

Feature Article

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Modeling Plasma-based CO₂ and CH₄ Conversion in Mixtures with N₂, O₂ and H₂O: the Bigger Plasma Chemistry Picture

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ABSTRACT: Due to the unique properties of plasma technology, its use in gas conversion applications is gaining significant interest around the globe. Plasma-based CO₂ and CH₄ conversion have become major research areas. Many investigations have already been performed regarding the single component gases, i.e. CO₂ splitting and CH₄ reforming, as well as for two component mixtures, i.e. dry reforming of methane (CO₂/CH₄), partial oxidation of methane (CH₄/O₂), artificial photosynthesis (CO₂/H₂O), CO₂ hydrogenation (CO₂/H₂), and even first steps towards the influence of N₂ impurities have been taken, i.e. CO₂/N₂ and CH₄/N₂. In this feature article we briefly discuss the advances made in literature for these different steps from a plasma chemistry modeling point of view. Subsequently, we present a comprehensive plasma chemistry set, combining the knowledge gathered in this field so far, and supported with extensive experimental data. This set can be used for chemical kinetics plasma modeling for all possible combinations of CO₂, CH₄, N₂, O₂ and H₂O, to investigate the bigger picture of the underlying plasmachemical pathways for these mixtures in a dielectric barrier discharge plasma. This is extremely valuable for the optimization of existing plasma-based CO₂ conversion and CH₄ reforming processes, as well as for investigating the influence of N₂, O₂ and H₂O on these processes, and even to support plasma-based multi-reforming processes.

1. INTRODUCTION: PLASMA TECHNOLOGY

Today—more than ever—plasma technology lies at the base of modern technology, as the entire microelectronics industry relies on plasma-surface interactions.¹⁻² These interactions make it possible for scientists to extend Moore's law by providing the current nanometer resolution of microprocessors.

In general, plasma consists of various types of ions (both positive and negative), electrons and a large variety of neutral species, i.e. different types of atoms, molecules, radicals and excited species. This makes plasma a highly reactive—but complex—chemical cocktail, which is of interest to many potential applications.^{1,3-4}

Plasma is often referred to as the 'fourth state of matter'. Indeed, upon increasing energy input, matter transforms in the sequence: solid, liquid, (neutral) gas and finally ionized gas or plasma. Although plasma might not be so widely known as the other three states of matter, 99 % of the visible universe is actually in plasma state, mainly as stars (including our Sun) and interstellar matter. Furthermore, natural plasmas also occur on Earth, in the form of most natural occurring weather phenomena which emit light, e.g. lightning, auroras (Borealis and Australis), Saint Elmo's fire, and red sprites.

Beside natural plasmas, two main groups of man-made plasmas are distinguished, i.e. high temperature or fusion plasmas and low temperature plasmas or gas discharges. The latter group can be further subdivided based on whether or not the plasma is in thermal equilibrium. Due to the multitude in different types of species, which can all have different temperatures and degrees of freedom, plasma can exhibit—and is defined by—multiple temperatures, e.g., gas temperature, electron temperature, ion temperature, vibrational temperature, rotational temperature. When—in a localized area—these temperatures are the same, the plasma is said to be in 'local thermodynamic equilibrium' (LTE), and mostly called a 'thermal plasma'. In the other case, the plasma is said to be in 'non-local thermodynamic equilibrium' (non-LTE), and mostly called a 'non-thermal plasma'.

One of the main reasons why low temperature (non-LTE) plasmas have such a large potential for a wide variety of applications, is their capability of producing a reactive chemical environment while staying at room temperature. This is possible due to most of the energy being directed into the electrons, leading to a much higher electron temperature (T_e), compared to the gas temperature (T_g). Subsequently, these highly energetic electrons can activate the gas and initiate reactions by electron impact collisions, rather than the classical form of energy used in industry, i.e. heat.

Applications range from materials science (e.g., coating deposition, surface modification, nanotechnology, and chip manufacturing, as mentioned above) over lighting, lasers, plasma displays (as plasma emits light due to the presence of many excited species), to analytical chemistry, thrusters, as well as environmental, energy and medical applications (e.g., sterilization, wound healing and even cancer treatment).^{1,3-4} Environmental and energy applications include, among others, air pollution control,⁵ nitrogen fixation from the air to form ammonia and nitric oxides,⁶⁻⁷ hydrocarbon reforming⁸⁻¹⁰ and CO₂ conversion into value-added chemicals and fuels.¹¹ These applications often use a combination of plasma with catalysts, yielding plasma catalysis.¹¹⁻¹⁴

To improve these applications, a good knowledge of the underlying plasma processes is indispensable. The

latter can be obtained by experiments and computer modeling. As detailed measurements inside the plasma are not always straightforward, modeling can indeed be of great value. This feature article will focus on the continuous research efforts in modeling the plasma chemistry for the growing application of low temperature (non-LTE) plasmas used for CO₂ conversion and CH₄ reforming, as well as combinations with other gases, and highlight the contributions of the PLASMANT research group in this field.¹⁵⁻¹⁶ Based on the gained knowledge so far, and an extensive set of experiments carried out for various gas mixtures and mixing ratios, a new comprehensive plasma chemistry model is presented that can be used to describe the underlying mechanisms of CO₂ and CH₄ conversion, also in the presence of N₂, O₂ and H₂O.

2. PLASMA CHEMISTRY MODELING FOR CO₂ CONVERSION AND CH₄ REFORMING

Interest in the application of plasma technology for CO₂ conversion and CH₄ reforming has been growing rapidly.^{9,11,17-20} Due to the adverse effects of climate change on our society, the conversion of these gases into value-added chemicals and fuels is considered as one of the great challenges of the 21st century.²¹ Successfully converting the greenhouse gas CO₂ would be interesting from both an economic and ecological perspective. This would lead to the successful generation of an artificial closed carbon loop, which fits into the ‘cradle-to-cradle’ concept,²² i.e., upcycling waste material into new feedstock. Additionally, with the increase of biogas, landfill gas and hydrogenation of CO₂ to CH₄, the straightforward reforming of CH₄ into liquid products would be beneficial, because the energy density of liquid fuel is much higher and it is easier to transport.²³⁻²⁴

As outlined in an extensive recent review on the use of plasma technology for CO₂ conversion:¹¹ “Plasmas possess some important advantages over other (novel) technologies for the conversion of CO₂ and CH₄: (i) they can operate at room temperature using any source of (renewable) electricity, (ii) they have a large flexibility in terms of the feeds that need to be processed, (iii) they provide an extremely flexible ‘turnkey’ process, which allows for the efficient storage of energy, peak shaving and grid stabilization, (iv) the reactors have low investment and operating costs, (v) they have a simple scalability both in size and applicability, and (vi) last but not least, the technology does not rely on rare earth materials—making it rather unique at this point. This unprecedented combination of features gives plasmachemical conversion a very high overall flexibility, making it an extremely useful and valuable technology for CCU.”

To improve this application, several research groups developed models for chemical kinetics simulations, to better understand the underlying mechanisms, and a brief literature overview will be given below. This development can be subdivided in three main stages: (1) modeling single component molecular gases, i.e. plasma-based CO₂ splitting and CH₄ reforming; (2) investigating common two component mixtures, i.e. dry reforming of methane (CO₂/CH₄), partial oxidation of methane (CH₄/O₂), artificial photosynthesis (CO₂/H₂O) and CO₂ hydrogenation (CO₂/H₂); (3) moving towards more realistic gas mixtures by investigating the effect of N₂ both as admixture and impurity, i.e. CO₂/N₂ and CH₄/N₂. The following subsections will be divided according to these three stages.

The knowledge obtained during these different stages is now combined into one comprehensive chemical kinetics plasma model for use in low temperature (non-LTE) plasmas, presented for the first time in this feature

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article. Therefore, in the following subsections, we will each time compare the CO_2 and/or CH_4 conversion, calculated with this new model, with our previous (published) experimental data, in order to step-by-step validate the individual chemistry sets. This validation will be performed for a dielectric barrier discharge (DBD) plasma, as the chemistry model presented in this feature article is specifically developed for this type of plasma. A DBD plasma is created by applying a potential difference between two electrodes, of which at least one is covered by a dielectric barrier. For CO_2 and CH_4 conversion applications, a tubular DBD reactor is most often used,¹¹ consisting of an inner electrode surrounded by a dielectric tube, covered by an outer electrode (see Figure 1).

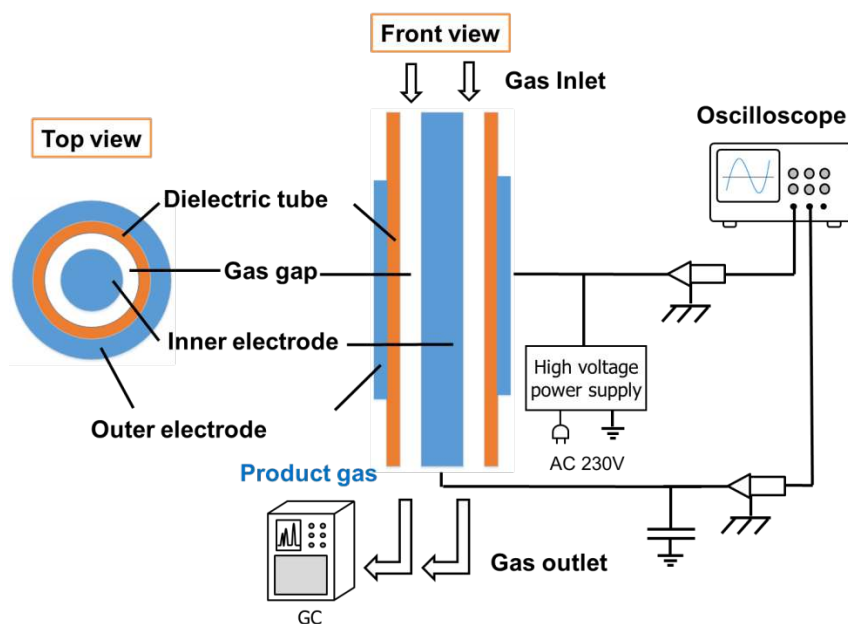


Figure 1. Schematic diagram of a dielectric barrier discharge (DBD).

Subsequently, in section 3 we will present this new comprehensive chemical kinetics plasma model for use in low temperature (non-LTE) plasmas. The applications of this extensive model are broad. They can range from very specific investigations, like the effect of CH_4 on NO_x mitigation for CO_2/N_2 plasmas, to realistic industrial gas mixtures for dry reforming of methane by inclusion of N_2 , as well as unravelling the possibilities for plasma-based multi-reforming processes. Furthermore, this chemistry set can also be used as a foundation to build a comprehensive computational data set in the field of plasma-assisted combustion.²⁵⁻²⁶ Finally, certain data from this set could even be used for exotic models, like planetary atmosphere and spacecraft re-entry modeling.
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2.1 Single Component Molecular Gases

With the breakthrough of sufficient—and continuously increasing—computational power available to researchers, plasmachemical modeling efforts could expand from simple noble gases towards reactive molecular gases.

In the past 10 years many different plasmachemical kinetic models have been developed for pure CO_2 splitting in various kinds of plasmas.^{9,29-49} Several of these models have been developed in the research group

PLASMANT.²⁹⁻³⁹ Furthermore, there is also interest in pure CH₄ reforming, also known as ‘the pyrolysis of methane’, used to synthesize higher hydrocarbons.⁹ Few models exist in literature,⁵⁰⁻⁵³ of which one has been developed in the research group PLASMANT.⁵²

Figure 2 illustrates a comparison of the calculated CO₂ conversion, using our new comprehensive model (see section 3), with measured values for a pure CO₂ DBD plasma,²⁹ at a fixed plasma power of 40 W and varying the gas flow rate to yield different values of the specific energy input (SEI). The CO₂ conversion is mainly caused by electron impact dissociation at these conditions (see below and ref. (29)). The conversion gradually increases with rising SEI, both in the experiments and calculation results, which is logical as more energy is put into the system. Above 25 eV/molecule, the model does not show saturation yet, although it is observed in the experimental data. However, as described in the review of Snoeckx and Bogaerts,¹¹ these higher SEI values are not attractive, because of very low energy efficiency. The recommended SEI range is in the order of 0.1 to 5 eV/molecule. Therefore, we may conclude that the agreement between model and experiments is good, especially in the SEI region of most practical interest.

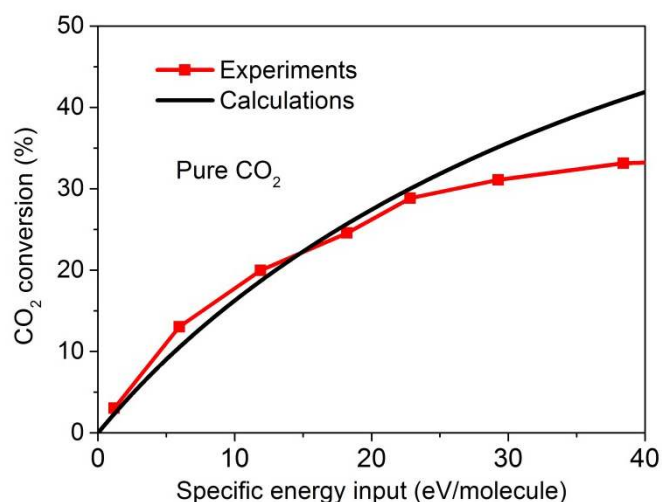


Figure 2. Comparison of the calculated CO₂ conversion, as obtained from our new comprehensive plasma chemistry model, with measured data adopted from ref. 29, as a function of SEI, at a fixed plasma power of 40 W and varying gas flow rate.

2.2 Two Component Mixtures

With even more computing power and the successful development of models for simulating single component molecular gases, as described above, the combination of these models into two component reactive mixtures was the logical—albeit not always easy—next step.

2.2.1 Dry Reforming and Partial Oxidation Of Methane

The combined conversion of CO₂ and CH₄, also known as ‘dry reforming of methane’ (DRM) has been extensively studied,^{9,11} and a variety of models have been developed in literature.⁵⁴⁻⁶⁶ Again, several of these models have been developed within the research group PLASMANT.⁶³⁻⁶⁶ Besides CO₂, another—stronger—oxidant used to reform CH₄ is O₂, and this combination is known as ‘partial oxidation of methane’ (POX).⁹

Several modeling investigations exist in literature,⁶⁶⁻⁷² including one from our group PLASMANT.⁶⁶ Although this process leads to higher CH₄ conversions than DRM, its strong oxidative character causes a total oxidation of CH₄, producing CO₂, and is therefore of less interest.

Figure 3 illustrates the calculated absolute conversions of CH₄ and CO₂ in plasma-based DRM as a function of discharge power using our new comprehensive model (see section 3), in comparison with experimental values obtained from Ref. (63), for a DBD in a 1:1 CO₂/CH₄ mixture at a total flow rate of 50 sccm. The CH₄ and CO₂ conversions both increase with discharge power, which is again logical, and the CH₄ conversion is about a factor 1.5 higher than the CO₂ conversion. Very good agreement is reached between calculated and experimental conversions.

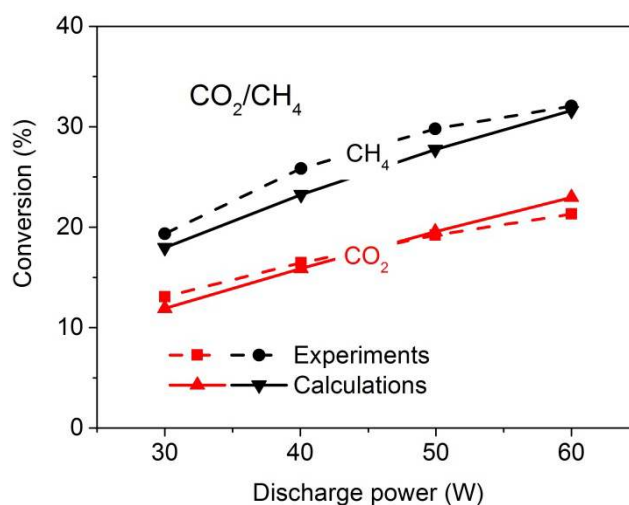


Figure 3. Comparison of the calculated absolute conversion of CO₂ and CH₄, as obtained from our new comprehensive plasma chemistry model, with measured data adopted from ref. (63), in a 1:1 CO₂/CH₄ mixture at a total flow rate of 50 sccm, as a function of discharge power.

2.2.2 Artificial Photosynthesis and CO₂ Hydrogenation

Research towards CO₂ conversion in the presence of H₂O (artificial photosynthesis) and H₂ (CO₂ hydrogenation) is quite limited and to our knowledge the only models available are developed within the research group PLASMANT.⁷³⁻⁷⁴

In figure 4, the calculated absolute CO₂ and H₂O conversions, as obtained from our new plasma chemistry model, are compared with experimental data for a DBD, as a function of water vapor content for a total gas flow rate of 600 mL/min at 323 K for a SEI value of 1.1 eV/molecule. Both the experimental and calculated absolute H₂O conversions show a slightly decreasing trend with increasing water vapor content, although the drop is more pronounced in the simulation results. This is probably due to some more complex processes taking place in the experiments as a result of water vapor, which could not be easily accounted for in the 0D plasma chemistry model. Indeed, the model does not take into account some physical effects, such as condensation and nebulization.⁷³ Furthermore, water cluster ions and surface processes, which might be important in a water discharge,⁷⁵ are not yet taken into account in our current model.

The experiments also show a slight drop in CO₂ conversion with increasing water content. As explained in Ref. (73), this may result from destabilization of the discharge induced by the presence of water. This trend is also not captured by the simulation, but the agreement is still reasonable, because both simulations and experiments show that the addition of water vapor into CO₂ only exerts a weak influence on the CO₂ conversion.

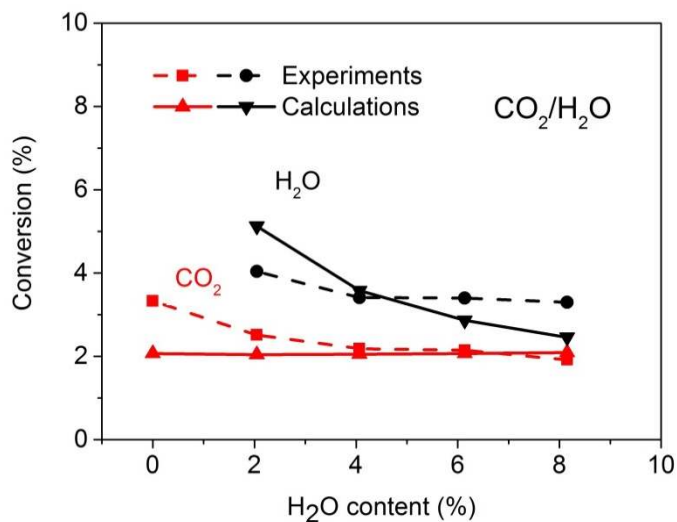


Figure 4. Comparison of the calculated absolute conversion of CO₂ and H₂O, as obtained from our new comprehensive plasma chemistry model, with measured data adopted from ref. (73), in a CO₂/H₂O mixture, as a function of water vapor content, for a SEI of 1.1 eV/molecule and a total flow rate of 600 mL/min at 323 K.

2.3 Effect of N₂ as Impurity and Admixture

The modeling studies in the above two sections—and their experimental counterparts—are limited to high purity gases, hence without the presence of impurities. However, in the real world—for which we are trying to design industrial applications—this will never be the case. N₂ will always be an important impurity or even admixture. This must be taken into account in modeling, since it is known that N₂ can influence the plasma physics, and moreover, N₂ has metastable states, which could influence the plasma chemistry. As a result, the next step in plasma chemistry modeling must be the inclusion of these real world impurities into existing models.

2.3.1 Effect of N₂ on CH₄ Reforming

Few modeling studies exist in literature regarding the addition of N₂ to the CH₄ reforming process,⁷⁶⁻⁸¹ but to our knowledge, the research group PLASMANT was the only one focusing on both the impurity and admixture level.⁸¹

The values for the absolute conversion of CH₄, calculated with our new plasma chemistry model, are plotted versus N₂ content in figure 5, showing a good agreement with measured results, obtained in a DBD, for a residence time of 2.2 s and a SEI of 1.5 eV/molecule.⁸¹ Upon addition of N₂, the absolute CH₄ conversion first remains more or less constant or even slightly decreases, and subsequently it increases. This trend results from the interplay of several effects, i.e. the decreasing electron density with increasing N₂ content and the lower reaction rate constants for several three-body reactions with N₂ compared to CH₄ as third body cause a drop in absolute CH₄ conversion, but on the other hand N₂ can also enhance the absolute CH₄ conversion, due

to the dissociation of CH₄ upon collision with N₂ metastable molecules.

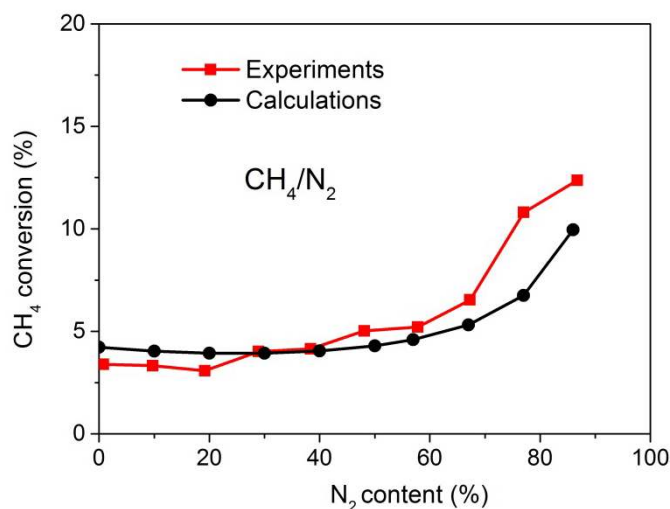


Figure 5. Comparison of the calculated absolute CH₄ conversion, as obtained from our new comprehensive plasma chemistry model, with measured data adopted from ref. (81), in a CH₄/N₂ mixture as a function of N₂ content, for a residence time of 2.2 s and a SEI of 1.5 eV/molecule.

2.3.2 Effect of N₂ on CO₂ Splitting

Investigating the influence of N₂ present during the conversion of CO₂ is of vital importance, since most CO₂ effluent gases contain large fractions of N₂, and the combined presence of N- and O-species is bound to lead to the formation of unwanted NO_x byproducts. The only modeling studies performed here are from the research group PLASMANT.⁸²⁻⁸³

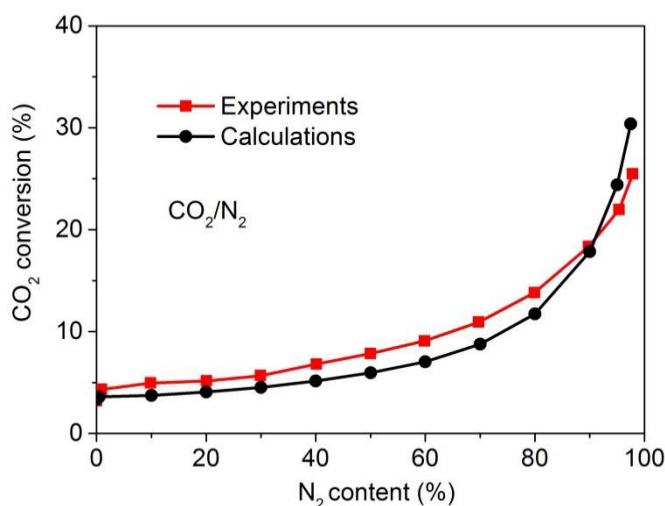


Figure 6. Comparison of the calculated absolute CO₂ conversion, as obtained from our new comprehensive plasma chemistry model, with measured data adopted from ref. (83), in a CO₂/N₂ mixture as a function of N₂ content, for a residence time of 0.73 s and a SEI of 3.0 eV/molecule.

Figure 6 illustrates the absolute CO₂ conversion, calculated with the new plasma chemistry model, in comparison with our previous experimental data,⁸³ in a CO₂/N₂ mixture as a function of the N₂ content, for a

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3 residence time of 0.73 s and a SEI of 3.0 eV/molecule, showing again a very good agreement. The absolute CO₂
4 conversion increases more or less exponentially with rising N₂ fraction, both in the experiments and the
5 calculations. This indicates that N₂ has a beneficial effect on CO₂ splitting, due to the dissociation of CO₂ upon
6 collision with N₂ metastable molecules (mainly N₂(A³Σ_u⁺)).
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9 10 **3. COMPREHENSIVE CHEMICAL KINETICS PLASMA MODEL**

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12 It is clear from the previous section that the new plasma chemistry model provides good agreement with
13 our previous (published) experimental data for pure CO₂, as well as binary mixtures (CO₂/CH₄, CO₂/H₂O,
14 CH₄/N₂ and CO₂/N₂), which serves as an important first validation. In this section we will present for the first
15 time the combination of all these chemistry models, and validate it against new experimental data in multi-
16 component mixtures. The temperature-controlled coaxial DBD reactor used for these new experiments has been
17 introduced in previous work.⁸⁴⁻⁸⁵ This new comprehensive chemistry model can be used to investigate any
18 desired multi-component mixture, containing CO₂, CH₄, N₂, O₂ and H₂O in its feed. We will start by giving a
19 brief explanation of the model, as well as an overview of the included plasma chemistry and how it was
20 developed. Subsequently we will look into the results of some multi-component mixtures, i.e. CO₂/CH₄/N₂;
21 CO₂/CH₄/N₂/O₂; and CO₂/CH₄/N₂/H₂O. For these mixtures we will compare the calculated and measured
22 conversions of CO₂ and CH₄, and the product selectivities, at various gas mixing ratios, for the purpose of
23 validation. Indeed, the present (experimental) results were not optimized; they were only obtained at a fixed
24 condition of flow rate and power, so not focusing on the highest conversion or product selectivities, but they
25 only serve to validate the new chemical kinetics model. Finally, we will discuss in detail the underlying
26 chemistry as predicted by the model, in order to explain the observed trends in conversion and product
27 selectivities. Indeed, the present (experimental) results were not optimized; they were only obtained at a fixed
28 condition of flow rate and power, so not focusing on the highest conversion or product selectivities, but they
29 only serve to validate the new chemical kinetics model. Finally, we will discuss in detail the underlying
30 chemistry as predicted by the model, in order to explain the observed trends in conversion and product
31 selectivities.
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36 **3.1 Plasma Chemistry Model**

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38 There exist different types of models for non-LTE plasmas,⁸⁶⁻⁸⁸ but the most straightforward approach to
39 model a detailed plasma chemistry is a 0D chemical kinetics model, also called global model. It is based on
40 solving balance equations for the densities of the various plasma species (i.e., various types of molecules,
41 radicals, atoms, ions, excited species, and the electrons), based on production and loss terms, as defined by
42 chemical reactions.¹⁵⁻¹⁶ Details of the model that is used here to describe the plasma chemistry of CO₂ and CH₄
43 conversion in the multi-component mixtures are presented in the Supporting Information.
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48 As indicated in section 2, within the PLASMANT group several different plasma chemistry models have
49 been developed in the past 5 to 10 years, not only for gas conversion applications, but also for other reactive
50 gas mixtures. The most important chemistries used here for developing our new comprehensive plasma
51 chemistry model for a DBD plasma, are (i) the pure CO₂ chemistry model of Aerts et al.^{29,33}; (ii) a model
52 containing the H₂O/O₂ chemistry by van Gaens et al.⁸⁹; (iii) the interaction of CO₂ and CH₄ in the DRM process
53 developed by De Bie et al.⁶⁵ and Snoeckx et al.⁶³; (iv) a chemistry set describing the interaction between CO₂
54 and H₂O in the work of Snoeckx et al.⁷³; (v) a model containing the CH₄/N₂ chemistry by Snoeckx et al.⁸¹; and
55 finally (vi) chemistry models describing the interaction in CO₂/N₂ plasmas by Heijkers et al.⁸² and Snoeckx et
56 al.⁸³. All these different chemistry models were developed and used to investigate specific problems in
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combination with experiments for pure CO₂ splitting, in humid air, for dry reforming of methane, artificial photosynthesis, and the influence of N₂ on CH₄ reforming and on pure CO₂ splitting, respectively. In this section we combine all this knowledge from previous research on the different single component, two component and impurity mixtures, to arrive at a new comprehensive chemistry model, which can be used to investigate any desired multi-component mixture containing CO₂, CH₄, N₂, O₂ and H₂O in its feed. To achieve this, the chemistry from the above mentioned models was adopted, adapted and expanded with additional reactions. This led to a model containing 137 species as listed in Table 1. Note that the model does not include vibrationally excited molecules, in contrast to other models developed within PLASMANT.^{30-38,82} Indeed, the plasma chemistry model presented here is applied to a DBD plasma (see Section 2 and Figure 1), where vibrationally excited species are of minor importance.^{33, 35} In microwave (MW) or gliding arc (GA) discharges, however, vibrationally excited species are very important,^{30-32,34-38,82} and thus, the model would have to be extended to these species, to account for their role in the conversion mechanisms (see Conclusions and Outlook).

These 137 species react with each other through 355 electron impact reactions, 631 ion reactions, and 743 neutral reactions. The full list of all these reactions can be found in the Supporting Information, together with their corresponding rate coefficients and the references where these data were adopted from. The model itself is based on solving balance equations for all species densities, with production and loss terms defined by chemical reactions, as explained in the Supporting Information. In addition, a Boltzmann equation is used to calculate the rate coefficients of all the electron impact reactions. The processes included in this Boltzmann equation are elastic collisions, electron impact vibrational excitation/de-excitation, electronic excitation/de-excitation (both dissociative and non-dissociative), electron attachment, as well as electron impact ionization of various important species (see table S1 in the Supporting Information).

As validation of this newly developed chemistry set, we compared the calculated conversions with measured values for different gas mixtures obtained from our earlier work; see figures 2-6 above. These simulations were performed for exactly the same operating conditions as in the experiments. Furthermore, additional experiments were performed for the new multi-component mixture containing CO₂, CH₄, N₂, O₂ and H₂O, for extra validation of the new model, which will be presented below. For more details of the model and the additional experiments, as well as the definitions of gas conversion and product selectivities, we refer to the Supporting Information.

Table 1. Overview of the species included in the model

Molecules	Charged species	Radicals	Excited species
C ₃ H ₈ , C ₃ H ₆ , C ₂ H ₆ , C ₂ H ₄ , C ₂ H ₂ , CH ₄	C ₂ H ₆ ⁺ , C ₂ H ₅ ⁺ , C ₂ H ₄ ⁺ , C ₂ H ₃ ⁺ , C ₂ H ₂ ⁺ , C ₂ H ⁺ , CH ₅ ⁺ , CH ₄ ⁺ , CH ₃ ⁺ , CH ₂ ⁺ , CH ⁺	C ₄ H ₂ , C ₃ H ₇ , C ₃ H ₅ , C ₂ H ₅ , C ₂ H ₃ , C ₂ H, CH ₃ , CH ₂ , CH	
CO ₂ , CO	CO ₂ ⁺ , CO ⁺ , CO ₃ ⁻ , CO ₄ ⁻ , CO ₄ ⁺ , C ₂ O ₄ ⁺ , C ₂ O ₃ ⁺ , C ₂ O ₂ ⁺	C ₂ O	CO ₂ (E1), CO ₂ (E2)
C ₂ N ₂		CN, NCN	
H ₂ O, H ₂ O ₂	H ₂ O ⁺ , H ₃ O ⁺ , OH ⁺ , OH ⁻	HO ₂ , OH	
N ₂ H ₄ , NH ₃ , N ₂ H ₂	NH ₄ ⁺ , NH ₃ ⁺ , NH ₂ ⁺ , NH ⁺	NH ₂ , NH, N ₂ H,	

		N_2H_3	
$N_2O, N_2O_3, N_2O_4, N_2O_5$	$NO^+, N_2O^+, NO_2^+, NO^-, N_2O^-, NO_2^-, NO_3^-, O_2^+N_2$	NO, NO_2, NO_3	
$CH_2CO, CH_3OH, CH_3CHO, CH_3OOH, C_2H_5OH, C_2H_5OOH, CH_2O$		$CHO, CH_2OH, CH_3O, CH_3O_2, C_2HO, CH_3CO, CH_2CHO, C_2H_5O, C_2H_5O_2$	
HCN		H_2CN	
		ONCN, NCO	
	C_2^+, C^+	C, C_2	
N_2	N_2^+, N^+, N_3^+, N_4^+	N	$N_2(a'\Sigma_u^-), N_2(C^3\Pi_u), N_2(V), N_2(A^3\Sigma_u^+), N_2(B^3\Pi_g), N(2P), N(2D)$
H_2	$H_2^+, H^+, H^-, H_3^+,$	H	$H(2P), H_2(V), H_2(E)$
O_3, O_2	$O_3^-, O_4^-, O_4^+, O_2^-, O_2^+, O^+, O^-$	O	$O(1D), O(1S), O_2(a1), O_2(b1)$
	e^-		

3.2 Plasma Conversion and Product Selectivity

3.2.1 $CO_2/CH_4/N_2$ Mixture: Varying CO_2 and N_2 Content

Effluent gas flows from industrial and Carbon Capture Sequestration/Utilization/Recycling (CCS/U/R) often contain impurities, of which in most cases N_2 is the main component. Therefore, it is of interest to study the CO_2 and CH_4 conversion in the presence of N_2 . Figure 7 shows the measured and calculated absolute CO_2 and CH_4 conversions (a) and the product selectivities (b) plotted as a function of the CO_2 (and N_2) content in a $CO_2/CH_4/N_2$ mixture, keeping the CH_4 content fixed at 10 %.

At all the gas mixing ratios investigated, the CH_4 conversion is much higher than the CO_2 conversion. This can be explained because the rate of electron impact dissociation of CH_4 is higher than that of CO_2 , due to the lower C-H bond dissociation energy. Although there is some small deviation in the exact trend with increasing CO_2 content, in general the calculated values show reasonable agreement with the experiments.

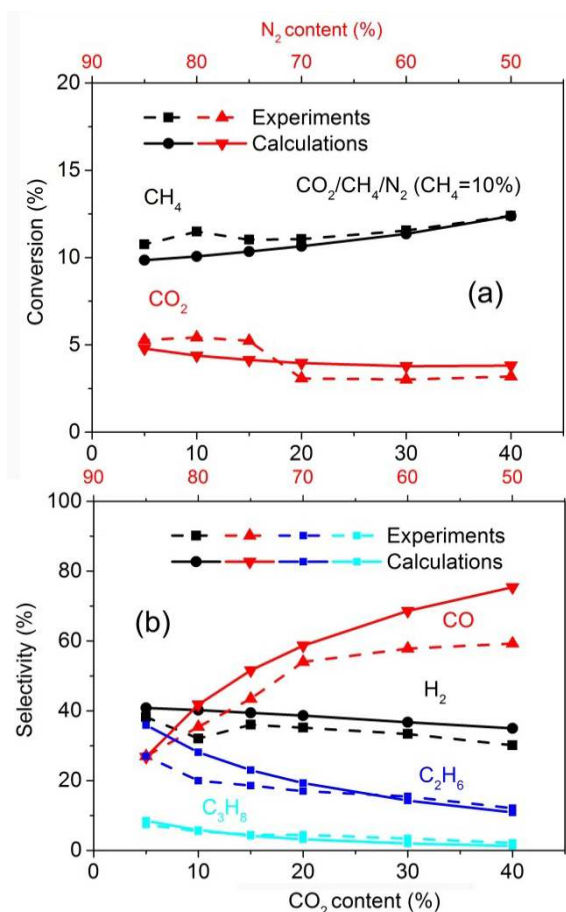


Figure 7. Comparison of the calculated and measured conversion of CH₄ and CO₂ (a), and selectivities of the most important products (b), in a CO₂/CH₄/N₂ mixture, as a function of the CO₂ (and N₂) content, for a fixed total flow rate of 200 ml/min and plasma power of 10 W, corresponding to an SEI of 0.76 eV/molecule. The CH₄ content was fixed at 10 %, with the remainder being CO₂ and N₂.

The CO₂/CH₄ ratio has an important influence on the product selectivities, as is clear from figure 7(b). At low CO₂/CH₄ ratio (CO₂ content of 5%), the selectivities of the hydrocarbons (mainly C₂H₆) are comparable or even slightly higher than that of CO. With increasing CO₂/CH₄ ratio, the selectivities of the hydrocarbons and H₂ steadily decrease, while the CO selectivity increases, which is logical as CO is the major product of CO₂ splitting, while the hydrocarbons and H₂ originate from CH₄ dissociation. Increasing the CO₂/CH₄ ratio from 0.5 to 4 yields a drop in the H₂/CO ratio from 2.45 to 0.42. These results show that the H₂/CO ratio can be varied in a wide range, simply controlled by the inlet gas mixing ratio. This is an advantage compared to classical processes, including steam reforming, partial oxidation, and CO₂ reforming, which typically produce syngas with H₂/CO molar ratios of >3, <2, and <1, respectively.⁹⁰⁻⁹¹ Finally, we conclude from figure 7(b) that the calculated selectivities are in good agreement with the experiments.

3.2.2 CO₂/CH₄/N₂ Mixture: Varying N₂ Content

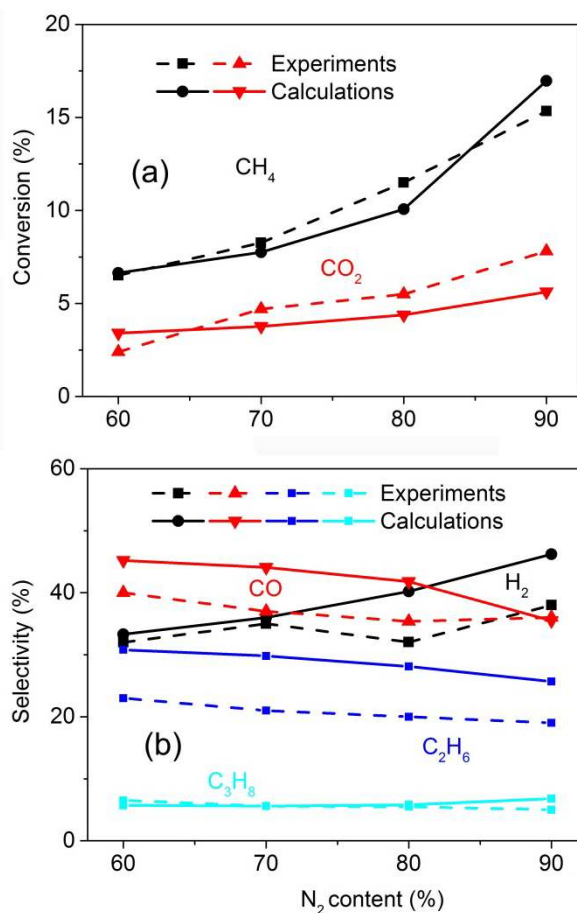


Figure 8. Comparison of the calculated and measured conversion of CH₄ and CO₂ (a), and selectivities of the most important products (b), in a CO₂/CH₄/N₂ mixture, as a function of the N₂ content, for a fixed 1:1 CO₂/CH₄ ratio, a fixed total flow rate of 200 ml/min and a corresponding SEI of 0.76 eV/molecule.

Figure 8 illustrate the effect of N₂ content on the experimental and calculated absolute CO₂ and CH₄ conversions (a) as well as on the product selectivities (b) keeping the CO₂/CH₄ ratio fixed at 1. Again good agreement is reached between calculated and measured results, especially for the conversions. Figure 8(a) shows that increasing the N₂ content leads to a higher absolute conversion for both CO₂ and CH₄, both in the experimental and simulation results. This is mainly caused by the increasing role of the N₂ metastable states in the dissociation of both CO₂ and CH₄, as will be discussed in more detail in section 3.3.

In our previous work, we investigated the effect of N₂ for both pure CH₄⁸¹ and pure CO₂ splitting⁸³ and in both cases the presence of N₂ led to unwanted effects, i.e. soot deposition and NO_x production, respectively. However, when combining both gases into the current CO₂/CH₄/N₂ mixture, no excessive soot deposition or NO_x production is observed. This can be explained by the chemical kinetics model. Indeed, the O-species, which react with N-species to form NO_x in the CO₂/N₂ mixture, form H₂O in the presence of a hydrogen source due to the faster rates of the latter reactions. Vice versa, the O-species prevent the occurrence of soot deposition by oxidation of the carbon containing species.

The major products in this CO₂/CH₄/N₂ mixture are again CO, H₂, C₂H₆ and C₃H₈. The measured and calculated selectivities show only a weak dependence on the N₂ content within the investigated range, except

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2
3 for the calculated H_2 selectivity, which clearly rises upon rising N_2 content, while the measured values show
4 only a very weak increase. The calculated CO , H_2 and C_2H_6 selectivities are somewhat higher than the
5 experimental data, which might be attributed to the limitation of the 0D model, neglecting transport and surface
6 reactions. The latter may become important in some conditions. In contrast, excellent agreement between
7 calculations and experiments is reached for the C_3H_8 selectivity. In general, we consider the agreement between
8 calculated and measured selectivities as fairly good, in view of the complex chemistry and the limitations of the
9 0D model.
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14 It is worth to mention that, although the CO_2/CH_4 ratio is kept constant, the experimental and calculated
15 syngas (H_2/CO) ratio slightly rises upon increasing N_2 content, i.e. from 1.16 to 1.40 in the experiments and
16 from 0.97 to 1.96 in the calculated values, as can be deduced from the rising H_2 selectivities and the decreasing
17 CO selectivities in figure 8 (b). The reason for the latter will be explained in section 3.3 below.
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21 **3.2.3 $CO_2/CH_4/N_2/O_2$ Mixture: Varying O_2 (and N_2) Content**

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23 In literature, POX is widely used because O_2 is very effective for low-temperature plasma activation of
24 methane. However, a possible drawback of POX is an excessive oxidation, resulting in the formation of CO_2 .
25 The use of CO_2 as a milder oxidant with a little addition of O_2 may combine the advantages of DRM and POX
26 and have a positive influence on the products formed. Therefore, we also investigate the influence of O_2 addition
27 on the CO_2 and CH_4 conversions, as well as on the product selectivities, as presented in figures 9 (a) and 9 (b),
28 respectively.
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33 The addition of O_2 leads to a higher CH_4 conversion while the CO_2 conversion decreases. Indeed, POX
34 becomes the dominant process over DRM. As a result, part of the converted CH_4 is oxidized towards CO and
35 CO_2 , which explains the lower CO_2 conversion. The calculated CH_4 conversion is in good agreement with
36 experiments, but there is some discrepancy for the CO_2 and O_2 conversion. This might be attributed to the
37 occurrence of carbon deposition on the surface of the DBD reactor, which will be oxidized to CO and CO_2 by
38 O-species. Since the model does not take surface reactions into account, this process is neglected, which could
39 explain the somewhat higher CO_2 conversion in the model than in the experiments. Furthermore, this may also
40 explain the deviation in the calculated and measured O_2 conversion and the underestimated CO selectivity (see
41 figure 9 (b)). However, we consider the agreement still as satisfactory, in view of the complex chemistry and
42 limitations of the model.
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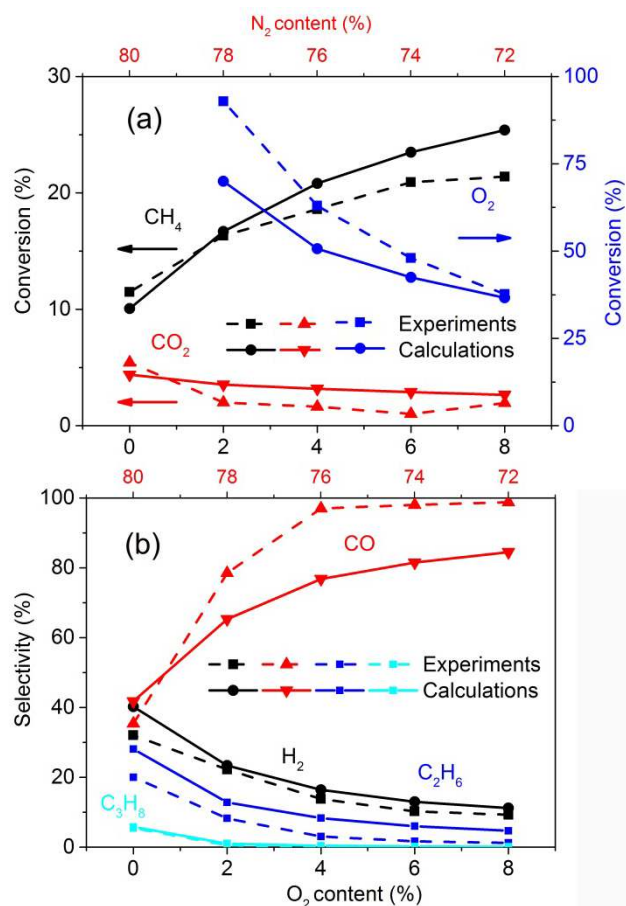


Figure 9. Comparison of the calculated and measured conversions of CH_4 , CO_2 and O_2 (a), and selectivities of the most important products (b), in a $\text{CO}_2/\text{CH}_4/\text{N}_2/\text{O}_2$ mixture, as a function of the O_2 (and N_2) content, for a 1:1 CO_2/CH_4 ratio, a fixed total flow rate of 200 ml/min and a corresponding SEI of 0.76 eV/molecule. The CO_2 and CH_4 content were both 10 %, with the remainder being O_2 and N_2 .

Both the experiments and calculations show that the addition of O_2 rapidly decreases the selectivities of the hydrocarbons (mainly C_2H_6 and C_3H_8) and H_2 , because of their oxidation into CO and H_2O . Indeed, the CO selectivity rises dramatically for the same reason. This also leads to a significant drop in the syngas ratio upon increasing O_2 content from 0 to 8 %, i.e. from 1.23 to 0.17 in the experiments, and from 1.34 to 0.25 in the calculations. Again, with some exceptions as explained above, quite good agreement is reached between the calculations and experiments.

3.2.4 $\text{CO}_2/\text{CH}_4/\text{N}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ Mixture: Varying H_2O (and N_2) Content

An interesting co-reactant and hydrogen source for the conversion of CO_2 is H_2O . It is the most ubiquitous and cheapest hydrogen source available, especially compared to CH_4 and H_2 . In addition, the combined conversion of CO_2 and H_2O to produce value-added products using renewable energy would successfully mimic the natural photosynthesis process. Our previous study, however, revealed that this process is not an interesting one to pursue by means of plasma technology, due to a severe drop in CO_2 conversion and energy efficiency when adding H_2O .⁷³ This was mainly attributed to the recombination of CO with OH into CO_2 , as well as the recombination of H atoms with O atoms into OH and subsequently H_2O .^{73,92}

However, from figure 10 (a), it becomes clear that the combined conversion of CH_4 and CO_2 remains almost unchanged upon addition of H_2O . Hence, the presence of CH_4 seems to counteract the negative effect of H_2O addition, because the H atoms originating from CH_4 dissociation can recombine with the OH radicals, and thus suppress their negative effect, as there will be less OH available for the back reaction from CO to CO_2 . Furthermore, the syngas ratio increases (from 1.35 to 1.65 in the experiments, and from 1.34 to 1.50 in the model) upon increasing H_2O content from 0 to 8 %, which means that the added H_2O is successfully converted into H_2 as well, and the formation of H_2O from O and H atoms is limited due to Le Chatelier's principle.⁹³ Figure 10 (b) shows that the selectivities of both H_2 and CO slightly increase with rising H_2O content, indicating that H_2O addition is beneficial for the production of syngas. Again, in general good agreement is obtained between the experimental and calculated selectivities of the most important products as a function of the H_2O content.

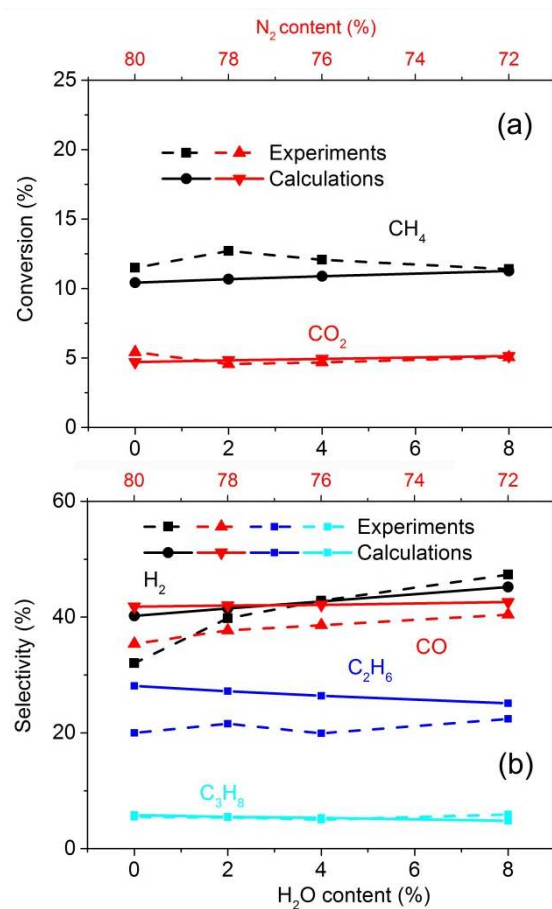


Figure 10. Comparison of the calculated and measured conversion of CH_4 and CO_2 (a), and selectivities of the most important products (b), in a $\text{CO}_2/\text{CH}_4/\text{N}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ mixture, as a function of the H_2O (and N_2) content, for a 1:1 CO_2/CH_4 ratio, a fixed total flow rate of 200 ml/min and a corresponding SEI of 0.76 eV/molecule. The CO_2 and CH_4 content were both 10 %, with the remainder being H_2O and N_2 .

3.3 Underlying Mechanisms of Plasma-based CO_2 and CH_4 Conversion

As the agreement between calculated and measured conversions and product selectivities is quite good, in a wide range of gas mixtures and mixing ratios, we can conclude that our chemical kinetics model can provide

a realistic picture of the plasma chemistry of the DBD reactor for the multi-component mixtures containing CO₂, CH₄, N₂, O₂ and H₂O in its feed. Thus, we can now discuss in more detail the underlying plasma chemistry, as predicted by the model, for both the CO₂ and CH₄ conversion, as well as for the formation of CO, H₂, C₂H₆ and C₃H₈ in the presence of N₂. Similar results, but for the effect of O₂ and H₂O addition, are presented in the SI. This is the most powerful aspect of plasma chemistry modeling. Indeed, a detailed analysis of the reaction pathways allows us to gain a better insight in the underlying chemical reactions and in the overall process. This in turn can help to optimize existing processes, overcome ongoing problems, find new research areas and advance the steps towards a future industrial application of plasma-based gas conversion processes.

3.3.1 CO₂ Conversion

Table 2. Dominant CO₂ loss and formation reactions.

Process	Loss reaction	Process	Formation reaction
L1	$\text{CO}_2 + e \rightarrow e + \text{CO} + \text{O}$	F1	$\text{CO} + \text{C}_2\text{O}_3^+ + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{C}_2\text{O}_2^+ + \text{M}$
L2	$\text{CO}_2 + \text{N}_2(\text{A}^3\Sigma_u^+) \rightarrow \text{N}_2 + \text{CO} + \text{O}$	F2	$\text{CO} + \text{C}_2\text{O}_4^+ + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{C}_2\text{O}_3^+ + \text{M}$
L3	$\text{CO}_2 + \text{N}_2(\text{B}^3\Pi_g) \rightarrow \text{N}_2 + \text{CO} + \text{O}$	F3	$\text{O} + \text{CH}_3\text{CO} \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{CH}_3$
		F4	$\text{CO} + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}$
		F5	$\text{CO}_3^- + \text{C}_2\text{O}_2^+ \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{O} + \text{CO} + \text{CO}$
		F6	$\text{CH}_4 + \text{CO}_2^+ \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{CH}_4^+$
		F7	$\text{CO}_3^- + \text{H}_3\text{O}^+ \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{H} + \text{O}$
		F8	$e + \text{CO}_4^+ \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{O}_2$
		F9	$\text{CH}_2 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{H} + \text{H}$

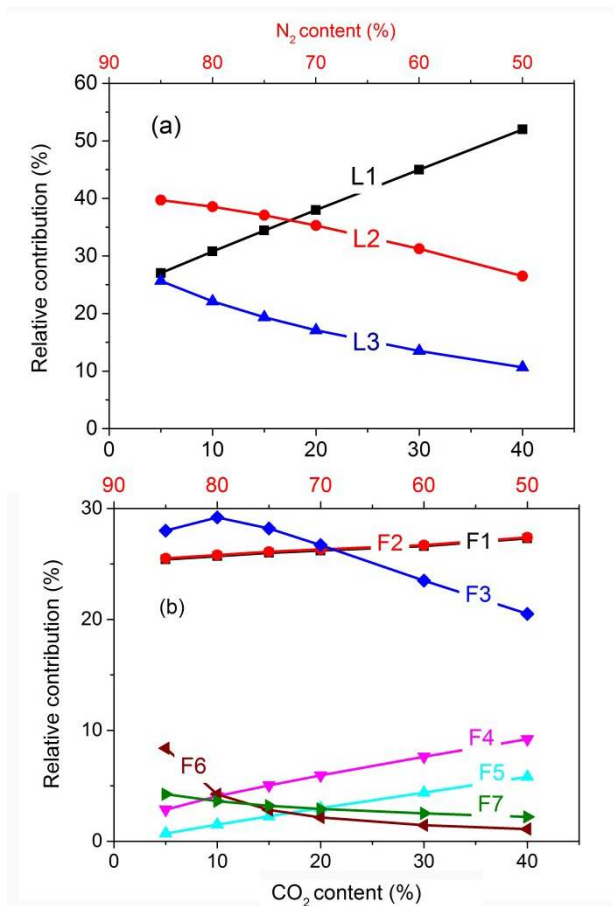


Figure 11. Relative contributions of the main processes leading to CO₂ loss (a) and formation (b) for a CO₂/CH₄/N₂ mixture, as a function of the CO₂ (and N₂) content. The total flow rate is fixed at 200 ml/min and the plasma power is 10 W, corresponding to an SEI of 0.76 eV/molecule. The CH₄ content was fixed at 10 %, with the remainder being CO₂ and N₂.

Table 2 lists the most important loss (L1-L3) and formation (F1-F9) processes for CO₂, and figure 11 shows their relative contributions for a CO₂/CH₄/N₂ mixture. The CH₄ content was fixed at 10 %, with the remainder being CO₂ and N₂. In the SI, we present similar results for a CO₂/CH₄/N₂ mixture at fixed CO₂/CH₄ ratio, as well as upon addition of O₂ or H₂O.

In the absence of O₂ and H₂O (figure 11) and at high CO₂ content (and thus low N₂ content), the most important dissociation reaction of CO₂, at the present DBD conditions, is electron impact dissociation (L1) into CO and O, while at low CO₂ content (and high N₂ content), the dissociation reaction with metastable N₂(A³Σ_u⁺) molecules (L2) is dominant, yielding the same splitting products (CO and O). The reaction with metastable N₂(B³Π_g) molecules (L3) also has a non-negligible contribution to the dissociation of CO₂. Upon higher N₂ contents (lower CO₂ contents), the electron energy is gradually being used for N₂ excitation instead of CO₂ dissociation, explaining the drop in the relative contribution of electron impact dissociation and the corresponding increase in the relative contribution of dissociation by N₂ metastable molecules, which provides an alternative dissociation mechanism for CO₂. The same behavior can be seen in the CO₂/CH₄/N₂ mixture with fixed (1:1) CO₂/CH₄ ratio (see figure S1 (a) in the SI) and in the presence of O₂ (figure S2 (a)) as well as in the presence of H₂O (figure S3 (a) in the SI). Thus, at high N₂ content, the major loss process of CO₂ is due

to N₂ metastable states (reactions L2 and L3) and this explains why the presence of N₂ enhances the CO₂ conversion (See figure 8 in section 3.2.2).

If we take a look at the CO₂ formation in the CO₂/CH₄/N₂ mixture, the most significant processes are the ones between CO and the positive ions C₂O₃⁺ and C₂O₄⁺, through three-body reactions (F1, F2) as well as the neutral reactions between O atoms and CH₃CO molecules (F3); see figure 11 (b) as well as figure S1 (b) in the SI. A similar conclusion can be obtained for the addition of H₂O (figure S3 (b) in the SI).

With the addition of O₂, the behavior is a bit different. Indeed, the CO₂/CH₄/O₂ mixture gives rise to a high concentration of OH radicals. As a result, the reaction between CO and OH, leading to CO₂ and H atoms, becomes the dominant CO₂ formation process at O₂ contents above 5 % (see figure S2 (b): F4). This explains why the addition of O₂ leads to a decrease in CO₂ conversion as indicated in figure 9 in section 3.2.3. This was also the case in our previous study for a CO₂/H₂O mixture, and resulted in a drop in CO₂ conversion upon H₂O addition.⁷³ In the CO₂/CH₄/N₂/H₂O mixture, however, the addition of H₂O does not cause a drop in absolute CO₂ conversion, as presented in figure 10 above, because the presence of CH₄, and thus H atoms, counteracts the negative effect of the OH radicals, as explained in section 3.2.4 above.

Besides the recombination between CO and OH (F4), electron recombination with CO₄⁺ (F8) and the reaction between O₂ and CH₂ (F9), which are quasi negligible for CO₂ production in the other gas mixtures, also become important upon addition of O₂ (figure S2 (b)). Other reactions involving ions (F5, F6, and F7) can also contribute to the CO₂ formation, but with a relative contribution no more than 10%.

Finally, it is important to realize that the total formation rate of CO₂ is much smaller (no more than 10%) than the total CO₂ loss rate for a CO₂/CH₄/N₂ mixture, as well as a CO₂/CH₄/N₂/H₂O mixture, so the formation processes only have a minor contribution to the net CO₂ conversion at these conditions. However, the addition of O₂ enhances the formation of CO₂. With the addition of 8% O₂, the total CO₂ formation rate reaches 41% of the total CO₂ loss rate.

3.3.2 CH₄ Conversion

Table 3. Dominant CH₄ loss and formation reactions.

Process	Loss reaction	Process	Formation reaction
L1	CH ₄ + e → e + CH ₃ + H	F1	CH ₃ + H + M → CH ₄ + M
L2	CH ₄ + CH → C ₂ H ₄ + H	F2	e + C ₃ H ₈ → CH ₄ + e + C ₂ H ₄
L3	CH ₄ + N ₂ (a'Σ _u ⁻) → N ₂ + C + 2H ₂	F3	CH ₅ ⁺ + H ₂ O → CH ₄ + H ₃ O ⁺
L4	CH ₄ + N ₂ (A ³ Σ _u ⁺) → N ₂ + CH ₃ + H		
L5	CH ₄ + N ₂ (a'Σ _u ⁻) → N ₂ + CH ₃ + H		
L6	CH ₄ + N ₂ (a'Σ _u ⁻) → N ₂ + CH ₂ + H ₂		
L7	CH ₄ + O → CH ₃ + OH		

L8	$\text{CH}_4 + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$		
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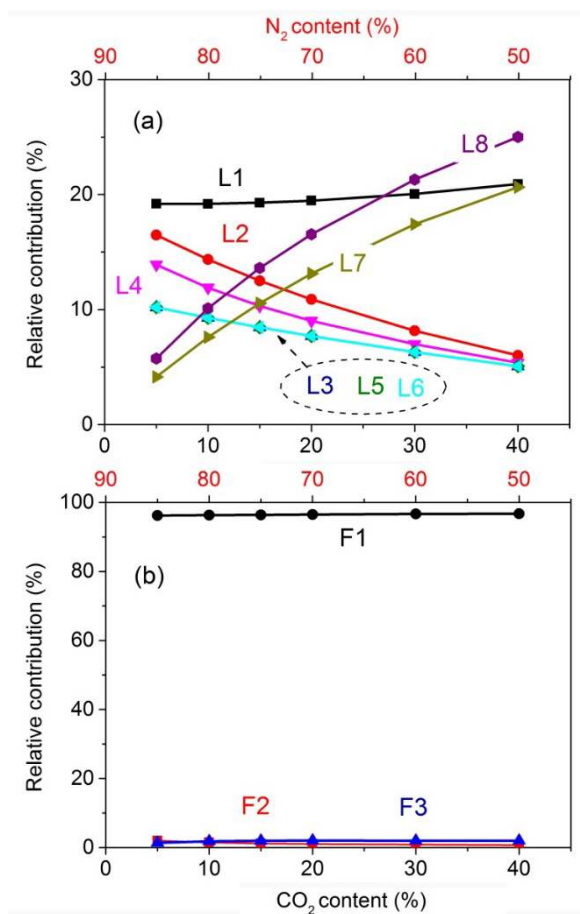


Figure 12. Relative contributions of the main processes leading to CH_4 loss (a) and formation (b) for a $\text{CO}_2/\text{CH}_4/\text{N}_2$ mixture, as a function of the CO_2 (and N_2) content. The total flow rate is fixed at 200 ml/min and the plasma power is 10 W, corresponding to an SEI of 0.76 eV/molecule. The CH_4 content was fixed at 10 %, with the remainder being CO_2 and N_2 .

Table 3 lists the most important loss (L1-L8) and formation (F1-F3) processes for CH_4 and in figure 12 the relative contributions of these processes are plotted as a function of CO_2 (and N_2) content in the $\text{CO}_2/\text{CH}_4/\text{N}_2$ mixture, at fixed CH_4 content of 10 %, with the remainder being CO_2 and N_2 . The results in the $\text{CO}_2/\text{CH}_4/\text{N}_2$ mixture with fixed CO_2/CH_4 ratio, as well as upon addition of O_2 or H_2O , are presented in figures S4-S6 of the SI.

It is clear from figure 12 that the dominant loss reactions change with increasing CO_2 content (N_2 content). Electron impact dissociation of CH_4 (L1) is always an important loss process at the present DBD conditions. It shows little dependence on the CO_2 content in figure 12. The reaction between CH and CH_4 leading to C_2H_4 and H (L2) is also relatively important for CH_4 dissociation at low CO_2 content. The same applies for the reactions with N_2 metastable singlet and triplet states (reactions L3-L6, and especially L4).

Figure 12 shows that the dissociation process of CH_4 by metastable nitrogen molecules (L3+L4+L5+L6)

could be more important than the direct electron impact processes (L1). The rate coefficients of these processes are subject to some uncertainties, and this will affect the exact values of the relative contributions of these processes, predicted by the model. Nevertheless, we expect the general trends to be valid. Indeed, similar conclusions were made in literature,⁸¹ using the same reaction rate coefficients as in our work for the reactions with N₂ metastable singlet and triplet states (reactions L3-L6), and good agreement was reached with experiments, regardless of the conditions.

With increasing CO₂ content, the reactions between CH₄ and O atoms or OH radicals (L7 and L8) become increasingly important, and their relative contribution towards CH₄ loss even exceeds the contribution of electron impact dissociation (L1) at the highest CO₂ contents (and lowest N₂ contents) investigated. It should be noted that electron impact vibrational excitation of CH₄ is also important as loss process for the CH₄ ground state molecules, but this process is only taken into account in our model as energy loss for the electrons, and not as a chemical loss process for CH₄, because the vibrationally excited species are not considered separately in our model. Indeed, electron impact vibrational excitation mainly takes place in the lower electron energy range, and thus it is of lower importance when the reduced electric field (i.e., ratio of electric field over gas density) is quite high, such as in a DBD plasma.³³

In the CO₂/CH₄/N₂ mixture with fixed 1:1 CO₂/CH₄ ratio, a similar behavior is observed (see figure S4 (a) in the SI), except that the relative contribution of electron impact dissociation clearly drops upon increasing N₂ content, because of the drop in CH₄ content. With high N₂ content, the dissociation of CH₄ due to collisions with N₂ metastable states (reactions L3-L6) becomes most important, explaining why the presence of N₂ enhances the CH₄ conversion (see figure 8 in section 3.2.2).

Upon addition of O₂ to the mixture, the loss reaction of CH₄ with OH radicals (L8) is dominant (figure S5 (a) in SI). Its relative contribution gradually increases with higher O₂ contents, because the concentration of produced OH radicals rises during both the microdischarge filaments and afterglow stages of the DBD. The same applies, to a lower extent, for the loss reaction upon collision with O atoms (L7). This explains why the CH₄ conversion rises drastically upon increasing O₂ content (see figure 9 in section 3.2.3).

H₂O addition has no significant effect on the relative contributions of the various loss processes, except that the reaction with N₂ metastable triplet states N₂(A³Σ_u⁺) (L4) drops and the reaction with OH radicals (L8) rises (see figure S6 (a) in the SI), due to a decreasing concentration of N₂(A³Σ_u⁺) and increasing concentration of OH radicals, respectively.

If we take a look at the formation processes, the three-body recombination of CH₃ radicals with H atoms (F1) is the dominant formation process at all the investigated conditions (see figure 12 (b), as well as figures S4 (b), S5 (b) and S6 (b) in the SI). Other reactions, such as electron impact dissociation of C₃H₈ into CH₄ (F2) and charge transfer between H₂O and CH₅⁺ (F3), have relative contributions of less than 5% to the CH₄ formation.

If we compare the total formation rate with the total loss rate of CH₄, we can conclude that the total formation rate is relatively large (up to 40%) compared to the total CH₄ loss rate, at least without O₂ addition.

Hence, this behavior is different from the CO_2 loss and formation rates, as mentioned above. The reason is that the three-body recombination of CH_3 radicals with H atoms is very important outside the microdischarge filaments in the DBD reactor (see SI for more details on how the microdischarge filaments in the DBD are treated: they are treated as afterglow in between discharge pulses). A similar behavior was reported by Snoeckx et al.⁶³ However, upon O_2 addition, the formation processes have a decreasing contribution to the net CH_4 conversion (formation rate no more than 10% of the total CH_4 loss rate with 8% O_2 addition), explaining again why the CH_4 conversion drastically rises upon O_2 addition (see figure 9).

3.3.3 CO Production

Table 4. Dominant CO formation and loss reactions.

Process	Formation reaction	Process	Loss reaction
F1	$e + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO} + e + \text{O}$	L1	$\text{CO} + \text{C}_2\text{O}_3^+ + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{O}_2^+ + \text{CO}_2 + \text{M}$
F2	$\text{N}_2(\text{A}^3\Sigma_u^+) + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{N}_2 + \text{O}$	L2	$\text{CO} + \text{C}_2\text{O}_4^+ + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{O}_3^+ + \text{CO}_2 + \text{M}$
F3	$\text{CH}_2\text{O} + \text{O} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{OH} + \text{H}$	L3	$\text{CO} + \text{N} \rightarrow \text{CN} + \text{O}$
F4	$\text{N}_2(\text{B}^3\Pi_g) + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{N}_2 + \text{O}$	L4	$\text{CO} + \text{CH} + \text{N}_2 \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{HO} + \text{N}_2$
F5	$\text{H} + \text{CHO} \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{H}_2$	L5	$\text{CO} + \text{H} + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{CHO} + \text{M}$
		L6	$\text{CO} + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}$
		L7	$\text{CO} + \text{O}(1\text{D}) \rightarrow \text{CO}_2$

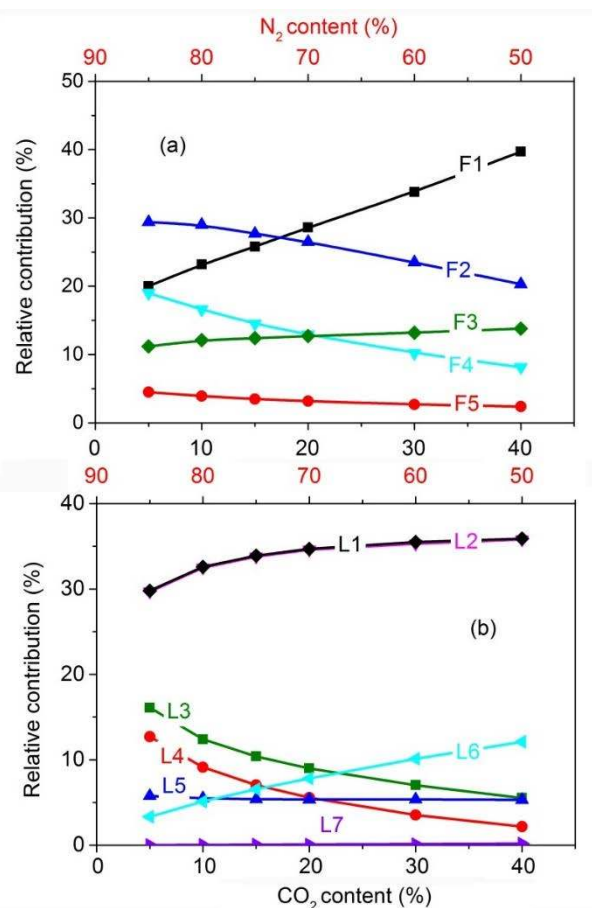


Figure 13. Relative contributions of the main processes leading to CO formation (a) and loss (b) for a CO₂/CH₄/N₂ mixture, as a function of the CO₂ (and N₂) content. The total flow rate is fixed at 200 ml/min and the plasma power is 10 W, corresponding to an SEI of 0.76 eV/molecule. The CH₄ content was fixed at 10 %, with the remainder being CO₂ and N₂.

As CO is the major product of the CO₂ conversion, with a selectivity of about 30–100 % (see figures 7-10 above), we present here the dominant reaction pathways for the formation and loss of CO, to obtain a better understanding of the influence of the CO₂/CH₄ ratio, the N₂ content, and the addition of O₂ or H₂O on the CO yield. Table 4 lists the most important formation (F1-F5) and loss (L1-L7) processes for CO. Their relative contributions in the CO₂/CH₄/N₂ mixture are plotted in figure 13, as a function of the CO₂ (and N₂) content. The corresponding results at fixed CO₂/CH₄ ratio, as well as upon addition of O₂ or H₂O, are presented in figures S7-S9 of the SI.

Electron impact dissociation of CO₂ (F1), as well as dissociation of CO₂ upon collision with N₂ metastable singlet and triplet states (F2 and F4), are the dominant formation processes of CO, at all conditions investigated (see figure 13 (a), and figures S7 (a) and S9 (a) in the SI), except upon addition of O₂. Furthermore, the reaction between CH₂O and O, leading to CO, OH and H (F3), also plays a quite important role, and this process even becomes the prime source of CO when O₂ is added (see figure S8 (a) in the SI). This additional channel for CO production explains why the addition of O₂ leads to a drastic increase in CO selectivity (see figure 9).

As far as the loss of CO is concerned, the three-body reactions between CO and the positive ions C₂O₃⁺

and $C_2O_4^+$ (L1, L2) are dominant at all conditions (see figure 13 (b), and figures S7 (b) and S9 (b) in the SI), except upon addition of O_2 . These two reactions are also the most important for CO_2 formation (see section 3.3.1 above). Upon addition of O_2 , however, the reaction of CO with OH becomes the most important route towards CO loss (L6, in figure S8 (b)), which is also the dominant process of CO_2 formation under these conditions.

Besides the CO loss reactions towards CO_2 formation (L1, L2, L6, L7), other loss channels include the reaction of CO with N, leading to CN and O (L3), the reaction with CH, leading to C_2HO (L4), and the reaction with H, producing CHO (L5), which have relative contributions up to 20 % at the conditions investigated.

Finally, it is important to realize that the total loss rate of CO is much smaller (no more than 6 %) than the total CO formation rate for all gas mixtures and mixing ratios investigated, so the loss processes only have a minor contribution to the net CO formation at these conditions.

3.3.4 H_2 Production

Table 5. Dominant H_2 formation and loss reactions.

Process	Formation reaction	Process	Loss reaction
F1	$N_2(a'\Sigma_u^-) + CH_4 \rightarrow 2H_2 + N_2 + C$	L1	$H_2 + C \rightarrow CH + H$
F2	$H_2CN + H \rightarrow H_2 + HCN$	L2	$H_2 + OH \rightarrow H_2O + H$
F3	$N_2(a'\Sigma_u^-) + CH_4 \rightarrow H_2 + N_2 + CH_2$	L3	$H_2 + e \rightarrow e + H + H$
F4	$e + C_2H_6 \rightarrow H_2 + e + C_2H_4$	L4	$H_2 + O \rightarrow OH + H$
F5	$CH_2 + H \rightarrow H_2 + CH$	L5	$H_2 + N(2P) \rightarrow NH + H$
F6	$CH_3OH + H \rightarrow H_2 + CH_2OH$		
F7	$CHO + H \rightarrow H_2 + CO$		
F8	$CH_3OH + H \rightarrow H_2 + CH_3O$		
F9	$CH_3 + O \rightarrow H_2 + CO + H$		

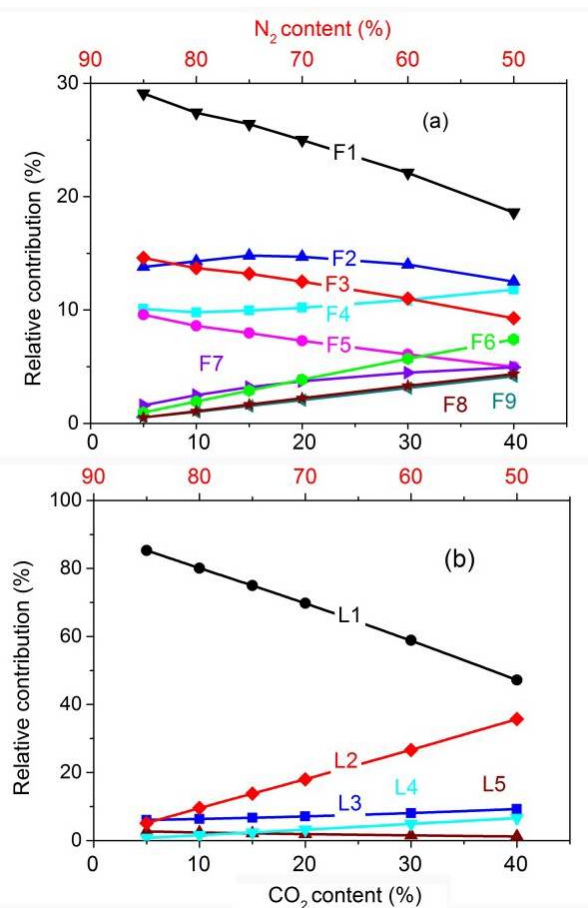


Figure 14. Relative contributions of the main processes leading to H₂ formation (a) and loss (b) for a CO₂/CH₄/N₂ mixture, as a function of the CO₂ (and N₂) content. The total flow rate is fixed at 200 ml/min and the plasma power is 10 W, corresponding to an SEI of 0.76 eV/molecule. The CH₄ content was fixed at 10 %, with the remainder being CO₂ and N₂.

H₂ is also a significant product, due to the CH₄ conversion, with a selectivity of about 10–50 % (see figures 7-10 above). Table 5 lists the most important formation (F1-F9) and loss (L1-L5) processes for H₂ and figure 14 illustrates the relative contributions of these processes for the CO₂/CH₄/N₂ mixture at constant CH₄ content. The results for the other conditions can be found in figures S10 - S12 in the SI.

The most important production process at all conditions investigated is the reaction of CH₄ with N₂(a' Σ_u^-) metastable singlet states, producing C atoms and two H₂ molecules (F1). This reaction of course becomes increasingly important with increasing N₂ content. Furthermore, electron impact dissociation of C₂H₆ (F4) is an important formation process at lower N₂ content (see especially figure S10 (a)). The reaction of CH₄ with N₂(a' Σ_u^-) towards the production of CH₂ radicals and one H₂ molecule (F3) also contributes to the H₂ production to some extent, as well as the reaction of H₂CN, CH₂ radicals, CHO and CH₃OH with H (reactions F2, F5-F8) and the reaction of CH₃ with O atoms (F9), depending on the conditions.

The dominant loss process is the reaction of H₂ with a C atom producing a CH radical and a H atom (L1) at all gas mixing ratios (see figure 14 (b), and figures S10 (b) and S12 (b) of the SI), except upon addition of O₂ (see figure S11 (b) in the SI). The relative contribution of this reaction, however, rapidly drops with increasing

CO₂ content, because the C atom density decreases due to reaction with O-containing species, such as OH and O₂, which are directly or indirectly formed from CO₂. This also explains why the loss reaction with OH radicals (L2) becomes gradually more important upon rising CO₂ content (see figure 14 (b)). The latter reaction is also dominant upon addition of O₂ (see figure S11 (b) of the SI), for the same reason. The increasing role of reaction L2 in the loss of H₂ also explains why the selectivity of H₂ decreases upon addition of either CO₂ or O₂ (see figures 7 and 9 above). Other reactions, including electron impact dissociation of H₂ (L3), oxidization of H₂ by O atoms generating OH and H (L4), and the reaction of H₂ with excited N atoms towards NH (L5), can also contribute to H₂ loss, but their relative contributions do not exceed 20% at the conditions investigated.

Finally, the total loss rate of H₂ ranges from 13 % to 24 % of the total H₂ formation rate for all gas mixtures and mixing ratios investigated, so the loss processes have a non-negligible contribution to the net H₂ formation at these conditions. Especially O₂ addition enhances the total loss rate of H₂ via reaction L2, as mentioned above.

3.3.5 C₂H₆ Production

Table 6. Dominant C₂H₆ formation and loss reactions.

Process	Formation reaction	Process	Loss reaction
F1	$\text{CH}_3 + \text{CH}_3 + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_6 + \text{M}$	L1	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_6 + \text{e} \rightarrow \text{e} + \text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{H}_2$
F2	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_5 + \text{H} + \text{M} \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_6 + \text{M}$	L2	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_6 + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_5 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
F3	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_5 + \text{CH}_3\text{O} \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_6 + \text{CH}_2\text{O}$	L3	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_6 + \text{O} \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_5 + \text{OH}$
F4	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_5 + \text{CHO} \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_6 + \text{CO}$	L4	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_6 + \text{N}_2(\text{a}'\Sigma_{\text{u}}^-) \rightarrow \text{N}_2 + \text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{H}_2$
F5	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_5 + \text{C}_2\text{H}_5 \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_6 + \text{C}_2\text{H}_4$	L5	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_6 + \text{N}_2(\text{A}^3\Sigma_{\text{u}}^+) \rightarrow \text{N}_2 + \text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + \text{H}_2$
		L6	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_6 + \text{e} \rightarrow \text{e} + \text{C}_2\text{H}_5 + \text{H}$
		L7	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_6 + \text{CH}_2 \rightarrow \text{C}_3\text{H}_8$

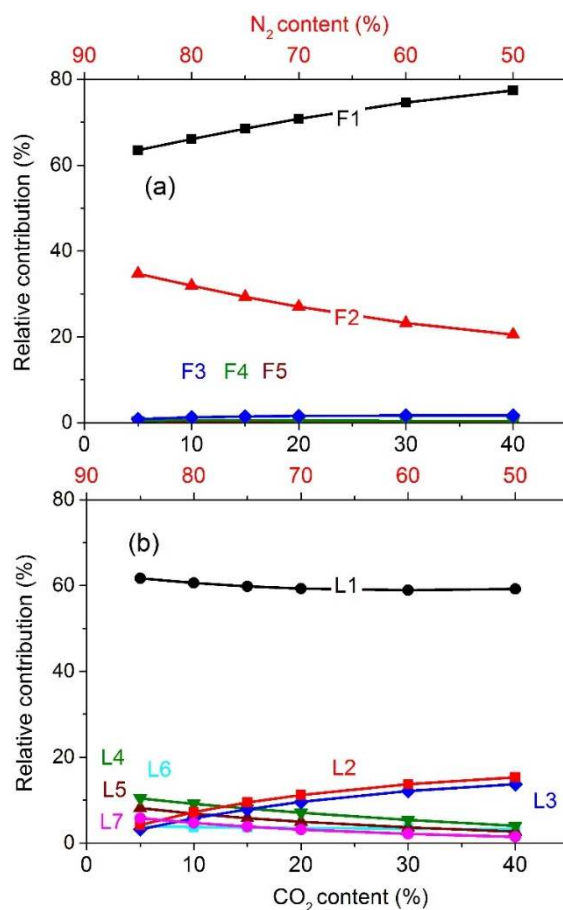


Figure 15. Relative contributions of the main processes leading to C₂H₆ formation (a) and loss (b) for a CO₂/CH₄/N₂ mixture, as a function of the CO₂ (and N₂) content. The total flow rate is fixed at 200 ml/min and the plasma power is 10 W, corresponding to an SEI of 0.76 eV/molecule. The CH₄ content was fixed at 10 %, with the remainder being CO₂ and N₂.

Table 6 lists the most important formation (F1-F5) and loss (L1-L7) processes for C₂H₆. In figure 15, the relative contributions of these processes are plotted for a CO₂/CH₄/N₂ mixture at fixed CH₄ content. The results at the other conditions are given in figures S13-S15 of the SI.

The dominant formation channel for C₂H₆ in all gas mixtures is three-body recombination of two CH₃ radicals (F1), contributing for more than 60 % to the C₂H₆ formation, and even up to 95 % upon addition of O₂. Upon addition of CO₂ and O₂, the CH₃ radicals are consumed by other competitive channels involving oxygen containing species, and this explains why the C₂H₆ selectivity gradually decreases with the addition of CO₂ and O₂ (see figures 7 and 9). The second most important reaction is three-body recombination of C₂H₅ with H (F2), while the other recombination reactions of C₂H₅ with CH₃O, CHO and C₂H₅ (F3-F5) are of minor importance.

The dominant loss reaction for C₂H₆ at nearly all conditions investigated is electron impact dissociation into C₂H₄ and H₂ (L1). The reaction of C₂H₆ with OH or O towards the production of C₂H₅ (L2-L3) is also relatively important; see especially figure S13 (b) and figure S14 (b). Indeed, upon addition of O₂, L2 even becomes dominant (see figure S14 (b)). Finally, the dissociation of C₂H₆ upon collision with N₂ metastable molecules (both N₂(a'¹Σ_u⁻) and (N₂A³Σ_u⁺)) (L4 and L5) becomes gradually more important upon rising N₂

content, as expected. This explains why the C_2H_6 selectivity slightly decreases upon increasing N_2 content in figure 8.

Finally, the total loss rate of C_2H_6 is 42 to 60 % of the total C_2H_6 formation rate for all gas mixtures and mixing ratios investigated, so the loss processes have a quite large contribution to the net C_2H_6 formation at these conditions. Like for H_2 , increasing the O_2 content enhances the total loss rate of C_2H_6 .

3.3.6 C_3H_8 Production

Table 7. Dominant C_3H_8 formation and loss reactions.

Process	Formation reaction	Process	Loss reaction
F1	$CH_3 + C_2H_5 + M \rightarrow C_3H_8 + M$	L1	$C_3H_8 + e \rightarrow e + C_3H_6 + H_2$
F2	$C_2H_6 + CH_2 \rightarrow C_3H_8$	L2	$C_3H_8 + e \rightarrow e + C_2H_4 + CH_4$
F3	$C_3H_7 + H \rightarrow C_3H_8$	L3	$C_3H_8 + e \rightarrow e + C_3H_7 + H$

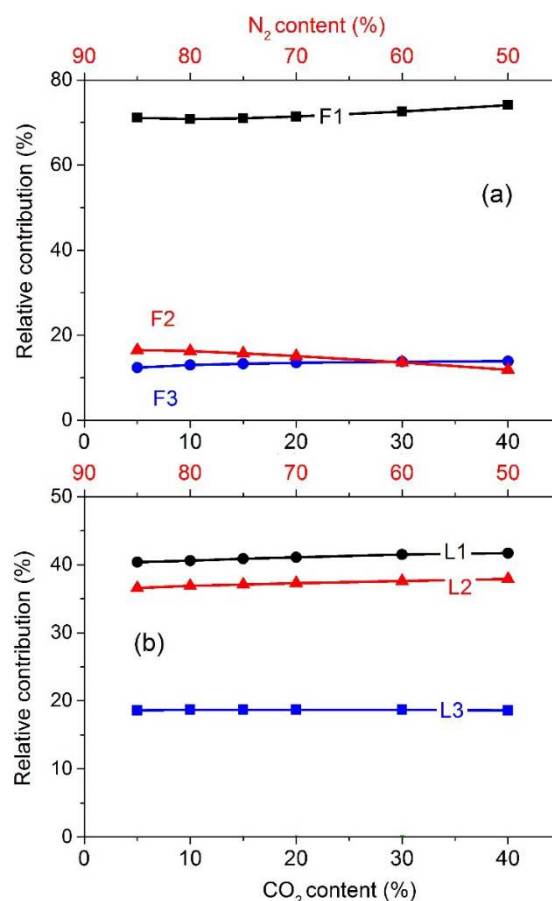


Figure 16. Relative contributions of the main processes leading to C_3H_8 formation (a) and loss (b) as a function of the CO_2 (and N_2) content, for a fixed total flow rate of 200 ml/min and plasma power of 10 W, corresponding to an SEI of 0.76 eV/molecule. The CH_4 content was fixed at 10 %, with the remainder being CO_2 and N_2 .

Table 7 lists the most important formation (F1-F3) and loss (L1-L3) processes for C_3H_8 , while the relative

contributions of these processes for a $\text{CO}_2/\text{CH}_4/\text{N}_2$ mixture at constant CH_4 content are plotted in figure 16. The results for the other gas mixtures are again presented in the SI (figures S16-S18)

Three-body recombination of C_2H_5 and CH_3 radicals (F1) is the most important formation process. It contributes above 70 % at all conditions investigated, and even up to 90 % upon addition of O_2 (figure S17 (a)). Finally, the loss of C_3H_8 occurs almost entirely through electron impact dissociation (L1-L3 in decreasing order of importance) at all conditions investigated.

Finally, our calculations reveal that the loss of C_3H_8 is quite significant compared to their production, because the total loss rate takes up around 38 to 46% of the total formation rate.

3.3.7 General Overview of the Reaction Pathways

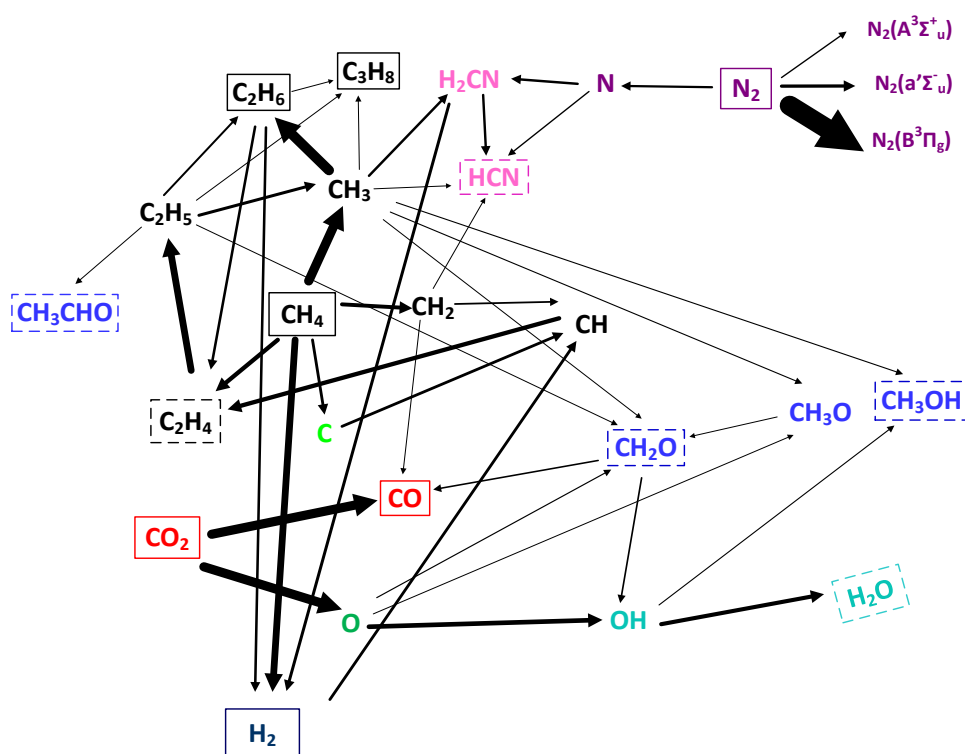


Figure 17. Schematic overview of the dominant reaction pathways for the conversion of CH_4 and CO_2 , as well as N_2 , in a 1:1:8 $\text{CO}_2/\text{CH}_4/\text{N}_2$ mixture, for a fixed total flow rate of 200 ml/min and plasma power of 10 W, corresponding to an SEI of 0.76 eV/molecule. The thickness of the arrow lines is linearly proportional to the rate of the net reactions. The most important molecules are indicated with a solid line frame, the molecules formed with lower densities are written in a frame with dashed lines, while the radicals are not written in a frame.

From the above detailed analysis of the dominant loss and formation reactions for CH_4 , CO_2 and the major products, we can compose a general picture of the dominant reaction pathways in the plasma. This is summarized in figure 17 for a 1:1:8 $\text{CO}_2/\text{CH}_4/\text{N}_2$ mixture, at a fixed total flow rate of 200 ml/min and plasma power of 10 W, corresponding to an SEI of 0.76 eV/molecule.

The conversion process, at the present DBD conditions, starts with electron impact dissociation of CH_4 ,

forming CH_3 radicals. Meanwhile, electron impact excitation of N_2 produces metastable singlet and triplet states, which also promote the dissociation of CH_4 towards CH_3 , CH_2 , CH radicals and C atoms. The CH_3 radicals will recombine toward higher hydrocarbons, i.e., mainly C_2H_6 and C_3H_8 . Moreover, the recombination between CH_4 and CH produces unsaturated hydrocarbons, i.e. mainly C_2H_4 . The latter can recombine with H atoms into C_2H_5 radicals, which further produce other hydrocarbons, such as C_2H_6 and C_3H_8 , as well as CH_3 radicals. Furthermore, dissociation of CH_4 and the higher hydrocarbons by electron impact and by collisions with N_2 metastable states yields the formation of H_2 .

At the same time, electron impact collisions with N_2 also yield splitting of N_2 into N atoms, which can react with CH_3 radicals to generate H_2CN . The latter are not stable and quickly transform into hydrogen cyanide (HCN) upon impact with N or H atoms. At 80 % N_2 content, our simulation shows that HCN is the most abundant N -containing end product (around 1600 ppm). This indicates that the presence—even in high concentrations—of N_2 does not result in a significant production of N -containing species. This is in qualitative agreement with our experiments, since no N -containing species were detected.

Electron impact dissociation and dissociation upon impact with N_2 metastable states also contribute to the conversion of CO_2 into CO and O . Moreover, the CH_3 radicals, formed by CH_4 dissociation, react with O atoms, to form CH_2O (formaldehyde) and CH_3O radicals. The latter can subsequently be converted into CH_2O as well. Furthermore, the O atoms can react with CH_2O or CH_4 to produce OH radicals, which can further react with CH_3 radicals into CH_3OH (methanol), albeit to a lower extent. The OH radicals also react further into H_2O . Finally, the O atoms, created from CO_2 conversion, initiate the formation of other oxygenates, like acetaldehyde (CH_3CHO). However, this reaction path is not so important, because of the limited formation of O radicals.

In order of decreasing importance, H_2 , CO , C_2H_6 , H_2O , as well as the hydrogen cyanide (HCN) are the main end products (with molar fractions of 0.80 %, 0.60 %, 0.20 %, 0.19 % and 0.16 %, respectively) in a 1:1:8 $\text{CO}_2/\text{CH}_4/\text{N}_2$ mixture. The fraction of other oxygenates (CH_2O , CH_3OH , etc.) as well as C_3H_8 in the end products is lower than 0.1 %, hence their yields are of minor importance. Note that HCN was not detected in our experiments, although the calculations predict a higher concentration than for C_3H_8 . This is because thermal conductivity detectors (TCD) and a flame-ionization detector (FID) were used to detect the products. These detectors are more sensitive and hence have a much lower detection limit for C_3H_8 compared to HCN . Moreover, the yield of water (H_2O) was not calculated in the experiments, since GC measurements are not suitable to deliver quantitative data about H_2O .

Our earlier study showed that the presence of N_2 during CO_2 splitting leads to the formation of N_2O and several NO_x compounds, with concentrations in the range of several 100 ppm.⁸¹ These concentrations are too low to be considered useful for nitrogen fixation⁶⁻⁷ but will give rise to several environmental problems. N_2O is an even more potent greenhouse gas than CO_2 , with a global warming potential (GWP) of 298 CO_2 -equivalent, while NO and NO_2 are responsible for acid rain and the formation of ozone and a wide variety of toxic products. However, our calculations predict that with the addition of CH_4 , the production of NO_x compounds upon reaction between N - and O -species is prohibited, because of the faster reaction between O - and H -species, as explained in section 3.2 above. Therefore, no NO_x compounds are plotted in figure 17. This

result is very important, as it indicates that DRM in a real gas effluent, containing significant amounts of N_2 , would not cause problems of NO_x formation, that are present in CO_2 splitting upon addition of N_2 .

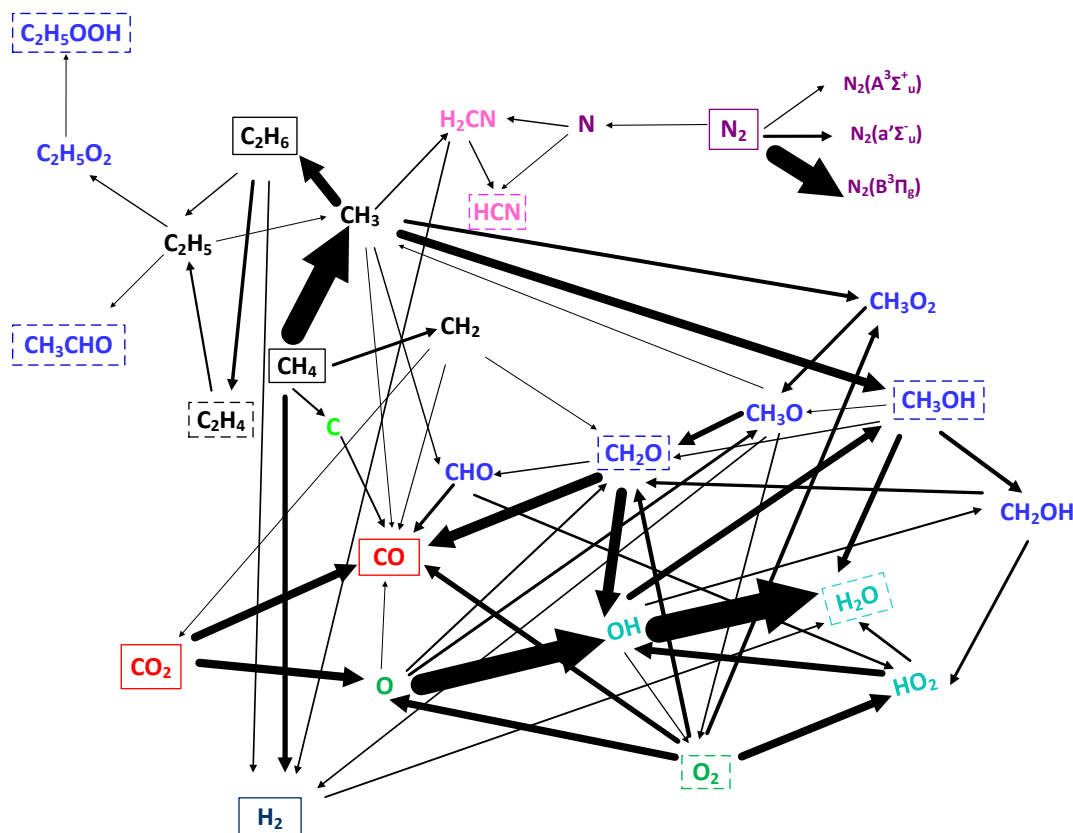


Figure 18. Schematic overview of the dominant reaction pathways for the conversion of CH_4 , CO_2 , O_2 and N_2 in a 10:10:78:2 $CO_2/CH_4/N_2/O_2$ mixture, for a fixed total flow rate of 200 ml/min and plasma power of 10 W, corresponding to an SEI of 0.76 eV/molecule. The thickness of the arrow lines is linearly proportional to the rate of the net reactions. The most important molecules are indicated with a solid line frame, the molecules formed with lower densities are written in a frame with dashed lines, while the radicals are not written in a frame.

From the analysis of the dominant loss and formation processes in sections 3.3.1-3.3.6 above, it became clear that the addition of water does not change the plasma chemistry to a large extent, because of its limited influence on the CH_4 and CO_2 conversion (see also figure 10 above). Hence, the dominant reaction pathways in a $CO_2/CH_4/N_2/H_2O$ mixture are also well represented by figure 17.

For the $CO_2/CH_4/N_2/O_2$ mixture, on the other hand, the situation is different, because O_2 addition affects the dominant loss and formation reactions, as was clear from sections 3.3.1-3.3.6 above. Therefore, we plot in figure 18 the dominant reaction pathways for the conversion of CH_4 , CO_2 , O_2 and N_2 in a 10:10:78:2 $CO_2/CH_4/N_2/O_2$ mixture. Again, electron impact dissociation of CH_4 and dissociation upon impact with N_2 metastable singlet and triplet states results in the formation of CH_3 radicals. The latter can again recombine into hydrocarbons, such as ethane (C_2H_6), but the production of higher hydrocarbons through CH_3 recombination is reduced due to the increased recombination rate between CH_3 and O_2 or OH radicals, which are more abundant in case of O_2 addition, yielding methanol (CH_3OH) formation. Moreover, the recombination of CH_3

radicals and O_2 molecules into CH_3O_2 radicals, which further form CH_3O , also becomes important. The CH_3O radicals also yield the formation of formaldehyde (CH_2O) and methanol (CH_3OH). However, methanol (CH_3OH) can quickly react back into CH_3O radicals through the reverse reactions with O, H or OH radicals at a somewhat larger rate, so our model reveals a net conversion from methanol (CH_3OH) to formaldehyde (CH_2O).

In addition, methanol (CH_3OH) can react further into formaldehyde (CH_2O) through the CH_2OH radicals, and formaldehyde (CH_2O) can further be converted into CO, either directly upon reaction with O atoms or indirectly through the CHO radicals. Furthermore, the reaction of formaldehyde (CH_2O) with O atoms also produces OH radicals. The O_2 molecules are converted into HO_2 radicals, O atoms and CO, as well as formaldehyde (CH_2O). It is worth to mention that most of the O_2 conversion proceeds through collisions between neutral species. For instance, O_2 dissociation upon impact with N_2 metastable states contributes for about 15%, showing the important role of N_2 , while electron impact dissociation contributes for only 3-4%.

CO can be further oxidized into CO_2 upon reaction with OH radicals. Furthermore, also the CH_2 radicals can be oxidized into CO_2 . These reactions are obviously undesired. The O atoms are also converted into CH_3O and OH radicals, which can again form water. The production of H_2CN upon impact between N and CH_3 radicals is prohibited, due to competition with other reactions that consume CH_3 radicals upon addition of O_2 . As a result, the concentration of HCN in the mixture is greatly reduced.

The most important products in a 10:10:78:2 $CO_2/CH_4/N_2/O_2$ mixture, as predicted by our model, are (in order of decreasing importance) H_2O , CO, H_2 , ethane (C_2H_6), methanol (CH_3OH) and hydrogen cyanide (HCN), with molar fractions of 1.60 %, 1.30 %, 0.78 %, 0.13 %, 0.10 %, and 0.094 %, respectively. Note that methanol (CH_3OH) was not detected in our experiments, because its concentration approaches the detection limit. In contrast, C_3H_8 species were detected in spite of their lower concentration because of a much lower detection limit.

The comparison of figures 17 and 18 clearly shows that O_2 addition has a dramatic effect on the plasma chemistry of CO_2 and CH_4 conversion, as was also clear from section 3.2 and sections 3.3.1-3.3.6 above (cf. figure 9 and figures S2, S5, S8, S11, S14 and S17 of the SI). A similar behavior was reported by De Bie et al., when comparing the plasma chemistry of DRM (CH_4/CO_2) and POX (CH_4/O_2). Indeed, both investigations indicate that mixtures with CO_2 favor the formation of H_2 , while the production of H_2O is greatly promoted upon addition of O_2 . CO is formed at high density in both gas mixtures. Note that adding O_2 can effectively promote the conversion of CH_4 (see figure 9). However, also a significant amount of undesired CO_2 is formed and thus the net conversion of CO_2 is greatly reduced. Our pathway analysis shows how plasma chemistry modeling can help to obtain better insight, and this is very valuable to optimize the process. For example, the different pathways revealed by our model can help to determine the most suitable feed gas ratio to obtain the highest yield and/or selectivity of desired products.

4. CONCLUSIONS AND OUTLOOK

Chemical kinetics modeling has proven to be very useful to study the plasma-based conversion of CO_2 and CH_4 . In recent years, plasma chemistry models have been developed in a stepwise manner. First models consisted of single component molecular gases, i.e. to study CO_2 splitting and CH_4 reforming. In a next step,

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3 multi-component mixtures were studied, i.e. DRM, POX, artificial photosynthesis, and CO₂ hydrogenation.
4 Subsequently, the effect of N₂ as impurity and admixture on the CO₂ splitting and CH₄ reforming process was
5 investigated, to better approach real effluent gases.
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8 Combining the knowledge gathered in this field so far, we presented here a new comprehensive plasma
9 chemistry set, that can be used for zero-dimensional modeling of the chemical kinetics in low temperature
10 plasmas, for all possible combinations of CO₂, CH₄, N₂, O₂ and H₂O, for a wide variety of applications. It will
11 be useful, for instance, for CO₂ conversion studies in the presence of both CH₄ and N₂, as well as for unravelling
12 the possibilities of plasma-based multi-reforming processes. Furthermore, also in other fields, such as (plasma-
13 assisted) combustion and even more exotic applications, like planetary atmosphere and spacecraft re-entry
14 modeling, this chemistry set could also be used as a foundation to build a comprehensive computational data
15 set.
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21 This comprehensive model was first validated by comparing the calculated CO₂ (and CH₄) conversion for
22 pure CO₂, as well as CO₂/CH₄, CO₂/N₂, CH₄/N₂ and CO₂/H₂O gas mixtures, with experimental data from our
23 earlier work. Subsequently, a more extensive validation was performed by a combined calculation and
24 experimental study, investigating the conversion of CH₄ and CO₂, as well as the selectivity of the major products,
25 in a CO₂/CH₄/N₂ mixture, for varying CO₂/CH₄ ratios and N₂ contents, as well as upon O₂ and H₂O addition.
26 Good agreement was reached with the experimental data, indicating that the chemical kinetics model sufficiently
27 captures the underlying plasma chemistry for these processes.
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32 The presence of N₂ in a CO₂/CH₄ gas mixture clearly enhances the absolute CO₂ and CH₄ conversion, due
33 to dissociation of CO₂ and CH₄ upon collision with nitrogen metastable molecules (mainly N₂(a'¹Σ_u⁻)
34 and N₂(a'¹Σ_u⁻)), and it also yields a slight increase in the syngas (H₂/CO) ratio. This is because the N₂
35 metastable molecules contribute more to the dissociation of CH₄, yielding H₂, due to the higher dissociation
36 rate than that of CO₂. Moreover, at a fixed CH₄ content of 10 %, increasing the CO₂/CH₄ mixing ratio from 0.5
37 to 4, by modifying the N₂ content, yields a drop in the H₂/CO ratio from 2.45 to 0.42. These results show that
38 we can exert great control over the H₂/CO ratio by changing the mixing ratio.
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43 Although the addition of O₂ is also beneficial for the CH₄ conversion, due to a shift towards POX over
44 DRM, it is accompanied by a severe drop in CO₂ conversion and syngas ratio. Furthermore, a large fraction of
45 the converted CH₄ is transformed into H₂O rather than value-added products.
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48 The addition of H₂O had virtually no effect on the CH₄ and CO₂ conversion. This is interesting, because
49 in a pure CO₂/H₂O mixture, H₂O addition leads to a drop in CO₂ conversion.⁷³ The reason is that the H atoms,
50 originating from CH₄ dissociation, react with the OH radicals, so that the latter do not recombine with CO into
51 CO₂, which is the limiting process in the CO₂/H₂O mixture.⁷³ Additionally, the syngas ratio increases due to
52 the effective conversion of H₂O into H₂.
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56 Although this new chemical kinetics model already yields good agreement with experimental data for
57 various gas mixtures and a wide range of mixing ratios, we should remain cautious when using its results—this
58 is true for any model. The chemistry set contains 1729 reactions, each with its corresponding cross section or
59 rate coefficient, which are subject to certain uncertainties.⁹⁴ The latter will of course be reflected in the results.
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3 A crucial next step in the field of plasma chemistry modeling should consist of performing a detailed uncertainty
4 analysis and sensitivity studies. By doing so, the impact of these uncertainties on the model predictions can be
5 revealed, and the accuracy of the model can be determined. Such an analysis was presented already for less
6 complicated mixtures, i.e. by Turner for a He/O₂ mixture,⁹⁵⁻⁹⁷ and in our group for a CO₂ plasma.³⁸ Although
7 this will be a huge amount of work, we will continue along these lines, since it is indispensable to fully explore
8 the predictive character of such a model.
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13 Additionally, the model presented here mainly applies to a DBD plasma reactor, which has been mostly
14 used for gas conversion studies up to now. However, other types of plasmas are also gaining increasing interest,
15 like microwave plasmas and gliding arc discharges.¹¹ They operate at somewhat different conditions, such as
16 lower reduced electric field (i.e., ratio of electric field over gas density) around 50 – 100 Td. At these conditions,
17 the electron temperature is in the order of 1 eV, which is most suitable for vibrational excitation. The low
18 vibrational levels will gradually populate higher vibrational levels by vibration-vibration collisions (so-called
19 VV relaxation), and the highest vibrational levels will easily dissociate. Hence, this process of vibrational ladder
20 climbing leading to dissociation is the most energy-efficient process for CO₂ dissociation. This explains why
21 CO₂ dissociation is quite energy efficient in microwave and gliding arc discharges.^{4,11} These processes are not
22 considered in detail in the model presented here, as they are of minor importance in a DBD. However, a detailed
23 model for the CO₂ vibrational kinetics has already been developed within the group PLASMANT,³⁴⁻³⁵ as well
24 as models for CO₂/N₂ and N₂/O₂ mixtures, accounting in detail for the vibrational kinetics of CO₂, N₂ and
25 O₂.^{6,82} In the future, it would be useful to extend this newly developed model for the CO₂/CH₄/N₂/O₂/H₂O
26 mixture with the vibrational kinetics of the various molecules, so that this model becomes applicable to other
27 plasma types as well. This is not only true for the CO₂ vibrational levels, but the N₂ vibrational levels can also
28 be important for CO₂ (and maybe CH₄) dissociation.⁸² Furthermore, when the CO₂ conversion is significant,
29 the CO vibrational kinetics should be considered as well, in relation with the formation of C and O atoms.⁹⁸
30 Again, adding the vibrational levels of all these molecules will require major efforts, in view of the possible
31 coupling between all these vibrational levels, and keeping in mind uncertainties in all rate coefficients,⁹⁵⁻⁹⁷ and
32 the approximations that need to be made.¹⁵⁻¹⁶
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43 This combined computational and experimental study reveals that the major products formed by mixtures
44 of CO₂, CH₄, N₂, O₂ and H₂O are syngas and some higher hydrocarbons (mainly C₂H₆ and C₃H₈), as well as
45 H₂O, while the concentrations of oxygenates like methanol, formic acid, formaldehyde, as well as hydrogen
46 cyanide, are almost negligible. Hence, to increase the product selectivity of future plasma-based reforming
47 processes, preferably to these oxygenates, combinations with a catalyst or membranes will be necessary. This
48 brings us to another future necessity in the field of plasma chemistry modeling, i.e., the need to extend these
49 models with surface reactions, as recently done for NH₃ synthesis by Hong et al.⁹⁹ This step would make it
50 possible for 0D plasma chemistry models to account for plasma catalysis, and thus to make it possible to predict
51 the requirements of the underlying plasmachemical pathways to selectively produce the desired value-added
52 compounds. This stresses the power that lies within this type of modeling studies, i.e. to unravel the underlying
53 chemical pathways to obtain a better understanding of the chemistry taking place, which in turn allows to predict
54 whether new conditions could be more promising, and help to point experiments in the right direction.
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ASSOCIATED CONTENT

*S Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: [xx.xxxx/acs.jpcc.xxxxxxx](https://doi.org/xx.xxxx/acs.jpcc.xxxxxxx). An overview of the reactions included in the model (PDF)

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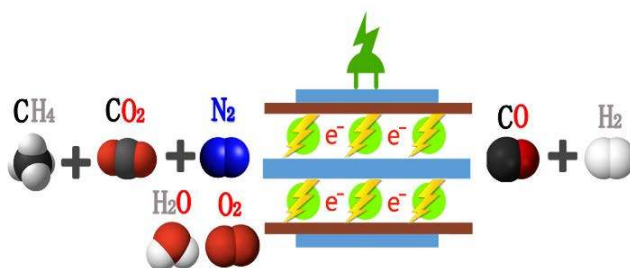
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BIOGRAPHIES

Weizong Wang was born in Shandong, China, in 1984. He received double Ph.D. degrees in electrical engineering from Xi'an Jiaotong University, China and University of Liverpool, United Kingdom, in 2013. Since that, he worked at Qian Xuesen Laboratory of Space Technology in China up to 2015, focusing on plasma propulsion. Currently, he is working in the PLASMANT research group at the University of Antwerp in Belgium supported by the Marie Skłodowska-Curie Individual Fellowship towards a better understanding of plasma-based gases conversion into value added products. His main interests concern the fundamental physics, chemistry and applications of low temperature plasmas.




Ramses Snoeckx, born in 1988, obtained master's degrees in both environmental science and chemistry. Combining these specializations, he successfully obtained a PhD in chemistry (2017, University of Antwerp) for his research on plasma-based conversion of greenhouse gases into value-added chemicals and fuels. Currently he's working as postdoctoral fellow at the King Abdullah University of Science and Technology (KAUST). The underlying chemical reactions taking place in plasmas are his prime focus. By relying on a combination of modelling and experimental techniques, he aims to gain the necessary insights in the plasmachemical pathways to improve existing—as well as to find new—applications for plasma-based environmental and energy solutions.



Xuming Zhang was born in Hangzhou, China, in 1981. He received Ph.D. degree from Zhejiang University, China, in 2011. He served in King Abdullah University of Science and Technology (KAUST), as a post-doctoral research fellow from 2011 to 2015. He has been with Zhejiang Gongshang University as an assistant professor since 2016. Dr. Zhang has authored over 30 publications in peer-reviewed journals. His current research interests include non-thermal plasma generation and plasma-induced fuel reforming and environmental remediation.



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18 **Annemie Bogaerts**, born in 1971, obtained her PhD in chemistry in 1996, from the University of Antwerp in
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28 applications, including environmental and medical applications (mainly cancer treatment),
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30 as well as nanotechnology and analytical chemistry. In recent years, special attention is
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32 given to CO₂ conversion by plasma and plasma catalysis.
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