

# Multichannel Reaction of $C_2Cl_3 + O_2$ Studied by Time-Resolved Fourier Transform Infrared Emission Spectroscopy<sup>†</sup>

Tiancheng Xiang,<sup>‡</sup> Kunhui Liu,<sup>‡</sup> Shaolei Zhao,<sup>‡</sup> Hongmei Su,<sup>\*,‡</sup> Fanao Kong,<sup>‡</sup> and Baoshan Wang<sup>§</sup>

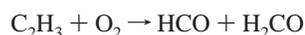
State Key Laboratory of Molecular Reaction Dynamics and Beijing National Laboratory for Molecular Sciences (BNLMS), Institute of Chemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100080, People's Republic of China, and College of Chemistry and Molecular Sciences, Wuhan University, Wuhan 430072, People's Republic of China

Received: May 25, 2007; In Final Form: August 3, 2007

The multichannel reaction of the  $C_2Cl_3$  radical with  $O_2$  has been studied thoroughly by step-scan time-resolved Fourier transform infrared emission spectroscopy. Vibrationally excited products of  $Cl_2CO$ ,  $CO$ , and  $CO_2$  are observed and three major reaction channels forming respectively  $CICO + Cl_2CO$ ,  $CO + CCl_3O$ , and  $CO_2 + CCl_3$  are identified. The vibrational state distribution of the product  $CO$  is derived from the spectral fitting, and the nascent average vibrational energy of  $CO$  is determined to be 59.9 kJ/mol. A surprisal analysis is applied to evaluate the vibrational energy disposal, which reveals that the experimentally measured  $CO$  vibrational energy is much more than that predicted by statistical model. Combining previous *ab initio* calculation results, the nonstatistical dynamics and mechanism are characterized to be barrierless addition–elimination via short-lived reaction intermediates including the peroxy intermediate  $C_2Cl_3OO^*$  and a crucial three-member-ring  $COO$  intermediate.

## 1. Introduction

By reacting with  $C_2$  unsaturated hydrocarbons, vinyl radicals are believed to play critical roles in the formation of soot, PAH (polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon), and coke in the combustion processes. On the other hand, the competing fast oxidation reaction of vinyl by  $O_2$  molecules scavenges vinyl radicals and thus suppresses the formation of soot, PAH, and coke. A limited number of studies have been done on the reaction of vinyl with  $O_2$  both experimentally and theoretically.<sup>1</sup> The major reaction channel of vinyl with  $O_2$  is to form  $H_2CO$  and  $HCO$  through a three-member-ring intermediate:



Wang et al.<sup>2</sup> also reported an observation of the channel to produce  $CO_2$  and  $CH_3$ :



Analogously, the chlorinated vinyl radical,  $C_2Cl_3$ , should also be taken into consideration as a critical reactive intermediate in the combustion of chlorinated hydrocarbons such as hazardous chemical and plastic wastes that frequently contain CHCs and thus leading to atmospheric pollution.<sup>3</sup> Despite its importance, studies on the reaction of  $C_2Cl_3$  are rare. Experimentally, only the rate constant of this reaction has been measured by Russell et al.<sup>3</sup> using photoionization mass spectrometry over the temperature range 298–648 K. They reported the Arrhenius expression to be  $2.0(\pm 0.4) \times 10^{-12} \exp\{830(\pm 230)/RT\}$ , in units of  $cm^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $\text{cal mol}^{-1}$  for the Arrhenius

activation energy, and the room-temperature reaction rate constant to be  $8.2 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . Their experiment only indicated the product formation of  $Cl_2CO$  (phosgene) without solid evidence. Theoretically, we have recently reported the *ab initio* calculation results on the energetics of the following exothermic reaction channels.<sup>4</sup>

	$\Delta H$ (kJ·mol <sup>-1</sup> ) (calcd from heat of formation)
$C_2Cl_3 + O_2 \rightarrow CICO + Cl_2CO$	-431.9
$\rightarrow O(^3P) + C_2Cl_3O$	-89 <sup>4</sup>
$\rightarrow CO_2 + CCl_3$	-511.8
$\rightarrow CO + CCl_3O$	-338.6
$\rightarrow Cl + (CICO)_2$	-404.5
$\rightarrow Cl + CCl_2C(O)O$	-318 <sup>4</sup>
$\rightarrow CCl_2 + ClCO_2$	-186 <sup>4</sup>
$\rightarrow ClO + CCl_2CO$	-183.7

The calculation shows that all the above channels are energetically accessible. However, detailed experimental measurements of the reaction products and identification of the reaction channels have not been done previously. In this paper, we report our experimental investigation on the reaction products and channels by means of step-scan time-resolved Fourier transform infrared emission spectroscopy (TR-FTIR). TR-FTIR is an effective technique probing multiple IR-active reaction products in real time due to its multiplex advantage and nanosecond time resolution. By observing the vibrationally excited products from the time-resolved IR emission spectra, several major reaction channels are identified for this multichannel free radical reaction. Moreover, the product vibrational energy disposal is derived from the spectral fitting and compared with that predicted by surprisal analysis. All of these experimental findings are discussed along with the *ab initio* calculation

<sup>†</sup> Part of the "Sheng Hsien Lin Festschrift".

\* Corresponding author. E-mail: hongmei@iccas.ac.cn.

<sup>‡</sup> Chinese Academy of Sciences.

<sup>§</sup> Wuhan University.

results. New insights are gained concerning the products, channels, energy disposal, and mechanism for the  $C_2Cl_3 + O_2$  reaction.

## 2. Experimental Section

The reaction products are monitored by step-scan, time-resolved Fourier transform emission spectroscopy.<sup>5</sup> This is an effective technique to acquire broad-band, time-resolved spectra of multiple products simultaneously.

Step-scan FTIR spectrometers are commercially available but require significant modification for coupling with a pulsed laser to study photolysis initiated free radical reactions. This newly upgraded machine comprises a Nicolet Nexus 870 step-scan FTIR spectrometer, Lambda Physik (LPX305i) Excimer laser, and a pulse generator (Standford Research DG535) to initiate the laser pulse and achieve synchronization of the laser with data collection, two digitizers (internal 100 kHz 16-bit digitizer and external 100 MHz 14-bit GAGE 8012A digitizer), which offer fast time resolution and a wide dynamic range as needed, and a personal computer to control the whole experiment. The detector used in this experiment is either a liquid nitrogen cooled InSb detector or MCT-A detector.

The reaction is initiated in a stainless steel flow reaction chamber. A pair of parallel multilayer coated mirrors (reflectivity  $R > 0.95$  at 248 nm) reflect the UV laser beam multiple times to increase the photolysis zone.  $C_2Cl_3$  radicals are generated by 248 nm photodissociation (100 mJ  $cm^{-2}$  pulse<sup>-1</sup>, 10 Hz repetition rate) of  $C_2Cl_4$ . Samples of  $C_2Cl_4$  ( $\geq 99\%$ ) and  $O_2$  ( $\geq 99.5\%$ ) enter the flow chamber 1 cm above the photolysis beam via needle valves. The chamber is pumped by an 8 L  $s^{-1}$  mechanical pump, and the stagnation pressure of the chamber is measured by a MKS capacitance manometer. The constant pressure of the sample is maintained by adjusting the pumping speed and the needle valves. Typically,  $C_2Cl_4$  (100 mTorr) and  $O_2$  (650 mTorr) are used to keep pseudo-first-order reaction conditions and minimizing secondary reactions of the  $C_2Cl_3$  radicals. Transient infrared emission is collected by a pair of gold-coated White-Cell spherical mirrors and collimated by a  $CaF_2$  lens to a step-scan Fourier spectrometer Nicolet Nexus 870. The spectrometer and the collimating tube are both flushed with  $N_2$  to eliminate the environmental  $CO_2$  absorption to IR emissions.

With the 8 L  $s^{-1}$  pumping speed, the e-fold pump down time in the 20-L-volume reaction cell is equal to several seconds. However, the photolysis volume in the cylinder, 250 mL, is evacuated on a time scale of tens of milliseconds, which is likely to be a more accurate measure of the residence time of the reactive gas mixture. Thus, it is expected that the flow rate is fast enough to replenish the sample at each laser pulse running normally at a repetition rate of 10 Hz. A buildup of certain reaction products could complicate the chemistry. To test whether this was affecting the present results, the experiment was run at 2 Hz in addition to the normal 10 Hz; the slower repetition rate would significantly decrease any buildup of reaction products between laser pulses. Decreasing the repetition rate caused no discernible effect in the observed time-dependent IR spectra for the gas flows used herein.

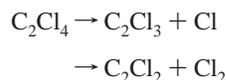
The response function of the instrument was measured using a blackbody source (Gemini R Model 976, Isothermal Technology LTD) maintained at 773 K. The instrumental response function represents the spectral response of the detector and the reflectivity or transmittance of the optics. Generally, the measured IR emission intensity should be corrected by the instrumental response function. However, for the specific

spectral range (the CO IR emission band: from 1900 to 2200  $cm^{-1}$ ) that we are to determine the vibrational population distribution by fitting the IR emission intensities, the instrumental responsivity keeps constant with wavelength. The variation of the responsivity from 1900 to 2200  $cm^{-1}$  is within 3%, even less than the fluctuation of the signal itself (roughly 7%). Considering the above-mentioned fact, we did not try to correct the IR emission intensities by instrumental response function within this specific spectral range.

## 3. Results and Discussion

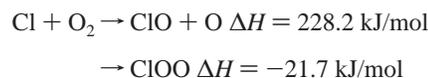
**3.1. Photolytic Source of  $C_2Cl_3$  Radicals.** In this experiment,  $C_2Cl_3$  radicals were generated by 248 nm KrF laser photolysis of  $C_2Cl_4$ . To avoid the existence of multiphoton processes, the 248 nm laser beam was diverged when reaching the sample by focusing outside of the reaction vessel. The laser power dependence of the product signal is linear, ruling out two photon dissociation processes.

Even radiated at a low power density, the one-photon photodissociation process of  $C_2Cl_4$  molecules are expected to follow two pathways:



Russell et al.<sup>3</sup> observed the formation of both the photoproducts  $C_2Cl_3$  and  $C_2Cl_2$ , indicating that the two pathways are of equal importance.

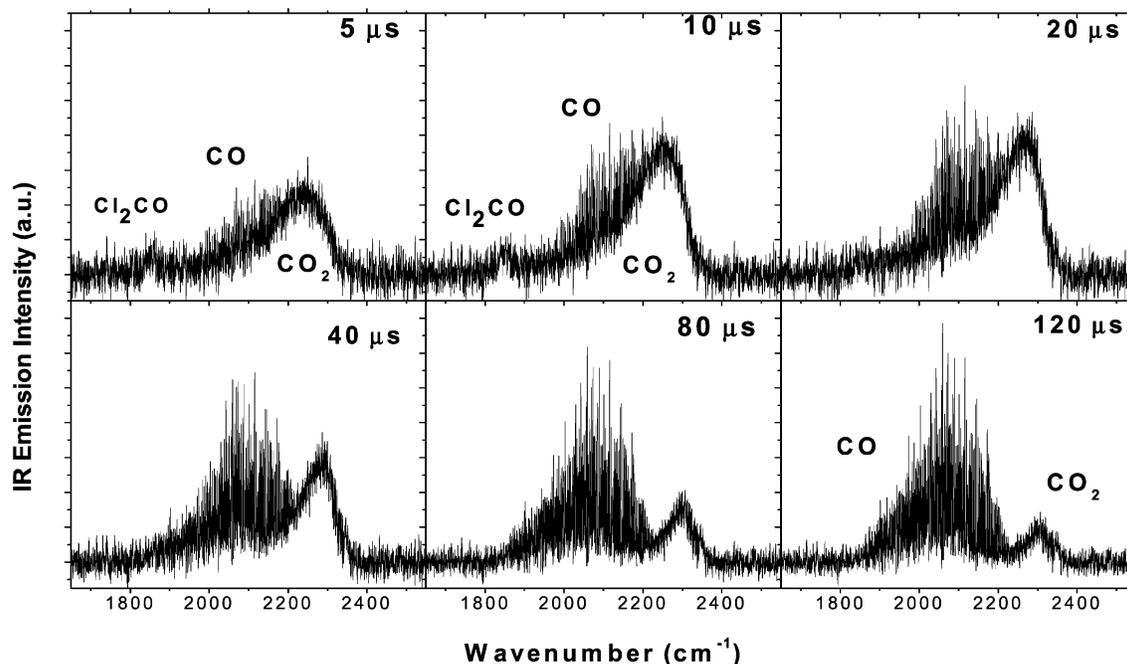
Fortunately, all the possibly interfering photofragments, i.e., Cl atoms and  $C_2Cl_2$  molecules are benign and not likely to react with  $O_2$ . The possible following reactions of the Cl atoms with  $O_2$  are either endothermic or slightly exothermic and thus can be neglected.



The other photofragments, the chlorinated acetylene  $C_2Cl_2$  and  $Cl_2$  are stable molecules. They are not expected to react with  $O_2$  molecules as fast as the radical fragment  $C_2Cl_3$  (the reaction rate constant of  $C_2Cl_3$  radical with  $O_2$  was reported to be  $8.2 \times 10^{-12}$   $cm^3$  molecule<sup>-1</sup>  $s^{-1}$  at room temperature<sup>3</sup>). Therefore, all the coexisted photofragments Cl atoms,  $Cl_2$  molecules, and chlorinated acetylenes  $C_2Cl_2$  are not likely to compete with the highly reactive  $C_2Cl_3$  radicals in their reaction with  $O_2$  molecules. The photodissociation of  $C_2Cl_4$  molecules provide a good source of  $C_2Cl_3$  radicals.

**3.2. Identification of the Elementary Reaction Products.** TR-FTIR emission spectroscopy can detect multiple vibrationally excited species simultaneously. In this experiment, vibrationally excited species may arise from the hot photolysis fragments and the products of the consecutive radical reactions. We observed no IR emission signals from the pure photodissociation of  $C_2Cl_4$ . This provides a background free detection of the reaction of  $C_2Cl_3$  with  $O_2$ .

When the mixture of 100 mTorr of  $C_2Cl_4$  and 650 mTorr of  $O_2$  was irradiated by 248 nm laser, strong IR emission signals were detected. Figure 1 shows a series of TR-FTIR emission spectra at typical delay times from 5 to 120  $\mu s$  after the initiation of the reaction by photolysis laser with a 0.5  $cm^{-1}$  spectral resolution. Three emission bands were observed, as shown in the spectra collected at the early reaction time of 5 and 10  $\mu s$ . One weak emission band is peaked at 1850  $cm^{-1}$ , and the other



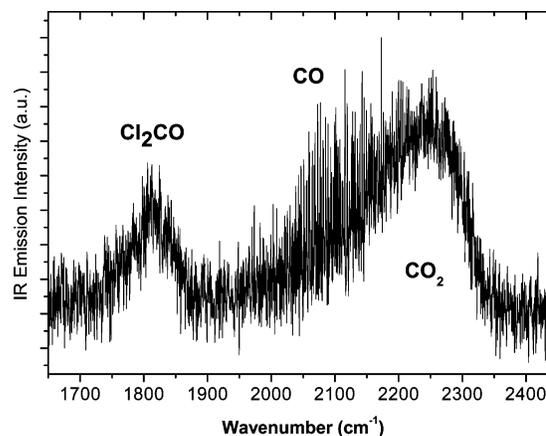
**Figure 1.** Product TR-FTIR emission spectra from the reaction of  $C_2Cl_3 + O_2$  taken at typical reaction times from 5 to 120  $\mu s$  after initiation of the reaction by 248 nm laser photolysis. The spectra were collected using the detector of InSb with the spectral resolution of  $0.5\text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

two strong emission bands spread over the spectral region from 1940 to  $2370\text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

The strong emission band spanning from  $1940\text{ to }2370\text{ cm}^{-1}$  actually arises from two species. The fully rotationally resolved emission lines from  $1940\text{ to }2200\text{ cm}^{-1}$  are due to  $\Delta v = -1$  transitions of vibrationally excited  $CO(v' = 1 - 10)$ . The CO emission grows monotonically with time and reaches an asymptote at  $80\ \mu s$ . The intensity of CO emission band hardly decays and sustains until the millisecond time scale. The CO rovibrational lines are superimposed on top of a broad partially resolved emission band spanning from  $2100\text{ to }2370\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , which is due to  $(\nu_1, \nu_2, \nu_3) \rightarrow (\nu_1, \nu_2, \nu_3 - 1)$  transitions of vibrationally excited  $CO_2$ .<sup>6</sup> Three modes of the  $CO_2$  vibration might all be excited. Unlike the diatomic vibrationally excited molecule CO, the high density of the  $(\nu_1, \nu_2, \nu_3) \rightarrow (\nu_1, \nu_2, \nu_3 - 1)$  transitions of  $CO_2$  makes its rotational structure irresolvable at  $0.5\text{ cm}^{-1}$  spectral resolution (the best resolution we can attain with this instrument).

Both products of CO and  $CO_2$  are formed with significant internal excitation, leading to broad, red-shifted IR emission spectra. At early reaction times such as 5 and  $10\ \mu s$  the emission band of  $CO_2$  spreads to the red and overlaps with the emission band of CO, indicating that  $CO_2$  molecules are highly vibrationally excited. With increasing time, the  $CO_2$  band blue shifts and cascades toward the band origin as the more energetic vibrational states are depopulated by collisional energy transfer until at  $80\ \mu s$  it is completely separated from the CO band. Eventually at  $120\ \mu s$  the  $CO_2$  emission band relaxes to coincide in frequency with the  $CO_2(001 \rightarrow 000)$  band origin at  $2349\text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

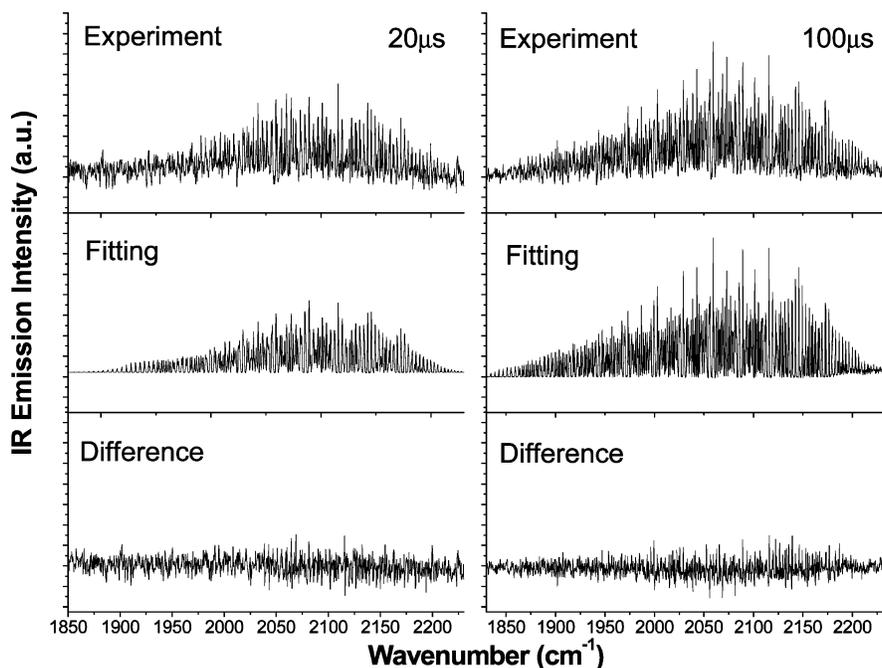
The weak emission band peaked at  $1850\text{ cm}^{-1}$  shown in Figure 1 only reveals part of this band because the detector InSb cuts off at this position. Also, the intensity of this emission band is in fact underestimated. To obtain the full spectra of this species and measure its real intensity, we collected the spectra using the detector MCT-A with the detection sensitivity covering a spectral range of  $720\text{--}5000\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , and the typical spectrum is shown in Figure 2. Although the sensitivity of MCT-A is only one-fifth as much as that of InSb, we were still



**Figure 2.** Product TR-FTIR emission spectra from the reaction of  $C_2Cl_3 + O_2$  taken at  $5\ \mu s$  of the reaction time with the spectral resolution of  $0.5\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The spectra were collected using the lower sensitivity, but higher spectral range ( $720\text{--}5000\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) MCT-A detector.

able to collect high-resolution spectra by signal averaging multiple times and get a satisfactory S/N ratio. Indeed, there is really a more intense and broader emission band peaked at  $1812\text{ cm}^{-1}$  observed with the detector MCT-A. Just like for the  $CO_2$  band, the vibration-rotational structure of this band is irresolvable with the best resolution ( $0.5\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) attainable, indicating that it also arises from polyatomic molecules.

Simply judging from its spectral position (spanning from  $1730\text{ to }1870\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ), this band should either arise from the C–O stretching ( $\nu_1$ ) mode of CICO (vibrational fundamental frequency at  $1884.6\text{ cm}^{-1}$ )<sup>7</sup> or  $Cl_2CO$  (vibrational fundamental frequency at  $1827\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ). First, CICO is highly unstable because C–Cl bond fission requires only  $32.8\text{ kJ/mol}$  of energy.<sup>8</sup> The CICO radicals generated from the reaction of  $C_2Cl_3 + O_2$  are highly energized because the reaction channel forming  $CICO + Cl_2CO$  releases  $431.9\text{ kJ/mol}$  of energy. Therefore, the CICO radicals are expected to decompose instantaneously once formed and thus will not be detected in the IR emission spectra. Wu<sup>8</sup> et al. did not observe the IR emission of CICO near  $1880\text{ cm}^{-1}$  in the photodissociation experiment of oxalyl chloride at



**Figure 3.** Representative spectral fitting results for the IR emission bands of the products CO at two reaction times of 20 and 100  $\mu$ s. The difference between the experimental spectrum and the corresponding fitted spectrum is also shown at the bottom.

248 nm, which should generate ClCO fragments. They also ascribed this fact to the fast decomposition of the hot ClCO with an average internal energy of 63.8 kJ/mol. On the other hand, this emission band is most likely arising from the vibrationally excited product  $Cl_2CO$  because  $Cl_2CO$  molecules are highly stable. The bond fission of  $Cl_2CO$  requires 312.9 kJ/mol of energy and surmounting a barrier of 341.7 kJ/mol.<sup>9</sup> The vibrational relaxation of  $Cl_2CO$  molecules is extremely fast, as manifested by the rapid disappearance of its emission band at 20  $\mu$ s, shown in Figure 1.

**3.3. Vibrational State Distribution of the Product CO.** Due to the advantage of broad band and the nature of IR emission, TR-FTIR emission spectra can provide the information of an almost complete vibrational state distribution. The vibrational state distribution is usually acquired by spectral fitting to experimental IR spectra using nonlinear least-squares fitting procedures.<sup>10</sup> For the three observed product species, only the diatomic molecule CO shows a rotationally resolved IR spectrum, whereas the spectra of the other two polyatomic species  $CO_2$  and  $Cl_2CO$  are simply featureless, only showing an unresolved contour resulting from superimposition of numerous rovibrational transitions. With multiple vibrational modes present, the fitting to polyatomic molecules is normally more complicated. On the other hand, the fitting to the current spectra of featureless polyatomic species is presumably not plausible to yield unique fitting results and meaningful vibrational population. Therefore, only the rotationally resolved IR emission spectra of the diatomic products CO are analyzed by spectral fitting.

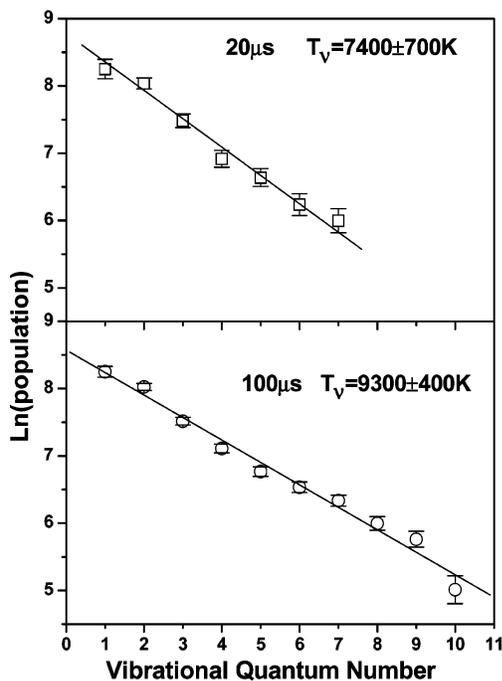
For spectra collected at early reaction times when  $CO_2$  overlaps with CO, it is first required to remove the continuous band of  $CO_2$  from the sharp features of CO and extract a spectrum that contains contribution only from CO. The extraction of  $CO_2$  spectrum is done by judiciously choosing wavenumbers in the range 1940–2370  $cm^{-1}$  that lie between the sharp CO lines.<sup>6</sup> Then the pure CO spectrum is obtained by subtracting the  $CO_2$  continuous spectrum from the overlapped spectrum.

The emission intensity for the diatomic product CO is fit using a nonlinear least-squares fitting program that has been described in detail previously.<sup>11</sup> Satisfactory fitting results are obtained, as demonstrated in Figure 3 by the representative fitting to two particular time slices (the left column shows the fitting results to the CO spectrum extracted from the 20  $\mu$ s overlapped  $CO/CO_2$  spectrum, the right column shows the fitting results to the already isolated CO spectrum at 100  $\mu$ s). The spectral fitting yields the vibrational populations and rotational temperature. The rotational temperature of 300 K always generates the best fitting results, indicating that the rotational excitation has been thermalized. This is reasonable because these spectra are acquired as early as 5  $\mu$ s after photolysis, corresponding to roughly 50 collisions (with total pressure of 750 millitorr), sufficient to equilibrate rotational distribution.

The populations at each vibrational level are derived from spectral fitting. For example, from the fittings displayed in Figure 3, the populations are 0.33/0.27/0.16/0.09/0.07/0.04/0.04 for the vibrational levels of  $v' = 1-7$  at 20  $\mu$ s. These populations can be well described by Boltzmann vibrational distribution as manifested in Figure 4. The average vibrational energy can be calculated from the normalized vibrational population  $N_v$  using the equation of  $\langle E_{vib} \rangle = \sum_{v=1}^{v_{max}} N_v E_v$ . The average vibrational energies of the product CO at 20  $\mu$ s is thus calculated to be 63.5 kJ/mol.

Likewise, the average vibrational energy for CO at various reaction times are calculated and listed in Table 1. The average vibrational energy measured at 5  $\mu$ s, 59.9 kJ/mol, is presumably very close to the nascent value. Only about 50 collisions occur in 5  $\mu$ s, which does not alter much the vibrational distribution from the nascent one because the vibrational relaxation of CO is highly inefficient.<sup>12,13</sup> The colliding bath molecules  $O_2$  and  $C_2Cl_4$  in the system do not have any vibrational modes in resonance with the CO stretching (2140  $cm^{-1}$ ).

Using the reported reaction rate constant of  $8.2 \times 10^{-12} cm^3 molecule^{-1} s^{-1}$ ,<sup>3</sup> it is estimated that the  $C_2Cl_3 + O_2$  reaction should be complete (when the 99% of reactants are consumed) within 17  $\mu$ s under the current pressure (100 mTorr of  $C_2Cl_4$

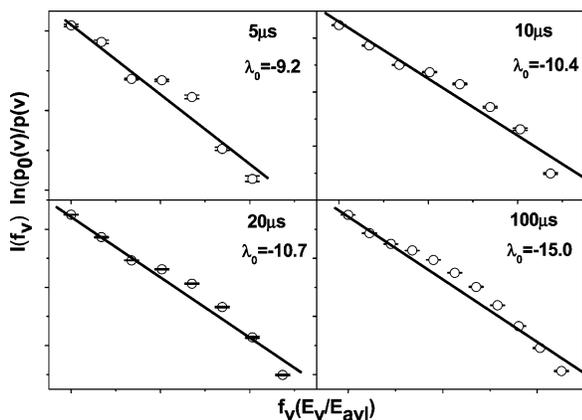


**Figure 4.** Representative Boltzmann plots of the vibrational distribution of CO from the  $C_2Cl_3 + O_2$  reaction at two reaction times of 20 and 100  $\mu s$ . The straight lines are the best fit of the data to a Boltzmann distribution with a temperature of  $7400 \pm 700$  or  $9300 \pm 400$  K, respectively.

**TABLE 1: Average Vibrational Energy of CO at Various Reaction Times**

reacn time ( $\mu s$ )	5	10	20	30	40	50	60	80	100	120	160
$E_v$ (kJ/mol)	59.9	61.7	63.5	69.5	70.5	73.4	76.6	78.5	78.2	78.0	77.8

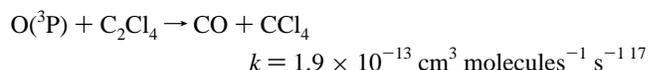
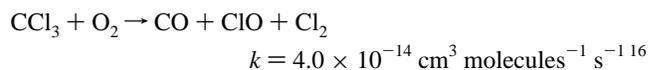
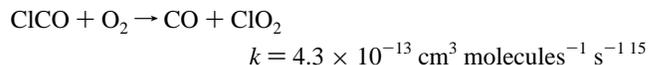
and 650 mTorr of  $O_2$ ). As shown in Figure 1, the formation rates of the  $Cl_2CO$  and  $CO_2$  agree with the estimated reaction time, indicating that these two products are ascribed to the primary reaction of  $C_2Cl_3 + O_2$ . In contrast, the time evolution of another product CO, behaves differently. Both of the emission intensity and vibrational excitation of CO keeps increasing with time up to 120  $\mu s$ . Most likely, secondary reactions play significant roles in the late formation of CO. To eliminate these secondary reactions, we have performed several reference experiments by decreasing both the pressure of precursor  $C_2Cl_3$  (down to 50 mTorr) and  $O_2$  molecules (down to 250 mTorr). No discernible difference of the IR emission spectra can be



**Figure 5.** Representative surprisal plots for the fraction of the available energy in CO vibration at four reaction times of 5, 10, 20, and 100  $\mu s$ . The corresponding surprisal parameters are derived to be  $-9.2$ ,  $-10.4$ ,  $-10.7$ , and  $-15.0$ , respectively.

observed for the low-pressure conditions, indicating that the secondary reactions cannot be avoided efficiently in the flow cell. On the other hand, the species partial pressures are necessarily maintained relatively high to ensure adequate signal-to-noise ratios in the IR emission detection experiment because of its low detection sensitivity relative to other methods. Consequently, secondary chemistry usually plays a role in the production of IR-active species, in this case, accounting for the formation of CO at late reaction times.<sup>14</sup>

Secondary radical-radical reactions are negligible due to their low concentration. The most probable secondary reactions forming CO are those of the primary radical products such as  $ClCO$ ,  $CCl_3$ , and  $O(^3P)$  with the most abundant  $O_2$  or  $C_2Cl_4$  molecules: All of these possible secondary reactions are at least



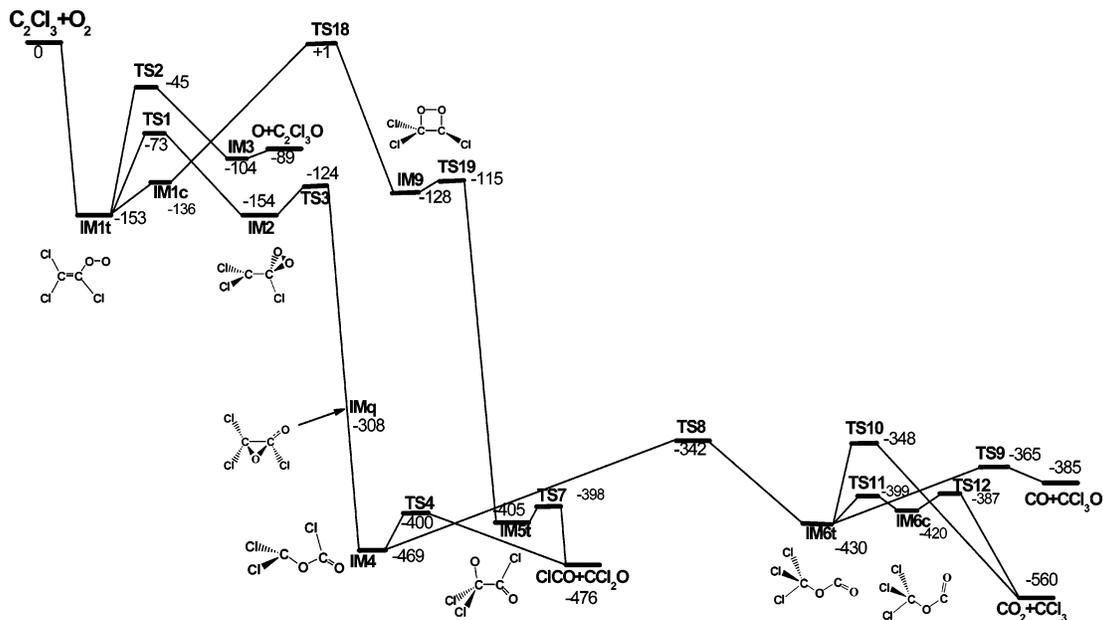
1 order of magnitude slower than the primary reaction of  $C_2Cl_3 + O_2$ . They are not likely to contribute to the formation of CO at early reaction times. Instead, the CO products observed at early reaction times should mainly arise from the primary reaction of the  $C_2Cl_3 + O_2$ . It is noticeable that CO is observed simultaneously with the other two primary reaction products of  $CO_2$  and  $Cl_2CO$  as early as 5  $\mu s$ , as shown in Figure 1.

**3.4. Product Channels and Vibrational Energy Disposal.** Vibrationally excited products of  $Cl_2CO$ , CO, and  $CO_2$  are observed from the TR-FTIR emission spectra. The following reaction channels are therefore identified:



All these channels are highly exothermic, leading to vibrationally excited products. Channels 1 and 3 account for the production of  $Cl_2CO$  and  $CO_2$ , respectively. Channels 1 and 2 both contribute to the production of CO. In channel 2 CO is formed directly accompanied by the partner  $CCl_3O$ , the chlorinated methoxy radical. In channel 1, the highly unstable  $ClCO$  is expected to dissociate sequentially to CO readily as discussed in section 3.2.

A surprisal analysis is used to evaluate the vibrational energy disposal of the product CO.<sup>18,19</sup> As an example, Figure 5 shows the surprisal plots for the CO produced at several typical reaction times. The plots are basically linear. The statistical information-theoretic prior predicts an average vibrational energy of 25.5 kJ/mol for CO. The experimentally measured vibrational energy of 59.9 kJ/mol is much larger than the value predicted by the statistical model. Also, the surprisal parameters are negative, which means that the energy release into vibration is more than that of the prior distribution. Both indicate that the reaction is more likely to proceed through a direct reaction mechanism or short-lived reaction intermediates and hence the energy deposited into C–O bond initially in the reaction intermediate does not redistribute promptly before quick dissociation and forming final products. This is the usual case for exoergic reactions.<sup>20</sup>



**Figure 6.** Energy diagram of the  $C_2Cl_3 + O_2$  reaction paths.<sup>4</sup> The indicated energies (in kJ/mol) are obtained at the G3MP2//B3LYP/6-311G(d,p) level of theory. All the energies given are relative to the reactants, and structures of crucial reaction intermediates are shown too.

**3.5. Comparison with the Computational Results.** As a serial work prior to this one, we have performed a comprehensive *ab initio* calculation on the various paths of this reaction and detailed calculation results have been reported.<sup>4</sup> The energetics of the reactants, intermediates, transition states, and products along the reaction paths were calculated at the second-order Møller–Plesset Gaussain-3 level of theory (G3MP2) using the B3LYP/6-311G(d,p) optimized geometries. Figure 6 shows a concise energy diagram. Here, we only focus on comparing calculation results with experimental results in two aspects.

(1) *Reaction Channels and Mechanism.* The computational study reveals that the reaction proceeds through an addition–elimination mechanism by first forming a peroxy intermediate IM1t  $C_2Cl_3OO^*$ . Starting from  $C_2Cl_3OO^*$ , there are mainly two reaction paths. The energetically most favorable route is the isomerization of IM1t  $C_2Cl_3OO^*$  into a three-member-ring intermediate IM2 and its subsequent isomerization to a highly energized intermediate IM4 with the C–O–C–O chain structure, which dissociates, forming eventually several final products including CICO +  $Cl_2CO$ , CO +  $CCl_3O$ ,  $CO_2 + CCl_3$ , etc. These channels are all highly exothermic. The second route involves a direct OO bond fission of  $C_2Cl_3OO^*$  leading to the O +  $C_2Cl_3O$  channel. The rate constants of these two reaction routes calculated on the basis of the variational transition state theory show that the reaction channels forming CICO +  $Cl_2CO$ , CO +  $CCl_3O$ , and  $CO_2 + CCl_3$  are predominant over the channel forming O +  $C_2Cl_3O$ , although the latter one involves much less molecular rearrangements. These computational results explain quite well our experimental observation of the intense IR emission bands due to the vibrationally excited products of  $Cl_2CO$ , CO, and  $CO_2$  and validate further the identification of the CICO +  $Cl_2CO$ , CO +  $CCl_3O$ , and  $CO_2 + CCl_3$  channels.

(2) *Vibrational Energy Disposal.* Overall, the energy diagram of the  $C_2Cl_3 + O_2$  reaction paths in Figure 6 shows deep wells in entrance and shallow barriers in exit, which suggests that the reaction intermediates are very short-lived. This explains well the experimental observation that the vibrational energies partitioned into CO is much more than that predicted by

statistical model. Similar nonstatistical dynamics behavior has been observed in many highly exothermic radical reactions.<sup>21</sup>

#### 4. Conclusions

In summary, step-scan TR-FTIR emission spectroscopy has been used to characterize thoroughly the products, channels, vibrational energy disposal, and mechanism of the multichannel free radical reaction of  $C_2Cl_3$  with  $O_2$ . Vibrationally excited products of  $Cl_2CO$ , CO, and  $CO_2$  are observed in the IR emission spectra. Three major reaction channels forming respectively CICO +  $Cl_2CO$ , CO +  $CCl_3O$ , and  $CO_2 + CCl_3$  are therefore identified. The vibrational state distribution of the product CO is derived by fitting the IR emission spectra, and it is found that CO is highly vibrationally excited with the nascent average vibrational energy determined to be 59.9 kJ/mol. The surprisal analysis shows that the experimentally measured CO vibrational energy is much larger than that predicted by the statistical model, suggesting that the reaction proceeds through short-lived reaction intermediates. This nonstatistical dynamics behavior is consistent with the G3MP2 calculated energetics of the overall reaction paths, which shows deep wells in entrance and shallow barriers in exit. The  $C_2Cl_3 + O_2$  reaction is a barrierless addition–elimination mechanism by first forming a peroxy intermediate  $C_2Cl_3OO^*$  and then rearranging to a crucial three-member-ring COO intermediate through which the oxygen atoms are inserted into the C=C double bond of  $CCl_2=CCl$  radical, leading eventually to small products of  $Cl_2CO$ , CO, and  $CO_2$ .

**Acknowledgment.** This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant Nos. 20473100 and No. 20673126), the National Basic Research Program of China, and the Chinese Academy of Sciences. We are thankful to Prof. Kopin Liu for the helpful discussion with the experimental results.

#### References and Notes

- (1) Laufer, A. H.; Fahr, A. *Chem. Rev.* **2004**, *104*, 2813 and references therein.

- (2) Wang, H.; Wang, B.; He, Y.; Kong, F. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2001**, *115*, 1742.
- (3) Russell, J. J.; Seetual, J. A.; Gutman, D.; Senkan, S. M. *J. Phys. Chem.* **1989**, *93*, 1934.
- (4) Wang, H.; Li, J.; Song, X.; Li, Y.; Hou, H.; Wang, B.; Su, H.; Kong, F. *J. Phys. Chem. A* **2006**, *110*, 10336.
- (5) Seakins, P. W. *The Chemical Dynamics and Kinetics of Small Radicals*; Liu, K., Wagner, A., Eds.; World Scientific: Singapore, 1995; pp 250–314.
- (6) Osborn, D. L. *J. Phys. Chem. A* **2003**, *107*, 3728.
- (7) Chen, S. H.; Chu, L. K.; Chen, Y. J.; Chen, I. C.; Lee, Y. P. *Chem. Phys. Lett.* **2001**, *333*, 365.
- (8) Wu, C. Y.; Lee, Y. P.; Ogilvie, J. F.; Wang, N. S. *J. Phys. Chem. A* **2003**, *107*, 2389.
- (9) Lim, K. P.; Michael, J. V. *J. Phys. Chem.* **1994**, *98*, 211.
- (10) Green, B. D.; Caledonia, G. E.; Murphy, R. E.; Robert, F. X. *J. Chem. Phys.* **1982**, *76*, 2441.
- (11) Su, H.; Yang, J.; Ding, Y.; Feng, W.; Kong, F. *Chem. Phys. Lett.* **2000**, *326*, 73.
- (12) Wang, B. S.; Gu, Y. S.; Kong, F. *J. Phys. Chem. A*, **1998**, *102*, 9367.
- (13) Stephenson, J. C.; Mosburg, E. R., Jr. *J. Chem. Phys.* **1974**, *60*, 3562.
- (14) James, A. D.; Eunsook, S. H.; Karen, J. C.; Gary, D. D. *J. Phys. Chem. A* **2004**, *108*, 10965.
- (15) Hewitt, A. D.; Brahan, K. M.; Boone, G. D.; Hewitt, S. A. *Int. J. Chem. Kinet.* **1996**, *28*, 763.
- (16) Imamura, T.; Chono, H.; Shibuya, K.; Washida, N. *Int. J. Chem. Kinet.* **2003**, *35*, 310.
- (17) Upadhyaya, H. P.; Kumar, A.; Naik, P. D.; Sapre, A. V. *Chem. Phys. Lett.* **2000**, *321*, 411.
- (18) Muckerman, J. T. *J. Phys. Chem.* **1989**, *93*, 179.
- (19) Hall, G. E.; Metzler, H. W.; Muckerman, J. T.; Preses, J. M.; Weston, R. E., Jr. *J. Chem. Phys.* **1995**, *102*, 6660.
- (20) Levine, R. D.; Bernstein, R. B. *Molecular reaction dynamics and chemical reactivity*; Oxford University Press: Oxford, U.K., 1987.
- (21) Donaldson, D. J.; Okada, Z. V.; Sloan, J. J. *J. Chem. Phys.* **1995**, *103*, 37.