by an EI (70 eV-100 μ A, 200 °C) collision induced decompo-sition¹² (CID, He, $p \sim 10^{-4}$ mmHg) experiment producing a CID mass spectrum identical with a computer-stored spectrum of the authentic compound. The observed behavior of the allergen in FD MS closely parallels that of the model compound trimethylsulfoxonium iodide giving rise to m/e 142 (CH₃I⁺), 93 $((CCH_3)_3S^+O)$, and 78 (Me_2SO^+) at 80 °C.

Finally, strong support for the proposed structure was gained from hydrogen iodide reduction (67% HI, reflux for 15 min) of the active salt fraction, leaving sulfocholine in analogy with the recorded reduction of trimethylsulfoxonium ion to trimethylsulfonium ion.11

$$\begin{array}{c} CH_3 \\ CH_3 \\ CH_3 \\ CH_3 \\ \end{array} S^{+} CH_2 CH_2 OH \xrightarrow{HI} CH_3 \\ CH_3 \\ CH_3 \\ \end{array} S^{+} CH_2 CH_2 OH$$

The pure allergen (estimated 5 ppm based on animal wet weight) could be isolated from the salt mixture by precipitation of an iodo complex from an acidic $(1 \text{ N H}_2\text{SO}_4)$ solution containing the triiodo ion.¹³ In analogy with quaternary ammonium ions, a precipitate is formed.

Synthesis of the allergen has been achieved by the base-catalyzed reaction of trimethylsulfoxonium chloride and formaldehyde in aqueous solution at room temperature.¹⁴

Sulfoxonium ions have never been encountered in nature before and are, except for a very few examples,¹⁵ the most prominent being trimethylsulfoxonium ion, virtually chemically unknown. The chemistry, pharmacology, and natural distribution of this rare type of compound are at present being investigated.

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(14) Several other attempts to synthezise the allergen, e.g., reaction between the corresponding sulfonium salt and various oxidizing agents, methylation of the corresponding sulfoxide, etc., all proved unsuccessful. Thus the synthetic procedure is by no means trivial and will be reported in detail elsewhere. The activity of the synthetic material expressed itself as a weak allergic response in one of us (J.S.C.) whenever the synthetic approach was successful. Consequently, this class of potentially hazardous compounds should only be handled with the utmost caution.

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Continuous-Wave CO₂ Laser-Induced Decomposition of Phosgene in BCl₃: A Thermal Reaction

Sir:

The value of lasers for purifying materials has been demonstrated in several laboratories.¹⁻⁴ Of particular interest is the work of Merritt and Robertson³ and later Bachmann et al.,⁴ who showed that low-power continuous-wave (CW) CO₂ laser irradiations could be utilized to selectively dissociate phosgene (COCl₂) impurity usually present in BCl₃. While the utility of the phosgene results cannot be disputed, the interpretations presented are open to question.

Merritt and Robertson irradiated BCl₃-COCl₂ mixtures having total pressures varying between 12 and 110 torr with a multiline CW CO₂ laser at 100 W. BCl₃ is the predominant absorber under these conditions. They found $COCl_2$ to be decomposed quickly and selectively. On the other hand, simple heating of corresponding samples to 200 °C for several hours resulted in no COCl₂ decomposition. Substituting C_2H_4 for BCl₃ also resulted in COCl₂ decomposition, but at a reduced rate. Bachmann et al. irradiated their samples with a CW CO₂ laser operating on a single P-24 (944.10 cm⁻¹) line at 6 W. Pressures of their static or flowing COCl₂-BCl₃ mixtures were always greater than 100 torr. Again, $COCl_2$ was selectively dissociated. Replacement of BCl₃ with SF₆, which is a stronger absorber than BCl₃, and irradiation with the P-20 (940.52 cm⁻¹) line resulted in significantly less dissociation of $COCl_2$. Both groups interpreted their results in terms of a nonthermal mechanism, namely, energy transfer from vibrationally excited BCl₃ to COCl₂. Bachmann et al.⁴ also expressed the possibility that a "fragmentation product of BCl3" could be responsible for the degradation of COCl₂, with the fragment originating from direct-laser vibrational-excitational dissociation of the BCl₁ absorber.

However, under the conditions of these experiments, elementary considerations would indicate the results should be a reflection of low photon density and high collision numbers. At most, only 10³-10⁴ photons/s reach the proximity of an absorbing molecule while the same molecule is undergoing approximately 10⁸-10⁹ collisions/s. Thus, highly vibrationally excited BCl₃ or fragments of BCl,3 produced by direct-laser multiple-photon absorption under these conditions seems improbable. On the other hand, a hightemperature zone within the irradiating beam envelope is produced, and there would be a corresponding molecular vibrational distribution.5,6

The present work was carried out to determine if vibrationally excited molecules produced by multiple-photon absorption were involved or if a thermal process was taking place subsequent to vibrational-translational energy transfer from the laser-excited BCl₃. To make this distinction, we carried out on BCl₃-COCl₂ mixtures experiments similar to those recently made on neat B_2H_6 and $B_2H_6-\hat{S}F_6$ mixtures⁸ involving chopped and unchopped $\tilde{C}\tilde{W}$ CO₂ laser irradiations.

The samples were prepared from BCl₃ and COCl₂ purchased from Matheson and Linde, respectively. Both gases were purified by vacuum distillation, checked by IR, and stored in glass vials fitted with greaseless Teflon stopcocks. The irradiations were carried out in a greaseless 10-cm path length, 140.58-cm² glass cell fitted with NaCl windows, Viton O-rings, a Teflon stopcock, and a side arm for cryogenic condensations. The partial pressures were monitored by IR spectroscopy. The chopper described previously^{7,8} is 47.1% open and 52.9% closed. The CW laser was set on the P-18 (946 cm⁻¹) line which is resonant with the v_3 fundamental of BCl₃ at 953 cm⁻¹.

Figure 1 compares results for chopped and unchopped irradiation of mixtures of 100 torr of BCl₃ and 50 torr of COCl₂ at 10 W and a beam diameter of 7 mm. The moles of COCl₂ disappearing as a function of time are compared for the chopped (50 Hz) and unchopped identical samples. The open time is plotted on the abscissa (0.471 times laser on time for chopped system). This time is directly proportional to the number of photons reaching the sample so that the effect of irradiating the system with the same number of photons for both experiments can be compared. It is noted that chopping reduces the decomposition markedly (about a factor of 5). Hence, the same number of photons irradiating the system continuously vs. that in 20-ms pulses at the same power and intensity gives different results. This is inconsistent with multiple-photon vibrational excitation of the

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Figure 1. Phosgene decomposition vs. laser irradiation time for initial partial pressures of 100-torr BCl3 and 50-torr phosgene. Power was 10 W and intensity 26 W/cm² with the P-18 (946 cm⁻¹) line. The upper curve is for a continuous beam, and the lower curve is for a chopped beam.

BCl₃ and subsequent vibrationally controlled chemical processes. The results may be interpreted in terms of a thermally derived process in which the reaction rate is dependent upon the temperature within the beam envelope. The temperature would be lower for the chopped conditions. In this particular system, BCl₃ probably exhibits additional specific catalytic activity because laser-phase homogeneous thermolysis of SF₆-COCl₂ mixtures has little or no effect on COCl₂ although high temperatures are produced.⁴⁻⁶ These high temperatures would be accompanied by a corresponding vibrational distribution of molecular states. The thermal interpretation is also consistent with the findings of Meyer et al.,⁹ who showed that COCl₂ was selectively decomposed in BCl₃ by an electrical discharge or radiofrequency excitation.

Bachmann et al.⁴ attached special significance, in terms of a nonthermal mechanism, to the visible luminescence of BCl₃. We found this visually detected luminescence disappeared when the 10-W, 7-mm beam was chopped at 50 Hz. The luminescence reappeared when the chopper was slowed to about 10-13 Hz (\sim 75–100-ms pulses). Interestingly, this pulse length corresponds to that found recently for a continuous polymer pulsing in S- $F_6-B_2H_6$ mixtures.⁸ Interpreting this luminescence as having a thermal origin under these conditions is consistent with the delayed luminescence found by Ambartzumian et al.¹⁰ and Karlov et al.¹¹ in BCl_3 and the experiments of Houston et al.,¹² who attributed the major segment of a 50-µs infrared double-resonance absorption signal in BCl₃ to vibrational-translation relaxation.

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Electric-Field Orientation of Poly(α -L-glutamic acid) in Various Conformations as Studied by Reversing-Pulse **Electric Birefringence**

Sir:

We wish to report the usefulness of the reversing-pulse electric birefringence (RPEB) technique, introduced by O'Konski and co-workers¹⁻³ and formulated by Tinoco and Yamaoka,⁴ to the understanding of the electric-field orientation of $poly(\alpha$ -L-glutamic acid), $(Glu)_m$ to which the contribution of counterions is expected.⁵ In dimethylformamide (DMF), the un-ionized $(Glu)_n$ helix possesses a large intrinsic permanent electric dipole moment along the symmetry axis (μ_3) in addition to an atomic and electronic polarizability anisotropy ($\Delta \alpha = \alpha_{33} - \alpha_{11}$);⁶ hence, it can be oriented by an external electric field.^{6,7} However, the orientation mechanism of (Glu), would be complex in a salt-free aqueous solution in which the side-chain carboxylates are ionized and the conformation varies with pH. Besides μ_3 and $\Delta \alpha$,⁸ there will be field-induced dipole moments due to the counterion fluctuation⁹ or the ionic atmosphere polarization.¹⁰ A suggestion was made that the permanent dipole moment of $(Glu)_n$ is largely suppressed by a time-dependent polarizability at higher ionizations of the side-chain carboxylates.⁹ Thus, a direct proof of the role of counterions on the $(Glu)_n$ surface should assist understanding of the polyelectrolyte behavior of biopolymers.

Theoretical calculations have illustrated that an RPEB signal (Δn) should display an extremum (Δ_m) after a lapse of time (t_m) upon the reversal of an applied pulse field if a molecule has both μ_3 and $\Delta \alpha$; the depth depends on the ratio of $\mu_3^2/kT\Delta \alpha$ (Figure 1 of ref 4). If a polyion has no μ_3 , a similar extremum still appears due to a time-dependent polarizability when the mobility of counterions on the polyion surface is slow; the depth depends on the ratio of the relaxation time of the counterion redistribution (τ_1) to that of the molecular rotation of the polyion (τ_1) (Figure 4 of ref 4). In either case, the extremum is undetectable if $\mu_3 \ll$ $\Delta \alpha$ or $\tau_3 \ll \tau_1$. It should be pointed out that the Δ_m , which would be otherwise observed for a polyion such as $(Glu)_n$ with an appreciable μ_3 , becomes undetectable if the counterion mobility is much faster than the molecular rotation and if the fast-induced dipole moment is much larger than μ_{3} .

Figure 1 shows oscillograms of the RPEB signal of $(Glu)_n$ and the applied pulse field in DMF and in aqueous solutions in the pH range where (Glu)_n undergoes a helix-coil transition. A deep minimum $(\mu_3^2/kT\Delta\alpha \ ca. 2)^4$ appears expectedly in the DMF solution where $(Glu)_n$ is in the helix formation (a). In aqueous solutions, the minimum tends to be shallower with an increase of pH. At pH 4.17 (b), where $(Glu)_n$ is a complete helix showing the largest negative molar rotation, the depth is shallow as compared with that in DMF. This is a strong indication that counterion-induced dipole moments partially suppress the contribution of μ_3 to the field orientation. At pH 5.09 (c), where the helical content is usually assumed to be 100%, the minimum disappears completely. In the pH range 5.3-5.8 (d), where (Glu)_n begins to change from helix to coil, the RPEB signal is complicated, showing a maximum after the pulse reversal. In the middle of

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