

Kinetics of NCl(a¹Δ) via Photodissociation of ClN₃

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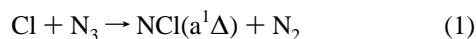
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Kinetic measurements of NCl(a¹Δ) metastables produced by the photolysis of chlorine azide (ClN₃) at 193 nm are reported. High NCl(a¹Δ) density (>10¹⁵ molecules/cm³) production facilitates measurements of the NCl(a¹Δ) + NCl(a¹Δ) self-annihilation rate. A gas phase transient chemical titration scheme is used to calibrate absolute NCl(a¹Δ) density. The NCl(a¹Δ) bimolecular rate coefficient at room temperature is (7.2 ± 0.9 × 10⁻¹² cm³/(molecule s)) and has a magnitude very critical to the development of an NCl(a¹Δ) + I*(²P_{3/2}) → I*(²P_{1/2}) + NCl(X³Σ⁻) chemical laser. Despite the large value of the self-annihilation rate, intense I*(²P_{1/2}) emission via transfer from NCl(a¹Δ) is strongly observed when mixtures of CH₂I₂ and ClN₃ are photolyzed at 193 nm. Unlike the analogous O₂(a¹Δ) + I(²P_{3/2}) energy transfer system, the relatively large NCl(a¹Δ) bimolecular rate constant suggests that NCl(a¹Δ) transport times must be short and will require small chemical mixing regions for efficient lasing. In addition, the 300 K collisional quenching rate constants of NCl(a¹Δ) by F₂, Cl₂, and Br₂ are (2.5 ± 1.1) × 10⁻¹³, (2.9 ± 0.6) × 10⁻¹¹, and (1.4 ± 0.2) × 10⁻¹⁰ cm³/(molecule s), respectively.

Introduction

Metastable atoms and diatomic molecules have long been recognized for their importance as intermediates in atmospheric and combustion chemistry and in plasma and laser media. For example, in the near-infrared COIL chemical laser system^{1,2} the O₂(a¹Δ) metastable pumps the I*(²P_{1/2}) → I(²P_{3/2}) lasing transition at 1.315 μm through the resonant energy transfer reaction between O₂(a¹Δ) and ground state I(²P_{3/2}). In this vein, a considerable amount of attention has been given to the isovalent NF(a¹Δ) and NCl(a¹Δ) metastables as energy carriers in chemical lasers.^{3,4} Of these, the NCl(a¹Δ) metastable appears particularly viable as an energy carrier in a chemically pumped system since NCl(a¹Δ) efficiently pumps I*(²P_{1/2}) via collisions with ground state I(²P_{3/2}) in a flow system,^{5,6}



generating a population inversion between the I(²P_{1/2}–²P_{3/2}) hyperfine states.⁷ Recently, an NCl(a¹Δ) to I(²P_{3/2}) energy transfer laser was demonstrated from the photolysis of chlorine azide (ClN₃) and CH₂I₂ gas mixtures at 193 nm.⁸

For NCl(a¹Δ) to be practical as an energy source in chemical lasers, several issues need to be understood. These include the generation of high NCl(a¹Δ) densities, determination of absolute NCl(a¹Δ) concentration, identification of NCl(a¹Δ) quenching species and their temperature-dependent rate constants, total rate constant and branching fraction, and the transfer rates to the laser candidate species. In the COIL system, the principal transport issues for singlet oxygen are the O₂(a¹Δ) energy pooling rate to produce O₂(b¹Σ) and second-order removal rates such as the O₂(a¹Δ)–O₂(a¹Δ) self-annihilation rate. Since these rates are small,⁹ the transport of high concentrations of O₂(a¹Δ) to the iodine mixing nozzle occurs over large distances enabling high COIL powers of greater than 1 kW as reported by Fujii et

al.¹⁰ Similarly, for a successful scale-up of an NCl(a¹Δ)-based laser system, a critical evaluation of NCl(a¹Δ) second-order self-removal rate must also be determined. In this paper, we report on the development of a gas phase titration scheme to measure the absolute NCl(a¹Δ) densities obtained from the photodissociation of ClN₃. Rate constant measurements for the bimolecular self-removal rate constant of NCl(a¹Δ) at high densities and other species are made. The magnitude of the bimolecular rate constant and its implications for an NCl(a¹Δ)–I*(²P_{1/2}) chemical laser are discussed.

Experimental Section

The experimental apparatus is divided into three sections: a ClN₃ generator, an optical diagnostic on the ClN₃ generator flow, and a laser photolysis cell for NCl(a¹Δ) production.

ClN₃ Generator. Access to a large NCl(a¹Δ) density regime (>10¹⁵ molecules/cm³) is critical in understanding the bimolecular self-annihilation rate coefficient of NCl(a¹Δ). High densities are produced by the pulsed ArF photolysis of flowing chlorine azide mixtures at 193 nm. The most widely used method for synthesizing chlorine azide is the reaction of chlorine gas with water-moistened sodium azide (NaN₃) deposited on a glass wool support.¹¹ Since the duration of these experiments extended well beyond the conventional reactor lifetime of 1–2 h, a modification to the reactor design was made. The new ClN₃ generator is depicted in Figure 1. The generator is comprised of two parts: a Pyrex reactor (40 cm × 5 cm o.d.) where Cl₂ and water-moistened NaN₃ react to form chlorine azide and a dryer (30 cm × 5 cm o.d.) filled with anhydrous calcium sulfate to remove water vapor from the ClN₃ stream. Both the reactor and dryer are jacketed with recirculating water cooled to 5 °C. The principal modification to the synthesis is the use of a Pyrex tube, 25 cm long × 3 cm in diameter, where upon NaN₃ and Cl₂ react to form ClN₃. The reactor is prepared by laying flat a 1 cm thick × 15 cm wide × 25 cm long blanket of glass wool and evenly distributing 10–15 g of sodium azide (Kodak, 99.9%) onto the wool and subsequently wetting with 5 mL of deionized water (10 MΩ resistance). The wool is then wrapped around the Pyrex tube, moistened with 2 mL of water,

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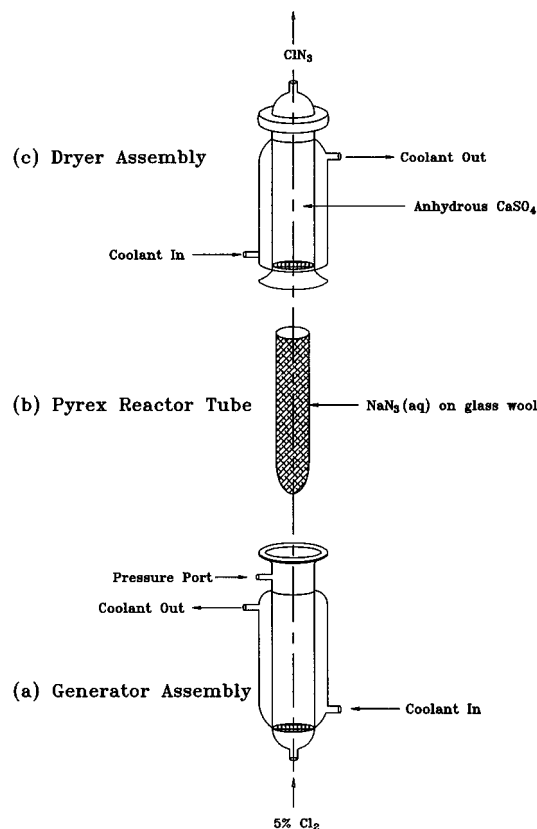


Figure 1. Diagram of the ClN_3 generator. (a) Generator housing with Cl_2 entrance, reactor pressure, and coolant input/output ports. (b) Insertable reaction tube where moistened NaN_3 on glass wool is wrapped around the tube and the $\text{Cl}_2 + \text{NaN}_3$ reaction occurs. (c) Reactor dryer housing with ClN_3 exit and coolant input/output ports. The last chamber is filled with anhydrous calcium sulfate to remove H_2O from the flow.

sprinkled again with 10 g of sodium azide, and then inserted into the reactor. In this manner, we are able to generate a stable ClN_3 flow for several hours per day for a period of a week or longer.

Photolysis Cell. Initial $\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)$ transient emission results were obtained using a simple 5×3 cm aluminum cell fitted with UV grade fused silica windows and a liquid N_2 cooled intrinsic germanium detector (ADC, Inc., Model 403HS). However, this design proved unreliable for several reasons. First, considerable background window fluorescence and/or scattered light was found to be coincident with the $\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)$ emission at $1.08 \mu\text{m}$ produced via 193 and 248 nm photolysis despite the use of an interference filter. Furthermore, the background emission was similar in magnitude and decay time to the $\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)$ fluorescence and could not be separated from the $\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)$ decay. Finally, the time constant for an intrinsic Ge detector is approximately $15 \mu\text{s}$, and a significant portion of the early $\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)$ time decay is lost due to the slow time response of this Ge detector. To eliminate the background fluorescence from the $\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)$ emission, a new photolysis cell was fabricated and is shown in Figure 2. The photolysis cell consists of a $20 \text{ cm} \times 2.5 \text{ cm}$ i.d. aluminum tube. The ClN_3 reactor flow and quenching gases were injected into the cell through a $90 \text{ cm} \times 2.5 \text{ cm}$ i.d. Pyrex side arm. The background fluorescence was further minimized by anodizing the cell black, inserting light baffles along the laser axis, and using laser entrance and exit Brewster windows. Enhanced $\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)$ transient response time was obtained using a S1 photomultiplier (Hamamatsu R1767, 8% quantum efficiency at $1.06 \mu\text{m}$) cooled to -70°C . The excimer laser (Questek Series 2000) was

operated at the ArF and KrF wavelengths with a repetition rate of 0.5–1.0 Hz to allow the replacement of reagent gases before each laser pulse. The beams were focused into the aluminum cell, producing laser fluences of $70\text{--}200 \text{ mJ/cm}^2$. The excimer laser energy was measured by a Scientech (Model PHD 50) energy meter. All emissions were observed 90° to the incident laser beam. The $\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)$ fluorescence was isolated with a $1.075 \mu\text{m}$ interference filter ($0.01 \mu\text{m}$ bandwidth) and recorded with a 500 MHz digital oscilloscope (Tektronix TDS 544A). Spectral scans of the near-IR emission produced by ClN_3 photolysis were recorded with a 0.3 m monochromator having a $1 \mu\text{m}$ blazed grating (300 grooves/mm) coupled to a liquid nitrogen cooled intrinsic germanium detector (ADC Model 403LS) and processed by an SRS Model 250 boxcar averager. The fluorine and chlorine gas mixtures used in the titration and quenching experiments were 5% in helium (Matheson) and 20% in argon (Matheson), respectively. Gas mixtures of bromine (5% in helium) for the titration and quenching experiments were prepared by evaporation of liquid Br_2 (Aldrich, 99%) into a Pyrex storage vessel and diluting the vapor in helium (Matheson, UHP). The bromine was purified by a freeze–pump–thaw cycle before using. Similarly, a 0.5% mixture of CH_2I_2 (Fluka, >98%) in helium was prepared for the $\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)$ – $\text{I}(^2\text{P}_{3/2})$ energy transfer demonstration. Gas flow measurements were made with calibrated mass flow controllers (MKS Model 2258) while pressures were measured with a capacitance manometer (MKS Baratron Model 127A).

Optical Diagnostics. Due to a limitation in reactor conversion efficiency, a finite amount of Cl_2 is entrained in the ClN_3 flow. The rate constant for quenching¹² of $\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)$ by Cl_2 is $(1.8 \pm 0.3) \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3/(\text{molecule s})$ and thus, significant quenching of $\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)$ by background Cl_2 is possible. Hence, the photolysis cell included a dual beam arrangement (90 cm path length) for *in situ* background Cl_2 density measurements and is shown in Figure 2. A HeCd laser (Omnichrome Series 56, 1 mW power) operated at 325 nm provided the sample and reference beams. The beams are sent to a 0.3 m monochromator equipped with a photomultiplier tube (RCA C31034) and a lock-in amplifier (Stanford Research Systems, Model 5029) for detection. The detector response was linear as determined by the transmission properties of several neutral density filters. Chlorine absorption measurements made on the ClN_3 stream revealed variable Cl_2 concentrations ranging from 0 to 30% of the total ClN_3 density and were found to be a function of the ambient factors controlling the synthesis. These include the chlorine flow rate and passivation of the reactor and ClN_3 transport surfaces. At high Cl_2 flow rates (greater than 50 sccm), the chlorine residence time in the reactor is too short for quantitative conversion to ClN_3 , and thus the optimal reactor flow and pressure conditions for the ClN_3 synthesis were a 20 sccm flow of a 5% Cl_2 mixture in argon (Matheson) at a total pressure of 80 Torr. Furthermore, after several days of reactor conditioning the ClN_3 efficiency improved to near unity as no Cl_2 was detected in the reactor effluent. Because of the high conversion efficiency of ClN_3 here, it was deemed useful to record the UV absorption spectrum for calculating *in situ* ClN_3 densities and the corresponding fractional dissociation of ClN_3 from the laser pulse. The UV absorbance spectrum of ClN_3 was obtained with a Cary 5E spectrometer. In calculating the UV absorption cross sections, it is assumed that the Cl_2 is fully converted into ClN_3 such that the ClN_3 density is 5% of the total reactor effluent. This assumption is verified by the lack of Cl_2 detected in the effluent as evident from the absorption at 325 nm. Figure 3 shows the ClN_3 absorption spectrum in the region from 180 to 300 nm at a total pressure of 44.5 Torr and

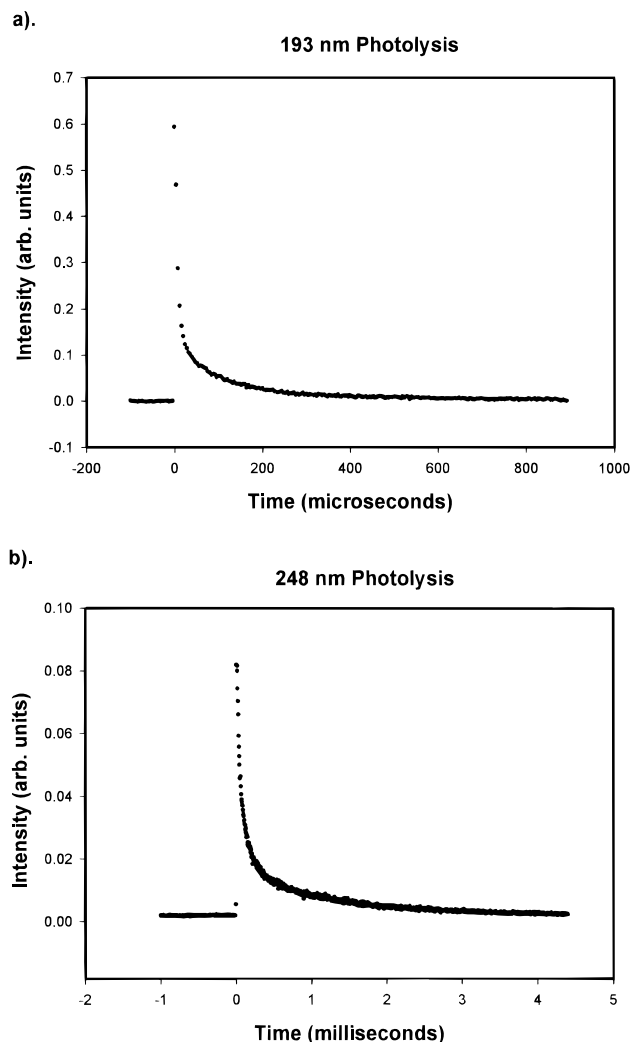


Figure 4. Time profile of the NCl(a-X)_{v=0} emission produced by 193 nm photolysis of ClN₃. Photolysis conditions: laser fluence = 67 mJ/cm², ClN₃ density = 7.4 × 10¹⁵ molecules/cm³, total pressure = 4.6 Torr. (b) Time profile of the NCl(a-X)_{v=0} emission produced by 248 nm photolysis of ClN₃. Photolysis conditions: laser fluence = 280 mJ/cm², ClN₃ density = 6.0 × 10¹⁵ molecules/cm³, total pressure = 5.2 Torr.

removal rates in this system.¹⁵ The bimolecular reactions 4 and 5 represent the NCl(a¹Δ) self-removal and residual ClN₃ quenching. The absorption measurements of Cl₂ for the conditions described in Figure 4a indicate the chlorine concentration is small (less than 10% of the ClN₃), and process 6 can be ignored. Similarly, the quenching by the reactor carrier gas Ar is slow, $k \leq 10^{-15}$ cm³/(molecules s), and process 7 can be disregarded.¹² Lateral diffusion may also affect the observed decay of NCl(a), but at total pressures above 2 Torr the diffusional losses become small.¹² Thus, the loss of NCl(a¹Δ) is reduced to a system of concurrent second-order and mixed second-order decays described by reactions 4 and 5:

$$-\frac{d[\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)]}{dt} = k_2[\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)]^2 + k'_2[\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)][\text{ClN}_3] \quad (8)$$

where k_2 is the second-order rate coefficient for the self-annihilation of NCl(a¹Δ) and k'_2 is the removal of NCl(a¹Δ) by collisions with undissociated ClN₃. In this model, the quenching of NCl(a¹Δ) by residual ClN₃ is treated as a physical process, $\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta) + \text{ClN}_3 \rightarrow \text{NCl}(X^3\Sigma^-) + \text{ClN}_3$, where the amount of residual ClN₃ remains constant with respect to NCl(a¹Δ). Thus, the product of k'_2 and ClN₃ is combined into a single rate

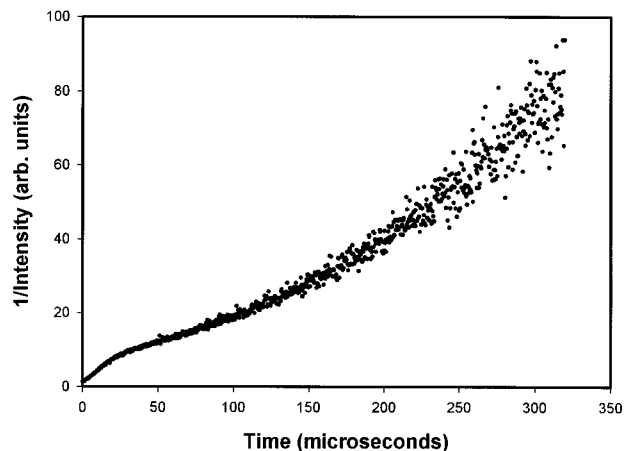


Figure 5. Plot of 1/NCl(a) intensity vs time illustrating a complex NCl(a) decay profile.

constant, k'_1 , and the integrated solution of reaction 8 follows:

$$I(t) = \frac{k'_1[\text{NCl}(a)]_0}{\exp(k'_1 t)(k_2[\text{NCl}(a)]_0 + k'_1) - k_2[\text{NCl}(a)]_0} \quad (9)$$

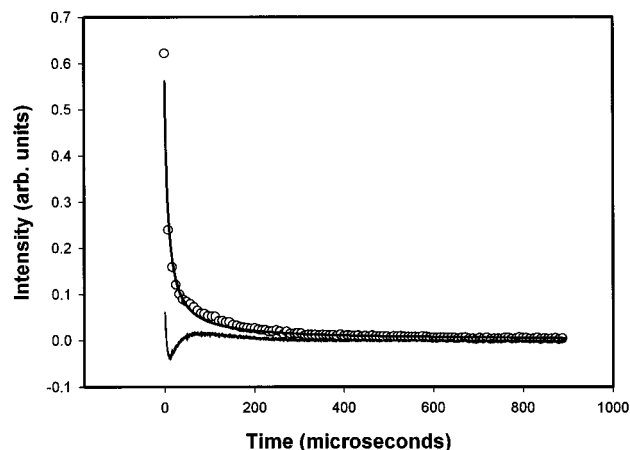
where $I(t)$ is the observed NCl(a¹Δ) intensity at time t and $[\text{NCl}(a)]_0$ the initial intensity of NCl(a¹Δ) at $t = 0$.

Because of the presence of a mixed second-order component, a simple second-order treatment to obtain the bimolecular self-annihilation rate constant is precluded. Indeed, Figure 5 displays a second-order plot of 1/NCl(a¹Δ) intensity vs time and clearly shows the presence of a complex decay. To determine the bimolecular rate constants k_2 and k'_2 , the NCl(a¹Δ) intensity must be calibrated to absolute number densities. A gas phase titration of NCl(a¹Δ) by Br₂ was used to measure absolute densities and is discussed in detail in the Appendix. This method involves quenching the NCl(a¹Δ) fluorescence to zero intensity with known amounts of an added quencher. At zero intensity lies the end point where the amount of added quencher equals the initial NCl(a¹Δ) density. An NCl(a¹Δ) titration by Br₂ is presented in Figure 11. The titration is collected under the photolysis conditions described in Figure 4a. A least-squares fit to the linear portion of the plot and extrapolation to the Br₂ axis gives an intersecting end point of $(2.4 \pm 0.2) (2\sigma) \times 10^{15}$ molecules/cm³ where the uncertainty represents the accumulation of error from the least-squares fit and determining the titrant number density from mass flow calculations. Several NCl(a¹Δ) titrations were performed at various ClN₃ densities and are summarized in Table 1. Using these titration data, an overall conversion efficiency (ϵ) of NCl(a¹Δ) density produced per ClN₃ dissociated can be calculated from the following: $\epsilon = \text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)_0 / ([\text{ClN}_3]_i - [\text{ClN}_3]_0)$, where $\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)_0$ is the initial density from the titration, $[\text{ClN}_3]_i$ is the initial starting ClN₃ density before the laser pulse, and $[\text{ClN}_3]_0$ is the residual ClN₃ density after the laser pulse. Accordingly, an average NCl(a¹Δ) yield of $60 \pm 18\%$ is obtained.

The extraction of the second-order rate constants is obtained through a nonlinear least-squares fit of eq 9 to the observed decay profile in Figure 4a. The error analysis in Figure 6 clearly shows the data are not well described by the concurrent second-order decays of reactions 4 and 5, indicating a significant decay contribution from an unknown source. The NCl(a¹Δ) emission in Figure 4a is comprised of two distinct decay components: a fast decay of several tens of microseconds followed by a slower decay of several hundred microseconds. A complex decay as shown here sometimes signifies the presence of a multicomponent decay attributed to several simultaneous and independent

TABLE 1: Summary of Titration Data and Second-Order Rate Constants

titration	initial ClN_3 (molecules/cm ⁻³)	titrated $\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)$ (molecules/cm ⁻³)	k_2 ($\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)$) (cm ³ /molecule s)	k'_2 (ClN_3) (cm ³ /molecule s)
1	1.2×10^{16}	$(2.8 \pm 0.2) \times 10^{15}$	$(7.2 \pm 0.9) \times 10^{-12}$	$(6.8 \pm 1.7) \times 10^{-13}$
2	7.1×10^{15}	$(2.2 \pm 0.6) \times 10^{15}$	$(6.1 \pm 0.8) \times 10^{-12}$	$(7.6 \pm 1.9) \times 10^{-13}$
3	7.4×10^{15}	$(2.4 \pm 0.6) \times 10^{15}$	$(7.5 \pm 0.9) \times 10^{-12}$	$(5.7 \pm 1.4) \times 10^{-13}$
4	4.9×10^{15}	$(2.3 \pm 0.3) \times 10^{15}$	$(8.0 \pm 1.0) \times 10^{-11}$	$(1.4 \pm 0.4) \times 10^{-12}$
5	2.0×10^{15}	$(8.2 \pm 2) \times 10^{14}$	$(7.0 \pm 0.9) \times 10^{-12}$	$(2.7 \pm 0.7) \times 10^{-13}$
			av $(7.2 \pm 0.9) \times 10^{-12}$	av $(7.4 \pm 4.7) \times 10^{-13}$

**Figure 6.** Nonlinear least-squares fit (solid line) of the model described by eq 9 to the observed $\text{NCl}(a)$ decay (\circ) in Figure 4a. The lower trace is the residual analysis of the least-squares fit.

processes. Since the photolysis of ClN_3 at 193 nm produces nitrogen metastables and is exothermic enough to produce N_2 -($\text{B}^3\Pi_g$) directly,¹¹ a spectral scan of the near-IR emission was performed. The presence of nitrogen metastables was confirmed by the observation of the (0,0) band of the first positive N_2 -($\text{B}^3\Pi_g - \text{A}^3\Sigma_u^+$) system near 1.04 μm . To check for N_2 ($\text{B}^3\Pi_g$) emission in the vicinity of $\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)$, a spectrum in the wavelength region from 1.06 to 1.095 μm was measured as shown in Figure 7. The spectrum was recorded with a ClN_3 density of 5×10^{15} molecules/cm³ at a 1 μs delay with a gate width of 1 μs on the boxcar integrator. The spectral bandwidth of the monochromator was 2 nm. The presence of the (1,1) band of $\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)$ at 1.069 μm suggests that $\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)$ is produced with vibrational excitation. The broad spectral feature near 1.085 μm is unidentified. In the first positive system, the (4,5) band of N_2 ($\text{B}^3\Pi_g$) emits at 1.074 μm and, thus, overlaps with the (0,0) of $\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)$ at 1.077 μm . If the (4,5) band were present, other nearby transitions such as the (2,3) ($\lambda = 1.14$ μm) and (3,4) ($\lambda = 1.11$ μm) bands may also be evident. Spectral scans were made in this region, but the presence of the (2,3) and (3,4) bands was not observed. However, we note the Franck–Condon factors¹⁶ for these transitions are much weaker than the (4,5) band (the 3,4 band is a factor of 10 less than the 4,5 band), and thus, their emission may be so diminished that they lie below the detection limit of the system. Whether the fast decay component is nitrogen first positive or some other unidentified process, we treat it as an independent first-order decay. In this regard, the kinetic model described by eq 9 was modified by adding to it an independent first-order decay of the form $I'(t) = I'(t)_0 \exp(-k_1 t)$:

$$I(t) = \frac{k'_1[\text{NCl}(a)]_0}{\exp(k'_1 t)(k_2[\text{NCl}(a)]_0 + k'_1) - k_2[\text{NCl}(a)]_0} + I'(t)_0 \exp(-k_1 t) \quad (10)$$

where $I'(t)_0$ is initial intensity of the fast decay component and k_1 is the first-order rate constant.

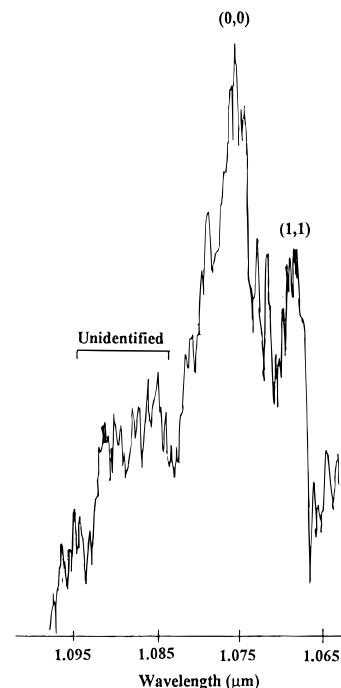
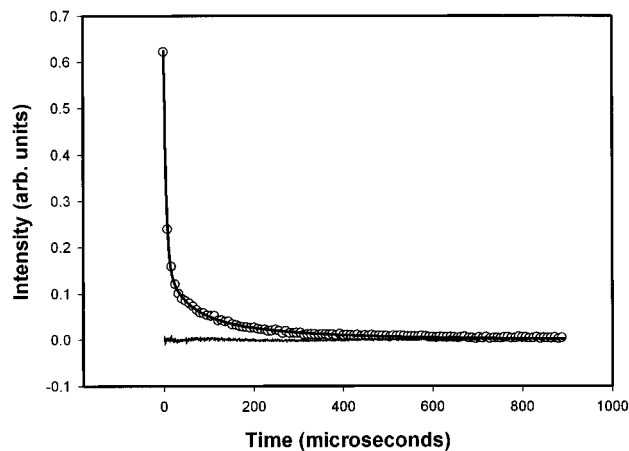
**Figure 7.** Spectrum of the near-infrared emission produced from the 193 nm photolysis of ClN_3 . The (0,0) and (1,1) bands of the $\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta - X^3\Sigma^-)$ transition are identified. An unidentified spectral feature near 1.085 μm is observed.**Figure 8.** Nonlinear least-squares fit (solid line) of the sum of an independent first-order and second-order decay described by eq 10 to the observed $\text{NCl}(a)$ decay (\circ) in Figure 4a. The lower trace is the residual analysis of the least-squares fit. A value of $(7.5 \pm 0.9) \times 10^{-12}$ cm³/molecule s for the $\text{NCl}(a)$ bimolecular self-annihilation rate constant and $(5.7 \pm 1.4) \times 10^{-13}$ cm³/molecule s for the ClN_3 quenching rate constant are obtained. The independent first-order rate constant is 2.0×10^5 s⁻¹.

Figure 8 shows a nonlinear least-squares fit of the independent first- and second-order decay model to the $\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)$ time decay in Figure 4a. Shown with Figure 8 is the residual analysis and suggests the model accurately accounts for both the independent first-order and second-order $\text{NCl}(a^1\Delta)$ decays. Accordingly, a

TABLE 2: Summary of the Parameter Contribution for the NCl(a¹Δ) Decay Model

parameter	rel % of obsd decay ^a
[NCl(a ¹ Δ)] ₀	56.2
k' ₁	6.0
k ₂	35.5
I ₀ '(t)	0.3
k ₁	2.0

^a These values are obtained by calculating the range of the minimum and maximum partial derivatives of a parameter, multiplying the range by the fitted parameter value, and normalizing to 100%.

value of $(7.5 \pm 0.9) (2\sigma) \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3/(\text{molecule s})$ is obtained for the NCl(a¹Δ) self-annihilation rate constant, $(5.7 \pm 1.4) \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^3/(\text{molecule s})$ for the ClN₃ quenching rate and $2.0 \times 10^5 \text{ s}^{-1}$ for the fast first-order decay component, *k*₁. The uncertainty in each rate constant (*k*₂ and *k*'₁) arises from the accumulated uncertainties from the titration (see Appendix), the residual ClN₃ density, and the confidence intervals from the least-squares fit. The largest source of error for the residual ClN₃ density stems from the measuring the fluence (in particular, the beam area, ±25%). The coefficient of determination *r*² for the data shown in Figure 8 is 0.998. However, eq 10 is a five-parameter fit to the observed NCl(a¹Δ) decay. Because of the large number of adjustable parameters, *r*² is not necessarily the best figure of merit for the kinetic model. A sensitivity analysis of the parameters in eq 10 across the intensity–time domain in Figure 8 is perhaps a better test of model accuracy. Table 2 is a summary of the parameter influence across the entire NCl(a¹Δ) decay. The values are expressed as a relative percentage of the entire NCl(a¹Δ) decay and illustrate the magnitude a particular parameter has on the overall time decay. Each parameter contributes significantly to the overall decay, suggesting the model adequately describes the loss of NCl(a¹Δ) in the system. Several bimolecular rate constant determinations were performed with the results summarized in Table 1. The average NCl(a¹Δ) self-annihilation rate constant is $(7.2 \pm 0.9) \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3/(\text{molecule s})$. The NCl(a¹Δ) bimolecular self-removal rate was first addressed by Benard and co-workers¹⁷ in a study of the thermal decomposition of ClN₃ into NCl(a¹Δ). A value of $8 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3/(\text{molecule s})$ for the self-annihilation rate constant was obtained by calculating the yield of NCl(a¹Δ) from emission intensities and known Einstein *A* coefficients. Due to the uncertainty in *A*, the rate constant is an approximate value; however, it is not inconsistent with the rate constant reported here. The magnitude of the NCl(a¹Δ) self-annihilation rate is also comparable the analogous NF(a¹Δ) self-removal rate constant of $(5 \pm 2 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3/(\text{molecule s}))$ reported by Du and Setser.¹⁸

The NCl(a¹Δ) bimolecular self-removal rate in reaction 4 describes a process in which the NCl(a¹Δ) radicals are removed via chemical reaction. The “products” of the self-quenching process are many, and numerous energetically available products are possible including 2Cl + N₂(*v*), NCl₂ + N, and 2NCl(*X*). The energy pooling reaction, 2NCl(a¹Δ) → NCl(b¹Σ⁺) + NCl(X³Σ⁻), is another possible channel for NCl(a¹Δ) self-removal. No attempt was made to quantify the pooling process; however, the analogous NF(a¹Δ) pooling reaction is a minor component of the total self-annihilation reaction,¹⁸ and most of the self-removal of NCl(a¹Δ) is probably due to chemical processes. Although reaction 5 is treated as a simple quenching process, NCl(a¹Δ) + ClN₃ → NCl(X³Σ⁻) + ClN₃, other chemical processes can be drawn for five in which N₂(*v*) or NCl(a¹Δ) is regenerated, for example, NCl(a¹Δ) + ClN₃ → NCl(a¹Δ) + NCl(X³Σ⁻) + N₂(*v*). However, the 193 nm photolysis results presented here are consistent with a kinetic model in

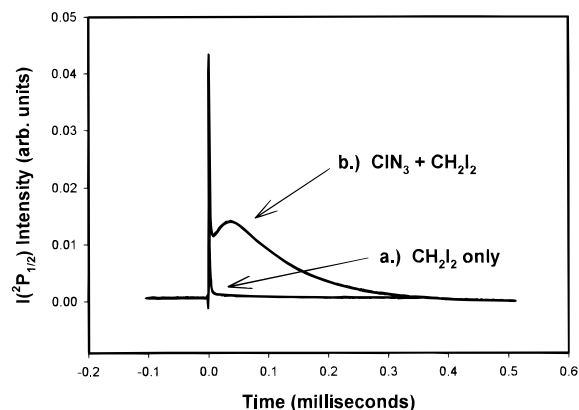


Figure 9. (a) Time profile of the I(²P_{1/2}–²P_{3/2}) emission from the 193 nm photolysis of only CH₂I₂. Photolysis conditions: laser fluence = 210 mJ/cm², CH₂I₂ density = 2.2×10^{14} molecules/cm³. (b) Time profile of the I(²P_{1/2}–²P_{3/2}) emission from the 193 nm photolysis of a mixture of CH₂I₂ and ClN₃. Photolysis conditions: laser fluence = 210 mJ/cm², CH₂I₂ density = 2.2×10^{14} molecules/cm³, ClN₃ density = 7.8×10^{15} molecules/cm³. The intense feature at short times in (a) and (b) is believed to be I₂(B³Π_u → X¹Σ_{0g}) emission. The I(²P_{1/2}–²P_{3/2}) emission was isolated with an interference filter at 1.315 μm and observed with an intrinsic Ge detector (77 K).

which NCl(a¹Δ) radicals decay by simple homogeneous and mixed bimolecular reaction pathways.

Photolysis of CH₂I₂/ClN₃ Mixtures. The rate constant for the pumping of I(²P_{1/2}) by NCl(a¹Δ) is $(1.8 \pm 0.3) \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3/(\text{molecule s})$.⁶ To assess the magnitude of the bimolecular self-removal rate constant measured here in relation to the I(²P_{1/2}) pumping rate by NCl(a¹Δ), a mixture of CH₂I₂ and ClN₃ was prepared and photolyzed at 193 nm. We note the branching fraction of ground state I(²P_{3/2}) from CH₂I₂ is ≥ 0.95 at the 193 nm photolysis wavelength.¹⁹ Further, Ray and Coombe⁸ have concluded that the secondary photolysis CH₂I is not a significant source of I(²P_{1/2}) emission at 193 nm. Figure 9a shows the I(²P_{1/2}) emission time profile resulting from the photolysis 193 nm of only CH₂I₂ at a density of 2.2×10^{14} molecules/cm³ and a laser fluence of 210 mJ/cm². The rapid and intense spike in Figure 9a at short times (within the 15 μs detector time constant) arises from CH₂I₂ photolysis and is identified as I₂(B³Π_u → X¹Σ_{0g}) emission.¹⁹ Figure 9b shows the I(²P_{1/2}) emission time profile under the same photolysis conditions but with the addition of 5.7×10^{15} molecules/cm³ of ClN₃. The time profile shows a prompt I₂(B³Π_u) spike followed by a rise and a slow decay of significantly enhanced I(²P_{1/2}) emission over several hundred microseconds due to the collisional pumping by NCl(a¹Δ). A nearly 3-fold increase in the I(²P_{1/2}) emission intensity over that of just CH₂I₂ photolysis is observed. Clearly, despite the relatively rapid NCl(a¹Δ)–NCl(a¹Δ) self-annihilation rate, the I(²P_{1/2}) pumping by NCl(a¹Δ) remains a dominant process.

Summary and Conclusions

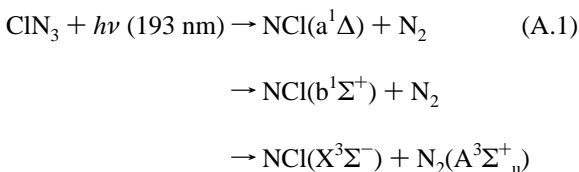
The second-order decay kinetics of NCl(a¹Δ) resulting from the pulsed 193 nm photolysis of ClN₃ was studied, and a gas phase transient titration scheme calibrated the absolute NCl(a¹Δ) densities. Using these absolute NCl(a¹Δ) densities and a kinetic model that accounts for the second-order time behavior of NCl(a¹Δ), the bimolecular self-annihilation rate constant of NCl(a¹Δ) is found to be $7.2 \pm 0.9 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3/(\text{molecule s})$. Despite the rapid self-removal rate, intense I(²P_{1/2}) emission is still observed when mixtures of CH₂I₂ and ClN₃ are photolyzed at 193 nm. The significant NCl(a¹Δ) bimolecular rate constant suggests the transport of this metastable in chemical laser

systems must be short unlike the COIL system where the O₂-(a¹Δ) bimolecular rate⁹ is slow, $k = 5 \times 10^{-17}$ cm³/(molecule s), and facilitates long transport times and efficient extraction of the metastable energy. Thus, an NCl(a¹Δ)-based system would necessitate a short mixing region to overcome NCl(a¹Δ) self-annihilation losses. Future work will be directed at measuring the effects of high temperature on the self-annihilation process, the NCl(a¹Δ) + I(²P_{3/2}) energy transfer reaction, and the quenching of NCl(a¹Δ).

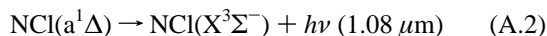
Acknowledgment. This work is supported by the Air Force Office of Scientific Research.

Appendix

NCl(a¹Δ) Titration. Second-order rate coefficients require knowledge of the absolute concentration of the reactants. In photolytic studies as those presented here, the absolute densities are typically obtained by a transient absorption measurement. However, the NCl(a¹Δ - X³Σ⁻)_{v=0} transition occurs at 1.08 μm and makes the absorption measurement difficult. In this respect, a gas phase quenching titration was developed to measure absolute NCl(a¹Δ) density. The method involves photolyzing ClN₃ to produce NCl(a¹Δ):



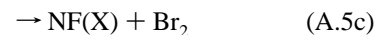
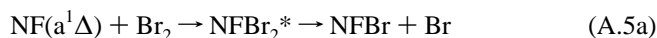
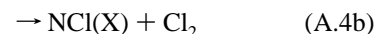
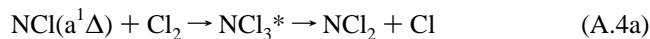
The NCl(a¹Δ) fluorescence is quenched or titrated by the addition of a known amount of quencher, Q₂:



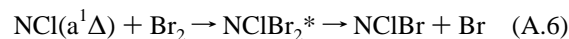
The NCl(a) intensity is then monitored at various reaction times after the laser pulse. However, due to the presence of the fast decay component ($k \approx 2 \times 10^5$ s⁻¹), the titration data were not collected until at least 15 μs of reaction time had transpired. The amount of added quencher to titrate the NCl(a¹Δ) intensity to zero is taken as the initial NCl(a¹Δ) concentration in the system. A scaling factor (in units of V cm³/molecule) is derived from the ratio of the peak fluorescent NCl(a¹Δ) amplitude (in V) to the titrated NCl(a¹Δ) density (molecules/cm³) and converts the observed NCl(a¹Δ) amplitude to a number density. To determine the second-order rate constant k_2 , a nonlinear least-squares fit of an NCl(a¹Δ) kinetic model to an NCl(a¹Δ) time profile is performed. The rate constant is extracted (in V⁻¹ s⁻¹) and is converted to a second-order rate constant by applying the scaling factor. The ClN₃ quenching rate constant, k'_2 , is obtained by dividing the fitted value of k'_1 (in units of s⁻¹) by the residual ClN₃ density. The accuracy of titration is contingent on accurate measurements of the titrant density (the mass flow uncertainty is ±5%) and the absence of secondary chemistry since competing reactions between the added titrant and the N₂(A³Σ⁺_u), NCl(b¹Σ⁺), and NCl(X³Σ⁻) photoproducts would skew the titration to higher end point values. However, the photolysis yields^{11,20} of these species are small (≤1%), and any secondary reactions with the titrant are not expected to occur.

Several requirements must be met for a successful titration. First, reaction A.3 must proceed chemically so that the amount of titrant consumed can be directly related to NCl(a¹Δ) density.

Previous mass spectroscopic studies by Clyne et al.²² on the NCl(a¹Δ) + Cl₂ reaction demonstrate the rapid production of NCl₂ and Cl, whereas the reaction between ground state NCl(X³Σ) and Cl₂ is unreactive. More recent studies by Du and Setser²³ and Ray and Coombe¹² have focused on the mechanisms of the NCl(a¹Δ) + Cl₂ and NF(a¹Δ) + Br₂ reactions. They have shown these reactions to proceed chemically through an insertion step (established through correlations of measured rate constants and ionization potentials) to form a vibrationally excited amine-like intermediate followed by dissociation:



Indeed, no evidence for physical E to V quenching^{12, 23} is seen in the quenching of NCl(a¹Δ) by Cl₂ and NF(a¹Δ) by Cl₂ and Br₂. Since the product analyses of reactions A.4 and A.5 suggest the dominant pathways are channels A.4a and A.5a,^{22,23} it is reasonable to presume the analogous chemical reaction occurs between Br₂ and NCl(a¹Δ):



In light of Figure 4, it appears that some of the NCl(a¹Δ) is removed by secondary reactions. As such, the titrant quenching rate constant must also be very large (that is, a reaction on nearly every collision) with respect to all other loss channels. This ensures that eq A.3 is completed at any reaction time and essentially all the NCl(a¹Δ) is removed through the Q₂ + NCl(a¹Δ) reaction channel.

To more fully understand and gauge the utility the titration experiment, measurements were undertaken to obtain the F₂, Cl₂, and Br₂, quenching rate constants for NCl(a¹Δ). These experiments were performed by recording the time history of NCl(a¹Δ) resulting from the 193 nm photolysis of ClN₃/quencher mixtures. We note the photodissociation of these species at 193 nm is expected to be small since the absorption cross sections²¹ are about 10⁻²⁰ cm². The ClN₃ density was held at a constant value, and variable amounts of quencher gas were added in a large, 4–10-fold excess over the NCl(a¹Δ) density to maintain pseudo-first-order kinetics. Care was taken to minimize the effects of the NCl(a¹Δ)–NCl(a¹Δ) bimolecular rate by reducing the laser fluence to 65 mJ/cm² and the ClN₃ density to less than 1.5 × 10¹⁵ molecules/cm³. Figure 10a shows a time history of NCl(a¹Δ), indicating the presence of a fast decay element of a few μs followed by a slow decay component of several tens of microseconds. In accordance with the previous observation of a fast independent first-order process, the decay curves were fit to a sum of two independent first-order decays, $I(t) = I_0 \exp(-t/\tau') + I_1 \exp(-t/\tau)$, where 1/τ' and 1/τ are the rates for the rapid and slow decay components, respectively. The NCl(a¹Δ) quenching rates, k (s⁻¹), were obtained from a least-squares fit of the slow decay component and are plotted as a function of quencher density Q₂ (molecules/cm³), $\lambda = k_q[Q_2] + k_0$, where k_0 is comprised of contributions from quenching by Cl₂ and ClN₃ and the radiative decay of NCl(a¹Δ). Since the radiative rate of NCl(a¹Δ) is small,¹⁵ its contribution to the decay is negligible, and decay rates at [Q₂] = 0 are largely due to residual ClN₃ and any background Cl₂

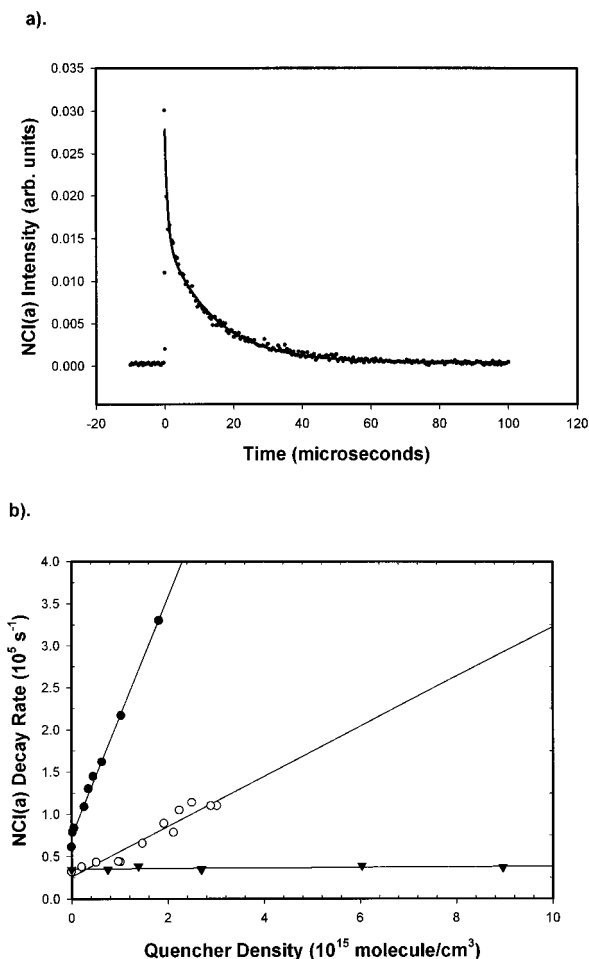


Figure 10. (a) A least-squares fit of two first-order independent decays of the form $I = I_0 \exp(-t/\tau') + I_1 \exp(-t/\tau)$ to an NCl(a-X)_{v=0} time decay where $1/\tau'$ and $1/\tau$ are the rates for the rapid and slow decay components, respectively. Photolysis conditions: laser fluence = 65 mJ/cm², initial ClN₃ density = 1.6×10^{15} molecules/cm³, total pressure = 2.3 Torr. (b) Stern–Volmer plots quenching of NCl(a) by (●) Br₂, (○) Cl₂, and (▼) F₂ for the slow component. The solid lines drawn represent a least-squares fit to the slow decay data.

TABLE 3: Quenching Rate Constants for NCl(a¹Δ) and NF(a¹Δ) in 10⁻¹³ cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹

halogen	NCl(a ¹ Δ) ^a	NCl(a ¹ Δ) ^b	NF(a ¹ Δ) ^c
F ₂	2.5 ± 1.1		0.32 ± 0.03
Cl ₂	290 ± 60	180 ± 30	5.8 ± 0.6
Br ₂	1400 ± 200		380 ± 60
I ₂			1500 ± 200

^a Values obtained in this work. ^b Reference 12. ^c Reference 23.

quenching. Stern–Volmer treatment of the slow decay component for the collisional quenching of the Δν = 0 band of NCl(a¹Δ) at 1.08 μm by F₂, Cl₂, and Br₂ is shown in Figure 10b. The rate constants are determined from a least-squares fit to the data as indicated by the solid lines. These values are summarized in Table 3 along with a comparison of the quenching of isoivalent NF(a¹Δ) by these species. The value for Br₂ is $(1.4 \pm 0.2) (2\sigma) \times 10^{-10}$ cm³/s and suggests that Br₂ is a very rapid quencher of NCl(a¹Δ). Quenching by Cl₂ is $(2.9 \pm 0.6) (2\sigma) \times 10^{-11}$ cm³/(molecule s) is also rapid. However, only the magnitude of the Br₂ rate constant can provide the necessary quenching characteristics in view of the secondary loss channels of NCl(a¹Δ) in this system.

Figure 11a shows a consistency check for the Br₂ titration at two reaction times of 15 and 100 μs. A third titration at a reaction time of 200 μs was also performed but is omitted for

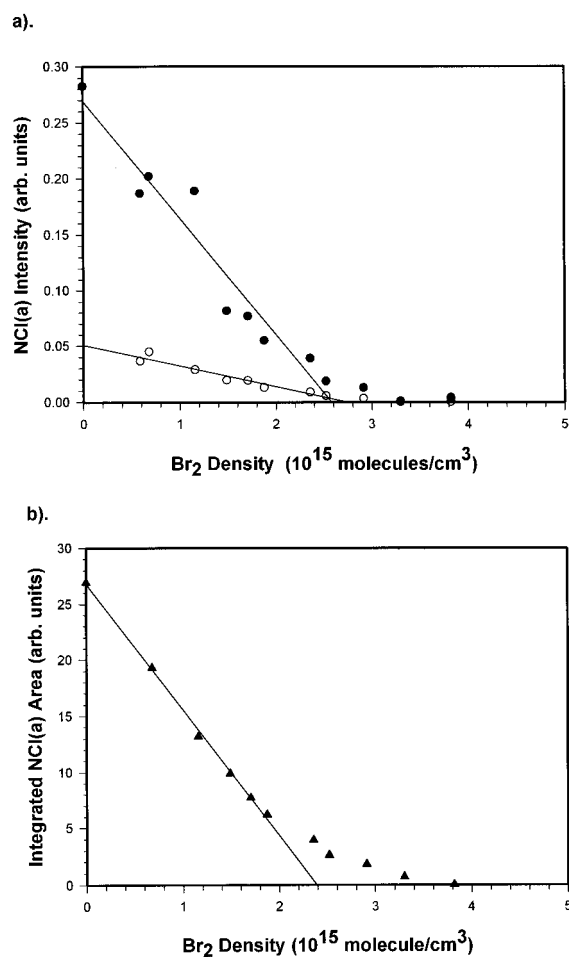


Figure 11. Comparison of a Br₂ titration for the initial NCl(a) density using fixed reaction time and time-integrated intensity methods resulting from the ArF photodissociation of ClN₃. Photolysis conditions: laser fluence = 67 mJ/cm², ClN₃ density = 7.4×10^{15} molecules/cm³, total pressure = 4.6 Torr. The end point is obtained by extrapolation off the linear portion of the titration plot to the Br₂ axis. (a) Fixed reaction times: (●) = 15 μs, (○) = 100 μs. An average titrated initial NCl(a) density of $(2.4 \pm 0.8) \times 10^{15}$ molecules/cm³ is obtained. (b) Time-integrated intensities. A titrated initial NCl(a) density of $(2.4 \pm 0.2) \times 10^{15}$ molecules/cm³ is obtained.

clarity. The titration is collected at an initial ClN₃ density of 7.4×10^{15} molecules/cm³, a laser fluence of 67 mJ/cm², and a total pressure of 4.7 Torr. The end points are obtained by extrapolation off the linear portion of the titration plot to the Br₂ axis. Accordingly, the initial NCl(a¹Δ) density for the 15, 100, and 200 μs reaction times yields equal end points (±15%) of 2.6×10^{15} , 2.7×10^{15} , and 1.9×10^{15} molecules/cm³, respectively, and thus Br₂ is deemed a valid titrant. However, we find the intensity data too weak and noisy at reaction times greater than 300 μs for an accurate extrapolation. To avoid this limitation, an alternative approach to titrating the initial NCl(a¹Δ) density is made by fully time integrating the NCl(a¹Δ) intensity profile as a function of added Br₂ density. The NCl(a¹Δ) density, N , is proportional to the intensity of NCl(a¹Δ), I_{NCl} , and its A coefficient, $I_{\text{NCl}} \propto NA$ or $I_{\text{NCl}} \tau \propto N$. The product $I_{\text{NCl}} \tau$ gives is the integrated NCl(a¹Δ) density. As a quencher is added, the product of the lifetime and the intensity ($I_{\text{NCl}} \tau$) is reduced in proportion to NCl(a¹Δ) density. Figure 11b illustrates the experimental time integrated titration with an end point of $(2.4 \pm 0.4) \times 10^{15}$ molecules/cm³ and compares favorably to the fixed point titrations of 15, 100, and 200 μs in Figure 11a. In determining the bimolecular self-annihilation rate constants above, we adopted the time-integrated intensity method for measuring the initial NCl(a¹Δ) density.

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