

Experimental Evidence for the Existence of the HO₂–H₂O Complex

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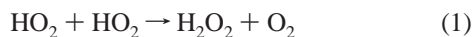
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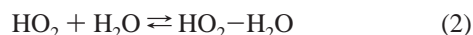
Complex formation in the interaction of HO₂ with H₂O was studied using Fourier transform infrared absorption spectroscopy. Studies were carried out between 230 and 298 K in the presence of excess H₂O. On the basis of measurements of HO₂ disappearance, equilibrium constants (K_c) for the formation of the complex were determined to be 1.7×10^{-16} , 4.1×10^{-17} , and $\leq 4 \times 10^{-18}$ cm³ molecule⁻¹ at 230, 250, and 298 K, respectively. The enthalpy for the reaction forming the complex was determined to be -36 ± 16 kJ mol⁻¹. This is in good agreement with previous estimates made from kinetic measurements and theoretical calculations.

I. Introduction

The hydroperoxyl self-reaction



plays an important role in the atmospheric chemistry of odd hydrogen, HO_x, and is the primary source of hydrogen peroxide in the atmosphere.¹ The reaction rate coefficient displays complicated functional behavior, with both pressure-dependent and pressure-independent pathways. This behavior has been rationalized in terms of a complex reaction mechanism involving an H₂O₄ intermediate. Water vapor has been found to enhance the reaction rate coefficient to a larger degree than can be explained by the increased vibrational quenching of H₂O relative to the normal buffer gases N₂ and O₂.^{2–10} Lii et al.⁷ accounted for the H₂O dependence with a multistep mechanism involving rapid formation of a water-complexed HO₂, i.e., HO₂–H₂O.



On the basis of this mechanism, Kircher and Sander¹⁰ have quantified the enhancement with the following expression:

$$k_1 = k_1^\circ \times \{1 + 1.4 \times 10^{-21}[\text{H}_2\text{O}] \exp(2200/T)\} \quad (3)$$

where k_1° refers to the condition with [H₂O] = 0. An enthalpy of formation of -37.6 kJ mol⁻¹ for the HO₂–H₂O complex has been deduced from the measured kinetic parameters, assuming the mechanism of Lii et al.⁷ This value compares reasonably well with the theoretically calculated values of -31 kJ mol⁻¹ and -32 kJ mol⁻¹ obtained by Hamilton and Naleway¹¹ and Aloisio and Francisco,¹² respectively.

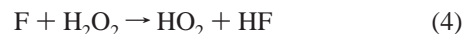
At present, there have been no direct experimental observations of the complex in the gas phase from which thermodynamic properties can be deduced. Previous kinetic studies have utilized HO₂ detection methods, such as UV absorption and mass spectrometry, that are likely to be equally sensitive to HO₂–H₂O. Consequently, it was assumed in those experiments that

decreases in signal in the presence of H₂O could not be attributed to the conversion of HO₂ to HO₂–H₂O, which would yield no net signal change, but rather to reactions of HO₂–H₂O with itself and with HO₂ that do not conserve the sum of the two species. Recently, the complex has been identified in a solid matrix by Nelander¹³ on the basis of observed infrared absorption features at 3236.2 cm⁻¹ (ν_1), 1479.3 cm⁻¹ (ν_2), and 1120.4 cm⁻¹ (ν_3). The matrix data do not allow for an enthalpy of formation to be derived, however.

In this work, we have attempted to obtain direct confirmation of the existence of the complex in the gas phase by probing gaseous mixtures of HO₂ and H₂O with infrared absorption spectroscopy in the 1100–1140 cm⁻¹ region. On the basis of the observed depletion of HO₂ in the presence of excess H₂O, as evidenced by decreases in HO₂ rotational line absorptions, we infer formation of the HO₂–H₂O complex. The observed temperature dependence of the HO₂ loss is used to derive the enthalpy of formation of the complex. The derived thermochemical properties enable us to assess the importance of this complex in the Earth's atmosphere.

II. Experimental Methods

The experiment was performed using a discharge flow cell and a Bomem FT-IR spectrometer with multipass optics that has been described previously.¹⁴ A schematic of the instrument, including modifications made for this experiment, is shown in Figure 1. The hydroperoxyl radical was made by reacting fluorine atoms with hydrogen peroxide.



Fluorine atoms were generated in a reactor sidearm by passage of molecular fluorine through a microwave discharge. The flow of atoms was mixed with a hydrogen peroxide flow, generated by the passage of helium carrier gas through a glass bubbler containing liquid H₂O₂, inside the main reactor portion of the apparatus, approximately 100 cm upstream of the infrared multipass absorption cell. Near stoichiometric conversion of F

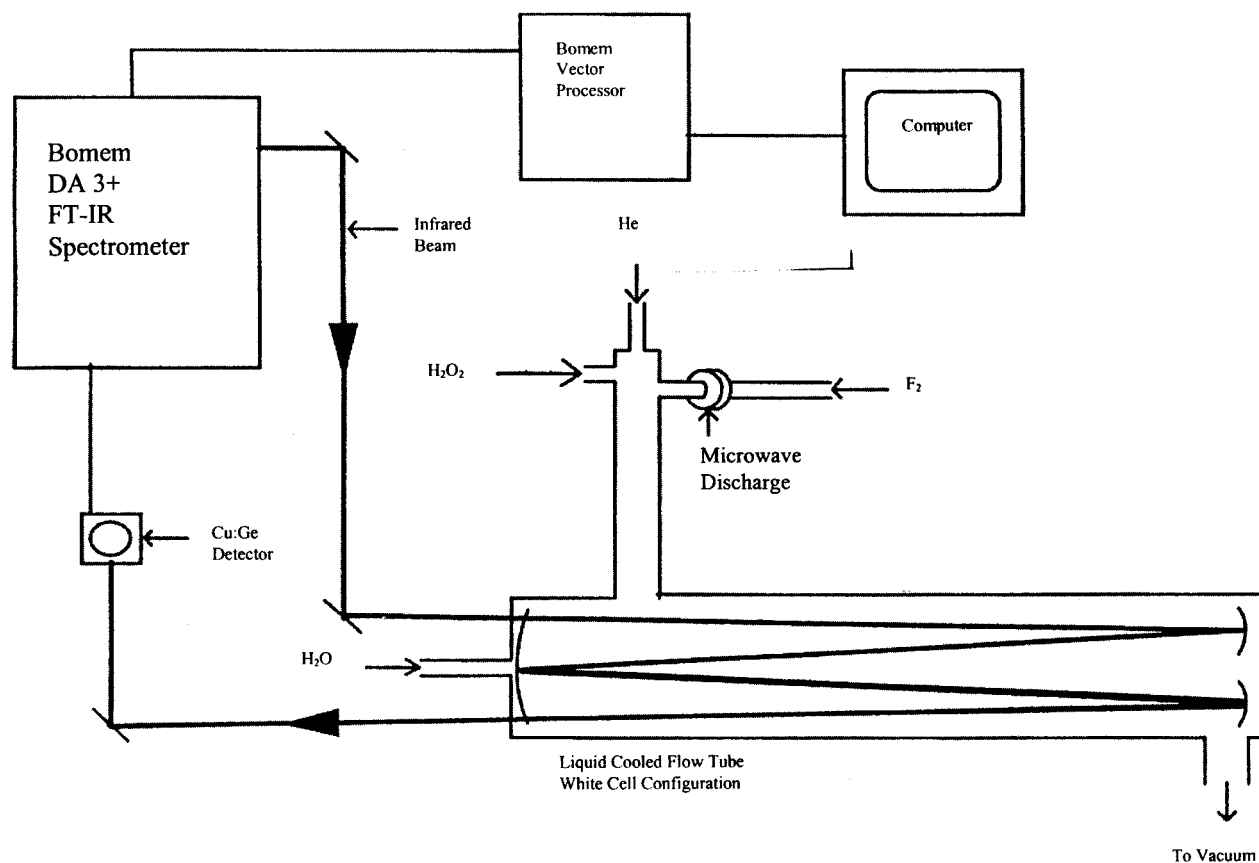


Figure 1. Diagram of the instrument used in these experiments.

to HO₂, prior to entry into the absorption cell, was achieved by maintaining a [H₂O₂] to [F] ratio in excess of 5. Initial HO₂ concentrations of up to 1×10^{14} molecule cm⁻³ in the reactor could be achieved using this chemical titration scheme. Conversion of F to HO₂ was verified by two methods. First, the hydrogen peroxide infrared signal was monitored with and without the discharge and a decrease in H₂O₂ signal was observed with the discharge on. Second, NO was added to the flowtube, and some of it was converted to NO₂, presumably by reaction with the HO₂ being formed.

Formation of the HO₂-H₂O complex was attempted by adding an excess of water vapor, relative to the HO₂ at the upstream end of the absorption cell. Gaseous water vapor concentrations of up to 1×10^{16} molecule cm⁻³ were added in to the absorption cell by passing helium through a glass bubbler filled with liquid water. The total pressure in the absorption cell was maintained at approximately 0.8 Torr by addition of excess helium. Residence times in the absorption cell were decreased to approximately 100 ms in order to minimize loss of HO₂ molecules through the HO₂ self-reaction. In addition, the flow tube was coated with halocarbon wax in order to minimize wall loss of HO₂. Differences in the wall loss rates between HO₂ and the HO₂-H₂O complex are assumed to be small. No wall loss measurements were performed in this study, however. The entire flow system (reactor plus absorption cell) was temperature controlled between 230 and 298 K by cycling liquid-nitrogen-cooled methanol through an outer glass jacket.

Spectroscopic probing of the reactants and products was carried out using a Bomem DA3+.002 Fourier transform spectrometer equipped with a global infrared source and a KCl beam splitter. Signal was detected using a liquid-helium-cooled copper-doped germanium detector (Santa Barbara Research)

equipped with narrow band-pass filters for the regions of interest. The cell was configured with a White-type optics cell that provided a total optical path length of 48 m (32 passes of the 1.5-m flow-tube length). High-resolution (0.04 cm⁻¹, apodized) spectra with noise levels near 0.1% were obtained by coaddition of approximately 1000 scans (6 h total observation time). The choice of resolution represented a compromise between minimization of the spectrum acquisition time and resolution of individual and/or blended HO₂ lines

The gases used in this experiment were obtained from Spectra Gas (F₂, 5% in He) and Airco (He, 99.995%). Hydrogen peroxide, obtained from FMC (70% purity), was purified by distillation to at least 95% purity and stored at approximately 0 °C prior to use. Liquid water samples were distilled and deionized prior to use. The number densities of H₂O₂ and H₂O in the reactor were calculated from measured gaseous partial pressures in the bubblers and carrier gas flow rates through the bubblers. Additionally, H₂O₂ concentrations were estimated using IR and UV absorption data, the former utilizing H₂O₂ rotational line measurements in the 1100 cm⁻¹ region and absorption cross sections obtained in past experiments,¹⁵ and the latter using a single pass of deuterium lamp radiation directed through the absorption cell and onto a diode array detector (PARC model 1461/1412 OMA 111, equipped with a 600-groove/mm grating). UV measurements at 250 nm were converted to H₂O₂ concentrations using the NASA-recommended¹⁶ absorption cross sections. The three methods yielded H₂O₂ concentrations that were in good agreement with one another. Concentrations of fluorine atoms in the reactor were estimated from measured gas flow rates and cell pressures under the assumption of complete dissociation of molecular fluorine in the discharge region. Finally, HO₂ concentrations were estimated by assuming stoichiometric conversion of the F atoms.

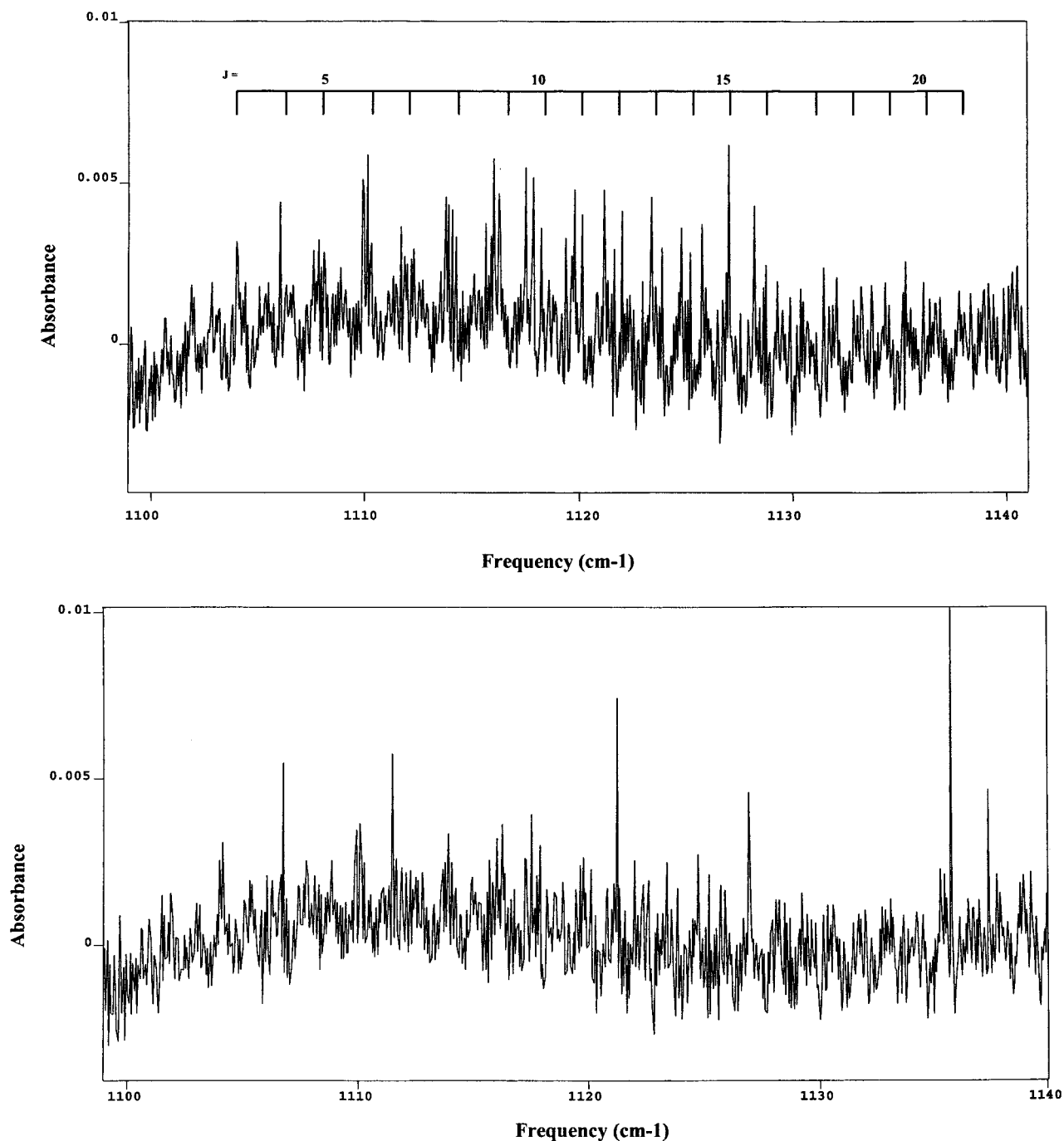


Figure 2. (a) Absorption spectrum of the ν_3 band of HO₂ without water. (b) Absorption spectrum of the ν_3 band of HO₂ with water.

III. Results

The column abundance of HO₂ in the absorption cell was monitored through its ν_3 vibrational band (Figure 2a). This band was preferred to the ν_1 and ν_2 bands, which were also observable, because of the relative lack of interference by H₂O and H₂O₂ bands in the ν_3 spectral region. The ν_3 band has been characterized previously in terms of both rotational line assignments and line strengths.¹⁷ We were able to observe over 70 HO₂ absorption features between 1107 and 1134 cm⁻¹, with signal-to-noise ratios approaching 10:1. The noise level for these spectra are approximately 0.1%. Many of the absorption features were blended lines.

Typical HO₂ peak line absorbances obtained were on the order of 1%, corresponding to column abundances of approximately 5×10^{16} molecule cm⁻² and average HO₂ concentrations of 3

$\times 10^{12}$ cm⁻³. Because of the HO₂ self-reaction (reaction 1) an axial gradient was established over the length of the absorption cell. On the basis of the recommended Arrhenius expression for the pressure-independent HO₂ self-reaction rate coefficient, i.e., $k_1^\circ = 2.3 \times 10^{-13} \exp(600/T)$, we calculate that HO₂ concentrations decreased from the upstream to the downstream end of the absorption cell by approximate factors of 4, 6, and 7 at 298, 250, and 230 K, respectively, for initial HO₂ concentrations of 1×10^{14} molecule cm⁻³.

No discernible decrease in the HO₂ column abundance (<5%) was evident when water vapor was introduced into the absorption cell at room temperature. For these trials, water vapor concentrations were increased to approximately 1.5×10^{16} molecule cm⁻³, a limit dictated by the cell total pressure constraint. At the lower temperatures investigated, addition of

water vapor resulted in marked decreases in HO₂ column abundances (see Figure 2b). Limitations on the amount of added water vapor became more severe at the lower temperatures because of concern over condensation and possible increased HO₂ wall loss. UV absorption measurements, showing substantial loss of beam transmission at the onset of ice crystal growth, were used to define the maximum water vapor concentrations of 1×10^{16} molecules cm⁻³ at 250 K and 2×10^{15} molecules cm⁻³ at 230 K. For these water vapor concentrations, the associated decreases in HO₂ column abundance were $41 \pm 11\%$ at 250 K and $34 \pm 12\%$ at 230 K as calculated by taking the ratio of the sample and reference spectra for 18 of the strongest HO₂ absorption lines.

The observed HO₂ column decreases are substantially larger than can be explained by the known H₂O-catalyzed rate increase of the HO₂ self-reaction. According to eq 3, the rate constant for reaction 1 under our experimental conditions increases by a factor of 1.09 at 250 K and 1.04 at 230 K. These increases in the HO₂ self-reaction rate translate to decreases in the HO₂ column abundance of only 5% and 3% at 250 and 230 K, respectively. As is evidenced by the data of Kircher and Sander,¹⁰ the uncertainties attached to the parameters in eq 3 are far less than those required to explain our current observations. Consequently, we attribute the differences between observed and expected HO₂ behavior to the formation of a molecular complex between the hydroperoxyl radical and water, i.e., to reaction 2. The observed decreases in the HO₂ spectral lines were accompanied by the appearance of a number of new spectral features in the 1100–1140 cm⁻¹ region. The new features suffer from a poor signal-to-noise ratio (2:1) and are not readily assigned.

The enthalpy of reaction 2 can be derived from the experimental HO₂ data provided that equilibrium is established rapidly, i.e., within 10 ms, between HO₂ and the complex. This proviso requires the termolecular rate coefficient for reaction 2 to be greater than 10^{-31} cm⁶ molecule⁻² s⁻¹. Although we cannot verify that equilibrium is established, this is a plausible value given the expected large binding energy and high number of low-frequency vibrations associated with HO₂–H₂O. The equilibrium constant for reaction 2 can be written as

$$K_c = \frac{[\text{HO}_2 - \text{H}_2\text{O}]}{[\text{HO}_2][\text{H}_2\text{O}]} = \frac{\Delta\text{HO}_2}{[\text{HO}_2][\text{H}_2\text{O}]} \quad (5)$$

where the equilibrium constant is given in units of cubic centimeters per molecule and ΔHO_2 is the fractional decrease in the HO₂ column abundance with addition of H₂O. On the basis of the observed HO₂ decreases, we derive equilibrium constants of $(4.1 \pm 1.1) \times 10^{-17}$ cm³ molecule⁻¹ and $(1.7 \pm 0.6) \times 10^{-16}$ cm³ molecule⁻¹ at 250 and 230 K, respectively. From the room-temperature measurements, we infer an upper bound of 4×10^{-18} cm³ molecule⁻¹ for the equilibrium constant at 298 K.

From these data, one can calculate the heat of reaction, ΔH , for reaction 2 using the equation

$$d(\ln K_p) = \frac{\Delta H}{R} d(T^{-1}) \quad (6)$$

where K_p is the equilibrium constant in terms of pressure, R is the ideal gas constant, and T is the temperature. The relationship between K_p and K_c for bimolecular complexes is treated by Vigasin.¹⁸ By making a van't Hoff plot of $\ln K_p$ vs T^{-1} , ΔH is obtained from the slope of the line and ΔS from the intercept. Using this method, a value of (-36 ± 16) kJ mol⁻¹ is obtained for the reaction enthalpy. Similarly, a value of (-85 ± 40) J

TABLE 1: Thermodynamic Data

	this work	ref 11	ref 12
ΔH^a	-36 ± 16	-31	-32
ΔS^b	-85 ± 40	-103	-107

^a Units for ΔH are kJ mol⁻¹. ^b Units for ΔS are J mol⁻¹ K⁻¹.

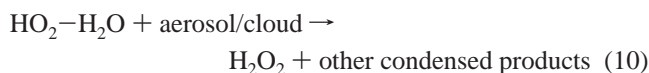
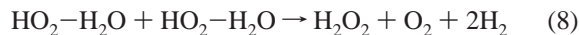
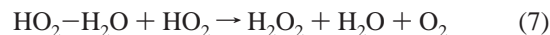
mol⁻¹ K⁻¹ is calculated for the reaction entropy. The present results are summarized and compared with previous estimates in Table 1. There is good agreement between the results of this work and those of Cox and Burrows,⁵ with the latter being based on experimental kinetics data. Both of the experimentally based estimates yield enthalpies that are approximately 15% higher and entropies that are approximately 20% lower than those derived from previous theoretical treatments. Given the theoretical and experimental difficulties in studying the HO₂–H₂O complex, these differences are not considered to be significant.

IV. Discussion

Application of high-resolution infrared spectroscopy to the HO₂ + H₂O system has provided us with a unique diagnostic for decoupling reactive changes in HO₂ and HO₂–H₂O concentrations. Using this probe, we have observed HO₂ loss in the presence of H₂O that cannot be rationalized in terms of the previously characterized H₂O-catalyzed acceleration of the HO₂ self-reaction. An analysis of the data in terms of HO₂–H₂O formation yields enthalpy and entropy values that are consistent with previous estimates determined both theoretically and experimentally. Taken together, the various studies provide strong evidence for the existence of an HO₂–H₂O complex with a binding energy of approximately 35 kJ mol⁻¹.

The relative stability of the complex coupled with the presence of large ambient concentrations of H₂O, implies that HO₂–H₂O may coexist with HO₂ in the Earth's atmosphere. Both the atmospheric water vapor concentration and the reaction 2 equilibrium constant are strong functions of altitude; however, they vary in opposite directions. On one hand, [H₂O] decreases from approximately 3×10^{17} molecule cm⁻³ near the surface to 2×10^{13} molecule cm⁻³ at the tropopause. On the other hand, the equilibrium constant increases from approximately 2×10^{-18} cm³ molecule⁻¹ near the surface to 1×10^{-15} cm³ molecule⁻¹ at the tropopause. Convolution of these parameters favors HO₂–H₂O formation at altitudes between 1 and 3 km. In that altitude range, HO₂–H₂O levels may rise to 30% of HO₂ levels.

Because of its fast chemical coupling with HO₂ through reaction 2, the primary atmospheric role of HO₂–H₂O is as a temporary reservoir of HO₂. A number of chemical and photochemical processes involving HO₂–H₂O carry the potential to affect atmospheric HO_x levels, namely



Reactions 7 and 8 are likely to be faster than the HO₂ self-reaction (reaction 1) but are presumably captured in the kinetic results that form the basis of the NASA¹⁶ recommendations for reaction 1. Reactions 9 and 10 are unlikely to be substantially faster than the analogous HO₂ processes. In the case of reaction 9, no distinct spectral features, apart from those already known for HO₂, have been observed under conditions where HO₂ and

HO₂–H₂O should coexist. This implies that neither the absorption spectrum nor the cross sections of HO₂–H₂O are significantly different than those of HO₂. In the case of reaction 10, although there are no data on HO₂–H₂O heterogeneous chemistry, previous studies have shown that HO₂ is taken up with near unit probability by a number of different surface types.¹⁶ It is also possible that complexation affects the wall loss rate of HO₂ in experiments. As mentioned earlier however, we have no evidence to indicating this was the case.

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