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THE PRODUCTION OF NITRIC OXIDE
IN SHOCK-HEATED AIR

Morton Camas, Robert M. Feinberg, and J. Derek Tsore

RESEARCH REPORT 245

December 1966

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BALLISTIC SYSTEMS DIVISION
DEPUTY FOR BALLISTIC MISSILE RE-ENTRY SYSTEMS
AIR FORCE SYSTEMS COMMAND
Horton Air Force Base, California
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ADVANCED RESEARCH PROJECTS AGENCY

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ARMY MISSILE COMMAND
UNITED STATES ARMY
Redstone Arsenal, Alabama
under Contract No. DA-01-021-AMC-12005 (Z)
(part of Project DEFENDER)



EVERETT RESEARCH LABORATORY

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THE PRODUCTION OF NITRIC OXIDE IN SHOCK-HEATED AIR

by

Morton Camac, Robert M. Feinberg and J. Derek Teare

AVCO EVERETT RESEARCH LABORATORY
a division of
AVCO CORPORATION
Everett, Massachusetts

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FOREWORD

This report has been supported jointly by Avco Everett Research Laboratory under Contract No. AF 04(694)-690 for Ballistic Systems Division, Deputy for Ballistic Missile Re-entry Systems, Air Force Systems Command, Norton Air Force Base, California, and Advanced Research Projects Agency monitored by the Army Missile Command, United States Army, Redstone Arsenal, Alabama under Contract No. DA-01-021-AMC-12005(Z) (part of Project DEFENDER). The secondary report number as assigned by AERL is Avco Everett Research Report 245. The Air Force program monitor for Contract AF 04(694)-690 is Thomas W. Swartz, 1st Lt., USAF Project Officer.

Publication of this report does not constitute Air Force approval of the report's findings or conclusions. It is published only for the exchange and stimulation of ideas.

Thomas W. Swartz, 1st Lt.
USAF, Project Officer

ABSTRACT

The rate of production of nitric oxide in shock-heated air was measured over the temperature range from 2300°K to 4500°K. The NO concentration was determined from the NO infrared emission in the 5.3 micron fundamental vibration-rotation band. The main production of nitric oxide was found to be by the dissociation reaction $O_2 + M \xrightarrow{k_4} 2O + M$, followed by the atomic shuttle reactions $O + N_2 \xrightarrow{k_2} NO + N$ and $N + O_2 \rightarrow NO + O$. The overall rate constant $k = k_2 \cdot k_4$ for NO production was found to be 0.40 ± 0.12 of the rate constant compiled by Wray.

The rate constant for the bimolecular reaction $N_2 + O_2 \rightarrow 2NO$ was found to be less than one-tenth the value suggested by Freedman and Daiber. In order to explain the disagreement in the rate constant, experiments were performed in shock-heated nitric oxide where the depletion of nitric oxide and the reaction products were observed. It was found that the NO depletion occurs mainly via the reaction $2NO \rightarrow N_2O + O$.

An analysis of the vibrational relaxation of NO-O₂-N₂ mixtures is presented and it is shown that NO vibration lag is small and does not affect the data analysis. We determined that the integrated band intensity of the NO fundamental is $124 \pm 22 \text{ atm}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ at S. T. P.

It is also shown that corrections due to the shock tube boundary layer must be included in order to obtain detailed agreement between experiment and calculations. The procedure for correcting chemical measurements for shock tube boundary layer growth is outlined.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Interest in the chemical reaction rates in high temperature air arises in many combustion studies, such as in controlled flame reactions and in rocket motors. Also, chemical changes in shocked air become significant in high speed flight above Mach 6. Nitric oxide (in equilibrium) is an important constituent of air above 2000°K.¹ Several authors²⁻⁴ have tabulated the various reaction paths for the production of NO starting with N₂-O₂ mixtures. For many of these reactions, the rate constants were measured over a small temperature interval, and theoretically extrapolated over a wide temperature range. The purpose of this work was to determine the rate of production of NO in shock heated air. This is an integral type experiment in that many reactions take place simultaneously. Our results were then compared to calculated NO production rates in air based on the reaction rate constants compiled by Wray.⁴

An extensive high temperature shock tube study of NO formation in N₂-O₂ mixtures, diluted in Ar, was performed by Glick, Klein and Squire⁵ employing the single pulse shock tube method. The gas resided at a high temperature for several milliseconds, and then cooled quickly. Then a gas sample was taken from the shock tube and analyzed for NO. The argon acted as an additional catalyst for quickly bringing the atomic oxygen concentration to equilibrium.⁶ Thus, they were able to determine the rate constants for the NO producing reaction, $O + N_2 \rightarrow NO + N$. This reaction, followed by the faster reaction $N + O_2 \rightarrow NO + O$, forms a pair of NO producing reactions with the atoms acting as catalysts. In the case of air, the atomic oxygen is produced either by $O_2 + M \rightarrow 2O + M$ (where $M = N_2$ or O_2)^{7,8} or $N_2 + O_2 \rightarrow N_2O + O$. The rate constant for the latter reaction has not been determined and its importance for temperatures above 2000°K is not known. Before these atom reactions become important, the initial production of NO is reported to be by the reaction $N_2 + O_2 \rightarrow 2NO$;⁹⁻¹¹ however, in the present experiment this reaction is negligible. Our measurements of the rate of

NO formation in shock heated air were compared to calculations based on the rate constants for the above reactions.

In addition to the single pulsed shock tube method⁵ discussed above, several other methods for determining NO in shock heated air exist. The ultraviolet absorption^{9,11} and the NO infrared emission in the vibration-rotation band^{12,13} techniques have been employed for observing the NO vibrational relaxation and decomposition rates. At lower temperatures, NO reactions have been studied in flames¹⁴ and flow tubes.¹⁰ In this paper, the NO infrared emission technique was employed.

The theory of the experiment is discussed in the next section. The experimental measurements of the NO infrared emission from shock heated air follows. In the final section, our measurements are compared to NO production calculations. The important conclusions are summarized.

There are three appendices in this report. In the first, the theory of vibrational relaxation in a mixture of diatomic molecules is reviewed. Numerical results are presented for the vibrational relaxation of a trace amount of NO in air over the temperature range from 2000°K to 6500°K. In the second appendix, band intensity formulation is developed and applied to the calibration of the infrared system. These formulas were used in Section III to determine the NO fundamental band strength. It is also shown that the weak line approximation is valid for our shock tube data. In the final appendix, the procedure for correcting the chemical measurements for the effects of shock tube boundary layer growth is developed and then applied to the NO formation chemistry.

II. THEORY OF EXPERIMENT

The main purpose of this paper is to determine the rate of formation of NO in shock heated air. The NO concentration was determined from the NO infrared emission in the 5.3 micron fundamental vibration rotation band. In order to evaluate the experimental data, the gas conditions downstream of the shock and the sensitivity of the infrared system to the NO concentration and vibrational temperature were determined.

Experimental data have been obtained over the shock velocity range from 2.0 to 4.5 mm per microsecond, and at initial air pressures from 1 to 50 torr. The shock heated gas temperature and density are shown in Figs. 1 and 2 for three chemical states of air -- frozen vibration, equilibrium vibration and frozen chemistry, and full chemical equilibrium. The equilibrium species concentrations are presented as a function of incident shock velocity in Fig. 3. These conditions were computed by combining the Rankine-Hugoniot shock relations with the equation of state for air. The calculations of thermodynamic properties and composition of equilibrium air were based on published spectroscopic data.^{15,16} Note that in equilibrium, oxygen dissociation becomes appreciable and the NO concentration reaches several percent. The heavy lines in Figs. 1 and 2 indicate the range of experimental data.

The intensity of the radiation from the entire 5.3 micron band is directly related to the vibrational energy even for nonequilibrium vibrational distributions. This can be shown as follows: the energy E invested in vibration is

$$E = \sum_m N_m E_m \quad (1)$$

N_m and E_m are the number density and energy of the m^{th} vibrational level. In the harmonic oscillator approximation, this becomes

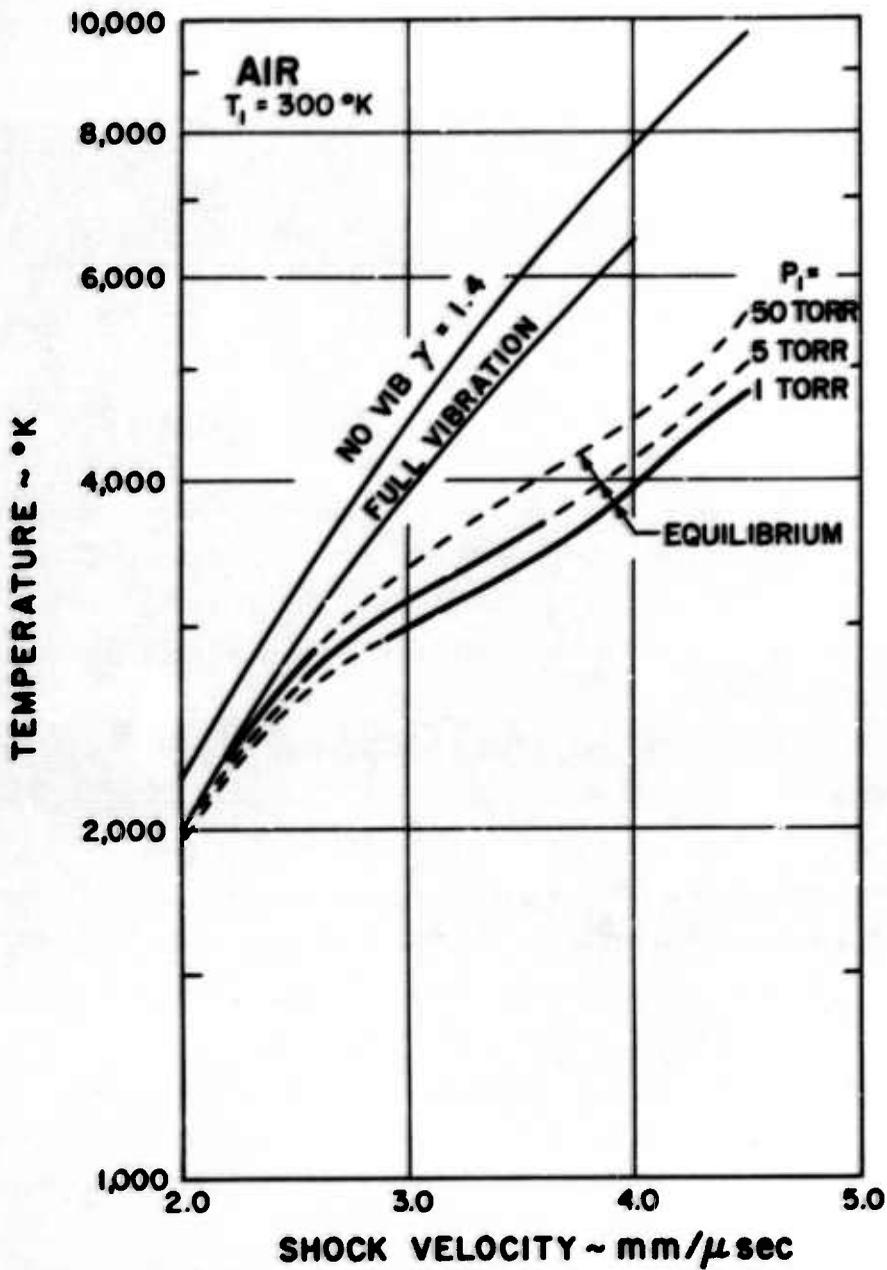


Fig. 1 Temperature of shock heated air as a function of shock velocity for several initial pressures. The heavy lines indicate the range of the experimental data.

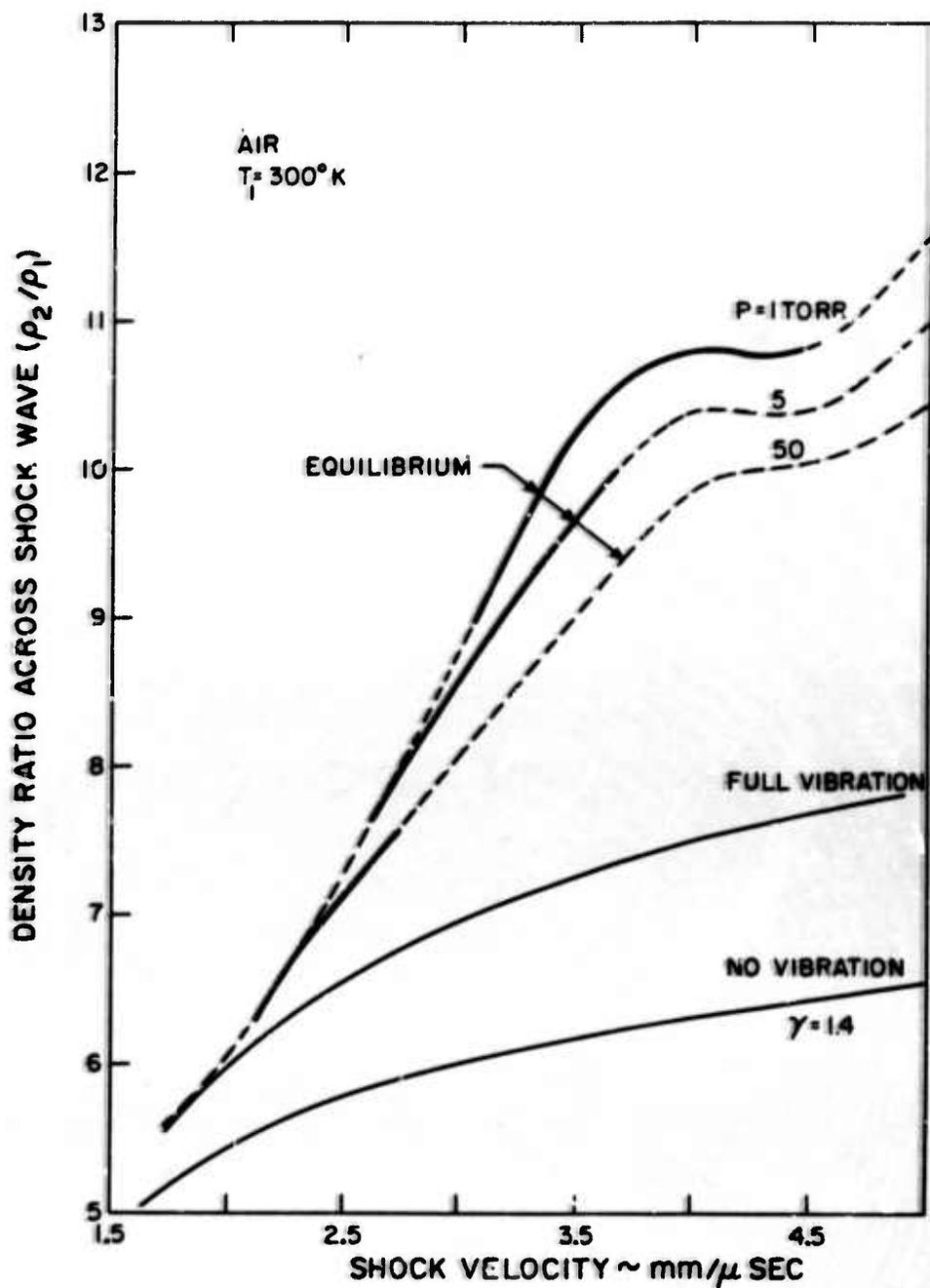


Fig. 2 Density of shock heated air as a function of shock velocity for several initial pressures. The heavy lines indicate the range of the experimental data.

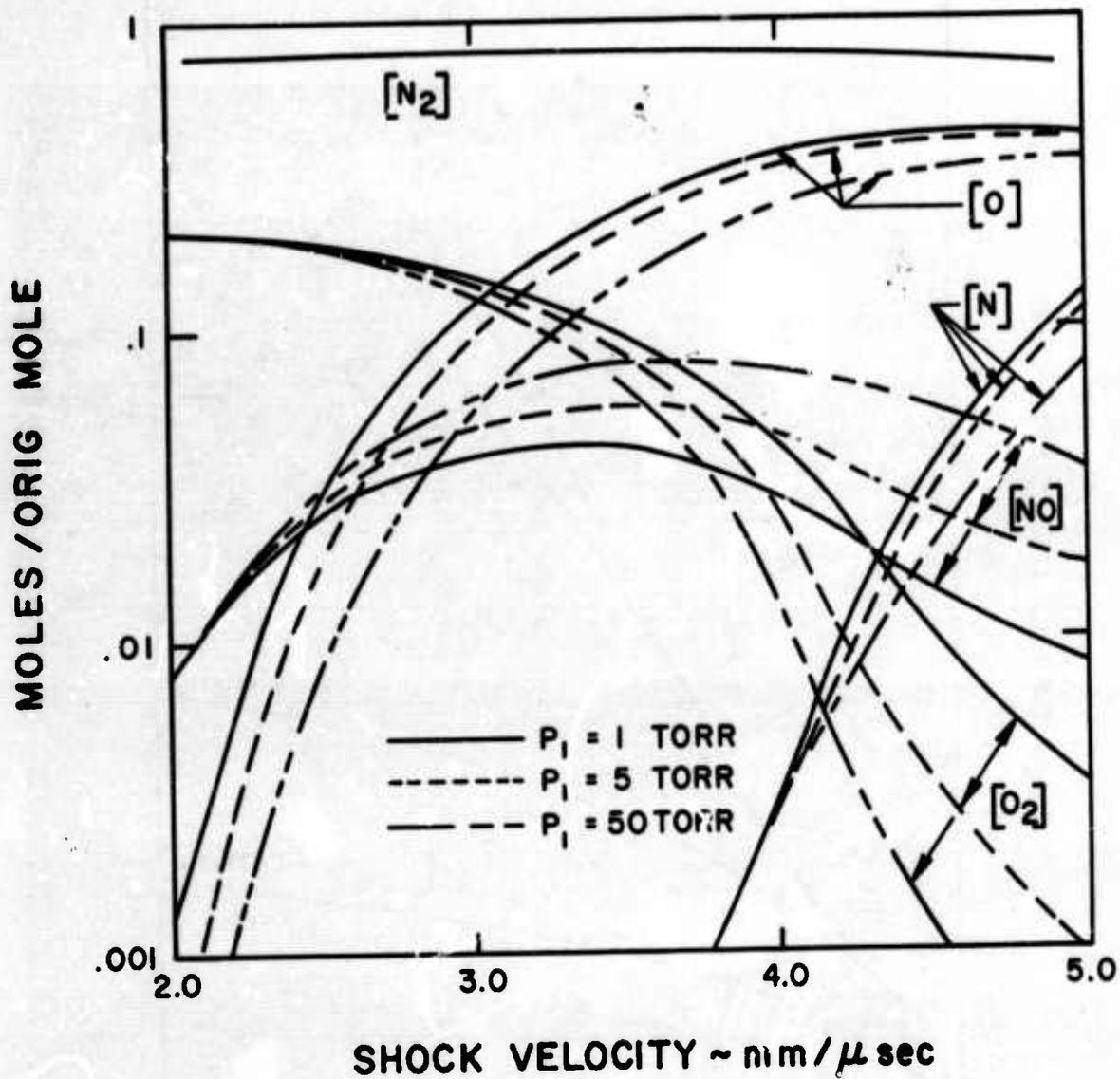


Fig. 3 Species concentrations at chemical equilibrium as a function of shock velocity for several initial pressures.

$$E = \sum_m N_m m E_0 \quad (2)$$

where E_0 is the energy gap between equally spaced levels. In the same approximation, the infrared emission, I , is due to the radiative transitions between adjacent levels.

$$I = \sum_m \frac{N_m (h\nu_m)}{\tau_m} \quad (3)$$

where $h\nu_m = E_0$ and τ_m are the photon energy and the lifetime of the m^{th} level. The lifetime, τ_m , determined from the dipole selection rule for harmonic oscillators, is $\tau_m = \tau_1/m$. (In this paper, we find that τ_1 is approximately 0.1 second for the NO fundamental.) Substituting for $h\nu_m$ and τ_m in Eq. (3), and noting the similarity with Eq., (2),

$$I = \frac{1}{\tau_1} \sum_m N_m m E_0 = \frac{E}{\tau_1} \quad (4)$$

Thus, in the harmonic oscillator approximation, the infrared emission is directly proportional to the vibrational energy. In practice, the coupling between vibrational and rotational modes must be included; however, the emission from the entire band remains within a few percent of that given by Eq. (4).

NO Vibrational Relaxation in Air

In the harmonic oscillator approximation, the vibrational energy is related to the vibrational temperature, T_v , by the relation

$$E = \frac{NE_0}{e^{E_0/kT_v} - 1} \quad (5)$$

where N is the number density of NO molecules and k is the Boltzmann constant. It has been shown¹⁷ that, in an abrupt change in the gas temperature causing vibrational lag, the vibrational level population adjusts so

that a vibrational temperature T_v exists during the relaxation process.

In order to relate the infrared emission, I , to the NO concentration, N , by Eq. (5), the NO vibrational temperature must be known. In a chemical experiment, the infrared signal can be used as a direct measure of the NO concentration only when the NO vibrational and translational temperatures are equal. However, immediately behind the shock, the vibrational temperature of NO (also of N_2 and O_2) is less than the kinetic temperature, and the infrared emission is less than that for equilibrium. Thus, a correct interpretation of the infrared signal requires a knowledge of the vibrational relaxation rates. The general problem of vibrational coupling between NO, O_2 and N_2 is considered in detail in Appendix A. The results of these calculations are reviewed in Section IV where they are applied to the experimental data. Fortunately, the vibrational lag correction to the data is small.

Chemical Reactions for NO Formation

The chemical reactions leading to NO production have been reviewed in the literature.²⁻⁴ While over a score of possible reactions are tabulated, there are only a few important reactions and these can be arranged in three groups:

(1) Direct production of NO by the reaction

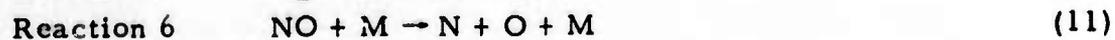


(2) Atomic shuttle reactions which convert N_2 and O_2 to 2NO



These reactions have an incubation time until there is sufficient production of atomic oxygen; at such time they become the dominant reactions producing NO.

(3) Atom producing reactions



M can be any of the atoms or molecules shown in Reactions 1 to 6.

The reaction $N_2 + O_2 \rightarrow N_2O + O$ could also be a source of atomic oxygen, but its rate is not known.

Our experimental measurements were compared to calculated NO formation rates which were based on the rate constants compiled by Wray⁴ and shown in Table I. These rates were varied in order to determine the NO production sensitivity to the rate constants. A comparison of these calculations with the data is presented in Section IV.

TABLE 1 RATE CONSTANTS FOR CHEMICAL PROCESSES⁴

| # | REACTION | CATALYST M | RATE CONSTANT EXPRESSION |
|-----|---|--|--|
| (1) | $N_2 + O_2 + 1.9 \text{ ev} \rightleftharpoons 2NO$ | ---- | $k_1 = 9.1 \times 10^{24} T^{-5/2} \exp(-28,500/RT)$ |
| (2) | $N_2 + O + 3.3 \text{ ev} \rightleftharpoons NO + N$ | ---- | $k_2 = 7 \times 10^{13} \exp(-75,500/RT)$ |
| (3) | $O_2 + N \rightleftharpoons NO + O + 1.4 \text{ ev}$ | ---- | $k_3 = 1.34 \times 10^{10} T \exp(-43,500/RT)$ |
| (4) | $O_2 + M + 5.1 \text{ ev} \rightleftharpoons 2O + M$ D = 118,000 | Ar, N, NO N ₂ O ₂ O | $k_4 = 2.5 \times 10^{11} T^{1/2} (D/RT)^{3/2} \exp(-D/RT)$ 2k ₄ , Ar 9k ₄ , Ar 25k ₄ , Ar |
| (5) | $N_2 + M + 9.8 \text{ ev} \rightleftharpoons 2N + M$ D = 224,900 | Ar, O, O ₂ , NO N ₂ N | $k_5 = 1.7 \times 10^{12} T^{1/2} (D/RT) \exp(-D/RT)$ 4.2 × 10 ¹² T ^{1/2} (D/RT) exp(-D/RT) 3.2 × 10 ¹² T ^{1/2} (D/RT) ² exp(-D/RT) |
| (6) | $NO + M + 6.5 \text{ ev} \rightleftharpoons N + O + M$ D = 150,000 | Ar, O ₂ , N ₂ NO, O, N | $k_6 = 7.0 \times 10^{10} T^{1/2} (D/RT)^2 \exp(-D/RT)$ 20k ₆ , Ar |

III. EXPERIMENTAL MEASUREMENTS

Experimental Apparatus

The experiments were carried out in a 1.5 inch diameter stainless steel shock tube composed of a driver, a 2.2 foot long low pressure section, and a large expansion tank at the upstream end. X-scribed stainless steel diaphragms were ruptured by high pressure H₂ or H₂-N₂ mixtures. A 10 mil cellophane diaphragm separated the low pressure section from the expansion tank. To maintain a low impurity level and also to reduce the pumping time, special valves were developed which permitted changing diaphragms at the driver and expansion tank while the shock tube was under a partial vacuum. Thus, room air did not enter the shock tube between runs. These valves had an auxiliary chamber in which new diaphragms could be pumped on and out-gassed before insertion in the shock tube. The shock tube was evacuated to a pressure of 2×10^{-5} torr or lower by an oil diffusion pump with a liquid N₂ cooled trap. The leak rate after sealing off the shock tube was approximately 0.3 microns Hg per minute. Since the initial gas was dried room air, the effects of this small air leak on the chemistry was negligible.

The shock velocity was measured with a series of platinum resistance heat transfer gauges spaced several feet apart. The heat transfer signals were displayed on a raster oscilloscope. The distance between gauges was measured to ± 0.01 inch and the time between stations was determined to $1/2$ microsecond. The maximum error in the shock velocity determination was $\pm 0.65\%$. The shock velocity attenuation was constant along the length of the tube and was only a function of shock velocity: 0.20 mm per microsecond per meter length of tube at the high velocities, and 0.074 mm per microsecond per meter length of the tube at the low velocities. Where the effects of shock attenuation became important, the data were not analyzed in detail.

A schematic diagram of the section of the shock tube for the infrared measurements is shown in Fig. 4. This section, located 18 feet from the

EXPERIMENTAL ARRANGEMENT

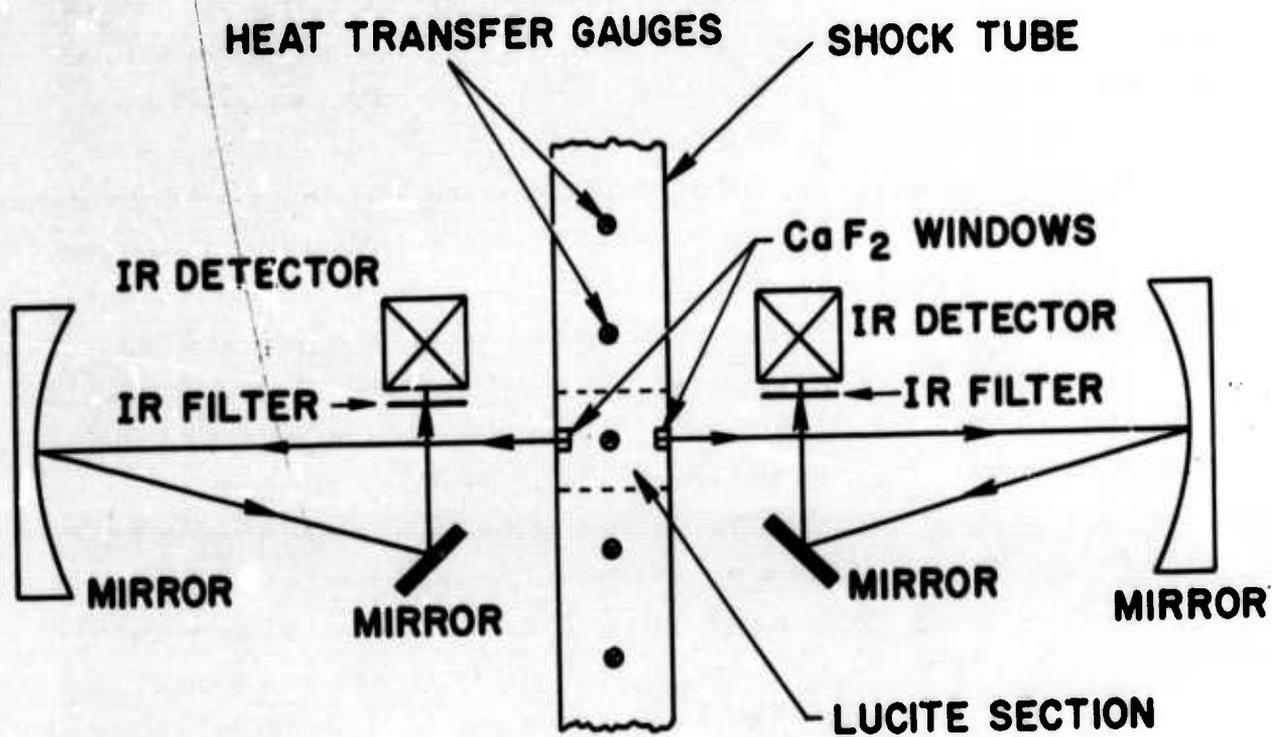


Fig. 4 Schematic diagram of shock tube section with infrared detection systems.

diaphragm, was made of lucite, a poor infrared reflector. At 5 microns wavelength, lucite is opaque with less than 5% reflectivity. In the initial runs, metal walls were used, but they gave extraneous signals due to reflected radiation originating downstream of the window. Two infrared optical systems were located in the same plane normal to the shock tube axis. The detector in each system was imaged on the inner surface of the CaF_2 infrared window with an 8 inch diameter, 10 inch focal length spherical mirror set at approximately unit magnification. An infrared filter was placed in front of each detector to isolate the band. The CaF_2 infrared windows were radiused to the inside diameter of the shock tube. System I, used for good spatial resolution, had a 1 inch by 8 inch lucite aperture over the mirror, the narrow dimension being along the axis of the shock tube. The 1 mm by 5 mm active area of the (Philco) InSb infrared detector defined the image size with the 1 mm width imaged along the axis of the shock wave. There were no slits at the shock tube. Measurements with this InSb detector required rise time corrections when the signal rise time was faster than four microseconds. For the low shock velocity runs, System II used the entire mirror area and a 5 mm diameter (Philco) InSb infrared detector. This system has the maximum sensitivity and was used to investigate the impurity level and the initial NO low level signals. For the high shock velocities, the aperture on the mirror was reduced to 1" by 8" and a (Westinghouse) Ge: Au detector with a 1mm by 3mm effective sensitive area and with 0.7 microsecond overall system rise time was used. The outputs of the infrared detectors were fed directly to standard low noise high gain electronics and then displayed on oscilloscopes.

Figure 5 shows the spectral response of the InSb and Ge: Au detectors and the interference filters used in the experiment.

In most of the shock tube runs, the initial gas was room air passed through an ascarite filter and a liquid nitrogen trap to remove H_2O and CO_2 . A series of check runs in synthetic air made from Matheson high purity N_2 and O_2 showed no difference in results when dried room air was used. The H_2 used in the driver was replaced by He and a series of runs were repeated. The purpose of these runs was to ensure that

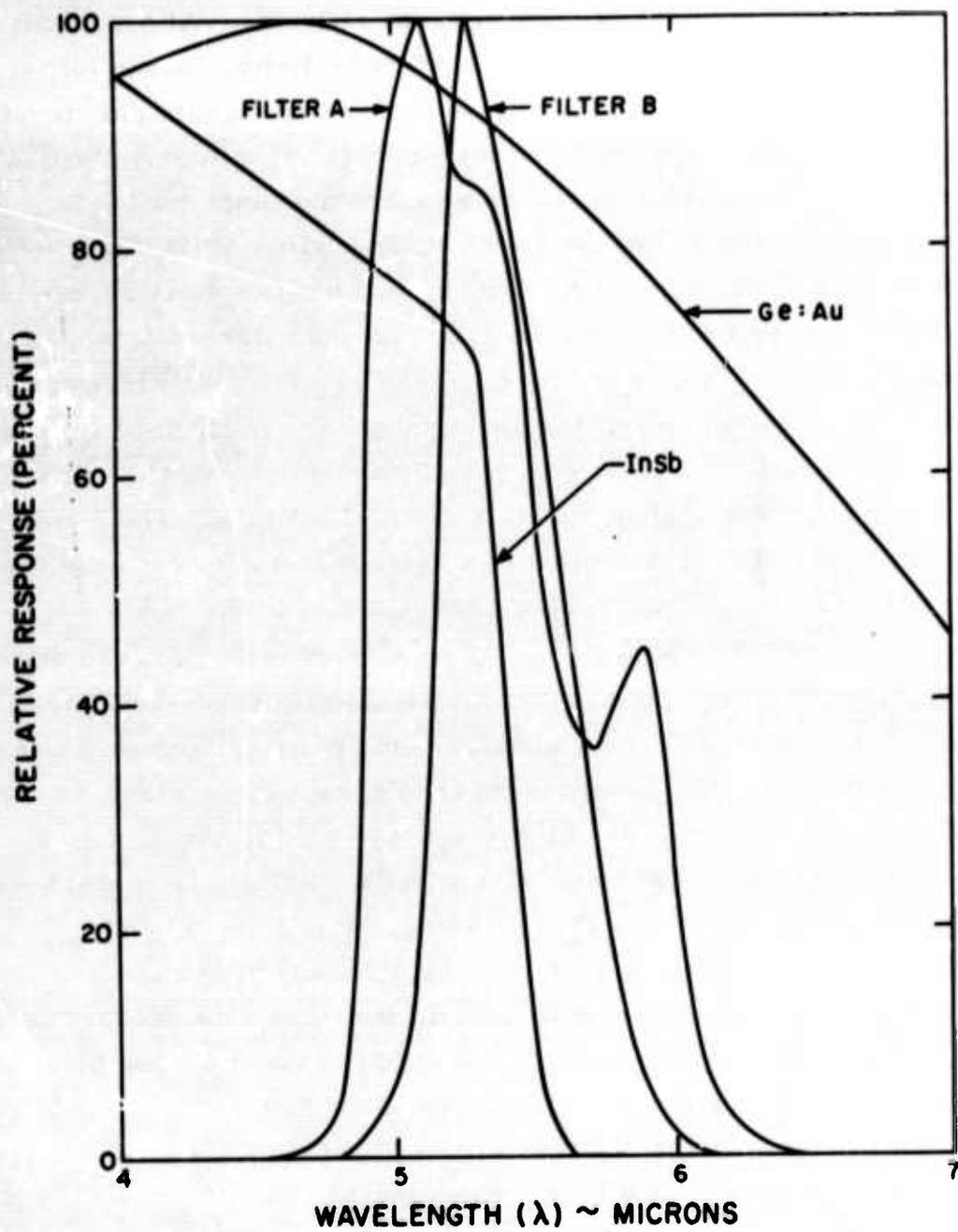


Fig. 5 The relative response for indium antimonide and gold-doped germanium infrared detectors as a function of wavelength. The relative transmittance of the filters used in the experiment is also shown as a function of wavelength. The curve for the gold-doped germanium detector was supplied by the manufacturer; the other curves were obtained from laboratory measurements.

hydrogen compounds from the previous run, that might be produced in the mixing region and deposited on the walls of the shock tube, would not contribute to the infrared emission. There were no detectable differences using the H₂ or He driver. Another series of runs was also made in pure N₂ and O₂ to check for infrared emission from impurities in these gases, and from boundary layer impurities such as lucite ablation products. For the N₂ and O₂ runs, only System II with the 5 mm diameter InSb detector showed a small signal, while System I, eight times less sensitive had no indication above noise. The signals remained relatively constant with shock velocity using either N₂ or O₂. This radiation might have been due to boundary layer effects or impurities in the gases; the intensity was the equivalent to NO radiation from a 2 to 4 x 10⁻⁴ NO concentration. These signals could be increased by increasing the shock tube base pressure to several microns Hg before filling the shock tube. This increased signal was consistent with about 10 ppm of water vapor.

Infrared System Calibration

The output signal from the infrared system was calibrated to give the NO concentration in the shock tube. In a series of shock tube runs using NO-Ar mixtures the NO infrared signal was determined as a function of the NO temperature, concentration and partial pressure. Figure 6 shows data oscillograms for 1, 10 and 100 percent NO in Ar runs. The voltage of the level portion (after either NO vibrational relaxation or system response time) normalized to 1 torr NO partial density is plotted as a function of the temperature in Fig. 7.

The curve in Fig. 7 is the calculated NO emission using Eq. (B-12) which assumes an optically thin gas; that is, the contribution from each molecule is additive. The height of the curve was adjusted for the best fit to the data. Note the excellent agreement with the computed curve except for the runs with 100% NO at an initial pressure of 5 torr, which are about 30% low. This decrease is due to self-absorption effects in which the center of the lines become black. For the shock tube runs in air, the partial pressure of nitric oxide behind the shock is less than 1/50 this value. In addition, there is pressure broadening by O₂ and N₂. Thus, the air data does not

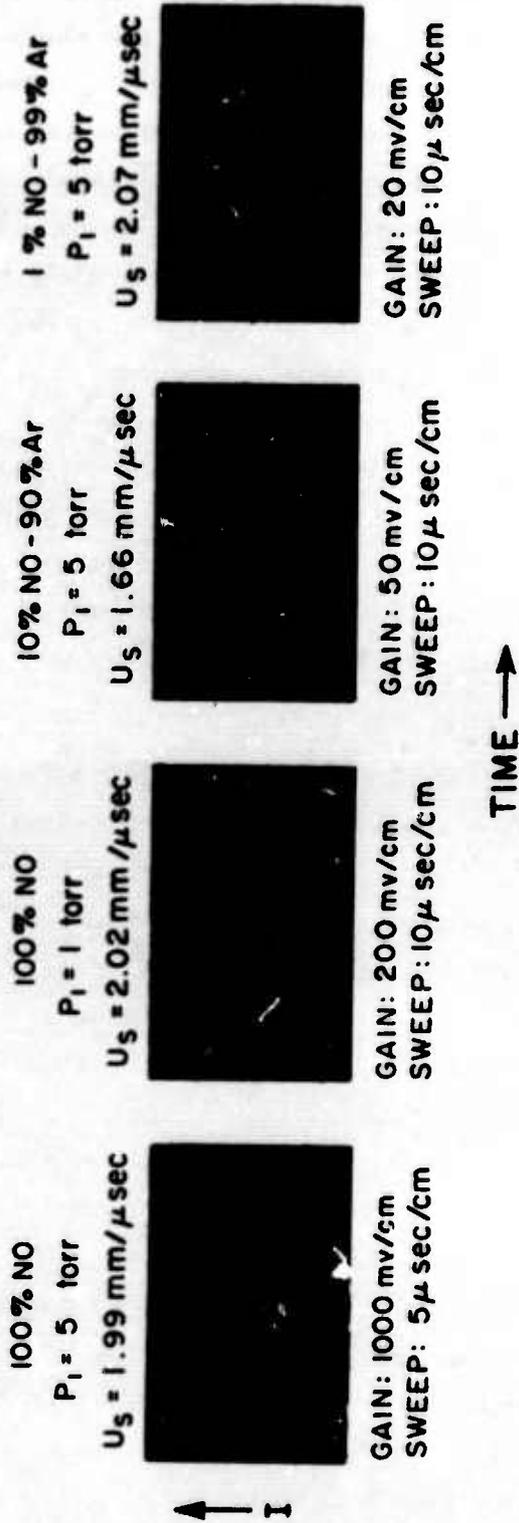


Fig. 6 Representative oscillograms showing the 5 micron band calibration data.

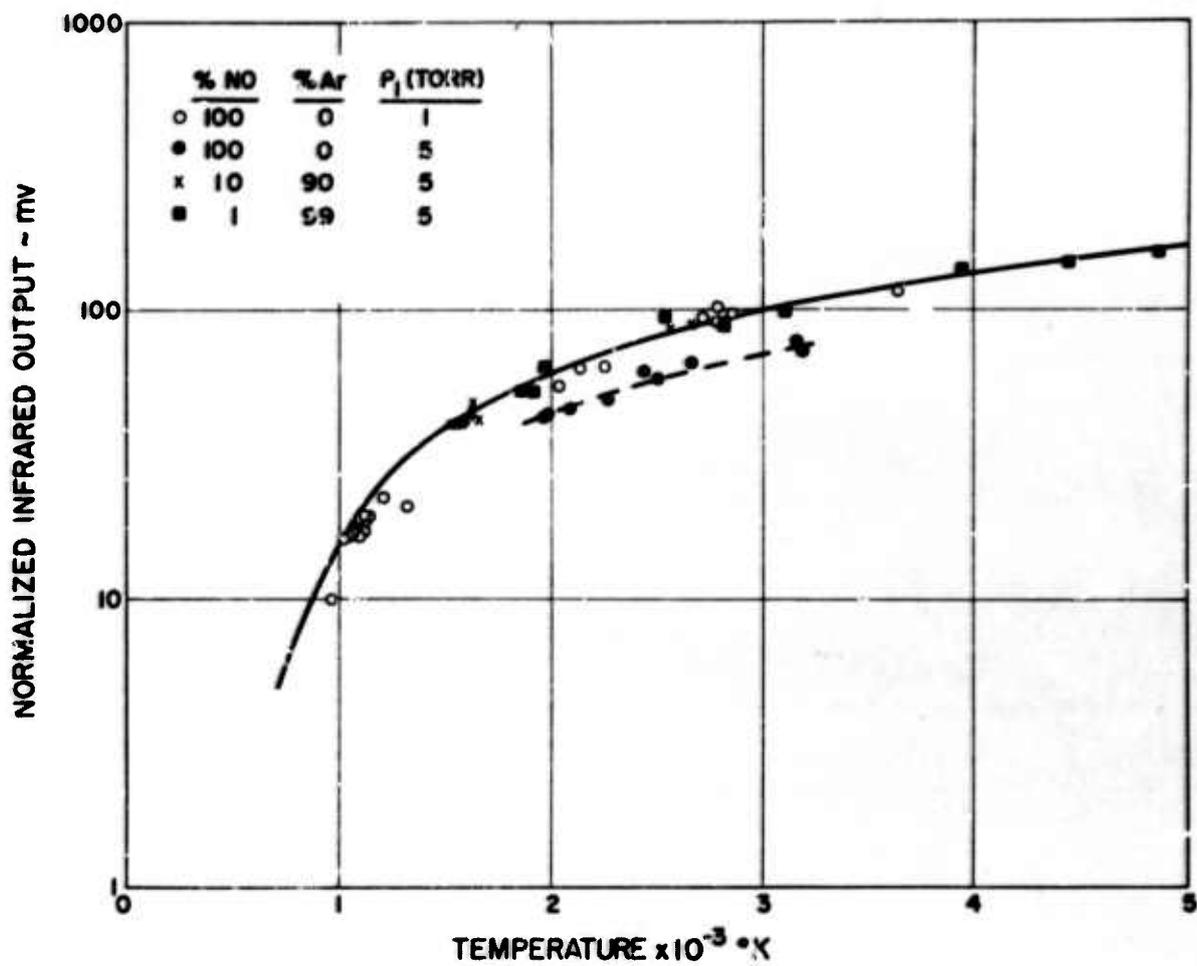


Fig. 7 NO infrared emission as a function of temperature. The solid curve shows the computed intensity variation with temperature assuming the weak line approximation. The data was normalized at (1/760) STP.

require corrections for self-absorption; the infrared emission is proportional to NO concentration with the temperature dependence given in Fig. 7, see also Appendix B.

The infrared systems were also calibrated and checked periodically with a black body light source. The primary purpose of the calibration was to ensure that there were no changes in the sensitivity during the experiment. A portion of the shock tube was replaced with a black body at 500°C. A chopper wheel in front of the source furnished an AC signal. In order to vary the energy incident on the infrared detector, apertures were placed over the focusing mirrors, always keeping the black body temperature at 500°C. This checked the linearity of the systems, and furnished signals with the same range of intensity as in the shock tube runs.

Figure 8 shows the black body calibration signal as a function of the exposed fraction, X, of the mirror area. The data reproduced to within 10% over the experimental period. This calibration is for System I with the InSb cell and filter B. Similar calibrations were obtained for the other systems.

NO Fundamental Band Intensity

The band intensity of the 5.3 micron NO fundamental band can be determined from the equilibrium NO emission measurements presented in Fig. 7. The previous discussions showed that the gas was optically thin. Thus, we can use the formulas developed in Appendix B. We start with Eq. (B-12) which gives the band emission coefficient c_{em} as a function of the NO emission, S, and the black body emission, S_B ,

$$c_{em} = \left(\frac{S}{S_B} \right) \left(\frac{x}{x_0} \right) \left(\frac{1}{N\ell} \right) \left\{ \frac{\sigma \tau I_b d\nu}{\sum_{\nu'} \sum_{j'} \dots} \right\} \quad (\text{B-12}), \quad (12)$$

Numerical values of the spectral and temperature dependence for the bracketed factor are presented in Fig. B-1. Use of the ratio S/S_B eliminates the need to determine the optical solid angle and the absolute magnitude of the filter transmission, τ , and detector sensitivity, σ .

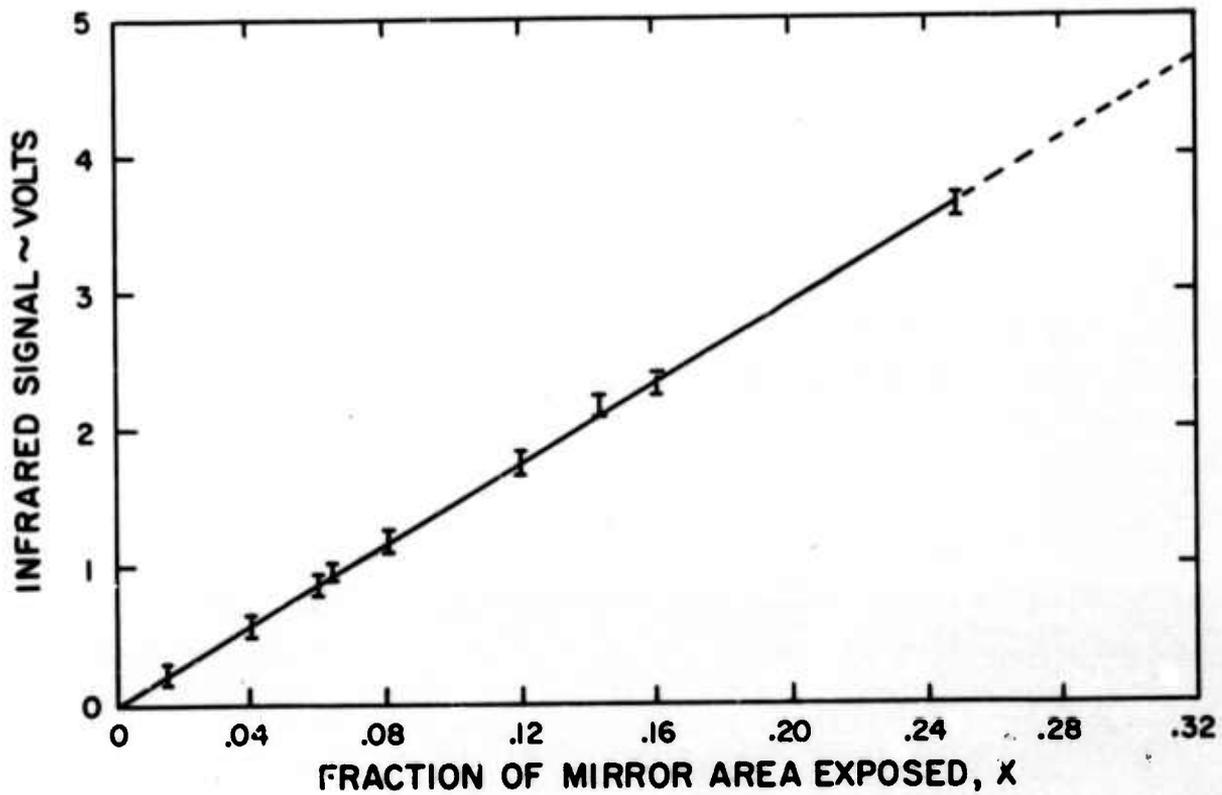


Fig. 8 The static calibration of the infrared recording system is accomplished by replacing the shock tube with a 500°C black body and varying the area of the collecting mirror. The observed signal is plotted as a function of the fraction of the mirror area uncovered.

To illustrate how Eq. (12) is used, we will determine c_{em} with the data at 3000°K. From the data shown in Fig. 7, $N = 3.6 \times 10^{16}$. $X_0 = 1/2 \pi$, $l = 3.81$ cm, and $S = 100$ mV at 3000°K. From Fig. 8, $(S_B/X) = 1.45 \times 10^4$ mV. The value of the bracketed factor at 3000°K is 9.25×10^{-8} , see Fig. B-1. Inserting these values into Eq. (12), c_{em} becomes

$$c_{em} = \frac{(10^2)}{(3.81)} \frac{(2\pi)(9.25 \times 10^{-8})}{(1.45 \times 10^4)(3.6 \times 10^{16})} = 2.96 \times 10^{-26} \frac{\text{ergs/sec}}{\text{part-ster}} \text{ cm}^4 \quad (13)$$

c_{em} was calculated using the data in Fig. 7 by a least squares fit to Eq. (12).

$$c_{em} = (2.97 \pm 0.4) \times 10^{-26} \text{ (statistical error)} \quad (14)$$

This uncertainty is due to the scatter of the NO emission data. In addition, we have considered the systematic errors listed in Table II. The overall uncertainty in c_{em} due to systematic errors is 15%. Combining the systematic errors and the statistical variance, the overall error becomes

$$c_{em} = (2.97 \pm 0.54) \times 10^{-26} \frac{\text{ergs/sec}}{\text{particle-ster}} \text{ cm}^4 \quad (15)$$

The NO band intensity can be obtained directly from the emission coefficient. The band intensity is defined as the integral band absorption of an optically thin gas normalized to 1 cm³ of NO at standard temperature and pressure. In terms of c_{em} , the band intensity becomes¹⁵

$$\int_{\text{band}} \mu dv = \frac{N_0 \nu_1 c_{em}}{2 hc^2} \quad (16)$$

$\nu_1 = 1876 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, is the wave number at the center of the band; h = Planck's constant, c = velocity of light and $N_0 = 2.69 \times 10^{19}$ (Loschmidt's Number). Inserting our value for c_{em} , the band intensity becomes

TABLE II

SYSTEMATIC ERRORS

| Source | Type | Value | c_{em} Uncertainty |
|--------------------|--------------------|--|----------------------|
| Black Body | Temperature | $\pm 2.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ at 500°C | } 2% |
| Black Body | Emissivity | $\pm 1\%$ at 99% | |
| Calibration Mirror | Reflectivity | 3% | <1% |
| Filter | Spectral Response | <0.2% | <1% |
| Filter | Transmittance | 3% | 4% |
| Detector | Spectral Response | <1% | <12% |
| Detector | Relative Amplitude | <5% | <7% |

$$\int_{\text{band}} \mu dv = 124 \pm 22 \text{ atm}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}. \quad (17)$$

The values of the 5.3μ fundamental NO band intensity obtained by others are shown in Table III. These values fall into two groups -- (1) high values and (2) low values. The high values are in general agreement with the original work of Havens¹⁸ who used the optical dispersion method, a simple and reasonably accurate way of determining the fundamental band intensity of a diatomic molecule. The work of Penner and Weber²⁰ was repeated by Varanasi and Penner²⁶ where the latter obtained a higher value. No explanation for the difference in the two reported values was presented. The low value obtained by Vincent-Geisse²¹ is difficult to explain. Fukuda,²⁵ and Breeze and Ferriso²⁷ worked at intensity levels where the line centers were black and the weak line approximation was no longer valid. This would be an important correction and should have been considered in the reduction of their data.

NO Production in Shock Heated Air

We will now present the measurements of NO production in shock heated air. Only the "raw" uncorrected data is discussed in this section. Corrections and analysis of the data are presented in Section IV.

Measurements of NO production in shock heated air are shown in Fig. 9. The NO infrared emission is given as a function of laboratory time for several shock velocities in the range of 2.28 to 4.02 mm/ μ sec and at pressures of 1, 5 and 50 torr. The shock heated gas conditions for the range of air data are presented in Figs. 1, 2 and 3. The infrared signal shows an initial incubation period with a low voltage level; it then rises rapidly to a peak value. At shock velocities below 2.6 mm/ μ sec the infrared signal rises monotonically, while at higher velocities the NO concentration peaks above equilibrium and approaches equilibrium from

TABLE III

INTENSITY MEASUREMENTS FOR THE FUNDAMENTAL BAND OF NO

Values shown are referred to density at STP

| Author | Method | Intensity $\text{cm}^{-2}\text{atm}^{-1}$ |
|--|-------------------------|---|
| Havens (1938) ¹⁸ | Optical Dispersion | 121 |
| Dinsmore (1949) ¹⁹ | Zero Path Extrapolation | 145 \pm 29 |
| Penner and Weber (1953) ²⁰ | Pressure Broadening | 70 \pm 7 |
| Vincent-Geisse (1954) ²¹ | Line Shape | 82 |
| Schurin and Clough (1963) ²² | Self Broadening | 111 \pm 7 |
| James (1964) ²³ | Line Shape | 138 \pm 6 |
| Breeze and Ferriso (1964) ²⁴ | Integrated Emission | 76 \pm 7 |
| Fukuda (1965) ²⁵ | Integrated Emission | 70 to 77 |
| Ford and Shaw (1965) ²⁶ | Integrated Absorption | 115 \pm 12 |
| Abels and Shaw (1966) ²⁷ | Line Shape | 122 \pm 6 |
| Varanasi and Penner (1966) ²⁸ | Pressure Broadening | 128 \pm 10 |
| This Experiment | Integrated Emission | 124 \pm 22 |

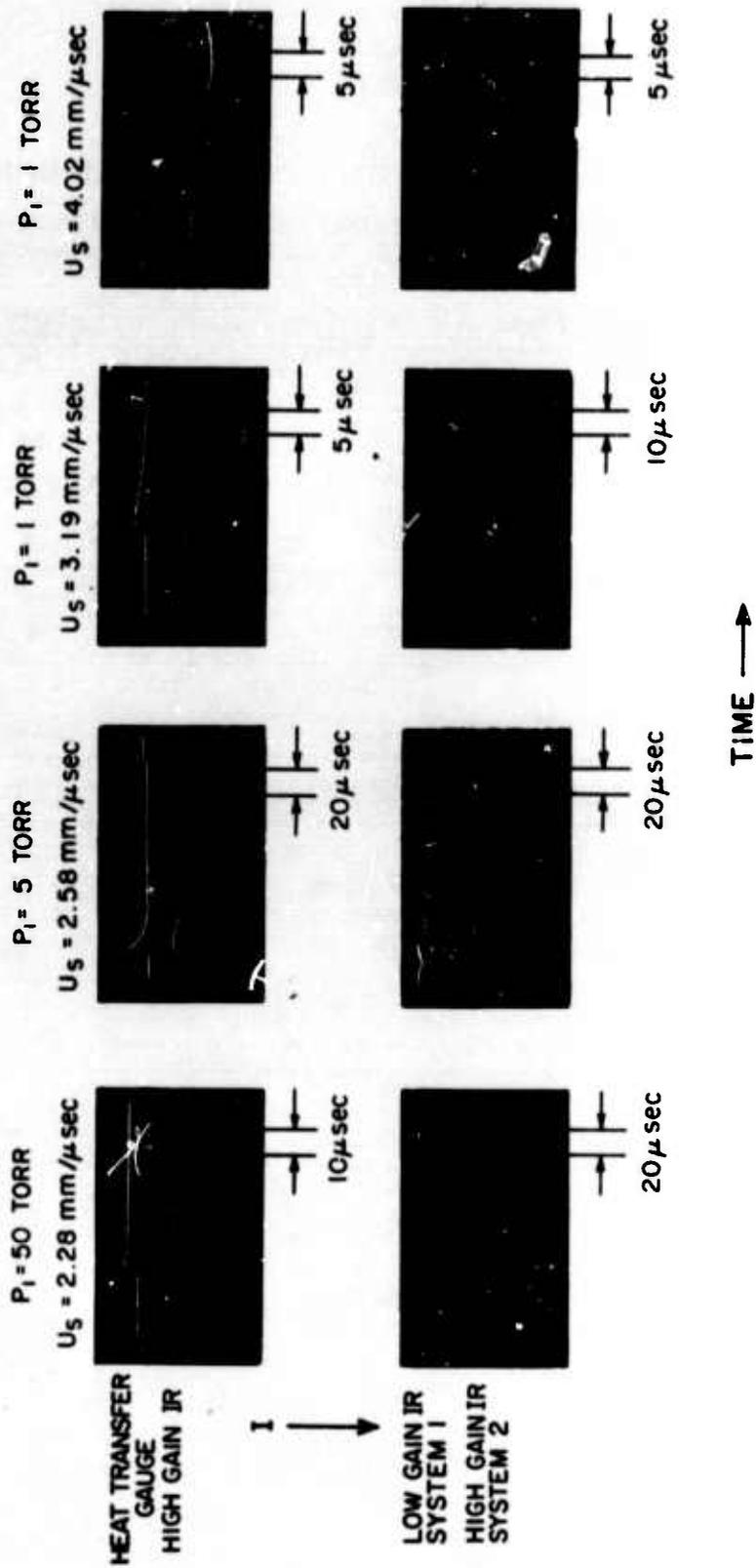


Fig. 9 The NO infrared emission in shock heated air for several conditions. The heat transfer gauge indicates the time of shock wave passage.

above. Figure 10 indicates features of the data to be analyzed: (1) the incubation time, (2) the time to reach 1/4, 1/2 and 3/4 the peak intensity, (3) the NO concentration at peak intensity. Only qualitative analysis was performed on the data after the peak intensity because of the uncertain corrections due to the effects of the side wall boundary layer and shock attenuation.

The incubation time may be defined in two ways: (1) the time at which a tangent to the fast rising portion intersects the zero level, and (2) the time at which the infrared signal becomes larger than the background level. Essentially the same incubation time is obtained using either definition. Figure 11 shows the observed incubation (laboratory) time as a function of incident shock velocity. The data were binary scaled to an initial pressure of 5 torr by multiplying the observed time by $(P_1/5)$, where P_1 is the initial pressure in torr. The data show that the incubation time has bimolecular scaling. The solid curves show the N_2 vibrational relaxation time in pure N_2 ²⁹ and in air.³⁰ The possible connections between the incubation time and the N_2 vibrational relaxation time are discussed in the next section.

The NO mole fraction at the incubation time as determined from the infrared signal is shown in Fig. 12. As mentioned above, at this time the infrared signal becomes larger than the background signal, corresponding to a NO mole fraction of 2 to 4×10^{-4} . Also shown in Fig. 12 is the predicted mole fraction of NO using the reaction mechanisms and rate constants given in Table I.⁴ For shock velocities below $2.4 \text{ mm}/\mu \text{ sec}$ the data is consistent with the predicted NO production. However, by $3.0 \text{ mm}/\mu \text{ sec}$ there is over an order of magnitude difference. This difference in the early NO production is the only major discrepancy between our experimental data and predictions; and is due to the predicted extra NO production by the reaction $N_2 + O_2 \rightarrow 2NO$.

After the incubation period the infrared signal rises rapidly to the peak value. The time for the infrared signal to reach one-quarter peak height ($\tau_{1/4pk}$), half peak height ($\tau_{1/2pk}$) and three-quarters peak height ($\tau_{3/4pk}$) are shown in Figs. 13, 14 and 15. The half peak intensity point is nearly half the peak NO mole fraction. The temperature is higher at the half peak point than at the peak, thus, the NO emission per molecule is larger. This

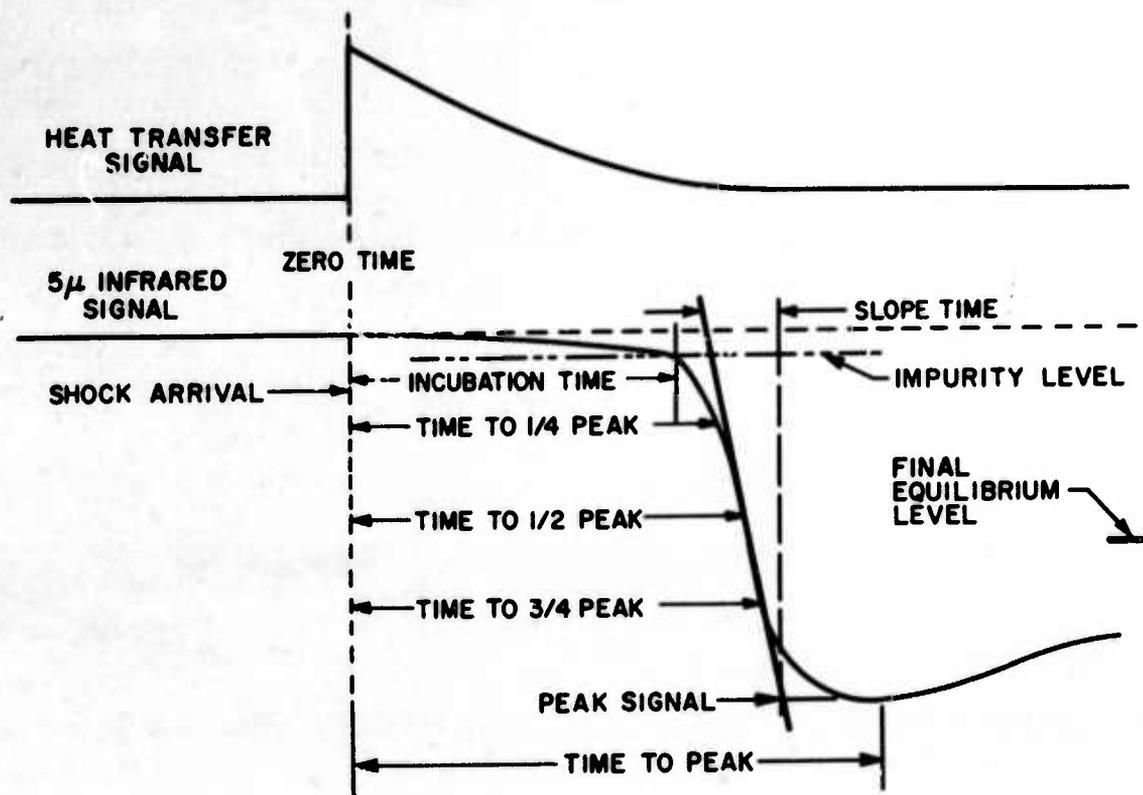


Fig. 10 Schematic drawing of the air data defining the various experimental measurements.

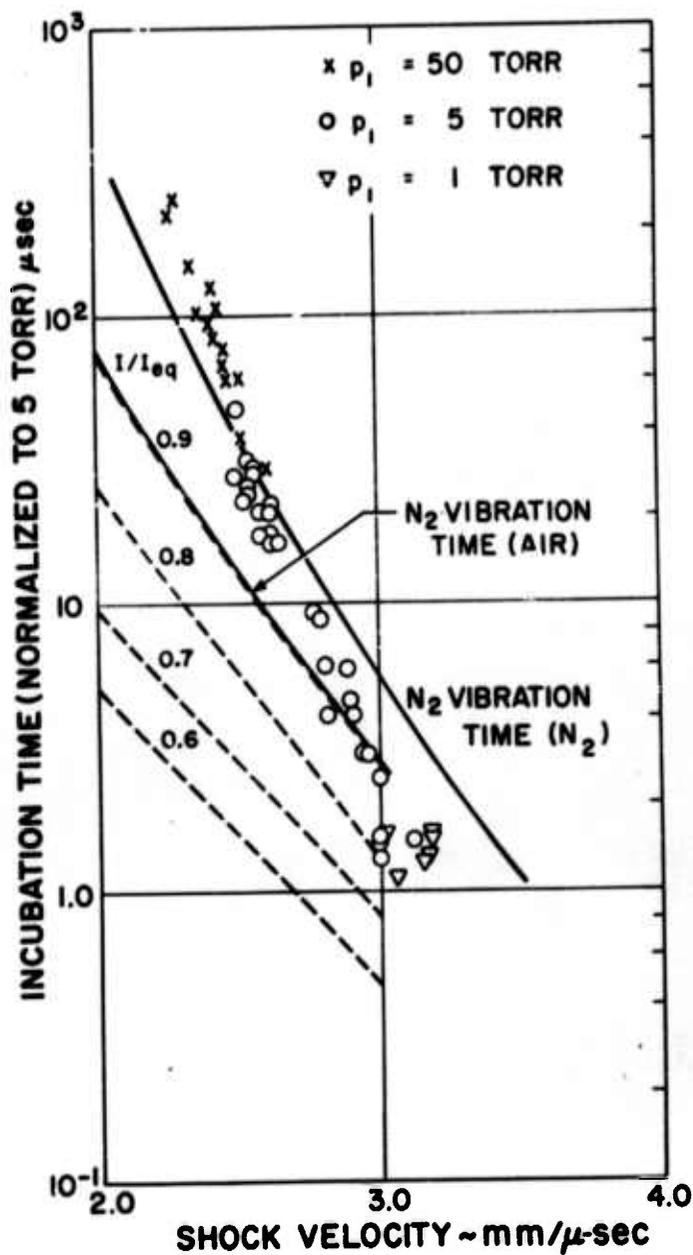


Fig. 11 Measured incubation time normalized binary to 5 torr initial pressure by bimolecular scaling. Solid curves use N_2 vibrational times in pure N_2 and air. Dashed curves, NO emission to that of vibration equilibrium emission (I/I_{eq}).

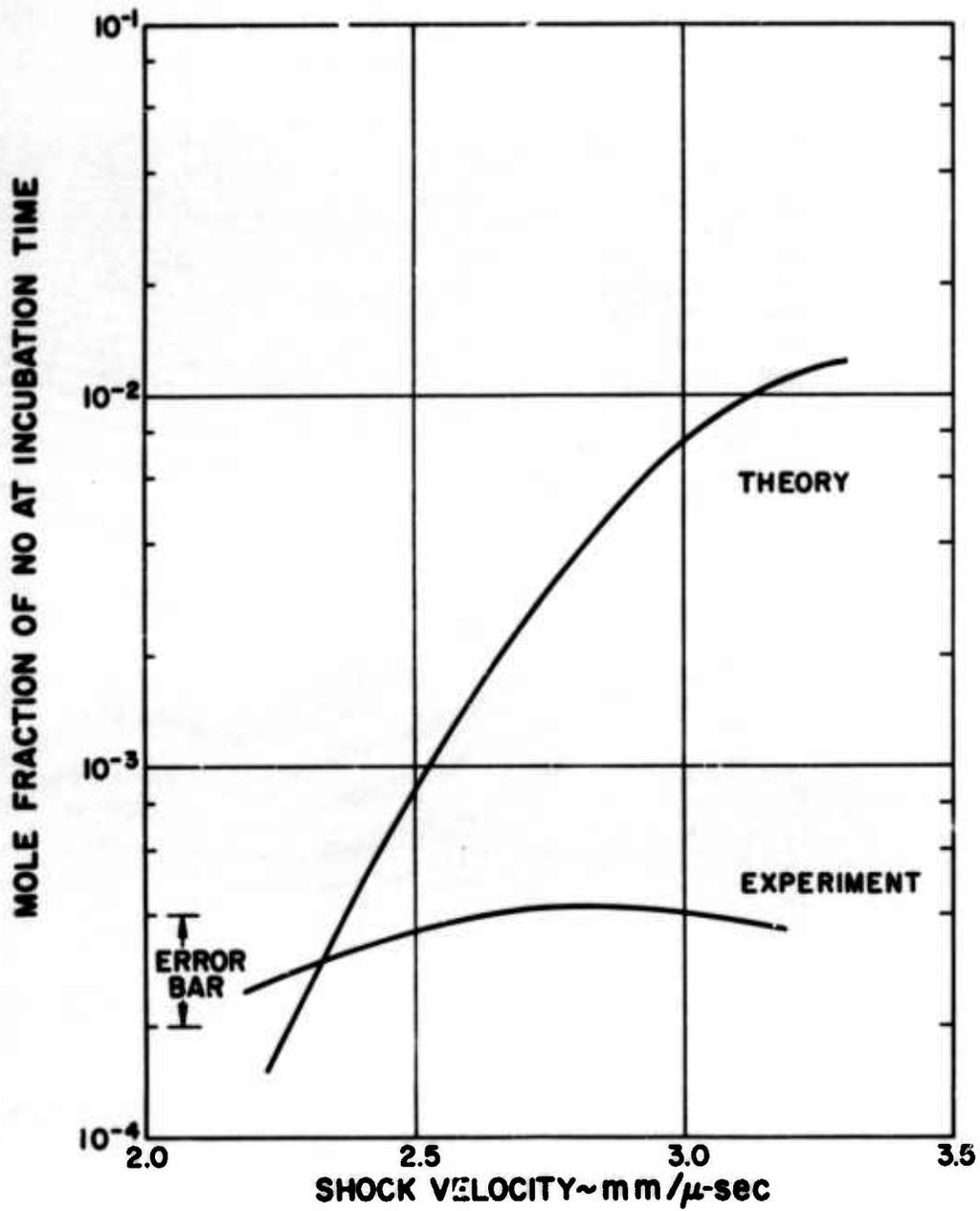


Fig. 12 Computed and measured NO mole fraction at the incubation time shown in Fig. 11.

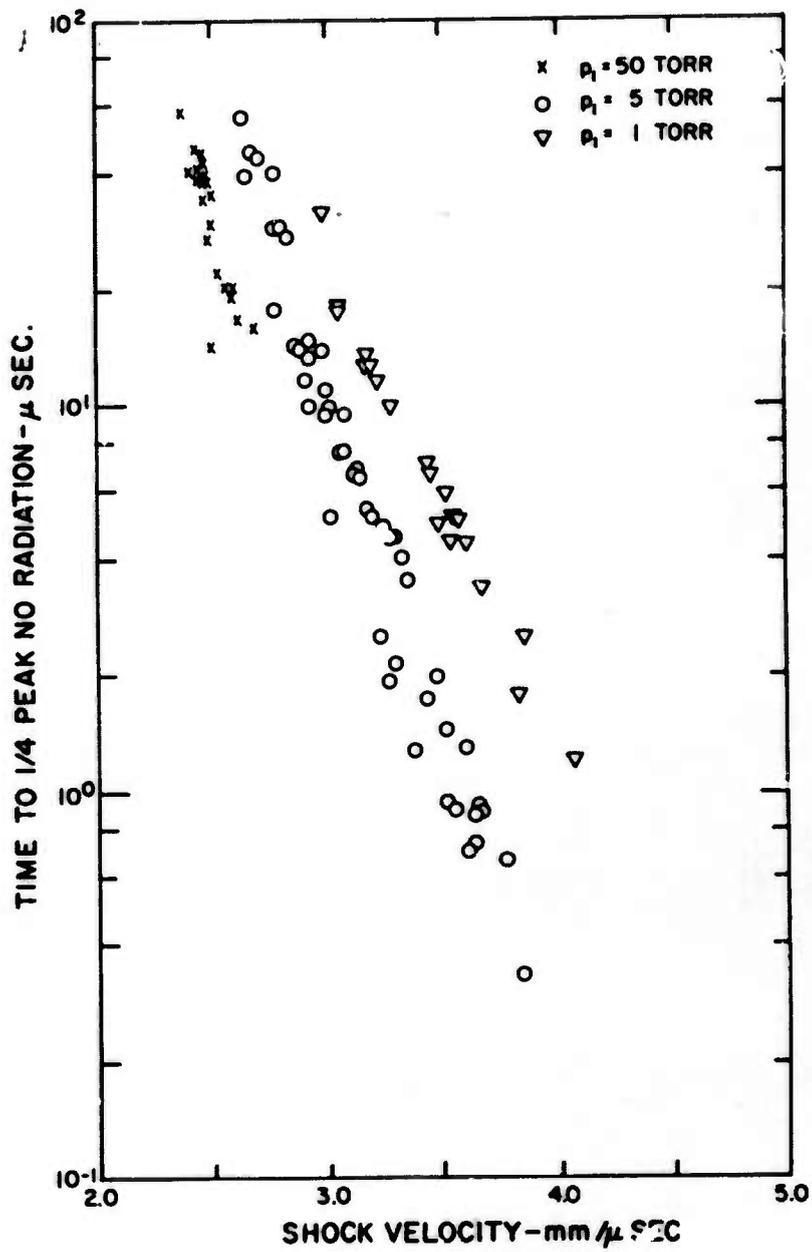


Fig. 13 Time for NO emission to reach 1/4 of the peak value. Data uncorrected for electronic response time.

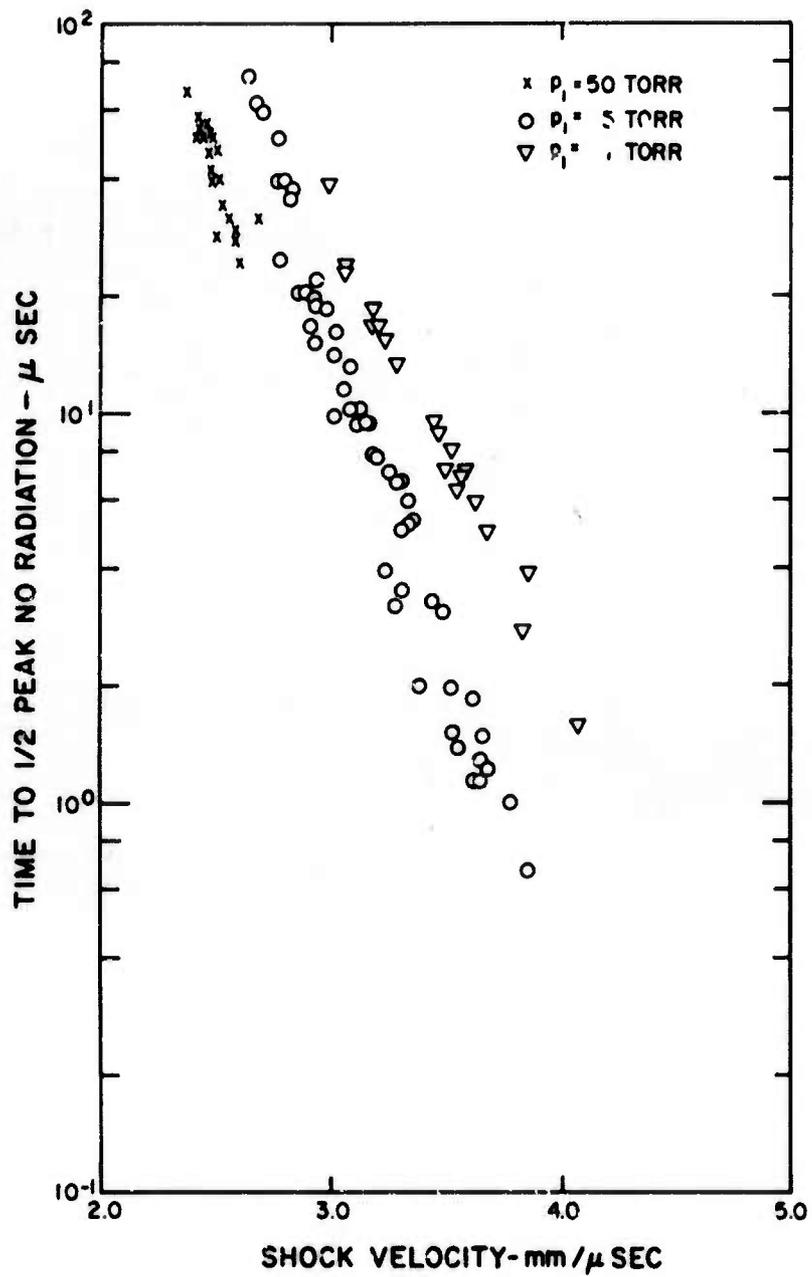


Fig. 14 Time for NO emission to reach 1/2 of the peak value. Data uncorrected for electronic response time.

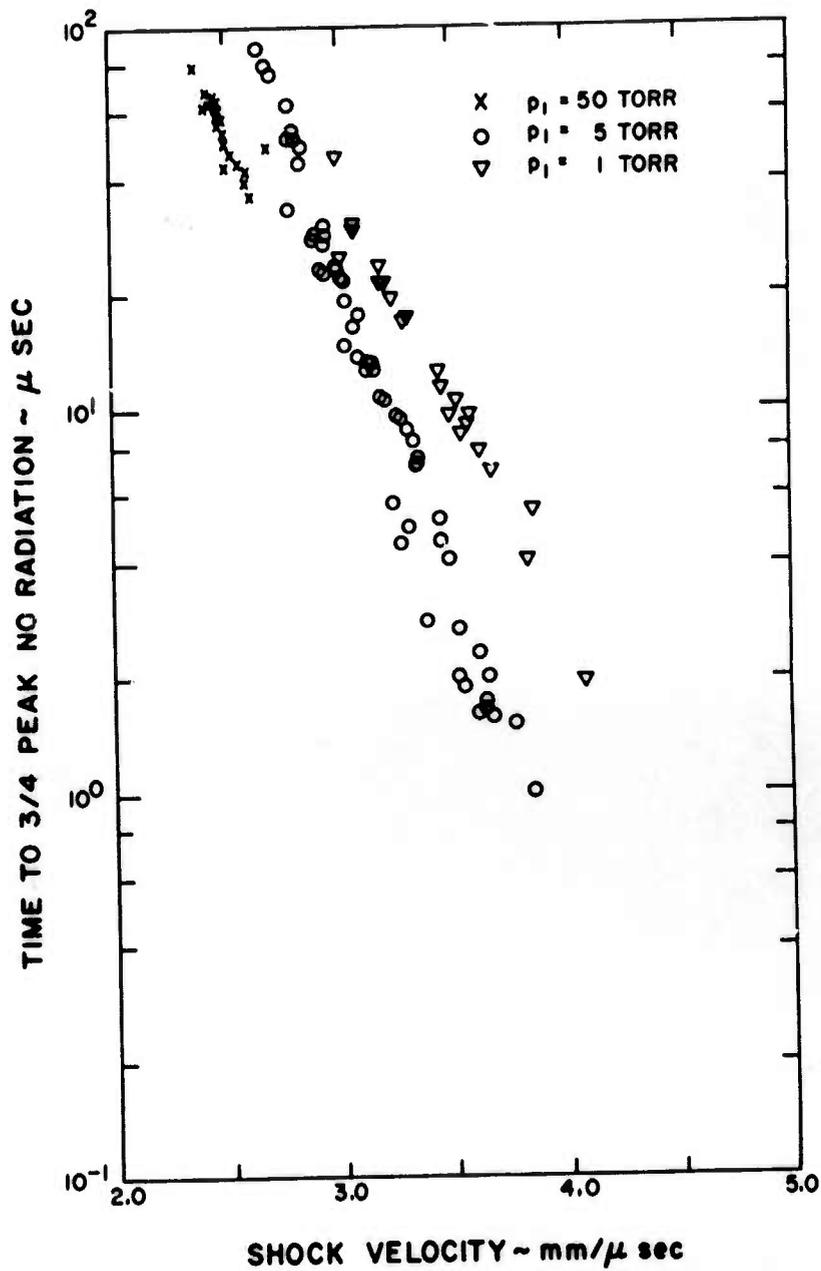


Fig. 15 Time for NO emission to reach 3/4 of the peak value. Data uncorrected for electronic response time.

increase is largely compensated by the lower density at the higher temperature. The measured time to reach the peak intensity is not presented because of the large uncertainty in estimating this time.

The peak infrared emission, presented in Fig. 16, can be correlated with the NO concentration. The NO emission calibration as a function of temperature is given in Fig. 7. The gas temperature at peak emission was not measured, but was obtained from computer calculations. Figure 17 shows the mole fraction of NO at the peak intensity. The curve shows the calculated peak value. This curve is independent of initial pressure for $p_1 \leq 50$ torr, since 3-body reactions make a negligible contribution. The peak NO mole fraction is greater than that for chemical equilibrium (see Fig. 3), an effect predicted by Duff and Davidson,⁶ which is due to local equilibrium between the molecules O_2 , N_2 and NO through Reactions (2) and (3), while O_2 dissociation proceeds at a slower rate through Reaction (4).

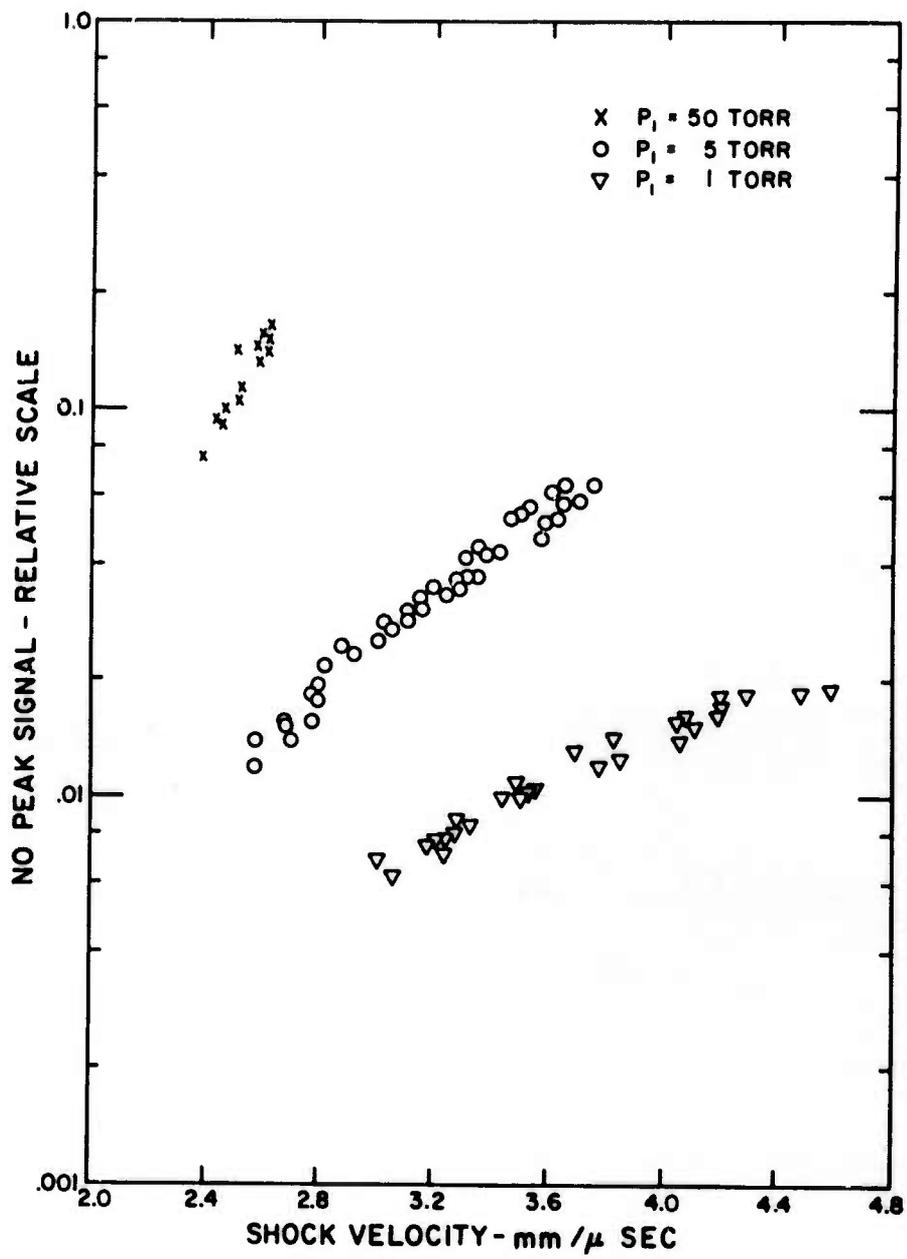


Fig. 16 NO peak signal as a function of shock velocity.

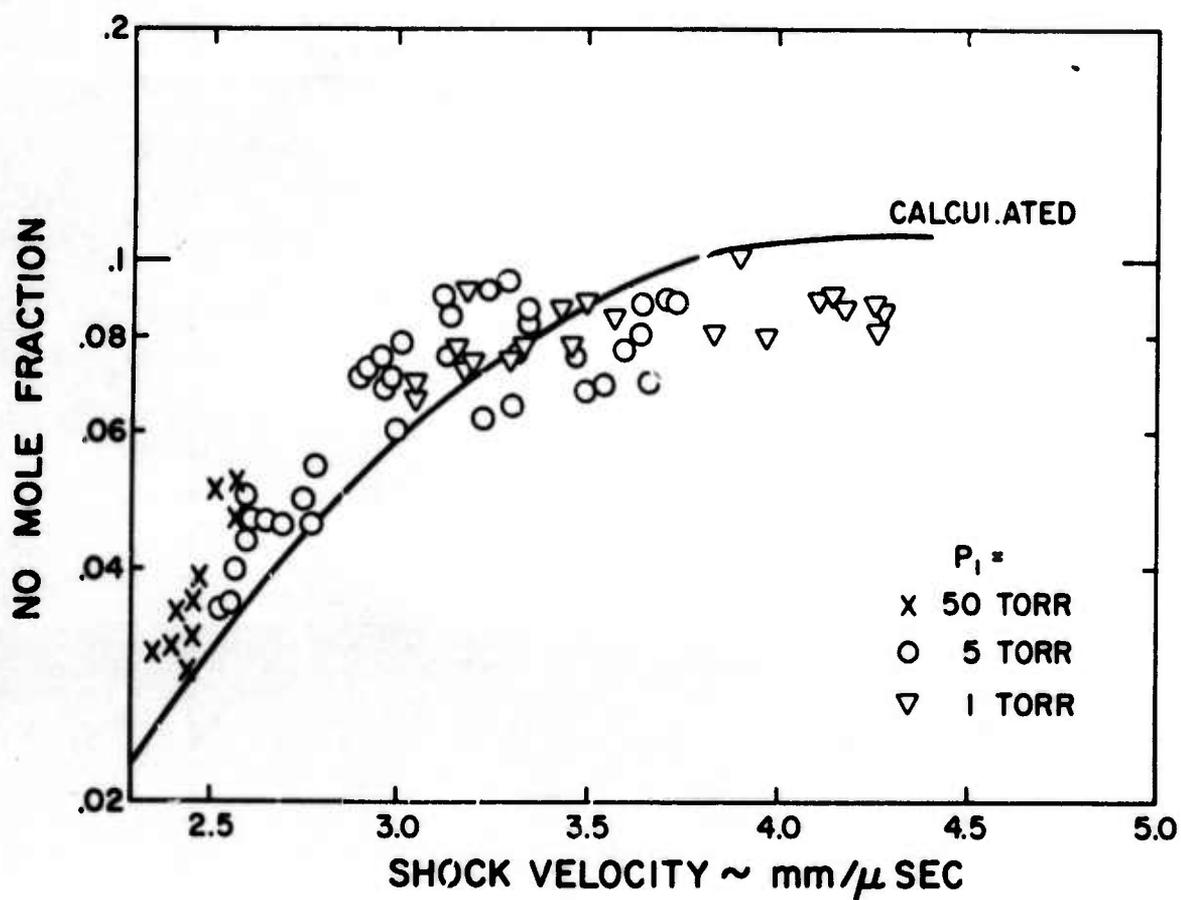


Fig. 17 The NO mole fraction at the peak intensity compared to calculations using the reactions and rate constants of Table I.

IV. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The experimental determination of the NO production rate in shock heated air will now be compared with computer calculations using the reaction mechanisms and chemical rates shown in Table I. The major difference between the experimental data and computer calculations is during the incubation period before the atom shuttle reactions become important, the measured NO radiation being much less than predicted, see Fig. 12.

Note that the incubation time occurs at approximately the N_2 vibration relaxation time. While this might be a coincidence, it does suggest several reasons for the discrepancy. We have examined three possible reasons for this lack of agreement: (1) NO vibration lag reducing the infrared emission at early times; (2) wrong reaction rates in Table I, in particular Reaction (1) $N_2 + O_2 \rightarrow 2NO$; and (3) coupling of vibration and chemistry in the reactions $O_2 + N_2^* \rightarrow 2NO$ and $O + N_2^* \rightarrow NO + O$. The coupling effect assumes that the chemistry cannot proceed until N_2 vibration approaches equilibrium conditions. First we will consider these three items and then return to a detailed comparison of data with calculations. It will be shown that NO vibration lag is unimportant, and that Reaction (1) $N_2 + O_2 \rightarrow 2NO$ in Table I should be deleted. It is difficult to ascertain whether vibration and chemistry are coupled from the present data.

Vibrational Relaxation of NO

The NO concentration is determined from the 5.3 micron band intensity assuming the NO vibrational and translational temperatures are equal. To evaluate the limitations of this assumption, we must know the NO vibrational relaxation rates. During the incubation period, the NO concentration is low, thus the NO vibrational relaxation depends on collisions with O_2 and N_2 . If the NO- N_2 vibration-vibration exchange

were fast, NO would follow the N₂ vibrational temperature. Since the NO infrared emission per molecule is an increasing function of the vibrational temperature, the radiation could be much less during the incubation period, until the N₂ vibrational relaxation is complete.

The general problem of the vibrational excitation of a small amount of NO in O₂-N₂ mixtures is discussed in detail in Appendix A. For trace amounts of NO, NO is vibrationally excited by thermal collisions with N₂ via the reaction $N_2 + NO \rightarrow N_2 + NO^*$.³¹ In addition, vibrational energy transfer to N₂ via the reaction $NO^* + N_2 \rightarrow NO + N_2^*$ is slow enough,³¹ so that the NO vibrational temperature was above that for N₂ during the relaxation process. Figure 11 shows the calculated effects of the NO vibrational relaxation on the NO infrared emission. The dashed curves give the times at which the ratio of the infrared emission to the vibration equilibrium emission is 0.60, 0.70, 0.80 and 0.90. These curves were determined using the vibrational energy relaxation curves in Figs. A2-A4. Also shown in Fig. 11 are the incubation times. Note that at the incubation time the correction to the infrared emission due to vibration lag is less than 10% over the shock velocity range from 2.0 to 2.8 mm per microsecond. Thus, NO vibration lag does not account for the low infrared emission during the incubation period.

Wrong Rate Constant for $N_2 + O_2 \rightarrow 2NO$

A second possible reason for the lack of agreement during the incubation period is that the rate constant used for the reaction $N_2 + O_2 \rightarrow 2NO$ is incorrect. This reaction produces most of the NO during the incubation time. If the rate were at least an order of magnitude smaller, then there would not be any disagreement. The rate constant used was suggested by Freedman and Daiber,¹¹ and Wray and Teare⁹ who studied the reverse reaction and measured the decrease of NO in shock heated NO-Ar mixtures. They proposed the reaction $2NO \rightarrow N_2 + O_2$ for the NO depletion; however, the reaction products were not observed. The alternate reaction¹⁴ $2NO \rightarrow N_2O + O$ could also account for the depletion of NO in shock heated NO. If this latter reaction were dominant, then the rate constant for Reaction (1) would be uncertain.

Several measurements on shock heated NO were made in order to check the reaction mechanisms proposed by Freedman and Daiber¹¹ and Wray and Teare.⁹ In addition to measurements of the NO concentration, we observed atomic O and N₂O. The NO and N₂O concentrations were determined by the emission in the 5.3 and 4.6 micron bands, respectively. Atomic O was determined from the chemiluminescent reaction $\text{NO} + \text{C} \rightarrow \text{NO}_2 + (h\nu)$, by observing radiation in a band from 0.5 to 0.6 microns. The initial O production is directly proportional to this chemiluminescent radiation, since the initial NO concentration does not vary. Figure 18 shows some of the measurements of shock heated NO and NO-Ar mixtures. Note that N₂O and O increase linearly with time, indicating directly the reaction $\text{NO} + \text{NO} \rightarrow \text{N}_2\text{O} + \text{O}$. Figure 19 shows the results of analyzing the initial decay of NO and the initial rise of O. The large error bars on the O data are due to incomplete calibration.

Note that both rates are essentially the same. The rate constant for the depletion of NO is equal to that for the increase in O, and also equal to that suggested by Freedman and Daiber,¹¹ the solid curve.

No observation of the products of the reaction $2\text{NO} \rightarrow \text{N}_2 + \text{O}_2$ was made. The rate constant for this reaction is unknown, because it was not measured by Freedman and Daiber,¹¹ and Wray and Teare.⁹ The initial slope of our shocked air data can be used to obtain an upper limit to this reaction which at 4000°K is < 0.10 the rate given in Table I. For the purpose of air chemistry this rate constant is small enough so that Reaction (1) can be deleted.

Coupling of Vibration and Dissociation

A third reason for the discrepancy between prediction and observed initial NO production may be due to coupling between vibration and chemistry. The rate constants for Reactions (1) and (2) could depend on the vibrational temperature, and the expected rate constant would not be attained until N₂ vibrational equilibrium. Thus, Table I gives the rate constants for the reactions $\text{O}_2^* + \text{N}_2^* \rightarrow 2\text{NO}$ and $\text{O} + \text{N}_2^* \rightarrow \text{NO} + \text{N}$, where N₂^{*} indicates equilibrium vibration. Previously we showed that the reaction $\text{O}_2 + \text{N}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{NO}$ can be ignored; thus, we must investigate only the latter reaction for



TIME → 50 μSEC

SHOCK VELOCITY = $2.07 \frac{\text{mm}}{\mu\text{sec}}$

INITIAL PRESSURE = 5 TORR

PURE NO

INITIAL SHOCKED TEMP. 2100 °K

(a)



TIME → 20 μSEC

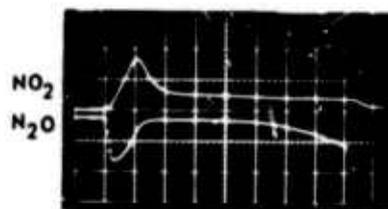
SHOCK VELOCITY = $2.38 \frac{\text{mm}}{\mu\text{sec}}$

INITIAL PRESSURE = 10 TORR

PURE NO

INITIAL SHOCKED TEMP. 2700 °K

(b)



TIME → 20 μSEC

SHOCK VELOCITY = $2.54 \frac{\text{mm}}{\mu\text{sec}}$

INITIAL PRESSURE = 10 TORR

PURE NO

INITIAL SHOCKED TEMP. 2900 °K

(c)

Fig. 18 Measurements of O and N₂O production in shock heated NO. O determined by $\text{O} + \text{NO} \rightarrow \text{NO}_2 + h\nu$ chemiluminescent reaction, NO and N₂O concentrations by the 5.3 and 4.6 micron emission, respectively.

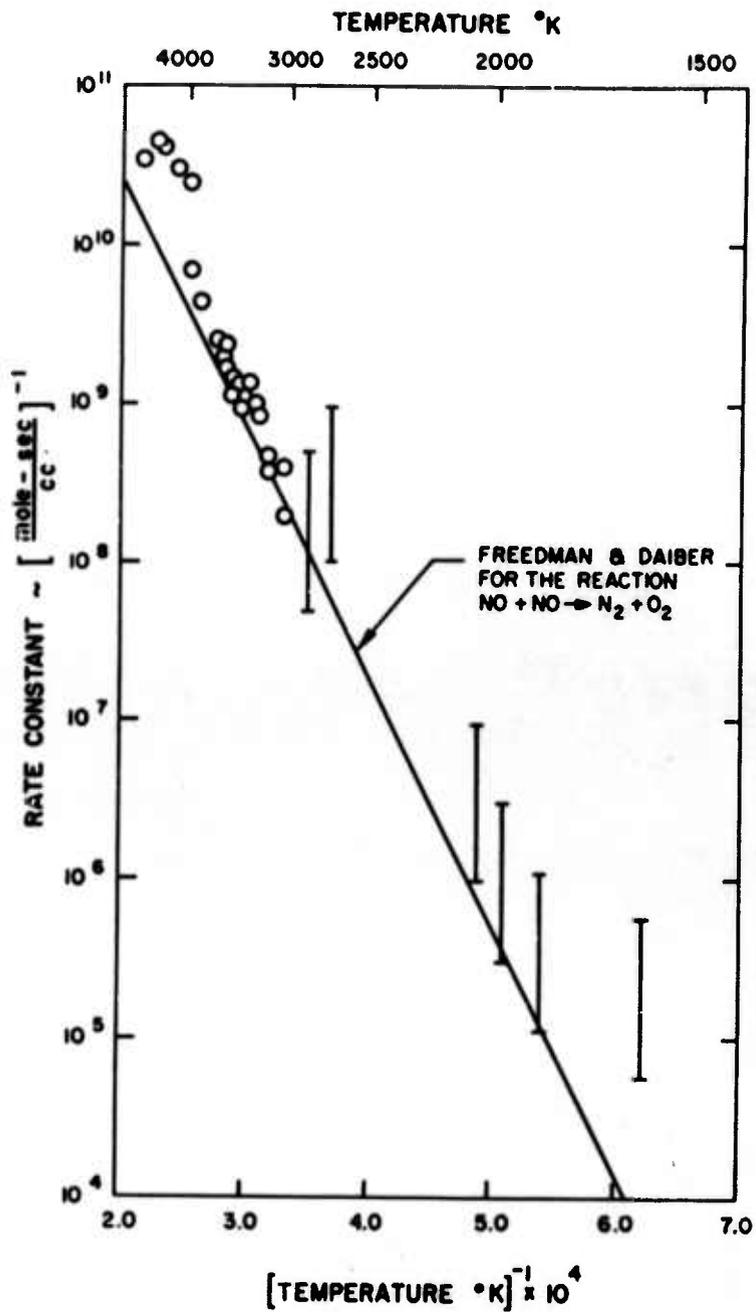


Fig. 19 Experimentally determined rate constant for the initial dissociation of NO, open circles, and production of atomic O, vertical bars. Curve gives Freedman and Daiber measured rate constant for NO depletion.

the effects of N_2 vibration lag. The coupling of vibration and chemistry has been observed in O_2^{32} dissociation and a similar connection might occur here. The best place to check for the effect of the coupling is at the end of the incubation period by comparing the NO intensity at that time to the predicted value. Since the observed and predicted NO intensity is small at the incubation time, we cannot obtain information on vibration-dissociation coupling with the present data.

It is interesting to note that N_2 has the slowest molecular vibration relaxation rate; thus, this reaction is ideally suited for studying vibration coupling to chemistry. The possibility of such coupling in Reaction (2) could be investigated experimentally, if initially an atomic O- N_2 mixture were used. This might be achieved with an initial O_3 - N_2 mixture. Upon shock heating, O_3 would quickly dissociate to O_2 and O, thereby preparing an initial O concentration before the N_2 vibration relaxation has progressed significantly. Under these conditions, without coupling, the NO production would increase linearly with time during N_2 vibrational relaxation. However, with coupling, initially the chemical rate constant would be less and the NO formation would show an incubation.

Comparison of Computed and Experimental NO Chemistry

As described above, the chemical kinetics of NO production is a two-step process in which O_2 is first dissociated, then the NO is formed in the atom shuttle reactions. The direct bimolecular Reaction (1) is deleted. In initial attempts to make a detailed comparison of the predicted radiation with the experimental data, the detailed fit was rather poor. Some preliminary estimates indicated the effects of shock velocity attenuation and boundary layer on the shock tube wall could not be ignored. A calculating procedure was developed which added the effects of the side wall boundary layer on the chemistry. Appendix C presents a detailed derivation of the computer program used.

Computer calculations are presented in Figs. 20, 21 and 22. The dashed curves show the computed times with the rates in Table I (bimolecular reaction omitted); the solid curves use a factor of 2.5 smaller rate constant for Reaction (2).

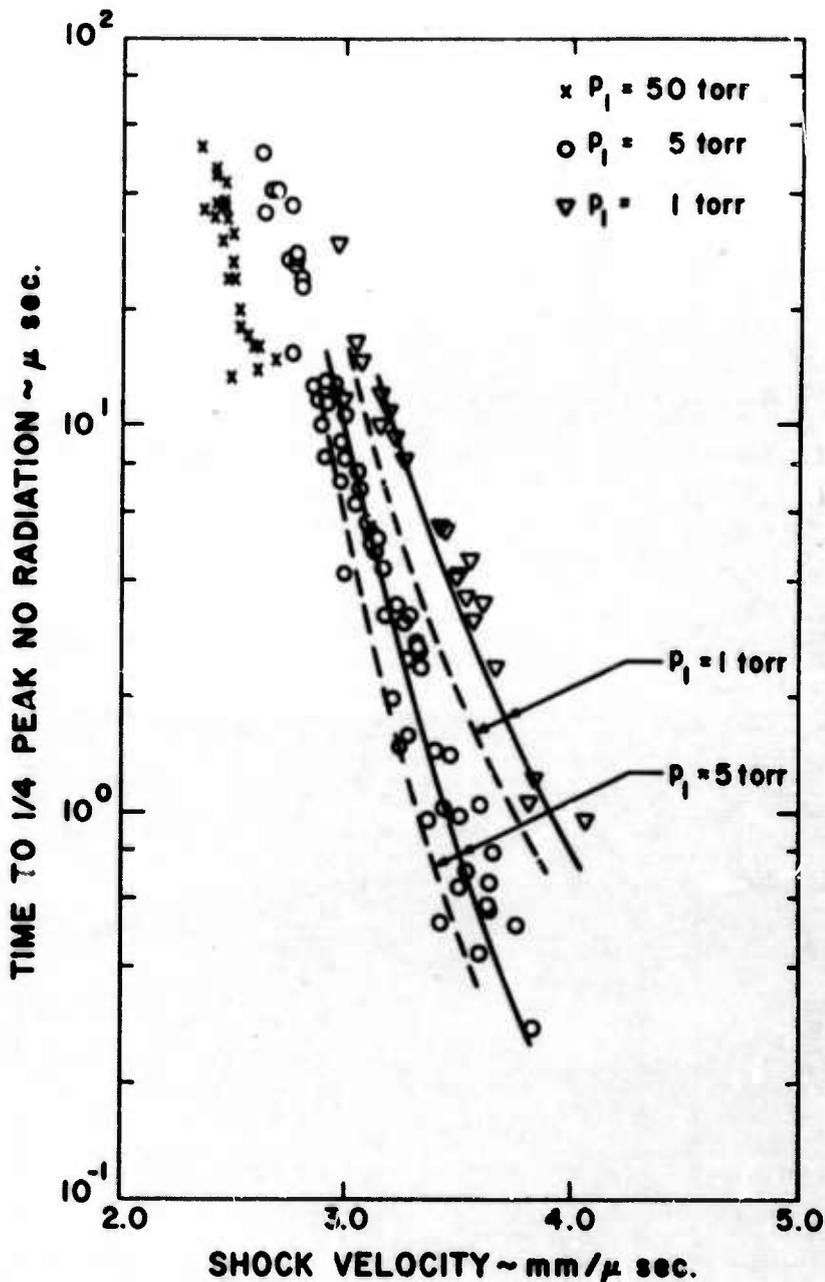


Fig. 20 Time to 1/4 peak NO emission corrected for electronic response time. The dashed curve uses reactions given in Table I with reaction 1 omitted. The solid curve uses a 2.5 times smaller value for k_2 .

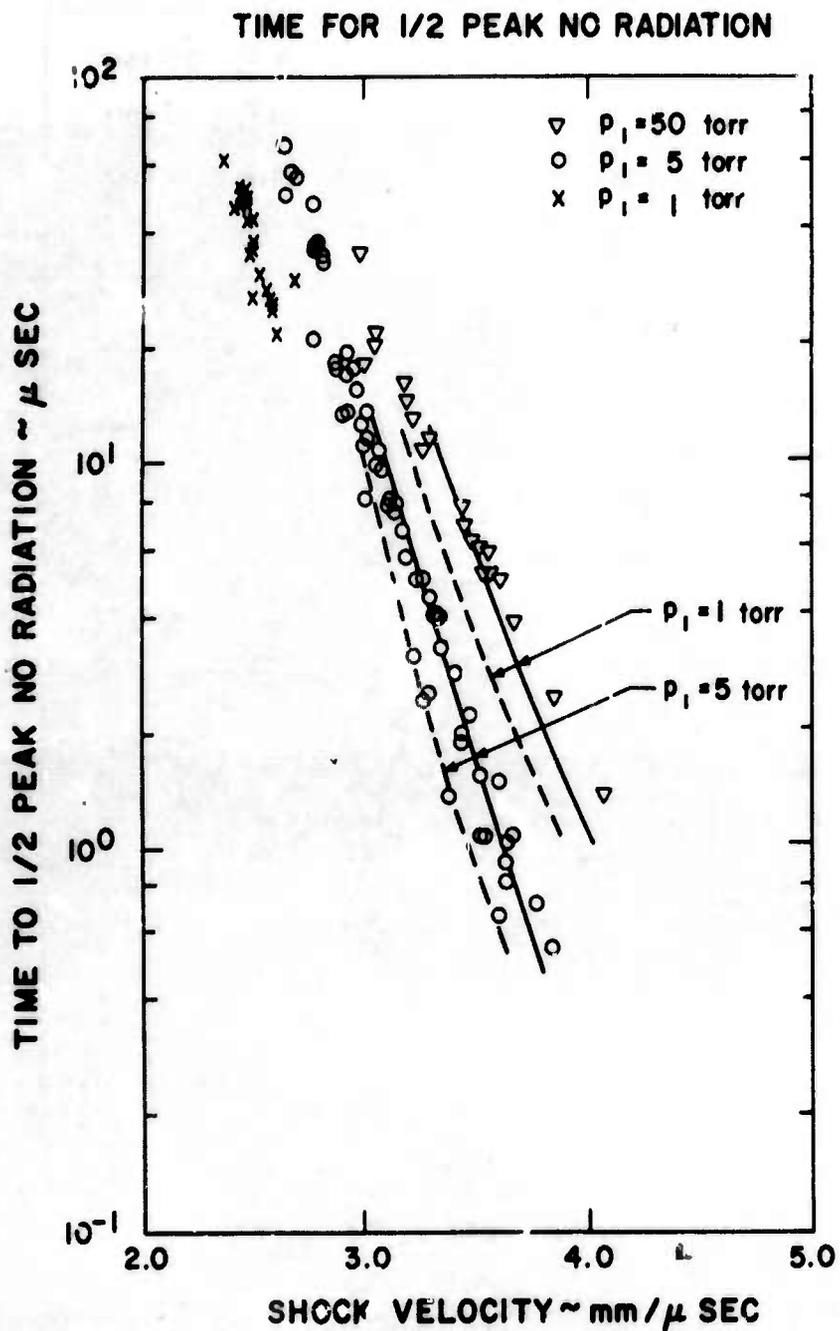


Fig. 21 Time to 1/2 peak NO emission corrected for electronic response time. The dashed curve uses reactions given in Table I with reaction 1 omitted. The solid curve uses a 2.5 times smaller value for k_2 .

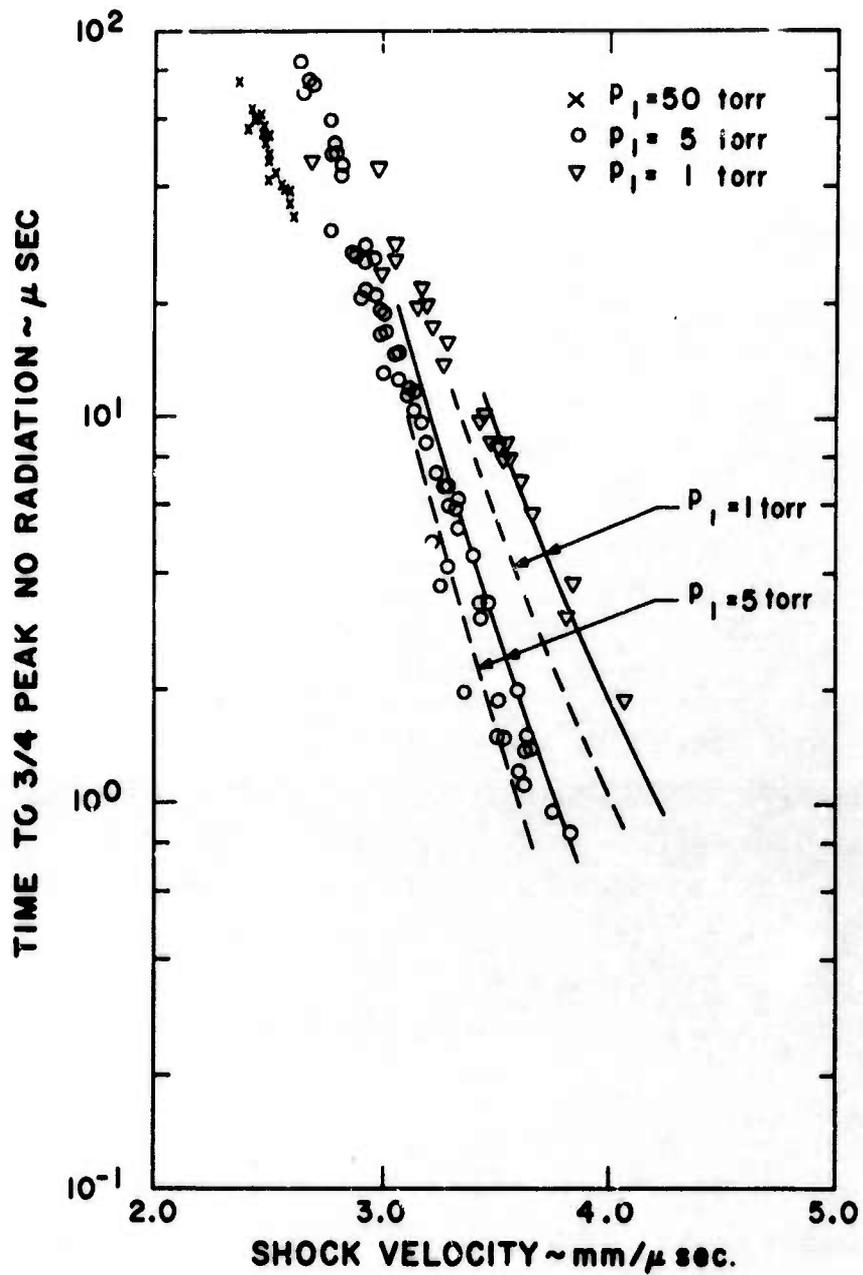


Fig. 22 Time to 3/4 peak NO emission corrected for electronic response time. The dashed curve uses the reactions given in Table I with reaction 1 omitted. The solid curve uses a 2.5 times smaller value for k_2 .

The major correction to the experimental data is due to the finite electronic response time. The correction for electronic response time becomes significant at the higher shock velocities where the chemistry proceeds rapidly. Using the measured electronic response time τ_e and assuming a simple RC circuit ($\tau_e = RC$), then the correction to the data can be obtained from the relation

$$S_c = S + \tau_e (dS/dt) \quad (18)$$

S is the observed signal output on the oscillogram trace, and S_c is the corrected signal. The value of τ_e varied from 0.3 to 2 microseconds for different runs, the smaller value applying to the Ce:Au system. The data in Figs. 20, 21 and 22 have been corrected for the electronic response time. The change in the data due to electronic response time corrections can be obtained by comparing Figs. 20, 21 and 22 with Figs. 13, 14 and 15.

In Figs. 20, 21 and 22 the comparison of the solid curves with the data is quite good, except for times longer than 15 microseconds. At these times the corrections to the data due to shock velocity attenuation become important. Since we did not correct for this effect, the data at later times were not used for analysis. The solid and the dashed curves show computed times as a function of shock velocity and initial pressure with the rate constant k_2 as a parameter. We used the following procedure for determining our experimental rate constant product for each of the experimental points. The NO concentration with time is obtained by integrating Reaction (2)

$$NO = \int_0^t 2k_2 [O][N_2] dt' \quad (19)$$

The factor of 2 is due to the additional NO production through Reaction (3). N_2 is the original concentration, while O is produced by O_2 dissociation

$$[O] = \int_0^t 2[O_2] \{k_{4,O_2}[O_2] + k_{4,N_2}[N_2] + k_{4,O}[O]\} dt'' \quad (20)$$

Inserting Eq. (20) into Eq. (19) and substituting the rate constant expressions from Table I, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
 [\text{NO}] = & 4 [k_2^0 k_4^0] \int_0^t [\text{N}_2] \exp[-T_2/T] dt' . \\
 & \cdot \int_0^{t'} [\text{O}_2] \{2[\text{N}_2] + 9[\text{O}_2] + 25[\text{O}]\} \sqrt{T} \left(\frac{T_4}{T}\right)^{3/2} \exp[-T_4/T] dt''
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{21}$$

T is the temperature; $T_2 = 39,000^\circ\text{K}$ and $T_4 = 59,000^\circ\text{K}$, corresponding to the activation energies for Reactions (2) and (4), respectively.

$k_2^0 = 7 \times 10^{13}$ and $k_4^0 = 2.5 \times 10^{11} \text{ cm}^3/\text{mole-sec}$ are the coefficients of the rate constant expressions for Reactions (2) and (4), respectively. The NO concentration is shown to be proportional to the product $[k_2^0 k_4^0]$ in Eq. (21). For each shock tube run we measured three experimental times: at the occurrence of 1/4, 1/2 and 3/4 peak NO emission. Experimental values for $[k_2^0 k_4^0]$ were determined from these time measurements in the following manner. The solid and dashed curves in Figs. 20, 21 and 22 are the computer calculated times for two different values of $[k_2^0 k_4^0]$. These times were related by the expression

$$[k_2^0 k_4^0]_s t_s^2 (1 + at_s) = [k_2^0 k_4^0]_d t_d^2 (1 + at_d)
 \tag{22}$$

where the subscripts s and d indicate values for the solid and dashed curves respectively. We then solved for a, the only unknown in Eq. (22), as a function of shock velocity. Each experimental time measurement was substituted in the expression

$$[k_2^0 k_4^0]_e t_e^2 (1 + at_e) = [k_2^0 k_4^0]_d t_d^2 (1 + at_d)
 \tag{23}$$

where the subscript e refers to experimental data. For a measured experimental time and shock velocity the only unknown quantity in Eq. (23) is $[k_2^0 k_4^0]_e$.

The ratio of the experimental rate coefficient product $[k_2^0 k_4^0]_e$ to the rate coefficient product given in Table I $[k_2^0 k_4^0]_d$ is plotted as a function of shock velocity in Fig. 23. Also shown are gas temperatures, obtained

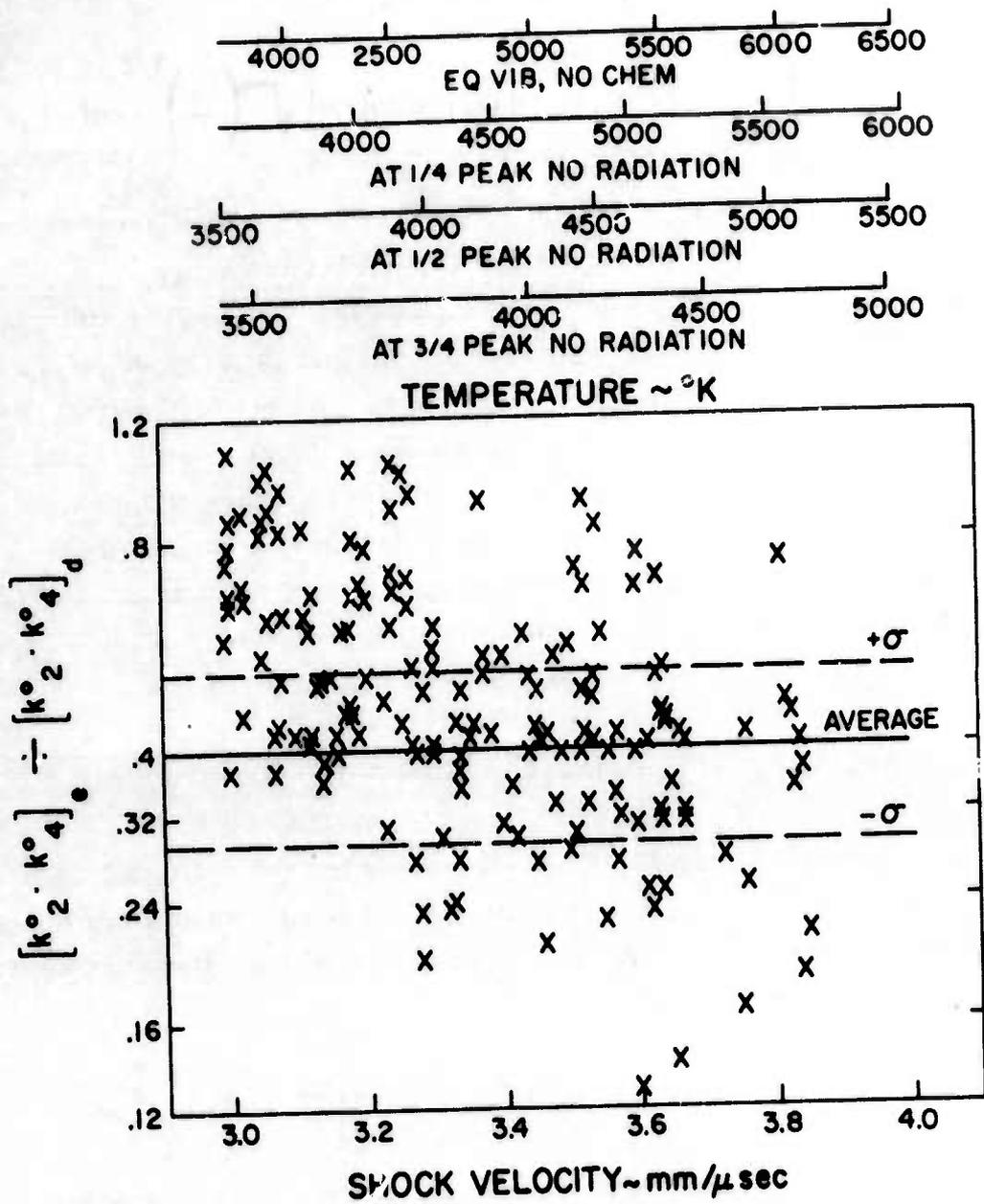


Fig. 23 The ratio of the experimental value of the rate constant product $[k_2^o \cdot k_4^o]$ to that of Table I. The various gas temperatures are also shown.

from the computer calculations, at several NO emission levels. The solid line represents the average value and the dashed lines represent the standard deviation. A small number of the points shown in Fig. 23 were obtained from poor data and were given a larger uncertainty factor. The data seems to have a downward trend with increasing shock velocity, which can be fit with a T^2 dependence. However, the scatter in the data and errors from fits to such a large exponential temperature dependence are too large to be certain of this trend. In addition, this downward trend could be due to shock wave attenuation effects, which would increase the rate constants at the lower shock speeds, where the event being measured occurred further from the shock front.

Our experimentally measured rate coefficient product, $[k_2^0 k_4^0]$ is 0.40 ± 0.12 of the rates given in Table I. This product involves four rate constant expressions. There is about a factor 2 uncertainty in the published rate constant expressions for k_{4,O_2}^{33} , $k_{4,O}^{33}$ and k_2^4 . The value for k_{4,N_2} is an upper limit.³ If k_{4,N_2} were dropped by a factor of 3, then the O_2 dissociation by N_2 would be negligible. The rate constant product above would decrease by a factor 2, producing essential agreement between the rate shown in Table I and our experimental results. A decrease of k_2 or $k_{4,O}$ by a factor of 2 would also bring the rate shown in Table I in agreement with our experimental measurements. The values of the individual rate constants cannot be obtained from our data and would require further measurements with various N_2 - O_2 mixtures.

Conclusion

We have reported on infrared measurements of NO formation in shock heated air from which the important reaction rate constants were evaluated. Our experimental value of the NO 5.3 micron fundamental band intensity is $124 \pm 22 \text{ atm}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$.

The reaction $N_2 + O_2 \rightarrow 2NO$ proposed by Freedman and Daiber¹¹ and Wray and Teare⁹ is incorrect. We obtained data repeating their experiment on shock heated NO to which they attributed the reverse of the above reaction. We have shown that the NO depletion was due mainly to $2NO \rightarrow N_2O + O$.

Without Reaction (1), NO production is initially slow until formation of atomic O, but then proceeds rapidly by the atom shuttle reactions. The NO production depends on the rate constant product, $k_2 k_4$.

It was shown that corrections due to the shock tube boundary layer growth must be included in order to obtain detailed agreement between experiment and calculations. The method is developed in Appendix C. An analysis of the vibrational relaxation of NO-O₂ mixtures is presented in Appendix A. NO vibration lag is small and does not affect the data analysis.

APPENDIX A

NO VIBRATION RELAXATION IN AIR

The theory of vibrational relaxation in a mixture of diatomic molecules is reviewed. Numerical estimates are then presented for the relaxation of an N_2 - O_2 -NO mixture. Our specific problem is to determine the vibrational temperature history of a trace amount (less than 10^{-2} concentration) of NO in temperatures ranging from 2000°K to 6500°K , corresponding to shock velocities from 2.0 to 4.0 mm per microsecond, see Fig. 1.

In a mixture of diatomic gases, the vibrational relaxation rate of each component can differ. This leads to added complexity in the number of ways in which to excite vibration. Not only is there the usual vibrational excitation in which collisional energy is converted to vibration, designated as a (TV) process, but vibrational energy can be transferred from one gas species to another, designated as a (VV) process. Consider the example of an N_2 - O_2 mixture for which there are five vibrational excitation reactions.



The asterisk indicates vibrational excitation. The first four are (TV) processes; the last one a (VV) process.

In a mixture of the three molecules NO, N_2 and O_2 , there are 12 reaction paths: 3 pure gas (TV) processes, similar to Reaction (A-1); 3 (VV) processes, like Reaction (A-5); and 6 two-component (TV) processes like Reactions (A-3) and (A-4). Of these, 7 have been experimentally studied. Extensive measurements of the vibrational relaxation of O_2 ^{34, 35}, N_2 ^{29, 36} and

NO^{37, 38} have been reported. Vibrational relaxation in O₂-N₂^{30, 36} and NO-N₂³¹ mixtures has been observed. The experimental relaxation times for these gases for a pressure of one atmosphere are plotted as a function of T^{-1/3} in Fig. A-1 as the solid lines.

Estimates of the rate constants for the other reactions were obtained from theory. The dashed curves in Fig. A-1 give the vibrational relaxation times at one atmosphere pressure as a function of temperature. The measured NO-N₂³¹ and O₂-N₂³⁰ vibration exchange rates were 1/10 the theoretically predicted rate.³⁹ Thus, the O₂-NO vibration exchange rate was also set at 1/10 the theoretical rate. The estimated (TV) reaction rates are not important reactions for relaxation in a trace NO-air mixture.

By combining the rate constants obtained from experimental measurements and theoretical predictions, we can estimate NO relaxation in air. We followed the mathematical treatment of Schwartz, Slawsky and Herzfeld³⁹ for vibrational relaxation in a mixture of diatomic molecules. Starting with Eq. (22) of Ref. 39, the rate of production of vibrational energy, E_a, in a mixture of three molecules designated by the subscripts a, b and c becomes*

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dE_a}{dt} = & \left[\psi_a M_{aa} P_{aa} + \psi_b M_{ab} P_{ab} + \psi_c M_{ac} P_{ac} \right] (1 - e^{-h\nu_a/kT}) (E_a^* - E_a) + \\ & + \psi_b M_{ab} P_{ab}^e \left[\frac{E_b}{E_b^*} \frac{1 - e^{-h\nu_a/kT}}{1 - e^{-h\nu_b/kT}} (E_a^* - E_a) - \left(1 - \frac{E_b}{E_b^*} \right) E_a \right] + \\ & + \psi_c M_{ac} P_{ac}^e \left[\frac{E_c}{E_c^*} \frac{1 - e^{-h\nu_a/kT}}{1 - e^{-h\nu_c/kT}} (E_a^* - E_a) - \left(1 - \frac{E_c}{E_c^*} \right) E_a \right] \end{aligned} \quad (A-6)$$

ψ_a is the mole fraction of the ath molecule. Thus, $\psi_a + \psi_b + \psi_c = 1$. E_a^* is the equilibrium vibrational energy at the translational temperature, T.

Since a harmonic oscillator potential was used in the derivation of Eq. (A-6),

*Equation (22) of Ref. 39 has a few mistakes. Their previous Eq. (20) is correct and would give the formulation above for their Eq. (22).

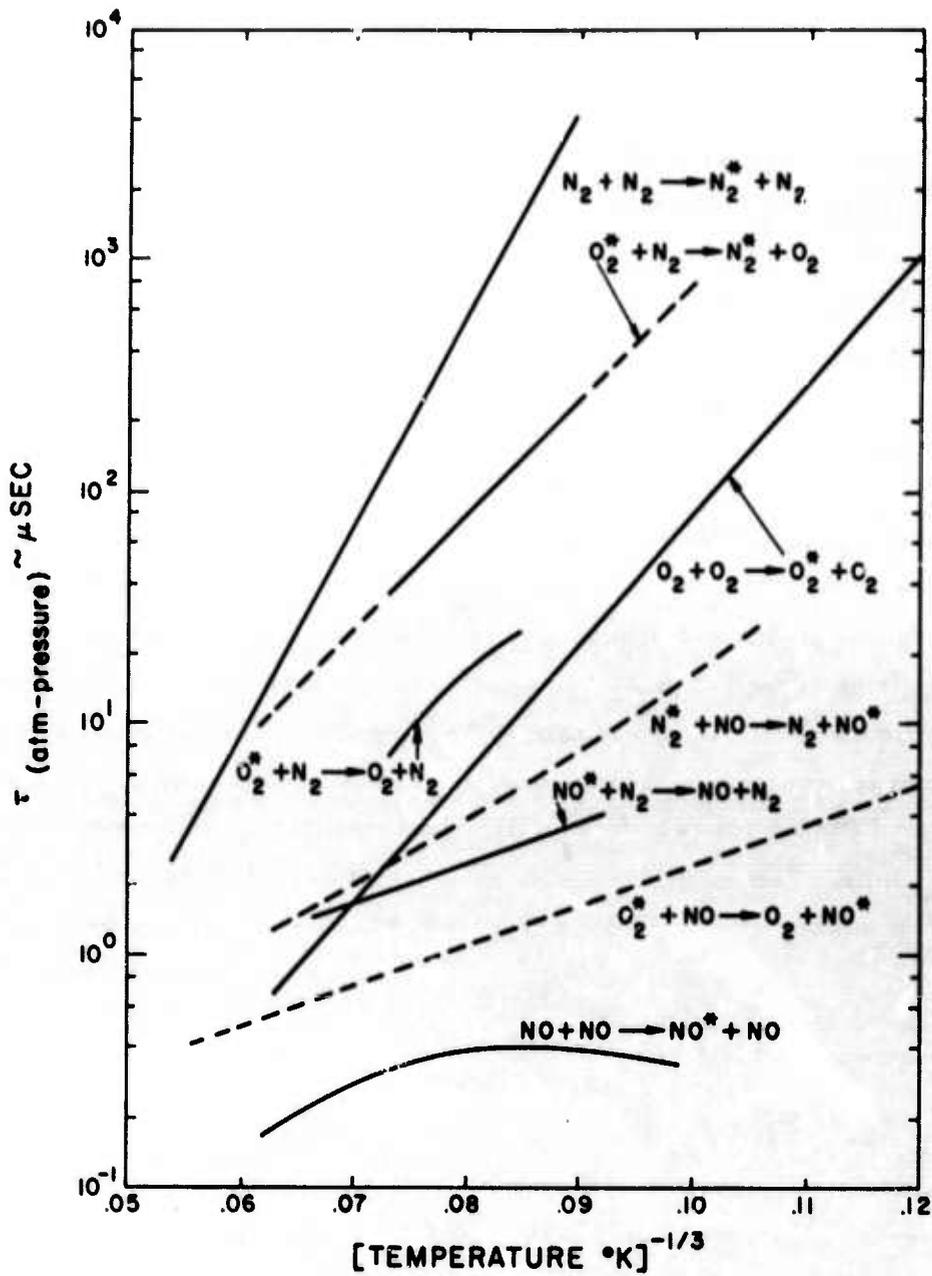


Fig. A-1 Vibration relaxation times as a function of shock velocity. Of the twelve possible reactions, only the important ones are shown.

E_a^* has the simple form

$$E_a^* = \frac{\psi_a N h \nu_a}{e \frac{h \nu_a}{kT} - 1} \quad (A-7)$$

N is the total number of molecules per cm^3 . The harmonic oscillator molecular potential has equally spaced vibrational levels with energy spacing ($h\nu$). M_{ij} is the number of collisions per second that an i th molecule makes with j th molecules, assuming there are N j th molecules per cm^3 . M_{ij} is obtained from the relation

$$M_{ij} = N \bar{c} (R_i + R_j)^2 = N \sqrt{\frac{8kT}{m_i m_j}} (m_i + m_j) (R_i + R_j)^2 \quad (A-8)$$

\bar{c} is the mean particle velocity based on the reduced mass of an i and j molecule; m and R are the mass and radius. P_{ij} is the probability that in a collision of an i th and j th molecule, the i th molecule makes the vibrational transition ($v_i = 1$ to $v_i = 0$) transferring energy to the translation mode. v_i is the vibrational quantum number. P_{ij}^e is the probability that in a collision of an i th and j th molecule, vibrational energy is exchanged in the transition ($v_i = 1$ to $v_i = 0$) and ($v_j = 0$ to $v_j = 1$). Differential equations for the relaxation of E_b and E_c are similar to Eq. (A-6) and are obtained by suitably changing the subscripts. There are two simplifications: from Eq. (A-8)

$$M_{ij} = M_{ji} \quad (A-9)$$

and theory predicts³⁹

$$P_{ji}^e = P_{ij}^e e^{-h(\nu_i - \nu_j)/kT} \quad (A-10)$$

No general relation between P_{ij} and P_{ji} will be assumed. It can be shown¹⁷ that a system with an harmonic oscillator potential and which satisfies the harmonic oscillator selection rules has a vibrational temperature T_v during the entire relaxation process, which is related to the vibrational energy

$$E_a = \frac{\psi_a N h \nu_a}{e \frac{h \nu_a}{kT} - 1} \quad (A-11)$$

In order to relate the set of relaxation equations to the experimental measurements, we transform equations of the (A-6) type to those in terms of the vibrational relaxation times. For a (TV) process, the vibrational relaxation time τ_{ij} is defined

$$1/\tau_{ij} = M_{ij} P_{ij} (1 - e^{-h\nu_i/kT}) \quad (\text{A-12})$$

For a (VV) process, the relaxation time τ_{ij}^e is defined

$$1/\tau_{ij}^e = M_{ij} P_{ij}^e \quad (\text{A-13})$$

Comparing Eq. (A-13) with Eq. (A-10), we obtain

$$\tau_{ij}^e = \tau_{ji}^e e^{-h(\nu_i - \nu_j)/kT} = \tau_{ji}^e (\theta_i / \theta_j) \quad (\text{A-14})$$

where $\theta_i \equiv e^{-h\nu_i/kT}$. We introduce the new dependent variable

$$X_i \equiv (E_i^* - E_i) / E_i^* \quad (\text{A-15})$$

which is preferable to the energy as it varies exponentially with time for systems with only (TV) processes.

Substituting Eqs. (A-12) through (A-15) into Eq. (A-6) and specifying a NO-N₂-O₂ mixture, one obtains the relaxation equations

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{dX_{O_2}}{dt} &= \left[\frac{\psi_{O_2}}{\tau_{O_2-O_2}} + \frac{\psi_{N_2}}{\tau_{O_2-N_2}} + \frac{\psi_{NO}}{\tau_{O_2-NO}} \right] X_{O_2} - \frac{\psi_{N_2}}{\tau_{O_2-N_2}^e} \left[\frac{X_{N_2}(1-X_{O_2})}{1-\theta_{O_2}} - \frac{X_{O_2}(1-X_{N_2})}{1-\theta_{N_2}} \right] \\ &\quad - \frac{\psi_{NO}}{\tau_{O_2-NO}^e} \left[\frac{X_{NO}(1-X_{O_2})}{1-\theta_{O_2}} - \frac{X_{O_2}(1-X_{NO})}{1-\theta_{NO}} \right] (1-\theta_{O_2}) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A-16a})$$

$$-\frac{dX_{N_2}}{dt} = \left[\frac{\psi_{O_2}}{\tau_{N_2-O_2}} + \frac{\psi_{N_2}}{\tau_{N_2-N_2}} + \frac{\psi_{NO}}{\tau_{N_2-NO}} \right] + \frac{\psi_{O_2}(\theta_{O_2}/\theta_{N_2})}{\tau_{O_2-N_2}^e} \left[\frac{X_{N_2}(1-X_{O_2})}{1-\theta_{O_2}} - \frac{X_{O_2}(1-X_{N_2})}{1-\theta_{N_2}} \right] (1-\theta_{N_2}) + \quad (A-16b)$$

$$+ \frac{\psi_{NO}(\theta_{NO}/\theta_{N_2})}{\tau_{NO-N_2}^e} \left[\frac{X_{N_2}(1-X_{NO})}{1-\theta_{NO}} - \frac{X_{NO}(1-X_{N_2})}{1-\theta_{N_2}} \right] (1-\theta_{N_2})$$

$$-\frac{dX_{NO}}{dt} = \left[\frac{\psi_{O_2}}{\tau_{NO-O_2}} + \frac{\psi_{N_2}}{\tau_{NO-N_2}} + \frac{\psi_{NO}}{\tau_{NO-NO}} \right] + \frac{\psi_{O_2}(\theta_{O_2}/\theta_{NO})}{\tau_{O_2-NO}^e} \left[\frac{X_{NO}(1-X_{O_2})}{1-\theta_{O_2}} - \frac{X_{O_2}(1-X_{NO})}{1-\theta_{NO}} \right] \cdot \quad (A-16c)$$

$$\cdot (1-\theta_{NO}) - \frac{\psi_{N_2}}{\tau_{NO-N_2}^e} \left[\frac{X_{N_2}(1-X_{NO})}{1-\theta_{NO}} - \frac{X_{NO}(1-X_{N_2})}{1-\theta_{N_2}} \right] (1-\theta_{NO}) .$$

In order to obtain numerical solutions, each τ and θ must be specified. Numerical values for τ may be obtained from Fig. A-1. Using published¹⁵ molecular constants,

$$\theta_{O_2} = e^{-2239^\circ K/T}; \theta_{NO} = e^{-2702^\circ K/T}; \theta_{N_2} = e^{-3353^\circ K/T} . \quad (A-17)$$

We obtain solutions of Eq. (A-16) for the specific case

$$\psi_{O_2} = 0.21; \psi_{N_2} = 0.79; \psi_{NO} = .0001 . \quad (A-18)$$

Equation (A-16) can be solved once the kinetic temperature is given as a function of time. For the shock tube experiments, the temperature T is obtained by combining Eq. (A-16) with the Rankine-Hugoniot relations across the shock for the conservation of mass, momentum and energy.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \rho u &= \rho_1 u_1 \\
 p + \rho u^2 &= p_1 + \rho_1 u_1^2 \\
 h + \frac{1}{2} u^2 &= h_1 + \frac{1}{2} u_1^2
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{A-19}$$

For our experimental conditions, the perfect gas relation applies

$$p = \rho RT, \tag{A-20}$$

and the enthalpy per unit weight h is given by

$$h = 3.5RT + \frac{1}{\rho} (E_{O_2} + E_{N_2} + E_{NO}). \tag{A-21}$$

The vibrational energies are obtained from solutions of Eq. (A-16).

The set of equations (A-16, 19, 20 and 21) was programmed for a 7090 computer. Figure A-2 shows the behavior of X_{NO} , X_{O_2} and X_{N_2} with time, for a shock velocity of 2.0 mm per microsecond, 5 torr initial pressure, 297°K initial temperature, and 0.01% NO in air.

There are several important features to these curves: (1) initially, the O_2 , NO and N_2 relax without (VV) processes; (2) (VV) processes become important after sufficient O_2 excitation; and (3) finally, the three gases follow a single relaxation time. The NO quickly relaxes to about 60% of equilibrium and then follows the final relaxation rate. $\tau_{NO-O_2}^e$ being uncertain was changed by a factor of 3 and 0.3; this has only a small effect on the NO relaxation. Figures A-3 and A-4 show the X_{NO} , X_{O_2} and X_{N_2} variation with time for shock velocities of 2.5 and 3.0 mm per microsecond using the same initial conditions. These calculations of the NO vibrational relaxation time in shock heated air are used to determine the decrease in the infrared emission due to vibration lag. The infrared emission is proportional to the vibrational energy, see Eq. (4). Thus, the ratio of the emission to that at equilibrium vibration is

$$I/I_{eq} = E/E^* = 1 - X_{NO}. \tag{A-22}$$

Values of I/I_{eq} presented in Fig. 11 were obtained from Figs. A-2, A-3 and A-4, using Eq. (A-22).

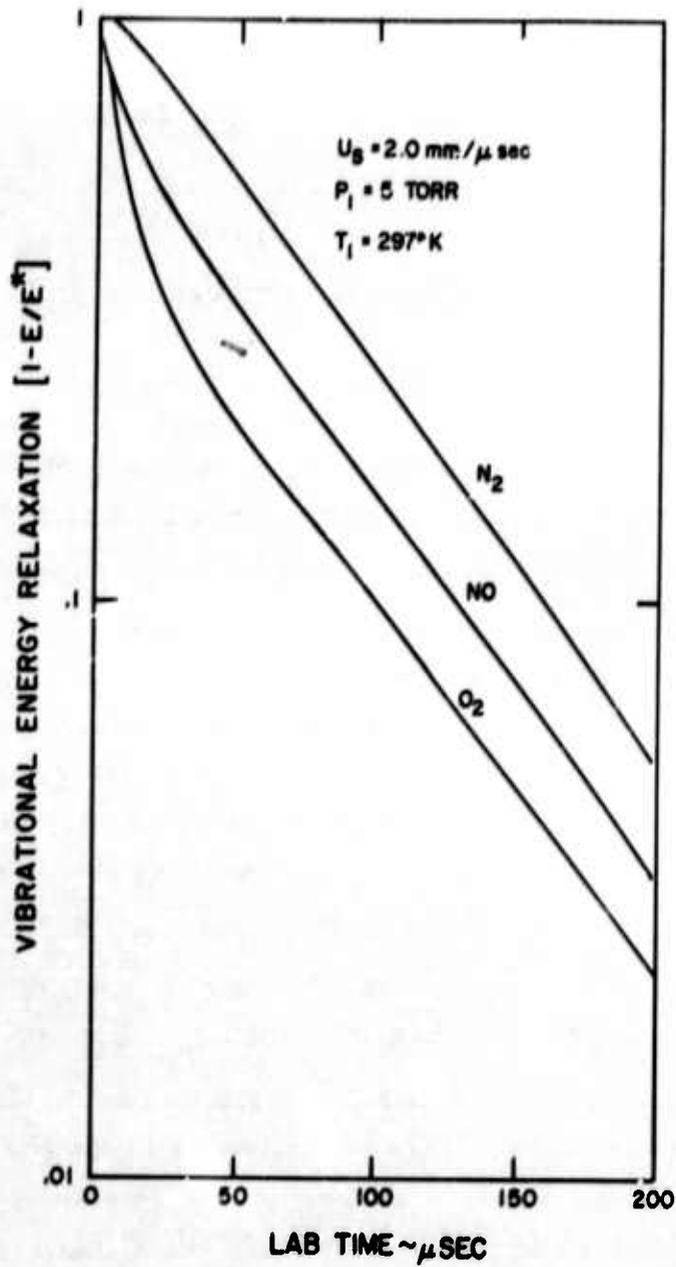


Fig. A-2 The fraction of energy in vibration as a function of time.

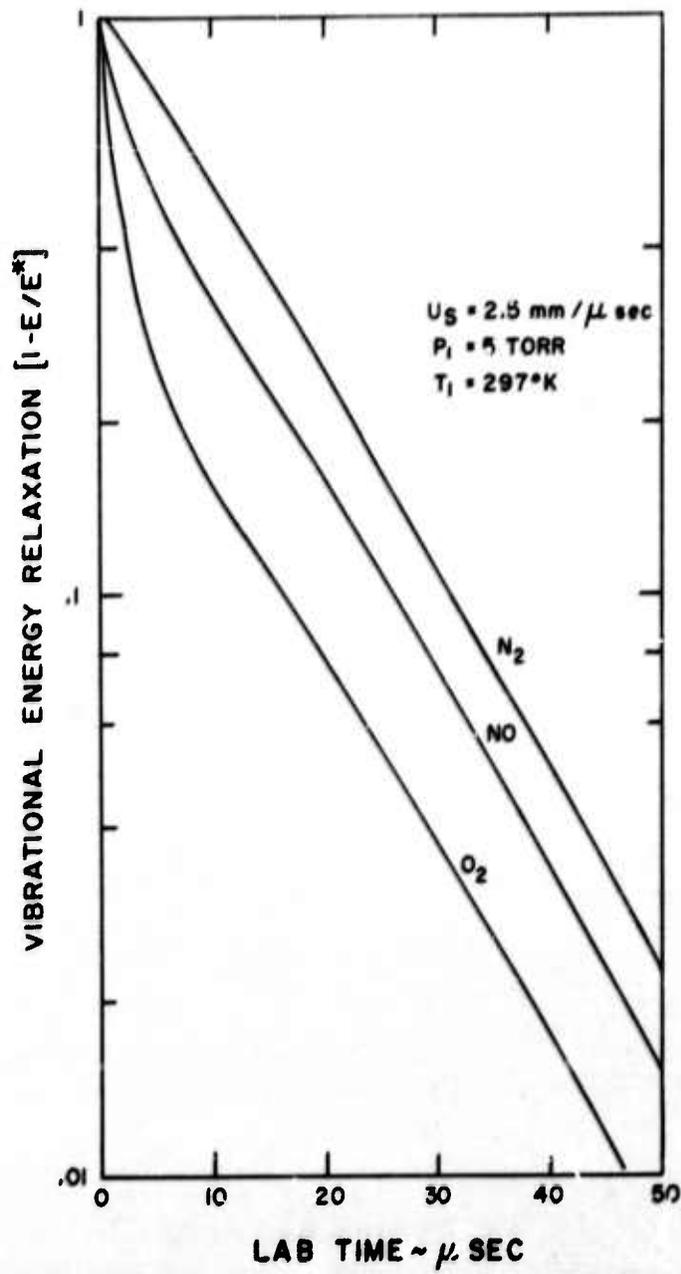


Fig. A-3 The fraction of energy in vibration as a function of time.

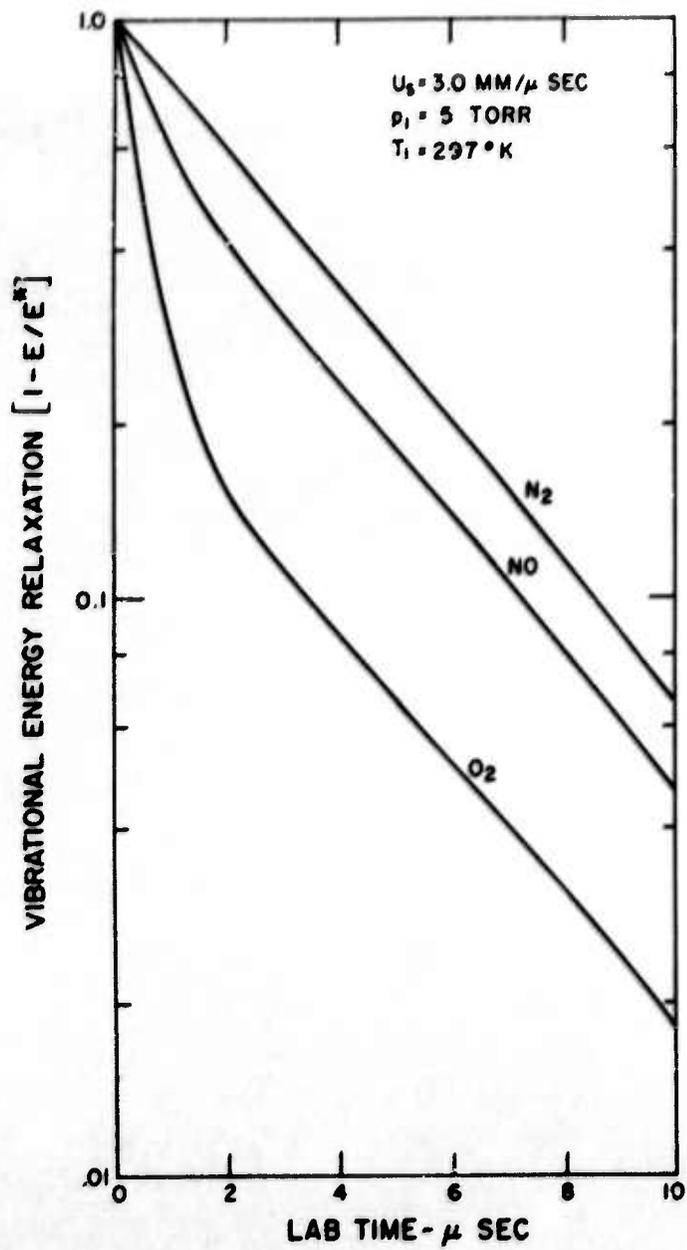


Fig. A-4 The fraction of energy in vibration as a function of time.

APPENDIX B
CALIBRATION OF INFRARED SYSTEM

There are two parts to this appendix. First, the mathematics is developed for calibrating the infrared system. These formulas are used in Section III to determine the NO fundamental band strength. Second, we show that the weak line approximation is valid for the analysis of the shock tube data.

The infrared system calibration is determined from the molecular constants for the 5.3 micron NO fundamental vibration-rotation band. In the general case, the radiation depends upon the gas composition, temperature, optical path, and density. See, for example, the treatments of Breen,⁴⁰ and Carpenter and Franzosa.⁴¹ In this experiment, the NO concentrations and partial pressures are low enough so that the effects of self-absorption are not important. We shall show at the end of this appendix that the gas is optically thin; thus, the intensity is simply the sum of the emission from each molecule.

The notation of Herzberg¹⁵ is used. The NO ground electronic state is a $^2\Pi_{3/2, 1/2}$ doublet system with three branches of two closely spaced lines. For our purposes, this system can be approximated with the formulas for the symmetric top with $\Lambda = 1$. The emission lines in the three branches of the fundamental band are produced by the vibrational transitions v' to $v'' = (v' - 1)$ and the rotation transitions

$$\text{P branch: } J' \text{ to } J'' = J' + 1 \qquad J' = 1, 2, 3, \dots \qquad (\text{B-1a})$$

$$\text{Q branch: } J' \text{ to } J'' = J' \qquad J' = 1, 2, 3, \dots \qquad (\text{B-1b})$$

$$\text{R branch: } J' \text{ to } J'' = J' - 1 \qquad J' = 2, 3, 4, \dots \qquad (\text{B-1c})$$

v and J are the quantum numbers for the vibration and rotation levels, respectively. The prime and double prime superscripts correspond to the upper and lower states in the transition. The wave numbers of the rotation lines for the P, Q and R branches are

$$\nu_P = \nu_{v'} - 2(J'+1)B_e - a_e [(J'+1)^2 - 2(J'+1)v' - 1] \quad J' = 1, 2, 3, \dots \quad (\text{B-2a})$$

$$\nu_Q = \nu_{v'} - a_e (J'^2 + J' - 1) \quad J' = 1, 2, 3, \dots \quad (\text{B-2b})$$

$$\nu_R = \nu_{v'} + 2J' B_e - a_e [J'^2 + 2J'v' - 1] \quad J' = 2, 3, 4, \dots \quad (\text{B-2c})$$

The subscripts P, Q and R indicate the branches. At the band center the wave number $\nu_{v'}$ with upper level v' is

$$\nu_{v'} = \omega_e - 2v' \omega_e x_e + 3.25 v'^2 \omega_e y_e = [1904.03 - 27.9 v' - 0.0039 v'^2] \text{ cm}^{-1} \quad (\text{B-3})$$

B_e and a_e are parameters pertaining to the rotation constants. For NO, $B_e = 1.7046 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ and $a_e = 0.0178 \text{ cm}^{-1}$. Note that the P and R branches form a progression of almost equally spaced lines, except for three missing lines at the center: the $J' = 0$ line in the P branch and the $J' = 0$ and 1 lines in the R branch. The Q branch with closely spaced lines is at the center of the band. There is an R branch band head for each value of v' . For $v' = 1$, the band head occurs at 2022 cm^{-1} for $J' = 84$. The P branch does not have a band head and expands to smaller wave numbers.

The intensities of the rotation lines are

$$I_P = \frac{c_{em} \nu_P^4}{Q_v Q_r} \left(\frac{J'^2 + 2J'}{J'+1} \right) e^{-hc [J'^2 + J' - 1] [B_e - a_e (v' + \frac{1}{2})] / kT} e^{-hc G_{v'} / kT} \quad (\text{B-4a})$$

$$I_Q = \frac{c_{em} \nu_Q^4}{Q_v Q_r} \left(\frac{2J'+1}{J'(J'+1)} \right) e^{-hc [J'^2 + J' - 1] [B_e - a_e (v' + \frac{1}{2})] / kT} e^{-hc G_{v'} / kT} \quad (\text{B-4b})$$

$$I_R = \frac{c_{em} \nu_R^4}{Q_v Q_r} \left(\frac{J'^2 - 1}{J'} \right) e^{-hc [J'^2 + J' - 1] [B_e - a_e (v' + \frac{1}{2})] / kT} e^{-hc G_{v'} / kT} \quad (\text{B-4c})$$

G_v is the term difference (in wave numbers) between the v^{th} vibration level and the ground level, $v = 0$,

$$G_v = v[\omega_e - (v+1)\omega_e x_e + (v^2 + 1.5v + 0.75)\omega_e y_e] \quad (\text{B-5})$$

Note $G_{v=1} = \nu_1$, compare Eq. (B-3) and (B-5). Q_v and Q_r are the partition functions for vibration and rotation. Q_r is a sum over the P, Q and R branches of the factors which contain J' .

$$Q_r = \sum_{J'=1}^{\infty} \left[\frac{J'^2 + 2J'}{J'+1} + \frac{2J'+1}{J'(J'+1)} + \frac{J'^2-1}{J'} \right] e^{-hc [J'^2 + J' - 1] [B_e - a_e (v' + \frac{1}{2})] / kT} \quad (B-6)$$

$$\approx \frac{kT}{hc [B_e - a_e (v' + \frac{1}{2})]}$$

Q_v is defined

$$Q_v = \sum_{v=0}^s e^{-hcG_v/kT} \approx (1 - e^{-hc\nu_1/kT})^{-1} \quad (B-7)$$

Breen⁴⁰ computed the matrix elements for the anharmonic potential of NO and finds that c_{em} is not constant but has a slight variation with v' . His result, for the fundamental band, changes c_{em} in Eq. (B-4) to

$$c_{em}^* (\nu_{v'=1} / \nu_{v'})^2 = c_{em}^* / [1 - 0.015(v'-1)]^2 \quad (B-8)$$

where c_{em}^* is the value of c_{em} for $v'=1$. This corrected matrix element was not used in our calculation as it has a negligible effect. At a temperature of 6000°K, it would increase the total emission by about 9%. At lower temperatures, the increase is even smaller.

Except for c_{em}^* , numerical values of all the quantities in Eq. (B-4) are now specified. Our experimental data will be used to determine c_{em}^* . We will use the following procedure.

In this experiment, we used broad band infrared (InSb and Ge: Au) detectors with interference filters to isolate the NO band, (see Fig. 5). Let $\tau(\nu)$ be the transmission of the filter, and $\sigma(\nu)$ the response of the detector; both quantities are functions of wave number ν . The signal S observed by the detector is determined by the emission of the gas folded into the response of the detector and the filter transmission:

$$S = \ell \Omega \sum_{v'=1} \sum_{J'=1} [\sigma I_P + \sigma I_Q + \sigma I_R] \quad (B-9)$$

Ω is the solid angle of the gas as seen by the detector. Inserting the values of I_P , I_Q and I_R from Eq. (B-4) into (B-9), one obtains

$$S = \Omega_o X_o N l c_{em} \left\{ \sum_{v'=1} \sum_{J'=1} \frac{\sigma \tau \nu^{J'}}{\Omega_o \tau \nu} \left[\frac{\nu_Q^{4(2J'+1)+\nu_P^{4J'^2(J'+2)+\nu_R^{4(J'+1)^2(J'-1)}}}{(J'+1)J'} \right] \right. \\ \left. \cdot e^{-hc[J'^2+J'-1][G_{v'}+B_e - a_e(v'+\frac{1}{2})]/kT} \right\} \quad (B-10)$$

Ω_o is the solid angle of the optical system using the full 8-inch diameter mirror. X_o is the fraction of the mirror uncovered; that is, $\Omega = \Omega_o X_o$ is the solid angle actually used. N is the NO number density, and $l = 3.81$ cm is the diameter of the shock tube. The temperature dependence of the calibration shown in Fig. 7 was computed from the bracketed portion of Eq. (B-10); the height of the curve was adjusted for the best fit to the data. The dependence of σ and τ on wave number is presented in Fig. 5.

The infrared system was also calibrated with a black body source at 500°C , for which the observed signal S_B was

$$S_B = X \Omega_o \int_0^\infty \sigma \tau I_B d\nu \quad (B-11)$$

I_B is the black body emission. X was a variable calibrated attenuator (aperture stop over mirror) that was adjusted to obtain the same signal range as observed in the shock tube runs. Combining the black body calibration data with the measured NO emission, one can determine the emission constant, c_{em} . Eliminating Ω_o between Eqs. (B-10) and (B-11), c_{em} becomes

$$c_{em} = \left(\frac{N_o}{N_l} \right) \left(\frac{S}{S_B} \right) \left(\frac{X}{X_o} \right) \frac{\int_0^\infty \sigma \tau I_B d\nu}{\left\{ \sum_{v'} \sum_{J'} \dots \right\}} \quad (B-12)$$

The brackets indicate the same summation given in Eq. (B-10). By using the ratio of the signals S to S_B , the calibration becomes independent of the solid angle Ω_o , and dependent on only the spectral variation but not the absolute magnitude of σ and τ . The function $\int_0^\infty \sigma \tau I_B d\nu \left\{ \sum_{v'} \sum_{J'} \dots \right\}$ is

shown as a function of the NO temperature in Fig. B-1. A numerical value for c_{em} is determined from the experimental data in Section III with the use of Eq. (B-12).

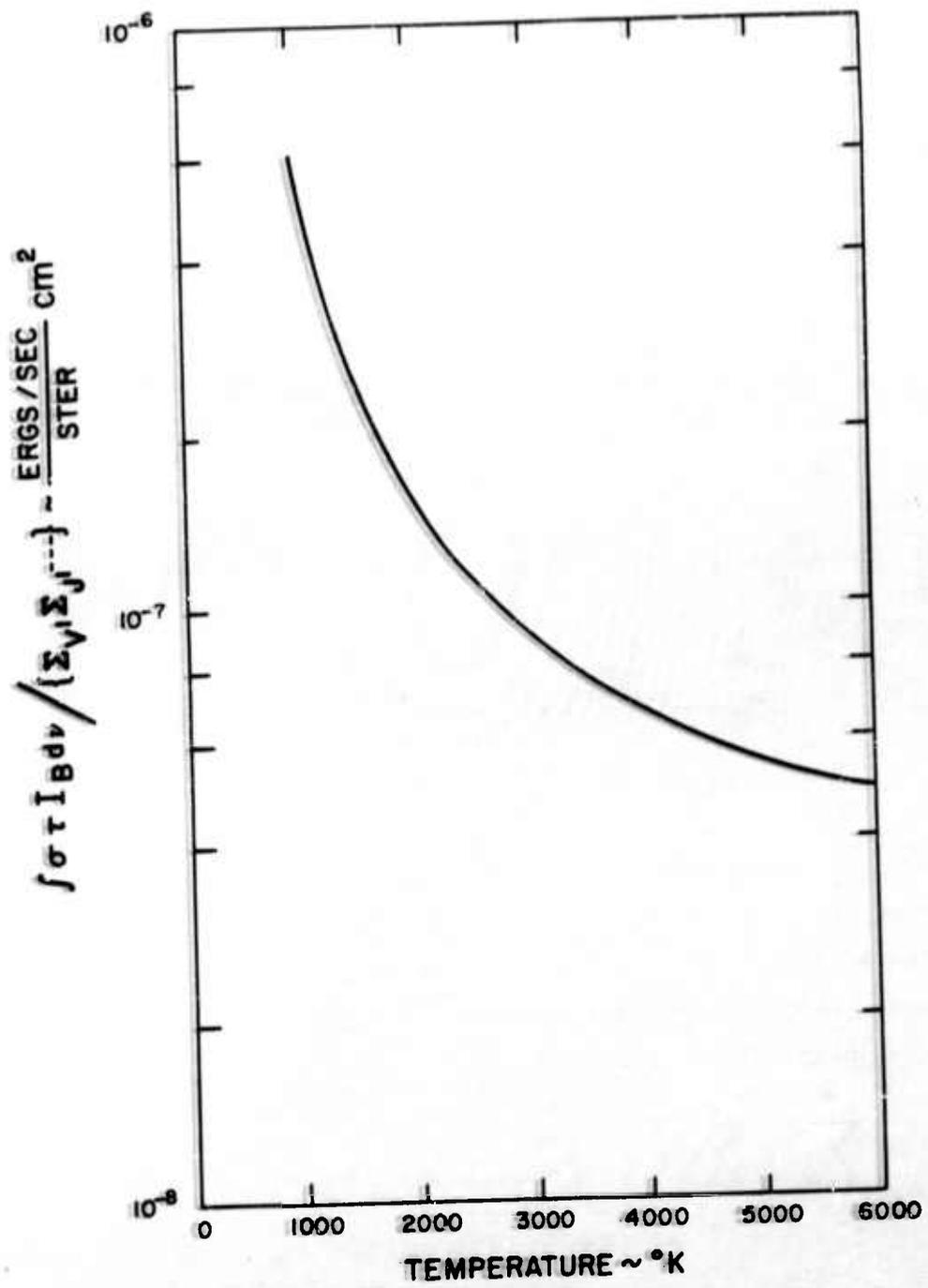


Fig. B-1 The black body function divided by the sum of the contributions of the individual lines as a function of NO temperature.

Validity of Weak Line Approximation

We will prove that the gas is optically thin over our experimental conditions by showing that the gas emissivity at the center of each spectral line is much less than unity. The emissivity, ϵ , of a layer of radiating gas can be written

$$\epsilon = 1 - \exp(-a N l \mu)(1 - \exp[-hc\nu/kT]) \quad (\text{B-13})$$

μ is the absorption coefficient per particle and Nl is the thickness of the gas sample in particles per cm^2 ; a is a geometric coefficient of the order of 1. The factor $(1 - \exp hc\nu/kT)$ varies between .4 and .9 for our experimental conditions. For $\epsilon \ll 1$, Eq. (B-13) reduces to

$$\epsilon \approx Nl \mu \quad (\text{B-14})$$

Within the accuracy of this derivation, the factor $a(1 - \exp[hc\nu/kT])$ is the order of unity and has been dropped. The emissivity for the absorbing state (ν'' , J'') is

$$\epsilon = Nl \mu_{(\nu'', J'')} = \frac{1}{2} l \psi P(\nu''+1)(273^\circ\text{K}/T) C_{\text{abs}} b_o \nu_R \left[\frac{(J''^2 + 2J'')}{J''+1} \right] \frac{-(G_{\nu''} + [B_e - a_e(\nu'' + \frac{1}{2})][J''^2 + J'' - 1])hc\nu/kT}{Q_r Q_v} \quad (\text{B-15})$$

The factor $\frac{1}{2}$ is due to the doublet system. An R branch line is used as it has the maximum absorption. P is the pressure; ψP is the partial pressure of NO; b_o is the line width factor. C_{abs} is determined from the measured integral absorption over the band.

$$\sum_{\nu''=0}^{\infty} \sum_{J=1}^{\infty} \int_{\text{band}} \mu_{\nu'', J''} d\nu \approx C_{\text{abs}} \nu_1 = 124 \text{ atm}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2} \quad (\text{B-16})$$

Using $\nu_1 = 1876 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, the band center wave number, C_{abs} becomes

$$C_{\text{abs}} = \frac{124}{(1876)} = 0.066 \text{ atm}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1} \quad (\text{B-17})$$

Let $b(\nu)$ be the spectral shape of the line. In the general case, where there is both collision and Doppler broadening, the line shape becomes

$$b(\nu) = \frac{\sqrt{\ell n_2}}{\pi^{3/2}} \left(\frac{\alpha}{\beta}\right) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\exp[-(4 \ell n_2)(\nu' - \nu_R)^2 / \beta^2]}{(\alpha/2)^2 + (\nu - \nu')^2} d\nu' \quad (\text{B-18})$$

α and β are the full widths of the line at half amplitude for collision and Doppler broadening, respectively. Equation (B-18) is normalized for each line so that $b(\nu) d\nu = 1$. At the center of the line, say b_0 , where the absorption is maximum, Eq. (B-18) becomes⁴²

$$b_0 \equiv b(\nu = \nu_R) = \sqrt{\frac{\ell n_2}{\pi}} \left(\frac{1}{\beta}\right) \exp\left[\left(\frac{\alpha}{\beta}\right) (\ell n_2)\right] \operatorname{erfc}\left[\frac{\alpha}{\beta} \sqrt{\ell n_2}\right] \quad (\text{B-19})$$

The collision broadened line width at standard temperature and density, α_0 , was measured for collisions with Ar; $\alpha_0 = 0.06 \text{ cm}^{-1}$. We assume the same value of α_0 for collisions with O_2 and N_2 . The dependence of α on temperature and total pressure is

$$\alpha = \frac{P}{P_0} \alpha_0 \sqrt{\frac{T_0}{T}} \quad (\text{B-20})$$

where $T_0 = 273^\circ\text{K}$ and $P_0 = 1$ atmosphere pressure. The Doppler half width is

$$\beta = (.0040 \text{ cm}^{-1}) (\nu_R/\nu_1) \sqrt{T/T_0} \quad (\text{B-21})$$

For our experimental conditions, the line width is less than 0.025 cm^{-1} . This should be compared to the average spacing between lines of 3.4 cm^{-1} . Thus, the spacing is 100 times the line widths; the overlap of lines is negligible. Also negligible is the overlapping of lines of the P and R progressions for different vibration levels, ν'' .

By optimizing Eq. (B-15), one can show that the ϵ has the maximum value for the R branch line with $\nu'' = 0$ and $J'' = Q_r/2$. Using these values of J'' and ν'' , and combining Eqs. (B-16) and (B-15), one obtains the desired form for the maximum emissivity.

$$\epsilon = 62 \ell b_0 \left(\frac{P\Psi}{P_0}\right) \left(\frac{T_0}{T}\right) \left(\frac{hc B_e}{kT}\right)^{1/2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2e}} (1 - e^{-hc\nu_1/kT}) \quad (\text{B-22})$$

When evaluating Eqs. (B-19) and (B-22) over the experimental conditions shown in Figs. 1, 2 and 3, it is found that $\epsilon < 0.1$. Thus, the gas is optically thin at the center of each line.

APPENDIX C

EFFECTS OF BOUNDARY LAYER GROWTH ON SHOCK TUBE WALLS

Many investigations of boundary layer growth on shock tube walls have been reported. These have mainly been concerned with the effect of the boundary layer on shock tube test times and on the variation of equilibrium conditions along the shock tube axis caused by the boundary layer growth. Mirels⁴³ discussed these effects in terms of a "limiting separation distance," first observed by Duff.⁴⁴ This concept is depicted in Fig. C-1, taken from Ref. 43. A normal shock wave with velocity U_s is advancing into stationary gas; the profiles in the figure show velocities relative to the shock front, and in this coordinate system the shock tube walls are moving with the shock velocity. Ahead of the shock the relative velocity of the gas is supersonic, while immediately behind the shock the velocity, u_{e0} , is given by $\rho_{e0} u_{e0} = \rho_1 U_s$. As the boundary layer develops, u_e and ρ_e change, such that the integral of ρu over the entire shock tube area is conserved. However, in this coordinate system the boundary layer is a region in which $\rho > \rho_e$ and $u > u_e$, corresponding to a negative displacement thickness. Thus the gas which has not yet entered the boundary layer behaves as if it were in a divergent channel, resulting in a decrease of u_e with increasing distance behind the shock, since u_{e0} is necessarily subsonic. Ultimately the boundary layer grows such that the integral of ρu across the boundary layer area is equal to the integral of $\rho_{e0} u_{e0}$ across the entire tube area. At this point, a distance x_ℓ behind the shock wave, the central test gas is stagnated.

In terms of the operation of a shock tube, the phenomena may be described as follows: after rupture of the diaphragm and establishment of a plane shock wave, the distance between the shock and the contact surface initially grows with time. Once this distance has reached the limiting separation distance x_ℓ , the rate of flow of cold gas through the shock wave is exactly balanced by the rate of outflow through the boundary layer at $x = x_\ell$, and no further increase of length of the "test slug" occurs. When a shock tube of conventional length is operated at sufficiently high

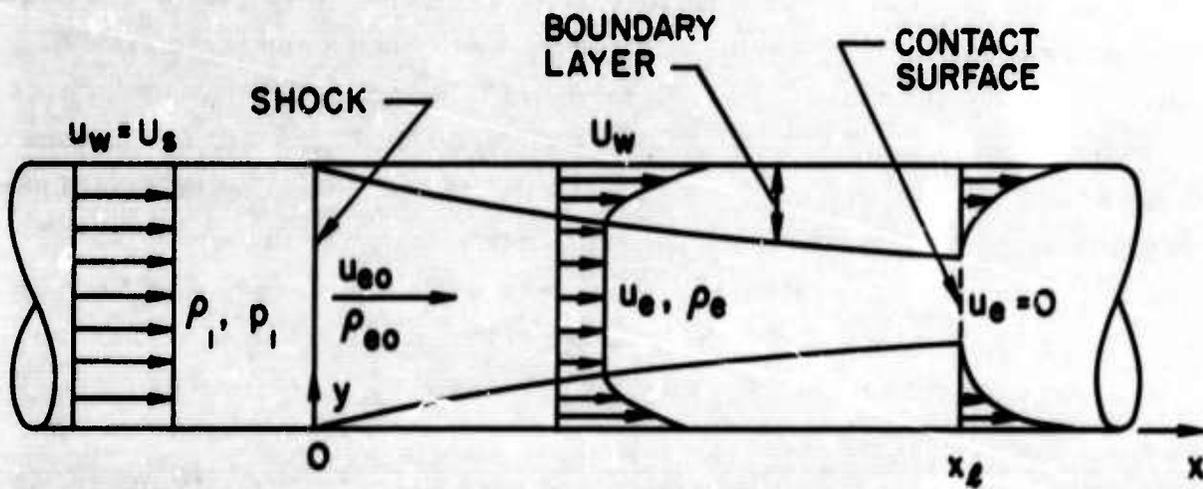


Fig. C-1 A schematic representation of the quantities used in calculating the effects of the side wall boundary layer.

pressure this maximum length of test slug is not achieved, and the variation of u_e with distance behind the shock may be negligible during the experimental test time. However, for many chemical kinetics experiments the shock tube initial pressure must be kept low in order to obtain a finite relaxation zone. Under such conditions the experimental observations may continue over almost the entire available test time, and significant errors may then be incurred in the data analysis if the variation of u_e is neglected.

The variation of u_e has a two-fold effect on the interpretation of shock tube kinetics data. In the first place the deceleration of the subsonic flow relative to the shock wave increases the static enthalpy of the test gas, and this can have a marked effect on the reaction rates of reactions with steep temperature dependence. Secondly, the deceleration results in increased flow time for a given gas sample as it flows from the shock wave to the point of observation. The distance from the shock to the point of observation is

$$x = \int u_e dt_P ,$$

where t_P is the particle time measured from the shock front. In the laboratory coordinate system, the time t_L is measured from the arrival of the shock at the observation station, so that

$$t_L = x/U_s = \int (u_e/U_s) dt_P .$$

In the absence of boundary layer effects, the ratio $u_e/U_s = \rho_1/\rho_e$, and is affected only by changes in ρ_e as chemical reactions proceed, but when u_e can decrease towards zero it is clear that dt_P/dt_L can become very large as x approaches the value x_l .

In the present study of NO formation in shock heated air it was apparent that some of the data obtained at low initial pressures were affected by the boundary layer growth. In comparing the data with theoretical calculations, it was thus necessary to include the effective area variation of the channel in which the reacting gas flows after passage through the shock wave. In the conventional constant area 1-dimensional

normal shock chemistry calculation it is usual⁹ to integrate the various chemical rate equations subject to constraints imposed by the shock conservation equations, which can be written in the form

$$p_e = p_1 + \rho_1 U_s^2 (1 - \rho_1 / \rho_e)$$

$$\text{and } h_e = h_1 + \frac{1}{2} U_s^2 \left\{ 1 - (\rho_1 / \rho_e)^2 \right\}$$

since $\rho_e u_e = \rho_1 U_s$.

In the present case, it was more expedient to modify a stream-tube program⁴⁵ to permit integration of the chemical rate equations subject to constraints imposed by a specified variation of area with distance.

Thus the governing equations become

$$h_e + \frac{1}{2} u_e^2 = h_1 + \frac{1}{2} U_s^2 \quad (\text{C-1})$$

$$\rho_e u_e A = \rho_1 U_s A_0 \quad (\text{C-2})$$

$$\text{and } \frac{dp_e}{dt_P} = -\rho_e u_e \frac{du_e}{dt_P}, \quad (\text{C-3})$$

$$\text{with } p_e = z_e \rho_e RT_e \quad (\text{C-4})$$

Equations C-1, C-2 and C-4 can be written in the form

$$\frac{dh_e}{dt_P} = -u_e \frac{du_e}{dt_P} \quad (\text{C-5})$$

$$\frac{1}{\rho_e} \frac{d\rho_e}{dt_P} + \frac{1}{u_e} \frac{du_e}{dt_P} + \frac{1}{A} \frac{dA}{dt_P} = 0 \quad (\text{C-6})$$

$$\text{and } \frac{1}{p_e} \frac{dp_e}{dt_P} = \frac{1}{z_e} \frac{dz_e}{dt_P} + \frac{1}{\rho_e} \frac{d\rho_e}{dt_P} + \frac{1}{T_e} \frac{dT_e}{dt_P}. \quad (\text{C-7})$$

Eliminating the derivatives of u_e , p_e and ρ_e from Eqs. C-3, C-5, C-6 and C-7, we obtain

$$\frac{dh_e}{dt_P} \left\{ \frac{1}{u_e^2} \frac{\rho_e}{p_e} \right\} + \frac{1}{z_e} \frac{dz_e}{dt_P} + \frac{1}{T_e} \frac{dT_e}{dt_P} - \frac{1}{A} \frac{dA}{dt_P} = 0 \quad (C-8)$$

Now for any given set of reactions and reaction rates the enthalpy derivative can be expressed in the form $\frac{dh_e}{dt_P} = B_1 + B_2 \frac{dT_e}{dt_P}$, where the coefficients B_1 and B_2 involve derivatives of species concentrations $\frac{dX_i}{dt_P}$ and of vibrational temperature $\frac{dT_{vi}}{dt_P}$, and these are all functions of local gas properties only. The value of $\frac{dz_e}{dt_P} = \sum \frac{dX_i}{dt_P}$ is also a function of local gas properties only.

Consequently, Eq. (8) provides a direct specification $\frac{dT_e}{dt_P}$ provided $\frac{dA}{dt_P}$ is known. Values of the derivatives of h_e , u_e , p_e and ρ_e then follow directly from the above equations.

The Avco Everett Research Laboratory stream-tube program was modified along the lines indicated above, with the area variation of the diverging channel specified with the aid of Mirels' work. For a laminar boundary layer and a given value of limiting separation distance x_l , the area variation experienced by the shocked gas is given by

$$A_o/A = (\rho_e u_e)/(\rho_1 U_s) = 1 - (x/x_l)^n, \text{ with } n = 0.5. \quad (C-9)$$

The same expression with $n = 0.8$ is applicable for a turbulent boundary layer provided an appropriate value of x_l is used.

Only one difficulty remains in the application of this model for interpretation of the present experiments. It may be noted that

$$\frac{1}{A} \frac{dA}{dt_P} = \frac{u_e}{A} \frac{dA}{dx} = \frac{A}{A_o} \frac{n u_e}{x_l} \left(\frac{x}{x_l} \right)^{n-1}$$

tends to a value of infinity when x approaches zero. The resulting computational problems can be circumvented by assuming that in the region $0 < x < x_m$ the area variation is linear, with $A/A_o = 1 + Kx$, where

K is determined from $\{1 + Kx_m\}^{-1} = 1 - (x_m/x_l)^n$. In choosing an appropriate value of x_m , some recourse may be made to the physical situation in the experiment. The theoretical analysis of the boundary layer growth assumes that this growth commences immediately behind a plane shock wave of infinitesimal thickness, whereas the experiment involves a slightly curved shock wave for which the translational/rotational relaxation thickness is approximately four times the mean free path in the unshocked gas.

For the 1.5 inch diameter shock tube the translational/rotational relaxation thickness is $\delta_s \approx 0.02/p_1$ cm, with p_1 in torr. For the curvature, the effective thickness is $\delta_c \approx 0.1/\sqrt{p_1}$ cm, again with p_1 in torr. It seems physically reasonable to choose x_m of the same order of magnitude as either of these experimental quantities, and the present calculations use a geometric mean,

$$x_m = \sqrt{\delta_c \delta_s} \approx .045/p_1^{0.75} \text{ cm.}$$

Check calculations were made to ensure that the results were in no way sensitive to this choice.

Several kinetics calculations were made for comparison with the data of the present experiments, using Eqs. (C-8) and (C-9). The values of x_l used are shown as functions of shock speed in Fig. C-2. The solid curves A and B are obtained from Mirels' theory⁴³ for a shock tube of 1.5 inches diameter with a laminar boundary layer, for initial pressures of 1 torr and 5 torr respectively. At a given shock speed the theoretical value of x_l scales linearly with p_1 . However, at an observation station 18 feet from the shock tube diaphragm, (as in the present experiments) the theoretical length of the "test slug" would be approximately 40% of x_l for $p_1 = 5$ torr, and almost 100% of x_l for $p_1 = 1$ torr. The prediction for the 1 torr case is in quite good agreement with the experimental test times, which are shown (converted into test lengths) as the curve C of Fig. C-2. The effect of using curve A or curve C of Fig. C-2 in the calculations is shown in Fig. C-3. For $p_1 = 5$ torr, the predictions using a laminar and a turbulent boundary layer were not in good agreement with the experimental results.

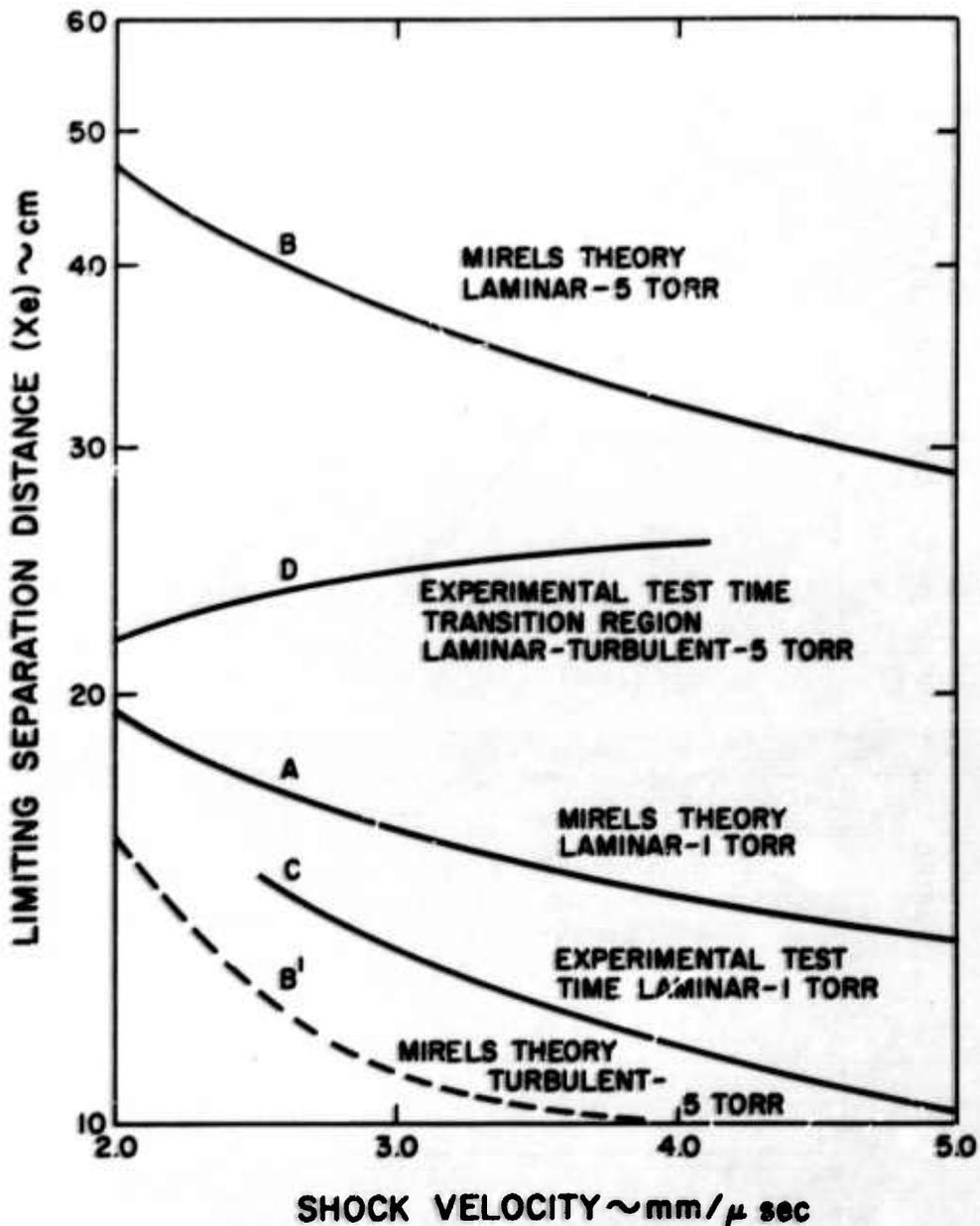


Fig. C-2 The limiting separation distance, experimental and theoretically as a function of shock.

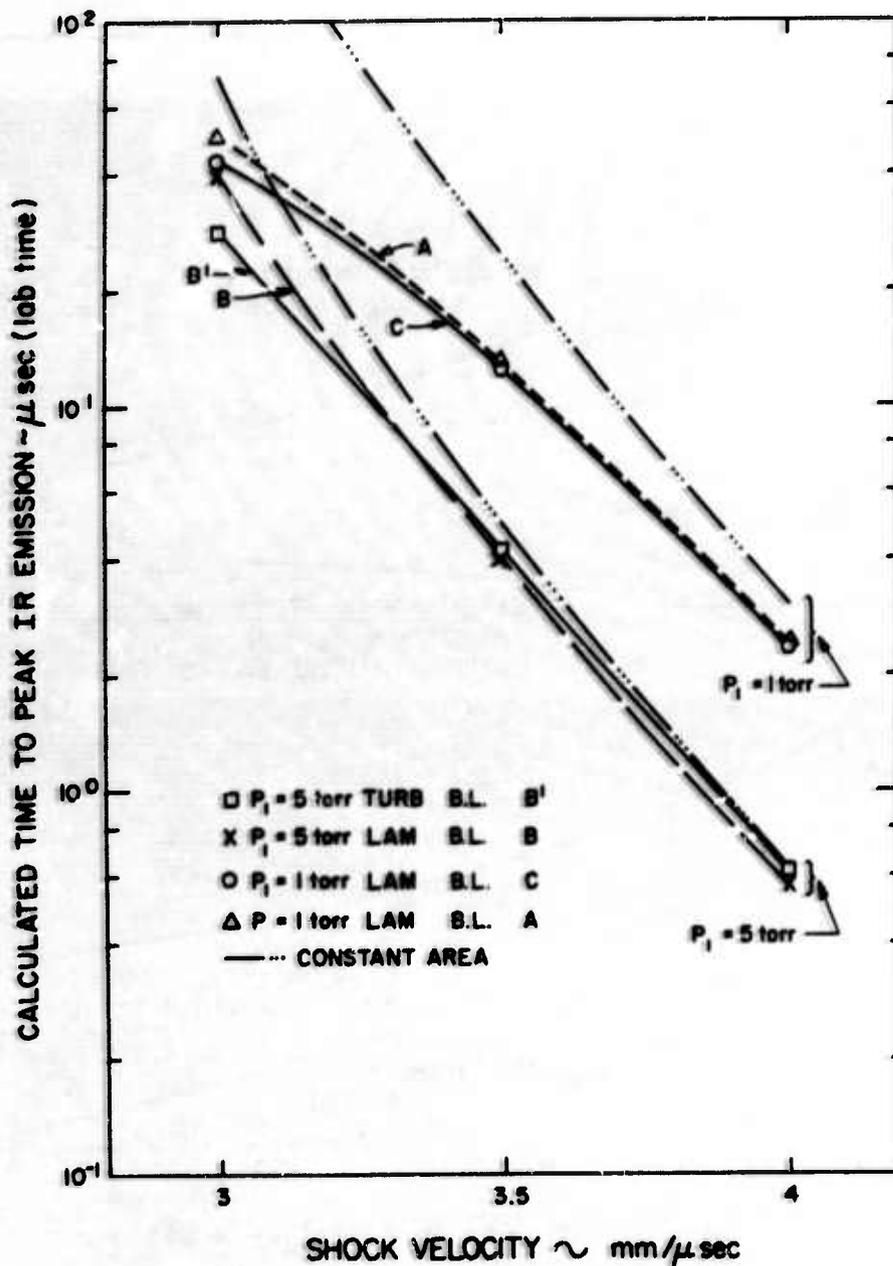


Fig. C-3 A comparison of calculating the times to peak using various limiting separation distances as a function of shock velocity. The times to peak, using no boundary layer correction, is also shown.

Side wall heat transfer gauge measurements indicated that the boundary layer might be in a transition mode. The experimental test time for $p_1 = 5$ torr is shown as curve D on Fig. C-2. One should note that at the lower shock velocities the test time agrees more closely with the turbulent boundary layer predictions,⁴⁶ Fig. C-2, curve B', but at higher shock velocities the data are in better agreement with the laminar prediction,⁴³ curve B. The choice of an appropriate value of x_l for $p_1 = 5$ torr is very difficult. Calculations were made using the laminar and turbulent predictions. The true value of x_l lies between these extremes, with the initial variation of area corresponding to a laminar boundary layer growth followed by a transition to a turbulent boundary layer at some value of $x < x_l$. The effect of using either the laminar or turbulent boundary layer on the calculations is shown in Fig. C-3 by the curves labeled B and B'.

All the calculations discussed below use the rate constants shown in Table I, except for modification of the catalytic efficiencies of O_2 and O in dissociating O_2 ⁴⁷ and deletion of the bimolecular reaction $N_2 + O_2 \rightarrow 2NO$.

Figure C-3 shows the results of several calculations of time to peak infrared emission from the NO formed behind the normal shock wave in the present experiments. The calculations are for $p_1 = 1$ torr and 5 torr. The dotted-dashed curves are for one-dimensional constant area flow, with no boundary layer correction. These two curves are separated by a factor of 5 over the entire range plotted, since binary reactions predominate (at the low speed end of the $p_1 = 5$ torr curve the 3 body reactions are just becoming significant near the time of peak infrared emission) in determining the gas behavior, resulting in flow times which scale inversely with p_1 for a given shock speed. However, when area variation is introduced into Eq. C-8, it is clear that this binary scaling will be invalidated unless $\frac{1}{A} \frac{dA}{dt_P}$ scales inversely with p_1 ; i. e., unless $x_l \propto p_1^{-1}$. For the calculations with area variation due to boundary layer growth shown in Figs. 20-22 (solid and dashed curves), the values of x_l used do not satisfy this scaling relationship. The solid curves obtained show a trend which is consistent with the experimental data, and give reasonable agreement with those data for times to a fraction of the peak radiation less than 15 microseconds. Unfortunately, most of the data points yielding times in excess of 15 microseconds are influenced to some extent by shock speed attenuation, so that the boundary layer growth effects alone cannot provide adequate correction over the entire shock velocity range.

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