

## A Semiempirical Capture Model for Fast Neutral Reactions at Low Temperature

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The description of Titan's chemistry relies strongly on reaction rate data collected at room temperature or above. However, the temperature in the atmosphere of Titan ranges from 70 to 200 K. We describe here a simple theoretical method to extend the available measurements toward those temperatures. It is based on the long-range capture theory combined with room temperature data. First results are presented for 28 neutral reactions involving atomic carbon, CN, CH, and C<sub>2</sub>H radicals and are compared to low-temperature Cinétique de Réaction en Ecoulement Supersonique Uniforme measurements. A good agreement is observed, to within a factor of 2, for most reactions in the temperature range 13–295 K. Predictions are made for reactions of the CN radical with hydrocarbons and nitriles of particular importance in Titan's atmosphere.

### Introduction

The exotic world of Titan, Saturn's largest moon, has emerged as a natural laboratory on a planetary scale to shed light on chemical evolution. Titan is the only Solar System solid body besides Earth and Venus with a thick atmosphere (1.5 bar at the surface). The temperature ranges from about 200 K in the upper atmosphere to 70 K at the tropopause.<sup>1</sup> The atmospheric composition consists of molecular nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>, 98%), methane (CH<sub>4</sub>, 2%), as well as their photochemical progeny, which culminates in organic, brownish haze layers.<sup>2,3</sup>

Despite the crucial role of the haze layers in Titan's astrochemical evolution, radiation balance, and weather system ("antigreenhouse gases"),<sup>4</sup> the underlying chemical processes, which direct the haze formation, have been the least understood to date.<sup>5</sup> Photochemical atmospheric models concur that solar ultraviolet photons and energetic electrons from Saturn's magnetosphere processing the nitrogen and methane initiate Titan's chemistry. This processing links simple molecules such as nitriles via hydrocarbon species to the orange-brownish haze layers surrounding Titan.<sup>6,7</sup> The transformation of simple molecules into haze is the most fundamental step in the context of the evolution of hydrocarbon-rich planetary and satellite atmospheres in the Solar System.<sup>5</sup> For an understanding of the origin and evolution of Titan's haze layers, it is imperative to elucidate the synthetic routes to the "missing link" between simple gas-phase molecules and complex species, i.e., the simplest building block coupling Titan's hydrocarbon and nitrogen chemistries. Understanding the macroscopic evolution of Titan's atmosphere requires the knowledge of the detailed microscopic mechanism involving multiple elementary bimolecular encounters between molecules.

Here, we report on a semiempirical theory to extend neutral–neutral rate constants from room temperature down to very low temperatures ( $T \approx 10$  K). Our method is based on the

application of the capture theory<sup>8</sup> at very low temperature combined with room temperature data. The method is described in section 2, and first results are presented in section 3 for reactions involving atomic carbon, CN, CH, and C<sub>2</sub>H radicals. Our conclusions are drawn in section 4.

### Model

A large number of neutral–neutral reactions involving radicals have been experimentally shown to remain rapid down to temperatures as low as 13 K (see the review by Smith<sup>9</sup> and references therein). Moreover, the rate constants generally increase as the temperature is lowered, in disagreement with both the Arrhenius equation and, to a lesser extent, with long-range capture theory. A number of theoretical treatments have been proposed to explain this temperature dependence. A convincing explanation has been provided by the so-called two transition state model which was successfully applied, in particular, to reactions of oxygen atoms with alkenes (Sabbah et al.<sup>10</sup> and references therein). This model is based on the existence of a "submerged" potential energy barrier along the minimum energy path from reactants to products.<sup>11</sup> This barrier, which is difficult to predict reliably, provides a second "inner" transition state that controls the reaction rate at relatively high temperatures. At extremely low temperatures, however, the reaction rate is controlled by the "outer" capture transition state. Dynamical effects subsequent to capture have also been investigated by Faure et al.<sup>12</sup> using a parametric atom–diatom potential and quasi-classical trajectories. This study has shown that a submerged barrier in the entrance reaction valley induces strong vector correlations between partial angular momenta. In particular, a strong decrease of the rate constant with increasing rotation of the diatom (i.e., temperature) was obtained. It should be noted that the inhibition of reactivity with increasing rotational angular momentum was established experimentally long ago for ion–molecule reactions (see, e.g., Gerlich and Rox<sup>13</sup>), but it was observed only recently for neutral systems (see Olkhov and Smith<sup>14</sup> and references therein). We note finally that spin–orbit effects were also shown to account for the negative temperature dependence of fast reactions, in particular those involving open-shell atoms such as Si(<sup>3</sup>P).<sup>15</sup>

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Concerning the modeling of Titan's and interstellar chemistry, the major result of the low-temperature measurements is that the rates of fast neutral reactions amount to a few times  $10^{-10}$   $\text{cm}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$  at very low temperature ( $T < 50$  K), that is are close to the capture limit and are only an order of magnitude below typical rates for ion–molecule reactions. We propose in this work a semiempirical approach to estimate the rate of fast reactions over the range 5–295 K, provided the room temperature value is known (experimentally or theoretically). Indeed, the rate constants generally follow power laws below room temperature and generally show a maximum between 10 and 50 K (see below). Hence the two crucial points here are (i) to predict which reactions remain fast at low temperature and (ii) if so, to estimate the capture value at low temperature. Concerning the first point, Smith<sup>16</sup> has shown from a careful examination of the experimental data collected up to 2006 that a radical–molecule reaction is likely to be rapid if its room temperature rate is greater than  $\sim 10^{-11}$   $\text{cm}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$  and its activation energy at 295 K is zero or negative. We note that Smith et al.<sup>17</sup> have also correlated the rate constants of fast neutral–neutral reactions with differences between the ionization energies of the molecular reagent and the electron affinity of the radical (see also Sabbah et al.<sup>10</sup>). Concerning the second point, Faure et al.<sup>18</sup> have found that the isotropic dispersion contribution to the long-range potential is dominant down to temperatures of a few kelvins. At lower temperatures, the electrostatic potential (e.g., dipole–dipole) becomes dominant, as also shown by Stoecklin et al.<sup>19</sup>

On the basis of the previous considerations, we suggest the following semiempirical model to extend the rate constant of a fast (exothermic) radical–molecule reaction from room temperature down to 5–10 K:

- At room temperature ( $T_3 \approx 300$  K), the (experimental or theoretical) rate constant must be greater than  $10^{-11}$   $\text{cm}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$ . (Otherwise the reaction is expected to be negligible.)

- At  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  (both lying between 5 and 50 K), the rate constant is calculated from the capture theory by considering the (isotropic) dispersion interaction only, that is, by neglecting the electrostatic potential. The expression for the capture rate constant can be found for example in Stoecklin et al.<sup>19</sup>

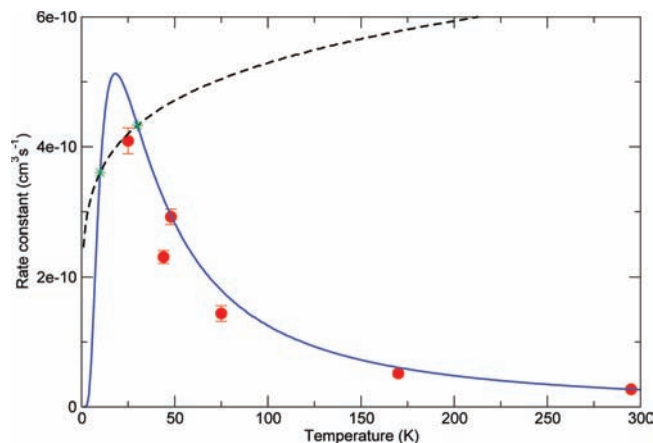
$$k(T) = 2\sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{\mu}}\Gamma\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)(2C_6)^{1/3}(k_b T)^{1/6} \quad (1)$$

where  $\mu$  is the reduced mass,  $k_b$  is the Boltzmann constant,  $\Gamma(x)$  the gamma function, and  $C_6$  is the dispersion coefficient. A well-known approximation for this coefficient is provided by the London formula:<sup>20</sup>

$$C_6^{\text{London}} = \frac{3}{2} \frac{I_1 I_2}{I_1 + I_2} \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \quad (2)$$

where  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  are the ionization potentials and  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  the polarizabilities of the reactants, respectively. It has been shown empirically and from ab initio calculations, however, that eq 2 underestimates the dispersion magnitude by a factor of  $\sim 2$  (see Faure et al.<sup>21</sup> and references therein). As a result, we have employed in eq 1 the following  $C_6$  coefficient

$$C_6 = 2 \times C_6^{\text{London}} \quad (3)$$



**Figure 1.** The rate constant of the reaction  $\text{CN} + \text{NH}_3$  as a function of temperature. The capture prediction, eq 1, is given by the dashed line and stars denote values at 10 and 30 K. The data from the CRESU experiment is represented by the filled circles. The present model is denoted by the solid line.

It should be noted that the capture rate constant, eq 1, depends on  $(C_6)^{1/3}$  only and a very accurate value for the dispersion term is not crucial.

The room temperature rate ( $k_3$ ) and the capture rates ( $k_1$  and  $k_2$ ) are analytically interpolated by the standard 3-parameters equation

$$k(T) = \alpha(T/300)^\beta \exp(-\gamma/T) \quad (4)$$

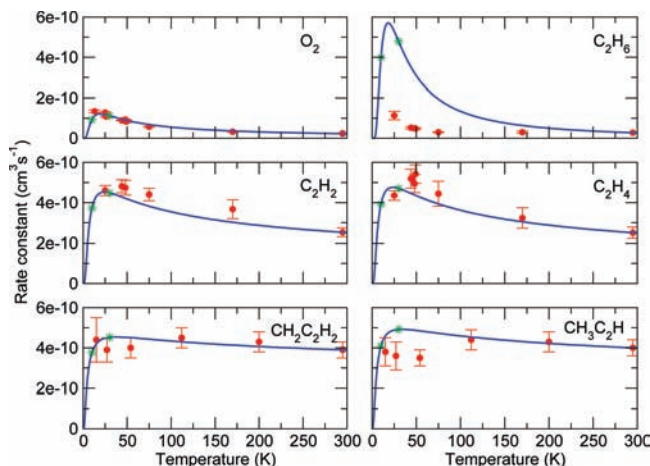
which is routinely employed in astrochemical models for two-body reactions (see, e.g., Woodall et al.<sup>22</sup>). The expressions for  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$  as functions of  $k_1$ ,  $k_2$ , and  $k_3$  are given in the Appendix. It should be noted, in particular, that  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  are here linearly dependent.

We stress that the above “capture” temperatures,  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , can be adjusted as free parameters for a given radical species, as shown below. Finally, in the following, ionization potentials and polarizabilities were taken from Lide<sup>23</sup> except specified otherwise.

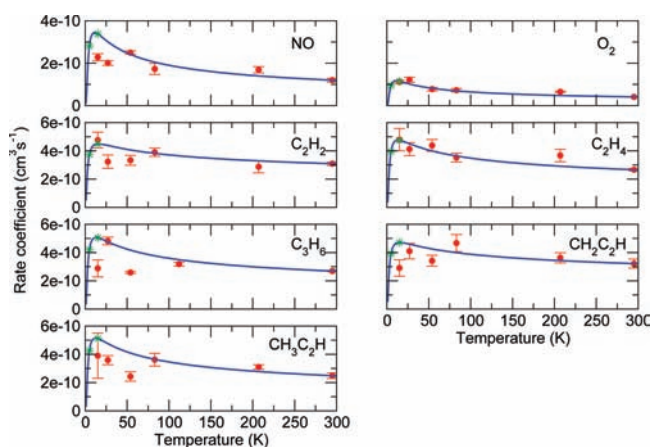
## Results and Discussion

### Comparisons to Results from Cinétique de Réaction en Ecoulement Supersonique Uniforme (CRESU) Experiments.

A first application of the above model is presented in Figure 1 for the  $\text{CN}(X^2\Sigma^+) + \text{NH}_3$  reaction, which involves two strongly polar species. This reaction was found to show the strongest negative temperature dependence of any neutral–neutral system yet studied by the CRESU experiment.<sup>24</sup> It is employed here as a benchmark for our model. We observe in Figure 1 that the capture theory does not account for the negative temperature dependence of the experimental rate, as expected (see eq 1). The present semiempirical model, however, provides a fairly good qualitative description of the  $\text{CN} + \text{NH}_3$  rate constant over the temperature range 25–295 K: the agreement is within 40% of the CRESU data. It should be noted that we have employed the capture temperatures  $T_1 = 10$  K and  $T_2 = 30$  K, which were found to provide the best results. The maximum at  $\sim 20$  K therefore reflects the particular choice of both the capture temperatures and the form of eq 4. This artificial maximum is forced, by construction, to lie between 10 and 30 K. It is also too sharp owing to the exponential decrease of the rate below 20 K. A very low temperature maximum in the  $\text{CN} + \text{NH}_3$  rate



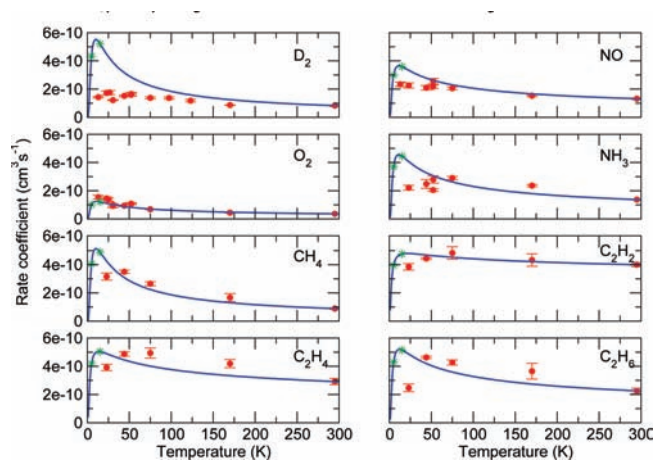
**Figure 2.** Same as Figure 1 for the CN radical reacting with O<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, CH<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>, and CH<sub>3</sub>C<sub>2</sub>H. See text for details and references.



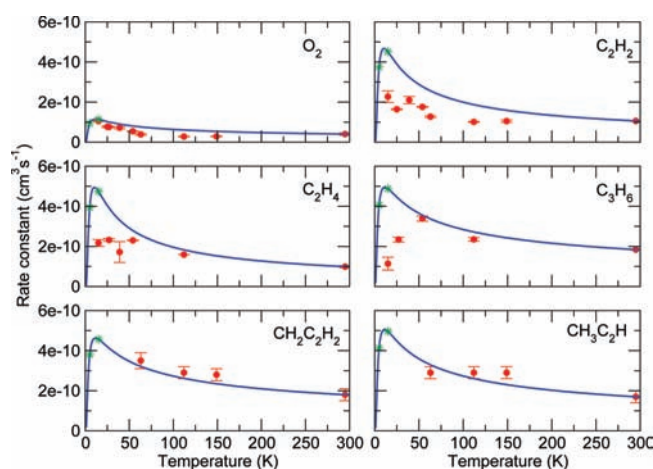
**Figure 3.** Same as Figure 1 for atomic carbon, C(<sup>3</sup>P), reacting with NO, O<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>6</sub>, CH<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>, and CH<sub>3</sub>C<sub>2</sub>H. Stars denote capture values at 5 and 15 K. See text for details and references.

constant was actually predicted by the capture calculations of Stoecklin and Clary.<sup>25</sup> In their treatment, in addition to the dispersion term, the (anisotropic) electrostatic potential was included. At room temperature, their rate constant was found to be an order of magnitude too large with respect to the CRESU measurement. At ultra low temperatures ( $T \lesssim 1$  K), the dipole–dipole potential was found to dominate, as expected, and an analytical rate constant of the form  $k_{T \rightarrow 0}(T) = 4.42 \times 10^{-10}(T)^{1/6}$  was predicted by using perturbation theory.<sup>25</sup> We note that this result is roughly consistent with our values. We did not attempt, however, to match our model with the perturbation theory since this latter has not been generalized to asymmetric species which are investigated in the following.

Further comparisons between our semiempirical model and low temperature measurements are illustrated in Figures 2–5. In addition to CN( $X^2\Sigma^+$ ), the following radicals were investigated to provide a variety of reactions: atomic carbon, C(<sup>3</sup>P), the methylidyne radical, CH( $X^2\Pi$ ), and the ethynyl radical C<sub>2</sub>H( $X^2\Sigma^+$ ). In the case of CN (Figure 2), the following CRESU reactions were analyzed: CN + O<sub>2</sub>;<sup>24</sup> CN + C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>, CN + C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>, and CN + C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>;<sup>26</sup> CN + CH<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub> (allene) and CN + CH<sub>3</sub>C<sub>2</sub>H (methyl acetylene).<sup>27</sup> Again, the agreement between our model and the CRESU data is generally good (within 40%), except for the CN + C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub> reaction. The latter, however, is the only CN reaction among those studied for which the activation energy is positive at room temperature. Indeed, the rate constant has a



**Figure 4.** Same as Figure 3 for the CH radical reacting with D<sub>2</sub>, NO, O<sub>2</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>. See text for details and references.



**Figure 5.** Same as Figure 3 for the C<sub>2</sub>H radical reacting with O<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>6</sub>, CH<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>, and CH<sub>3</sub>C<sub>2</sub>H. See text for details and references.

minimum value at about 300 K but increases at both higher and lower temperature.<sup>26</sup> As a result, CN + C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub> does not belong to the standard class of fast reactions, as defined in the previous section. On the other hand, the transition state theory of Georgievskii and Klippenstein<sup>11</sup> has been successfully applied to CN + C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub> which appears as the prototype of reactions involving two transition states. We also observe in Figure 2 that the temperature dependences of the rates are rather moderate, except for CN + C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub> and CN + O<sub>2</sub> where the values at the lowest measured temperatures differ from the room temperature values by more than a factor of 2. Note that for the radical–radical reaction CN + O<sub>2</sub>, the capture rate constants at 10 and 30 K were divided by a factor of 3 to allow for electronic degeneracy (assuming that the reaction occurs only over the lowest <sup>2</sup>A'' surface, see Sims et al.<sup>24</sup>). The  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$  fitting coefficients of the above CN reactions are given in Table 1.

In the case of atomic carbon, the following CRESU reactions were analyzed: C + NO and C + O<sub>2</sub>;<sup>28</sup> C + C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>, C + C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, C + CH<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>, and C + CH<sub>3</sub>C<sub>2</sub>H;<sup>29</sup> C + C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>6</sub> (propene).<sup>30</sup> The agreement between our model and the experimental data is less good than for CN but is still within a factor of 2, as shown in Figure 3. It should be noted that the capture temperatures  $T_1 = 5$  K and  $T_2 = 15$  K were found here to provide the best results (and to force the rate maxima to lie at  $\sim 10$  K). This reflects

**TABLE 1: Fitting Coefficients  $\alpha$  ( $\text{cm}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$ ),  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$  (K), Eq 4, to the Rate Constants of Various CN Reactions Measured with the CRESU Apparatus<sup>a</sup>**

reaction	$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\gamma$
CN + NH <sub>3</sub>	2.91 (-11)	-1.59	29.0
CN + O <sub>2</sub>	2.38 (-11)	-0.937	18.2
CN + C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub>	2.58 (-10)	-0.367	8.80
CN + C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub>	2.56 (-10)	-0.399	9.31
CN + C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>6</sub>	2.99 (-11)	-1.63	29.7
CN + CH <sub>2</sub> C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub>	3.96 (-10)	-0.128	4.86
CN + CH <sub>3</sub> C <sub>2</sub> H	4.06 (-10)	-0.161	5.40

<sup>a</sup> Fits are only valid in the temperature range 10–295 K. Powers of ten are given in parentheses.

**TABLE 2: Fitting Coefficients  $\alpha$  ( $\text{cm}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$ ),  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$  (K), Eq 4, to the Rate Constants of Various Atomic Carbon Reactions Measured with the CRESU Apparatus<sup>a</sup>**

reaction	$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\gamma$
C + NO	1.21 (-10)	-0.457	5.14
C + O <sub>2</sub>	4.13 (-11)	-0.453	5.11
C + C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub>	3.11 (-10)	-0.187	2.91
C + C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub>	2.68 (-10)	-0.271	3.61
C + C <sub>3</sub> H <sub>6</sub>	2.71 (-10)	-0.292	3.78
C + CH <sub>2</sub> C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub>	3.24 (-10)	-0.190	2.94
C + CH <sub>3</sub> C <sub>2</sub> H	2.51(-10)	-0.328	4.08

<sup>a</sup> Fits are only valid in the temperature range 5–295 K. Powers of ten are given in parentheses.

the fact that low temperature rate constants are in general lower for C(<sup>3</sup>P) than for CN(X<sup>2</sup>Σ<sup>+</sup>). This is further discussed below in the case of CH and C<sub>2</sub>H. We note that for C + O<sub>2</sub>, the capture rate constants at 5 and 15 K were divided by a factor of 3 to allow for electronic degeneracy (assuming that reaction occurs only on the singlet and triplet surfaces leading to the exothermic products CO(X<sup>1</sup>Σ<sup>+</sup> 0) + O, see Chastaing et al.<sup>30</sup>). On the other hand, no degeneracy factor was employed for C+NO for which all 36 surfaces lead adiabatically to exothermic products.<sup>31</sup> Note that temperature dependent degeneracy factors including spin-orbit effects are negligible at very low temperature and were therefore ignored here. These effects have been, however, found to be crucial at higher temperature for both C + NO and C + O<sub>2</sub>.<sup>31,32</sup> The  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$  fitting coefficients of the above atomic carbon reactions are given in Table 2.

In the case of CH, the following CRESU reactions were analyzed: CH + D<sub>2</sub>,<sup>33</sup> CH + NO, CH + O<sub>2</sub>, and CH + NH<sub>3</sub>,<sup>34</sup> CH + CH<sub>4</sub>, CH + C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>, CH + C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, CH + C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>.<sup>35</sup> Reactions that proceed by pressure-dependent association or association in the high-pressure limit (e.g., CH+H<sub>2</sub>) were not considered. The polarizability of CH was taken from the theoretical calculations of Manohar and Pal.<sup>36</sup> The agreement between our model and the experimental data is still within a factor of 2, as shown in Figure 4, except for CH + D<sub>2</sub> below 50 K where our model exceeds the CRESU data by up to a factor of 3. As for atomic carbon, the capture temperatures  $T_1 = 5$  K and  $T_2 = 15$  K were found to provide the best results. It is not clear why the present model fails so spectacularly for D<sub>2</sub> below 50 K (the activation energy is close to zero at 300 K, see Brownsword et al.<sup>33</sup>), but this could be related to the small moment of inertia, i.e., high rotational angular velocity, of D<sub>2</sub>.<sup>12</sup> We also note that for all CH reactions except CH + O<sub>2</sub> our model exceeds the CRESU data at the lowest measured temperatures (see in particular the sharp decrease of the rate for CH + C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub> below 50 K). Thus, the experimental rates are found to “saturate”, in all 8 cases except O<sub>2</sub>, at ~50 K, in contrast to C and CN. One of the possible explanations could be the anisotropy of the real

**TABLE 3: Fitting Coefficients  $\alpha$  ( $\text{cm}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$ ),  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$  (K), Eq 4, to the Rate Constants of Various CH Reactions Measured with the CRESU Apparatus<sup>a</sup>**

reaction	$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\gamma$
CH + D <sub>2</sub>	8.41 (-11)	-0.783	7.83
CH + NO	1.33 (-10)	-0.443	5.02
CH + O <sub>2</sub>	3.66 (-11)	-0.526	5.71
CH + NH <sub>3</sub>	1.38 (-10)	-0.514	5.61
CH + CH <sub>4</sub>	9.01 (-11)	-0.729	7.38
CH + C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub>	4.02 (-10)	-0.106	2.25
CH + C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub>	2.94 (-10)	-0.257	3.49
CH + C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>6</sub>	2.28 (-10)	-0.370	4.42

<sup>a</sup> Fits are only valid in the temperature range 5–295 K. Powers of ten are given in parentheses.

**TABLE 4: Fitting Coefficients  $\alpha$  ( $\text{cm}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$ ),  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$  (K), Eq 4, to the Rate Constants of Various C<sub>2</sub>H Reactions Measured with the CRESU Apparatus<sup>a</sup>**

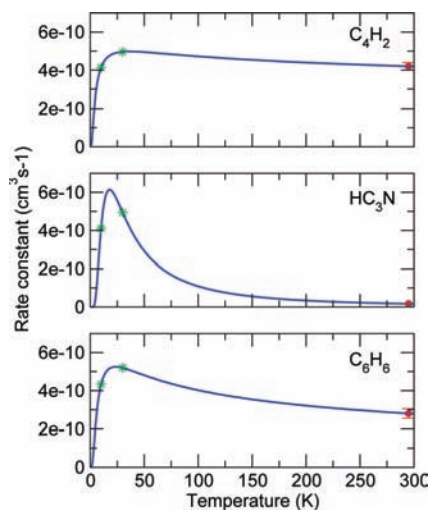
reaction	$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\gamma$
C <sub>2</sub> H + O <sub>2</sub>	4.06 (-11)	-0.455	5.12
C <sub>2</sub> H + C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub>	1.07 (-10)	-0.624	6.52
C <sub>2</sub> H + C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub>	1.00 (-10)	-0.672	6.91
C <sub>2</sub> H + C <sub>3</sub> H <sub>6</sub>	1.86 (-10)	-0.432	4.93
C <sub>2</sub> H + CH <sub>2</sub> C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub>	1.82 (-10)	-0.414	4.79
C <sub>2</sub> H + CH <sub>3</sub> C <sub>2</sub> H	1.72 (-10)	-0.471	5.25

<sup>a</sup> Fits are only valid in the temperature range 5–295 K. Powers of ten are given in parentheses.

potential, entirely neglected in our model. The  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$  fitting coefficients of the above CH reactions are given in Table 3.

In the case of C<sub>2</sub>H, the following CRESU reactions were analyzed: C<sub>2</sub>H + O<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H + C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H + C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, and C<sub>2</sub>H + C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>6</sub>,<sup>37</sup> C<sub>2</sub>H + CH<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub> and C<sub>2</sub>H + CH<sub>3</sub>C<sub>2</sub>H.<sup>27</sup> The polarizability of C<sub>2</sub>H was taken from the theoretical calculations of Herbst and Woon.<sup>38</sup> The agreement between our model and the experimental data is here within a factor of 2 for all systems above 25 K, as shown in Figure 5. At temperatures below 25 K, our model overestimates the rate constants of C<sub>2</sub>H + C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H + C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, and C<sub>2</sub>H + C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>6</sub>, with discrepancies up to a factor of 4 with respect to CRESU data. As for CH, it is not clear why our model fails for these reactions below 50 K. We note that in the case of C<sub>2</sub>H + C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>6</sub> the sharp decrease of the rate constant below 50 K was possibly attributed by Vakhtin et al.<sup>39</sup> to the effect of clustering of the reactant molecules. In their paper, Chastaing et al.<sup>37</sup> noted that the rate constants for C<sub>2</sub>H are in general a factor of 2–3 smaller than those for the corresponding reactions of the (isoelectronic) CN radical. They attributed this difference to either the increase in structural complexity or the lower dipole moment of C<sub>2</sub>H (0.8 D vs 1.45 D for CN). This latter point is also consistent with the fact that the rate constants for CH + C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub> and CH + C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> at very low temperatures are very similar to those for the corresponding reactions of CN, see Figures 2 and 4 (the CH dipole moment is 1.46 D). This suggests that the inclusion of the anisotropic electrostatic potential might improve the agreement between our model and CRESU data. We stress again, however, that the anisotropic capture theory has yet to be extended to asymmetric species. The  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$  fitting coefficients of the above C<sub>2</sub>H reactions are given in Table 4.

It is important to emphasize, finally, that in contrast to ion-molecule reactions for which mass spectrometric techniques allow the observation of both product and reagent ions, no information is obtained about the products of a neutral-neutral reaction with the CRESU method.<sup>16</sup> Of course, neither can the present model predict the reaction products. We therefore refer



**Figure 6.** Same as Figure 1 for the CN radical reacting with  $C_4H_2$ ,  $HC_3N$ , and  $C_6H_6$ . See text for details and references.

the reader to the experimental publications for the likely products of the above radical reactions (see also below). Furthermore, it should be noted that a number of experimental studies of products have been performed at room temperature or above by different groups working on neutral systems. The Leone group, in particular, has recently reported the direct detection of isomer-specific products for CN and  $C_2H$  radical reactions at room temperature.<sup>40,41</sup> These experiments used synchrotron radiation coupled with time-resolved multiplexed mass spectrometry. Crossed beam experiments have been also conducted, possibly combined with *ab initio* calculations, to assign the products of radical reactions (see, e.g., Geppert et al.<sup>31</sup> and Zhang et al.<sup>42</sup>).

**Predictions for CN Radical Reactions with  $C_4H_2$ ,  $HC_3N$ , and  $C_6H_6$ .** As mentioned in the introduction, reactions of CN with hydrocarbons and nitriles are of particular importance in the context of Titan's chemistry. Although the reaction products cannot be inferred experimentally at very low temperatures (as explained above), these reactions are generally divided in three classes:<sup>43</sup> (a) abstraction of an hydrogen atom from saturated hydrocarbons, e.g.,  $CN + C_2H_6 \rightarrow HCN + C_2H_5$ ; (b) addition to unsaturated C–C bonds followed by H atom elimination, e.g.,  $CN + C_2H_2 \rightarrow H + C_2HCN$ ; (c) addition to CN bond followed by H elimination, e.g.,  $CN + HCN \rightarrow H + C_2N_2$ . Reactions belonging to class b are expected to be the fastest. We have selected three reactions belonging to classes b and c whose rates are larger than  $10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$  at 295 K:  $CN + C_4H_2$  ( $k(295 \text{ K}) = 4.2 \times 10^{-10} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ),<sup>43</sup>  $CN + HC_3N$  ( $k(295 \text{ K}) = 1.7 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ )<sup>44</sup> and  $CN + C_6H_6$  ( $k(295 \text{ K}) = 2.8 \times 10^{-10} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ).<sup>45</sup> On Titan, the reaction of CN with  $C_4H_2$  is expected to form  $HC_5N$ , while the reaction with  $HC_3N$  is likely a source of  $C_4N_2$ . The products of the  $CN + C_6H_6$  reaction have been observed to be  $C_6H_5CN + H$ ,<sup>46</sup> and it is the only reaction known to produce cyanobenzene. By assumption of zero activation energies, these three reactions should become faster at low temperature. The results of our semiempirical approach are presented in Figure 6, using the capture temperatures  $T_1 = 10 \text{ K}$  and  $T_2 = 30 \text{ K}$ , as suggested by the available CRESU data for CN reactions (see above). The polarizability of  $HC_3N$  was taken from the *ab initio* calculations of Fowler and Dierksen.<sup>47</sup> The polarizability and ionization potential of  $C_4H_2$  were taken Karamanis and Maroulis<sup>48</sup> and Ramos et al.,<sup>49</sup> respectively. It can be seen in Figure 6 that the rate temperature dependences are negative but rather weak for reactions of CN

**TABLE 5: Fitting Coefficients  $\alpha$  ( $\text{cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ),  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$  (K), Eq 4, to the Rate Constants of Three CN Reactions Relevant for Titan<sup>a</sup>**

reaction	$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\gamma$
$CN + C_4H_2$	4.26 (−10)	−0.139	5.04
$CN + HC_3N$	1.85 (−11)	−1.93	34.5
$CN + C_6H_6$	2.87 (−10)	−0.391	9.19

<sup>a</sup> Fits are only valid in the temperature range 10–295 K. Powers of ten are given in parentheses.

with  $C_4H_2$  and  $C_6H_6$ . This implies that using our low temperature rate constants instead of the rates measured at room temperature in Titan's photochemical models will not significantly change the calculated densities of  $HC_5N$  and  $C_6H_5CN$ . The reaction of  $CN + HC_3N$  shows a stronger temperature dependence. However, only Lavvas et al. include the latter reaction in their model.<sup>50,51</sup> An activation energy of  $\sim 1.5 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$  was actually postulated by Halpern et al.<sup>44</sup> suggesting a rate constant of  $\sim 1 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$  at 100 K. In contrast, our model predicts a rate constant of  $\sim 1 \times 10^{-10} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$  at 100 K, that is 3 orders of magnitude greater. It is clear that measurements at low temperature would discriminate between both predictions. Nevertheless this reaction does not have much impact on Titan's atmosphere as it is only a minor channel for the production of  $C_4N_2$ .<sup>50,52</sup> The  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$  fitting coefficients of the three above CN reactions are given in Table 5.

## Conclusions

A simple, semiempirical, model has been presented to extend the rate constants of fast neutral–neutral reactions from room temperature down to 5–10 K. Predicting rate constants down to these very low temperatures is crucial for Titan's and interstellar chemistry. The present model has been shown to apply to radical–molecule reaction for which the activation energy is zero or negative at room temperature and the rate is greater than  $10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ : good agreement with CRESU experimental data (to within a factor of 2 above 25 K) was observed for a sample of 26 radical reactions involving atomic carbon, CN, CH, and  $C_2H$ . The two major exceptions are  $CN + C_2H_6$ , for which the activation energy is positive at room temperature, and  $CH + D_2$ . At temperatures lower than 25 K, discrepancies up to a factor of 4 have been observed for a few systems, possibly reflecting the contribution of the anisotropic electrostatic potential. Our approach is based on the long-range capture theory, combined with room temperature data. Only the long-range isotropic dispersion potential is considered in the capture calculations and, as a result, the present model simply requires the ionization potentials and the polarizabilities of the reactants. It is therefore easily generalized to any fast reaction involving large polyatomic (asymmetric) molecules provided the reaction obeys the above criteria. As an example, for the  $CN + HC_3N$  reaction, our model was found to predict a large rate below 200 K, in disagreement with the postulated (positive) activation energy.<sup>44</sup> Obviously, our approach has to be further checked against the full amount of available low temperature data. This will be done in future works. We believe, still, that the present model should provide an accuracy better than a factor of 2 in many favorable cases. Such a precision is clearly valuable at the current level of astrochemical modeling. Finally, it should be noted that for a number of important neutral reactions no kinetic data exist. For these our model is inapplicable and semiempirical arguments<sup>17</sup> and/or high level *ab initio* calculations are required.

## Appendix

We give below the expressions for the fitting coefficients  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$  (eq 4) as functions of  $k_1$ ,  $k_2$ , and  $k_3$ . Temperatures will be denoted  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ , and  $T_3$  so that formulas can be adapted to any particular choice of temperatures

$$\alpha = \frac{k_1(T_3)^\beta}{T_1^\beta \exp(-\gamma/T_1)} \quad (5)$$

$$\beta = \frac{\ln(k_1/k_2) - \gamma[(1/T_2) - (1/T_1)]}{\ln(T_1/T_2)} \quad (6)$$

$$\gamma = \frac{[\ln(k_1/k_2)\ln(T_2/T_3)/\ln(T_1/T_2)] - \ln(k_2/k_3)}{[(1/T_2) - (1/T_1)]\ln(T_2/T_3)/\ln(T_1/T_2) + [(1/T_2) - (1/T_3)]} \quad (7)$$

It should be noted that because  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  are here both obtained from the capture formula, eq 1, the ratio ( $k_1/k_2$ ) depends only on the temperature ratio ( $T_1/T_2$ ). As a result,  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  are linearly dependent

$$\beta = \frac{\ln[(T_1/T_2)^{1/6}] - \gamma[(1/T_2) - (1/T_1)]}{\ln(T_1/T_2)} \quad (8)$$

Hence, our model actually requires only two independent parameters.

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