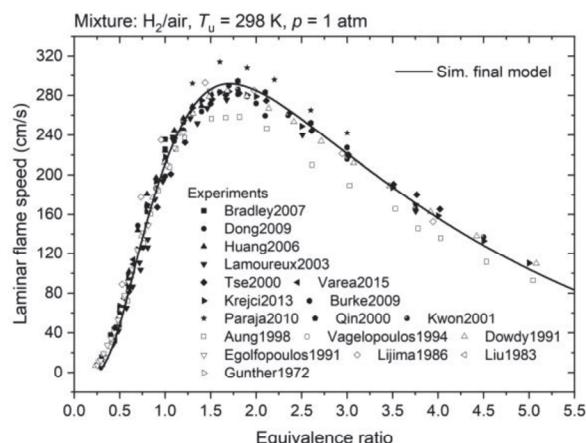


Fig. 16. LFSs of H₂/air mixtures at 298 K and 1 atm.

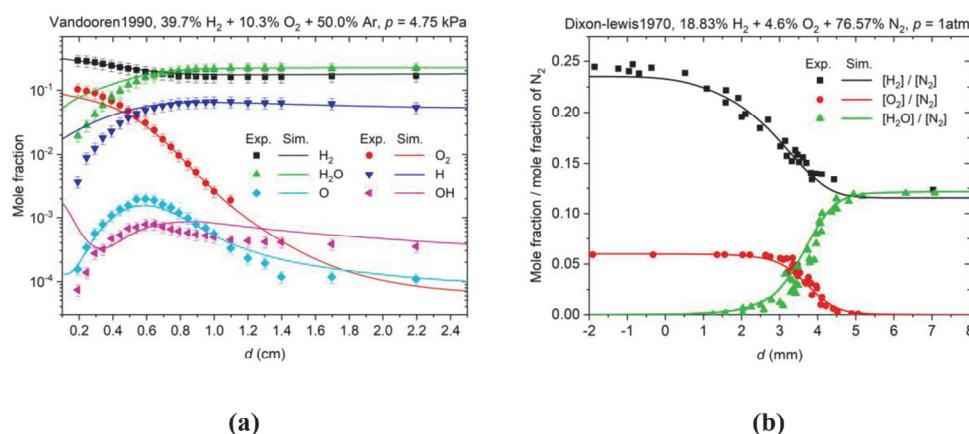


Fig. 17. Simulations of concentration profiles with the optimized model measured by (a) Vandooren et al. [85]; (b) Dixon-lewis et al. [84] in PLF for H_2 , O_2 , H_2O , H , O , and OH .

flames were used as the training set. The inconsistent targets were fixed and excluded from the optimization.

The discrepancy measure was introduced in the developed framework for quantification of the model prediction quality. The relative uncertainty contributions were calculated to characterize the impact of the reaction rate uncertainties on the model prediction quality and to select the reaction rates with the highest potential to be optimized on the base of the defined training set. 10 key channels (33 rate parameters) were selected from the analysis of uncertainty contributions.

Uncertainty intervals of the studied reaction rate constants were first decided by the statistical analysis of reliable data recommended by direct measurements and theoretical calculations. Monte Carlo simulation with randomly sampled reaction rate constants and polynomial regression were performed to develop the response surface with a very high coefficient of determination to be utilized in the model optimization procedure.

The probability density functions were calculated for the 4 key channels with highest uncertainty contributions, and the initially estimated uncertainties for both RRCs and modeling were reduced. The proposed framework through combination of deterministic and probabilistic approaches for the RRC uncertainty treatment allows to extend the RRC input temperature validity range.

The final model optimization is performed through the discrepancy measure minimization. The predictions of ignition delay times, laminar flame speeds, and concentration profiles obtained with the final optimized model demonstrate the lowest discrepancy measure and the model's good application potential in the computational fluid dynamic simulation of hydrogen combustion.

The applied statistical methods can be effective for the mathematical treatment of complex reaction systems for the development of predictive reaction models with a quantified valid range. The uncertainty parameters of the reaction rate constants and the obtained reaction model will be a good basement for the development of complex kinetic models for the hydrocarbon oxidation with narrowed uncertainty intervals.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Hongxin Wang: Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing – original draft. **Nadezda Slavinskaya:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision. **Oskar Haidn:** Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing, Supervision.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial

interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2022.123705>.

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Supplementary-1

A Comprehensive Kinetic Modelling Study of Hydrogen Combustion with Data Uncertainty Analysis

Hongxin Wang^a, Nadezda Slavinskaya^{b, c}, Oskar Haidn^a

a. Department of Aerospace and Geodesy, Technical University of Munich, 85748 Garching, Germany

b. GRS Association for Plant and Reactor Safety, 85748 Garching, Germany

c. Al-Farabi Kazakh National University, 050040 Almaty, Kazakhstan

Recommendations of the reaction rate constants and calculated uncertainty parameters.

Table S1-1. Parameters for Arrhenius equation and uncertainty factors, $kT = ATnexp - Ea/T$, $kT = A1Tn1exp - Ea1T + A2Tn2exp - Ea2T$ for duplications (dup)..... 2

Figure S1-1 (R1) $H + H + Ar = H_2 + Ar$	Figure S1-2 (R2) $H + O + M = OH + M$ 11
Figure S1-3 (R3) $H + O_2 (+M) = HO_2 (+M)$	 12
Figure S1-4 (R4) $H + O_2 = OH + O$	Figure S1-5 (R5) $H + OH + N_2 = H_2O + N_2$ 12
Figure S1-6 (R6) $H_2 + O = OH + H$	Figure S1-7 (R7) $H_2 + OH = H_2O + H$ 12
Figure S1-8 (R8) $H_2O_2 + H = HO_2 + H_2$	Figure S1-9 (R9) $H_2O_2 + H = H_2O + OH$ 13
Figure S1-10 (R10) $H_2O_2 + O = HO_2 + OH$	Figure S1-11 (R11) $H_2O_2 + OH = H_2O + HO_2$ 13
Figure S1-12 (R12) $HO_2 + H = H_2 + O_2$	Figure S1-13 (R13) $HO_2 + H = OH + OH$ 13
Figure S1-14 (R14) $HO_2 + HO_2 = H_2O_2 + O_2$	 14
Figure S1-15 (R15) $HO_2 + O = O_2 + OH$	 14
Figure S1-16 (R16) $HO_2 + OH = H_2O + O_2$	 14
Figure S1-17 (R17) $O + O + M = O_2 + M$	 15
Figure S1-18 (R18) $OH + OH = H_2O + O$	 15
Figure S1-19 (R19) $H_2O_2 (+M) = OH + OH (+M)$	 15

Table S1-1. Parameters for Arrhenius equation and uncertainty factors, $k(T) = AT^n \exp(-E_a/T)$,

$k(T) = A_1 T^{n_1} \exp\left(-\frac{E_{a1}}{T}\right) + A_2 T^{n_2} \exp\left(-\frac{E_{a2}}{T}\right)$ for duplications (dup).

	Reaction	+M	Reference	$\Delta T, K$	k, cm ³ , s, mole, K		
					A	n	E_a, K
R1	H+H+M=H ₂ +M	H ₂	Baulch2005 [1]	200-5000	1.02E+17	-0.60	0.0
		Ar	Baulch2005 [1]	200-2500	6.53E+17	-1.00	0.0
		He	Mitchell1977 [2]	297	2.10E+15	0.00	0.0
		H ₂	Lynch1976 [3]	298	3.08E+15	0.00	0.0
		He	Lynch1976 [3]	298	2.50E+15	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Lynch1976 [3]	298	2.90E+15	0.00	0.0
		N ₂	Lynch1976 [3]	298	3.48E+15	0.00	0.0
		H ₂	Walkauskas1975 [4]	298	2.94E+15	0.00	0.0
		He	Walkauskas1975 [4]	298	2.54E+15	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Walkauskas1975 [4]	298	3.34E+15	0.00	0.0
		N ₂	Walkauskas1975 [4]	295	3.30E+15	0.00	0.0
		CH ₄	Walkauskas1975 [4]	295	5.55E+15	0.00	0.0
		CO ₂	Walkauskas1975 [4]	295	5.93E+15	0.00	0.0
		H ₂	Trainor1973 [5]	298	2.94E+15	0.00	0.0
		He	Trainor1973 [5]	298	2.54E+15	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Trainor1973 [5]	298	3.34E+15	0.00	0.0
		H ₂	Bennett1971 [6]	298	3.40E+15	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Bennett1971 [6]	298	5.78E+15	0.00	0.0
		He	Bennett1971 [6]	298	7.51E+15	0.00	0.0
		CO ₂	Bennett1971 [6]	298	1.20E+16	0.00	0.0
		N ₂	Bennett1971 [6]	298	1.32E+16	0.00	0.0
		CH ₄	Bennett1971 [6]	298	2.25E+16	0.00	0.0
		H ₂	Ham1970 [7]	298	3.01E+15	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Mallard1974 [8]	1300-1700	1.00E+15	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Halstead1970 [9]	1800-2000	1.80E+15	0.00	0.0
		He	Halstead1970 [9]	1800-2000	1.80E+15	0.00	0.0
		N ₂	Halstead1970 [9]	1800-2000	1.90E+15	0.00	0.0
		CO ₂	Halstead1970 [9]	1800-2000	5.40E+15	0.00	0.0
		CO	Halstead1970 [9]	1800-2000	5.40E+15	0.00	0.0
		H ₂	Hurle1969 [10]	2500-7000	1.44E+15	-0.25	-2649.5
		Ar	Hurle1969 [10]	2500-7000	4.52E+15	-0.35	-3735.1
		Ar	Getzinger1969 [11]	1260-1910	7.50E+14	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Jocobs1967 [12]	2900-4700	1.00E+18	-1.00	0.0
		H ₂	Jocobs1967 [12]	2900-4700	2.50E+18	-1.00	0.0
		Ar	Schott1964 [13]	1700-1700	4.00E+14	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Rink1962 [14]	2800-5000	1.50E+18	-1.00	0.0
		H ₂	Rink1962 [14]	2800-5000	3.00E+18	-1.00	0.0
		Ar	Patch1962 [15]	2950-5330	7.50E+17	-1.00	0.0
		H ₂	Patch1962 [15]	2950-5330	7.50E+18	-1.00	0.0

Reaction		+M	Reference	ΔT, K	$k, \text{cm}^3, \text{s, mole, K}$		
					A	n	E_a, K
R2	$\text{H}+\text{O}+\text{M}=\text{OH}+\text{M}$	-	Tsang1986 [16]	300-2500	4.71E+18	-1.00	0.0
		Ar	Naudet2001 [17]	2950-3700	6.75E+18	-1.00	0.0
R3	$\text{H}+\text{O}_2(+\text{M})=\text{HO}_2(+\text{M})$ low-pressure limit	Ar	Baulch2005 [1]	298-2000	6.89E+18	-1.20	0.0
		N ₂	Baulch2005 [1]	298-2000	2.65E+19	-1.30	0.0
		H ₂ O	Baulch2005 [1]	298-2000	3.63E+19	-1.00	0.0
		Ar	Sellevag2008 [18]	300-3000	3.30E+19	-1.40	134.0
		N ₂	Sellevag2008 [18]	300-3000	7.25E+20	-1.73	270.0
		Ar	Troe2000 [19]	300-2000	7.49E+18	-1.20	0.0
		N ₂	Troe2000 [19]	300-2000	5.75E+19	-1.40	0.0
		Ar	Fernandes2008 [20]	300-900	4.75E+18	-1.12	0.0
		N ₂	Fernandes2008 [20]	300-900	1.74E+19	-1.23	0.0
		He	Fernandes2008 [20]	300-900	6.13E+18	-1.20	0.0
		Ar	Hahn2004 [21]	300-700	1.51E+19	-1.30	0.0
		N ₂	Michael2002 [22]	482-712	1.75E+19	-1.23	0.0
		Ar	Michael2002 [22]	471-698	4.57E+18	-1.12	0.0
		H ₂ O	Michael2002 [22]	296	1.81E+17	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Bates2001 [23]	1050-1250	6.81E+18	-1.20	0.0
		N ₂	Bates2001 [23]	1050-1250	2.65E+19	-1.30	0.0
		H ₂ O	Bates2001 [23]	1050-1250	3.70E+19	-1.00	0.0
		N ₂	Ashman1998 [24]	750-900	2.25E+15	0.00	-680.0
		H ₂ O	Ashman1998 [24]	750-900	2.39E+16	0.00	-680.0
		CO ₂	Ashman1998 [24]	750-900	5.40E+15	0.00	-680.0
		Ar	Ashman1998 [24]	750-900	1.26E+15	0.00	-680.0
		H ₂ O	Carleton1993 [25]	575-750	1.42E+16	0.00	-600.0
		N ₂	Carleton1993 [25]	298-580	1.05E+15	0.00	-825.0
		Ar	Carleton1993 [25]	298	7.62E+15	0.00	0.0
		N ₂	Hsu1987 [26]	298-693	2.36E+15	0.00	-680.0
		H ₂ O	Hsu1987 [26]	298-693	6.89E+15	0.00	-1050.0
		He	Hsu1987 [26]	298-693	1.45E+15	0.00	-560.0
		Ar	Cobos1985 [27]	298	1.02E+16	0.00	0.0
		N ₂	Cobos1985 [27]	298	2.36E+16	0.00	0.0
		CH ₄	Cobos1985 [27]	298	5.44E+16	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Pratt1983 [28]	231-512	2.85E+14	0.00	-796.0
R3	$\text{H}+\text{O}_2(+\text{M})=\text{HO}_2(+\text{M})$ high-pressure limit		Baulch2005 [1] dup	298-1500	1.93E+12	0.56	0.0
			Baulch2005 [1] dup	298-1500	1.75E+17	-1.70	0.0
			Sellevag2008 [18] dup	300-3000	1.51E+14	-0.37	0.0
			Sellevag2008 [18] dup	300-3000	4.52E+11	0.70	0.0
			Troe2000 [19]	300-2000	4.65E+12	0.44	0.0
			Fernandes2008 [20]	300-900	4.65E+12	0.44	0.0
			Hahn2004 [21]	300-700	4.65E+12	0.44	0.0
			Cobos1985 [27]	298	4.52E+13	0.00	0.0

	Reaction	Reference	ΔT , K	k , cm ³ , s, mole, K		
				A	n	E_a , K
R4	$H+O_2=OH+O$	Wang2017 [29]	1428-1685	8.04E+13	0.00	7370.0
		Hong2011 [30]	1100-3370	1.04E+14	0.00	7705.0
		Hong2011 [30]	1100-1530	1.12E+14	0.00	7805.0
		Yang1994 [31]	1850-3550	1.00E+14	0.00	7690.0
		Du1992 [32]	2050-2950	9.33E+13	0.00	7270.0
		Yuan1991 [33]	1050-2700	1.59E+17	-0.93	8490.0
		Shin1991 [34]	1100-2060	6.92E+13	0.00	6920.0
		Masten1990 [35]	1450-3370	9.33E+13	0.00	7450.0
		Pirraglia1989 [36]	962-1700	1.68E+14	0.00	8120.0
		Fujii1988 [37]	1900-2650	6.00E+14	0.00	11400.0
		Frank1985 [38]	1700-2500	2.44E+14	0.00	8700.0
		Aleksandrov1984 [39]	773	2.89E+09	0.00	0.0
		Dixon-Lewis1983 [40]	700-1500	1.80E+14	0.00	8450.0
		Schott1973 [41]	1250-2500	1.22E+17	-0.91	8370.0
		Eberius1971 [42]	650-1000	2.30E+14	0.00	8450.0
		Jachimowski1970 [43]	1200-1800	9.91E+13	0.00	7560.0
		Myerson1968 [44]	1700-2700	6.02E+12	0.50	8930.0
		Kurzius1968 [45]	300-1650	1.69E+14	0.00	8400.0
		Gutman1967 [46]	1290-1670	7.76E+13	0.00	7270.0
		Gutman1967[46]	975-2060	9.55E+13	0.00	7400.0
R4-	$OH+H=H+O_2$	Robertson2006 [47]	136-377	6.74E+13	-0.32	-177.0
		Robertson2002 [48]	295	1.91E+13	0.00	0.0
		Smith1994 [49]	158-294	3.06E+10	0.98	-337.0
		Brune1983 [50]	300	1.87E+13	0.00	0.0
		Howard1981 [51]	250-515	4.00E+14	-0.50	0.0
		Lewis1980 [52]	221-499	1.21E+13	0.00	-112.0
		Howard1980 [53]	298	2.29E+13	0.00	0.0
		Campbell1977	425	2.65E+13	0.00	0.0
		Breen1970 [54]	298	2.59E+13	0.00	0.0
		Kurzius1968 [45]	300	1.69E+13	0.00	0.0

Reaction		+M	Reference	ΔT , K	k, cm ³ , s, mole, K		
					A	n	E _a , K
R5	H+OH(+M)=H ₂ O(+M) low-pressure limit	Ar	Baulch2005 [1]	300-3000	8.34E+21	-2.00	0.0
		N ₂	Baulch2005 [1]	300-3000	2.21E+22	-2.00	0.0
		H ₂ O	Baulch2005 [1]	300-3000	1.41E+23	-2.00	0.0
		Ar	Sellevag2008 [18]	300-3000	3.12E+20	-1.53	185.0
		N ₂	Sellevag2008 [18]	300-3000	4.53E+21	-1.81	251.0
		Ar	Javoy2003 [55]	2790-3200	3.75E+21	-2.10	0.0
		H ₂ O	Javoy2003 [55]	2790-3200	6.75E+22	-2.10	0.0
		N ₂	Goodings1988 [56]	1600-2200	3.64E+19	-1.00	0.0
		He	Zellner1977 [57]	230-300	1.56E+23	-2.60	0.0
		CO ₂	Zellner1977 [57]	300-300	3.27E+17	0.00	0.0
		N ₂	Zellner1977 [57]	300-300	1.74E+17	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Zellner1977 [57]	300-300	8.34E+16	0.00	0.0
		OH	Davis1974 [58]	1740-1860	8.34E+15	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Homer1970 [59]	2570-3290	1.50E+25	-2.60	0.0
		H ₂ O	Homer1970 [59]	2570-3290	7.51E+23	-2.60	0.0
		Ar	Halstead1970 [9]	1800-2000	3.20E+15	0.00	0.0
		He	Halstead1970 [9]	1800-2000	8.00E+15	0.00	0.0
		N ₂	Halstead1970 [9]	1800-2000	3.20E+15	0.00	0.0
		H ₂ O	Halstead1970 [9]	1800-2000	2.70E+16	0.00	0.0
		H ₂ O	Getzinger1969 [11]	1259-1912	6.61E+16	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Getzinger1969 [11]	1259-1912	3.30E+14	0.00	0.0
		N ₂	Getzinger1969 [11]	1259-1912	8.59E+15	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Getzinger1967 [60]	1310-1850	5.40E+15	0.00	0.0
		N ₂	Lewis1962 [61]	1070-1070	3.80E+15	0.00	0.0
R5	H+OH+M=H ₂ O+M high-pressure limit		Sellevag2008 [18]	300-3000	2.51E+13	0.23	-57.5
R5-	H ₂ O+M= H+OH+M low-pressure limit	Ar	Javoy2003 [55]	2790-3200	3.95E+14	0.00	53690.0
		H ₂ O	Javoy2003 [55]	2790-3200	7.10E+15	0.00	53690.0
		Ar	Homer1970 [59]	2570-3290	4.00E+23	-2.20	59414.5
		H ₂ O	Homer1970 [59]	2570-3290	8.00E+24	-2.20	59414.5
		Ar	Cathro1972 [62]	2000-2400	8.99E+14	0.00	52800.0
		H ₂ O	Cathro1972 [62]	2000-2400	1.80E+16	0.00	52800.0
		Ar	Olschewski1967 [63]	2700-6000	5.01E+14	0.00	52800.0

Reaction	Reference	$\Delta T, \text{K}$	$k, \text{cm}^3, \text{s, mole, K}$			
			A	n	E_a, K	
R6	$\text{H}_2+\text{O}=\text{OH}+\text{H}$	Balakrishnan2004 [64]	300	4.28E+06	0.00	0.0
		Javoy2003 [55]	2021-3356	7.10E+06	2.10	4140.0
		Javoy2000 [65]	2690-3360	9.25E+14	0.00	9740.0
		Ryu1995 [66]	1424-2427	1.88E+14	0.00	6897.0
		Yang1993 [67]	1600-2250	3.70E+14	0.00	7817.7
		Davidson1990 [68]	2120-2750	8.13E+14	0.00	9540.0
		Shin1989 [69]	1790-2250	7.90E+14	0.00	9381.2
		Sutherland1988 [70]	880-2495	1.87E+14	0.00	6853.8
		Sutherland1988 [70]	504-923	4.34E+13	0.00	5248.6
		Natarajan1987 [71]	1713-3532	3.72E+06	2.17	4080.0
		Marshall1987 [72]	430-1420	4.41E+03	2.93	2980.0
		Presser1985 [73]	297-471	3.16E+12	0.00	3980.0
		Pamidimukkala1982 [74]	1919-2781	2.30E+14	0.00	6915.7
		Light1980 [75]	298	5.50E+06	0.00	0.0
		Dubinsky1975 [76]	347-832	5.00E+12	0.00	4329.8
		Schott1974 [77]	1400-1900	2.20E+14	0.00	6915.7
		Brabbs1971 [78]	1200-1600	2.96E+13	0.00	4931.5
		Dean1970 [79]	1700-2600	9.04E+13	0.00	5030.0
		Jachimowski1970 [43]	1200-1800	7.50E+13	0.00	5590.0
R7	$\text{H}_2+\text{OH}=\text{H}_2\text{O}+\text{H}$	Baulch2005 [1]	250-2500	2.17E+08	1.52	1740.0
		Lam2013 [80]	902-1518	4.38E+13	0.00	3518.0
		Nguyen2011 [81]	200-2500	2.53E+07	1.78	1453.0
		Orkin2006 [82]	250-479	2.87E+05	2.41	1240.0
		Krasnoperov2004 [83]	832-1359	3.28E+13	0.00	3220.0
		Haworth2002 [84]	1000-2000	8.32E+05	2.34	1761.0
		Talukdar1996 [85]	238-400	4.33E+04	2.69	1150.0
		Bott1989 [86]	1200-1200	2.70E+12	0.00	0.0
		Schmidt1985 [87]	295	3.49E+09	0.00	0.0
		Frank1985 [38]	1700-2500	4.74E+13	0.00	3070.0
		Ravishankara1981 [88]	250-400	2.95E+12	0.00	1990.0
		Ravishankara1981 [88]	250-1050	2.48E+05	2.44	1280.0
		Trainor1975 [89]	300	3.19E+09	0.00	0.0
		Overend1975 [90]	295	3.49E+09	0.00	0.0
		Atkinson1975 [91]	297-434	3.56E+12	0.00	2010.0
		Smith1974 [92]	210-460	1.08E+13	0.00	2330.0
		Gardiner1974 [93]	1350-1600	5.20E+13	0.00	3250.0
		Westenberg1973 [94]	298-745	1.86E+00	4.05	444.0
		Stuhl1972 [95]	298	4.28E+09	0.00	0.0
		Eberius1971 [42]	500-1500	1.00E+13	0.00	2420.0
		Brabbs1971 [78]	1100-1600	2.10E+13	0.00	2570.0

Reaction		Reference	$\Delta T, \text{K}$	k, cm ³ , s, mole, K		
				A	n	E _a , K
R8	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{H} = \text{HO}_2 + \text{H}_2$	Baulch2005 [1]	300-1000	1.69E+12	0.00	1890.0
		Tsang1986 [16]	300-2500	4.82E+13	0.00	4000.0
		Gorse1974 [96]	298-298	1.87E+09	0.00	0.0
		Baldwin1979 [97]	713-773	6.30E+12	0.00	2480.0
		Lee1998 [98]	950-1050	2.30E+13	0.00	4000.0
R9	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{H} = \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{OH}$	Baulch2005 [1]	300-1000	1.02E+13	0.00	1800.0
		Tsang1986 [16]	300-2500	2.41E+13	0.00	2000.0
		Gorse1974 [96]	298	3.44E+09	0.00	0.0
		Baldwin1979 [97]	713-773	8.00E+14	0.00	4580.0
		Forst1958 [99]	700-740	3.21E+13	0.00	3520.0
R10	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{O} = \text{HO}_2 + \text{OH}$	Baulch2005 [1]	283-500	8.43E+11	0.00	2000.0
		Tsang1986 [16]	300-2500	9.63E+06	2.00	2000.0
		Wine1983 [100]	298-386	6.81E+11	0.00	2000.0
		Davis1974 [101]	283-368	1.66E+12	0.00	2120.0
		Albers1971 [102]	370-800	2.80E+13	0.00	3220.0
R11	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{OH} = \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{HO}_2$	Baulch2005 [1] dup	240-1700	1.64E+18	0.00	14800.0
		Baulch2005 [1] dup	240-1700	1.93E+12	0.00	215.0
		Hong2010 [103]	1020-1460	4.60E+13	0.00	2630.0
		Jimenez2004 [104]	254-356	1.75E+12	0.00	110.0
		Vakhtin2003 [105]	96-296	4.10E+11	0.00	-285.0
		Vaghjiani1990 [106]	298	1.20E+12	0.00	0.0
		Hippler1995 [107] dup	930-1680	1.70E+18	0.00	14800.0
		Hippler1995 [107] dup	930-1680	2.00E+12	0.00	215.0
		Hippler1990 [108]	1100-1100	3.00E+12	0.00	0.0
		Lamb1983 [109]	241-413	4.20E+04	2.50	-838.0
		Marinelli1982 [110]	298	1.09E+12	0.00	0.0
		Kurylo1982 [111]	250-370	1.75E+12	0.00	161.0
		Wine1981 [112]	273-410	2.23E+12	0.00	260.0
		Troe1969 [113]	950-1450	2.45E+11	0.50	603.0
R12	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{H} = \text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2$	Baulch2005 [1]	250-1000	1.05E+14	0.00	1030.0
		Mousavipour2007 [114]	200-3000	6.70E+07	1.77	-286.0
		Karkach1999 [115]	298-1000	6.18E+11	0.47	230.0
		Baldwin1979 [97]	370-773	2.80E+13	0.00	0.0
		Sridharan1982 [116]	296	4.01E+12	0.00	0.0
		Keyser1986 [117]	245-300	4.19E+12	0.00	0.0
R13	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{H} = \text{OH} + \text{OH}$	Baulch2005 [1]	250-1000	4.46E+14	0.00	700.0
		Mousavipour2007 [114]	200-3000	2.20E+11	0.88	-32.5
		Sridharan1982 [116]	296	3.88E+13	0.00	0.0
		Keyser1986 [117]	245-300	4.72E+13	0.00	0.0

Reaction	Reference	$\Delta T, \text{K}$	k, cm ³ , s, mole, K
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				<i>A</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>E_a, K</i>
R14	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{HO}_2 = \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{O}_2$	Baulch2005 [1] dup	550-1250	4.22E+14	0.00	6030.8
		Baulch2005 [1] dup	550-1250	1.32E+11	0.00	820.3
		zhou2012 [118] dup	200-2000	1.18E+09	0.77	918.2
		zhou2012 [118] dup	200-2000	1.25E+12	0.30	3724.7
		Kappel2002 [119] dup	300-1250	1.03E+14	0.00	5556.0
		Kappel2002 [119] dup	300-1250	1.94E+11	0.00	709.0
		Thiébaud2006 [120]	298	1.14E+12	0.00	0.0
		Kanno2006 [121]	250-350	1.14E+11	0.00	670.0
		Stone2005 [122]	236-309	1.08E+10	0.00	1500.0
		Sehested1997 [123]	295-295	2.11E+12	0.00	0.0
		Maricq1994 [124]	210-363	1.69E+11	0.00	594.0
		Dobis1993 [125]	243-368	2.71E+11	0.00	520.0
		Crowley1991 [126]	298	1.45E+12	0.00	0.0
		Crowley1991 [126]	298	1.71E+12	0.00	0.0
		Hippler1990 [108] dup	750-1120	4.20E+14	0.00	6030.0
		Hippler1990 [108] dup	750-1120	1.30E+11	0.00	820.0
		Andersson1988 [127]	278-299	5.55E+09	0.00	1700.0
		McAdam1987 [128]	298	1.75E+12	0.00	0.0
		Takacs1986 [129]	253-390	1.21E+11	0.00	595.0
		Mozurkewich1985 [130]	241-417	3.77E+09	0.00	2250.0
		Sander1984 [131]	298	9.04E+11	0.00	0.0
		Rozenshtein1984 [132]	300	9.93E+11	0.00	0.0
		Thrush1982 [133]	298-358	1.45E+11	0.00	560.0
		Patrick1982 [134]	298-510	2.49E+11	0.00	630.0
		Lii1981 [135]	298-373	5.55E+10	0.00	1060.0
		Hochanadel1980 [136]	296	4.00E+12	0.00	0.0
R15	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{O} = \text{O}_2 + \text{OH}$	Baulch2005 [1]	220-1000	1.63E+13	0.00	-224.0
		Ravishankara1983 [137]	298	3.73E+13	0.00	0.0
		Keyser1982 [138]	229-372	1.87E+13	0.00	-200.0
		Sridharan1982 [116]	296	3.13E+13	0.00	0.0
		Lii1980 [139]	298	4.22E+13	0.00	0.0
		Burrows1979 [140]	298	1.87E+13	0.00	0.0
		Hack1979 [141]	298	2.00E+13	0.00	0.0

	Reaction	+M	Reference	$\Delta T, K$	k, cm ³ , s, mole, K		
					A	n	E _a , K
R16	$HO_2 + OH = H_2O + O_2$		Baulch2005 [1]	250-400	2.89E+13	0.00	-250.0
			Baulch2005 [1]	1300-2000	9.27E+15	0.00	8810.0
			Tsang1986 [16]	300-2500	1.75E+13	0.00	-200.0
			Assaf2016 [142]	298	6.14E+13	0.00	0.0
			Hong2010 [143]	1600-2200	3.30E+13	0.00	0.0
			Srinivasan2006 [144]	1242-1533	4.03E+13	0.00	0.0
			Hippler1990 [108]	1100-1100	3.00E+13	0.00	0.0
			Schwab1989 [145]	298	4.82E+13	0.00	0.0
			Keyser1988 [146]	254-382	2.89E+13	0.00	-250.0
			Goodings1988 [56]	1800-2550	6.03E+13	0.00	0.0
			Dransfeld1987 [147]	298	3.60E+13	0.00	0.0
			Sridharan1984 [148]	252-420	1.02E+13	0.00	-416.0
			Rozenshtein1984 [132]	300	3.13E+13	0.00	0.0
			Temps1982 [149]	296	4.00E+13	0.00	0.0
			DeMore1982 [150]	298	7.23E+13	0.00	0.0
			Braun1982 [151]	298	6.62E+13	0.00	0.0
			Thrush1981 [152]	298	3.49E+13	0.00	0.0
			Kurylo1981 [153]	298	9.04E+13	0.00	0.0
			Cox1981 [154]	308	5.96E+13	0.00	0.0
			Burrows1981 [155]	288	3.73E+13	0.00	0.0
			Lii1980 [139]	308	5.96E+13	0.00	0.0
			Hochanadel1980 [136]	296	7.00E+13	0.00	0.0
R17	$O + O + M = O_2 + M$	-	Tsang1986 [16]	200-4000	1.89E+13	0.00	-900.0
		N ₂	Campbell1973 [156]	196-298	3.43E+14	0.00	-485.0
		O ₂	Tchen1972 [157]	298	3.63E+15	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Campbell1967 [158]	298	2.98E+15	0.00	0.0
		N ₂	Campbell1967	298	3.88E+15	0.00	0.0
		He	Campbell1967	298	1.36E+15	0.00	0.0
		O ₂	Marshall1962 [159]	300	1.63E+15	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Reeves1960 [160]	298	9.79E+14	0.00	0.0
		N ₂	Morgan1960 [161]	298	3.23E+15	0.00	0.0
R17-	$O_2 + M = O + O + M$	N ₂	Javoy2003 [55]	2740-3460	6.80E+14	0.00	55700.0
		Ar	Jerig1991 [162]	2400-4100	1.60E+18	-1.00	59380.0
		N ₂	Jerig1991 [162]	2400-4100	3.40E+18	-1.00	59380.0
		Ar	Watt1969 [163]	2850-5000	1.85E+11	0.50	48158.1

	Reaction	+M	Reference	$\Delta T, \text{K}$	$k, \text{cm}^3, \text{s, mole, K}$		
					A	n	E_a, K
R18	$\text{OH}+\text{OH}=\text{H}_2\text{O}+\text{O}$		Baulch2005 [1]	250-2400	3.35E+04	2.42	-970.0
			Altinay2014 [164]	295-701	2.88E+06	1.79	-879.0
			Sangwan2012 [165]	295-414	6.34E+13	-0.76	0.0
			Sangwan2012 [165]	555-773	2.12E+32	-6.07	4924.4
			Bedjanian1999 [166]	233-360	4.28E+11	0.00	-210.0
			Wooldridge1994 [167]	1050-2380	9.40E-05	4.77	-4570.0
			Sutherland1991 [168]	1290-2030	5.36E+12	0.00	1060.0
			Wagner1981 [169]	250-580	1.93E+12	0.00	242.0
			Farquharson1980 [170]	298	1.02E+12	0.00	0.0
			Ernst1977 [171]	1200-1800	3.40E+13	0.00	2530.0
			Trainor1975 [89]	300	1.26E+12	0.00	0.0
			Rawlins1974 [172]	1200-2000	5.50E+13	0.00	3490.0
			Clyne1974 [173]	300	8.43E+11	0.00	0.0
			Westenberg1973 [94]	350	1.40E+12	0.00	0.0
			Gardiner1973 [174]	1200-2500	5.50E+13	0.00	3520.0
			Mulcahy1971 [175]	298	1.10E+12	0.00	0.0
R18-	$\text{H}_2\text{O}+\text{O}=\text{OH}+\text{OH}$		Sutherland1991 [168]	1290-2030	5.55E+13	0.00	9610.0
			Lifshitz1991 [176]	1500-2400	6.75E+13	0.00	9120.0
			Albers1971 [102]	753- 1040	4.00E+13	0.00	8710.0
R19	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2(+\text{M})=2\text{OH}$	Ar	Baulch2005 [1]	1000-1500	2.29E+16	0.00	21960.0
		(+M) N ₂	Baulch2005 [1]	700-1500	1.20E+17	0.00	22900.0
		low-pressure limit Ar	Troe2011 [177]	500-1500	2.49E+24	-2.30	24534.0
		N ₂	Troe2011 [177]	500-1500	3.66E+24	-2.30	24534.0
		Ar	Selleva2009 [178]	500-3000	8.43E+31	-4.57	26322.0
		Ar	Hong2009 [179]	1000-1200	1.32E+16	0.00	21650.0
		Ar	Hong2009 [179]	1000-1200	8.32E+15	0.00	21060.0
		Ar	Hong2009 [179]	1000-1200	5.62E+15	0.00	20770.0
		Ar	Kijewski1971 [180]	1000-1400	1.58E+16	0.00	21638.4
R19	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2(+\text{M})=2\text{OH}$		Baulch2005 [1]	700-1500	3.00E+14	0.00	24400.0
			Troe2011 [177]	500-1500	2.00E+12	0.90	24500.0
			Brouwer1987 [181]	1000-1500	2.95E+14	0.00	24400.0
			Giguere1957 [182]	673-773	1.00E+13	0.00	24200.0
			McLane1949 [183]	762-815	9.14E+10	0.00	20200.0

	Reaction	+M	Reference	$\Delta T, K$	k, cm ³ , s, mole, K		
					A	n	E _a , K
R19-	OH+OH(+M)=H ₂ O ₂ (+M) low-pressure limit	N ₂	Baulch2005 [1]	200-400	2.39E+19	-0.80	0.0
		H ₂ O	Baulch2005 [1]	200-400	1.45E+18	0.00	0.0
		N ₂	Troe2011 [177]	200-700	2.76E+25	-3.20	0.0
		He	Selllevag2009 [178]	200-3000	1.60E+28	-4.30	340.0
		He	Sangwan2012 [165]	296-834	1.56E+26	-3.50	0.0
		N ₂	Zellner1988 [184]	298	2.50E+17	0.00	0.0
		H ₂ O	Zellner1988 [184]	298	1.45E+18	0.00	0.0
		N ₂	Trainor1975 [89]	298	9.07E+16	0.00	0.0
		He	Caldwell1965 [185]	298	3.08E+17	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Caldwell1965 [185]	298	3.52E+17	0.00	0.0
		N ₂	Caldwell1965 [185]	298	1.20E+18	0.00	0.0
		O ₂	Caldwell1965 [185]	298	1.85E+18	0.00	0.0
		CO ₂	Caldwell1965 [185]	298	1.52E+18	0.00	0.0
		H ₂ O	Caldwell1965 [185]	298	6.53E+18	0.00	0.0
		He	Black1962 [186]	298	4.71E+15	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Black1962 [186]	298	5.44E+15	0.00	0.0
		N ₂	Black1962 [186]	298	1.85E+16	0.00	0.0
		O ₂	Black1962 [186]	298	2.87E+16	0.00	0.0
		CO ₂	Black1962 [186]	298	2.32E+16	0.00	0.0
		H ₂ O	Black1962 [186]	298	1.02E+17	0.00	0.0
R19-	OH+OH(+M)=H ₂ O ₂ (+M) high-pressure limit		Baulch2005 [1]	200-400	1.57E+13	0.00	0.0
			Sangwan2012 [165]	200-400	2.50E+14	-0.50	0.0
			Fulle1996 [187]	200-700	1.57E+13	0.00	0.0
			Forster1995 [188]	298	1.32E+13	0.00	0.0
			Zellner1988 [184]	253-353	9.04E+12	0.00	0.0
			Greiner1968 [189]	300	3.90E+13	0.00	0.0
			Troe2011 [177]	200-700	3.96E+15	-0.50	0.0
			Brouwer1987 [181]	200-1500	7.49E+13	-0.37	0.0

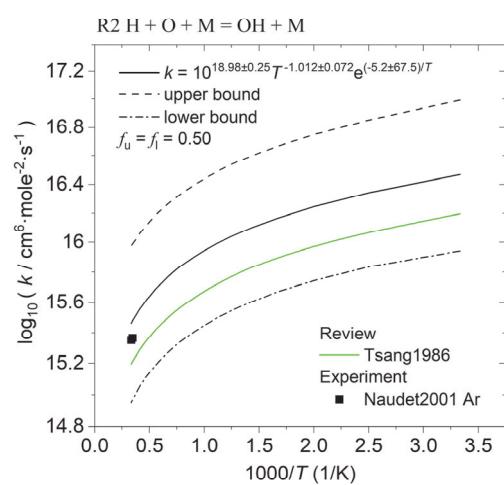
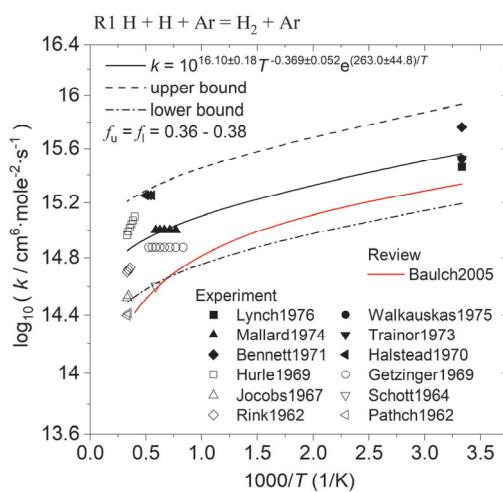
Figure S1-1 (R1) H + H + Ar = H₂ + Ar

Figure S1-2 (R2) H + O + M = OH + M

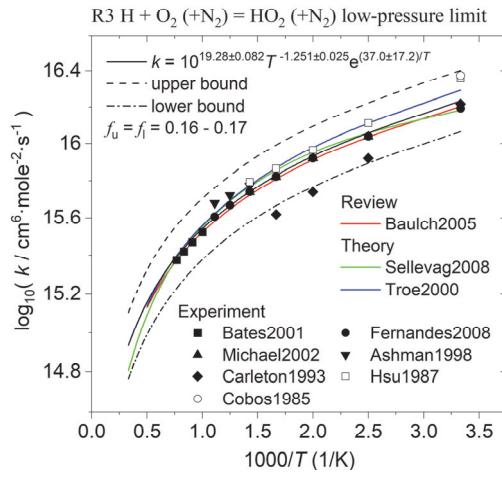
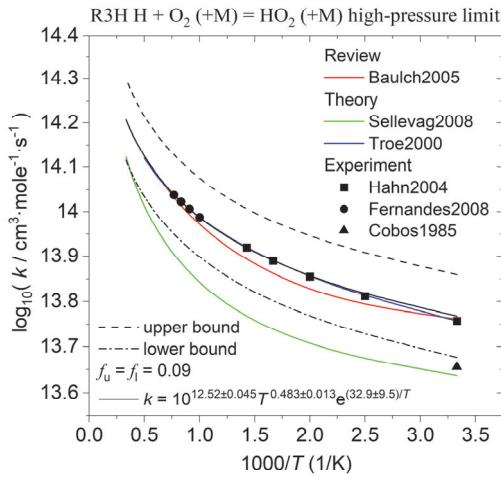


Figure S1-3 (R3) $\text{H} + \text{O}_2 (+\text{M}) = \text{HO}_2 (+\text{M})$

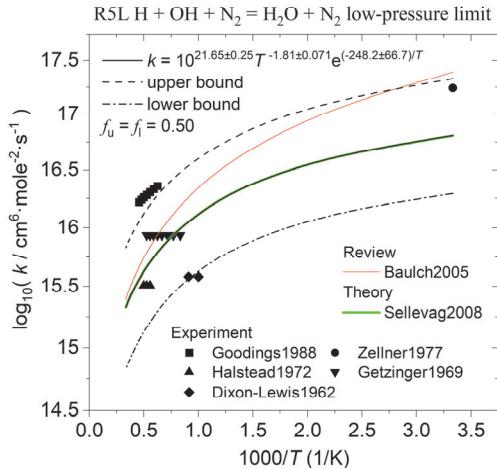
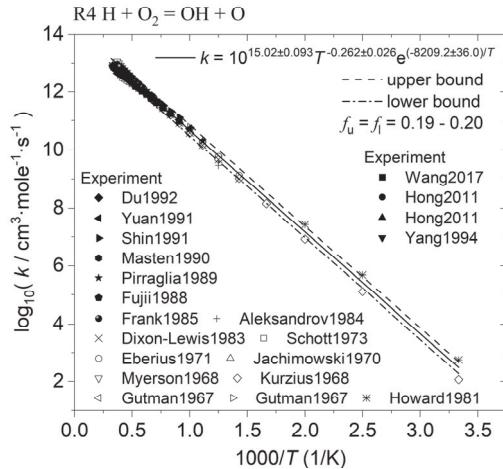


Figure S1-4 (R4) $\text{H} + \text{O}_2 = \text{OH} + \text{O}$

Figure S1-5 (R5) $\text{H} + \text{OH} + \text{N}_2 = \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{N}_2$

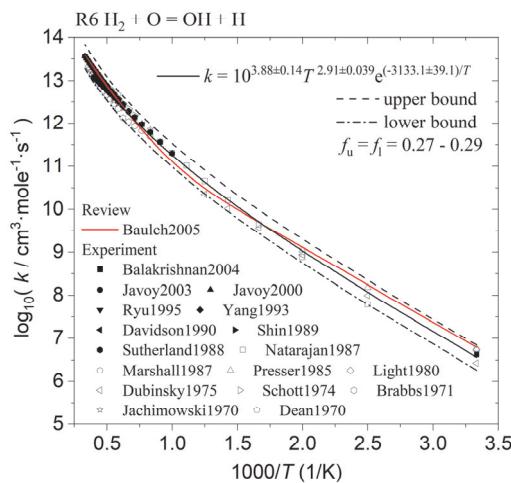


Figure S1-6 (R6) $\text{H}_2 + \text{O} = \text{OH} + \text{H}$

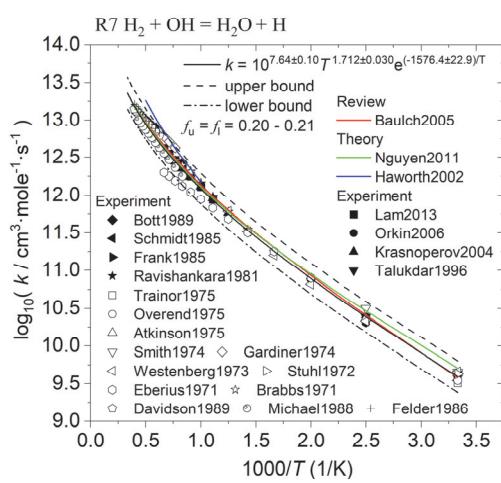
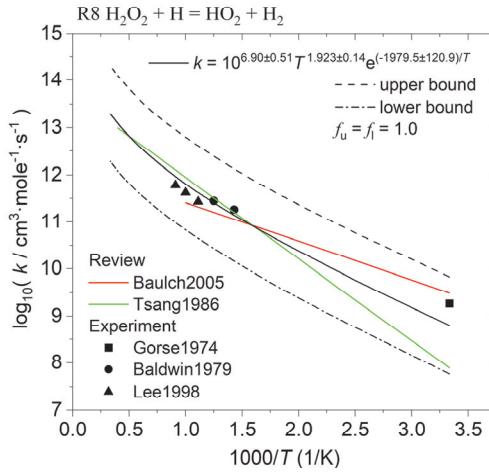
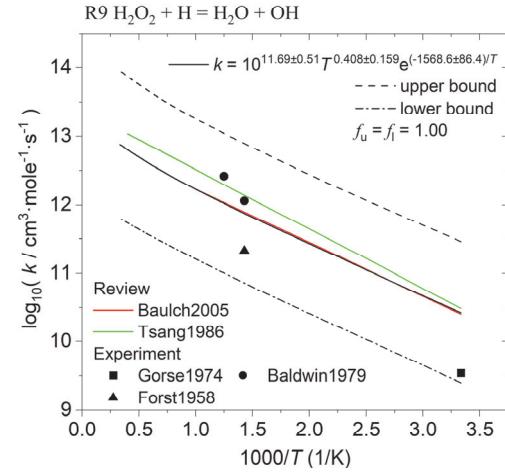
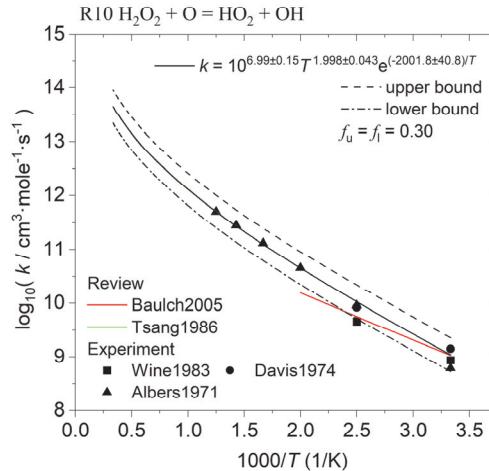
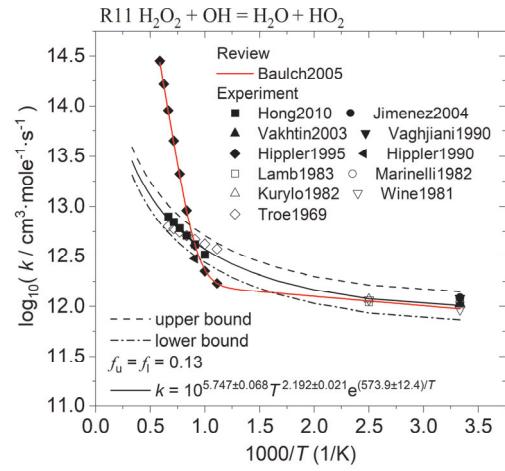
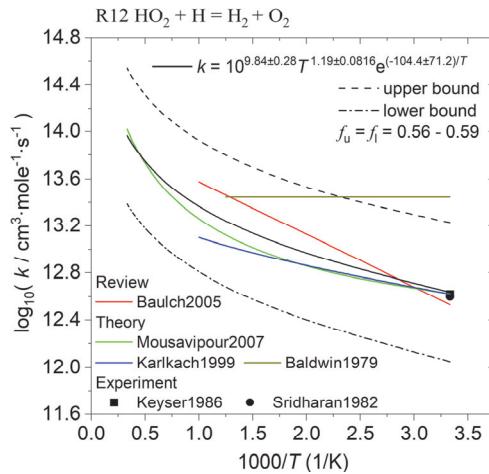
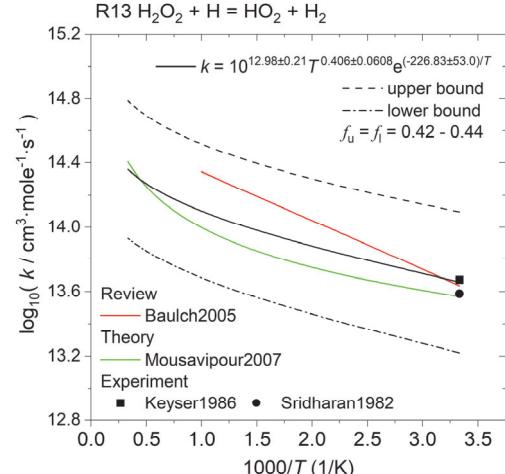
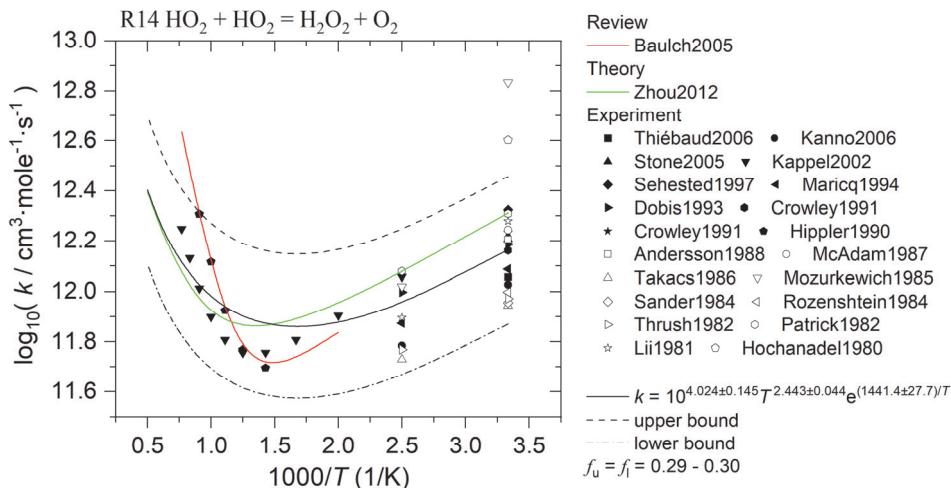
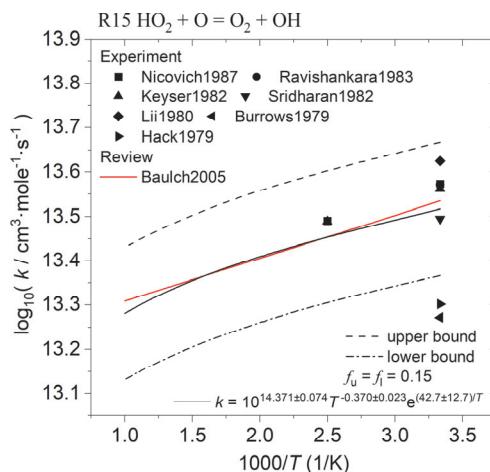
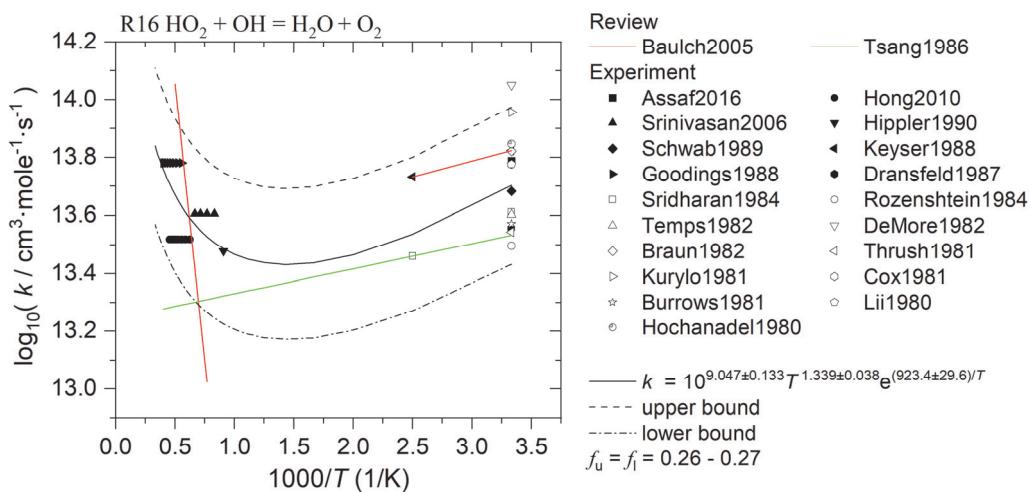
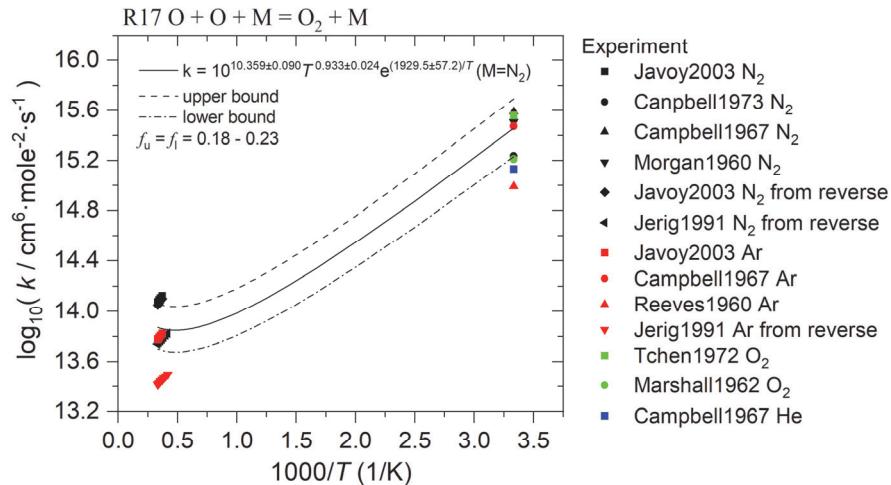
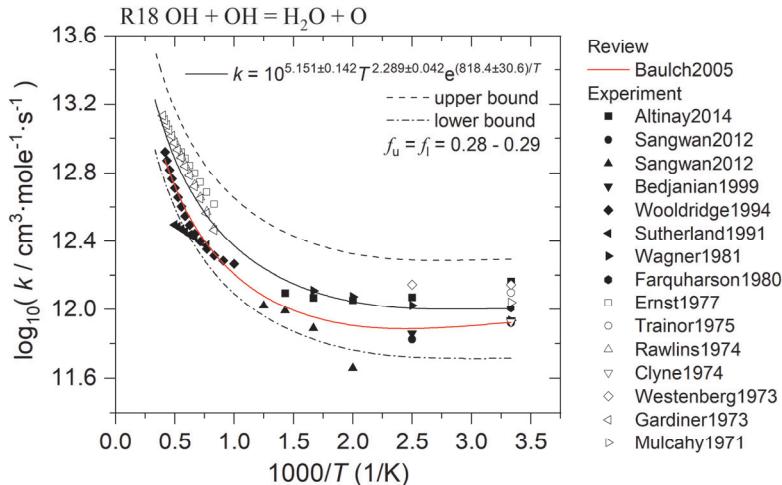
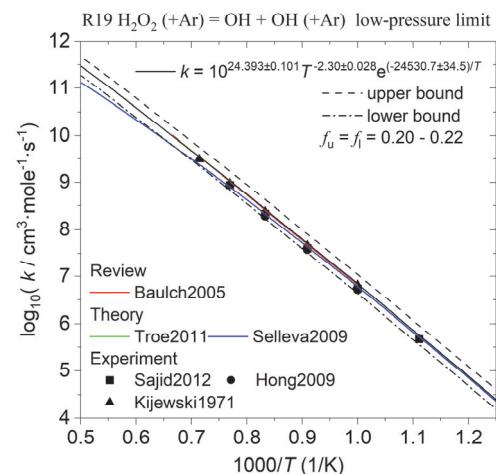
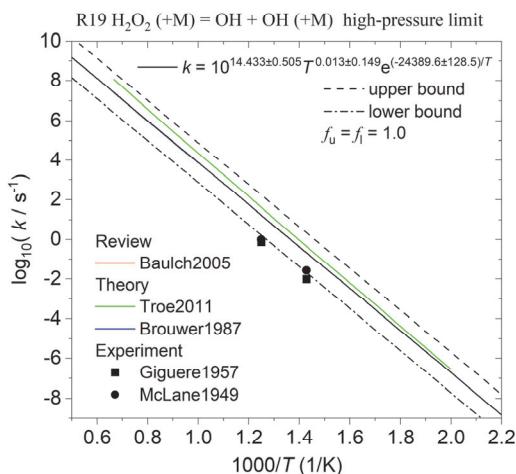


Figure S1-7 (R7) $\text{H}_2 + \text{OH} = \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{H}$

Figure S1-8 (R8) $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{H} = \text{HO}_2 + \text{H}_2$ Figure S1-9 (R9) $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{H} = \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{OH}$ Figure S1-10 (R10) $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{O} = \text{HO}_2 + \text{OH}$ Figure S1-11 (R11) $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{OH} = \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{HO}_2$ Figure S1-12 (R12) $\text{HO}_2 + \text{H} = \text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2$ Figure S1-13 (R13) $\text{HO}_2 + \text{H} = \text{OH} + \text{OH}$

Figure S1-14 (R14) $\text{HO}_2 + \text{HO}_2 = \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{O}_2$ Figure S1-15 (R15) $\text{HO}_2 + \text{O} = \text{O}_2 + \text{OH}$ Figure S1-16 (R16) $\text{HO}_2 + \text{OH} = \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{O}_2$

**Figure S1-17 (R17) O + O + M = O₂ + M****Figure S1-18 (R18) OH + OH = H₂O + O****Figure S1-19 (R19) H₂O₂ (+M) = OH + OH (+M)**

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Supplementary-2

A Comprehensive Kinetic Modelling Study of Hydrogen Combustion with Data Uncertainty Analysis

Hongxin Wang^a, Nadezda Slavinskaya^{b, c}, Oskar Haidn^a

a. Department of Aerospace and Geodesy, Technical University of Munich, 85748 Garching, Germany

b. GRS Association for Plant and Reactor Safety, 85748 Garching, Germany

c. Al-Farabi Kazakh National University, 050040 Almaty, Kazakhstan

Results of the uncertainty analysis

Figure S2-1. Comparison of the relative uncertainty contributions of different channels to the (a) H₂ mole fractions in the plug flow reactor (PFR) [1]; (b) ignition delay times measured in the rapid compression machine (RCM) [2]; (c) (d) ignition delay times measured in the shock tube; (e) H₂ mole fractions measured in the jet stirred reactor [3]; (f) laminar flame speeds of H₂/air mixture..... 2

Figure S2-2. Comparison of the relative uncertainty contributions of different channels to the (a) ignition delay times measured in the shock tube;; (b) ignition delay times measured in the rapid compression machine (RCM); (c) H₂ mole fractions in the plug flow reactor (PFR) [1] (d) H₂ mole fractions measured in the jet stirred reactor [3]; (e) laminar flame speeds of H₂/air mixtures..... 3

Figure S2-3. The distributions of the discrepancy measures on the RRCs of reactions..... 4

Figure S2-4. The probability density functions and reduced uncertainties of the studied RRCs calculated based on the average modelling error..... 5

Figure S2-5. Comparison of the initial uncertainty bounds (dash lines) and the reduced bounds (dash dot lines) for the RRCs of reactions..... 6

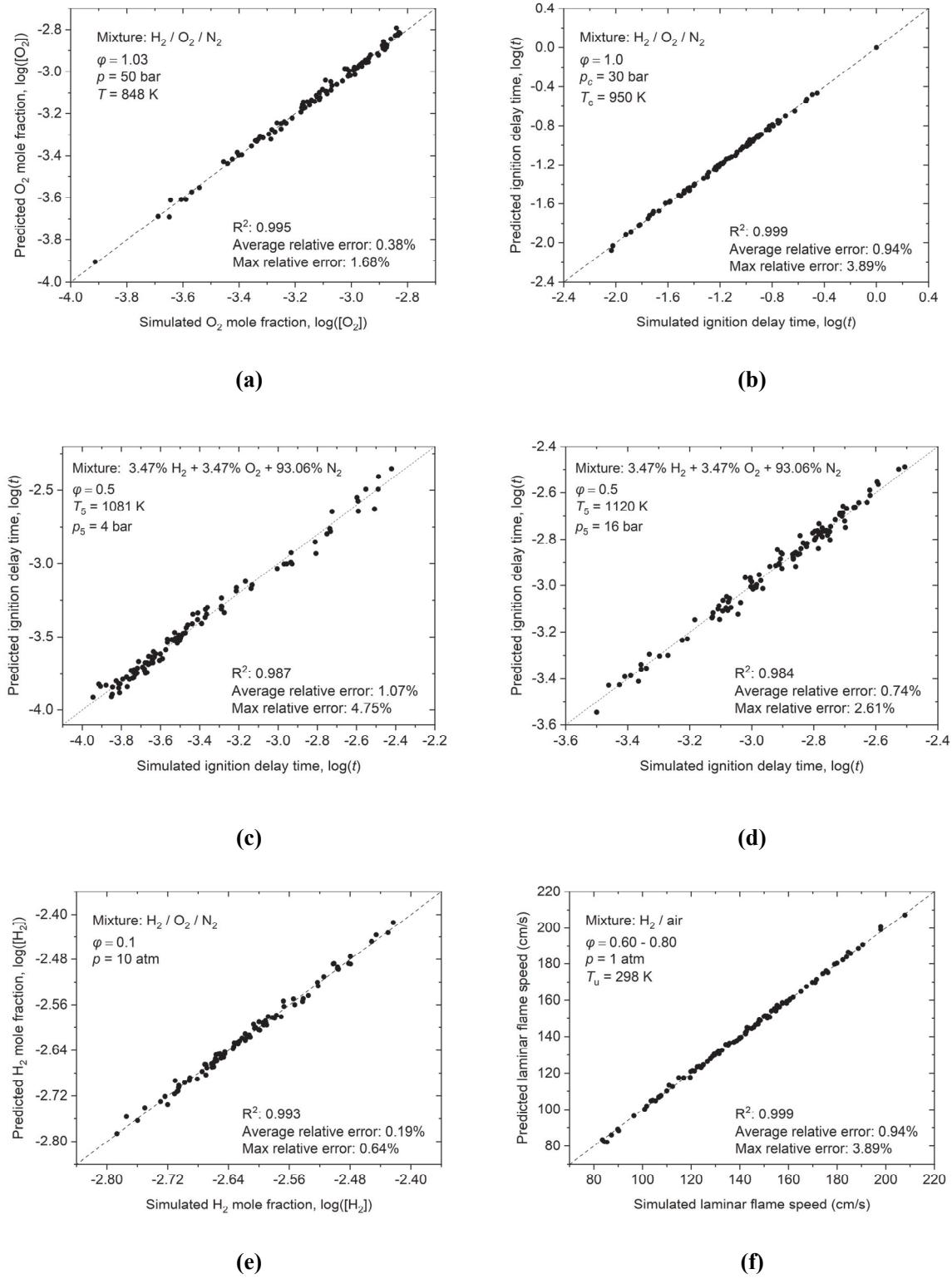


Figure S2-1. Comparison of the relative uncertainty contributions of different channels to the (a) H_2 mole fractions in the plug flow reactor (PFR) [1]; (b) ignition delay times measured in the rapid compression machine (RCM) [2]; (c) (d) ignition delay times measured in the shock tube; (e) H_2 mole fractions measured in the jet stirred reactor [3]; (f) laminar flame speeds of H_2/air mixture.

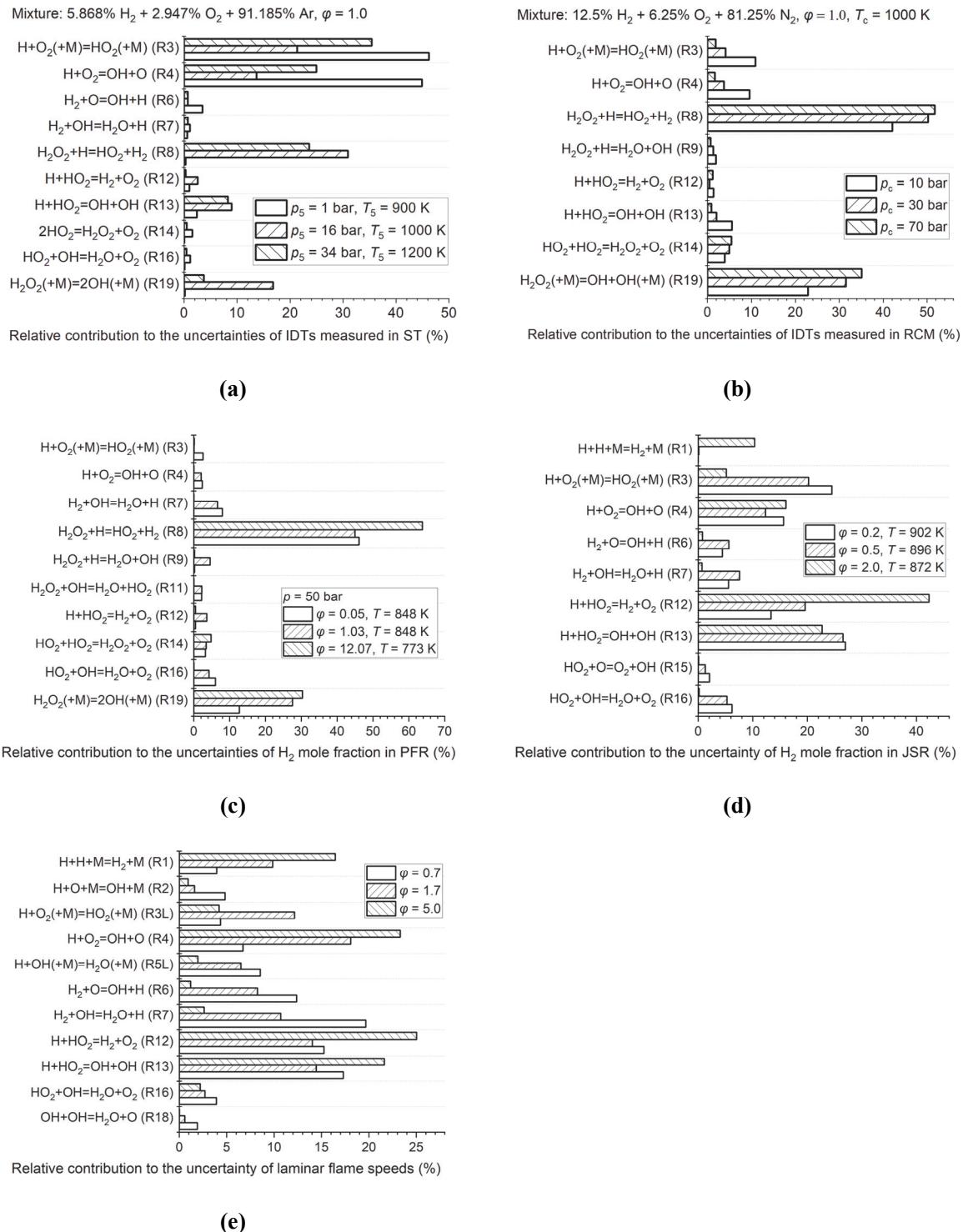
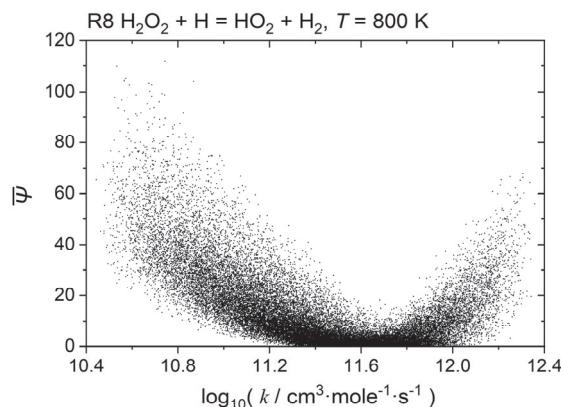
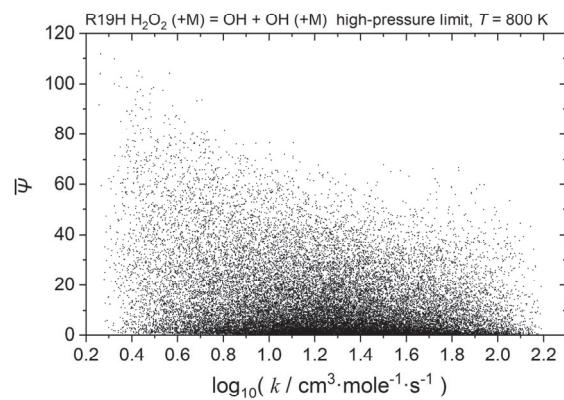
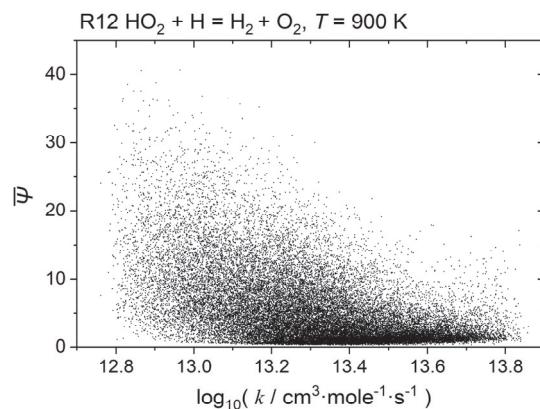
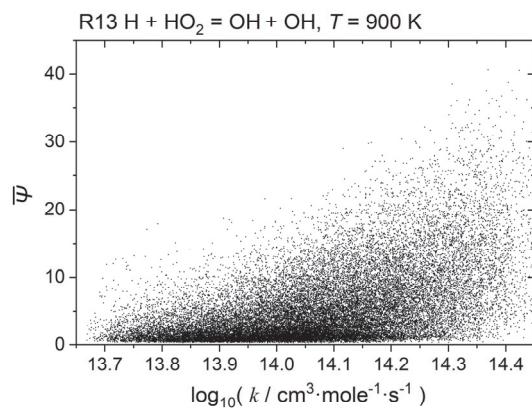


Figure S2-2. Comparison of the relative uncertainty contributions of different channels to the (a) ignition delay times measured in the shock tube; (b) ignition delay times measured in the rapid compression machine (RCM); (c) H₂ mole fractions in the plug flow reactor (PFR) [1] (d) H₂ mole fractions measured in the jet stirred reactor [3]; (e) laminar flame speeds of H₂/air mixtures.

(a) R8 $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{H} = \text{HO}_2 + \text{H}_2$ (b) R19 $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 (+\text{M}) = \text{OH} + \text{OH} (+\text{M})$ (c) R12 $\text{HO}_2 + \text{H} = \text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2$ (d) R13 $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{H} = \text{HO}_2 + \text{H}_2$ **Figure S2-3.** The distributions of the discrepancy measures on the RRCs of reactions.

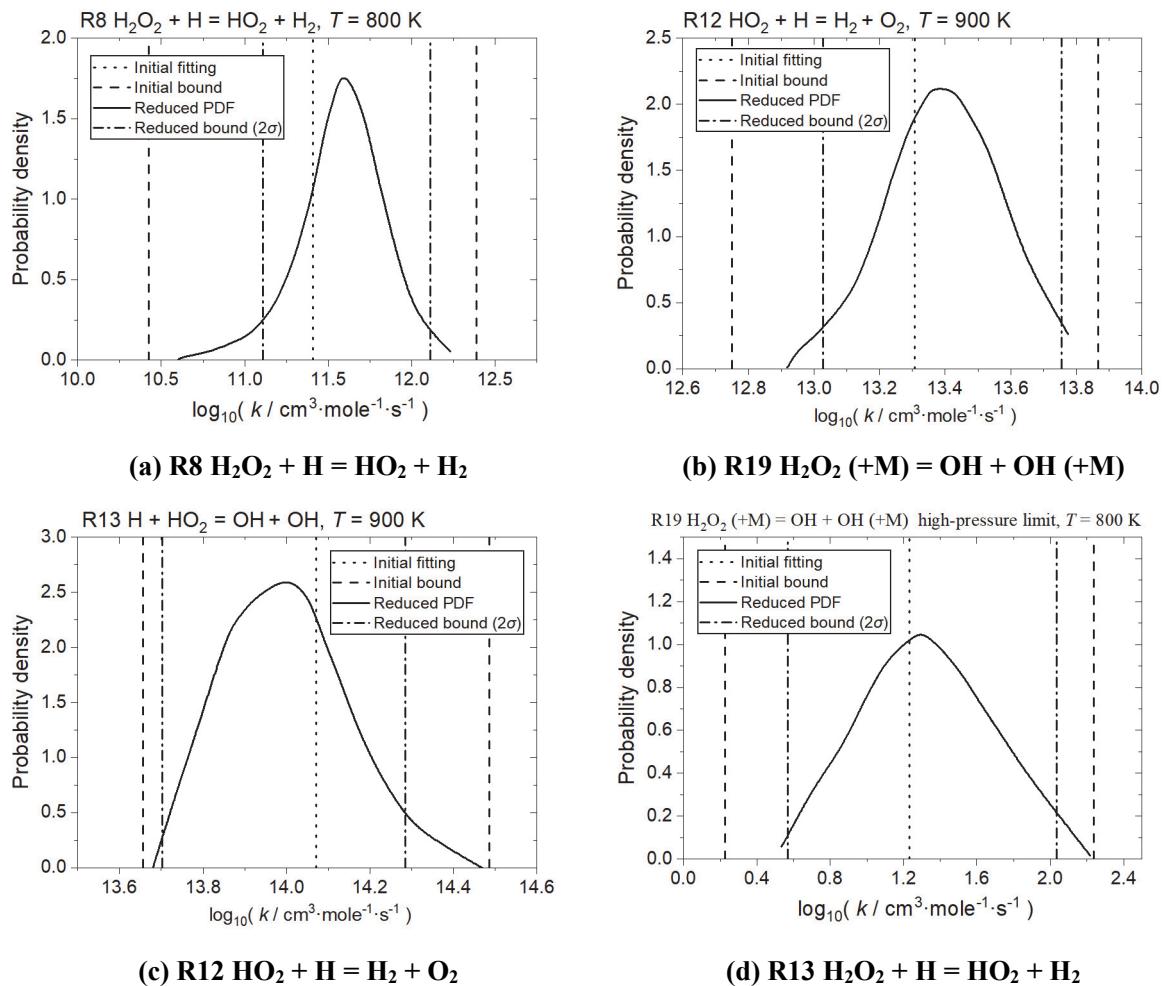


Figure S2-4. The probability density functions and reduced uncertainties of the studied RRCs calculated based on the average modelling error.

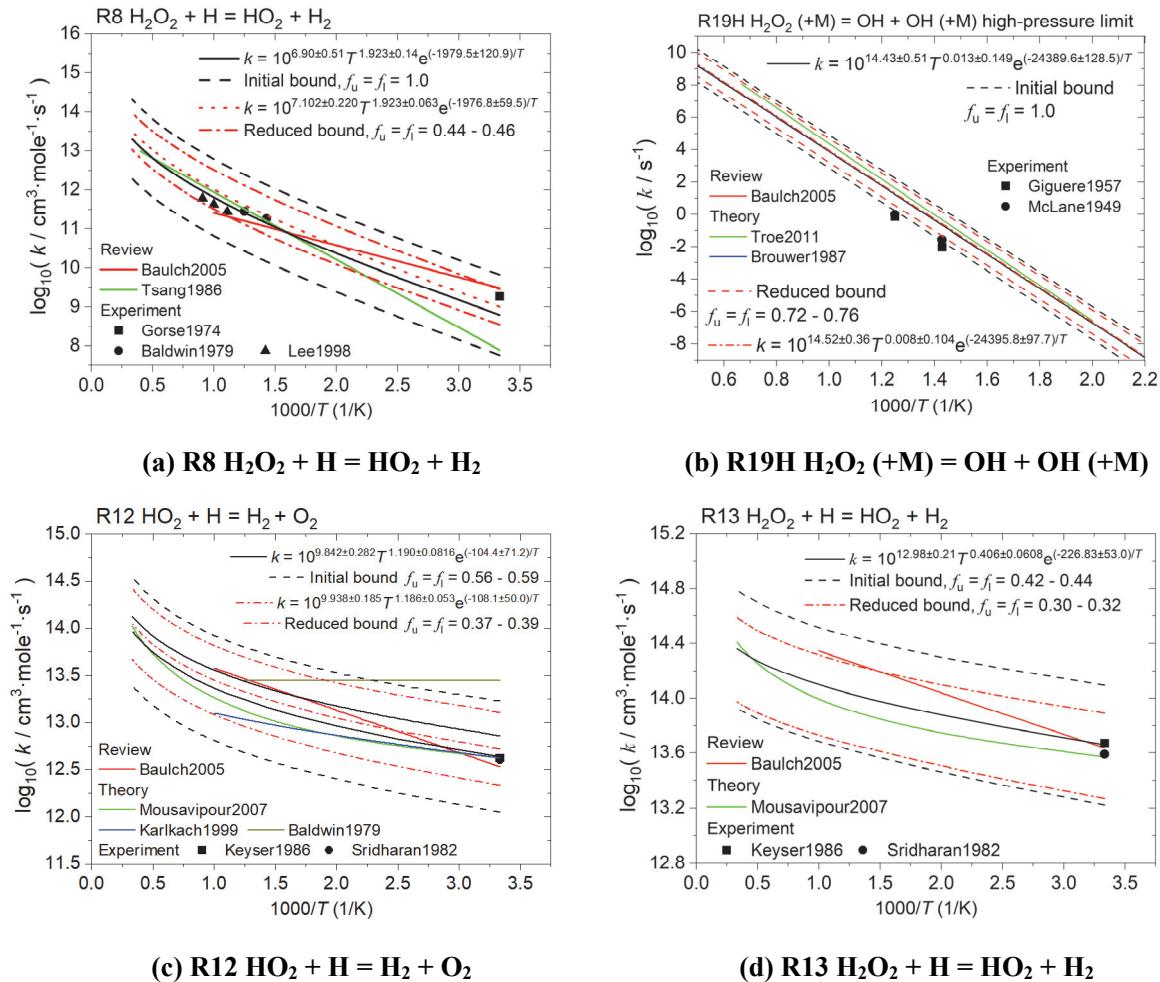


Figure S2-5. Comparison of the initial uncertainty bounds (dash lines) and the reduced bounds (dash-dot lines) for the RRCs of reactions.

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Supplementary-3

A Comprehensive Kinetic Modelling Study of Hydrogen Combustion with Data Uncertainty Analysis

Hongxin Wang^a, Nadezda Slavinskaya^{b, c}, Oskar Haidn^a

a. Department of Aerospace and Geodesy, Technical University of Munich, 85748 Garching, Germany

b. GRS Association for Plant and Reactor Safety, 85748 Garching, Germany

c. Al-Farabi Kazakh National University, 050040 Almaty, Kazakhstan

Comprariosn of the measured experimental data and the modelling results.

Figure S3-1. Comparison of the simulated and measured ignition delay times in rapid compression machines: (a) Das et al. [1] and Mittal et al. [2]; (b) Keromnes et al. [3] (NUGI)..... Figure S3-2. Ignition delay times of H₂/O₂/Ar mixtures measured in the shock tube by (a, b, c) Hu et al. [4] and Pan et al. [5] et al.; (d) Zhang et al. [6] (Xi'an Jiaotong University, XJTU). Figure S3-3. Ignition delay times of H₂/O₂/Ar/N₂ mixtures measured in the shock tube by Kéromnès et al. [3] and Herzler et al. [7] (German Aerospace Center, DLR)..... Figure S3-4. Ignition delay times of H₂/O₂/Ar mixtures measured in the shock tube by Kéromnès et al. [3] (Texas A&M University, TAMU). Figure S3-5. Ignition delay times of H₂/O₂/Ar mixtures measured in the shock tube by Petersen et al. [8] (University of Central Florida, UCF). Figure S3-6. Ignition delay times of H₂/O₂/Ar mixtures measured in shock tubes by Ninnemann et al. [9] (University of Central Florida, UCF) and Pang et al. [10] (Stanford University). Figure S3-7. Concentration profiles of H₂ and O₂ in the plug flow reactor measured by Hashemi et al. [15]. Figure S3-8. Concentration profiles of H₂, O₂, and H₂O in the jet stirred reactor measured by Le Cong and Dagaut [16]. Figure S3-9. Laminar flame speeds of H₂/air mixture at variable pressures and unburned temperatures measured by Bradley et al. [11] and Hu et al. [12]. Figure S3-10. Laminar flame speeds of H₂/O₂ and different dilution gases (T_u = 298 K, p = 1 atm) measured by Kwon et al. [13]. Figure S3-11. Laminar mass burning rates of H₂/O₂/He mixtures at T_u = 298 K and variable pressures measured by Tse et al. [14].	2 2 2 2 3 4 4 4 5 5 6 7 7 7 7
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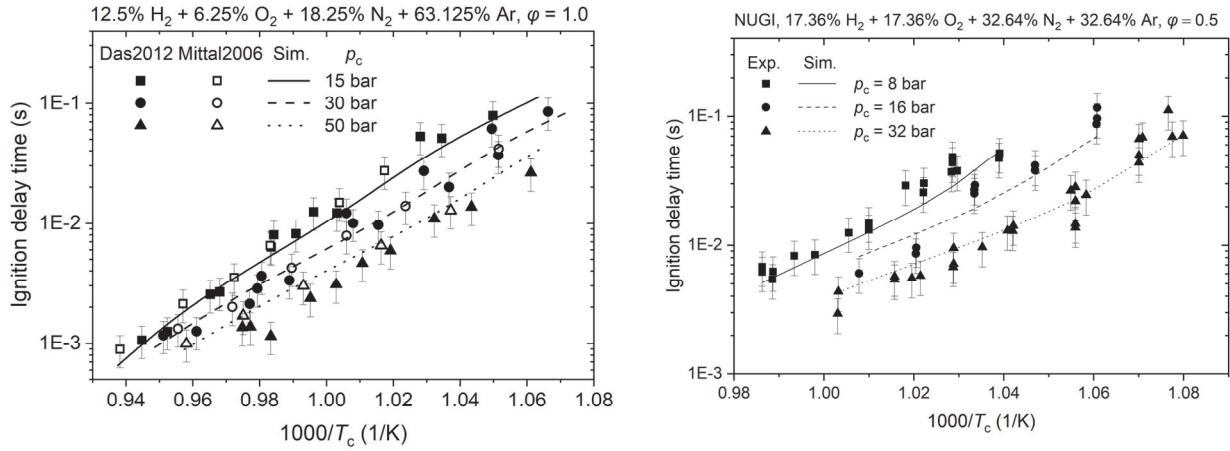


Figure S3-1. Comparison of the simulated and measured ignition delay times in rapid compression machines: (a) Das et al. [1] and Mittal et al. [2]; (b) Keromnes et al. [3] (NUGI).

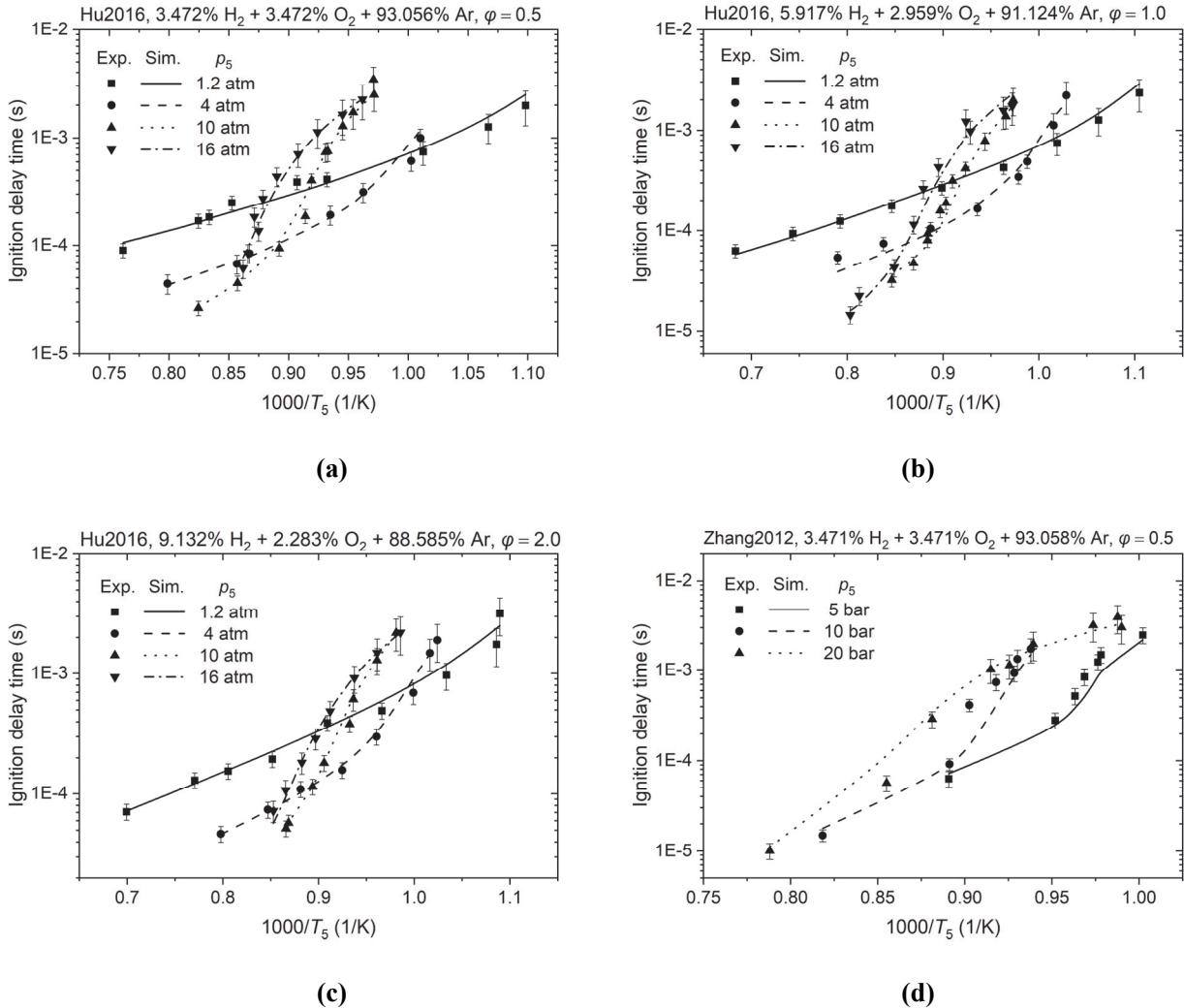


Figure S3-2. Ignition delay times of H₂/O₂/Ar mixtures measured in the shock tube by (a, b, c) Hu et al. [4] and Pan et al. [5] et al.; (d) Zhang et al. [6] (Xi'an Jiaotong University, XJTU).

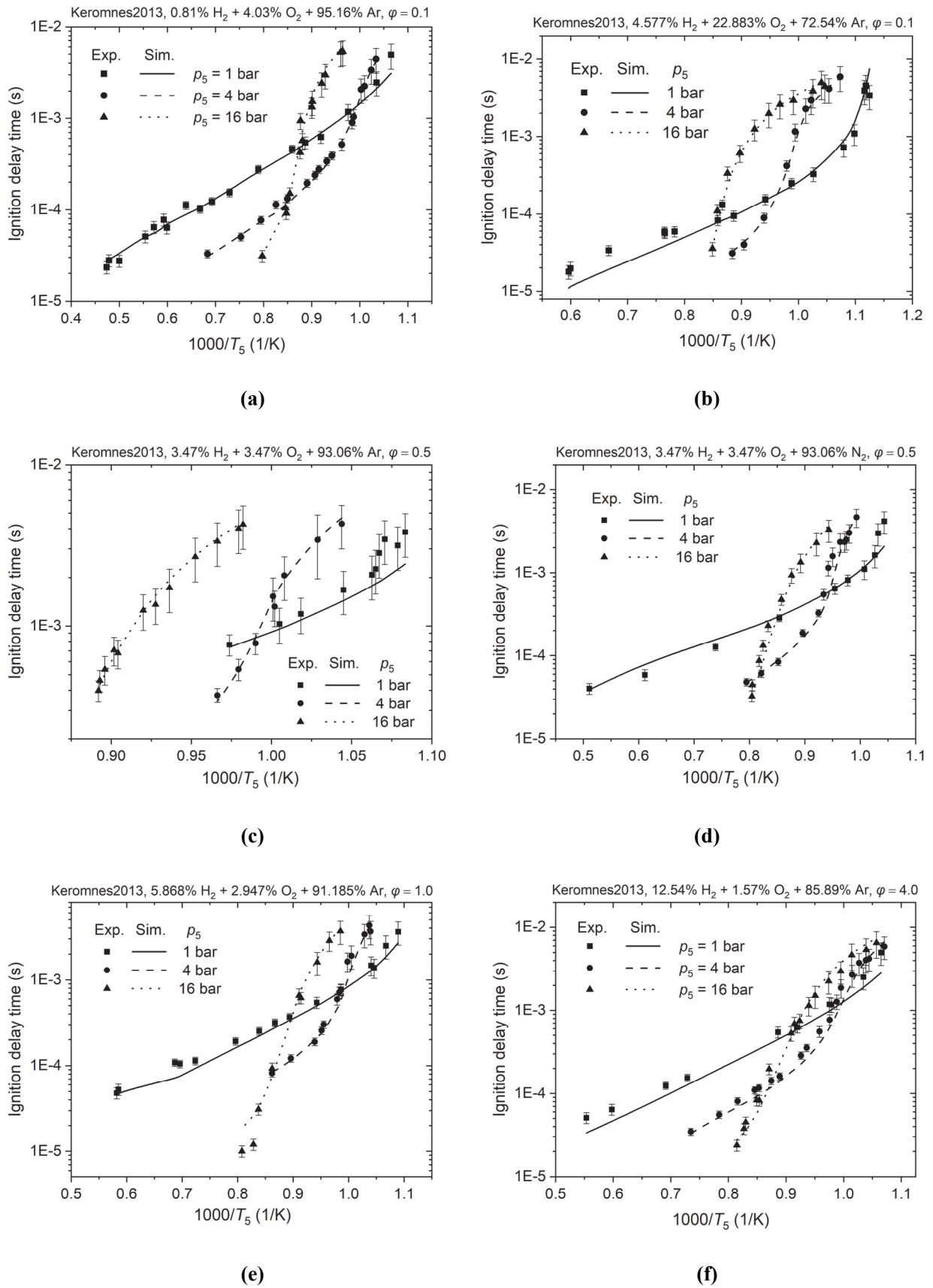


Figure S3-3. Ignition delay times of $\text{H}_2/\text{O}_2/\text{Ar}/\text{N}_2$ mixtures measured in the shock tube by Kéromnès et al. [3] and Herzler et al. [7] (German Aerospace Center, DLR).

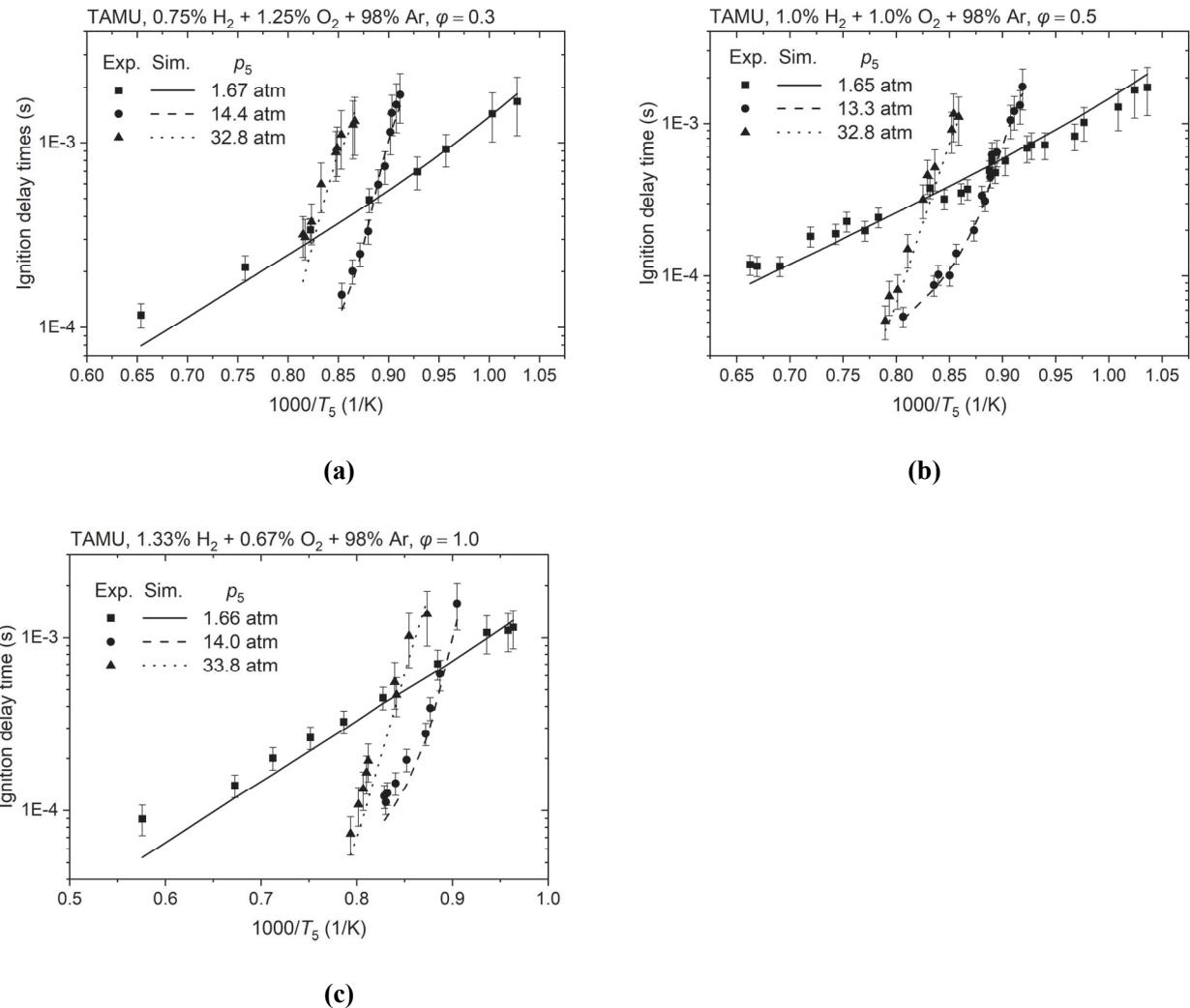


Figure S3-4. Ignition delay times of H₂/O₂/Ar mixtures measured in the shock tube by Kéromnès et al. [3] (Texas A&M University, TAMU).

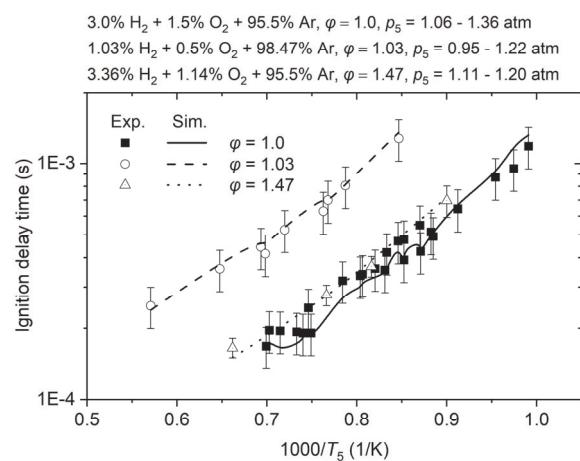


Figure S3-5. Ignition delay times of H₂/O₂/Ar mixtures measured in the shock tube by Petersen et al. [8] (University of Central Florida, UCF).

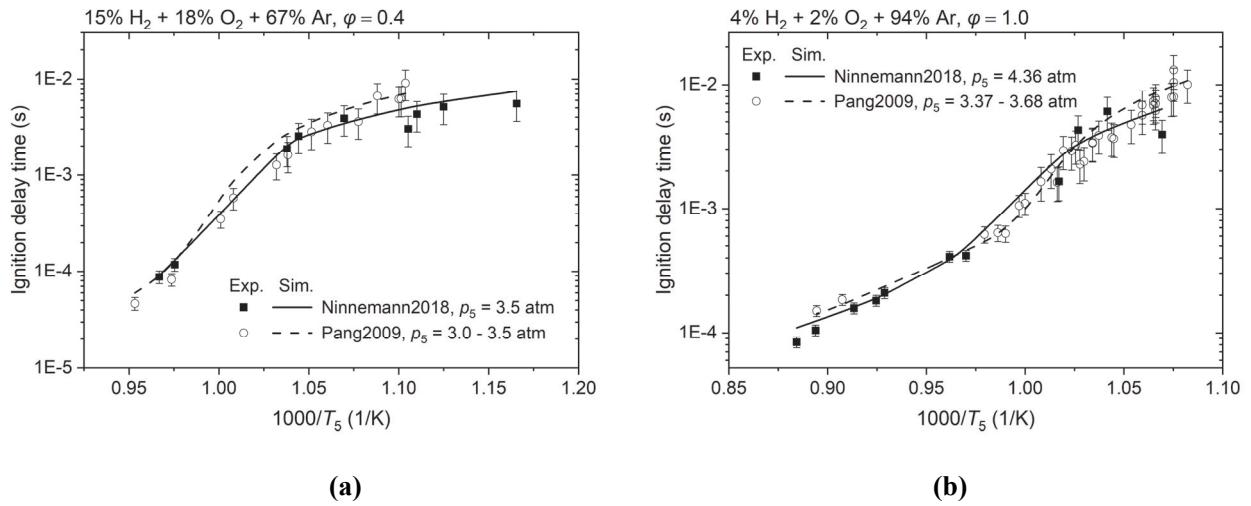


Figure S3-6. Ignition delay times of $\text{H}_2/\text{O}_2/\text{Ar}$ mixtures measured in shock tubes by Ninnemann et al. [9] (University of Central Florida, UCF) and Pang et al. [10] (Stanford University).

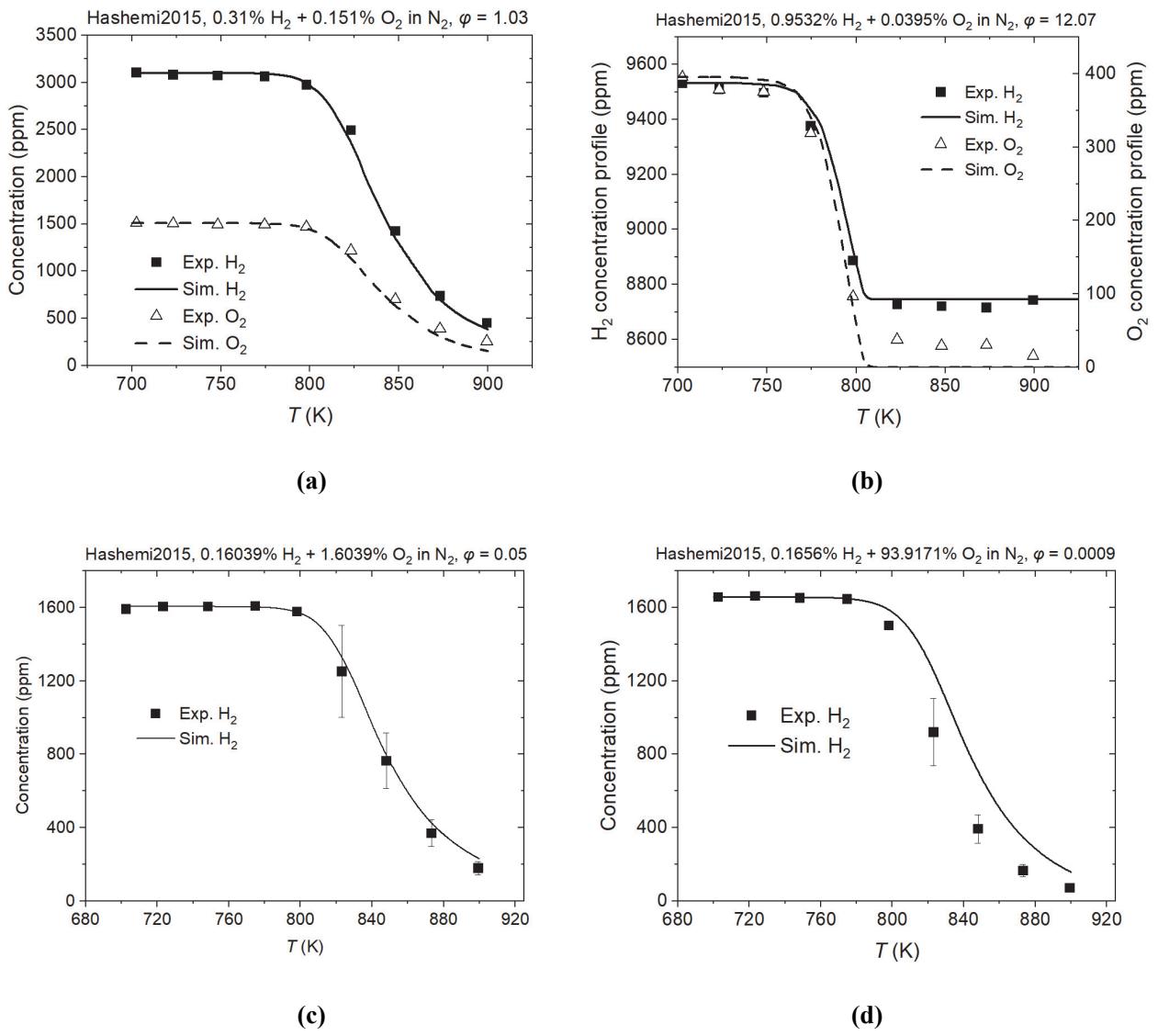


Figure S3-7. Concentration profiles in the plug flow reactor measured by Hashemi et al. [11].

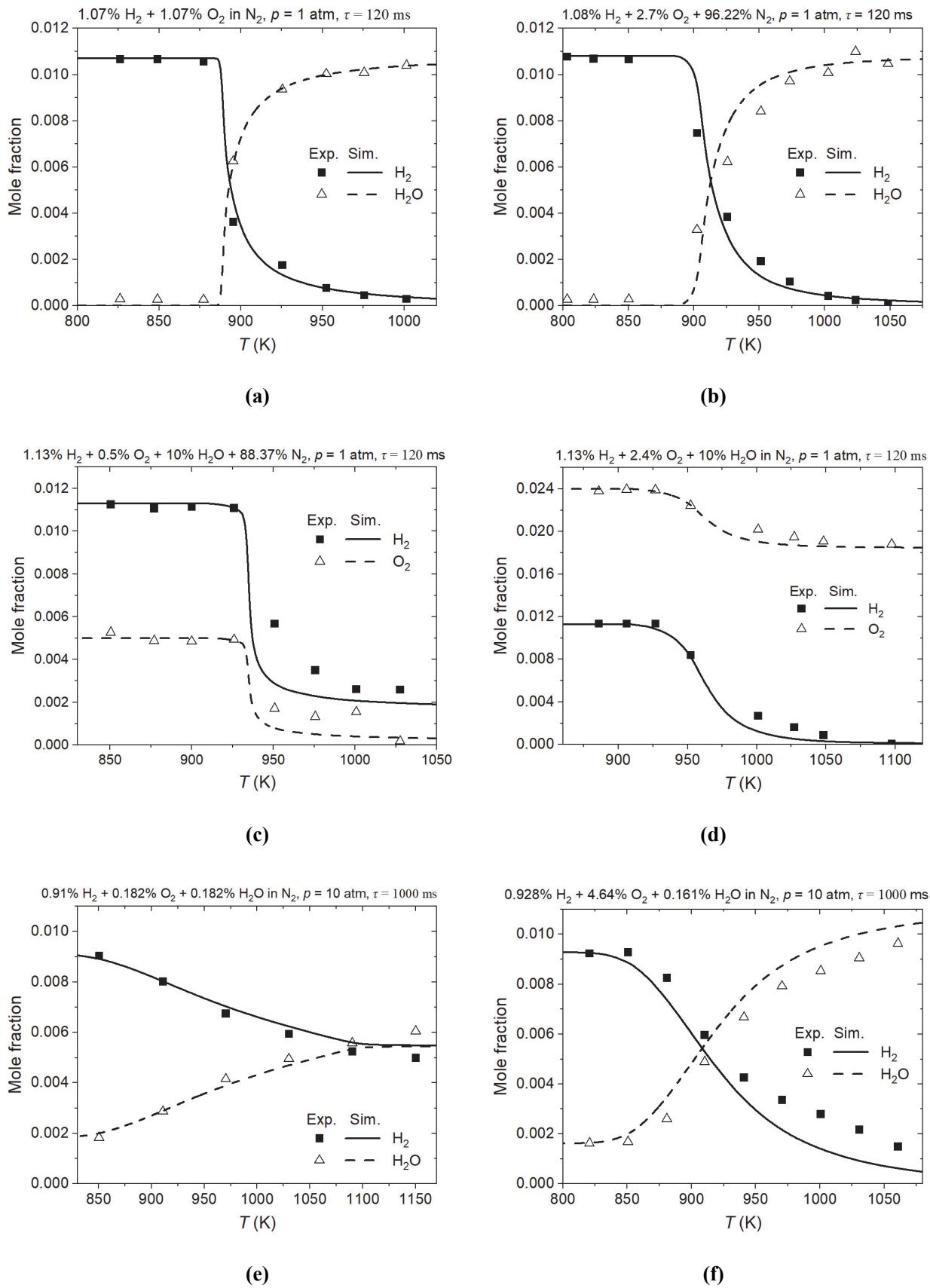


Figure S3-8. Concentration profiles of H₂, O₂, and H₂O in the jet stirred reactor measured by Le Cong and Dagaut [12].

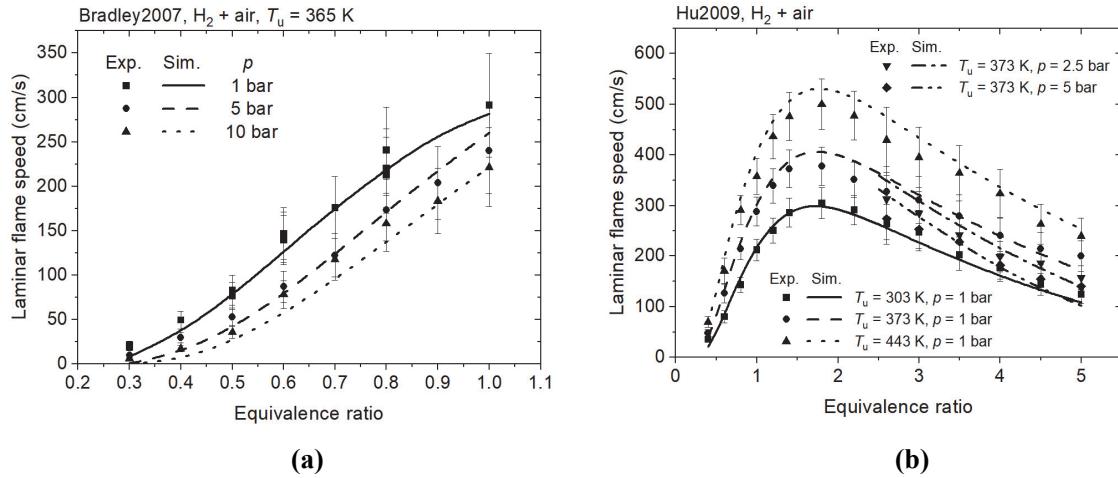


Figure S3-9. Laminar flame speeds of H_2/air mixture at variable pressures and unburned temperatures measured by Bradley et al. [13] and Hu et al. [14].

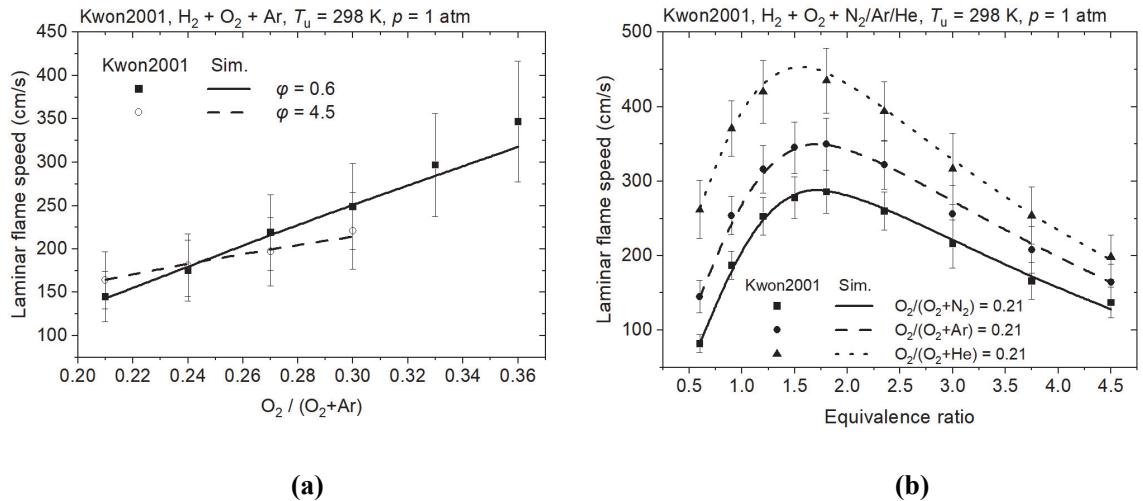


Figure S3-10. Laminar flame speeds of H_2/O_2 and different dilution gases ($T_u = 298\text{ K}$, $p = 1\text{ atm}$) measured by Kwon et al. [15].

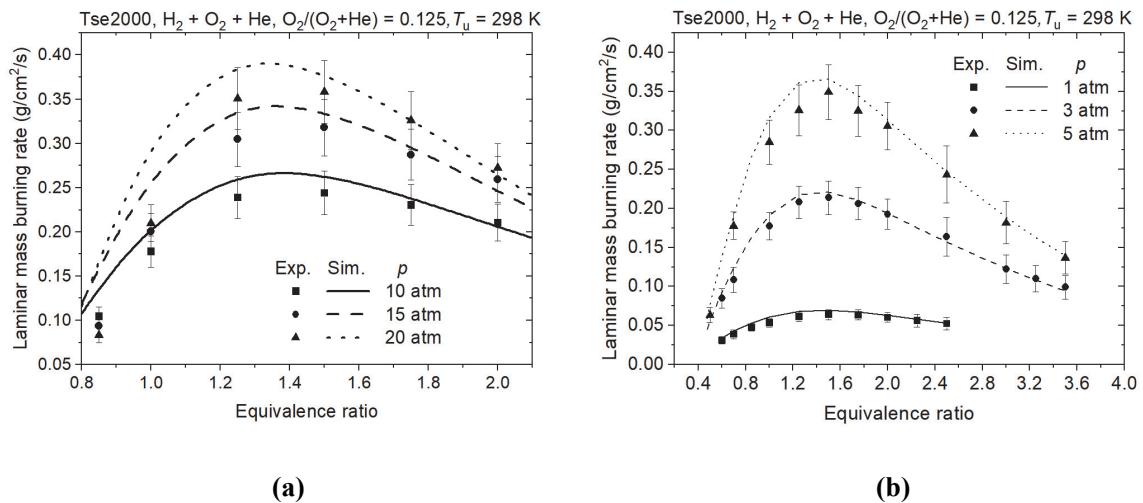


Figure S3-11. Laminar mass burning rates of $H_2/O_2/He$ mixtures at $T_u = 298\text{ K}$ and variable pressures measured by Tse et al. [16].

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Paper III



Full Length Article

A joint hydrogen and syngas chemical kinetic model optimized by particle swarm optimization



Hongxin Wang^a, Chenyi Sun^a, Oskar Haidn^a, Askarova Aliya^c, Chiara Manfletti^a, Nadezda Slavinskaya^{b,c,*}

^a Lehrstuhl für Raumfahrtantriebe, Technical University of Munich, 85748 Garching, Germany

^b Gesellschaft für Anlagen- und Reaktorsicherheit GmbH, 85748 Garching, Germany

^c Al-Farabi Kazakh National University, 050040 Almaty, Kazakhstan

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ABSTRACT

In this work, we propose a novel data-driven framework for detailed kinetic mechanisms optimization applying the heuristic algorithm, namely canonic Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO). The PSO is more effective and robust in coping with uncertainties and incomplete information than deterministic and probabilistic optimization algorithms and is more suitable for machine learning applications. In the proposed framework, to avoid trapping in a local minimum, 1000 local optimums have been obtained and statistically handled to select the final feasible model parameter set with reduced uncertainty intervals and parameter correlations. The developed framework was successfully used for the optimization of the joint H₂ and syngas oxidation chemical kinetic model. The data set collected for the model optimization includes 41 reactions and 16 species, and 3000 experimental data targets supplied with uncertainty boundaries measured in shock tubes, jet stirred reactors, plug flow reactors, and premixed laminar flames under wide ranges of temperature, pressure, equivalence ratio, and H₂/CO ratios. The initially estimated uncertainties of the reaction rate constants for 15 key reactions were significantly constrained. The reaction rate constants for the H₂ oxidation sub-model were re-optimized and their uncertainties were further reduced.

1. Introduction

Syngas (H₂ and CO mixture) has recently attracted lots of attention as the main product of the gasification of coal, the renewable feedstocks (domestic waste, biomass, etc.) [1,2], and the electro-reduction of CO₂ [3], to be further used in different modern power installations [4–6]. To design new effective engines fueled on syngas, tools of computational fluid dynamics need a reliable chemical kinetic model of syngas combustion. Besides playing an important role as a renewable fuel, the oxidation reactions of H₂ and CO are the base for the oxidation model of hydrocarbons.

A big number of syngas kinetic models [7–19] have been designed to reproduce the real reaction process as well as possible. However, due to the lack of possible direct measurement methods of RRCs and high uncertainties in the available experimental data, the obtained models have still a high potential to be improved through the further reduction of uncertainty intervals for the included parameters. Several works [20–22] have been done for the comparison of prediction abilities of

different chemical kinetic models for syngas oxidation. >20 detailed or reduced syngas oxidation models were compared. Most modeling results show good agreement with the collected experimental data, but no one of the models can be recognized as a perfect model predicting all the targets accurately [20–22]. Some early models [10,12–14] were developed without sufficient experimental data, and some models [7,15,16,19] were fitted for experimental data of specific temperature and pressure ranges. It motivates our search for further development of the effective framework for the kinetic model uncertainty quantification and minimization and to construct on this base the strongly validated basic H₂/CO oxidation model.

Our first attempt to quantify the uncertainty of the syngas oxidation reaction model was conducted in the work [17] with the methodology of Bound-to-Bound Data Collaboration (B2BDC) [23,24], which prescribes the fixed uncertainty bounds for the involved parameters and non-linear regression approach with solution mapping methodology. Further, in previous work on the H₂ oxidation model [25], the B2BDC was combined with the probabilistic approach, which addresses the uncertainty

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: Nadezda.Slavinskaya@grs.de (N. Slavinskaya).

of parameters and models with probability density functions. In this way, a 19-reaction H₂ oxidation chemical kinetic model was successfully optimized, and the uncertainties of the studied reaction rate constant have been estimated and reduced.

In this work, the optimization strategy has been further developed by an application of the particle swarm optimization (PSO) algorithm instead of the non-linear regression approach and probability density function [25]. The PSO belongs to the heuristic methods which are stochastic and their output possesses some inherent randomness so that the same set of input parameters values and initial conditions can lead to a set of different outputs. After a series of simulations, randomly modifying variables cover as far as possible the space of the solutions to avoid trapping in a local minimum, and randomly obtained outputs, i.e., optimums, can be further statistically handled to obtain the optimal feasible set of parameters and the global optimal solution. The heuristic methods can be effectively used in the application to the inverse problems if the solution to be reached is generally known but the input parameters are not, or are not accurately, as is the case of chemical kinetic models.

The canonical PSO was developed through simplified social model simulation such as bird flocking and fishing schooling by Kennedy and Eberhart [26]. It provides a population-based search procedure in which particles can move through the hyperspace of parameters. While moving in the search space, each particle evaluates the fitness function and adjusts its movement with the new velocity which depends on the history of its own best location (personal best) and the other particles' best location (global best). Gradually particles move close to an optimum of the fitness function like the forage of a flock of birds. In the past two decades, different problem-oriented modifications of the method and various topologies were developed [27–35], which demonstrate the high flexibility of the PSO approach and its high efficiency in the optimization of multidimensional and nonlinear systems with more than one optimum.

Heuristic methods are not actively applied in chemical kinetics. Elliot and co-workers [36–40] applied the genetic algorithm as an alternative to the solution mapping procedure. Tsuchiya and Ross [41] applied a genetic algorithm to determine the RRCs of a chemical kinetic model for the bromate reaction system. Montgomery [42] applied a genetic algorithm to the selection of quasi-steady-state species in reduced chemical kinetic models. Sikalo et al. [43,44] used the genetic algorithm for the reduction of detailed chemical kinetic models and the optimization of the reduced model. Bertolino et al. [45] presented a novel methodology that combines the evolutionary algorithm based on the genetic algorithm with the curve matching index as the objective function. The comparison of PSO and genetic algorithms, performed in the recent work of Rassy et al. [46], revealed the advance of the PSO algorithm for the optimization of detailed chemical kinetic models.

In this study, the principal architecture of the optimization framework using the PSO has been achieved. To elucidate the principal feature of the approach, first, the canonical algorithm [26] with global topology has been realized with the in-house code based on the Python module of Scikit-learn [47] and implemented in the framework. That was applied to the syngas chemical kinetic model optimization and the reduction of model parameters. The model inspection and optimization were based on the following axes: (1) A 16-species and 41-reaction syngas sub-mechanism of the authors' previous works [48,49] and the newest update of the H₂ oxidation sub-model [25]; (2) The literature review and uncertainty analysis of the RRCs involved in the syngas oxidation (Supplementary-1); (3) Experimental data of ignition delay times (IDTs), laminar flame speeds (LFSs), and species concentration profiles with uncertainty quantification and consistency analysis [17,50]; (4) Monte Carlo simulations conducted with Ansys Chemkin Pro [51] and the polynomial regression for construction of the multi-target high-dimensional input-output response function [52,53]; (5) Applying of PSO algorithm optimum searching in the hyperspace of parameters; (6) Statistical analysis of the calculated optimums and correlated

parameters; (7) Reduction of the feasible parameter set and the final model optimization.

2. Data set and methodology

2.1. Combustion experimental targets

The published experimental results of the ignition delay times (IDTs) measured in shock tubes (STs) [7,54–63], laminar flame speeds (LFSs) [63–105], and concentration profiles measured in premixed laminar flames (PLFs) [106–108], jet stirred reactors (JSRs) [19,109], and plug flow reactors (PFRs) [110,111] as presented in Table 1 were used as the training set for the model. Around 3000 experimental targets were collected with their uncertainties, u , determined following the data sources, or evaluated based on the earlier published studies [17,50].

2.2. Uncertainty analysis of reaction rate constants

The statistical method of nonlinear regression established in the authors' previous works [25,48,49] has been applied to calculate the uncertainties of the Arrhenius expression parameters $\log_{10}(A)$, n , and E_a :

$$k(T) = 10^{\log_{10}(A)} T^n \exp\left(-\frac{E_a}{T}\right) \quad (1)$$

The lower and upper uncertainty boundaries of the RRC can be calculated:

Table 1
Collected H₂ and syngas oxidation experiments and their test conditions.

Ignition delay time	T _s /K	p _s /bar	Mixture
Hu et al. [54–56]	905 – 1463	1.22 – 20.0	H ₂ /O ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 0.5 – 2.0$
Petersen et al. [57]	1009 – 1752	0.96 – 1.38	H ₂ /O ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 1.0 – 1.47$
Ninnemann et al. [58]	857 – 1131	3.55, 4.42	H ₂ /O ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 0.4, 1.0$
Pang et al. [59]	906 – 1118	3.04 – 4.42	H ₂ /O ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 0.4, 1.0$
Shao et al. [60]	1154 – 1291	39.5 – 253.3	H ₂ /O ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 0.25, 1.0$
He et al. [61]	913 – 1288	1.013	H ₂ /CO/O ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 1.0$
Kéromniès et al. [7]	882 – 2234	1.0 – 34.24	H ₂ /CO/O ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 0.1 – 4.0$
Krejci et al. [63]	982 – 2001	1.4 – 33.2	H ₂ /CO/O ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 0.5$
Herzler et al. [62]	1019 – 1259	14.1 – 16.9	H ₂ /CO/O ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 0.5$
Laminar flame speed	T _u /K	p/atm	Mixture
H ₂ [63–80,86,104]	298 – 443	0.3 – 10.0	H ₂ /O ₂ /N ₂ /He/Ar/air $\varphi = 0.23 – 5.08$
Syngas [81–105]	298 – 410	0.95 – 20.0	H ₂ /CO/N ₂ /He/CO ₂ /air $\varphi = 0.4 – 5.8$
Concentration profile	T/K	p	Mixture
JSR: Le Cong et al. [109]	800 – 1150	1, 10 atm	H ₂ /O ₂ /N ₂ , $\varphi = 0.2 – 2.33$
JSR: Dagaut et al. [19]	800 – 1400	1 atm	CO/H ₂ /N ₂ , $\varphi = 0.1 – 2.0$
PFR: Hashemi et al. [110]	700 – 900	50 bar	H ₂ /O ₂ /N ₂ , $\varphi = 0.0009 – 12.07$
PFR: Glarborg et al. [111]	800 – 1300	1 atm	CO/O ₂ /H ₂ O/Ar/N ₂ $\varphi = 5.64E-5 – 4.07E-4$
PLF: Dixon-Lewis et al. [106]	–	1 atm	H ₂ /O ₂ /N ₂ , $\varphi = 2.05$
PLF: Vandooren et al. [107]	–	4.75 kPa	H ₂ /O ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 1.93$
PLF: Knyazkov et al. [108]	–	1 atm	CO/H ₂ /O ₂ /Ar, $\varphi = 1.0, 2.0$

$$k_{\text{low}}(T) = 10^{\log_{10}(A) - s(\log_{10}(A))} T^{n-s(n)} \exp\left(-\frac{E_a + s(E_a)}{T}\right) \quad (2)$$

$$k_{\text{up}}(T) = 10^{\log_{10}(A) + s(\log_{10}(A))} T^{n+s(n)} \exp\left(-\frac{E_a - s(E_a)}{T}\right) \quad (3)$$

where $s(\log_{10}(A))$, $s(n)$, and $s(E_a)$ are the standard deviations of $\log_{10}(A)$, n , and E_a determined by the covariation matrix of an applied statistical method of nonlinear regression [48,49,112–114]:

$$s(x_\alpha) = \sqrt{\frac{\Phi}{m-n} D(x_\alpha)} \quad (4)$$

Here, Φ is the final sum of the reduced squares of the deviations.

$$\Phi(\vec{y}, \vec{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^m \omega_j \left[Y_j^{\text{exp}} - \left(f_0(\vec{y}, \vec{x}^*) + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\partial f(\vec{y}, \vec{x})}{\partial x_k} \Delta x_k \right) \right]^2 \quad (5)$$

$D(x_\alpha) = \Lambda(x_{\alpha\alpha})$; Λ is the covariance matrix of elements; m is the number of observations; n is the number of unknown model parameters [48,49,112–114].

The uncertainty factor for the RRC is defined as follows:

$$f(T) = \log_{10}\left(\frac{k_{\text{up}}(T)}{k_{\text{low}}(T)}\right) = \log_{10}\left(\frac{k_0(T)}{k_{\text{low}}(T)}\right) \quad (6)$$

In this study, the finally obtained reduced uncertainty bounds for the RRCs of the H₂ reactions are inherited from our previous work for the H₂ oxidation model [25]. The Arrhenius equation parameters for RRCs of CO and HCO reactions recommended by experimental measurements, theoretical calculations, and the review works of Baulch et al. [115–118] were collected with specific temperature ranges. The detailed information for the collected RRC parameters and the calculated uncertainty intervals, Eq. (2) and (3), for the CO and HCO reactions are presented in Table S1-1 and Fig. S1-1 to S1-21 in Supplementary-1. In this study, the sampling of the RRCs and the optimized RRCs are limited within the determined uncertainty intervals Eq. (2), (3), and (6).

2.3. Monte Carlo simulation and response surface

The mapping of the multidimensional system of the model input–output responses, the response surface [52,53], has been constructed with the second-order polynomial approximation of Monte Carlo simulations as a function of the model parameters, details were described in our previous work [25].

As the magnitudes of the Arrhenius expression parameters show huge differences, the Arrhenius expression parameters are normalized to space [0,1] as follows:

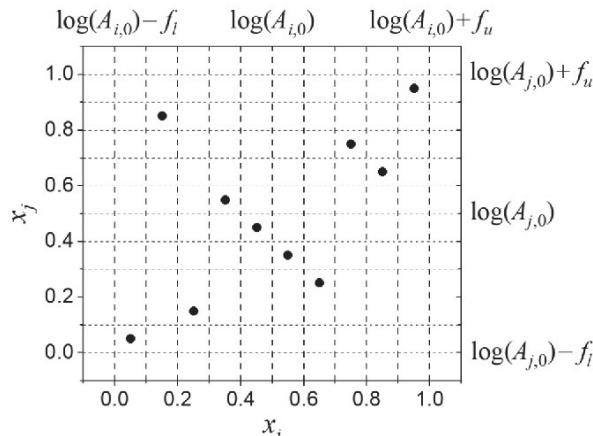


Fig. 1. 10 random numbers sampled with the Latin hypercube method and the determined Arrhenius expression parameters.

$$x_i = \frac{f_{l,i} + \log_{10}(A_i) - \log_{10}(A_{0,i})}{f_{u,i} + f_{l,i}}, \log_{10}(A_i) \in [\log_{10}(A_{0,i}) - f_{l,i}, \log_{10}(A_{0,i}) + f_{u,i}] \quad (7)$$

in which $\log_{10}(A_{0,i})$ is the fitted average value and $f_{l,i}$ and $f_{u,i}$ ($f_{l,i} = f_{u,i}$) are the lower and upper bounds for the i^{th} parameter, Eq. (6). In this way, the Arrhenius expression parameters, A ($A_1, A_2 \dots A_n$), sampled within the determined uncertainty intervals can be mapped to the normalized RRC parameters $X(x_1, x_2 \dots x_n)$ as follow:

$$\log_{10}(A_i) = \log_{10}(A_{0,i}) - f_{l,i} + x_i(f_{u,i} - f_{l,i}), x_i \in [0, 1] \quad (8)$$

The Monte Carlo direct simulation of experimental targets has been conducted with Chemkin Pro [51] using the Latin Hypercube sampling method [48] to obtain normalized RRC parameters \mathbf{X} sampled within space [0, 1] and to randomly determine the Arrhenius expression parameters, as shown by an example of 10 random numbers in Fig. 1. So calculated for each sample $y^{\text{mod}}(X)$ has been approximated with the second-order polynomial regression to express the response function, $y^{\text{pre}}(X)$, throughout the total of N number of model parameters:

$$y^{\text{mod}}(X) \approx y^{\text{pre}}(X) = y_0 + \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i x_i + \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N \beta_{ij} x_i x_j \quad (9)$$

in which the first- and second-order polynomial coefficients (α and β) were determined using the least square method realized in an in-house python numerical code [119]. In this study, polynomial regressions with coefficients of determination [120], R^2 , higher than 0.98 were obtained for the prediction of IDTs measured in STs and 0.99 for the other experimental data.

2.4. Discrepancy measure

To evaluate the predictive ability of a model depending on \mathbf{X} , the model discrepancy measure, Ψ , is defined as:

$$\Psi = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \frac{1}{N_i} \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} \Psi_{ij}^{\text{mod}} \quad (10)$$

in which M is the number of the experimental data series and N_i is the point number in the i^{th} data series. The Ψ_{ij}^{mod} for the j^{th} target in the i^{th} data series is defined as follows:

$$\Psi_{ij}^{\text{mod}} = \left(\frac{y_{ij}^{\text{mod}} - y_{ij}^{\text{exp}}}{u(y_{ij}^{\text{exp}})} \right)^2 \approx \left(\frac{y_{ij}^{\text{pre}} - y_{ij}^{\text{exp}}}{u(y_{ij}^{\text{exp}})} \right)^2 \quad (11)$$

where y_{ij}^{exp} is the experimentally measured data, y_{ij}^{mod} is the modeling result, and y_{ij}^{pre} is the results predicted by the response surface, $y^{\text{mod}}(X)$, Eq. (9). The experimental uncertainty, $u(y_{ij}^{\text{exp}})$, is adopted from the reference or evaluated based on the uncertainty analysis of experiments [17,50]. Substituting Eq. (9) and Eq. (11) into Eq. (10), the predictive ability of a model depending on \mathbf{X} can be evaluated by $\Psi(X)$.

2.5. Uncertainty contribution

To figure out the importance of the different reaction channels of the as-compiled model and to select the active parameters for further model optimization [9,121,122], the relative uncertainty contributions of parameter x_i among the total N number of model parameters has been introduced in our previous work [25] as:

$$C_r(x_i) = \frac{C(x_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^N C(x_i)} \quad (12)$$

where the uncertainty contribution of parameter x_i is calculated as:

$$C(x_i) = [y_{\max}^{\text{pre}}(x_i) - y_{\min}^{\text{pre}}(x_i)] \Big|_{y_j = \bar{y}_j, j \neq i} \quad (13)$$

in which \bar{x}_i is the average value of x_i , corresponding to the average value $\log(A_{0,i})$ in Eq. (7) and Eq. (8). $y_{\max}^{\text{pre}}(x_i)$ and $y_{\min}^{\text{pre}}(x_i)$ are the maximum and minimum y obtained with variable x_i .

The studied uncertainties and the relative uncertainty contributions to the simulated IDTs contributed by different channels are highlighted in Fig. 2. The indexes of the shown reactions are listed in Table 2, which presents the reactions contributing to the model uncertainties of >10 %. The uncertainties contributed by reactions (R3), (R4), and (R25) demonstrate obvious different trends if T_5 decreases, Fig. 2a. The channels related to O_2 and HO_2 gain dominance at low-temperature ignition of syngas. The relative uncertainty contributions of the channels to the IDTs are presented in Fig. 2b, in which reactions (R3) and (R4) show the highest importance, followed by reactions (R1), (R6), (R8), (R24) and (R25).

16 pre-exponents and 4 third body factors of 15 channels were selected for optimization. The other RRCs parameters in the as-compiled model were kept as constants (A_0). The uncertainty bounds for the third body factors of N_2 and Ar are set as [1.25, 2] and [0.5, 0.8] respectively following the collected recommended RRCs and the review work of Baulch et al. [115–118]. The RRCs optimized in our previous work [25] for H_2 oxidation will be re-optimized and the uncertainty intervals determined in our previous work [25] factors will be further reduced in this study.

3. Uncertainty reduction and model optimization

3.1. Particle swarm optimization (PSO)

In the PSO algorithm, particles with position X present the surrogates of the chemical kinetic model, $M(X)$ based on X , Eq. (8); the discrepancy measure $\Psi(X)$, Eq. (10) is defined as the fitness function. The set of particles is initialized as $p = \{p_i, i \in [1 : N_p]\}$, where N_p is the size of the population (all possible surrogates). The particles can move in a 20-dimensional (number of RRC parameters under consideration) search space. The current position of the particle p_i in the different iterations ($t = 0, 1, 2 \dots t_{\max}$) is defined with a vector of its coordinates $X_{p_i,t}(x_{p_i,1}^t, x_{p_i,2}^t, \dots, x_{p_i,D}^t)$ and a vector of its velocity $V_{p_i,t}(v_{p_i,1}^t, v_{p_i,2}^t, \dots, v_{p_i,D}^t)$. The position of each particle will be tracked, which is associated with the lowest $\Psi(X)$ achieved up till for the particle with the personal best, X^{per} . The global best, X^{glo} , keeps track of the lowest $\Psi(X)$ obtained so far by all particles within the population. In canonical PSO on the t^{th} iteration, the

particle p_i updates its velocity and position of the j^{th} -dimension in the $(t + 1)^{\text{th}}$ iteration by tracking the personal best position (X^{per}) and global best position (X^{glo}) as follows [26]:

$$v_{p_i,j}^{t+1} = w v_{p_i,j}^t + c_1 r_{p_i,1} \left(x_{p_i,j}^{\text{per}} - x_{p_i,j}^t \right) + c_2 r_{p_i,2} \left(x_j^{\text{glo}} - x_{p_i,j}^t \right) \quad (14)$$

$$x_{p_i,j}^{t+1} = x_{p_i,j}^t + v_{p_i,j}^{t+1} \quad (15)$$

where $x_{p_i,j}^{\text{per}}$ and x_j^{glo} are the j^{th} components of the personal best location and the global best location respectively; w is the inertia weight determining the “inertial” properties of particles. It reflects the impact of the particle’s current velocity on the next iteration. $r_{p_i,1}$ and $r_{p_i,2}$ are the random numbers that are uniformly distributed between [0, 1] on each iteration. c_1 and c_2 are the acceleration coefficients: c_1 controls the tendency of the particle towards its personal best location, and c_2 adjusts the trend of the particle approaching the global best location.

With Eq. (14) and Eq. (15), the particles can update their velocities in each iteration and converge towards the optimal position, as shown in Fig. 3a. To describe the neighbor relationship and interaction between particles, a global topology, Fig. 3b, is used [123,124].

In the canonic PSO with global topology, it is impossible to guarantee that the found solution is the exact global optimum. But the subsequent statistical analysis of enough large number of local minima provides adequate and useful information about the confidence region for the model parameters.

The developed framework using the PSO algorithm is shown in the flow chart in Fig. 4. The PSO (in the dashed rectangle) updates the position and velocity of each particle in each iteration step moving towards the personal best and global best. As the computation progresses, particles aggregate or converge around the global best by exploring and exploiting known personal bests in the search space until the max iteration. The finally obtained in the run j global best, X_j^{glo} , defines the best Arrhenius parameter combination found in the individual run and is prescribed to the local optimum j .

In this study, the search space was defined as the 20-D hypercube of the uncertainty intervals [0, 1] for each normalized model parameter X and the 100 particles (surrogate models) randomly initialized within the search space were used. Fig. 5a visualizes the moving of the particles towards the optimal position as the solution of an iteration process in the ternary graph. The algorithm stops searching after the max iteration (we set 50 in this study) is achieved or as the $\Psi(X^{\text{glo}})$ stabilizes after 15 iterations, as shown by the history of the predicted Ψ in Fig. 5b. At the end

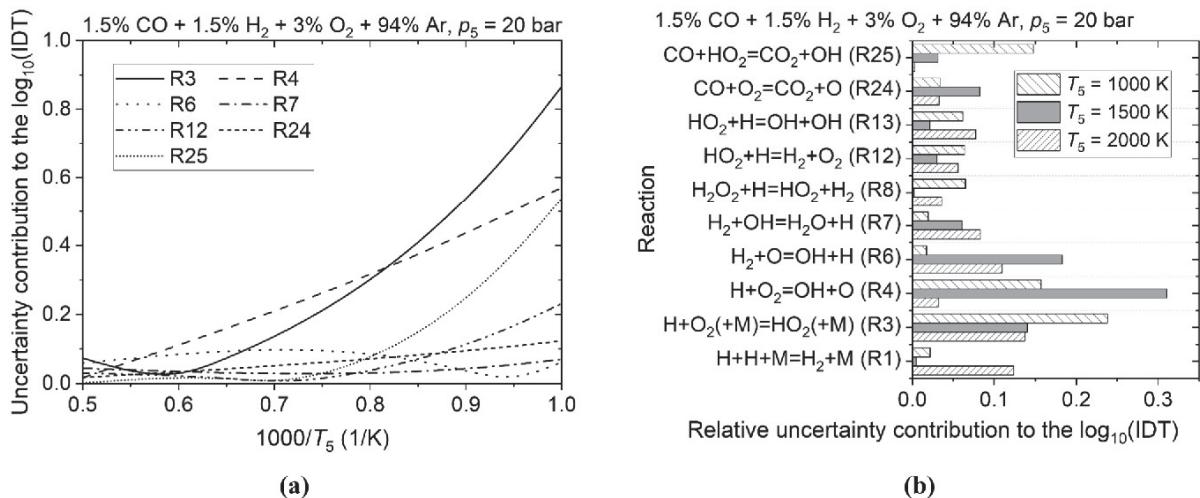


Fig. 2. (a) Uncertainty contributions (C) and (b) relative uncertainty contributions (C_r) of different channels to the modeling ignition delay times of $CO/H_2/O_2/Ar$ mixture at 20 bar.

Table 2

Reactions mostly contributed to the modeling uncertainties (X for $C_r > 0.1$, O for $C_r > 0.2$); initial and final uncertainty intervals for their RRCs (Lp for pressure lower than 5 bar, Hp for pressure higher than 5 bar, LT for temperature lower than 1100 K, HT for temperature higher than 1100 K).

No.	Reaction	Initial f _u /f _l	Reduced f _u /f _l	ST		PLF		PFR		JSR	
				Lp		Hp		Lp		Lp	
				LT	HT	LT	LT	LT	LT	LT	HT
R1	$2\text{H} + \text{M} = \text{H}_2 + \text{M}$	N ₂	0.38	0.26		X	X			O	X
R3L	$\text{H} + \text{O}_2 + \text{M} = \text{HO}_2 + \text{M}$	At	0.17	0.06	O	O	X	O	X	O	X
R4	$\text{H} + \text{O}_2 = \text{OH} + \text{O}$		0.20	0.05	O	O	O	O	X	O	X
R5L	$\text{H} + \text{OH} + \text{M} = \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{M}$	At	0.72	0.53			X				
R6	$\text{H}_2 + \text{O} = \text{OH} + \text{H}$		0.29	0.18	X	O	X	X			
R7	$\text{H}_2 + \text{OH} = \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{H}$		0.21	0.12			O		X		X
R8	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{H} = \text{HO}_2 + \text{H}_2$		0.46	0.23		X	X		O		X
R12	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{H} = \text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2$		0.39	0.19			X			O	
R13	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{H} = \text{OH} + \text{OH}$		0.32	0.19			X			O	
R16	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{OH} = \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{O}_2$		0.27	0.19					X		X
R19H	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 = 2\text{OH}$		0.76	0.53					O		X
R19L	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{M} = 2\text{OH} + \text{M}$	At	0.22	0.21					X		X
R23	$\text{CO} + \text{OH} = \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}$		0.26	0.06			O	O			
R24	$\text{CO} + \text{O}_2 = \text{CO}_2 + \text{O}$		1.6	0.82	X	X	X				
R25	$\text{CO} + \text{HO}_2 = \text{CO}_2 + \text{OH}$		1.14	0.65		O					
R28	$\text{HCO} + \text{M} = \text{H} + \text{CO} + \text{M}$		0.8	0.30			X				

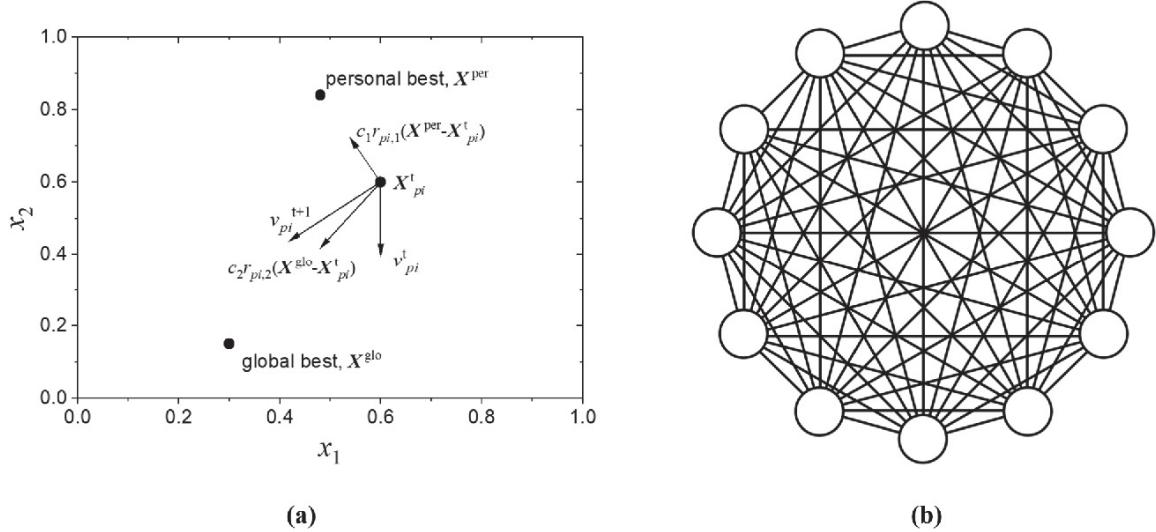


Fig. 3. (a) Update of the particle velocity in the $(t + 1)^{\text{th}}$ iteration; (b) global topology of the PSO, circles are particles, in our case surrogates $M(X)$.

of the iterations, the particles decelerate to velocities near 0 and cluster around the global best of the last iteration, X_j^{glo} . The set of parameters is selected and RRCs can be determined by the inverse normalization of the position of the particle.

3.2. Reduction of the RRC uncertainties (confidence region for the model parameters)

The inherent randomness of PSO is realized with the initialization of input parameters for PSO which are randomly defined on each new run, Fig. 3a and Fig. 4: random searching parameters $r_{pi,1}$ and $r_{pi,2}$, the acceleration coefficients c_1 and c_2 , which were chosen as $c_1 = c_2 = 1.2$ in this study, and randomly defined Arrhenius preexponents, eq. (8), for active parameters. To minimize the error propagation, the initial feasible parameter set (like we do in B2BDC) [23,24]) was obtained by MC simulations, as explained with an example. Fig. 6 demonstrates the space of solutions, Ψ , for randomly modified rate coefficients of reactions (R3L), (R12), and (R13). The preferable parameters of RRCs of (R3L), (R12), and (R13), which will be adopted for the initialization of

PSO, are located within the dark zone where the discrepancy measure has minimal values.

Due to the randomness in the initialization of the particles in each repetition of the PSO run, and the particle velocity update (the random numbers $r_{pi,1}$ and $r_{pi,2}$ in Eq. (14)) in each PSO iteration (the j^{th} iteration), the statistic representative array of the local optimums can be calculated, which are further used for the definition of the confidence region for the model parameters. That is performed through the main step of the framework shown in Fig. 4:

- (1) Initialized the parameters and particles for the j^{th} run of PSO;
- (2) Calculate $\Psi(X)$ for each particle and update the personal best \mathbf{X}^{per} and global best \mathbf{X}^{glo} for the i^{th} iteration of PSO;
- (3) Update the position (\mathbf{X}) and velocity (\mathbf{v}) for each particle and return to step (2) until i reaches the max iteration number or the $\Psi(X^{glo})$ stabilizes after 10 iterations;
- (4) Record the global best of the final iteration, X_j^{glo} , as the j^{th} local optimum of the searching space, and go to step (1) until $j = 1000$.

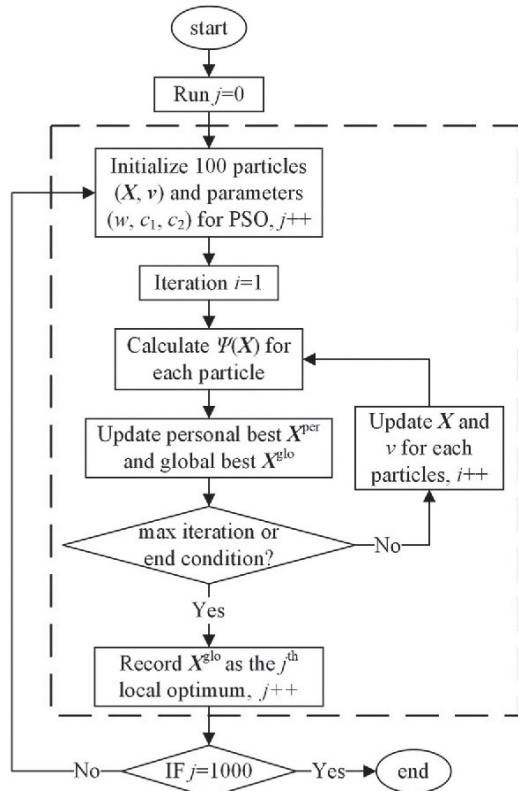


Fig. 4. Flow chart of the optimization framework with the PSO algorithm.

Finally, 1000 local optima are selected and scattered in an area, where a lower Ψ has a high probability to be obtained, Fig. 7.

3.3. Correlation of the studied RRCs

The high-level correlation between RRCs and experimental

parameters is organically accounted for in the PSO through the calculation of the particles' positions and velocities in the searching space, which is especially effective for the optimization of the multichannel reactions. Let us take again reactions (R3L), (R12), and (R13):



Fig. 8 presents the 95 % confidence ellipsoid obtained for the calculated 1000 local optima in coordinates of these three reactions. The projections of the particles on the RRC axes are pointed with colored symbols. The projected symbols of the pair reactions (R12)-(R13) show an obvious correlation compared with that of pairs (R3L)-(R12) and (R3L)-(R13). The Pearson correlation coefficients (r) [125] are calculated for the RRCs based on the 1000 local optima. x_{R12} and x_{R13} demonstrate a significant positive correlation, $r = 0.91$ (Fig. 9a), and

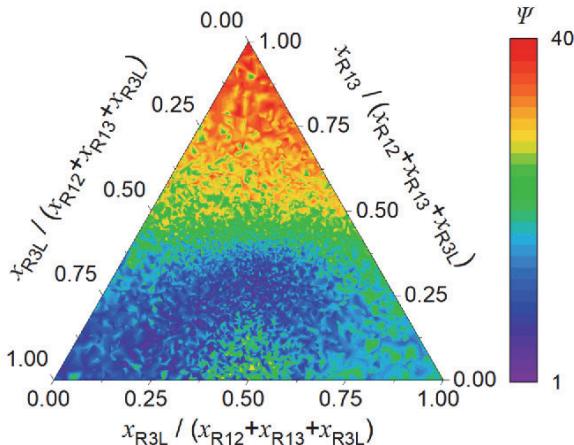
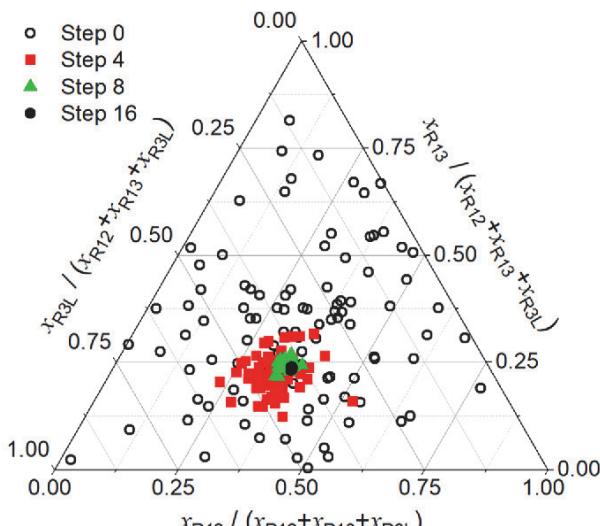
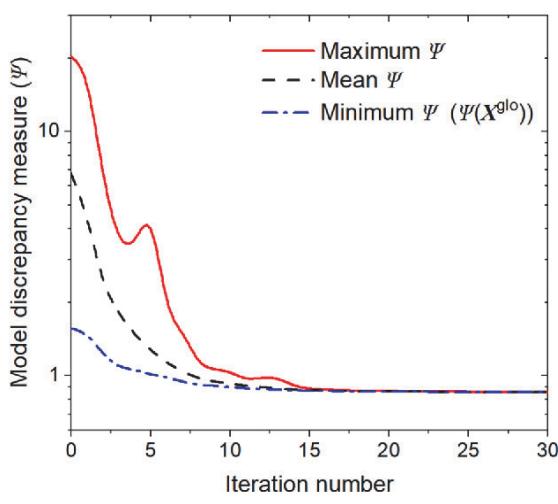


Fig. 6. Distribution of the discrepancy measure (Ψ) in the space of RRCs for reactions (R3L), (R12), and (R13) obtained with MC simulations and the as-compiled model.



(a)



(b)

Fig. 5. (a) The distributions of the particle swarm at different iteration steps; (b) The history of model discrepancy measure (Ψ).

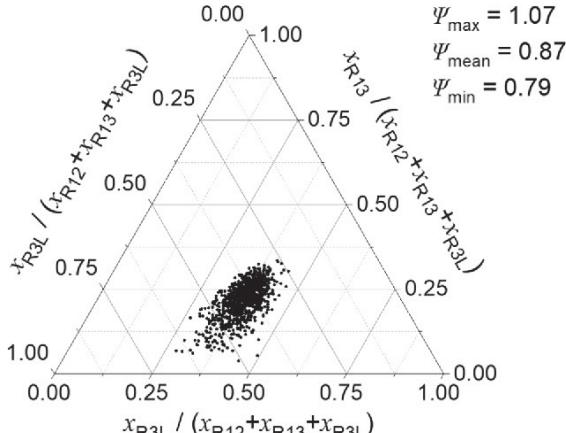
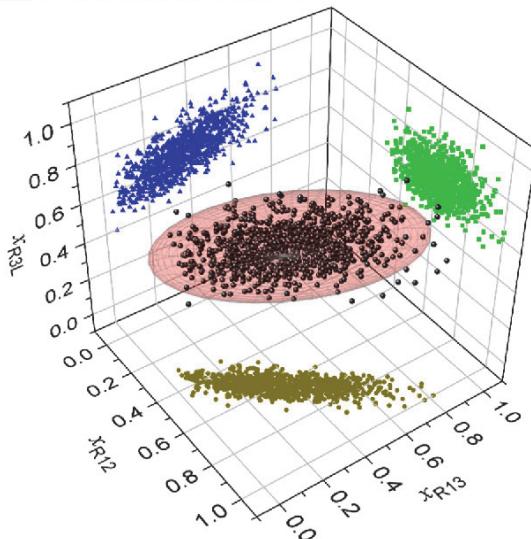


Fig. 7. Distribution of the recorded 1000 local optima.

- 1000 local optima
- 95% Confidence ellipsoid

Fig. 8. The 95 % confidence ellipsoid of the 1000 local optima for x_{R3L} , x_{R12} , and x_{R13} .

define the branching ratio for these two branches of $\text{HO}_2 + \text{H}$ reaction. The reaction (R3L) is weakly correlated with (R12), $r = 0.25$, points fill the full confidence region so that the RRC uncertainty bounds are approximately not affected by correlation, Fig. 9b.

To reveal the correlations of the studied RRCs and to evaluate the impact of correlation on the final uncertainty bounds, the Pearson correlation coefficients (r) are calculated for each RRC pair based on the 1000 local optima. These coefficients (r) of the studied channels are presented with color and ellipses in Fig. 10, and the high correlation coefficient pairs ($|r| > 0.5$) are marked with *. Following the pair of (R12)-(R13) ($r = 0.91$), reactions (R8) and (R19H) show the second-highest $|r|$ ($r = -0.83$) by sharing reactant of H_2O_2 and the co-influence on the high-pressure and low-temperature oxidation of syngas, Table 2. Two important channels, which define the change in chain reaction of hydrogen autoignition (explosion limits), i.e., $\text{H} + \text{O}_2 + \text{M} = \text{HO}_2 + \text{M}$ (R3L) and $\text{H} + \text{O}_2 = \text{OH} + \text{O}$ (R4) also demonstrate high $|r|$ ($r = 0.58$).

3.4. Final feasible parameter set

Fig. 11 shows the posterior histograms of x_{R12} and x_{R13} based on the 1000 local optima, which conform to the assumed normal distributions. To determine the posterior feasible parameter set, the 2-times standard deviation, $2\sigma_i$, which covers 95 % of the distribution, is determined as the reduced bounds for parameter x_i , as shown by the dash lines in Fig. 11. The posterior feasible parameters are sampled within the 2σ bounds:

$$\bar{x}_i - 2\sigma_i < x_i < \bar{x}_i + 2\sigma_i \quad (16)$$

where \bar{x}_i and σ_i are the average value and the standard deviation of x_i based on the 1000 local optima. The reduced 2σ bounds for the studied parameters are presented in Table 2.

For the high- $|r|$ correlated parameter pairs, the confidence ellipses for the 1000 local optima are calculated:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_i - \bar{x}_i \\ x_j - \bar{x}_j \end{bmatrix}^T \text{cov}(x_i, x_j)^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} x_i - \bar{x}_i \\ x_j - \bar{x}_j \end{bmatrix} \leq S \quad (17)$$

where S defines the scale of the ellipse (95 % confidence corresponds to $S = 5.991$) and $\text{cov}(x_i, x_j)^{-1}$ is the inverse of the covariance matrix of x_i and x_j based on the 1000 local optima:

$$\text{cov}(x_i, x_j)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{cov}(x_i, x_i) & \text{cov}(x_i, x_j) \\ \text{cov}(x_j, x_i) & \text{cov}(x_j, x_j) \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \quad (18)$$

For the 11 pairs of high- $|r|$ parameters figured out, marked with * in Fig. 10, the intersection of the 2σ bounds and the 95 % confidence ellipse determines the final feasible parameter set. The sampling of x_i and x_j follows the rule of:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \bar{x}_i - 2\sigma_i < x_i < \bar{x}_i + 2\sigma_i \\ \bar{x}_j - 2\sigma_j < x_j < \bar{x}_j + 2\sigma_j \\ \begin{bmatrix} x_i - \bar{x}_i \\ x_j - \bar{x}_j \end{bmatrix}^T \text{cov}(x_i, x_j)^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} x_i - \bar{x}_i \\ x_j - \bar{x}_j \end{bmatrix} \leq 5.991 \end{array} \right. \quad (19)$$

where σ_i and σ_j are the standard deviations based on the respective statistical analysis on parameters x_i and x_j , and the third line defines the 95 % confidence ellipse shown in Fig. 9a.

The performed application of the PSO algorithm reviled its high efficiency. Fig. 12 demonstrates the progress in the obtained results: the reduced uncertainty intervals of the 20 parameters are presented in blue color (Syngas-reduced) in comparison to the results of our previous work [25] for the H_2 oxidation model (red color, H_2 -initial) and to the uncertainty bounds for the model as-compiled (black color, H_2 -reduced/Syngas-initial), which were normalized to $X \in [0, 1]$, Eq. (7).

It is a good illustration of the problem of model re-optimization arising from dataset (experimental targets and reactions) extension. Compared to the previous work [25] in which only 4 RRCs were reduced for the H_2 oxidation model, the extended dataset, which includes now the experimental data for syngas, revealed the next portion of hydrogen reactions with higher relative uncertainty contributions, namely (R3L), (R4), (R7), (R8), (R12), and (R13), of which uncertainty intervals were reduced by >40 %. Some reactions, like (R1), (R5), (R16), and (R19L), with lower relative uncertainty contributions (only X in Table 2) do not show strong feedback from Ψ and their uncertainty intervals were less reduced (by 5 % to 32 %). The newly added channel for syngas oxidation, $\text{CO} + \text{OH} = \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}$ (R23), demonstrates the highest potential for uncertainty reduction (reduced by 77 %).

The application of the PSO algorithm in this study reduced the reliance on human experience and intuition and increased the automation and self-monitoring of the chemical kinetic model optimization works led to the further improvement of reaction rate values. The comparison of the initial and reduced RRC uncertainty bounds for the studied reactions are presented in Fig. S1-1 to S1-21 in Supplementary-1. The 95 % confidence ellipses of the 11 high- $|r|$ reaction pairs are presented in

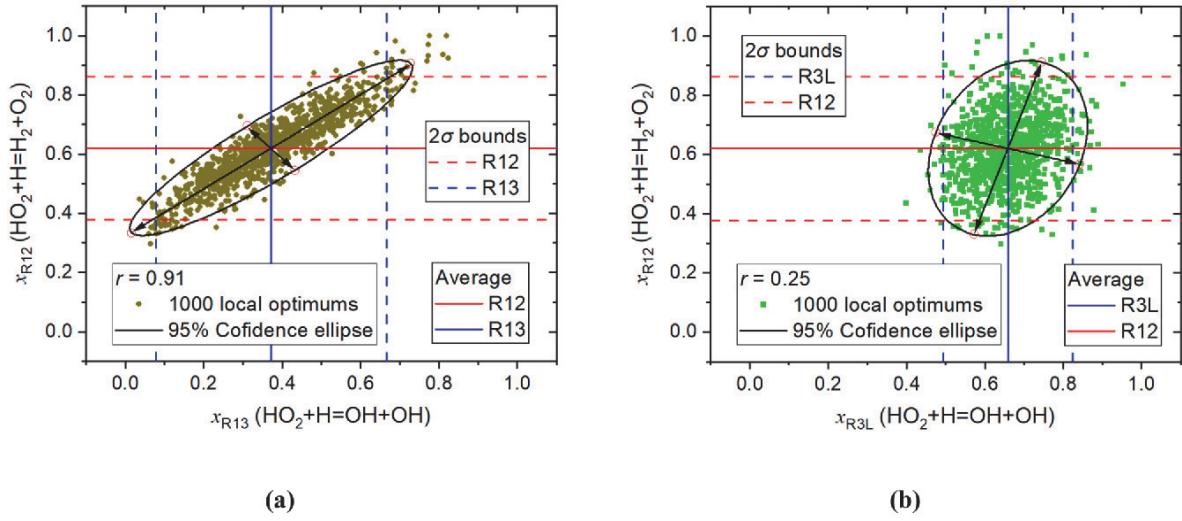


Fig. 9. Distribution of the 1000 local optima: (a) reactions (R13)-(R12), $r = 0.91$; (b) reactions (R3L)-(R12), $r = 0.25$.

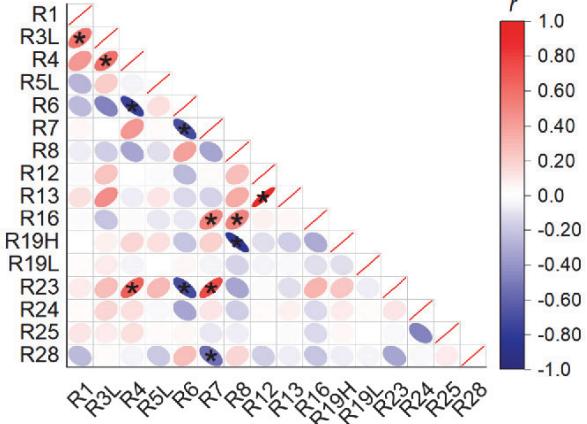


Fig. 10. Pearson correlation coefficients (r) of the studied 16 reaction rate constants and the high- $|r|$ pairs (marked with *, $|r| > 0.5$).

Fig. S1-22 to S1-33 in Supplementary-1.

4. Modeling results and discussion

In this section, the RRCs of the developed joint H₂ and syngas oxidation model will be sampled randomly within the final feasible parameter set (reduced uncertainty intervals and the 95 % confidence ellipses) to show the reduction of the modeling uncertainties. One model with the lowest Ψ among the 1000 local optima presented in Fig. 7 is designated as the final model and uploaded as Supplementary-3. The modeling results simulated with the models of Varga et al. [18], Kérommès et al [7] (NUIG syngas), and Konnov [9] were also presented as comparisons. It should be emphasized that all the 1000 local optima are acceptable models and the final model is one possibility of the feasible parameter sets. The Arrhenius expression parameters of the final model make one possible combination with good prediction ability for the currently collected experimental data. The results of Monte Carlo simulations and modeling results with the final model will be presented. Limited by the length of the paper, the detailed results are presented in Supplementary-2.

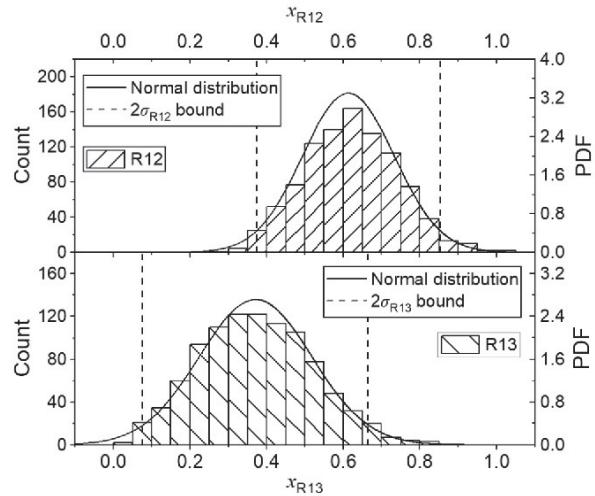


Fig. 11. Posterior distribution of x_{R12} and x_{R13} based on the 1000 local optima and the assumed normal distributions.

4.1. Ignition delay time

The uncertainty contributions of the key reactions are recalculated for their reduced uncertainty intervals. As shown by the comparison of the initial and reduced uncertainty contributions in Fig. 13, most of the uncertainty contributions have been greatly reduced, and declines higher than 50 % were achieved for the reaction (R3) and (R4).

Monte Carlo (MC) simulations were conducted with the RRCs sampled within the initial and reduced uncertainty intervals respectively. It can be seen from the comparison of the experimental data and modeling results presented in Fig. 14 that the uncertainty reduction improves the model accuracy and reduces its uncertainties for predicting the IDTs.

The comparison of IDTs simulated with different models is presented in Fig. 15. The model of Kérommès et al [7] was modified for their measured IDTs [7] and also well predict the IDTs measured by Krejci et al. [63]. The model of Varga et al. [18] was optimized in a comprehensive study and shows good prediction ability for the IDTs of 1.6 atm and 12 atm but predicts earlier ignition at high pressure ($p_5 = 32$ atm).

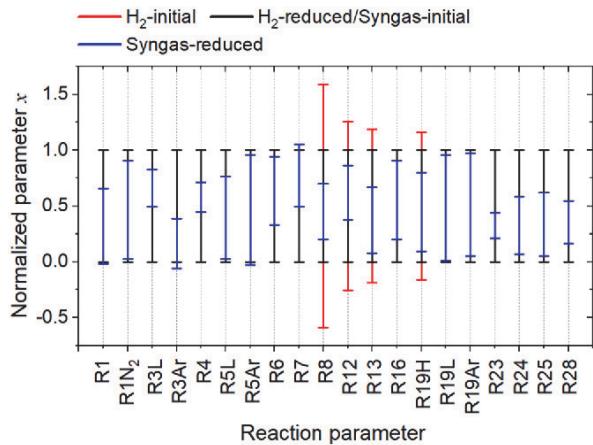


Fig. 12. The initial and reduced uncertainties of the normalized RRC parameters X .

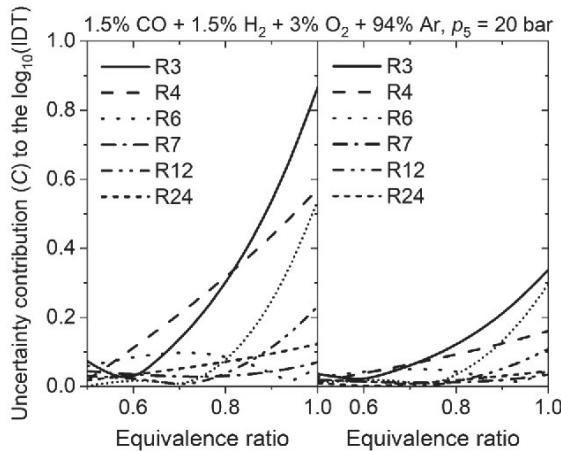


Fig. 13. Initial (left) and reduced (right) uncertainties contributions of the key channels ($C_r > 0.1$) to the simulation of ignition delay times.

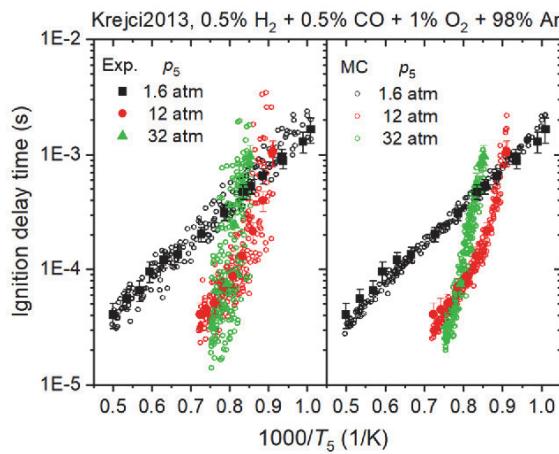


Fig. 14. Measured ignition delay times (Krejci et al. [63], big symbols) and Monte Carlo simulation results (small symbols) with the initial (left) and final (right) parameter sets.

The model of Konnov [9] shows the highest discrepancy measure for the IDTs at high pressures.

The simulations covering wide pressure and temperature ranges have been conducted with the final optimized model for the IDTs of both H_2 [7,54–60,62] and syngas [7,61–63] mixtures. The modeling results show good agreement with the collected experimental data, as presented in Fig. S2-1 to Fig. S2-9 in Supplementary-2.

4.2. Premixed laminar flame

With the initially determined RRC uncertainty intervals, the highest uncertainty (around 25 cm/s) of the modeling LFS at $T_u = 298$ K and $p = 1$ atm is contributed by reaction (R4) $H + O_2 = OH + O$ at fuel-rich conditions, as shown in Fig. 16 (left). By reducing the uncertainty intervals of the studied RRCs, the highest uncertainty contribution is reduced to about 10 cm/s, as shown in Fig. 16 (right).

The RRCs were randomly sampled within the initial and reduced uncertainty intervals, and MC simulations have been conducted for the LFSs at $T_u = 298$ K and $p = 1$ atm, as shown in Fig. 17. Compared to the MC results with initial bounds (red symbols), the distribution of the results with final reduced bounds is concentrated within the uncertainties of experimental data. The 2σ modeling uncertainty bounds [126,127] of the initial and reduced RRC uncertainty intervals are indicated by red and blue dashed lines respectively. The 2σ modeling uncertainties have been reduced by >50 % for conditions with equivalence ratios lower than 2.0, and the modeling uncertainties for fuel rich mixtures have been less reduced due to the high uncertainties of the experimental data.

The final model shows a good prediction ability for the LFSs of mixtures with variable $H_2:CO$ ratios, as shown in Fig. 18. Both models of Varga et al. [18] and Konnov [9] have been optimized for the LFSs and the results show good agreement with the experimental data. Compared with the other three models, the LFSs are overpredicted by the model of Kérommès et al. [7], as shown in Fig. 19. More modeling results with the final model for LFSs with variable T_u and p are presented in Fig. S2-10 to Fig. S2-25 in Supplementary-2.

4.3. Concentration profile

The idealized 0-D model is applied to the simulation of the JSRs [19,109], and PFRs [110]. The Arrhenius parameters are sampled randomly to get the Monte Carlo simulation results of the concentration profiles in a JSR [19]. As presented in Fig. 20, all the tested model reaches the same equilibrium state at high temperatures, which means

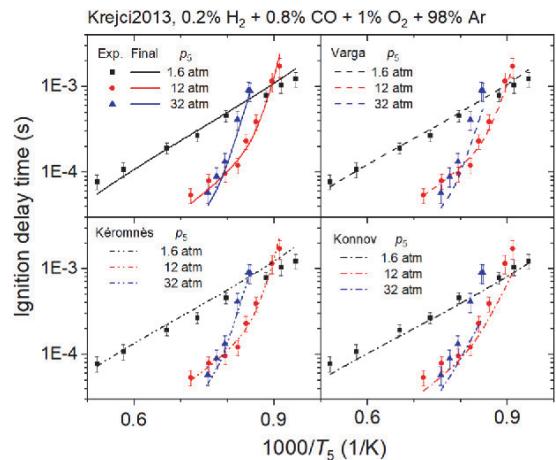


Fig. 15. Measured ignition delay times (Krejci et al. [63], symbols) and simulation results with different models [7,9,18].

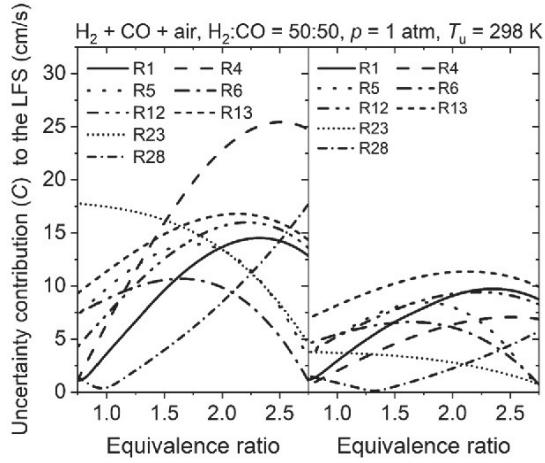


Fig. 16. Initial (left) and reduced (right) uncertainties contributions of the key channels ($C_r > 0.1$) to the laminar flame speed simulation.

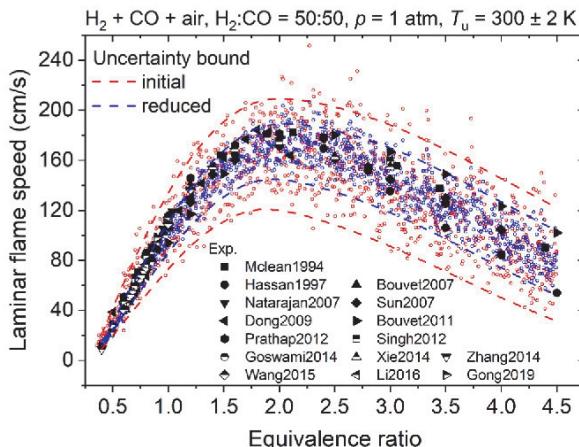


Fig. 17. Laminar flame speeds of Monte Carlo simulations with the initial (red symbols) and reduced (blue symbols) parameter sets. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

there is no sense to optimize the model for the targets of mole fractions at high temperatures (>1100 K) or non-reaction temperatures (<850 K). In the unstable temperature range (900–1000 K), the measured concentration profiles rise sharply with the temperature increase and the simulated results also show high gradients to the change of Arrhenius parameters. The high sensitivity of concentration profiles to the temperature, i.e. operating conditions and assumed reactor idealization, and Arrhenius parameters make the optimization difficult with targets on the measured mole fractions so that the input temperatures and residence times are set as optimization targets in this study.

With the reduced final parameter set, the model can predict reactant mole fractions in the JSR [19] with much lower modeling uncertainties, as shown in Fig. 20. CO mole fractions measured in the PFR [111] are presented in Fig. 21 with modeling results simulated with different models [7,9,18]. The final model and models of Varga et al. [18] and Kérommès et al. [7] accurately predict the beginning of the CO oxidation (around $T = 1000$ K) and the mole fractions of CO. However, the simulations with the model of Konnov [9] show reactions at lower temperatures (around $T = 950$ K). More results for the simulation of JSR and PFR with the final model are presented in Fig. S2-26 and Fig. S2-27.

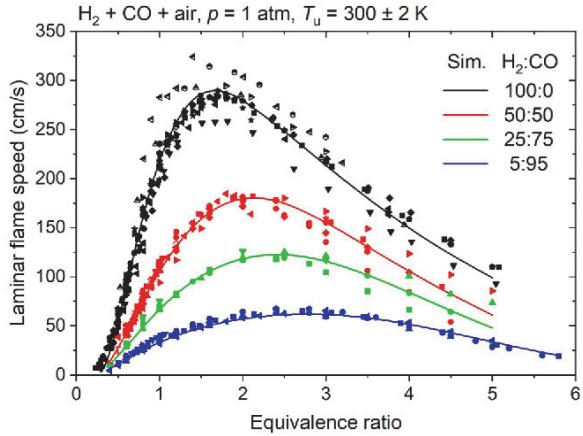


Fig. 18. Comparison of the measured and modeling (final model) laminar flame speeds of $H_2/CO/air$ mixtures at 1 atm (detailed reference information in Supplementary-2).

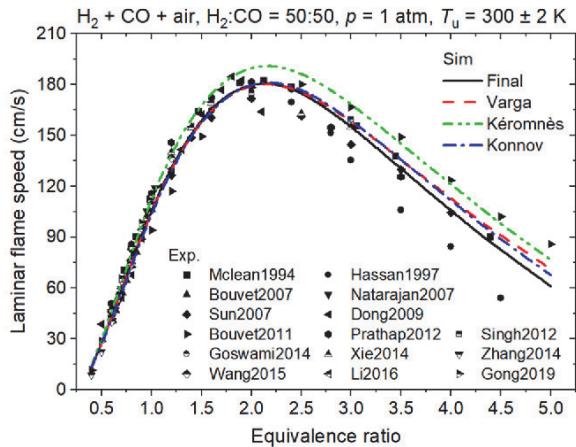


Fig. 19. Laminar flame speeds of $H_2/CO/air$ mixtures measured by experiments [81–94] and simulated with different models [7,9,18].

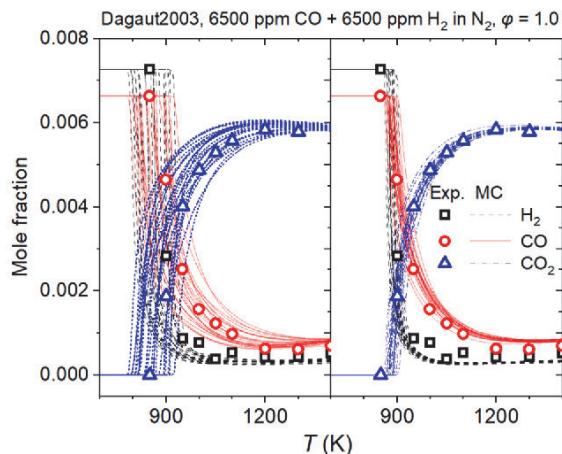


Fig. 20. Mole fractions measured in the jet stirred reactor (Dagaut et al. [19]) and Monte Carlo simulation results with the initial (left) and final (right) parameter sets.

The 1-dimensional premixed laminar flame model in Chemkin Pro [51] was used for the simulation of the concentration profiles in H₂ and syngas premixed laminar flames measured. Limited by the measurement technology for high-temperature flame, the temperature and concentration profiles show high uncertainties [49], so the concentration profiles measured in premixed laminar flames were not specially fitted. A comparison of the modeling results and the experimental data measured by Knyazkov et al. [108] are presented in Fig. 22. More detailed results for the other works are presented in Fig. S2-28 and Fig. S2-29.

5. Conclusion

The novel data-driven framework for detailed kinetic mechanisms optimization applying the heuristic algorithm, namely canonic Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) was developed and applied to the optimization of the joint H₂ and syngas oxidation chemical kinetic model with 16 species and 41 reactions. The noticeable reduction of uncertainties of 16 Arrhenius pre-exponential factors and 4 third body factors, including further uncertainty minimization for hydrogen reactions being under optimization in the previous work [25] of model development (re-optimization) has been achieved. It is shown that the heuristic method PSO has excellent adaptability, optimization efficiency, and global optimization capability and can be successfully used in the optimization of a chemical kinetic model with not accurately known input parameters and has demonstrated higher effectiveness compared with the uncertainty reduction based on probability density functions in our previous work. The inherent randomness of the PSO avoids falling into the local optimal solution and reduces the reliance on human experience and intuition and increases the automation and self-monitoring of the solution.

The data set used in the developed framework includes: the extended reaction model [48,49] including the newest update of the H₂ oxidation sub-model [25] with the reaction rate constants recommended by experimental, theoretical, and review works, based on which the uncertainty intervals of the studied Arrhenius parameters were determined by the statistical analysis; the experimental data with uncertainties provided from shock tubes, jet stirred reactors, plug flow reactors, and premixed laminar flames measured under conditions covered wide ranges of temperature, pressure, equivalence ratio, and H₂/CO ratio. The input-output characteristics of the chemical kinetic system have been revealed by the response function approximated with the second-order polynomial regression.

1000 local optima were obtained in 1000 runs of PSO performed with randomly defined initial conditions (parameters of algorithm and 100 particles as surrogate reaction models). The best one of them was defined as the final optimized model. The posterior uncertainty intervals of the active parameters have been calculated based on the statistical analysis of these 1000 local minima. The 11 pairs of strongly correlated reaction rate constants were defined with the Pearson correlation coefficients calculated using all considered 1000 local optima, based on which the 95 % confidence ellipses and the reduced uncertainty intervals were constructed.

The final model shows good prediction ability for the collected experimental data. It can be used for the computational fluid dynamics simulation of H₂ and syngas oxidation and can be a good basement for the further development of chemical kinetic models for hydrocarbons.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Hongxin Wang: Methodology, Investigation, Software, Formal analysis, Writing – original draft. **Chenyi Sun:** Software. **Oskar Haidn:** Supervision. **Askarova Aliya:** Investigation. **Chiara Manfletti:** Project administration. **Nadezda Slavinskaya:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision.

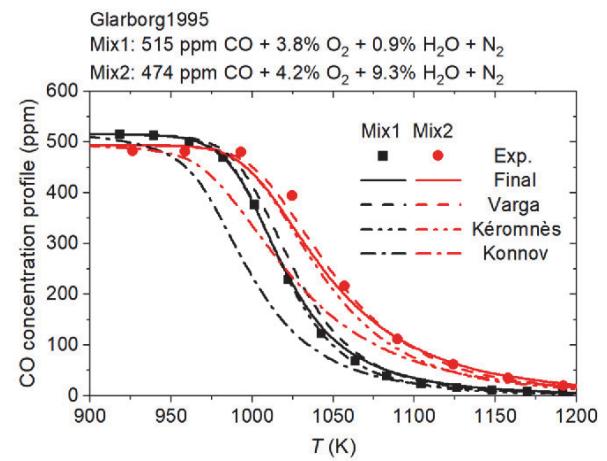


Fig. 21. CO mole fractions measured in the plug flow reactor (Glarborg et al. [111]) and simulated with different models [7,9,18].

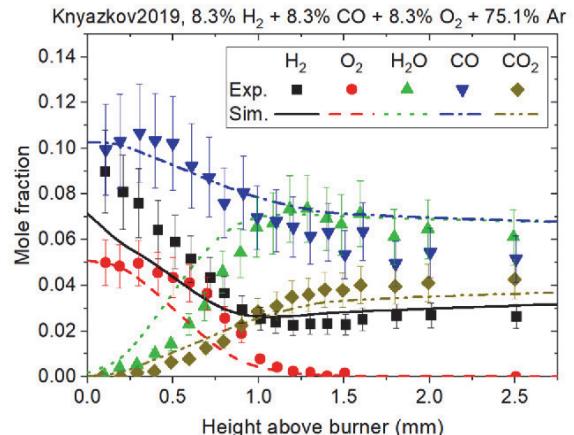


Fig. 22. Measured and simulated concentration profiles in premixed laminar flames [108].

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2022.125945>.

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Supplementary Material-1

A Joint Hydrogen and Syngas Chemical Kinetic Model Optimized by Particle Swarm Optimization

Hongxin Wang¹, Chenyi Sun¹, Oskar Haidn¹, Askarova Aliya³, Chiara Manfletti¹, Nadezda Slavinskaya^{2,3}

1. Lehrstuhl für Raumfahrtantriebe, Technical University of Munich, 85748 Garching, Germany
2. Gesellschaft fur Anlagen-und Reaktorsicherheit GmbH, 85748 Garching, Germany
3. Al-Farabi Kazakh National University, 050040 Almaty, Kazakhstan

Recommendations of the reaction rate constants and calculated uncertainty parameters.

Table S1-1. Parameters for Arrhenius equation and uncertainty factors. $k(T)=AT^n\exp(-E_a/T)$ 2

Fig. S1-1. (R1) $H + H + Ar = H_2 + Ar$ [86, 125-135]	7
Fig. S1-2. (R3L) $H + O_2 (+N_2) = HO_2 (+N_2)$ low-pressure limit [86, 136-144]	7
Fig. S1-3. (R4) $H + O_2 = OH + O$ [145-162]	7
Fig. S1-4. (R5L) $H + OH (+N_2) = H_2O (+N_2)$ low-pressure limit [86, 130, 132, 136, 163-166]	8
Fig. S1-5. (R6) $H_2 + O = OH + H$ [54, 55, 159, 167-181]	8
Fig. S1-6. (R7) $H_2 + OH = H_2O + H$ [54, 86, 154, 158, 182-197]	8
Fig. S1-7. (R8) $H_2O_2 + H = HO_2 + H_2$ [86, 124, 198-200]	9
Fig. S1-8. (R12) $HO_2 + H = H_2 + O_2$ [86, 199, 201-204]	9
Fig. S1-9. (R13) $HO_2 + H = OH + OH$ [86, 201, 203, 204]	9
Fig. S1-10. (R16) $HO_2 + OH = H_2O + O_2$ [86, 124, 163, 205-222]	9
Fig. S1-11. (R19H) $H_2O_2 (+M) = OH + OH (+M)$ high-pressure limit [86, 223-226]	10
Fig. S1-12. (R19L) $H_2O_2 (+Ar) = OH + OH (+Ar)$ low-pressure limit [86, 223, 227-229]	10
Fig. S1-13. (R22H) $CO + O (+M) = CO_2 (+M)$ high-pressure limit [1-8]	10
Fig. S1-14. (R22L) $CO + O (+M) = CO_2 (+M)$ low-pressure limit [6, 9, 13, 14, 16, 17, 19, 20, 22, 23] .	10
Fig. S1-15. (R23) $CO + OH = CO_2 + H$ [34-57]	11
Fig. S1-16. (R24) $CO + O_2 = CO_2 + O$ [54, 55, 62-69]	11
Fig. S1-17. (R25) $CO + HO_2 = CO_2 + OH$ [72-76]	11
Fig. S1-18. (R27) $C + O_2 = CO + O$ [78-85]	12
Fig. S1-19. (R28) $HCO + M = H + CO + M$ [86, 89-92, 94, 95]	12
Fig. S1-20. (R29) $HCO + H = CO + H_2$ [86, 89-91, 95, 100-104]	12
Fig. S1-21. (R33) $HCO + O_2 = CO + HO_2$ [74, 86, 101, 102, 105-107, 109-123]	13
Fig. S1-22. R1-R3L Fig. S1-23. R3L-R4	13
Fig. S1-24. R4-R6 Fig. S1-25. R4-R23	13
Fig. S1-26. R6-R7 Fig. S1-27. R6-R23	14
Fig. S1-28. R7-R16 Fig. S1-29. R7-R23	14
Fig. S1-30. R7-R28 Fig. S1-31. R8-R16	14
Fig. S1-32. R8-R19H Fig. S1-33. R12-R13	15

Table S1-1. Parameters for Arrhenius equation and uncertainty factors. $k(T)=AT^n\exp(-E_a/T)$

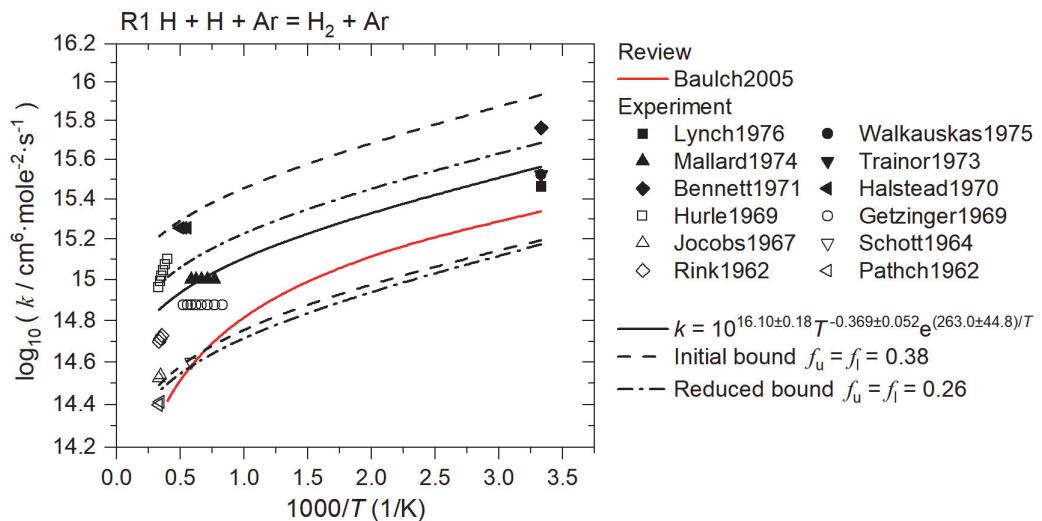
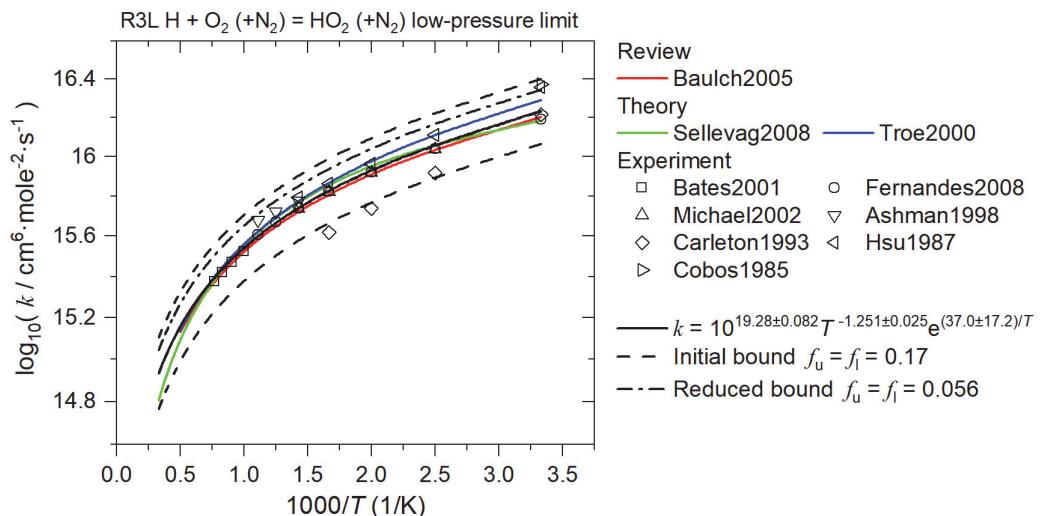
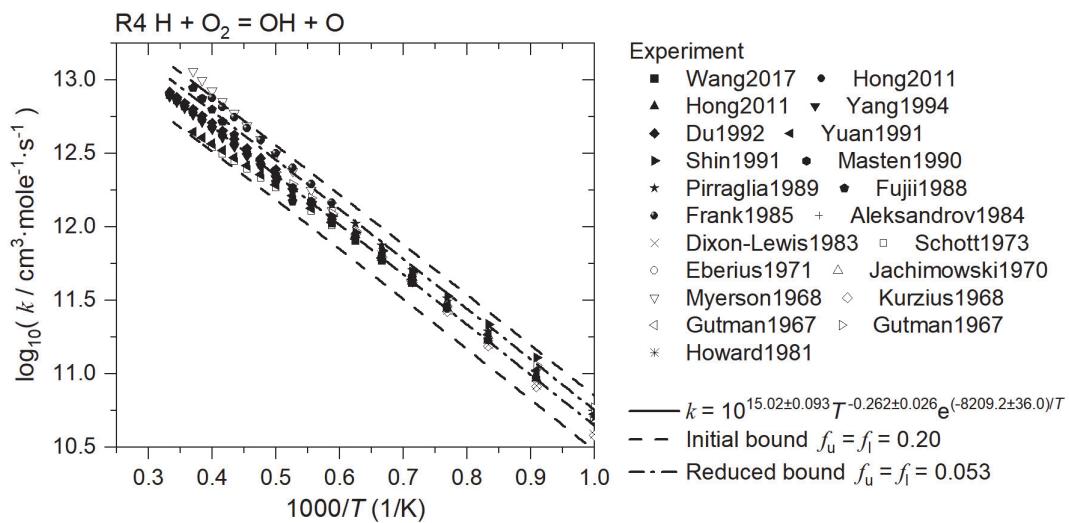
Reaction	+M	Reference	$\Delta T, K$	k, cm ³ , s, mole, K			
				A	n	E_a, K	
R22H	CO+O(+M)=CO ₂ (+M) high-pressure limit	Toby1984 [1]	353-433	6.03E+09	0.00	1630.0	
		Toby1980 [2]	348-433	1.26E+09	0.00	805.0	
		Simonaitis1972 [3]	298-472	1.60E+10	0.00	1460.0	
		Kondratev1961 [4]	373-523	9.64E+09	0.00	1060.0	
		Avramenko1959 [5]	421-550	1.81E+09	0.50	1510.0	
		Wagner1974 [6]	3000-3700	2.08E+10	0.00	0.0	
		Clark1969 [7]	2900-4000	1.55E+09	0.00	0.0	
		Olschewski1967 [8]	2800-3500	1.12E+10	0.00	0.0	
R22L	CO+O(+M)=CO ₂ (+M) low-pressure limit	Ar	Fujii1987 [9]	1700-2500	1.58E+15	0.00	3610.0
		He	Fujii1985 [10]	1700-2100	4.37E+15	0.00	2160.0
		CO ₂	Toby1984 [11]	353-433	4.32E+20	0.00	5840.0
		He	Sugaw Ara1980 [12]	296	3.63E+12	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Hardy1978 [13]	1300-2200	2.79E+13	0.00	-2280.0
		Ar	Dean1977 [14]	2100-3200	5.79E+13	0.00	0.0
		CO ₂	Inn1974 [15]	257-277	8.02E+14	0.00	1780.0
		Ar	Wagner1974 [6]	298-4000	1.01E+19	-1.50	2520.0
		Ar	Inn1973 [16]	296	3.56E+12	0.00	0.0
		CO	Inn1973 [16]	296	1.63E+12	0.00	0.0
		CO ₂	Inn1973 [16]	296	1.96E+12	0.00	0.0
		CO	Slanger1972 [17]	250-370	2.36E+15	0.00	2180.0
		CO ₂	Slanger1972 [17]	296	2.25E+12	0.00	0.0
		N ₂	Slanger1972 [17]	296	8.34E+11	0.00	0.0
		N ₂ O	Simonaitis1972 [3]	298-472	5.90E+15	0.00	2060.0
		N ₂	DeMore1972 [18]	298	2.50E+12	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Baldwin1972 [19]	300-3500	3.00E+14	0.00	1510.0
		CO	Stuhl1971 [20]	300	1.16E+12	0.00	0.0
		He	Stuhl1971 [20]	300	6.17E+11	0.00	0.0
		N ₂	Stuhl1971 [20]	300	7.98E+11	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Donovan1971 [21]	300	5.08E+12	0.00	0.0
		He	Slanger1970 [22]	300	2.18E+12	0.00	0.0
		N ₂	Slanger1970 [22]	300	5.08E+12	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Slanger1970 [22]	300	2.54E+12	0.00	0.0
		Ar	Lin1969 [23]	1500-3000	2.80E+12	0.00	-12000.0
		O ₂	Kondratiev1969 [24]	409-503	6.76E+11	0.00	-1500.0
		O ₂	Kondratev1961 [4]	373-523	3.48E+14	0.00	1060.0

	Reaction	+M	Reference	$\Delta T, \text{K}$	$k, \text{cm}^3, \text{s, mole, K}$		
					A	n	E_a, K
R22H ⁻¹	CO ₂ (+M)=CO+O (+M) high-pressure limit		Wagner1974 [6]	3000-3700	2.07E+10	0.00	0.0
			Wagner1974 [6]	3000-3700	8.99E+12	0.00	65300.0
			Clark1969 [7]	2900-4000	1.55E+09	0.00	0.0
			Clark1969 [7]	2900-4000	5.13E+07	0.00	37300.0
			Olszewski1967 [8]	2800-3500	2.00E+11	0.00	55900.0
			Olszewski1967 [8]	2800-3500	1.12E+10	0.00	0.0
			Olszewski1966 [25]	2800-3700	2.51E+11	0.00	55400
R22L ⁻¹	CO ₂ (+M)=CO+O (+M) low-pressure limit	Ar	Eremin1997 [26]	2620-4470	1.09E+14	0.00	48900.0
		-	Burmeister1990 [27]	2400-4400	3.65E+14	0.00	52500.0
		Ar	Fujii1989 [28]	2300-3400	2.51E+13	0.00	43800.0
		CO ₂	Ebrahim1976 [29]	2500-7000	7.47E+12	0.5	52300.0
		Ar	Wagner1974 [6]	3000-4560	5.11E+14	0.00	55600.0
		Ar	Hardy1974 [30]	2700-4300	4.70E+14	0.00	52800.0
		Ar	Olszewski1967 [8]	2800-4400	5.01E+14	0.00	49800.0
		Ar	Olszewski1966 [25]	2800-4400	5.01E+14	0.00	49800.0
		Ar	Fishburne1966 [31]	3000-5000	7.13E+14	0.5	42500.0
		N ₂	Fishburne1966 [31]	3000-5000	5.33E+14	0.5	40100.0
		Ar	Michel1965 [32]	2800-4400	5.01E+14	0.00	49800.0
		Ar	Brabbs1963 [33]	2560-2860	3.00E+11	0.5	43300.0
R23	CO+OH=CO ₂ +H		Wang2017 [34]	1428-1685	1.90E+12	0.00	2760.0
			Li2007 [35]	850-950	2.23E+05	1.89	-583.7
			Wooldridge1996 [36]	1080-2500	2.12E+12	0.00	2629.8
			Bohn1998 [37]	296	1.00E+11	0.00	0.0
			Lissianski1995 [38]	2170-3150	3.30E+06	1.55	-402.0
			Forster1995 [39]	298	5.85E+11	0.00	0.0
			Frost1993 [40]	296	1.08E+11	0.00	0.0
			Smith1985 [41]	298	9.23E+10	0.00	0.0
			Niki1984 [42]	299	1.42E+11	0.00	0.0
			Hofzumahaus1984 [43]	298	1.39E+11	0.00	0.0
			DeMore1984 [44]	298	1.26E+11	0.00	0.0
			Ravishankara1983 [45]	250-350	1.33E+11	0.00	145.0
			Husain1981 [46]	298	8.79E+10	0.00	0.0
			Clyne1979 [47]	293-430	1.32E+11	0.00	88.0
			Biordi1976 [48]	1420-1720	4.60E+11	0.00	0.0
			Vandooren1975 [49]	1000-1800	2.32E+12	0.00	2870.0
			Westenberg1973 [50]	300-915	5.36E+06	1.40	-492.0
			Peeters1973 [51]	1600-1900	1.36E+12	0.00	2770.0
			Gardiner1973 [52]	1200-2500	4.00E+12	0.00	4030.0
			Izod1971 [53]	1400-2200	9.03E+11	0.00	503.2
			Brabbs1971 [54]	1300-1900	4.20E+11	0.00	503.2
			Dean1970 [55]	1700-2600	1.14E+12	0.00	518.3
			Greiner1969 [56]	300-500	1.26E+11	0.00	115.7
			Jost1965 [57]	1380-1720	1.00E+12	0.00	2010.0

	Reaction	Reference	$\Delta T, K$	$k, \text{cm}^3, \text{s, mole, K}$		
				A	n	E_a, K
R23 ⁻¹	CO ₂ +H=CO+OH	Lissianski1995 [38]	2170-3150	2.00E+14	0.00	13500.0
		Wawer1978 [58]	1010-1240	8.99E+13	0.00	12000.0
		Vandooren1975 [49]	650-1800	4.80E+14	0.00	12600.0
		Shub1970 [59]	1200-1400	1.26E+14	0.00	13100.0
		Kochubei1970 [60]	1020-1320	1.01E+14	0.00	12200.0
		Fenimore1958 [61]	1220-1340	3.00E+15	0.00	16800.0
R24	CO+O ₂ =CO ₂ +O	Sharipov2011 [62]	800-5000	4.32E+07	1.62	25018.0
		Sharipov2011 [62]	800-5000	7.63E+06	1.67	26950.0
		Thielen1983 [63]	1700-3500	5.06E+13	0.00	31800.0
		Rawlins1974 [64]	1500-2500	1.20E+11	0.00	17612.7
		Gardiner1971 [65]	1400-2500	3.10E+11	0.00	19122.3
		Dean1971 [66]	1750-2590	1.21E+13	0.00	30200.0
		Brabbs1971 [54]	1300-1900	1.60E+13	0.00	20600.0
		Dean1970 [55]	2200-2600	3.49E+12	0.00	25200.0
		Drummond1968 [67]	1190-1850	2.40E+10	0.00	15300.0
		Sulzmann1965 [68]	2400-3000	3.50E+12	0.00	25700.0
		Fenimore1957 [69]	1700-2000	1.20E+12	0.00	12100.0
R24 ⁻¹	CO ₂ +O=CO+O ₂	Ibragimova1991 [70]	1700-6000	2.71E+14	0.00	33800.0
		Clark1969 [7]	2800-3200	1.55E+13	0.00	16400.0
		Myers1965 [71]	2500-3000	3.85E+09	0.00	20100.0
R25	CO+HO ₂ =CO ₂ +OH	Klippenstein2017 [72]	300-2500	8.55E+03	2.52	7830.0
		You2007 [73]	300-2500	1.57E+05	2.18	9030.0
		Vandooren1986 [74]	1200-1600	3.50E+12	0.00	4120.0
		Atri1977 [75]	713-773	5.79E+13	0.00	11500.0
		Vardanyan1975 [76]	878-952	1.02E+14	0.00	11600.0
R26	C+OH=CO+H	Glarborg1986 [77]	300-3000	5.00E+13	0.00	0.0
R27	C+O ₂ =CO+O	Geppert2000 [78]	15-295	1.70E+14	-0.30	0.0
		Dorthe1991 [79]	298	9.64E+12	0.00	0.0
		Dean1991 [80]	1500-4200	1.20E+14	0.00	2010.0
		Becker1988 [81]	295	2.83E+13	0.00	0.0
		Husain1975 [82]	300	1.57E+13	0.00	0.0
		Husain1971 [83]	300	1.99E+13	0.00	0.0
		Braun1969 [84]	298	1.99E+13	0.00	0.0
		Martinotti1968 [85]	298	1.50E+12	0.00	0.0

Reaction		+M	Reference	$\Delta T, K$	k, cm ³ , s, mole, K		
					A	n	E _a , K
R28	HCO+M=H+CO+M	-	Li2007 [35]	850-950	4.750E+11	0.70	7498.0
		Ar	Baulch2005 [86]	500-2500	3.975E+13	0.00	7820.0
		He	Krasnoperov2005 [87]	498-769	4.818E+13	0.00	7938.0
		He	Krasnoperov2004 [88]	298-1229	3.613E+13	0.00	7721.5
		Ar	Friedrichs2002 [89]	835-1230	3.975E+13	0.00	7820.0
		Ar	Fredrichs2002 [89]	600-2500	4.800E+17	0.00	8924.2
		Ar	Hidaka1993 [90]	1200-1890	6.950E+17	-1.00	8554.7
		Ar	Cribb1992 [91]	1900-2700	5.000E+13	0.00	8455.1
		He	Timonen1987 [92]	637-832	2.288E+17	-1.00	8600.0
		He	Wagner1987 [93]	600-1000	1.690E+14	0.00	7950.0
		H ₂	Timonen1987 [92]	300-3000	3.487E+17	-1.00	8554.7
		N ₂	Timonen1987 [92]	300-3000	1.849E+17	-1.00	8554.7
		Ar	Timonen1987 [92]	300-3000	1.861E+17	-1.00	8554.7
		He	Timonen1987 [92]	300-3000	2.288E+17	-1.00	8605.0
		Ar	Dean1979 [94]	1700-2710	1.506E+14	0.00	7340.0
		Ar	Browne1969 [95]	1000-1700	7.000E+13	0.00	7548.3
R28 ⁻¹	H+CO+M=HCO+M	Ar	Baulch2005[86]	300-800	7.253E+12	0.200	0.0
		He	Baulch2005[86]	300-800	5.440E+11	0.600	0.0
		He	Wagner1987[93]	333-1000	5.080E+13	0.000	100.0
		CO	Hochanadel1980[96]	298	3.600E+13	0.000	0.0
		CH ₄	Hochanadel1980[96]	298	5.800E+13	0.000	0.0
		H ₂	Hochanadel1980[96]	298	3.800E+13	0.000	0.0
		N ₂	Campbell1978[97]	425	1.440E+14	0.000	0.0
		Ar	Campbell1978[97]	425	9.710E+13	0.000	0.0
		H ₂	Wang1973[98]	298-373	1.170E+15	0.000	1006.4
		H ₂	Baldwin1972[19]	773	2.300E+14	0.000	0.0
		Ar	Hikida1971[99]	298	2.600E+13	0.000	0.0
		H ₂	Hikida1971[99]	298	4.000E+13	0.000	0.0
R29	HCO+H=CO+H ₂		Baulch2005 [86]	300-2500	9.033E+13	0.00	0.0
			Friedrichs2002 [89]	295-820	1.100E+14	0.00	0.0
			Ziemer1998 [100]	298	6.810E+13	0.00	0.0
			Hidaka1993 [90]	1200-1890	2.160E+14	0.00	0.0
			Cribb1992 [91]	1900-2700	2.000E+14	0.00	0.0
			Sarkisov1984 [101]	300	1.210E+14	0.00	0.0
			Cherian1981 [102]	250-2000	4.000E+13	0.00	0.0
			Reilly1978 [103]	298	3.310E+14	0.00	0.0
			Jachimowski1977 [104]	1820-2360	1.000E+14	0.00	0.0
			Browne1969 [95]	1000-1700	2.000E+13	0.00	0.0
R30	HCO+O=CO+OH		Baulch2005 [86]	300-2500	3.011E+13	0.00	0.0
R31	HCO+O=CO ₂ +H		Baulch2005 [86]	300-2500	3.011E+13	0.00	0.0
R32	HCO+OH=CO+H ₂ O		Baulch2005 [86]	300-2500	1.084E+14	0.00	0.0

	Reaction	Reference	$\Delta T, \text{K}$	$k, \text{cm}^3, \text{s, mole, K}$		
				A	n	E_a, K
-	HCO+O ₂ =products	Matsugi2014 [105]	295	3.31E+12	0.00	0.0
		DeSain2011 [106]	296-673	3.67E+12	0.00	26.0
		Baulch2005 [86]	200-2500	2.71E+10	0.68	-236.0
		Hsu1996 [107]	500-3000	1.21E+10	0.81	-366.0
		Dobe1995 [108]	298	2.60E+12	0.00	0.0
		Temps1984 [109]	296	2.70E+13	0.00	0.0
R33	HCO+O ₂ =CO+HO ₂	Ryu2017 [110]	200-1760	1.90E+12	0.18	245.0
		Matsugi2014 [105]	295	3.31E+12	0.00	0.0
		DeSain2011 [106]	296-673	3.67E+12	0.00	26.0
		Colberg2006 [111]	295	3.55E+12	0.00	0.0
		Colberg2006 [111]	739-1108	3.70E+13	0.00	1563.5
		Baulch2005 [86]	200-2500	2.71E+10	0.68	-236.0
		Atkinson2001 [112]	200-400	3.13E+12	0.00	0.0
		Hanoune2001 [113]	294	3.01E+12	0.00	0.0
		Nesbitt1999 [114]	200-398	1.32E+12	0.00	-170.0
		Hsu1996 [107]	500-3000	1.21E+10	0.81	-366.0
		Dobe1994 [115]	298	4.30E+13	0.00	0.0
		Timonen1988 [116]	295-713	7.59E+12	0.00	204.5
		Vandooren1986 [74]	300-1600	2.70E+13	0.00	600
		Temps1984 [109]	296	3.10E+12	0.00	0.0
		Sarkisov1984 [101]	300	2.29E+12	0.00	0.0
		Langford1984 [117]	295	2.80E+12	0.00	0.0
		Cherian1981 [102]	250-2000	3.50E+12	0.00	0.0
		Veyret1981 [118]	298-503	3.31E+13	-0.40	0.0
		Gill1981 [119]	298	2.53E+12	0.00	0.0
		Clark1978 [120]	298	2.41E+12	0.00	0.0
		Shibuya1977 [121]	298	2.41E+12	0.00	0.0
		Washida1974 [122]	298	3.37E+12	0.00	0.0
		Vardanyan1971 [123]	295-713	7.58E+12	0.00	204.5
R34	HCO+HO ₂ =>CO ₂ +OH+H	Tsang1986 [124]	300-2500	3.00E+13	0.00	0.0
-	HCO+HCO=product	Baulch2005 [86]	230-1000	3.01E+13	0.00	0.0
		Hochanadel1980 [96]	298	1.81E+13	0.00	0.0
		Temps1984 [109]	296	2.70E+13	0.00	0.0
R35	HCO+HCO=>CO+CO+H ₂	Hochanadel1980 [96]	298	5.19E+12	0.00	0.0

**Fig. S1-1. (R1) H + H + Ar = H₂ + Ar [86, 125-135]****Fig. S1-2. (R3L) H + O₂ (+N₂) = HO₂ (+N₂) low-pressure limit [86, 136-144]****Fig. S1-3. (R4) H + O₂ = OH + O [145-162]**

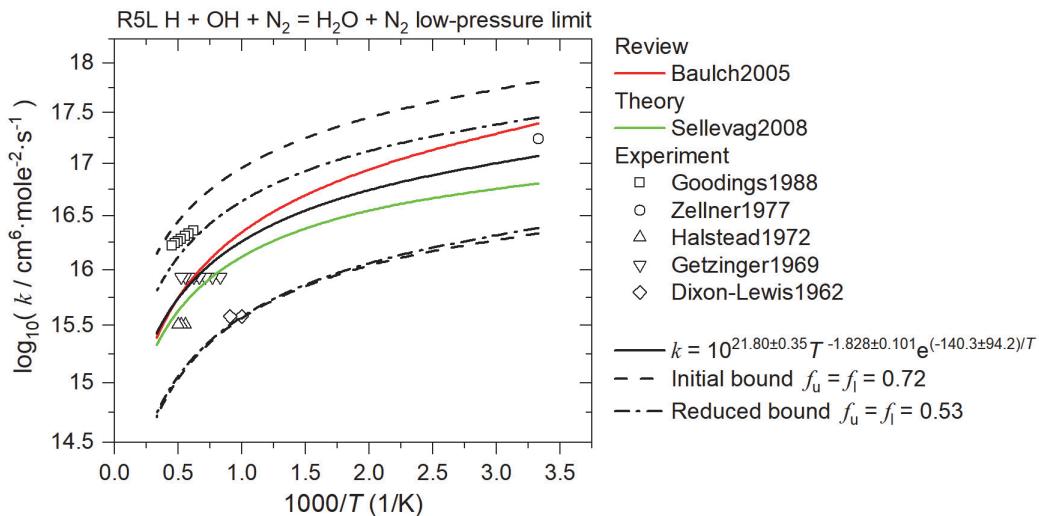


Fig. S1-4. (R5L) $\text{H} + \text{OH} (+\text{N}_2) = \text{H}_2\text{O} (+\text{N}_2)$ low-pressure limit [86, 130, 132, 136, 163-166]

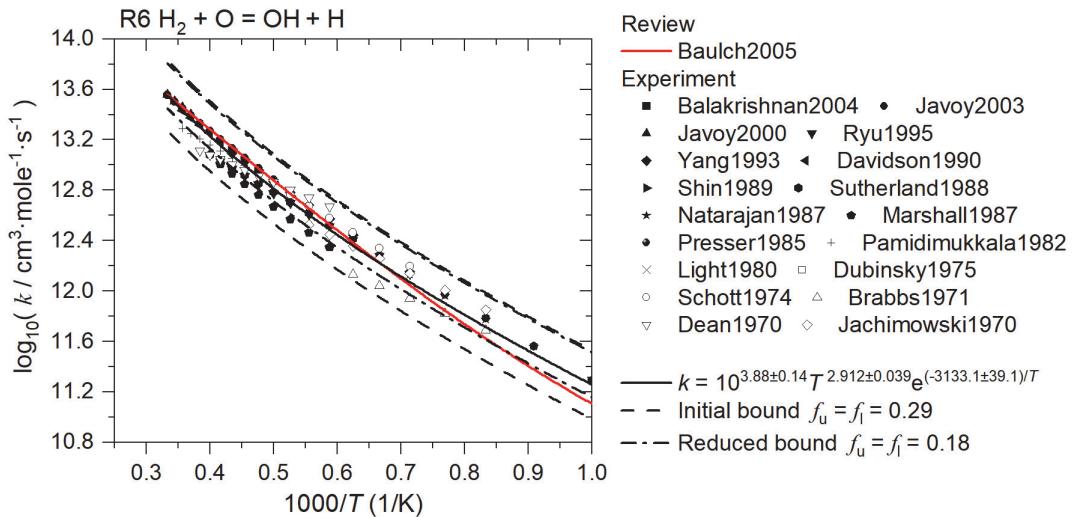


Fig. S1-5. (R6) $\text{H}_2 + \text{O} = \text{OH} + \text{H}$ [54, 55, 159, 167-181]

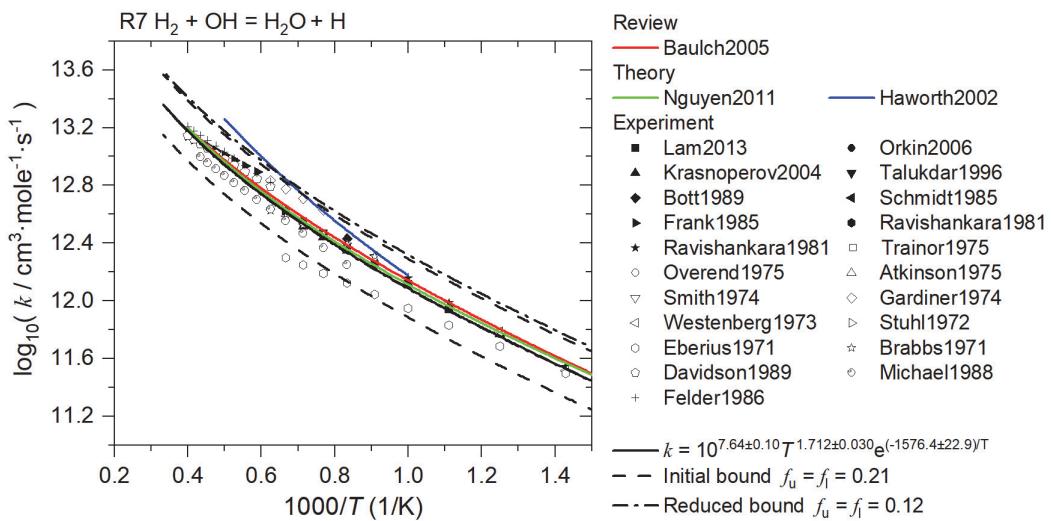
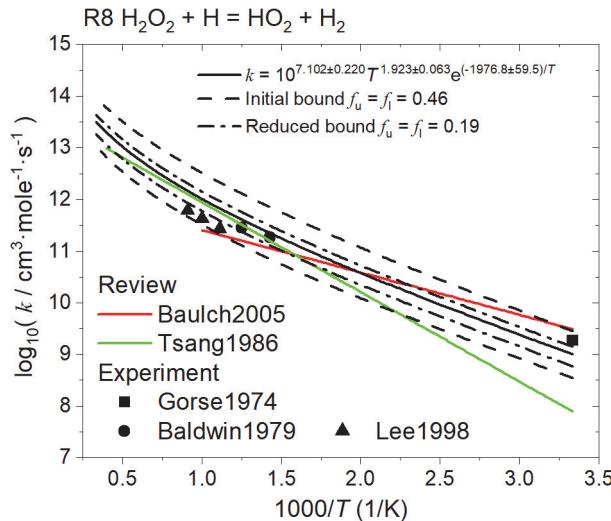
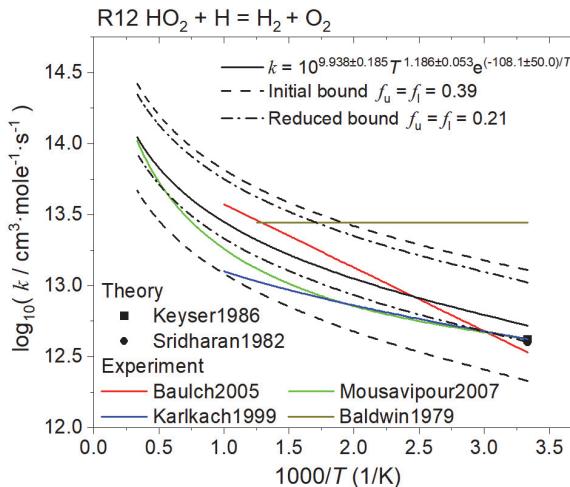
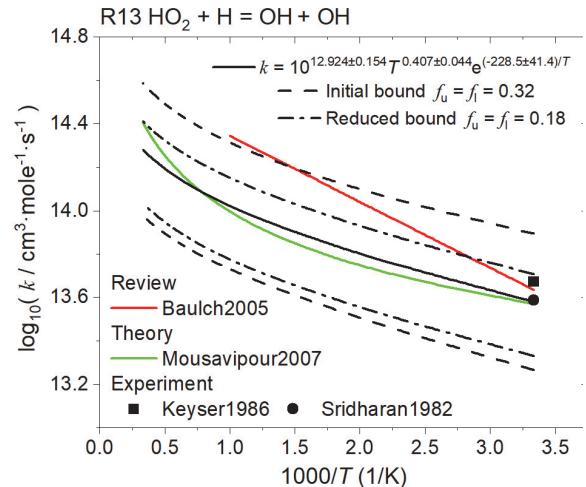
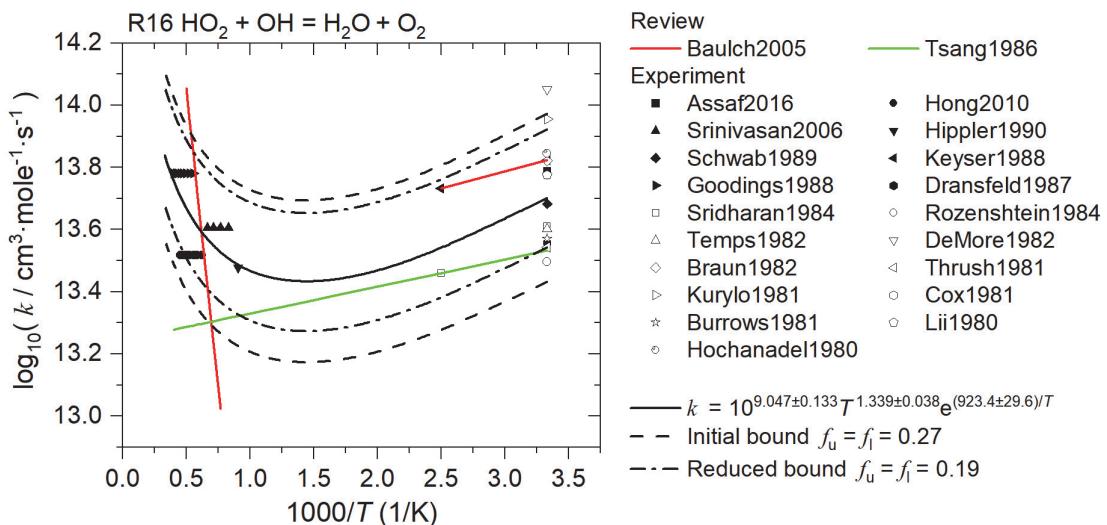


Fig. S1-6. (R7) $\text{H}_2 + \text{OH} = \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{H}$ [54, 86, 154, 158, 182-197]

**Fig. S1-7. (R8) $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{H} = \text{HO}_2 + \text{H}_2$ [86, 124, 198-200]****Fig. S1-8. (R12) $\text{HO}_2 + \text{H} = \text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2$ [86, 199, 201-204]****Fig. S1-9. (R13) $\text{HO}_2 + \text{H} = \text{OH} + \text{OH}$ [86, 201, 203, 204]****Fig. S1-10. (R16) $\text{HO}_2 + \text{OH} = \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{O}_2$ [86, 124, 163, 205-222]**

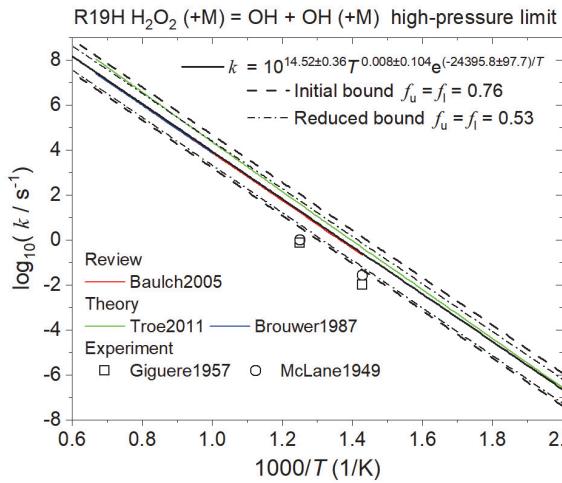


Fig. S1-11. (R19H) H_2O_2 (+M) = OH + OH (+M) high-pressure limit [86, 223-226]

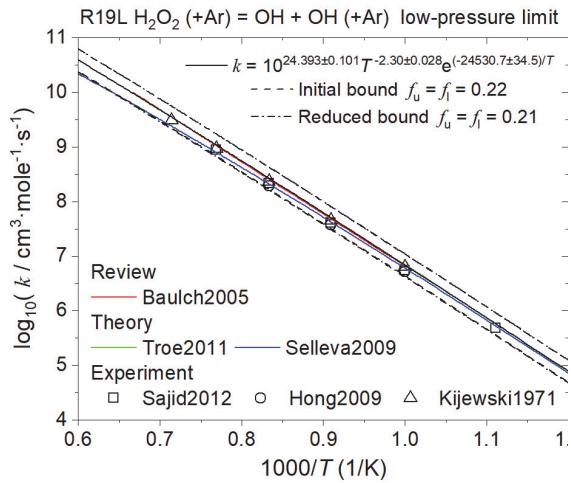


Fig. S1-12. (R19L) H_2O_2 (+Ar) = OH + OH (+Ar) low-pressure limit [86, 223, 227-229]

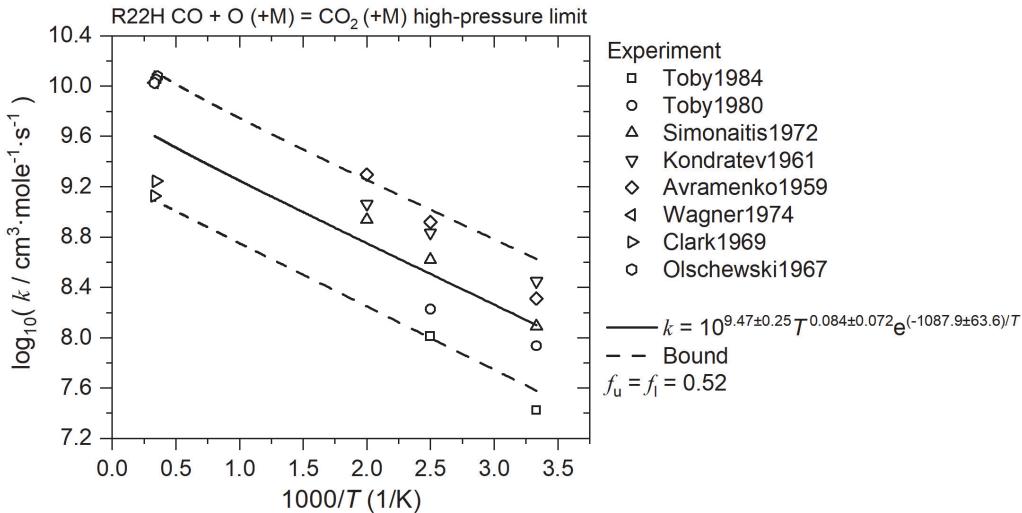


Fig. S1-13. (R22H) $\text{CO} + \text{O}$ (+M) = CO_2 (+M) high-pressure limit [1-8]

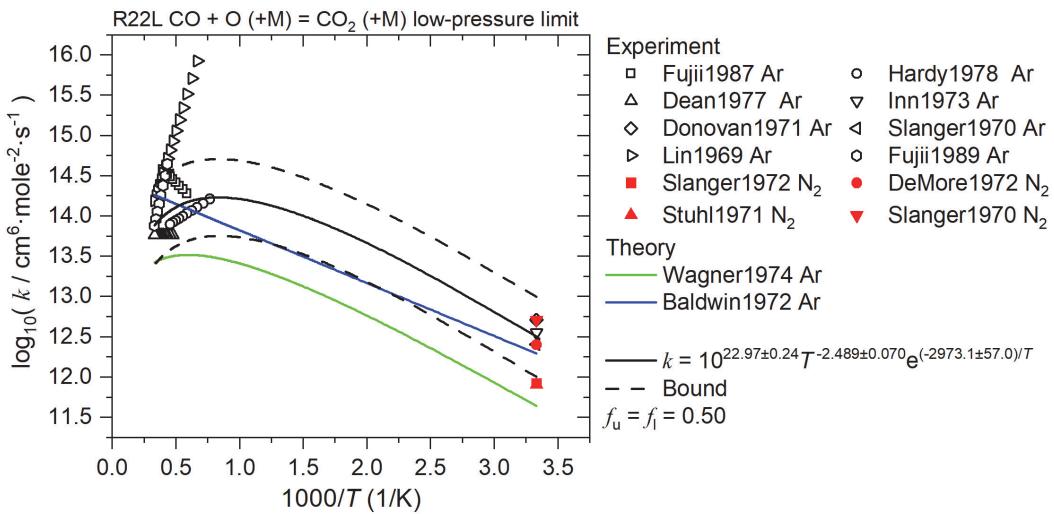
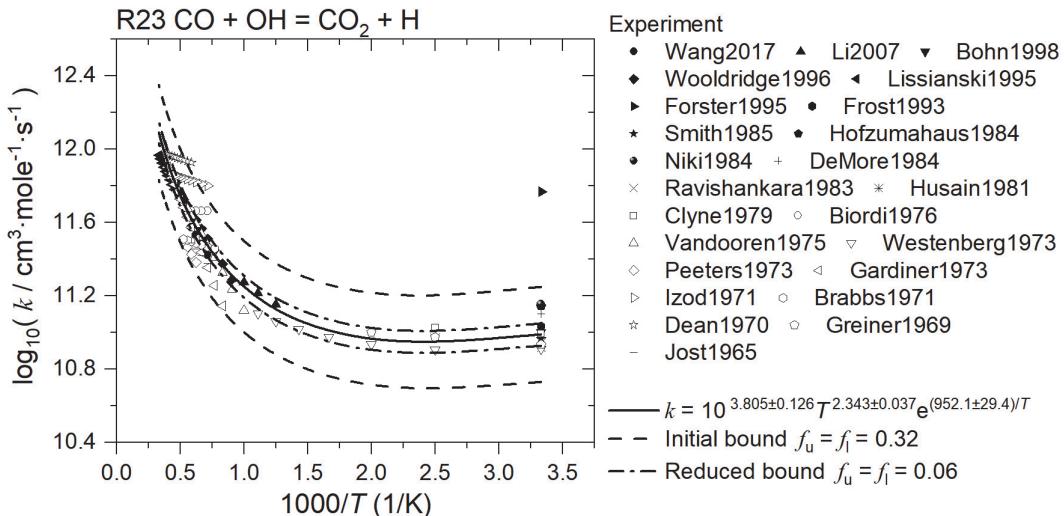
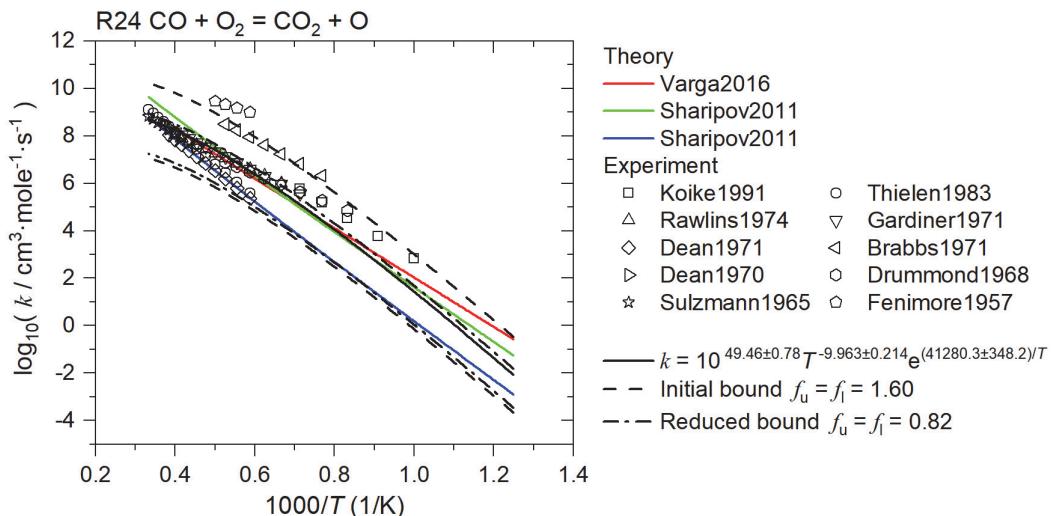
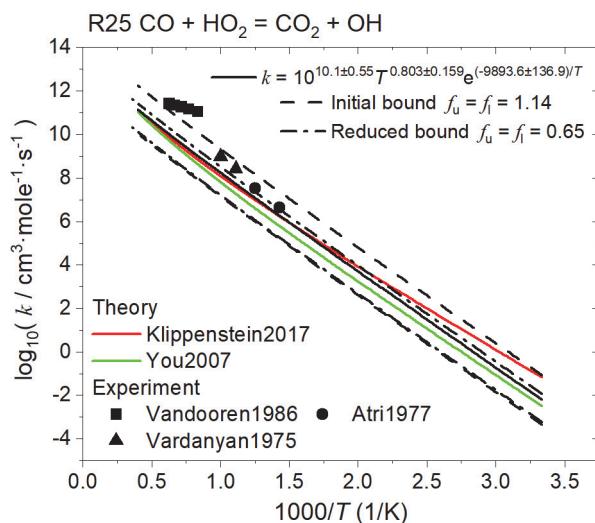


Fig. S1-14. (R22L) $\text{CO} + \text{O}$ (+M) = CO_2 (+M) low-pressure limit [6, 9, 13, 14, 16, 17, 19, 20, 22, 23]

Fig. S1-15. (R23) CO + OH = CO₂ + H [34-57]Fig. S1-16. (R24) CO + O₂ = CO₂ + O [54, 55, 62-69]Fig. S1-17. (R25) CO + HO₂ = CO₂ + OH [72-76]

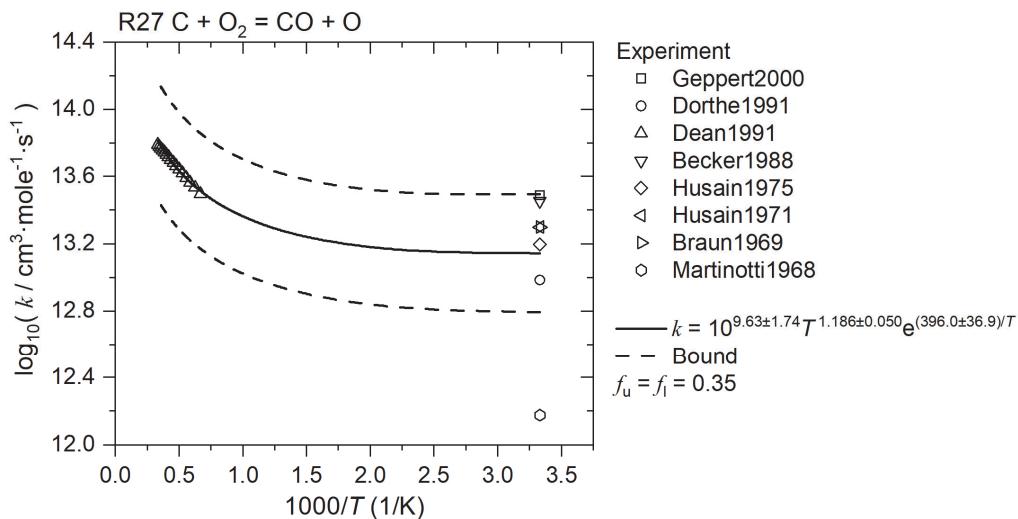
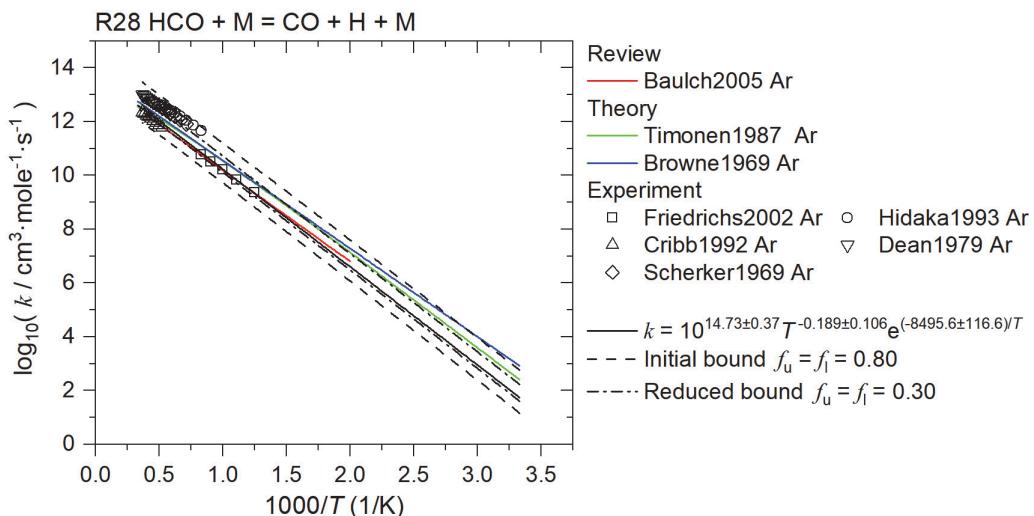
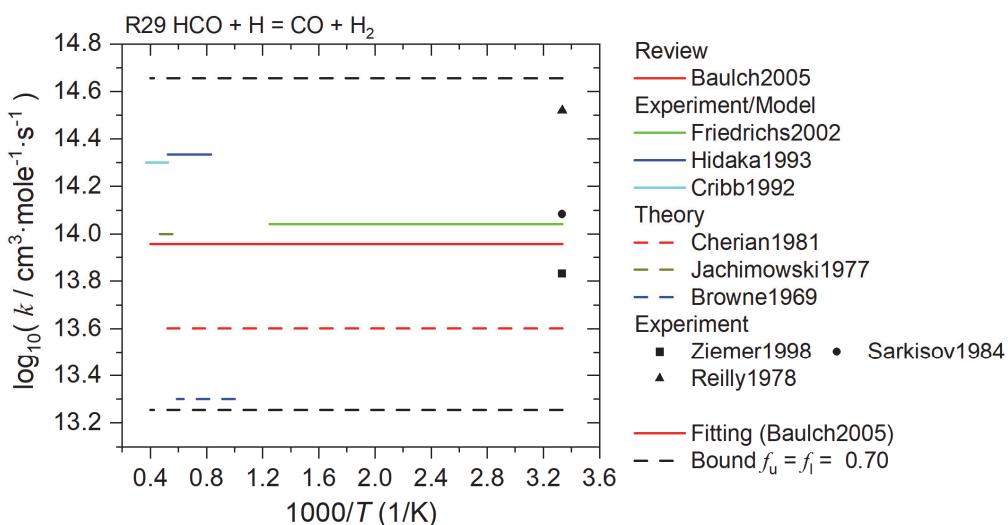
Fig. S1-18. (R27) C + O₂ = CO + O [78-85]

Fig. S1-19. (R28) HCO + M = H + CO + M [86, 89-92, 94, 95]

Fig. S1-20. (R29) HCO + H = CO + H₂ [86, 89-91, 95, 100-104]

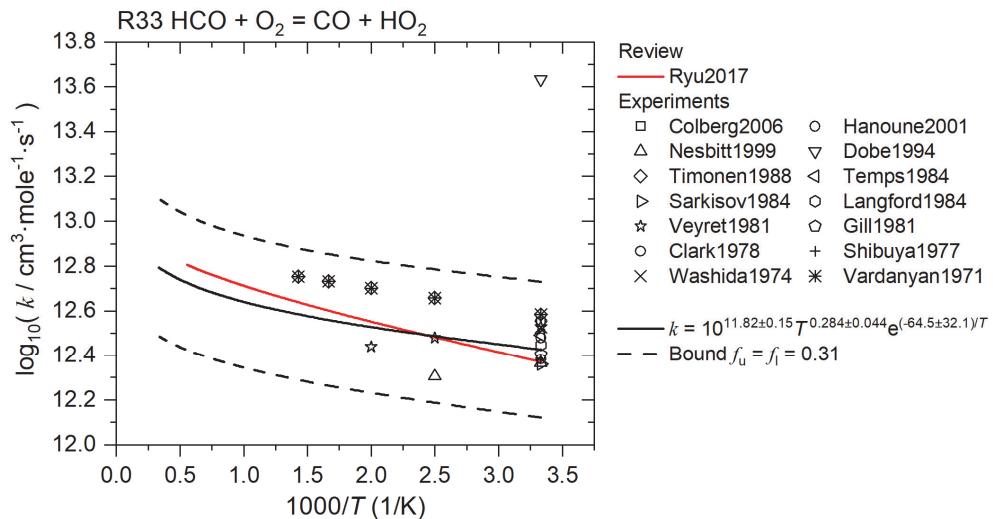
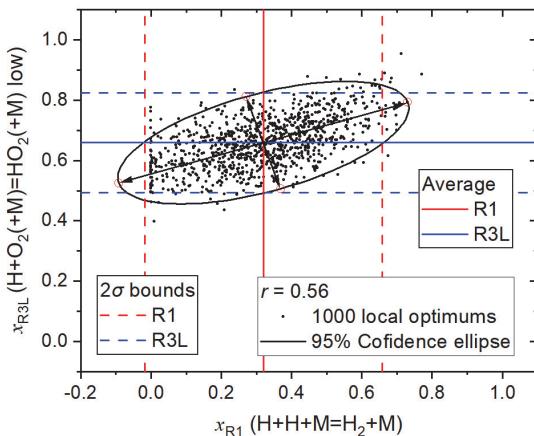
Fig. S1-21. (R33) $\text{HCO} + \text{O}_2 = \text{CO} + \text{HO}_2$ [74, 86, 101, 102, 105-107, 109-123]

Fig. S1-22. R1-R3L

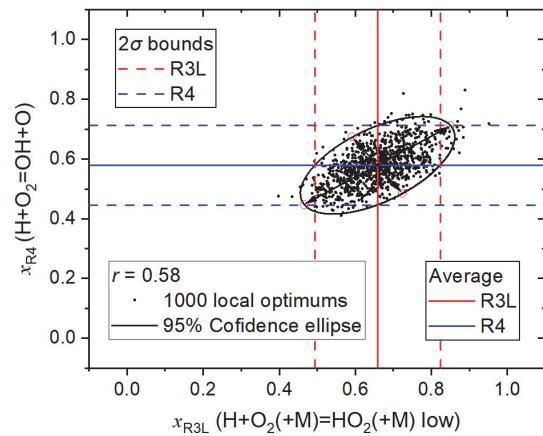


Fig. S1-23. R3L-R4

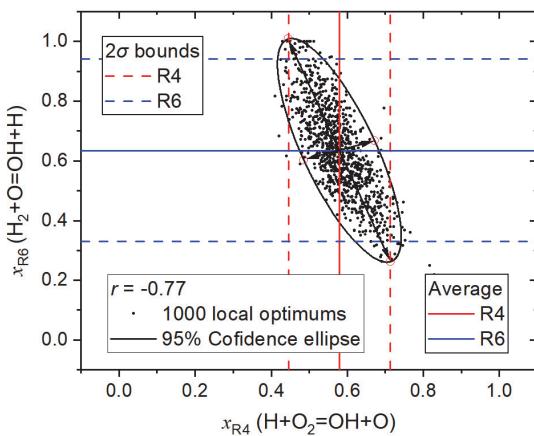


Fig. S1-24. R4-R6

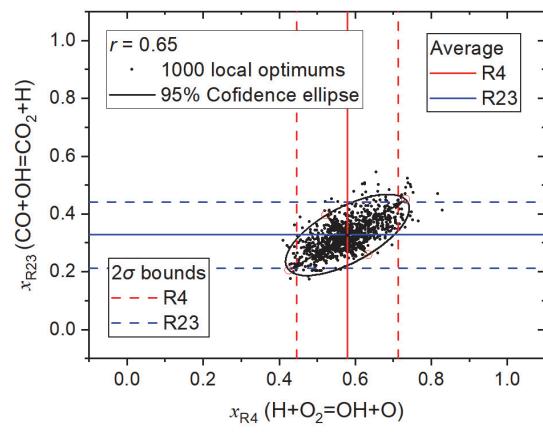
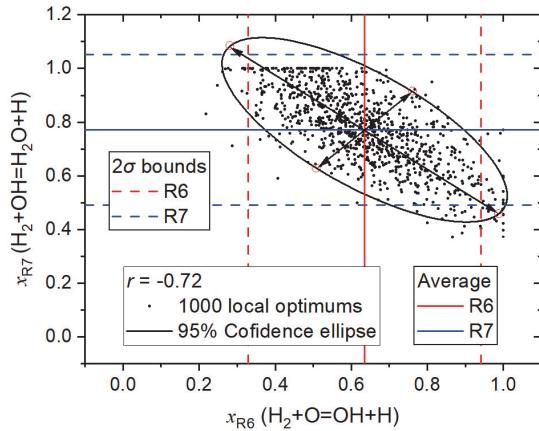
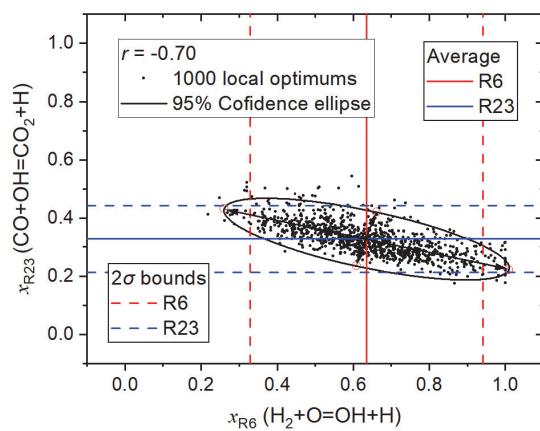
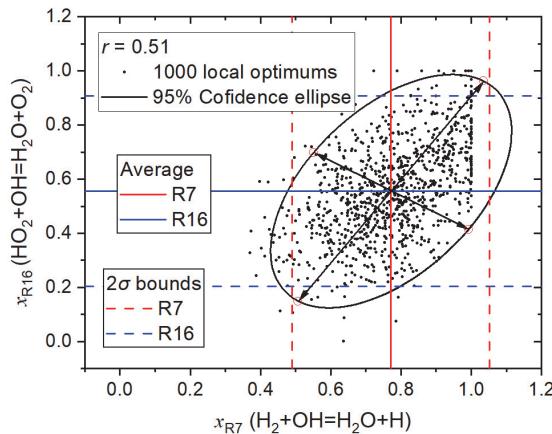
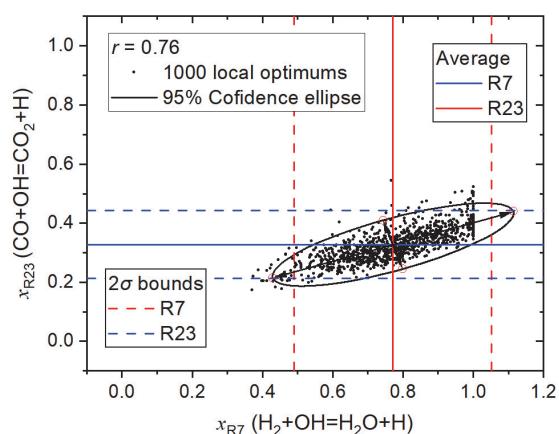
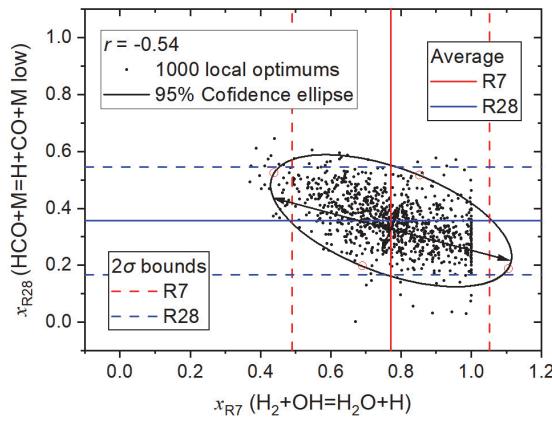
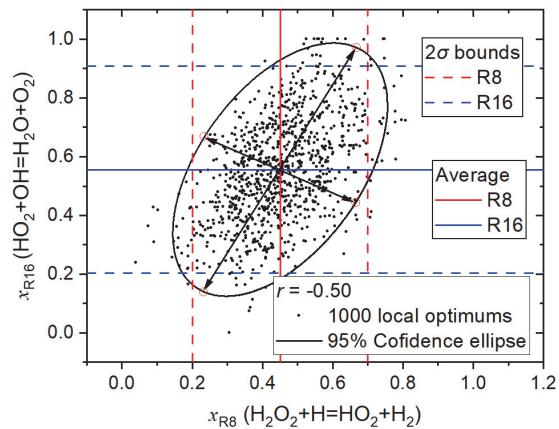


Fig. S1-25. R4-R23

**Fig. S1-26. R6-R7****Fig. S1-27. R6-R23****Fig. S1-28. R7-R16****Fig. S1-29. R7-R23****Fig. S1-30. R7-R28****Fig. S1-31. R8-R16**

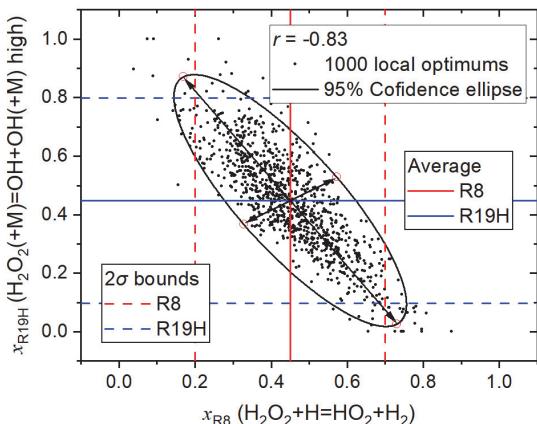


Fig. S1-32. R8-R19H

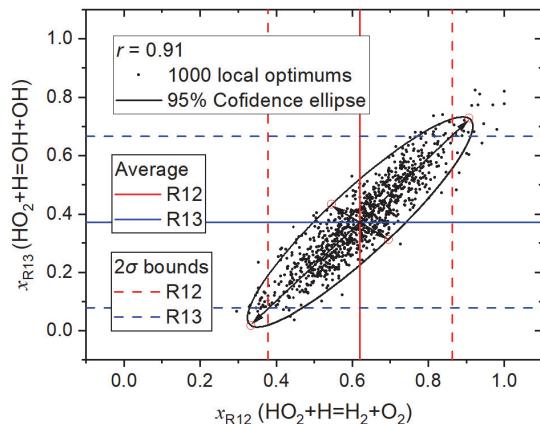


Fig. S1-33. R12-R13

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Supplementary Material-2

A Joint Hydrogen and Syngas Chemical Kinetic Model Optimized by Particle Swarm Optimization

Hongxin Wang¹, Chenyi Sun¹, Oskar Haidn¹, Askarova Aliya³, Chiara Manfletti¹, Nadezda Slavinskaya^{2,3}

1. Lehrstuhl für Raumfahrtantriebe, Technical University of Munich, 85748 Garching, Germany

2. Gesellschaft fur Anlagen-und Reaktorsicherheit GmbH, 85748 Garching, Germany

3. Al-Farabi Kazakh National University, 050040 Almaty, Kazakhstan

Results simulated with the final model.

Fig. S2-1. Ignition delay times of H₂/O₂/Ar mixtures measured in the shock tube by Hu et al. [1] and Zhang et al. [2]. 3

Fig. S2-2. Ignition delay times of H₂/O₂/Ar mixtures measured in the shock tube by Petersen et al. [3]. 3

Fig. S2-3. Ignition delay times of H₂/O₂/Ar mixtures measured in the shock tubes by Ninnemann et al. [4] and Pang et al. [5]. 4

Fig. S2-4. Ignition delay times of H₂/O₂/Ar mixtures measured in the shock tube by Shao et al. [6]. ... 4

Fig. S2-5. Ignition delay times of H₂/CO/O₂/Ar mixtures measured in the shock tube by He et al. [7]. 4

Fig. S2-6. Ignition delay times of H₂/CO/O₂/Ar mixtures measured in the shock tube by Krejci et al. [8]. 5

Fig. S2-7. Ignition delay times of H₂/O₂/Ar mixtures measured in the shock tube by Keromnes et al. [9]. 6

Fig. S2-8. Ignition delay times of H₂/CO/O₂/N₂/Ar mixtures measured in the shock tube by Keromnes et al. [9]. 7

Fig. S2-9. Ignition delay times of H₂/CO/O₂/Ar mixtures measured in the shock tube by Herzler et al. [10]. 7

Fig. S2-10. Laminar flame speeds of H₂/air mixtures measured at T_u = 300±2 K and p = 1 atm [8, 11-28]. 8

Fig. S2-11. Laminar flame speeds of H₂/air mixtures (T_u = 303-443 K, p = 1-10 bar) at variable pressures and unburned temperatures measured by (a) Bradley et al. [18] and (b) Hu et al. [26]. 8

Fig. S2-12. Laminar flame speeds of H₂/O₂/N₂/Ar/He mixtures (T_u = 298 K, p = 1 atm) measured by Kwon et al. [23]. 8

Fig. S2-13. Laminar flame speeds of (a) H₂/O₂/He mixtures (T_u = 298 K, p = 1-5 atm) measured by Tse et al. [22] (b) H₂/O₂/N₂/H₂O mixtures (T_u = 363-413 K, p = 1 atm) measured by Grossevres et al. [29]. 9

Fig. S2-14. Laminar flame speeds of H₂/CO/air mixtures (T_u = 300±2 K, p = 1 atm): (a) H₂:CO = 50:50 [12, 30-42]; (b) H₂:CO = 25:75 [31, 34, 36, 43]; (c) H₂:CO = 10:90 [12, 31, 39, 43]; (d) H₂:CO = 5:95 [30, 31, 33, 34, 36, 40, 43, 44]. 9

Fig. S2- 15. Laminar flame speeds of H₂/CO/CO₂/air mixtures ($T_u = 300 \pm 2$ K, $p = 1$ atm) measured by (a) H₂:CO:CO₂ = 40:40:20 [33, 40, 45, 46]; (b) H₂:CO:CO₂ = 30:30:40 [40, 41, 44, 47].	10
Fig. S2-16. Laminar flame speeds of H₂/CO/N₂/CO₂/air mixtures ($T_u = 302$ K, $p = 1$ bar) measured by Prathap et al. [35, 48].	10
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Fig. S2-20 Laminar flame speeds of H₂/CO/H₂O/air mixtures ($T_u = 323$ K, $p = 1$ atm) measured by Das et al. [50].	11
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Fig. S2-25 Laminar flame speeds of H₂/CO/N₂/CO₂/air mixtures ($T_u = 298$ K, $p = 1$ atm) measured by Li et al. [41].	14
Fig. S2-26. Concentration profiles of H₂, H₂O, CO, and CO₂ measured in the jet stirred reactor by Le Cong and Dagaut et al [53, 54].	15
Fig. S2-27. Concentration profiles of H₂, O₂, and CO measured in the plug flow reactors by Hashemi and Glarborg et al. [55, 56].	16
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Fig. S2-29. Concentration profiles measured in the premixed laminar flame by Knyazkov et al [59].	17

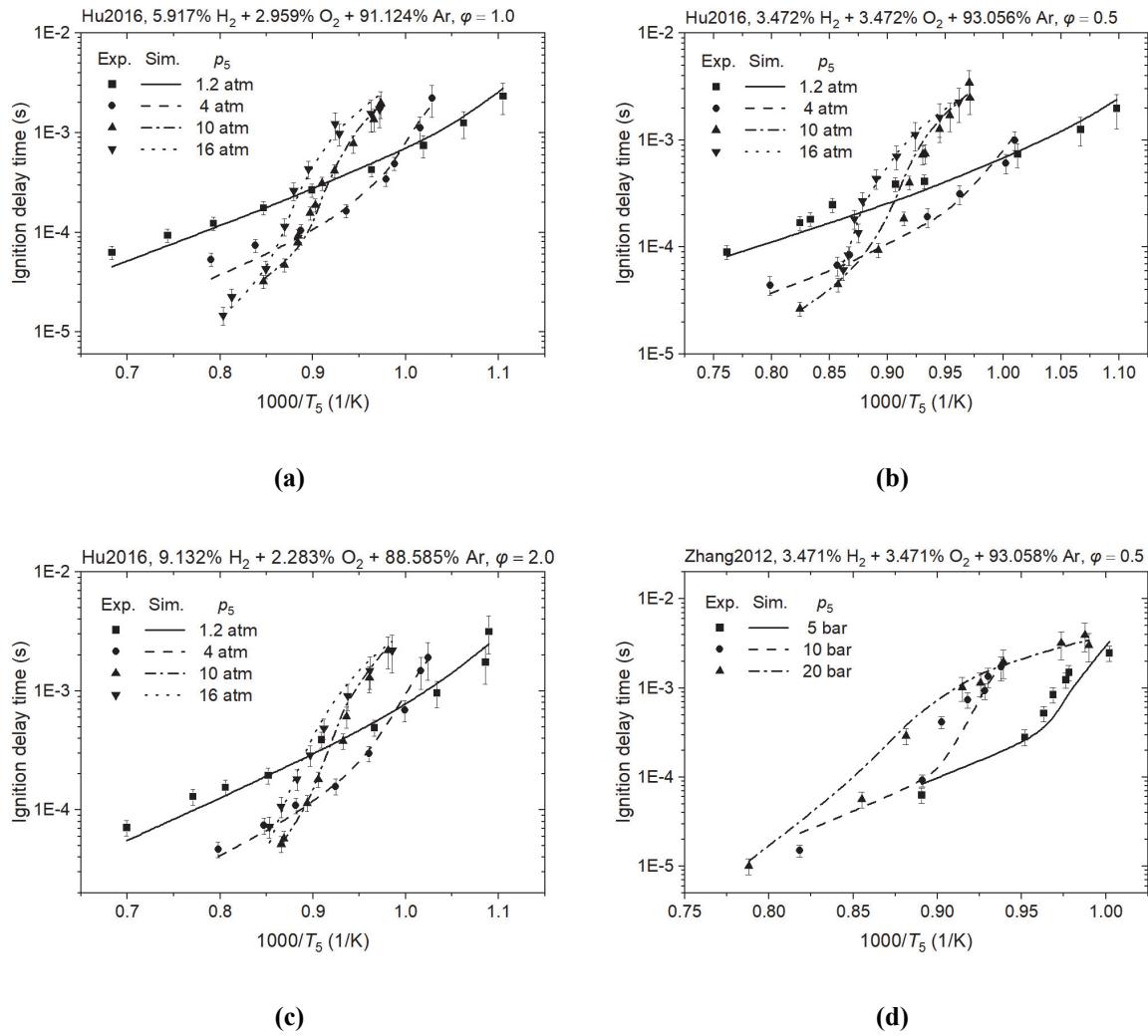


Fig. S2-1. Ignition delay times of H₂/O₂/Ar mixtures measured in the shock tube by Hu et al. [1] and Zhang et al. [2].

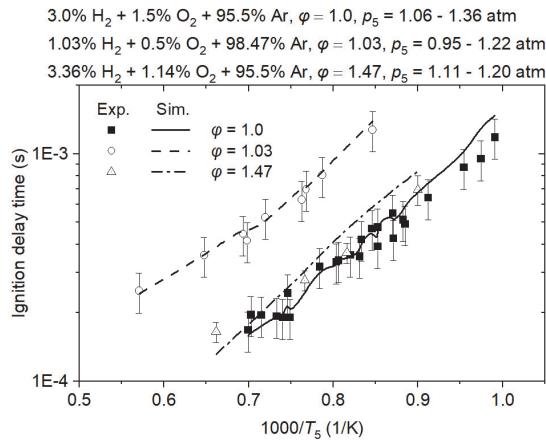


Fig. S2-2. Ignition delay times of H₂/O₂/Ar mixtures measured in the shock tube by Petersen et al. [3].

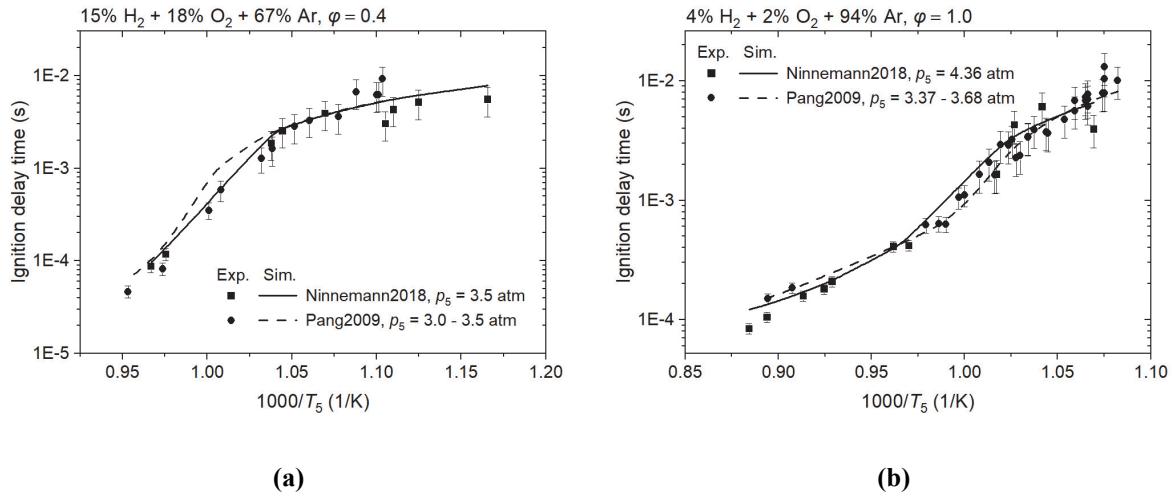


Fig. S2-3. Ignition delay times of $\text{H}_2/\text{O}_2/\text{Ar}$ mixtures measured in the shock tubes by Ninnemann et al. [4] and Pang et al. [5].

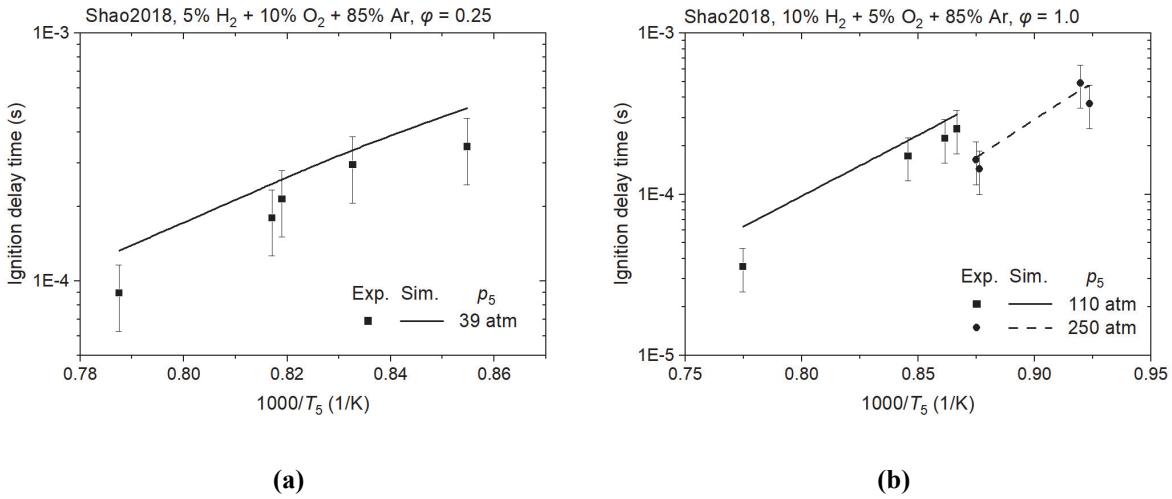


Fig. S2-4. Ignition delay times of $\text{H}_2/\text{O}_2/\text{Ar}$ mixtures measured in the shock tube by Shao et al. [6].

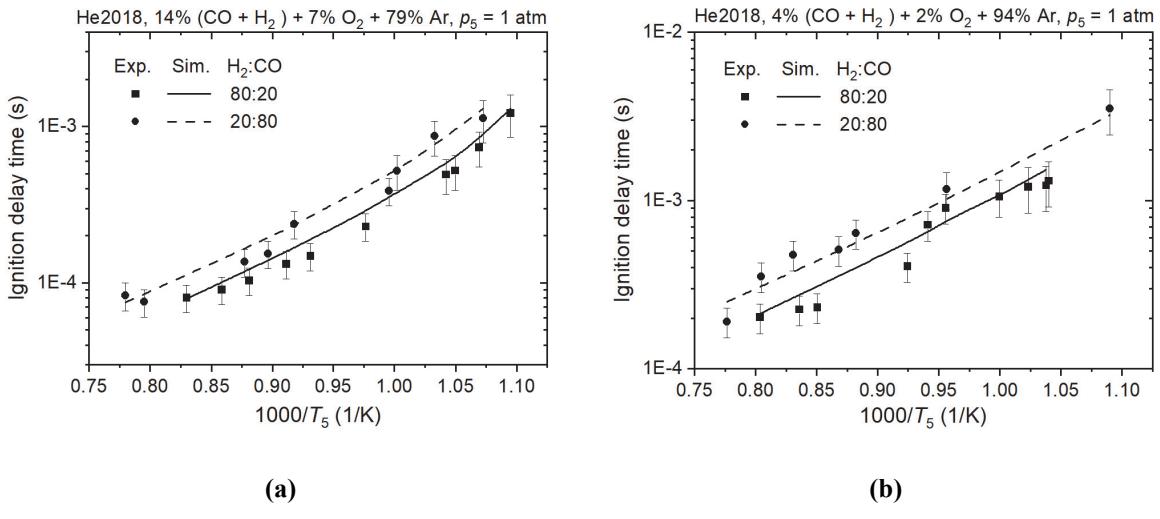


Fig. S2-5. Ignition delay times of $\text{H}_2/\text{CO}/\text{O}_2/\text{Ar}$ mixtures measured in the shock tube by He et al. [7].

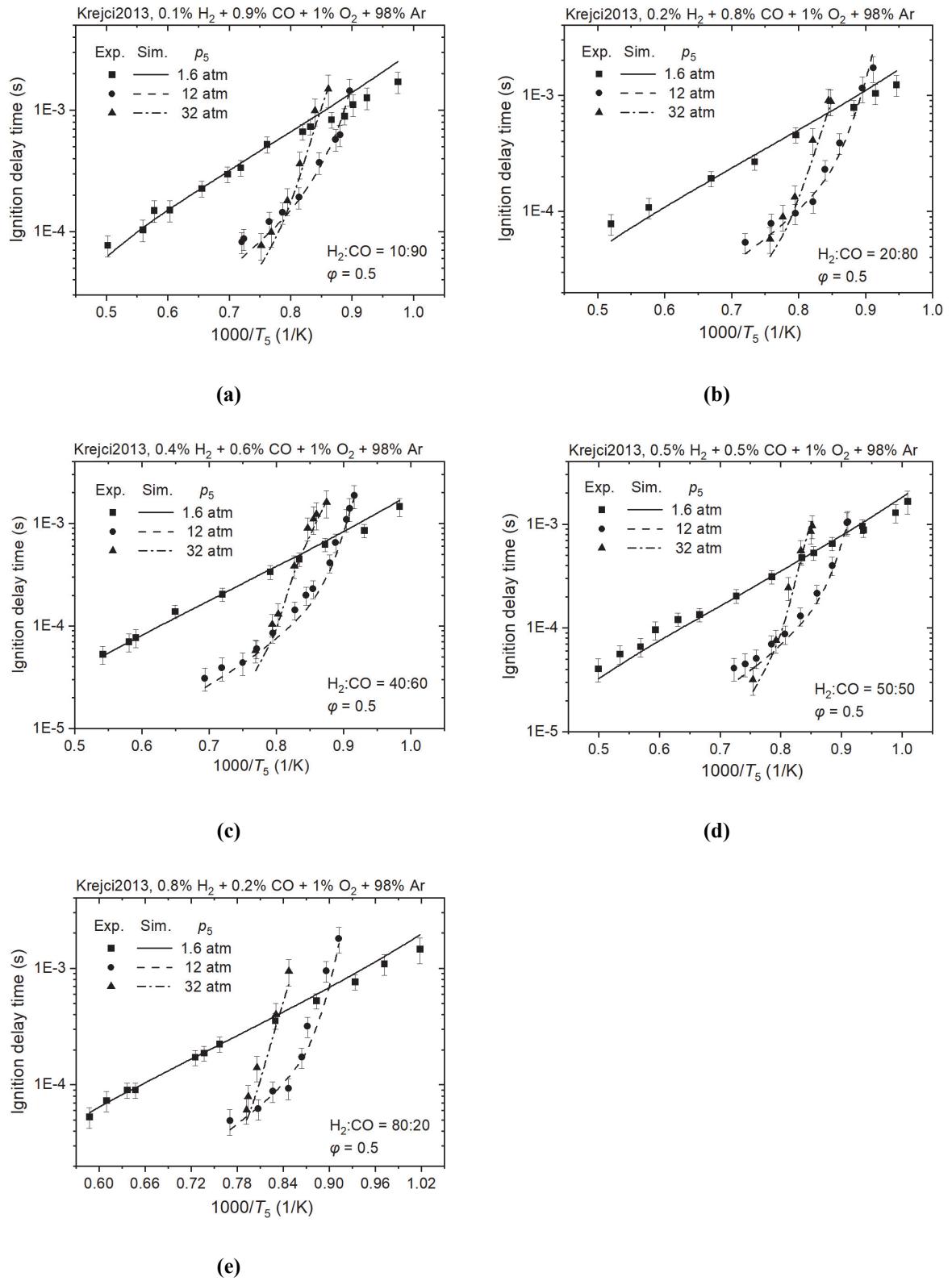


Fig. S2-6. Ignition delay times of $\text{H}_2/\text{CO}/\text{O}_2/\text{Ar}$ mixtures measured in the shock tube by Krejci et al. [8].

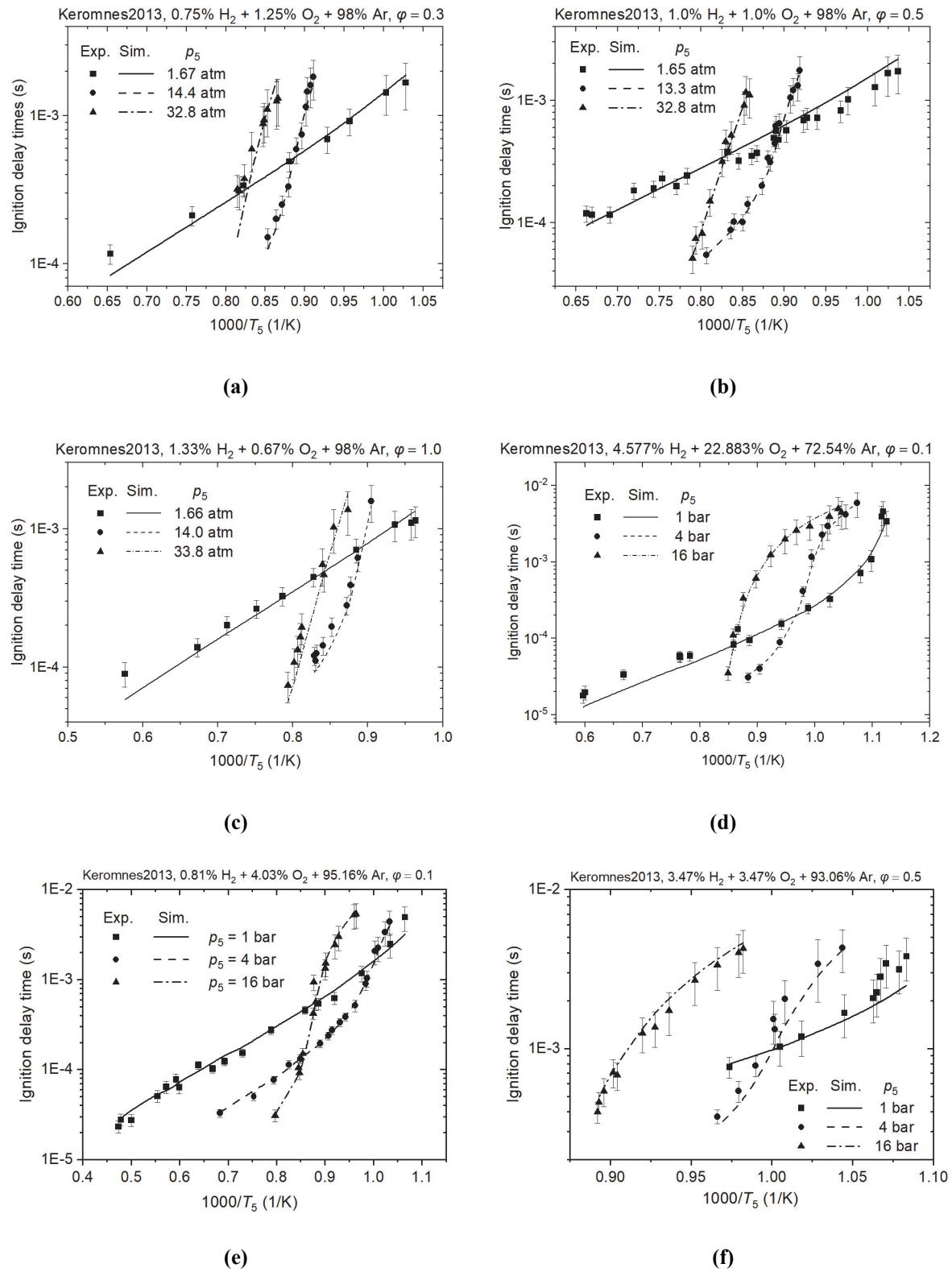


Fig. S2-7. Ignition delay times of $\text{H}_2/\text{O}_2/\text{Ar}$ mixtures measured in the shock tube by Keromnes et al. [9].

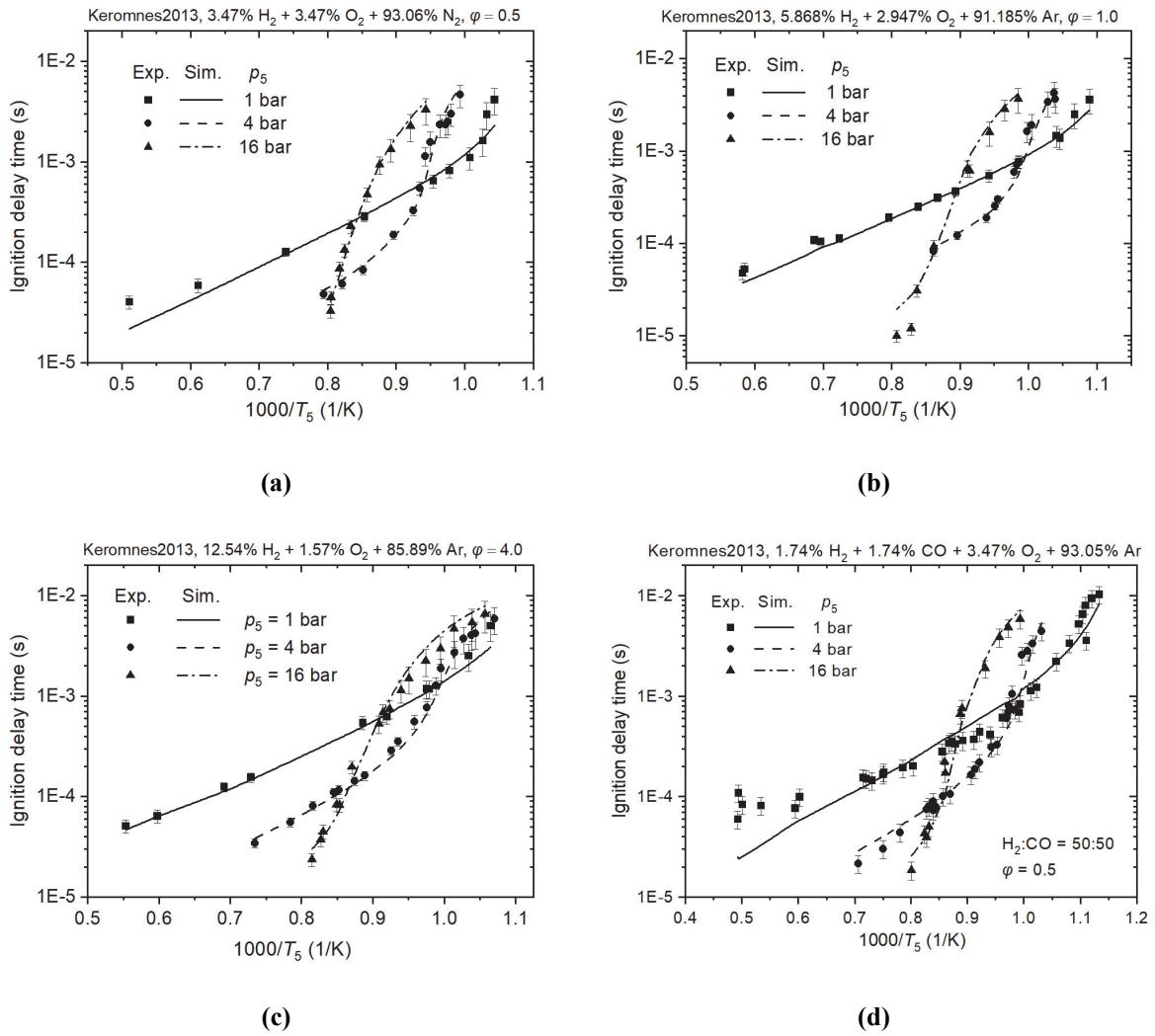


Fig. S2-8. Ignition delay times of $\text{H}_2/\text{CO}/\text{O}_2/\text{N}_2/\text{Ar}$ mixtures measured in the shock tube by Keromnes et al. [9].

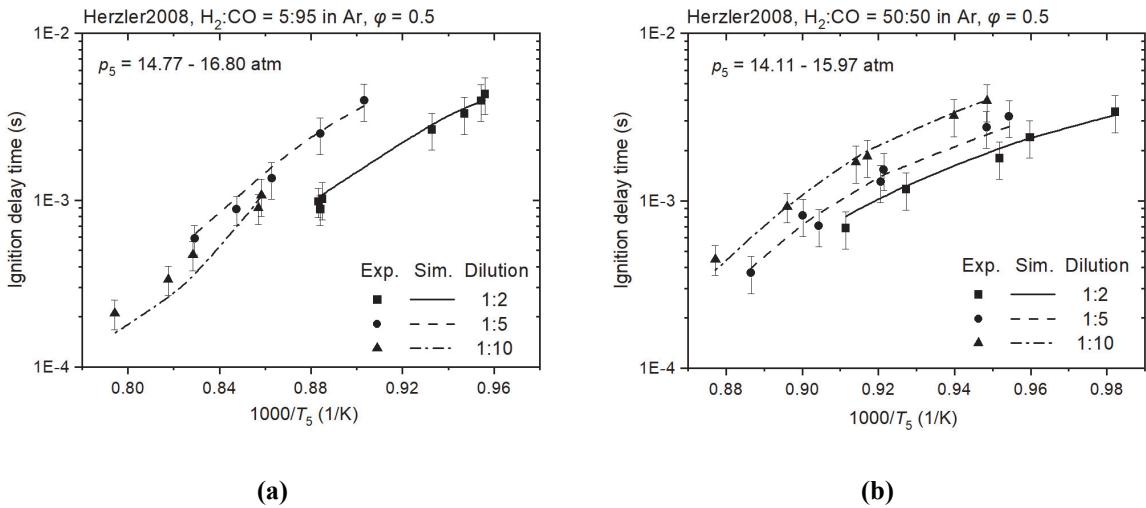


Fig. S2-9. Ignition delay times of $\text{H}_2/\text{CO}/\text{O}_2/\text{Ar}$ mixtures measured in the shock tube by Herzler et al. [10].

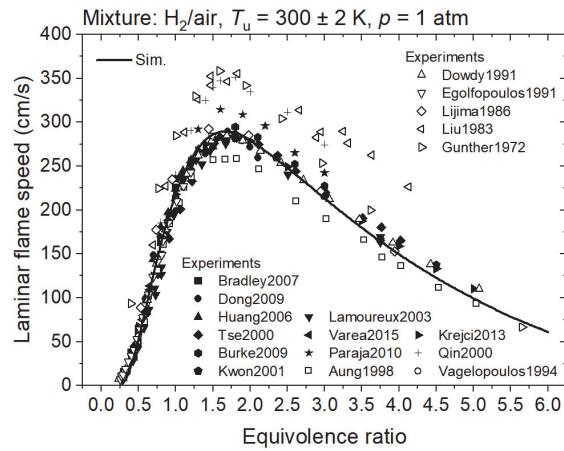


Fig. S2-10. Laminar flame speeds of H₂/air mixtures measured at $T_u = 300 \pm 2$ K and $p = 1$ atm [8, 11-28].

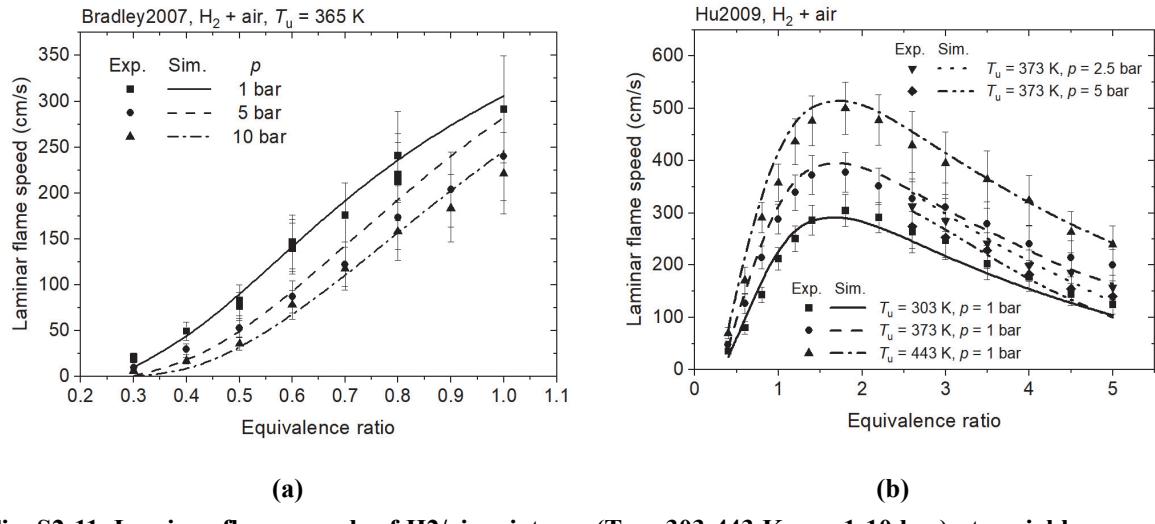


Fig. S2-11. Laminar flame speeds of H₂/air mixtures ($T_u = 303$ -443 K, $p = 1$ -10 bar) at variable pressures and unburned temperatures measured by (a) Bradley et al. [18] and (b) Hu et al. [26].

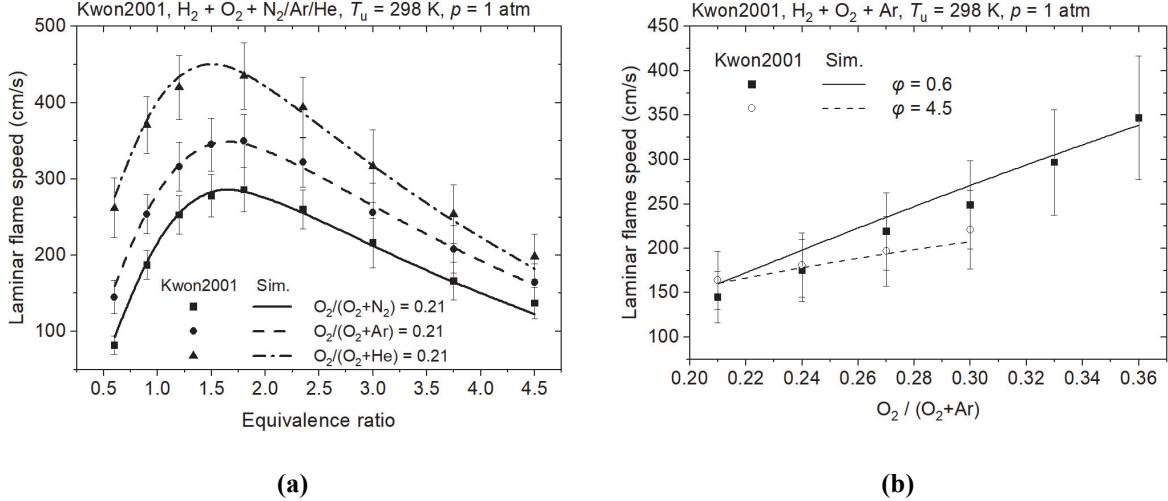


Fig. S2-12. Laminar flame speeds of H₂/O₂/N₂/Ar/He mixtures ($T_u = 298$ K, $p = 1$ atm) measured by Kwon et al. [23].

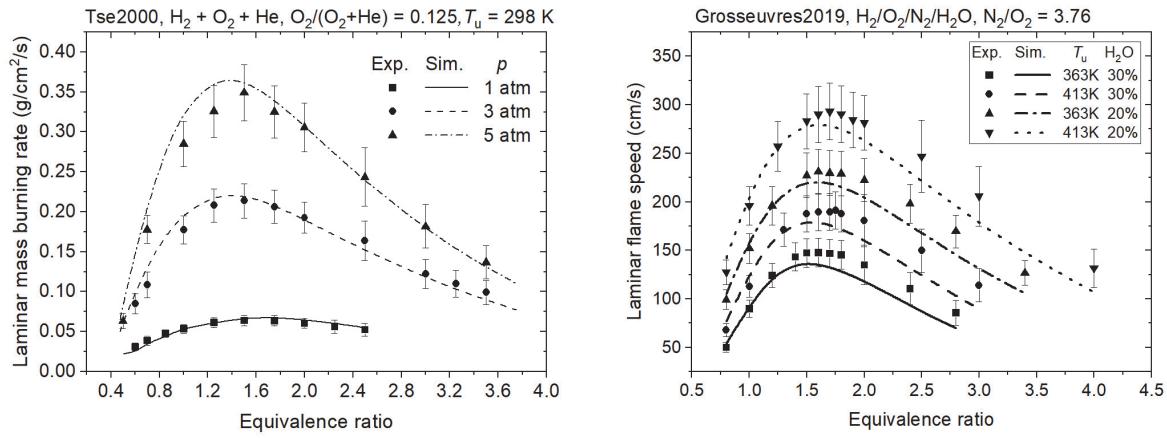


Fig. S2-13. Laminar flame speeds of (a) H₂/O₂/He mixtures ($T_u = 298$ K, $p = 1-5$ atm) measured by Tse et al. [22] (b) H₂/O₂/N₂/H₂O mixtures ($T_u = 363-413$ K, $p = 1$ atm) measured by Grossevres et al. [29].

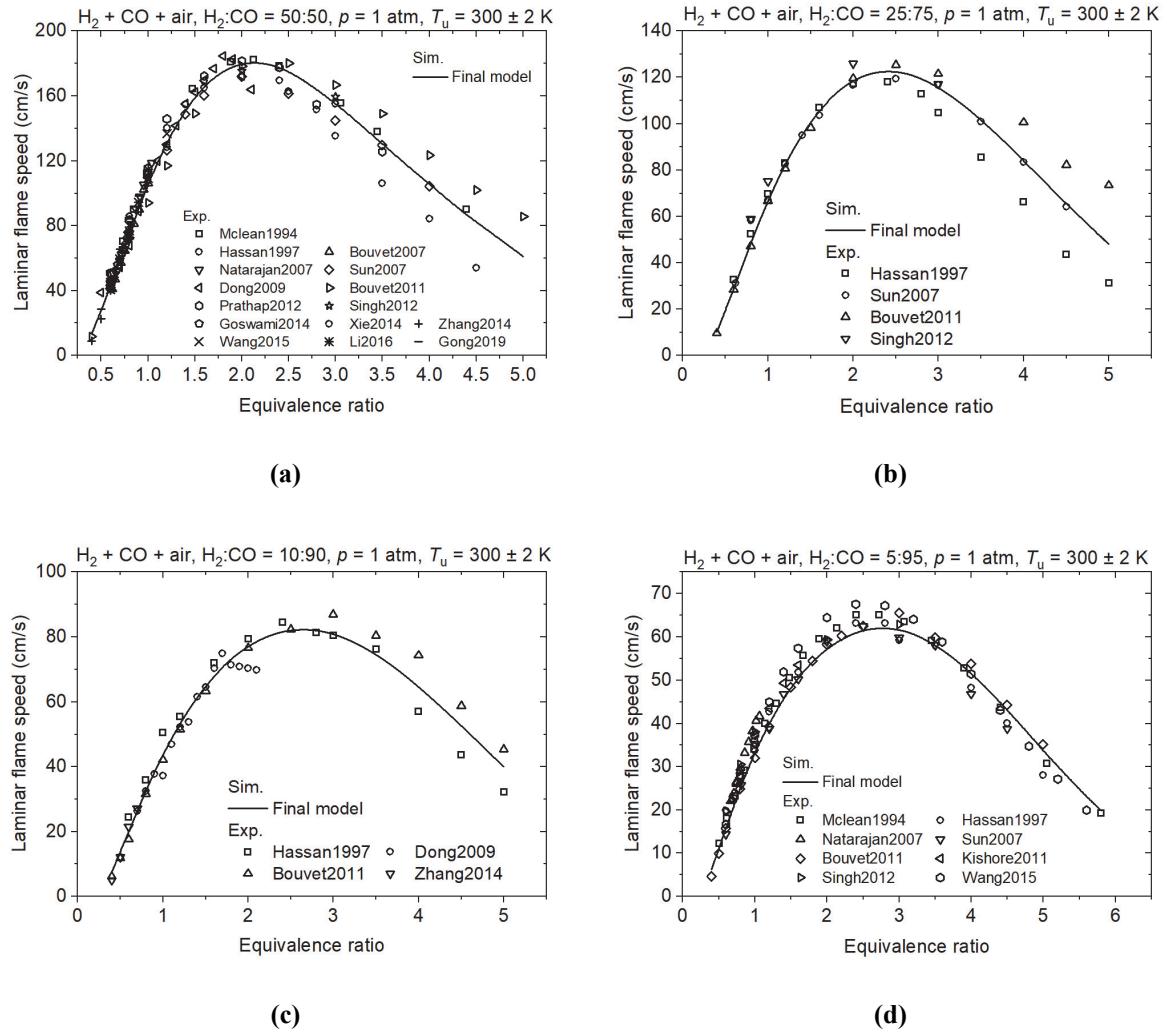


Fig. S2-14. Laminar flame speeds of H₂/CO/air mixtures ($T_u = 300 \pm 2$ K, $p = 1$ atm): (a) H₂:CO = 50:50 [12, 30-42]; (b) H₂:CO = 25:75 [31, 34, 36, 43]; (c) H₂:CO = 10:90 [12, 31, 39, 43]; (d) H₂:CO = 5:95 [30, 31, 33, 34, 36, 40, 43, 44].

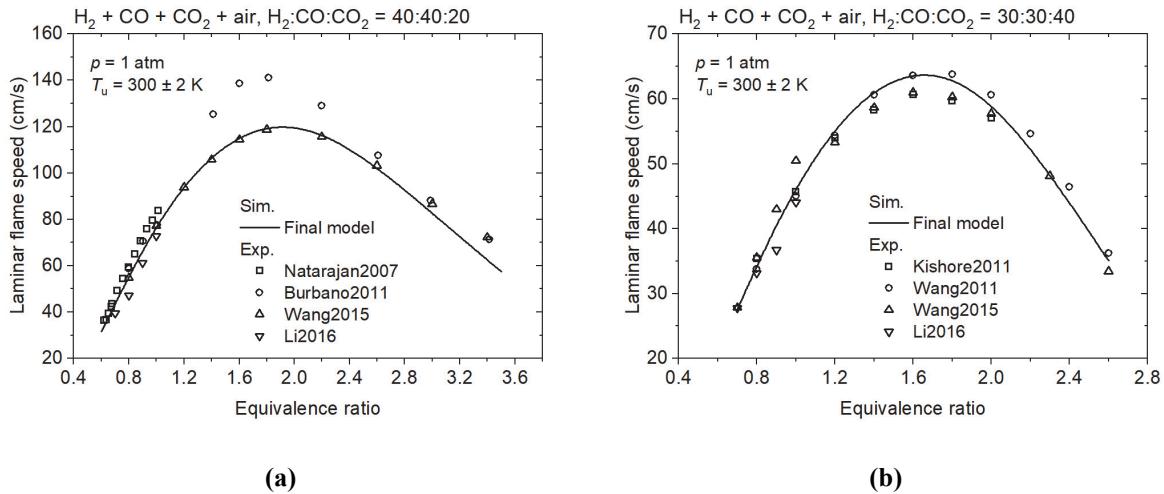


Fig. S2-15. Laminar flame speeds of $\text{H}_2/\text{CO}/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ mixtures ($T_u = 300 \pm 2 \text{ K}$, $p = 1 \text{ atm}$) measured by (a) $\text{H}_2:\text{CO}:\text{CO}_2 = 40:40:20$ [33, 40, 45, 46]; (b) $\text{H}_2:\text{CO}:\text{CO}_2 = 30:30:40$ [40, 41, 44, 47].

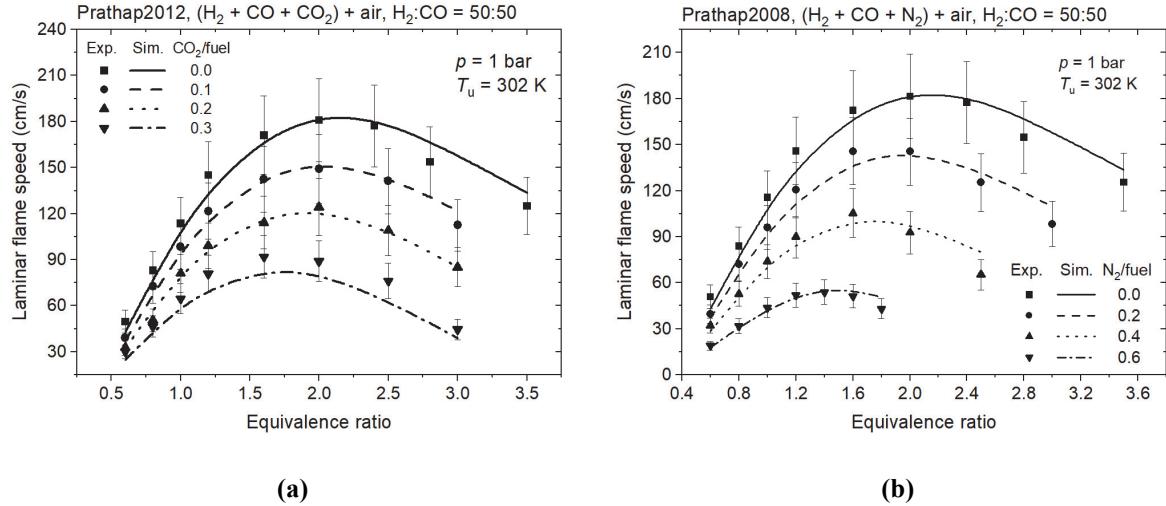


Fig. S2-16. Laminar flame speeds of $\text{H}_2/\text{CO}/\text{N}_2/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ mixtures ($T_u = 302 \text{ K}$, $p = 1 \text{ bar}$) measured by Prathap et al. [35, 48].

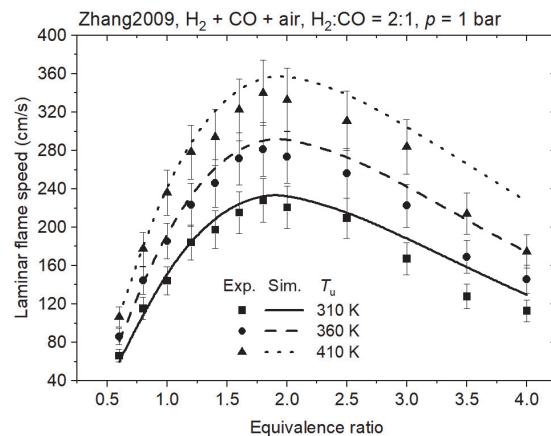


Fig. S2-17. Laminar flame speeds of $\text{H}_2/\text{CO}/\text{air}$ mixtures ($T_u = 310-410 \text{ K}$, $p = 1 \text{ bar}$) measured by Zhang et al. [49].

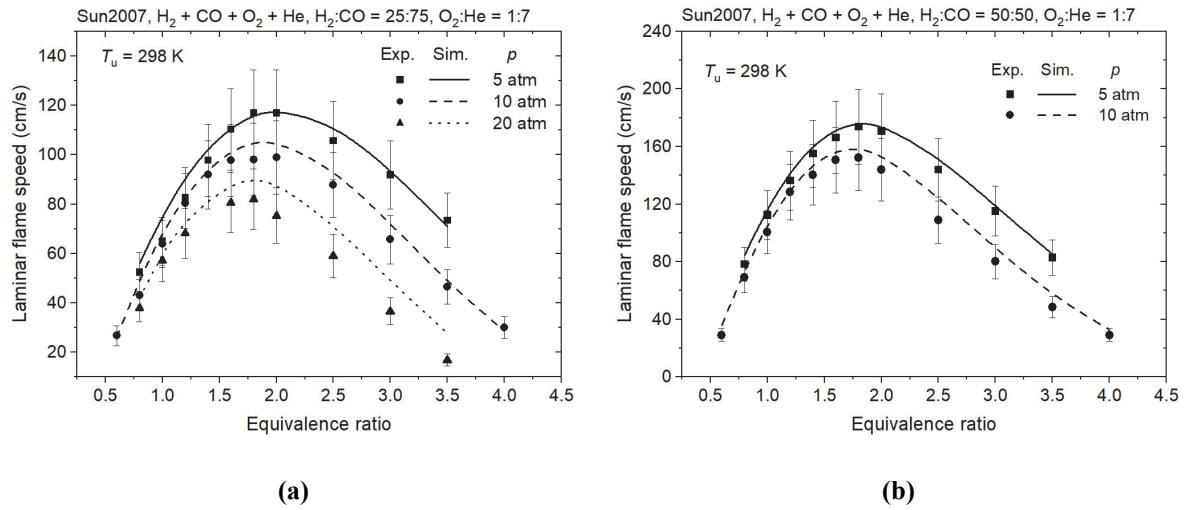


Fig. S2-18. Laminar flame speeds of H₂/CO/O₂/He mixtures (T_u = 298 K, p = 1-20 atm) measured by Sun et al. [34].

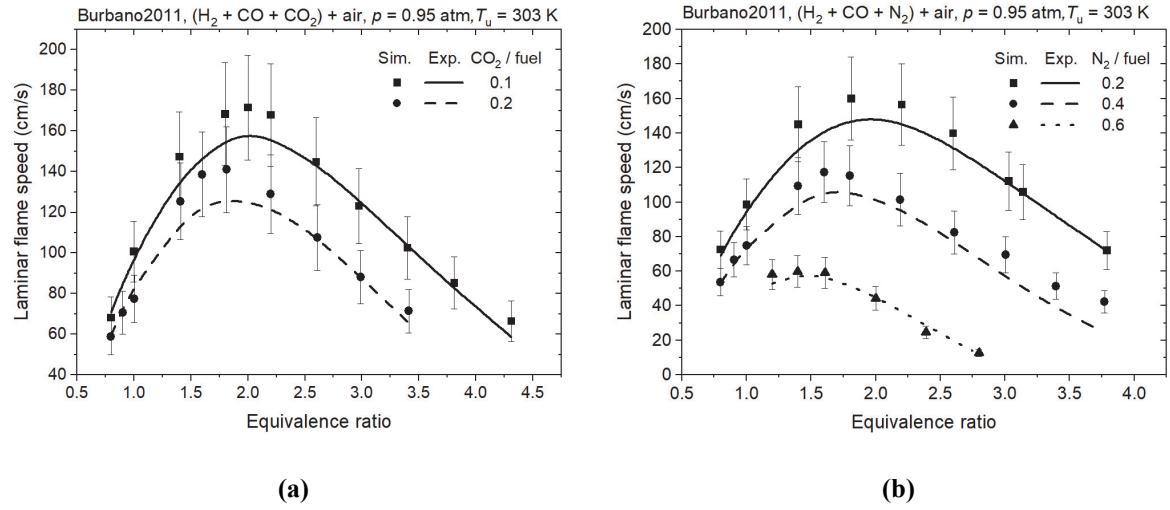


Fig. S2-19 Laminar flame speeds of H₂/CO/N₂/CO₂/air mixtures (T_u = 303 K, p = 0.95 atm) measured by Burbano et al. [45].

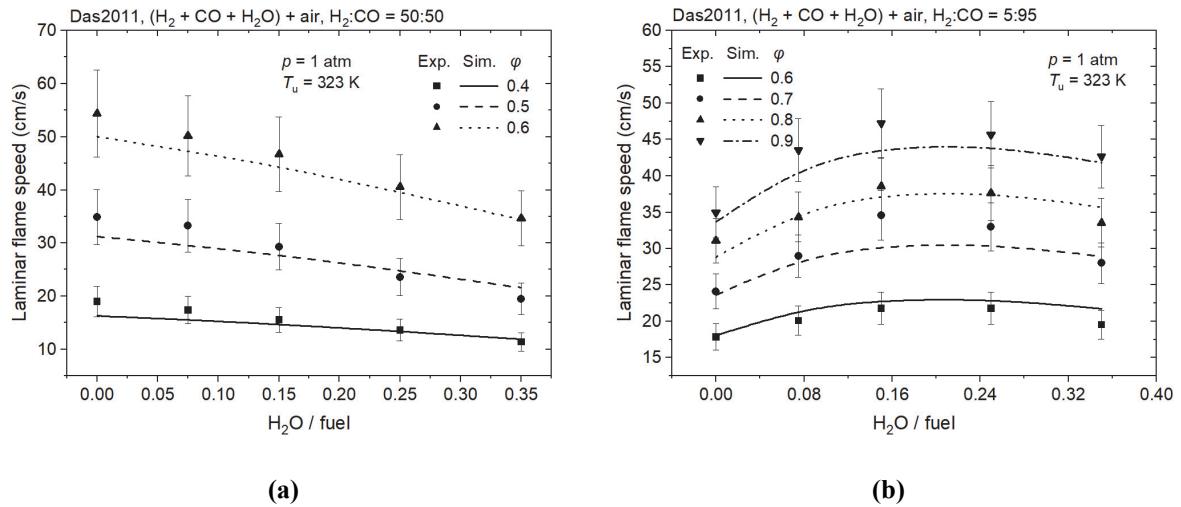


Fig. S2-20 Laminar flame speeds of H₂/CO/H₂O/air mixtures (T_u = 323 K, p = 1 atm) measured by Das et al.

[50].

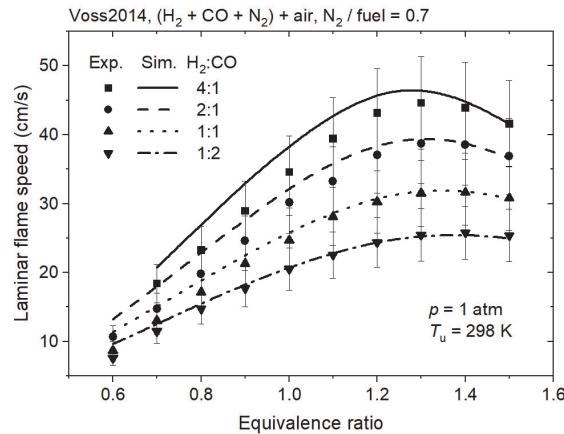


Fig. S2-21 Laminar flame speeds of $\text{H}_2/\text{CO}/\text{N}_2/\text{air}$ mixtures ($T_u = 298 \text{ K}$, $p = 1 \text{ atm}$) measured by Voss et al.

[51].

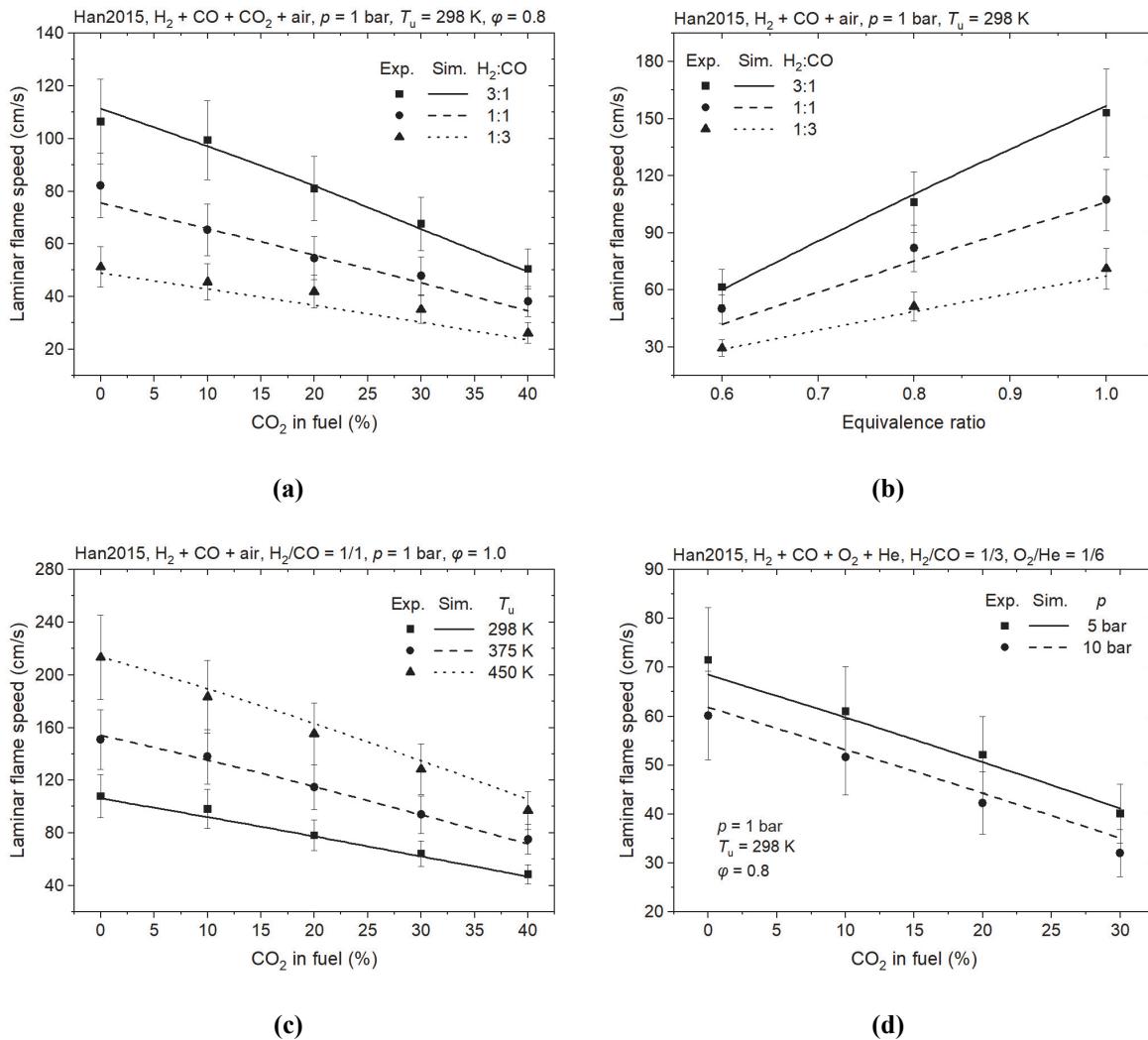


Fig. S2-22 Laminar flame speeds of $\text{H}_2/\text{CO}/\text{CO}_2/\text{O}_2/\text{He}/\text{air}$ mixtures ($T_u = 298-450 \text{ K}$, $p = 1-10 \text{ bar}$) measured by Han et al. [52].

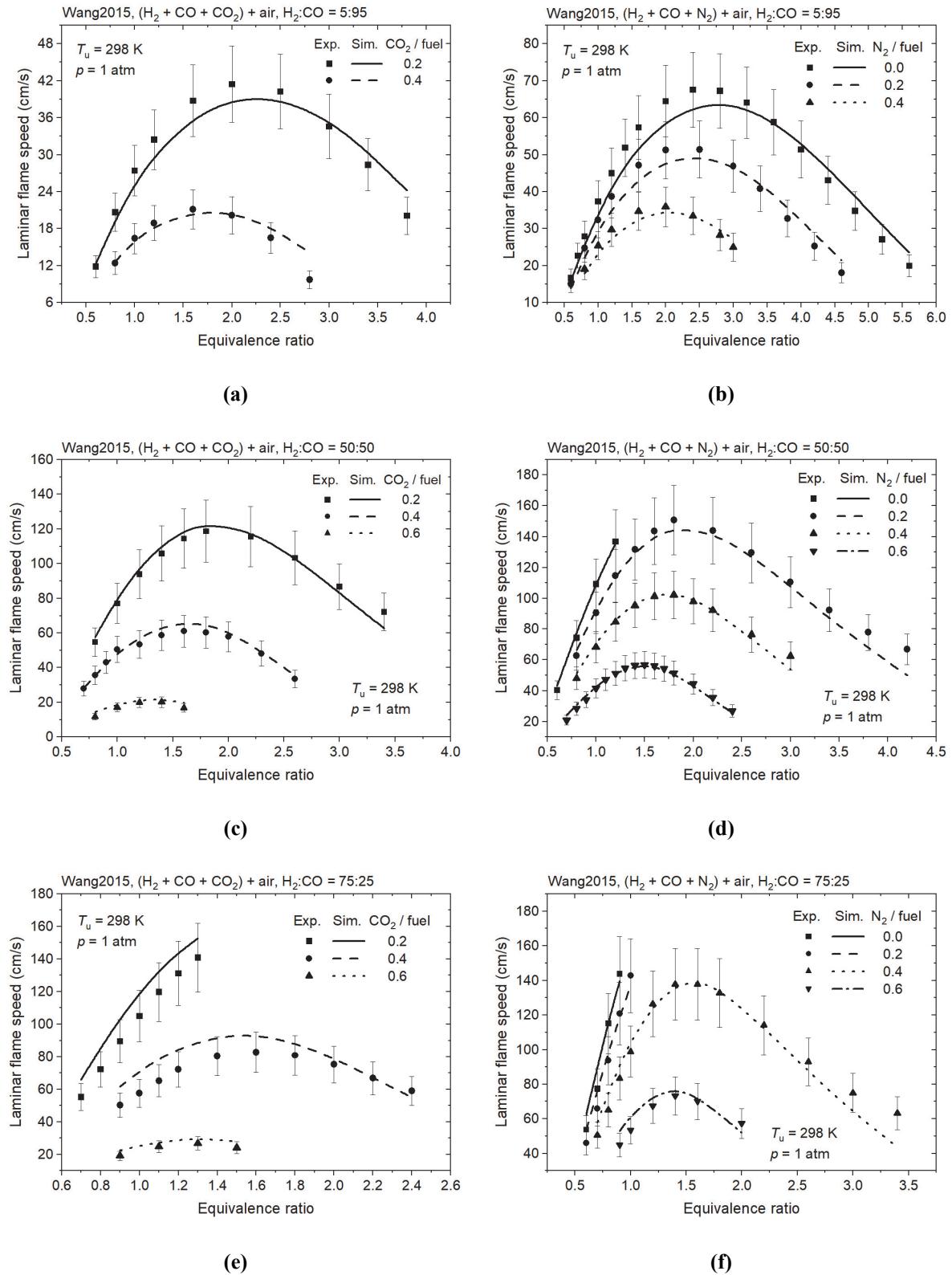


Fig. S2-23 Laminar flame speeds of $\text{H}_2/\text{CO}/\text{N}_2/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ mixtures ($T_u = 298 \text{ K}, p = 1 \text{ atm}$) measured by Wang et al. [40].

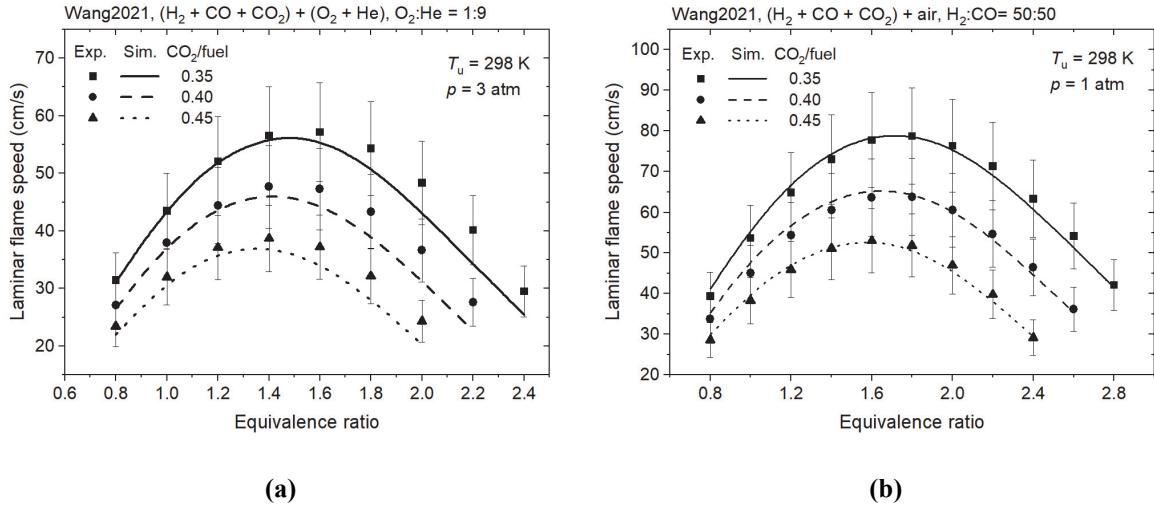


Fig. S2-24 Laminar flame speeds of H₂/CO/CO₂/O₂/He/air mixtures (T_u = 298 K, p = 1-3 atm) measured by Wang et al. [47].

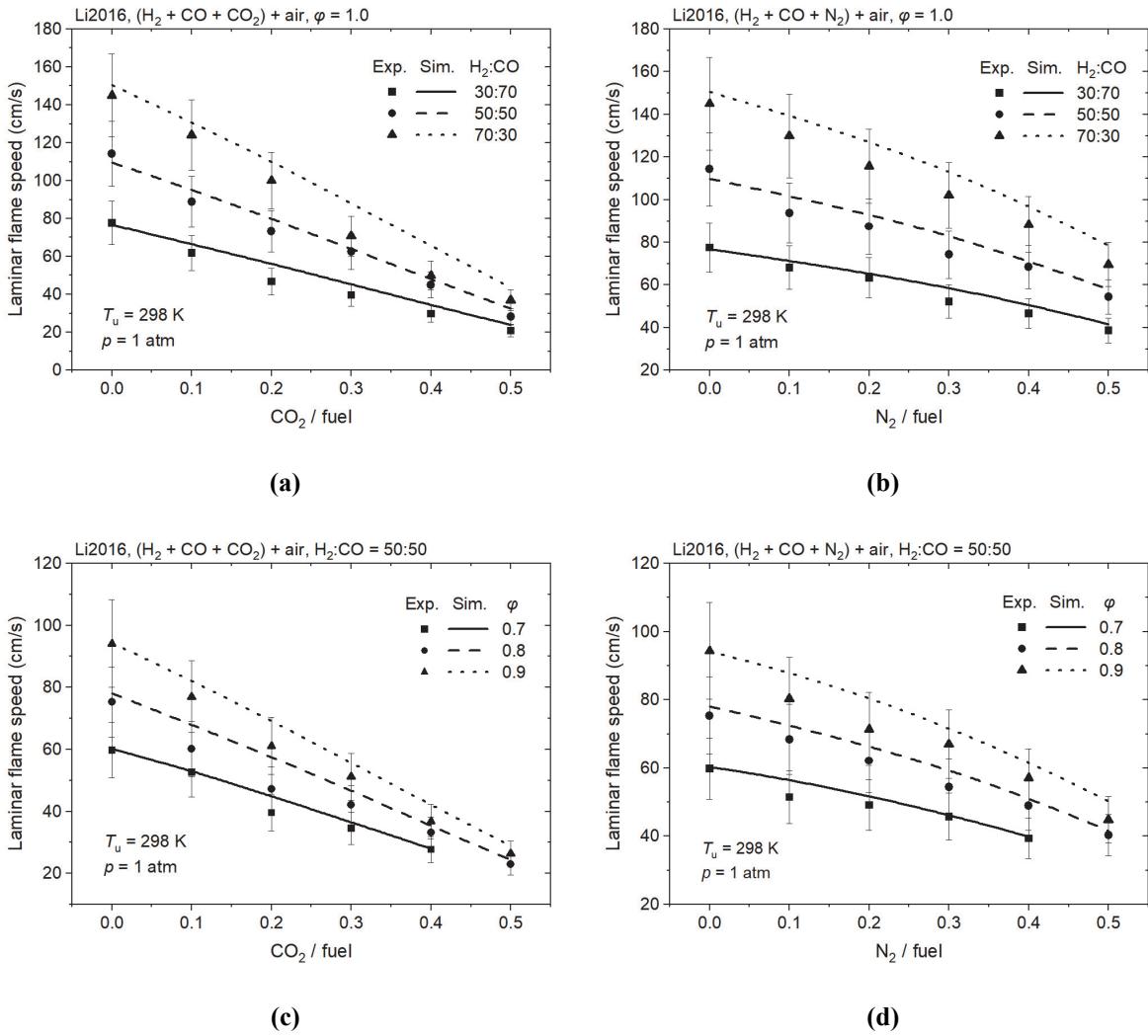


Fig. S2-25 Laminar flame speeds of H₂/CO/N₂/CO₂/air mixtures ($T_u = 298$ K, $p = 1$ atm) measured by Li et al. [41].

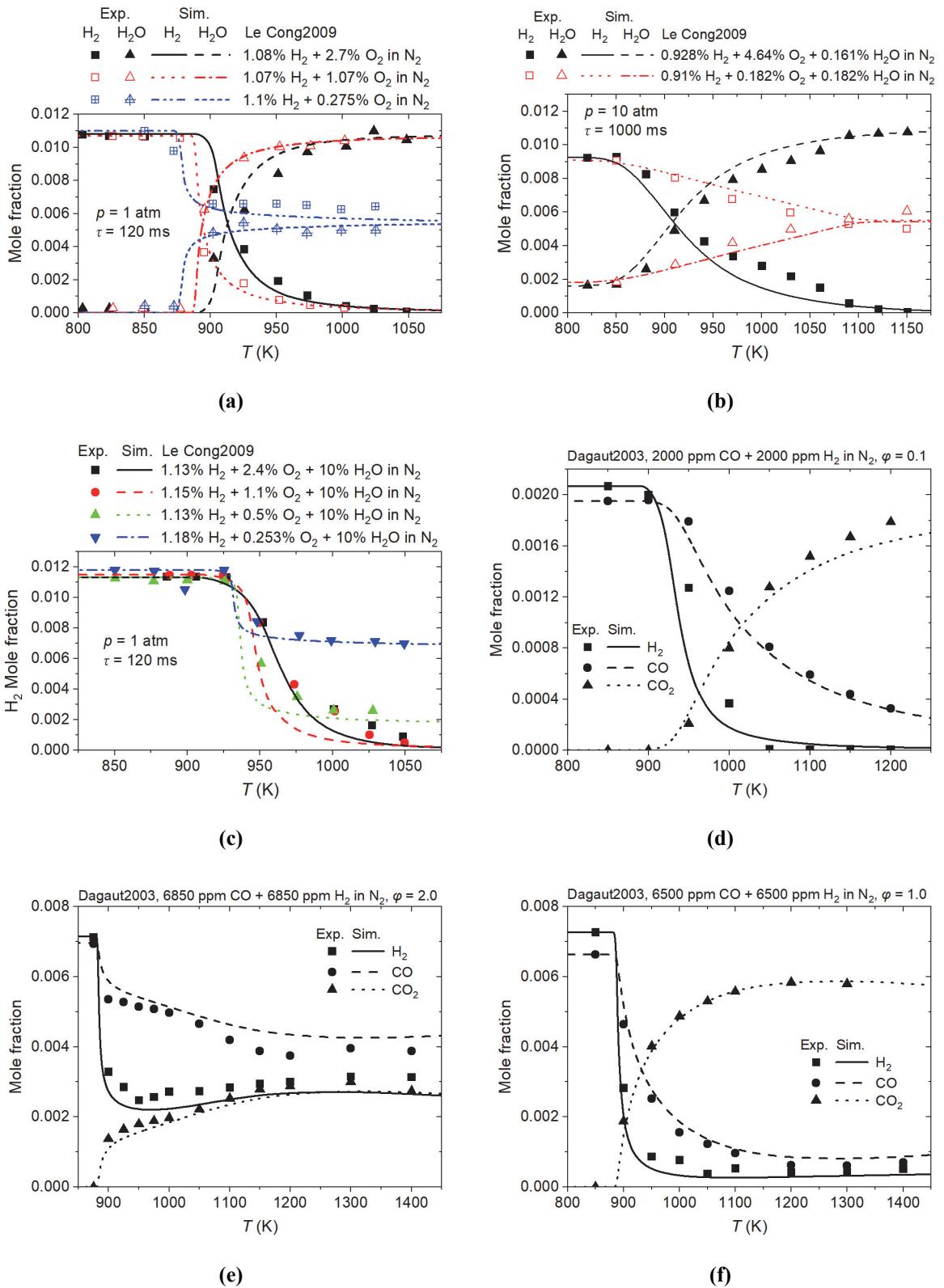


Fig. S2-26. Concentration profiles of H_2 , H_2O , CO , and CO_2 measured in the jet stirred reactor by Le Cong and Dagaut et al [53, 54].

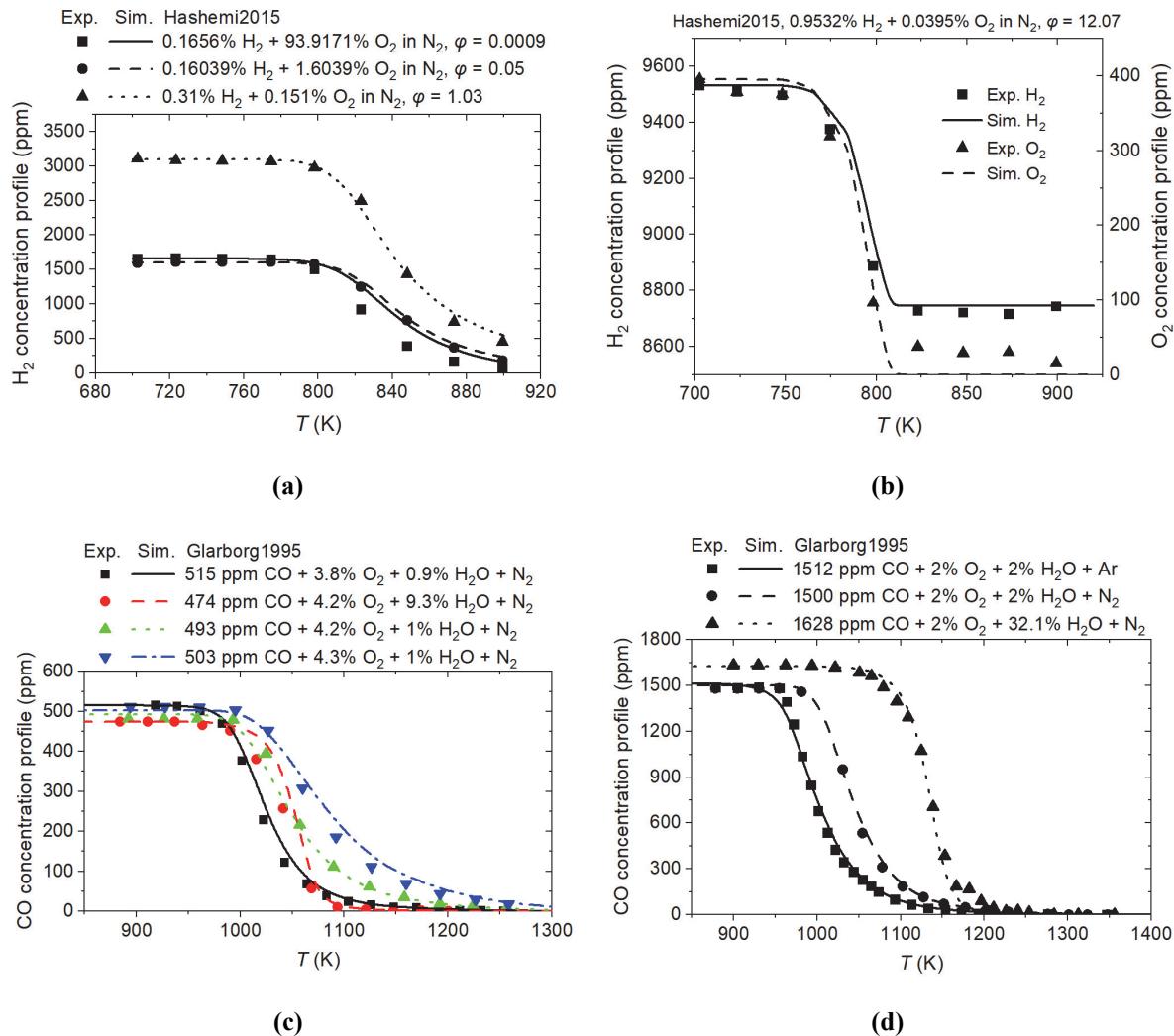


Fig. S2-27. Concentration profiles of H_2 , O_2 , and CO measured in the plug flow reactors by Hashemi and Glarborg et al. [55, 56].

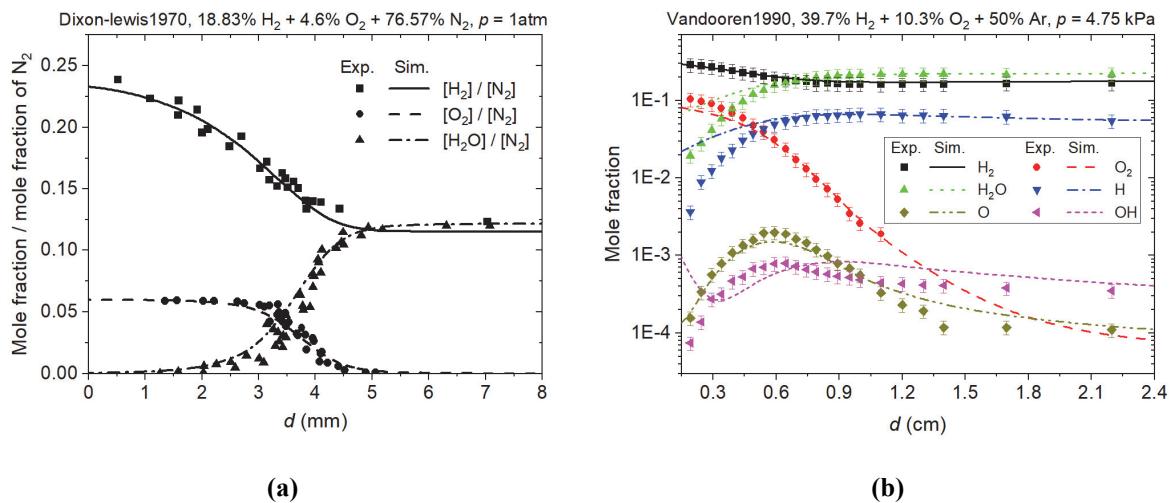


Fig. S2-28. Concentration profiles measured in the premixed laminar flame by Dixon-Lewis et al. [57] and Vandooren et al. [58].

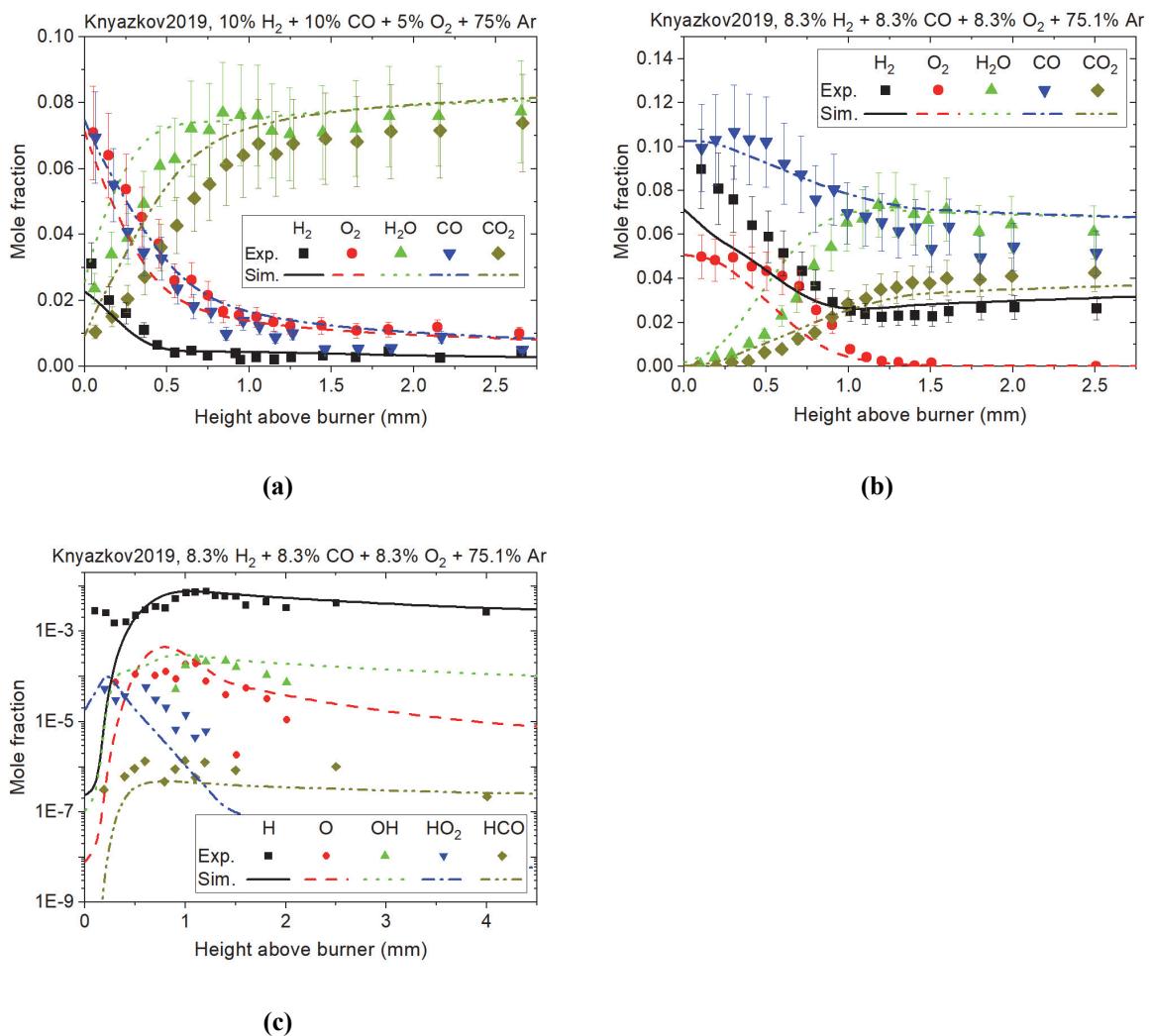


Fig. S2-29. Concentration profiles measured in the premixed laminar flame by Knyazkov et al [59].

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