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4 **A comparative study of the chemical kinetics of methyl and**
5 **ethyl propanoate**
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35 **Abstract**

36 High temperature pyrolysis of methyl propanoate ($\text{CH}_3\text{-CH}_2\text{-C(=O)O-CH}_3$) and ethyl propanoate ($\text{CH}_3\text{-CH}_2\text{-C(=O)O-}$
37 $\text{CH}_2\text{-CH}_3$) was studied behind reflected shock waves at temperatures of 1250 – 1750 K and pressure of 1.5 atm.
38 Species time-histories were recorded for CO, CO₂, C₂H₄, and H₂O using laser absorption methods over a test time
39 of 1 millisecond. Pyrolysis of methyl propanoate (MP) appears to be faster than that of ethyl propanoate (EP)
40 under the present experimental conditions, where CO and CO₂ reach their plateau values faster for MP at a
41 specific temperature and fuel concentration. Higher plateau values are reached for CO in case of MP while the
42 CO₂ levels are similar for the two ester fuels. Ethylene production is larger for EP due to the presence of six-
43 centered ring elimination reaction that produces ethylene and propanoic acid. Very little H₂O is produced during
44 MP pyrolysis in contrast with appreciable H₂O production from EP. Sensitivity and rate-of-production analyses
45 were carried out to identify key reactions that affect the measured species profiles. Previous kinetic mechanisms
46 of Yang et al. [1, 2] and Metcalf et al. [3, 4] were used as base models and then refined to propose a new MP/EP
47 pyrolysis mechanism.

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51 Keywords: methyl propanoate; ethyl propanoate; biodiesel; pyrolysis; shock tube.

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53 1. Introduction

54 Global warming and the world's dependence on oil as an energy source have intensified the need for
55 more efficient energy systems and alternative sources of energy based on renewable energy technologies. The
56 world's energy needs will increase throughout this century, driven by population and economic growth. Meeting
57 these needs will require both the development of new energy resources, especially carbon-free ones, and the
58 efficient and environmentally responsible utilization of fossil fuels. These trends have led to an increasing
59 interest in the production and utilization of biofuels, like bio-alcohol and biodiesel [5-7]. Although biodiesel is
60 gradually replacing crude-oil-derived diesel fuel, particularly in European Union, the combustion chemistry of
61 biodiesel is not completely understood [8]. Specifically, significant work is needed on the chemical kinetics of
62 biodiesel combustion to accurately predict the relevant emissions such as CO, particulate matter, unburnt
63 hydrocarbons, and NO_x.

64 Biodiesel is typically composed of a mixture of saturated and unsaturated long-chain methyl and ethyl
65 esters. There have been only a few studies [8-12] on the chemical kinetics of these large esters because of their
66 low vapor pressure and chemical complexity. Short chain molecules containing the same ester functional groups
67 are thus studied to help understand the kinetic behavior of the practical fuel. A number of studies, e.g., [2, 4, 13-
68 22], have been carried out on the oxidation and pyrolysis of methyl butanoate MB, $\text{CH}_3\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-C(=O)O-CH}_3$,
69 because MB contains much of the essential chemical structure of its long-chain counterparts, i.e., the methyl
70 ester moiety and a shorter, but similar alkyl chain. There are few previous studies on the kinetics of methyl
71 propanoate MP, $\text{CH}_3\text{-CH}_2\text{-C(=O)O-CH}_3$, and ethyl propanoate EP, $\text{CH}_3\text{-CH}_2\text{-C(=O)O-CH}_2\text{-CH}_3$. The purpose of the
72 current study is to better understand the chemical kinetic behavior of methyl and ethyl propanoate and suggest
73 improvements to the biodiesel chemical kinetic mechanism.

74 Among previous studies carried out on ethyl propanoate (EP), Blades and Gilderson [23] studied its
75 thermal decomposition and measured the rate constant for the six-centered molecular elimination reaction
76 producing propanoic acid $C_2H_5(C=O)OH$ and ethylene C_2H_4 over 780 – 875 K:



78 O’Neal and Benson [24] used transition state theory to calculate the activation energy of the same six-centered
79 molecular elimination reaction of EP and found it to be in close agreement with the measured value of Blades
80 and Gilderson [23]. Thermal decomposition of EP was also studied by Barnard et al. [25] over 913 – 1317 K using
81 a single-pulse shock tube and their measured rate constant for the molecular elimination reaction was in good
82 agreement with previous studies. Schwartz et al. [26] performed non-premixed flame experiments by doping
83 methane/air with EP (and other $C_5H_{10}O_2$ isomers) and concluded that the six-centered molecular elimination
84 reaction of EP plays a critical role in flame environments. Shock tube ignition delay times of EP and methyl
85 butanoate were measured by Metcalfe et al. [4], who assembled a detailed chemical kinetic mechanism to show
86 that ethyl propanoate has a faster reactivity than methyl butanoate, due largely to the fact that EP has the fast
87 molecular elimination reaction (R1) while MB does not. Oxidation of EP in a jet-stirred reactor was used by
88 Metcalfe et al. [3] to develop an improved chemical mechanism for ethyl propanoate. Walton et al. [22] and
89 Yang et al. [2] made modifications to the EP mechanism of Metcalfe et al. [3, 4] to extend it to lower reaction
90 temperatures for rapid compression machine and low-pressure laminar flame simulations. Metcalfe et al. [3]
91 also identified the most important features of EP oxidation by carrying out a very thorough and insightful
92 analysis of their EP oxidation mechanism. Recently, Dayma et al. [27] measured laminar burning velocities for C_4
93 – C_7 ethyl esters and subsequently proposed a new kinetic mechanism to describe the oxidation of the studied
94 ethyl esters.

95 Hoare and Kamil [28] investigated the cool flame and ignition limits for methyl propanoate (MP) in a
96 static reaction vessel, although no kinetic modeling was carried out. Carbon dioxide yields were measured

97 behind reflected shock waves by Farooq et al. [19] during thermal decomposition of MP, as well as methyl
98 butanoate and methyl acetate, but kinetic modeling was carried out only for methyl butanoate. Yang et al. [1]
99 developed kinetic reaction mechanisms for oxidation of MP and its corresponding unsaturated species, methyl
100 propenoate, as well as an isomer of MP, ethyl acetate, and its unsaturated partner, vinyl acetate, to simulate
101 low-pressure laminar flame structures for all four fuels. Very recently, Zhao et al. [29] reported species
102 concentration measurement experiments and kinetic modeling of MP pyrolysis in a laminar flow reactor at low
103 pressure (30 Torr) and temperatures ranging from 1000 to 1500K. The kinetic reaction mechanism proposed by
104 Zhao et al. [29] was supplemented by original theoretical calculations of many important elementary reactions
105 and thermochemical parameters, providing valuable new information.

106 Here, we present a detailed experimental study on the pyrolysis of methyl propanoate (MP) and ethyl
107 propanoate (EP) behind reflected shock waves, using laser absorption methods to measure time-histories of
108 four major product species: CO, CO₂, H₂O, and C₂H₄. The measurements are used to compare the reactivity of
109 the two esters and the different decomposition pathways taken by MP and EP. Comparisons of the measured
110 species profiles with chemical kinetic simulations are used to refine or correct the rate coefficients of key
111 reactions. The present study has permitted us to focus on some individual reactions and reaction rates that are
112 important in biodiesel fuel combustion but can be more directly studied in the absence of oxidizers. In
113 particular, studying pyrolysis conditions makes it possible to use CO and CO₂ production as reaction pathway
114 diagnostics, since in the absence of oxidizers these species are formed only from the alkyl ester moieties in MP
115 and EP. This has practical implications because details of the production of CO and CO₂ from these structures
116 have been identified [30] as important factors that influence the ability of alkyl ester fuels to reduce soot
117 production in diesel engine combustion. These particular reactants, MP and EP, are structurally very similar, so
118 the differences in their pyrolysis rates and product compositions are due entirely to the presence of either an
119 ethyl or a methyl radical at the alkoxy site in these fuels. Since the MP/EP decomposition, H-abstraction, and

120 subsequent reactions producing CO, CO₂, H₂O, and C₂H₄ form a subset of the detailed biodiesel kinetic
121 mechanism, this work will help improve the overall predictive capability of biodiesel combustion models.

122 **2. Experimental Procedure**

123 **2.1 Shock Tube Facility**

124 Experiments were performed in the reflected shock region of a high-purity, stainless steel, helium-driven
125 shock tube at Stanford University. The driven section is 10.5 m long and the driver section 3.7 m long, with an
126 inner diameter of 15.24 cm. This geometric configuration provided at least 2 ms of high-quality test time of
127 uniform temperature and pressure for these studies. Laser absorption measurements were made at an axial
128 location 2 cm from the end-wall. Test mixtures were prepared manometrically in a 40-liter stainless steel tank
129 equipped with a magnetically-driven stirring vane. Between experiments, the shock tube and mixing assembly
130 were turbo-pumped to approximately 6 μ Torr. Reflected shock temperatures and pressures were determined
131 from the incident shock speed (extrapolated to the end-wall) using standard normal shock relations, with an
132 uncertainty of $\pm 0.7\%$ and $\pm 1\%$, respectively. Methyl propanoate and ethyl propanoate were provided by Sigma-
133 Aldrich at > 99% purity. Research grade (99.999%) Argon and Helium supplied by Praxair Inc. were used in the
134 experiments.

135

136 **2.2 Laser Absorption Measurements**

137 Mid-IR quantum cascade laser absorption of CO: Carbon monoxide concentration time-histories were
138 measured in the fundamental vibrational band of CO near 4.56 μ m using a thermoelectrically-cooled quantum-
139 cascade laser (from Alpes Lasers). The R(13) transition of the ν_1 vibrational band of CO was chosen due to its
140 relatively high absorption strength and negligible interference from CO₂ and H₂O. The detection limit for this
141 diagnostic is approximately 5 ppm for the conditions of these experiments. Further details about the CO

142 diagnostic can be found elsewhere [31]. Quantitative CO concentration (mole fraction, X_{CO}) profiles are
143 generated from the raw traces of fractional absorption (I/I_0) using Beer-Lambert law, the measured line-strength
144 (S), the path length L , and the measured line-shape function (ϕ):

$$145 \quad I/I_0 = \exp(-S \phi P_{total} X_{CO} L) \quad (1)$$

146 IR diode laser absorption of CO₂: Absorption measurements of CO₂ were made using wavelength-
147 modulation spectroscopy with second-harmonic detection (WMS-2f). A commercially available distributed
148 feedback diode laser (from NanoPlus) emitting near 3633 cm⁻¹ was used. This diagnostic was developed and
149 demonstrated previously [32, 33] for the measurement of CO₂ concentration and gas temperature in shock tube
150 kinetic experiments. Quantitative CO₂ concentration profiles were generated by comparing the measured 1f-
151 normalized WMS-2f signals with simulated values. The WMS strategy was preferred over direct absorption to
152 achieve higher signal-to-noise ratios in these relatively low fuel concentration experiments. This diagnostic can
153 be used to detect minimum CO₂ mole fraction of approximately 100 ppm at 1300 K and 2 atm.

154 IR diode laser absorption of H₂O: Water concentration time-histories were determined by measuring
155 the absorption of 2551 nm light at the peak of an absorption feature in the ν_3 fundamental vibrational band of
156 H₂O using a distributed feedback diode laser (from NanoPlus). A nitrogen purging system was implemented
157 along the laser transmission path to eliminate signal loss due to absorption by ambient water vapor. The
158 detection limit for this diagnostic is less than 50 ppm at 1200 K and 2 atm. Further details on the H₂O detection
159 system as well as H₂O line characterization can be found elsewhere [34, 35].

160 CO₂ laser absorption of C₂H₄: Ethylene mole fraction was measured by taking advantage of the
161 fortuitous overlap of the P(14) line of the CO₂ gas laser at 10.532 μ m with the strong ethylene absorption band
162 near 10.6 μ m. Experiments were also conducted at an off-line wavelength of 10.675 μ m to correct for
163 interference absorption from methyl/ethyl propanoate and other hydrocarbon intermediates. The detection
164 limit for ethylene measurements is approximately 100 ppm at 1200 K and 2 atm. Experimental details of this

165 diagnostic and high-temperature absorption cross-sections of ethylene and related alkenes are discussed by Ren
166 et al. [36] and Pilla et al. [37].

167 **2.3 Modeling and Analysis**

168 In recent years, significant effort has been put into steadily building a hierarchical family of chemical
169 kinetic reaction mechanisms for combustion of small alkyl ester fuels. At each step in this process, a kinetic
170 mechanism for a new alkyl ester fuel is built on an existing mechanism for smaller alkyl esters that can be
171 produced during the consumption of the larger alkyl ester molecules. Beginning with the smallest alkyl ester
172 fuels, methyl formate and ethyl formate [38], kinetic mechanisms have been extended to several other alkyl
173 ester fuels as large as methyl butanoate [2], and further studies of methyl pentanoate, methyl hexanoate, and
174 methyl 3-hexenoate are in progress. Kinetic mechanisms were produced during this process for the present
175 fuels, MP [1] and EP [2, 22], including the important kinetic modeling studies of EP combustion by Metcalfe et al.
176 [3, 4]. All of these kinetic mechanisms were validated for oxidation experiments in low-pressure premixed
177 laminar flames and ignition in a shock tube or rapid compression machine. That mechanism [1, 2], which
178 included oxidation mechanisms for both MP and EP, was then refined by upgrading its core CO - C4 hydrocarbon
179 mechanism from Curran et al. [39]. This is the preliminary mechanism that we used to compute pyrolysis
180 histories to compare with the present experimental results.

181 Kinetic simulations of the present pyrolysis experiments, using this preliminary model, were found to be
182 sensitive to some reactions, reaction rates, and reaction pathways that had not been tested in past studies of
183 flame propagation and oxidative ignition. Some reaction rates were identified that required modification to
184 properly describe the present experimental results. The ability to use CO and CO₂ as reaction pathway
185 diagnostics, due to the unique features of fuel pyrolysis conditions, provided important evidence of the
186 shortcomings of this preliminary kinetic model. In the following sections, we illustrate some of these preliminary

187 model failures and describe the model modifications that were made, based on the simulations of the new
188 experiments and sensitivity analysis.

189 Pyrolysis is an endothermic process that leads to temperature and pressure decreases after shock
190 heating. The temperature decrease can be significant for high initial temperatures, high initial fuel
191 concentrations, relatively large fuel molecules or any combination of these factors. Since the absorption
192 coefficient is a temperature-dependent quantity, accounting for temperature change can be critical for accurate
193 species time-history determinations. When significant temperature changes occur during the measurement
194 time, it is necessary to use time-varying absorption coefficients for converting measured absorbance time-
195 histories to accurate concentration time-histories. Since temperature time-histories were not measured in this
196 study, these have been estimated from simulations using the Chemkin-Pro [40] solver with an adiabatic
197 constraint and post-reflected shock temperature and pressure calculated from normal shock relations. Shock
198 tubes are usually modeled as constant-volume (CV) although endothermicity can cause the shock tubes to
199 deviate from the ideal CV behavior and tend towards the constant-pressure (CP) mode. As demonstrated
200 previously [41, 42], although shock tubes do not exhibit pure CV or CP behavior in pyrolysis experiments,
201 predictions of temperature and species time-history are relatively insensitive to the choice between these two
202 gasdynamic models for dilute experiments. Figure 1 shows simulated temperature time-histories for 1% MP/Ar
203 and 1% EP/Ar pyrolysis. After an elapsed time of 1 ms, the CP and CV gasdynamic models predict a temperature
204 decrease of 120 ± 15 K for MP and 113 ± 13 K for EP. As expected, the temperature reduction is slightly
205 larger using CV simulation. Although neglecting such decreases in temperature can cause a significant error in
206 species time-history measurements, a $\pm 13 - 15$ K uncertainty, resulting from using CP or CV model,
207 contributes an error of no more than $\pm 7\%$ for any of the species measured here. Additionally, temperature
208 time-histories calculated using our kinetic mechanism and the Metcalfe et al. [3] mechanism are quite similar.

209 All experimental species profiles presented in subsequent sections are converted to mole fractions using
210 simulated temperature profiles based on the CV model and the MP/EP kinetic mechanism of the current work.

211 The temperatures in Fig. 1 suggest that pyrolysis of MP is different qualitatively from pyrolysis of EP.
212 The temperature decrease is much more abrupt for the 1% MP/99% Ar sample than for the 1% EP/99% Ar
213 sample. The primary temperature drop takes place in a few microseconds for MP and the temperature remains
214 nearly constant thereafter. The temperature decrease for the case of EP is much less abrupt and the
215 temperature continues to decrease in the full 1000 μ s time interval of the experimental observations.

216 In order to provide a framework for the discussions to follow for both the experimental and
217 computational results, it is useful to present sample pyrolysis calculations for both fuels. The computed results,
218 shown in Fig. 2, summarize the fuel, major intermediate species and product species mole fractions calculated
219 using the final kinetic mechanism from the current study at a representative temperature of 1500 K. These
220 calculations were carried out to a total elapsed time of 5 ms, long after the last experimental mole fraction
221 measurements were made (1 ms). Similar to the temperature results shown in Fig. 1, in the case of MP pyrolysis,
222 all of the species reach nearly constant levels in the first few microseconds, after which there are slow increases
223 in the H₂, CO, CH₄, and C₂H₂ mole fractions and a barely perceptible decrease in the C₂H₄ level. In this sense,
224 high-temperature pyrolysis of MP under the present conditions is comprised of a rapid first stage followed by a
225 very long relaxation stage that leads to final chemical equilibrium. We computed this equilibrium independently
226 for the same initial conditions (1500 K, 1.5 atm, 1% MP/Ar) and found the MP equilibrium to have a temperature
227 of 1374 K and the only species with significant mole fractions at equilibrium were H₂ (26,710 ppm), CO (19,150
228 ppm), C₂H₂ (2,965 ppm), C₆H₆ (1,880 ppm), CH₄ (1,300 ppm), and C₂H₄ (130 ppm), in addition to Ar (947,780
229 ppm). In particular, the CO₂ mole fraction at equilibrium is about 0.001 ppm, although CO₂ is a major
230 intermediate measured in the current experiments. Similarly, most but not all of the C₂H₄ produced in the first
231 pyrolysis stage is ultimately consumed during the long relaxation stage. When we extended the time-dependent

232 pyrolysis problem of Fig. 1 and Fig. 2(a) to thousands of seconds of adiabatic elapsed time, the computed
233 species levels and temperature eventually evolved to the corresponding values provided by the equilibrium
234 calculation, but this relaxation time is very long compared to the 1000 μ s of observation time from the current
235 experiments.

236 EP pyrolysis also has a rapid first stage, followed by a much longer relaxation stage towards final
237 equilibrium. However, in contrast with MP, EP clearly takes longer time for the first pyrolysis stage to be
238 completed, and as we will demonstrate, its first reactive pyrolysis stage is more complex than that of MP,
239 consisting of several distinct kinetic processes. As shown in Fig. 2(b), EP produces a greater variety of
240 intermediate species, such as propanoic acid (C_2H_5COOH) and methyl ketene (CH_3CHCO) that are formed and
241 then consumed with time scales longer than the initiation reactions but still much shorter than the long
242 relaxation time to reach equilibrium. The final equilibrium conditions for EP are similar to those for MP, with H_2
243 (30,340 ppm), CO (19,030 ppm), C_2H_2 (2,970 ppm), C_6H_6 (3,340 ppm), CH_4 (1,900 ppm), and C_2H_4 (170 ppm) and a
244 final equilibrium temperature of 1359 K. For EP, the most significant changes after about 5 ms are the steady but
245 slow conversion of C_2H_4 , CO_2 and H_2O to C_2H_2 , H_2 , and CO .

246 **3. Results and Discussion**

247 **3.1 CO Measurements**

248 Experimentally measured CO time-histories are shown in Fig. 3(a) and Fig. 3(b) at a variety of initial,
249 post-shock temperatures (1259 – 1756 K) for the pyrolysis of 1% MP and 1% EP, respectively. In every
250 experiment, for both MP and EP, CO production begins immediately at initial rates that increase with higher
251 initial temperature. At the highest initial temperatures, CO production is immediately very fast, but that rapid
252 production lasts for only a few microseconds, after which CO production becomes very slow. At lower
253 temperatures, the initial rate of CO production is lower than at high temperatures but continues steadily

254 throughout the observed experimental time window of about 1 ms. As the reflected shock temperature
255 increases, the CO levels in the MP pyrolysis experiments appear to plateau to a unique value (~ 7800 ppm) at 1
256 ms. A similar trend was observed recently [20] in a study of MB pyrolysis, albeit with a higher CO plateau (~
257 10,000 ppm). For EP pyrolysis, however, the CO values at 1 ms continue to increase gradually as the initial
258 temperature increases and reach about 6200 ppm for the highest temperature studied (1756 K). Figure 3 also
259 shows that more CO is produced at 1 ms from MP compared to EP at the same initial temperature.

260 As noted above, virtually all of the oxygen in each mixture is present at equilibrium as CO, at a level of
261 about 1.9% or 19,000 ppm. Therefore, the CO levels shown in Fig. 3 for both MP and EP are snapshots in time of
262 mole fractions that would continue to increase, albeit very slowly, to final values of about 19,000 ppm. There are
263 clearly two characteristic times or stages for CO production under most of the present conditions, the first
264 shown as a rapid growth of CO to values of approximately 5,000 – 8,000 ppm, followed by a very slow second
265 stage in which the CO mole fraction increases to an equilibrium level of about 19,000 ppm. At the higher range
266 of temperatures in the current shock tube pyrolysis experiments, the first of these two time stages is very rapid
267 and is complete within the 1.0 ms observation time, but at the lower temperatures the first stage is not
268 completed before the observational time limit. Based on the experimental curves in Fig. 3, the first reaction
269 stage is completed within the available residence time for MP for temperatures above 1370 K and above 1500 K
270 for EP. The temperature decreases shown in Fig. 1 are all associated with the first of these stages, as is the
271 consumption of the fuel and any major intermediate species shown in Fig. 2.

272 A subset of experimental data from Fig. 3 are compared in Fig. 4 with kinetic simulations using the
273 preliminary kinetic mechanism [1, 2]. For MP pyrolysis, the preliminary model overestimated CO production at
274 all initial temperatures and predicted a surprisingly lower CO mole fraction at the highest initial temperature
275 (1690 K) than at lower initial temperatures of 1591 K and 1415 K. For EP pyrolysis, the preliminary model
276 underpredicted CO up to about 1560 K and overpredicted CO at higher temperatures. These computed results

277 indicated that the preliminary kinetic model couldn't reproduce the major features of the fuel pyrolysis and
278 required modifications. When the kinetic reaction mechanism was revised for both MP and EP as described in
279 the kinetic modeling section below, the computed and experimental CO mole fractions exhibited better
280 agreement, as shown in Fig. 5. We will return below to discuss further the comparisons between the
281 experimental and final kinetic modeling results.

282 Figure 6 shows CO fractional yield, defined as the ratio of CO mole fraction at 1 millisecond to the initial
283 fuel mole fraction, as a function of temperature for the two fuels. Fractional yields predicted by the preliminary
284 and revised mechanisms are also shown. As noted previously, CO yield is larger for MP compared with EP at all
285 temperatures. As the initial temperature increases, CO yield increases quite rapidly until a transition
286 temperature value is reached, above which CO yield for MP does not change noticeably and increases very
287 slowly for EP. The revised mechanism does a much better job of reproducing the measured yields compared
288 with the preliminary model.

289 **3.2 CO₂ Measurements**

290 CO₂ experimental time-histories are shown in Fig. 7 in comparison with the revised/final kinetic
291 mechanism over a range of initial temperatures (1259 – 1599 K) and nominal pressures of 1.25 – 1.5 atm for the
292 pyrolysis of 1% methyl propanoate (MP) and 1% ethyl propanoate (EP), respectively. Experimental CO₂
293 production appears to be quite similar between the two fuels; at a specific temperature and elapsed time, the
294 CO₂ levels from the two fuels are with 20 – 30% of each other. Comparison of the measured time-histories with
295 simulations using the preliminary MP model (not shown here) indicated that the simulations overpredicted CO₂
296 at lower temperatures and underpredicted at temperatures higher than about 1400 K. For EP pyrolysis, the
297 preliminary model (not shown) underpredicted CO₂ at all temperatures by factors of 4 – 13. Significant revisions
298 to the preliminary kinetic mechanism were required to correct the CO₂ predictions. Following modifications in

299 the kinetic model, the revised model-computed CO₂ time-histories are summarized together with the
300 experimental profiles in Fig. 7. The revised kinetic mechanism will be discussed in subsequent section.

301 Figure 8 shows CO₂ fractional yield, defined as the ratio of CO₂ mole fraction at 1 millisecond to the
302 initial fuel mole fraction, as a function of temperature for the two fuels. Fractional yields predicted by the
303 preliminary as well as revised mechanism are also plotted for comparison. The experimental CO₂ yields increase
304 with increasing temperature and are quite similar for the two fuels. The preliminary kinetic mechanism
305 underpredicted CO₂ yields by a big margin for EP pyrolysis. The revised kinetic mechanism predicts much-
306 improved yields for both fuels.

307 Computed equilibrium concentrations of CO₂ are extremely small ($\sim 10^{-3}$ ppm) for both MP and EP
308 pyrolysis, so virtually all of the oxygen atoms initially present in the ester moiety are eventually found as CO at
309 equilibrium, and CO₂ production in the first stage of the present shock tube pyrolysis experiments is a temporary
310 phenomenon that completely disappears at long times in the second stage of the pyrolysis.

311 **3.3 Ethylene Measurements**

312 Ethylene (C₂H₄) time-histories are shown in Fig. 9 over a range of initial temperatures (1354 – 1704 K)
313 and nominal pressures of 1.5 – 1.7 atm for the pyrolysis of 1% methyl propanoate (MP) and 1% ethyl
314 propanoate (EP), respectively. As expected, the presence of a second ethyl group in EP, compared with the
315 single ethyl group in MP, leads to ethylene production during EP pyrolysis that is about twice the ethylene
316 production during MP pyrolysis. Just after time zero, all of the EP decomposes to ethylene and propanoic acid.
317 Ethylene mole fractions ($\sim 10,000$ ppm or 1%) are very close to the initial fuel mole fraction of EP, indicating that
318 nearly every EP molecule immediately produces one C₂H₄ molecule. These higher ethylene levels in EP pyrolysis
319 contribute to higher reactivity of EP compared with MP under oxidative conditions.

320 Chemical equilibrium calculations show that the eventual level of ethylene is very low (150 ppm). As
321 already noted for CO₂, the levels of ethylene shown in Fig. 9 are artifacts of the fast initial decomposition of the
322 fuel, produced in the first stage of the high-temperature pyrolysis. This ethylene is eventually consumed during
323 the slow second stage of the pyrolysis of both MP and EP fuels. Extending the pyrolysis simulations far beyond
324 the 1 ms observation time of the experiments, to 1000 seconds, confirmed that the slow relaxation reaction
325 process does indeed lead to the adiabatic distribution of species produced by the equilibrium calculation.

326 Model predictions for C₂H₄ levels, using the revised kinetic mechanism, are also shown in Fig. 9 and
327 exhibit good agreement with the experimental measurements. The kinetic model shows that the slow
328 consumption of ethylene is due to H-atom abstraction from C₂H₄ by H and OH radicals. Concentrations of these
329 radicals are higher as temperature increases, leading to a faster rate of C₂H₄ consumption as the pyrolysis
330 temperature increases, as seen in Fig. 9.

331 **3.4 H₂O Measurements**

332 Laser absorption measurements carried out to detect H₂O during MP pyrolysis led to very weak signals
333 indicating low water production from MP. The kinetic simulations predict only about 10 – 100 ppm of H₂O within
334 the 1 ms observation time. On the other hand, large amounts of water are produced from EP and the
335 experimental results are shown in Fig. 10 over a range of temperatures (1356 – 1729 K) and nominal pressure of
336 about 1.7 atm for the pyrolysis of 1% EP/Ar. The H₂O production increases with increasing initial temperature
337 and reaches a plateau value of about 4200 ppm for temperatures higher than 1500 K. Model predictions, based
338 on the revised mechanism, are also shown in Fig. 10 and agree quite well with the experimental values. The
339 kinetic mechanism shows that water is produced from H atom abstraction reactions from ethylene and
340 propanoic acid by OH radicals under the present high-temperature pyrolysis conditions. Ethyl propanoate
341 decomposes too rapidly at these conditions to produce water from OH reactions with EP. Figure 11 shows that

342 preliminary kinetic mechanism overpredicted water fractional yield, defined as the ratio of H₂O mole fraction at
343 1 millisecond to the initial EP mole fraction, at all values of the initial temperature. The revised mechanism, on
344 the other hand, is in excellent agreement with the measured fractional yields.

345

346 **4. Kinetic Modeling and Mechanism Improvements**

347 Extensive sensitivity and reaction path analysis of MP and EP kinetic mechanisms were carried out, and a
348 number of reactions were identified that were not particularly significant under oxidation conditions but had
349 large sensitivities under pyrolysis conditions and considerable influence on computed mole fractions of the
350 species measured in the present experiments. For some of these reactions, the existing rate expressions were
351 quite uncertain. Kinetic sensitivities were calculated for both MP and EP pyrolysis at 1500K, showing the CO,
352 CO₂, C₂H₄ and H₂O sensitivities in Figures 12 – 15, respectively. Water sensitivity is only shown for EP pyrolysis as
353 very little H₂O is produced from MP, as discussed earlier. Sensitivity is defined here as the differential fractional
354 change of species mole fraction divided by the differential fractional change in the reaction rate coefficient, at a
355 given time. For each experimentally measured chemical species, there are relatively few elementary reactions to
356 which the computed species concentrations are particularly sensitive.

357 **4.1 Ethyl Propanoate (EP) Pyrolysis**

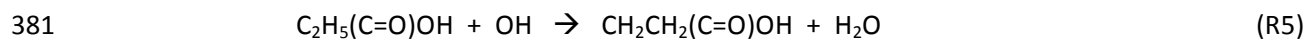
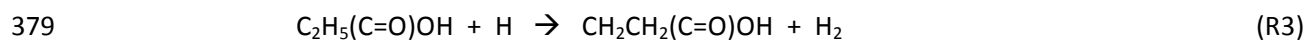
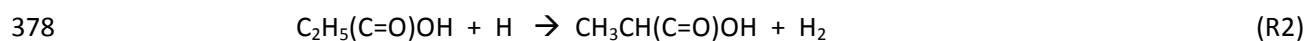
358 Ethyl propanoate decomposes rapidly at the high temperatures of this study. As noted above, ethyl
359 esters R₁(C=O)OC₂H₅ react rapidly via a six-centered molecular elimination of ethylene



361 while the corresponding methyl ester R₁(C=O)OCH₃ does not have such a fast reaction. The rate of this reaction
362 has been studied extensively and is quite well-established [23-25]. Under the present conditions, EP

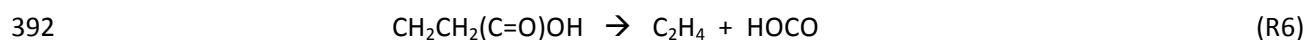
363 decomposes over a period of just a few microseconds to produce propanoic acid $C_2H_5(C=O)OH$ and ethylene.
364 This is seen in Fig. 9(b) where the ethylene mole fraction in all of the 1% (i.e., 10,000 ppm) EP pyrolysis
365 experiments and model calculations rises to 10,000 ppm almost instantaneously. This can also be seen in Fig.
366 14(b) where the early-time sensitivity of reaction R1 for C_2H_4 production is very large, but the sensitivity falls to
367 zero very quickly as EP is entirely consumed. For this reason, H atom abstraction reactions with EP have
368 effectively no influence or sensitivity on the present simulations or experiments. In addition, the established
369 reaction rate expression for R1 is sufficiently accurate and has no significant sensitivity for the current results.
370 That is, large variations in the rate of reaction R1 would not change the computed results very much. The
371 present EP experiments are thus almost equivalent to experiments in which EP is replaced by equivalent
372 amounts of propanoic acid and ethylene, as discussed by Metcalfe et al. [3, 4]. At lower temperatures where the
373 rate of R1 is slower, Metcalfe et al. noted that H atom abstraction reactions can consume significant fractions of
374 EP, and this would also be true under lower temperature pyrolysis conditions, but the present experiments were
375 carried out at sufficiently high temperatures that R1 accounts for all of the EP consumption.

376 Following fast initial decomposition of EP, propanoic acid $C_2H_5(C=O)OH$ then reacts primarily via H atom
377 abstraction by H and OH with two major radical products:



382 Reactions R4 and R5 are major sources of water that is found as a significant product of EP
383 pyrolysis, as seen in the sensitivity analysis for H_2O in Fig. 15. The ratio of production of $CH_3CH(C=O)OH$ to that
384 of $CH_2CH_2(C=O)OH$ has a significant effect on the relative production of CO and C_2H_4 in the present experiments,

385 which can be seen in the sensitivity analyses of Figs. 12(b) and 14(b). As observed by Metcalfe et al. [3, 4],
386 $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}(\text{C}=\text{O})\text{OH}$, produced by reactions R2 and R4, is a resonantly stabilized radical which decomposes relatively
387 slowly to produce either methyl ketene $\text{CH}_3\text{CHC}=\text{O}$ and OH or propenoic acid $\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{COOH}$ and H. Methyl ketene
388 reacts quite slowly in these conditions, mostly via addition reactions of H and OH to the C=C double bond,
389 producing relatively small amounts of ethyl radicals and then ethylene, while propenoic acid decomposes to
390 produce vinyl radicals, CO and OH. Reactions R3 and R5 produce $\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2(\text{C}=\text{O})\text{OH}$ which then decomposes
391 rapidly via β -scission to produce ethylene and HOCO:



393 This ethylene production is in addition to that formed immediately via reaction R1 and is responsible for the
394 increase of ethylene levels above 10,000 ppm in Fig. 9(b).

395 Reaction path analysis for EP pyrolysis shows that the main channel responsible for CO formation is:



397 The same reaction path analysis also shows that the closely related reaction R8 is the main source of CO_2 in the
398 EP pyrolysis experiments:



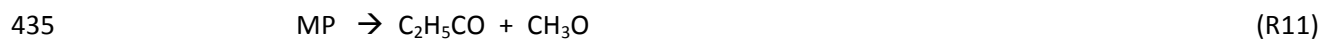
400 Thus reactions R3 and R5, followed by R6, lead to C_2H_4 , CO and CO_2 production during EP pyrolysis, while
401 reactions R2 and R4 produce CO and CO_2 but do not produce ethylene. Thus ethylene production rates following
402 EP decomposition are sensitive to the ratio of $(\text{R2}+\text{R4})/(\text{R3}+\text{R5})$; yet none of these reaction rates are very well
403 established. Similarly, relative production of CO and CO_2 is very sensitive to the ratios of the rates of reactions
404 R7 and R8.

405 One additional feature seen in Fig. 9(b) is that as the initial temperature increases from 1354 K to 1704
406 K, the rate of consumption of ethylene increases. Ethylene reacts primarily with H and OH to produce vinyl
407 radicals and then acetylene, and this reaction sequence accelerates as the temperature increases, resulting in
408 the more pronounced decrease in ethylene mole fractions at the highest temperatures. Reactions R7 and R8
409 produce the radical species that then react with ethylene, and reactions R7 and R8 proceed more rapidly as the
410 temperature increases. All of these processes were illustrated together in Fig. 2(b), showing initial reactant,
411 major intermediates, and the measured pyrolysis products for EP pyrolysis at an initial temperature of 1500 K.
412 The EP level falls to zero in less than 10 microseconds, producing C₂H₄ and C₂H₅COOH in equal amounts of
413 10,000 ppm. Subsequent consumption of the propanoic acid is quite rapid but is not complete by the end of the
414 experimental observation time of 1000 microseconds. Production of additional C₂H₄ as well as considerable
415 levels of H₂ and lesser amounts of H₂O, CO, C₂H₂, CO₂ and CH₃CHCO can be seen from the consumption of
416 propanoic acid. The calculations were extended to 5 ms in order to show more clearly the relative production of
417 the different species. The slow onset of net consumption of ethylene can also be seen, beginning at about 2 ms.
418 Eventually, based on further simulations carried to much longer times, as well as formal chemical equilibrium
419 calculations, the C₂H₄, CO₂, H₂O, and methyl ketene (CH₃CHCO) all are consumed.

420 A conclusion that can be drawn from the equilibrium species concentrations is that the snapshot in time
421 provided by the shock tube experiments shows, in most of the cases, a “frozen” mixture of intermediates and
422 products. Once the initial reactive stage is completed, the evolution is then very slow. As noted above, at the
423 lowest temperatures studied, the initial reactive stage is not completed before the end of the observation time
424 window, and in some cases, there is no abrupt reactive stage at all.

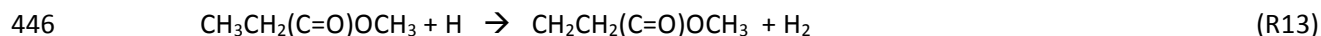
425 **4.2 Methyl Propanoate (MP) Pyrolysis**

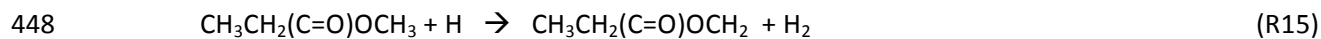
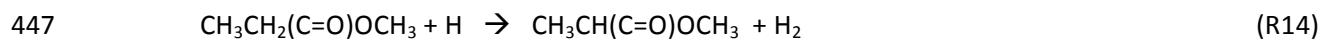
426 In the case of MP, unimolecular decomposition reactions of MP are quite fast at the temperatures of
427 this study, but they do not dominate in the same manner as for EP. These reactions were written [1, 2] in the
428 recombination direction with temperature independent rate constants, so the decomposition reaction rates
429 were determined via detailed balance and the relevant thermochemistry of each set of reactants. Those
430 reactions and rates were retained for the present study, and several of these reactions were found to contribute
431 to MP decomposition at early times in the shock tube pyrolysis simulations. In declining order of their
432 contribution to MP consumption, these are:



437 Of these initiation reactions for MP, only reaction R12 leads to direct production of CO_2 , and this reaction shows
438 a negative sensitivity for CO production in Fig. 12(a). Two previous studies by Akih-Kumgeh and Bergthorson
439 [43], using CBS QB3 theoretical method, and by Zhao et al. [29], using theoretical calculations at the CBS-APNO
440 level, determined the rates of reactions R9 – R12. These reactions are written in the recombination direction in
441 the current mechanism (see Table 1).

442 Since MP does not have the low activation energy molecular elimination that makes EP decomposition
443 so fast, initiation of MP reaction is slower overall than that of EP. There is some time after the initiation where
444 the kinetic model shows that H atom abstraction from MP is important. MP has three structurally distinct C-H
445 bonds, and each supports H atom abstraction at a different rate. These include:



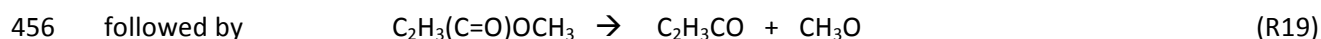
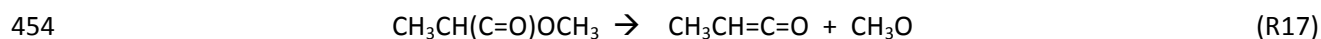


449 as well as smaller contributions, under the present pyrolysis conditions, from H atom abstraction by OH and CH₃.

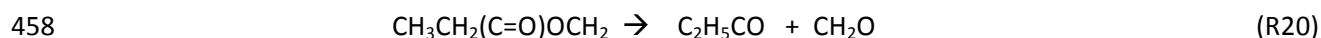
450 The radical CH₂CH₂(C=O)OCH₃ in reaction R13 then decomposes as:



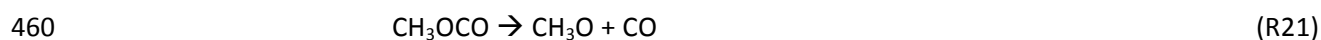
452 The resonantly stable radical CH₃CH(C=O)OCH₃ from reaction R14 makes either methyl ketene and methoxy
453 radicals or methyl propenoate and H:



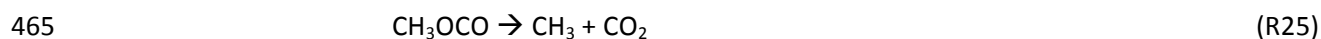
457 and the third radical CH₃CH₂(C=O)OCH₂ from R15 decomposes via:

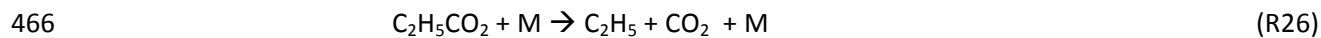


459 Rate of production (ROP) analysis for MP pyrolysis indicates that CO is produced by the following reactions:



464 And CO₂ is produced primarily from CH₃OCO with small contribution coming from C₂H₅CO₂:





467

468 It was noted above for high-temperature EP pyrolysis that the HOCO radical provides a crucial branching
469 function by having two decomposition reactions that produce either CO or CO₂. The same function is provided
470 for MP pyrolysis by the CH₃OCO decomposition reactions R21 and R25. Decomposition reaction R9 of MP
471 produces CH₃OCO immediately. More CH₃OCO is provided from H atom abstraction reaction R13 from MP,
472 followed by the decomposition reaction R16. Reactions R21 and R25 both appear in the sensitivity plots, Fig.
473 12(a) and Fig. 13(a) for CO and CO₂, reinforcing the central role of CH₃OCO radical in MP pyrolysis.

474 Ethylene is produced from MP through R16 and the decomposition of ethyl:

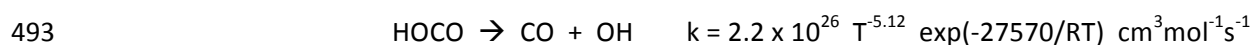


476 **4.3 Mechanism Modifications**

477 Based on the sensitivities of the predicted species concentrations to the reaction pathways and rates
478 described above, modest variations were made for some of the rates to try to improve the agreement between
479 experimental and computed values. We focused our attention on a small group of reactions identified by
480 sensitivity analyses and for which rate constants were relatively uncertain.

481 For EP pyrolysis, these reactions included the two branches of the decomposition of HOCO, R7 and R8,
482 as well as the relative rates of H atom abstraction from propanoic acid (R2 – R5) that produce CH₃CH(C=O)OH or
483 CH₂CH₂(C=O)OH, and the decomposition reactions of the resonantly stabilized CH₃CH(C=O)OH radical. We
484 benefited significantly from recent studies by Barker et al. [44-47] on the kinetics of the decomposition of HOCO,
485 which above discussion noted to be particularly significant affecting the ratio of CO₂/CO produced in EP
486 pyrolysis. For the decomposition of HOCO, Metcalfe et al. [4] considered only the path producing CO and OH,

487 and Curran et al. [39] favored production of CO at 1500 K by a ratio of 9:1. However, both mechanisms had
488 modeled only EP oxidation conditions, where the decomposition of HOCO has very little effect or sensitivity, in
489 contrast with the present pyrolysis conditions. Barker et al. [47] used master equation approach with an excited
490 HOCO* intermediate to see how the branching ratio of products (CO₂ + H or CO + OH) varies with temperature
491 and pressure. The rates provided by Barker et al. [47] were modified slightly (~ 50%) to increase the CO₂/CO
492 ratio. The modified rates, giving a ratio of CO₂/CO at 1500 K of about 1.9, are:



495 As shown in Figs. 12(b), 14(b) and 15, the relative ratio of the production of CH₃CH(C=O)OH to
496 CH₂CH₂(C=O)OH has significant sensitivities on the production of CO, C₂H₄ and H₂O in the pyrolysis of EP. For
497 these reactions, we used the rate expressions from Metcalfe et al. [3, 4] in our preliminary mechanism but
498 increased the rate of R3, producing CH₂CH₂(C=O)OH, by a factor of 2 and reduced the rate of R2, which produces
499 CH₃CH(C=O)OH, by a factor of 2. Thus the ratio of k₂/k₃ was reduced by a factor of 4 to improve the predicted
500 levels of the measured species. Finally, rates of decomposition of the resonantly stabilized radical
501 CH₃CH(C=O)OH were modified slightly, with the rate of reaction producing methyl ketene and OH reduced by
502 10% and the rate of reaction producing propenoic acid and H was increased by 10%, both relative to rates taken
503 from Metcalfe et al. [3, 4].

504 As discussed earlier, the decomposition of CH₃OCO plays a very critical role in controlling the CO₂/CO
505 ratio during methyl propanoate (MP) pyrolysis. The CH₃OCO decomposition reactions R21 and R25 have been
506 studied extensively [19, 30, 48, 49] using both theoretical and kinetic modeling approaches. In a recent shock
507 tube and kinetic modeling study of the pyrolysis of several methyl esters, Farooq et al. [19] observed that the
508 balance between these reactions strongly influenced the product ratio of CO₂/CO in pyrolysis of MB, and their

509 analysis suggested that the same reactions would be similarly important for pyrolysis of any methyl ester fuel.
510 The present study is very consistent with this observation. In the current work, the only significant mechanism
511 modification made to improve agreement between experimental and kinetic modeling results for MP pyrolysis
512 was to correct an error that was found in the thermochemistry of the CH_3OCO radical. It appears that the
513 number of internal rotors in the methyl formate species (the basis for the thermochemistry of its radical,
514 CH_3OCO) was inadvertently assumed to be one rotor, rather than the correct number of two, and this led to a
515 significant error in the equilibrium constant of CH_3OCO . In the current kinetic mechanism of MP/EP, the rates of
516 CH_3OCO decompositions to produce $\text{CH}_3 + \text{CO}_2$ or $\text{CH}_3\text{O} + \text{CO}$, R21 and R25, are written in the addition direction,
517 with the decomposition rates determined from the relevant equilibrium constants. The error in the number of
518 rotors produced decomposition reaction rates that favored the production of $\text{CH}_3\text{O} + \text{CO}$. When the
519 thermochemistry was corrected by Glaude [50], the two decomposition reactions of CH_3OCO strongly favored
520 production of $\text{CH}_3 + \text{CO}_2$. The sensitivity of the computed results for CO and CO_2 is evident in Figs. 12(a) and
521 13(a), and this correction in the decomposition rates made significant improvements in the computed results for
522 these species in MP pyrolysis. In particular, the corrected thermochemistry for CH_3OCO increased the rate of
523 R25 by more than a factor of 5. Our final values of the rates of reactions R21 and R25 agree well with rates used
524 in recent studies [19, 30, 48, 49]. Thermochemistry for species in kinetic reaction mechanisms can provide
525 sensitivity in computed results that can be comparable to that of reaction rate parameters, but the
526 documentation for thermochemical parameters such as bond energies, heats and entropies of formation, and
527 specific heats is not generally available. Tables of thermochemical parameters, usually provided in NASA
528 coefficient formats, are widely exchanged among kinetic modeling researchers, and it is very easy for errors like
529 that described here to occur and then be propagated rapidly amongst modeling researchers. In addition to
530 correcting the thermochemistry for CH_3OCO , the rates of the decomposition of MP were adjusted slightly to
531 decrease the CO production or increase the CO_2/CO ratio. The rates of R9 and R12 were increased by 50% and
532 the rates of R10 and R11 were reduced by 25%, all relative to rates taken from Yang et al. [1].

533 The above changes in the kinetic parameters produced the final mechanism that was used for the
534 computations summarized in Figs. 1, 2, and 5-15. The revised reaction rates used in the final mechanism are
535 summarized in Table 1. The specific reactions described in this section were found to be particularly sensitive
536 and all of them had not been tested or refined by previous kinetic modeling studies that were based on
537 oxidation experiments. Use of pyrolysis conditions made it possible to have sufficient sensitivity to them to
538 suggest corrections in their reaction rates. Improved rates have been determined for them, but the real result of
539 the present kinetic modeling is that further studies of these reactions would be desirable. Four of these
540 reactions involve complex decompositions of CH₃OCO and HOCO, which proceed via excited intermediate
541 adducts, and others involve branching ratios of hydrocarbon radicals, some involving resonantly stabilized
542 reactants or products.

543 Recently, there has been an increased interest in the chemical kinetics community to carry out
544 uncertainty analysis of reaction mechanisms and the use of global uncertainty analysis tools for theoretical
545 kinetics studies [51-53]. Such involved methods are beyond the scope of current work. However, a simple
546 estimation-based analysis was carried out to estimate the uncertainty in the proposed Arrhenius pre-
547 exponential factors. If f_k is the uncertainty factor of the rate coefficient, the uncertainty limits of the rate
548 parameters are $A_k f_k$ and A_k / f_k . The uncertainty factors are given in Table 1 for the reactions modified in the
549 current work. These uncertainty factors are obtained by considering the measurement uncertainty and the
550 sensitivity of the measured species to these rate constants. As discussed earlier, the combination of rate
551 constants proposed here provide improved predictions of the species measured during MP and EP pyrolysis. For
552 the uncertainty analysis, one specific rate constant was varied till it provided improved prediction of the species
553 most sensitive to that rate constant. Measured profiles of CO and CO₂ are very sensitive to HOCO and CH₃OCO
554 decomposition and this leads to relatively small uncertainty factors for reactions R7, R8, R21 and R25. Other rate
555 constants are assigned relatively large uncertainty factors due to complicated sensitivities of measured species

556 to these reactions. However, for all reactions listed in Table 1, the assigned uncertainty factors are smaller than
557 those in the original mechanisms.

558 **5. Conclusions**

559 Concentration time-histories of CO, CO₂, C₂H₄, and H₂O were measured using shock tube / laser
560 absorption methods to study the high temperature pyrolysis of methyl propanoate (MP) and ethyl propanoate
561 (EP). The measured species time-histories are used to elaborate the effect of structural difference (methyl vs
562 ethyl) on the production of radical, intermediate, and product species. Both fuels exhibit a two-stage pyrolysis
563 process – a rapid first stage followed by a long relaxation stage leading to equilibrium. The present experimental
564 conditions and available test times target the first pyrolysis stage where MP decays faster than EP. The pyrolysis
565 of EP is initiated entirely by the six-centered molecular elimination reaction (R1) that makes ethylene and
566 propanoic acid. This is followed by H abstraction reactions of propanoic acid and eventually the formation of
567 HOCO radical which determines the ratio of CO/CO₂ production. Updating the rate constants of HOCO
568 decomposition pathways and H abstractions of propanoic acid led to much-improved agreement between the
569 experimental species data and model predictions. The pyrolysis of MP, on the other hand, is controlled initially
570 by unimolecular decomposition and H abstraction reactions of MP. These reactions produce the important
571 CH₃OCO radical which controls CO/CO₂ production much like the HOCO radical in EP pyrolysis. The updated rate
572 constant / thermochemistry for the decomposition of CH₃OCO resulted in excellent agreement between
573 measured and simulated concentrations. We believe that the refined pyrolysis mechanism for MP/EP will be
574 very useful for the development of a comprehensive and validated chemical kinetic mechanism for biodiesel
575 combustion.

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583 Livermore National Laboratory under Contract DE-AC52-07NA27344.

584

585 **Supplementary Material**

586 The kinetic and thermodynamic files for the final mechanism are provided as supplementary material.

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705 **Tables**

706

707 Table 1: Rate constants used in the final MP/EP pyrolysis mechanism.

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	Reaction	A	n	E	f_k
R2	$C_2H_5(C=O)OH + H \rightarrow CH_3CH(C=O)OH + H_2$	6.25E+13	0	7300	1.6
R3	$C_2H_5(C=O)OH + H \rightarrow CH_2CH_2(C=O)OH + H_2$	2.60E+06	2.54	6756	1.6
R7	$HOCO \rightarrow CO + OH$	2.20E+26	-5.12	27570	1.25
R8	$HOCO \rightarrow CO_2 + H$	2.00E+36	-8.11	29060	1.25
R9	$C_2H_5 + CH_3OCO \rightarrow MP$	1.20E+13	0	0	1.4
R10	$CH_2COOCH_3 + CH_3 \rightarrow MP$	7.50E+12	0	0	1.7
R11	$C_2H_5CO + CH_3O \rightarrow MP$	6.00E+13	0	0	1.7
R12	$C_2H_5CO_2 + CH_3 \rightarrow MP$	1.50E+13	0	0	1.4
R21	$CH_3O + CO \rightarrow CH_3OCO$	1.55E+06	2.02	5730	1.20
R25	$CH_3 + CO_2 \rightarrow CH_3OCO$	4.76E+07	1.54	34700	1.20

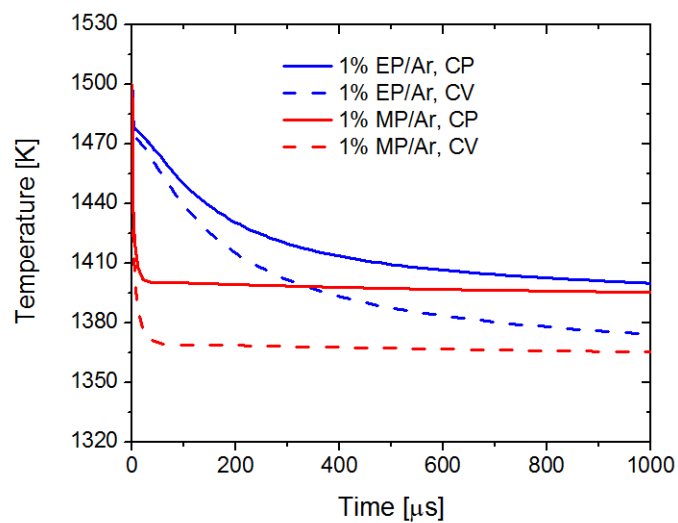
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710 Notes:

711 (a) $k = AT^n \exp(-E/RT)$, The units are in cm^3 , mol, s, cal.712 (b) $MP = CH_3CH_2(C=O)CH_3$ 713 (c) f_k is the uncertainty factor

714 (d) These rate constants are optimized over the measured temperature range (1250 – 1750 K)

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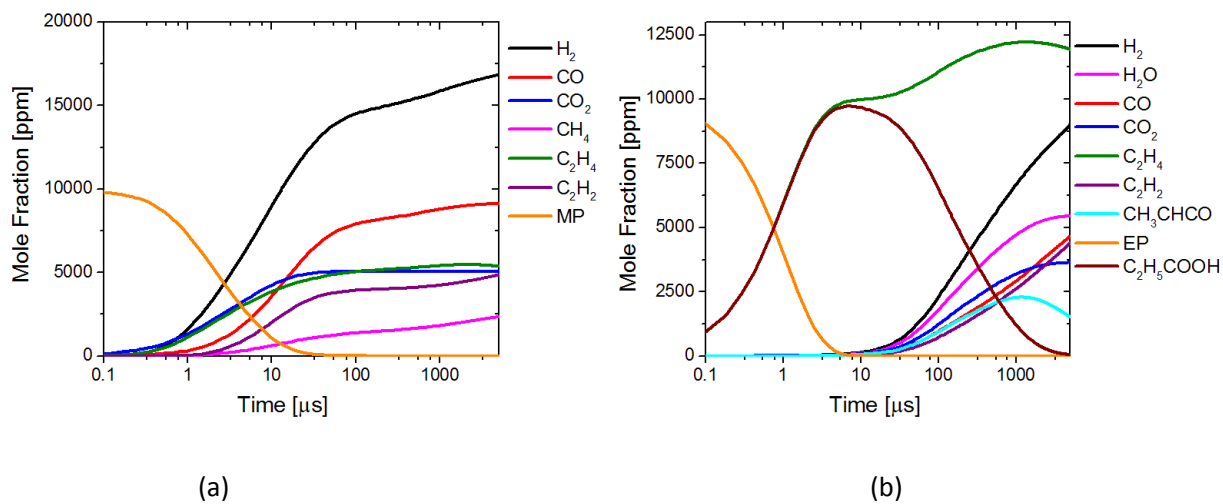
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718 Figure 1. Simulated temperature using the present kinetic mechanism with constant pressure (CP) and

719 constant volume (CV) adiabatic constraints. Initial conditions: $T = 1500$ K, $P = 1.5$ atm.

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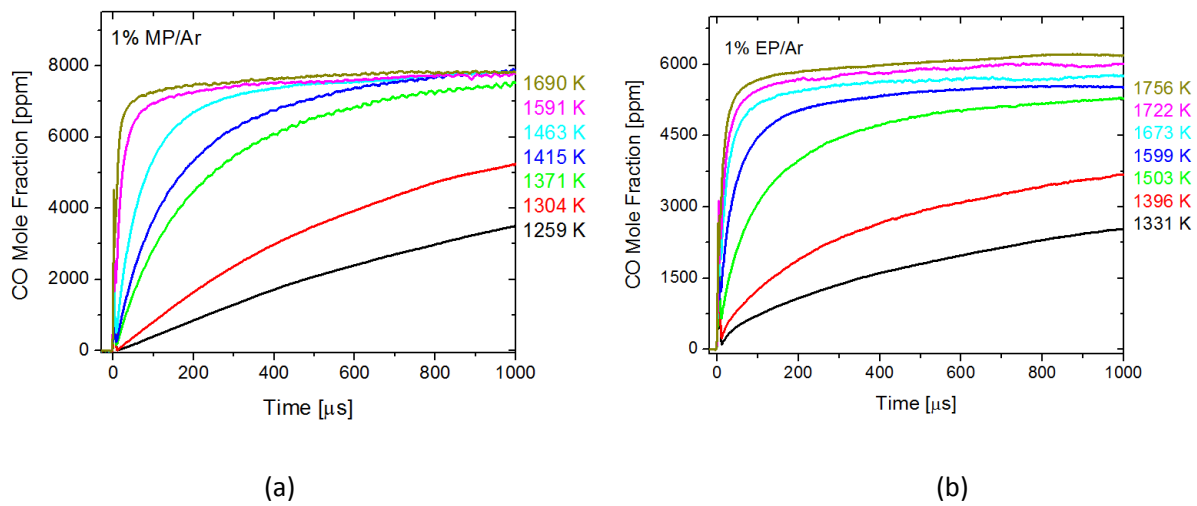


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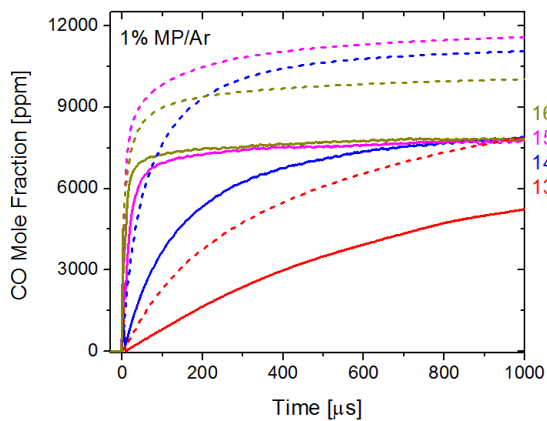
Figure 2. Computed species mole fractions using the final MP/EP kinetic mechanism from current work for (a) 1% MP/Ar, (b) 1% EP/Ar. Initial conditions: $T = 1500$ K, $P = 1.5$ atm.

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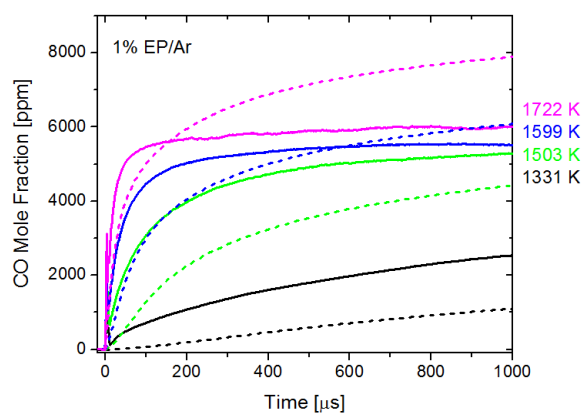


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Figure 3. Measured CO mole fraction profiles during the pyrolysis of (a) 1% MP/Ar, (b) 1% EP/Ar. Reflected shock temperatures are shown, whereas reflected shock pressures range from 1.25 to 1.5 atm.



(a)



(b)

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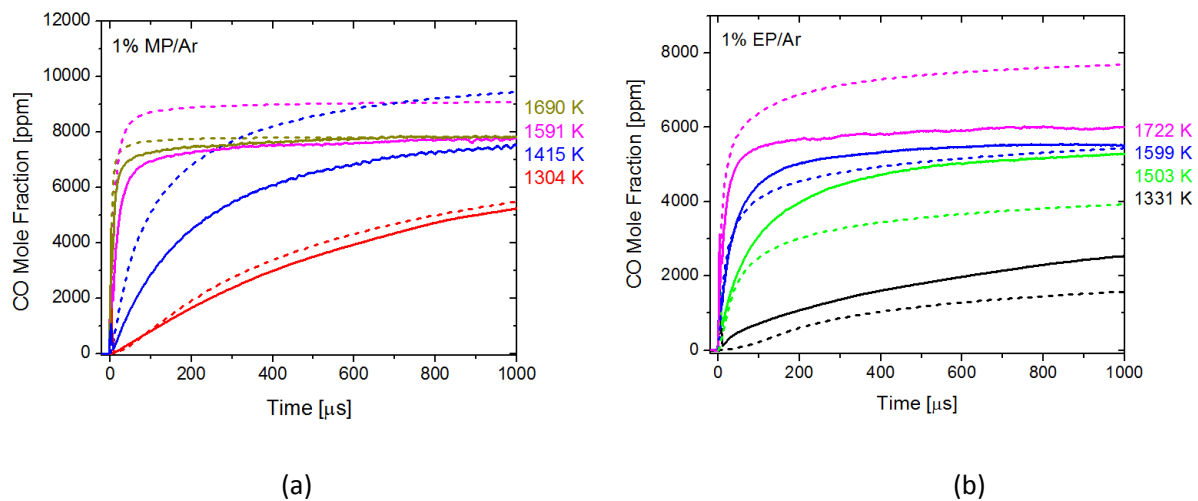
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Figure 4. Comparison of measured CO profiles (solid lines) with simulations (dash lines) using the preliminary kinetic mechanism [1, 2]. Reflected shock temperatures are shown, whereas reflected shock pressures range from 1.25 to 1.5 atm.



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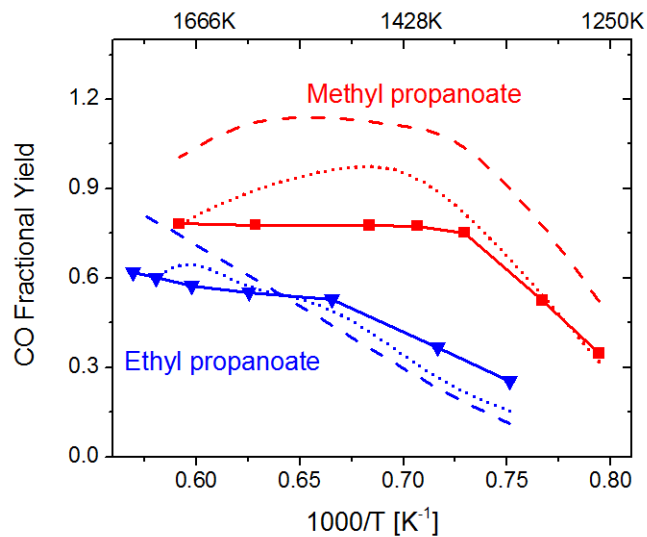
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Figure 5. Comparison of measured CO profiles (solid lines) with simulations (dash lines) using the final MP/EP kinetic mechanism from current work. Experimental conditions are same as in Fig. 4.

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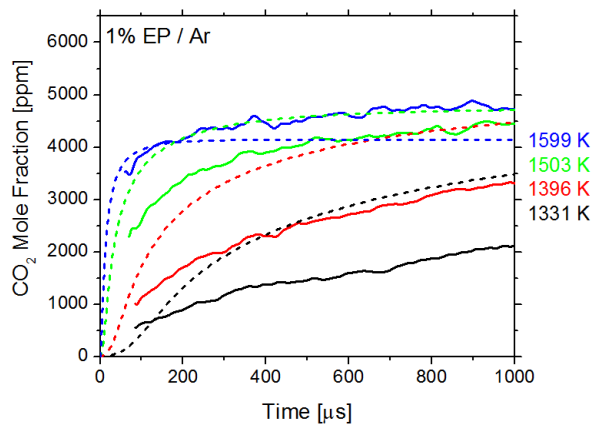
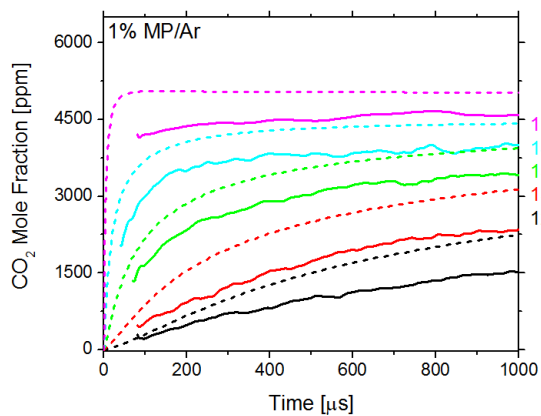
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Figure 6. CO fractional yield (ratio of CO mole fraction at 1 ms to the initial fuel mole fraction) for 1% MP/Ar and 1% EP/Ar pyrolysis. Symbols (connected by solid lines) represent measurements, dashed lines are predictions using the preliminary mechanism, and dotted lines are predictions using the final mechanism.



(a)

(b)

Figure 7. Comparison of measured CO profiles (solid lines) with simulations (dash lines) using the final MP/EP kinetic mechanism from current work. Reflected shock temperatures are shown, whereas reflected shock pressures range from 1.25 to 1.5 atm.

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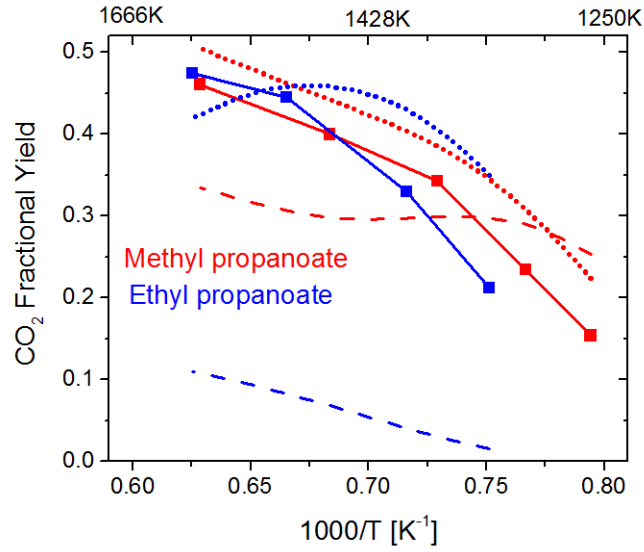
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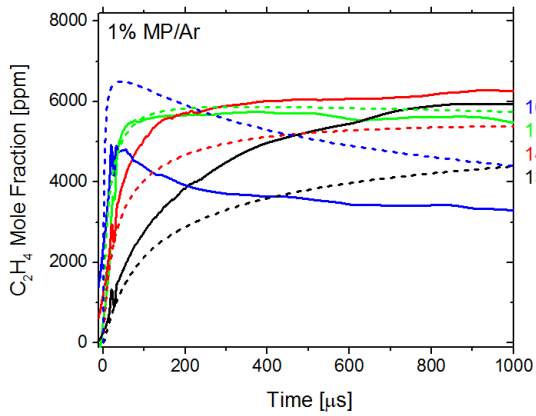
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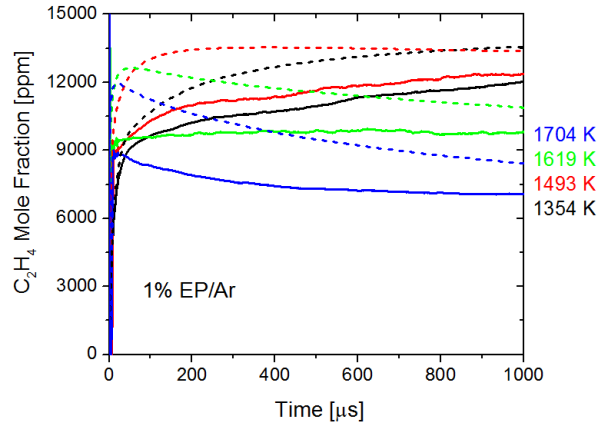
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Figure 8. CO₂ fractional yield (ratio of CO₂ mole fraction at 1 ms to the initial fuel mole fraction) for 1% MP/Ar and 1% EP/Ar pyrolysis. Symbols (connected by solid lines) represent measurements, dashed lines are predictions using the preliminary mechanism, and dotted lines are predictions using the final mechanism.



(a)



(b)

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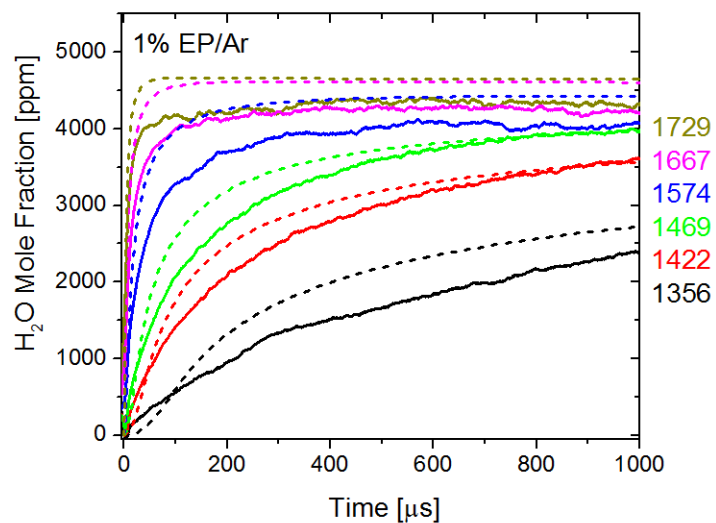
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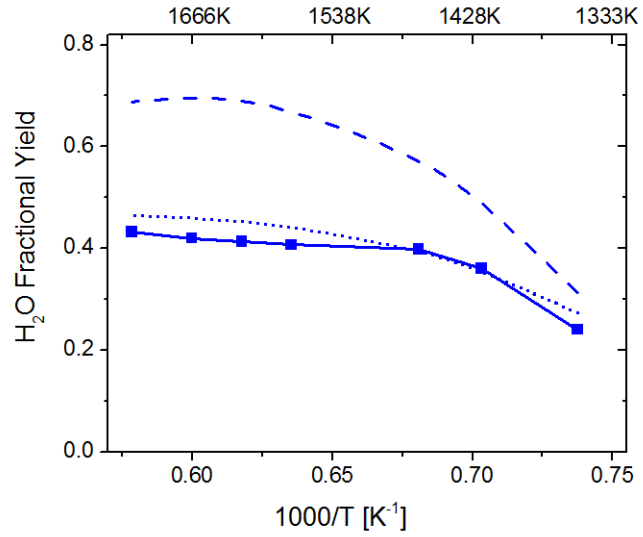
Figure 9. Comparison of measured ethylene profiles (solid lines) with simulations (dash lines) using the final MP/EP kinetic mechanism from current work. Reflected shock temperatures are shown, whereas reflected shock pressures range from 1.5 to 1.7 atm.

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Figure 10. Comparison of measured water profiles (solid lines) with simulations (dash lines) using the final MP/EP kinetic mechanism from current work. Reflected shock temperatures are shown, whereas reflected shock pressures range from 1.5 to 1.7 atm.



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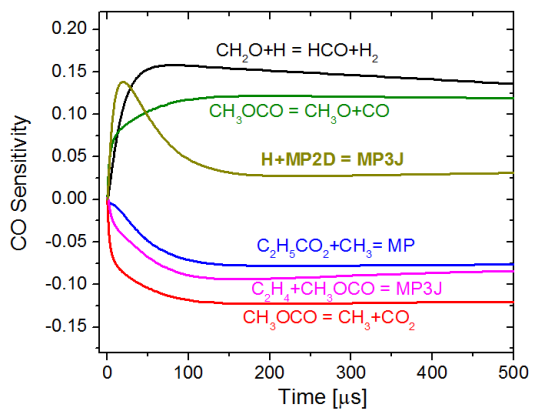
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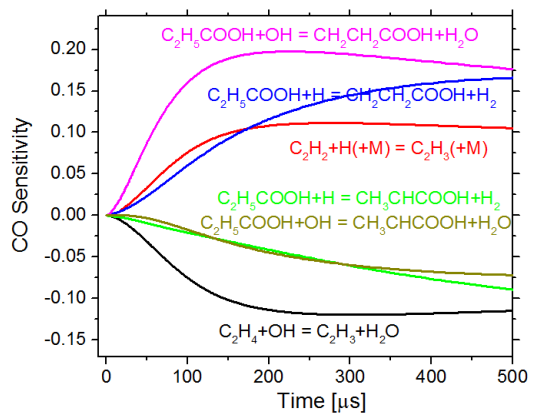
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Figure 11. Water fractional yield (ratio of H₂O mole fraction at 1 ms to the initial fuel mole fraction) for 1% EP/Ar pyrolysis. Symbols (connected by solid lines) represent measurements, dashed line is the prediction using the preliminary mechanism, and dotted line is the prediction using the final mechanism.



(a)



(b)

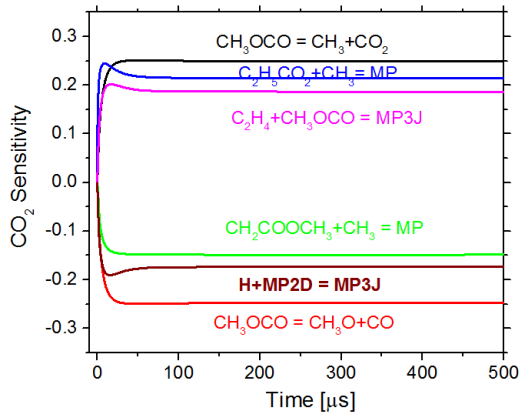
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805 Figure 12. CO sensitivity for (a) 1% MP/Ar, (b) 1% EP/Ar pyrolysis. Initial conditions: T = 1500 K, P = 1.5

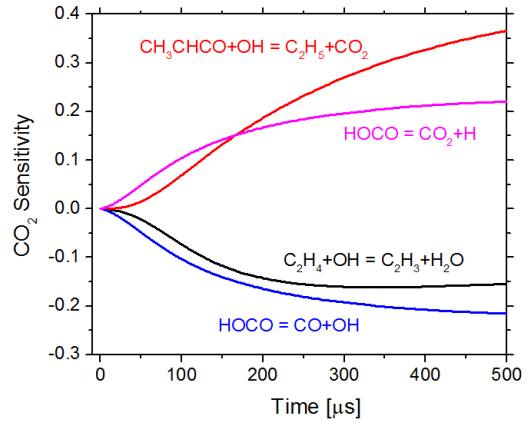
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(a)

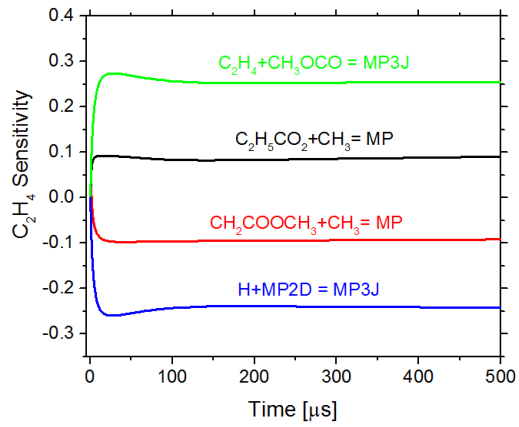


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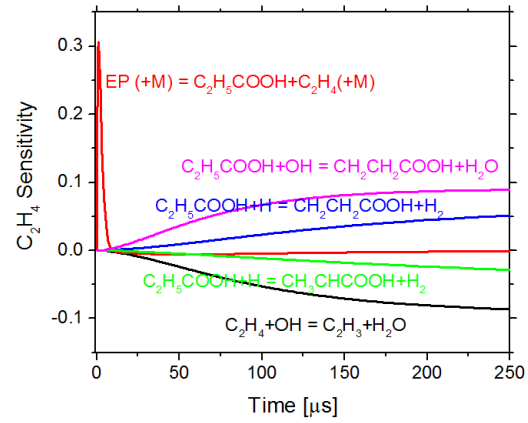
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813 Figure 13. CO₂ sensitivity for (a) 1% MP/Ar, (b) 1% EP/Ar pyrolysis. Initial conditions: T = 1500 K, P = 1.5
814 atm.

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(a)



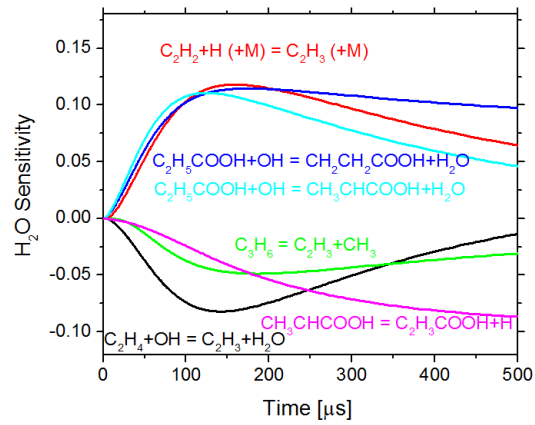
(b)

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819 Figure 14. Ethylene sensitivity for (a) 1% MP/Ar, (b) 1% EP/Ar pyrolysis. Initial conditions: $T = 1500$ K, $P =$
820 1.5 atm.

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Figure 15. H₂O sensitivity for 1% EP/Ar pyrolysis. Initial conditions: T = 1500 K, P = 1.5 atm.

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